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On the Use of Intelligent Models towards Meeting the Challenges of the Edge Mesh

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Abstract

Nowadays, we are witnessing the advent of the Internet of Things (IoT) with numerous devices performing interactions between them or with their environment. The huge number of devices leads to huge volumes of data that demand the appropriate processing. The 'legacy' approach is to rely on Cloud where increased computational resources can realize any desired processing. However, the need for supporting real time applications requires a reduced latency in the provision of outcomes. Edge Computing (EC) comes as the 'solver' of the latency problem. Various processing activities can be performed at EC nodes having direct connection with IoT devices. A number of challenges should be met before we conclude a fully automated ecosystem where nodes can cooperate or understand their status to efficiently serve applications. In this paper, we perform a survey of the relevant research activities towards the vision of Edge Mesh (EM), i.e., a 'cover' of intelligence upon the EC. We present the necessary hardware and discuss research outcomes in every aspect of EC/EM nodes functioning. We present technologies and theories adopted for data, tasks and resource management while discussing how machine learning and optimization can be adopted in the domain

Keywords: Internet of Things; Edge Computing; Edge Mesh; Machine Learning; Data Management; Tasks Management; Resources Management

CCS: Human-centered computing - Ubiquitous and mobile computing - Empirical studies in ubiquitous and mobile computing; Computing methodologies - Distributed computing Methodologies

1. Introduction

Nowadays, we are witnessing the huge evolution of the **Internet of Things (IoT)** that incorporates numerous devices interconnected into the same infrastructure [84]. This vast infrastructure gives the opportunity to build/support novel applications in close distance with end users. It is estimated that the potential impact of IoT will be close to \$11.1 trillion by 2025 [88] exhibiting its value for all the stakeholders active in various application domains. IoT devices are in the position of interacting with end users and their environment to collect data and perform simple processing activities. IoT has evolved into a network of devices of all types and sizes, e.g., vehicles, smart phones, home appliances, toys, cameras, medical instruments and industrial systems [106]. Data or the outcome of any lightweight processing can be transferred through the adoption of wireless communications to other 'peer' devices or to the Cloud infrastructure where more advanced processing can take place. Such transfer of data is regulated by the appropriate models and protocols for sharing information and achieving the necessary detection, positioning and control.

Researchers have focused on terms like 'smart' or 'intelligent' associated with IoT, however, it is not clearly defined what intelligence is in this context and who provides it. Such questions motivated the

research community to study the data-centric IoT, data mining in IoT, the interaction of **Artificial Intelligent (AI)** with IoT etc. The majority of the current IoT systems build on a centralized entity (e.g., a server), usually placed at the Cloud infrastructure, for achieving their computational targets. Low-level IoT devices are used only for sensing purposes and the collection of data while the final decision-making is performed by the central entity. IoT enables innovation upon a vast infrastructure that involves numerous sensors and devices (e.g., wearables) able to interact with their environment and users. The adoption of AI in IoT facilitates the proposed systems to be autonomous and react in the ambient contextual information. For instance, those systems can be predictive and capable of selecting the appropriate line of actions to efficiently support applications for end users. In the future, AI and IoT will be inseparable as AI applications will open up the room for concluding smarter applications than before to impact various domains like manufacturing, retail, healthcare, telecommunication, transportation, etc. The strength of the AI is that enhances applications with intelligence and combined the orientation of the IoT, i.e., to support the connection of numerous devices, will lead to a new world of fully autonomous systems.

The forthcoming emergence of the **Internet over Everything (IoE)** [91] will extend the capabilities of the 'legacy' IoT, the number of devices and the volumes of data. This explosion will be driven by the evolution of 5G technology, advances in the Cloud infrastructure, the extended use of social media, advances in mobile computing and the new trends of data science. It becomes obvious that such an evolution will impose new requirements related to the storage of huge volumes of data as well as the management of numerous devices. Eventually, the aforementioned centralized model will be affected by the bottleneck in the processing of the collected data that will increase the latency in the provision of responses as well as by the need for an increased bandwidth. Additionally, Cloud may face accessibility challenges, e.g., unstable connections between Cloud and IoT devices. In any case, these problems negatively affect the performance of real-time applications where latency is critical.

It becomes obvious that IoT devices are, usually, lightweight nodes with constrained resources, thus, no advanced processing can take place on them. Consequently, data and the 'light' local knowledge should be transferred to Cloud where increased computational resources are present. However, the transfer of huge volumes of data in the network can have negative effects on the scalability aspect and the required bandwidth [39]. **Edge Computing (EC)** comes into scene to limit the amount of data transported back to the Cloud [100]. EC provides an intermediate infrastructure upon the IoT and below the Cloud that can support services towards reducing the latency in the provision of responses to end users. If we build novel services at the EC, we can limit the connectivity cost and add a layer for storage and processing. Currently, the majority of the collected data in the IoT infrastructure are not used even they could contribute in the production of new knowledge. Considering EC to rely at the middle between the IoT and the Cloud creates multiple challenges. The first challenge deals with interoperability issues, i.e., we need a novel approach to 'aggregate' data coming from various devices. Additionally, we need advanced methodologies and algorithms for the management of data, EC nodes, IoT devices and so on and so forth.

Currently, we are at the early stages of far-reaching and consequential EC revolution to prepare the aforementioned infrastructure for the new, modern, **Edge Mesh (EM)**. EM provides a 'virtual' layer (a computational/processing overlay) that enables the cooperation between EC nodes of different types to conclude a cooperative infrastructure close to end users [118]. Operators can/should/will open the EC to third-parties, allowing them to rapidly deploy innovative applications and content towards mobile subscribers, enterprisers, and other vertical segments [37]. As things stand today, 'there is no edge' and 'if there is, everything is centralized', Karri Kuoppamaki, VP of T-Mobile US said¹. In the near future, with the advent of 5G networks, we will be surrounded by a high number of network 'hubs' moving from 4G macrocells to 5G microcells. The future networks may be as ubiquitous as electricity networks while their capacity is exploding to 'host' and process all the data

¹ <https://www.sdxcentral.com/articles/news/operators-strike-realistic-edge-computing-balance/2019/09/>

reported by IoT devices, thus, giving the opportunity for 'tiered' data management and limited latency.

The EM gives the opportunity to build innovative applications upon the so-called Edge Intelligence (EI). EI refers to the EC/EM infrastructure where a set of connected systems and devices can be utilized to cooperatively collect, cache, process and analyze data adopting AI technologies [145]. EI provides the following advantages [110]: (a) it improves time-to-action and reduces latency down to milliseconds; (b) it minimizes the bandwidth of the network; (c) it can easily allow greater control over the generated data. EI can provide various means for data processing at different stages (e.g., pre-processing, post-processing) and their protection in terms of privacy and security. Example applications of EI can be: (i) development of wearable cognitive assistance for recognition tasks in a cloudlet [50]; (ii) development of constrained AI models on smartphones for activity recognition [72]; (iii) development of AI models for recognition tasks on wearables [113] and embedded devices [71]; (iv) computer vision applications for commercial aerial unmanned vehicles [110]; (v) face recognition through the 'cooperation' of smartphones and edge servers [149]. The estimation is that EI will be at the core of the processing performed at 6G networks where intelligence should be provided upon small cells [107].

EC and EM are organically connected (see Figure 1) as the presence of both should be realized in order to support intelligence and innovative applications at the edge of the network. EC provides the necessary infrastructure upon which the EM functionalities will open up the pathway for applying AI algorithms, i.e., EI, and pursue the best possible performance. In the new era of EC/EM, multiple research questions should be answered like the following: How to define the network and computing model? How to manage/distribute data processing? How to jointly optimize computation? etc. Currently, the distributed processing can be realized in the available EC nodes, however, these nodes are heterogeneous, resource-constraint (compared to the Cloud), and have direct communication with a high number of IoT devices. In particular, EC nodes are characterized by diverse computational resources, runtime environments and hardware equipment [155]. The discussed heterogeneity makes difficult the orchestration of nodes and the adoption of cooperative approaches to process the desired tasks. According to [155], the unique technical challenges related to the heterogeneity of EC nodes are: (i) applications cannot manage nodes in a fully controlled manner; (ii) the degree of heterogeneity in EC is much more significant than systems present at the Cloud (there, it is assumed the presence of homogeneous architecture or tasks); (iii) existing resource management techniques should be re-designed to deal with the discussed heterogeneity.

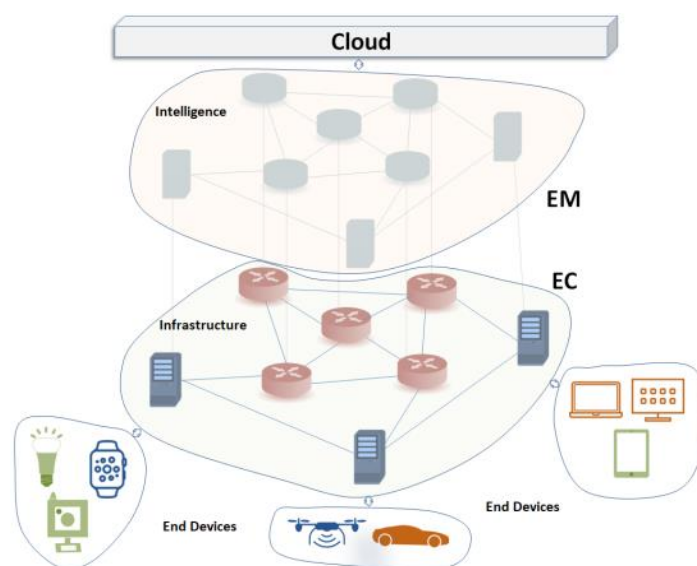


Figure 1 The connection between EC and EM

Other open research issues like the reliability, fault tolerance, **Quality of Service (QoS)** management, security and privacy etc should also be considered. QoS is a significant metric that depicts the degree of satisfaction of various performance criteria and is classified into the following categories [150]: connectivity, reliability, capacity (or network bandwidth), and delay. An example of QoS management and, more specifically, capacity management is provided by [54] where the authors propose a model for administrating QoS over virtualized resources. The motivation behind the work is that containers exhibit a weakness in the control of network bandwidth for outbound traffic. Security is also a concern especially if we consider that a high number of devices are spread in the EC infrastructure. Problems may arise upon this distributed approach where data and devices are located far away from companies' premises. Every device may be a potential vulnerable endpoint where advanced security and privacy models should be invoked. In general, EC nodes are not designed having security at the core point of research. Hence, any gaps or risks should be managed in the most efficient way in order to avoid jeopardizing the stability of the entire network.

Machine Learning & Deep Learning (ML/DL) and optimization techniques can assist in many aspects for the provision of the appropriate services that will give a boost to the performance of applications with positive impact in end users activities. ML/DL can setup the basis for covering multiple axes of the EC/EM functioning. Nodes placed at the EC/EM can have a 'logical' connection over the physical infrastructure adopting distributed intelligence to conclude a fully automated framework close to IoT devices, thus, to end users. In the intelligent EM, we need a type of 'cooperative computing' for handling the unbalanced computation distribution and lead to better usage of resources, reduced latency and better services as nodes cooperate with each other.

This survey targets to expose the current efforts in creating the new form of the EC, i.e., the EM. We focus on the EC, instead of **Fog Computing (FC)**, due to its limited distance with the IoT devices and, thus, end users. Before the data are transferred to the Cloud back end, they can be the subject of various processing activities to apply EI close to their sources. Obviously, this EC/EM approach can provide the infrastructure and the intelligent cover to support innovative applications. EC nodes can become the host of distributed datasets and intelligent algorithms towards the provision of the aforementioned applications. Our focus is on the creation of the necessary intelligence to realize an ecosystem of autonomous devices in the EC. The axes of this study are as follows: **(i)** the necessary hardware to support the envisioned processing; **(ii)** the ML/DL and optimization models adopted for realizing the EM; **(iii)** models for data management at the EC; **(iv)** tasks management at the EM; **(v)** autonomous nodes management. We depart from other surveys and focus only on the aforementioned axes. Actually, we provide a survey on the necessary technologies to support intelligence in the EC/EM starting from the hardware and elaborating on the adoption of smart models for the management of the contextual data related to nodes participating in the EC/EM. Other similar efforts in the domain focus on different approaches when performing their review of the relevant efforts. In [145], the authors elaborate on edge caching, the training of intelligent models, models compression & inference acceleration and edge offloading. The authors of [147] report on a survey on federated learning, i.e., its architecture and applications. In [136], the subject is on training and inference of ML/DL models as in [145], while in [92], the training of ML/DL models is studied through the adoption of a cooperative approach between edge devices and edge servers. The survey of big data analytics adopting ML/DL approaches is the subject of [92] and the use of ML/DL in Wireless networks (e.g., spectrum resource allocation) is studied in [154]. The overlapping of our work with past efforts can be detected only in the study of the task offloading actions, however, we consider the problem in a generic way instead of focusing to the offloading of inference models like other surveys do. We do not focus on 'low' level information putting our efforts in the discussion of the challenges, open issues and the algorithms/models proposed to process data, tasks and nodes at the EC/EM. We try to reveal to the interested readers the minimum setup and the required technologies for supporting an intelligent EC/EM and innovative applications. Through this approach, we pay attention on the creation of the EC/EM ecosystem where numerous smart nodes can communicate each other, with the Cloud and with the IoT infrastructure to deliver

novel applications. We devote a separate section for each axis and provide a description of the relevant efforts in each sub-field. Our aim is to expose the progress related to the management of the aforementioned ‘logical’ layer that covers the EC physical infrastructure. Finally, we conclude our paper by giving some future directions.

2. Edge Computing and Internet of Things

2.1 A Layered Architecture

Figure 2 (retrieved from [21]) shows the generic architecture of the layered approach moving from the IoT infrastructure to the Cloud datacenters. At every layer, a high number of devices can be present capable of supporting the envisioned processing of the collected data and offering a wide set of services. EC relies upon the IoT infrastructure and refers to the data processing that happens close to where data are collected/produced, i.e. ‘at the edge’ of the IoT network. Both EC and IoT are a perfect match exposing their complementarity related to the collection, transfer and processing of data. EC nodes are located in a close distance with end users, thus, the latency in the provision of responses is limited. As a result, IoT devices are no longer dependent on the connection with the network resulting an autonomous infrastructure. In any case, EC nodes cannot quickly and efficiently perform the processing demanded by complex and computational intensive applications compared to Cloud due to their limit capabilities. For instance, it will not be efficient to train a huge DL neural network upon large volumes of data and expect the outcome in limited time. EC is mainly adopted to perform processing activities that can be concluded in (near) real time in order to meet the challenges of data streams processing and the immediate provision of responses to end users.

Many times, EC is confused with FC [14]. The research community sees various definitions of EC and FC making us to allege that a consensus may be not present. For instance, in [17], FC is presented as a subset of the EC and multiple technologies, e.g., Micro Data Centers (MDC), Cloudlet, etc, may co-exist and interact resulting the FC/EC infrastructure. In the aforementioned work, FC is considered as a platform that brings Cloud computing in close distance with end users. On the other hand, in [119], the authors state that EC and FC are the same. The FC/EC infrastructure is defined as a highly virtualized platform that offers computational resources, storage and control functionalities to connect end-users requests with the Cloud datacenters. In any case, FC exhibits the following differences when compared with EC [6], [95]:

- FC is device independent and aware of the entire fog domain while EC is aware only for every device and a few services;
- FC controls all devices in the domain while EC exhibits limited control;
- FC extends Cloud as a continuum while EC is Cloud unaware;
- FC supports for multiple IoT verticals while EC exhibits no IoT vertical awareness;
- FC nodes are versatile and capable of performing a variety of functionalities while EC nodes are focused on device command and control;
- FC supports end-to-end security while, in the EC, the security scope is limited to devices;
- FC supports analytics from multiple devices while EC analytics are oriented to individual devices.

Furthermore, Table 1 depicts a high level comparison by exposing the main differences/similarities between FC and EC [151].

Table 1 Comparison between FC and EC

Attribute	FC	EC
Devices	Small scale with virtualization capabilities	Small scale with virtualization capabilities
Devices Location	Dedicated/Edge	Edge
Resources	Moderate	Low/Moderate

Distance form Users	Moderate	Low
Availability	High	Moderate
Security	Node oriented	Infrastructure oriented
Applications	Decentralized / Hierarchical	Distributed
Latency	Low	Low
Heterogeneity Support	Yes	No
Mobility Support	Yes	Yes
Real Time Applications Support	Yes	Yes
Standards	Yes	Yes

Both, EC and FC, try to keep the processing of data very close to the IoT infrastructure to speed up the provision of responses. The speed in data processing and the immediate provision of analytics are essential in many application domains but they are also the key for transforming industrial processes in many ways. The final target is to automate the industrial processing adopting control software, actuators and intelligent decision making.

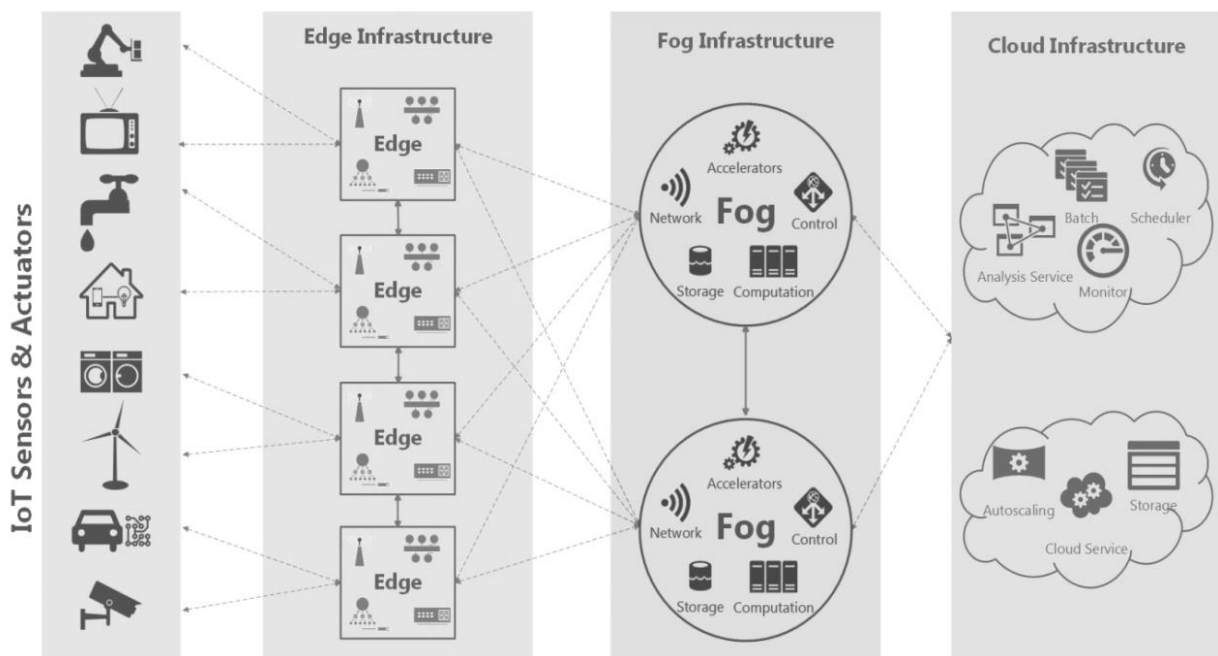


Figure 2 Edge-Fog-Cloud Architecture

EC also provides a better alternative for the efficient management of computational resources compared to Cloud. This leaves the room for Cloud administrators to efficiently manage their resources as a set of functionalities are decoupled. The control of the resources is shifted from Cloud to the edge of the network creating a new layer of administration. Hence, we can place a number of management activities close to the source of data giving the opportunity to our systems to be aligned with the real time requirements for the provision of responses. A specific example is Edge Analytics [28] adopted by vendors like Intel² or Cisco³ allowing the interested stakeholders to perform a set of pre-processing activities just after the reception of data. The significant aspect is that such an approach can be 'distributed' in the entire ecosystem of EC nodes opening up the path for high quality and novel services. EC nodes can be considered as points where distributed datasets

² <https://www.intel.com/content/www/us/en/edge-computing/overview.html>

³ <https://blogs.cisco.com/tag/edge-analytics>

are formulated hosting any desired, however feasible, functionality. Consequently, we are enjoying, compared to Cloud, more storage, additional processing points, a fault tolerant approach and enhanced analytics capabilities as we can employ as many EC nodes as we desire.

Additionally, in Cloud, processing is realized at the central datacenter with the response returning back to end users after its conclusion. This processing, usually, will not take too long (e.g., a couple of seconds for a high number of applications), however, in some cases, the provision of the final response could be jeopardized due to, e.g., a network glitch, weak network communications, a high distance between the receiver of the response and the datacenter [111]. It becomes obvious that the processing 'pressure' is taken away from the Cloud infrastructure, however, we have to secure the role of each framework. Cloud technologies face some accessibility challenges when providing services to end-users. An example concerns mobile clients who can move among different places, yet require Cloud services with minimum cost and limited response time. It becomes obvious that mobile communications can be heavily affected by problems in the communication channel. This, in a sequential order, can create severe problems in real-time applications where the latency is critical. Hence, the research community proposes the combination of EC/EM. i.e., the ecosystem of EC nodes enhanced with EI capabilities, for supporting such kind of applications. Several EC/EM technologies, originating in different backgrounds, have emerged to decrease latency and support the massive machine type of communication. However, there is an intense need to support the EC/EM nodes with intelligent services to overcome all the aforementioned challenges.

2.2 Data & Processing Activities at the Layered Architecture

In this layered architecture, EC nodes can formulate an ecosystem of processing points upon the collected data. As we have multiple locations where data can be stored, a significant research aspect is the opportunity to replicate data in multiple EC nodes and create a fully fault tolerant infrastructure. The following list reports on the advantages of replicating data in multiple distributed datasets at the EC as well as at the FC (as they exhibit similar characteristic in data storage):

- **Efficiency:** It is not necessary to always access the 'master' data at the Cloud with positive impact on the performance of applications.
- **Low latency:** If we have direct access on the local data, we can reduce the latency for accessing them in a distant location.
- **Fault tolerance:** By distributing the data across multiple locations, we can easily support fault tolerance being able to recover from any disaster. However, this approach requires the efficient management of replicas and the adoption of mechanisms that manage possible redundancies.
- **Scalability:** Complex processing can be distributed in multiple nodes to benefit from the 'collective' power of the infrastructure. Recall that the available nodes can be provided by different vendors, thus, a powerful model for consistency and heterogeneity management as well as resilience is necessary.

The EM virtually relies upon the EC ecosystem to overcome the disadvantages of the EC infrastructure, i.e., to facilitate the management of resources and tasks applying the necessary intelligence. It targets to a cooperative model where EC nodes can exchange data, tasks or knowledge in order to perform the desired processing. Eventually, EM acts as an overlay virtual network over EC nodes trying to overcome the problem of constrained resources through a collective intelligence approach. EM is proposed to deal with a computing paradigm that uses a mesh network of EC nodes to enable distributed decision-making, exchange of data and computation among the available nodes. This differs from the existing EC paradigm which usually considers EC nodes as 'simple' nodes responsible to collect and transmit data to the Cloud infrastructure. EM 'imposes' the idea of using EC nodes to enable distributed intelligence in IoT [114], i.e., the cooperation between autonomous entities, intermediate communication

infrastructures (local networks, access networks, global networks) and/or Cloud systems to optimally support IoT communication and applications.

Under this rationale, EC/EM and IoT can have a close cooperation to host business processes and support a strong computing paradigm for the future. If we apply intelligence in both, the EC/EM and IoT, we can easily go beyond the state of the art and support the autonomous behaviour of numerous nodes. The envisioned interconnection can be holistically realized either in the horizontal axis or in the vertical one. The vertical approach will refer in the communication between the IoT, the EC/EM, the FC and the Cloud. Hence, we will be able to integrate and distribute the processing activities and power in any direction at will. Eventually, this will lead to the optimization of the use of resources and the ability to dynamically react to end users dynamic requirements. For instance, we can easily control the data flow and the processing needs from one location to another. In any case, such an approach will open up the road for having third parties involved in the provision of advanced services in the discussed ecosystem. Businesses will find more opportunities to expand their portfolios or invest on new services that will increase their revenues and the quality of their products.

Finally, Multi-access Edge Computing (MEC), formerly mobile edge computing, is an emerging 5G network edge-cloud architecture. MEC enables data processing at the edge of a cellular network where data are generated. This architecture reduces the latency in the provision of responses to various requests and brings real-time performance to demanding applications (e.g., applications demanding for a high bandwidth). Such applications include video analytics and video streaming^{4,5} [80], [115], [120], augmented-virtual reality [2], [27], [127], [87], [55] and autonomous connected vehicles [15], [42], [146], [94].

2.3 Technologies for the EC/EM

Currently, there is a number of companies providing EC/EM services. For instance, Foghorn⁶, Swim⁷, Juniper⁸, Crosser⁹, Mutable¹⁰, AlefEdge¹¹, ClearBlade¹², SSAS¹³, Eurotech¹⁴, Edge Intelligence¹⁵ and many others support ML algorithms and analytics for EC/EM. Additional companies like Zededa¹⁶, Edgeworx¹⁷, Affirmed Networks¹⁸, Ori¹⁹, Packet²⁰, EdgeConneX²¹ offer virtualization and orchestration services for EC. Of course the lists are not exhaustive but they just present indicative examples. The aim of all these companies is to have their services interacting with IoT and Cloud while applying specific algorithms and models upon the collected data. They become the first point of expansion for companies working at the provision of IoT platforms. Example companies are:

⁴ <https://support.hpe.com/hpesc/public/docDisplay?docId=c05336736>

⁵ <https://software.intel.com/content/www/us/en/develop/articles/video-analytics-at-the-edge-deliver-immediate-actionable-insights.html>

⁶ <https://www.foghorn.io/>

⁷ <https://www.swim.ai/>

⁸ <https://www.juniper.net/us/en/>

⁹ <https://crosser.io/>

¹⁰ <http://www.mutable.io>

¹¹ <http://www.alefedge.com>

¹² <http://www.clearblade.com>

¹³ https://www.sas.com/en_us/home.html

¹⁴ <https://www.eurotech.com/en>

¹⁵ <https://www.edgeintelligence.com/>

¹⁶ <https://zededa.com/>

¹⁷ <https://edgeworx.io/>

¹⁸ <http://www.affirmednetworks.com>

¹⁹ <http://www.ori.co>

²⁰ <http://www.packet.com>

²¹ <http://www.edgeconnex.com>

Software²², QIO²³, Altizon²⁴, IBM²⁵, Litmus Automation²⁶, Exosite²⁷, Oracle²⁸, Atos²⁹. Dell is the leader of the EdgeX open source project for edge computing³⁰. Eurotech offers Everywhere Software Framework³¹ for building edge computing applications. ADLINK develops Vortex Edge³² and Vortex DDS³³ to facilitate the deployment of software on edge gateways.

The aforementioned solutions target to facilitate the incorporation of IoT devices and the collected data to the infrastructure present at higher layers. These solutions try to offer to customers an integrated approach that includes device to edge, then, to Cloud. The deployment of any software or hardware will be facilitated due to the automatic detection of the requirements and the inclusion of advanced software to realize it. Significant **Key Performance Indicators (KPIs)** deal with the time required to perform any action (e.g., the provision of analytics, the conclusion of the incorporation of any devices) as well as the quality of the final outcome. The challenge here deals with the heterogeneity of products that have to be integrated and communicated in short time. For this, the appropriate APIs and protocols should be implemented together with the necessary wrappers. Already present models (i.e., APIs and protocols offered by Cloud providers) should be also adopted to secure the smooth integration of novel solutions. Example solutions are the initiatives of Amazon³⁴, Microsoft³⁵ and Google³⁶. The aforementioned companies propose edge solutions connected with their respective IoT platform. Additionally, the majority of the IoT platform vendors (some example are already given above) are also proposing their own edge solutions to expand their portfolio. All of them target to expose a holistic, bottom up, approach to, finally, be able to support intelligent analytics upon the collected data. Of special attention is to facilitate the execution of advanced ML algorithms over huge volumes of data.

Apart from commercial products, one can detect an increased number of efforts to provide open source tools. Such tools avoid the direct connection with a specific vendor, i.e., they offer solutions to avoid the vendor lock-in problem. However, this does not mean that the above discussed companies do not provide open source tools (e.g., IBM). Some open source initiatives are as follows (the list is not exhaustive).

LF Edge Community³⁷ is an umbrella organization that aims to establish an open, interoperable framework for edge computing independent of hardware, silicon, Cloud, or operating system. The community brings together leaders in the relevant industry and aims to create a common framework for hardware and software standards. Additionally, it aims to expose the best practices that are significant to sustain current and future generations of IoT and edge devices. The community fosters collaboration and innovation across the multiple industries, i.e., industrial manufacturing, cities and government, energy, transportation, retail, home and building automation, automotive, logistics and health care — all of which stand to be transformed by edge computing. A high number of companies active in the EC/EM domain are members of the effort (see <https://www.lfedge.org/members/>).

²² <https://www.softwareag.com/corporate/default.html>

²³ <https://qio.io/>

²⁴ <https://altizon.com/>

²⁵ <https://www.ibm.com/ie-en>

²⁶ <https://www.ibm.com/ie-en>

²⁷ <https://exosite.com/>

²⁸ <https://www.oracle.com/>

²⁹ <https://atos.net/>

³⁰ <https://www.edgexfoundry.org/>

³¹ <https://www.eurotech.com/en>

³² <https://www.adlinktech.com/en/Edge-IoT-Solutions-and-Technology>

³³ https://www.adlinktech.com/Products/IoT_solutions/Vortex_DDS/Vortex_DDS?lang=en

³⁴ <https://aws.amazon.com/iot/>

³⁵ <https://azure.microsoft.com/en-us/overview/iot/>

³⁶ <https://cloud.google.com/solutions/iot>

³⁷ <https://www.lfedge.org/#>

Akraino Edge Stack³⁸ is a set of open infrastructures and application blueprints for the EC, spanning a broad variety of use cases, including 5G, AI, Edge IaaS/PaaS, IoT, for both provider and enterprise edge domains. These blueprints are proposed by the Akraino community (part of the LF Edge) and focus exclusively on the edge in all of its different forms. Hence, the community tries to setup the basis for defining blueprints for all the aspects of the edge infrastructure. The connection between the blueprints is secured by the community and the testing procedures to deliver solutions that can be adopted as-is.

Eclipse ioFog Project³⁹ is a complete edge computing platform that provides all of the pieces needed to build and run applications at the edge at enterprise scale. The project provides abstractions to manage the diversity and complexity of edge hardware. Hence, a 'cover' of software is adopted to support the necessary functionalities to avoid problems related with the underlying heterogeneity of devices and software. The project also targets to the management and orchestration of edge microservices performed by the dedicated ioFog Controller and its supporting set of components.

The **OSF Edge Computing Group**⁴⁰ targets to define infrastructure systems required to support applications distributed over a broad geographic area, with potentially thousands of sites, located as close as possible to discrete data sources, physical elements or end users. All these applications can communicate over wireless communications. Another goal of the group is to detect use cases, develop requirements, and produce viable architecture options for evaluating new and existing solutions, across different industries and global constituencies, to enable development activities for Open Infrastructure and other Open Source community projects to support EC use cases.

StarlingX⁴¹ is a complete Cloud infrastructure software stack for the edge used by the most demanding applications in industrial IoT, telecom, video delivery and other ultra-low latency use cases. The approach proposed by the StarlingX is oriented around the provision of a container-based infrastructure for edge implementations in scalable solutions that is ready for production. The focus is on easy deployments, low touch manageability, rapid response to events and fast recovery. The solution is tested and released as a complete stack, thus, it ensures the compatibility among diverse open source components.

CORD (Central Office Re-architected as a Datacenter)⁴² is a project that intends the transformation of EC into an Agile service delivery platform enabling the operator to deliver the best end-user experience along with innovative next-generation services. The proposed platform builds upon Software Defined Networks (SDNs), Network Functions Virtualization (NFV) and Cloud technologies to build agile datacenters for the network edge. Integrating multiple open source projects, CORD delivers a cloud-native, open, programmable, Agile platform for network operators to create innovative services.

EdgeX Foundry⁴³ is a vendor-neutral open source project hosted by the Linux Foundation and builds a common open framework for IoT edge computing. The main focus of the project is the provision of an interoperability framework hosted within a full hardware and OS-agnostic reference software platform to enable an ecosystem of plug-and-play components that unifies the marketplace and accelerates the deployment of IoT solutions.

KubeEdge⁴⁴ is an open source system for extending native containerized application orchestration capabilities to hosts at Edge. It adopts Kubernetes⁴⁵ (an open-source system for automating

³⁸ <https://www.lfedge.org/projects/akraino/>

³⁹ <https://iofog.org/>

⁴⁰ <https://www.openstack.org/edge-computing/>

⁴¹ <https://www.starlingx.io/>

⁴² <https://www.opennetworking.org/cord/>

⁴³ <https://www.edgexfoundry.org/>

⁴⁴ <https://kubedge.io/en/>

⁴⁵ <https://kubernetes.io/>

deployment, scaling, and management of containerized applications) and provides a fundamental infrastructure support for network, application deployment and metadata synchronization between Cloud and edge. KubeEdge is licensed under Apache 2.0 and free for personal or commercial use.

Table 2 & Table 3 summarize the main characteristics of the above described technologies.

Table 2 Commercial tools characteristics

Commercial tool	Edge Software	IT Platform Vendors	Technology Solution Providers	Edge Analytics	Edge Security	Hardware Providers	EaaS	Multi-Access Edge Providers	Trial	Orchestration - virtualization
Foghorn ⁶	√	√	√	√					√	
Swim ⁷	√		√						√	
Juniper ⁸	√				√	√			√	
Crosser ⁹	√			√			√			
Mutable ¹⁰	√		√				√			
AlefEdge ¹¹	√		√					√		
ClearBlade ¹²	√	√							√	
SSAS ¹³	√		√	√					√	
Eurotech ¹⁴	√		√							
Edge Intelligence ¹⁵		√	√	√		√			√	
Zededa ¹⁶	√		√	√					√	√
Edgeworx ¹⁷	√	√	√							√
Affirmed Networks ¹⁸	√	√	√				√			√
Ori ¹⁹	√						√	√		√
Packet ²⁰			√			√				√
EdgeConneX ²¹			√				√			√

Table 3 Open source tools characteristics

Open source tool	Foundation	Service model	Architecture	Containers	Microservices	Indicative partners (not an exhaustive list)
Akraino Edge Stack ³⁸	Linux	IaaS	IoT, EC, MEC	√	√	Arm, HP, Huawei, IBM, Intel, Tencent
Eclipse ioFog Project ³⁹	Eclipse	PaaS	IoT, EC		√	Edgeworx
StarlingX ⁴¹	OpenStack	IaaS	IoT, EC, MEC	√		China Telecom-Unicom, Dell, SUSE, Tencent, Ubuntu
CORD ⁴²	Linux	IaaS	EC, MEC	√		AT&T, China Unicom, Edge-core, Google, Intel, NTT
EdgeX Foundry ⁴³	Linux	PaaS	IoT		√	Dell, HP, IBM, Intel, Ubuntu, wipro
KubeEdge ⁴⁴	Linux	PaaS	EC	√		Amazon, Apple, Alibaba, Microsoft, Huawei, Cisco, Google

2.4 Intelligence at the Edge of the Network

The development of intelligent applications in IoT has gained significant attention in recent years. Smart devices/sensors can be interconnected each other or with the back end systems to enable various services in multiple domains. Several intelligent technologies have emerged to ensure the proper functioning of IoT devices and their incorporation into the above discussed ecosystem. For instance, the efficient management of software updates of IoT devices aiming at the minimization of the conclusion time and the maximization of their and network's performance is the subject of some recent studies [62], [63], [68]. Cloud provides many benefits to the IoT infrastructure, e.g., high-performance computing, storage resources, processing and analysis of huge volumes of data. Hence, the IoT can be robust, smart and self-configuring. The forthcoming IoE will extend the capabilities of the 'legacy' IoT focusing on the intelligent communication between people, process, data and things [6]. Based on the above, we can easily identify the need for transformation of the interactions between all these 'entities' leading to new types of communications like **Machine to Machine (M2M)** and **Person to Machine (P2M)**. In this new environment, we can detect new requirements for concluding an intelligent ecosystem, e.g., **(i)** advanced models for devices management; **(ii)** intelligent schemes for supporting communications; **(iii)** smart frameworks for the management, processing and storage of humongous volumes of heterogeneous data generated at the network edges.

IoT devices will, now, communicate with EC nodes in short distance relying on them to enjoy advanced services and efficiently serve end users. This means that EC nodes should 'convey' the necessary knowledge, processing and decision making mechanisms to serve IoT devices and the Cloud infrastructure. In any case, EC/EM technologies face various challenges and open research issues. The following paragraphs report on a set of challenges that are critical for the transformation and the delivery of the new EC/EM.

The future intelligent EC/EM (coined here as the 'new edge') will involve numerous autonomous entities capable of understanding their status, the status of the environment and their peers taking actions on the fly to efficiently serve the desired applications. This ecosystem targets to secure the efficient execution of any application learning how to: behave, collaborate, exchange data and tasks, process data and tasks, forecast abnormal situations, select the best strategy to work, react in potential errors or demands in an autonomous manner. It is the appropriate time to provide AI-enhanced autonomous entities at the edge of the network that future applications demand. We have to combine and adapt already present solutions, currently lying isolated, together with new models, algorithms, methods and technologies to holistically target to autonomous entities capable of efficiently serving end users & applications. Apart from the latency minimization (a pivotal aspect in provision of real time services), we should also deal with the QoS and, more importantly, the **Quality of Experience (QoE)**. Future applications will take seriously into consideration the latency combined with the efficiency and the quality of the delivered services. It is not enough to deal only with the latency but QoS and QoE should be also taken into consideration at the same time. Various KPIs will be adopted to depict QoS and QoE, thus, intelligent monitoring modules should be created to decide upon these KPIs. Decisions will be related to the configuration, the cooperation and, in general, the management of EC/EM nodes. KPIs will cover all the aspects of EC/EM nodes functioning being related to the performance of the network, users' satisfaction and potential overheads associated with deployment/migration/replication of the required processing tasks and data. An efficient edge infrastructure is the key challenge for the envisioned IoT applications; it is critical with the growing demand for energy-hungry applications, such as video streaming, Augmented Reality (AR) and 3D gaming.

3. Hardware Requirements

EC/EM functionalities are provided upon the relevant hardware to perform the desired processing or communication. A survey on 'low' level characteristics of the necessary hardware is presented in [22]. In this section, we perform a 'high' level review with limited technicalities to setup the basis for

understanding what we need to efficiently support EC/EM and deploy solutions from the hardware perspective. Table 4 reports on the comparative assessment of a list of representative hardware.

The difference of the EC/EM (compared to Cloud) is that it is distributed across a high number of devices in different locations. This adds a burden on the connection with all the appropriate devices together with their configuration and management. Additional requirements deal with the data present at the distributed locations, e.g., there should be an efficient storage mechanism across different devices, advanced replication and consistency checking models as well as efficient strategies for backing up the available data. In any case, a strong scheme for implementing the coordination with the Cloud back end for data management could increase the performance and assist in solving the aforementioned problems. However, the EC/EM hardware infrastructure should be efficiently connected with the Cloud 'premises' to facilitate the easy communication between the two frameworks when executing the proposed algorithms/models.

The first key component of EC/EM is the communication support. EC/EM should support the connection with the IoT devices (e.g., sensors, actuators) based on already proposed technologies and protocols. The most common protocols for communication are as follows: Bluetooth⁴⁶, ONVIF⁴⁷, Z-Wave⁴⁸, ZigBee⁴⁹, LoRa⁵⁰, KNX⁵¹, Siemens S7⁵², HomeConnect⁵³, Modbus⁵⁴, EnOcean⁵⁵, BACnet⁵⁶, OPC⁵⁷. Apart from that, EC/EM nodes should support data and device management protocols like MQTT⁵⁸, CoAP⁵⁹, AMQP⁶⁰, Websockets⁶¹, TR-069⁶², OMA-DM⁶³. This way, IoT devices will be facilitated to transfer data in an upwards mode and cooperate in processing activities.

The processing at the EC/EM can be performed by dedicated hardware in various forms, e.g., gateways, routers, microservers, etc (see Figure 3). Currently, various companies propose the use of a set of high quality hardware with small size, however, with increased computational resources. The aim is to efficiently support advanced processing at the edge of the network upon the large scale data streams. The first example deals with the Graphical Processing Unit (GPU) [105]. A GPU is a chip dedicated to perform advanced calculations very quickly. Usually, GPUs are adopted for rendering images alleviating the main processor from these activities. For instance, NVIDIA offers multiple solutions for incorporating GPUs in other devices⁶⁴.

Field Programmable Gate Arrays (FPGAs)⁶⁵ are semiconductors IC where the majority of the electrical functionality in the device can be altered by the design engineer, during the PCB assembly process, or after the adoption of the equipment. FPGAs offer many advantages like reducing the latency in the computation, they can be directly connected to inputs and offer a high bandwidth. FPGAs exhibit worse compatibility than the GPUs, however, they require limited programming skills.

⁴⁶ <https://www.bluetooth.com/>

⁴⁷ <https://www.onvif.org/>

⁴⁸ <https://www.z-wave.com/>

⁴⁹ <https://zigbeealliance.org/>

⁵⁰ <https://lora-alliance.org/>

⁵¹ <https://www.knx.org/knx-en/for-professionals/index.php>

⁵² <https://wiki.wireshark.org/S7comm>

⁵³ <https://www.home-connect.com/global>

⁵⁴ <https://modbus.org/>

⁵⁵ <https://www.enocean.com/en/>

⁵⁶ <http://www.bacnet.org/>

⁵⁷ <https://opcfoundation.org/>

⁵⁸ <http://mqtt.org/>

⁵⁹ <https://coap.technology/>

⁶⁰ <https://www.amqp.org/>

⁶¹ <https://tools.ietf.org/html/rfc6455>

⁶² https://www.broadband-forum.org/download/TR-069_Amendment-6.pdf

⁶³ https://www.openmobilealliance.org/wp/Overviews/dm_overview.html

⁶⁴ <https://www.nvidia.com/en-gb/graphics-cards/>

⁶⁵ <https://www.xilinx.com/products/silicon-devices/fpga/what-is-an-fpga.html>

Coral Edge TPUs⁶⁶ are the proposal of Google for edge computing. More specifically, the Dev Board is a single-board computer that is ideal for performing fast ML/DL inferencing. TPUs/Dev Boards can be adopted to prototype embedded systems and scale them to production using the on-board Coral System-on-Module (SoM) combined with a custom PCB hardware. The Edge TPU coprocessor is capable of performing 4 trillion operations (tera-operations) per second (TOPS), using 0.5 watts for each TOPS (2 TOPS per watt).

The **EGX Edge Computing Platform**⁶⁷ is proposed by NVIDIA to deliver accelerated AI computing to the edge with an easy-to-deploy Cloud native software stack, a range of validated servers and devices, and a vast ecosystem of partners who offer EGX through their products and services. The EGX hardware portfolio starts with the power-efficient NVIDIA Jetson Family, which includes the small but mighty Jetson Nano and Xavier NX providing between 0.5 to 21 trillion operations per second (TOPS) for tasks such as image recognition and sensor fusion. Additionally, the hardware scales to a full rack of NVIDIA T4 servers, delivering more than 10,000 TOPS to serve hundreds of users with real-time speech recognition and other complex AI experiences.

The **Raspberry Pi**⁶⁸ is a series of small single-board computers to, initially, promote teaching of basic Computer Science. It is widely used in applications developed for various research domains because of its low cost and portability. Several implementations of Raspberry Pis have been released so far. Pis feature a Broadcom System on a chip (SoC) with an integrated ARM-compatible CPU and on-chip GPU. CPU speed ranges from 700 MHz to 1.4 GHz for the Pi 3 Model B+ or 1.5 GHz for the Pi 4; on-board memory ranges from 256 MB to 1 GB random-access memory (RAM), with up to 8 GB available on the Pi 4. Secure Digital (SD) cards in MicroSDHC form factor (SDHC on early models) are used to store the operating system and program memory.

Micro servers can be also adopted for hosting the collected data and performing the desired processing for delivering analytics. According to [93], the micro server market was valued at USD 39.71 billion in 2019 and is expected to reach USD 67 billion by 2025, at a CAGR of 9.11% over the forecast period 2020 - 2025. This growth will be driven by the expansion of EC/EM and the applications it hosts. The market will be enhanced by the adoption of M2M learning and IoT-enabled devices that create the need for more advanced services. Micro servers will be able to host services related to the management of huge volumes of structured and unstructured data or trivial workloads. The presence of a pre-installed operating system in micro servers will facilitate the deployment of new services and expose the infrastructure to small and medium size enterprises. However, the lack of standardization requires more intensive efforts towards the easiness of the integration of multiple heterogeneous models and algorithms.

Table 4 AI & ML solutions comparison⁶⁹

	NVIDIA® Jetson™ TX2 ⁷⁰	TPU Dev Board ⁷¹	Raspberry Pi ⁷²
AI Accelerator	256 CUDA Maxwell Cores	EDGE TPU	K210 (Extra)

⁶⁶ <https://coral.ai/>

⁶⁷ <https://www.nvidia.com/en-us/data-center/products/egx-edge-computing/>

⁶⁸ <https://www.raspberrypi.org/>

⁶⁹ Characteristics and prices depend on the specific model retrieved at January 2021. This table presents only indicative values for each characteristic for comparison purposes

Kit size	87 mm x 50 mm	88 mm x 60 mm x 22 mm	85.6mm × 56.5mm
SOM size	69.6 mm x 45 mm	48 mm x 40 mm x 5 mm	55 mm × 40 mm × 4.5mm
Operating System	Ubuntu	Debian	Raspberry Pi OS (Debian)
GPU	NVIDIA with 256 NVIDIA CUDA cores 1.3 TFLOPS (FP16)	Integrated GC7000 Lite Graphics	Broadcom VideoCore VI (32-bit)
CPU	Dual-core Denver 2 64-bit CPU and quad-core ARM A57 complex	NXP i.MX 8M SoC (quad Cortex-A53, Cortex-M4F)	Quad-core ARM Cortex-A72 64-bit @ 1.5 Ghz
Memory	8 GB 128-bit LPDDR4 1866MHz - 59.7 GB/s	4 GB LPDDR4	4-8 GB LPDDR4
Storage	32 GB eMMC 5.1	8 GB eMMC, MicroSD slot	8 GB eMMC, MicroSD slot
Video encode	H.264/H.265 (4Kp30)	4Kp60 HEVC/H.265	H.264/H.265 (4Kp60, 2x 4Kp30)
Video decode	H.265(4Kp60), H.264(1080p60)	4Kp60 VP9 4Kp30 AVC/H.264 1080p60 MPEG-2, MPEG-4p2 VC-1, VP8, RV9, AVS, MJPEG H.263	H264(1080p30)
Wi-Fi	√	√	√
LAN	√	√	√
Bluetooth		√	√
Audio		√	√
USB3	√	√	√
Camera	√	√	√
Display	HDMI 2.0	HDMI 2.0	micro-HDMI
Average Cost (\$)	~450	~150	~70

4. (Deep) Machine Learning Models

Machine Learning (ML) refers to the process that a machine has to go through in order to learn a certain behavior and then recognize it, replicate it, or predict new ones without needing to be explicitly programmed on how to do that. ML algorithms receive a considerable amount of data from which they try to extract information. The extraction, also known as training of the algorithm, involves the use of mathematical models or mechanisms that focus on eliminating the errors made by the final model. Some algorithms take into consideration statistics about the dataset to produce the final model, whereas others start with a guess and improve the model incrementally as they process each of the provided dataset's entries. Traditional ML methods are not computationally efficient or scalable enough to handle both the characteristics of big data (e.g., large volumes, high speeds, varying types, low value density, incompleteness) and uncertainty [41]. In this Section, we present 'traditional' ML models together with DL approaches to have a complete view on the types of algorithms that can be adopted to support intelligent applications at the EC/EM.

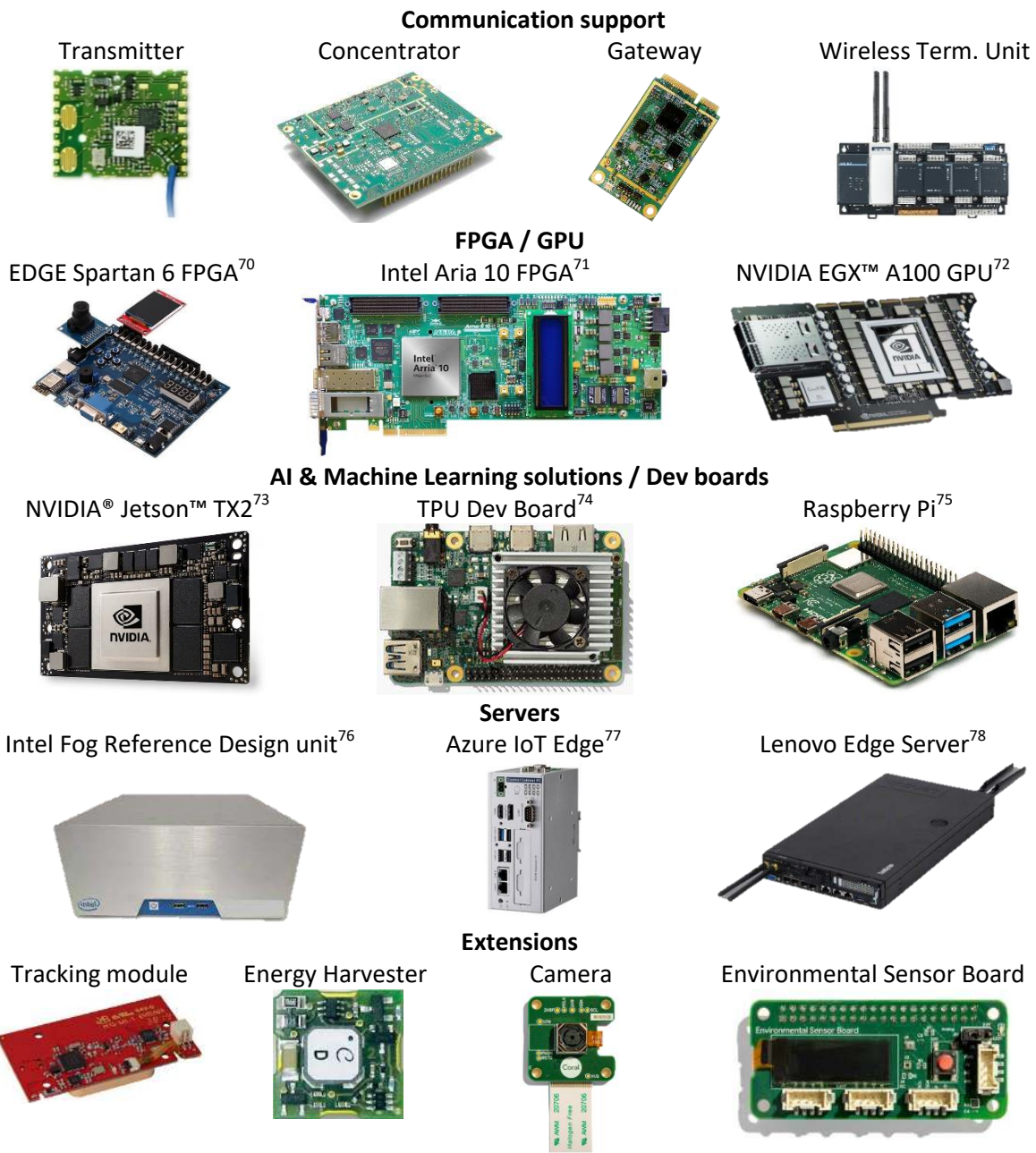


Figure 3. Hardware examples per processing category

⁷⁰ <https://allaboutfpga.com/product/edge-spartan-6-fpga-development-board/>

⁷¹ <https://www.intel.com/content/www/us/en/products/programmable/fpga/aria-10.html>

⁷² <https://www.nvidia.com/en-au/data-center/products/egx-converged-accelerator/>

⁷³ <https://developer.nvidia.com/embedded/jetson-tx2>

⁷⁴ <https://coral.ai/products/>

⁷⁵ <https://www.raspberrypi.org/>

⁷⁶ <https://www.reflexces.com/wp-content/uploads/2018/11/fog-reference-design-overview-guide.pdf>

⁷⁷ <https://azure.microsoft.com/en-us/services/iot-edge/>

⁷⁸ <https://www.lenovo.com/us/en/data-center/servers/edge/thinksystem-se350/p/77XX6DSE35>

4.1. Machine Learning Models

There are various types of machine learning algorithms, such as supervised, unsupervised, and semi-supervised learning, reinforcement learning, feature learning and association rules algorithms.

4.1.1 Supervised Learning

Supervised learning algorithms take as input a training dataset whose every entry consists of a vector of features along with a target value or label. Based on the dataset, a mathematical model is built that works as follows; when receiving as input the feature values of an instance of the dataset, it attempts to produce the corresponding value or label. In essence, a function is created that receives as input the values for specific features and produces a value or decision as its output. The discussed function's error rate has been minimized to be congruous to the training dataset. Supervised learning can be performed with regression and classification algorithms.

A linear regression algorithm models the target value of the training dataset as the linear combination of its features that predicts an output value based on the input feature values. More specifically, every feature is assigned a coefficient and there is also a bias, such that $y = a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots + a_nx_n + b \Leftrightarrow y = \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b$, where y represents the target value of an instance, \mathbf{x} is a vector containing the features of the instance, \mathbf{a} is the vector containing the coefficients corresponding to the features \mathbf{a} and b is the bias. The problem is finding the right coefficients and bias that result in the most accurate predictions of the output value given the input values; this is achieved by minimizing the **Mean Squared Error (MSE)** of the predicted values against the true values of the dataset instances.

Classification, on the other hand, is the process of categorizing an instance of data to the most appropriate of a number of available classes. Classification can be performed after the training of a Support Vector Machine (SVM), a logistic regression classifier, a Naïve Bayes classifier, a decision tree, a k-nearest neighbours algorithm, a neural network, or other algorithms. Support vector machines depict all the instances of a training dataset in a multi-dimensional space and then try to create one or more hyperplanes that divide the instances into the two or more separate classes. A Naïve Bayes classifier depends on the Bayes theorem, i.e., $P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)}$, to predict the class label of an instance. In particular, the application of the Bayes theorem is the following: $P(C_k|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{P(\mathbf{x}|C_k)P(C_k)}{P(\mathbf{x})}$, meaning that the probability of an instance's class to be C_k given that the feature vector is \mathbf{x} is equal to the probability of the feature vector \mathbf{x} occurring in class C_k multiplied by the probability of an instance belonging to class C_k and divided by the probability of an instance being described by the feature vector \mathbf{x} . A decision tree is created from the root all the way down to the leaves by dividing the dataset based on the criteria that divide it most efficiently; all leaves are affiliated with a class and when a prediction needs to be made an instance starting from the root follows the path to the appropriate leaf based on its feature values and node rules. The k-nearest neighbours (k-NN) algorithm predicts an instance's class by taking into consideration its k (specified) closest neighbours in the multi-dimensional space; the instance's distance from all other instances of the training dataset is computed to choose the k nearest ones and come to a decision about its class. A logistic regression classifier works very similarly to the linear regression algorithm, with the only difference being that at the end it classifies the instance to a class based on the computed linear combination of the feature values.

4.1.2 Unsupervised Learning

Unsupervised learning, also known as self-organization, is a process which takes as input a dataset that is unlabelled and tries to discover its underlying structure. Unsupervised learning can be achieved through the use of clustering, anomaly detection and other algorithms.

A clustering algorithm receives a set of unlabelled data and attempts to divide them into groups. Maybe the most well-known clustering algorithm, the k-Means clustering algorithm sets a specified number of cluster centroids based on random data entries and then classifies each of the rest of the data entries to the cluster whose centroid is closest to it. After all the entries have been classified, the cluster centroids are recomputed based on their members and all the data are classified once again. This process goes on until the cluster centroids become stable or a maximum number of iterations, also known as epochs, is reached. Hierarchical clustering attempts to form a hierarchy of clusters, and there are two different methods of achieving that: agglomerative or divisive hierarchical clustering. The former strategy constitutes a bottom-up approach; it begins with all of the data entries making up their own cluster and the hierarchy is created by the merge of pairs of clusters, until the top layer is reached where all clusters have been merged into one. The latter strategy is a top-down approach; in the beginning, all data entries make up a single cluster and the hierarchy is created by recursively splitting a cluster until all clusters contain only one entry. The resulting tree is depicted in a dendrogram. Cutting it at a specified height gives one the corresponding clusters. Another popular clustering algorithm is DBSCAN; it divides data points into clusters based on the density of the different groups of points. In particular, groups of data points that are close enough to a specified number of other points, along with any other points in their reach, form clusters; the rest of the points are classified as noise points. OPTICS is an algorithm that combines hierarchical clustering with density-based clustering.

Anomaly detection involves the training of an algorithm to recognize a set of patterns or behaviours as normal and the rest as outliers. Anomalous items are also called novelties, deviations, noise, or exceptions. Density-based techniques, such as k-nearest neighbour, local outlier factor, and isolation forest are very popular in the literature; data points that are not members of high-concentration clusters, are by default anomalous. One-class SVMs are another option, seeing as they form a hyperplane that divides most of the data from the noise. In general, cluster analysis methods can also be used to perform outlier detection. Bayesian networks and Hidden Markov models, as well as, many more algorithms also provide solutions to the anomaly detection problem.

4.1.3 Reinforcement Learning

Reinforcement learning (RL) involves the existence of an environment and an agent. Unlike supervised learning, RL does not need a labelled dataset to train an agent; it rather attempts to find a balance between exploring the uncharted territory and exploiting the current knowledge. In particular, the environment has a state while the agent repeatedly takes actions in order to reach an objective. Every time the agent takes an action, the environment gives back a reward along with its next state; the reward reflects the agent's progress towards its goal. This happens until the environment reaches a final state; either that the agent has achieved its objective or not. RL utilizes dynamic programming — breaking down a problem into sub-problems and recursively solving them — in combination with the **Markov Decision Process (MDP)**, having the agent's actions be dictated by the probability that they will lead to a successful outcome, all the while trying to maximize its cumulative reward. The aforementioned probability is determined by a policy that the agent employs and is dependent on the agent's current state. Furthermore, a value is defined as the long-term expected return of a state given a policy and a Q-value, also known as action-value, is defined as the long-term expected return of a state-action pair given a policy.

The most well-known algorithm to implement RL is Q-learning, which is based on the Bellman equation [1] and gives no guarantee that a solution will be found. Applying the Bellman equation to the agent-environment system, we have: $v(s) = \mathbb{E}[R_{t+1} + \lambda v(S_{t+1}) | S_t = s]$ where $v(s)$ is the value of a state s , R_{t+1} refers to the immediate reward, λ is the discounting factor of future state values and \mathbb{E} depicts the expectation. In the form of Q-value, the equation is transformed to $Q^\pi(s, a) = \mathbb{E}_{s'}[r + \lambda \max_{a'} Q^\pi(s', a') | s, a]$, where $Q^\pi(s, a)$ is the action-value of a state-action

pair. The goal is to find the optimal/maximum Q-value; Q-Learning uses a greedy policy to achieve that. Another algorithm is State-Action-Reward-State-Action (SARSA), which is quite similar to Q-learning. Their difference is that SARSA computes the optimal Q-value given the action that is performed based on the current policy instead of the greedy policy. Lastly, the policy gradient method relies upon the optimization of the agent's policy in relation to the long-term cumulative reward by performing gradient ascent, using the REINFORCE algorithm as well as the actor-critic architecture. This approach avoids the lack of guarantee of a value function, as well as, the complexity that the previous approach entails.

4.1.4 Algorithms Categorization

In Table 5, we provide a categorization of the above discussed algorithms and present their characteristics. For each category, we also provide representative models together with their implementation complexity and usage.

Table 5 Machine Learning models

ML Models	Supervised Learning	Unsupervised Learning	Reinforcement Learning
Type of data	Labelled	Unlabelled	No predefined data
Training	External supervision	No supervision	No supervision
Complexity	Simple	High	High
Usage	Predict outcome/future by mapping labelled data inputs to known outputs	Find hidden structure in data and discovers the output	Learn series of actions using trial-and-error method
Algorithms	<p><i>Regression</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Logistic Regression Decision Tree Regression LASSO Regression Ridge Regression ElasticNet regression <p><i>Classification</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> support-vector machine (SVM), logistic regression classifier, Naïve Bayes classifier, decision tree, k-nearest neighbors Neural network 	<p><i>Clustering</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> K-means clustering Hierarchical clustering DBSCAN OPTICS <p><i>Anomaly detection</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> K-NN (k nearest neighbors) local outlier factor isolation forest One-class SVMs Bayesian networks Hidden Markov models 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Q-learning State-Action-Reward-State-Action QV ACLA

4.2 Deep Learning Models

Another way to approach ML algorithms is to form topologies of nodes, also known as neurons that collaborate to achieve learning. Neural network algorithms are characterized as DL algorithms because they can model especially complex behaviours and patterns, in contrast to other models. Their setting enables them to delve deep into the available data and extract comprehensive and accurate knowledge.

4.2.1 Supervised Learning

Neural networks provide a more sophisticated approach to linear regression. In fact, neural networks have an input layer, an output layer, and a number of hidden layers; the input layer has as many nodes as the features of the dataset and the output layer has as many nodes as the output

values we want to predict. Had there been no hidden layers, a neural network would seem like a simple linear regressor; now, the nodes of each layer receive as input the output of the previous layer and compute their own output which propagates in a forward direction until the outcomes of the output layer are computed. In the training phase, an instance's prediction error is computed at the output layer and is gradually 'back-propagated' until all the layers' weights and biases are optimized, each node optimizing its coefficients quite similarly to how a single linear regressor does. This kind of neural network is called a **multi-layer adaptive linear element (MADALINE)**.

Apart from the basic neural network manner of training, there are also the **radial basis function (RBF)** neural networks. A node in such a network behaves a lot like the k-NN algorithm, in that it receives as input the distance from a set of points in the multi-dimensional space. It essentially functions based on the idea that similar inputs produce similar output values. Another entirely different approach to neural networks is the one presented by **convolutional neural networks (CNNs)**. In their case, the input has three (3) dimensions and usually represents the pixels of an image. One type of layer in CNNs consists of filters being convoluted with the output table of the previous layer. Pooling is another type of layer in CNNs; it produces a smaller table that condenses the contents of the previous layer's output table. Furthermore, another layer may contain an activation function being applied to the previous layer's output table. Lastly, a final set of layers is often fully connected, resembling a multi-perceptron layer.

Neural network classifiers also work in a similar fashion to their regression counterparts; just like with the logistic regression algorithm, an activation function decides what class the input instance belongs to, based on the output value of the neural network. An appropriate activation function can also be applied to the output of any one node, before that is used for further computation in the next layer. Some activation functions are rectifier linear unit (ReLU), the hyperbolic tangent, the logistic/sigmoid function, the softplus function and more.

All the previous networks can be either static or dynamic. Static networks depend only on the current input to the network to compute its output. In contrast, dynamic networks depend not only on the current input to the network but also on the network's past inputs, outputs, or states. Dynamic networks contain delay lines that have a forward or backward (recurrent) direction or both. Therefore, the order in which the inputs enter the network can make a huge difference to the output. One of the most well-known recurrent networks is the **long short-term memory (LSTM)**.

4.2.2 Unsupervised Learning

Neural network topologies have been designed to perform unsupervised learning. First off, auto encoders are neural networks that receive a set of data and (learn to) encode them without following a specific preprogrammed algorithm. Their main advantage is their ability to perform efficient dimensionality reduction, keeping only the useful information and discarding of the rest. Deep belief networks are trained to reconstruct an input to their topology given an output result; they consist of visible and hidden units where the former represent the training dataset features and the latter an output vector. To train such a network, each of the layers serves as input to the other; the two vectors are computed back and forth until the weights are trained to turn information from one format to the other, quite similarly to auto encoders. Hebbian Learning is based on Hebb's rule which states that when one cell A repeatedly fires another cell B, then A's efficiency is increased [52] or else 'neurons that fire together wire together' [20]. Applying this rule to artificial neural networks, a specified number of clusters can be created by sequentially combining each entry of a dataset with the representative of the cluster that is closest to it, until all cluster representatives reach their final form. A **generative adversarial network (GAN)** can produce a dataset that has the same statistics as its training dataset. It consists of two neural networks that are adversaries to one another; the generative and the adversarial network. The former generates candidate data, while the latter evaluates their plausibility and/or fitness into the distribution of the original data; candidates that

are classified as real data are saved to the new dataset. A **self-organizing map (SOM)** is trained to create a low-dimensional (generally two-dimensional) representation of a high-dimensional dataset, essentially performing dimensionality reduction. A SOM's training is carried out with the use of competitive learning - a variant to Hebbian learning - instead of back propagation, and a neighbourhood function that helps maintain the input data's properties.

4.2.3 Deep Reinforcement Learning

In RL, neural networks are not typically the main attraction. On the contrary, they are used to estimate the optimal Q-value for an agent that would otherwise have to be computed. The deep Q network (DQN) algorithm, for instance, trains a neural network consisting of two (2) convolutional and two (2) fully connected layers on the target Q-value based on the Q-learning update equation. Subsequently, the DQN's complexity is much lower than that of the original Q-learning algorithm. Moreover, deep deterministic policy gradient (DDPG) is the classic policy gradient algorithm taken a step further to include a neural network, thus, becoming faster to train.

4.2.4 DL Algorithms Categorization

In Table 6, we provide a categorization of the above discussed algorithms and present their characteristics. For each category, we also provide representative models together with their usage.

Table 6 Deep Neural Networks characteristics

Deep Neural Networks	Activation function	Dataflow	Usage
Supervised Learning			
MADALINE	Sign	Feed forward	Classification, Regression
Radial basis functions	Radial basis	Feed forward	function approximation, time series prediction, classification
Recurrent	Sigmoid Hyperbolic tangent	Any direction	language modelling, Long short-term memory
Convolutional	ReLU	Feed forward	computer vision, speech recognition
Unsupervised Learning			
Auto encoders	Sigmoid function ReLU Softplus	Feed forward	dimensionality reduction, structured prediction, anomaly detection
GAN	ReLU	Feed forward, Adversarial process	Fashion, art and advertising, Video games
SOM	None	Feed forward	dimensionality reduction
Deep belief networks	Hyperbolic tangent	Any direction	Motion-capture, Image/video recognition
Reinforcement Learning			
Deep QN	ReLU	Feed forward	Q-value approximation

4.3 Discussion

The above described algorithms can become the key enabling factors for bringing intelligence at the EC/EM. ML can be adopted by EC/EM nodes to facilitate the local processing of the collected data as well as the processing of the surrounding contextual information to lead to better decision making for every aspect of their behavior. Currently, the advent of new computationally enhanced edge devices (see Section 3) in small sizes opens up the path for training, running and aggregating

multiple ML models at the edge of the network. Various companies have started to propose solutions for bringing these algorithms in the constrained devices present at the EC and support the vision of the EM. A representative example is Microsoft's effort⁷⁹ where a library of ML algorithms designed to work off the grid on severely resource constrained scenarios is provided. As described in [156], the first step towards having intelligence at the edge is to collect the data from various sources. There are two options for data storage and the training of ML models, i.e., at the Cloud or directly at the EC/EM. The first option is selected when we want to train complex ML/DL models (e.g., deep learning models) upon large scale data. The second option is preferable when our ML/DL model is simple enough to be concluded in the minimum possible time upon a limited amount of data (e.g., a simple linear regression scheme). The same approach can be adopted for the inference process. We can perform the inference directly at the EC/EM leading to increased edge intelligence as it enhances the autonomous nature of nodes present at the edge. Data can be also used to retrain the model on the edge by taking advantage of transfer learning [143]. This action will lead to a 'personalized' model fully aligned with the data and the contextual needs of each node. Other activities can be also adopted at the EC/EM like the federated learning [3], i.e., the aggregation of multiple 'personalized' models in order to produce a 'global' model. This gives the opportunity to have nodes taking decisions on the fly related to their preferences for receiving ML/DL models from peers and aggregate them in order to incorporate their view into the local decision making mechanism. From this discussion, it becomes obvious the organic relation between the EC/EM and the Cloud and the need for realizing nodes that are capable of deciding type of the processing and the places where this processing should be realized. The future edge ecosystem of numerous nodes with advanced capabilities (as the computational resources at the edge increase) will blur the 'traditional' model where the Cloud data centers are devoted to train ML/DL models and the inference is performed at the EC/EM. The advent of the EM and the incorporation of EI will give the opportunity to keep some training and management tasks at the edge with positive impact in the latency on the provision of responses. Hence, complex DL activities can be kept in the Cloud while the remaining ML/DL models can be trained and adopted at the EC/EM infrastructure opening up the space for edge to edge collaborations. Finally, the distributed DL frameworks could also be executed on the edge, however, there is an increased complexity required by the aggregation of the distributed models when this is necessary.

5. Data Management at the Edge

5.1 High Level Description

In recent years, data are continuously being collected by sensors and end users, amounting to huge volumes which were traditionally pulled to the Cloud. Today, the edge of the network can assist to alleviate the traffic by playing the role of the mediator. As [112] proposes, the edge can pull the data at first, then, send them to the Cloud at an acceptable rate. The more advanced alternative would be to store data at the edge and have them be closer to users or store them both at the edge and the Cloud for security reasons.

Data management models are essential in an EC/EM environment. EC/EM can only be efficient if data are stored at an appropriate node with respect to their popularity. Accordingly, the data provision latency will usually be low if users requesting them are close to the node that they are

⁷⁹ <https://www.microsoft.com/en-us/research/project/resource-efficient-ml-for-the-edge-and-endpoint-iot-devices/#!publications>

stored at. Nevertheless, data have to be distributed in a uniform manner as much as possible. If not, the danger of creating big data centers that start to resemble Cloud infrastructures arises.

The authors of [49] propose a fitting solution to the problem by taking into consideration four important factors; the spatio-temporal locality of range queries, the corresponding information and type of data, the incessant creation and collection of data, as well as the requirements for increased availability of stored data. More specifically, (i) they index data by their spatio-temporal features and place them close to the interested clients, while also (ii) creating replicas on other edge nodes and Cloud, (iii) allowing application developers to define groups of nodes which can balance their loads among each other, and (iv) applying a time-to-live eviction policy, data aggregation and compression to the incoming data. Therefore, this system decreases data latency, is fault-tolerant, strives for load balance and de-escalation of data hotspots, and keeps resource requirements at a minimum, presenting an efficient approach to data management at the edge.

In [117], an architecture for the distributed storage of real-time machine vision data at the edge is proposed. The authors argue that data storage architectures for the edge of the network should be designed keeping in mind the application that uses the specific data. Feature vectors that describe the objects in an image are transferred to the edge at a high rate, whereas images (100x larger in size) whose primary purpose is to be archived and can afford to lose some accuracy are transferred less often, and in case they are similar enough to previous ones they are discarded. The architecture's main idea is to take the advantage of the difference between the data types' latency requirements and the tolerance in images' accuracy loss. Such architecture allows for the efficient management of data related to machine vision at the edge, seeing as it avoids placing useless data at an edge node's storage units.

The authors of [125] provide a polynomial-time greedy algorithm as a solution to the problem of data allocation in a group of heterogeneous mobile edge nodes. Their model takes into consideration the size of data, the storage capacity of the available nodes, a node-to-data demand matrix, as well as a corresponding transportation cost matrix. The result of the proposed model is an optimal decision for the data allocation and is computed at a $(1-1/e)$ -approximation factor. This work presents an option that can easily be implemented at the edge of the network, owing to its efficiency and minimal demand of resources.

Moreover, the use of a system called Greedy Routing for Edge Data (GRED) is suggested by [144] for the efficient management of data storage and subsequent recovery. Data items and edge servers are mapped in a virtual space according to their IDs; afterwards, a data item is assigned to the closest edge server in the virtual space for storage. Data retrieval is implemented through the utilization of distributed hash tables (DHTs) for data stored at one-hop-away neighboring edge nodes in combination with SDN for query routing. Its experimental evaluation yields less than 30% routing cost and balances the load of data better than Chord [132], a popular DHT.

ECS (Edge-side Cooperative Storage) [59] constitutes a graph-based iterative algorithm that aims to place data that is required by an edge node to perform its tasks at its corresponding storage unit. The algorithm starts off by assigning to each edge server its most preferred data block and then continues by repetitively updating every node's assignment taking into consideration the other nodes' assignments. This framework can easily be implemented in a distributed manner and is not necessarily dependent on a centralized manager. One drawback is that an edge server is assigned with only one specific data block, whose size and content is predetermined, removing the possibility of an edge server storing a list of unrelated data items. Surely, that poses no problem unless an edge node performs many tasks at a time.

GAPSO [26] combines the best characteristics of the Genetic Algorithm (GA) and Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) to distribute accordingly the data that are required from each edge node that participates in a scientific workflow. In particular, GA's crossover and mutation functions are integrated into PSO, whose ability to quickly converge to a solution is exploited. The decision is

made considering the restrictions placed on the transmission costs. This algorithm involves little to no difficulty in implementation, while also achieving efficiency in performance.

Another approach to data management at the edge is represented in [60]; data can be stored at different edge nodes according to criteria like data solidity, which ensures that all data allocated to a specific node have a bounded standard deviation. This paper's authors utilize interpretable machine learning to compute the most important of an incoming data entry's features, and only based on them decide whether it will be stored locally or offloaded to a peer or the cloud. The importance of each feature is calculated with three different metrics and finalized by a neural network. Then, the most important features are imported to a Naïve Bayes model that determines the data entry's final location. Such a model can improve the time of retrieval for a range query, since data are stored in a quite sorted manner, hence proving itself valuable for an appropriate application setting.

5.2 Replica placement

A variety of models (like [8], [123]) are proposed for the prediction of data items' future demand and subsequent caching on edge nodes, should the corresponding demands be high. These frameworks allow for quick retrieval of requested data that are primarily stored on the Cloud. The authors of [78] suggest the use of two centralized algorithms for the allocation of data block replicas; DRC-GM is responsible for dynamically adjusting the number of replicas given the frequency of access to a specified data block, and RP-FNSG's goal is to find the optimal location for the aforementioned replicas in this problem of distributed placement. In [126], the authors introduce a model that combines the cloud and edge computing paradigms to place data replicas on both of the two infrastructures, thus delivering a time- and power-efficient solution for IoT scenarios that involve large datasets. More specifically, the problem is modeled as a 0-1 integer programming model and makes decisions through a variant of intelligent swarm optimization based on dependencies between data and the reliability of the storage hardware, among others. A content centric approach is the focus of [128] where a scheme is described around four complementary to each other algorithms for data caching at the edge. Each of these algorithms focuses on one of the following features to make latency minimum: data popularity, data heterogeneity, user mobility, and resource availability. Combining all these metrics to derive the final allocation makes for a powerful framework that can make effective decisions very fast. Indeed, the model was designed for use in a smart city, which requires efficient real-time decision-making above all else.

These approaches deliver positive results, seeing data in close proximity to a number of edge nodes that request them; however, replication techniques seem to be costlier than offloading models in terms of computational resources and latency. This is due to the involvement of Cloud, which makes computations more complicated and communications slow.

5.3 Joint Data and Tasks Allocation

Data and tasks allocation/placement at the EC/EM is a significant research field. A number of research activities try to detect the optimal location where data and tasks are distributed (e.g., [67]). The aim is to eliminate the time for delivering the final analytics while keeping maximized the 'matching' between requests and the available data. In [38], the authors focus on joint tasks and data placement over the edge of the network for data-intensive services. They suggest the use of a polynomial-time algorithm that solves their problem by treating it as a set function optimization. The solution takes into consideration resource constraints in computation, storage, communication, and cost. In [18], a scheme that allocates data to edge nodes and, then, if possible, allocates tasks to edge nodes that have in their storage the data they require. Specifically, the scheduler's data placement kernel can function in four ways: (i) no replication, where no data are replicated to an edge node before a request for them arrives, (ii) 1-replication, where each data block is replicated to

only one edge node, (iii) full replication, where all data blocks are replicated and stored at each edge node in the network, and (iv) context-aware replication, where a strategy much like the one introduced in [78] is activated. Furthermore, the scheduler's task allocation component operates through (i) random task scheduling, (ii) data aware-scheduling, where a task is randomly placed on one of the edge nodes that possess a replica of the data required for the task's execution, and (iii) performance-aware scheduling, which places a task at the fastest edge node without a job that also possesses the required data at that moment. Such an approach is very appealing, but if the network it is applied to is large enough, transmission latencies risk exceeding the avoided cost of not having to communicate data very often. An additional research effort [75] proposes a scheme that seems superior to the previous two. First, data blocks are allocated to edge nodes based on (i) the value of the data, which depends on their popularity, the edge node's storage capacity and replacement ratio, denoting the data block's size in relation to the node's storage capacity, (ii) the transmission cost, and (iii) the replacement cost. The assignments are determined through the use of the Tabu search algorithm [43], [44]. After that comes the tasks allocation part, which is based on the allocated data blocks. A variant of the Kuhn-Munkres Hungarian method [138] is employed to find the optimal solution, given (i) the tasks' priorities, (ii) the relevance between tasks and data, and (iii) the transmission costs. This framework combines the two functionalities and, as experimental results show, achieves low response times, high hit rates and a low number of replacements, making it an ideal solution for a generic joint data-and-task allocation scheme.

6. Tasks Management at the Edge

Since the number of owned personal devices has immensely increased these last few years, so have requests for services. The rise in the number of devices has made possible people's access to existing services and to new ones created to satiate the population's new needs. Service requests are now numerous and require much more processing power than before to be responded. EC/EM intends to bring the request processing closer to end users and reduce the bandwidth overload which restricts the performance of the Web, thus, lowering the related latency. However, executing tasks at the edge is not as simple as it sounds, owing to the heterogeneity of EC nodes and service requests at different locations. Placement/offloading techniques have to be employed to ensure the smooth operation of edge computing. We have to notice that, in this survey, we consider the research efforts dealing with services/tasks management in two 'sub-layers', i.e., the EC infrastructure and the intelligent cover that EM offers. Hence, services and workflow management are usually combined with actions adopted in the EC infrastructure for supporting the processing tasks demanded by users or applications.

DCTA (Data-driven Cooperative Task Allocation) [23] was designed to manage multi-task transfer learning. It exploits the fact that each task has its own importance so as to produce an effective task allocation solution. In particular, the authors have observed that only a few of the requested tasks are actually important and, thus, DCTA assigns those tasks to the most powerful available edge nodes. To achieve that, at first, Clustered Reinforcement Learning (CRL), which is a combination of k-NN and Deep Q-learning, was created. However, due to simulation limitations that CRL poses, a cooperative learning approach that uses both CRL and SVM is finally proposed. Ultimately, even though the algorithm was developed to solve a quite specific problem, it can certainly be applied to the generic problem of tasks allocation, since the main idea of task importance applies to all tasks.

MobMig [108], a mobility-aware and migration-enabled approach, is a framework that consists of two algorithms for mobile edge computing tasks allocation. The first, mobility-aware allocation, is responsible of detecting incoming users in the range of an edge node that have unallocated task requests and then allocating them to edge nodes, based on a fitness function. The second, mobility-aware migration, aims to find overloaded edge nodes and relieve them by offloading tasks to nearby

under loaded nodes. This scheme takes care of incoming tasks and redistributes existing tasks to reflect user mobility and solve node overloading, which can be a big problem if left untreated.

6.1 Placement of Containers

In general, containers and virtualized resources management should be dictated by a number of parameters that deal with the environment where these resources are placed. Such a decision is significant as the desired services will be uploaded and executed on them towards supporting the processing activities that end users or applications demand. The discussed management mainly refers in the EC infrastructure exhibiting a very close connection with the hardware and the operating software that is present in EC nodes. The authors of [83] focus on the migration of services to nearby edge nodes as the user is moving and approaching different nodes in a wide area network. They propose the use and migration of Docker containers, which they have studied extensively, and have been able to utilize their hierarchical file system to shorten the cost of its synchronization, all the while not depending on the distributed file system. The authors present experimental results that show an extensive decrease in service migration time, which renders this technique suitable for integration to any container allocation method. Further, the authors of [31] present two placement algorithms, KCBP (k-Center-Based Placement) and KCBP-WC (KCBP-Without Conflict), whose aim is to allocate container images to edge nodes while reducing the maximum transmission time of containers. To achieve that, it also exploits the hierarchical structure of containers and communicates only the layers that are not already in the receiving node's storage. The first algorithm, KCBP sorts layers by their size and places them at edge nodes so that the distance sum is minimized. KCBP-WC is an extension that avoids placing two large layers at the same node, so that there is no extra overhead. Experimental results show a very large reduction in recovery time compared to other algorithms, supporting the proposed scheme's effectiveness.

In [130], the authors study the frequent handover problem with the objective to maximize the availability of resources at fog domains. To do so, they propose a resource placement algorithm leveraging RL and apply it in vehicular networks. The presented results point-out that RL solutions can learn the underline resources and result in fewer live migrations. In [40], migration strategies for virtual machines and containers are studied based on the concept of community relationship of the devices of a distributed system. The base idea is to migrate applications if the overall benefit is greater than the generated overhead by migrating applications between nodes. Fog nodes are partitioned into a hierarchical dendrogram using topological features of graphs. The latter is used to assign virtual machines to DCs. An extension of iFogSim [48], a simulator is presented in [81]. MyiFogSim supports mobility as it enables virtual machine migration policies for users based on user's position, direction and speed.

6.2 Greedy Approaches

A lot of work has been performed in the management of workflows and the corresponding tasks placement at the EC or the Cloud infrastructures (e.g., [102]). Usually, high level tasks may be 'transformed' to a workflow, i.e., a sequence of dependent or independent tasks that should be executed in the available nodes. For instance, when a node in the EM receives a request for the delivery of the regression coefficients upon the available data, it may separate the high level task to a set of sub-tasks and allocate them to the available resources for execution. The authors of [5] have developed a greedy heuristic algorithm that assigns tasks to resources on the edge or the Cloud for execution. Its criteria for the allocation include the deadline or other constraints connected to a task, the network distance between a task and a resource, and hence the latency it results in, a node's load of work and its capacity concerning energy. The algorithm's main objective is to produce a mapping of services to resources, while also minimizing the overall execution times and costs. The

algorithm's time complexity equals $\Theta(nm)$, where n is the number of tasks and m the number of nodes, which is a quite reasonable and expected value for a greedy algorithm. In [9], a number of algorithms for autonomous (re)placement of services in an edge node are described and compared to a centralized optimal Mixed Integer Linear Problem (MILP) based algorithm which minimizes the number of services that are delegated to Cloud for execution. In particular, the authors propose the admission and scheduling of service requests by an edge node only if the deadlines of already scheduled tasks as well as the new task are not violated; otherwise, the service request that the node denied is propagated to the cloud through the fog network, where it can also be admitted and executed by a fog node. The admitted requests are scheduled based on non-preemptive policies, such as Earliest Deadline First (EDF) and First-In-First-Out (FIFO). In addition, as a general rule, an edge cannot be running all services it receives requests. For that reason, it maintains a running set of services which is updated upon request arrival, periodically or at random intervals. The paper recommends the following ranking policies for the selection of running services: (i) Strictest Deadline First (SDF), where the requests of the services that are chosen have the least average amount of remaining time towards the deadline, (ii) Least Frequently Used (LFU), employed as an eviction policy for unpopular services, (iii) Hybrid, a mix of SDF and LFU, where services with distant-deadline requests are sent to the fog/cloud and the remaining are ranked based on popularity to the users, and (iv) Least Recently Used (LRU), which is also used as an eviction policy for services that have not been requested in a while. Out of the four, the Hybrid algorithm seems to be the best and closest in performance to the optimal. Such an approach presents an interesting option due to its autonomy, seeing as a node does not need to communicate with any other entity in order to make a decision. This results in an increased rate of decision-making and, generally, processing of requests, along with the improvement of the users' quality of service, which is the ultimate goal in any network.

A more specific approach to tasks management with respect to a single edge node is to just decide on whether it is best for a particular task to be executed locally or offloaded to a peer node or the cloud [61]. The central idea involves building an incremental kernel density estimator for every task's requests as time progresses that allows for the calculation of the probability of high request rates in the immediate future. Having exchanged this information among themselves, each edge node computes the probability of each task being popular generally in the group of nodes that does not include themselves. Through a set of rules implemented by a fuzzy logic controller, an offloading value is calculated for each task by a node, and it indicates whether a task should remain for local execution or be offloaded elsewhere, where it is more popular to reduce the average latency for end users. The paper does not include the allocation of the task to a new edge node or the cloud, but the authors do refer to another work of theirs that does [65]. There, the Utility Theory is exploited to produce aggregated ranked lists of nodes where each task can be offloaded to, and if no node's related values exceed a certain threshold then the task is sent to the fog/cloud for execution that will not respect the task's deadline. Both of the proposed approaches' results are promising, as well as better compared to other distributed algorithms.

Overall, greedy approaches are dependent on the performance of each edge node. They work most efficiently if they require little to no interaction among them and certainly if interaction with the cloud is avoided. They can reduce the end user's waiting time since heavy computation is not employed to manage tasks. However, since an optimal solution is not usually possible, waiting time might sometimes reach very high values.

6.3 Energy-Saving Approaches

The authors of [79] study the placement problem from an IoT perspective and strive to develop an algorithm that finds the optimal solution to tasks management while also respecting edge servers' low energy reserve. They model the problem at hand as a multi-objective optimization problem and employ Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) to solve it and achieve the goal. Indeed, the algorithm

does decrease the required energy, in comparison to other algorithms, but a centralized scheme such as the aforementioned can never accomplish optimal performance and energy consumption. In [121], it is proposed that the processing of heavy computations generated in an IoT environment be offloaded to other devices in their network once a specified level is reached. Instead of setting a universal offloading level for all devices, the authors suggest that each device has its own. In doing so, a network's devices' resources are utilized to a satisfactory extent and, at the same time, a bandwidth overload is avoided. Furthermore, experimental results show that this approach increases battery life, which is precious to IoT devices. This work is of the utmost importance to IoT networks which collect a large amount of data in need of aggregation or, in general, run applications requiring many computations.

DART (DAta tRansportation neTwork) [34] treats the tasks allocation problem as a stochastic mixed-integer optimization problem and attempts to solve it with an advanced coarse-grained offloading mechanism. The idea is to visualize IoT as a network of points of connection, which can communicate, compute tasks as well as store data and exploit the advantages of spectrum allocation in their model. Therefore, the devices in the network spend as little as possible of their much-needed energy for precise communication activities and save the rest for executing and offloading tasks. The authors of [82] strive to propose a model that utilizes data compression and task offloading to minimize a task's execution latency and the requesting device's energy consumption in a mobile edge computing environment. The problem is modeled as a non-convex one at first, but through conversion to a quadratically constrained quadratic program and then through a semidefinite relaxation approach, it is rendered solvable in polynomial time. Cooperatively optimizing task latencies and device energy exhaustion is a novel idea that seems quite suitable for devices with energy constraints.

6.4 Placement of Interacting Tasks

The Edge Orchestrator (EO) described in [109] is tasked with splitting a workflow into several parts to be executed across a number of devices and resources, as well as assigning tasks to be executed on an edge node or offloading the process for execution on a cloud. Furthermore, after a task has been performed at the edge, the EO must aggregate the resulting data before forwarding them to a cloud, and vice versa. As with most other models, the purpose is performance optimization with regard to latency and quality of service. The fact that this scheme offers a lot of alternatives for the allocation of requested tasks is positive since, out of all the possible solutions, the best one should be quite close to the optimal one. Having said that, the same feature must render the model slower to decide than others precisely because of the abundance of options.

Poster [56] aims to optimize communication costs between interacting tasks. To achieve that, it mines users' cookies with PISMine, an algorithm the authors have developed. PISMine finds the most common 2-itemsets of services based on an interestingness measure and places those that are a part of the same 2-itemset on the same edge node for execution, or as close as possible. Such a placement allows for the minimization of inter-service communication costs, thus minimizing the overall latency of a service and maximizing the users' QoS. This approach is quite original and easy to implement, making it a very interesting choice for tasks management at the edge of the network.

The effort presented in [12] models the problem as a joint allocation of the multiple tasks an application might request. Similarly to [34], the problem is also modeled as a MILP that takes into consideration user mobility and network capacity at a given moment. The authors present an effective heuristic online algorithm as a solution that is based on the Hungarian method [70]. Experiments show that the proposed approach is quick and makes virtually optimal decisions, making this scheme a very strong option for solving the tasks management problem at the edge.

DATA (Dependency-Aware Task Allocation) [73] is another approach at multi-component application allocation at the edge. This particular method is comprised of three sub-algorithms. The first one produces a graph that shows the order in which the tasks of a request must be processed, making sure that the all tasks in the graph are divided into sub-tasks which have the same maximum workload. This allows for the design of a pipeline of events, which is vital for the efficient operation of the next sub-algorithm. The second sub-algorithm aims to assign each sub-task to a container in the pool of available edge nodes in a manner that minimizes dependency-related transmission costs. Lastly, the third sub-algorithm is responsible of scheduling a sub-task's execution in the chosen container, by computing the maximum time that the inputs will have arrived at and respecting dependencies.

In addition, the authors of [142] suggest a scheme that utilizes RL, specifically Q-learning, to solve the problem of service request placement at the edge. A request is modeled as a set of sub-tasks, all of whom have to be allocated to edge nodes for processing. This paper introduces a strategy that allocates all the involved sub-tasks jointly, by treating them as a service tree with sub-trees which respect the order of events to take place. The model recursively allocates an edge node for every sub-tree using Q-learning, and eventually develops an efficient system that has learnt from its mistakes and can maximize the resource utility while minimizing the network congestion. This approach has favorable prospects as it can always evolve by adapting to changes in the network and maintain a high performance until a change occurs and it adapts to it again.

The services that are offered nowadays are complex and involve many components more often than not. Utilizing service placement methods which recognize that and strive for the minimization of inter-component latencies is an integral part of achieving overall efficiency in all networks, and especially a vast one like the world-wide web is.

Table 7 shows the optimization goals of each algorithm as well as the metrics that are taken into consideration. Symbol \uparrow refers to the maximization of a goal, symbol \downarrow to the minimization of a goal while symbol \leftrightarrow depicts that algorithm accounts the specific metric for the final decisions. To avoid cluttering, we merge the optimization goals and the accountable metrics for the first three columns. The first column (Resource Management) contains the following optimization parameters: (a) resource utilization, (b) recovery time, (c) execution cost, (d) load balancing and (e) energy. The second column (Network Parameters) contains the following optimization parameters: (a) bandwidth, (b) topology, (c) network cost, (d) transmission time and (e) network traffic. Finally, column Data & Users Management contains: (a) data-users locality, (b) type of data, (c) data availability, (d) data solidity and (e) mobility. Consider the case of the algorithm presented in [49]. It can be easily revealed that the optimization goals of this algorithm are to minimize latency (\downarrow) and to maximize load balancing (\uparrow^d) and fault-tolerance (\uparrow). To do that, it considers the topology (\leftrightarrow^b) of the network, the locality, the type and the availability of the data ($\leftrightarrow^a \leftrightarrow^b \leftrightarrow^c$) and the storage capacity of nodes (\leftrightarrow).

Table 8 depicts the classification of algorithms for the following distinct perspectives: (a) the optimization strategy, (b) the appliance of replication methodologies, (c) the use of containers, (d) tasks dependencies (workflows), (e) the evaluation strategy and (f) the type of workloads used in the experimental evaluation. Consider again the case of the algorithm presented in [49]. This algorithm implements a heuristic approach to the SUMO simulator on real-world workloads.

Table 7 Algorithms classification of optimization goals and accountable metrics

Algorithm	Resource Management	Network Parameters	Data & Users Management	QoS	Execution Time	Fault-tolerant	Latency	Storage	Cache-hits	Task importance
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Gupta et al [49]	\uparrow^d	\leftrightarrow^b	$\leftrightarrow^a \leftrightarrow^b \leftrightarrow^c$	\uparrow	\downarrow	\leftrightarrow	
Ravindran et al [117]		\leftrightarrow^b		\uparrow	\downarrow		
Shao et al [125]		\leftrightarrow^c	\leftrightarrow^b			\leftrightarrow	\uparrow
GRED [144]	\uparrow^d	$\leftrightarrow^a \leftrightarrow^b \downarrow^c$			\downarrow		
ECS [59]			\leftrightarrow^a			\leftrightarrow	\uparrow
GAPSO [26]		$\downarrow^c \leftrightarrow^c$			\downarrow	\downarrow	
Karanika et al [60]			$\leftrightarrow^b \uparrow^d \leftrightarrow^d$			\downarrow	
Li et al [78]	\leftrightarrow^d	\leftrightarrow^c	\leftrightarrow^c	\leftrightarrow	\downarrow		
Shao et al [126]	$\downarrow^c \leftrightarrow^d$	\leftrightarrow^c	$\uparrow^c \leftrightarrow^c \leftrightarrow^d$	\leftrightarrow		\uparrow	
Sinky et al [128]		\downarrow^e	$\leftrightarrow^b \leftrightarrow^c$	\uparrow	\leftrightarrow	\downarrow	\uparrow
Farhadi et al [38]	\leftrightarrow^c	\leftrightarrow^c		\uparrow	\downarrow	\leftrightarrow	
Breitbach et al [18]		$\downarrow^a \leftrightarrow^e$			\downarrow	\downarrow	
Li et al [75]		$\downarrow^a \leftrightarrow^c$	\leftrightarrow^b	\uparrow		\downarrow	$\leftrightarrow \uparrow$
DCTA [23]					\downarrow		\leftrightarrow
MobMig [108]		\leftrightarrow^b	\leftrightarrow^e				
Ma et al [83]		\leftrightarrow^c	\uparrow^e		\downarrow	\leftrightarrow	\leftrightarrow
KCBP [31]	\downarrow^b	$\leftrightarrow^b \downarrow^d$					
Alqahtani et al [5]	$\downarrow^c \leftrightarrow^e$	$\leftrightarrow^b \downarrow^e$		\leftrightarrow		\downarrow	
Ascigil et al [9]		\leftrightarrow^b		$\uparrow \leftrightarrow$	\downarrow		
Karanika et al [61]		\leftrightarrow^b				\downarrow	\leftrightarrow
Kolomvatsos [65]	\leftrightarrow^e	\leftrightarrow^b		\leftrightarrow	\downarrow		\leftrightarrow
Li et al [79]	$\uparrow^a \downarrow^e \leftrightarrow^e$	\leftrightarrow^b					
Samie, et al [121]	$\uparrow^a \downarrow^e \leftrightarrow^e$	\leftrightarrow^a					
DART [34]	$\downarrow^e \leftrightarrow^e$	\leftrightarrow^b		\leftrightarrow			
Ly et al [82]	$\downarrow^e \leftrightarrow^e$		$\downarrow^d \leftrightarrow^d$		\leftrightarrow	\downarrow	
Petri et al [109]				\leftrightarrow	\downarrow	\leftrightarrow	
PISMine [56]		\downarrow^c	\leftrightarrow^d	\uparrow		\downarrow	
Bahreini et al [12]		\leftrightarrow^a	\leftrightarrow^a				
DATA [73]		\leftrightarrow^d			$\downarrow \leftrightarrow$		
Wang et al [142]	\uparrow^a	\downarrow^e			\leftrightarrow		

Table 8 Algorithms classification for the scheduling and the application model

Algorithm	Strategy	Replication	Containers	Dependency	Evaluation		Workloads	
					Simulation	Real	Synthetic	Real
Gupta et al [49]	Heuristic	✓			✓ SUMO			✓
Ravindran et al [117]	Heuristic		✓		✓ NS3		✓	
Shao et al [125]	DP				✓		✓	
GRED [144]	Heuristic				✓ P4		✓	
ECS [59]	LP/IP				✓ BRITE			✓
GAPSO [26]	GA/PSO			✓	✓ CloudSim			✓
Karanika et al [60]	Ensemble ML				✓			✓
Li et al [78]	GA	✓				✓ Alibaba		✓
Shao et al [126]	0-1 IP/PSO	✓		✓	✓		✓	
Sinky et al [128]	Hierarchical Clustering	✓				✓		✓
Farhadi et al [38]	MILP	✓			✓		✓	
Breitbach et al [18]	Heuristic	✓		✓	✓ Tasklet			✓
Li et al [75]	Metaheuristic	✓ ↓	✓			✓		✓
DCTA [23]	Heuristic, TL					✓		✓

MobMig [108]	Heuristic, DM			√		√
Ma et al [83]	Heuristic	√			√	√
KCBP [31]	Heuristic	√	√	√		√
Alqahtani et al [5]	Heuristic		√	viFogSim		√
Ascigil et al [9]	Heuristic	√		√		√
Karanika et al [61]	Heuristic, FL			√		√
Kolomvatsos et al [65]	k-NN					√
Li et al [79]	PSO			√		
Samie, et al [121]	Heuristic			VDART		√
DART [34]	MILP			√		√
Ly et al [82]	QCQP			√		√
Petri et al [109]	Heuristic		√		√CometCloud	√
PISMine [56]	FP-tree			√		√
Bahreini et al [12]	Heuristic			√		√
DATA [73]	Heuristic	√		√		√
Wang et al [142]	RL	√		√		√

7. Resources Management at the Edge

This section is devoted to the presentation of the most significant efforts that deal with the management of resources (e.g., processing nodes) at the EC/EM. Our aim is to reveal the axes that dictate the research implementations to deal with the requirements of the fully autonomous EC/EM infrastructure. Table 9 reports on the classification of the relevant research efforts according to the sub-domain.

Table 9. Categorization of research activities related to the management of EC/EM nodes.

Research Subject	Research Efforts
Tasks Offloading	[24], [66], [137]
Nodes reconfiguration	[7], [19], [30], [57], [62], [64], [68], [69], [74], [77], [85], [104], [131], [133], [152]
Resources Scaling	[4], [33], [35], [36], [53], [58], [89], [90], [116], [122], [129], [134], [135], [140], [148], [153]
Load balancing	[10], [25], [51], [76], [96], [97], [98], [99], [141]
Caching	[1], [45], [46], [47], [86], [124]
Monitoring	[11], [13], [29], [32], [103]

The subject of [24] is the intelligent computational offloading of mobile devices towards edge nodes, specifically at the edge of radio access networks. Task offloading to the available nodes is a significant research issue that demands for efficient solutions to increase the performance of the EC/EM. Tasks offloading should take into consideration nodes characteristics and the data present on them before the final decision. The activity can be coordinated by a multitude of EC/EM nodes accompanied by admission control and a specific scheduling scheme [101], [137]. Additional efforts like [66] focus on the adoption of multiple criteria and try to ‘match’ tasks with EC/EM nodes characteristics before an allocation takes place. The discussed paper deals with the dynamic update of tasks and nodes characteristics due to the changes in the demand and the availability of nodes.

Nodes’ reconfiguration is also very significant to keep the firmware and the pre-installed applications updated. Relevant efforts in the field [7], [62], [64], [68], [69] are mainly oriented to the IoT domain, however, the proposed algorithms can be easily adopted in EC/EM. A survey on the adopted methodologies is presented in [19]. Updates can affect the firmware of a device or have the form a ‘generic’ reprogramming activity. This means that an update server is adopted to deliver the updates that can be software patches, security modules, new functionalities/modules, etc. All the proposed algorithms try to minimize the effect in the network while targeting to limit the time for concluding the update. Incremental updates and data compression could be adopted to reduce the

size of messages [133]. In any case, the separation of the updates imposes additional requirements for the number of messages transferred through the network and the algorithm adopted to conclude the aggregation of messages and installation of the update. The incremental management of the updates does not eliminate the necessary process for maintaining updates history and the aforementioned aggregation. Some widely cited research efforts in the domain are as follows. Trickle [74] disseminates and, accordingly, maintains software updates in a set of nodes through an epidemic approach with scalable multicasting. Based on this scheme, updates are periodically transferred to nodes. Epidemic approaches, in general, may involve the transmission of several copies to random nodes, thus, there is an increased cost for the management of the received messages. DHV [30] reports on a code consistency maintenance protocol that ensures that nodes will, eventually, have the same code. The Multicast-based Code redistribution Protocol (MCP) [77] is another protocol that performs code maintenance. MCP requires a table that depicts the information of applications present in a node. The table is adopted for the 'coordination' of the delivery of multicast-based code dissemination requests. However, the use of additional data structures increases the storage complexity of the corresponding models. The Multi-hop, Over-the-Air code distribution Protocol (MOAP) [131] adopts a store-and-forward approach upon patterns of updates. Updates are broadcasted in a neighbour-per-neighbour basis forcing nodes to disseminate the incoming code to reduce the latency. Deluge [57] proposes a protocol over algorithms related to density-aware, epidemic maintenance models. It is built upon Trickle for the advertisement of updates and separates the code into a set of fixed-size pages. Through this approach, the time required for the propagation of large components is reduced. However, the adoption of multiple optimization activities increases the complexity of the proposed solution especially for the recreation of the updates. Stream [104] adopts Deluge and optimizes the code parts transferred through the network. It deals with pre-installations of the re-programming application. This way, Stream transmits the minimal support (approximately one page) required for the activation of the re-programming image. Resource-awareness, time-efficiency, and the integration of security solutions are involved in the model presented in [85]. A multi-hop propagation scheme is proposed enhanced by security codes and means from fuzzy control theory. MELETE [152] is designed to support multiple concurrent applications. It assumes that the network is a set of groups of nodes that execute different tasks. The framework adopts a group-keyed model to selectively distribute the code to only the interested nodes, and reactively distribute the code only when it is required.

The dynamic scaling of activities adopted by EC/EM nodes is another significant resources topic. Scaling activities can be performed either horizontally [4] or vertically [129]. Horizontal scaling refers in adding/removing infrastructure capacity in pre-packaged blocks of resources while vertical scaling refers in scale-up/scale-down, i.e., add/remove resources to an existing system [129], [140]. Scaling activities can deal with the management of Virtual Machines (VMs) [148] or containers [122], [153]. Activities adopted to be aligned with the real demand can also involve the migration of services or data to different VMs/containers [89]. ENORM [140] proposes a framework for integrating the EC/EM in the computing ecosystem to realize FC. The framework builds on a provisioning and deployment model to integrate an EC/EM node with a Cloud server. Additionally, it supports an auto-scaling mechanism to dynamically manage edge resources to be fully aligned with the real demand. DYVERSE [139] is a light-weight and dynamic vertical scaling mechanism for managing resources allocated to applications for facilitating multi-tenancy in EC/EM. DYVERSE proposes the use of a static and three dynamic priority management scheme being workload-, community- and system-aware. Thoth [122] proposes a dynamic resource management system using Docker container technology. It automatically monitors resource usage and dynamically adjusts appropriate amount of resources for each application based on ML models, i.e., a Neural Network, a Q-Learning scheme and a rule-based algorithm. Other efforts that adopt reinforcement learning for predicting the demand and align the available resources are discussed in [35], [116]. A fuzzy logic approach is proposed in [58]. The fuzzy controller is adopted to result the scaling actions based on demand prediction estimated by a reinforcement learning scheme. In [36], the authors present a queuing

mathematical and analytical model to study and analyze the performance of fog computing system. The discussed model determines under any workload the number of nodes required to keep the QoS at the desired levels. In [135], the proposed scheme integrates hypervisors and virtualization based on containers to construct an integrated virtualization platform for industrial applications. The adopted model is a fuzzy-based real-time auto scaling mechanism that provides a dynamic, rapid, lightweight, and low-cost solution.

The authors of [53] study the technical challenges for managing the resource-limited nodes in EC/EM. They present three architectures, i.e., dataflow, control, and tenancy. The infrastructure is seen in three axes, i.e., hardware, software, and middleware. They also discuss algorithms for load balancing, discovery, benchmarking, and placement. Another effort studying the resources continuity is provided in [90]. The study focuses on the management of resource continuity from the EC/EM to Cloud and depicts a layered architecture for continuity provisioning, effective resources selection and service execution mechanisms. We have to notice that resources should be able to be aligned with the needs of streams as coming from the IoT infrastructure. The authors of [33] provide a survey on stream processing techniques for supporting resource elasticity features. The review focuses on ongoing efforts dealing with the deployment on EC/EM environments and insights of future directions. A taxonomy of resource management at the EC/EM is provided by [134]. The authors categorize the relevant efforts according to their resource type, the objective of the management, resource location, and resource use.

Load balancing is another significant research subject in EC/EM. The research community proposes two main types of load balancing strategies: static and dynamic [76]. Static load balancing deals with a 'stateless' approach (models that do not consider the previous state of the node). The load is efficiently distributed when nodes do not exhibit significant variations in their activities. Dynamic strategies involve a 'statefull' model, i.e., they take into consideration the dynamic changes in nodes' behavior (the state of each node). Intermediary nodes can be also adopted for performing load balancing activities [10]. In [76], the authors propose an architecture for load balancing based on intermediary nodes that obtain the state information of the network. Intermediaries classify the status of each node by using a set of attributes. Based on this information, the framework is capable of performing the final allocation. In [51], the authors propose an improved constrained particle swarm optimization algorithm based on SDN. The algorithm improves the performance by adopting the opposite property of the mutated particles and reducing the inertia weight linearly. In [25], a task allocation model is provided for load balancing. The algorithm calculates the completion time for each task and formulates the load balancing optimization problem. The authors of [141] present a distributed traffic management system adopting an offloading algorithm for real-time traffic management in fog-based internet of vehicle systems. The ultimate goal is to minimize the average response time of the traffic management server. In [99], the authors investigate a joint computation offloading, power allocation, and channel assignment scheme for 5G-enabled traffic management systems. The satisfaction of heterogeneous requirements for communications,, computation and storage are studied in [98]. The authors propose an energy-efficient scheduling framework taking into consideration task latency constraints. In [97], a deep learning model is presented for data transmission. The use cases involve the communication of vehicles with the EC/EM infrastructure. In [96] another deep leaning model is presented. More specifically, the authors focus on a deep reinforcement learning method integrated with vehicular edge computing.

Caching is a key mechanism that aims to reduce the traffic of the network and increase the response time of a system. MEC enables Cloud computing capabilities at the edge of the network using a multi-layered architecture that consists of IoT/users' devices, FC nodes, cellular base stations and other edge nodes. Thus, apart from caching policies, the location where caching will be deployed is important in mobile networks. Caching at users' devices can exploit storage resources in a D2D communication; caching at the edge is a good choice since edge nodes are closer to end users;

caching at the upper levels i.e., FC and cellular base stations, may result to increased hit ratios as the coverage area is larger than in the remaining setups.

Caching in users' devices has been studied in conjunction with D2D communication. D2D offers a decentralized opportunistic short-range communication by utilization the air-interface resources in 5G networks. In [46], the authors propose a scheme to increase the throughput of video files in D2D communication. Popular video files that might be requested by other users, are cached in individual users' devices. Caching content based on its popularity is also the subject of [45]. Authors optimize the D2D collaboration distance assuming that requests are modelled using the Zipf distribution. The authors of [86] use a homogeneous PPP model with realistic noise and interference to decide on the best distribution of user requests that maximize the number of hit ratios. The idea of a small base station (BSs) with a low-rate backhaul link and high storage capabilities to cache popular video files has been studied in [124]. Femtocaching avoids frequent replication of similar content by caching them at small base stations that are located close to the end users. In [1], the authors study the distributed caching of videos at the BS of Radio Access Network (RAN) in order to improve the quality of service that users enjoy. Both proactive and reactive policies are proposed based on videos global popularity (cities) instead of local popularity (campus). Authors in [47] investigate the storage allocation of macro BS. The problem of minimizing the total occupied storage space of macro BSs is transformed into a multiple knapsack problem and subsequently solved using linear programming.

A monitoring tool is a key component in resource allocation in more than one respect. It provides performance KPIs and statistics for the virtualized resources (CPU, memory, disk, network usage, etc.) and for the applications that are being served. It can detect over- or under-utilized resources and perform load balancing, auto scaling or the dynamic reallocation of resources. Also, it certifies SLAs compliance in case of failure, revocation (e.g., spot virtual machines) and delays to increase the QoS offered through Cloud. Monitoring tools like Lattice [29], PCMONS [32], Amazon Cloud Watch⁸⁰, CloudMonix⁸¹ and IBM Tivoli⁸² are effective to monitor virtualizes resources, however, they are limited to monitor applications and services that are deployed in federated Clouds, private Clouds, AWS, Azure Cloud, and IBM Cloud, respectively. In MEC, apart from monitoring virtualized resources, it is also important to consider other levels of monitoring like the network, applications, services and sensors. Zenoss [11], Nagios [13] and Zabbix [103] are three open source monitoring tools that support multi-level and end-to-end link quality monitoring. This type of monitoring includes virtual machines, containers (except Nagios), network traffic/delays and throughput that are essential in a MEC environment. Some of the fundamental services provided by the former tools are a) the ability to monitor all critical infrastructures of a MEC environment, including applications, services, operating systems and network protocols, b) notifications/alerts upon potential resources unavailability; and c) the provision of a detailed picture of network traffic and potential security threats.

8. Conclusions

The Edge Computing (EC) and the Edge Mesh (EM) target to support an intelligent infrastructure close to end users realizing services that can be applied upon the huge volumes of data collected by numerous devices. The ultimate (and first) goal is the minimization of the latency that users/applications enjoy when requesting the execution of various processing activities. The challenges that should be met before we arrive at a fully automated EC/EM infrastructure are many. The research community has already started to provide solutions to a wide set of problems relevant to this vision. Our paper serves the goal of presenting such efforts working mainly around the data,

⁸⁰ <https://aws.amazon.com/cloudwatch/>

⁸¹ <https://cloudmonix.com/>

⁸² https://www.ibm.com/support/knowledgecenter/SSGSG7_7.1.11/tsm/welcome.html

tasks and resources management. We want to reveal the paths for supporting additional services and models starting from a concrete basis. We discuss and classify a high number of models while categorizing them upon their research target. We present how legacy and advanced ML as well as optimization techniques are adopted to support novel solutions while reporting on the pros and cons of the discussed algorithms. We argue that all these aspects are parts of the same picture, i.e., to conclude an intelligent edge node that is capable of learning the status of itself, its peers and the environment before taking any decision about the upcoming line of actions. This means that we want to reveal the need of an adaptive node that reasons upon the contextual information of everything. If this becomes true, we will be able to see a fully automated EC/EM ecosystem that is not a science fiction but a reality with huge benefits for services provided to end users.

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