A heuristic method for data allocation and task scheduling on heterogeneous multiprocessor systems under memory constraints

Junwen Ding, Liangcai Song, Siyuan Li, Chen Wu, Ronghua He, Zhouxing Su, and Zhipeng Lü*

Abstract—Computing workflows in heterogeneous multiprocessor systems are frequently modeled as directed acyclic graphs of tasks and data blocks, which represent computational modules and their dependencies in the form of tasks and used by others. However, for some workflows, such as the task schedule in a digital signal processor may run out of memory by exposing too much parallelism. This paper focuses on the data allocation and task scheduling problem under memory constraints, and concentrates on shared memory platforms. We first propose an integer linear programming model to formulate the problem. Then we consider the problem as an extended flexible job shop scheduling problem, while trying to minimize the critical path of the graph. To solve this problem, we propose a tabu search algorithm (TS) which combines several distinguished features such as a greedy initial solution construction method and a mixed neighborhood evaluation strategy based on exact evaluation and approximate evaluation methods. Experimental results on randomly generated instances show that the proposed TS algorithm can obtain relatively high-quality solutions in a reasonable computational time. In specific, the tabu search method averagely improves the makespan by 5-25% compared to the classical load balancing algorithm that are widely used in the literature. Besides, some key features of TS are also analyzed to identify its success factors.

Index Terms—Task scheduling; Data allocation; Heterogeneous multiprocessor; Tabu search

I. INTRODUCTION

A digital signal processor (DSP) is a specialized microprocessor chip with deliberately refined architecture for the operational requirements of digital signal processing (Chanthem et al., 2010). DSPs are fabricated on metal oxide semiconductor (MOS) integrated circuit construction methods. They are widely used in audio signal processing, digital image processing, speech recognition systems, high performance computing centers, and in common consumer electronic devices such as mobile phones, notebook computers, smart watches, and intelligent Wearable devices (Baruah and Fisher, 2006).

There are different types of cores and memories on DSP chip, where the core is the unit that performs calculations and memory is the unit that stores data. Similar to the description in Chen et al. (2012), core types include general purpose core and synergistic processor core, and memory types include high-speed memory and low-speed memory such as DDR. The cores are organized according to the cluster and group levels, where each group corresponds to a local high-speed memory, while other high-speed memory and low-speed memory are shared globally.

Parallel computing tasks on multiprocessor systems are often modeled by Directed Acyclic task Graphs (DAG), where nodes and edges respectively represent tasks and the dependencies between tasks (Chiang et al., 2006; Du et al., 2013). Given a series of tasks to be executed on a DSP processor, and the data blocks generated by tasks, i.e., the dependencies between tasks, the task scheduling problem is to assign each task to the cores, specify the storage location for the data block, and also determine the execution order of the tasks on each core, where the objective is to minimize the total completion time of all tasks and the usage of high-speed memory, and improve the utilization of the cores and memories.

The job shop scheduling problem is a fundamental problem in the fields of intelligent manufacturing and high-performance computing, which mainly studies how to schedule priority resources to execute multiple tasks in sequence, so that the maximum completion time of all tasks is minimized. For example, when a chip foundry produces chips, each wafer undergoes multiple processes such as photolithography and etching on different machines sequentially (Yin et al., 2018). In some large-scale parallel computing scenarios, there are dependencies between computing tasks, and the input of the successor task is the output of the predecessor task (Havarasan and Thambidurai, 2007).

The scheduling problems in the actual production process are often more complex, since there are various constraints from different dimensions need to be considered apart from scheduling computing resources. For example, when multicore processors in a cloud computing data center are shared by a large number of parallel tasks, it is necessary to allocate cores to tasks and schedule tasks simultaneously under energy constraints or performance constraints (Kang et al., 2011). In parallel computing scenarios, in addition to the occupancy of computing resources, it is also necessary to consider that the memory resources occupied by concurrent computing tasks cannot exceed the maximum capacity limit. Heterogeneous chips integrate different computing units to allow each computing unit to perform compatible tasks, which arises higher requirements for task scheduling since there are more complex constraints among different types of memories (Kang and Dean, 2010).
As heterogeneous processors is prevalent due to its high efficiency, the same type of operations can be processed by different cores with different processing time and data capacity. Furthermore, different components of a distributed shared-memory show significant heterogeneity in data access time (Lakshmanan et al. 2009; Ouni et al. 2011; Wang et al. 2014). Therefore, several important issues are arisen and need to be resolved, i.e., how to assign each computational task to a proper processor; how to allocate each datum to a proper memory; and how to sequence the operations for both processing task and retrieving data so that certain constraints can be satisfied and the maximum completion of all the tasks can be minimized. This problem is formally called as heterogeneous data allocation and task scheduling problem (HDATS).

II. Literature Review

of scheduling large-scale scientific workflows onto distributed resources where the workflows are data-intensive, requiring large amounts of data storage.

Processors and memories have always been a limited and valuable physical resources for large computations which are summarized in Ravi et al. (1970). The problem of scheduling large-scale scientific workflows with distributed resources has been identified by Ramakrishnan et al. (2007). Their work was extended in Peris et al. (2016) that proposed genetic algorithms to handle the computing tasks. Chen et al. (2012) introduced an online heterogeneous dual-core scheduling algorithm for dynamic workloads with real-time constraints, and carried out a series of extensive experiments to compare different workloads and scheduling algorithms. This problem also appears in sparse direct solvers, as studied by Rouet et al. (2012) who analyzed the effect of processor mapping on memory consumption for multi-frontal methods. Based on the research of sparse direct solvers in Liu (1987), Aupy et al. (2017) proposed a heuristic method with problem related knowledge to reduce the minimum peak memory. Zhao et al. (2019) extended the hypergraph partitioning-based scheduling method and adopted an improved partition technique to alleviate data traffic in distributed data centers.

Du et al. (2013) proposed an efficient loop scheduling algorithm to tackle the problem of expensive write operations on non-volatile main memory for chip multiprocessors, which reduced the number of write operations on non-volatile memories, the processing time, and the energy consumption. Shiraliea et al. (2014) proposed a bounded memory scheduling algorithm for parallel workloads denoted by dynamic task graphs, where an upper bound is imposed on the peak memory of the computing environment. Sergent et al. (2016) studied the combination between a task-based distributed application and a run-time system to control the memory subscription levels during the processing period. Beyond that, Tsai et al. (2013) proposed an improved differential evolution algorithm (IDEA) based on the cost and time models to optimize task scheduling and resource allocation on cloud computing environment. Ergu et al. (2013) proposed a model for task-oriented resource allocation in a cloud computing environment, where the resource allocation task is ranked by the pairwise comparison matrix technique and the analytic hierarchy process giving the available resources and user preferences. Praveenchedar and Tamilarasi (2021) presented an improved task scheduling and power minimization approach for efficient dynamic resource allocation method, which combines a prediction mechanism and dynamic resource table updating algorithm.

There are also research of reducing the task scheduling problem in DSP to the flexible job shop scheduling problem. The FJSP is a well-studied combinatorial optimization problem, which was introduced by Brucker and Schlie (1990) as an extension of the job shop scheduling problem. For the FJSP with makespan criteria, exact approaches were proposed by Özgüven et al. (2010) and Roshanaei et al. (2013), who developed mixed-integer linear programming (MILP) models. Another MILP was presented in Birgin et al. (2014) for the FJSP with an extension that allows precedence relations between operations of a job to be given by an arbitrary directed acyclic graph. Hansmann et al. (2014) combined a MILP with a branch and bound algorithm to solve the FJSP with restricted machine accessibility. Zhang and Zhou (2017) proposed a method based on a two-stage strategy to maximize task scheduling performance and minimize non-reasonable task allocation in clouds, where a job classifier motivated by a principle of Bayes classifier and a dynamic match strategy are utilized. For the task scheduling in virtual controllers and multiple clusters of remote radio heads, Xia et al. (2019) translated it into a matroid constrained submodular maximization problem and propose heuristic algorithms to find solutions with half approximation. Fu et al. (2020) introduced an unified graph to model the map task scheduling and the reduce task scheduling respectively, and transformed the problem to the well-known graph problem: minimum weighted bipartite matching.

In fog computing based on containers for smart manufacturing, Yin et al. (2018) built a new task-scheduling model by considering the role of containers, and designed a task-scheduling algorithm and a reallocation mechanism to reduce task delays in accordance with the characteristics of the containers. Yuan et al. (2018) proposed a spatial task scheduling and resource optimization method to minimize the total cost of their provider by cost-effectively scheduling all arriving tasks of heterogeneous applications to meet tasks’ delay-bound constraints in distributed green cloud data centers. Hu et al. (2020) studied the task scheduling problem to minimize the schedule length of parallel applications while satisfying the energy constraints in heterogeneous distributed systems. For the fairness-aware task scheduling and resource allocation in unmanned aerial vehicle-enabled mobile edge computing networks, Zhao et al. (2021) proposed iterative algorithm to deal with them in a sequence and a penalty method-based algorithm to reduce computation complexity. Zhuge et al. (2012) introduced a polynomial-time algorithm based on dynamic programming approach, and a global data allocation algorithm, and a heuristic maximal similarity scheduling to reduce memory traffic and minimize the cost of accessing memory. Zuo et al. (2013) proposed a self-adaptive learning
particle swarm optimization based scheduling approach for hybrid infrastructure as a service cloud.

For the data allocation and task scheduling on heterogeneous multiprocessor systems, the main purpose is to find a schedule for the tasks and memories to guarantee that at any time during the execution the memory usage does not exceed its maximum capacity. To solve this problem, we propose a tabu search algorithm which combines several distinguished features such as a greedy and random initial solution construction method and a mixed neighborhood evaluation strategy based on exact evaluation and approximate evaluation. Experimental results on randomly generated instances show that the proposed TS algorithm can obtain relatively good computational results and analyze its key features, and Section V concludes the paper and suggests the future research directions.

III. PROBLEM DEFINITION AND FORMULATION

A. Problem description

The architecture model of the DSP in this paper is a heterogeneous distributed shared-memory multiprocessor system which is described in Fig. 1. The architectural scheme encompasses a set $P$ of $n$ connected heterogeneous processors, i.e., $P = \{P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_n\}$. Each processor $P_i$ is tightly affiliated with its own local memory $M_i$, and all local memories of the processors constitute a distributed physical memory which are globally shared. For instance, $M_1$ is the local virtual memory of processor $P_1$, while $M_2$ and $M_3$ are remote physical memories. For processor $P_2$, $M_2$ is the local memory, while $M_1$ and $M_3$ are remote memories. Since all the distributed memories are integrated into a global shared space, every processor has full memory access right to read from or write to a memory. Note that different processors’ accesses operation on the same memory require different times because the structure of memory paradigm is non-uniform.

Given a direct acyclic task graph DAG $G = (V, E)$, $V$ is the node set and $E$ is the edge set, nodes $s, e \in V$ represent the starting and ending nodes, respectively. In the considered problem, by formulating a memory access operation as a node, the traditional DAG can be extended to a memory-access data flow graph (MDFG). Fig. 2 gives an illustrative example of the HDATS problem, where cycle blocks represent the tasks and square blocks represent the data blocks depending on them or being depended.

A MDFG is a node-weighted directed graph extended from a DAG which is described by $G' = (V_1, V_2, \ldots, E, D, var, P, M, AT, ET)$, where the notations are explained as follows:

- $V_1 = \{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_{N_1}\}$ represents a set of $N_1$ task nodes.
- $V_2 = \{u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_{N_2}\}$ represents a set of $N_2$ memory access operation nodes.
- $E$ is a set of edges, where $E \subseteq V \times V$, $V = V_1 \cup V_2$. An edge $(i, j) \in E$ denotes the dependency between node $i$ and node $j$, expressing that task or operation $i$ has to be executed before task or operation $j$.
- $D$ is a set of initial input data.
- $var : V_1 \times V_2 \times D \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ is a binary mapping relationship, in which $var(v, u, w)$ represents whether memory access operation $u \in V_2$ is delivering data $w \in D$ for task $v \in V_1$.
- $P = \{P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_n\}$ represents a set of $n$ heterogeneous processors.
- $M = \{M_1, M_2, \ldots, M_m\}$ represents a set of $m$ local memories.
- $AT$ is the memory access time functions.
- $PT(v_i, P_j) = et_j(i)$ is the processing time of task $v_i$ when it is processed on processor $P_j$.

Therefore, the formal definition of the heterogeneous data allocation and task scheduling problem is a MDFG with the aim of seeking a solution denoted by a triple $Mem, AS, SC$, in which $Mem$ is a data allocation $Mem : D \rightarrow M$, where $Mem(h) \in M$ is the memory to store $h \in D$; $AS$ is a task
assignment \( AS : V_1 \rightarrow P \), where \( A(v) \) is the processor to execute task \( v \in V_1 \); \( SC \) is a schedule; \( SC : V_1 \cup V_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \), i.e., the starting time of each task in \( V_1 \) and each memory access operation in \( V_2 \), such that the amount \( T_i \) of data blocks assigned to memory \( M_i \) does not exceed its capacity \( S(M_i) \), i.e., \( T_i \leq S(M_i) \), and the total completion time of all the tasks \( T(G') \) is minimized. The HDATS problem has been proved to be NP-hard (Shao et al., 2005).

B. The integer linear programming formulation of HDATS

In this section, the integer linear programming (ILP) formulation for HDATS problem is presented, which consists of a task assignment with processor constraint, a data allocation with memory size and concurrency constraints, precedence constraints, a time constraint. Given a MDFG, the ILP model of the HDATS problem encompass two major parts, i.e., a processor assignment and a memory allocation. The processor assignment is to find a task assignment for all tasks of a given module, i.e., the starting time of each task in \( V_1 \) is minimized. The HDA TS problem has been proved to be NP-hard (Shao et al., 2005).

2) Data allocation and memory constraints:

\[
\sum_{j=1}^{n} d_{hj} = 1 \quad \forall h \in [1, N_d] \\
\sum_{j=1}^{n} d_{hj} \leq S_j \quad \forall j \in [1, n]
\]

\[
Mem(h) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} j \times d_{hj} \quad \forall h \in [1, N_d]
\]

\[
\sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{S} y_{ijk} = 1, \quad \forall l \in [1, N_2]
\]

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{N_2} y_{ijk} \leq MA, \quad \forall j \in [1, n], \forall m \in [1, S]
\]

\[
M(l) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{S} j \times y_{ijk}, \quad \forall l \in [1, N_2]
\]

In the memory part, let binary variable \( d_{i,j} \) represents whether data \( i \) is allocated to memory \( M_j \). Let binary variables \( y_{ijk} \) and \( y'_{ijk} \) represent whether memory access operation node \( u_l \) starts to process, and is scheduled in stage \( k \) on memory \( M_j \), respectively. Let \( S_j \) denotes the capacity of memory \( M_j \). Let \( M(l) \) be the dependency between data allocation and memory access operations.

Constraint (8) ensures that each data block is allocated to one and only one local memory. Constraint (9) ensures that the size of all data allocated in \( M_j \) is no larger than \( S_j \). Constraint (10) denotes the local memory \( Mem(h) \) to store data \( h \). Constraint (11) ensures that each memory access operation node can start processing in one and only one stage and one local memory. Constraint (12) ensures that the number of memory access operation nodes in each stage does not exceed the access number of a local memory. The memory module \( M(l) = Mem(D(l)) \) for the memory access operation \( u_l \) for data \( D(l) \) is expressed in constraint (13).
3) Precedence constraints:
\[
\sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{S} (k + RT(u, j)) \times x_{ujk} \leq \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{S} k \times x_{ujk},
\forall e(u, v) \in E, \forall u \in [1, N_1], \forall v \in [1, N_1]
\]
\[
\sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{S} (k + RT(u, j)) \times x_{ujk} \leq \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{S} k \times y_{ujk},
\forall e(u, v) \in E, \forall u \in [1, N_1], \forall v \in [1, N_1]
\]
\[
\sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{S} (k + RA_T(u, j)) \times y_{ujk} \leq \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{S} k \times x_{ujk},
\forall e(u, v) \in E, \forall u \in [1, N_1], \forall v \in [1, N_1]
\]

In a given MDFG, edge \(e(u, v) \in E\) denotes the precedence relation from node \(u\) to node \(v\). Eqs. (17–20) ensure that each task and memory access operation accurately respect the precedence constraints. Eq. (17) and Eq. (19) respectively formulates the precedence relation among tasks and memory access operations. Eqs. (18) and (20) define the precedence constraints between tasks and memory access operations. Generally, the above equations describe that \(u\) must be completed before \(v\) can be started.

4) Execution and memory access time constraints:
\[
RT(i, j) = \sum_{k=1}^{S} x_{ijk} \times PT(v_i, P_j), \quad \forall i \in [1, N_1], \forall j \in [1, n]
\]
\[
\sum_{m=1}^{S} x'_{ijm} \leq RT(i, j), \quad \forall i \in [1, N_1], \forall j \in [1, n]
\]
\[
k + RT(i, j) - 1 \sum_{m=k}^{k+RT(i, j) - 1} x'_{ijm} = RT(i, j), \quad \forall i \in [1, N_1], \forall j \in [1, n]
\]
\[
RT_T(l, j) = \sum_{i=1}^{N_1} \sum_{h=1}^{N_4} \sum_{k=1}^{S} y_{ijk} \cdot var(v_i, u_i, h) \cdot AT(P(i), M_j, d(h)),
\forall l \in [1, N_2], \forall j \in [1, n]
\]
\[
\sum_{m=1}^{S} y'_{ijm} \leq RA_T(l, j), \quad \forall l \in [1, N_2], \forall j \in [1, n]
\]
\[
k + RT(l, j) - 1 \sum_{m=k}^{k + RT(l, j) - 1} y'_{ijm} = RA_T(l, j), \quad \forall l \in [1, N_2], \forall j \in [1, n].
\]

In this part, \(RT(i, j)\) is the real processing time of task \(v_i\) on processor \(P_j\) which is defined in Eq. (21). Constraint (22) presents the relationship that should be satisfied between \(x_{ijm}'\) and \(RT(i, j)\) for each task. If \(x_{ij} = 1\), then \(x_{ijm}'\) must satisfy the following constraint (23): which means the processing of a task should not be interrupted.

Let \(RA_{T(l, j)}\) be the real memory access time of a memory access operation \(u_l\) on memory \(M_j\) which is expressed in constraint (24). For each memory access operation, the relationship between \(y_{ijm}'\) and \(RA_{T(l, j)}\) is defined in constraint (25) which is similar to Eq. (22). If \(y_{ij} = 1\), then \(y_{ijm}'\) must satisfy Eq. (26).

IV. ALGORITHM DESCRIPTION

The proposed tabu search algorithm consists of a greedy initial solution construction procedure, the neighbourhood structure, the mixed evaluation strategy, and a tabu search procedure, which are illustrated in details in the following sections.

A. Greedy construction procedure for initial solution

To efficiently construct a feasible initial solution is primarily important for starting an heuristic algorithm. In this paper, we propose a greedy construction procedure according to the characteristics of the considered problem to generate a feasible solution with high quality in a short time.

The construction of an initial solution is to assign each task to a certain core and each data block to a certain block of memory. However, not all assignments are legal, since the topological relationship between tasks and the capacity constraints on each memory needs to be satisfied. Specifically, some tasks will depend on some other tasks or data blocks. Therefore, the task must wait for all the tasks it depends on to complete, and all the data it depends on to be written before it can start executing. Besides, when allocating memory for each data block, it is required that the peak memory usage of each block does not exceed its maximum capacity during the entire process. In addition, being limited by types and labels, the candidate cores/memories that are compatible for each task/data block is just a subset of all cores/memories.

The pseudo code of the greedy construction procedure for initial solution is presented in Algorithm 1 where the main idea can be briefly summarized as iteratively selecting the most important task among the currently unallocated tasks, and then assigning it to the best core and the best memory for the data it produces.

1) Preprocessing: Before starting construction, a preprocessing work is required to generate an profitable job sequence: First, we use the topological sorting to obtain a legal topological sequence that only considers job-job constraints and job-data constraints. Then, we perform dynamic programming procedure on the topological sequence, and calculate the \(R, Q,\) makespan, and Stack values, where taskSet represents the candidate task list that has not been decided yet. Subsequently, in line 5, the task in the front of the candidate list is selected. If there are multiple eligible frontier tasks, we
Algorithm 1 Greedy construction procedure for initial procedure

1: Input: Problem instance
2: Output: A feasible initial solution $S_{init}$
3: $S_{init} ← InitS()$, taskSet, $R$, $Q$, Slack ← Init(), $t ← −1$
4: while taskSet is not empty do
5:   $t ← selectTaskAccodingToRQSlack()$
6:   availCores ← getAvailableCores($t$);
7:   endTime ← InitET(availCores)
8:   for each core $c$ in availCores do
9:     $N ← getPredecessorsSet($/$t$/)$
10:    startTime ← $\max\{getFinishTime(p)|p \in N\}$
11:   for each data $d$ of task $t$ do
12:     if memory of highType2 is enough at startTime then
13:        tryAssignMemory($d$, highType2)
14:     else if memory highType1 is enough at startTime then
15:        tryAssignMemory($d$, highType1)
16:     else
17:        tryAssignMemory($d$, lowType)
18:     end if
19:   end for
20:   endTime[$c$] ← calcuEndTime($t$, $c$)
21: end for
22: $C ← \arg \min\{getEndTime(c)|c \in availCores\}$
23: assignToCore($t$, $C$), updateSolution($S_{init}$)
24: freshRQSlack($t$, $C$), freshMemory()
25: taskSet ← taskSet \{/$t$/\}
26: end while
27: return $S_{init}$

select one of them according to the following lexicographical order:

1) $R$ value;
2) Slack value;
3) the minimum Slack value of the successor jobs.

Given a direct acyclic task graph DAG $G = (V, E)$, nodes $s, e \in V$ represent the starting and ending nodes, respectively. Let $P_i$ and $S_i$ be the set with the direct predecessors and successors of node $i \in V$. Let $R[i]$ and $Q[i]$, be the length of the longest path from starting node $s$ to node $i$, and node $i$ to ending node $e$, respectively, which can be expressed as follows:

$$ R[i] = \max_{j \in P[i]} \{R[j] + T[j]\} \quad (27) $$

$$ Q[i] = \max_{j \in S[i]} \{Q[j] + T[i]\} \quad (28) $$

Let Slack[$i$] be the maximum time allowed to be postponed without deteriorating the maximum completion time of the whole schedule. By using the definitions of $R$ and $Q$, we have:

$$ \text{Slack}[i] = C_{\max} - R[i] - Q[i] \quad (29) $$

where $C_{\max}$ denotes the longest length from the starting node $s$ to ending node $e$.

After selecting a task, a set of candidate cores called available need to be identified to execute the task according to its type, and then we need to allocate specific cores for the task from available, and allocate memory for the data blocks it generates. In general, a map called endTime is established to indicate the end time when the task is assigned to a certain core. It traverses all the cores in the candidate core set of the current task, and then greedily assigns the memory for the task to generate data. Therefore, the entire time period of the current task under the different cores are obtained, and finally select the core and memory assignments that can complete the task earliest as the assignment result of the task (line $23$).

2) Greedy construction: The main steps of the assignment procedure is as follows:

- For each specific core, we take the maximum warm-up time of all the data it depends on as the warm-up time of the task, and take the sum of the loading time of the data which is calculated by a piecewise function as the loading time of the task.
- The release time $R$ of the task on the core can be identified as follows:
  - If all predecessor tasks of this task have been assigned with cores, then the end time of its predecessor tasks are known, and the maximum value of the end time of all predecessor tasks is taken as $R$.
  - The current task can start to be executed only when the last task whose core has been finished. By this relationship, we can determine the warm-up time and loading time of the current task.
  - The previous task whose core has been finished and its corresponding data has been moved out, then the task can start to execute.
- It traverses all the tasks according to the release time $R$ of the current task.
  - If a task has been selected and has not been set to be executed, and its end time is earlier than the start time of the current task, it means that the task has been executed. For each data that the task depends on, if all the tasks using the data have been executed, the data can be released, and the release time is the latest execution completion time of all tasks that depend on the data.
  - If a task has been selected and completed, but the data has not been moved out yet, if the completion time of the task is earlier than the start time of the current task, the task can be set to be completed. For all data generated by the task, If the data is not depended on by other tasks, the release time of the data is the move-out time of the task.
- The end time of executing the task and moving out data can be calculated. The data blocks generated by the task are sorted according to the minimum slack value of the task that depends on the data block. Memory is allocated for the data blocks in topological order. For each data block generated by the task: Data: We first consider global high-speed memory, then consider the local high-speed memory in the same group as the current core, so as to minimize the warm-up time and move-out time before moving out. For each piece of candidate memory, we calculate how much memory has been used, and determine whether the current data block can be put in. The warm-up time is the longest warm-up time, and the transport time is the sum of the transport time of each data block of the task.

After the assignment of the task is determined, in the dynamic update phase, the task is exactly assigned to the core and the solution $S_{init}$ is updated (line $23$), and then the
memory usage and the \( R, Q \), and \( \text{Slack} \) values of the node need to be updated (line 24).

- After the assignment scheme is selected in the specific assignment stage, the information of the global solution needs to be updated, and the data block is released and the memory usage is updated according to the start time of the task.
- In the preprocessing stage, only the execution time of the task is considered. As the tasks are continuously assigned and completed, the corresponding warm-up and move-in and move-out times are also generated. It is necessary to update the \( R, Q \), and \( \text{Slack} \) values of the unassigned task for the selection in the next round.

After the update is completed, the current selected task is deleted from the candidate set (line 25), then the next round of assignment is launched to select the next task and allocate memory for it in the same way. When the taskSet is empty, a complete solution is generated. The quality and feasibility of the solution is guaranteed by the greedy construction procedure.

### B. The proposed tabu search procedure

After an initial solution is obtained through the greedy construction algorithm, the solution is further optimized through the tabu search procedure.

Base on the business requirements, we need to allocate each task to a core in its candidate set under the task topology constraints, and at the same time allocate memory for the data blocks under the memory capacity constraints. Considering these two operations simultaneously may lead to the large neighborhood size in local search and complicates the evaluation of neighborhood actions as well.

For this reason, this paper presents a two-layer based local search procedure, where the outer layer considers the scheduling of the task sequence on the machine, and the inner layer considers the allocation of memory. If the memory constraints are ignored, the problem can be viewed as the flexible job shop scheduling problem (FJSP). Therefore, the classic neighborhood structures of this problem (N7 and \( k \)-insertion) proposed by Ding et al. (2019) can be used as the neighborhood action of the outer layer.

The tabu search procedure can be briefly summarized as follows: First, we construct all neighborhood solutions according to the N7 and exchange core neighborhood structures. Then we apply approximate evaluation methods on the feasible neighboring solutions, and select the best \( K \) neighborhood solutions, and evaluate them accurately. Finally, we select the best solution according to the accurate evaluation results to replace the current one. Note that in order to avoid the revisiting the previous searched areas in a short period, we adopt a tabu table in the local search process, which means the same neighborhood actions will not be executed within a certain tabu period. The pseudo code for the tabu search procedure is given in Algorithm 2.

As described in Algorithm 2, the input is the initial solution \( S_{\text{init}} \) constructed by the greedy strategy, the maximum number of unimproved iterations \( \lambda \), the maximum number of accurately evaluated solutions \( K \) per iteration, and the longest duration \( T \) of the search. The output of the tabu search is the best solution \( S^* \) found so far.

First, as commonly used the classical FJSP problem Ding et al. (2019), it is necessary to identify the critical path, critical operations, and critical blocks. Then we adopt the N7 neighborhood structure (called \( N^\pi \) here Gonzalez et al. (2015)) and \( k \)-insertion neighborhood structure (called \( N^\alpha \) here Mastroilli and Gambardella (2000)), and construct the neighborhood \( N^\pi \) and \( N^\alpha \) (line 6 and line 7), respectively. Let \( N \) denote the union of the two neighborhoods, and the solutions in the tabu state are removed (line 9). If \( N \) is empty, which means all neighborhood actions are in tabu state, then a random perturbation operation is performed on the current solution \( S^0 \) (line 11).

If \( N \) is not empty, we approximately evaluate each of the neighborhood solutions, and sort them according to ascending order of the approximate makespan. Then we select the first \( K \) solutions and store them in \( \text{topkSet} \). Since the approximate makespan are often not accurate, it is necessary to accurately evaluate each solution in \( \text{topkSet} \), calculate its actual makespan, and select the solution \( S' \) with the smallest makespan to replace the current solution. After that, this neighborhood move is added to the tabu table (line 10) and replace the current solution with the neighborhood solution \( S' \) (line 12).

Since both the \( N^\pi \) and \( N^\alpha \) neighborhood moves change the job sequences on the machines, it is also necessary to update the memory allocation status of each data block and re-allocate memory for each data block (line 13). For this purpose, we design a memory update algorithm which is described in detail in Section IV.C.

---

**Algorithm 2** The proposed tabu search procedure for HDATS

1. **Input:** Greedy Solution \( S_{\text{init}}, \lambda, T, K \)
2. **Output:** The best found solution \( S^* \)
3. \( S^0 \leftarrow S_{\text{init}}, S^* \leftarrow S_{\text{init}}, N \leftarrow \emptyset, \text{Iter} \leftarrow 0, \text{Duration} \leftarrow 0 \)
4. while \( \text{Iter} < \lambda \) and \( \text{Duration} < T \) do
5.   for each critical task \( t \) in \( S_{\text{init}} \) do
6.     \( N^\pi \leftarrow \text{constructN7}(S_{\text{init}}, t) \)
7.     \( N^\alpha \leftarrow \text{constructChangeCore}(S_{\text{init}}, t) \)
8.     \( N \leftarrow N \cup N^\pi \cup N^\alpha \)
9.     \( N \leftarrow \text{checkTabuList}(N) \)
10. if \( N \) is empty then
11.    \( S' \leftarrow \text{randomPerturbation}(S^0) \)
12.  else
13.    \( \text{topkSet} \leftarrow \text{selectApproximateTopK}(N) \)
14.    \( S' \leftarrow \arg \max \{\text{getMakespan}(S)|S \in \text{topkSet}\} \)
15.  end if
16.  add Move(\( S^0, S' \)) to tabu list
17.  \( S^0 \leftarrow S' \)
18.  \( S^0 \leftarrow \text{memoryReassign}(S^0) \)
19.  if \( \text{getMakespan}(S^0) < \text{getMakespan}(S^*) \) then
20.    \( S^* \leftarrow S^0 \)
21.  Iter \leftarrow 0
22.  end if
23. end for
24. \( N \leftarrow \emptyset; \text{Iter} \leftarrow \text{Iter} + 1 \)
25. \( \text{Duration} \leftarrow \text{getDuration()} \)
26. end while
27. return \( S^* \)
C. Memory update procedure

The time of each task consists of the transfer time and the execution time. The transfer rates of high-speed memory and low-speed memory are not the same. At the same time, high-speed memory has a capacity limit, so the memory allocation strategy of data blocks will affect the final result. In the whole algorithm process, the memory update procedure will be called repeatedly since there are numbers of iterations. Based on the above two reasons, it is required to design an memory update strategy to handle the memory allocation efficiently.

The memory refresh strategy is mainly based on two basic greedy criteria:

1) Assign as many blocks of data to fast memory as possible without violating capacity constraints.
2) Prioritize “important” data blocks into high-speed memory.

Based on the fact that makespan cannot be optimized without shortening the length of the critical path, we define the data blocks on the critical path as “critical data blocks” by analogy with the concept of critical blocks in FJSP. The difference is that tasks only appear once in the entire sequence, while the data blocks may be used by multiple tasks, resulting in various transfer times. Therefore, we use the number of moves transferred on the critical path to measure the importance of each data block.

When the memory is updated, the local search has set the task sequence, and when all the memory is placed at a low speed, a complete solution has been generated. Therefore, we can calculate the start time and duration of each stage, the speed, a complete solution has been generated. Therefore, we require to design an memory update strategy to handle the memory allocation efficiently.

The required information is calculated and sequenced as follows:

1) The topological order of the solution;
2) The $R$ value is calculated according to the topological order, and the calculation method is as follows:
   - The maximum value of the end time of all predecessor tasks (including the predecessor generated by data block dependencies) plus a period of time which depends on the feature of the edge.
   - The end time of predecessor task on the same control unit.
   - The end time of the execution of the predecessor task on the same machine minus the move-in time of the current task.
   The $R$ value of the current task is the maximum value of the above times.
3) Similarly, the $Q$ value can be calculated as follows:
   - The maximum $Q$ value of all predecessor tasks including the successor generated by data block dependencies.
   - The $Q$ value of the task on the same control unit.
   - The $Q$ value of the successor task on the same machine minus the move-out time of the current task.
   The $Q$ value of the current task is the sum of its processing time and the maximum value of the above times.

4) The data block is moved into memory when the task that generates it starts moving in, and is released after all tasks that depend on it have been moved out. Thus we can calculate the lifetime of the data block.

5) The critical task can be identified as follows: makespan is the maximum sum of $R$ and $Q$ of each task, and all the tasks where the sum of $R$ and $Q$ equals makespan are critical task.

With the global information, the number of occurrences of the data block on the critical path is the number of critical tasks that generate it or depend on it. The data blocks are sorted according to the descending order of their occurrences.

When trying to put important data blocks into high-speed memory, the peak memory usage may exceed the memory capacity. Therefore, a judgement strategy is needed to ensure that memory capacity constraints are met, which is designed as follows: after calculating the lifetime of all data blocks, the memory usage per second can be calculated through the differential array, and then it can be judged whether it exceeds the limit. However, it is time-consuming to obtain the information per second since the size of makespan is often much larger than the number of data block nodes. It is easy to know that the peak of memory usage must occur when the data blocks are put into the memory, so all the time nodes that generate memory usage changes can be discretized first, and then differentiate them into array, thus to determine whether the peak memory usage exceeds the capacity limit.

Algorithm 3 describes the pseudo code of the memory updating procedure. First, it allocates all data blocks to low-speed memory and initializes the $dataSet$. Then at each iteration, it performs topological sorting on all the tasks and calculate the $R$, $Q$, and $Slack$ values, and sequentially try to allocate the most important data block that has not been assigned to memory. If the memory usage does not exceed its capacity limit, then it allocates the data block to the memory.

Subsequently, the critical path may be changed because the allocation of a data block is determined. Therefore, in the next round of circulation, it is necessary to re-calculate the $R$, $Q$, and $Slack$ values before the next round of iteration, and re-evaluate the importance of the remaining data according to these information. Since the data block is deleted from $dataSet$ every time the memory is allocated for the selected data block, the memory updating procedure is completed when $dataSet$ is empty.

V. Experiment design and analysis

A. Parameter settings and experimental protocol

In subsequent sections we conduct extensive experiments to evaluate the performance of the proposed TS algorithm on four sets of randomly generated instances which named random-CaseA, randomCaseB, randomCaseC and randomCaseD. Each of them has 10 instances. The number of jobs in each instance is 500-1000, which is obtained from actual production examples randomly. We coded TS algorithm in C++ and ran it
Algorithm 3 The memory updating procedure

1: Input: The temp solution $S'$ in Tabu Search, Problem instance $p$
2: Output: The true solution $S'\dagger$
3: $S \leftarrow \text{InitMemory}(S')$, $R, Q, \text{Slack} \leftarrow \text{Init()}$
4: dataSet $\leftarrow \text{getAllData}()$, taskSeq $\leftarrow \text{getAllTask}()$
5: while dataSet not empty do
6:   topoSeq $\leftarrow \text{TopoSort}(\text{taskSeq}, p)$
7:   calcuRQSlack(topoSeq, $p$, $S'$)
8:   $D \leftarrow -1$, $\maxUseT \leftarrow 0$
9:   for each data $d$ in dataSet do
10:      criticalUse $\leftarrow \text{countCriIn}(d) + \text{countCriOut}(d)$
11:      if criticalUse $> \maxUseT$ then
12:         $\maxUseT \leftarrow \text{criticalUse}$
13:      $D \leftarrow d$
14:   end if
15: end for
16: if memory of highType2 is enough then
17:   AssignToMemory($d$, highType2)
18: else if memory highType1 is enough then
19:   AssignToMemory($d$, highType1)
20: else
21:   AssignToMemory($d$, lowType)
22: end if
23: updataSolution($S'$)
24: dataSet $\leftarrow \text{dataSet} \setminus \{d\}$
25: end while
26: return $S'\dagger$

TABLE I
PARAMETER SETTINGS IN TS

| Para. | Description | Value |
|-------|-------------|-------|
| $K_{max}$ | maximum accurate evaluation | 100 |
| $p$ | memory update round | 100 |
| $\theta_1$ | tabu tenure for $N^h$ | $m + \text{rand}() \% (2 \times m)$ |
| $\theta_2$ | tabu tenure for $N^n$ | $n + \text{rand}() \% n$ |
| $\lambda$ | depth of tabu search | 100000 |
| $T_{max}$ | maximum run time of TS | 600 seconds |

on a cluster of Intel(R) Xeon(R) CPU E7-8870 @ 2.40Ghz.

Table II gives the descriptions and settings of the parameters used in TS where the last column denotes the settings for the set of all the instances. These parameter values are determined by extensive preliminary experiments.

TABLE II
THE BASIC INFORMATION FOR THE BENCHMARKS

| Item | Description | Value |
|------|-------------|-------|
| DAG | Num. of tasks | [200,300] |
| | Num. of data blocks | [500,700] |
| | Num. of cores | 8:1 |
| | Num. edges : Num. tasks | 8:1 |
| time | $T_{in} : T_{proc} : T_{out}$ | 7:15:5 |
| | $S_{high} : S_{low}$ | 1.2:1 |
| data | data size | 1,15000 |

Table III presents the basic information of the instances, where columns $T_{in}$, $T_{proc}$, and $T_{out}$ denote to move-in time from global memory before execution, the processing time, and the move-out time from global memory after execution of a task, respectively. $S_{high}$ and $S_{low}$ denote the data access time of high-speed and low-speed memories, respectively. There are 40 instances with different processing time and data access time. Note that all of the instances are with the same DAG

and memories sizes, and there are infinite size of low memory size.

B. The comparison of different initial solution strategy

The initial solution is iteratively constructed, where each step the most important task is assigned to the best core, and the data block it produces is allocated to the best memory. The criterion of identifying the priority of the tasks is vitally important for the quality of initial solution. There are four metrics for evaluating the importance of the tasks.

- $R$-first strategy The $R$ value of each task represents the earliest start time of the task. The $R$-first strategy means selecting tasks in the order in which the tasks start, and then assigning core to it and allocating memory to the data blocks it generates. If the $R$ values of the two tasks are the same, then compare their Slack values. If the Slack values are the same, then compare the minimum value of the Slack values of all successor tasks of the incumbent task.

- Slack-first strategy The Slack value indicates the urgency of the task. A small Slack value of a task indicates that the task has a relatively small active space. In specific, Slack = 0 means that the task is a critical task and should start to processing once it releases, otherwise it would prolong the makespan. The Slack-first strategy is similar to the $R$-first strategy, the only difference is that it hierarchically considers Slack first and then $R$ value.

- Random strategy After obtaining the most cutting-edge node set, it randomly selects one task from the cutting-edge nodes each time, then assigns it to a core and allocates memory for its data blocks.

- Relaxed R-first strategy Under the $R$-first strategy, if there exists small difference between the $R$ values and larger difference between the Slack values of the two tasks, the task with the slightly smaller $R$ value and larger Slack value will be selected first, while the other one with smaller Slack value is abandoned. To avoid missing the task with good attribute, we relax the $R$ value and consider two tasks to be approximately the same if the difference between their $R$ values is within a small range, then hierarchically select the task with smaller Slack value.

Table IV-B reports the results of the tabu search algorithm with different initial solutions based on the above four different strategies, which are denoted by Slack-First, R-First, Rand, and RelaxR, respectively. Columns $S_0$ and $S^\ast$ denote makespan of the initial solution and best found solution obtained by the algorithms, respectively. One observes from Table IV-B that although the initial solution generated with the Slack-First strategy is the worst, the final solution obtained by TS with the Slack-First strategy is best since it obtains the smallest average makespan of 584747.6. Besides, compared with TS with RelaxR, TS with Slack-First improves the makespan of the final solution by 0.55%. This indicates that the initial solution has impact with effectiveness of the tabu search algorithm.
TABLE III
COMPARISON OF THE MAKESPAN OBTAINED BY THE TABU SEARCH ALGORITHM WITH DIFFERENT INITIAL SOLUTION

| Instance          | TS (Slack-Frist) | TS (R-Frist) | TS (Rand) | TS (RelaxR) |
|-------------------|------------------|--------------|-----------|-------------|
|                   | $S_0$ $S^*$      | $S_0$ $S^*$  | $S_0$ $S^*$ | $S_0$ $S^*$ |
| randomCaseA1      | 606074 348413    | 36283 339524 | 470576 338980 | 376195 337985 |
| randomCaseA2      | 831278 466610    | 542076 467090 | 672760 475377 | 540276 473230 |
| randomCaseA3      | 1133081 600808   | 690344 613336 | 882980 610114 | 708680 617578 |
| randomCaseA4      | 1360052 761321   | 711184 771733 | 1087429 753663 | 898110 760910 |
| randomCaseA5      | 1642066 926061   | 1047247 926277 | 1344884 934052 | 1067851 927152 |
| randomCaseA6      | 451932 284280    | 307594 285878 | 382830 284506 | 308091 285450 |
| randomCaseA7      | 701007 394816    | 446356 400293 | 561346 396292 | 447646 399976 |
| randomCaseA8      | 990970 534694    | 63703 533002  | 764315 533981 | 624604 533351 |
| randomCaseA9      | 1235485 682684   | 783087 686142 | 999947 682065 | 793142 685679 |
| randomCaseA10     | 1520976 842516   | 95306 847068  | 1217438 842005 | 949004 858474 |
| Avg.              | 1047292 584747.6 | 664109 587034.3 | 838421 585103.5 | 671359.9 587978.5 |

Fig. 3. The boxplot of makespan obtained by TS on 10 instances

C. Implementation of load balancing algorithms and comparison

Load balancing algorithm is a general task scheduling method in cloud computing which basically balances the load to achieve higher throughput and better resource utilization (Gupta and Garg 2017). We use a load balancing algorithm as a benchmark method to illustrate the effectiveness of the proposed tabu search algorithm. In the load balancing algorithm, it always selects the task that can start earliest, and sort them on the machine according to the ascending order of the earliest time that can start to move. Besides, it always selects the most idle core.

Table V presents the results of the proposed tabu search algorithm and the load balancing algorithm (denoted by LB) on 10 randomly generated instances. According to the ratio of high speed memory in the whole memory, it consists of two parts: 20% and 100% of high speed memory. In column $H:x/L:y$, $x$ and $y$ denote the number of high-speed cores and general low-speed DSP cores, respectively. The results in Table V show that TS improves the makespan by 5.96-25.75% compared with LB for all the tested instances, which demonstrates the effectiveness of the proposed tabu search algorithm.

D. The stability of the tabu search

In this section, we analyze the stability of tabu search algorithm by run TS on 10 instances from randomCaseC1 to randomCaseC10. For this purpose, we apply TS on each instances for 20 independent runs, and each run is equipped with a different initial solution. The aim is to detect the difference on the quality of best found solutions. The computational results are plotted in Fig. 3. It can be observed that the range of makespan and its mean values are relatively low for each instances, and the difference between the minimum and maximum makespan is almost the same among these instances, which confirms the stability of the proposed tabu search algorithm.

E. The impact of the number of cores

In this section we analyze the impact of the number of cores to the performance of TS. For this purpose, we apply TS and LB on three instances namely randomCaseD1 to randomCaseD3, and plot the results in Fig. 4, where the $x$-axis represents the number of cores and $y$-axis represents the improvement rate of makespan obtained by TS compared with LB. Note that in order to guarantee the heterogeneity of the architecture, there are at least two synergistic high-speed cores. From Fig. 4 one observes that the improvement rate increases from 10% to 30% when the number of DSP cores increases from 2 to 12, and decreases to 0 when the number of DSP cores increases from 12 to around 28, and always keep at 0 when there are more than 28 DSP cores. The reason lies behind may be that with small number of DSP cores, multiple unrelated tasks are assigned to the same cores and thus leads to that part of them depends on the others, while if there are sufficient cores, the predecessors of one task can be assigned to


TABLE IV
COMPARISON BETWEEN TS AND LB ON TEN RANDOM CASES UNDER DIFFERENT MEMORY LIMIT AND CORE NUMBERS

| Instance       | Alg.         | HighSpeedMemory-20% | HighSpeedMemory-100% |
|----------------|--------------|---------------------|----------------------|
|                |              | H:2/L:2 | H:2/L:4 | H:2/L:6 | H:2/L:8 | H:2/L:2 | H:2/L:4 | H:2/L:6 | H:2/L:8 |
| randomCaseB1   | LB           | 1432933 | 1447149 | 36574  | 20.81%  | 11.98%  | 12.81%  | 16.84%  | 25.75%  |
|                | TS           | 1313619 | 660178  | 447149 | 33.65%  | 32.65%  | 32.65%  | 32.65%  | 32.65%  |
|                | Ratio        | 8.33%   | 10.07%  | 13.80% | 20.81%  | 11.98%  | 12.81%  | 16.84%  | 25.75%  |
| randomCaseB2   | LB           | 2060452 | 738849  | 518719 | 425040  | 1404754 | 711876  | 495737  | 422815  |
|                | TS           | 1878409 | 618708  | 459974 | 36574  | 1814555 | 893656  | 593938  | 445119  |
|                | Ratio        | 8.84%   | 11.84%  | 16.26% | 21.78%  | 10.23%  | 11.86%  | 21.12%  | 19.49%  |
| randomCaseB3   | LB           | 2719737 | 994029  | 731136 | 2652843 | 1236491 | 620701  | 395777  | 31395  |
|                | TS           | 2471825 | 809493  | 604653 | 2417181 | 1199263 | 593777  | 445119  | 31395  |
|                | Ratio        | 9.12%   | 12.17%  | 18.56% | 17.30%  | 8.88%   | 12.04%  | 19.07%  | 16.56%  |
| randomCaseB4   | LB           | 3361614 | 1235748 | 943059 | 3298899 | 1777821 | 1152681 | 93035   | 710956  |
|                | TS           | 3113048 | 1021411 | 768652 | 2417181 | 1199263 | 593777  | 445119  | 31395  |
|                | Ratio        | 7.39%   | 12.17%  | 18.56% | 17.30%  | 8.88%   | 12.04%  | 19.07%  | 16.56%  |
| randomCaseB5   | LB           | 4064859 | 1420240 | 1092212| 4012397 | 2110902 | 1408303 | 1133168 | 93997  |
|                | TS           | 3810226 | 1250750 | 929974 | 2417181 | 1199263 | 593777  | 445119  | 31395  |
|                | Ratio        | 6.26%   | 11.84%  | 16.26% | 21.78%  | 10.23%  | 11.86%  | 21.12%  | 19.49%  |
| randomCaseB6   | LB           | 1183168 | 610893  | 415408 | 1093761 | 584773  | 416284  | 328006  | 259167  |
|                | TS           | 1092502 | 384601  | 286620 | 1021168 | 506650  | 340688  | 259167  | 259167  |
|                | Ratio        | 7.66%   | 12.17%  | 18.56% | 17.30%  | 8.88%   | 12.04%  | 19.07%  | 16.56%  |
| randomCaseB7   | LB           | 1749517 | 886106  | 612634 | 943059  | 3298899 | 1777821 | 1152681 | 93035   |
|                | TS           | 1572941 | 777143  | 528727 | 393811  | 1519906 | 753172  | 573172  | 573172  |
|                | Ratio        | 7.39%   | 12.30%  | 17.40% | 18.49%  | 7.14%   | 14.51%  | 12.85%  | 19.87%  |
| randomCaseB8   | LB           | 4064859 | 2054323 | 1420240| 1092212 | 4012397 | 2110902 | 1408303 | 1133168 |
|                | TS           | 3810226 | 1250750 | 929974 | 2417181 | 1199263 | 593777  | 445119  | 31395  |
|                | Ratio        | 6.26%   | 11.84%  | 16.26% | 21.78%  | 10.23%  | 11.86%  | 21.12%  | 19.49%  |
| randomCaseB9   | LB           | 1896471 | 1392596 | 963473 | 3630897 | 1855778 | 1285530 | 1006734 | 837163  |
|                | TS           | 1705252 | 1134921 | 847893 | 3394879 | 1672559 | 1118196 | 837163  | 837163  |
|                | Ratio        | 5.96%   | 10.08%  | 18.50% | 12.00%  | 6.50%   | 9.87%   | 13.02%  | 16.84%  |

different cores and can be processed in a parallel way. Table IV reports the detailed results of LB and TS and their differences with 2 to 50 DSP cores.

F. The Effect of mixed evaluation strategy
It is known to all the the key operations in local search procedure is the evaluation of neighboring solutions. To reduce the computational burden in tabu search, we introduce a mixed evaluation strategy in this paper. In specific, at each iteration of TS, we first apply approximate evaluation method on all the neighboring solutions, which may calculate makespan not that accurately but it runs very fast. Then, we sort these neighboring solutions according to the ascending order of makespan. Subsequently, we apply exact evaluation method on the top k solutions, and choose the one with minimum makespan to replace the current solution before entering into the next round of tabu search.

Fig. 5 and Fig. 6 plot the results of TS with respect to the ratio of exact evaluation on a random instance and a larger instance, i.e., 5 times of itself, respectively. One observes that when k = 1, the left most point in x-axis, represents exactly evaluate the best solution measured by approximate method. Both curves decrease when k ∈ [1, 30] and k ∈ [1, 120], and slightly increase with the increase of k. This mainly because that, with the same cutoff time, too many runs of exact
|   | randomCaseD1 | randomCaseD2 | randomCaseD3 | randomCaseD4 | randomCaseD5 | randomCaseD6 | randomCaseD7 | randomCaseD8 | randomCaseD9 | randomCaseD10 |
|---|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|--------------|
| 2 | 3198635    | 288124      | 2946830    | 3056492    | 3190931    | 3299728    | 3386055    | 3549998    | 3322715    | 3530529      |
| 4 | 1615562    | 1345472     | 1780887    | 1946349    | 1890478    | 2051021    | 2133029    | 2254953    | 1982780    | 2125882      |
| 10 | 751371    | 590136      | 624854     | 671246     | 649595     | 693249     | 703341     | 758190     | 714820     | 739523       |
| 14 | 604595    | 484313      | 55472      | 634449     | 602834     | 658686     | 717733     | 742876     | 694627     | 701373       |
| 22 | 503462    | 458431      | 539505     | 615656     | 580815     | 654656     | 717733     | 742876     | 694627     | 701373       |
| 24 | 470795    | 458431      | 519458     | 596969     | 562457     | 636737     | 717733     | 742876     | 694627     | 701373       |
| 28 | 458431    | 458431      | 492595     | 568165     | 534654     | 610765     | 717733     | 742876     | 694627     | 701373       |
| 30 | 458431    | 458431      | 464112     | 539505     | 517733     | 596969     | 717733     | 742876     | 694627     | 701373       |
| 34 | 458431    | 458431      | 464112     | 539505     | 517733     | 596969     | 717733     | 742876     | 694627     | 701373       |
| 40 | 458431    | 458431      | 464112     | 539505     | 517733     | 596969     | 717733     | 742876     | 694627     | 701373       |
| 42 | 458431    | 458431      | 464112     | 539505     | 517733     | 596969     | 717733     | 742876     | 694627     | 701373       |
| 44 | 458431    | 458431      | 464112     | 539505     | 517733     | 596969     | 717733     | 742876     | 694627     | 701373       |
| 50 | 458431    | 458431      | 464112     | 539505     | 517733     | 596969     | 717733     | 742876     | 694627     | 701373       |
In this section, we intend to detect the effect of high speed memory ratio on makespan. We apply TS and LB on instance randomCaseD2 for 20 independent runs respectively, and plot the results in Fig. 7. One observes that TS outperforms LB for all the memory ratio range from 0 to 0.19 at least with a difference of 2000 in makespan. The reason may be that, due to the greedy strategy adopted by the memory allocation strategy, the two algorithms have an abnormal situation that the proportion of high-speed memory increases slightly, and the makespan increases instead, which has minimum or no impact on the tabu search algorithm.

Besides, when the high-speed memory is insufficient, the makespan obtained by tabu search increases slightly, indicating that the tabu search can more effectively avoid the impact of insufficient high-speed memory. The makespan of tabu search in low speed is still lower than that of load balancing in high speed. Therefore, by limiting the usage of high-speed memory, a better scheduling scheme for both makespan and high-speed memory can be obtained.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

This paper proposes a tabu search algorithm to tackle the task scheduling problem in the digital signal processor. By qualitatively and quantitatively analyzing the performance of load balancing, multi-priority initial solutions, and local search in different cases with different numbers of cores and different high-speed memory ratios, the following conclusions are drawn:

First, the disadvantage of greedy construction mainly occurs in that tasks that are not in a hurry to be executed are assigned resources in the early stage of scheduling, resulting in the remaining tasks with task constraints between each other cannot be parallelized at the end of scheduling, and a large number of resources are idle, resulting in low resource utilization, and the local search can be performed by continuously adjusting the tasks stuck on the critical path due to machine constraints, so that the end time of each machine tends to be consistent.

Second, the local search algorithm has good stability and is little affected by the initial solution goodness and different random seeds.

Third, the tabu search method averagely improves the makespan by 5-25% compared to load balancing algorithm. Different cores/high-speed memory ratios have an impact on the boost rate, and the load balancing algorithm is unstable and may deteriorate significantly in some cases.

Fourth, hybrid evaluation balances evaluation accuracy and evaluation time, and finally enables the local search to converge to a better solution.

Fifth, the influence of the number of cores on the promotion rate can be regarded as a normalized function, and the number of cores with the maximum promotion rate under different other conditions is not necessarily the same.

Sixth, compared with the greedy algorithm, the local search is more adaptable to the situation of insufficient high-speed memory, and makespan increases less than when the high-speed memory is sufficient, and the scheduling results of the local search are often better than the load on the premise of not using any high-speed memory.

Future research directions can be combining population-based metaheuristic methods and problem-specific knowledge to enhance the performance of the current algorithm. Besides, solution-based tabu strategy is also worthy to attempt in order to improve the search intensification of heuristics. Furthermore, another extension to this study could include energy-aware information allocation and task scheduling with the goal of optimizing the total workload to execute and to minimize the total energy consumption.

REFERENCES

T. Chantem, X. S. Hu, and R. P. Dick, “Temperature-aware scheduling and assignment for hard real-time applications on mpsocs,” IEEE Transactions on Very Large Scale Integration Systems, vol. 19, no. 10, pp. 1884–1897, 2010.

S. Baruah and N. Fisher, “The partitioned multiprocessor scheduling of deadline-constrained sporadic task systems,” IEEE Transactions on Computers, vol. 55, no. 7, pp. 918–923, 2006.
Y.-S. Chen, H. C. Liao, and T.-H. Tsai, “Online real-time task scheduling in heterogeneous multicore system-on-a-chip,” *IEEE Transactions on Parallel and Distributed Systems*, vol. 24, no. 1, pp. 118–130, 2012.

T.-C. Chiang, P.-Y. Chang, and Y.-M. Huang, “Multi-processor tasks with resource and timing constraints using particle swarm optimization,” *IJCSNS International Journal of Computer Science and Network Security*, vol. 6, no. 4, pp. 71–77, 2006.

J. Du, Y. Wang, Q. Zhuge, J. Hu, and E. H.-M. Sha, “Efficient loop scheduling for chip multiprocessors with non-volatile main memory,” *Journal of Signal Processing Systems*, vol. 71, no. 3, pp. 261–273, 2013.

L. Yin, J. Luo, and H. Luo, “Tasks scheduling and resource allocation in fog computing based on containers for smart manufacturing,” *IEEE Transactions on Industrial Informatics*, vol. 14, no. 10, pp. 4712–4721, 2018.

E. Ilavarasan and P. Thambidurai, “Low complexity performance effective task scheduling algorithm for heterogeneous computing environments,” *Journal of Computer sciences*, vol. 3, no. 2, pp. 94–103, 2007.

Q. Kang, H. He, and H. Song, “Task assignment in heterogeneous computing systems using an effective iterated greedy algorithm,” *Journal of Systems and Software*, vol. 84, no. 6, pp. 985–992, 2011.

S. Kang and A. G. Dean, “Darts: Techniques and tools for predictably fast memory using integrated data allocation and real-time task scheduling,” in *2010 16th IEEE Real-Time and Embedded Technology and Applications Symposium*. IEEE, 2010, pp. 333–342.

K. Lakshmanan, D. de Niz, and R. Rajkumar, “Coordinated task scheduling, allocation and synchronization on multiprocessors,” in *2009 30th IEEE Real-Time Systems Symposium*. IEEE, 2009, pp. 469–478.

B. Ouni, R. Ayadi, and A. Mtibaa, “Partitioning and scheduling technique for run time reconfigured systems,” *International Journal of Computer Aided Engineering and Technology*, vol. 3, no. 1, pp. 77–91, 2011.

Y. Wang, K. Li, H. Chen, L. He, and K. Li, “Energy-aware data allocation and task scheduling on heterogeneous multiprocessor systems with time constraints,” *IEEE Transactions on Emerging Topics in Computing*, vol. 2, no. 2, pp. 134–148, 2014.

Ravi, Sethi, J. D., and Ullman, “The generation of optimal code for arithmetic expressions,” *Journal of the ACM*, 1970.

A. Ramakrishnan, G. Singh, H. Zhao, E. Deelman, and M. Samadi, “Scheduling data-intensive workflows on storage-constrained distributed resources,” in *Proceedings of the Seventh IEEE International Symposium on Cluster Computing and the Grid*, 2007.

A. D. Peris, J. Hernández, and E. Huedo, “Distributed late-binding scheduling and cooperative data caching,” *Journal of Grid Computing*, 2016.

F. H. Rouet, E. Agullo, P. R. Amestoy, A. Buttari, and J. Y. L. Excellent, “Robust memory-aware mappings for parallel multifrontal factorizations,” *SIAM Journal on Scientific Computing*, vol. 38, no. 3, 2012.

J. Liu, “An application of generalized tree pebbling to sparse matrix factorization,” *SIAM Journal on Algebraic Discrete Methods*, 1987.

G. Aupy, C. Brasseur, and L. Marchal, “Dynamic memory-aware task-tree scheduling,” in *Parallel & Distributed Processing Symposium*, 2017.

L. Zhao, Y. Yang, A. Munir, A. X. Liu, Y. Li, and W. Qu, “Optimizing geo-distributed data analytics with coordinated task scheduling and routing,” *IEEE Transactions on Parallel and Distributed Systems*, vol. 31, no. 2, pp. 279–293, 2019.

J. Sibirea, Z. Budimlić, and V. Sarkar, “Bounded memory scheduling of dynamic task graphs,” in *International Conference on Parallel Architecture & Compilation Techniques*, 2014.

M. Sergent, D. Goudin, S. Thibault, and O. Aumage, “Controlling the memory subscription of distributed applications with a task-based runtime system,” in *IEEE International Parallel & Distributed Processing Symposium Workshops*, 2016.

J.-T. Tsai, J.-C. Fang, and J.-H. Chou, “Optimized task scheduling and resource allocation on cloud computing environment using improved differential evolution algorithm,” *Computers & Operations Research*, vol. 40, no. 12, pp. 3045–3055, 2013.

D. Ergu, G. Kou, Y. Peng, Y. Shi, and Y. Shi, “The analytic hierarchy process: task scheduling and resource allocation in cloud computing environment,” *The Journal of Supercomputing*, vol. 64, no. 3, pp. 835–848, 2013.

J. Praveenachandar and A. Tamilarasi, “Dynamic resource allocation with optimized task scheduling and improved power management in cloud computing,” *Journal of Ambient Intelligence and Humanized Computing*, vol. 12, no. 3, pp. 4147–4159, 2021.

P. Brucker and R. Schlie, “Job-shop scheduling with multi-purpose machines,” *Computing*, vol. 45, no. 4, pp. 369–375, 1990.

C. Özgüven, L. Özbakır, and Y. Yavuz, “Mathematical models for job-shop scheduling problems with routing and process plan flexibility,” *Applied Mathematical Modelling*, vol. 34, no. 6, pp. 1539–1548, 2010.

R. Voshanaei, A. Azab, and H. ElMaraghy, “Mathematical modelling and a meta-heuristic for flexible job shop scheduling,” *International Journal of Production Research*, vol. 51, no. 20, pp. 6247–6274, 2013.

E. G. Birgin, P. Feofiloff, C. G. Fernandes, E. L. De Melo, M. T. Oshiro, and D. P. Ronconi, “A milp model for an extended version of the flexible job shop problem,” *Optimization Letters*, vol. 8, no. 4, pp. 1417–1431, 2014.

R. S. Hansmann, T. Rieger, and U. T. Zimmermann, “Flexible job shop scheduling with blockages,” *Mathematical Methods of Operations Research*, vol. 79, no. 2, pp. 135–161, 2014.

P. Zhang and M. Zhou, “Dynamic cloud task scheduling based on a two-stage strategy,” *IEEE Transactions on Automation Science and Engineering*, vol. 15, no. 2, pp. 772–783, 2017.

W. Xia, T. Q. Quek, J. Zhang, S. Jin, and H. Zhu, “Programmable hierarchical c-ran: From task scheduling to resource allocation,” *IEEE Transactions on Wireless Communications*, vol. 18, no. 3, pp. 2003–2016, 2019.
Z. Fu, Z. Tang, L. Yang, and C. Liu, “An optimal locality-aware task scheduling algorithm based on bipartite graph modelling for spark applications,” IEEE Transactions on Parallel and Distributed Systems, vol. 31, no. 10, pp. 2406–2420, 2020.

H. Yuan, J. Bi, and M. Zhou, “Spatial task scheduling for cost minimization in distributed green cloud data centers,” IEEE Transactions on Automation Science and Engineering, vol. 16, no. 2, pp. 729–740, 2018.

Y. Hu, J. Li, and L. He, “A reformed task scheduling algorithm for heterogeneous distributed systems with energy consumption constraints,” Neural Computing and Applications, vol. 32, no. 10, pp. 5681–5693, 2020.

M. Zhao, W. Li, L. Bao, J. Luo, Z. He, and D. Liu, “Fairness-aware task scheduling and resource allocation in uav-enabled mobile edge computing networks,” IEEE Transactions on Green Communications and Networking, vol. 5, no. 4, pp. 2174–2187, 2021.

Q. Zhuge, Y. Guo, J. Hu, W.-C. Tseng, C. J. Xue, and E. H.-M. Sha, “Minimizing access cost for multiple types of memory units in embedded systems through data allocation and scheduling,” IEEE Transactions on Signal Processing, vol. 60, no. 6, pp. 3253–3263, 2012.

X. Zuo, G. Zhang, and W. Tan, “Self-adaptive learning pso-based deadline constrained task scheduling for hybrid iaas cloud,” IEEE Transactions on Automation Science and Engineering, vol. 11, no. 2, pp. 564–573, 2013.

Z. Shao, Q. Zhuge, C. Xue, and E.-M. Sha, “Efficient assignment and scheduling for heterogeneous dsp systems,” IEEE Transactions on Parallel and Distributed Systems, vol. 16, no. 6, pp. 516–525, 2005.

J. Ding, Z. Lü, C.-M. Li, L. Shen, L. Xu, and F. Glover, “A two-individual based evolutionary algorithm for the flexible job shop scheduling problem,” in Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence, vol. 33, 2019, pp. 2262–2271.

M. A. González, C. R. Vela, and R. Varela, “Scatter search with path relinking for the flexible job shop scheduling problem,” European Journal of Operational Research, vol. 245, no. 1, pp. 35–45, 2015.

M. Mastroili and L. M. Gambardella, “Effective neighbourhood functions for the flexible job shop problem,” Journal of Scheduling, vol. 3, no. 1, pp. 3–20, 2000.

A. Gupta and R. Garg, “Load balancing based task scheduling with ACO in cloud computing,” in 2017 International Conference on Computer and Applications (ICCA), 2017.