Reachability Analysis of Function-as-a-Service Scheduling Policies

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Abstract. Functions-as-a-Service (FaaS) is a Serverless Cloud paradigm where a platform manages the execution (e.g., scheduling, runtime environments) of stateless functions. Recently, domain-specific languages like APP and aAPP have been developed to express per-function scheduling policies, e.g., enforcing the allocation of functions on nodes that enjoy low data-access latencies thanks to proximity and connection pooling.

Reachability analysis of FaaS scheduling policies is fundamental to check quality-of-service properties, like preventing the scheduling of functions on workers which cannot sustain expected performance levels, or verifying security properties, e.g., that safety-critical functions cannot run on nodes with untrusted ones. We investigate the complexity of reachability analysis for APP and aAPP— the latter extends APP with constraints for placing functions according to the absence/presence of other (anti-)affine functions on workers. We show that reachability analysis has linear time complexity in APP, while the addition of affinities (in aAPP) makes reachability PSPACE. Given the computational complexity correspondence between reachability analysis in aAPP and automatic planning problems (both are in PSPACE), we investigate the exploitability of planners, i.e., tools specialised for solving planning problems for the realisation of static analysers of reachability-like problems for aAPP.

1 Introduction

Functions-as-a-Service (FaaS) is a programming paradigm supported by the Serverless Cloud execution model [30]. In FaaS, developers implement a distributed architecture by composing stateless functions and delegate concerns like execution runtimes and resource allocation to the serverless platform, thus focusing on writing code that implements business logic rather than worrying about infrastructure management. The main cloud providers offer FaaS [5,25,38] and open-source alternatives exist too [6,42,27,22].

A common denominator of these platforms is that they manage the allocation of functions over the available computing resources, also called *workers*, following opinionated policies that favour some performance principle. Indeed, effects like *code locality* [27] – due to latencies in loading function code and runtimes – or *session*

locality [27] – due to the need to authenticate and open new sessions to interact with other services – can substantially increase the run time of functions. The breadth of the design space of serverless scheduling policies is witnessed by the growing literature focused on techniques that mix one or more of these locality principles to increase the performance of function execution, assuming some locality-bound traits of functions [45,41,35,1,47,55,40,31,53,50,51,54,48,12,32,9,10,29,33,52]. Besides performance, functions can have functional requirements that the scheduler shall consider. For example, users might want to ward off allocating their functions alongside "untrusted" ones – common threat vectors in serverless are limited function isolation and the ability of functions to (surreptitiously) gather weaponisable information on the runtime, the infrastructure, and the other tenants [8,57,4,15].

Although one can mix different principles to expand the profile coverage of a given platform-wide scheduler policy, the latter hardly suits all kinds of scenarios. This shortcoming motivated the introduction of a domain-specific, platform-agnostic, declarative language for expressing *Allocation Priority Policies* (which inspired the name of the language APP), for specifying custom function allocation policies [21,17]. Thanks to APP, the same platform can support different scheduling policies, each tailored to meet the specific needs of a set of related functions. APP has been validated by implementing a serverless platform as an extension of the open-source Apache OpenWhisk project – the APP-based variant outperforms vanilla OpenWhisk in several locality-bound scenarios [21,17].

Recently, De Palma et al. [20] presented an extension of APP for expressing affinity-aware policies for serverless function scheduling (the addition of affinity-awareness to APP inspired the name aAPP for this language extension). Specifically, aAPP extends APP with the possibility to impose that one function can be placed on a worker only if another function is present (affinity) or absent (anti-affinity) on that worker. These constraints are useful to avoid the co-location of functions (e.g., trusted functions cannot be placed on a worker which is executing untrusted ones) or to guarantee their co-location (e.g., a function accessing a database can be placed on a worker only if it hosts a function able to open a connection with that database).

Contributions. APP and its extension aAPP have been validated experimentally [21,17,20] via FaaS benchmarks and case studies. However, there is no formal study nor comparison between the two. We cover this gap by presenting the aAPP-calculus, in Sec. 2, which is an abstract formal model of function scheduling in FaaS systems where functions are scheduled following aAPP scripts. Since aAPP is an extension of APP, we identify a fragment of the aAPP-calculus corresponding to APP, that we name APP-calculus. We use our formal model to investigate whether aAPP is more expressive than APP by showing that static verification of properties of policies, relevant in the context of function scheduling, is more complex in aAPP than in APP. Namely, we formally define, in Sec. 5, the properties of reachability, i.e., checking if a function f can be deployed on a targeted worker, and of co-occurrence, i.e., checking if two functions f and g can be co-located, so they can run simultaneously on a targeted worker.

In Sec. 4, we start by investigating reachability and co-occurrence in the APP-calculus, and we prove that both problems have linear-time complexity. Then, in Sec. 5, we show that the problems become PSPACE-complete when we move to the

aAPP-calculus – for presentation, here we discuss proof strategy insights while detailed proofs can be found in the companion paper [19]. These results formally witnesses the increase in expressiveness from APP to aAPP, given that the latter can specify scheduling policies much harder to formally verify. In Sec. 6, we further solidify the above results by showing that the jump in complexity comes from affinity constraints. Indeed, we show that in aAPP without affinity reachability and co-occurrence preserve a linear complexity while in aAPP without anti-affinity the problems become NP-hard.

The proof of PSPACE-completeness of the reachability problems in the aAPP-calculus formalises a complexity correspondence with automated planning problems [24]. In the light of the rich literature on automated planning and the availability of planners (tools for solving such problems), in Sec. 7, we introduce a static analyser for aAPP scripts which leverages planners. In particular, our analyser translates both the semantics of aAPP (scripts) and the reachability problems of interest into PDDL [23], the de-facto standard input language for planners. In this way, the analyser can use any planner capable of solving the problems we express in PDDL with numeric fluents – the latter are necessary for modelling function occurrences on workers and their resource usage.

We position our contributions in Sec. 8 and discuss future steps in Sec. 9.

2 Preliminaries: the APP Language and the aAPP Extension

We present APP [21,17] and its affinity-aware extension aAPP [20].

Since aAPP is a syntactic extension of APP, we directly report in Fig. 1 the syntax of aAPP, which APP shares, except for the affinity clause in the syntax of blocks. From here on, we indicate syntactic units in italics, optional fragments in grey, terminals in monospace, and lists with \overline{bars} . The syntax draws inspiration from YAML [58], a renowned data-serialisation language for configuration files—e.g., many modern tools use the format, like Kubernetes, Ansible, and Docker. The idea is that an APP/aAPP script defines a scheduling policy where functions have associated a tag that identifies their scheduling information. Essentially, a tag corresponds to a list of blocks that indicate either some collection of workers, each identified by a worker id, or the universal *. The scheduling of a function works by retrieving its tag and then its scheduling information, which includes one or more blocks of possible workers. Worker selection happens by iteratively checking the blocks from top to bottom, picking the first block with a non-empty list of valid workers and selecting one worker of that list according to the strategy defined by the block (described later).

In case all the blocks associated with a tag fail, the followup clause specifies what to do next: either fail, to terminate the attempt to schedule the function, or default, to try scheduling the function as if associated with the special default tag. More precisely, we consider default as a special tag name with which we can associate generic scheduling policies which are independent of the function peculiarities; if the specific function scheduling policies fail, the followup clause set to default indicates that the generic default policy can be used.

⁴ While aAPP scripts are YAML-compliant, for presentation, we slightly stylise the syntax to increase readability. For instance, we omit quotes around strings, e.g., * instead of "*".

```
id \in Identifiers
                                            n \in \mathbb{N}
                                                                                      f_tag:
       := \overline{-taa}
app
                                                                                       workers:
                                                                                                local w1
       := id : \overline{-block} followup : f_{-opt}
                                                                                                local w2
block := workers : w\_opt  strategy : s\_opt
                                                                                          strategy: best_first
                                            affinity : \overline{-a\_opt}
               invalidate : \overline{-i_{-}opt}
                                                                                          invalidate:
w\_opt := \star \mid \overline{-id}
                                                                                                capacity_used 80%
s\_opt ::= any \mid best\_first
                                                                                          affinity: g_tag,!h_tag
i\_opt \coloneqq \mathsf{capacity\_used} \ n\% \mid \mathsf{max\_concurrent\_invocations} \ n
a\_opt := id \mid !id
                                                                                              - public_w1
f_{-}opt ::= default \mid fail
                                                                                       followup: fail
```

Fig. 1. aAPP syntax (APP omits the affinity clause)

Fig. 2. Example aAPP script.

Each block can define a strategy for worker selection (any selects one of the available workers non-deterministically from the list; best_first selects the first available worker in the list), a list of constraints that invalidates a worker for the allocation (capacity_used invalidates a worker if its resource occupation reaches the set threshold; max_concurrent_invocations invalidates a worker if it hosts more than the specified number of functions). The aAPP extension includes the affinity clause, which carries a list containing affine tag identifiers id and anti-affine tags, represented by negated tag identifiers id. This clause introduces an invalidation condition determined by the absence (affinity) or presence (anti-affinity) of functions on workers.

As an example, Fig. 2 shows an aAPP script carrying the scheduling information for functions tagged f_tag, which includes two blocks. The first restricts the allocation of the function on the workers labelled local_w1 and local_w2 and the second on public_w1. The first block specifies as invalid (i.e., unable to host the function under scheduling) the workers that reach a memory consumption above 80%. Since the strategy is best_first, we allocate the function on the first valid worker; if none are valid, we proceed with the next block. The function has affinity with g_tag and anti-affinity with h_tag . Hence, a worker is valid if it hosts at least a function with tag g_tag and no functions with tag h_tag . If both the first and second blocks did not find a valid worker, the scheduling of the function fails.

As a final remark, note that the (anti-)affinity relation in aAPP is "directional"—similarly to the one introduced by Microsoft in its IaaS offering [37]. In particular, it does not impose any properties like symmetry on affinity or anti-affinity. The reason for avoiding these additional constraints is to allow aAPP to capture as many useful scenarios as possible, which imposing properties like symmetry would prevent.⁵

3 The aAPP-calculus and its Fragment APP-calculus

We introduce the aAPP-calculus to formally model function scheduling in FaaS systems governed by aAPP scripts. We represent the states of the FaaS systems with pairs

⁵ For example, if we had symmetric anti-affinity, it would not capture typical scenarios where e.g., init is a seeder for a database and query manipulates that data. We need init to run before query but not where query is already running, while query shall run where init is present, i.e., init is anti-affine with query but query is affine with init.

 $\langle N, \Delta \rangle$ where N is a network of workers and Δ is a scheduling policy. The calculus defines labelled transitions $\langle N, \Delta \rangle \xrightarrow{\alpha} \langle N', \Delta \rangle$ that indicate that the state $\langle N, \Delta \rangle$ can change into $\langle N', \Delta \rangle$ as effect of the occurrence of the event α . The events ranged by α are either $f \downarrow w$, denoting the scheduling of function f on worker w, and $f \uparrow w$, representing the removal of function f from worker w because f terminated its execution.

The definition of the calculus is parametric w.r.t. the workers and the functions.

Definition 1 (Workers and Functions). We assume given the set W (ranged over by w) of the worker identifiers and the set \mathcal{F} (ranged over by f) of the function identifiers. For each $w \in W$ we use $\operatorname{cap}(w)$ to denote the capacity of the worker w (i.e., a strictly positive number quantifying the total resources of the worker w) and for each $f \in \mathcal{F}$ we use $\operatorname{res}(f)$ to denote the resources needed by the function f (i.e., a strictly positive number quantifying the resources that the function f must acquire from the worker where it is scheduled).

We also use two additional sets: the selection strategies, $S \triangleq \{\text{any, best_first}\}$ (ranged over by s), and the set of the invalidation conditions, $\mathcal{I} \triangleq \{\text{capacity_used } n\%, \text{max_concurrent_invocations } n$, affine F, anti_affine $F \mid n \in \mathbb{N}, F \subseteq \mathcal{F}\}$ (ranged over by i). Note that the selection strategies, any and best_first, as well as the invalidation conditions, capacity_used n%, max_concurrent_invocations n, precisely correspond to the syntactic elements of aAPP/APP (cf. Fig. 1). Contrarily to aAPP's syntax, we do not treat affinity as a separate entity and include it with the other invalidation conditions by adding affine F, meaning that at least one function in F should be present, and anti_affine F, requiring the absence of all the functions in F.

We start by defining the network of workers N, which intuitively associates to each worker the list of functions currently scheduled on it.

Definition 2 (Network of workers). A network of workers $N \in \mathcal{N} \triangleq \mathcal{W} \to List(\mathcal{F})$ is a function that associates to a worker the list \overline{f} of functions currently scheduled on that worker.

In the following, $N \cup (w \mapsto \overline{f})$ denotes a network of workers obtained by extending the network N with the mapping from the worker w to the list of functions \overline{f} .

Moving on to the definition of the scheduling policy Δ , it intuitively associates to each function its list of scheduling blocks, each carrying the list of workers, strategies, and invalidation conditions that determine the scheduling of the function.

Definition 3 (Scheduling blocks and policy). A scheduling block $b \in \mathcal{B} \triangleq (List(\mathcal{W}), \mathcal{S}, List(\mathcal{I}))$ is a triple $(\overline{w}, s, \overline{i})$ where \overline{w} is a list of workers, s is a selection strategy, and \overline{i} is a list of invalidation conditions. A scheduling policy $\Delta \in \mathcal{D} \triangleq \mathcal{F} \rightarrow List(\mathcal{B})$ is a mapping that associates to each function $f \in \mathcal{F}$ the list \overline{b} of blocks that define the scheduling of f on workers.

As for networks, in the following, we denote with $\Delta \cup (f \mapsto \bar{b})$ a policy obtained by extending the policy Δ with the mapping from function f to the list of blocks \bar{b} .

⁶ The notation assumes that w does not belong to the domain of N.

⁷ The notation assumes that f does not belong to the domain of Δ .

Fig. 3. aAPP syntax encoding.

From aAPP to Δ The straightforward encoding [] – defined inductively in Fig. 3 – determines the relationship between an aAPP script and its formal representation within a policy Δ in the aAPP-calculus. The encoding formalises the translation from aAPP to Δ , assuming a sorting of aAPP scripts where the default tag is the last element – to keep the definition in Fig. 3 compact, we use • as a pattern-matching variable. We slightly abuse the notation so that a tag f_tag denotes also the set of functions tagged with f_tag. Moreover, we extend the notation of lists, denoting with ε the empty list and with e::l a list obtained by adding the element e in front of the list l.

For instance, $f \in f$ -tag means that f has tag f-tag. For each $f \in f$ -tag we simply add in Δ a mapping from f to the list of blocks associated with f-tag in the aAPP script. We implement the semantics of the followup clause – where the policy follows the logic of the default blocks if none of the tag's blocks led to a successful scheduling – by appending the list of blocks of the default tag to the tag's blocks. This concatenation happens only when the followup value of the tag is set to default.

Formally, for each block in the aAPP script, we consider a corresponding aAPP-calculus block $(\overline{w}, s, \overline{i})$, where \overline{w} is the list of the specified workers (all the workers, in case of \star), s is the selection strategy, and \overline{i} contains all the invalidation conditions in the aAPP script. These conditions include the sequence of affinity-based invalidations of the form affine g_tag and anti_affine h_tag resp. for each g_tag and !h_tag occurring in the affinity clause – affine g_tag indicates affinity with functions tagged g_tag and anti_affine h_tag indicates anti-affinity with functions tagged h_tag.

Operational semantics We are ready to define the operational semantics of aAPP-calculus. Formally, we define a labelled transition system on the set of states $States \triangleq \{\langle N, \Delta \rangle \mid N \in \mathcal{N}, \Delta \in \mathcal{D}, \}$ (which contains the set of possible configurations of the modelled FaaS system represented as pairs $\langle N, \Delta \rangle$ where N is a network of workers and Δ is a scheduling policy) and the set of labels $Labels \triangleq \{f \downarrow w, f \uparrow w \mid f \in \mathcal{F}, w \in \mathcal{W}\}$ (where $f \downarrow w$ represents the scheduling of an instance of function f on worker w while $f \uparrow w$ represents the removal of f from w, occurring when the execution of f on w terminates).

$$[start] \cfrac{\bar{b} \ \triangleright (w,s,\bar{i}) :: \bar{b'} \quad \mathbf{valid}(f,w,\bar{i},\bar{f})}{\langle N \cup (w \mapsto \bar{f}), \ \Delta \cup (f \mapsto \bar{b}) \rangle} \cfrac{f \downarrow w}{f \in \bar{f}} \\ [rm] \cfrac{f \in \bar{f}}{\langle N \cup (w \mapsto \bar{f}), \ \Delta \rangle} \cfrac{f \uparrow w}{\langle N \cup (w \mapsto \bar{f} \setminus f), \ \Delta \rangle} \\ [next] \cfrac{\langle N, \ \Delta \cup (f \mapsto \bar{b'}) \rangle \xrightarrow{f \downarrow w} \langle N', \ \Delta' \rangle \quad \bar{b} \ \triangleright (w',s,\bar{i}) :: \bar{b'} \quad \neg \mathbf{valid}(f,w',\bar{i},N(w'))}{\langle N, \ \Delta \cup (f \mapsto \bar{b}) \rangle \xrightarrow{f \downarrow w} \langle N', \ \Delta \cup (f \mapsto \bar{b}) \rangle} \\ \cfrac{\langle N, \ \Delta \cup (f \mapsto \bar{b}) \rangle \xrightarrow{f \downarrow w} \langle N', \ \Delta \cup (f \mapsto \bar{b}) \rangle}{\langle N, \ \Delta \cup (f \mapsto \bar{b}) \rangle} \\ \cfrac{(s = \mathsf{any} \ \wedge \ w \in \overline{w}) \lor (s = \mathsf{best.first} \ \wedge \ \overline{w} = w :: \overline{w'}) \qquad \bar{b} \ \triangleright (w,s,\bar{i}) :: \bar{b'}} \\ \cfrac{(s = \mathsf{any} \ \wedge \ w \in \overline{w}) \lor (s = \mathsf{best.first} \ \wedge \ \overline{w} = w :: \overline{w'}) \qquad \bar{b} \ \triangleright (w,s,\bar{i}) :: \bar{b'}} \\ \cfrac{(v,s,\bar{i}) :: \bar{b} \ \vee (w,s,\bar{i}) :: \bar{b'}}{\langle w,s,\bar{i}\rangle :: \bar{b}} \qquad (\varepsilon,s',\bar{i'}) :: \bar{b} \ \triangleright (w,s,\bar{i}) :: \bar{b'}} \\ \cfrac{(v,s,\bar{i}) :: \bar{b} \ \vee (w,s,\bar{i}) :: \bar{b'}}{\langle w,s,\bar{i}\rangle :: \bar{b'}} \qquad (\varepsilon,s',\bar{i'}) :: \bar{b} \ \triangleright (w,s,\bar{i}) :: \bar{b'}} \\ \cfrac{(v,s,\bar{i}) :: \bar{b} \ \vee (w,s,\bar{i}) :: \bar{b'}}{\langle w,s,\bar{i}\rangle :: \bar{b'}} \qquad (v,s,\bar{i}) :: \bar{b'} \qquad (v,s,\bar{i}) :: \bar{b'} \qquad (v,s,\bar{i}) :: \bar{b'}} \\ \cfrac{(v,s,\bar{i}) :: \bar{b} \ \vee (w,s,\bar{i}) :: \bar{b'}}{\langle w,s,\bar{i}\rangle :: \bar{b'}} \qquad (v,s,\bar{i}) :: \bar{b'}} \qquad (v,s,\bar{i}) :: \bar{b'} \qquad (v,s$$

Fig. 4. aAPP semantics.

Definition 4 (aAPP-calculus and APP-calculus). The aAPP-calculus models function scheduling in FaaS systems by means of a labelled transition system (States \times Labels \times States) defined as the minimal transition system satisfying the rules in Fig. 4. We call APP-calculus the fragment of the aAPP-calculus where the invalidation conditions affine F and anti-affine F are not used.

Before discussing the formal definition of the semantics of the calculus, we extend the notation for lists so that: $e \in l$ means that e belongs to l ($e \notin l$ is its negation), $l \setminus e$ is a list obtained by removing the first occurrence of e from l, and |l| is the length of l.

In the definition, we use the auxiliary \triangleright relation and **valid** predicate, specified in Fig. 4. The relation \triangleright is defined on lists of scheduling blocks with the aim of extracting, from a given list, one worker to be considered for scheduling. Namely, $\bar{b} \triangleright (w,s,\bar{i}) :: \bar{b'}$ means that w is one of the workers that can be selected from the first (non-empty) scheduling block of \bar{b} , and s and \bar{i} are the selection strategy and the invalidation conditions of the block from which w has been extracted. The list $\bar{b'}$ contains the remaining workers and scheduling blocks. The predicate $valid(f, w, i_1 :: \cdots :: i_n, \bar{f})$

checks whether a function f can be scheduled on w assuming invalidation conditions $i_1 :: \cdots :: i_n$, and that the worker w currently hosts the functions \overline{f} , i.e., $N(w) = \overline{f}$. In the definition of the predicate, **occ** returns the occupancy of a list of functions (using **res** to obtain the occupancy of a single function), **cap** calculates the capacity of a worker, and **check** verifies whether a condition i the scheduling of a function f on a worker w, given a list of functions \overline{f} already present on w.

We are now ready to discuss the operational semantics rules. Rule [start] states that if the worker w (extracted from the list of scheduling blocks of f via the \triangleright relation) is valid for the scheduling of the function f (validity is checked with the **valid** predicate) then the current state can evolve by adding an instance of f to the list of functions currently scheduled on w. Rule [rm] simply removes an instance of function f from the list of functions currently scheduled on a worker w. This rule models the removal of a function from a worker when its execution has been completed. Lastly, rule [next] models the case when an attempt to schedule a function f fails (due to the invalidation conditions) and it allows the remaining workers/scheduling blocks to schedule f.

We present a couple of examples of derivations which involve the rules [start] and [next] (rule [rm] has a rather straightforward application). We consider the function f with consumed resources $\mathbf{res}(f) = 5$ and scheduling policy $\Delta = (f \mapsto b)$, where $b = (w :: w', \mathsf{best_first}, \mathsf{capacity_used} 50\%)$, and initial network $N = (w \mapsto \varepsilon) \cup (w' \mapsto \varepsilon)$, with workers w and w' with capacity $\mathsf{cap}(w) = \mathsf{cap}(w') = 10$.

First, we can schedule f on w using the rule [start] (for brevity, we use f to denote the list $f :: \varepsilon$ in networks).

$$[start] \begin{tabular}{l} $b \rhd (w, best_first, capacity_used 50\%) :: (w', best_first, capacity_used 50\%) \\ \hline $valid(f, w, capacity_used 50\%, \varepsilon)$ \\ \hline $\langle (w \mapsto \varepsilon) \cup (w' \mapsto \varepsilon), \ (f \mapsto b) \rangle \end{tabular} \begin{tabular}{l} $b \rhd (w', best_first, capacity_used 50\%) \\ \hline $\langle (w \mapsto \varepsilon) \cup (w' \mapsto \varepsilon), \ (f \mapsto b) \rangle \end{tabular}$$

Let N' be the reached network $(w \mapsto f) \cup (w' \mapsto \varepsilon)$. If we try to schedule f in $\langle N', (f \mapsto b) \rangle$, we will allocate it on w' since w cannot host f without exceeding the capacity_used 50% condition. This is formalised by the transition below, where s=best_first and i=capacity_used 50%, for brevity.

$$[start] \xrightarrow{\begin{array}{c} b \rhd (w',s,i) :: \varepsilon & \mathsf{valid}(f,w',i,\varepsilon) \\ \hline & \langle N', \ (f \mapsto (w',s,i)) \rangle \xrightarrow{f \downarrow w'} \langle (w \mapsto f) \cup (w' \mapsto f), \ (f \mapsto (w',s,i)) \rangle \\ & b \rhd (w,s,i) :: (w',s,i) & \neg \mathsf{valid}(f,w,i,f) \\ \hline & \langle N', \ (f \mapsto b) \rangle \xrightarrow{f \downarrow w'} \langle (w \mapsto f) \cup (w' \mapsto f), \ (f \mapsto b) \rangle \end{array}}$$

In the remainder, we use the following notation: given the sequence of labels $\overline{\alpha} = \alpha_1...\alpha_n$, we use $\langle N, \Delta \rangle \stackrel{\overline{\alpha}}{\hookrightarrow} \langle N_n, \Delta \rangle$ to denote that $\langle N, \Delta \rangle \stackrel{\alpha_1}{\longrightarrow} \langle N_1, \Delta \rangle ... \stackrel{\alpha_n}{\longrightarrow} \langle N_n, \Delta \rangle$.

We close the section with the definition of the problems we consider in our development: reachability concerns checking whether a function f can be scheduled on a worker w starting from an initial network of workers, while co-occurrence checks whether two functions f and g can be both present in the list of functions scheduled

on a worker w. By *initial* network of workers, we mean a network N where all workers have no functions already scheduled, i.e., $N(w) = \varepsilon$ for every available worker w.

Definition 5 (Reachability). Given a scheduling policy Δ , an initial network N, a function f, and a worker w, the reachability problem $\operatorname{Reach}(\Delta, N, f, w)$ consists of checking if there exists a sequence of labels $\overline{\alpha}$ such that $\langle N, \Delta \rangle \stackrel{\overline{\alpha}}{\hookrightarrow} \langle N', \Delta \rangle$ with $N'(w) = \overline{f}$ such that $f \in \overline{f}$.

Definition 6 (Co-occurrence). Given a scheduling policy Δ , an initial network N, two functions f and g, and a worker w, the co-occurrence problem $\operatorname{CoOccur}(\Delta, N, f, g, w)$ consists of checking if there exists a sequence of labels $\overline{\alpha}$ such that $\langle N, \Delta \rangle \stackrel{\overline{\alpha}}{\hookrightarrow} \langle N', \Delta \rangle$ with $N'(w) = \overline{f}$ such that $f \in \overline{f}$ and $g \in \overline{f} \setminus f$.

4 Reachability and Co-occurrence in the APP-calculus

We prove that both reachability and co-occurrence have linear time complexity in the APP-calculus.⁸ The result follows from two properties formalised in Lemmas 1 and 2. Lemma 1 formalises a sort of anti-monotonic property of scheduling: if we can schedule a function f on a worker, we can do it if the worker hosted fewer functions.

Lemma 1. Let \bar{i} be a list of invalidation conditions that does not contain invalidations of the kind affine F, N a network of workers, Δ a scheduling policy, w a worker belonging to the domain of N, and f, g functions belonging to the domain of Δ . We have that $\operatorname{valid}(f, w, \bar{i}, \bar{f})$ implies $\operatorname{valid}(f, w, \bar{i}, \bar{f})$, for every function f'.

Notice that Lemma 1 does not hold if we consider also the invalidation conditions affine F. In fact, if $f \in F$, the **check** predicate in Fig. 4 checks whether $f \in \overline{f}$, and if there is only one occurrence of f in \overline{f} we have that $f \not\in (\overline{f} \setminus f)$. We can then conclude that the property stated by the above lemma does not hold in the full aAPP-calculus due to the presence of the invalidation conditions affine F, while it holds in the APP-calculus (and in a fragment of the aAPP-calculus which does does not use affine F, named negatively-polarised fragment of aAPP in Sec. 6).

Lemma 2 intuitively states that, when considering the reachability on a worker w, we can consider a simpler script with only the blocks that involve w and remove the other workers from said blocks; as defined by the auxiliary function simple. Formally, $\mathtt{simple}(\Delta,w) = \Delta'$ where Δ' has the same domain as Δ and if $\Delta(f) = \overline{b}$ then $\Delta'(f) = \mathtt{fltr}(\overline{b},w)$ where $\mathtt{fltr}(\varepsilon,w) = \varepsilon$ and $\mathtt{fltr}((\overline{w},s,\overline{i})::\overline{b},w) = \begin{cases} (w,s,\overline{i})::\mathtt{fltr}(\overline{b},w) & \text{if } w \in \overline{w} \\ \mathtt{fltr}(\overline{b},w) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$ Intuitively, Lemma 2 holds because the other workers (not w) that have higher priority

Lemma 2. Given a scheduling policy Δ , an initial network of workers N, a function f, and a worker w, we have that $\operatorname{Reach}(\Delta,N,f,w)$ iff $\operatorname{Reach}(\operatorname{simple}(\Delta,w),N,f,w)$.

than w can be invalidated by assigning functions to them until they reach full capacity.

⁸ We recall that details about the proofs of our results are in the companion paper [19]. In this paper, we give an idea of the proof structure and discuss the proof techniques.

We now move to the proof that the reachability problem has linear time complexity in the APP-calculus. Intuitively, the proof proceed as follows. In the light of Lemma 2 we can restrict to the simplest $\mathsf{simple}(\Delta, w)$ scheduling policy which considers only the target worker w. If $\mathsf{simple}(\Delta, w)$ contains at least one scheduling block capable of scheduling the function f on w when w is empty, then we know that $\mathsf{Reach}(\Delta, N, f, w)$. On the opposite direction, if $\mathsf{Reach}(\Delta, N, f, w)$ we know that there is a sequence of scheduling events ending with the scheduling of f on w. By the anti-monotonic property formalized in Lemma 1, we have that the scheduling of f on w can be anticipated at the beginning (when w is empty). Verifying whether there is a scheduling blocks for function f on an empty worker w in $\mathsf{simple}(\Delta, w)$ corresponds to a linear-time check of the lists of invalidation policies associated with blocks of f and check if the invalidation conditions are not met.

Theorem 1. Reach (Δ, N, f, w) has linear time complexity in the APP-calculus.

Similarly, we prove that also co-occurrence has linear time complexity by reducing the problem to solving the reachability problem twice.

Theorem 2. Co0ccur(Δ ,N,f,g,w) has linear time complexity in the APP-calculus.

5 Reachability and Co-occurrence in the aAPP-calculus

We now prove that both reachability and co-occurrence become PSPACE-complete in the full aAPP-calculus, i.e., when consider (anti-)affinity constraints. While this result formalises the expressiveness gap – i.e., aAPP can specify more sophisticated scheduling policies than APP– it severely complicates reachability verification, which motivates the introduction of our planner-based tool in Sec. 7.

To prove that reachability is PSPACE-complete in the aAPP-calculus we first need to show that the problem is in PSPACE. This first result follows from the following observations: (i) a network $N \in \mathcal{N}$ can be represented in memory by a matrix (with a row for each worker, a column for each function, and the number of instances of a function on a worker stored in the corresponding cell) which occupies a polynomial amount of space; (ii) reachability can be detected with a nondeterministic algorithm using that amount of space; (iii) NPSPACE coincides with PSPACE [46]. Then we need to prove that the problem is PSPACE-hard. This can be proved by reduction from the single post-condition variant of PLANSAT which was proved to be PSPACE-hard by Bylander [11]. In a few words, this problem consists of checking whether a target state can be reached starting from an initial state represented by a finite set of ground atomic conditions that are considered initially true, by applying operators that change the current state by checking some positive and negative pre-conditions (the positive ones should hold, the negative ones should not hold) and then modifying the state by making a ground atomic condition either true or false. This problem can be modeled in aAPP by means of an appropriate encoding which represents each ground atomic condition with two possible functions, one representing the condition true and one representing the condition false. The operators are modeled by means of a scheduling policy capable of: (i) scheduling a

specific function f_o representing one operator o only if the functions representing the corresponding pre-conditions are already scheduled, and (ii) scheduling the function representing the post-condition of o only if the function f_o is already scheduled. We use affinity to check the presence of the functions representing the pre-conditions, while anti-affinity is used to guarantee that if the post-condition requires to change the value of a ground atomic condition, the function representing the new value true (resp. false) is not scheduled contemporaneously with the opposite previous value false (resp. true).

Theorem 3. Reach (Δ, N, f, w) is PSPACE-complete in the aAPP-calculus.

We have that the co-occurrence problem can be reduced to the reachability problem. This allows us to conclude the following.

Corollary 1. Co0ccur (Δ, N, f, g, w) is PSPACE-complete in the aAPP-calculus.

6 Reachability and Co-Occurence with Polarised Affinities

We move to investigate *polarised* aAPP sublanguages, where one can express either affinity or anti-affinity but not mix them. Practically, we want to understand if we can use algorithmically tractable analyses with fragments of aAPP, e.g., when a script uses only the syntax of a polarised fragment. We call *positively-polarised* aAPP the variant with only affinity and *negatively-polarised* aAPP the one with only anti-affinity.

The calculus corresponding to positively-polarised aAPP is the fragment of the aAPP-calculus that does not contain invalidation conditions of the kind anti-affine F (generated by the forbidden anti-affinity requirements); while the calculus corresponding to negatively-polarised aAPP is the fragment of the aAPP-calculus that does not contain invalidation conditions of the kind affine F (generated by the forbidden affinity requirements). We study the complexity of the reachability and co-occurrence problems for the two fragments. We show that in the positively-polarised fragment the problems are NP-hard (hence not tractable unless P=NP), while in the negatively-polarised fragment both problems have linear time complexity.

First, we prove that in the positively-polarised fragment of the aAPP-calculus the reachability and co-occurrence problems are NP-hard. The proof is by reduction from 3SAT, a well known NP-hard problem [14] consisting of checking the satisfiability of a boolean formula in conjunctive normal form, where each clause has at most three literals (where a literal is a boolean variable or its negation). The reduction is based on a scheduling policy which allows for the initial scheduling of functions which represent a possible assignment of boolean values to the variables in the formula. Then, affinity is used to allow the scheduling of functions representing whether a given clause is satisfied by the assignment. These functions are forced to be scheduled in sequence, from the first clause to the last one. In this way, the functions corresponding to the last clause can be scheduled if-and-only-if all the clauses can be satisfied, i.e., the formula is satisfiable.

Theorem 4. Reach (Δ, N, f, w) and CoOccur (Δ, N, f, g, w) are NP-hard in the positively-polarised fragment of the aAPP-calculus.

```
1 (:goal

2 (= (number_of_f_in_W f w) 1) 2 (and (= (number_of_f_in_W f1 w) 1) 3 (= (number_of_f_in_W f2 w) 1) 4 ))
```

Fig. 5. Encoding of Reach and CoOccur in PDDL, on the left and right side respectively.

Note that the proof of linear time complexity of $\operatorname{Reach}(\Delta, N, f, w)$ and $\operatorname{Cooccur}(\Delta, N, f, g, w)$ cannot be applied to the positively-polarised fragment of the aAPP-calculus because Lemma 1 considers scheduling policies that do not contain invalidations of the kind affine F. On the other hand, the proof can be applied to the negatively-polarised fragment of the aAPP-calculus, thus we can conclude the following.

Theorem 5. Reach (Δ, N, f, w) and CoOccur (Δ, N, f, g, w) have linear time complexity in the negatively-polarised fragment of the aAPP-calculus.

7 Automated verification of aAPP scripts

Given the results of the Reach and CoOccur problems for APP and aAPP, we have a firmer grasp of how to automate their analysis, provided an initial configuration. Since we proved that the complexity of this analysis for aAPP is PSPACE-hard, we present a proof-of-concept solution developed on existing solvers for that class of problems.

Specifically, we encode the Reach and CoOccur problems as automated planning tasks. We choose to use PDDL [23], i.e., the de-facto standard for encoding planning problems. Mainly, PDDL specifications include two parts: a domain description, regarding all available actions and their preconditions and effects, and a problem description, modelling the initial state of the specific problem instance and the desired goals.

The choice of PDDL has many advantages, the main ones include: i) it lets us use different dedicated and efficient planning solvers, ii) it naturally provides a witness (i.e., a sequence of actions) leading to the violation of some desired property (e.g., if two functions shall be anti-affine and we find an instance where they co-occur, we can see a trace that produces the offending result), and iii) it lets users express more elaborate goal configurations than reachability and co-occurrence (e.g., we can ask if there exists a worker that can host a given set of functions and still preserve a certain capacity).

7.1 Encoding of the PDDL domain

To define the domain, we encoded the semantic rules reported in Fig. 4. The two main encoded actions are the (start, _, _) and (done, _, _) transitions. Each action alters the state appropriately, e.g., removing a function from a worker increases its available capacity accordingly. The encoding of the rules uses a combination of boolean predicates (e.g., for the affinity of a block) and numerical functions (e.g., for capacity constraints). We did not encode the (fail, _, _) transition since it does not affect the state—it is equivalent to a null operation in the context of a plan.

7.2 Encoding of the PDDL problems

Since aAPP's semantics works on aAPP scripts and configurations (cf. Fig. 4), we define the problem by encoding an input aAPP script with a companion configuration definition, which describes the existing workers and functions with the respective capacities/occupancies – the latter, defined using PDDL numeric fluents to model non-binary, discrete resources. Given a configuration, in its initial state workers have no allocated functions and maximal capacity. We define the Reach and CoOccur problems using of the proposition number_of_f_in_W, which indicates the number of copies of a function on a given worker in the final state. The code on the left of Fig. 5 exemplifies the Reach problem, where we check if we can satisfy the goal of allocating at least one copy of function f on worker w; on the right of Fig. 5, we realise CoOccur as the conjunction of two number_of_f_in_W, checking if worker w can host both functions f1 and f2.

7.3 Tool Components and Support for Advanced Queries, an Example

To provide a smoother experience to users, we provide users with a simple, YAML-like notation for configurations (exemplified in Fig. 6) and translators that generate the PDDL encoding of part of the problem, given a configuration file and an aAPP script. The last piece of the problem, required from the user, is the definition of the goal, which uses the PDDL notation. The encoding and its companion tools are available at [16].

We illustrate the experience of using our analysis tool by defining a configuration, an aAPP script, and a property. Let us consider the configuration in Fig. 6, with two workers, local and public, and three functions f, u and g, resp. tagged private, unsafe, and generic. We want to define an aAPP script such that it never happens that we allocate fs with other non-f functions. We encode this property in Fig. 7, where we use existential quantifiers to range over both workers and functions and check whether we can find a worker that can host both f and a function different from f. If the planner is unable to find a solution, the property holds for the provided aAPP script.

In Fig. 8, we show a possible candidate script. Running the planner with (the encodings of) the excerpts in Fig. 6 and Fig. 8 and the goal from Fig. 7, we obtain the output in the red box at the centre of Fig. 10. The output is a trace of actions that satisfies the goal; namely, the allocation of f with another function on the same worker. Specifically, we found that f can co-occur with a function g, tagged generic, on the local worker. Hence, we need to fix our candidate aAPP script to prevent the allocation of generic functions with fs. Looking closely at Fig. 8, we indeed notice that we forgot to indicate that also the generic (tagged) functions are anti-affine with the private ones. Remember that affinity in aAPP is not symmetric, so, to ensure that private functions are anti-affine with the other functions, we need to mark also all the latter anti-affine with the private ones.

Fig. 9 shows a fixed version of the aAPP script from Fig. 8 where we add mutual anti-affinity – the new affinity clause under the generic block. The new constraint makes the goal from Fig. 7 unsatisfiable, as shown in the green box next to Fig. 9.

Performance-wise, we tested our encoding using the MetricFF [28] planner on examples similar to Fig. 10, obtaining results (either providing a solution or proving

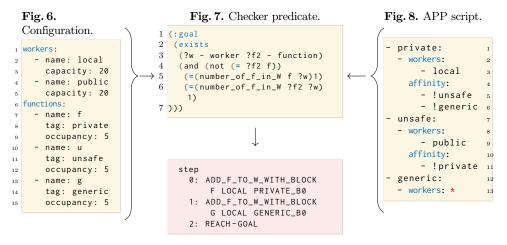


Fig. 9. Fixed APP script.



Fig. 10. Example of incorrect aAPP script for the singleton example (top) and fix (bottom).

its non-existence) within a few milliseconds – we obtain a solution in 2.4ms for the script in Fig. 8 and the exhaustion for the one in Fig. 9 in 4ms, averaged over 10⁴ runs.

Here, we focus on the feasibility of our approach based on using off-the-shelf planning solvers, hence we leave as future work the study of which planners work best and how well they scale under different cases. Like SAT solvers, which can solve large SAT problems despite their NP-hardness, we conjecture that planners can efficiently solve the majority of reachability and co-occurrence problems. Intuitively, except for those combinations of configuration, script, and predicates that require the saturation of workers to reach the goal, the plan to prove the violation of the property is rather short and therefore solvers can find it quickly. 9

8 Related Work and Discussion

Common scheduling problems are renownedly NP-complete [56]. However, we are not aware of results on the complexity of scheduling problems where affinity is the key point for turning the complexity of the problem from linear-time to PSPACE-hard (as formalised by Theorems 3 and 4). We consider these result an interesting point to highlight in relation to other computational models. We initially thought that the

⁹ The complexity of the planning problem becomes pseudo-polynomial with bounded plan length $-O(n^k)$ with n size of the planning encoding and k maximal length of the plan.

source of the increase of complexity was mainly due to anti-affinity (i.e., check the absence of a set of functions F before scheduling another function g on a worker). In fact, in many computational models, "negative" tests increase the complexity of verifying properties. For example, it is well-known that in register-based computational models (RAMs) the ability to test whether a register is empty is necessary for RAMs to be Turing complete, while in Petri nets reachability and coverability problems are decidable, but they become undecidable in Petri nets extended with inhibitor arcs (i.e., the ability to test whether a place is empty).

Regarding Petri nets, it is interesting to observe that our results exhibit notable differences compared to the known complexity/undecidability results in that context. Our reachability problems are expressed as the possibility to reach a configuration with at least some given functions on some given worker. This formulation has a strong correspondence with the coverability problem in Petri nets, consisting of checking the reachability of a marking with at least a given amount of tokens in some given places. Coverability is EXPSPACE-hard in Petri nets [36] while our reachability problems are PSPACE-complete as in 1-safe Petri nets [13], the fragment of Petri nets where places can contain at most one token. Our calculus is significantly different from 1-safe Petri nets because we need to count how many instances of a function are present in a worker. Moreover, our semantics also incorporates priorities because the scheduling blocks must be considered in order, i.e., a block is considered only if the previous ones fail. Differently from our context, the addition of priorities to Petri nets makes them Turing complete [26], hence coverability becomes undecidable.

Another interesting highlight concerns the linear time complexity of co-occurrence in the APP-calculus (Theorem 2) and in negatively-polarised aAPP (Theorem 4). On the positive side, we have that we can efficiently check possible violations of security properties of scripts, like the co-location of "trusted" and "untrusted" functions. However, this efficiency comes at a cost, i.e., the impossibility to express any reasonable form of affinity. As a corollary of Lemma 1, we have that if $\langle N, \Delta \rangle \xrightarrow{f \downarrow w} \langle N_1, \Delta \rangle$ in a network N where the worker w already hosts instances of g, we have that also $\langle N', \Delta \rangle \xrightarrow{f \downarrow w} \langle N'_1, \Delta \rangle$ where $\langle N', \Delta \rangle$ is the same as $\langle N, \Delta \rangle$, but with all occurrences of g removed from w. Such property implies that scheduling policies expressed in APP, or in the negatively-polarised fragment of aAPP, cannot admit the scheduling of a function f in case we want f to be affine with g, i.e., we want the guarantee that f can be scheduled only on workers which already host instances of another function g.

Looking at the industry, we see platforms using both affinity and anti-affinity. Azure Service Fabric [39] provides a notion of service affinity that ensures the placement of replicas of a service on the same nodes as those of another, affine service. Another example is Kubernetes, which has a notion of node affinity and inter-pod (anti-)affinity to express advanced scheduling logic for the optimal distribution of pods [34]. Affinity and anti-affinity have been also studied in the context of microservices. Proposals in this direction are by Baarzi and Kesidis [7], who present a framework for the deployment of microservices that infers and assigns affinity and anti-affinity traits to microservices to orient the distribution of resources and microservices replicas on the available machines; Sampaio et al. [44], who introduce an

adaptation mechanism for microservice deployment based on microservice affinities (e.g., the more messages microservices exchange the more affine they are) and resource usage; Sheoran et al. [49], who propose an approach that computes procedural affinity of communication among microservices to make placement decisions. Overall, the mentioned work proves the usefulness of affinity-aware deployments at lower layers than FaaS (e.g., VMs, containers, microservices) but we are not aware of any formal study on the semantics and expressiveness of these constructs.

In the literature on serverless, proposals might adopt affinity and anti-affinity relations to encode and complement desirable properties of function scheduling, otherwise implemented via ad-hoc, platform-wide policies. For instance, some works present serverless architectures that enable the efficient composition of functions co-located on the same host [3,50,43]. Here, aAPP can help to parametrise the co-location of functions, expressed in terms of affinity and anti-affinity constraints. Another example regards security, e.g., Pubali et al. [15] present a serverless platform where developers can constrain the information flow among functions to avoid attacks due to container reuse and data exfiltration. In this case, aAPP can complement flow policies with affinity and anti-affinity constraints that restrict the co-tenancy of functions and their flows of communication. Another interesting proposal, Palette [2], uses optional opaque parameters in function invocations to inform the load balancer of Azure Functions on the affinity with previous invocations and the data they produced. While Palette does not support (anti-)affinity constraints, it allows users to express which invocations benefit from running on the same node. We deem an interesting future work extending aAPP to support a notion of (anti-)affinity that considers the history of scheduled functions.

Closing our revision of related work, we mention our previous publication [18], that presents an alternative definition of a semantics for the APP language. The differences between that work and the aAPP-calculus we present are twofold. First, we consider also affinity-aware scheduling policies, i.e., we model APP's semantics and extend it with affinities, giving us the aAPP language. Second, we define a more elegant and simplified semantics. Indeed, the previous semantics definition [18] considers three distinct layers (for [Workers], [Blocks], and [Configurations]), while the semantics we propose has just one layer. Moreover, our semantics omits the transition (fail,f) – used in the alternative semantics [18] to model the failure of an attempt to schedule a function f – because it is irrelevant for the study of the reachability and co-occurrence problems.

9 Conclusion and Future Work

We shed some light on formal characterisations of reachability analysis of FaaS scheduling policies and show immediate application of these mathematical results. We first introduce the aAPP-calculus to rigorously reason on the semantics of function scheduling that includes affinity constraints and then proceed to study the expressiveness of aAPP. We start with APP, which is a subset of aAPP that does not express either affinity or anti-affinity constraints. Performing our analysis of APP, we show that it is unfit for expressing interesting (anti-)affinity constraints between functions. Turning to aAPP, we formally prove the increment of expressiveness of adding affinity by showing that affinity-aware reachability problems, having linear time complexity

in APP, turn out to be PSPACE-complete in aAPP. The proof of PSPACE-hardness is by reduction from PLANSAT, a well-known planning problem. We complement the above results by studying fragments of aAPP that can only express either affinity or anti-affinity constraints, proving that the complexity increase derives from affinity.

We summarise the complexity bounds of the co-occurrence (and reachability) problem of APP, aAPP, and the latter's affinity-only and anti-affinity-only fragments.

	APP	neg. polarised aAPP	pos. polarised aAPP	aAPP
Lowerbound	Linear	Linear	NP	PSPACE
Upperbound	Linear	Linear	PSPACE	PSPACE

Given the above results, we define a relationship from aAPP to PDDL – a standard language for planning problems – and realise a tool for automatic verification of scheduling properties for aAPP that exploits off-the-shelf PDDL solvers.

Directions for future work include capturing configurations whose workers can change, i.e., when workers (dis)appear while the platform is running. In such dynamic scenarios, the configuration space is infinite, which could have repercussions on the complexity/decidability of the reachability and co-occurrence problems. We also plan to define a timed semantics for aAPP, e.g., to specify the expected execution time of functions on workers. One such model could support quantitative analysis, e.g., to estimate the completion time of a FaaS application or the distribution of workers load over time, i.e., it would allow us to quantitatively reason on policies, e.g., whether they could lead to bad performance or underutilisation of workers.

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