Lecture 33 — Applying Queueing Theory

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ECE 459 Winter 2019 1/39

Little's Law

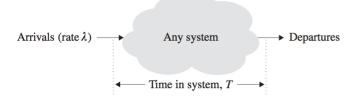
Little's Law says the average number of jobs in the system equals the product the average arrival rate into the system and the average time in the system.

Let's start with an open system. The law, written more formally:

$$E[N] = \lambda E[T]$$

ECE 459 Winter 2019 2 / 39

Little's Law



ECE 459 Winter 2019 3/39

Ignorance is Bliss

What we don't need to know about:

- the arrival process;
- the service time distribution;
- network topology;
- etc.

It seems intuitive that this is the case (or it should be).

ECE 459 Winter 2019 4/3

Restaurant Analogy



Key: Quick turnaround time.

Get people out quickly (low E[T]) \Rightarrow don't need a lot of seating (low E[N])

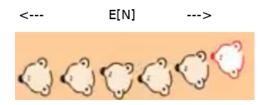


Opposite situation:

people leave slowly (high E[T]) \Rightarrow need much seating (more E[N]).

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Single FCFS queue:



Expected time for each customer to complete: $1/\lambda$ because the average rate of completions is λ .

So we can approximate E[T] as roughly $\frac{1}{\lambda}E[N]$.

ECE 459 Winter 2019 6/39

Little's Law for Closed Systems

For closed systems:

- N jobs in process at any given time (multiprocessing level of the system);
- *X* throughput rate.

If the system is ergodic, then $N = X \cdot E[T]$.

Assumes that there is zero think time.

ECE 459 Winter 2019 7/39

Users Ruin Everything

If we do have to deal with users and think time, then we care more about the response time E[R].

So for a terminal-driven system, expected response time is

$$E[R] = \frac{N}{X} - E[Z].$$

ECE 459 Winter 2019 8/39

Probabilistic processes are described according to their models, which will probably be one of:

- Deterministic (D)
- Markov (M)
- General (G)

ECE 459 Winter 2019 9 / 39

Markov Processes

We'll focus on Markov processes.

- Number of arrivals follows Poisson distribution.
- Inter-arrival times follow exponential distribution.
- Service times follow exponential distribution.

ECE 459 Winter 2019 10 / 3

Kendall Notation

Those letters we saw (D, M, G) are part of Kendall notation:

Six symbols, written in a specific order, separated by slashes.

The order is $\alpha/\sigma/m/\beta/N/Q$.

ECE 459 Winter 2019 11/3

Kendall Notation

Symbol	Meaning
α	The type of distribution (Markov, General, Deterministic)
σ	The type of probability distribution for service time
m	Number of servers
β	Buffer size
Ν	Allowed population size (finite or infinite)
Q	Queueing policy

ECE 459 Winter 2019 12 / 39

Why is abbreviation such a long word?

We often leave off the last three assuming that there is an infinite buffer, infinite population, and a FIFO queueing policy.

If that is the case, then we have only three values.

This produces the "M/M/1" and "M/M/k" symbols.

"M/M/1" means a Markov arrival process, exponential queueing system, and a single server.

■ When there are *k* servers, use *k* instead of 1.

ECE 459 Winter 2019 13 / 3

Utilization

$$\rho$$
 = utilization \in [0, 1]

the amount of time that the server is busy.

We talked about this earlier in an informal way, but now we can actually calculate it!

$$\rho = \lambda \times s$$
.

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M/M/1 Formulæ

For M/M/1 systems:

- completion time average, T_q , is $\frac{s}{(1-\rho)}$ average length of queue, W, is $\frac{\rho^2}{1-\rho}$

15/39

Queuing Theory Example

Server completes a request, on average, in 10 ms.

Time to complete request is exponentially distributed.

Over 30 minutes, 117 000 jobs arrive.

 \implies a M/M/1 situation.

- How long did it take to complete the average request?
- What is the average queue length?

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Queueing Theory Example

Given: service time s is 0.01s, arrival rate is 65 requests per second.

We calculate $\rho = 0.01 \times 65 = 0.65$.

Using the above formulæ:

- Time to complete the average request is 28.6 ms.
- Average length of the queue is 1.21.

ECE 459 Winter 2019 17 / 3

Queueing Theory Example

What about the number of jobs in the system?

Q = average number of jobs, including the waiting jobs and the ones being served.

The probability that there are exactly *x* jobs in the system at any time is:

$$(1-\rho)\rho^x$$
.

ECE 459 Winter 2019 18/39

Queueing Theory Example

The probability that the number of jobs is less than or equal to *n* is:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} (1-\rho)\rho^{i}.$$

For more than n at a time, from n + 1 to infinity...Or ...

$$1-\sum_{i=0}^n(1-\rho)\rho^i.$$

ECE 459 Winter 2019 19 / 39

Next: multiple servers.

Jobs arrive at a single queue. When a server is ready, it takes the 1st job from front of queue.

Servers are identical, jobs can be served by any server.

So far, so simple. Sadly, the math just got harder.

ECE 459 Winter 2019 20 / 39

The server utilization for the server farm is now

$$\rho = \lambda s/N$$
.

To make our calculations a little easier, we want an intermediate value *K*:

$$K = \frac{\sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \frac{(\lambda s)^i}{i!}}{\sum_{i=0}^{N} \frac{(\lambda s)^i}{i!}}.$$

K is always less than 1. It has no intrinsic meaning.

ECE 459 Winter 2019 21/39

What is the probability that all servers are busy?

C = probability a new job will have to wait in queue.

$$C = \frac{1 - K}{1 - \frac{\lambda s K}{N}}.$$

The M/M/k formulæ:

$$T_q = \frac{Cs}{k(1-\rho)} + s$$
 $W = C\frac{\rho}{1-\rho}$

ECE 459 Winter 2019 22 / 39

Our printer completes an average print job in 2 min.

Every 2.5 minutes, a user submits a job to the printer.

■ How long does it take to get the print job on average?

For a single printer, the system is M/M/1.

Service time s is 2 minutes; arrival rate λ is 1/2.5 = 0.4.

- $\rho = \lambda \times s = 0.4 \times 2 = 0.8.$
- $T_q = s/(1-\rho) = 2/(1-0.8) = 10.$

Ten minutes to get the print job. Ouch.

ECE 459 Winter 2019 23 /

Executive Decision

Here we have an opportunity to use the predictive power of queueing theory.

Management is convinced that ten minute waits for print jobs is unreasonable, so we have been asked to decide what to do.

- Should we buy a second printer of the same speed?
- Or should we sell the old one and buy a printer that is double the speed?

ECE 459 Winter 2019 24 / 39

The faster printer calculation is easy enough.

Now s=1.0 and λ remains 0.4, making $\rho=0.4$.

So rerunning the calculation:

$$T_q = s/(1-\rho) = 1/(1-0.4) = 1.67.$$

1:40 is a lot less time than 10:00!

ECE 459 Winter 2019 25 / 3

Two Printer Solution

The two printer solution is more complicated. So let us calculate intermediate value *K*.

$$K = \frac{\sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \frac{(\lambda s)^i}{i!}}{\sum_{i=0}^{N} \frac{(\lambda s)^i}{i!}} = \frac{\frac{(\lambda s)^0}{0!} + \frac{(\lambda s)^1}{1!}}{\frac{(\lambda s)^0}{0!} + \frac{(\lambda s)^1}{1!} + \frac{(\lambda s)^2}{2!}} = 0.849057$$

ECE 459 Winter 2019 26 / 39

Calculate!

Now C is 0.22857 and T_q is 2.57 minutes.

Two observations jump out at us:

we doubled the number of printers, but now jobs are completed almost four times faster; and

2 the single fast printer is better, if utilization is low.

ECE 459 Winter 2019 27 / 3:

Conditions

That is an important condition: if utilization is low.

At some point will the two printers be a better choice than the single fast one?

What if both printers are used to the max (100% load)...?

ECE 459 Winter 2019 28 / 39

The basic process is:

- Convert to common time units.
- **2** Calculate the visitation ratios V_i .
- **3** Calculate the device utilization ρ_i .
- Calculate the CPU service time.
- Calculate the device time.
- Find the bottleneck device.
- Calculate the maximum transaction rate.
- Calculate the average transaction time.

ECE 459 Winter 2019 29 / 39

Let us execute this process on a web server system that serves 9 000 pages per hour. Here are the known values:

Device	Data/Hour	λ	S	V	ρ	$V \times S$
Webpages	9 000					
CPU					42%	
Disk 1	108 000		11ms			
Disk 2	72 000		16ms			
Network	18 000		23ms			

ECE 459 Winter 2019 30 / 39

Step one is to convert to common time units; in this case, seconds.

Let's also look at the λ values—reported counts divided by seconds in the reporting period.

Device	Data/Hour	λ	S	V	ρ	$V \times S$
Webpages	9 000	2.5				
CPU					42%	
Disk 1	108 000	30	0.011s			
Disk 2	72 000	20	0.016s			
Network	18 000	5	0.023s			

ECE 459 Winter 2019 31/3

The visitation ratio is the number of times a device is used in each transaction; divide use by number of transactions to get V_i (you could also log this sort of thing).

The visitation ratio of the CPU is the sum of all other visitation ratios.

Device	Data/Hour	λ	S	V	ρ	$V \times S$
Webpages	9 000	2.5		1		
CPU	207 000	57.5		23	42%	
Disk 1	108 000	30	0.011s	12		
Disk 2	72 000	20	0.016s	8		
Network	18 000	5	0.023s	2		

ECE 459 Winter 2019 32 /:

Next, calculate device utilization: $\rho = \lambda \times s$. That is, arrival rate times service time.

Device	Data/Hour	λ	S	V	ρ	$V \times S$
Webpages	9 000	2.5		1		
CPU	207 000	57.5		23	42%	
Disk 1	108 000	30	0.011s	12	0.33	
Disk 2	72 000	20	0.016s	8	0.32	
Network	18 000	5	0.023s	2	0.115	

ECE 459 Winter 2019 33 / 3

We can also get the service time of the CPU by rearrangement of the utilization formula to $s = \rho/\lambda$.

Device	Data/Hour	λ	S	V	ρ	$V \times S$
Webpages	9 000	2.5		1		
CPU	207 000	57.5	0.0073s	23	0.42	
Disk 1	108 000	30	0.011s	12	0.33	
Disk 2	72 000	20	0.016s	8	0.32	
Network	18 000	5	0.023s	2	0.115	

ECE 459 Winter 2019 34/3

And the device time is the final thing we can fill in for this table: $V_i \times S_i$ (just like the column header says!).

Device	Data/Hour	λ	S	V	ρ	$V \times S$
Webpages	9 000	2.5		1		
CPU	207 000	57.5	0.0073s	23	0.42	0.168
Disk 1	108 000	30	0.011s	12	0.33	0.132
Disk 2	72 000	20	0.016s	8	0.32	0.128
Network	18 000	5	0.023s	2	0.115	0.046

ECE 459 Winter 2019 35 /:

Did we need to complete the whole table? Probably not.

We cared most about ρ —utilization.

The bottleneck device, i.e., the one that limits our maximum throughput, is the one that is the busiest.

Thus, the one with the largest utilization.

This application appears to be CPU bound; it has the highest utilization at 42%, well ahead of disk 1 and disk 2.

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Since the CPU is the bottleneck, we can predict the maximum rate of transactions (web page requests) we can serve.

$$\frac{1}{S_i V_i}$$
 or in this example, 5.95.

This is also called saturation.

If λ exceeds saturation, we will not be able to keep up with incoming requests.

With this table we can also calculate the average transaction time: it is the sum of the S_iV_i columns.

In this example, it is 0.474 seconds.

ECE 459 Winter 2019 37 /

It Gets Worse!

Typical assumption: we know the service times for each device.

Unfortunately this is not true; perf monitoring gives average size of device queue.

So we had better apply queuing theory here.

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The average size of a device's queue is W, and for an M/M/1 queue then

$$W=\frac{\rho^2}{1-\rho}.$$

Combining the known W with the average arrival rate λ , we can work out the service time.

$$W = \frac{(\lambda s)^2}{1 - \lambda s}$$

$$s = \frac{-w \pm \sqrt{w^2 + 4w}}{2\lambda}$$

ECE 459 Winter 2019 39 / 39