

Article

Simulating Fog and Edge Computing Scenarios: an Overview and Research Challenges

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Abstract: The fourth industrial revolution heralds a paradigm shift in how people, processes, things, data and networks communicate and connect with each other. Conventional computing infrastructures are struggling to satisfy dramatic growth in demand from a deluge of connected heterogeneous end points located at the edge of networks while, at the same time, meeting quality of service levels. The complexity of computing at the edge makes it increasingly difficult for infrastructure providers to plan for and provision resources to meet this demand. While simulation frameworks are used extensively in the modelling of cloud computing environments in order to test and validate technical solutions, they are at a nascent stage of development and adoption for fog and edge computing. This paper provides an overview of challenges posed by fog and edge computing in relation to simulation.

Keywords: Cloud computing; edge computing; fog computing; simulation; modelling; simulation challenges;

1. Introduction

It is commonly accepted that society is on the brink of what is termed the fourth industrial revolution (4IR), whereby cyber-physical systems will disrupt and transform entire industries and associated systems of production, management, and governance [1]. Schwab [1] posits that this revolution differs from the previous three revolutions because it is not based on breakthroughs in technology but rather communication and connectivity. At its core, 4IR is not a new concept and is couched in the concept of a networked society whose social structures and activities, to a greater or lesser extent, are organised around digital information networks that connect people, processes, things, data and networks [2,3]. As such, 4IR, Industry 4.0, and the Internet of Things (IoT) are often discussed in juxtaposition. 4IR is disruptive because it has the potential to radically redefine industrial performance trajectories and how, who, and where value is created, delivered and captured. Current exuberance about 4IR, Industry 4.0 and IoT is driven by both the advances and widespread adoption of a number of underlying technologies namely cloud computing, ubiquitous sensing, and mobile technologies, connected across a cloud-to-things (C2T) continuum. In conventional cloud computing, processing and storage typically takes place within the boundaries of a cloud and its underlying infrastructure. It is not designed to cater for the scale of geographically dispersed, heterogeneous end points and low latency required for many 4IR, Industry 4.0 and IoT use cases. As

28 such, conventional paradigms of computing need to be rethought to cater for the scale of data processing
 29 and storage needed to support the requirements of 4IR, Industry 4.0 and IoT to function in a distributed,
 30 coordinated way at minimum latency [4].

31 Fog and edge computing are two relatively new paradigms of computing that have been proposed to
 32 address these challenges. NIST [4] recently defined fog computing as:

33 *... a horizontal, physical or virtual resource paradigm that resides between smart end-devices and*
 34 *traditional cloud or data centers. This paradigm supports vertically-isolated, latency-sensitive applications*
 35 *by providing ubiquitous, scalable, layered, federated, and distributed computing, storage, and network*
 36 *connectivity.*

37 Edge computing, in contrast, is local computing at the network layer encompassing the smart
 38 end-devices and their users [4]. As such, edge computing in its narrow definition excludes both fog and
 39 cloud computing [5], as shown in Figure 1. Fog and edge computing provides significant advantages for
 40 processing data closer to the source and thus mitigate latency issues, lower costs of data transmission, and
 41 reduce network congestion [6,7].

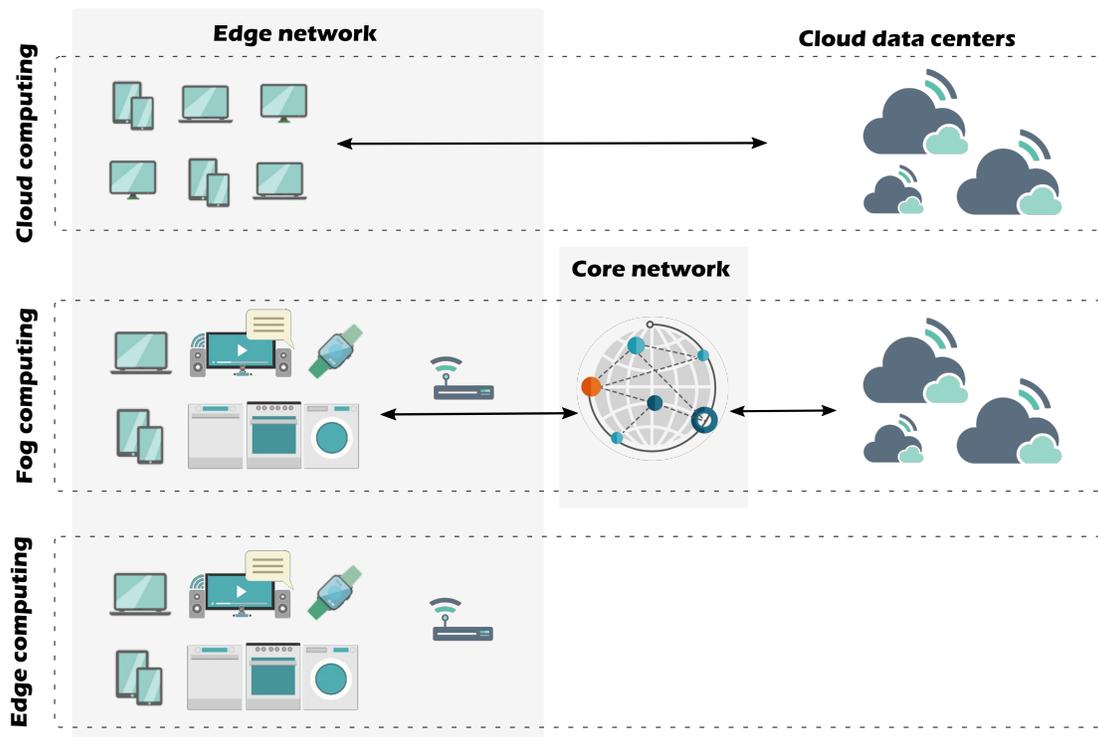


Figure 1. Cloud, fog and edge domains (based on Mahmud *et al.* [8])

42 Fog and edge computing provide new and significant architecture design challenges for all of those
 43 involved in the 4IR/IoT chain of service provision. Fog and edge computing use cases vary by the extent
 44 and degree of (i) contextual location awareness and low latency, (ii) geographic distribution, (iii) scale and
 45 coordination of end-point networks, (iv) heterogeneity, interoperability and functionality of end points, (v)
 46 real-time vs batch processing, (vi) mobility of end points, and (vii) interplay between the edge, the fog
 47 and the cloud layers [4]. These factors determine the extent to which quality of service levels can be met,
 48 performance bottlenecks avoided, energy consumption optimised, under-utilization reduced, and costs
 49 managed efficiently and effectively [9]. However, the complexity and scale of these use cases are orders of

50 magnitude greater than conventional enterprise and cloud computing scenarios. Successful deployment
51 of 4IR/IoT use cases requires optimal placement of computation and storage along the C2T continuum on
52 a case by case basis and new approaches to test resource placement and management strategies at scale.

53 Like cloud computing, researchers and developers seeking to test resource placement and
54 management strategies for fog and edge computing face a number of significant challenges. Firstly,
55 commercial service providers typically do not give the necessary infrastructure access or control to third
56 parties [10]. Secondly, establishing a test bed with a high degree of verisimilitude is both complex, costly,
57 resource and time-intensive. Thirdly, from a research perspective, the use of commercial third party
58 services and proprietary test beds limit the extent to which experiments can be validated and results
59 reproduced.

60 Cloud computing researchers have attempted to overcome these issues through the application
61 of a range of modelling techniques. For example, Petri Nets [11], Markov Chains [12], Fault Tree (FT),
62 Reliability Graphs (RG) and Reliability Block Diagrams (RBD) [13] have all been used as analytical
63 modelling techniques in distributed system research. A *Petri Net* is a mathematical modelling language that
64 is commonly used to describe dynamic and parallel system behaviour in order to analyse the performance
65 and availability metrics of systems capable of being clearly described using mathematical definitions [14].
66 In *Markov chains*, system models are defined as a sequence of stochastic events that can be used for
67 estimating system behaviour using complex probability distributions. The increasing scale, complexity
68 and heterogeneity of C2T systems renders the use of traditional mathematical modelling techniques
69 difficult to utilise, however simulation is increasingly being adopted as a suitable approach due to its
70 ability to model systems with such characteristics.

71 Given this, the use of simulation frameworks [15,16] has come to greater prominence in cloud
72 computing research. Service configuration and resource placement and management strategies can be
73 simulated prior to infrastructure deployment, performance can be optimised, technical and commercial
74 hypotheses tested, and research results validated and reproduced in a low cost, low risk and often
75 time-sensitive manner [10]. Research on fog and edge computing is still at a relatively early stage of
76 development. Unsurprisingly, research on simulation frameworks to support fog and edge computing
77 and the multitude of use cases that 4IR and IoT represent is lagging.

78 While there are a number of research surveys and articles exploring the challenges of fog computing
79 (e.g. [17,18]), edge computing (e.g. [19,20]), simulation frameworks for cloud computing (e.g. [15,16]) and
80 IoT data analytics (e.g. [21]), there is a paucity of publications addressing the challenges in modelling and
81 simulating fog and edge computing specifically. This paper complements existing works on fog and edge
82 computing by presenting the challenges and design considerations for simulation frameworks of fog and
83 edge infrastructures. Our aim is to support both computing and simulation researchers entering this field
84 in determining the requirements of the simulation platform that they would need to develop or employ to
85 evaluate their technical proposals.

86 The remainder of this paper is organised as follows. The next section discusses challenges of fog and
87 edge computing modelling and simulation. This is followed by a review of existing simulation frameworks
88 for fog and edge computing and a gap analysis against support for four key criteria - (a) infrastructure
89 level modelling, (b) application-level modelling, (c) resource management modelling, (d) mobility, and
90 (e) scalability. Our analysis suggest significant gaps in relation to requirements to model mobility and
91 scalability, after which the article concludes.

92 2. Fog and edge computing: modelling and simulation challenges

93 The increasing ubiquity of mobile technologies and low-cost connected sensors has resulted in
94 a deluge of computational and networking end points at several orders of magnitude than previous

95 decades. Conventional computing infrastructures, including cloud computing, leverage geographical
96 centralised data centres using relatively homogeneous commoditized hardware. Such infrastructures
97 were not designed to cater for the processing, storage and data generated by billions of distributed end
98 points operating in often dynamic environments with intermittent network connectivity. Unsurprisingly,
99 service providers have faced unprecedented challenges planning and managing for greater demands
100 while meeting minimum service levels. Fog computing has emerged to complement cloud computing.
101 As discussed earlier, fog computing is located between smart end-devices at the edge of networks and
102 traditional cloud or data centres [4]. It plays an important role in reducing network congestion and
103 facilitating location awareness, mobility support, real-time interactions, scalability and interoperability
104 [8,22]. In contrast, edge computing, in its purest sense, defined by the exclusion of cloud and fog, and
105 is limited to a small number of peripheral network layers [4]. Both fog and edge computing present
106 significant challenges for service providers and researchers including application architecture design and
107 deployment, infrastructure and network management, mobility, resource management, and scalability.

108 *2.1. Application level modelling*

109 There is an infinite range of potential applications for fog and edge computing, ranging from
110 simple-IoT based sensor monitoring to the complex data processing systems inherent in Industry 4.0,
111 e-health, smart cities etc. Consequently, underlying applications vary in their needs based on the degree of
112 (i) contextual location awareness and low latency, (ii) geographic distribution, (iii) scale and coordination
113 of end-point networks, (iv) heterogeneity, interoperability and functionality of end points, (v) real-time
114 vs batch processing, (vi) mobility of end points, and (vii) interplay between the edge, the fog and the
115 cloud layers [4,22]. Provisioning for such heterogeneity requires significant planning upfront and ongoing
116 optimisation throughout the C2T continuum including application design.

117 The majority of current fog and edge services that support applications can be further divided into
118 three main categories - Content Distribution Networks (CDN), IoT and Virtual Network Functions (VNF).
119 While all three use the same infrastructure, the functional aspects of each type of service are fundamentally
120 different. CDN services focus mostly on static content replication and distribution across multiple locations.
121 IoT services are used to offload data processing and storage from sensors to edge locations selectively
122 pushing some of the data up the network stack to the cloud. VNFs are chains of network functions that
123 handle mobile network protocol traffic (e.g. LTE stack) or provide network traffic filtering and routing
124 functions, such as enterprise, firewall and VPN services. Law [23] suggests "*a simulation model should always
125 be developed for a particular set of objectives. In fact, a model that is valid for one objective may not be for another.*".
126 Modelling all of the applications deployed within a fog/edge network can be beneficial for infrastructure
127 providers but constructing a simulation solution that can efficiently handle a set of such broad objectives is
128 a challenge and needs careful consideration.

129 *2.2. Infrastructure and network level modelling*

130 Due to cloud communication dependency and large volumes of data generated by fog and edge
131 applications, network connectivity and capacity can be a significant limitation, especially in the case
132 of real-time delay-sensitive applications. This is particularly the case at the mobile edge. Mobility
133 management is critical in mobile edge computing (MEC), especially in highly dynamic environments. To
134 manage demand in MEC scenarios, massive numbers of small cells are deployed. In this scenario, the user
135 range can be very limited and therefore handovers are more frequent, resulting in a heavy burden on the
136 network [24].

137 Fog and edge devices make use of a wide variety of communication technologies, ranging from
138 traditional low cost protocols, such as IEEE 802.11 to energy efficient protocols, such as IEEE 802.15.4

139 (ZigBee/6LoWPAN) and Bluetooth Low Energy (LE). Each of these technologies has an impact on the end
140 point performance directly whether data processing, service time, data transfer delay etc. Arriving at the
141 optimal network access technology, typically involves a trade-off between performance and cost and is
142 often outside of the control of the service provider [17].

143 Fog and edge system models can extend to thousands of distributed site locations creating a network
144 of resources spanning multiple countries. Each site can comprise of compute and network equipment
145 hosting multiple applications that can be accessed by edge service users. Creating such a model by hand,
146 even at a higher abstraction level, is no longer practical from a time and effort perspective. To solve
147 the problem an automated approach is required for model building. Integration with a monitoring data
148 collection system can partially address the challenge by taking snap-shot of an existing infrastructure state
149 [25]. However, in order to build meaningful system behaviour models the monitoring data has to undergo
150 additional processing to extract behaviour trends of workload and application resource demands. Such a
151 process brings big data management and processing challenges into play that require further development
152 within the scope of the simulation domain.

153 2.3. Mobility

154 Recent studies focus on the emergence of 5G networks and the interaction between these networks
155 and fog and edge computing. 5G networks offer network improvements through optimization of mobile
156 resource usage, large data pre-processing, and context-aware services (using cell load, user location, and
157 allocated bandwidth as information) [20]. Notwithstanding these improvements, as each fog and edge
158 application may have different latency requirements and may generate different types of data and network
159 traffic, a mechanism may be required to differentiate delay-sensitive flows such as network slicing [26].

160 Modelling user mobility aspects requires the implementation of geographic awareness logic, for
161 example calculation of the nearest mobile access point based on user coordinates at each simulation
162 timestep. Furthermore, availability and access to real-world data on end user mobility is problematic both
163 legally and technically. Additional calculations further increase the complexity and computational resource
164 demands of a given simulation platform. Intelligent model generators are one solution for creating fog
165 and edge infrastructure workload models based on 3rd party socio-demographic and geographic data that
166 can be used for simulation purposes [27].

167 2.4. Resource management

168 The majority of 4IR, Industry 4.0 and IOT scenarios assume the generation, capture and analysis of
169 data in volumes, variety and velocities orders of magnitude greater than before. This data may include
170 useful information if such information can be identified [28]. For example, a basic connected vehicle
171 system can generate tens of megabytes of data per second [5]. To provision infrastructure efficiently and
172 effectively requires a number of key decisions, not least how the data will be collected, where and how data
173 will be processed (edge, fog or cloud), and how often the data should be sent to the cloud for long-term
174 storage or further analysis. There are two competing pressures informing these decisions - utilisation of
175 infrastructure and end user quality of service.

176 Complex Event Processing (CEP) systems are increasingly cited for processing and analysing high
177 volumes of data and detecting events of interest when they occur [28,29]. However, the CEP task can
178 be time-consuming, and commonly fog or edge devices present computational and storage capacity
179 limitations, when compared to cloud capacity and capability. As such, caching is used widely to bring
180 storage functionality to network edges with lower latency, less excessive bandwidth consumption, and
181 reduced streaming times [19,30,31]. This is particularly the case for content distribution use cases such as
182 IP video, forecast to account for a significant portion of all IP traffic in the coming years[32]. Wang *et al.*

183 [19] summarise the main challenges in content caching in edge networks as caching placement, content
184 popularity, caching policies and algorithms, and mobility awareness.

185 Understanding data load generation and its propagation through a given system is a worthwhile
186 approach for deciding on (optimal) resource placements. Data load prediction has been presented as a
187 solution for proactive system remediation [33]. In this case, historical (big) data stored at cloud and live
188 data collected in the fog and edge devices are used to feed models and predict important metrics, such
189 as resource usage and content popularity distribution [34]. Machine learning techniques have also been
190 widely used to solve this problem. For instance, Zeydan *et al.* [35] use machine learning to predict the
191 spatio-temporal user behaviour for proactive caching decisions with a goal of satisfying user demand by
192 delivering low latency and higher QoE.

193 Noor *et al.* [36] identify energy efficiency as one of the significant challenges for mobile cloud resource
194 management. For example, while offloading data processing to the cloud can reduce device battery
195 consumption, it increases network bandwidth usage and power consumption, a significant contributor to
196 rising energy consumption [37,38]. Unsurprisingly, energy efficiency is a major focus of cloud, fog and
197 edge computing research including the optimisation of resource allocations under energy, performance,
198 and QoS constraints [39–41]. Fog computing can introduce management flexibility by providing more
199 options for data processing within the distributed network hierarchy. From the cloud perspective, deciding
200 whether to cache or process the data offload is one way to alleviate network congestion and reduce
201 data transfer costs; from an edge device perspective, offloading some computing tasks could enhance
202 the service performance and be more energy efficient [42,43], since some edge devices are very energy
203 constrained (and, at the same time, hungry energy consumers). As such, the performance profile of the
204 edge device should be taken in to consideration, especially for real-time sensitive applications, such as
205 vehicle-to-vehicle communications, vehicle-to-roadside communications and real-time financial trading
206 applications, that may require latencies below tens of milliseconds [44]. Intensive benchmark performance
207 experiments are typically required to decide the best fog-to-edge configuration considering a range of
208 factors including computational and storage capacity, battery life, mobility, communication interface etc.
209 The importance of system availability for such devices can be an important consideration particularly in
210 use cases where data loss or service outage can result in adverse outcomes for end users, for example, in
211 health care monitoring systems.

212 The runtime, programmability, and interoperability of edge devices often differ due their
213 heterogeneity resulting in data offloading issues [42]. The European Telecommunications Standards
214 Institute (ETSI), the OpenFog Consortium, and others are seeking to address standardisation for
215 multi-access edge computing¹ however such initiatives are at an early stage of development and face
216 uphill challenges against the onslaught of new connected end points being introduced.

217 The simulation approach has proven to be a worthwhile endeavour in testing resource allocation and
218 management in cloud. In their study, Stier *et al.* [45] presents direct integration between the simulation
219 and optimisation framework which was implemented in order to test available resource management
220 algorithms that can be directly used within a real system. In addition simulation can also be used as part
221 of resource management algorithms to narrow search space for the optimal solutions in an optimisation
222 technique known as simulated annealing (SA). SA is an optimisation algorithm that uses local search
223 approach of moving around the neighbouring values in a defined search space until the optimal solution is
224 found [46]. Even though the simulated annealing technique goes outside the traditional scope of **discrete**
225 **event simulation** (DES), the general annealing approach can be useful in testing different parameter

¹ <https://www.etsi.org/technologies-clusters/technologies/multi-access-edge-computing>

226 variations within edge computing such as [virtual Content Delivery Network \(vCDN\)](#) deployments [47]
227 or exploring infrastructure provisioning options [48]. Moving to the fog and edge domain the need for
228 simulating resource management approaches remains one of the main simulation analysis features [49].

229 2.5. Scalability

230 The choice of a simulation tool depends significantly on the type of applications. This fact also dictates
231 the granularity of the simulation. For example, macroscopic phenomena, such as routing strategies, can
232 be studied by packet-level, using the discrete event simulation approach. Notwithstanding this, a very
233 accurate simulation might substantially hinder performance leading to similar results as other faster
234 performing methods. Another key point when considering a simulation framework is the generality of the
235 range of phenomena and applications that can be simulated. More general simulation frameworks are
236 usually not focused on specific characteristics, but rather on a large number of parameters that may not be
237 required by the user and may be very complex to setup and operate. These frameworks tend to cover a
238 wide variety of applications and phenomena. On the other hand, dedicated simulation solutions are usually
239 easier to use, tailored and optimised to specific applications and their complexity. However, dedicated
240 solutions are not easily adaptable to other applications, without significant development effort. In our
241 analysis of extant simulation frameworks for fog and edge computing, many are extensions of *CloudSim*
242 and suffer from its limitations in terms of scale and focus. Others focus on specific use case scenarios.
243 These present short term limitations for fog and cloud computing researchers but also opportunities for
244 simulation research.

245 Experimenting with large scale systems requires compute resources to be available for a simulation
246 framework to use. DES is the most popular approach used in cloud computing, as reflected in the above
247 analysis. However, the sequential nature of the event queue is notoriously difficult to parallelize as each
248 event can change the state of the system. Therefore, if an event is processed out of order the calculation may
249 be incorrect. Having said that, where one can make clear divisions within the model, simulation events
250 can be processed in independent clusters increasing the degree of parallelism. For example Varga and
251 Sekercioglu [50] discuss a parallel discrete event simulation (PDES) approach that is capable of distribute
252 simulation over multiple processors and machines, also avoiding memory bottlenecks by dividing the
253 model across machines. Another example is *Cloud2Sim*, an extension of popular *CloudSim* [51] framework
254 using Hazelcast and Infinispan in memory distributed data stores [52]. As seen in Table 1 parallel DES
255 execution is not widely adopted in newly released edge simulation tools limiting their application range.

256 The Discrete Time Simulation (DTS) approach can be used to attempt to combat such parallelization
257 difficulties associated with DES. DTS uses the concept of time-step to update the state of the system
258 components, avoiding the need of pre-computation and storage of future events. This approach presents a
259 significant reduction of the simulator's memory requirements and enhances performance while enabling
260 parallel processing [53], and, along with reduced memory requirements, provides a mechanism for the
261 simulation of very large networks. The state of all components involved in a simulation e.g. sites, nodes,
262 VMs, etc, can be updated in parallel, since, there are no dependencies between components thus enhancing
263 scalability. The change of state of the constituent components is only affected by input requests. This
264 approach substantially simplifies the design and incorporation of advanced power consumption models
265 and strategies for path formation on networks. Furthermore, the granularity of the simulation is controlled
266 by the choice of timestep - choosing a smaller timestep results in a very large number of timesteps,
267 potentially increasing the accuracy of the simulation, while hindering performance. A large timestep
268 typically results in the undersampling of the studied phenomenon neglecting transient phenomena that
269 might substantially affect the result of the simulation. DTS simulation has been used in the context

270 of very large scale simulation of traditional and self* based cloud environments in supercomputing
271 environments [54,55].

272 DES and DTS approaches have both strong and weak points when compared to one another. DES is
273 generally considered to be a suitable tool when applied to a problem requiring a more granular modelling
274 approach which is more difficult to scale, whereas DTS typically enables the modelling of large scale
275 systems with relatively less effort, but with the possibility of a higher degree of inaccuracy [56]. Both
276 paradigms can be applied to the fog and edge domain depending on the experimentation objectives.

277 In terms of accuracy, there are challenges in relation to the validation of large scale systems as
278 simulation represents an abstracted model of a real environment, hence it is imperative that the level of
279 abstraction does not impede simulation result accuracy. The simulation validation process ensures that
280 simulation experiments produce reliable estimations of system behaviour. Existing approaches suggest to
281 validate simulation models with domain experts to ensure model face validity attributes and behaviour
282 constraints [57]. Furthermore, simulation results should be validated by comparing simulated results
283 with monitored real system data e.g. by visually comparing simulated and monitored results plotted
284 side by side [57] or statistically comparing data distribution e.g. using a t-test approach [58]. Validating
285 simulation models and results is not a new challenge, however applying validation techniques to fog and
286 edge computing simulations can be challenging. Firstly, it is difficult to inspect the target environment due
287 to size and complexity. Secondly, lack of access to real data impacts validation by comparison. Automatic
288 or a semi-automatic validation methodologies capable of processing high volumes of data can potentially
289 resolve or alleviate validation challenges by checking model data for consistency and result anomalies.

290 3. Fog and Edge Modelling and Simulation Tools

291 According to Dastjerdi and Buyya [59], in order to enable real-time analytics in fog and edge
292 computing at the software-level, we must be concerned about different resource management and
293 scheduling techniques including resource distribution, load balancing, migration, and consolidation.
294 At the physical layer, fog and edge systems have many additional requirements that need to be addressed,
295 such as network connectivity and capacity. This scale and complexity of C2T systems makes the use of
296 realistic prototypes unfeasible. Similarly, commercial service providers typically do not give the necessary
297 infrastructure access or control to third parties to test aforementioned techniques [10] and constructing
298 a test bed with a high degree of verisimilitude is both complex, costly, resource and time-intensive. To
299 overcome these issues, simulation frameworks provide a relatively low cost means to understand and
300 evaluate fog and edge systems and eliminate ineffective policies and strategies [60].

301 Simulation has been used extensively to simulate traditional network infrastructures, such as the
302 mainstream Wireless Sensor Networks (WSNs). Some examples of these simulators are *NS-2*, *TOSSIM*,
303 *EmStar*, *OMNeT++*, *J-Sim*, *ATEMU*, and *Avrora*. These simulators are universally used to develop and
304 test network protocols, especially in the initial design stage. They were not designed with fog and edge
305 computing environments in mind; as such, they are outside the scope of this paper. We redirect the reader
306 to a detailed survey by [61] for further information on these simulators.

307 While there are a wide range of simulators for cloud computing, there are relatively few that can be
308 used to simulate fog and edge computing scenarios. Next, we briefly describe a selection of prominent
309 simulators used for fog and edge modelling and compare them in qualitative terms.

310 *FogNetSim++*[62] is a fog simulator tool that provides users with detailed configuration options to
311 simulate a large fog network. It is designed on the top of *OMNeT++* [63] which is an open source tool
312 that provides an extensive library to simulate network characteristics using discrete event simulation.
313 *FogNetSim++* enables researchers to incorporate customised mobility models and fog node scheduling
314 algorithms as well as managing handover mechanisms. A traffic management system is evaluated to

315 demonstrate the scalability and effectiveness of the *FogNetSim++* simulator in terms of CPU and memory
316 usage. The authors provide a benchmark of network parameters, such as execution delay, packet error rate,
317 handovers, and latency. However, *FogNetSim++* does not yet support VM migration among fog nodes.

318 *iFogSim* [64] is a fog computing simulation toolkit that allows users to simulate fog computing
319 infrastructures and execute simulated applications in order to measure performance in terms of latency,
320 energy consumption and network usage. *iFogSim* is based and implemented over *CloudSim* [51]. *iFogSim*
321 enables the modelling and simulation of fog computing environments for evaluating resource-management
322 and scheduling policies. It measures performance metrics and simulates edge devices, cloud data-centres,
323 sensors, network links, data streams, and stream-processing applications. In addition, *iFogSim* integrates
324 simulated services for power monitoring and resource management at two separate levels i.e. application
325 placement and the application scheduling. Two application module placement strategies are packaged to
326 support multiple deployment scenarios, namely, (a) cloud-only placement, where all applications modules
327 run in data centres and (b) edge-ward placement, where application modules run on fog nodes close to
328 edge devices [60]. Furthermore, extensions are available to support the design of data placement strategies
329 according to specific objectives such as minimisation of service latency, network congestion, and energy
330 consumption [65]. It is also worth noting that as the fog computing paradigm has many similarities to
331 cloud computing, *CloudSim* can also be used as a standalone application to implement many features of
332 fog computing. *iFogSim* is not without its limitations. While it enables the definition of the location of
333 devices getting service from the fog servers, this information is static and not updated by any mobility
334 model. In addition, while being based on *Cloudsim* provides advantages, *iFogSim* is limited to DES and its
335 scalability is limited.

336 Both *EdgeCloudSim* and *IOTsim*, like *iFogSim*, are also based on *CloudSim*. *EdgeCloudSim* is specifically
337 design to evaluate the computational and networking needs of edge computing. Unlike *iFogSim*,
338 *EdgeCloudSim* supports mobility. In fact, it provides the mobility model, network link model, and edge
339 server model to evaluate the various facets of edge computing. In addition to its simulation capabilities,
340 *EdgeCloudSim* is relatively user-friendly providing a mechanism to obtain the configuration of devices
341 and applications from the XML files instead of defining them programmatically. *IOTSim* was designed to
342 simulate edge computing environments where large data volumes are sent to a big data processing system
343 by the IoT application [66]. As such, it adds a storage and the big data processing layer in to *CloudSim*.
344 In the storage layer, the network and storage delays are simulated for IoT applications. The big data
345 processing layer simulates MapReduce to support the batch-oriented data processing paradigm. Both
346 *EdgeCloudSim* and *IOTsim* inherit the same scalability and DES limitations as *iFogSim*.

347 Brogi *et al.* [67] recently presented a prototype simulator, *FogTorchII*, that extends their previous
348 work, *FogTorch* [68]. Primarily designed to support application deployment in the fog, *FogTorchII* is
349 an open source simulator developed in Java. It is capable of evaluating fog computing infrastructure
350 deployments, it models software capabilities (operating system, programming languages, frameworks etc.),
351 hardware capabilities (CPU cores, RAM and storage), and QoS attributes including latency and bandwidth.
352 *FogTorchII* uses Monte Carlo simulations to implement variations in communications links used as inputs.
353 The final output consists of the aggregated results in terms of QoS-assurance and fog resource consumption
354 through an indicator of the percentage of consumed RAM and storage. An acknowledged and major
355 limitation of *FogTorchII* is scalability, an issue that Brogi *et al.* [67] hope to address by exploiting heuristics
356 to reduce the search space [67].

357 Simulations make a number of simplifications that may not always hold true, especially with an
358 infrastructure as dynamic as fog and edge computing. As such, a number of emulation frameworks
359 were developed to address this limitation. *EmuFog* is an extensible emulation framework tailored for
360 fog computing scenarios [69]. *EmuFog* enables the design of fog computing infrastructures *ab initio* and
361 the emulation of real large scale applications and workloads which allows developers to implement and

362 evaluate their behaviour as well as the induced workload in the network topology. The implementation
 363 process in *EmuFog* consists of four stages:

- 364 1. A network topology is either generated or loaded from a file, supporting thus real-world topology
 365 datasets.
- 366 2. The network topology is converted in an undirected graph, where nodes represent network devices
 367 (e.g., routers) and links correspond to the connections between them.
- 368 3. The edge devices are determined and the fog nodes are placed according to a placement policy.
 369 Users are able to define the computational capabilities of fog nodes as well as the number of clients
 370 expected to be served by each node.
- 371 4. Fog nodes are emulated from the network emulated environment, while the applications in any
 372 individual fog node are running under Docker containers.

373 Despite the usefulness of the *EmuFog*, the framework does not support mobility both for clients and
 374 fog nodes. Furthermore, *EmuFog* does not support hierarchical fog infrastructures.

375 *Fogbed* [70] is another emulator which extends the network emulator *Mininet*[71] framework to allow
 376 the use of Docker containers as virtual nodes. It provides capabilities to build cloud and fog testbeds. The
 377 *Fogbed* API enables adding, connecting and removing containers dynamically from the network topology.
 378 These features allow for the emulation of real-world cloud and fog infrastructures in which compute
 379 instances can be started and terminated at any point in time. Also, it is possible to change the run-time
 380 resource limitations for a container, such as CPU time and memory available. However, *Fogbed* does not
 381 yet support key aspects of fog computing including security, fault tolerance, scalability and reliability
 382 management.

383 Table 1 summarises the above simulator tools against six key qualitative attributes: (i) computing
 384 paradigm (target system), (ii) infrastructure-level modelling, (iii) application-level modelling, (iv) resource
 385 management modelling, (v) mobility, and (vi) scalability.

Table 1. Fog and Edge Simulator Tools: Comparative Study

Attributes	FogNetSim++	iFogSim	FogTorchII	EdgeCloudSim	IOTSim	EmuFog	Fogbed
Computing paradigm (target system)	Fog computing (general)	Fog computing (general)	Fog computing (general)	Edge computing (IoT)	Edge computing (IoT)	Fog computing (general)	Fog computing (general)
Infrastructure and network level modelling	Distributed data centres Sensors Fog nodes Broker Network links Delay Handovers Bandwidth	Cloud data centres Sensors Actuators Fog devices Network links Delay Network usage Energy consumption	Latency Bandwidth	Cloud data centres Network links Edge servers WLAN and LAN delay Bandwidth	Cloud data centre Latency Bandwidth	Network links Fog nodes Routers	Virtual nodes Switches Instance API Network links
Application level modelling	Fog network	Data stream Stream-processing	Fog applications	Mobile edge	IoT	Fog	Fog network
Resource management modelling	Resource consumption (RAM and CPU)	Resource consumption Power consumption Allocation policies	Resource consumption (RAM and storage)	Resource consumption (RAM and CPU) Failure due to mobility	Resource consumption (RAM, CPU and storage)	Workload	Resource consumption (RAM and CPU) Bandwidth Workload
Mobility	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	No	No
Scalability	Yes	No	No	No	Yes (MapReduce)	No	No

386 In summary, despite an increase interest on fog and edge computing, research on suitable simulation
 387 frameworks to support the requirements of this domain is lagging (see Table 1). Most of the existing
 388 simulation tools, albeit a small number, place a greater emphasis on fog computing. They have significant
 389 limitations in scalability and mobility support. All the existing simulators use DES at their core and the
 390 dependence on *CloudSim* for three of the simulators places an additional limitation to them particularly
 391 in terms of scalability. Therefore, there is an urgent need for simulation tools with greater coverage of
 392 characteristics of fog and edge computing.

393 *Ficco et al.* [72] argue that purely simulated environments and real testbeds are not sufficiently
 394 representative of real world scenarios and/or are unacceptably expensive. As such, they suggest that

395 a hybrid *pseudo-dynamic testing* approach may increase verisimilitude by simulating a portion of the
396 experimental scenario, while either emulating the edge and fog nodes under test or executing them in a
397 real environment.

398 4. Conclusions

399 The emergence of the fourth industrial revolution and the Internet of Things is quickly becoming a
400 reality. For the developer and research community, the availability of a means to test, validate, compare
401 and reproduce technical proposals efficiently and cost-effectively is central to commercialisation and the
402 scientific method. Like cloud computing, public clouds and test beds do not provide sufficient control of
403 resources and infrastructure to validate technical solutions for fog and edge computing at the appropriate
404 level of granularity. While modelling and simulation can address these issues, early attempts at simulation
405 frameworks have significant gaps in their capability to model the complexity and specific requirements of
406 fog and edge computing scenarios at the scale facing key stakeholders in the chain of service provision
407 today, let alone the future.

408 Indeed, many existing fog and edge computing simulators derive from cloud computing simulation
409 frameworks and may be inflected towards the cloud layer rather than the nuances of a multi-layered C2T
410 continuum. This review of existing simulation frameworks and challenges in modelling and simulating
411 fog and edge computing use cases provides a landscape of existing options but also a roadmap for future
412 research in both fog and edge computing and the design of associated simulation frameworks.

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