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QoSOnt: an Ontology for QoS in Service-Centric Systems

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Abstract
This paper presents QoSOnt: an ontology for Quality of Service (QoS). Particular focus is given to its application in the field of service-centric systems. QoSOnt aims to promote consensus on QoS concepts, by providing a model which is generic enough for reuse across domains. This shared conceptualisation facilitates intercommunication regarding QoS in a heterogeneous environment. Its realisation as an ontology allows automated reasoning about the concepts modelled. SQRM (Service QoS Requirements Matcher), an application making use of QoSOnt, is also discussed to demonstrate these advantages.

1. Introduction
The service-centric systems used in e-Science often involve computationally intensive, long running operations. Before making use of a particular service, there is therefore a need to be able to ascertain information about service characteristics such as dependability and performance. In this paper the term Quality of Service (QoS) will be used to denote all non-functional aspects of a service which may be used by clients to judge service quality. Dependability and performance are therefore considered part of QoS.

The ways in which a client uses uses a service's QoS information may differ. It may be used to predict execution time, cost, and to suggest appropriate levels of fault tolerance to employ. Where multiple service implementations are available it may also be used to select between them.

For such purposes the QoS data must be trusted by the client. Its provenance is therefore of utmost importance. In this paper, we assume that we have some trusted source of data, although we accept that achieving this is a non-trivial problem to which there is currently no complete solution.

In order for QoS data to be made available, a machine understandable QoS vocabulary is required. The kind of documents which would make use of the vocabulary would include Service Level Agreements, provider QoS advertisements and client-side QoS requirements. Representing these in a consistent and interoperable manner would prove useful in implementing design-time tools, QoS middleware, and in dynamic QoS-based service selection.

This paper describes an ontology which provides the basis for such a shared vocabulary, whilst also enabling a degree of machine “understanding” of the concepts represented. The ontology is realised using the OWL web ontology language and is symbiotic with OWL-S - an existing ontology for service description. It is therefore ideally suited for QoS applications in service-centric systems and particularly those using semantic web services.

The paper is structured as follows: Section 2 explains the concept of an ontology and some related technologies; Section 3 details the structure of QoSOnt itself; Section 4 explains the limitations of OWL for representing QoS requirements; Section 5 describes a requirements matching tool which makes use of QoSOnt; Section 6 compares QoSOnt to related work in the field; Section 7 evaluates QoSOnt; Section 8 suggests future work; and finally Section 8 draws conclusions on the work.

2. Background

2.1. Ontologies in Software Engineering
In software engineering, an ontology can be defined as “a specification of a conceptualization” [1]. More precisely, an ontology is an explicit formal specification of how to represent the objects, concepts, and other entities that exist in some area of interest and the relationships that hold among them. In general, in order to be useful, an ontology must represent a shared, agreed upon conceptualisation.
The use of ontologies in computing has gained popularity in recent years for two main reasons:

1. They facilitate interoperability.
2. They facilitate machine reasoning.

In its simplest form an ontology is simply a taxonomy of domain terms. However, taxonomies by themselves are of little use in machine reasoning. The term ontology also implies the modeling of domain rules. It is these rules which provide an extra level of machine “understanding”.

Ontologies are already used to aid research in a number of fields. One example is the National Cancer Institute Thesaurus [2], which contains over 500,000 nodes encoded in the OWL language, covering the deep semantic relationships between disease diagnosis, genetic information, treatment and anatomy, used for cancer research.

The constructs used to create ontologies vary between ontology languages. One class of ontology languages is those which are based upon description logics [3]. OWL is one such language. This language is discussed in the following section as a concrete example of how an ontology may be created.

2.2. OWL

OWL [4] is the Web Ontology Language - an XML-based language for publishing and sharing ontologies via the web. There are three ‘species’ of OWL – but the most useful for reasoning - OWL-DL - corresponds to a description logic.

An OWL ontology consists of Classes and their Properties. The Class definition specifies the conditions for individuals to be members of a Class. A Class can therefore be viewed as a set. The set membership conditions are usually expressed as restrictions on the Properties of a Class. For instance the allValuesFrom and someValuesFrom property restrictions commonly occur in Class definitions. These correspond to the universal quantifier (\(\forall\)) and existential qualifier (\(\exists\)) of predicate logic. More precisely, in OWL such restrictions form anonymous Classes of all individuals matching the corresponding predicate.

Classes may be constructed from other Classes using the intersectionOf, unionOf and complementOf constructs which correspond to their namesakes from set theory. Another way to define a Class is to specify all individuals of which it consists explicitly using the oneOf construct.

A key feature of OWL and other description logics is that classification (and subsumption relationships) can be automatically computed by a reasoner. An open world assumption is made. This means that no assumptions are made about anything which is not asserted explicitly. One outcome of this is that a Class definition does not act as a template for individuals as it might in a closed world. For instance, an individual may have extra Properties about which nothing is asserted in its Class definition. An individual may also be a member of many Classes.

Because classifications can be inferred, the creator of an individual does not need to be aware of all possible Classes into which the individual may fall at the time of creation. Instead, all Classes of which it is a member can be inferred by a reasoner.

The following snippet from our ontology gives a flavour of OWL. It defines a Class MeasurableAttribute, stating that it is exactly equivalent to the QoSAttribute Class intersected with the set of all individuals which have a Property “hasMetric”, with at least one value which is a “Metric”; intersected with the set of all individuals which have a property “hasMetric” with only values which are “Metrics”. Finally it states that the class MeasurableAttribute and UnmeasurableAttribute are disjoint.

```xml
<owl:Class rdf:about="#MeasurableAttribute">
  <owl:equivalentClass>
    <owl:Class>
      <owl:intersectionOf rdf:parseType="Collection">
        <owl:Restriction>
          <owl:allValuesFrom rdf:resource="#QoSAttribute"/>
        </owl:Restriction>
        <owl:onProperty>
          <owl:sommeValuesFrom rdf:resource="#Metric"/>
        </owl:onProperty>
        <owl:InverseFunctionalProperty rdf:ID="hasMetric"/>
      </owl:intersectionOf>
    </owl:Class>
  </owl:equivalentClass>
  <owl:disjointWith>
    <owl:Class rdf:ID="UnmeasurableAttribute"/>
  </owl:disjointWith>
</owl:Class>
```

Clearly this is not particularly human-readable, especially because the Classes and Properties referenced (Metric, hasMetric, UnmeasurableAttribute) could be defined anywhere in the file. Editing OWL manually can be difficult for the
same reason. We used Protégé [5] and its OWL plug-in in our ontology development.

2.2. OWL-S

OWL-S [5] is an OWL ontology for describing web services. Along with OWL and RDF it is a core “semantic web” technology. The semantic web is a movement to make the semantics of web-content accessible to machines. It has been summarised by its originators as "an extension of the current web in which information is given well-defined meaning, better enabling computers and people to work in cooperation" [6].

The OWL-S ontology is structured around the class Service, which consists of one or more “profiles”, “groundings” and a single “model”. The profile describes what a service requires and provides. The model is a functional model (i.e. it describe how the service works), whilst the grounding describes how to actually use a service (most commonly linking between the OWL-S and WSDL description).

The “profile” is the class of relevance to QoS. It is here that a service’s non-functional parameters can be defined. QoSOnT is best used as an extension to OWL-S by the service provider, since OWL-S provides the ability to describe the non-QoS aspects of services. This also unifies the service specification so that it is accessible through a single point.

3. Structure of QoSOnT

The QoSOnT ontology is modular in nature in that it is structured as a set of interconnected smaller ontologies. Figure 1 summarises some of these ontologies and some of the Classes they contain. This is just a small subset of QoSOnT to give an impression of how it is used. We concentrate mainly on how to use the Class Metric. We use the term attribute to refer to a general QoS property (e.g. dependability, reliability, performance) and metric to refer to a specific way of measuring an attribute.

Metric, Attribute and other basic QoS concepts are defined in the base ontology. Concepts specific to some attribute can then be built into separate ontologies on top of the base concepts. We currently have a relatively complete ontology of dependability concepts based upon [7]. We choose not to define specific metrics here as we do not wish to tie the generic concepts of dependability to specific ways of measuring dependability. We therefore have a separate ontology of actual metrics. We also have a less complete performance ontology, which plays an analogous role to the dependability ontology shown in Figure 1.

One reason for creating an ontology for a particular attribute is to allow the concepts that metrics of that attribute refer to to be defined. For instance, the concept "failure" comes in useful in order to define probability of failure on demand (POFOD) and allows POFOD to be defined for specific types of failure rather than just referring to all failures.

A further lightweight ontology ties the generic concepts of the base ontology to web services in particular. This is done by defining relationships between QoSOnT and OWL-S. This basically allows Metrics and Attributes to refer to the OWL-S Service Class and subclasses of QoSOnT's Metric Class to be used as OWL-S ServiceParameters.

3.1. Metrics in QoSOnT

A Metric represents one way of measuring a specific QoSAttribute. It must result in a numerical value and must be calculable in practice as well as theory. For instance, a statement that a service has transactional throughput of 1000 transactions per second can be falsified by a single party (be they a client, provider or monitoring service) but cannot generally be measured by a client or third party as there have no access to the traffic statistics for the service.

The Class MeasurableAttribute shown in Figure 1 is a QoSAttribute having one or more associated Metrics. Instead of instantiating this Class directly, the user of QoSOnT could create an individual QoSAttribute directly and have a reasoner infer the more specific subclass. This distinction between asserted and implied classifications applies throughout QoSOnT. It is usually the case that one should choose the most specific Class available in order to avoid unexpected inferences arising from the lack of asserted facts.

A Metric is defined to consist of a description, an acceptability direction and zero or more values. The acceptability direction indicates whether higher or lower values are preferable for the Metric (e.g. A low probability of failure on demand is more desirable). It must be remembered that these Classes can be extended or constrained by their subclasses, so being over-specific at this base level is undesirable.

An individual metric conforming to a Class in QoSOnT should be created when some measured QoS data is being provided. An SLA would, in theory, also refer to such an individual metric, although we have not
considered the full ramifications of using QoSOn in SLAs. A requirement or QoS offering/advertisement should instead use a Metric Class. This is because these documents actually refer to a set of individuals (those required or those notionally available to any client respectively) rather than any specific one. The Class in question may be directly provided by QoSOn or created by combining, extending or restricting those Classes defined in QoSOn.

The actual measured values of an individual Metric should be provided by some third party in order to be trusted by the client. The provider may still maintain ownership of the rest of the document defining the individual(s) - but will use OWL's import mechanism to allow the metric values to be specified externally.

Figure 1 shows an individual - MyPOFOD - and how it can be classified as both ServiceSpecificMetric and ProbabilityOfFailureOnDemand. In the figure the term "instance of" is used - but the use of this term can be slightly confusing given its connotations in closed world reasoning. There is no reason that MyPOFOD (or any other individual Metric) should not simply be asserted to be an instance of the intersection of these two Classes. However, a reasoner can infer these classifications from the Properties of the individual, even if they are not asserted.

A further note on the creation of an individual service Metric is that if the provider does not wish to provide an OWL-S service description then they should simply not make use of the Service and OWL-S ontologies. It is therefore generally preferable to define new Metric Classes without reference to the Service ontology, and leave it to the creator of individuals of that Metric Class to specify the intersection with the relevant Class from the service ontology. Note that in the case shown in Figure 1 MyPOFOD is classified as a ServiceSpecificMetric. It therefore refers to POFOD over the use of the whole service. Metrics specifying POFOD for specific operations could be created by intersecting with OperationSpecificMetric instead.

Since OperationSpecificMetric references WsdlOperationRef, QoSOn currently only supports a WsdlGrounding in OWL-S. Whilst other types of grounding are theoretically possible it is felt that the WsdlGrounding is likely to be the only one to gain widespread use.

3.2. Other QoSOn Features

Figure 1 hides a lot of information. Among this is the fact that Metric values refer not just to some numerical datatype - but to a quantity of something in the world. In the base ontology this is modelled as a MetricValue Class with a
has Units Property (which has the Class Unit as its range). The place this occurs most often is in defining performance Metrics. Here, it is often necessary to refer to quantities of time. For instance it is meaningless to refer to a mean time to complete of 500 without stating whether that is measured in milliseconds or hours. We provide a time ontology for this purpose.

We also offer the possibility of unit conversion through the Class Conversion Rate. This proves very useful in the situation where client requirements are stated in different units to metric data.

It is also worth noting that the interrelationships between Classes through their Properties allows traversal of the ontology to retrieve useful information. For instance, having a specific Metric, one could use its is Metric Of property to find what QoS Attribute it measures and then use the QoS Attribute’s has Metric properties to find all other metrics provided for that attribute. In a similar way one could use Class Properties to navigate to information not directly regarded as QoS (e.g. Dependability has Means indicates the mechanisms used to achieve dependability in a service).

4. OWL’s Limitations

Considering our preferred way of representing and matching QoS requirements using QoS on shows some shortcomings in the current OWL specification.

Recall from Section 2.2 that an OWL Class definition specifies a set of individuals of the ontology by expressing restrictions on their Properties; and that classification can be performed on individuals without the creator of the individual having any knowledge of the Class in question.

This suggests that a good way to express a QoS requirement would be as a Class created by the client. Such a requirement Class would define a subset of the set of QoS Attribute descriptions under consideration based upon the properties of the individual metrics. Note that whenever we talk about QoS requirements, the same applies to QoS advertisements, as they are of essentially the same form.

As an example, the probability of failure on demand (POFOD) requirement "POFOD<0.01" is matched by the Class defined as the intersection of POFOD and those things with a has Value property which satisfies allValuesFrom 0.0 to 0.0. The range 0 to 0.01 could be defined using a custom XML datatype like so:

```xml
<xsd:simpleType name="dataRange">
  <xsd:restriction base="float">
    <xsd:minInclusive value="0.0"/>
    <xsd:maxInclusive value="0.01"/>
  </xsd:restriction>
</xsd:simpleType>
```

The OWL specification states that all Values From supports quantification over a data range - but only mandates limited tool support for XML datatypes. On top of this, there is the added difficulty that there is no standard way to refer to user defined datatypes (like dataRange above) in OWL [10]. Due to these factors (among others) reasoners do not support the kind of restriction we wish to use.

We envision that this problem will, in the future, be addressed in OWL and OWL reasoners. In the meantime we use a custom XML language to represent requirements. The concepts of this language map easily to those of the approach set out above in anticipation of future improvements to OWL.

5. SQRM: A QoS On Application

To demonstrate the use of the ontology, and aid in its evaluation, a prototype tool for service discovery and selection based upon QoS requirements has been developed. We have named the tool the Service QoS Requirements Matcher (SQRM). SQRM is designed to showcase a range of different situations in which QoS on can be utilised within the service domain. The tool supports the following:

1. Service Discovery
2. Requirement Specification
3. Service Querying – Differentiation/Selection

The tool may be used at design-time to specify initial QoS requirements (and find matching services) or to narrow down a set of services already selected using some other method. The code could also form the basis for an API to allow QoS-based service selection to be performed dynamically at runtime.

5.1. Service Discovery

The first stage SQRM is designed to undertake is the initial discovery of services. UDDI [8] is used for this purpose. We do not attempt to address the existing problems with public UDDI registries (un-vetted/incorrect information etc), but instead use UDDI purely as one way to identify services worth further investigation. We implement this functionality using JAXR [9] which is registry independent - so
theoretically would find it easy to implement support for other discovery mechanisms.

Clients query the repository via keyword search (see Figure 2). The extent to which clients can search for particular service requirements at this stage is highly restricted, this instead occurring at the next stage.

For each service the user selects the tool retrieves a QoSOnt document linked to the service entry (provided this information has been published in the registry or is available through the WSDL).

![Figure 2. Service Discovery in SQRM](image)

### 5.2. Requirements Creation

QoS Requirement and capability specification affects all clients and services. Without a way to specify requirements a client could not differentiate between services; without capability specification a service could not advertise its resources. The SQRM tool currently concentrates on the client viewpoint – providing a graphical means of specifying QoS requirements. Much of it however, could be reused for a provider-side specification and publishing tool.

To demonstrate the form QoS requirements may take, we briefly introduce one of the scenarios used to evaluate QoSOnt. The example used is based upon the field of epidemiology, and the study of pandemics. The computation of the projected spread of diseases on given population models is both time consuming and of interest to multiple bodies, governmental, academic and independent.

Requirements relating to different algorithms / processing capacity / time expended, make QoS specification an important factor. For example some algorithms work better with larger datasets; others may converge on an answer in such a way as to make long processing runs unnecessary for the accuracy required; for others, short runs may render results useless. Information of this type can be built into an ontology, creating a richer information resource than a mere list of supported functions.

In SQRM, a QoS requirement is basically a predicate (represented in XML), the truth value of which depends upon the asserted facts in the QoS descriptions of the client selected services. The subjects of the predicates are instances or Classes defined in QoSOnt. In contrast to requirements, the provider's description of their QoS capabilities consists of asserted propositions. These often simply say "QoS Metric X has been measured to have value Y".

Requirement predicates are visualised as a tree – the leaves of which are Values or Classes of Metric expressed in QoSOnt. The inner nodes are logical and arithmetic operators. Such as AND / OR. These allow expressions of the type shown below to be inputted:

- **Mean time to Failure > 10 days**
- **AND**
- **Mean Availability > 98%**

Figure 3 shows a screenshot of the current implementation of our SQRM requirement specification environment.

![Figure 3. Requirement Creation in SQRM](image)

### 5.3. Requirements Matching

Determining whether a service supports certain metrics is of limited use without being able to compare the clients’ requirements against the services capabilities. The ontology becomes useful (for example) in situations where metrics are not defined in the same units between client and provider; this allows a tool to take into account and convert types with the aid of the ontology. The requirements matching phase takes files from both client and provider(s), analyses, and provides feedback to the client on the compatibility of the requirements and capabilities documents. The matching parser is
designed to enable complex expressions of AND / OR construction to be used. It is not the job of the matching tool to negotiate a settlement between client and service provider, this instead would be provided by an additional phase of the service operation cycle. The requirements matcher is therefore useful as a first attempt to refine the services available, prior to the commencement of negotiation proper.

6. Related Work

DAML-QoS [11] like our own QoSOn, is an ontology for Quality of Service (QoS) in service-centric systems. Like QoSOn it is realised using OWL (Web Ontology Language) (or at least its predecessor DAML+OIL) and works in symbiosis with OWL-S.

As well as QoS description, DAML-QoS supports concepts such as QoS adverts and inquiries. An attempt is made to do this in much the same way described in Section 4.

The approach presented in [11] also appears to be fundamentally flawed in that it uses cardinality constraints to express bounds upon QoS properties. As the term cardinality suggests, this is actually a misuse of this OWL construct. A cardinality constraint puts constraints on the number of values a property can take, not on the values themselves. Even if the approach taken was valid, it also carries the limitation that it can only express bounds as positive integers (e.g. there is no simple way to say "availability> 0.999").

The domain features modelled also seem to be rather sparse. Essentially DAML-QoS seems to be little more than a schema for QoS. As such, nothing distinguishes it from the many existing QoS specification languages [12].

[13] also presents an ontology with many similarities to our own. A framework using the ontology to support dynamic web services selection is also outlined. Despite its promise, this ontology lacks both an openly available implementation and links to OWL-S.

Our work seeks to address the gaps left by this work by providing an openly available, extensible OWL ontology, allowing complex and varying QoS metrics to be defined. Our aim is not just to provide a schema for QoS in web services - but use the power of knowledge representation in OWL to allow a certain degree of intelligence to be applied by agents and applications (e.g. conversion of units, inference of composite metric values, inference of the QoS of composite services).

7. Evaluation and Future Work

The evaluation of an ontology such as QoSOn typically relies upon its application by the research community. We are hoping to soon benefit from interaction with a number of other interested parties.

We see QoSOn as something which may, in the future, form the basis of a standard QoS ontology for use across the community. During development, we have simulated its usage by generating a set of scenarios, one of which was introduced briefly in the previous section, relating to pandemics. QoSOn aims to provide a common QoS conceptualisation for use by client, provider, and third party intermediary systems. We have therefore attempted to consider the scenarios from each of these viewpoints, although we have initially concentrated on the client and provider point of view.

We have demonstrated that OWL is a powerful language for knowledge representation and that its power can be exploited in the field of QoS. Despite this, the limitations discussed in Section 4 make our implementation less elegant than it ideally would be. We hope to address this as OWL and related technologies mature.

8. Future Work

In the future we hope to continue our efforts in the expansion of QoSOn with further QoS concepts. An avenue we have begun to explore is expressing, on top of QoSOn, how metrics aggregate under various forms of composition. We also plan to explore the way in which QoSOn could be further leveraged in more complex QoS specification scenarios. In particular we wish to address certain limitations of common dependability metrics. The issue of moving beyond UDDI to find the best way to publish and make QoS specifications easily discoverable and queryable is also on our agenda, as is addressing the outstanding area of QoS monitoring.

Currently, the application of unit conversion is slightly cumbersome from the client's point of view. The client has to find the appropriate ConversionRate and compute the converted values themselves. We hope to use a rules language such as the Semantic Web Rules Language (SWRL) [14] to represent this knowledge in the ontology in future. SWRL would allow us to specify conversion rates as an implication between an antecedent (the value with its original units) and a consequent (the
converted value). This would be transparent to the client.

Since we began work on QoSOnt the OWL-Time [15] ontology has matured significantly. It would therefore be useful to align QoSOnt with this ontology rather than our own time ontology.

9. Conclusion

This paper has put forward an approach to requirement specification based upon a shared QoS ontology. In order to ground the concept further, we have developed tools to leverage the benefits of an ontology for QoS, and evaluated our results against scenarios designed to test the capabilities of the design. We accept that real world examples may pose us with unexpected situations. We are therefore seeking to collaborate with real world service users in order to further evaluate and improve QoSOnt.

10. References


