Cost and Risk Aware Support for Cloud SLAs

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Keywords: Cloud Optimization and Automation, Cloud Risk, Economic Modelling, Cost Modelling, Challenges and Governance, Monitoring of Services, Quality of Service, Service Level Agreements, Service Monitoring and Control.

Abstract: Automated control of Cloud Service Level Agreements (SLA) is typically focused on Quality of Service (QoS) management and monitoring of the Cloud Infrastructure in-line with the SLA. Using risk assessments to bridge the needs of the Service Provider and Infrastructure Provider is one way in which the management of the whole Cloud SLA life-cycle can be achieved automatically. In this paper we adapt the QoS based risk approach and combine it with business orientated goal monitoring to improve the business input into the management of SLA from both a Cloud IP and SP perspective. We demonstrate this approach using probability of failure QoS risk linked to economic modelling of cost from the business goals of a SP.

1 INTRODUCTION

Service management during Cloud construction, deployment and operation is largely guided by Service Level Agreements (SLA) between the Service Provider (SP) and Infrastructure Provider (IP). The SLA captures what levels of service are expected from each party in relation to the business models being used. Failure of the SLA can result in negative business consequence for either party.

Protecting the IP and SP from threats to the SLA can be done using Risk Assessments. Risk Assessments have roots outside of computing but are standardized processes at judging the impact and probability of an event (Institute of Risk Management, 2009). In Cloud computing he use of Assessments has emerged from Risk the Computational Grid community and can be used to negotiate the SLA on the basis of what levels of service the parties are capable of providing (Djemame et al., 2011). The management of monitoring of Risk can enable either party to react to potential threats to the SLA, which can be seen to provide the SLA with a Risk Cushion reducing chances of failure.

Within the Risk Assessment process a vital part is the impact of specific events linked to the requirements of either the IP or SP. To data analysis of this impact has been largely been concerned with technical requirements linked to Quality of Service (QoS) characteristics in the SLA. From a infrastructure as a service (IaaS) perspective the measurements are detected directly from hardware characteristics such as memory usage, processing power and availability.

In this paper we expand on this QoS approach to incorporate cost metrics from the SP perspective. Risk assessments are developed to combine monitored levels of QoS from the IP with Cost impacts from the SP to produce a more business driven approach to Risk management of the SLA.

2 RISK ASSESSMENT

Throughout the service lifecycle risk is calculated using different inputs from a variety of perspectives.

2.1 Risk Assessment Phases

We propose that risk is considered during all phases of the service lifecycle for the two stakeholders (Service Provider (SP) and Infrastructure Provider (IP)). The SP being the organization that presents a service to the Cloud and the IP being the

Jiang M., Byrne J., Molka K., Armstrong D., Djemame K. and Kirkham T..

Cost and Risk Aware Support for Cloud SLAs. DOI: 10.5220/0004377302070212

In Proceedings of the 3rd International Conference on Cloud Computing and Services Science (CLOSER-2013), pages 207-212 ISBN: 978-989-8565-52-5

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organization that provides the Cloud infrastructure to the SP. SLAs negotiation between the SP and IP span the service construction, deployment, and operation phases of the Cloud lifecycle.

Risk assessments can be used to dynamically monitor the IP and SP against the SLA, but they can also be used to give greater support to Cloud transformations. Such events include Cloud bursting and Cloud brokerage activities where the IP changes its topology often to support demands of the SP and constraints of the SLA. Risk is vital for the proactive operation of providers in a cloud ecosystem. The treatment of risk must be performed at the service, data, and infrastructure layers, and risk assessment is performed at the following stages:

- Infrastructure Provider Assessment: The SP, before sending an SLA request to an IP, assesses the risk of dealing with all known IPs.
- Service Provider Assessment: An IP receives an SLA request and assesses the risk of dealing with the SP from which the request came from.
- SLA Request Risk Assessment: The IP assesses the risk of accepting the SLA request from the SP, e.g. risk of physical hosts failing and impact on current services.
- SLA Offer Risk Assessment: The SP assesses the risk associated with deploying a service in an IP (entering an SLA with the IP).
- SP Dynamic Risk Assessment: The SP performs continuous risk assessment at service operation, monitoring service level nonfunctional Quality of Service (QoS) metrics such as response time, availability of VMs.
- IP Dynamic Risk Assessment: The IP performs continual risk assessment at service operation, monitoring low-level events from the infrastructure such as risk of failure of physical hosts/VMs, security, legal, and data management risk.

The risk assessments are designed so they cover both the IP and SP perspective on risk of the other partner and also risk to themselves when interacting in the Cloud. This 360 view on risk is specific to the SLA and is how we propose the SLA can be better protected from breaches.

2.2 Risk Assessment Calculation

In simple terms risk calculation is the probability of a threat multiplied by its impact. Probability of threats is calculated using both live and historical data. In this paper we explain how we calculate the risk of physical host failure during our different risk assessment phases. Probabilities are expressed between 0.1 and 1.0.

The impact of risk depends on the context of the application and stages of execution at which it applies. Measuring impact can be wide ranging and is largely determined by the application environment and requirements of the SP and IP in the SLA. Often impact is pre calculated using domain expert opinion.

In order to fit impacts into risk calculations they are given a scale, we score our impacts between 1 and 10. In the scale 1 is the least impact and 10 highest impact. The final risk scores we calculate are put into the standard risk score scale of 1-7. We calculate this by converting the result of the risk calculation into the scale of 1-7.

For the business process technically measureable levels of QoS can be linked to cost for both the SP or the IP. Expressing impact in terms of Cost has the advantage of being a good bridge between technical events and business realities. Whilst some Cloud users may not understand the behaviour of the technical infrastructure they will be able to understand events expressed in terms of change in cost.

The use of cost as a means by which to express and compensate QoS reductions or SLA failures can be seen in how the major commercial providers of Cloud Solutions provide compensation upon SLA breach (Amazon Web Services, 2013). These breaches are focused on a measured reduction in terms of quality of service. Finer grained costing of fines are agreed in a similar way.

However, to date no mechanism exists to present cost evaluations associated with SLA failure or SLA renegotiation to both the SP or IP. The development of such a tool will give both a different perspective of risk in the cloud but also provide more accurate assessments of the impacts of Cloud events in relation to business process.

3 PHYSICAL HOST FAILURE MODELLING

For our probability implementation of the risk assessment we have routed our risk assessments in the economic impacts of Physical Host failure risk.

An IP usually presents an associated availability to the entity (SP or broker) it is negotiating an SLA with. Most of commercial cloud providers such as Amazon "guarantee" a service availability of 99% or higher. This metric is related to a Probability of Failure (PoF), therefore a risk of service unavailability.

In order to calculate PoF, gathering data relating to past and current status of cloud resources is an essential activity. Monitoring resource failures is crucial in the design of reliable systems, e.g. the knowledge of failure characteristics can be used in resource management to improve resource availability. Furthermore, calculating the risk of failure of a resource depends on past failures as well.

3.1 Overview Approach

There are various events that cause a resource to fail. Cloud resources may fail as a result of a failure of one or more of the resource components, such as CPU or memory; this is known as hardware failure. Another event which can result in a resource failure is the failure of the operating system or programs installed on the resource; this type is known as software failure. The third event is the failure of communication with the resource; this is referred to as network failure. Finally, another event is the disturbance to the building hosting the resource, such as a power cut or an air conditioning failure; this type is event is known as *environment* failure. Sometimes, it is difficult to pinpoint the exact cause of the failure, i.e. whether it is hardware, software, network, or environment failure; this is therefore referred to as unknown failure.

The Time To Fail (TTF) of a physical host is modelled as a life time random variable whose value is always more than zero. Given the physical host has been up until time t, the Probability of Failure (PoF) of it during future time interval x is a conditional probability $P{X \le t+x|t}$. In order to calculate the $P{X \le t+x|t}$, the general methodology is based on the following 5 steps:

- Step 1: Collect observed historical data representing TTFs;
- Step 2: Find a probability distribution model of TTF of the physical host by data distribution fitting;
- *Step 3:* Estimate the particular parameters of the risk model by analysing the observations on the physical host;
- Step 4: Evaluate the distribution model by comparing the risk model's predictions based on historical data and future observation data;
- Step 5: Calculate P{X<=t+x|t} based on the model with these parameters.

A total of 2.5 years (January 2010 - July 2012) physical host failures historical data was provided by Cloud Provider X for this paper.

3.2 Failure Data Gathering

A total of 2.5 years (January 2010 - July 2012) physical host failures historical data was provided by Cloud Provider X for this paper. A sample of logging data physical host ID 10.0.2.10 is illustrated in

Table 1: Sample logging data – physical host ID 10.0.2.10.

node_ip	node_action	node_log_timestamp	node_log_note
10.0.2.10	Maintenance	2010-01-20 09:34:38.164117	Node is up after an error state
10.0.2.10	Recovery	2010-01-20 10:10:46.528909	Node cannot be accesses doing a live recovery
10.0.2.10	Recovery	2010-01-20 10:11:00.54699	Performing live recovery
10.0.2.10	Maintenance	2010-01-25 14:14:57.861363	Node is up after an error state

A corresponding pair of 'Recovery' and 'Node cannot be accesses doing a live recovery ' means the physical host is not contactable and the VMs running on this host have to be migrated elsewhere. A corresponding pair of 'Maintenance' and 'Node is up after an error state' means the host is back again (so repaired) and will await a manual decision to be brought back into the resource pool.

4 IMPACT

Expressing the impact in terms of cost has the advantage of being a good bridge between technical events and business realities. Cloud computing drives the rethinking of economic relationships between an infrastructure provider and service provider in terms of the services being provided. Service Level Agreements (SLAs), which are contracts between an infrastructure provider and a service provider depend in general on certain chosen criteria, such as service latency, throughput, availability and security (Xiong et al., 2011). An SLA typically includes penalty clauses that penalize the infrastructure provider if it fails to execute the jobs within quality of service (QoS) constraints or requirements (McLarnon et al., 2010). The existence of SLA penalty clauses enable the system to maintain certain standards of services expected by users. In the event that an IP fails to meet the constraints contained within an SLA, a penalty is typically paid out to mitigate the losses incurred by the user. Such a penalty clause in the SLA may consist of the following (Rana et al., 2007):

- A decrease in the agreed payment for using the service, that is, a direct financial sanction.
- A reduction in price to the consumer, along with additional compensation for any subsequent interaction.
- A reduction in the future usage of the provider's service by the consumer.

Focusing on the economic implications, a penalty will reduce infrastructure provider earnings. In such cases, the earnings must be adjusted due to lost revenue from compensation paid out.

Resource failures have a direct correlation with service unavailability, leading to loss of revenue due to financial sanctions and compensation agreed to in the SLA penalty clauses. The economic impact of such failure can be significant, even if the failure is recovered from within a relatively short time period. To give an example, a recent report covering 2007 to 2012 from press releases found that cloud service unavailability across cloud service providers such as Amazon and Microsoft showed an average of 7.5 hours per year with the cost of these failures amounting to more than 70 million USDs based on hourly costs accepted in industry (Gagnaire et al., 2012). This cost would vary depending on the size and scale of the company.

A modified SLA penalty model is proposed which takes the risk of failure into account, see Antonescu et. al, (2012). The impact of the risk of failure of economic terms has been modelled taking a typical SLA penalty clause such as this into account, as follows:

$$Cost_{Penalty} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{services}} P_B$$

$$\cdot cost_F(time_F(t_m, T, s_i), s_i)$$
(1)

$$time_{F}(t_{m}, T, s) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{i=1}^{T/t_{m}} t_{i} \cdot PoF(s, t_{i})$$
(2)

$$cost_F(P_{Failure}, s_i)$$

$$= \begin{cases} \rho_s^1 if \varepsilon_s^2 \le 1 - P_{Failure} < \varepsilon_s^1 \\ \rho_s^2 if \varepsilon_s^3 \le 1 - P_{Failure} < \varepsilon_s^2 \\ \rho_s^3 if \quad 0 \le 1 - P_{Failure} < \varepsilon_s^3 \end{cases}$$
(3)

With reference to the above cost models and to Table 1, the penalty cost is calculated from an accumulation of the predicted cost of services that are hosted by an infrastructure provider which is based on the risk of a service failing in one or more future time periods. The penalty model from the SLA is included as three separate penalty levels based on a percentage of the overall price being charged by an IP within the billing time period, which is typical of a penalty clause included in an SLA. Referring to equation 3, the service penalty percentage ρ_s^3 is highest of the 3 levels, down to the lowest which is ρ_s^1 . This could be further modified to include more penalty percentage levels. The service specific availability percentage ϵ_s^1 represents the highest percentage down to the lowest percentage of 0.

Table 2: SLA Penalty Cost Model Notations.

	Symbol	Explanation	
Cost _{Penalty}		Predicted cost of SLA penalty including PoF	
Γ.	t _m	Monitoring interval	
	Т	Billing period	
	N _{Services}	Number of services of SP	
	s _i	Service i	
	P _B	Price, that is charged per billing period	
	cost _F	Percentage of penalty that has to be applied to cost of billing period	
	P _{Failure}	Percentage of service downtime within T	
	time _F	Predicts P _{failure}	
	PoF (s, t)	Probability of Failure of service s within time interval t	
	$ ho_s^i$	Service specific penalty percentage	
	ϵ_s^2	Service specific availability percentage	

Building a risk assessment from the PoF data and the Cost calculations will use the derived Cost penalty metric from the calculations above.

5 EVALUATION

The risk assessment approach using Cost and PoF has been applied in the context of the EU Framework 7 project OPTIMIS (Badia et al., 2011).

The Cost impacts were added to the Risk Assessment process via the Risk Inventory. This repository records threats and related vulnerabilities or trigger events that can cause them. Thus, when a IP is being monitored for events such as CPU level it can be linked to possible risks. When the SLA is negotiated the inventory is populated for the specific instance of the Cloud runtime. This population involves the identification of risks and triggers in relation to the SLA.

An example of the cost monitoring is the pricing of energy in the data centre. This metric has been used by the project to add the cost impact in terms of energy cost upon SLA renegotiation or failure. In both cases the final cost impact would not only consist in change of energy prediction but also other factors such as potential fine within the SLA.

In terms of Physical Host failure evaluation we consider the empirical Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF) of TTFs for each resource, as well as how well it fits the probability distributions. Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE) is used to parameterise the distributions and thereby evaluate the goodness of fit by visual inspection, and the negative log-likelihood test.

The CDF of TTFs observed over 30 months of the entire past 2.5 years of physical host ID 10.0.2.10 fits well to the Weibull distribution with the Distribution Fitting Tool, *dfittool*, of MATLAB 7.9.0.. The comparison of Exponential, Weibull, and Gamma distributions curve fitting for Node ID 10.0.2.10 of 30 Months data is illustrated in Figure 1.



Figure: 1 Cumulative Distribution Function Fitting (Node ID 10.0.2.10, 30 Months Historical Data.

In the figure the CDF of TTFs observed from physical host ID 10.0.2.10 fits well to the Weibull distribution. The shape parameter and scale parameter of this particular Weibull distribution instance is 0.3455 and 265000 respectively.

6 RELATED WORK

In creating a VM to host allocation algorithm that considers the effect of existing SLAs and modelling data, (Antonescu et al., 2012) have attempted to use historical data to forecast infrastructure load in order to select the allocation that produces the highest profit contribution. In carrying this out, they have created a system model which took SLA violation and penalty cost into account.

In providing a control-theoretic solution to the problem of dynamic capacity provisioning, Zhang et al., (2012) attempts to minimise the total energy cost while meeting the performance objective in terms of task scheduling delay. Part of the work in doing this was to adopt a simple penalty cost model for SLA violation, whereby if the "delay bound" is violated, there is an SLA penalty cost proportional to the degree of violation.

Xiong et al., (2011) address the issue of how to intelligently manage the resources in a shared cloud database system and introduce a cost aware resource management system. They provide a "weighted" SLA penalty cost function where the weight denotes a penalty when a database query misses a deadline. Amongst other resource management work, examples of work focusing on cost in the cloud from a SLA perspective also exists in terms of energy use (Beloglazov and Buyya, 2010) and profit maximisation through resource allocation.

However, the related work covered here does not specifically take the risk of failure into account while modelling the SLA penalty cost. More work on probability of failure can be seen in and its link to risk has been explored in terms of recovery and risk can be found here (Sangrasi and Djemame, 2012).

7 FUTURE WORK

The work on Cost and Risk will be expanded to incorporate other forms of risk including VM failure and Security/Legal risks in the Cloud. In addition the OPTIMIS project is looking to integrate the factors of eco-efficiency and Trust in a similar way to Cost in the Risk Assessment process.

Central to this work is the definition of risks and impacts in relation to the other factors and further definition of cost factors. In many cases this data will be tied to other sources such as markets and would have to feed directly into the risk assessor. Such an approach would make the calculations around SLA management finer grained allowing more accurate usage of Cloud transformation technologies such as Cloud Bursting. More work also needs to be done on how the extra level of risk refinement helps sustain the SLA. For this a series of benchmarking studies leading on from the probability of failure of physical host need to be conducted.

Currently our impacts are driven by economic modelling from a business perspective. In reality a more user centric approach would be more realistic as Clouds are increasingly adopted. In these cases the monitoring and control over cost will have to be developed in an easier to use and monitor way using technology such as Dashboards. The user centric tools would also aid further understanding of risk for the user.

8 CONCLUSIONS

Although our method relies on a black box orientated provider co-operation model for data collection we have demonstrated a novel approach to SLA management in the Cloud. By expanding a inventory of risk to include economic/cost impacts illustrates how risk can be used to combine SLA impact with direct business consequence of SLA failure. This offers a more understandable view on risk to the human and finer-grained approach in terms of risk management.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work has been partially supported by the EU within the 7th Framework Programme under contract ICT-257115 - Optimized Infrastructure Services (OPTIMIS).

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