Predicting and Avoiding SLA Violations of Containerized Applications using Machine Learning and Elasticity

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Abstract: Container-based virtualization represents a low-overhead and easy-to-manage alternative to virtual machines. On the other hand, containers are more prone to performance interference and unpredictability. Consequently, there is growing interest in predicting and avoiding performance issues in containerized environments. Existing solutions tackle this challenge through proactive elasticity mechanisms based on workload variation predictions. Although this approach may yield satisfactory results in some scenarios, external factors such as resource contention can cause performance losses regardless of workload variations. This paper presents Flavor, a machine-learning-based system for predicting and avoiding performance issues in containerized applications. Rather than relying on workload variation prediction as existing approaches, Flavor predicts application-level metrics (e.g., query latency and throughput) through a deep neural network implemented using Tensorflow and scales applications accordingly. We evaluate Flavor by comparing it against a state-of-the-art resource scaling approach that relies solely on workload prediction. Our results show that Flavor can predict performance deviations effectively while assisting operators to wisely scale their services by increasing/decreasing the number of application containers to avoid performance issues and resource underutilization.

1 INTRODUCTION

Cloud computing has become the default environment for running enterprise applications, being used by young startups and mature organizations. The possibility of using resources on demand and paying only for the amount used has brought flexibility and agility to innovate (Armbrust et al., 2010). However, in the last years, we have seen a shift in how companies use the cloud. Instead of migrating traditional monolithic applications from their on-premises data centers to public clouds, companies are building applications that are specifically made to be executed on the cloud from day one (Balalaie et al., 2018). We call this new form of using the cloud as Cloud-Native.

Cloud-native uses container-based virtualization to execute highly distributed applications based on microservices (Gannon et al., 2017). The containers that belong to an application are managed by a special platform called orchestrator responsible for the application's lifecycle, high availability, and elasticity. The utilization of a microservices architecture facilitates the distribution of application development between different teams. Each team becomes responsible for a specific characteristic implemented into a microservice, which is deployed in one or more containers. Development teams can implement enhancements to their microservices and instantiate a new microservice release independently from other development teams.

Another significant benefit of using microservices on containers is the possibility to quickly adapt the number of allocated resources to meet a specific demand by increasing or decreasing the number of containers. This characteristic increases application resiliency and guarantees the application responsiveness for users even during utilization spikes. Orchestrator platforms, such as Kubernetes, usually pro-

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vide tools to scale horizontally by adding/removing containers or vertically by increasing/decreasing container capacity. These tools monitor a metric on the containers and, when a specific threshold is reached, it automatically scales the number or capacity of containers.

With the automation of resource scalability, applications can be provided with predefined guarantees in terms of performance. These guarantees are normally included in a Service Level Agreement (SLA). SLAs are contracts between providers and consumers that define each party's responsibilities regarding a specific service (Patel et al., 2009). They include detailed information, such as the specific metrics used for service estimation, how these metrics are measured, thresholds indicating the minimum quality of service, and penalties applied to the provider when the thresholds are not met. Auto-scaling tools can be configured to avoid SLA violations, guaranteeing that enough resources will be provisioned to attend to the specified threshold.

However, most common solutions (e.g., Kubernetes Horizontal Pod Autoscaler) are based on a reactive approach. The metrics are periodically monitored, and when its value surpasses the threshold defined in the SLA, the auto-scaling tool starts increasing the capacity of the resources. Depending on the monitoring frequency, defined thresholds, and delay to scale resources, an SLA violation may occur, which will penalize both the consumer and provider. In order to avoid this situation, machine learning techniques are being used to forecast these metrics based on previous utilization (Imdoukh et al., 2019; Rossi et al., 2019; Toka et al., 2020; Goli et al., 2021). Such an approach ensures that enough resources will be available when a predicted spike happens. However, existing strategies based on machine learning methods strive to predict workload variations, relying on the assumption that peak workloads are the only reason for performance issues in containerized applications, ignoring that external factors such as performance and interference can also undermine applications' performance.

This paper presents Flavor, a machine-learning-based system for predicting and avoiding SLA violations of containerized applications. Flavor uses Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM), a recurrent neural network model, to predict service performance using past observations. Unlike other approaches, Flavor uses specific application performance metrics and resource utilization to train a forecasting model. Our experiments show that this approach increases Flavor's accuracy to detect variations in performance metric values, which may lead to an SLA violation. Flavor also implements a scaling strategy to define when and how the number of allocated resources should be increased or decreased, using information from the forecasting model. We present an extensive analysis of Flavor's behavior compared to a traditional scaling strategy (based on a reactive approach) and a state-of-the-art proactive strategy. Results show that Flavor overcome the other approaches, avoiding most SLA violations even when environment interference is present. In summary, we make the following contributions in this paper:

- We conduct an extensive set of experiments that demonstrate the challenges of predicting SLA violations of containerized applications;
- We introduce Flavor, a solution that employs a machine learning model that predicts SLA violations several minutes ahead based on performance metrics in time to avoid them through appropriate elasticity plans;
- We fine-tune Flavor parameters through an in-depth sensitivity analysis;
- We validate Flavor through a performance evaluation that shows how it outperforms a state-of-the-art strategy that relies on workload prediction.

This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 provides an overview of the cloud-native ecosystem, especially regarding the relation between microservices and containers. This section also presents the complexities involved in implementing an accurate forecasting model and performing resource scaling. Section 3 presents Flavor architecture, detailing its main modules: KPI Monitor, SLA Violation Predictor, and Elasticity Manager. Section 4 describes how we evaluated Flavor, and compared it with traditional reactive mechanisms (Kubernetes Horizontal Pod Autoscaler) and a state-of-the-art proactive approach. In Section 5, we present a discussion on our findings based on Flavor's evaluation. Section 6 presents other research works related to Flavor. Finally, Section 7 concludes the paper presenting our key takeaways and directions for future work.

2 BACKGROUND

2.1 Cloud-native Ecosystem

Cloud services have recently undergone a major shift from complex monolithic designs to hundreds of interconnected microservices (Gannon et al., 2017). The microservice abstraction is specially appealing due to its modularity and flexibility. For example, a programmer can write a microservice in her preferred language (e.g., Ruby or Python) and easily compose it with other microservices written by third parties in a different framework (e.g., Java). Microservices are typically packaged in lightweight containers (e.g., Docker[1], LXC[2]) and deployed and managed using automated container orchestration tools (e.g., Kubernetes[3], Swarm[4]). Unless stated otherwise, we focus on Docker and Kubernetes in this work.

Containers are a form of OS-level virtualization (in contrast to hardware-level virtualization such as virtual machines - VMs). Each container includes the application executable, libraries, and system tools on which the application depends (Zhang et al., 2018). System administrators can allocate resources to a container dynamically (e.g., using *control groups*), and a certain level of isolation is provided among containers (though weaker than that for VMs) through tools like *namespaces*.

Kubernetes (also known as k8s) is a platform to orchestrate the placement and execution of containers across a computer cluster. A k8s cluster consists of a control plane (or master) and one or more worker nodes (e.g., a VM or server). Each worker node runs: i) a *Kubelet* agent that manages the node resources and interacts with the control plane; and ii) a container runtime engine to manage the container lifecycle (e.g., creation, pausing). The smallest deployable units in k8s are *pods*. A pod is a group of one or more containers with shared storage and network resources (e.g., filesystem volumes and namespaces) and that is meant to run an instance of a given service or application. Pods are scheduled by the k8s master.

In addition to container management and provisioning, k8s also has automatic scaling mechanisms. The Vertical Pod Autoscaler (VPA) makes scaling decisions by dynamically allocating more, or less, computer resources (e.g., CPU or memory) to existing pods. The Horizontal Pod Autoscaler (HPA), performs scaling actions by adding, or reducing, the number of pods in a cluster, being triggered by similar metrics as the VPA, using only CPU and memory usage, or any other custom metric chosen by the user.

This new cloud architecture brings significant challenges to operators such as mitigating performance bottlenecks caused by containers' lack of isolation. The high degree of dependency among microservices in large-scale deployments amplifies this concern, as a single misbehaving microservice may trigger cascading SLA violations over the entire application. In that scenario, reactive measures become impractical as performance degradation propagates across dependent microservices very fast. Therefore, predicting performance issues becomes essential to ensure SLA requirements (Gan et al., 2019).

[1]https://www.docker.com/

[2]https://linuxcontainers.org/

[3]https://kubernetes.io/

[4]https://docs.docker.com/engine/swarm/

2.2 The Complexity of Interpreting Resource Utilization

Most cloud providers offer extensive monitoring solutions to track the health of service instances in real time. Their solutions include meters for CPU utilization, memory utilization, number of TCP/IP connections, pages accessed from disk, among others (Anwar et al., 2015). While resource-based meters can be directly used for detecting or predicting SLA violations, it turns out to be challenging to adopt them in practice for a few reasons.

First, it may not be easy to tune a set of meters to catch the specific requirements of an application. SLAs are usually established in terms of application-level metrics (e.g., query latency), but resource-based meters actually reflect the system's state. For example, a meter based on CPU utilization would not detect imminent latency-related SLA violations resulting from a memory bottleneck. Second, meter thresholds are usually fixed values lasting for the lifetime of an application. As a result, they may not cope with the dynamics of cloud applications if the threshold value is too high or lead to significant resource underutilization otherwise (i.e., a low threshold may cause resources to scale up often). Finally, prediction models based on resource usage are likely to become useless if the hardware changes.

2.3 Workload Prediction Issues

Many state-of-the-art approaches like (Imdoukh et al., 2019; Cruz Coulson et al., 2020; Ma et al., 2018) try to overcome the challenges of adopting resource-based meters to detect (or predict) SLA violations by focusing on predicting a service workload and its characteristics. Although workload predictions may yield satisfactory results in certain cases, they are usually based on the assumption that services will have similar performance whenever they receive analogous workloads. Nevertheless, there are multiple factors that can affect the performance of a cloud service even when it runs the same workload on top of equivalent resources (e.g., a given set of containers).

To illustrate our points, we perform two experiments. First, we set up the same cloud environment (i.e., a virtual machine with 16 CPU cores, 32 GB of memory and 64 GB of disk running Ubuntu Live

Server 18.04) on two different servers, namely S_1 and S_2. S_1 is a Dell PowerEdge R720 with a Xeon E5-2650 processor and 64 GB DDR3 RAM while S_2 is a Dell PowerEdge R730 with a Xeon E5-2650 v4 processor and 256 GB DDR4 RAM. The VM executes Minikube version 1.16.0[5] and deploys a MySQL service with 4 pods which we stress using the Bustracker workload (Ma et al., 2018) (see Section 4.1 for more details on the workload).

Figure 1 shows the resulting latency for each server. Although the latency on both servers displays a similar pattern of peaks and valleys, we can clearly see that the same service is slower in S_1 than in S_2. For example, the average query latency is around 290ms in S_2 while it achieves more than 450ms in S_1. Moreover, the peak latency is about 50% higher in S_1 (871ms against 584ms in S_2). These results indicate that a service could violate a latency SLA in S_1 but not in S_2 depending on the values accorded between the client and the cloud provider.

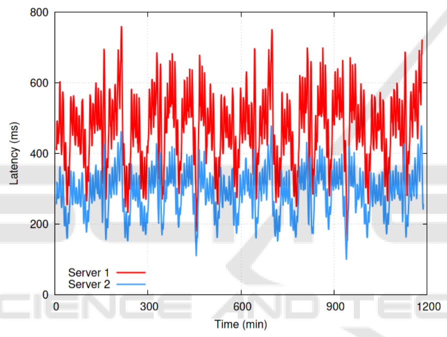

Figure 1: Latency for a MySQL service running the Bustracker benchmark on two different servers.

In the second experiment, we tested the effect of interference in the latency experienced by a service. In this test, we instantiated two new MySQL instances in S_1 (each instance has 4 pods and runs the same BusTracker workload), and evaluated their effect on the original one (called the reference instance). Figure 2 shows the latency for the reference instance with and without interference from other services.

There is a significant increase in latency when there are multiple service instances running on the same Kubernetes node. For example, the average latency was around 470 and 730 ms without and with interference, respectively (more than 55% higher in the latter). Likewise, peak latencies also face a substantial increase (from 871 to 932 ms in our case). Together with the previous experiment, our results show that detecting SLA violations based on workload predictions can be misleading depending on where the workload runs and whether it runs in isolation or not.

[5]https://minikube.sigs.k8s.io/docs/

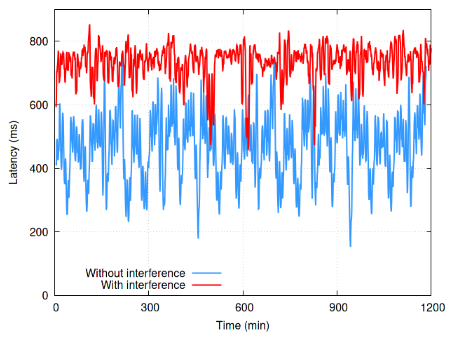

Figure 2: Latency for a MySQL service running the Bustracker benchmark with and without interference.

2.4 Fairly Long Pod Setup Times

Even when a cloud monitor or workload predictor can provide very accurate estimates, there is still a chance the monitored (or predicted) service could violate its SLA due to the time it takes to k8s to set up a new pod. To show this point, we perform an experiment where we scale up the number of pods in a MySQL service from n units (n varies from 1 to 8) and measure the pod setup time (i.e., the time span that covers the entire scaling process until the new instances are ready to serve requests). We repeat this experiment 100 times for each scenario and show the average setup time for pods containing both one and three containers (pods containing three containers run a hot backup and a metrics exporter in addition to the original MySQL service). Figure 3 shows the results.

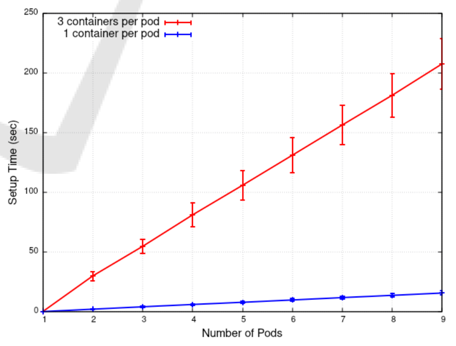

Figure 3: Time needed for scaling from 1 to a specific number of pods in Kubernetes using a MySQL service with 3 containers per pod and another with 1 container per pod.

In both cases, the set up time scales linearly with the number of new pods. Interestingly, pods containing three containers took significantly longer times to be set up compared to pods running only a single one. This difference comes mainly from the time the container runtime takes to instantiate a new container (Fu et al., 2020). More importantly, the set up time can be as long as 3 minutes for the scenarios we tested, clearly indicating that a resource scaler should act well in advance to avoid an SLA violation.

3 FLAVOR DESIGN

This section presents Flavor, a solution for predicting and avoiding SLA violations in cloud services. We start by giving an overview of Flavor's architecture.

Flavor comprises three main components: (i) a Key Performance Indicator (KPI) Monitor; (ii) an SLA Violation Predictor; and (iii) an Elasticity Manager. Figure 4 depicts its architecture. Given a cloud platform with available services and monitoring solutions, Flavor first triggers its KPI Monitor to gather key statistics (e.g., latency, throughput) about the running services and save such information in a time series database (*steps 1-3*).

With service KPIs at hand, the SLA Violation Predictor component comes into the scene. At this stage, collected KPIs feed a machine learning model that forecasts the performance of a service and detect whether SLA violations are likely to occur (*steps 4-5*). Finally, *Flavor* uses the forecasted performance to trigger the Elasticity Manager module, which processes the performance predictions and defines an elasticity plan capable of balancing performance and resource efficiency (*steps 6-7*). The following sections describe each Flavor component in detail.

3.1 KPI Monitor

The KPI Monitor comprises a lightweight, pod-level monitoring system that collects raw metrics from cloud services. Each pod takes a monitoring agent that can report multiple metrics at different timescales — such flexibility is vital for ensuring efficient monitoring of services that work differently. For instance, we may define *query latency* as a performance indicator for database services (e.g., MySQL, MongoDB) and *throughput* for message-passing services (e.g., RabbitMQ). In possession of monitoring data, the KPI Monitor aggregates raw metrics into low-order statistics (e.g., average and variance among pods and/or time intervals) to preserve data richness while optimizing storage space.

3.2 SLA Violation Predictor

The SLA Violation Predictor module is responsible for determining beforehand whenever a service will not reach its expected performance (so-called SLA violation). To that end, it uses historical data as input for tracking trends and determining the service's future performance alongside indications of whether SLA violations are likely to occur. Since this process involves making predictions from data points indexed in time order, we turn our attention to time series forecasting models, more specifically, Autoregressive (AR) models and Recurrent Neural Network-based (RNN) models.

Autoregressive models (e.g., ARIMA and VARMAX) make predictions using a linear combination of past observations from a variable of interest. Generally speaking, AR models rely on feedforwarding, making them cheaper than those that allow cyclic behavior, such as RNNs.

Recurrent Neural Network-based models assume a temporal dependency among the inputs. Each unit within the network includes a memory mechanism with information from prior computations that influence the output. Such a strategy makes RNNs more adaptable than AR models, which must be retrained quite often as new data comes in. This paper uses a RNN model called Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) (Hochreiter and Schmidhuber, 1997), which introduces a forget-gate that allows the network to understand how long past information is relevant for the current prediction. Figure 5 depicts the architecture of the chosen LSTM model.

Unlike most state-of-the-art approaches, our model takes performance metrics alongside capacity information in the training phase. Whereas performance metrics (e.g., average query latency) help predicting upcoming SLA violations, capacity information (e.g., number of pods) gives insights on the capacity/performance correlation. We collect this information by benchmarking the target service using a requests generation script that simulates user access patterns.

The training dataset must comprise observations across different situations to ensure the model's accuracy as the environment changes. For instance, we may benchmark the service running with different capacity configurations to ensure the model's adaptability as the database is scaled up/down. Additionally, benchmarking the service with neighbor applications sharing physical resources enables accurate predictions that consider performance interference.

Rather than training multiple models to predict each significant change in the environment, we train a single model with shuffled observations from multiple datasets. As a result, the model knows the best course of action even when the environment changes at runtime. Despite that, significant variations can still deteriorate the model's performance in the long term. In that case, integrating automatic model re-training mechanisms could deal with the problem while re-

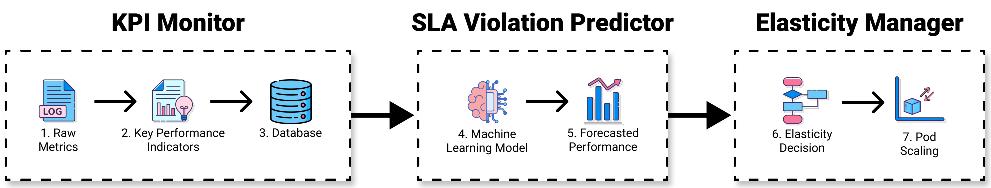

Figure 4: Flavor architecture.

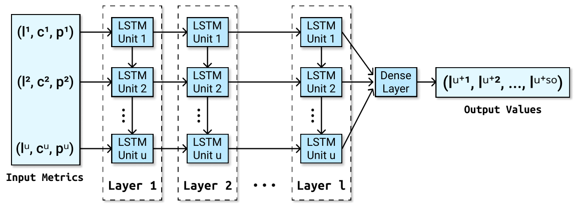

Figure 5: Architecture of the proposed LSTM model. The input metrics consist of previous values of latency (l), CPU usage (c) and number of pods (p) of the service. The data goes through *l* layers of *u* units and produces an output of *so* latency predictions points.

quiring just minor changes to Flavor's architecture.

3.3 Elasticity Manager

The Elasticity Manager takes performance predictions from the SLA Violation Predictor and defines appropriate provisioning levels. During model training, the Elasticity Manager is restricted from performing scaling decisions to prevent the Elasticity Manager from undermining prediction accuracy with scaling decisions unknown to the ML model.

Whenever predictions indicate upcoming SLA violations, the Elasticity Manager scales up the service to the subsequent capacity configuration known by the ML model. Conversely, the Elasticity Manager awaits n votes to perform a scale down, where any different scaling suggestion within the voting resets the counting. This policy prevents precipitated scaling decisions that may lead to SLA violations due to the lack of resources.

Scale down voting occurs whenever Equation 1 is satisfied, and the monitored KPI drops to a point where a smaller capacity configuration known by the model could meet the demand without violating the SLA. In Equation 1, n_{curr} depicts the current number of service replicas, l_{max} represents the worse upcoming KPI value predicted, and n_{lower} denotes the number of replicas from the smaller capacity configuration. A safety interval α prevents scaling down the service to a set of replicas that keeps the KPI too close to the SLA limit.

$$\frac{n_{curr} \times l_{max}}{n_{lower}} < \mathrm{SLA} - \alpha \qquad (1)$$

4 PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

We now present an evaluation of Flavor's ability to predict SLA violations of containerized applications. We implemented and trained an LSTM model using TensorFlow[6] version 2.2.0 and Python version 3.6.9.

We first describe our setup (§4.1), including a detailed analysis of a real-world trace we used in our experiments. We then perform an extensive investigation of Flavor's hyperparameters to evaluate its accuracy and find the best possible configuration (§4.2). Next, we compare Flavor against a state-of-the-art cloud scaling approach based on workload prediction (§4.3). Finally, we demonstrate the benefits of Flavor over the reactive k8s Horizontal Pod Autoscaler (§4.4).

4.1 Experimental Setting

Testbed. We evaluate Flavor in a testbed comprised of a Kubernetes cluster provisioned over two physical machines: (1) PowerEdge R720 with a Xeon E5-2650 v2 processor, 128GB of DDR3 main memory; and (2) PowerEdge R730 with a Xeon E5-2650 v3 processor, 224GB of DDR4 RAM. Both of them using the VMware ESXi 7.0.0 hypervisor.

The application used to evaluate the SLA violation predictor was the standard MySQL version 5.7 deployment for Kubernetes. In our implementation, we used Prometheus[7] version 2.26.0 and Prometheus SQL Exporter[8] placed in each pod with the MySQL container to collect all the necessary metrics, which were stored in a time series database. We also used a small Node.js application to apply the Bustracker workload (detailed below) on the MySQL instance.

Workload. We used the BusTracker (Ma et al., 2018) dataset to generate the workload for the experiments. This dataset contains a random sampling of the queries executed from a mobile phone application to a PostgreSQL database during a period of 57 days, between November 2016 and January 2017. Users of the application could track live information about bus

[6]https://www.tensorflow.org/
[7]https://prometheus.io/
[8]https://hub.docker.com/r/githubfree/sql_exporter

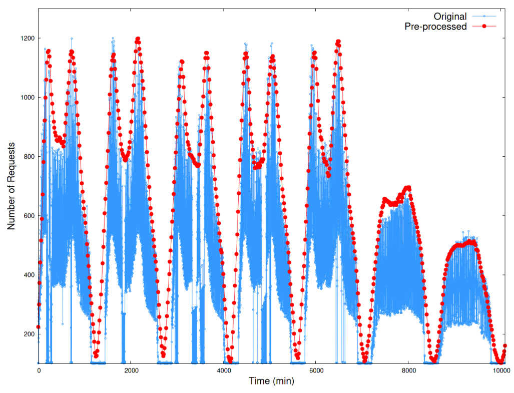

Figure 6: BusTracker before and after pre-processing.

locations, find nearby bus stops and get information about routes. The requests of the BusTracker dataset trace have a well defined seasonal pattern, varying according to the hour of the day and day of the week. In (Ma et al., 2018), it is discussed that approximately 98% of the total requests from BusTracker are SELECT statements, which shows that the majority of operations performed in the application's database are read operations. The BusTracker data provided has missing periods of information, and the authors state that it contains a 2% random sampling from the complete 57 days period. Still the data presents important seasonal patterns of requests.

Since we are interested in reproducing the overall request patterns, we applied a set of pre-processing steps to facilitate its execution in a short period of time, while preserving the workload's main characteristics. First, we removed all queries that are not SELECT statements. The data is provided in the form of requests per second for the whole period, so we decided to aggregate the number of requests per minute, which reduces the data volume but preserves its characteristics. Then, as the data presents a strong weekly-repeating pattern, we selected just the first complete week (Monday to Sunday) in the dataset.

We applied an initial sampling to this single-week pattern of requests, selecting a point every six data points. Then, we generated a set of 632 points equally-spaced in the time axis, by performing a piecewise linear interpolation of the points from the initial sampling. The piecewise interpolation is convenient since it allows generating a set of arbitrary size which approximate the curve formed by the points being interpolated. We tested different amounts of generated points by the interpolation, and decided for a value that results in a small workload to be reproduced, although preserving the original data characteristics. The result is shown in Figure 6.

The workload was used to simulate the requests pattern to the MySQL service deployed on Kubernetes. We performed three simulations with 2, 4, and 8 replicas in order to generate the datasets that will be used in the LSTM training process.

4.2 Prediction Performance

We start detailing Flavor's performance for different hyperparameter configurations. Our goals are twofold: first, we want to understand how important each hyperparameter is to the quality of Flavor's predictions; and second, we want to identify good values for these hyperparameters. Since Flavor takes a sequence of performance measurements (rather than the workload demand itself) as input, we begin by running the Bustracker workload on the testbed described in Section 4.1 to generate a *working dataset*. More specifically, we run the workload for different numbers of serving pods (i.e., pods running instances of the MySQL service) and background services causing interference while measuring the latency for each query.

Once we have the working dataset, we use it to train and test Flavor under different hyperparameter configurations. We run these experiments in a third server apart from the testbed described in Section 4.1. The server has 8 CPUs, 64 GB of RAM and 200 GB of disk. It runs Ubuntu 18.04.4 LTS and is equipped with an NVIDIA Tesla V100 GPU with 16 GB of memory, which we use to train our machine learning models. Unless stated otherwise, we trained all models for 100 epochs with batches of 64 units using an Adam optimizer[9] and a dropout of 0.2. We apply a randomized 4-fold cross-validation method (Cerqueira et al., 2020) to the models and assess their performance by calculating the Mean Squared Error (MSE). We also measured the coefficient of determination (R^2), but decided to omit these results from the paper due to space contraints. The coefficient was above 0.95 for all the models we tested.

Figure 7 shows the MSE for different combinations of number of layers and units per layer in our LSTM implementation. We fix the prediction horizon and lag interval to 225 and 675 seconds in these experiments, respectively. As we can see, one hidden layer is usually enough to obtain good predictions and adding additional layers does not necessarily improve the results as the model begins to overfit. Similar behavior has also been reported in other domains (e.g., image captioning (Soh, 2016)). Regarding the number of units per layer, we can observe that higher numbers of units tend to perform better. This is in

[9]We use Adam with the default specs from TensorFlow.

line with the literature and reflects the fact that a bigger hidden state can store more information about the data (Rotman and Wolf, 2020).

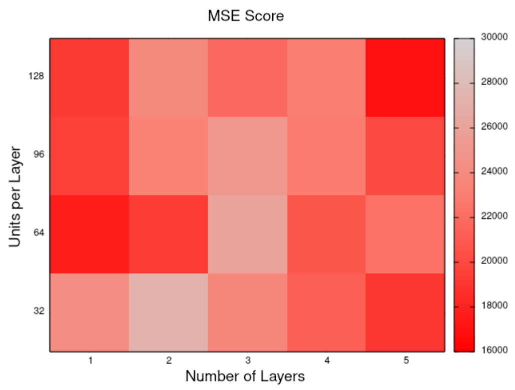

Figure 7: MSE for each combination of number of layers and units per layer.

We also measure the MSE as we vary the lag interval (or number of past observations) adopted by our neural network. Figure 8 shows the results. We consider a single-layer LSTM with 64 units and a prediction horizon of 225 seconds in these experiments. As we can observe, the MSE typically increases as we increase the lag interval, which is explained by recent findings showing that LSTMs have issues to learn long-term dependencies on data (though they still do that better than ordinary RNNs (Zhao et al., 2020)).

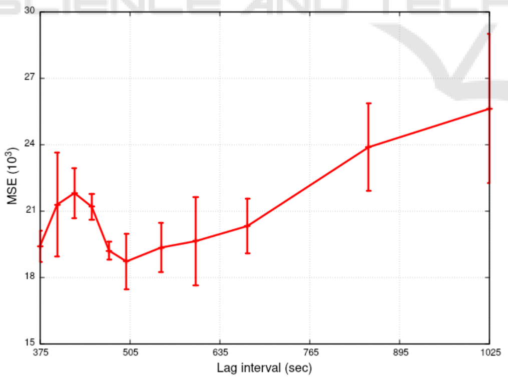

Figure 8: MSE for time intervals used model inputs.

Interestingly, the MSE decreased for lag times between 425 and 505 seconds. We believe that is due to intrinsic characteristics of our dataset. In particular, Figure 9 shows that the time series we used in our experiments has frequency components that are more prominent up to 2.5 mHz (i.e., have periods longer than 400 seconds), which may impact the ability of Flavor's LSTM to identify temporal dependencies on the data for higher frequencies (shorter periods)(Tang and Shwartz, 2012). Indeed, there seems to be a trade-off between Flavor's ability to detect long-term dependencies and the lag intervals needed to identify the existing dependencies on the data.

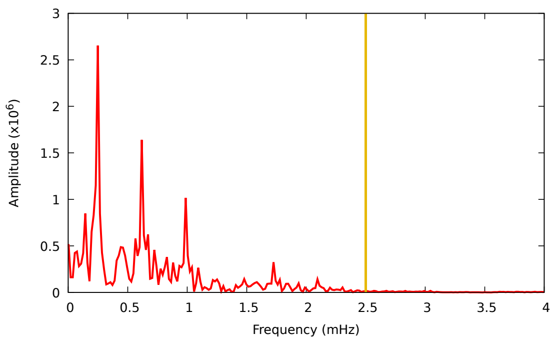

Figure 9: Frequency analysis of Flavor's input time series. The vertical line indicates a period of 400 seconds.

Finally, we varied the prediction horizon from 150 seconds up to 450. We spaced each interval measured by 75 seconds and repeated each test 4 times. As can be seen in Figure 10, the MSE steadily increases whenever the model attempts to predict points further away in the future. Thus, defining a trade-off between longer predictions and more accurate ones. However, we need to take into account the consideration made in Section 2.4. Therefore, we avoid using prediction horizons smaller than 200 seconds, as that is the time needed to perform the most costly scaling operation (from 1 to 9 pods).

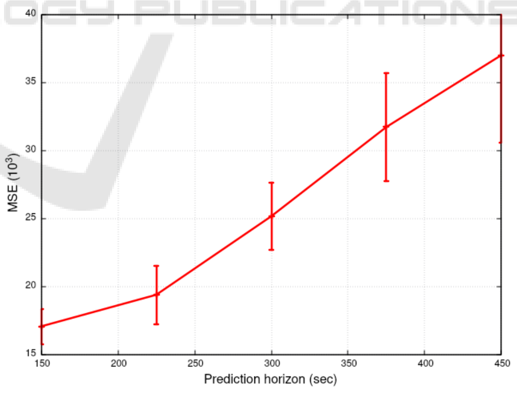

Figure 10: MSE for different prediction horizons.

4.3 Comparison with Existing Methods

In order to compare Flavor with another proactive method, we implemented the strategy proposed by Imdoukh et al. (Imdoukh et al., 2019), which consists of making predictions over a single metric: the workload itself. An LSTM model is used to forecast the incoming amount of queries for the next minute. The number of pods is adjusted by the ratio of queries predicted and the amount of workload a single pod can sustain, a value that is obtained by performing a stress test. By comparing Flavor's approach, we want to demonstrate that in a scenario where a system is suffering interference, forecasting only the workload would not be suited for a good performance.

Both models were trained over regular workload data, which where the amount of queries for the model from Imdoukh et al. and the collected performance metrics for Flavor. A stress test showed that a value of 690 queries to the amount of workload for a pod would be enough to not violate SLA's test set at 1000ms. With all set, a test was performed in an environment with two MySQL services as interference, each receiving a uniformly chosen random amount between 10 and 100 requests per second.

As demonstrated in Figure 11, the strategy used for comparison exhibited a greater amount of SLA violations than Flavor's. Also, resulting in a greater average latency over time. By taking real-time performance metrics, Flavor is able to predict, and best scale the number of pods, to overcome the interference being suffered. We note that Flavor presented a period in the sixth day (Saturday) where the latency observed was above the SLA limit, reaching a peak slightly less than 1.5 seconds.

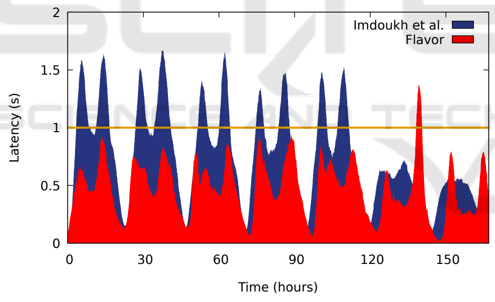

Figure 11: Comparison between Flavor and Imdoukh et al.

Figure 12 shows the number of pods used by Flavor and Imdoukh et al. strategy during the same execution period corresponding to one week. In the sixth day, we can identify the cause of such raise in the latency: the Flavor scaling policy reduced twice the number of replicas (indicated by the circle), resulting in a fall from 11 to 2, but in sequence it had to increase the number of replicas again, without time to do it before an SLA violation happened. This case illustrates that Flavor can also suffer SLA violations, for example, when the voting policy based on the latency predicted decides that it is safe to reduce the number of replicas, however a sudden increase in the number of requests happens next.

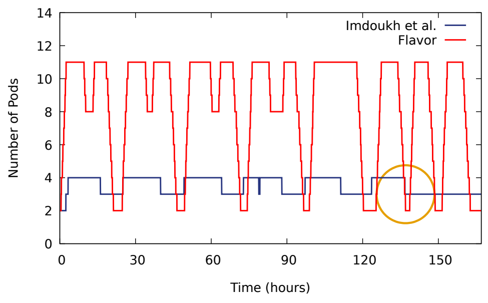

Figure 12: Resource utilization by Flavor. The circle shows an excessive downscale that results in an SLA violation.

4.4 Proactive Scaling

To demonstrate the benefits of Flavor's long-term prediction horizon to avoid SLA violations, we also compare its performance with the reactive scaling approach from the k8s Horizontal Pod Autoscaler (HPA). The HPA automatically scales the number of pods, by adding or removing pod replicas based on system or performance metrics and defined thresholds. We configured the Kubernetes auto-scaler to monitor the database average query latency with a threshold of 450ms, and after that with 800ms. The upper and lower limits for the number of pods that can be set by the Kubernetes auto-scaler were 8 and 2. The latency results of our experiments are shown in Figure 13. In all experiments we are considering a database query latency SLA of 1000ms.

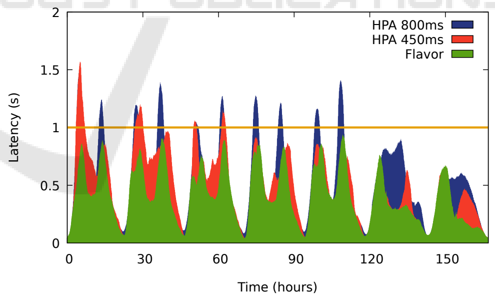

Figure 13: Average latency for MySQL service running the Bustracker benchmark managed by HPA and Flavor.

The HPA with a threshold of 450ms presented less SLA violations compared to the HPA with a threshold of 800ms, due to the fact that this configuration is more latency sensitive. In contrast, our proposal solution presents a significant reduction in the overall database query latency and less violations compared to the HPA reactive approach due to its proactive behavior. The reactive behavior of HPA evidently presented a delay in the decision-making even with different threshold configurations because, unlike our approach, the HPA only acts after or during the appearance of a peak.

Next, we analyze the resource utilization of Flavor and HPA. Table 1 shows the total amount of pods per hour for the comparison of Flavor and HPA, whose latency is illustrated in Figure 13, for a single week of workload execution. The values are computed as the sum of the number of pods, over the entire execution period, aggregated per hour using average and maximum.

Table 1: Comparison of Flavor with the HPA in terms of total number of pods used per hour.

Mechanism	Average	Maximum
Flavor	1217.21	1256
HPA (450ms)	1155.17	1206
HPA (800ms)	990.13	1029

HPA configured with a lower latency threshold of 450ms presents higher utilization in terms of the number of replicas per hour than the higher latency threshold configuration due to its latency sensitivity, which means that this configuration makes the HPA increase the number of pods more frequently and sooner than with the threshold of 800ms. Moreover, due to the proactive behavior of Flavor, the resource utilization was a little higher than the HPA with 450ms, because it forecasts and tries to avoid peaks of latency moments before it occurs. We see that although Flavor presented a higher level of resources utilization, its capacity to manage the provisioning levels was efficient in reducing the latency and avoiding SLA violations compared to the HPA strategy.

5 DISCUSSION

Other Machine Learning Models. *Flavor* uses an LSTM model to predict upcoming SLA violations. LSTM usually performs better than simpler models such as ARIMA on time-series forecasting (Siami-Namini et al., 2018). It achieves that with an internal memory that stores long-term dependencies and understands how this information remains relevant for making decisions. LSTM requires more resources than other RNNs like the Gated Recurrent Unit (GRU), which also handles long-term dependencies, but implements fewer gates. On the other hand, LSTM is more accurate in large datasets (Shewalkar, 2019). In such cases, significant performance differences mostly rely on training strategy and hyperparameter tunning rather than on the models' architecture.

Prediction Generalization. Generalization refers to the ability of a model to adapt properly to new, previously unseen data (Barbiero and Tonda, 2020). Even though we have trained Flavor using performance metrics collected from multiple execution scenarios (e.g., using different numbers of pods and interfering services), that is certainly not enough to create a single model that is able to fit all possible cloud scenarios. In particular, different applications may have completely different usage patterns. We envision cloud providers to run multiple instances of Flavor in practice, each one specialized in a given service type (e.g., a database or web service). In addition, further generalizations targeted at machine learning models for time series forecasting are possible (e.g., (Borovykh and Bohté, 2019), (Godfrey and Gashler, 2017)). We leave exploring them as future work.

Other Elasticity Approaches. *Flavor* immediately scales up services whenever the model predicts that service KPIs will exceed the SLA threshold, while it uses a voting-based scale-down approach that reduces service instances gradually to avoid overprovisioning. This heuristic lacks flexibility compared to other approaches when the model itself outputs the ideal number of service instances (Toka et al., 2020). On the other hand, the voting scheme avoids precipitated scaling decisions that may lead to SLA violations in scenarios with workload spikes. Besides, *Flavor's* scaling decision-making relies on KPI prediction rather than workload forecasting. Consequently, it avoids misleading decisions on scenarios containing performance interference (see Section II-C for a concrete example).

6 RELATED WORK

Workload Prediction. In addition to the work of Imdoukh et al. (Imdoukh et al., 2019), which we detailed in Section 4.3, a few other researches also propose to tackle the SLA violation problem by predicting an application workload.

Toka et al. (Toka et al., 2020) proposes an extension for the Horizontal Pods Autoscaler (HPA), the native scaling mechanism from Kubernetes. They aim to perform proactive scaling decisions by converting the prediction of the arrival request rate to a desired number of instances of the application. To do this, they use three different strategies combined, an autoregressive (AR) model, an LSTM, and an unsupervised learning method called Hierarchical Temporal Memory (HTM). Constant evaluation of these models is done during the execution of the system in order to decide which one is currently performing better. The best performing model is then used to predict the future request rate. If all models are performing below a

Table 2: Comparison between Flavor and related studies.

Proposal	ML Technique	Model Output	Scaling
(Rossi et al., 2019)	Q-learning, Dyna-Q, model-based approach	CPU usage	Horizontal/Vertical
(Imdoukh et al., 2019)	LSTM	Request arrival	Horizontal
(Cruz Coulson et al., 2020)	LSTM, Regression models	Request arrival	NA
(Toka et al., 2020)	Ensemble (AR, LSTM, HTM)	Request arrival	Horizontal
(Goli et al., 2021)	Random Forest, Linear Regression, SVR	CPU usage, request arrival	Horizontal
This Work (Flavor)	**LSTM**	**Service KPIs**	**Horizontal**

threshold, the standard HPA is used. Next, the authors map the predicted request rate to a number of desired pods based on a resource profile for the application, built beforehand by stressing the application.

Coulson et al. (Cruz Coulson et al., 2020) propose an auto-scaling system for web applications based on microservices architecture, which uses a hybrid machine learning model consisting of a stacked LSTM and a regression model. LSTM is used to predict the requests mix for the application's microservices in the near future, and this information is used by the regression model to predict the average request response time. The goal is to recommend scaling actions based on which microservice should be scaled at the moment. Different regression models were evaluated, including linear, ridge, lasso, and random forest regression.

Container Performance Prediction. Rossi et al. (Rossi et al., 2019) focus on controlling the horizontal and vertical elasticity of container-based applications. The authors present solutions based on reinforcement learning techniques like Q-Learning, Dyna-Q and a proposed model-based reinforcement learning technique that exploits what is known or estimated about the system dynamics. The main objective was to cope with varying applications workloads from small variations to sudden workload peaks as well as to avoid wastage of computational resources. They evaluated the proposed policies by comparing the three models, performing horizontal or vertical scaling (5-action), and performing jointly the two dimensions of scale (9-action) with prototype-based experiments. Considering the violation of response time, the best result for the 5-action model was 12.10% and for the 9-action model was 24.11% for the model-based in both cases. However, we have not used this paper for the state-of-the-art comparison as we focus on horizontal scaling, to make full use of the fast deployment and deletion of pods that Kubernetes provide. We also focus on forecasting a possible SLA violation moments before it happen.

Goli et al. (Goli et al., 2021) propose a new auto-scaling approach for containerized microservices called Waterfall. The proposed solution aims to reduce overprovisioning while avoiding performance issues caused by a lack of resources. For this, Waterfall uses machine learning models (i.e., Linear Regression, Random Forest, and Support Vector Regressor) to predict CPU usage and request arrival rate for microservices. Based on this information, the resource capacity provisioned for microservices is proactively adjusted using a horizontal scaling scheme. Although this work also performs predictions to avoid performance issues and waste of resources, we do not focus on containerized microservices management in this paper. For this reason, we do not compare their solutions against ours in the evaluation section.

Our Contributions. In summary, all related studies use machine learning techniques to predict SLA violations, proactively triggering scaling mechanisms to avoid such performance issues. What sets Flavor apart from these solutions is the information used to predict SLA violations. Prior studies infer SLA violations based on workload variations, relying on the correlation between workload variations and SLA violations, leading to inaccurate predictions when SLA violation are caused by external factors such as performance interference issues. Flavor avoids that kind of issue by predicting SLA violations based on upcoming variations in the performance metrics that make up the SLAs. Table 2 compares Flavor to the existing works discussed in this section.

7 CONCLUSIONS

This paper presents Flavor, a machine learning-based system capable of predicting SLA violations of containerized applications. Unlike existing strategies that rely on workload prediction, Flavor uses a deep neural network to identify upcoming SLA violations by predicting service performance metrics, preventing SLA violations that are not caused by workload spikes from going unnoticed.

We evaluate Flavor against other proactive and reactive approaches through experiments using workload patterns based on datasets from a real application. The results obtained from the experiments demonstrate that Flavor could avoid most SLA violations even in environments where there is interference, unlike other approaches based on workload prediction. As future work, we intend to investigate different policies for scaling services with Flavor.

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