Contextualized Programs for Ontology-Mediated Probabilistic System Analysis

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Abstract

Modeling context-dependent systems for their analysis is challenging as verification tools usually rely on an input language close to imperative programming languages which need not support description of contexts well. We introduce the concept of contextualized programs where operational behaviors and context knowledge are modeled separately using domain-specific formalisms. For behaviors specified in stochastic guarded-command language and contextual knowledge given by OWL description logic ontologies, we develop a technique to efficiently incorporate contextual information into behavioral descriptions by reasoning about the ontology. We show how our presented concepts support and facilitate the quantitative analysis of context-dependent systems using probabilistic model checking. For this, we evaluate our implementation on a case study issuing a multi-server system.

1 Introduction

Computer systems are often context-dependent, i.e., their behaviors depend on the environment and circumstances in which they are employed. Many approaches have been proposed to include contextual information in the system’s engineering process (see, e.g., [1] for a survey). Usually, contexts are expressed in the same formalism as the specification of the system itself. For example, in context-oriented programming [17], contexts are explicitly incorporated into program code. An automated formal analysis of context-dependent systems also requires contextual information to be described in formalisms supported by tools, often close to imperative programming languages. Contexts can involve sophisticated dependencies between its situational elements and their resolution might be a knowledge-intensive task [13]. However, using behavioral descriptions for contexts requires an explicit encoding of such dependencies. This is not desirable as system engineers have to foresee such interactions and have to reason about the contexts by themselves. This motivates the modeling of context-dependent systems where concerns between behavior and context are separated, each specified using appropriate formalisms.

This paper introduces contextualized programs, in which operational behavior is defined using stochastic programs, and contexts are modeled using description logics (DLs) (cf. [2] [4]). Stochastic programs are a probabilistic variant of Dijkstra’s guarded command language [13] [20] and are used as the de-facto standard input language for probabilistic model-checking (PMC) tools such as PRISM [23]. DLs are well-investigated, expressive logical formalisms to describe static knowledge about an application domain with broad tool support for reasoning (see, e.g., [28]). In contextualized programs, operational behavior and context descriptions are loosely coupled through an interface, so that they can be exchanged easily. Specifically, contextualized programs use hooks to refer to situations that depend on the context, and the interface links
hooks and other program expressions to DL axioms. This facilitates to specify an operational behavior in different contexts, but also different operational behaviors in one specific context. Here, the context of the operational behavior can be understood in a broad sense, and might also refer to specific software and hardware configurations that affect the operational behavior but does not constitute it. The semantics of contextualized programs follows a product construction of the operational semantics for the stochastic program, combined with annotations in which states are additionally associated with DL knowledge bases.

To analyze contextualized programs, we present a technique to translate contextualized programs into stochastic programs without explicit context, but with preserving semantic properties of behavior and context. A similar translation is done those analysis properties that depend on the context by referring to hooks. Our translational approach allows to directly use existing analysis tools for stochastic programs also for contextualized programs. We implemented the technique in a tool-chain in which the operational behavior is specified in the input language of PRISM, and where contexts are provided as OWL knowledge bases. Technically, we transform hooks into expressions derived from reasoning on the context ontology. Using axiom pinpointing for DL ontologies, we solve arising inefficiencies that occur when employing a naive replacement strategy. We evaluate the implementation based on a heterogeneous multi-server scenario and show that our approach facilitates the analysis of context-dependent systems when varying behavior and contexts.

2 Preliminaries

We recall the formalisms used in this paper. Let $S$ be a countable set and $\varphi(S)$ the powerset of $S$. A probability distribution over $S$ is a function $\mu: S \rightarrow [0,1] \cap \mathbb{Q}$ with $\sum_{s \in S} \mu(s) = 1$. The set of distributions over $S$ is denoted by $\text{Distr}(S)$.

2.1 Markov Decision Processes

The operational model used in this paper is given in terms of Markov decision processes (MDPs) (see, e.g., [27]). MDPs are tuples $\mathcal{M} = (Q, \text{Act}, P, q_0, \Lambda, \lambda)$ where $Q$ and $\text{Act}$ are countable sets of states and actions, respectively, $P: Q \times \text{Act} \rightarrow \text{Distr}(Q)$ is a partial probabilistic transition function, $q_0 \in Q$ an initial state, and $\Lambda$ a set of labels assigned to states via the labeling function $\lambda: Q \rightarrow \varphi(\Lambda)$. Intuitively, in a state $q \in Q$, we non-deterministically select an action $\alpha \in \text{Act}$ for which $P(q,\alpha)$ is defined, and then move to a successor state $q'$ with probability $P(q,\alpha,q')$. Formally, a path in $\mathcal{M}$ is a sequence $\pi = q_0 \alpha_0 q_1 \alpha_1 \ldots$ where $P(q_i,\alpha_i,q_{i+1}) > 0$ for all $i$ for which $q_{i+1}$ is defined. The probability of a finite path is the product of its transition probabilities. Resolving non-deterministic choices gives then rise to a probability measure over maximal paths, i.e., paths that cannot be extended. Amending $\mathcal{M}$ with a weight function $\text{wgt}: Q \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ turns $\mathcal{M}$ into a weighted MDP $(\mathcal{M}, \text{wgt})$. The weight of a finite path $\pi = q_0 \alpha_0 q_1 \ldots q_n$ is defined as $\text{wgt}(\pi) = \sum_{i<n} \text{wgt}(q_i)$.

MDPs are suitable for a quantitative analysis using probabilistic model checking (PMC, cf. [2]). A property to be analyzed is usually defined using temporal logics over the set of labels, constituting a set of maximal paths for which the property is fulfilled after the resolution of nondeterministic choices. Ranging over all possible resolutions of nondeterminism thus enables a best- and worst-case analysis on the property. Standard analysis tasks ask, e.g., for the minimal and maximal probability or expected weight reaching a given set of states. An energy-utility quantile [6] is an advanced property that is used to reason about trade-offs: Given a probability bound $p \in [0,1]$ and a set of goal states, we ask for the minimal (resp. maximal) weight required to reach the goal with probability at least $p$ when ranging over some (resp. all)
resolutions of nondeterminism.

2.2 Stochastic Programs

A concise representation of MDPs is provided by a probabilistic variant of Dijkstra’s guarded-command language [13, 20], compatible with the input language of the Prism tool Prism [23]. Throughout this section, we fix a countable set \( \text{Var} \) of variables, on which we define evaluations as functions \( \eta: \text{Var} \to \mathbb{Z} \). We denote the set of evaluations over \( \text{Var} \) by \( \text{Eval}(\text{Var}) \).

Arithmetic Constraints and Boolean Expressions. Let \( z \) range over \( \mathbb{Z} \) and \( v \) range over \( \text{Var} \). The set of arithmetic expressions \( E(\text{Var}) \) is defined by the grammar

\[
\alpha ::= \ z \mid v \mid (\alpha + \alpha) \mid (\alpha \cdot \alpha)
\]

Variable evaluations are extended to arithmetic expressions in the natural way, i.e., \( \eta(z) = z \), \( \eta(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2) = \eta(\alpha_1) + \eta(\alpha_2) \), and \( \eta(\alpha_1 \cdot \alpha_2) = \eta(\alpha_1) \cdot \eta(\alpha_2) \). \( C(\text{Var}) \) denotes the set of arithmetic constraints over \( \text{Var} \), i.e., terms of the form \( (\alpha \bowtie z) \) with \( \alpha \in E(\text{Var}) \), \( \bowtie \in \{>, \geq, =, \leq, <, \neq\} \), and \( z \in \mathbb{Z} \). For a given evaluation \( \eta \in \text{Eval}(\text{Var}) \) and constraint \( (\alpha \bowtie z) \in C(\text{Var}) \), we write \( \eta \models (\alpha \bowtie z) \) iff \( \eta(\alpha) \bowtie \eta(z) \) and say that \( (\alpha \bowtie \theta) \) is entailed by \( \eta \). Furthermore, we denote by \( \mathbb{C}(\eta) \) the constraints entailed by \( \eta \), i.e., \( \mathbb{C}(\eta) = \{c \in C(\text{Var}) \mid \eta \models c\} \).

For a countable set \( X \) and \( x \) ranging over \( X \), we define Boolean expressions \( B(X) \) over \( X \) by the grammar \( \phi ::= x \mid \neg \phi \mid \phi \land \phi \). Furthermore, we define the satisfaction relation \( \models \subseteq \wp(X) \times B(X) \) in the usual way by \( Y \models x \) if \( x \in Y \), \( Y \models \neg \psi \) iff \( Y \not\models \psi \), and \( Y \models \psi_1 \land \psi_2 \) iff \( Y \models \psi_1 \) and \( Y \models \psi_2 \), where \( Y \subseteq X \). For an evaluation \( \eta \in \text{Eval}(\text{Var}) \) and \( \phi \in B(\mathbb{C}(\text{Var})) \), we write \( \eta \models \phi \) iff \( \mathbb{C}(\eta) \models \phi \).

Stochastic Programs. We call a function \( u: \text{Var} \to E(\text{Var}) \) update, and a distribution \( \sigma \in \text{Distr}(\text{Upd}) \) over a given finite set \( \text{Upd} \) of updates stochastic update. The effect of an update \( u: \text{Var} \to E(\text{Var}) \) on an evaluation \( \eta \in \text{Eval}(\text{Var}) \) is their composition \( \eta \circ u \in \text{Eval}(\text{Var}) \), i.e., \( (\eta \circ u)(v) = \eta(u(v)) \) for all \( v \in \text{Var} \). This notion naturally extends to stochastic updates \( \sigma \in \text{Distr}(\text{Upd}) \) by \( \eta \circ \sigma \in \text{Distr}(\text{Eval}(\text{Var})) \), where for any \( \eta' \in \text{Eval}(\text{Var}) \) we have

\[
(\eta \circ \sigma)(\eta') = \sum_{u \in \text{Upd}, \eta(u) = \eta'} \sigma(u).
\]

A stochastic guarded command over a finite set of updates \( \text{Upd} \), briefly called command, is a pair \( \langle g, \sigma \rangle \) where \( g \in \mathbb{B}(\mathbb{C}(\text{Var})) \) is a guard and \( \sigma \in \text{Distr}(\text{Upd}) \) is a stochastic update. Similarly, a weight assignment is a pair \( \langle g, w \rangle \) where \( g \in \mathbb{B}(\mathbb{C}(\text{Var})) \) is a guard and \( w \in \mathbb{N} \) a weight. A stochastic program over \( \text{Var} \) is a tuple \( P = \langle \text{Var}, C, W, \eta_0 \rangle \) where \( C \) is a finite set of commands, \( W \) a finite set of weight assignments, and \( \eta_0 \in \text{Eval}(\text{Var}) \) is an initial variable evaluation. For simplicity, we write \( \text{Upd}(P) \) for the set of all updates in \( C \). The semantics of \( P \) is defined as the weighted MDP \( \mathcal{M}[P] = \langle S, \text{Act}, P, \eta_0, \Lambda, \lambda, \text{wgt} \rangle \) where

- \( S = \text{Eval}(\text{Var}) \),
- \( \text{Act} = \text{Distr}(\text{Upd}(P)) \),
- \( \Lambda = \mathbb{C}(\text{Var}) \),
- \( \lambda(\eta) = \mathbb{C}(\eta) \) for all \( \eta \in S \),
- \( P(\eta, \sigma, \eta') = (\eta \circ \sigma)(\eta') \) for any \( \eta, \eta' \in S \) and \( \langle g, \sigma \rangle \in C \) with \( \lambda(\eta) \models g \), and
• \( \text{wgt}(\eta) = \sum_{(g,w) \in W, \lambda(\eta) = g} w \) for any \( \eta \in S \).

Note that \( \mathcal{M}[\mathbf{P}] \) is indeed a weighted MDP and that \( P(\eta, \sigma) \) is a probability distribution with finite support for all \( \eta \in \text{Eval}(\text{Var}) \) and \( \sigma \in \text{Distr}(\text{Upd}(\mathbf{P})) \).

2.3 Description Logics

We recall basic notions of description logics (DLs) (see, e.g., [2, 4] for more details). Our approach is general enough to be used with any expressive DL, and our implementation supports the expressive DL \( \mathcal{SROIQ} \) underlying the web ontology standard OWL-DL [19]. For illustrative purposes, we present here a small yet expressive fragment of this DL called \( \mathcal{ALCQ} \). Let \( N_\text{c}, N_\text{r}, \) and \( N_\text{i} \) be pairwise disjoint countable sets of concept names, role names, and individual names, respectively. For \( A \in N_\text{c} \), \( r \in N_\text{r} \), and \( n \in \mathbb{N} \), \( \mathcal{ALCQ} \) concepts are then defined through the grammar

\[
C ::= A \mid \neg C \mid C \sqcap C \mid \exists r.C \mid \geq nr.C .
\]

Further concept constructors are defined as abbreviations: \( C \sqcup D = \neg (\neg C \sqcap \neg D) \), \( \forall r.C = \neg \exists r.\neg C \), \( \leq nr.C = \neg \geq (n+1)r.C \), \( \bot = A \sqcap \neg A \) (for any \( A \)), and \( \top = \neg \bot \). Concept inclusions (CIs) are statements of the form \( C \sqsubseteq D \), where \( C \) and \( D \) are concepts. A common abbreviation is \( C \equiv D \) for \( C \sqsubseteq D \) and \( D \sqsubseteq C \). Assertions are of the form \( A(a) \) or \( r(a, b) \), where \( A \) is a concept, \( a \in N_\text{i} \), and \( a, b \in N_\text{r} \). CIs and assertions are commonly referred to as DL axioms, and we use \( \mathcal{K} \) to denote the set of all DL axioms. A knowledge base \( \mathcal{K} \) is a finite set of DL axioms.

Assertions are used to describe the facts that hold for particular objects from the application domain. CIs model background knowledge on notions and categories from the application domain.

Example 1. For instance, we could define the state of a multi-server platform, in which different servers run processes with different priorities, using the following assertions:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{hasServer}(\text{platform}, \text{server1}) & \quad \text{hasServer}(\text{platform}, \text{server2}) \quad (1) \\
\text{runsProcess}(\text{server2}, \text{process1}) & \quad \text{runsProcess}(\text{server2}, \text{process2}) \quad (2) \\
\text{hasPriority}(\text{process1}, \text{highP}) & \quad \text{hasPriority}(\text{process2}, \text{highP}) \quad \text{High}(\text{highP}), \quad (3)
\end{align*}
\]

and specify further domain knowledge using the following CIs:

\[
\begin{align*}
\geq 4 & \text{runsProcess} . \top \sqsubseteq \text{Overloaded} \quad (4) \\
\geq 2 & \text{runsProcess} . \exists \text{hasPriority}. \text{High} \sqsubseteq \text{Overloaded} \quad (5) \\
\text{PlatformWithOverload} & \equiv \exists \text{hasServer}. \text{Overloaded} . \quad (6)
\end{align*}
\]

These CIs express that a server that runs more than 4 processes is overloaded 4, that it is already overloaded when it runs 2 processes with a high priority 5, and that PlatformWithOverload is a platform that has an overloaded server 6.

The semantics of DLs is defined in terms of interpretations, which are tuples \( (\Delta^\mathcal{I}, \mathcal{I}) \) of a set \( \Delta^\mathcal{I} \) of domain elements, and an interpretation function \( \mathcal{I} \) that maps every \( A \in N_\text{c} \) to some \( A^\mathcal{I} \subseteq \Delta^\mathcal{I} \), every \( r \in N_\text{r} \) to some \( r^\mathcal{I} \subseteq \Delta^\mathcal{I} \times \Delta^\mathcal{I} \), and every \( n \in \mathbb{N} \) to some \( n^\mathcal{I} \subseteq \Delta^\mathcal{I} \). Interpretation functions are extended to complex concepts in the following way:

\[
\begin{align*}
(-C)^\mathcal{I} &= \Delta^\mathcal{I} \setminus C^\mathcal{I} \\
(C \sqcap D)^\mathcal{I} &= C^\mathcal{I} \cap D^\mathcal{I} \\
(\exists r.C)^\mathcal{I} &= \{d \in \Delta^\mathcal{I} \mid \exists e. (d, e) \in r^\mathcal{I} \land e \in C^\mathcal{I}\} \\
(\geq nr.C)^\mathcal{I} &= \{d \in \Delta^\mathcal{I} \mid \# \{ (d, e) \in r^\mathcal{I} \mid e \in C^\mathcal{I} \} \geq n\} .
\end{align*}
\]
Satisfaction of a DL axiom $\alpha$ in an interpretation $I$, in symbols $I \models \alpha$, is defined as $I \models C \sqsubseteq D$ iff $C^I \subseteq D^I$, $I \models A(a)$ iff $a^I \in A^I$, and $I \models r(a, b)$ iff $(a^I, b^I) \in r^I$. An interpretation $I$ is a model of a DL knowledge base $K$ iff $I \models \alpha$ for all $\alpha \in K$. $K$ is inconsistent if it does not have a model, and it entails an axiom or assertion $\alpha$, in symbols $K \models \alpha$, if $I \models \alpha$ for all models $I$ of $K$.

In the above example, we have $K \models \text{Overloaded}(\text{server2})$ because the server $\text{server2}$ runs two prioritized processes, and $K \models \text{PlatformWithOverload}(\text{platform})$ as platform has server2 as an overloaded server.

3 Contextualized Programs

Contextualized programs supply a combination of formalisms to specify operational behavior of a system and to describe background knowledge on the context in which the system runs. In contextualized programs, we want to combine two formalisms introduced in the last section to define operational behavior and their context separately, loosely coupled. In general, a contextualized program comprises the following three components:

The Program is a specification of the operational behavior given as an abstract stochastic program, which may use hooks to refer to situations that depend on the context the program is executed in.

The Context is a DL knowledge base representing knowledge about the context in which the program is executed.

The Interface links program and context by providing mappings between the language used in the program and the DL of the knowledge base.

We provide a formal definition of contextualized programs (Section 3.1) and define their semantics in terms of weighted MDPs (Section 3.2). To illustrate these definitions, we extend the running example given into a model-checking scenario: we consider a generic multi-server platform on which processes can be assigned to servers, scheduled to complete a given number of jobs. The program specifies the dynamics of this scenario, i.e., how jobs are executed, how processes are assigned to servers or moved, and when processes terminate and when they are spawned. The context gives details and additional constraints for a specific multi-server platform. We want to perform probabilistic model checking to analyse different aspects of the system, depending on the operational behavior and the different hard- and software configurations specified by the context.

3.1 Contextualizing Stochastic Programs with Ontologies

We introduce contextualized programs formally and illustrate their concepts by our running example. In preparation of the definition, we fix a set $H$ of labels called hooks. We define abstract stochastic programs as an extension of stochastic programs, where the guards used in guarded commands and in weights can be picked from the set $B(C(\text{Var}) \cup H)$. For instance, with $\text{migrate} \in H$, the following guarded command may appear in an abstract stochastic program:

$$(\text{migrate} \land \text{server_proc1} = 2) \rightarrow \begin{cases} 1/2 : \text{server_proc1} := 1 \\ 1/2 : \text{server_proc1} := 3 \end{cases}$$

This command states that in case the hook $\text{migrate}$ is active and Process 1 runs on Server 2, move Process 1 to Server 1 or to Server 3 with a 50% probability each. For a given abstract program $P$, we refer to its hooks in $P$ by $H(P)$.
Definition 2. A contextualized program is a tuple $C = (P, K, I)$ where

- $P = (\text{Var}_P, C, W, \eta_0)$ is an abstract stochastic program,
- $K$ is a DL knowledge base describing the context,
- $I = (\text{Var}_C, H_C, F_C, \text{pD}, \text{Dp})$ is a tuple describing the interface, where $\text{Var}_C$ is a set of variables, $H_C$ is a set of hooks, $F$ is a set of DL axioms called fluent axioms, and two mappings $\text{pD}: H_C \rightarrow \wp(A)$ and $\text{Dp}: F_C \rightarrow \wp(\wp(\text{Var}_C))$, and for which we require that $I$ is compatible with $P$ in the sense that $H(P) \subseteq H_C$ and $\text{Var}_C \subseteq \text{Var}_P$. Given a contextualized program $C$, we refer to its abstract stochastic program by $P_C$, to its context by $K_C$, to its interface by $I_C$.

We illustrate the above definition and its components by our multi-server system example and consider instances running $n$ processes on $m$ servers.

Program. The stochastic program $P_C$ specifies the protocol how processes are scheduled to complete their jobs when running on the same server, and when context-dependent migration of processes to other servers should be performed. Job scheduling could be performed, e.g., by selecting processes uniformly via tossing a fair coin or in a round-robin fashion. Here, the hook $\text{migrate} \in H$ is used to determine when a server should migrate processes to other servers. The program further specifies guarded weights, amending states marked with $\text{migrate}$ by a costs.

Context. The context knowledge base $K_C$ models background knowledge about a particular server platform. For instance, it could use the example axioms from Section 23 to specify hardware characteristics of the servers $\text{CIs}[1-9]$, architecture specifics using the assertions in [1], and distribute different priorities among a set of predefined processes using the assertions in [3]. To establish a link with the hook $\text{migrate}$ in the interface, we use an additional CI to describe the conditions that necessitate a migration in the platform:

$$\text{NeedsToMigrate} \equiv \text{PlatformWithOverload}.$$ 

In more complex scenarios, migration can depend on a server and can be specified by more complex CIs. This modeling makes it easy to define different migration strategies within the different contexts. Each of them can be used by simply referring to the $\text{migrate}$-hook in the program.

Note that the guarded command language uses variables (over integers) to refer to servers and processes, while the knowledge base uses individual names for them. The program and the context thus have different views on the system, mapped to each other via the interface.

Interface. To interpret the states of the program $P_C$ in DL, the interface specifies a set $F_C$ of “fluent” DL axioms that describe the dynamics of the system. The function $\text{Dp}$ maps each element $\alpha \in F$ to an expression $\text{Dp}(\alpha) \in \wp(\wp(\text{Var}_P))$, identifying states in the program language in which $\alpha$ holds. It is thus a mapping from the DL to the abstract program language. In our example, $F$ would contain assertions of the form $\text{runsProcess(server}_i, \text{process}_j)$, which are mapped to constraints $\text{Dp}((\text{runsProcess(server}_i, \text{process}_j))) = (\text{server}_j = i)$. This allows to represent each program state in the context $K_C$ as a DL knowledge base with axioms from $F$. Note that the mapping $\text{Dp}$ can only refer to variables that are used by the program, as we require $\text{Var}_I \subseteq \text{Var}(P_C)$ to ensure that for every axiom $\alpha \in F$. Hence, $\text{Dp}(\alpha)$ has well-defined
meaning within the abstract program. However, the program may use additional variables that are only relevant for the operational behavior.

To interpret the hooks in the DL, we additionally need a mapping \( pD \) from the program language into the DL. Specifically, \( pD \) assigns to each hook \( \ell \in H_C \) a set \( pD(\ell) \) of DL axioms. In our running example, the hook \texttt{migrate} would, e.g., be mapped as \( pD(\texttt{migrate}) = \{ \text{NeedsToMigrate(platform)} \} \). All hooks in the program are mapped by the interface due to the condition \( H(P_C) \subseteq H \). However, further hooks can be defined that are only relevant for the analysis tasks to be performed. For instance, we might use a hook \texttt{critical} to mark critical situations in our system, and analyze the probability of the contextualized program to enter a state in which this hook is activated.

To illustrate the idea of the mappings, consider a virtual communication flow between the program and the context. If the context wants to know which axioms in \( \alpha \in F \) hold in the current state, it asks the abstract program whether the expression \( Dp(\alpha) \) is satisfied. For the program to know which hooks \( \ell \in H_C \) are active in the current state, it asks the context whether an axiom in \( pD(\ell) \) is entailed. In the next section, we formalize this intuition and define the semantics of contextualized programs via induced MDPs.

### 3.2 Semantics of Contextualized Programs

In order to account for both the program \( P_C \) and the context \( K_C \), such the contextualized MDP induced by \( P_C \) has to provide two views on its states. The first view is from the perspective of \( P_C \): as it is the case for stochastic programs, a system state is characterized by an evaluation over \( \text{Var}_P \). For instance, a state \( q \) might be associated with the following evaluation \( \eta_q \):

\[
\text{server}_\text{proc1} = 2 \quad \text{server}_\text{proc2} = 2 \quad \text{server}_\text{proc3} = 0,
\]

stating that Process 1 and Process 2 run on Server 3, while Process 3 is currently not running.

The second view is from the perspective of the context: state \( q \) is characterized by a knowledge base \( K_q \) that contains all axioms in \( K_C \) and

\[
\text{runsProcess(server2,process1)} \quad \text{runsProcess(server2,process2)}.
\]

\( K_q \) entails \texttt{ShouldMigrate(platform)}, and therefore the state \( q \) should be labeled with the hook \texttt{migrate}. We make this intuition formal in the following definition.

**Definition 3.** A contextualized state is a tuple of the form \( q = \langle \eta_q, K_q \rangle \), where \( \eta_q \) is an evaluation and \( K_q \) a DL knowledge base. Let \( C \) be a contextualized program as in Definition 2. A contextualized state \( q \) conforms to \( C \) iff

1. \( K_q \subseteq K_C \cup F \),
2. \( K_C \subseteq K_q \), and
3. for every \( \alpha \in F_C \), we have \( \alpha \in K_q \) iff \( \eta_q \models Dp(\alpha) \).

Intuitively, a contextualized state conforms to \( C \) if it conforms to the mapping \( Dp \) provided by the interface, as well as to the axioms specified by the context \( K_C \). It follows from the definition that for every evaluation \( \eta \) and contextualized program \( C \), there is a unique contextualized state \( q \) conforming to \( C \) such that \( \eta_q = \eta \). We refer to this contextualized state as \( q = e(C, \eta) \), which is defined by \( \eta_q = \eta \) and \( K_q = K_C \cup \{ \alpha \in F_C \mid \eta \models Dp(\alpha) \} \). This observation allows us to define updates on contextualized states in a convenient manner. Specifically, the result of applying an update \( u \) on a contextualized state \( q \) is defined as \( u(q) = e(C, u(\eta_q)) \). Intuitively,
we first apply the update on the evaluation $\eta_q$ of $q$, and then compute its unique extension to a contextualized state. Our definition naturally extends to stochastic updates, leading to distributions over contextualized states.

Let $q$ denote the contextualized state from above and consider the update $u = \{\text{server\_proc1} \mapsto 2\}$. Then denote $q' = u(q)$ and obtain $u(\eta_q) = \eta_{q'}$ as

$$\text{server\_proc1} = 1 \quad \text{server\_proc2} = 2 \quad \text{server\_proc3} = 0,$$

and $K_q = K_C \cup F'$, where $F'$ contains

$$\text{runsProcess(server1, process1)} \quad \text{runsProcess(server2, process2)}.$$

While $K_q \models \text{ShouldMigrate(platform)}$, there is no such entailment in $K_{q'}$, so that the hook migrate should become inactive in state $q'$.

In the contextualized MDP, states are labeled with constraints $C(\text{Var})$ and with hooks $H$. The hooks $h \in H_C$ included in the label of a state $q$ are determined by whether $K_q \models pD(h)$ is satisfied. This is captured using the labeling function of the MDP, since the labels determine relevant properties of a state for both model checking and update selection.

**Definition 4.** Let $C = \langle P, K, I \rangle$ be a contextualized program as in Definition 2. The weighted MDP induced by $C$ is $M[C] = \langle Q, Act, P, q_0, \Lambda, \omega \rangle$ where

- $Q = \{e(C, \eta) \mid \eta \in \text{Eval(Var}_P)\}$,

- $Act = \text{Distr(Upd(P))}$,

- $q_0 = e(C, \eta_0)$,

- $\Lambda = H \cup C(\text{Var}_P)$,

- $\lambda(q) = C(\eta_q) \cup \{\ell \in H_C \mid K_q \models pD(\ell)\}$ for every $q \in Q$,

- $P(q_1, \sigma, q_2) = (\eta_{q_2} \circ \sigma)(\eta_{q_1})$ for any $q_1, q_2 \in Q$ and $\langle g, \sigma \rangle \in C$ with $\lambda(q_1) = g$, and

- $\omega(q) = \sum_{\langle g, w \rangle \in W, \lambda(q) = g} w$ for all $q \in Q$.

The above definition closely follows the standard semantics for stochastic programs (see Section 2.2), while amending contextual information to each state in such a way that hooks are assigned to states as specified by the interface $I$. It thus can be shown similarly that the weighted MDP induced by a contextualized program is always well-defined.

**Remark on Inconsistent States.** Note that possibly some states of the induced MDP get assigned logically inconsistent knowledge bases. We call those states inconsistent. We can identify and mark inconsistent states easily using a hook $\ell_{\bot} \in H$ for which we set $pD(\ell_{\bot}) = \{\top \sqsubseteq \bot\}$. Depending on the application, inconsistent states might or might not be desirable. In general, there are different ways in which such states can be handled within our framework:

1) Inconsistent states could mean there are errors in specification of the operational behavior or in the context. We would then want to provide users with tool support for detecting whether the program can enter an inconsistent state. Existing model-checking tools can directly be used for this, as they just have to check whether a state labeled with $\ell_{\bot}$ is reachable.

2) The stochastic program can detect inconsistent states using the hook $\ell_{\bot}$, and act upon them accordingly to resolve the inconsistency. This could be useful, e.g., for modeling exception handling or interrupts within the program to deal with unexpected situations.

3) Both, the nondeterministic and probabilistic choices in the MDP can be restricted to only enter consistent
states. The context then has a direct impact on the state space of the MDP. This can be seen as a desirable feature of contextualized programs, as different contexts may pose different constraints on possible states a system may enter, which can be quite naturally expressed using DL axioms.

4 Analysis of Contextualized Programs

For the quantitative analysis of contextualized programs, we make use of a probabilistic model checking tool (PMC) in combination with a DL reasoner. Specifically, the DL reasoner is used to decide which hooks are assigned to each state in the MDP. This in turn depends on the axioms entailed by the knowledge base assigned to the state. Constructing these contextualised states explicitly is not feasible in practice, as there can be exponentially many. PMC tools as Prism use advanced techniques to represent the set of MDP states concisely, which is vital to their performance. However, this representation does not provide how to assign hooks. Furthermore, DL reasoning itself can be costly: for the DL SROIQ underlying the OWL-DL standard, it is N2EXPTIME-complete \cite{21}, and already for its fragment ALCQ introduced in Section 2.3, it is EXPTime-complete \cite{29}. Even though there exist efficient reasoners that can deal with large OWL-DL ontologies \cite{26}, if we want to perform model checking practically, we have to avoid calling the reasoner exponentially many times.

In settings where ontologies are used to enrich queries over databases, a common technique is to rewrite queries by integrating all relevant information from the ontology. This allows for a direct evaluation of the rewritten query using standard database systems \cite{9}. We propose a similar technique here, where we rewrite the contextualized program into a stochastic program that can be directly evaluated using a probabilistic model checker. To do this efficiently, our technique aims at reducing the amount of reasoning required, as well as to reduce the size of the resulting program.

To formalize this idea, we define a translation \( t \) from contextualized programs \( C \) into stochastic programs \( t(C) \) that do not contain any hooks in guards. The translation is based on an assignment \( hf: H \to B(\mathbb{C}(Var)) \) of hooks \( \ell \in H_C \) to corresponding hook formulas \( hf(\ell) \), such that the MDPs induced by \( C \) and by \( t(C) \) correspond to each other with respect to their hooks. This correspondence is captured in the following definition.

**Definition 5.** Given two weighted MDPs,

\[ M = (S, Act, P, s_0, \Lambda, \lambda, wgt) \]

and

\[ M' = (S', Act', P', s'_0, \Lambda', \lambda', wgt'), \]

such that \( Act = Act' \), and a partial function \( \sigma: \Lambda \to B(\Lambda') \) mapping labels in \( \Lambda \) to formulas over \( \Lambda' \). The weighted MDPs \( M \) and \( M' \) are equivalent modulo \( \sigma \) iff there exists a bijection \( b: S \leftrightarrow S' \) such that

1. \( b(s_0) = s'_0 \),
2. for every \( s_1, s_2 \in S \) and \( \alpha \in Act \), \( P(s_1, \alpha, s_2) \) is defined iff \( P'(b(s_1), \alpha, b(s_2)) \) is defined, and \( P(s_1, \alpha, s_2) = P'(b(s_1), \alpha, b(s_2)) \),
3. for every \( s \in S \), \( wgt(s) = wgt'(b(s)) \), and
4. for every \( \ell \in \Lambda \) and \( s \in S \) holds that \( \ell \in \lambda(s) \) iff \( \lambda(b(s)) \models \sigma(\ell) \).
This notion naturally extends to stochastic programs and contextualized programs via their induced MDPs. Specifically, a contextualized program \( C \) and a stochastic program \( P \) are equivalent modulo \( \text{hf} \) iff \( \mathcal{M}[C] \) and \( \mathcal{M}[P] \) are equivalent modulo \( \text{hf} \).

If a contextualized program \( C \) and a stochastic program \( P \) are equivalent modulo \( \text{hf} \), all analysis tasks on \( C \) can be reduced to analysis on \( P \): if the analyses concern properties that make use of hooks, then replace each hook \( \ell \in H_C \) by \( \text{hf}(\ell) \). As a result, we can perform any PMC task that is supported by a PMC tool like Prism on contextualized programs, provided that the function \( \text{hf} \) and the corresponding stochastic program can be computed practically.

In the following we define, based on \( C \), a function \( \text{hf} \) that can be efficiently computed using DL reasoning and which can be used to compute a corresponding stochastic program equivalent to the contextualized program modulo \( \text{hf} \). Specifically, for every constraint \( c \in C(\text{Var}_P) \) we set \( \text{hf}(c) := c \), and for every hook \( \ell \in H \), we provide a hook-formula \( \text{hf}(\ell) \). The stochastic program \( t(C) \) is then obtained from \( C \) by replacing every hook \( \ell \in H \) by \( \text{hf}(\ell) \). This is sufficient, as according to the semantics the labels assigned to a contextualized state are fully determined by the evaluation of the state: which axioms are part of the state is determined by the mapping \( \text{Dp}: \mathcal{F}_C \rightarrow \mathcal{B}(C(\text{Var})) \), and which labels are part of the state is determined by using the mapping \( \text{pd}: H \rightarrow \varnothing(\mathbf{A}) \), based on which axioms are entailed by the ontology assigned to the state.

To compute \( \text{hf} \) in a goal-oriented manner, we make use of so-called justifications. These are defined independently of the DL in question, and there exist tools for computing justifications in various DLs.

**Definition 6.** Given a knowledge base \( K \) and an axiom \( \alpha \) s.t. \( K \models \alpha \), a subset \( J \subseteq K \) is a justification of \( K \models \alpha \) iff \( J \models \alpha \), and for every \( J' \subseteq J \), \( J' \not\models \alpha \). We denote by \( J(\mathcal{O}, \alpha) \) the set of all justifications of \( J \models \alpha \).

Intuitively, a justification for \( K \models \alpha \) is a minimal sufficient axiom set witnessing the entailment of \( \alpha \) from \( K \). For the hook formula \( \text{hf}(\ell) \), we consider the justifications \( J \) of \( K_C \cup \mathcal{F} \models \text{pd}(\ell) \), as these characterize exactly those subsets \( \mathcal{F}' \subseteq \mathcal{F}_C \) for which \( K_C \cup \mathcal{F}' \models \text{pd}(\ell) \). Note that for each such justification \( J \), only the subset \( J \setminus K_C \) is relevant. We thus define the hook formula \( \text{hf}(\ell) \) for \( \ell \in H \) as

\[
\text{hf}(\ell) = \bigvee_{J \in J(K_C \cup \mathcal{F}, \text{pd}(\ell))} \bigwedge_{\alpha \in (J \cap \mathcal{F}_C)} \text{Dp}(\alpha).
\]  

(7)

Here, we follow the convention that the empty disjunction corresponds to a contradiction \( \bot \), while the empty conjunction corresponds to a tautology \( \top \).

The final translation \( t(C) \) of the contextualized program \( C = (P, K, I) \) is then simply defined as the stochastic program obtained from \( P \) by replacing every hook \( \ell \in H \) by \( \text{hf}(\ell) \).

**Theorem 7.** The contextualized program \( C \) and the stochastic program \( t(C) \) are equivalent modulo \( \text{hf} \).

**Proof.** We take the MDP \( \mathcal{M} = \mathcal{M}[t(C)] \) induced by the translated program \( t(C) \) and extend it to the MDP \( \mathcal{M}' = \mathcal{M}[C] \) induced by the contextualized program \( C \), such that there exists a bijection as in Definition 5. Specifically, based on the MDP

\[
\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{M}[t(C)] = \langle \text{Eval}(\text{Var}), \text{Distr}(\text{Upd}), P, \eta_0, C(\text{Var}), \lambda, \text{wgt} \rangle
\]

induced by \( t(C) \), we define the MDP

\[
\mathcal{M}' = \langle Q', \text{Distr}(\text{Upd}), P', e(\mathcal{C}, \eta_0), C(\text{Var}) \cup H, \lambda', \text{wgt}' \rangle,
\]

where

\[11\]
• $Q' = \{e(C, \eta) \mid \eta \in \text{Eval}(\text{Var})\}$,

• for every $\eta_1, \eta_2 \in \text{Eval}(\text{Var})$ and $d \in \text{Distr}(\text{Upd})$ for which $P(\eta_1, d, \eta_2)$ is defined, we set $P'(e(C, \eta_1), d, e(C, \eta_2)) = P(\eta_1, d, \eta_2)$,

• for every $q \in Q'$, $\text{wgt}'(q) = \text{wgt}(\eta_q)$, and

• for every $q \in Q'$, $\lambda'(q) = \lambda(\eta_q) \cup \{\ell \in H \mid K_q \models \text{pD}(\ell)\}$.

The bijection $b: Q' \leftrightarrow \text{Eval}(\text{Var})$ is then defined by setting $b(q) = \eta_q$ for all $q \in Q'$. Clearly $b$ is a bijection that satisfies Conditions 1–4 in Definition 3, so that $M$ and $M'$ are equivalent modulo $hf$. It remains to show that $M'$ is the MDP induced by $C$. We start with the following claim.

**Claim.** For every $\ell \in H$ and $q \in Q'$, $\lambda'(q) \models \ell$ iff $\lambda'(q) \models hf(\ell)$.

**Proof of claim.** ($\Rightarrow$) Assume $\lambda'(q) \models \ell$. By construction of $M'$ and the fact that $\lambda$ maps to $C(\text{Var})$, we have $O_q \models \text{pD}(\ell)$. Then, there is a justification $J$ for $O_q \models \text{pD}(\ell)$. Since $O_q \subseteq K_C \cup F$, $J$ is also a justification for $K_C \cup F \models \text{pD}(\ell)$. Furthermore, since every state in $Q'$ conforms to $C$, by Definition 3, $\eta_q \models \text{Upd}(\alpha)$ for all $\alpha \in (J \setminus K_C) \subseteq (O_q \setminus K_C)$. It follows that $\eta_q \models \bigwedge_{\alpha \in \beta} \text{Upd}(\alpha)$, and consequently $\eta_q \models hf(\ell), \lambda(\eta_q) \models hf(\ell)$, and $\lambda'(q) \models hf(\ell)$.

($\Leftarrow$) Conversely, assume $\lambda'(q) \models hf(\ell)$. Then, by construction of $hf$, there is a justification $J$ for $K_C \cup F \models \text{pD}(\ell)$ s.t. $\eta_q \models \bigwedge_{\alpha \in \beta} \text{Upd}(\alpha)$. Since $q$ is a contextualized state that conforms to $C$, Definition 3 yields that for every $\alpha \in J \setminus K_C$, $\eta_q \models \text{Upd}(\alpha)$ if $O_q \models \alpha$. Since also $K_C \subseteq O_q$, we obtain that $J \subseteq O_q$, and since $J \models \text{pD}(\ell)$, that $O_q \models \text{pD}(\ell)$. Now, by construction of $M'$, we obtain that $\ell \in \lambda'(q)$, and consequently that $\lambda'(q) \models \ell$.

As a consequence of this claim, for every Boolean formula $\phi \in \mathbb{B}(\text{Eval}(\text{Var}) \cup H)$ and $q \in Q'$, $\lambda'(q) \models \phi$ iff $\lambda(b(q)) \models hf(\phi)$, where $hf(\phi)$ denotes the result of replacing in $\phi$ every hook $\ell \in H$ by $hf(\ell)$. We obtain that for every guarded command $\langle g, s \rangle \in C$, where $C$ is the set of guarded commands of the contextualized program $C$, and for every $q \in Q'$, $\lambda'(q) \models g$ iff $\lambda'(\eta_q) \models hf(g)$, which means that $P'$ satisfies the condition in Definition 3. Similarly, for $W$ the set of weight assignments in $t(C)$, and $W'$ the set of weight assignments in $C$, we obtain that for every $q \in Q'$,

\[ \text{wgt}'(q) = \text{wgt}(\eta_q) = \sum_{\langle h(f(q), z) \in W \mid \lambda'(\eta_q) \models hf(g) \rangle} z = \sum_{\langle g, z \in W' \mid \lambda'(q) = g \rangle} z, \]

which means that also $\text{wgt}'$ satisfies the conditions in Definition 3. Hence, $M'$ is indeed the MDP induced by $C$. We obtain that the MDP induced by $t(C)$ and the MDP induced by $C$ are equivalent modulo $hf$, and consequently, that $t(C)$ and $C$ are equivalent modulo $hf$.

5 Evaluation

We implemented the method described in Section 4 and used it in a tool chain that takes as input a contextualized program, where the abstract stochastic is represented using the input language of the prominent model checker PRISM, and all axiom sets are represented as ontologies in the standard web ontology language OWL. Since the PRISM supports macro definitions, the hook assignments provided by the computed function $hf$ could be conveniently used within the program, which we used to generate the translated stochastic program that was finally used by PRISM, and on which we performed several stochastic analysis tasks.
For computing hf, we implemented the method described in Section 4 in Java using the OWL-API \[18\], where we used the reasoner Pellet \[28\] for computing the justifications. Pellet supports most of the OWL DL profile, and furthermore comes with an integrated implementation for the computation of justifications using a glass box approach. To further improve the performance, we adapted the main class for computing justifications for our specific needs. Note that in Equation 7 specifying the situation formula, we only interested in the intersection of the full justification with the set $F$ of the axioms the program can actually change. Usually, the algorithm computing all justifications would consider all subsets of $K_C \subseteq F$, ignoring the separation into $K_C$ and $F$. We therefore modified the algorithm so that it ignores axioms in $K_C$ when comparing with earlier solution, which reduces the search space a lot of the set of axioms in $K_C$ is large. Apart from this optimization, we computed the situation formulae exactly as described in Section 4.

5.1 Multi-Server System Setting

Using the optimizations presented, we are able to analyze the multi-server system that served as running example in the last sections. Although embedded in a generic tool chain where an arbitrary number of servers, their operating systems, processes and durations of tasks can be investigated, we concentrate here on two particular scenarios. The first comprises one server and two $\Delta$-server on which six processes are running, while the second comprises one server and one $\Delta$-servers running eight processes. For each scenario we assumed that at any time step there is a 50% probability of a new job arriving for some process. To show-case the impact of changing program and program specifications for each of the scenarios, we implemented two different program specifications and four different contexts. The program specifications are provided by Prism code implementing a randomized or round-robin strategy for selecting next jobs to be executed.

We implemented four different contexts that mostly follow the general idea as in our running example, but differ in the specification of

- **critical situations** specifying situations that should be avoided,
- **migrate situations** specifying situations in which a server should consider migrating processes to another server, and
- **consistency situations** specifying when it is allowed for a specific process to be moved to a specific server.

These situations are guided by the concepts OverloadedServer and AlmostOverloadedServer, which based on the number of running processes specify when a server is overloaded or almost overloaded, respectively. Table 1 defines the four contexts in terms of concepts to be fulfilled to enable a critical situation (C), migrate situation (M), or that would lead to an inconsistent situation (I). For instance, within context 2, a critical situation arises when a prioritized process runs on an overloaded server, a migrate situation arises when either a prioritized process runs on an almost overloaded server or some server is overloaded, and an inconsistent situation would be in case the maximal number of processes on a server is reached or a process runs on a server that does not have the operating system the process is compiled for.

Note how these contexts provide for a convenient way of not only specifying the specifics of a given context of the migration in terms of software configuration and quality constraints, but also of specifying different migration strategies, without the designer having to hamper with the specification of the program.
Table 1: Varying different situations for different contexts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>context</th>
<th>prioritized runs on overloaded</th>
<th>prioritized runs on almost overloaded</th>
<th>two prioritized on same server</th>
<th>some server overloaded</th>
<th>max. number of proc on server</th>
<th>incompatible operating system</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>I</td>
<td></td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Within all these combinations, we obtained $2 \cdot 4 \cdot 2 = 16$ contextualized programs in total, which we translated into stochastic programs expressed in the input language of Prism. Note that we only had to employ two different interfaces for contextualized programs: one for each server configuration (3 and 2 servers, respectively).

5.2 Energy-aware Analysis

For the analysis of the contextualized programs described in the last section, we first considered the following standard reachability properties.

(1) What is the probability for reaching a critical situation within 15 time steps?
(2) What is the expected energy consumption for gaining at least 20 utility?
(3) What is the expected number of critical situations before reaching 20 utility?

For each of these properties, we computed the minimal and maximal probabilities determined by resolving the non-deterministic choices of the MDP semantics in a best/worse-case manner.

Note that the weight annotations above give rise to trade-offs between costs and utility where energy consumption or entering a critical situation can be seen as costs. For instance, it might be favorable to migrate a priority processes to a different server spending additional energy for increasing the completion rate and gaining more utility. To investigate this trade-off, we considered the following energy-utility quantiles [6].

(egy) What is the minimal energy consumption required for gaining at least 20 utility with probability at least 95%?
(crit) What is the minimal number of critical situations within which at least 20 utility is gained with probability at least 95%?

Table 2 shows the analysis results of the reachability Properties (1)–(3) and quantiles are shown, which are visualised in Figure 1. First, we considered the system configuration with two $\Delta$-servers and one $\Box$-server running six processes. One can observe that the different contexts have great impact on the results. As two $\Delta$-servers are at hand, $\Delta$-processes can be migrated without reaching an inconsistent state, leading to a wide range of best/worst-case results for properties (1)-(3). This is not the case in the scenario with one $\Delta$-server and one $\Box$-server running eight processes, where (except for the first context disregarding operating systems) no migration can occur. Here, min- and max-values agree for Contexts 2–4. Furthermore, the probability of entering a critical situation is much higher than in the first scenario, which also yields a much higher amount of critical situations that are entered until achieving utility (see
Table 2: Analysis results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>server/proc</th>
<th>context</th>
<th>program</th>
<th>prob. crit (1)</th>
<th>exp. egy (2)</th>
<th>exp. crit (3)</th>
<th>quantile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>min</td>
<td>max</td>
<td>min</td>
<td>max</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Δ Δ ■/6</td>
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<td>0.6604</td>
<td>0.9983</td>
<td>29.09</td>
<td>58.57</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>29.17</td>
<td>47.63</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>0.9854</td>
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<td>48.17</td>
</tr>
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<td>0.9866</td>
<td>29.17</td>
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</tr>
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<td>0.7612</td>
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<td>0.9999</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>0.9991</td>
<td>34.06</td>
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<td>roundr</td>
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<td>0.9845</td>
<td>26.77</td>
<td>26.77</td>
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</table>

values for the crit-quantile). In the latter scenario, the definition of a critical situation might be inappropriate as running four processes on each server is a standard configuration rather than critical. These results thus suggest the developers to adapt context definitions in a further refinement step. In all scenarios and contexts we see that a round robin job-selection strategy is superior to the randomized one when the objective concerns minimizing energy consumption, critical situations and their trade-off properties.

All the experiments were carried out using the symbolic MTBDD engine of PRISM in the version presented in [22]. The run-time statistics are shown in Table 3, showing a great impact of scenarios, contexts, and program variants on the model characteristics. Noticeable, when different operating systems are not modeled within the context, the arising state-space explosion problem leads to tremendous increase of the analysis times, ranging up to 5 days computation time. This shows the capability of context-aware analysis using context information to reduce the state space and making analysis feasible. The generation of all 16 models considered, including time for DL reasoning and generating PRISM code took only 130 seconds in total.

6 Related Work

Model checking context-dependent systems. The idea of using different formalisms for behaviors and contexts to facilitate model checking goes back to [12], where a scenario-based context description language (CDL) based on message sequence charts is used to describe environmental behaviors. Their aim is to mitigate the state-space explosion problem by resolving nondeterminism in the system to model the environment by parallel composition with CDL contexts. Modeling and model checking role-based systems with exploiting exogenous coordi-

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1 Hardware setup: Intel Xeon E5-2680@2.70GHz, 128 GB RAM; Turbo Boost and HT enabled; Debian GNU/Linux 9.1
Figure 1: Visualisation of elected analysis results. In order from top to bottom: running times of the experiments (left, logarithmic scale), number of critical situations, energy consumption and probability of entering a critical situation (bars visualise respective min. and max. values for reaching 20 utility, dots the corresponding quantiles).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>server/proc</th>
<th>context</th>
<th>program</th>
<th>states</th>
<th>nodes</th>
<th>analysis time [s]</th>
<th>quantiles</th>
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</thead>
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<td></td>
<td>reach</td>
<td>quantiles</td>
</tr>
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<td>2'011.52</td>
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</tr>
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<td>3'718'247</td>
<td>18'759.57</td>
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<td>16'782</td>
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<td>106'897</td>
<td>314.88</td>
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</table>

The table above shows the statistics of the analysis for different server/proc configurations. Components may play different roles in specific contexts (modeled through elements called *compartments*). As the approach above, the formalism to specify contexts is the same as for components, and a parallel composition is used for deployment. Feature-oriented systems describe systems comprising features that can be active or inactive (see, e.g., [14]). We can employ similar principles within our framework, as shown in our evaluation in Section 5. A reconfiguration framework for context-aware feature-oriented systems has been considered in [24]. All the above formalisms use an operational description of contexts, while we intentionally focused on a knowledge-based representation of contexts that allows for reasoning about complex contextual information and enables the reuse of established knowledge bases and ontologies.

**Description logics in Golog programs.** There is a relation between our work and that in [3, 30] on integrating DLs and ConGolog programs. While our focus is on a generic approach that allows to employ various PMC tasks using existing tools, the focus there is on verifying properties formulated in CTL in programs formulated in a different language, where also DL axioms specify tests within the program and within the properties to be checked, however, without a probabilistic component. While DL and program statements are not separated as in our approach, another main difference is that in the semantics in [3, 30], states are identified with interpretations rather than knowledge bases, which are directly modified by the program. This makes reasoning much more challenging, and easily leads to undecidability if not careful syntactic restrictions are put. Closer to our semantics are the DL-based programs presented in [16, 10], where actions consist of additions and removals of assertions in the knowledge base. Again, there is no separation of concerns in terms of program and context, and they only support a Golog-like program language that cannot describe probabilistic behavior.
7 Discussion and Future Work

We introduced contextualized programs in which stochastic programs specify operational behaviors, and DLs are used to describe contexts, with the aim of facilitating quantitative analysis of context-dependent systems. From an abstract point of view, the general idea is to use different, domain-specific formalisms for specifying the program and context, which are linked through hooks by an interface. We believe that this general approach is also useful for other applications, and that the use of different formalisms for the program and context specifications is often beneficial: the program should be specified with a formalism that is well-suited for modeling and analyzing dynamic systems, while the context should be modeled with a formalism tailored to describing and reasoning about stationary knowledge about the system. To this end, behaviors could be specified, e.g., by program code of any programming language, UML state charts, control-flow diagrams, etc., amended with hooks referring to contextual elements. Contexts could be, e.g., also described by databases where hooks are resolved through database queries. Depending on the chosen formalisms, our method for rewriting contextualized programs could still be applicable in such settings.

Regarding the specific contextualized programs introduced in this paper, several improvements are possible. First, as discussed in Section 3.2, we are currently not addressing inconsistent states in the contextualized programs directly, but offer various ways to deal with them in the program or analysis. In future work, we want to investigate integrated mechanisms for handling inconsistent states in an automatized way. Second, one could look at closer integrations between the context and the abstract program by means of a richer interface. For example, we could map numerical values directly into the DL by use of concrete domains [3], which would allow to express more numerical constraints in the context. Furthermore, we want to investigate dynamic switching of contexts during program execution, to model complex interaction between contexts as in [14], exploiting the close connection to feature-oriented systems discussed in Section 6.

References


