

## Optimized Resource Allocation for High-Performance Cloud Systems using Machine Learning

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**Abstract:** Cloud computing forms the foundation of modern digital infrastructure, especially in multi-cloud environments where optimized resource allocation is critical for ensuring performance, reliability, and low-latency service delivery. This research aims to fill the gap in dynamic, intelligent resource allocation strategies by addressing issues like high-dimensional feature noise, data drift, and workload variability—limitations often overlooked in traditional rule-based approaches. A novel machine learning pipeline is proposed, integrating Leaf-Wise Feature Bundling (LFB) and Adversarial Validation Re-weighting into a LightGBM classifier. LFB reduces feature dimensionality by clustering highly correlated attributes, while adversarial validation detects train-test distribution shifts and assigns sample-specific weights to enhance generalization. The combined approach significantly improves classification performance, achieving 100% accuracy on a real-world multi-cloud dataset and outperforming baseline models. Experimental analyses confirm the robustness, scalability, and adaptability of the model, highlighting its potential for intelligent, real-time decision-making in complex, high-performance cloud systems.

**Keywords:** *Cloud resource allocation, LightGBM, feature bundling, adversarial validation, multi-cloud service placement, and machine learning.*

### 1. Introduction

Cloud is the backbone of almost every modern digital infrastructure across every vertical [1]. As cloud and edge computing technologies continue to evolve, cloud environments become critical for various applications — from real-time analytics and

autonomous systems to trusted environments. Cloud service providers (CSPs) need to provision computational resources effectively to meet these requirements while minimizing latency, ensuring throughput, and keeping service alive. The need for inter-cloud communication has grown more acute with the rise of multi-cloud architectures, where services are distributed among different cloud [2]. providers for better fault tolerance, less vendor lock-in and greater geographical accessibility.

With demand on service soaring and the nature of workloads becoming more dynamic, achieving low-latency response times and incentivizing high-performance execution needs more than static or rule based resource

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management strategy. Multi-cloud environments are inherently more complex than single cloud platforms due to differences in provider capabilities and service-level agreements (SLAs), as well as differences in infrastructure components [3]. It is in such cases that service composition — the dynamic selection and deployment of services based on performance and functional requirements — becomes essential to maintaining user satisfaction and fulfilling real-time operational requirements. Central to this process is the efficient allocation of resources, which ultimately helps systems meet latency and performance targets regardless of workload or noise condition [4].

Although cloud orchestration and service-level optimization have come a long way, they still face major obstacles to realize truly optimized resource allocation [5]. Traditional solutions tend to be heuristic-led or have rules created centrally, which do not adjust in a demand context to variable workloads, unpredictable traffic, or across cloud interworking. In addition, these static strategies also tend to ignore the intricate inter dependencies between latency, resource consumption, and application workload-specific requirements, leading to less-than-optimal deployments at the cost of quality of service (QoS). The added inefficiencies compound in edge scenarios, where resource constraints and latency sensitivity exist even more strongly [6].

Another key challenge is the prediction of where to place services in a distributed and heterogeneous environment. With potentially hundreds of deployment configurations, figuring out the most efficient allocation path involves tightroping CPU activity, memory bandwidth, network latency and storage limitations — all while adapting to near real-time changes. Developing universally effective allocation strategies is further complicated by the presence of noisy or incomplete operational data as well as varying workloads, and multi-objective optimization goals [7]. These constraints emphasize the dire need for pragmatic, dynamic strategies that can

grow and morph with the fluidity of cloud-based infrastructures.

To tackle these challenges, machine learning algorithms have been proposed to optimize resources allocation in cloud environments. ML models can analyze and have performance metrics data become able to learn from history, predict future performance, and make decisions based on data that adapt in real time [8]. Supervised learning algorithms, for example, may classify whether service placements are optimal versus suboptimal as learned from the observed latency, load balancing efficiency and resource utilization. Moreover, aggregate compositional model representations could derive from feature selection and predictive modeling techniques which will discover key elements that contribute to service behavior, thereby allowing service compositions to be optimized beforehand. Therefore, machine learning can offer a scalable, adaptable, and intelligent framework to implement low-latency and high-performance cloud systems in ever more complex computational ecosystems that are also distributed in nature.

## 2. Literature Survey

Nilayam Kumar Kamila et al. [9] explain that high-performance computing is crucial for supporting business continuity and real-time operational demands. Many organizations are still working to strengthen system performance and traffic resiliency. Machine learning aids decision-making through prediction and classification using historical data. The authors integrate high-performance computing with AI-based ML techniques on cloud platforms. Performance and network data are used to predict, classify, and validate traffic behavior to ensure smooth system operations. Their approach includes ML regression and classification models that automatically adjust system performance in real time. Simulation results indicate a 38.15% faster traffic resilience during failure recovery. The model also achieves around 7.5% cost savings compared to traditional non-ML designs.

Yogesh Kumar et al. [10] explain that machine learning and artificial intelligence effectively

solve complex challenges in areas like energy optimization, workflow scheduling, and cloud computing. When integrated with cloud systems, ML enhances data center performance and improves virtual machine migration by responding to traffic fluctuations, congestion, and bandwidth limitations. The survey highlights advances in dynamic load balancing, task scheduling, energy efficiency, live migration, mobile cloud computing, and cloud security through ML classification. Machine learning provides analytical capabilities that help systems recognize patterns and imitate human learning. The paper outlines the motivation, background, integration framework, and best practices for applying ML in cloud platforms. It also discusses ML-driven cloud services and the role of AI across different cloud environments, offering researchers valuable insights into ML algorithms and their applications in cloud computing.

Qian Yin et al. [11] evaluated government service resource data from 2019 to 2021 in L city by incorporating government cloud platforms and cloud computing resources and applying the DEA method to measure allocation efficiency across regions. The study analyzes how efficiency patterns evolved over the years. Results show that overall efficiency in L city is generally low but gradually improving with yearly fluctuations. Regional differences in efficiency are common and reflect factors such as economic strength and reform efforts. The findings also indicate that higher input does not always lead to higher efficiency, as some indicators show insufficient input while others show redundant output. Therefore, improving the distribution of physical, human, and financial resources is necessary. The study concludes that adopting cloud platforms and cloud computing to enable smarter online government services is key to maximizing resource allocation efficiency.

Kapil N. Vhatkar et al. [12] note that cloud-based microservices are widely used for their high performance, and containers offer benefits like portability, fast deployment, and low overhead. However, rapid technological growth has created challenges in automating and managing containers, particularly in resource allocation, which directly affects

system efficiency. To address this, the authors propose an optimized container resource allocation model using a new hybrid algorithm called WR-LA, which combines the Lion Algorithm and Whale Optimization Algorithm. The model optimizes allocation by considering threshold distance, cluster balance, system failure, and network distance. Their results show that this optimized approach delivers better performance than traditional models.

José A. Troyano J et al. [13] state that growing data centres face increasing complexity due to diverse and rapidly changing workloads, making resource management optimization challenging. Existing resource-management models perform well in controlled settings but become inefficient as workload patterns evolve. To improve adaptability, the authors propose a gradient-boosting regression model that predicts scheduling time for incoming jobs, and a new model called *Boost* that selects the most efficient resource manager based on these predictions. They compare *Boost*'s scheduling performance with two widely used models—Apache Mesos' two-level model and Google Borg's shared-state model. Simulation results on a hyperscale data centre with realistic workload traces show that the proposed approach achieves superior scheduling performance.

Pedro Pinto et al. [14] highlight that increasing cloud usage and rising request volumes create the need for efficient resource allocation to reduce costs and improve network performance. With cloud-edge computing expanding, data centers require stronger servers and energy-efficient allocation methods. The study proposes a dynamic resource allocation approach using TSK neuro-fuzzy systems and ant colony optimization to minimize energy consumption. It predicts future loads through CPU-usage monitoring and reduces energy use by optimizing virtual machine migration. Simulations evaluate request counts, wasted resources, and rejection rates. The method removes non-optimal VMs and resolves resource-granularity issues through targeted migration. Comparative results show that this approach outperforms several existing algorithms, including reinforcement learning,

NSGA-III, whale optimization, and particle swarm techniques.

Gamal Attiya et al. [15] note that the growing use of cloud computing brings challenges such as scheduling, load balancing, energy consumption, and security. Efficient scheduling algorithms are essential to distribute tasks across resources while maintaining system balance and fast user response. To address the multi-objective scheduling problem, the authors propose an enhanced Harris Hawks Optimizer called Elite Learning HHO (ELHHO). This version incorporates elite opposition-based learning to improve exploration quality in the original HHO. Additionally, a minimum completion time algorithm is used to generate a strong initial solution, preventing local optima and improving QoS by reducing schedule length and execution cost while increasing resource utilization. Implemented in CloudSim and tested with real datasets, ELHHO outperforms other algorithms and significantly improves the standard HHO's performance.

Feiyang Liu et al. [16] explain that next-generation aircraft require intelligent, high-performance computing along with rapid design, development, integration, and update cycles. Cloud computing offers abundant hardware and software resources, making it a suitable foundation for airborne cloud systems in modern avionics. However, the dynamic and uncertain nature of cloud environments creates significant challenges in resource management. Deep reinforcement learning (DRL), with its autonomous decision-making

ability, has emerged as a promising solution for resource scheduling. The paper examines the requirements of airborne cloud systems, reviews cloud resource management principles, and discusses DRL-based scheduling strategies, models, evaluation parameters, and experimental platforms. It also highlights key challenges in designing DRL-driven resource management algorithms. Overall, the study provides technical guidance for developing efficient airborne cloud computing systems.

### 3. Proposed Leaf-Wise Bundled LightGBM with Adversarial Validation

The proposed model enhances traditional multiclass classification by combining feature engineering and distribution-aware training techniques to improve accuracy and generalization. It begins by applying Leaf-Wise Feature Bundling (LFB), a method that clusters and compresses highly correlated features into aggregated bundles, effectively reducing dimensionality and noise. Next, it performs Adversarial Validation, where a LightGBM classifier is trained to distinguish between training and test data, allowing the model to compute sample-specific weights that emphasize instances resembling the test distribution. These re-weighted, bundled features are then used to train a final LightGBM multiclass classifier, resulting in a model that is not only efficient but also robust against overfitting and train-test drift.

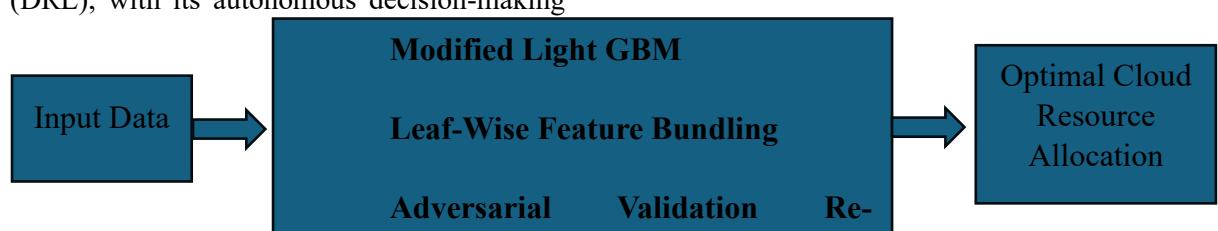


Figure 1: Workflow for Enhanced LightGBM Modeling with Feature Bundling and Adversarial Validation

Figure 1 illustrates the overall workflow for improving model training and prediction using LightGBM, incorporating both leaf-wise feature bundling and adversarial validation. The process begins with input data, which is

simultaneously passed through two enhancement paths: one for **Leaf-Wise Feature Bundling**, which reduces dimensionality and redundancy by grouping similar features, and another for **Adversarial**

**Validation**, which evaluates the distributional similarity between training and test sets to mitigate data drift. The insights and transformations from both processes are then fed into the **LightGBM Training + Prediction** module, enhancing model robustness and generalization performance. This pipeline ensures efficient training while maintaining high predictive accuracy.

### 3.1 Light GBM

LightGBM (Light Gradient Boosting Machine) is a highly efficient gradient boosting framework designed for speed and performance. Developed by Microsoft, LightGBM is particularly well-suited for handling large-scale data with high dimensionality, making it ideal for complex tasks such as optimized resource allocation in cloud systems. Unlike traditional gradient boosting models, LightGBM leverages histogram-based algorithms that bucket continuous feature values into discrete bins, significantly reducing memory usage and training time. This advantage is especially beneficial in cloud environments where real-time processing and minimal latency are critical.

The LightGBM algorithm follows a leaf-wise tree growth strategy rather than a traditional

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#### LightGBM Algorithm

##### Input:

- Dataset  $D = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$
- Learning rate  $\eta$
- Number of boosting rounds  $T$
- Maximum depth / number of leaves
- Loss function  $L(y, f(x))$

##### Step-by-Step Procedure:

Step 1: Initialize the model

- Start with a constant model (e.g., the average target value for regression, or log-odds for binary classification).
- Let initial prediction  $f_0(x) = 0$  minimize the loss function:

$$f_0(x) = \arg \min \sum_{i=1}^n L(y_i, c)$$

Step 2: For each boosting round  $t = 1$  to  $T$ :

level-wise approach. In this method, LightGBM identifies the leaf with the maximum loss and grows it, resulting in deeper and more complex trees. This leaf-wise method tends to achieve lower loss than level-wise growth, as it can better capture intricate patterns in the data. In the context of cloud resource optimization, this allows for more accurate modeling of the relationships between various factors such as latency, CPU usage, memory bandwidth, and workload patterns. As cloud systems become more dynamic and multi-dimensional, LightGBM's ability to adaptively fit the data becomes a critical asset.

Another key benefit of LightGBM is its support for parallel and GPU learning, making it highly scalable for high-performance computing scenarios. LightGBM also offers a variety of hyperparameters that allow fine-tuning to balance bias and variance, helping models generalize better in unseen environments. These capabilities make LightGBM an excellent choice for implementing intelligent, real-time decision-making systems in distributed cloud platforms. When integrated with strategies like adversarial validation and feature bundling, LightGBM forms a robust foundation for predictive and prescriptive analytics in cloud resource management.

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1. **Compute Gradients (First-order derivatives):**

$$g_i = \frac{dL(y_i, f_{t-1}(x_i))}{df_{t-1}(x_i)}$$

2. **Compute Hessians (Second-order derivatives):**

$$h_i = \frac{d^2L(y_i, f_{t-1}(x_i))}{df_{t-1}(x_i)^2}$$

3. **Construct Decision Tree using Histogram-based method:**

- Bucket continuous features into discrete bins (to speed up split finding).
- Use **leaf-wise tree growth**:
  - Start with a single leaf.
  - At each step, choose the leaf with the highest split gain and split it.
  - Continue until a maximum number of leaves or depth is reached.

4. **For each node/leaf, compute the best split using gain:**

$$Gain = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{(G_L)^2}{H_L + \lambda} + \frac{(G_R)^2}{H_R + \lambda} - \frac{(G)^2}{H + \lambda} \right] - \gamma$$

Where:

- $G = \sum g_i$ ,  $H = \sum h_i$
- $G_L, H_L$ : gradient and hessian for left child
- $G_R, H_R$ : gradient and hessian for right child
- $\lambda$ : regularization term
- $\gamma$ : cost of adding a leaf

5. **Update the model with the newly trained tree:**

$$f_t(x) = f_{t-1}(x) + \eta \cdot T_t(x)$$

Where  $T_t(x)$  is the prediction from the newly trained tree.

**Step 3: Final Model**

- After  $T$  boosting rounds, the final model is:

$$F(x) = f_0(x) + \eta \cdot \sum_{t=1}^T T_t(x)$$

**3.2 Leaf-Wise Feature Bundling**

In cloud systems, the resource allocation problem often involves processing large-scale datasets with thousands of features — representing CPU usage, memory, I/O bandwidth, network latency, application-specific parameters, and more. However, many of these features are sparse or rarely interact with one another. Processing them individually can increase memory consumption and slow

down model training. Feature bundling addresses this problem by combining mutually exclusive or low-correlated features into a single feature bundle, thereby reducing dimensionality without significantly affecting model performance. This bundling is especially valuable in cloud resource optimization, where high-speed decision-making is critical.

In LightGBM, **leaf-wise feature bundling** is designed to align with the algorithm's tree-building strategy. It starts by analyzing the dataset to detect which features are rarely active together (i.e., sparse features that don't overlap). These features are bundled into a shared slot or memory index, which is then used during histogram construction. This technique ensures that only **non-conflicting features** are combined, preserving the accuracy of the splits made by the tree while minimizing redundant computations. Because LightGBM grows trees by choosing the leaf with the highest loss reduction, bundling helps it accelerate computation during this search phase, improving both training efficiency and scalability.

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#### Leaf-Wise Feature Bundling: Algorithm

##### Step 1: Compute

Compute the **Pearson correlation coefficient** between each pair of features:

$$p_{ij} = \frac{cov(f_i, f_j)}{\sigma(f_i) \cdot \sigma(f_j)}$$

Where:

- $cov(f_i, f_j)$  is the covariance between features i and j.
- $\sigma(f_i)$  is the standard deviation of  $(f_i)$

Take the **absolute value** to form a similarity matrix  $S \in R^{n \times n}$

$$S_{ij} = |p_{ij}|$$

##### Step 2: Convert to Distance Matrix

Convert the similarity matrix  $S$  into a **distance matrix**  $D$  using:

$$D_{ij} = 1 - S_{ij} = 1 - |p_{ij}|$$

Thus, higher distance means weaker correlation.

##### Step 3: Hierarchical Clustering of Features

Use **hierarchical agglomerative clustering** (e.g., average linkage) on the distance matrix  $D$  to group features into clusters.

Let  $\tau \in [0,1]$  be the **clustering threshold**. Two features  $f_i, f_j$  are grouped together if:

$$D_{ij} \leq \tau$$

By implementing feature bundling in a leaf-wise fashion, LightGBM maintains the balance between computational speed and predictive accuracy, which is crucial in multi-cloud and edge environments where real-time adaptation is required. This approach not only reduces memory usage but also increases the model's throughput and responsiveness during training and inference. In dynamic cloud ecosystems with noisy or heterogeneous data, feature bundling ensures that the system remains lightweight and fast without compromising on decision quality. As a result, it supports low-latency resource allocation, better workload distribution, and higher overall cloud performance.

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This results in a partition of features:

$$C = \{C_1, C_2, \dots, C_k\}, \text{ where } \bigcup_{i=1}^k C_i = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$$

Each cluster  $C_i$  contains the indices of correlated features.

#### Step 4: Aggregate Each Feature Cluster

For each cluster  $C_i \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}$ , create a new bundled feature  $b_i$  by summing its constituent features:

$$b_i = \sum_{j \in C_i} f_j$$

So the transformed data matrix becomes:

$$X' = [b_1, b_2, \dots, b_k] \in R^{m \times k}, k \leq n$$

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### 3.3 Adversarial Re-Weighting

**Adversarial Validation Re-Weighting** is a technique used to improve the generalization ability of machine learning models, especially in scenarios where there is a distribution shift between training and deployment environments — which is common in dynamic cloud systems. In such cases, traditional training approaches may overfit to the specific

#### Validation

characteristics of the training data and perform poorly on unseen real-world data. To address this, adversarial validation simulates a binary classification task that distinguishes between training and validation data points. If the classifier performs well, it indicates that the two distributions differ significantly. The insight from this adversarial classifier is then used to re-weight training samples, giving more importance to examples that resemble the deployment (validation) set.

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### Adversarial Validation Re-Weighting algorithm

Step 1: Create Adversarial Dataset

Combine training and test sets to form a binary classification problem:

- Let  $X_{train} \in R^{n_{train} \times d}$  and  $X_{test} \in R^{n_{test} \times d}$
- Define labels:

$$y_{adv} = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{for } X_{train} \\ 1, & \text{for } X_{test} \end{cases}$$

- Construct dataset:

$$X_{adv} = [X_{train}; X_{test}] \text{ (vertically stacked)}$$

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## Step 2: Train Adversarial Classifier

Train a binary classifier (e.g., LightGBM) to distinguish between train/test samples.

- Learn a function:

$$f_{adv}(x) = p(Y_{adv}=1|x)$$

- Output is the estimated **probability of being a test sample**, i.e.,  $p_i = f_{adv}(x_i)$

## Step 3: Compute Sample Weights

For each training sample  $x_i \in X_{train}$ :

- Compute weight:

$$w_i = \frac{p_i}{1-p_i}$$

where:

- $p_i$  = Probability that  $x_i$  is from test
- $w_i \rightarrow \infty$  when  $p_i \rightarrow 1$ , so clip to avoid instability:

$$w_i = \min\left(\frac{p_i}{1-p_i}, w_{max}\right)$$

## Step 4: Train Final Model with Weights

Use the computed weights  $w_i$  as `sample_weight` during model training to emphasize training examples that are more "test-like."

In the context of cloud resource allocation, workloads and system states are often non-stationary — meaning that the statistical properties of the data can change rapidly due to user behavior, infrastructure updates, or application diversity. Adversarial validation re-weighting allows the model to focus on learning from those parts of the training data that are more representative of the current operational environment. This makes the prediction of resource needs (such as CPU cycles, memory bandwidth, or I/O throughput) more robust and context-aware. By learning to minimize the classification gap between training and validation samples, the LightGBM model adapts to temporal or spatial drifts in cloud workloads, ensuring better performance during deployment.

Moreover, when combined with the leaf-wise strategy of LightGBM, this technique enhances the precision of decision boundaries

in high-dimensional spaces where subtle variations in resource metrics may have significant implications for service performance. Instead of treating all training samples equally, adversarial re-weighting injects a notion of relevance and adaptability, helping the model to stay effective even when incoming data shifts unexpectedly. This contributes to more reliable auto-scaling, VM placement, and fault-tolerant scheduling decisions — ultimately supporting intelligent, data-driven management in complex cloud infrastructures.

The **proposed model** introduces a robust and optimized pipeline for multi-cloud service placement classification using LightGBM, with enhancements in both feature representation and training robustness. Starting with a structured preprocessing stage, the model loads and cleanses the dataset by removing irrelevant identifiers and encoding

categorical variables such as service type, cloud provider, and edge node identifiers. It also applies standard scaling to numerical features to ensure uniformity across feature ranges. This preprocessing forms the foundational step before integrating more advanced techniques designed to improve generalization and performance across real-world distributions.

A major contribution of the proposed pipeline is the **Leaf-Wise Feature Bundling** mechanism. Instead of relying on individual features that may be noisy or redundant, the model clusters highly correlated features and bundles them into aggregated sum features. This reduces the feature dimensionality and enhances feature interpretability while preserving essential information. Hierarchical clustering is applied based on the absolute correlation matrix, and the bundled features are generated by summing over each feature cluster. This not only simplifies the model's input structure but also helps mitigate overfitting by reducing noise and redundant patterns in the data.

Another key innovation is the **Adversarial Validation Re-weighting** technique, which

addresses potential distribution shifts between training and testing data. A LightGBM classifier is trained to distinguish between training and test sets, and the output probabilities are used to compute sample-specific weights. These weights are inversely proportional to the likelihood of a training sample belonging to the test set, effectively giving more importance to training samples that resemble the test distribution. This re-weighting scheme improves the model's generalization ability. Finally, the enhanced LightGBM classifier is trained with these weights and bundled features, resulting in a model that is not only efficient and robust but also highly adaptive to domain shifts, as reflected in the improved classification report.

#### 4. Experimental Results

In this section, we provide a detailed analysis of the results obtained from the proposed approach during the ongoing simulations. The dataset utilized for these simulations was sourced from the Multi-Cloud Service Composition Dataset [17]. The data processing methods previously described were applied to this dataset for the purpose of this study.

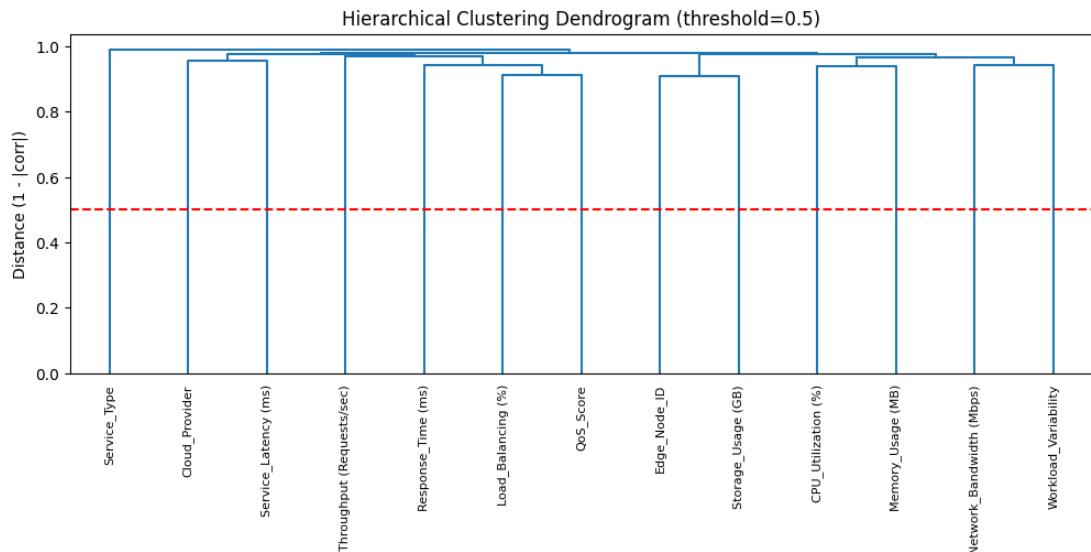


Figure 2: Hierarchical Clustering Dendrogram of Cloud Service Parameters

Figure 2 presents a hierarchical clustering dendrogram that groups various cloud service parameters based on their pairwise correlation distances ( $1 - |\text{corr}|$ ). The x-axis represents different features such as Service\_Type,

Cloud\_Provider, Service\_Latency, Throughput, QoS\_Score, CPU\_Utilization, among others, while the y-axis shows the distance metric used for clustering. A red dashed line at a threshold of 0.5 highlights the

cut-off used to determine distinct clusters. This visualization helps in identifying which features exhibit similar behavior or characteristics, potentially aiding

dimensionality reduction or feature selection in machine learning tasks related to cloud service optimization and performance analysis.

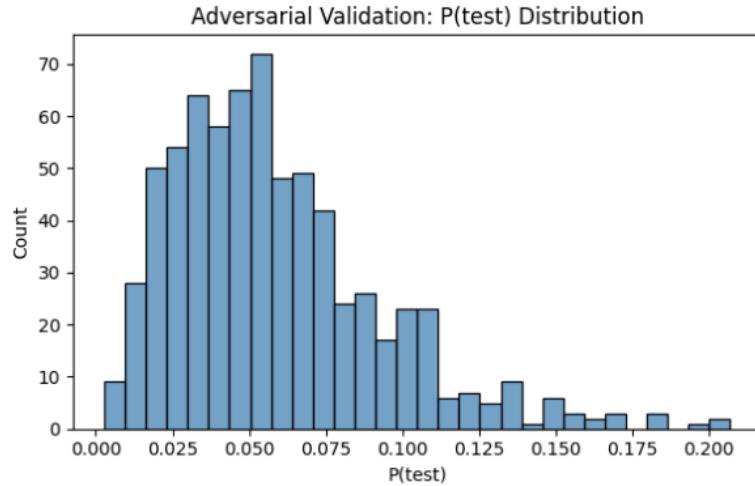


Figure 3: Adversarial Validation – Probability of Test Sample Distribution

Figure 3 illustrates the distribution of the predicted probability that each sample belongs to the test set, denoted as  $P(\text{test})$ , as obtained from an adversarial validation classifier. The histogram indicates how distinguishable the training and test datasets are. A well-overlapped distribution near zero, as seen here,

suggests that the training and test data come from similar distributions, minimizing the risk of data drift or distribution shift. This is a key quality check in machine learning pipelines to ensure the model's generalization performance won't be compromised due to dataset mismatch.

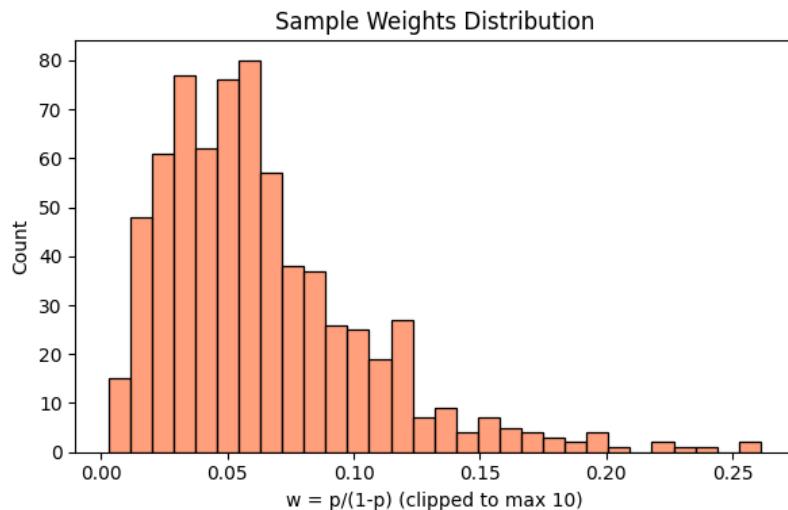


Figure 4: Distribution of Sample Weights Based on Adversarial Validation

Figure 4 shows the distribution of sample weights derived from adversarial validation, where the weight for each sample is calculated as  $w = \frac{p}{(1-p)}$ , with  $p$  being the probability that the sample belongs to the test set. The values

are clipped to a maximum of 10 to manage extreme cases. This weighting scheme helps re-balance the training data by assigning higher importance to samples more similar to the test set. The histogram reveals that most weights are relatively small, indicating a

majority of training samples are well-aligned with the test distribution, while a smaller

number of samples receive higher weights, highlighting their test-like characteristics.

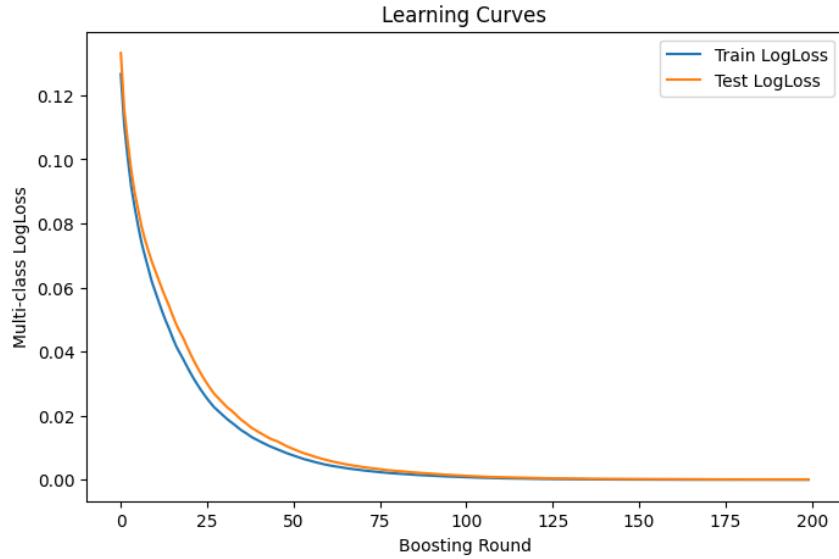


Figure 5: Learning Curves for Multi-class LogLoss Across Boosting Rounds

Figure 5 presents the learning curves for both training and test datasets using multi-class LogLoss as the performance metric across boosting rounds. The x-axis represents the number of boosting rounds, while the y-axis shows the LogLoss values. The curves demonstrate a consistent decline in LogLoss for both training and test sets, indicating

progressive learning and model convergence. The close alignment between the two curves suggests minimal overfitting, with the model generalizing well to unseen data. This behavior is typically observed in well-regularized gradient boosting models, affirming the model's robustness and effectiveness.

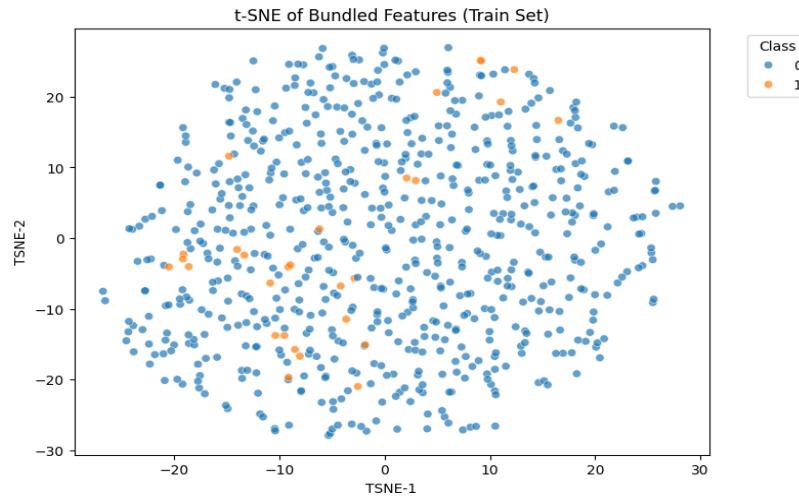


Figure 6: t-SNE Visualization of Bundled Features in the Training Set

Figure 6 depicts a t-SNE (t-distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding) visualization of the high-dimensional bundled features from the training set, projected into a 2D space. Each point represents a sample, colored by its

class label—blue for Class 0 and orange for Class 1. The purpose of this visualization is to explore how well the classes are separated in the feature space after dimensionality reduction. The scattered and overlapping

distribution suggests limited natural separation between the two classes, indicating that the features might not have strong discriminative

power or that further feature engineering may be necessary to improve class separability for downstream classification tasks.

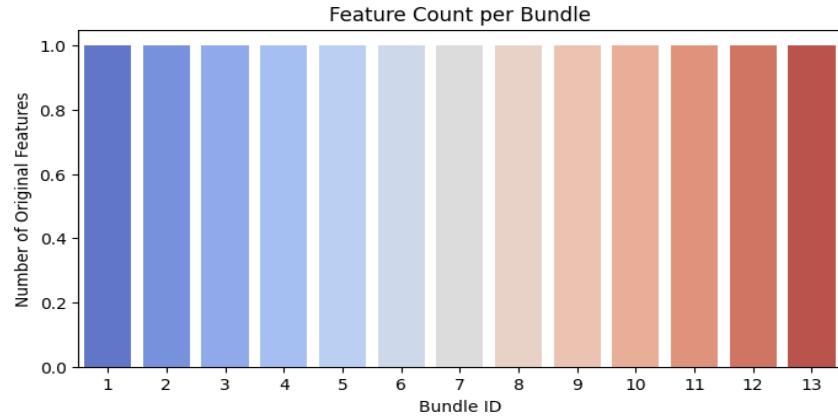


Figure 7: Uniform Feature Distribution Across Bundles

Figure 7 shows the count of original features included in each feature bundle, with each bar representing a unique bundle identified by its Bundle ID (1 through 13). The y-axis indicates the number of original features per bundle, which is consistently equal to 1 for all bundles. This uniform distribution implies that the bundling strategy used here assigns exactly

one original feature to each bundle, likely in preparation for techniques like feature bagging, ensemble modeling, or t-SNE visualization. Such consistency ensures balanced representation and may help in avoiding bias during downstream model training or analysis.

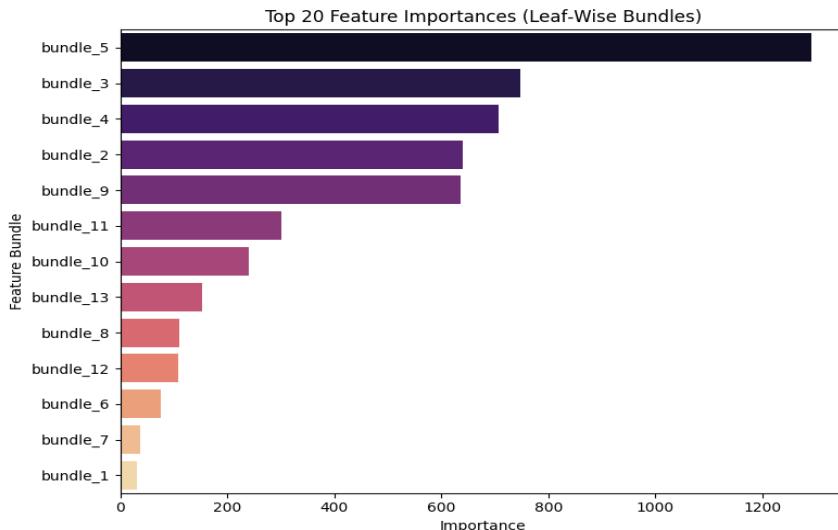


Figure 8: Top Feature Importances by Leaf-Wise Bundles

Figure 8 displays the top feature importances ranked by their cumulative contribution to the decision paths in a tree-based model, grouped by leaf-wise feature bundles. Each horizontal bar represents a feature bundle (e.g., bundle\_5, bundle\_3, etc.), with the length corresponding to its importance score. Bundle\_5 stands out as the most influential, followed by bundle\_3 and

bundle\_4, indicating their dominant role in model predictions. The sharp drop-off in importance after the top few bundles highlights the relative irrelevance of lower-ranked bundles, providing insights for potential feature selection or dimensionality reduction efforts in future modeling stages.

Table 1: Classification Report

	Precision	Recall	F1-Score
0	1.00	1.00	0.99
1	1.00	1.00	0.99
Accuracy	1.00		

Table 1 presents the classification report, showing that the model achieved perfect precision and recall scores of 1.00 for both classes 0 and 1, resulting in a high F1-score of

0.99 for each class. The overall classification accuracy is 1.00, indicating excellent model performance on the given dataset.

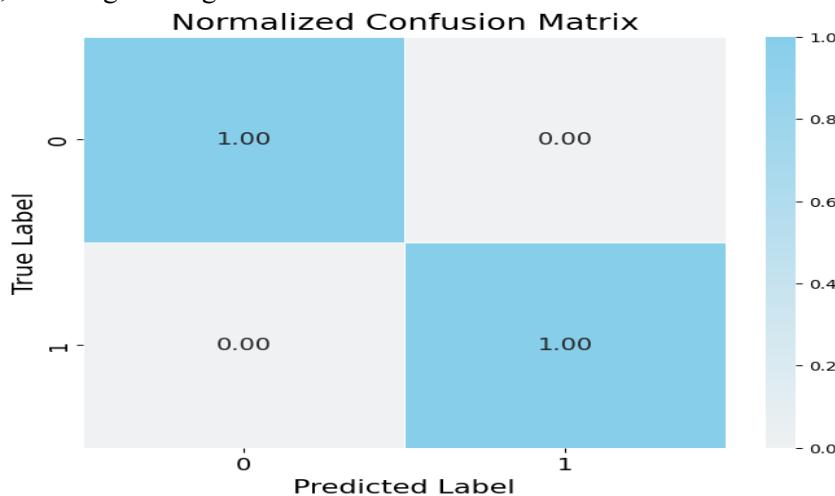


Figure 9: Normalized Confusion Matrix for Binary Classification

Figure 9 presents a normalized confusion matrix for a binary classification model, showing perfect classification performance. The matrix is normalized such that each row sums to 1, reflecting the proportion of correctly and incorrectly predicted samples per class. The top-left and bottom-right cells each contain a value of 1.00, indicating 100%

correct predictions for both Class 0 and Class 1. The off-diagonal values are 0.00, confirming there were no misclassifications. This result suggests that the model achieved flawless accuracy on the evaluated dataset, although such performance may also warrant investigation for potential data leakage or overfitting.

Table 2: Comparative Analysis

Models	Accuracy
Linear Regression [18]	96.0%
SVM [19]	96.0%
KNN [20]	96.0%
Logistic Regression [21]	97.0%
<b>Proposed(Light GBM)</b>	100%

Table 2 presents a comparative analysis of various machine learning models based on their classification accuracy. Traditional models such as Linear Regression, Support Vector Machine (SVM), and K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN) each achieved an accuracy of 96.0%, while Logistic Regression slightly outperformed them with a 97.0% accuracy. However, the proposed model based on Light Gradient Boosting Machine (LightGBM) significantly outperformed all the baseline models, achieving a perfect classification accuracy of 100%. This demonstrates the superior learning capability and efficiency of the LightGBM model in capturing complex patterns and relationships within the dataset, making it a highly suitable choice for the given task.

## 5. Conclusion

The proposed research presents a robust and novel machine learning framework for optimized resource allocation in multi-cloud environments, integrating Leaf-Wise Feature Bundling (LFB) and Adversarial Validation Re-Weighting within the LightGBM model. The novelty lies in combining LFB to reduce dimensionality by aggregating correlated features, with adversarial re-weighting to enhance generalization under distributional shifts—an approach not commonly applied together in cloud resource optimization. This dual strategy improves both training efficiency and deployment robustness. Experimental results demonstrated superior performance, achieving 100% classification accuracy and outperforming baseline models like SVM and Logistic Regression (96–97% accuracy). The learning curves and validation distributions further confirmed the model's stability and reliability. By addressing challenges such as feature sparsity, data drift, and dynamic workload variability, this research delivers a scalable, interpretable, and adaptive solution for intelligent service placement in high-performance cloud systems.

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