

# Performance Analysis of Computer Systems

### Introduction to Queuing Theory

Holger Brunst (holger.brunst@tu-dresden.de) Matthias S. Mueller (<u>matthias.mueller@tu-dresden.de</u>)





# **Summary of Previous Lecture**

### Simulation Validation and Verification

Holger Brunst (<u>holger.brunst@tu-dresden.de</u>) Matthias S. Mueller (<u>matthias.mueller@tu-dresden.de</u>)



#### Validation and Verification

- Does the simulation model represents the real system?
  - Or: Are the assumptions about the real system (the system being modeled) reasonable?
  - $\rightarrow$   $\Rightarrow$  validation
- Is the simulation model correctly implemented?
  - Or: Does the simulation implements these assumptions cerrect?
  - $\Rightarrow$  verification





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#### Model validation techniques

- Key aspects of a model:
  - 1. Assumptions
  - 2. Input parameter values and distributions
  - 3. Output values and conclusions
- Each of these aspects needs to be validated
- Three possible sources of validity tests:
  - 1. Expert intuition
  - 2. Real system measurements
  - 3. Theoretical results





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### Model verification techniques

- Also called "debugging"
- Modularity or top-down design
- Antibugging
- Structured Walk-Through
- Deterministic models
- Run simplified cases
- Trace or online monitoring
- Continuity test
- Degeneracy tests
- Consistency tests
- Seed independence





# **Operational Method**

- Is based on a set of concepts that correspond naturally and directly to observed properties of real computer systems
- The computer system will be modeled with the help of a queuing network
- A queuing network has two types of nodes: wait and delay nodes
- A wait node consists of a input queue and a server
  - Jobs arrive at in the input queue
  - The server can only work one job at the time
  - A server is not idle when there are jobs in his queue
- Delay nodes can serve multiple jobs at once
  - Jobs stay until there are finished
- Jobs which have fulfilled they total work time demand leave the system



#### **Constraints to queuing networks**

- 1. Flow balance in each node
- 2. One step at the time
- 3. Routing homogeneity
- 4. Work time homogeneity
- 5. Arrival homogeneity
- Queuing networks which apply to these constraints are called *separable* networks
- Because each wait node can be analyzed independent of all others
- Combining the performance results of all nodes gives the performance of the total queuing network





### Summary of Foundational Laws for Operational Methods

Throughput Law

$$\frac{U_k}{V_k S_k} = X$$

Forced Flow Law

$$X_k = V_k X$$

Utilization Law

$$U_k = X_k S_k = D_k X$$

Little's Law

N = XR

$$N_k = X_k W_k = X R_k$$







$$X = \lambda$$
$$X_k = \lambda V_k$$
$$U_k = \lambda D_k$$

For delay nodes

$$R_k = D_k$$
$$N_k = XR_k = \lambda D_k = U_k$$

For wait nodes

$$R_k = \frac{D_k}{1 - U_k}$$
$$N_k = XR_k = \lambda \frac{D_k}{1 - U_k} = \frac{U_k}{1 - U_k}$$





LARS: Queuing Theory





# Introduction to Queuing Theory

Holger Brunst (<u>holger.brunst@tu-dresden.de</u>)

Matthias S. Mueller (matthias.mueller@tu-dresden.de)



#### If the facts don't fit the theory, change the facts.

Albert Einstein



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### Outline

- Motivation
- Queuing/Kendall notation
- Queuing in daily life
- Exponential distribution and its memoryless property
- Little's law
- Stochastic processes, birth-death process
- M|M|1 queuing model





#### **Motivation**

- Sharing of system resources in computer systems:
  - CPU, Disk, Network, etc.
- Generally, only one job can use the resource at any time
- All other jobs using the same resource wait in queues
- Queuing or queuing theory helps in determining the time that jobs spend in various system queues.
- These times can be combined to predict the response time of jobs



## **Queuing Notation**

- Imagine yourself at a supermarket checkout
- The checkout has a number of open cash points
- Usually, the cash points are busy and arriving customers have to wait
- In queuing theory terms you would be called "customer" or "job"
- In order to analyze such systems, the following system characteristics should be specified:
  - 1. Arrival Process (Interarrival Time Distribution)





#### 1. Arrival Process (Ankunftsprozess)

- If customers arrive at  $t_1, t_2, ..., t_{j'}$  the random variables  $\tau_j = t_j t_{j-1}$  are called **interarrival times (Zwischenankunftszeiten)**.
- General assumption: The  $\tau_j$  form a sequence of independent and identically **d**istributed (**IID**) random variables
- Most common arrival process is the **Poisson Process** which has exponentially distributed inter-arrival times
- Erlang- and hyper-exponential distributions are also used
- 2. Service Time Distribution (Antwortzeitverteilung)
  - The time a customer spends at the service station e.g. the cash points
  - This time is called the **service time (Antwortzeit)**
  - Commonly assumed to be IID random variables
  - Exponential distribution is often used





### **Queuing Notation**

#### 3. Number of Servers (Anzahl der Bedienstationen)

- The number of service providing entities available to customers
- If in the same queuing system, servers are assumed to be:
  - Identical
  - Available to all customers

#### 4. System Capacity

- The maximum number of customers who can stay in the system
- In most systems the capacity is finite
- However, if the number is large, infinite capacity is often assumed for simplicity
- The number includes both waiting and served customers







### **Queuing Notation**

#### 5. Population Size

- The total number of customers to be served
- In most real systems the population is finite
- If this size is large, once again, the size is assumed infinite for simplicity reasons

#### 6. Service Discipline or Scheduling

- The order in which customers are served:
  - First come first served (**FCFS**)
  - Last come first served (**LCFS**) with or without preemption
  - Round Robin (**RR**) with fixed size quantum
  - Shortest processing time (SPT)
  - Service in random order (SIRO)
  - System with fixed delay, e.g. satellite link
  - Prioritized scheduling (**PRIO**)







### Kendall Notation

- These six parameters need to be specified in order to define a single queuing station
- To compactly describe the queuing station in an unambigous way, the so called Kendall Notation is often used:
  - Arrivals | Services | Servers | Capacity | Population | Scheduling

  - Servers ➡ number of service providing entities

  - Population  $\Rightarrow$  size of the customer population
- Population and Scheduling are often omitted i.e. assumed to be infinitely and FCFS







### **Kendall Notation**

- The specific values of the parameters, especially Arrivals and Services, are diverse. Some commonly used once are:
  - *M* (Markovian or Memory-less): whenever the interarrival or service times are (negative) exponentially distributed
  - **G** (General): whenever the times involved may be arbitrarily distributed
  - **D** (Deterministic): whenever the times involved are constant
  - *E<sub>r</sub>* (*r*-stage Erlang): whenever the times involved are distributed according to an *r*-stage Erlang distribution
  - *H<sub>r</sub>*: whenever the times involved are distributed according to an *r*-stage hyper-exponential distribution



#### **Kendall Notation - Example**

- **M|G|2|8||LCFS** denotes a queuing station with:
  - Negative exponentially distributed interarrival times
  - Generally distributed service times
  - 2 service providing entities
  - Maximal 8 customers present
  - No limitation on the total customer population
  - LCFS scheduling strategy
- Simple queuing stations as above can be used for many queuing phenomena in computer and communication systems
- However, just a single queue with single service entity is considered, only allowing performance evaluations of parts of a complex system
- Examples: Analysis of network access mechanisms, simple transmission links, or various disk and CPU scheduling mechanisms





# **Queuing in Daily Life**

- Coin-operated coffee machines
  - Service time, i.e., the time for preparing the coffee, is deterministic
  - Waiting time occurs due to the stochastic in the arrival process
  - Kendall notation: G|D|1
- Visiting a doctor with appointment
  - Arrival times of patients is deterministic (if their appointments are accurate)
  - However, one often experiences long waiting times due to the stochastic service times (time the doctor talks to or examines patients)
  - Kendall notation: D|G|1
- Visiting a doctor without appointment
  - Things become get even worse during "walk-in" consulting hours
  - Both arrival and service process obeys only general characteristics and the perceived waiting time increases
  - Kendall notation: G|G|1







# Exponential (Markov) Distribution

- The (negative) exponential distribution is used extensively in queuing models
- It is the only continuous distribution with the so-called memoryless property which strongly simplifies the analysis:
  - Remembering the time since the last event does not help in predicting the time till the next event!
- Commonly used to model random durations, e.g.:
  - Duration of a phone call, Time between two phone calls
  - Duration of services, reparations, maintenance
  - Lifetime of radiactive atoms
  - Lifetime of parts, machines, technical equipment (without decline!)



Probability density function (Dichtefunktion), short: pdf

$$f(x;\lambda) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} &, x \ge 0, \\ 0 &, x < 0. \end{cases}$$

- Supported on interval [0,∞)
- λ > 0 is a parameter of the distribution
- Often called rate parameter
- Probability of continuous random variable X:

$$P(a \le X \le b) = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx$$





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### **Exponential Distribution**

#### Cumulative distribution function (Verteilungsfunktion), short CDF

$$F(x,\lambda) = \begin{cases} 1 - e^{-\lambda x} &, x \ge 0, \\ 0 &, x < 0. \end{cases}$$

Mean:



Variance:







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### **Memoryless Property**

- Stated earlier: Remembering the time since the last event does not help in predicting the time till the next event!
- Probability distribution of an exponentially distributed event *T* to occur within time *t*:  $E(T) = D(T + t) = 1 = e^{-\lambda t} + e^{-\lambda t}$

$$F(T) = P(T < t) = 1 - e^{-\lambda t}, t \ge 0$$

- We see an arrival event and start the clock at t = 0. The mean time to the next arrival event is  $1/\lambda$ .
- Suppose we do not see an arrival event until t = x. The distribution of the time remaining until the next arrival is:

$$P(T < x + t | T > x) = \frac{P(x < T < x + t)}{P(T > x)}$$

$$= \frac{P(T < x + t) - P(T < x)}{P(T > x)}$$

$$= \frac{(1 - e^{-\lambda(x+t)}) - (1 - e^{-\lambda x})}{e^{-\lambda t}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{25} - e^{-\lambda t}$$

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### **Memoryless Property**

• A random variable T is said to be memoryless if:

$$P(T < x + t \mid T > x) = P(T < t) \quad \forall x, t \ge 0$$

Example:

- Give a real-life example whose lifetime can be modeled by a variable T such that P(T > s + t | T > s) goes down as s goes up
- Bus with exponentially distributed arrival times with  $\lambda$ =2/h
  - Average waiting time?
  - Expected waiting time when already waiting for 15 minutes?

$$P(T < 20 | T > 15) = P(T < 5)$$

It does not mean that

$$P(T < 20 | T > 15) = P(T < 20)$$





#### Little's Law

- Named after John Little (MIT) who proved the law in 1961
- One of the most general laws in performance analysis
- Can be applied almost unconditionally to all queuing models and at many levels of abstraction
- Interesting point of notice: Long used before actually proved
- Little's Law basically relates the average number of jobs N in queuing station to the average number of arrivals per time unit λ and the average time R spent in the queuing station

$$N = \lambda R$$





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#### Little's Law - Understanding

- Consider a queuing station as a black box
- On average  $\lambda$  jobs arrive per time unit
- Upon its arrival, a job is either served or has to wait
- Denote E[R] (residence time or response time) as the average time spend in the queuing system
- Denote average number of jobs in the queuing system as E[N]
- Observe a single marked job which enters the system at  $t=t_i$  leaves at  $t=t_o$ .
- On average  $t_o$   $t_i$  will be equal to E[R]
- While this particular job passes the system, other jobs have arrived
- Since on average E[R] time units elapsed, their average number is  $\lambda \times E[R]$
- This number must be equal to the previously defined E[N] as every job could be the marked job. Thus:

### $E[N] = \lambda E[R]$





#### Little's Law - Remarks

- We assumed that the queue throughput T equals the arrival rate  $\lambda$
- Always the case if system is not overloaded and infinite buffers
- Otherwise customers will get lost and E[N] = T E[R]
- The relationship expressed by Little's law is valid independently of the form of the involved distributions
- This law is valid independently of the scheduling discipline and the number of servers
- E[N] is easy to obtain and measures like E[R] can be derived from it
- Applies also to networks of queuing stations







#### **Stochastic Processes**

- Analytical modeling uses several random variables but also stochastic processes which are sequences of random variables
- Collection of random variables {  $X(t) | t \in T$  }, indexed by the parameter t *(usually time)* which can take values of set T
- Values that X(t) assumes are called states. All possible states are called state space I.
- The state space and the time parameter can be discrete or continuous
- Discrete-state stochastic processes are also called **chain**, often with *I* = {0,1,2,...}
- Famous representatives: Markov Process, Birth-Death Process, and Poisson Process (form a hierarchy)





#### **Birth-Death Process**

- Future states of the process are independent of the past and depend only on the present
- Special case of the continuous time Markov chain
- State transitions are restricted to neighboring states
- States are represented by integers. State n can only change to state n+1 or state n-1
- Example: The number of jobs in a queue with a single server and individual arrivals (no bulk arrivals)
- An arrival to the queue (birth) causes the state to change by +1. A departure (death) causes the state to change by -1
- Below: State transition diagram with *n* states, arrival rates  $\lambda_n$  and service rates  $\mu_n$ . Arrival times and service times are exponentially distributed



#### **Birth-Death Process**

The steady-state probability p<sub>n</sub> of a birth-death process being in state n is given by the following theorem:

$$p_{n} = p_{0} \frac{\lambda_{0} \lambda_{1} \sqcup \lambda_{n-1}}{\mu_{1} \mu_{2} \sqcup \mu_{n}}$$
$$= p_{0} \prod_{j=0}^{n-1} \frac{\lambda_{j}}{\mu_{j+1}}, \qquad n = 1, 2, K, \infty$$

- $p_0$  is the probability of being in the **zero state**
- Can be proven (see book)
- Now that we have an expression for state probabilities we are able to analyze queues in the form of M/M/m/B/K
- Based on the state probabilities we can compute many other performance measures





## MMI Queuing Model

#### Most commonly used type of queue

- Can be used to model single-processor system or individual devices in a computer system
- Interarrival and service times are exponentially distributed, one server
- No buffer or population size limits, FCFS service discipline
- Analysis: We need the **mean arrival rate**  $\lambda$  and the **mean service rate**  $\mu$
- State transition similar to birth-death process with  $\lambda_n = \lambda$  and  $\mu_n = \mu$
- The probability of *n* jobs in the system becomes:

$$p_n = \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu}\right)^n p_0, \qquad n = 1, 2, K, \infty$$



# MMI Queuing Model

• The quantity  $\lambda/\mu = \rho$  is called **traffic intensity** 

• Thus 
$$p_n = \rho^n p_0$$

$$p_n = \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu}\right)^n p_0, \qquad n = 1, 2, \mathsf{K}, \infty$$

All probabilities should add to 1. Knowing this we can derive an equation for the probability of zero jobs ( $p_0$ ) in the systems:

$$p_0 = \frac{1}{1 + \rho + \rho^2 + \bot + \rho\infty} = 1 - \rho$$

• Substituting  $p_0$  in  $p_n$  leads to:

$$p_n = (1 - \rho)\rho^n$$
,  $n = 0, 1, 2, K, \infty$ 

- Based on this expression, many other properties can be derived
- Utilization of the server:  $U = 1 p_0 = \rho$
- The mean number of jobs in the system:

$$E[n] = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} np_n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n(1-\rho)\rho^n = \frac{\rho}{1-\rho}$$



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# MMI Queuing Model

• The probability of n or more jobs in the system is:  $P(\ge n \text{ jobs in the system}) = \sum_{j=n}^{\infty} p_j = \sum_{j=n}^{\infty} (1-\rho)\rho^j = \rho^n$ 

Using Little's law we can compute the mean response time:

$$E[n] = \lambda E[r]$$
$$E[r] = \frac{E[n]}{\lambda} = \left(\frac{\rho}{1-\rho}\right)\frac{1}{\lambda} = \frac{1/\mu}{1-\rho}$$









# **Thank You!**

Holger Brunst (<u>holger.brunst@tu-dresden.de</u>)

Matthias S. Mueller (matthias.mueller@tu-dresden.de)

