ARIMA-Based and Multiapplication Workload Prediction With Wavelet Decomposition and Savitzky–Golay Filter in Clouds

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*Abstract***—Current cloud data centers (CDCs) provide highly scalable, flexible, and cost-effective services to meet the performance needs of emerging applications. It is critical for CDC providers to predict future incoming workloads such that they can perform accurate resource provisioning in CDCs. Prediction accuracy is important and its improvement has been pursued in much existing work. This work adopts two different real-life Google data traces, based on which such prediction is conducted. Specifically, this work first gives a novel prediction mechanism that integrates wavelet decomposition, Savitzky–Golay (SG) filter, and autoregressive integrated moving average (ARIMA) to realize workload prediction in each time interval. The time series of the workload is smoothed with an SG filter and further divided into several components with wavelet decomposition. Then, an integrated approach is developed to predict statistical trends and their detail components. Real-life trace-driven experiments are done and the results suggest that the proposed method provides higher accuracy of prediction than its existing peers.**

*Index Terms***—Autoregressive integrated moving average (ARIMA), cloud computing, data centers, wavelet decomposition, workload prediction.**

I. INTRODUCTION

TLOUD data centers (CDCs) aim to provide highly scalable, cost-effective, and flexible services to meet performance requirements for users. A growing number of cloud applications of users have been developed and efficiently

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executed in CDCs. Users' data are enabled to be kept and analyzed in third-party CDCs [\[1\]](#page-10-0), [\[2\]](#page-10-1). To achieve it, CDC providers have to fast allocate the optimal number of infrastructure resources to do users' tasks. Therefore, workload preprocessing and prediction are highly needed for dynamic resource provisioning [\[3\]](#page-10-2), [\[4\]](#page-10-3), [\[5\]](#page-10-4), which relies on multiple factors, e.g., user count, future events, past resource usage, and system states. In addition, accurate prediction of future workload can further improve the performance related to energy consumption and resource utilization. Then, operation cost of CDCs, and violations of service level agreements (SLAs) can be reduced greatly [\[6\]](#page-10-5).

Nevertheless, it is challenging to precisely predict future workload due to nonlinear patterns in users' tasks. Currently, many existing studies design different workload prediction approaches [\[7\]](#page-10-6), [\[8\]](#page-10-7), [\[9\]](#page-10-8), [\[10\]](#page-10-9), [\[11\]](#page-10-10), [\[12\]](#page-10-11), [\[13\]](#page-10-12), [\[14\]](#page-10-13). They propose several prediction models for different types of workload for networks, server clusters, and high-performance platforms [\[7\]](#page-10-6), [\[8\]](#page-10-7), [\[9\]](#page-10-8). The average or maximum number of tasks for a given time interval is measured accordingly. Nevertheless, they mainly focus on the analysis of these tasks executed in data centers in a statistical way and fail to provide high-quality prediction of future tasks. The workload of CDCs changes rapidly, and therefore, it is difficult to accurately capture its characteristics due to large magnitude differences, and existence of noise. The amount of data we collect from CDCs is not suitable for deep learning, which usually requires enormous training time to obtain a high-quality prediction model. It is worth noting that the training time is also a critical consideration for CDC providers in addition to prediction accuracy. Different from the existing studies, this work proposes an integrated prediction approach to better understand the characteristics of tasks and increase the accuracy of prediction. It adopts past tasks as training data to predict the future tasks in CDCs. It analyzes two different real-life tasks collected from a realistic production data center of Google [\[15\]](#page-10-14).

The data collected by CDCs contain salt and pepper noise, which can be removed without distorting a shape of the original data with a Savitzky–Golay (SG) filter. The workload request arriving rate we have collected from CDCs is not large enough to train deep learning models. Therefore, autoregressive integrated moving average (ARIMA) is adopted because of its easy training and implementation. By considering the complexity of signals contained in data, we adopt a method

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of wavelet decomposition to eliminate the data noise. It can decompose irregular data into multiple sequences with certain rules. Decomposed signals with fixed information from the original signal are more suitable for training prediction models. The proposed approach predicts future tasks in the next time interval. It adopts a Savitzky–Golay filter, wavelet decomposition $[16]$ (SW), and ARIMA $[17]$, thus leading to SWARIMA to predict future tasks in CDCs. This work aims to make the following new contributions.

- 1) We compare different sequence smoothing approaches to remove noise points in realistic task data and conclude that the SG filter achieves the best result.
- 2) We adopt the wavelet decomposition to analyze the detail information of data at multiple resolutions, based on which a novel prediction method is constructed. More specifically, we adopt the Symlet wavelet with more orthogonality and symmetry to achieve better results.
- 3) We design SWARIMA for producing a prediction model for task data, and the best parameters of this model are obtained according to the Akaike information criterion (AIC).

We evaluate SWARIMA on real-life task data, and com-pare it with several state-of-the-art peers [\[11\]](#page-10-10), [\[18\]](#page-10-17), [\[19\]](#page-10-18). Experimental results demonstrate that it outperforms them in terms of various evaluation criteria.

Section [II](#page-1-0) briefs related work. Section [IV](#page-2-0) introduces the data preprocessing of the Google cluster workload traces 2011 and 2019. Section V describes the proposed method. Section VI shows the results of experiments. Section [VII](#page-10-19) summarizes this work and points out future work.

II. RELATED WORK

A. Integrated Algorithms-Based Prediction

Many studies focus on the prediction of workload in CDCs. Classical approaches include hidden Markov model (HMM), ARIMA, and auto-regression (AR) . The work in $[20]$ designs a multidimensional and layered HMM to manage time-limited streaming applications. Based on predicted results, a framework is proposed to realize efficient resource scaling for big data applications in clouds. The work in [\[11\]](#page-10-10) designs a model to capture relationships among virtual machines by using predicted resource requirements with ARIMA. Then, it is used to investigate utilization volatility of resources, and an algorithm for virtual machine placement is designed accordingly. Saxena et al. [\[8\]](#page-10-7) designed a framework of resource management, which predicts the resource utilization of servers and achieves load balance. An online prediction system of resources is developed in virtual machines to minimize SLA violations and performance degradation. Huang et al. [\[21\]](#page-10-21) used seasonal ARIMA to predict and analyze the traffic of message passing interfaces in virtual clusters. It allows users to investigate patterns of iterative movement of data without knowing programming details of simulations. Then, a cross-layer middleware system is developed to dynamically schedule network resources in virtual clusters. Fanjiang et al. [\[12\]](#page-10-11) applied genetic programming to evolve multiple predictors, each of which is used to forecast future quality of service (QoS). Two techniques, including hybrid evolution and elite individual composition, are proposed to improve the prediction accuracy of multistep-ahead time series of QoS. Xie et al. [\[22\]](#page-10-22) proposed a hybrid prediction model by integrating ARIMA and triple exponential smoothing. It predicts both linear and nonlinear relations in the container workload sequence built in a cloud platform. Sun et al. [\[23\]](#page-10-23) combined a support vector machine (SVM) with a backpropagation neural network (BPNN) by using the optimal weighting rule for predicting workload. It effectively tackles shortcomings of models, including SVM and BPNN, and improves the prediction accuracy of physical machines in clouds.

However, it is difficult and inaccurate to model the original data of CDCs with the aforementioned methods. Table [I](#page-2-1) provides the results of comparing this work with them. Although some studies consider data smoothing, they do not consider data filtering and decomposition to improve the prediction accuracy. Different from these existing studies, we investigate short-time span changes of tasks and achieve timely prediction. The proposed method is very fast and suitable for realistic CDCs that can quickly execute tasks with the optimal number of resources. This work also applies feedback from newly collected tasks to update the proposed model running in CDCs. SWARIMA well avoids the occurrence of one-step delay and achieves better performance than ARIMA.

B. Machine Learning-Based Prediction

Different machine learning methods are used to predict the time series [\[24\]](#page-10-24). They mainly include the variants of prediction models, e.g., convolutional neural networks [\[25\]](#page-10-25), long short-term memory (LSTM) [\[26\]](#page-10-26), [\[27\]](#page-10-27), BPNN [\[18\]](#page-10-17), and deep belief networks [\[28\]](#page-10-28). Singh et al. [\[10\]](#page-10-9) gave an evolutionary quantum neural network for predicting workload in CDCs. It uses the efficiency of quantum computing with encoded workload information and predicts resource or work-load demands for higher accuracy. Feng et al. [\[13\]](#page-10-12) presented an ensembling model to predict workloads by integrating an adaptive sliding window and the time locality. The sliding window mechanism jointly integrates trend and time correlations, and random workload fluctuations for online regression, and yields higher accuracy with lower overhead. A time locality mechanism is proposed for behaviors of local predictors and a multiclass regression approach for integration of models is designed. Ding et al. [\[14\]](#page-10-13) adopted online learning and transfer learning to design an integrated forecasting model for the prediction of container workloads, thereby providing higher adaptivity, availability and generality. The work in [\[18\]](#page-10-17) provides a self-adaptive differential evolution method to train a neural network-based workload prediction model. It obtains high prediction accuracy for workload bursts by determining the optimal crossover rate. Zhang et al. [\[29\]](#page-10-29) proposed a proactive prediction algorithm for Docker container workloads by integrating LSTM and triple exponential smoothing. They investigate both long-term and short-term dependencies in the time series of container resources and remove data noise in container resource utilization. Tuli et al. [\[19\]](#page-10-18) used LSTM to realize the average workload prediction over successive time

intervals in the future, and adopt two real-life data to evaluate its performance. Lu et al. [\[30\]](#page-10-30) presented a forecasting model by combining a *K*-means algorithm and BPNN with random learning rates to predict the arrival trend of future workload demands. It exploits unclear characteristics of latency sensitivity of dynamic cloud workloads. Gupta et al. [\[26\]](#page-10-26) adopted a gradient descent mechanism and a Levenberg–Marquardt adaptation method to predict dynamic resource utilization. An online multivariate sparse framework is proposed to realize the fast prediction of resource usage in a cloud.

Most of the above-mentioned workload prediction approaches use nonlinear regression and neural networks, and are difficult to cope with irregular and catastrophic bursts of workload. Most state-of-the-art studies do not consider the stationarity of data. These methods do not adopt data filtering and decomposition to investigate data features, thus disenabling them to well handle fast-changing workloads. Most studies require much training data, thereby demanding substantial training time. Besides, deep learning approaches demonstrate their good performance in large-scale workload prediction for CDCs. However, their training time is usually long when they are used to deal with large-scale data. To evaluate the performance of SWARIMA, this work adopts two different real-life Google workload traces within almost one month in Google production computing clusters, and it is collected from a single Borg cell with 12 500 machines. The total size of the dataset is approximately 41 GB. However, we find that the data about task arriving rates is suitable for evaluating the performance of classical prediction methods. The scale of data about task arriving rates is not large enough to well train deep learning models, which often need much more data for their training. In addition, we conduct many experiments and find that given the Google workload traces, classical methods perform better than deep learning ones in terms of workload prediction accuracy. However, as discussed above, there are several limitations in many existing classical methods.

An SG filter can remove salt and pepper noise in the original data, which makes features of the sequence easy to analyze. Wavelet decomposition methods can decompose irregular data into several regular sequences. The decomposed data are helpful to the construction of prediction models. Wavelet decomposition can also improve the smoothing of data and reduce its size, which is beneficial to ARIMA's performance. ARIMA is widely used in time-series analysis because it has fewer parameters and is easy to train. Therefore, this work proposes SWARIMA as an integrated machine learning approach to achieve the prediction of workload in CDCs.

III. PROBLEM FORMULATION

This work aims to accurately predict the number of arriving tasks in the next time slot in CDC based on historical data. In time slot $k + 1$, tasks in previous k time slots provide the input *I* ($\{I_1, I_2, \ldots, I_{k-1}, I_k\}$). We need to predict the number of tasks (\hat{y}_{k+1}) in time slot $k+1$, i.e.,

$$
\hat{y}_{k+1} = f(I_1, I_2, \dots, I_{k-1}, I_k).
$$
 (1)

The objective of training the proposed model is to minimize the difference between \hat{y}_{k+1} and its ground-truth one (y_{k+1}) .

IV. DATA PREPROCESSING

A. Data Normalization

To obtain the clear attributes of arriving workloads, we adopt and investigate two different real-life Google cluster

Fig. 1. Aggregated task arriving rate in Google workload trace 2011.

Fig. 2. Aggregated task arriving rate of each type in Google workload trace 2011.

workload traces over a month-long period in $2011¹$ $2011¹$ $2011¹$ and $2019²$. In the Google workload trace 2011, each task represents an attribute to indicate its importance. We group them into three types: gratis $(0-1)$, other $(2-8)$, and production $(9-11)$ in the 12 priorities [\[31\]](#page-10-31). Here, similar to [\[32\]](#page-10-32), it is assumed that resource requirements of tasks corresponding to each type of applications are similar. For each group of tasks, the period of 29 days is divided into 8352 time intervals. The length of each time interval is five minutes. We calculate the number of aggregated tasks in each time interval illustrated in Fig. [1.](#page-3-2) Furthermore, Fig. [2](#page-3-3) illustrates the aggregated task arriving rate of each type in Google workload trace 2011. Similarly, more details about the Google cluster workload trace 2019 can be found [\[33\]](#page-11-0).

To decrease the standard deviation of the actual workload, we first perform the logarithmic operation on the task arriving rates. For example, in Figs. [1](#page-3-2) and [2,](#page-3-3) the number of arriving tasks for the Google workload dataset 2011 varies significantly. Consequently, we standardize the workload to effectively eliminate the heteroscedasticity of the actual workload. After the above process, we can obtain the workload with a maximum fluctuation of 3.5208 and the average of 0.2347. As shown in Figs. [3](#page-3-4) and [4,](#page-3-5) after the normalization, the total aggregated task arriving rate and that of each type on the 25th day are relatively smooth.

B. SG Filter

The workload time series needs to be smoothed, and therefore, noise must be removed. To provide better prediction

Fig. 3. Aggregated task arriving rate (log) in Google workload trace 2011.

Fig. 4. Aggregated task arriving rates of different types (log) in Google workload trace 2011.

results, this work adopts moving median (MM), moving average (MA), and SG filters to remove noise from the original workload. The results show that the SG filter with a window size of five achieves the best performance among these tested ones.

The SG filter removes the noise from the original workload (*X*), i.e.,

$$
X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_t\}, \quad t \in N^+ \tag{2}
$$

where N^+ denotes a set of positive integers, and x_t denotes the number of tasks arriving in time interval *t*.

Y denotes a subsequence of *X* with the size of $2m + 1$, i.e.,

$$
Y_k = \{x_{k-m}, \dots, x_k, \dots, x_{k+m}\}, \quad k \in [m+1, t-m]. \quad (3)
$$

In this work, $m = 2$ and $R = 3$. Polynomial $p(n)$ is obtained as

$$
p(n) = \sum_{r=0}^{R} a_r n^r, \quad n \in [-m, m].
$$
 (4)

 $\mathcal E$ denotes the error of mean-squared approximation of the subsequence, which is obtained as

$$
\mathcal{E} = \sum_{n=-m}^{m} (p(n) - x_{k+n})^2 = \sum_{n=-m}^{m} \left(\sum_{r=0}^{R} a_r n^r - x_{k+n} \right)^2.
$$
 (5)

We choose a central data point of the obtained polynomial as the smoothed one in each time interval. Then, the least-square estimation is used to update parameters for minimizing \mathcal{E} [\[34\]](#page-11-1).

¹https://github.com/google/cluster-data/blob/master/ClusterData2011_2.md 2https://github.com/google/cluster-data/blob/master/ClusterData2019.md

TABLE II ADF TEST RESULTS

Types	Values
ADF	-9.18045751
p value	2.25931e-15
Critical value (10%)	-2.56695506
Critical value $(5%)$	-2.86188766
Critical value $(1%)$	-3.43113669
White noise	

C. Augmented Dickey–Fuller Test

Given a nonstationary time series processed by an SG filter, we need to check whether it is stationary by using differencing operations; otherwise, ARIMA cannot be applied to it. We adopt the augmented Dickey–Fuller (ADF) test [\[35\]](#page-11-2) to do so. It judges whether a given autoregressive process is stationary by determining if there is a unit root in a time series. If there is no unit root, the time series is stationary. Given [\(2\),](#page-3-6) the AR process with an order of *p* is given as

$$
x_t = \phi_1 x_{t-1} + \phi_2 x_{t-2} + \dots + \phi_p x_{t-p}
$$
 (6)

where ϕ_i ($i \in \{1, 2, ..., p\}$) denotes a coefficient in the AR process, which is determined with the least-squares method.

Its characteristics equation is obtained as

$$
\lambda^p - \phi_1 \lambda^{p-1} - \dots - \phi_p = 0 \tag{7}
$$

where λ denotes an independent variable.

The workload is stationary if all of its eigenvalues fall into a unit circle. However, the workload is nonstationary if a characteristic root is 1 or larger.

Then, we perform the ADF test with the null assumption of $\rho = 0$ and the other one of $\rho < 0$. ρ is obtained as

$$
\rho = \phi_1 + \phi_2 + \dots + \phi_p - 1. \tag{8}
$$

 π means the value of the test statistic. It is compared with its corresponding critical value in the ADF test. If π is smaller, the null assumption is not accepted. Specifically, π is given as

$$
\pi = \frac{\widehat{\rho}}{S(\widehat{\rho})}
$$
(9)

where $S(\hat{\rho})$ denotes the standard deviation of $\hat{\rho}$.

If the current time series does not pass the ADF test, its difference is further calculated and the ADF test is conducted repeatedly. Here, the ADF level is set to 1%, 5%, and 10%, respectively. They mean the rejection degree of the original assumption. For example, if an ADF value is smaller than the critical value of 1%, the time series is stationary; otherwise, it is not. Here, the significant level is 0.01 or 0.05, and we need the differencing if *p* is larger than it. We then adopt the test of ADF unit root to analyze the workload in the Google cluster. Table II shows the result of the ADF test.

The obtained value of ADF is further compared with critical values to check whether the workload is stationary. It is observed that the ADF value is smaller than the critical value of 1%, and the order of p is also much smaller than the significant level of 0.01. It demonstrates that the nonstationary time series can be stationary with differencing, and therefore, ARIMA can be further applied to its stationary version.

Fig. 5. Framework of the prediction model.

V. PREDICTION MODELS OF WORKLOAD

This section introduces the details of prediction models for workload. We first preprocess the data with the method introduced in Section [IV.](#page-2-0) Then, the noise in the workload time series is removed. We further decompose it into two splits with the wavelet decomposition. One split includes the trend information of the original time series, and the other one the detail information. Then, these two splits are further smoothed with an SG filter. Following this step, two time series are obtained to contain different characteristics. We further adopt ARIMA to build two prediction models for these two time series. Then, we can obtain the trend and detail values in the next time interval, respectively. At last, we obtain the number of tasks to arrive in the next time interval with wavelet reconstruction. Fig. [5](#page-4-2) shows the framework of the proposed prediction model.

A. Haar Wavelet Decomposition

Wavelet decomposition is effective to process nonlinear and nonstationary time series because it removes the nonstationary data from a time series and increases the prediction accuracy. Wavelets (e.g., Daubechies wavelets, Mexican Hat wavelets, and Morlet wavelets) can be used to obtain the detail information at multiple resolution scales. However, these wavelets are slower than Haar wavelets. Haar wavelets only need additions and include many 0's as their elements. Therefore, their execution time is very short. Besides, they can discover local information about the time series. Therefore, we first adopt the Haar wavelet decomposition [\[36\]](#page-11-3) to investigate information of the time series with different scales of resolution. For a time series with 2*ⁿ* numbers, we arrange every two successive data into a group. It is further transformed into a new time series with 2^{n-1} groups. We then obtain

the sum and difference of any two successive data in each group and produce two new time series. This step is named one-stage wavelet transformation. It is recursively repeated to obtain the final 2*n*−¹ differences and sum. Here, we adopt the Haar wavelet transformation, which is a typical type of wavelet transformation. The Haar mother wavelet is

$$
\Theta(\gamma) = \begin{cases}\n1, & 0 \le \gamma \le 1/2 \\
-1, & 1/2 \le \gamma \le 1 \\
0, & \text{otherwise}\n\end{cases}
$$
\n(10)

where γ denotes the support domain of Haar wavelet.

Then, we have the following scaling equation, i.e.,

$$
\theta(\gamma) = \begin{cases} 1, & 0 \le \gamma \le 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}
$$
 (11)

Here, we adopt the Haar matrix Γ , which is shown as

$$
\Gamma = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}.
$$
 (12)

Any time series $(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, \ldots, x_{2t}, x_{2t+1})$ of the same length can be transformed into a series of vectors $((x_1, x_2), (x_3,$ (x_4) , ..., (x_{2t}, x_{2t+1}) by using a Haar matrix. Then, we calculate the sum (*s*) and difference (*d*) of each vector, and record them as $((s_1, d_1), (s_2, d_2), \ldots, (s_t, d_t))$, which is transformed with the Haar wavelet operation.

One-stage Haar wavelet decomposition is next performed on the workload, and two new time series are obtained to show several features of the original workload. The first time series shows the changing trend in the original workload. In the second time series, the detail information is adopted to obtain the changes between any two successive observations in the original workload. In this way, trends and details can be further adopted to increase the prediction accuracy of the proposed model.

B. Symlet Wavelet Decomposition

A Symlet wavelet function [\[37\]](#page-11-4) is an approximate symmetric one, and an improved variant of the Daubechies function. A valid range of a Symlet wavelet is 2*Z* − 1 where *Z* is a vanishing moment. Symlet wavelet has better regularity and there is no stationary expression or wavelet base. Its discrete there is no stationary expression or wavelet base. Its discrete
expression is $m_0(\alpha) = (1/\sqrt{2}) \sum_{\nu=0}^{2Z-1} h_{\nu} e^{-i\nu\alpha}$, and its modulus square is $|m_0(\alpha)|^2 = [\cos^2(\alpha/2)]^2 P[\sin^2(\alpha/2)]$ where $P(y) = \sum_{v=0}^{2Z-1} C_v^{\overline{Z}-1+v} y^v$. In addition, α is an angular vector, and $\overline{h_v}$ is a given parameter. For clarity, $W = |m_0(\alpha)|^2$ and $U = e^{i\alpha}$. Then, *W* can be decomposed into $W(z)$ $Q(U)Q(1/U)$. Here, *U* and $(1/U)$ are pairs of roots, and $Q(\cdot)$ denotes a decomposed function.

Symlet wavelet is the same as Daubechies wavelet [\[38\]](#page-11-5) with respect to continuity, support length and filter length, but has better symmetry. Therefore, it can be used to decompose and reconstruct a signal without phase distortion to a certain extent. In this work, one-stage Sym4 wavelet decomposition is performed on workload, and two new time series are obtained to show several features of the original workload. The first time series shows the changing trend information in the original workload. In the second time series, the detail information is adopted to obtain changes between any two successive observations in the original workload. In this way, the trend and detail information can be further adopted to increase the prediction accuracy of the proposed method.

C. ARIMA

Following earlier studies [\[22\]](#page-10-22), Chehelgerdi-Samani and Safi-Esfahani [\[17\]](#page-10-16) proposed a novel method to obtain ARIMA. It contains three steps including diagnostic checking, parameter estimation, and model identification. In model identification, a sequence is produced by ARIMA, and it has several autocorrelation properties. By comparing theoretical patterns and empirical ones, we might obtain several candidate models for a given workload. Box and Jenkins adopt a partial autocorrelation function (PACF) and ACF of the given data to determine the order of ARIMA. Then, the data in the future is predicted based on present and past data in the sequence, and therefore, it is commonly adopted to realize short-term prediction.

The resulting model is expressed with $ARIMA(p, d, q)$ where *p*, *q*, and *d* denote the order of the AR model, the order of the MA model, and the differencing degree, respectively. ARIMA can be viewed as the combination of $AR(p)$ and $MA(q)$. Note that $AR(p)$ is the same as [\(6\)](#page-4-3) of an AR process with the order of p in Section [IV-C.](#page-4-4) We adopt $MA(q)$ to process white noise in workload. Then, x_t is obtained as

$$
x_t = \varepsilon_t + \beta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \beta_2 \varepsilon_{t-2} + \dots + \beta_q \varepsilon_{t-q}.
$$
 (13)

In ARIMA, the predicted value of each variable is a linear combination of some random errors and past observations. Specifically

$$
x_t = \phi_1 x_{t-1} + \dots + \phi_p x_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t + \beta_1 \varepsilon_{t-1} + \dots + \beta_q \varepsilon_{t-q}.
$$
\n(14)

In (14) , ε_t and x_t denote a random error and an actual value at time interval *t*, respectively. β_i ($j \in \{1, 2, ..., q\}$) is a coefficient of MA(*q*). We assume that random errors are identically and independently distributed around the mean of zero.

AIC (A_{IC}) [\[39\]](#page-11-6) is a criterion to measure the quality of a model. ARIMA includes an AR model with the order of *p* and an MA model with the order of *q*. Following Akaike's theory, the number of parameters in ARIMA is $p + q$. A_{IC} is given as

$$
A_{IC} = 2k - 2\ln(\widehat{L})\tag{15}
$$

where *k* denotes the number of parameters, and \widehat{L} denotes the maximum-likelihood function value of the prediction model.

D. Training Steps

The training stage of our model is described as follows. Given a nonstationary workload, *p* and *q* are affected by the number of peaks in ACF and PACF. Consequently, *p* and *q* cannot be determined by them. Then, we specify orders of AR and MA through many experiments in Section [VI-A.](#page-6-1) It includes the following steps:

1) specify orders of AR and MA models;

- 2) construct the ARIMA model with *p* and *q*, and obtain its *AIC*;
- 3) select the ARIMA model with the smallest *AIC*.

After the above operations, the prediction model is obtained for the original workload. We can easily realize the proposed prediction in realistic CDCs if the workload is available in each time slot. Here, the SG filter is adopted to smooth workload and decompose it into detail and trend components with wavelet decomposition. Then, ARIMA is applied to the two components, and their predicted results are further reconstructed with the wavelet reduction method. In this way, the predicted number of tasks arriving in the next time slot is obtained.

E. Wavelet Reconstruction and Prediction Results

The testing stage of our model is described as follows. At each time slot *k*, the data from time slots $k - 1$ to $k - q$ are obtained. The data are first preprocessed and decomposed by the wavelets to obtain the trend result $[{\rm trend}(k)]$ and the detail one [detail(*k*)] in time slot *k*. The trained ARIMA model is used for the prediction results, which are further processed by wavelet reconstruction. The wavelet reconstruction process is given as

$$
\hat{y}_k = \text{trend}(k) + \text{detail}(k) \tag{16}
$$

where \hat{y}_k denotes the prediction result in time slot *k*.

Finally, the prediction result \hat{y}_k in time slot *k* is obtained. The above steps are repeated in each time slot.

VI. PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

A. Data Preprocessing

This work chooses the workload in the first 20 days as the training data. We choose the workload from the 21st to 25th days as the test data and select the workload in the last four days as the testing data. Fig. [6](#page-6-2) illustrates changes of variance and mean of the Google workload trace 2011. It is obvious that the mean value changes greatly and the variance varies between 0 and 1.5. Besides, they do not keep stable around some constant, and therefore, this workload time series fails to meet the stationarity constraint. To reduce the noise in the data, this work adopts an SG filter. Fig. [7](#page-6-3) illustrates the original and smoothed data of the Google workload trace 2011. It is worth noting that the aggregated task arriving rates are transformed with the logarithm function. It is shown that the data smoothed by the SG filter is smoother than the original one.

However, the operation of smoothing may eliminate the valuable information in the original workload. Therefore, the following experiments are conducted to demonstrate its effectiveness. We adopt four types of workloads including the original sequence, and sequences smoothed by SG, MA, and MM filters, respectively. As shown in Table III , the window sizes in them are set to 5 because the best filtering results are obtained after multiple trials.

A separate prediction model is obtained for each of the four sequences. The prediction accuracy is measured with the

ariance valu ralire $\overline{0}$ θ 4000 600 4000 6000 Time slot count Time slot count

Fig. 6. Mean and variance changes of the Google workload trace 2011.

Fig. 7. Original and smoothed data of the Google workload trace 2011.

TABLE III *MSE* UNDER VARYING WINDOW SIZES

M_{SE} Size	MM Filter	MA Filter	SG Filter
	0.3694	0.3856	0.4320
	0.2046	0.2158	0.0704
	0.2504	0.3410	0.1685
	0.3946	0.3645	0.1728

TABLE IV *MSE* OF FOUR WORKLOADS

mean-squared error (*MSE*) [\[40\]](#page-11-7), [\[41\]](#page-11-8), i.e.,

$$
M_{SE} = \frac{\sum_{\omega=1}^{\Omega} (\widehat{y}_{\omega} - y_{\omega})^2}{\Omega}.
$$
 (17)

In [\(17\),](#page-6-5) y_{ω} and \hat{y}_{ω} denote the original and predicted data, respectively, at time slot ω , and Ω denotes the total number of observations. It is worth noting that a smaller value of *MSE* means higher prediction accuracy. This work adopts three datasets marked as A, B and C, respectively. Table [IV](#page-6-6) shows *M_{SE}* of four sequences corresponding to them. It is observed that the SG filter achieves the highest prediction accuracy.

Besides, as discussed in Section [V-C,](#page-5-1) parameters, including *d*, *p*, and *q*, need to be set in ARIMA. *d* is determined in the smoothing operation. To determine *p* and *q*, this work investigates the correlation by calculating ACF and PACF of

Fig. 8. ACF and PACF of a sequence of the Google workload trace 2011.

Fig. 9. *AIC* of ARIMA with varying *p*.

Fig. 10. *AIC* of ARIMA with varying *q*.

the workload sequence with the Box–Jenkins approach in the training time. Fig. [8](#page-7-0) illustrates the results.

Fig. [8](#page-7-0) shows that the lags of ACF and PACF for a sequence of the Google workload trace 2011 are unable to cut off in black lines. The curves of ACF and PACF fail to converge to their specified thresholds, and therefore, exact values of *p* and *q* cannot be obtained based on ACF and PACF. Then, A_{IC} is calculated to specify the best setting of p and q , which provides the most accurate prediction model. Specifically, *p* and *q* are limited to given ranges, and each ARIMA model can have multiple combinations of parameter settings. Then, this work determines the best model with the highest prediction performance by using *AIC*. Fig. [9](#page-7-1) shows the variations of *AIC* of ARIMA with different values of p , and A_{IC} is the least if $p = 31$. Fig. [10](#page-7-2) shows variations of A_{IC} of ARIMA with different values of *q*. A_{IC} is the least if $q = 30$.

Figs. [9](#page-7-1) and [10](#page-7-2) show that the best ARIMA model with the highest prediction accuracy is obtained when $p = 31$ and $q = 30$. Table [V](#page-7-3) shows the comparison of prediction results of multiple ARIMA models with different combinations of

TABLE V RESULTS OF ARIMA MODELS WITH DIFFERENT PARAMETER SETTINGS

p -value, q -value	M_{SE}	A_{IC}
(31, 30)	0.0595	3.5355
(31, 15)	0.0602	-3.5285
(31, 0)	0.0603	-3.4506
(20, 30)	0.0596	-3.5320
(10, 30)	0.0621	-3.5261
(5, 30)	0.0646	-3.5269

TABLE VI *MSE* OF THREE WAVELET DECOMPOSITION METHODS

p and *q*. The prediction result is evaluated in terms of *MSE*. Table [V](#page-7-3) shows the best prediction is achieved when A_{IC} is the least. In addition, the ARIMA model with the best parameter setting is determined with the above experiments.

B. Evaluation Criteria

This work adopts three metrics, including M_{SE} [\[40\]](#page-11-7), [\[41\]](#page-11-8), R^2 [\[42\]](#page-11-9), and the mean absolute percentage error (M_{APE}) [\[43\]](#page-11-10), [\[44\]](#page-11-11) to evaluate the prediction accuracy. R^2 measures the goodness-of-fit of a given prediction model, i.e.,

$$
R^{2} = \frac{\sum_{\omega=1}^{\Omega} (\widehat{y}_{\omega} - \bar{y})^{2}}{\sum_{\omega=1}^{\Omega} (y_{\omega} - \bar{y})^{2}}.
$$
 (18)

In [\(18\),](#page-7-4) \bar{y} denotes the real-life output, and \bar{y} = $(1/\Omega)\sum_{\omega=1}^{\Omega} y_{\omega}$. Besides, \hat{y}_{ω} denotes the predicted result, and Ω denotes the number of records R^2 shows the fitting ability Ω denotes the number of records. R^2 shows the fitting ability of a prediction model, and it is within the range of [0, 1]. $R^2 = 1.0$ means a perfect match between the predicted data and the actual one. In addition, for a prediction model, lower *M*APE means higher fitting ability where

$$
M_{\text{APE}} = \frac{1}{\Omega} \sum_{\omega=1}^{\Omega} \frac{|\hat{y}_{\omega} - y_{\omega}|}{y_{\omega}}.
$$
 (19)

C. Prediction Result

This work adopts wavelet decomposition to discover more characteristics of the sequence of the Google cluster workload trace 2011. This work adopts three types of wavelet decomposition methods, including Haar, Daubechies, and Symlet wavelets. As shown in Table [VI,](#page-7-5) Symlet is the best one after multiple trials. Then, the trend and detail components with the same length of 2883 are obtained. Trend and detail components on the first day of our training set are shown in Fig. [11.](#page-8-0) Here, the order of Symlet wavelet is 4. Wavelet decomposition can be used to obtain multilevel outputs for multiscale variations. By applying it to a nonstationary time series, we analyze its low and high frequencies, from which we find its global information and the information of hidden patterns. By applying the Symlet wavelet to the original time series, the feature information is effectively extracted from its trend and detail

Fig. 11. Result with the wavelet decomposition for Google cluster workload trace 2011.

Fig. 12. Predicted and actual workloads of all three types in Google cluster workload trace 2011.

sequences. At the same time, there are almost no extreme points in the decomposed sequences, which tends to affect the prediction accuracy significantly. Hence, the modeling ability and prediction accuracy are further improved.

Wavelet decomposition produces two subsequences, including detail and trend components, respectively. We apply ARIMA to them and obtain their predicted results, which are further processed by the wavelet reconstruction to provide the future number of tasks arriving in the next time interval. Besides, we apply the proposed prediction model to predict seven different workload series from two different real-life traces, i.e., Google cluster workload traces 2011 and 2019, to demonstrate its effectiveness. Fig. [12](#page-8-1) shows the predicted and actual total workloads while Fig. [13](#page-8-2) illustrates those of each type in Google cluster workload trace 2011. Fig. [14](#page-8-3) shows the predicted and actual total workloads while Fig. [15](#page-9-0) illustrates those of each type in Google cluster workload trace 2019. It is clear that the proposed prediction model achieves highaccuracy prediction for the total workload and workload of each type.

To demonstrate the performance of SWARIMA, we com-pare it with SVM [\[45\]](#page-11-12), BPNN [\[18\]](#page-10-17), recurrent neural network (RNN) [\[46\]](#page-11-13), LSTM [\[19\]](#page-10-18), and ARIMA [\[11\]](#page-10-10) on the same workloads. Their prediction accuracy is evaluated in terms of M_{SE} , R^2 , and M_{APE} . Here, BPNN includes input, hidden, and output layers. BPNN adopts a gradient descent method to iteratively change its network parameters in its training process. BPNN has good nonlinear modeling ability, and well fits different kinds of data. To obtain better performance of the training process of BPNN, this work compares the prediction performance of BPNN with different numbers of hidden nodes. Table [VII](#page-9-1) shows that the least M_{SE} is achieved if there are 20 hidden nodes in BPNN.

Fig. 13. Predicted workloads of types 1–3 in Google cluster workload trace 2011, respectively. (a) Type 1. (b) Type 2. (c) Type 3.

Fig. 14. Predicted and actual workloads of all four types in Google cluster workload trace 2019.

Tables [VIII](#page-9-2) and [IX](#page-9-3) show M_{SE} , R^2 , M_{APE} , and the training time of different prediction methods given the same data from Google cluster workload traces 2011 and 2019. It is shown that the prediction accuracy of SWARIMA is better than that of other methods [\[11\]](#page-10-10), [\[18\]](#page-10-17), [\[19\]](#page-10-18), [\[45\]](#page-11-12), [\[46\]](#page-11-13) with respect to the above four metrics. The time series decomposed by wavelet decomposition methods provides more features about the original time series. The SG filter and wavelet decomposition smooth the original workload and improve the prediction

TABLE VII *MSE* WITH DIFFERENT NUMBERS OF HIDDEN NODES

Number of hidden nodes	M_{SE}	Number of hidden nodes	M_{SE}
	0.061	50	0.060
20	0.059	60	0.061
30	0.062	70	0.062
	0.060	80	0.060

TABLE VIII PERFORMANCE COMPARISON OF DIFFERENT ALGORITHMS FOR GOOGLE CLUSTER WORKLOAD TRACE 2011

Methods	M_{SE}	R^2	M_{APE}	Training time (sec.)
SVM	0.078	0.085	0.674	51.54
ARIMA	0.066	0.066	0.664	62.44
BPNN	0.084	0.195	0.685	26.96
RNN	0.071	0.185	0.694	66.54
LSTM	0.068	0.201	0.673	51.38
WSVM	0.075	0.197	0.643	105.53
WARIMA	0.069	0.382	0.632	91.10
WBPNN	0.057	0.434	0.678	183.52
WRNN	0.052	0.452	0.664	99.25
WLSTM	0.047	0.482	0.676	105.32
SSVM	0.074	0.170	0.625	52.73
SARIMA	0.066	0.474	0.647	97.55
SBPNN	0.045	0.543	0.645	178.56
SRNN	0.067	0.492	0.644	69.25
SLSTM	0.052	0.571	0.637	48.52
SWSVM	0.035	0.618	0.524	123.73
SWARIMA	0.017	0.759	0.386	94.33
SWBPNN	0.023	0.671	0.465	172.89
SWRNN	0.021	0.687	0.454	120.86
SWLSTM	0.019	0.704	0.404	135.21

TABLE IX PERFORMANCE COMPARISON OF DIFFERENT ALGORITHMS FOR GOOGLE CLUSTER WORKLOAD TRACE 2019

Methods	\overline{M}_{SE}	R^2	M_{APE}	Training time (sec.)
SVM	0.147	0.391	0.024	37.37
ARIMA	0.143	0.405	0.024	40.47
BPNN	0.080	0.665	0.018	28.80
RNN	0.077	0.678	0.017	48.92
LSTM	0.116	0.540	0.020	53.05
WSVM	0.044	0.818	0.013	91.35
WARIMA	0.020	0.916	0.009	88.41
WBPNN	0.025	0.898	0.010	90.07
WRNN	0.044	0.817	0.013	92.33
WLSTM	0.032	0.854	0.012	164.26
SSVM	0.120	0.577	0.021	42.82
SARIMA	0.035	0.840	0.013	79.51
SBPNN	0.044	0.816	0.013	97.53
SRNN	0.060	0.756	0.015	85.34
SLSTM	0.049	0.793	0.014	99.77
SWSVM	0.032	0.865	0.011	109.70
SWARIMA	0.010	0.952	0.006	90.56
SWBPNN	0.023	0.903	0.010	113.10
SWRNN	0.026	0.893	0.010	130.72
SWLSTM	0.026	0.890	0.010	173.11

Fig. 15. Predicted workloads of types 1–4 in Google cluster workload trace 2019, respectively. (a) Type 1. (b) Type 2. (c) Type 3. (d) Type 4.

accuracy of SWARIMA. The wavelet decomposition also increases the prediction accuracy because Symlets provide symmetric wavelets, and they have the least asymmetry and the largest number of vanishing moments for a given compact support. The Symlet wavelet transformation decomposes the original sequence into multilevel outputs. Therefore, the SG

filter and wavelet decomposition together greatly reduce noise in the original sequence, thereby improving the prediction accuracy. Compared with other machine learning methods, ARIMA achieves significant improvement in prediction accuracy and training time after using SG filtering and wavelet decomposition. For example, in Table [VIII,](#page-9-2) MSE, MAPE, and the training time of SWARIMA for Google cluster workload trace 2011 are all the smallest among all SW-related models, which are 0.017, 0.386, and 94.33, respectively. In Table [IX,](#page-9-3) these values for Google cluster workload trace 2019 are 0.010,

0.952, and 90.56, respectively, which are the least. In addition, its R^2 of 0.759 is the largest. The reason is that the data processed by SG filtering and wavelet decomposition has lower noise and clearer data characteristics, and ARIMA is built with it in an easier manner.

VII. CONCLUSION

Current CDCs consume a great amount of energy to provide services for users around the world. Their energy consumption and efficiency become critically important. The prediction accuracy of future incoming tasks is vital to realize accurate resource provisioning for user tasks. However, the irregularity and complexity of workload make it challenging to achieve it. This work designs a novel prediction approach named SWARIMA by combining SG filter in wavelet decomposition, and ARIMA. Experimental results show that its prediction accuracy and the learning speed are better than its state-of-the-art peers.

It is worth noting that some parameters used in this work are only designed for Google cluster traces in 2011 and 2019. Their setting needs to be tuned if SWARIMA is applied to other datasets. In addition, SWARIMA is designed for nonstationary sequences. Thus, its prediction performance might not be good enough if sequences are already stationary. Our future work is to extend SWARIMA with some new deep learning algorithms to yield better performance. Besides, it is interesting to investigate temporal and spatial features in tasks, and use them to boost accuracy.

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