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Svend Frolund and Jari Koistinen
Hewlett-Packard Laboratories

For more information about USENIX Association contact:

1. Phone: 510 528-8649
2. FAX: 510 548-5738
3. Email: office@usenix.org
4. WWW URL: <http://www.usenix.org/>

Quality of Service Specification in Distributed Object Systems Design

Svend Frølund

Hewlett-Packard Laboratories, frolund@hpl.hp.com

Jari Koistinen

Hewlett-Packard Laboratories, jari@hpl.hp.com

Traditional object-oriented design methods deal with the functional aspects of systems, but they do not address quality of service (QoS) aspects such as reliability, availability, performance, security, and timing. However, deciding which QoS properties should be provided by individual system components is an important part of the design process. Different decisions are likely to result in different component implementations and system structures. Thus, decisions about component-level QoS should be made at design time, before the implementation is begun. Since these decisions are an important part of the design process, they should be captured as part of the design. We propose a general Quality-of-Service specification language, which we call QML. In this paper we show how QML can be used to capture QoS properties as part of designs. In addition, we extend UML, the de-facto standard object-oriented modeling language, to support the concepts of QML. QML is designed to integrate with object-oriented features, such as interfaces, classes, and inheritance. In particular, it allows specification of QoS properties through refinement of existing QoS specifications. Although we exemplify the use of QML to specify QoS properties within the categories of reliability and performance, QML can be used for specification within any QoS category—QoS categories are user-defined types in QML.

1. Introduction

1.1 Quality-of-Service in Software Design

In software engineering—like any engineering discipline—design is the activity that allows engineers to invent a solution to a problem. The input to the design activity consists of various requirements and constraints. The result of a design activity is a solution in which all major architectural and technical problems have been addressed. Design is an important activity since it allows engineers to invent solutions stepwise and in an organized manner. It makes engineers consider solutions and trade various system functions against each other.

To be useful, computer systems must deliver a certain *quality of service* (QoS) to its users. By QoS, we refer to non-functional properties such as performance, reliability, availability, and security. Although the delivered QoS is an essential aspect of a computer system, traditional design methods, such as [2, 11, 1, 13, 4], do not incorporate QoS considerations into the design process.

We strongly believe that, in order to build systems that deliver their intended QoS, it is essential to systematically take QoS into account at design time, and not as an afterthought during implementation.

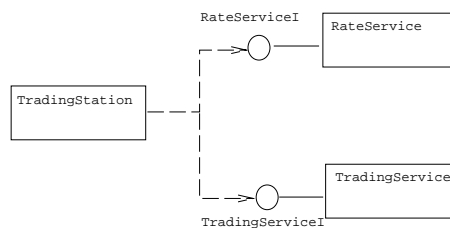


FIG. 1. Class diagram for the currency trading system

We use a simple example to illustrate the need for design-time QoS considerations. Consider the currency trading system in Figure 1. Currency traders interact with the trading station, which provides a user interface. To provide its functionality, the trading station uses a rate service and a trading service. The rate service provides rates, interests, and other information important to foreign exchange trading. The trading service provides the mechanism for making trades in a secure way. An inaccessible currency trading system might incur significant financial loss, therefore it is essential that the system is highly available.

It is important, at design time, to decide the QoS properties of individual system components. For example, we need to decide the availability properties of the rate service. We can decide that the rate service should be highly available so that the trading station can rely exclusively on it for rate information. Alternatively, we can decide that the rate service need *not* be highly available. If the rate service is not highly available, the trading station cannot rely exclusively on it, but must be prepared to continue operation if the rate service fails. To continue operation, the trading station could connect to an external rate service. As the example shows, different availability properties for the rate service can result in different system architectures. It is important to decide on particular QoS properties, and thereby chose a specific architecture, at design time.

Besides the system architecture, the choice of QoS properties for individual components also affects the implementation of components. For example, the `rate service` can be implemented as a single process or as a process pair, where the process-pair implementation provides higher availability. Different QoS properties are likely to require different implementations. Moreover, the QoS properties of a component may affect the implementation of its clients. For example, with a single-process implementation, the `trading station` may have to explicitly detect failures and restart the `rate service`, whereas with a process-pair implementation, failures may be completely masked for the `trading station`.

1.2 Quality-of-Service Specification

In the previous section we argued that QoS properties of individual components reflect important design decisions, and that we need describe these QoS properties as part of the design process. To capture component-level QoS properties, we introduce a language called QML (QoS Modeling Language).

Consider the CORBA IDL [17] interface definition for the `rate service` in Figure 2.

A rate service provides one operation for retrieving the latest exchange rates with respect to two currencies. The other operation performs an analysis and returns a forecast for the specified currency. The interface definition specifies the syntactic signature for a service but does not specify any semantics or non-functional aspects. In contrast, we concern ourselves with how to specify the required or provided QoS for servers implementing this interface.

QML has three main abstraction mechanisms for QoS specification: *contract type*, *contract*, and *profile*. QML allows us to define contract types that represent specific QoS aspects, such as performance or reliability. A contract type defines the *dimensions* that can be used to characterize a particular QoS aspect. A dimension has a domain of values that may be ordered. There are three kinds of domains: *set* domains, *enumerated* domains, and *numeric* domains. A contract is an instance of a contract type and represents a particular QoS specification. Finally, QML profiles associate contracts with interfaces, operations, operation arguments, and operation results.

The QML definitions in Figure 3 include two contract types `Reliability` and `Performance`. The reliability contract type defines three dimensions. The first one represents the number of failures per year. The keyword “decreasing” indicates that a smaller number of failures is better than a larger one. Time-to-repair (TTR) represents the time it takes to repair a service that has failed. Again, smaller values are better than larger ones. Fi-

```
interface RateServiceI {
    Rates latest(in Currency c1,in Currency c2)
        raises (InvalidC);
    Forecast analysis(in Currency c)
        raises (Failed);
};
```

FIG. 2. The `RateServiceI` interface

nally, `availability` represents the probability that a service is available. In this case, larger values represent stronger constraints while smaller values represent lower probabilities and are therefore weaker.

We also define a contract named `systemReliability` of type `Reliability`. The contract specifies constraints that can be associated with, for example, an operation. Since the contract is named it can be used in more than one profile. In this case, the contract specifies an upper

```
type Reliability = contract {
    numberOfFailures: decreasing numeric no/year;
    TTR: decreasing numeric sec;
    availability: increasing numeric;
};

type Performance = contract {
    delay: decreasing numeric msec;
    throughput: increasing numeric mb/sec;
};

systemReliability = Reliability contract {
    numberOfFailures < 10 no/year;
    TTR {
        percentile 100 < 2000;
        mean < 500;
        variance < 0.3
    };
    availability > 0.8;
};

rateServerProfile for RateServiceI = profile {
    require systemReliability;
    from latest require Performance contract {
        delay {
            percentile 50 < 10 msec;
            percentile 80 < 20 msec;
            percentile 100 < 40 msec;
            mean < 15 msec
        };
    };

    from analysis require Performance contract {
        delay < 4000 msec
    };
};
```

FIG. 3. Contracts and Profile for `RateServiceI`

bound on the allowed number of failures. It also specifies an upper bound, a mean, and a variance for TTR. Finally, it states that availability must always be greater than 0.8.

Next we introduce a profile called `rateServerProfile` that associates contracts with operations in the `RateServiceI` interface. The first requirement clause states that the server should satisfy the previously defined `systemReliability` contract. Since this requirement is not related to any particular operation, it is considered a default requirement and holds for every operation. Contracts for individual operations are allowed only to strengthen (refine) the default contract. In this profile there is no default performance contract; instead we associate individual performance contracts with the two operations of the `RateServiceI` interface. For `latest` we specify in detail the distribution of delays in percentiles, as well as a upper bound on the mean delay. For `analysis` we specify only an upper bound and can therefore use a slightly simpler syntactic construction for the expression. Since throughput is omitted for both operations, there are no requirements or guarantees with respect to this dimension.

We have now effectively specified reliability and performance requirements on any implementation of the `rateServiceI` interface. The specification is syntactically separate from the interface definition, allowing different `rateServiceI` servers to have different QoS characteristics.

QoS specifications can be used in many different situations. They can be used during the design of a system to understand the QoS requirements for individual components that enable the system as a whole to meet its QoS goals. Such design-time specification is the focus of this paper. QoS specifications can also be used to dynamically negotiate QoS agreements between clients and servers in distributed systems.

In negotiation it is essential that we can match offered and required QoS characteristics. As an example, satisfying the constraint “delay < 10 msec” implies that we also satisfy “delay < 20 msec.” We want to enable automatic checking of such relations between any two QoS specifications. We call this procedure *conformance checking*, and it is supported by QML.

QML allows designers to specify QoS properties independently of how these properties can be implemented. For example, QML enables designers to specify a certain level of availability without reference to a particular high-availability mechanism such as primary-backup or active replication.

QML supports the specification of QoS properties in an object-oriented manner; it provides abstraction mechanisms that integrate with the usual object-oriented abstraction mechanisms such as classes, interfaces, and inheritance. Although QML is not tied to any partic-

ular design notation, we show how to integrate QML with UML [2], and we provide a graphical syntax for component-level QoS specifications.

QML is a general-purpose QoS specification language; it is not tied to any particular domain, such as real-time or multi-media systems, or to any particular QoS *category*, such as reliability or performance.

We organize the rest of this paper in the following way. In Section 2, we introduce our terminology for distributed object systems. We present the dimensions of reliability and performance that we use in Section 3. We describe QML in Section 4, and we explain its integration into UML in Section 5. We use QML and the UML extensions to specify the QoS properties of a computer-based telephony system in Section 6. The topic of Section 7 is related work, and Section 8 is a discussion of our approach. Finally, in Section 9, we draw our conclusions.

2. Our Terminology for Object-Oriented Systems

We assume that a system consists of a number of *services*. A service has a number of *clients* that rely on the service to get their work done. A client may itself provide service to other clients.

A service has a *service specification* and an implementation. A service specification describes what a service provides; a service implementation consists of a collection of software and hardware objects that collectively provide the specified service. For example, a name service maintains associations between names and objects. A name service can be replicated, that is, it can be implemented by a number of objects that each contain all the associations. It is important to notice that we consider a replicated name service as *one* logical entity even though it may be implemented by a collection of distributed objects.

A client uses a service through a *service reference*, or simply a *reference*. A reference is a handle that a client can use to issue service requests. A reference provides a client with a single access point, even to services that are implemented by multiple objects.

Traditionally, a service specification is a functional *interface* that lists the operations and attributes that clients can access; we extend this traditional notion of a service specification to also include a definition of the QoS provided by the service. The same service specification can be realized by multiple implementations, and the same collection of objects can implement multiple service specifications.

3. Selected Dimensions

To specify QoS properties in QML, we need a way to formally quantify the various aspects of QoS. A *QoS*

category denotes a specific non-functional characteristic of systems that we are interested in specifying. *Reliability*, *security*, and *performance* are examples of such categories. Each category consists of one or more *dimensions* that represent a metric for one aspect of the category. *Throughput* would be a dimension of the performance QoS category. We represent QoS categories and dimensions as user-defined types in QML.

To meaningfully characterize services with QoS categories we need valid dimensions. We are particularly interested in the dimensions that characterize services without exposing internal design and implementation details. Such dimensions enable the specification of QoS properties that are relevant and understandable for, in principle, any service regardless of implementation technology.

We describe a set of dimensions for reliability and performance. In [8] we have reviewed a variety of literature and systems on reliability including work by Gray et al. [7], Cristian [5], Reibman [14], Birman, [3], Maffeis [10], Littlewood [9], and others. As a result we propose the following dimensions for characterizing the reliability of distributed object services:

Name	Type
TTR	Time
TTF	Time
Availability	Probability
Continuous availability	Probability
Failure masking	set {failure, omission, response, value, state, timing, late, early}
Server failure	enum {halt, initialState, rollBack}
Operation semantics	enum {exactlyOnce, atLeastOnce, atMostOnce}
Rebinding policy	enum {rebind, noRebind}
Number of failures	Unsigned Integer
Data policy	enum {valid, notValid}

We use the measurable quantities of time to failure (TTF) and time to repair (TTR). **Availability** is the probability that a service is available when a client attempts to use it. Assume for example that service is down totally one week a year, then the availability would be $51/52$, which is approximately 0.98. **Continuous availability** assesses the probability with which a client can access a service an infinite number of times during a particular time period. The service is expected not to fail and to retain all state information during this time period. We could for example require that a particular client can use a service for a 60 minute period without failure with a probability of 0.999. **Continuous availability** is different from **availability** in that it requires subsequent use of a service to succeed but only for a limited time period.

The **failure masking** dimension is used to describe what kind of failures a server may expose to its clients.

A client must be able to detect and handle any kind of exposed failure. The above table lists the set of all possible failures that can be exposed by services in general. The QoS specification for a particular service will list the subset of failures exposed by that service.

We base our categorization of failure types—shown in Figure 4—on the work by Cristian [5]. If a service exposes **omission** failures, clients must be prepared to handle a situation where the service simply omits to respond to requests. If a service exposes **response** failures, it might respond with a faulty return value or an incorrect state transition. Finally, if the service exposes **timing** failures, it may respond in an untimely manner. Timing failures have two subtypes: **late** and **early** timing errors. Services can have any combination of failure masking characteristics.

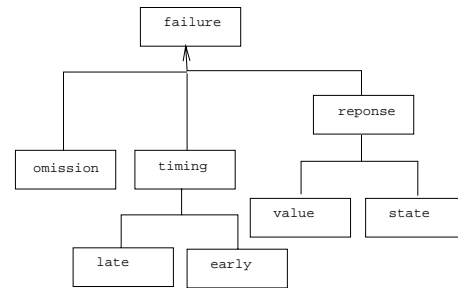


FIG. 4. Failure type hierarchy

Operation semantics describe how requests are handled in the case of a failure. We can specify that issued requests are executed **exactlyOnce**, **atLeastOnce**, or **atMostOnce**.

Server failure describes the way in which a service can fail. That is, whether it will **halt** indefinitely, restart in a well defined **initialState**, or restart **rolledBack** to a previous check point.

The **number of failures** gives a likely upper bound for the number of times the service will fail during a specific time period.

When a service fails the client needs to know whether it can use the existing reference or whether it needs to rebind to the service after the service has recovered. The **rebinding policy** is used to specify this aspect of reliability.

Finally, we propose that the client also needs to know if data returned by the service still is valid after the service has failed and been restarted. To specify this we need to associate **data policy** with entities such as return values and out arguments.

For the purpose of this paper we will propose a minimal set of dimensions for characterizing performance. We are only including **throughput** and **latency**. **Throughput** is the transfer rate for information, and can, for example, be specified as megabytes per second. **Latency** measures the time between the point that an in-

vocation was issued and the time at which the response was received by the client.

Dimensions such as those presented here constitute the vocabulary for QoS specification languages. We use the dimensions to describe the example in section 6.

4. QML: A Language to Specify QoS Properties

We describe the main design considerations for QML in Section 4.1. We already introduced the fundamental concepts of QML in section 1. Sections 4.2–4.8 describe the syntax and semantics of QML in more detail. For the full description of QML we refer to the language definition in [6].

4.1 Basic Requirements

The main design consideration for QML is to support QoS specification in an object-oriented context. We want QML to integrate seamlessly with existing object-oriented concepts. This overall goal results in the following specific design requirements for QML:

- QoS specifications should be syntactically separate from other parts of service specifications, such as interface definitions. This separation allows us to specify different QoS properties for different implementations of the same interface.
- It should be possible to specify both the QoS properties that clients require and the QoS properties that services provide. Moreover, these two aspects should be specified separately so that a client-server relationship has two QoS specifications: a specification that captures the client’s requirements and a specification that captures the service’s provisioning. This separation allow us to specify the QoS characteristics of a component, the QoS properties that it provides and requires, without specifying the interconnection of components. The separation is essential if we want to specify the QoS characteristics of components that are reused in many different contexts.
- There should be a way to determine whether the QoS specification for a service satisfies the QoS requirement of a client. This requirement is a consequence of the separate specification of the QoS properties that clients require and the QoS properties that services provide.
- QML should support refinement of QoS specifications. In distributed object systems, interface definitions are typically subject to inheritance. Since inheritance allows an interface to be defined as a refinement of another interface, and since we associate QoS specifications with interfaces, we need to support refinement of QoS specifications.
- It should be possible to specify QoS properties at a fine-grained level. As an example, performance characteristics are commonly specified for individ-

ual operations. As another example, the data policy dimension described in Section 3 is applicable to arguments and return values of operations. QML must allow QoS specifications for interfaces, operations, attributes, operation parameters, and operation results.

Other aspects such as negotiation and utility can be dealt with as mechanisms using QML or possibly be part of future extensions of QML. This paper focuses on the requirements listed above.

We have already briefly introduced the fundamental concepts of QML: *contract type*, *contract*, *profile*. The following sections will provide a more detailed description of QML.

4.2 Contracts and Contract Types

A contract type contains a *dimension type* for each of its dimensions. We use three different dimension types: set, enumeration, and numeric. Figure 5 gives an abstract syntax for contract and dimension types.

<i>conType</i>	::= contract { <i>dimName</i> ₁ : <i>dimType</i> ₁ ; ... ; <i>dimName</i> _k : <i>dimType</i> _k ; }
<i>dimName</i>	::= <i>n</i>
<i>dimType</i>	::= <i>dimSort</i> <i>dimSort unit</i>
<i>dimSort</i>	::= enum { <i>n</i> ₁ , ... , <i>n</i> _k } <i>relSem enum</i> { <i>n</i> ₁ , ... , <i>n</i> _k } with order set { <i>n</i> ₁ , ... , <i>n</i> _k } <i>relSem set</i> { <i>n</i> ₁ , ... , <i>n</i> _k } <i>relSem set</i> { <i>n</i> ₁ , ... , <i>n</i> _k } with order <i>relSem numeric</i>
<i>order</i>	::= order { <i>n</i> _i < <i>n</i> _j , ... , <i>n</i> _k < <i>n</i> _m }
<i>unit</i>	::= <i>unit/unit</i> % <i>msec</i> ...
<i>relSem</i>	::= decreasing increasing

FIG. 5. Abstract syntax for contract types

Contracts are instances of contract types. A contract type defines the structure of its instances. In general, a contract contains a list of constraints. Each constraint is associated with a dimension. For example, if we have a dimension “latency” in a contract type, a contract instance may contain the constraint “latency < 10.” Figure 6 gives an abstract syntax for contracts and constraints.

A contract may specify constraints for all or a subset of the dimensions in its contract type. Omission of a specification for a particular dimension indicates that the contract is trivially satisfied along that dimension.

In general, a constraint consists of a name, an operator, and a value. The name is typically the name of a dimension, but, as we describe in Section 4.3, the name can also be the name of a dimension *aspect*. The permissible operators and values depend on the dimen-

<i>contract</i>	::= contract { <i>constraint</i> ₁ ; ...; <i>constraint</i> _k ; }
<i>constraint</i>	::= <i>dimName constraintOp dimValue</i> <i>dimName {aspect</i> ₁ ; ...; <i>aspect</i> _n ; }
<i>dimValue</i>	::= <i>literal unit</i> <i>literal</i>
<i>literal</i>	::= <i>n</i> { <i>n</i> ₁ , ..., <i>n</i> _k } <i>number</i>
<i>aspect</i>	::= percentile <i>percentNum constraintOp</i> <i>dimValue</i> mean <i>constraintOp dimValue</i> variance <i>constraintOp dimValue</i> frequency <i>freqRange constraintOp</i> <i>number%</i>
<i>freqRange</i>	::= <i>dimValue</i> <i>lRangeLimit dimValue , dimValue</i> <i>rRangeLimit</i>
<i>lRangeLimit</i>	::= ([
<i>rRangeLimit</i>	::=)]
<i>constraintOp</i>	::= == >= <= < >
<i>percentNum</i>	::= 0 1 ... 99 100
<i>dimName</i>	::= <u>defined in Figure 5</u>
<i>unit</i>	::= <u>defined in Figure 5</u>

FIG. 6. Abstract syntax for contracts

sion type. A dimension type specifies a domain of values. These values can be used in constraints for that dimension. The domain may be ordered. For example, a numeric domain comes with a built-in ordering (“<”) that corresponds to the usual ordering on numbers. Set and enumeration domains do not come with a built-in ordering; for those types of domains we have to describe a user-defined ordering of the domain elements. The domain ordering determines which operators can be used in constraints for that domain. For example, we cannot use inequality operators (“<,” “>,” “<=,” “>=”) in conjunction with an unordered domain.

The domain for a set dimension contains elements that are sets of name literals. We specify a set domain using the keyword **set**, as in “**set** {*n*₁, ..., *n*_k}.” This defines a set domain where the domain elements are subsets of the set “{*n*₁, ..., *n*_k}.” The constraints over a set dimension will then be constraints with set values, as in “**failures** == {**response**, **omission**}.”

The domain for an enumeration dimension contains elements that are name literals. We specify an enumeration domain using the keyword **enum**. For example, we could define an enumeration domain as follows: “**enum** {*n*₁, ..., *n*_k}.” Here, the domain will contain the name literals “*n*₁, ..., *n*_k,” and we can specify constraints as “**dataPolicy** == **valid**.”

The domain of a numeric dimension contains elements that are real numbers. Constraints for a numeric dimension are written as “**latency** < 10.”

Elements of numeric dimensions are always ordered. We can specify a user-defined ordering for set and enumerated dimensions in the following way: “**order** {**valid** < **invalid**}.” When dimensions are ordered we need to specify whether larger or smaller values are considered stronger. As an example consider the dimension of availability. A larger numeric value for availability is a stronger that a smaller, we say that availability is an “increasing” dimension. Other dimensions, such as delay, are “decreasing” since smaller values are consider as stronger guarantees. Consequently, QML requires that we define ordered dimensions as either decreasing or increasing. For the data validity enum decreasing semantics seems most intuitive, since **valid** also satisfies **invalid**.

The example in Figure 7 gives an example of a contract type expression followed by a contract expression. Note that the contract expression is explicitly typed with a contract type name, this explicit typing enables the QML compiler to determine a unique contract type for any contract expression. So far we have only covered the syntax for contract values and contract types. In Section 4.4, we describe how to name contract values and contract types, and how to use those names in contract expressions.

4.3 Aspects

In addition to simple constraints QML supports more complex characterizations that are called *aspects*. An aspect is a statistical characterization; QML currently includes four generally applicable aspects: *percentile*, *mean*, *variance*, and *frequency*. Aspects are used for characterizations of measured values over some time period.

The percentile aspect defines an upper or lower value for a percentile of the measured entities. The statement **percentile** *P* denotes the strongest *P* percent of the measurements or occurrences that have been observed.

```

type T = contract { // A contract type expression
  s1: decreasing set { e1, e2, e3, e4 }
      with order {e2<e1, e1<e3, e3<e4};
  e1: increasing enum { a1, a2, a3 }
      with order {a2<a1, a3<a2};
  n1: increasing numeric mb / sec;
};

T contract { // A contract expression of type T
  s1 <= { e1, e2 };
  e1 < a2;
  n1 < 23;
};

```

FIG. 7. Example contract type and contract expressions

The aspect “**percentile** 80 < 6” states that the 80th percentile of measurements for the dimensions must be less than 6. We allow a constraint for a dimension to contain more than one percentile aspect, as long as the same percentile P does not occur more than once.

QML also allows the specification of frequency constraints for individual values which is useful with enumerated types, and for ranges, which is useful with numeric dimensions. Rather than specifying specific numbers for the frequency, QML allows us to specify the relative percentage with which values in a certain range occur. The constraint “**frequency** $V > 20\%$ ” means that in more that 20% of the occurrences we should have the value V . The literal V can be a single value or if the dimension has an ordering, and only then, it may be a range. The constraint “**frequency** [1,3] > 35%” means that we expect 35% of the actual occurrences to be larger than 1 and less than or equal to 3.

Figure 8 shows some examples of aspects in contract expressions. The contract expression is preceded by the name of its corresponding contract type. For **s1** we define one constraint for the 20th percentile. The meaning of this is that the strongest 20% of the value must be less than the specified set value.

```

contractTypeName contract {
  s1 { percentile 20 < { e1, e2 } };
  e1 {
    frequency a1 <= 10 %;
    frequency a2 >= 80 %;
  };
  n1 {
    percentile 10 < 20;
    percentile 50 < 45;
    percentile 90 < 85;
    percentile 100 <= 120;
    mean >= 60;
    variance < 0.6;
  };
};

```

FIG. 8. Example contract expression

```

decl ::= conTypeDecl | conDecl
conTypeDecl ::= type y = conType
conDecl ::= xc = conExp
conExp ::= y contract
          | xc refined by
            {constraint1; ...; constraintk;}
conType ::= defined in Figure 5
contract ::= defined in Figure 6
constraint ::= defined in Figure 6

```

FIG. 9. Abstract syntax for definition of contracts and contract types

For **e1** we define the frequencies that we expect for various values. For the value **a1** we expect a frequency of less than or equal to 10%. For **a2** we expect a frequency greater than or equal to 80%, and so forth.

The constraint on **n1** defines bounds for values in different percentiles over the measurements of **n1**. In addition, we define an upper bound for the mean and the variance.

4.4 Definition of Contracts and Contract Types

The definition of a contract type binds a name to a contract type; the definition of a contract binds a name to the value of a contract expression. Figure 9 illustrates the abstract syntax to define contracts and contract types. In the abstract syntax, we use x_c as a generic name for contracts and y as a generic name for contract types.

We can define a contract B to be a refinement of another contract A using the construct “ $B = A$ refined by {...}” where A is the name of a previously defined contract. The contract that is enclosed by curly brackets ({...}) is a “delta” that describes the difference between the contracts A and B . We say that the delta *refines* A and that B is a *refinement* of A . The delta can specify QoS properties along dimensions for which specification was omitted in A . Furthermore, the delta can replace specifications in A with stronger specifications. The notion of “stronger than” is given by a conformance relation on constraints. We describe conformance in more detail in Section 4.8.

Figure 10 and Figure 11 illustrates how a named contract type (**Reliability**) can be define and how contracts of that type can be defined respectively. The contract type **Reliability** has the dimensions that we have identified within the QoS category of reliability described in section 3

The contract **systemReliability** is an instance of **Reliability**; it captures a system wide property, namely that operation invocation has “exactly once” (or transactional) semantics. The **systemReliability** only provides a guarantee about the invocation semantics, and does not provide any guarantees for the other dimensions specified in the **Reliability** contract type.

The contract **nameServerReliability** is defined as a refinement of another contract, namely the contract bound to the name **systemReliability**. In the example, we strengthen the **systemReliability** contract by providing a specification along the **serverFailure** dimension, which was left unspecified in the **systemReliability** contract.


```

type Reliability = contract {
  failureMasking: decreasing
  set {omission, lostResponse, noExecution,
      response, responseValue, stateTransition};
  serverFailure:
  enum {halt, initialState, rolledBack};
  operationSemantics: decreasing
  enum {atLeastOnce, atMostOnce, once} with
  order {once < atLeastOnce, once < atMostOnce};
  rebindingPolicy: decreasing
  enum {rebind, noRebind} with
  order {noRebind < rebind};
  dataPolicy: decreasing enum {valid, invalid}
  with order {valid < invalid};
  numOfFailure: decreasing numeric failures/year;
  MTR: decreasing numeric sec;
  MTF: increasing numeric day;
  reliability: increasing numeric;
  availability: increasing numeric;
};

```

FIG. 10. Example contract type definition

```

systemReliability = Reliability contract {
  operationSemantics == once;
};

nameServerReliability = systemReliability {
  serverFailure == rolledBack;
};

type Performance = contract {
  latency: decreasing numeric msec;
  throughput: increasing numeric kb/sec;
};

traderResponse = Performance contract {
  latency { percentile 90 < 50 msec };
};

```

FIG. 11. Example contract definitions

4.5 Profiles

According to our definition, a service specification contains an interface and a QoS profile. The interface describes the operations and attributes exported by a service; the profile describes the QoS properties of the service. A profile is defined relative to a specific interface, and it specifies QoS contracts for the attributes and operations described in the interface. We can define multiple profiles for the same interface, which is necessary since the same interface can for example have multiple implementations with different QoS properties.

Once defined, a profile can be used in two contexts: to specify client QoS requirements and to specify service QoS provisioning. Both contexts involve a *binding* be-

```

profile ::= profile {req1; ...; reqn;}
req ::= require contractList
      | from entityList require contractList
contractList ::= conExp1, ..., conExpn
entityList ::= entity1, ..., entityn
entity ::= opName
          | attrName
          | opName.parName
          | result of opName
opName ::= identifier
attrName ::= identifier
parName ::= identifier
conExp ::= defined in Figure 9

```

FIG. 12. Abstract syntax for profiles

tween a profile and some other entity. In the client context this other entity is the service reference used by the client; in the service context, the entity is a service implementation. We discuss bindings in Section 4.7. Here, we describe a syntax for profile values, and in Section 4.6 we describe a syntax for profile definition.

Figure 12 gives an abstract syntax for profiles. A profile is a list of requirements, where a requirement specifies one or more contracts for one or more interface entities, such as operations, attributes, or operation parameters. If a requirement is stated without an associated entity, the requirement is a *default requirement* that applies by default to all entities within the interface in question. Our intention is that the default contract is the strongest contract that applies to *all* entities within an interface. We can then explicitly specify a stronger contract for individual entities by using the refinement mechanism.

Contracts for individual entities are defined as follows: “**from** e **require** C .” Here e is an entity and C is a contract. We use C as a delta that refines the default contract of the enclosing profile. Using individual entity contracts as deltas for refinement means that we do not have to repeat the default QoS constraints as part of each individual contract.

```

declaration ::= conTypeDecl
              | conDecl
              | profileDecl
profileDecl ::= xp for intName = profileExp
profileExp  ::= profile
              | xp refined by {req1; ...; reqn;}
intName     ::= identifier
conTypeDecl ::= defined in Figure 9
conDecl     ::= defined in Figure 9
profile     ::= defined in Figure 12
req         ::= defined in Figure 12

```

FIG. 13. Abstract syntax for definition of profiles

Although a profile refers to specific operations and arguments within an interface, the final association between the profile and the interface is established in a profile definition. Such definitions are described in section 4.6.

For each contract type, such as reliability, that a profile involves, we may specify zero or one default contract. In addition, at most one contract of a given type can be explicitly associated with an interface entity.

If, for a given contract type T , there is no default contract and there is no explicit specification for a particular interface entity, the semantics is that no QoS properties within the category of T are associated with that entity.

4.6 Definition of Profiles

A profile definition associates a profile with an interface and gives the profile a name. A general requirement is that the interface entities referred to by the profile must exist in the related interface. The syntax for profile definition is given in Figure 13. The definition “ id for $intName = prof$ ” gives the name id to the profile which is the result of evaluating the profile expression $prof$ with respect to the interface $intName$. The profile name can be used to associate this particular profile with implementations of the $intName$ interface or with references to objects of type $intName$.

A profile expression ($profileExp$) can be a profile, or an identifier with a “ $\{ \dots \}$ ” clause. If the expression is a profile value, the definition binds a name to this value. If a profile expression contains an identifier and a “ $\{ \dots \}$ ” clause, the identifier must be the name of a profile, and the “ $\{ \dots \}$ ” clause then refines this profile. The definition gives a name to this refined profile.

If we have a profile expression “ A refined by $\{ \dots \}$,” then the delta must either add to the specifications in A or make the specifications in A stronger. The delta can add specifications by defining individual contracts for entities that do not have individual contracts in A . Moreover, the delta can specify a default contract if no default

contract is specified in A . The delta can strengthen A ’s specifications by giving individual contracts for entities that also have an individual contract in A . The individual contract in the delta are then used as a contract delta to refine the individual contract in A . Similarly, the delta can specify a contract delta that refines the default contract in A . We give a more detailed and formal description of profile refinement in [6].

To exemplify the notion of profile definition, consider the interface of a name server in Figure 14. The profile called `nameServerProfile` is a profile for the `NameServer` interface; it associates various contracts with the operations defined with the `NameServer` interface. The `nameServerProfile` associates the `nameServerReliability` contract (introduced in Figure 11) as the default contract, and it associates a refinement of the `nameServerReliability` contract with the `lookup` operation.

Notice that the contract for the `lookup` operation must refine the default contract (in this case, the default contract is `nameServerReliability`). Since the contract for operations must always refine the default contract, it is implicitly understood that the contract expression in an operation contract is in fact a refinement.

4.7 Bindings

There are many ways in which QoS profiles can be bound to specific services. They can be negotiated and associated with deals between clients and server, or they can be associated statically at design or deployment time. For the purpose of this paper we will provide an example binding mechanism that allows clients to statically bind profiles to references. In addition, we allow a server to state the profile of its implementation. These bindings could be used to ensure compatible characteristics for clients and servers as well as runtime monitoring. An abstract syntax for our notion of binding is illustrated in Figure 16.

Figure 17 illustrates our notion of binding. In the first example the client declares a reference called `myNameServer` as a reference to a name server. The client’s QoS requirements are expressed by means of the profile called `nameServerProfile`. In the second example, the implementation called `myNameServerImp` is declared to implement the service specification that consists of the interface called `NameServer` and the profile called `nameServerProfile`.

The binding mechanism need not be a part of QML but has been included here for clarity. Bindings are more closely related to interface specification, design and implementation languages. As an example we will propose a binding mechanism for UML in section 5.

```

interface NameServer {
    void init();
    void register(in string name, in object ref);
    object lookup(in string name);
}

nameServerProfile for NameServer = profile {
    require nameServerReliability;
    from lookup require Reliability contract {
        rebindPolicy == noRebind;
    };
}

```

FIG. 14. The interface of a name server

4.8 Conformance

We define a conformance relation on profiles, contracts, and constraints. A stronger specification conforms to a weaker specification. We need conformance at runtime so that client-server connections do not have to be based on exact match of QoS requirements with QoS properties. Instead of exact match, we want to allow a service to provide more than what is required by a client. Thus, we want service specifications to conform to client specifications rather than match them exactly.

Profile conformance is defined in terms of contract conformance. Essentially, a profile P conforms to another profile Q if the contracts in P associated with an entity e conform to the contracts associated with e in the profile Q .

Contract conformance is in turn defined in terms of conformance for constraints. Constraint conformance defines when one constraint in a contract can be considered stronger, or as strong as, another constraint for the same dimension in another contract of the same contract type.

To determine constraint conformance for set dimensions, we need to determine whether one subset conforms to another subset. Conformance between two subsets depends on their ordering. In some cases, a subset represents a stronger commitment than its supersets. As an example, let us consider the failure-masking dimension. If a value of a failure-masking dimension defines the failures exposed by a server, a subset is a stronger commitment than its supersets (the fewer failure types exposed, the better). If, on the other hand, we consider a payment protocol dimension for which sets represent payment protocols supported by a server, a superset is obviously a stronger commitment than any of its subsets (the more protocols supported, the better). Thus,

```

binding      ::= clientBinding
              | serviceBinding
clientBinding ::= refDecl with profileExp
serviceBinding ::= serviceDecl with profileExp
refDecl      ::= identifier : intName
serviceDecl  ::= identifier implements intName

```

FIG. 16. Abstract syntax for bindings

```

//Client side binding
myNameServer: NameServer with nameServerProfile;

//Implementation binding
myNameServerImp implements NameServer
with nameServerProfile;

```

FIG. 17. Example bindings

to be able to compare contracts of the same type the dimension declarations need to define whether subsets or supersets are stronger.

A similar discussion applies to the numeric domain. Sometimes, larger numeric values are considered conceptually stronger than smaller. As an example, think of throughput. For dimensions such as latency, smaller numbers represent stronger commitments than larger numbers.

In general, we need to specify whether smaller domain elements are stronger than or weaker than larger domain elements. The **decreasing** declaration implies that smaller elements are stronger than larger elements. The **increasing** declaration means that larger elements are stronger than smaller elements. If a dimension is declared as decreasing, we map “stronger than” to “less than” ($<$). Thus, a value is stronger than another value, if it is smaller. An increasing dimension maps “stronger than” to “greater than” ($>$). The semantics will be that larger values are, considered stronger.

We want conformance to correspond to constraint satisfaction. For example, we want the constraint $d < 10$ to conform to the constraint $d < 20$. But $d < 10$ only conforms to $d < 20$ if the domain is decreasing (smaller values are stronger). To achieve the property that conformance corresponds to constraint satisfaction, we allow only the operators $\{=, <, <=\}$ for decreasing domains, and we allow only the operators $\{=, >=, >\}$ for increasing domains. Thus, if we have an increasing domain, the constraint $d < 20$ would be illegal.

If a profile Q is a refinement of another profile P , Q will also conform to P . Refinement is a static operation that gives a convenient way to write QoS specifications in an incremental manner. Conformance is a dynamic operation that, at runtime, can determine whether one specification is stronger than another specification. For more details on conformance we refer to [6].

5. An Extension of the Unified Modeling Language

In order to make QoS considerations an integral part of the design process, design notations must provide the appropriate language concepts. We have already presented a textual syntax to define QoS properties. Here, we extend UML [2] to support the definition of QoS properties. Later, we will use CORBA IDL [17] and our extension of UML [2] to describe an example design that includes QoS specifications.

In UML, *classes* are represented by rectangles. In addition, UML has a *type* concept that is used to describe abstractions without providing an implementation. Types are drawn as classes with a type stereotype annotation added to it. In UML, classes may implement types. The UML *interface* concept is a specialized usage of types. Interfaces can be drawn as small circles

that can be connected to class symbols. A class can use or provide a service specified by an interface. The example below shows a client using (dotted arrow) a service specified by an interface called *I*. We also show a class `Implementation` implementing the *I* interface but in this example the interface circle has been expanded to a class symbol with the *type* annotation.

Our extension to UML allows QoS profiles to be associated with *uses* and *implements* relationships between classes and interfaces. A reference to a profile is drawn as a rectangle with a dotted border within which the profile name is written. This profile box is then associated with a uses or implements relationship.

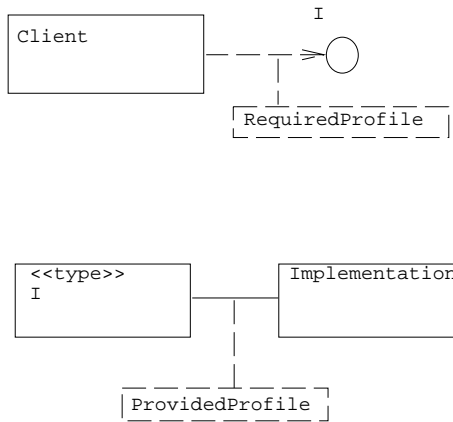


FIG. 15. UML extensions

In example 15, the client requires a server that implements the interface *I* and satisfies the QoS requirements stated in the associated `RequiredProfile`. The `Implementation` on the other hand promises to implement interface *I* with the QoS properties defined by the `ProvidedProfile` profile. The profiles are defined textually using our QoS specification language.

Our UML extension allows object-oriented design to be annotated with profile names that refer to separately defined QoS profiles. Notice that our UML extension associates profiles with specific implementations and usages of interfaces. This allows different clients of the same interface to require different QoS properties, and it allows different implementations of the same interface to provide different QoS properties.

6. Example

To illustrate QML and demonstrate its utility, we use it to specify the QoS properties of an example system. The example shows how QML can help designers decompose application level QoS requirements into QoS properties for application components. The example also

demonstrates that different QoS trade-offs can give rise to different designs.

This example is a simplified version of a system for executing telephony services, such as telephone banking, ordering, etc. The purpose of having such an execution system is to allow rapid development and installation of new telephony services. The system must be scalable in order to be useful both in small businesses and for servicing several hundred simultaneous calls. More importantly—especially from the perspective of this paper—the system needs to provide services with sufficient availability.

Executing a service typically involves playing messages for the caller, reacting to key strokes, recording responses, retrieving and updating databases, etc. It should be possible to dynamically install new telephone services and upgrade them at runtime without shutting down the system. The system answers incoming telephone calls and selects a service based on the phone number that was called. The executed service may, for example, play messages for the caller and react to events from the caller or events from resources allocated to handle the call.

Telephone users generally expect plain old telephony to be reliable, and they commonly have the same expectations for telephony services. A telephony service that is unavailable will have a severe impact on customer satisfaction, in addition, the service company will lose business. Consequently, the system needs to be highly available.

Following the categorization by Gray et al. [7], we want the telephony service to be a *highly-available* system which means it should have a total maximum downtime of 5 minutes per year. The availability measure will then be 0.99999. We assume the system is built on a general purpose computer platform with specialized computer telephony hardware. The system is built using a CORBA [17] Object Request Broker (ORB) to achieve scalability and reliability through distribution.

6.1 System Architecture

We call the service execution system module `PhoneServiceSystem`. As illustrated by Figure 18, it uses an `EventSystem` module and a `TraderService` module.

Opening up the `PhoneServiceSystem` module in Figure 19, we see its main classes and interfaces. Classes are drawn as rectangles and interfaces as circles. Classes implement and use interfaces. As an example, the diagram shows that `ServiceExecutor` implements `ServiceI` and uses `TraderI`. In the diagram we have included references to QML profiles—such as `PlayerProfile_P`—of which a subset will be described in section 6.2. To ease the reading of the diagram we have named *required* and

provided profiles so that they end with the letters *R* and *P* respectively. We have omitted to draw some interrelationships for the purpose of keeping the diagram simple.

`CallHandlerI`, `ServiceI`, and `ResourceI` are three important interfaces of the system. The model also shows that the system uses interfaces provided by the `EventService` and `TraderService`.

When a call is made, the `CallHandlerImpl` receives the incoming call through the `CallHandlerI` interface and invokes the `ServiceExecutor` through the `ServiceI` interface. `CallHandlerImpl` receives the telephone number as an argument and maps that to a service identity. When `CallHandlerImpl` calls the `ServiceExecutor` it supplies the service identifier as an argument and a `CallHandle`. The `CallHandle` contains information about the call—such as the speech channel—that is needed during the execution of the service. A new instance of `CallHandle` is created and initialized by the `CallHandler` when an incoming call is received. The information in the `CallHandle` remains unchanged for the remainder of the call.

In order to execute a service, the `ServiceExecutor` retrieves the service description associated with the received service identifier. It also needs to allocate resources such as databases, players, recorders, etc. To obtain resources, the `ServiceExecutor` calls the `Trader`. Each resource offer its services when it is initially started by contacting the trader and registering its offer. To reduce complexity of the diagram we omit showing that resources use the trader.

`ServiceExecutor` uses the `PushSupplier` and implements the `PushConsumer` interface in the `EventService` module. Resources connect to the event service by using the `PushConsumer` interfaces. The communication between the service executor and its resources is asynchronous. When the service executor needs a resource to perform an operation, it invokes the resource which returns immediately. The service executor will then continue executing the service or stop to wait for events. When the resource has finished its operation, it notifies the service executor by sending an event through the event service. This communication model allows the

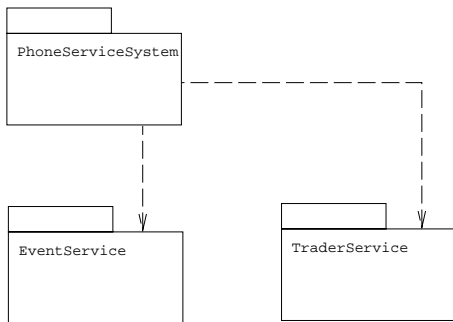


FIG. 18. High-level architecture

service executor to listen for events from many sources at the same time, which is essential if, for example, the service executor simultaneously initiates the playing of menu alternatives and waits for responses from the caller.

Figure 19 also includes references to QoS profiles. In new designs, clients and services are usually designed to match each others needs therefore the same profile often specifies both what clients expect and what services provide. When clients and services refer to the same profiles, it becomes trivial to ensure that the requirements by a client are satisfied by the service. To point out an example, `CallHandlerImpl` requires that the `ServiceI` interface is implemented with the QoS properties defined by `SEProfile_P` and at the same time `ServiceExecutor` provides `ServiceI` according to the same QoS profile.

In other cases, such as the `Trader`, are expected to preexist and therefore have previously specified QoS properties. In those situations we have one contract specifying the required properties and another contract specifying what is provided. Consequently we need to make sure the provided characteristics satisfy the required; this is referred to as *conformance* and is discussed in section 4.8.

We will now present simplified versions of three main interfaces in the design. The `ServiceI` interface provides an operation, called `execute`, to start the execution of a service. The service identifier is obtained from a table that maps phone numbers to services. The `CallHandle` argument contain channel identifiers and other data necessary to execute the service.

The `Trader` allows resources to offer and withdraw their services. Service executors can invoke the `find` or `findAll` operations on the `Trader` to locate the resources they need. Using a trader allows us to decouple `ServiceExecutors` and resources. This decoupling make it possible to smoothly introduce new resources and remove malfunctioning or deprecated resources. Observe that this is a much simplified trader for the purpose of this paper.

Finally, we have the `PlayerI` that represents a simple player resource. Players allow us to play a sequence of messages on the connection associated with the supplied `CallHandle`. The idea is that a complete message can be built up by a sequence of smaller phrases. The interface allows the service executor to interrupt the playing of messages by calling `stop`.

6.2 Reliability

We have already shown in Figure 19 how profiles are associated with *uses* and *implements* relationships between interfaces and classes. We will now in more depth discuss what the QoS profiles and contracts should be for this particular design. For the contracts we will use the dimensions proposed in section 3. We will not

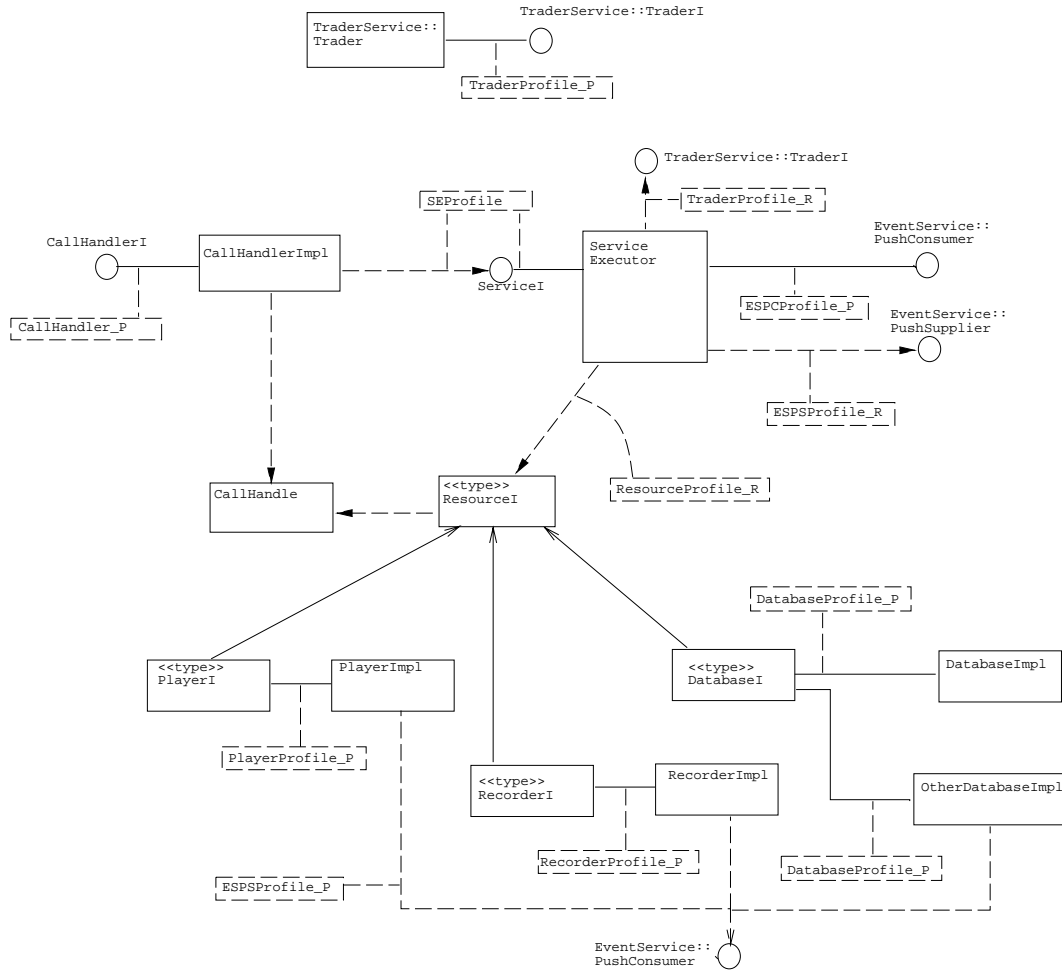


FIG. 19. Class diagram for PhoneServiceSystem

present any development process with which you identify important profiles and their content.

To meet end-to-end reliability requirements, the underlying communications infrastructure, as well as the execution system, must meet reliability expectations. We assume that the communications infrastructure is reliable, and focus on the reliability of the service execution system.

From a telephone user's perspective, the interface CallHandlerI represents the peer on the other side of the line. Thus, to provide high-availability to tele-

phone users, the CallHandlerI service must be highly-available.

To provide a highly-available telephone service, we require that the CallhandlerImpl has very short recovery time and long time between failures. Due to the expected shopping behavior of telephone service users we must require the repair time (MTTR) to not significantly exceed 2 minutes and that the variance is small.

The CallHandler does not provide any sophisticated failure masking, but it has a special kind of object reference that does not require rebinding after a failure. We

```

interface ServiceI {
    void execute(in ServiceId si, in CallHandle ch)
        raises (InvalidSI);
    boolean probe() raises (ProbeFailed);
};

```

FIG. 20. The ServiceI interface

```

interface TraderI {
    OfferId offer(in OfferRec or, in Object obj)
        raises (invalidOffer);
    Match find(in Criteria cr) raises (noMatch);
    MatchSeq findAll(in Criteria cr) raises (noMatch);
    void withdraw(in OfferId o) raises (noMatch);
};

```

FIG. 21. The TraderI interface

```

CallServerReliability = Reliability contract {
  MTTR {
    percentile 100 <= 2;
    variance <= 0.3
  };
  TTF {
    percentile 100 > 0.05 days;
    percentile 80 > 100 days;
    mean >= 140 days;
  };
  availability >= 0.99999;
  contAvailability >= 0.99999;
  failureMasking == { omission };
  serverFailure == initialState;
  rebindPolicy == noRebind;
  numOfFailure <= 2 failures/year;
  operationSemantics == atMostOnce;
};

CallHandlerProfile_P for CallHandlerI = profile {
  require CallServerReliability;
}

```

FIG. 22. Contract and binding for CallHandler

are prepared to accept on average 2 failures per year. If the service fails, any executing and pending requests are discontinued and removed. This means we have a **at most once** operation semantics. The contract and profile of `CallHandlerI` as provided by `CallHandlerImpl` is described in Figure 22.

From Figure 19 we can see that the reliability of `CallHandlerI` directly depends on the reliability of service defined by `ServiceI`. `ServiceExecutor` can not provide any services without resources. Unless `ServiceExecutor` can handle failing traders and resources the reliability depends directly on the reliability of `TraderI` and any resources it uses. In this example we want to keep the `ServiceExecutor` as small and simple as possible, therefore we propagate high-availability requirements from `CallHandlerI` to the trader and the resources. This is certainly a major design decision which will affect the design and implementation of the other components of the system.

We expect the `ServiceExecutor` to have a short recovery time since it holds no information that we wish to recover. If it fails, the service interactions it currently

```

interface PlayerI : ResourceI {
  void play(in CallHandle ch, in MsgSeq ms)
    raises (InvalidMsg);
  void stop(in CallHandle ch);
};

```

FIG. 23. The PlayerI interface

executes will be discontinued. We assume that users consider it more annoying if a session is interrupted due to a failure than if they are unable to connect to the service. We therefore require the `ServiceExecutor` to be reliable in the sense that it should function adequately over the duration of a typical service call. Calls are estimated to last 3 minutes on average with 80% of the calls less than 5 minutes. With this in mind, we will require that the service executor provides high continuous availability with a time period of 5 minutes.

Since the recovery time is short, we can allow more frequent failures without compromising the availability requirements.

The `ServiceExecutor` recovers to a well defined initial state and will forget about all executions that where going on at the time of the failure. The contract states that rebinding is necessary, which means that when the service executor is restarted, the `CallHandler` receives a notification that it can obtain a reference to the `ServiceExecutor` by rebinding. Pending requests are executed at most once in case of a failure; most likely they are not executed at all which is considered acceptable for this system. The contract and profile used for `ServiceI` are described in Figure 24.

Although the `ServiceExecutor` itself can recover rapidly, it still depends on the `Trader` and the resources.

We expect the `Trader` to have a relatively short recovery time, which relaxes the mean time to failure requirements slightly. We insist that all types of telephony

```

ServiceExecutorReliability = Reliability contract
{
  MTTR < 20 sec;
  TTF {
    percentile 100 > 0.05 days;
    percentile 80 > 20 days;
    mean > 24 days;
  }
  availability >= 0.99999;
  contAvailability > 0.999999 ;
  failureMasking == { omission };
  serverFailure == initialState;
  rebindPolicy == rebind;
  numOfFailure <= 10 failures/year;
  operationSemantics == atMostOnce;
};

SEProfile for ServiceI = profile {
  require ServiceExecutorReliability;
  require Reliability contract
    { dataPolicy == invalid; };
};

```

FIG. 24. Contract and binding for service

services can be executed when the system is up, which means that all resources must be available and consequently satisfy the high-availability requirements.

The reliability contract for the `Trader` (Figure 26) is based on a general contract (`HAServiceReliability`) for highly-available services. The contract is abstract in the sense that it only states the availability requirements and leaves several of the other dimensions unspecified. The `Trader` profile refines it by stating that the recovery time should be short.

In addition, we state that offer identifiers and object references returned by the trader are valid even after a failure. This means that an offer identifier returned before a failure can be used to withdraw an offer after the `Trader` has recovered. Also, any references returned by the `Trader` are valid during the `Trader`'s down period as well as after it has recovered, assuming, of course, that the services referred to by the references have not failed.

The start-up time for a service execution is very important; the time between a call is answered and the service starts executing must be short and definitely not more than one second. A start-up time that exceeds one second can make users believe there is a problem with the connection and therefore hang-up the phone,

the consequence being both an unsatisfied customer and a lost business opportunity.

Having analyzed and estimated the execution times in the start-up execution path, we require that the `find` and `findAll` operations on the `Trader` respond quickly. We do not anticipate the throughput to constitute a bottleneck in this case.

We can relax the performance requirements for the `offer` and `withdraw` operations on the `Trader`. The reason being that these operations are not time critical from the service execution point of view. We specify the performance in Figure 26 as part of the `TraderProfile_P` profile.

The performance profile makes it clear that the implementation of `TraderI` should give invocations of `find` and `findAll` higher priority than invocations of `offer` and `withdraw`.

A resource service represents a pool of hardware and software resources that are expected to be highly-available. If a resource service is down, it is likely that there are major hardware or software problems that will take a long time to repair. Since failing resource services are expected to have long recovery times, they need to have, in principle, infinite MTTF to satisfy high availabil-

```
ResourceReliability = Reliability contract {
  availability >= 0.99999;
  failureMasking == { failure };
  serverFailure == initialState;
  rebindPolicy == rebind;
};

PlayerReliability =
  ResourceReliability refined by {
    MTR = 7200 sec;
    TTF {
      percentile 100 > 2000 days;
      percentile 80 > 6000 days;
      mean >= 7000 days;
    };

    availability >= 0.99999;
    contAvailability >= 0.999999;
    failureMasking == failure;
    serverFailure == initialState;
    rebindPolicy == rebind;
    numOffFailure <= 0.1 failures/year;
    operationSemantics == least_once;
    dataPolicy == no_guarantees;
  };

PlayerProfile_P for PlayerI = profile {
  require PlayerReliability;
};
```

FIG. 25. Contract and binding for resources

```
HAServiceReliability = Reliability contract {
  availability >= 0.99999;
  failureMasking == { omission };
  serverFailure == initialState;
  rebindPolicy == rebind;
  numOffFailure <= 10 failures/year;
  operationSemantics == once;
};

TraderProfile_P for TraderI = profile {
  require HAServiceReliability refined by {
    MTR {
      percentile 100 < 60 ;
      variance <= 0.1;
    }
  };

  from offer.OfferId, result of find, findAll
  require Reliability contract
  { dataPolicy == valid; };

  from find, findAll require Performance
  contract { latency { percentile 90 < 50 }; };

  from offer, withdraw require Performance
  contract { latency { percentile 80 < 2000 }; };
};
```

FIG. 26. Contract and binding for the Trader

ity requirements. This does not mean that individual resource cannot fail, but it does mean that there must be sufficient redundancy to mask failures.

In Figure 25 we define a general contract, called `ResourceReliability`, for `ResourceI`. The contract captures that resources need to be highly available. Each specific resource type—such as `PlayerReliability`—will then refine this general contract to specify its individual QoS properties.

6.3 Discussion

The specification of reliability and performance contracts, and the analysis of inter-component QoS dependencies, have given us many insights and important guidance. As an example, it has helped us realize that the `Trader` needs to support fast fail-over and use a reliable storage. We also found that the reliability of resources is essential, and that, in this example system, resource services should be responsible for their own reliability. The explicit specification also allows us to assign well-defined values to various dimension which make design goals and requirements more clear.

QML allows detailed descriptions of the QoS associated with operations, attributes, and operation parameters of interfaces. This level of detail is essential to clearly specify and divide the responsibilities among client and service implementations. The refinement mechanism is also essential. Refinement allows us to form hierarchies of contracts and profiles, which allows us to capture QoS requirements at various levels of abstraction.

Due to the limited space of this paper, we have not been able to include a full analysis or specification of the example system. In a real design, we also need to study what happens when various components fail, estimate the frequency of failures due to programming errors, etc. We also need to ensure that the QoS contracts provided by components actually allows the clients to satisfy requirements imposed on them. There are various modeling techniques available that are applicable to selected types of systems; see Reibman et al. [14] for an overview.

In our case, high availability requirements for `CallHandler` have resulted in strong demands on other services in the application. Another design alternative would be to demand that components such as the `ServiceExecutor` can handle failing resources and switch to other resources when needed. This would require more from the `ServiceExecutor`, but allow resource services to be less reliable.

Despite the limitations of our example, we believe that it demonstrates three important points: QoS should be considered during the design of distributed systems; QoS

requires appropriate language support; QML is useful as a QoS specification language.

Firstly, we want to stress that considering QoS during design is both useful and necessary. It will directly impact the design and make developers aware of non-functional requirements.

Secondly, QoS cannot be effectively considered without appropriate language support. We need a language that helps designer capture QoS requirements and associate these with interfaces at a detailed level. We also need to make QoS requirements and offers first class citizens from a design language point of view.

Finally, we believe the example shows that QML is suitable to support designers in involving QoS considerations in the design phase.

7. Related Work

Common object-oriented analysis and design languages, such as UML [2], Objectory [13], Booch notation [1], and OMT [11], generally lack concepts and constructs for QoS specification. In some cases, they have limited support to deal with temporal aspects or call semantics [1].

Interface definition languages, such as OMG IDL [17], specify functional properties and lack any notion of QoS. TINA ODL [19] allows the programmer to associate QoS requirements with streams and operations. A major difference between TINA ODL and our approach is that they syntactically include QoS requirements within interface definitions. Thus, in TINA ODL, one cannot associate different QoS properties with different implementations of the same functional interface. Moreover, TINA ODL does not support refinement of QoS specifications, which is an essential concept in an object-oriented setting.

There are a number of languages that support QoS specification within a single QoS category. The SDL language [22] has been extended to include specification of temporal aspects. The RTSSynchronizer programming construct allows modular specification of real-time properties [15]. These languages are all tied to one particular QoS category. In contrast, QML is general purpose; QoS categories are user-defined types in QML, and can be used to specify QoS properties within arbitrary categories.

Zinky et al. [20, 21] present a general framework, called QuO, to implement QoS-enabled distributed object systems. The notion of a *connection* between a client and a server is a fundamental concept in their framework. A connection is essentially a QoS-aware communication channel; the expected and measured QoS behaviors of a connection are characterized through a number of *QoS regions*. A region is a predicate over measurable connection quantities, such as latency and throughput. When a connection is established, the client and server agree

upon a specific region; this region captures the expected QoS behavior of the connection. After connection establishment, the actual QoS level is continuously monitored, and if the measured QoS level is no longer within the expected region, the client is notified through an up-call. The client and server can then adapt to the current environment and re-negotiate a new expected region.

QuO does not provide anything corresponding to refinement, conformance, or fine-grained characterizations provided by QML.

Within the Object Management Group (OMG) there is an ongoing effort to specify what is required to extend CORBA [17] to support QoS-enabled applications. The current status of the OMG QoS effort is described in [18], which presents a set of questions on QoS specification and interfaces. We believe that our approach provides an effective answer to some of these questions.

8. Discussion

Developing a QoS specification language is only the first step towards supporting QoS considerations in general and, as this paper suggest, as an integral part of the design process. We need methods that address the process aspects of designing with QoS in mind. For example, we need methods that help the designer make QoS-based trade-offs, and methods that help the designer decompose the application-level QoS requirements into QoS properties for individual components. In addition to methods, we also need tools that can check consistency and satisfaction of QoS specifications. For example, it would be desirable, to have a tool that can check whether a running service meets its QoS specification. Although a specification language is not a complete solution, we still believe it is an important step.

Specifying QoS properties at design time is only the starting point; eventually we need to implement the design and ensure that the QoS requirements are satisfied in the implementation. An important issue that must be addressed in the implementation, is what action to take at runtime if the QoS requirements cannot be satisfied in the current execution environment, for example, what should happen if the actual response time is higher than the stated response time requirement. In most applications, it is not acceptable for a service to stop executing because its QoS requirements cannot be satisfied. Instead, one would expect the service to adapt to its environment through graceful degradation.

For a service to adapt to its environment, it must be notified about divergence from specified requirements, and it must be able to dynamically specify relaxed requirements to the infrastructure, and to the services it depends upon, to communicate how it can gracefully degrade and thereby adapt to the current execution environment. We believe that our concepts of profile and contract can be used to specify QoS requirements at run-

time as well as at design time. To facilitate runtime specification, we need profiles and contracts to be first class values in the implementation language. To achieve this, we can define a mapping from QML into the implementation language; for example, if the implementation language is C++, one could map contract types into classes and contracts into objects instantiated from those classes. The important thing to notice is that the *concepts* remain the same.

9. Concluding Remarks

In this paper we argue that taking QoS into account during the design of distributed object systems significantly influences design and implementation decisions. Late consideration of QoS aspects will often lead to increased development and maintenance costs as well as systems that fail to meet user expectations.

We have proposed a language, called QML, that will allow developers to explicitly deal with QoS as they specify interfaces. In this paper we show how QML can be used for QoS specification in class model and interface designs of distributed object systems. QML allows QoS specifications to be separated from interfaces but associated with uses and implementations of services. We propose a refinement mechanism that allows reuse and customization of QoS contracts. This refinement mechanism also allows us to deal with the interaction between QoS specification and interface inheritance; thus we truly support object-oriented design. We have also described how we can determine whether one specification satisfies and other with conformance checking. Finally, QML allows QoS specification at a fine-grained level—operation arguments and return values—that we believe is necessary in many applications and for many QoS dimensions.

Although this paper focused on the usage of QML in the context of software design, we intend to use it for the management of QoS in general. As an example, based on defined contracts and profiles, we intend to emit programming language definitions that can be used to construct concrete QoS parameters. Such parameters are used to offer and require QoS characteristics at the application programming interface level.

Our experience suggests that the concepts and language proposed in this paper will provide a sound foundation for future QoS specification languages and integration of such languages with general object-oriented specification and design languages.

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