Applications of Sakasegawa's formula

EBB074A05

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1 Various models compared

We have (at least) three different types of models for a queueing system: simulation in discrete time, simulation in continuous, and Sakasegawa's formula to compute the expected waiting time in queue. Let's see how these models compare.

1.1 Discrete time simulation

We have a machine that can serve c_k jobs on day k. When the period length is T, then $c_k \sim \operatorname{Pois}(\mu T)$. The number jobs that arrive on k is $a_k \sim \operatorname{Pois}(\lambda T)$. The arrivals in period k cannot be served on day k. The code to simulate this should be familiar to you by now.

```
Python Code
   import numpy as np
   np.random.seed(3)
   labda = 3
   mu = 1.2 * labda
   T = 8 # period length, 8 hours in a day
   num = 1000
   a = np.random.poisson(labda * T, size=num)
11
   c = np.random.poisson(mu * T, size=num)
12
   L = np.zeros_like(a, dtype=int)
13
   L[0] = 5
15
   for i in range(1, num):
16
       d = min(c[i], L[i - 1])
17
       L[i] = L[i - 1] + a[i] - d
   print(L.mean(), L.std())
```

Ex 1.1. Run this code (and write down the results). Then change the code such that the arrivals can be served on the day they arrive. Rerun and compare the results.

Ex 1.2. Now change the period time, which was 8 hours in a day, to T = 1 (so that we concentrate on what happens during an hour instead of a day). Rerun the code with and without the arrivals being served on the period of arrival, and compare to the previous exercise. Explain the difference.

1.2 Continuous time simulation

Here is the code.

```
Python Code
   import numpy as np
   np.random.seed(3)
  labda = 3
  mu = 1.2 * labda
  num = 1000
 X = np.random.exponential(scale=1 / labda, size=num)
_9 A = np.zeros(len(X) + 1)
A[1:] = X.cumsum()
11 S = np.random.exponential(scale=1 / mu, size=len(A))
S[0] = 0
  D = np.zeros_like(A)
13
14
   for k in range(1, len(A)):
15
       D[k] = max(D[k - 1], A[k]) + S[k]
16
17
   J = D - A
18
   EL = labda * J.mean()
   print(EL)
```

Ex 1.4. Which result did we use to compute E[L]? Can we use that to estimate V[L]?

Ex 1.5. Run the code and compare with the discrete time simulation.

1.3 Sakasegawa's formula

Here we use Sakasegawa's formula to compute E[L].

```
Python Code
   import numpy as np
   def sakasegawa(labda, ES, Ca2=1, Cs2=1, c=1):
       rho = labda * ES
        V = (Ca2 + Cs2) / 2
       U = \text{rho} ** (\text{np.sqrt}(2 * (c + 1)) - 1) / (1 - \text{rho})
       T = ES / c
       return V * U * T
11
_{12} labda = 3
mu = 1.2 * labda
  ES = 1 / mu
   W = sakasegawa(labda, 1 / mu, 1, 1, 1)
  L = labda * (W + ES)
16
  print(L)
```

Ex 1.6. Explain the code, in particular the values of the parameters.

Ex 1.7. Run the code, and compare the value with the discrete and continuous time simulations.

Ex 1.8. What are advantages and disadvantages of using Sakasegawa's formula?

2 Server setup and batching

We can now setup a model in which jobs arrive in batches of size \$B and in between batches the server needs a constant setup time *R*. Check the queueing book for further background; we are going to build the model of the related section.

2.1 Sakasegawa's formula

I build up the code in small blocks. You should put the code blocks underneath each other as you progress.

Since we add setup times, it's easy to have too large loads.

```
Python Code

import numpy as np

np.random.seed(3)

B = 13

labda = 3

mu = 2 * labda

R = 2

rho = labda * (1 / mu + R / B)

assert rho < 1, f"{rho=} >= 1"
```

Ex 2.1. What does the assert statement? Why do I put it before doing any other work? What happens if you would set labda=10 and mu=3.

Next, we need to get the parameters correct for the batches. I just follow the book.

```
W1 = (B - 1) / 2 / labda Python Code
```

Ex 2.2. What is W1 conceptually:?

For the queueing time, we have this:

```
Python Code

labdaB = labda / B

VR = 0  # constant R

ca2 = 1 / B

ESO = 1 / mu

VSO = ESO * ESO

VSB = VR + B * VSO

ES = ESO + R / B

ESB = R + B * ESO

cs2 = VSB / ESB ** 2
```

Ex 2.3. We set ca2 = 1. What is the assumption about the distribution of the interarrival times X?

Ex 2.4. Print cs2. Why is that smaller than 1? #+end_{src}

For the average queueing time: Python Code def sakasegawa(labda, ES, Ca2, Cs2, c=1): rho = labda * ES V = (Ca2 + Cs2) / 2U = rho ** (np.sqrt(2 * (c + 1)) - 1) / (1 - rho)T = ES / creturn V * U * T W2 = sakasegawa(labdaB, ESB, ca2, cs2) Ex 2.5. In view of the previous exercise, explain that Python Code sakasegawa(labda, ES, 1, 1) gives the wrong result, but Python Code sakasegawa(labda, ES, 1, cs2) agrees with Python Code sakasegawa(labdaB, ESB, ca2, cs2) The last step: Python Code W3 = R + (B + 1) / 2 * ESOEx 2.6. What is the meaning of W3? The sojourn time: Python Code J = W1 + W2 + W3

2.2 Simulation

print(J)

To set up the simulation requires a bit fiddling with slicing. It took me a bit of time, and print statements, to get the details right. Here is the code, with the print statements so that you can figure out how it works.

```
Python Code
   # Don't forget the copy the parameters like B so that you work with
   # the same numbers.
  num = 10
5 num = B * (num // B) # get multiple of B
_{6} X = np.ones(num)
_{7} X[0] = 0
A = X.cumsum()
9 A = np.zeros_like(A0)
   for i in range(num // B):
       st = i * B + 1 # start
11
       fi = (i + 1) * B # finish
12
       print(st, fi, A0[fi])
13
       A[st : fi + 1] = AO[fi]
14
       print(A)
15
16
   S0 = np.ones_like(A0)
17
   SO[0] = 0
   S = S0.copy()
   S[1::B] += R
   print(S)
```

Ex 2.7. Use the print statements to explain how the slicing, i.e., notation like A[st: fi +1], works. Explain how A and S correspond to batch arrivals and services with setup times.

Now that we know how to construct batch arrivals and job service times that include regular setups, the rest of the simulation is standard.

```
_ Python Code
   # put the parameters here, or glue this code after the code for
   # Sakasegawa's formula
   num = 1000
   num = B * (num // B) # get multiple of B
   X = np.random.exponential(scale=1 / labda, size=num)
   A0 = np.zeros(len(X) + 1)
   AO[1:] = X.cumsum()
   A = np.zeros_like(A0)
   for i in range(num // B):
10
       st = i * B + 1 # start
11
       fi = (i + 1) * B # finish
12
       A[st : fi + 1] = AO[fi]
13
   S0 = np.random.exponential(scale=1 / mu, size=len(A))
   SO[0] = 0
17
   S = S0.copy()
18
   S[1::B] += R
19
   D = np.zeros_like(A)
21
   for k in range(1, len(A)):
22
       D[k] = \max(D[k - 1], A[k]) + S[k]
  J = D - AO
   print(J.mean())
```

Ex 2.9. Run the code for num = 1000 and compare the results of the formulas and the simulation. (Ensure that both models use the same data.) Then extend to $num = 1_000_000$ and check again. What do you see, and conclude?

2.3 Getting things right

While making the above code, I made several (tens of) errors, so that the simulation and the formulas gave different results. Here are the steps that I followed to get things right. Only after one step was correct, I moved on to the next.

- 1. Check with B = 1 and R = 0, since B = 1 is the single job case.
- 2. Keep B = 1, set R = 0.2. I had to change μ so that still $\rho < 1$.
- 3. Set B = 2, R = 0. Compare ES (input for Sakasegawa's formula) to S. mean () (input for simulation).
- 4. In the previous step I did not get corresponding results for num = 10000. Changing it to 1 million helped.

After these four steps, the simulation and the model gave similar results. However, from a higher level of abstraction, I am not quite happy about this. It is not realistic to wait until we have seen a million or so arrivals in any practical setting. My personal way to deal with this situation is like this (but not all people agree on what to do though):

- Simple formulas are tremendously useful to get *insight* into the main drivers of the behavior of a system. In other words, there is not better way to get *qualitative* understanding than with simple formulas.
- The quantitative quality of a formula need to not be too good.
- Building a simulator is intellectually rewarding as it helps understand the *dynamics* of a system.
- Building a simulator is difficult; it's easy to make mistakes, in the code, in the model, in the data...
- Simulation depends on large quantities of data. It's very hard (next to impossible) to *understand* the output.
- The simple formulas can be used to check the output of a simulator when applied to simple cases.

All in all, I think that simulation and theoretical models should go hand in hand, as they offer different type of insight, and have different strengths and weaknesses.

2.4 Random setup times

3 Server Adjustments

Consider now a queueing system in which the server needs an adjustments with probability p (see the section on server adjustments in the book). The repair times are assumed constant, at first, with mean 2. Here is the simulator.

3.1 Check work

First we should check the formulas for E[S] and V[S].

```
Python Code
   import numpy as np
   np.random.seed(3)
   labda = 3
   mu = 2 * labda
   ESO = 1 / mu
   p = 1 / 20
   num = 10000
11
12
   S0 = np.random.exponential(scale=ES0, size=num)
   R = 2 * np.ones_like(S0)
13
   I = np.random.uniform(size=len(R)) <= p</pre>
14
   S = SO + R * I
15
   print(S.mean(), S.var())
16
17
   ER = R.mean()
18
   ES = ESO + p * ER
   VSO = ESO * ESO
   VR = R.var()
   VS = VSO + p * VR + p * (1 - p) * ER * ER
22
   print(ES, VS)
```

Ex 3.1. Explain what is I. Then explain the line SO + R * I works.

Ex 3.2. Run the code; include the numbers in your assignment. Are the numbers nearly the same?

3.2 The simulations

Now that we checked the formulas to compute E[S] and V[S], we can see how well Sakasegawa's formula applies for a queueing system in which a server requires regular, but random, adjustments.

```
Python Code
   import numpy as np
   np.random.seed(3)
   labda = 3
   mu = 2 * labda
   p = 1 / 20
   num = 10000
   X = np.random.exponential(scale=1 / labda, size=num)
   A = np.zeros(len(X) + 1)
11
   A[1:] = X.cumsum()
   S = np.random.exponential(scale=1 / mu, size=len(A))
  R = 2 * np.ones(len(S))
                                                           # this
  I = np.random.uniform(size=len(S)) <= p</pre>
16
   D = np.zeros_like(S)
```

```
18  for k in range(1, len(A)):
19     D[k] = max(D[k - 1], A[k]) + S[k] + R[k] * I[k]
20
21  W = D - A - S
22  print(W.mean())
```

Ex 3.3. Explain how D is computed.

To see how the approximation works, glue the next code below the previous code.

```
Python Code
   def sakasegawa(labda, ES, Ca2=1, Cs2=1, c=1):
       rho = labda * ES
        V = (Ca2 + Cs2) / 2
       U = \text{rho} ** (\text{np.sqrt}(2 * (c + 1)) - 1) / (1 - \text{rho})
       T = ES / c
       return V * U * T
   ESO = 1 / mu
   VSO = ESO * ESO
10
   ER = R.mean()
11
12
   ES = ESO + p * ER
   rho = labda * ES
13
   assert rho < 1, "rho >= 1"
   VR = R.var()
   VS = VSO + p * VR + p * (1 - p) * ER * ER
  Cs2 = VS / ES / ES
   W = sakasegawa(labda, ES, 1, Cs2, 1)
   print(W)
```

Ex 3.4. To test the code I set at first R = 0 * np.ones(len(A)) in the line marked as this. Why is this a good test?

Ex 3.5. Now run the code, with R as in the code (not set as 0 such as in the previous exercise). Compare the answers. Then set num = 100000, i.e., 10 times as large. What is the effect?

Ex 3.6. Now set R = np.random.exponential(scale=2, size=len(A)). What is the effect on <math>E[W]? In general, do you see that indeed E[W] increases with the variability of the adjustments?

Ex 3.7. What is the model behind this code?

```
python Code
import numpy as np

np.random.seed(3)

labda = 3
mu = 4
N = 1000

X = np.random.exponential(scale=1 / labda, size=N)
A = np.zeros(len(X) + 1)
A[1:] = X.cumsum()
S = np.random.exponential(scale=1 / mu, size=len(A))
```

```
R = np.random.uniform(0, 0.1, size=len(A))
13
14
   D = np.zeros_like(A)
15
   for k in range(1, len(A)):
16
       D[k] = max(D[k - 1], A[k]) + S[k] + R[k]
17
   W = D - A - S
   print(W.mean(), W.std())
```

Ex 3.8. In stead of

```
Python Code
for k in range(1, len(A)):
    D[k] = max(D[k - 1], A[k]) + S[k] + R[k] * I[k]
```

we could write

```
Python Code
for k in range(1, len(A)):
   D[k] = max(D[k - 1] + R[k] * I[k], A[k]) + S[k]
```

What modeling choice would this change reflect? Which of these two models makes the sojourn smaller?

Server failures

This time we focus on a server that can fail; again check the queueing book for the formulas. Here we just implement them.

4.1 Check work

Again, first we need to check that our (implementation of the) formulas for E[S] and V[S] are correct.

```
Python Code
   import numpy as np
   from scipy.stats import expon
   np.random.seed(3)
   labda = 3
   mu = 2 * labda
   ESO = 1 / mu
   labda_f = 2
   ER = 0.5
10
   num = 10000
11
   S0 = np.random.exponential(scale=ES0, size=num + 1)
   N = np.random.poisson(labda_f * ESO, len(SO))
14
  R = expon(scale=ER)
15
  S = np.zeros_like(S0)
17
   for i in range(len(S0)):
       S[i] = SO[i] + R.rvs(N[i]).sum()
```

```
19
20  A = 1 / (1 + labda_f * ER)
21  ES = ESO / A
22  print(ES, S.mean(), SO.mean() + N.mean() * R.mean())
23
24  CO2 = 1
25  Cs2 = CO2 + 2 * A * (1 - A) * ER / ES
26  print(Cs2, S.var() / (S.mean() ** 2))
```

Ex 4.1. Run this code, and check the result. Then chance num to 100000 to see that the estimate improves.

Ex 4.2. Explain how we compute S[i].

4.2 The simulations

Here is all the code to compare the results of a simulation to Sakasegawa's formula.

```
Python Code
   import numpy as np
   from scipy.stats import expon
   np.random.seed(3)
   labda = 2
6
   mu = 6
   ESO = 1 / mu
   labda_f = 2
   ER = 0.5
   num = 10000
11
   S0 = np.random.exponential(scale=ES0, size=num + 1)
   N = np.random.poisson(labda_f * ESO, len(SO))
   R = expon(scale=ER)
   S = np.zeros_like(S0)
   for i in range(len(S0)):
17
        S[i] = SO[i] + R.rvs(N[i]).sum()
18
19
   X = np.random.exponential(scale=1 / labda, size=num)
   A = np.zeros(len(X) + 1)
   A[1:] = X.cumsum()
   D = np.zeros_like(A)
24
   for k in range(1, len(A)):
25
        D[k] = max(D[k - 1], A[k]) + S[k]
26
27
   W = D - A - S
28
   print(W.mean())
29
30
31
   def sakasegawa(labda, ES, Ca2=1, Cs2=1, c=1):
32
        rho = labda * ES
33
        V = (Ca2 + Cs2) / 2
34
        U = \text{rho} ** (\text{np.sqrt}(2 * (c + 1)) - 1) / (1 - \text{rho})
35
        T = ES / c
36
        return V * U * T
37
```

Ex 4.3. Run the code and include the results in your assignment.

Ex 4.4. Suppose you can choose between two alternative ways to improve the system. Increase λ_f , and decrease E[R], but such that $\lambda_f E[R]$ remains constant; or the other way around, decrease λ_f and increase E[R]. Which alternative has better influence on E[W]? (Use Sakasegawa's formula for this; you don't have to do the simulations. In general, computing functions is much faster than simulation.)

5 A simple tandem network

We have two queues in tandem. Again we compare the approximations with simulation.

5.1 Simulation in continuous time

This code simulates two queues in tandem in continuous time.

```
Python Code
   import numpy as np
   np.random.seed(4)
   labda = 3
   mu1 = 1.2 * labda
   num = 100000
   X = np.random.exponential(scale=1 / labda, size=num)
   A1 = np.zeros(len(X) + 1)
   A1[1:] = X.cumsum()
   S1 = np.random.exponential(scale=1 / mu1, size=len(A1))
11
   D1 = np.zeros_like(A1)
12
   for k in range(1, len(A1)):
14
        D1[k] = max(D1[k - 1], A1[k]) + S1[k]
15
16
   W1 = D1 - A1 - S1
17
18
   # queue two
19
   A2 = D1
20
   mu2 = 1.1 * labda
21
   S2 = np.random.exponential(scale=1 / mu2, size=len(A2))
22
   D2 = np.zeros_like(A2)
   for k in range(1, len(A2)):
25
        D2[k] = max(D2[k - 1], A2[k]) + S2[k]
26
27
```

```
28  W2 = D2 - A2 - S2
29
30  J = D2 - A1
31  print(W1.mean(), S1.mean(), W2.mean(), S2.mean(), J.mean())
```

Ex 5.1. Explain how the code works. Why did I choose these parameters?

5.2 Sakasegawa's formula plus tandem formula

Now we can check the quality of the approximations.

```
Python Code
   import numpy as np
   def sakasegawa(labda, ES, Ca2=1, Cs2=1, c=1):
        {\tt rho} = labda * ES
        V = (Ca2 + Cs2) / 2
        U = \text{rho} ** (\text{np.sqrt}(2 * (c + 1)) - 1) / (1 - \text{rho})
        T = ES / c
        return V * U * T
10
11
   labda = 3
12
   mu1 = 1.2 * labda
   ES1 = 1 / mu1
15
   rho1 = labda * ES1
   Ca2 = 1
17
   Cs2 = 1
   W1 = sakasegawa(labda, ES1, Ca2, Cs2, 1)
18
   Cd2 = rho1 ** 2 * Ca2 + (1 - rho1 ** 2) * Cs2
19
20
   Ca2 = Cd2
21
   mu2 = 1.1 * labda
22
   ES2 = 1 / mu2
   Cs2 = 1
   W2 = sakasegawa(labda, ES2, Ca2, Cs2, 1)
   J = W1 + ES1 + W2 + ES2
   print(W1, ES1, W2, ES2, J)
```

Ex 5.2. How does the code work? Compare the results obtained from simulation and by formula.

Ex 5.3. Assume that the service times at the first queue are constant and equal to $1/\mu_1$. What should be the parameter values for Sakasegawa's formula (explain). Then run both codes and comment on the results.

6 Hints

```
h.1.1. Replace the relevant line by d = min(c[i], L[i - 1] + a[i]).
```

h.1.4. Recall $L = \lambda W$.

- **h.2.4.** When $S = R/B + S_0$, then part of *S* is constant. Hence, can it be (relatively) as variable as S_0 ?
- **h.2.7.** Why do I chose np.ones to fill AO and SO? What is the difference between AO and A, and SO and S?
- **h.2.8.** What do you think I used first?
- **h.3.8.** What is the influence on the setup? Do we still require that the setup has to be done immediately before a service starts?
- **h.4.4.** For instance, set labda_f = 4 and ER = 0.25.
- **h.5.1.** For what situations are the formulas exact?
- **h.5.3.** In the simulation, replace the line with S1 by S1 = np.ones(len(A1)) / mu1. In the formula's, don't forget to update C_s^2 for the relevant queue.