## Working Title

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## 1 Model

We work with the stochastic model of [1], which considers the evolution over time of a repairable dependability system operating in a randomly changing environment. The system consists of a collection  $\Omega = \{1, 2, ..., N\}$  of  $N < \infty$  component types. Each component type  $i \in \Omega$  has a redundancy  $1 \le r_i < \infty$ , and the  $r_i$  components of type i are assumed to be identical. A component can be either operational (up) or failed (down).

The environment changes randomly within a set  $\mathcal{E} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, L\}$ . For example, we can think of the environment as representing the current load on the system, and if there are two possible environments, 0 and 1, then 0 (resp., 1) may represent a low (resp., high) load. Once the environment enters  $e \in \mathcal{E}$ , it remains there for an exponentially distributed amount of time with rate  $\nu_e > 0$ , after which the environment changes to e' with probability  $\delta_{e,e'} \geq 0$ , where  $\delta_{e,e} = 0$  and  $\sum_{e' \in \mathcal{E}} \delta_{e,e'} = 1$ . We assume the matrix  $\delta = (\delta_{e,e'} : e, e' \in \mathcal{E})$  is irreducible; i.e., for each  $e, e' \in \mathcal{E}$ , there exists  $k \geq 1$  and a sequence  $e_0 = e, e_1, e_2, \dots, e_k = e'$  with each  $e_i \in \mathcal{E}$  such that  $\prod_{i=0}^{k-1} \delta_{e_i,e_{i+1}} > 0$ . In other words, it is possible to eventually move from environment e to environment e'.

The components in the system can randomly fail and then be repaired. When the environment is  $e \in \mathcal{E}$ , the failure rate and repair rate of each component of type i are  $\lambda_{i,e} > 0$  and  $\mu_{i,e} > 0$ , respectively. If there is only one environment e, i.e.,  $|\mathcal{E}| = 1$ , then the lifetimes and repair times of components of type i are exponentially distributed with rates  $\lambda_{i,e}$  and  $\mu_{i,e}$ , respectively. Exponential distributions are frequently used to model lifetimes of hardware and software components; e.g., see [2]. We assume that all operating components of a type i have the same failure rate  $\lambda_{i,e}$  in environment e. Thus, in a system with redundancies for which not all components of a type are needed for operation of the system, the extras are "hot spares" since they fail at the same rate as the main components.

Our model includes probabilistic instantaneous cascading failures, which occur as follows. The ordered set  $\Gamma_i$  specifies the types of components that a failure of a type-i component can cause to simultaneously fail. When a component of type i fails, it causes a single component of type  $j \in \Gamma_i$  to fail at the same time with probability  $\phi_{i,j}$  (if there are components of type j up). The events that the individual components types  $j \in \Gamma_i$  fail immediately are independent. Thus, when a component of type i fails, there are independent "coin flips" to determine which components in  $\Gamma_i$  fail, where the coin flip for  $j \in \Gamma_i$  comes up heads (one component of type j fails) with probability  $\phi_{i,j}$  and tails (no components of type j fail) with probability  $1 - \phi_{i,j}$ .

We allow for a cascading failure to continue as long as there are still components operational in the system. For example, the failure of a component of type i may cause a component of type j to fail (with probability  $\phi_{i,j}$ ), which in turn causes a component of type k to fail (with probability  $\phi_{j,k}$ ), and so on. As noted in [1], the SAVE package [3] allows for only one level of cascading, but the unlimited cascading in our model makes it significantly more difficult to analyze.

We can think of a cascading failure as a tree of simultaneously failing components. The root is the component, say of type i, whose failure triggers the cascade. The root's children, which are from  $\Gamma_i$ , are those components whose immediate failures were directly caused by the root's failure. At any non-root level of the tree, these components' failures were directly caused by the failure of their parents at the previous level. Although all the failing components in a cascade fail at the same time, we need to specify an order in which they fail for our problem to be well-defined, as we explain later. We assume the components in a tree fail in breadth-first order.

There is a single repairman who fixes failed components using a processor-sharing discipline. Specifically, if the current environment is e and there is only one failed component, which is of type i, then the repairman fixes that component at rate  $\mu_{i,e}$ . If there are b components currently failed, then the repairman allocates 1/b of his effort to each failed component, so a failed component of type i is repaired at rate  $\mu_{i,e}/b$ .

## 2 Markov Chain

We want to analyze the behavior of the system as it evolves over time. Because of the processor-sharing repair discipline and the exponential distributions for the event lifetimes, it will suffice to define the state of the system as a vector containing the number of failed components of each type and the current environment. Thus, let  $S = \{x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N, x_{N+1}) : 0 \le x_i \le r_i \ \forall i \in \Omega, x_{N+1} \in \mathcal{E}\}$  be the state space, and let  $Z = [Z(t) : t \ge 0]$  be the continuous-time Markov time (CTMC) living on S keeping track of the current state of the system. (If we had instead considered a first-come-first-served repair discipline, then the state space would need to be augmented to keep track of the order in which current set of down components failed.)

We assume that Z starts in environment  $0 \in \mathcal{E}$  with no components failed, i.e., state  $(0,0,\ldots,0)$ , and we now describe the CTMC's infinitesimal generator matrix  $Q=(Q(x,y):x,y\in S)$ , where Q(x,y) is the rate that the CTMC Z moves from state  $x=(x_1,\ldots,x_N,x_{N+1})$  to state  $y=(y_1,\ldots,y_N,y_{N+1})$ . If  $y_i=x_i$  for each  $i\in\Omega$  and  $y_{N+1}\neq x_{N+1}$ , then (x,y) is an environment transition with  $Q(x,y)=\nu_{x_{N+1}}\delta_{x_{N+1},y_{N+1}}$ . If  $y_i=x_i-1$  for one  $i\in\Omega$ ,  $y_j=x_j$  for each  $j\in\Omega-\{i\}$ , and  $y_{N+1}=x_{N+1}$ , then (x,y) is a repair transition corresponding to the repair of a component of type i, and  $Q(x,y)=x_i\mu_{i,x_{N+1}}/(\sum_{j\in\Omega}x_j)$ . If  $y_i\geqslant x_i$  for all  $i\in\Omega$  with  $y_j>x_j$  for some  $j\in\Omega$  and  $y_{N+1}=x_{N+1}$ , then (x,y) is a failure transition in which  $y_i-x_i$  components of type i fail,  $i\in\Omega$ . Any other (x,y) with  $x\neq y$  not falling into one of the above three categories is not possible, so Q(x,y)=0. The diagonal entry  $Q(x,x)=-\sum_{y\neq x}Q(x,y)$ , as required for a CTMC.

We now determine the rate Q(x,y) of a failure transition (x,y). First consider the case when there is no cascading failures possible, i.e.,  $\Gamma_i = \emptyset$  for each type i. Then the only

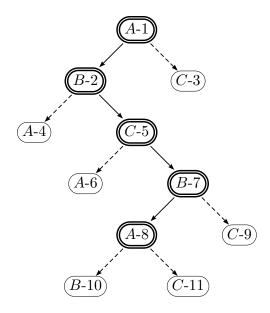


Figure 1: An example of a supertree.

possible failure transitions (x, y) have  $y_i = x_i + 1$  for one  $i \in \Omega$ ,  $y_j = x_j$  for each  $j \in \Omega - \{i\}$ , and  $y_{N+1} = x_{N+1}$ , and this corresponds to a single component of type i failing. Then  $Q(x, y) = (r_i - x_i)\lambda_{i, x_{N+1}}$ .

Cascading failures complicate the computation of Q(x,y) for a failure transition (x,y). As mentioned before, a cascading failure is modeled as a tree T built from the multiset B of simultaneously failing components, where B has  $y_{\ell} - x_{\ell}$  failing components of type  $\ell$ ,  $\ell \in \Omega$ . A tree T has a rate R(T) determined by the failure rate  $(r_i - x_i)\lambda_{i,x_{N+1}}$  of the root (assumed here to be of type i), as well as the product of  $\phi_{j,k}$  for a parent node of type j causing a child of type  $k \in \Gamma_j$  to fail, and  $1 - \phi_{j,k}$  from a node of type j not causing a component of type  $k \in \Gamma_j$  to fail when there are components of type k up. A difficulty arises since there can be many such trees corresponding to the multiset k0 of components failing in k1, and determining k2, and determining k3 requires summing k4. Over all possible trees k5 that can be constructed from k6. The number of such trees grows exponentially in the number of failing components in the cascade; see [1].

[The following is not complete and will need to be changed for another example.] Computing the rate R(T) of a tree T requires that the components fail in a certain order, even though all of the failures occur simultaneously. To see why, consider the following example. Let  $\Omega = \{A, B, C\}$ , with  $r_A = r_B = r_C = 4$ . Also, let  $\Gamma_A = \{B, C\}$ ,  $\Gamma_B = \{A, C\}$ , and  $\Gamma_C = \{A, B\}$ . Suppose that  $\mathcal{E} = \{0\}$ , and consider the failure transition (x, y) with x = (2, 2, 2, 0) and y = (4, 4, 3, 0). Thus, (x, y) corresponds to 2 components each of types A and B failing and a single component of type C failing. One possible tree T corresponding to (x, y) is shown in Figure 1.

The nodes depicted as double circles form the tree of failing components. The single circles correspond to components in some  $\Gamma_i$  set but did not fail. A component type j in some  $\Gamma_j$  could have not failed because there are components of type j up at this point but

its coin flip came up tails (with probability  $1 - \phi_{i,j}$ ), or there were no more components of type j up at this point. Each node has a label of the form t-i, where t denotes the type of the component for that node, and i is the ID, which is the position of the node in a breadth-first ordering of all the nodes (single and double circles). We include the IDs just to simplify the discussion here. We call the tree of all nodes the supertree corresponding to the tree T of failing nodes. The supertree is used to compute the rate R(T) of T, as follows. Since the root is a component of type A and there are  $r_A - x_A = 2$  components of type A at the start of the transition (x, y), the rate of the trigger of the cascade is  $2\lambda_{A,0}$ . The root then causes a component of type B to fail at node ID 2, and this occurs with probability  $\phi_{A,B}$ . The node at ID 3 did not fail, and at this point there are  $r_C - x_C = 2 > 0$  components of type C still up, so this nonfailure occurs with probability  $1 - \phi_{A,C}$ .

## References

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