

PAL: Propagation-aware Anomaly Localization for Cloud Hosted Distributed Applications

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ABSTRACT

Distributed applications running inside cloud are prone to performance anomalies due to various reasons such as insufficient resource allocations, unexpected workload increases, or software bugs. However, those applications often consist of multiple interacting components where one component anomaly may cause its dependent components to exhibit anomalous behavior as well. It is challenging to identify the faulty components among numerous distributed application components. In this paper, we present a Propagation-aware Anomaly Localization (PAL) system that can pinpoint the source faulty components in distributed applications by extracting anomaly propagation patterns. PAL provides a robust critical change point discovery algorithm to accurately capture the onset of anomaly symptoms at different application components. We then derive the propagation pattern by sorting all critical change points in chronological order. PAL is completely application-agnostic and non-intrusive, which only relies on system-level metrics. We have implemented PAL on top of the Xen platform and tested it on a production cloud computing infrastructure using the RUBiS online auction benchmark application and the IBM System S data streaming processing application with a range of common software bugs. Our experimental results show that PAL can pinpoint faulty components in distributed applications with high accuracy and low overhead.

Categories and Subject Descriptors

C.4 [Performance of Systems]: Reliability, availability, and serviceability

General Terms

Reliability, Management, Experimentation

Keywords

Anomaly propagation, Fault Localization, Cloud Computing

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1. INTRODUCTION

Cloud computing allows application service providers to run their applications in a cost-effective way by obviating the need to own and maintain a physical computing infrastructure. However, applications running inside cloud are often prone to various performance anomalies (e.g., SLO violations) due to various reasons such as insufficient resource allocation, unexpected workload increase, and software bugs.

It is challenging to diagnose the performance anomaly appearing in distributed application running inside cloud. The application often appears as a black box to the cloud service provider. It is very difficult to apply the previous white box or grey box diagnosis techniques [9, 13] that need modifications or instrumentations to application or underlying systems (e.g., middleware platform). Additionally, many subtle software bugs only manifest during large-scale runs, which makes it difficult for application developers to perform in-house debugging since they often do not have the infrastructure or workload to reproduce the anomaly.

Recent work [15, 16, 17, 25, 26, 27] has shown that it is promising to apply statistical learning methods over system-level metrics (e.g., CPU, memory, network I/O) to achieve online anomaly detection and causal path inference. However, those approaches typically either treat the whole distributed application as one black box or examine each individual component separately. The former cannot localize faulty components in a distributed application while the latter tends to produce false alarms since system-level metric anomaly often propagates among dependent components.

In this paper, we present PAL, a novel propagation-aware anomaly localization system for cloud hosted distributed applications. PAL employs a robust change point detection algorithm over system-level metrics to identify the onset of anomalous behavior in different distributed application components. PAL then arranges the discovered change points in chronological order to infer the anomaly propagation pattern. We can then use the anomaly propagation pattern to pinpoint faulty components. PAL is completely application-agnostic without assuming any prior knowledge about the application including the application topology. PAL is non-intrusive, which does not require any modification to the application, and only relies on low-level system metrics that can be easily acquired via hypervisor or OS.

System-level metrics are often inherently fluctuating due to the dynamic nature of real world applications. Thus, the key challenge is how to distinguish the *critical* change point that marks the beginning of the anomalous behavior from many change points that just reflect normal workload

fluctuations. To address this challenge, we provide a robust critical change point detection algorithm that can accurately identify the onset of the anomalous behavior in system-level metrics. Specifically, this paper makes the following contributions:

- We present PAL, a non-intrusive propagation-aware anomaly localization system for troubleshooting distributed applications running inside cloud.
- We provide a robust change point discovery algorithm to extract runtime anomaly propagation patterns for pinpointing faulty components. Our pinpointing results can provide useful guidance for subsequent anomaly correction tasks.
- We have implemented PAL on top of the Xen platform and tested it on the NCSU’s Virtual Computing Lab [5], a production cloud computing system that operates in a similar way as Amazon EC2 [1]. We used the RUBiS online auction benchmark application [4] and the IBM System S data stream processing system [18] running inside VCL and injected a range of common software bugs to evaluate the accuracy of our anomaly localization algorithm.
- Our experimental results show that PAL can identify the faulty component in distributed applications with high accuracy. PAL is light-weight, imposes negligible overhead during normal application execution.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes our system design. Section 3 presents our experimental evaluation. Section 4 compares our work with other related works. Section 5 discusses the limitations of the PAL system and possible extensions. Finally, the paper concludes in Section 6.

2. SYSTEM DESIGN

In this section, we first present an overview of the PAL system. We then describe the anomaly onset identification algorithm and the propagation-based fault localization scheme.

2.1 Approach Overview

Figure 1 shows the overall architecture of the PAL system. It consists of three system modules: 1) non-intrusive virtual machine (VM) resource monitoring, 2) anomaly onset identification, and 3) propagation-based fault localization.

The PAL system continuously monitors various system-level metrics (e.g. CPU usage, free memory, network traffic) of distributed application components running inside different guest VMs with a certain sampling interval (e.g. 1 second). PAL adopts a non-intrusive monitoring approach that collects guest VM information from outside. In addition to monitoring resource metrics, PAL also needs an orthogonal monitoring module to detect whether the application is experiencing SLO violations. PAL can rely on either the application itself or an external monitoring tool to keep track of the application SLO status. Our current prototype adopts the latter method.

Upon detecting an application SLO violation, PAL performs the anomaly onset identification to capture the start time of the anomalous behavior in any system-level metric of

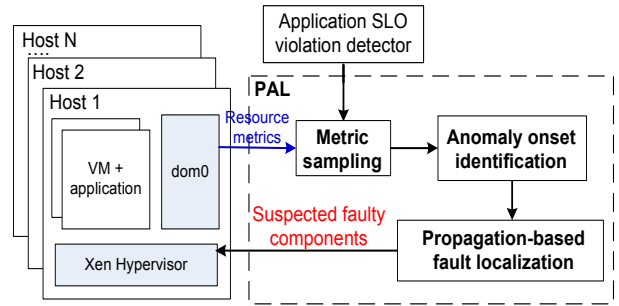


Figure 1: Overall architecture of the PAL system.

different components. The assumption behind our approach is that performance anomalies are usually manifested as observable changes in one or multiple system-level metrics (e.g. CPU usage, free memory). In order to find such changes, PAL performs a robust change point detection algorithm over each collected system-level metric. The goal is to identify the critical change point that marks the beginning of the anomalous behavior.

Next, PAL sorts the discovered critical change points of different components in a chronological order to infer the anomaly propagation pattern. PAL then leverages the extracted propagation pattern to localize the faulty component(s). The intuition is that performance bugs often have latent effects, which start to affect one system component, then propagate to other components, and eventually lead to application SLO violation. Therefore, the first set of components in the anomaly propagation pattern are most likely to be the faulty components since they exhibit anomalous behavior at the earliest time.

Note that PAL does not assume any knowledge about the distributed application topology for practicality and robustness. First, the application topology information might be privacy sensitive and the application user might be reluctant to release the application topology information to the cloud service provider. Second, the application topology can be dynamically evolving by adding or removing application components. Thus, it is unreliable to perform fault localization based on static topology information. Third, some applications such as IBM System S [18], exhibit a “back pressure” symptom where a faulty component might cause its upstream component to show anomalous behavior. For example, when a component becomes anomalous and its input buffer is filled with unprocessed tuples, its upstream component will not be able to send new tuples and get stuck as well. Thus, if we perform fault localization based on the static topology information, we will mistakenly pinpoint the upstream component of the faulty component as the root cause faulty component.

Figure 2 shows a real example of our propagation-aware anomaly localization scheme for an IBM System S stream processing application consisting of eight components. The system detects an application SLO violation at time t_v . PAL then performs anomaly onset identification on a look-back window of different system-level metrics and detects three critical change points: t_1 on the metric x of the component C_6 , t_2 on the metric y of the component C_7 , and t_3 on the metric z of the component C_5 . Since $t_1 < t_2 < t_3$, we infer the anomaly propagation pattern as $C_6 \rightarrow C_7 \rightarrow C_5$. Note that the anomaly propagation pattern in this case

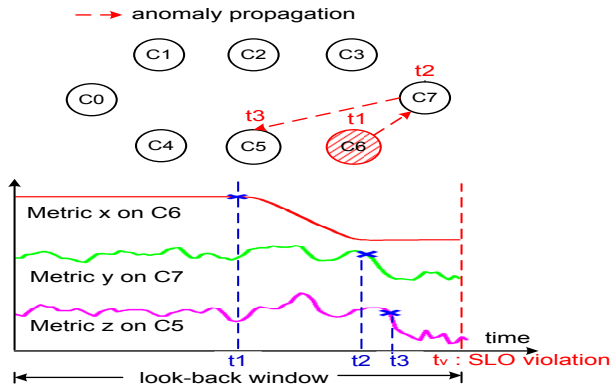


Figure 2: An example of propagation-aware anomaly localization for a distributed application.

is different from the application data dependency topology that is $C_5 \rightarrow C_6 \rightarrow C_7$. We then infer that C_6 is the source faulty component.

Before we present the details of the PAL system, we first describe the assumptions of the PAL system. We first assume that the performance bug manifests as changes in some system-level metrics. Since real world distributed applications are often inherently dynamic by processing time-varying workload, we assume that the system-level metric changes caused by normal workload fluctuations are less significant than those caused by the performance bugs. Since our propagation pattern is derived based on the timing information of different change points, we assume the anomaly onset time instants at faulty components are earlier than those of other components. These assumptions are generally valid in practice as we will show in the experiment section. Since PAL relies on timing information to infer propagation patterns, we need to assume the clocks of all system components are synchronized. In practice, machines can be synchronized using NTP which has an RMS errors of less than 0.1 ms on LANs and of less than 5 ms on Internet [21]. In our experiments, we observe that most of anomaly propagation delay between two dependent components is at second level. Therefore, our system can tolerate small time skews (i.e. tens of milliseconds).

2.2 Anomaly Onset Identification

We identify the onset of the anomalous behavior at each component by extracting critical change points in all system-level metrics associated with that component. The change point detection algorithm examines a set of metric samples in a look-back window $[t_v - W + 1, t_v]$ where t_v is the time when the SLO violation happens and W is the length of the look-back window. The look-back window should be sufficiently large to cover any relevant critical change points. In our experiments, we used $W = 100$ under a one-second sampling interval. We developed a four-step robust critical change point detection algorithm to accurately identify the onset of the anomalous behavior at each system-level metric. We will use the metric time series $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_W\}$ for the look-back window $[t_v - W + 1, t_v]$ as an example to explain each algorithm step.

Step 1: Preprocess X using smoothing to tackle the data fluctuation issue. Figure 3 shows the result of data smoothing for a real network traffic trace. We can see that the change points detected over the smoothed data are more

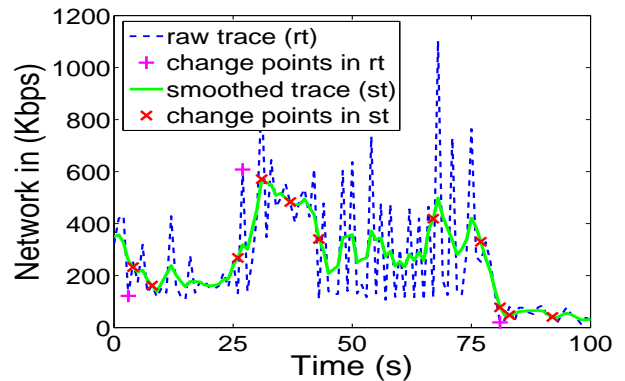


Figure 3: Data smoothing

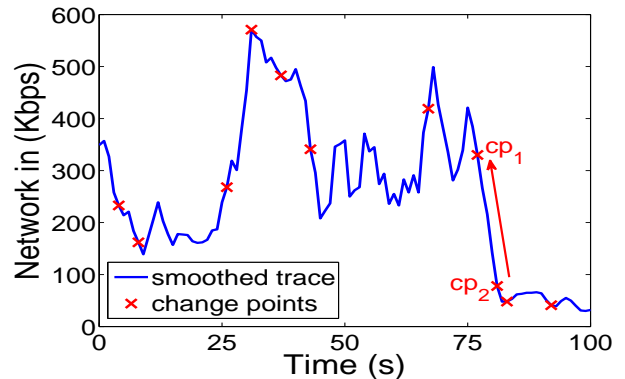


Figure 4: Change point rollback

meaningful than those detected on the original trace, which are often just random peak and bottom points. The tricky issue here is that if we smooth the data too much, we may run into the risk of filtering out the critical change point as well. We have tried both Kalman filter and moving average filter, and found that Kalman filter often filters the critical change points as well. Thus, the current PAL prototype adopts a 5-length moving average filter that calculates one average value for each sliding window of five consecutive data samples.

Step 2: Detect the change points using time series change point detection algorithms. There are many algorithms for change-point detection [10]. We used a combination of cumulative sum (CUSUM) charts and bootstrapping to detect a set of change points. We chose CUSUM because it does not require any assumption about the data distribution and its computation overhead is negligible compared with other methods. The CUSUM chart for X is constructed as follows: $S_i = S_{i-1} + (x_i - \bar{X})$, where $1 \leq i \leq W$, $S_0 = 0$, \bar{X} is the mean of X . We then calculate a magnitude of change using: $\hat{S} = \max_{1 \leq i \leq W} S_i - \min_{1 \leq i \leq W} S_i$.

We then employ bootstrap analysis to automatically interpret CUSUM charts. A bootstrap of X is one permutation of X generated by randomly reordering X . If X has a larger \hat{S} than most bootstraps (e.g., 95%), we say that X contains one change point that is located at x_c where $|S_c|$ is the maximum among $\{|S_1|, \dots, |S_W|\}$.

We apply the same algorithm on $\{x_1, \dots, x_{c-1}\}$ and $\{x_{c+1}, \dots, x_W\}$ recursively to discover more change points.

Step 3: Identify the critical change point that marks the onset of the anomalous behavior from the change points

detected in Step 2. We define a *separation level* metric for each change point x_c to denote the change magnitude at this change point:

$$\Omega(x_c) = \frac{\left| \frac{1}{c-1} \sum_{i=1}^{i=c-1} x_i - \frac{1}{W-c} \sum_{i=c+1}^{i=W} x_i \right|}{\max\left(\frac{1}{c-1} \sum_{i=1}^{i=c-1} x_i, \frac{1}{W-c} \sum_{i=c+1}^{i=W} x_i\right)} \quad (1)$$

Intuitively, the above equation compares the normalized difference between the mean of the time series before the change point and the mean of the time series after the change point. Next, we extract the critical change point whose separation level values are the outliers (e.g., larger than mean plus $1.5 \times$ standard deviation). If there are multiple outlier change points, we pick the one that is closest to the SLO violation time as the critical change point.

Step 4: During our experimental study, we found that the critical change point discovered above may sometimes reside in the middle of one sloped line such as cp_2 in Figure 4. Since our goal is to discover the onset of the anomalous behavior, we want to extract the change point at the beginning of the sloped line. We compare the slope angle at the current critical change point with that of its preceding change point. If their slope angles are similar (e.g., less than 30% difference), we replace the critical change point with its preceding change point. For example, in Figure 4, we start from cp_2 and roll back to cp_1 since cp_1 and cp_2 are on the same sloped line.

After the above four steps, we identify one critical change point for each system-level metric associated with each application component. We use the earliest critical change point among all system-level metrics to denote the onset of the anomalous behavior at that component.

2.3 Propagation-based Fault Localization

Our goal is to discover how a performance anomaly propagates in a distributed application, and use the propagation pattern to localize the faulty components.

We first classify the propagation pattern into either *full coverage* when we detect critical change points in all application components or *partial coverage* when the propagation only involves a subset of application components. Such classification allows us to distinguish the anomaly case caused by external factors such as workload spikes from that caused by internal component problems. Intuitively, if the anomaly is triggered by some external factors, all application components should see some changes in the same upward or downward trend within a short period of time. Thus, PAL decides whether the fault is an external one by considering whether all components include critical change points and whether those change points follow the same trend. Otherwise, we say the anomaly is caused by some internal fault.

For the internal fault case, we sort the anomaly onset time for different components to derive the anomaly propagation pattern. The propagation pattern could be either: 1) *sequential* where a chain of components exhibit anomalous behavior in a sequential order; or 2) *concurrent* where multiple components show anomalous behavior at similar time (e.g., the difference is less than 2 seconds). If the anomaly propagation pattern is sequential, we will pinpoint the first component on the chain as the faulty component.

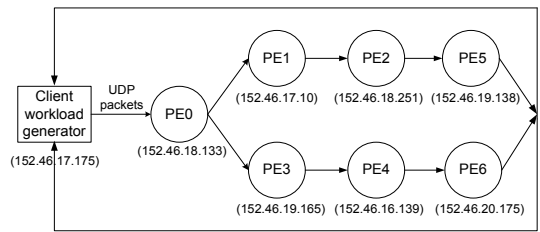


Figure 5: System S application topology.

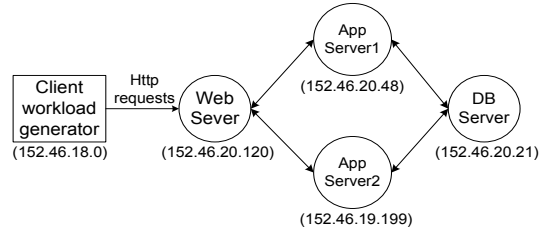


Figure 6: RUBiS application topology.

If the anomaly propagation pattern consists of concurrent anomalous behaviors, we will pinpoint the beginning set of current anomalous components as faulty components.

The fault localization results based on the anomaly propagation pattern need further validation (e.g., VM perturbations), which is part of our on-going work and is beyond the scope of this paper. Although the propagation pattern can not always provide the exact anomaly causes, it can speed up the diagnosis process by narrowing down faulty components and relevant system-level metrics.

3. EXPERIMENTAL EVALUATION

We have implemented the PAL system and conducted extensive experiments using IBM System S data stream processing system [18] and RUBiS online auction benchmark (EJB version) [4]. In this section, we first describe our experiment setup. We then present the experimental results.

3.1 Experiment Setup

Our experiments were conducted on the NCSU’s Virtual Computing Lab (VCL), a production cloud computing infrastructure, that operates in a similar ways as Amazon EC2 [1]. Each host has a dual-core Xeon 3.00GHz CPU and 4GB memory, and runs CentOS 5.2 64-bit with Xen 3.0.3. The guest VMs also run CentOS 5.2 64-bit.

PAL monitors an application resource demands from domain 0, using the `libxenstat` library to collect resource usage information (e.g., CPU usage, memory consumption, network I/O) for both domain 0 and guest VMs. The sampling interval is 1 second. We perform critical change point detection over a look-back window (W) of time series. We used $W=100$ seconds in our experiments.

IBM System S testbed: We first used IBM System S data stream processing system [18] as case study applications. In System S, each application consists of a set of inter-connected *processing elements* called *PEs*. In our experiments, we used a tax calculation application which is one of the sample applications provided by System S. We measured the average per-tuple processing time and an SLO violation anomaly is marked if the average processing

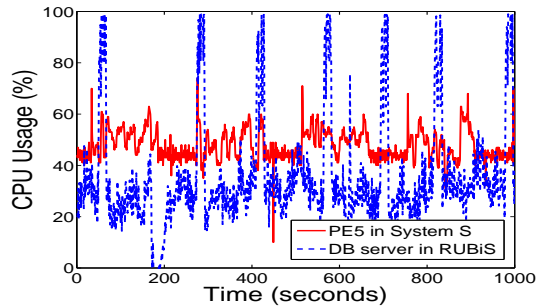


Figure 7: Sample CPU usage traces in System S and RUBiS.

time is larger than a pre-defined threshold (e.g., 100ms). Figure 5 shows the application topology including the IP addresses of the VCL hosts used in the experiments. We run each PE in a Xen guest VM. In order to evaluate our system under workloads with realistic time variations, we used the workload intensity observed in the WorldCup 98 web trace [3] to modulate the data arrival rate.

RUBiS testbed: We used the RUBiS workload generator to track the response time of the HTTP requests it made. An SLO violation anomaly is marked if the average request response time is larger than 100ms. In order to evaluate our system under workloads with realistic time variations, we used the workload intensity observed in three real-world web traces (WorldCup 98, ClarkNet, NASA) [3] to modulate the request rate of our synthetic RUBiS benchmark. Figure 6 shows the topology of the RUBiS application including the IP addresses of the VCL hosts used in the experiments. Similar to the IBM System S experiment, we run each application component in a Xen guest VM.

In Figure 7, we show a snapshot of CPU usage traces of sample components (DB server in RUBiS and PE5 in System S application) in our experiments. We can see both applications exhibit dynamic CPU usages under real world dynamic workload traces, which brings challenges to accurate change point detection. We will show later that our approach is robust to dynamic workloads.

Fault injection. We inject different faults at different time instants during an application runtime. For each fault injection, we repeated the experiment 10 to 20 times. We tested both single component faults and multiple component faults. For IBM System S, we injected the following single component faults: 1) *CpuHog*: we introduce a busy loop in PE1; and 2) *MemLeak*: we inject a memory leak bug in PE1 that continuously allocates memory but forgets to release the allocated memory. Multiple component faults include: 1) *NetHog*: we use `httperf` [2] tool to send large volume of http requests from PE1 to PE2 so that the link between PE1 and PE2 is saturated; 2) *WkChg*: we increase the workload intensity to make the whole application overloaded; and 3) *MemLeak*: we inject the memory leak bug simultaneously on PE1 and PE3.

For RUBiS, single component faults include 1) *CpuHog*: a CPU-intensive program competed CPU with the App Server 1; 2) *MemLeak*: a memory-intensive program competed memory with the App Server 1; and 3) *NetHog*: an external program sent an excessive number of HTTP requests to the Web Server. Multiple component faults include: 1) *WkChg*: we increase the workload intensity to make the whole appli-

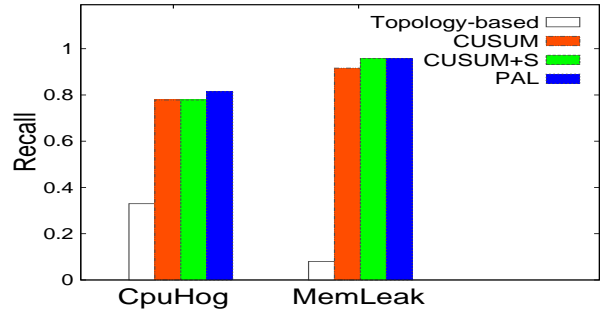


Figure 8: Recall for single component faults in System S

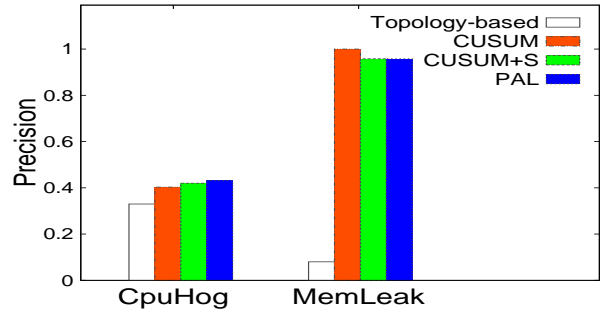


Figure 9: Precision for single component faults in System S

cation overloaded; 2) *OffloadBug*: the App Server 1 wants to offload some EJBs to App Server 2. However, the program bug (JIRA #JBAS-1442) in App Server 1 makes HTML contents still return to the Java servlets hosted on the App Server 1; and 2) *LBBug*: a load balancing bug (`mod_jk` 1.2.30) causes the Web Server to dispatch requests unevenly.

For comparison, we also implemented a set of alternative schemes: 1) the *topology-based* scheme that employs the same change point detection algorithms as PAL (except the rollback step) and then pinpoints the faulty components based on the application topology; 2) the *CUSUM* scheme that first employs CUSUM charts and bootstraps to detect a set of changes points, and then picks the outlier change point as the critical change point; and 3) the *CUSUM + S* scheme that first performs smoothing (i.e., 5-length moving average) over the raw monitoring data and then performs the CUSUM scheme over the smoothed data. But this scheme does not perform roll back as PAL does.

To quantify the accuracy of our anomaly localization model, we use the standard precision and recall metrics. Let N_{tp} , N_{fn} , N_{fp} , and N_{tn} denote the number of true positives (correctly pinpoint a faulty component), false negatives (miss a faulty component), false positives (pinpoint a normal component as faulty), and true negatives, respectively. We calculate the recall and precision in standard ways as follows,

$$Recall = \frac{N_{tp}}{N_{tp} + N_{fn}}, Precision = \frac{N_{tp}}{N_{tp} + N_{fp}} \quad (2)$$

3.2 Results and Analysis

We first present the results of IBM System S experiments. Figures 8 and 9 show the faulty component pinpoint accuracy results for different single-component faults. We observe that the precision and recall values of PAL are consistently among the highest and memory leak fault is much

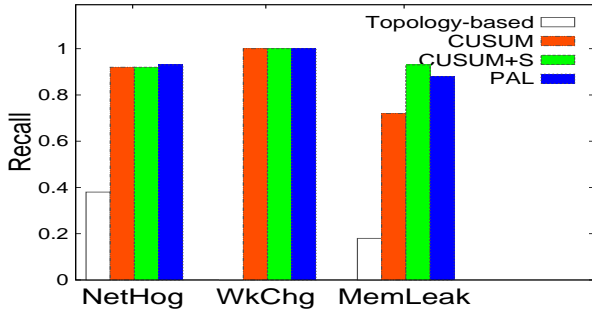


Figure 10: Recall for multiple component faults in System S

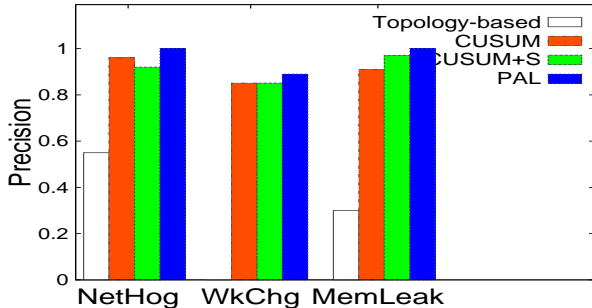


Figure 11: Precision for multiple component faults in System S

easier to detect than the CPU hog fault. We can see that all three change point based approaches can achieve more than 90% precision and recall in the memory leak case. In contrast, the topology-based scheme has poor accuracy in both fault cases. As mentioned in section 2, System S has the “back pressure” symptom where the faulty component (PE1) causes its upstream component (PE0) to show anomalous symptom. Thus, the topology-based scheme pinpoints the upstream component as the faulty component instead of the true faulty component.

In the CPU hog case, although PAL can achieve over 80% recall, its precision is around 40%, which means a number of false positives are generated. After examining the detailed logs, we found that most of these false positives were those components whose change points are very close to the change point of the faulty component (e.g. differ in one or two seconds). Therefore, our system considers them as the multiple component faults. We observe that the change point of the faulty component was still the earliest. This result also reflects that the anomaly caused by the CPU hog fault propagates very fast in the distributed application.

Figures 10 and 11 show the recall and precision results for the multiple-component faults. PAL can achieve 100% recall in the workload change case. However, PAL did not identify change points on all components in a few workload change cases. In this situation, the pinpointed components were considered as false positives. As a result, PAL has a precision value less than 100%. PAL can also achieve 100% precision in the network hog and multiple memory leak fault injection cases. Again, the topology-based approach performs poorly.

We now present the results of the RUBiS experiments. Figure 12 and 13 show the recall and precision results for single-component faults. Figure 14 and 15 show the re-

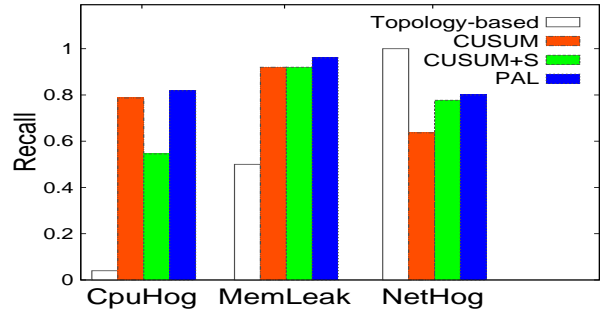


Figure 12: Recall for single component faults in RUBiS

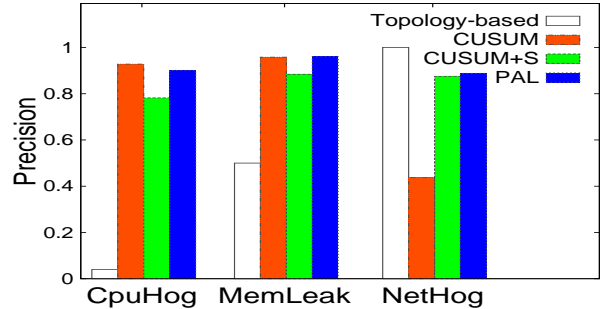


Figure 13: Precision for single component faults in RUBiS

call and precision results for multiple-component faults. In most cases, PAL outperforms the other approaches in both precision and recall values. In comparison, topology-based scheme achieved better accuracy than all the other algorithms in the cases of network hog, offloading bug, and load balancing bug. The reason is because we happened to inject the fault in the first component in the topological order. For the offloading and load balancing bug, the fault did not show the back pressure symptom in RUBiS as in IBM System S. However, PAL does not assume the knowledge of application topology and still achieves 80-100% precision and recall values.

Finally, we evaluate the overhead of PAL. Our measurements show that it takes 6.4 ± 1.3 seconds to perform one distributed application anomaly pinpointing (including extracting change points for all metrics of all components). Since the pinpointing is only triggered after the anomaly is detected, we believe such an overhead is small. During normal execution, PAL only performs passive VM system-level metric sampling. Thus, during normal execution, PAL imposes less than 1% CPU load in domain 0. The memory consumption of PAL is about 1.4MB.

4. RELATED WORK

There has been extensive study on change point detection and its applications [10]. In the context of system problem detection, the common approach is to correlate change points in system-level metrics with the change points of application activities. For example, Blacksheep [24] correlates the change point at system-level metric (e.g., cpu usage) with the change in count of Hadoop application states (i.e., events extracted from logs of DataNodes and TaskTrackers) to detect and diagnose the anomaly in a Hadoop cluster. Wang et. al. [28] studied the change point correlation be-

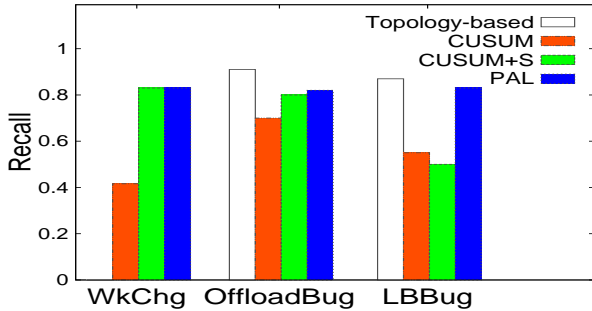


Figure 14: Recall for multiple component faults in RUBiS

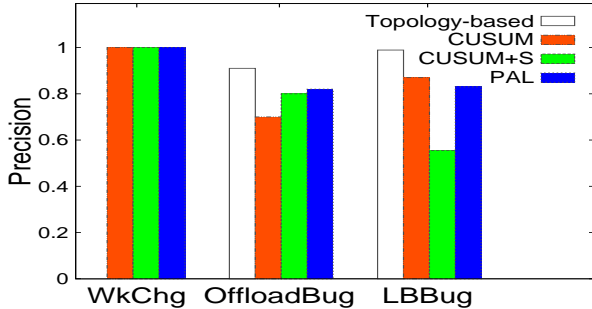


Figure 15: Precision for multiple component faults in RUBiS

tween requests and corresponding replies to detect DoS attacks. Agarwal et. al. [6] monitored the change relation between response time with load balancer’s assigned weight to detect a *storm drain* condition: the load balancing system is confused by the fast response time of faulty server and tries to shift more requests to the faulty server. In comparison, our approach applies the change point detection in the context of distributed application fault localization. Instead of performing correlations, our approach focuses on identifying the onset of anomalous behavior at different components and sort them to achieve pinpointing.

Previous work has proposed various black box pinpointing techniques. Project5 [8] performed cross-correlations between message traces to derive causal paths and identify performance bottlenecks. E2EProf [7] also applied cross-correlation techniques over network traffic traces to identify the bottleneck component. Jiang et al. [19] maintained a collection of extracted invariants based on linear models and performed anomaly detection based on invariant violations. NAP [11] collected network communication traces and applied queuing theory to estimate the service time and waiting time for identifying the bottleneck component. Kahuna-BB [25] applied clustering algorithms over system-level metrics to learn normal node behavior and detect faulty nodes using peer-comparison. The EntomoModel [23] studied performance anomaly manifestations by characterizing workload and management policy settings under which the performance anomalies are likely to be triggered. Fa [17] proposed a clustering method which groups instances based on how they are different from the failure instances. In comparison, our work focuses on extracting anomaly propagation patterns and leveraging the propagation pattern to localize the faulty components and infer anomaly causes.

A flurry of research work has provided various distributed application debugging tools. Magpie [9] is a request ex-

traction and workload modeling tool that can record fine-grained system events and correlates these events using an application specific event schema to capture the control flow and resource consumption of each request. Pinpoint [13] takes a request-oriented approach to tag each call with a request ID by modifying middleware platform and applies statistical methods to identify components that are highly correlated with failed requests. Pinpoint can best handle service failures such as machine crashes or exceptions rather than latent performance anomalies. Pip [22] can find structural and performance bugs in distributed systems by comparing actual system behavior to expected system behavior described in programmer-written templates. However, Pip requires application modifications. JAGR [12] injected controlled Java exceptions into J2EE applications to obtain application-specific fault propagation graphs and used the graph as a guidance for fast recovery. In contrast, our work focuses on black box online anomaly localization, which does not require any modifications to applications or middleware platforms. We believe that our scheme is complementary to the above work, which can provide useful hints for more intrusive debugging.

5. DISCUSSIONS

The accuracy of the PAL system depends on whether the chosen change points are related to the anomaly. However, in dynamic distributed systems, change points can be caused by various reasons such as workload fluctuations and routine operations such as periodic system maintenance. Although our critical change point algorithm can filter out some irrelevant change points caused by transient resource usage spikes, it is still a challenging problem to distinguish the change points related to anomalies from all the other irrelevant change points. One possible extension to PAL is to use a predictability metric (e.g., prediction error) to filter out those irrelevant change points. The intuition behind our approach is that the values of the change points caused by normal workload fluctuation are more predictable than the values of those critical change points caused by anomalies.

The change point based propagation discovery algorithm is also sensitive to the length of the look-back window. If the length of the look-back window is too small, PAL might miss the change point corresponding to the anomaly onset time; If the length of the look-back window is too large, it will increase the possibility of including irrelevant change points. The current prototype of the PAL system empirically decides the look-back window length based on our observation about the range of anomaly propagation delays. As part of our future work, we will study principled algorithms to properly decide the look-back window length.

Large-scale distributed systems often consist of many distributed components driven by dynamic workloads, which might greatly increase the chance of detecting spurious propagation patterns caused by irrelevant change points. It is probably insufficient to only rely on change point detection to perform propagation pattern discovery and fault localization. To address the problem, we plan to integrate PAL with previous statistical dependency discovery techniques [14, 20] to improve the fault localization accuracy.

6. CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we have presented PAL, a novel black-box

propagation-based performance anomaly localization system for distributed applications running inside cloud. PAL employs a robust critical change point detection algorithm that can accurately identify the onset of anomalous behavior at different components. It then derives the anomaly propagation pattern based on the chronological order of different components' anomaly onset time. Next, PAL can localize faulty components based on the derived anomaly propagation patterns. We have implemented PAL on top of the Xen platform and tested it using the RUBiS online auction benchmark and IBM System S data stream processing system driven by real world dynamic workload. Our experimental results show that PAL is efficient and light-weight, which makes it suitable for localizing distributed application anomalies in cloud systems.

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