Particle Swarm Optimization for Performance Management in Multi-cluster IoT Edge Architectures

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Abstract: Edge computing extends cloud computing capabilities to the edge of the network, allowing for instance Internet-of-Things (IoT) applications to process computation more locally and thus more efficiently. We aim to minimize latency and delay in edge architectures. We focus on an advanced architectural setting that takes communication and processing delays into account in addition to an actual request execution time in a performance engineering scenario. Our architecture is based on multi-cluster edge layer with local independent edge node clusters. We argue that particle swarm optimisation as a bio-inspired optimisation approach is an ideal candidate for distributed load processing in semi-autonomous edge clusters for IoT management. By designing a controller and using a particle swarm optimization algorithm, we can demonstrate that processing and propagation delay and the end-to-end latency (i.e., total response time) can be optimized.

1 INTRODUCTION

Edge computing provides an intermediate layer for computation and storage at the 'edge' of the network, often between Internet-of-Things devices and centralized data center clouds (Mahmud et al., 2019; Pahl et al., 2018). Edge computing promises better performance through lower latency since computation is moved closer to application. Reducing data transfer time by avoiding the transfer of large volumes of data to remote clouds has also the effect of reducing security risks. Localization is here the key principle.

Performance and load management in edge architectures has been addressed in the past (Baktyan and Zahary, 2018; Minh et al., 2019), but often the architectures referred to do not reflect the often geographically distributed nature of edge computing. We expand here on works like (Gand et al., 2020; Tata et al., 2017) that have considered single autonomous clusters only. We propose here a solution for a multi-cluster solution, where each cluster operates semi-autonomously, only being coordinated by an orchestrator that manages load distribution. Another direction that we add is a realistic reflection of performance concerns. In our performance model, we consider delays caused by communication and queuing (propagation delays) as well as processing delays of controllers and edge execution nodes into a comprehensive end-to-end latency concept that realizes the response time from the requestor’s perspective.

Thus, our approach extends the state-of-the-art by combining an end-to-end latency optimization framework with a multi-cluster edge architecture. We propose Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) for the optimization here. PSO is a bio-inspired evolutionary optimization method (Saboori et al., 2008) to coordinate between autonomous entities such as edge clusters in our case. PSO distinguishes personal (here local cluster) best fitness and global (here cross-cluster) best fitness in the allocation of load to clusters and their nodes – which we use to optimize latency. Our orchestrator takes local cluster computation, but also centralized cloud processing as options on board. We demonstrate the effectiveness of our performance optimization by experimentally comparing it with other common load distribution strategies.

2 RELATED WORK

(Gu et al., 2017) have studied the link between the distribution of work and virtual machine assignment in cyber-physical systems based on edge computing principles. They looked at minimizing the final cost and satisfying service quality requirements. Process-
ing resources at the edge of the network is introduced as a solution. The paper did not, however, refer to realistic IoT and cloud scenarios. In (Meng et al., 2017), energy-delay computing is addressed in a workload allocation context. Given the importance of cost and energy in delay-sensitive interactions for requesting and providing processing resources, an optimal strategy for delay-sensitive interactions is presented. The scheme seeks to achieve an energy-delay compromise at the edge of the network. The authors formalize task allocation in a cloud-edge setting, but only used simple models to formulate energy loss and delay.

(Sarkar et al., 2018) also focuses on modeling delay, energy loss and cost. Our aim is to use an evolutionary algorithm for edge orchestration and to obtain the optimal response times. In (Wang et al., 2018), a PSO and game theoretic based task allocation for MEC was designed. First, to ensure the closeness of nodes in each group, the maximizing minimum distance clustering algorithm was designed. Then, they proposed a multi-task assignment model based on Nash equilibrium and then they used the PSO to find the Nash equilibrium point, minimizing the all tasks execution time and saving the energy cost and find the tasks that need to be offloaded to the group. We use the priority setting algorithm to sort tasks and then upload tasks to the group in a certain order, thereby confirming the order of tasks uploaded on the device, which jointly considers the calculation time in base station and mobile device and transmission time.

In (Manasrah and Ali, 2018) a Hybrid GA-PSO Algorithm in Cloud Computing is used to allocate tasks to the resources efficiently. The Hybrid GA-PSO algorithm aims to reduce the makespan and the cost and balance the load of the dependent tasks over the heterogeneous resources in cloud computing environments. We have used a similar approach with only PSO in the edge layer. In (Rolim et al., 2010), the performance management solution is based on a wireless sensor network. The purpose of the proposed method is ultimately to identify the delays-sensitive requests and take action when faced with them. Different kinds of genetic algorithm have been used for different scheduling problems in the cloud (Omara and Arafa, 2010) and (Wang et al., 2001).

3 PARTICLE SWARM OPTIMIZATION

Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) is the central solution to our performance optimization strategy. This section introduces important concepts as well as specific tools and technologies that are combined here.

The particle swarm optimization (PSO) method is a global minimization method that can deal with problems whose solution is a point or surface in an n-dimensional space. In such a space, an elementary velocity is assigned to particles in the swarm, as well as the channels of communication between particles.

- Particles in our research are edge nodes that provide computing resources.
- Velocity links to processing load / performance.

These nodes then move through the response space and the results are calculated on the basis of a merit criterion after each time interval. Over time, nodes accelerate toward nodes of higher capacity that are in the same communication group.

To update the location of each node when moving through the response space, we use these equations:

\[ V_{i}(t) = w \cdot V_{i}(t-1) + c_{1} \cdot rand_{1} \cdot (P_{i, best} - X_{i}(t-1)) + c_{2} \cdot rand_{2} \cdot (P_{g, best} - X_{i}(t-1)) \]  

(1)

and

\[ X_{i} = X_{i}(t-1) + V_{i}(t) \]  

(2)

where \( w \) is the inertial weight coefficient (moving in its own direction) indicating the effect of the previous iteration velocity vector \( V_{i}(t) \) on the velocity vector in the current iteration \( V_{i}(T + 1) \). \( c_{1} \) is the constant training coefficient (moving along the path of the best value of the node examined), \( c_{2} \) is the constant training coefficient (moving along the path of the best node found among the whole population). \( rand_{1} \) and \( rand_{2} \) are random numbers with uniform distribution in the range 1 to 2. \( V_{i}(t-1) \) is the velocity vector in iteration (t-1). \( X_{i}(t-1) \) is the position vector in iteration (t-1).

The random generation of the initial population is simply the random determination of the initial location of the nodes by a uniform distribution in the solution space (search space). The random population generation stage of the initial population exists in almost all probabilistic optimization algorithms. However, in this algorithm, in addition to the initial random location of the nodes, a certain amount of initial node velocity is also assigned. The initial proposed range for node velocity results from Equation (3).

\[ \frac{X_{\text{max}} - X_{\text{min}}}{2} \leq V \leq \frac{X_{\text{max}} - X_{\text{min}}}{2} \]  

(3)

Select the Number of Primary Nodes. Increasing the number of primary nodes reduces the number of iterations required for the algorithm to converge. However, this reduction in the number of iterations does not mean reducing the runtime of the program to achieve convergence. An increase in the number of primary nodes does results in a decrease in the number of repeats. The increase in the number of nodes
causes the algorithm to spend more time in the node evaluation phase, which increases the time it takes to run the algorithm until it achieves convergence, despite decreasing the number of iterations. So, increasing the number of nodes cannot be used to reduce the execution time of the algorithm. It should be noted that decreasing the number of nodes may cause local minima to fall and the algorithm fails to reach the original minimum. If we consider the convergence condition as the number of iterations, although decreasing the number of initial nodes decreases the execution time of the algorithm, the solution obtained would not be the optimal solution to the problem. Thus, the initial population size is determined by the problem. In general, the number of primary nodes is a compromise between the parameters involved in the problem. Selecting an initial population of 2 to 5 nodes is a good choice for almost all test problems.

**Evaluation of the Objective Function (Cost or Fitness Calculation) of Nodes.** We need to evaluate each node that represents a solution to the problem under investigation. Depending on this, the evaluation method is different. For example, if it is possible to define a mathematical function for the purpose, simply by placing the input parameters (extracted from the node position vector) into this mathematical function, it is easy to calculate the cost of the node. Note that each node contains complete information about the input parameters of the problem that this information is extracted from and targeted to. Sometimes it is not possible to define a function for node evaluation, e.g., when we have linked the algorithm to other software or used experimental data. In such cases, information about software input or test parameters should be extracted from the node position vector and placed in the software associated with the algorithm or applied to the relevant test. Running software or performing tests and observing/measuring the results determines the cost of each node.

**Record the Best Position for Each Node (P_i,best) and the Best Position among All Nodes (P_g,best).** There are two cases: If we are in the first iteration (t = 1), we consider the current position of each node as the best location for that node – see Eq. (4) and (5).

\[
P_{i,\text{best}} = X_i(t), i = 1,2,4,...,d \tag{4}
\]

\[
cost(P_{i,\text{best}}) = cost(X_i(t)) \tag{5}
\]

In other iterations, we compare the cost for the nodes in Step 2 with the value of the best cost for each node. If this cost is less than the best recorded cost for this node, then location and cost of this node replace the previous one. Otherwise there is no change in location and cost recorded for this node – see Eq. (6):

\[
\begin{cases}
  i \in \text{cost}(X_i(t)) < \text{cost}(P_{i,\text{best}}) \\
  \text{else no change}
\end{cases} \Rightarrow \text{cost}(P_{i,\text{best}}) = \text{cost}(X_i(t)) \quad i = 1,2,...,d
\]

(6)

The global best \(P_{g,\text{best}}\) is the best local \(P_{i,\text{best}}\) value.

### 4 CLUSTER PERFORMANCE OPTIMIZATION

We now apply the PSO method in order to optimize processing times in our multi-cluster edge scenario. We present a new way to minimize total delay and latency in edge-based clusters. Our optimization method shall be defined in four steps: (i) the edge cluster architecture is defined, (ii) the edge controller is designed, (iii) the optimization problem is defined, (iv) the PSO optimization algorithm is implemented. In the following, each of these steps will be explained.

#### 4.1 Request Management

In our architecture, there are three layers: the things layer, where the objects and end users are located; the edge layer, where the edge nodes for processing are located; and finally the cloud layer, where the cloud servers are provided (González and Rodero-Merino, 2014). We assume the edge nodes to be clustered. That is, there are multiple clusters of edge nodes, where each has a local coordinator.

**Request Processing.** The communication between IoT, edge and cloud nodes happens as follows. IoT nodes can process requests locally or send them to the controller for processing in the edge or the cloud. Edge nodes can process incoming requests or, if unavailable, pass them to another edge node or the controller. Cloud nodes process the allocated requests and return the result to the IoT nodes, see Figure 1. The purpose of this study is to minimize total execution time for IoT nodes in a proposed framework based on edge computing. A controller decides to which edge (or cloud) node to allocate a request. The transfer time and the waiting (e.g., queueing time) at the controller incur a delay.

**Definition 1.** A delay is the time spent by transferring a request to the next node and waiting there to be processed. Thus, we typically have controller delays \(D^c\), edge node delays \(D^e\) and IoT node delays \(D^i\).
The processing time is the time for execution at a node, i.e., either a controller processing time \( P_C \) or an edge node processing time \( P_E \).

**Definition 2.** The response time \( R \) for an IoT node is the time it takes to get a request processed, i.e., the time between sending a request for processing until receiving the result.

\[
RT = D_C + P_C + D_E + P_E + D_I
\]

This is also known as end-to-end latency in networked environments.

The requests are generated by the IoT nodes with a given deadline \( DL \) for processing and they are sent to the controller for allocation of processing nodes. The requests transferred from different IoT nodes get into a queue until they finally get to the controller. The controller will consider the total waiting time of all edge nodes from their availability tables taking into account the request deadline and will then allocate the request to the best edge node with the lowest total waiting time by applying PSO principles. The architectural framework of the edge-based system used in this study is shown in Figure 1.

![Figure 1: The IoT-Edge-Cloud architecture.](image)

### 4.2 Controller Design

The controller is embedded as an orchestrator between the things layer and the edge. All requests from the things layer will first be transferred to the controller and then sent to either the best edge node or directly to the cloud. As said, the controller performs the decision process based on the total waiting time (delay) of the entire request in different edge nodes. Upon receiving the new request, the controller determines the best node and allocates the request to that node according to the deadline of the request and the lowest total waiting time of all the edge nodes using the particle optimization algorithm PSO. The status of the selected node’s queue and it’s execution status are updated in an availability table. If no appropriate node is found in the edge layer for a received request, the controller sends the request directly to the cloud for processing as a backup.

**Types of Cluster Coordination.** Two types of interaction for edge nodes can be implemented (Shin and Chang, 1989): coordinated, in which some dedicated nodes control the interactions of their surrounding nodes, fully distributed, in which each edge node interacts with any other node. In the coordinated method, the edge layer is divided into smaller clusters, with a central coordinating node in each of these clusters, which is directly interacting with the controller and which controls the other nodes in its cluster. This coordinator is aware of the queue status of those nodes and stores all the information in the availability table. The central coordinating nodes are also processing nodes which aside from their processing responsibility, can manage the other nodes in their clusters too. These central coordinators have 3 different connections, 2 direct connections and 1 public connection. The central coordinators are directly connected to their cluster’s nodes and the controller and they communicate with other central coordinators with public announcements. When a request is sent to the controller, the cluster coordinators announce their best node in their area (personal best) publicly and support the lead coordinator in determining the best node in the layer (global best). This step is represented in Equation (6).

### 4.3 Optimization

In the third step, the PSO-based edge performance optimization problem is defined. In our method, the optimization problem has one main objective and one sub-objective so that the realization of the sub-objective will lead to the fulfilling the main objective. In the following, each of these goals will be defined.

- **Main objective:** to minimize the total response time \( R \). In the proposed method, two elements, the controller and the particle optimization algorithm, have been used to accomplish this goal.
- **Secondary objective:** to reduce delay \( D \). Delays in each layer must be considered separately to calculate the total delay.

We use (Yousefpour et al., 2017) to calculate delays. **Delay in Things Layer.** Note that thing nodes can both process requests themselves or send them to the edge or cloud for processing. If an IoT node decides to send their request to the edge or cloud for process, the request will be sent to the controller first. Considering the number of the IoT nodes and the number of the requests, the sent request will get into a
queue before reaching the controller and after reaching the controller, the request should wait until the controller finds the best edge node for allocation. In other words, this is the delay before allocation.

Note, we adopt the notation settings as follows: The subscript indexes $i$, $j$, and $k$ refer to processing nodes at IoT, Edge and Cloud layer, respectively. The superscripts $I$, $E$ and $C$ refer to source or destination of transferred requests or responses at IoT, Edge or Cloud level, respectively. For example, $EC$ refers to an edge-to-cloud transfer.

**Definition 3.** The delay in the IoT node $i$ is represented by $D_i$ and is calculated as follows:

$$D_i = P_i^I \times (A_i) + P_i^E \times (X_{ij}^{IE} + Y_{ij}^{IE} + L_{ij}) + P_i^C \times (X_{ik}^{IC} + Y_{ik}^{IC} + \Pi_k + X_{ki}^{CI} + Y_{ki}^{CI})$$

(7)

- $P_i^I$ is the probability that the things node will process the request itself in the things layer. $P_i^E$ is the probability of sending the request to the edge layer, and $P_i^C$ is the probability of sending the request directly to the cloud; with $P_i^I + P_i^E + P_i^C = 1$.

- $A_i$ is the average processing delay of node $i$ when processing its request. $X_{ij}^{IE}$ is the propagation delay from object node $i$ to node $j$; $Y_{ij}^{IE}$ is the sum of all delays in linking from object node $i$ to node $j$. Likewise, $X_{ik}^{IC}$ delays propagation from object node $i$ to cloud $k$ server and $Y_{ik}^{IC}$ is the sum of all delays in sending a link from object node $i$ to cloud server $k$. $X_{ki}^{CI}$ and $Y_{ki}^{CI}$ are broadcast and send delays from the server $k$ to the node $i$.

- $\Pi$ is the average delay for processing a request on the cloud server $k$, which includes the queue waiting time on the cloud server $k$ plus the request processing time on the cloud server $k$.

There is no specific distribution for $P_i^I$, $P_i^E$ and $P_i^C$, because their values will be defined by separate applications based on service quality requirements and rules. In other words, their values will be given as input to this framework.

**Delay in Edge Layer.** We now define a recursive relation for calculating $L_{ij}$.

**Definition 4.** $L_{ij}$ is a delay for processing IoT node $i$’s requests in the edge. After allocation, the request will be queued at the chosen edge node. This is the delay after allocation. $L_{ij}$ is calculated as follows:

$$L_{ij} = P_j(\bar{W}_j + X_{ji}^{IE} + Y_{ji}^{IE})$$

$$+ (1 + P_j)[(1 - \phi(x)] \left[ X_{ij}^{EE} + Y_{ij}^{EE} + L_{ij}(x + 1) \right]$$

$$+ \phi(x) \left[ X_{jk}^{EC} + Y_{jk}^{EC} + (\Pi_k + X_{ki}^{CI} + Y_{ki}^{CI}) \right]$$

$$j' = \text{best}(j), k = h(j)$$

(8)

Here, $\bar{W}_j$ refers to the mean waiting time at node $j$ and $\phi(x)$ is also a discharge function.

Delayed transmission from the cloud layer to the object layer will be considered in $L_{ij}$, as the request edge later be unloaded to another node in the edge layer. $L_{ij}$ is the processing delay of the node $i$ request in the edge layer or even the cloud layer, if it is unloaded from the edge node to the cloud server, so that the node $j$ edge be the first node in the edge layer to which the node request of object $i$ is sent. All the other variables already have been defined.

### 4.4 PSO Algorithm Implementation

In the final step, the performance optimization algorithm is specified. The particle swarm optimization algorithm is used to solve the optimization problem. Our PSO algorithm consists of several steps, which will be discussed now.

- **Establish an Initial Population and Evaluate it.** The particle swarm optimization algorithm starts with an initial random population matrix like many evolutionary algorithms such as genetic algorithms. This algorithm, unlike genetic algorithms however, has no evolutionary operator such as a mutant. Each element of the population is called a node. In fact, the particle swarm optimization algorithm consists of a finite number of nodes that randomly take the initial value.

Here, the edge layer is divided into different clusters and in each cluster consists of a central coordinator node and its dependent nodes. For each node, two states of location and velocity are defined, which are modeled with a location vector and a velocity vector, respectively. These vectors assist the controller in finding the best available node. The location vector helps in finding the position of the local best and the velocity vector leads the controller towards the global best.

In Equations (7) and (8), all edge nodes $j$ are processing nodes. Selected nodes are also local coordination nodes for the clusters. However, these are not singled out in the equations since they also have processing capacity.

- **The Fitness Function.** The fitness function is used for evaluating the initial population. Since the problem is a two-objective optimization, both goals must be considered in the fitness function.

  - The first objective is to minimize the total response time (latency) in the edge-based architecture indicated by $RT$.
  
  To achieve the first goal, we define a metric called $T^E = P^E + D^E$ that represents the total
execution time of the request at the edge node, which is the sum of the processing time $P^E$ of the request and the waiting time $D^E$ of the request in the edge node’s queue. $\text{Time}_{\text{Final}}$ ($TF$) is the maximum time $T^E$ that is allowed for the execution at the edge node in other to meet the required deadline $DL$ with

$$TF = DL - (D^C + P^C + D')$$

(9)

i.e., $\max(T^E) = TF$ or $T^E \in [0 \ldots TF]$.

- The second objective is to reduce the delay of the edge-based architecture $D$.

The second goal relates to the sum of the delays in the IoT layer and the delay in the edge layer:

$$D = D^C + D^E + D'$$

(10)

Both goals are defined as minimization. Ultimately, fitness is calculated as follows:

$$\text{Fitness} = TF + D$$

(11)

- **Determine the Best Personal Experience and the Best Collective Experience.** The nodes move in the solution space at a dynamic rate based on the experience of the node itself and the experience of the neighbors in the cluster. Unlike other evolutionary algorithms, particle swarm optimization does not use smoothing operators (such as intersections in the frog algorithm). Thus, the answers remain in the search space to share their information and guide the search to the best position in the search space. So, here the coordinating nodes search for the best experience within their own and their neighbor’s domain. To update the node’s velocity and position, first the best position of each node and then the best position among all nodes in each step must be updated.

- **Location and Velocity Updates.** The dimension of the problem space is equal to the number of parameters in the function to optimize. The best position of each node in the past and the best positions of all nodes are stored. Based on this, the nodes decide how to move next. At each iteration, all the nodes move in the next n-dimensional space of the problem to find the general optimum point. The nodes update their velocities and their position according to the best absolute and local solutions. Here, the coordinating nodes read the availability table of their cluster nodes and publish their best nodes to the controller. In this way, they move towards the overall best node.

- **Check the Termination Condition.** Finally, the termination condition is checked. If this condition is not met, we return to the stage of determining the best personal experience and the best collective experience. There are several types of termination conditions:

- Achieve an acceptable level of response,
- Reach a specified number of repetitions/time,
- Reach a certain number of iterations or a time specified without seeing an improvement,
- Check a certain number of responses.

Here, the termination condition is to achieve an acceptable level of response.

**Implementation.** The proposed PSO Performance Optimization is presented in Algorithm 1.

**Algorithm 1: PSO-based Edge Performance.**

1: function SCHEDULE(PSO,DAG)
2: Input: PSO and DAG characteristics
3: Output: Optimal Request Scheduling
4: Initial First Parameters
5: loop
6: Initial Population
7: Calculate Fitness
8: if Fitness < PBest then
9: PBest ← Fitness
10: GBest ← PBest
11: loop
12: Compute Velocity via Equation (1)
13: Compute Position via Equation (2)
14: Calculate Fitness via Equation (11)
15: if Fitness < PBest then
16: PBest ← Fitness
17: GBest ← PBest
18: Return: Optimal Schedule

**5 EVALUATION**

Our aim is to reduce the total response time – or end-to-end latency. We chose a comparative experimental approach to evaluate our solution.

The particle swarm optimization algorithm and a so-called BAT algorithm (Yang, 2012) are used to establish the controller and compare. The BAT algorithm was chosen due to its similarity to the particle swarm optimization. Thus, it allows meaningful performance comparisons. Furthermore, its wide-spread use in different optimization situations makes it a suitable benchmark. The BAT algorithm is an algorithm inspired by the collective behavior of bats in the natural environment proposed in (Yang, 2012). This algorithm is based on the use of bat reflection properties.

We used the MATLAB software to evaluate our solution. The concepts presented earlier are fully
5.1 PSO & BAT Parameter Adjustment

In order to obtain meaningful results, this algorithm is implemented with the dual-objective evaluation function according to Equation (11) with 200 iterations. The initial parameters specified in this implementation are shown in Table 1. Using the values in Table 1 for initialization, the particle swarm optimization algorithm is executed and the graph in Figure 2 shows the result of the implementation of this algorithm in terms of fitness values for the respective iterations. As shown in Figure 2, with the increase of iterations, the results of the fitness evaluation function for the two objectives (runtime and delay) is reduced. Our PSO performance optimization algorithm is a two-objective algorithm that reduces execution time and delay in execution of requests. The objective function value in the implementation of the particle swarm optimization algorithm is approximately 233 as a benchmark for the BAT comparison. It should be noted that due to the random structure of the evolutionary algorithms, the results per run may be different from the previous ones.

In order to comparatively evaluate our proposed method, an evolutionary BAT algorithm has been implemented in order to compare correctly with the same conditions. Thus, the BAT algorithm has been implemented with the same two-objective evaluation function and with 200 iterations as the particle optimization algorithm. The initial parameters specified in this implementation are shown in Table 2. Using the above values for the BAT strategy initialization, the BAT algorithm is executed and the diagram in Figure 3 shows the result of the implementation of this algorithm. In Figure 3, the motion diagram of the BAT algorithm is shown. The conditions are the same for both particle swarm and bat optimization algorithms and the objective function in both algorithms has been implemented and evaluated with respect to both runtime and delay reduction. As can be seen, the BAT algorithm has reached the target function of 237.5, while in the particle swarm optimization algorithm this value is 233. These results indicate that our algorithm is better than the evolutionary BAT algorithm.

5.2 Scenario-based Comparison

In order to deepen the analysis, the proposed solution was tested for 3 different scenarios: once with different number of requests, once with different number of edge layer nodes, once with identical parameters, but in different iterations.

Scenario 1 – Request Variation. In the first scenario, a number of requests and nodes in the edge layer are used to compare the results. In this scenario, we fixed the number of edge layers nodes and assumed variable and incremental user requests. Table 3 shows the details of this scenario configuration.

Figure 4 shows the results of different user re-
Table 3: The initial parameters in first scenario.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>Values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of user requests</td>
<td>30/60/100/150/200/250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of edge layer nodes</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Processing power of each edge node</td>
<td>4 G Ram / 8 Mips Processor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount of time each user requests</td>
<td>Randomized in range [1,20]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount of CPU per user request</td>
<td>Random in the interval [2,8]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: The initial parameters in second scenario.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>Values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of user requests</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of edge layer nodes</td>
<td>5/10/15/20/30/50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Processing power of each edge node</td>
<td>4 G Ram / 8 Mips Processor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount of time each user requests</td>
<td>Randomized in range [1,20]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount of CPU per user request</td>
<td>Random in the interval [2,8]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen in Figure 4, our PSO-based optimization algorithm produces far better results than the BAT algorithm. As the number of requests increases, the value of the target function (execution time + delay time) increases. Increasing the number of requests will increase the execution time, as well as increase the execution time, as more nodes will be involved. This increases the value of the target function, which is the sum of the execution time and delay. In all cases, our PSO algorithm shows better results. Despite the increase in the objective function value in both algorithms, the growth rate of the objective function value in the particle swarm optimization algorithm is lower than the BAT algorithm, which means that our algorithm outperforms BAT.

In order to compare under different conditions, the next step is to increase the number of layer nodes in order to observe the effect of this increase in a graph. **Scenario 2 – Edge Node Variation.** In the second scenario, unlike the previous scenario, now the number of requests is fixed, but the number of edge layer nodes is assumed to be variable. Increasing the number of nodes has been done as a trial-and-error experiment and no special algorithm is used. Full details of the second scenario are given in Table 4.

For this experiment, 100 input requests are considered. In this scenario, the number of user requests is considered to be fixed, but the number of edge layer nodes is considered to be 5, 10, 15, 20, 30 and 50.

Figure 4: Result of 1st scenario: fitness over no. of requests.

By increasing the number of layer nodes in the edge, the fitness function decreases due to the possibility of executing requests on more nodes. The higher the number of edge layer nodes, the more likely it is that requests will be processed using nodes whose latency is lower. In other words, with the increase in the number of edge layer nodes the controller’s options for allocating more requests are increased and thus the chances of finding a suitable node with low latency increases. As the conditions change, the way in which requests are executed is also varied, which reduces execution time. For the particle optimization algorithm, the greater the number of edge layer nodes, the lower the objective function. Furthermore, for PSO algorithm, the reduction of the target function is much faster than the BAT algorithm, which is evident in Figure 5. Each algorithm was run multiple times to better compare the algorithms.

**Scenario 3 – Iteration Variation.** In the third scenario, several iterations assume both the user requests and the number of nodes in the edge layer fixed. In this scenario, each algorithm was run 5 times with the same inputs and the results were obtained. It should be noted that in this experiment, the number of requests is 100 and the number of edge layer nodes is 50, which were constant at all 5 times. Equation (11) is used to calculate the fitness function. Table 5 shows the full configuration details of the third scenario. According to Figure 6, in different iterations we can see different results despite not changing input values at each iteration. There are no identifiable rules or explanations detectable by analysing the algorithm out-
Table 5: The initial parameters in third scenario.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>Values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of user requests</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Edge Layer Nodes</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Processing power of each edge node</td>
<td>4 G Ram / 8 Mips Processor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount of time each user requests</td>
<td>Randomized in range [1,20]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount of CPU per user request</td>
<td>Random in the interval [2,8]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

puts. For example, the value of the fitness function in the first step with one iteration is less than that of the BAT algorithm in PSO, and the value of this function in the second step with two iterations in both algorithms decreased, while in the next step with three iterations, the value is increased in both.

In general, it can be concluded that the node swarm optimization algorithm in executing requests using the dual-fitness function (execution time + execution delay) yields significantly better results than the evolutionary BAT algorithm. This is because in most iterations, the objective function value in the particle swarm optimization algorithm was lower than for the BAT algorithm. A PSO feature is faster convergence. In addition, the particle swarm optimization algorithm yields overall good performance results that reduce orchestration and response time.

![Figure 6: 2nd scenario: fitness over number of requests.](image)

6 CONCLUSIONS

Edge computing promises low latency due to local processing. However, a closer look reveals distributed and independently managed clusters of processing edge nodes that need be considered in a performance-oriented load allocation strategy. Furthermore, delays occur as the result of transmission delays and waiting times at orchestration and processing nodes.

In our performance optimization method, we used an evolutionary algorithm based on particle swarm optimization, adopted to the multi-cluster architecture and focusing on delay and end-to-end latency reduction. We compared our solution with an evolutionary BAT algorithm, another method to optimize and reduce the mean objective function (delay and execution latency) of processing requests. Evolutionary algorithms are among the best optimization algorithms, and the particle swarm optimization algorithm we adopted here is less complex than some other evolutionary algorithms. These advantages made the particle swarm optimization a suitable core of a method for reducing the total execution time and delay.

As part of our future work, we plan to consider other algorithm bases such as the firefly algorithm instead of the node swarm optimization for edge performance optimization. The firefly algorithm is a common algorithm in optimization problems that does not have the limitations of genetic algorithms selecting the required parameters, which is the most effective choice for these operations. We could also consider the ant colony algorithm or linear optimization instead of PSO. The ant colony algorithm is very efficient, often used in routing problems and the linear optimization is a good method to achieve the best outcome in a mathematical model whose requirements are represented by linear relationships. Apart from the algorithmic side, we also plan to refine the model by more precisely separating origins of propagation delay in communication and buffering times. Also different coordination principles from fully centralised to peer-to-peer management can be considered. And, we aim to combine this with an auto-scaling controller (Gand et al., 2020), which we implemented so far only for a single cluster environment.

REFERENCES


