

LINE: Queueing Analysis Algorithms

User manual for Python

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 What is LINE?

LINE is an open-source software package to analyze queueing models via analytical methods and simulation. The tool aims at simplifying the computation of performance and reliability metrics in models of systems such as software applications, business processes, and computer networks, among others. LINE decomposes a high-level system model into one or more stochastic models, typically extended queueing networks, that are subsequently analyzed using either numerical algorithms or simulation. The stand-alone Python version covered in this manual is mainly a wrapper for the JAR version.

A key feature of LINE is that the solver decouples the model description from the solvers used for its solution. That is, LINE implements model-to-model transformations that automatically translate the model specification into the input format (or data structure) accepted by its solutions algorithms. LINE sends models for evaluation either to native algorithms of external solvers that include Java Modelling Tools (JMT; <http://jmt.sf.net>) and LQNS (<http://www.sce.carleton.ca/rads/lqns/>). Native model solvers are instead based on formalisms and algorithms based on:

- Continuous-time Markov chains (CTMC)
- Discrete-event simulation (DES)
- Fluid ordinary differential equations (FLD)
- Matrix analytic methods (MAM)
- Normalizing constant analysis (NC)
- Mean-value analysis (MVA)
- Stochastic Simulation Algorithms (SSA)

Each solver encodes a general solution paradigm and can implement both exact and approximate analysis methods. For example, the `MVA` solver implements both exact mean value analysis (MVA) and approximate mean value analysis (AMVA). The offered methods typically differ for accuracy, computational cost, and the subset of model features they support. A special solver (`AUTO`) is supplied that provides an automated recommendation on which solver to use for a given model.

LINE also includes two meta-solvers that can leverage the previous algorithms to analyze composite models such as layered queueing networks or models evolving in random environments. The native meta-solvers include:

- Random environment solver (`ENV`)
- Layered network meta-solver (`LN`)

The above techniques can be applied to models specified in the following formats:

- *LINE modeling language*. This is a domain-specific object-oriented language designed to resemble the abstractions available in JMT's queueing network simulator (`JSIM`).
- *Layered queueing network models (LQNS XML format)*. LINE is able to solve a sub-class of layered queueing network models, either specified using the LINE modeling language or according to the XML metamodel of the LQNS solver.
- *JMT simulation models (JSIMg, JSIMw formats)*. LINE is able to import and solve queueing network models specified using `JSIMgraph` and `JSIMwiz`. LINE models can be exported to, and visualized with, `JSIMgraph` and `JSIMwiz`.

1.2 Obtaining the latest release

This document contains the user manual for LINE version 3.0.x, which can be obtained from:

<http://line-solver.sf.net/>

LINE 3.0.x has been tested using Python version 3.12.

1.3 References

To cite the LINE solver, we recommend to reference:

- G. Casale. "Integrated Performance Evaluation of Extended Queueing Network Models with LINE", in *Proc. of WSC 2020*, ACM Press, Dec 2020.

The following are references for the individual tools used by LINE. Please cite them if your use of LINE focuses on features developed in these tools:

- *BuTools* [37]: G. Horváth and M. Telek. “BuTools 2: A Rich Toolbox for Markovian Performance Evaluation”, in *Proc. of VALUETOOLS*, 2017.
- *SMCSolver* [6]: D. Bini, B. Meini, S. Steffé, J. F. Pérez, and B. Van Houdt. “SMCSolver and Q-MAM: Tools for Matrix-Analytic Methods”, in *SIGMETRICS Performance Evaluation Review*, 39(4), 2012.
- *MAMSolver* [54]: A. Riska and E. Smirni. “ETAQA Solutions for Infinite Markov Processes with Repetitive Structure”, in *INFORMS Journal on Computing*, 19(2):215–228, 2007.
- *KPC-Toolbox* [19]: G. Casale, E. Z. Zhang, and E. Smirni. “KPC-Toolbox: Best Recipes for Automatic Trace Fitting Using Markovian Arrival Processes”, in *Performance Evaluation*, 67(9):873–896, 2010.
- *JMT* [5]: M. Bertoli, G. Casale, and G. Serazzi. “The JMT Simulator for Performance Evaluation of Non-Product-Form Queueing Networks”, in *Proc. of the 40th Annual Simulation Symposium (ANSS)*, 2007.
- *LQNS* [31]: G. Franks, P. Maly, M. Woodside, D. C. Petriu, A. Hubbard, and M. Mroz. “Layered Queueing Network Solver and Simulator User Manual”, Carleton University, 2013.
- *Q-MAM* [6]: D. Bini, B. Meini, S. Steffé, J. F. Pérez, and B. Van Houdt. “SMCSolver and Q-MAM: Tools for Matrix-Analytic Methods”, in *SIGMETRICS Performance Evaluation Review*, 39(4), 2012.

1.4 Contact and credits

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Please refer to the AUTHORS files in the codebase for detailed credits to project contributors.

1.5 Copyright and license

Copyright Imperial College London (2012-Present). LINE is freeware and open-source, released under the 3-clause BSD license.

1.6 Acknowledgement

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Chapter 2

Getting started

2.1 Installation and support

Quick Start: You can get started with LINE as follows:

1. Obtain the latest release

- Stable release (zip file): <https://sf.net/projects/line-solver/files/latest/download>

Ensure that the files are decompressed in the installation folder.

2. From now on, you will need to run all the commands from the `python/` folder. Install the necessary Python libraries running

```
pip install -r requirements.txt
```

3. LINE is now ready to use. For example, you can run a basic M/M/1 model using

```
python3 mml.py
```

4. Jupyter notebooks are also available under the `examples` and `gettingstarted/` folders.

To run line within your Python program, import the `line_solver` module at the beginning of the file, e.g.,

```
from line_solver import *
```

2.1.1 Software requirements

Certain features of LINE depend on external tools and libraries. The recommended dependencies are:

- Python version 3.12 or later.
- The packages within the `requirements.txt` file, which are as follows:

```
enum_tools jpype1 numpy pandas scipy twisted nbformat nbconvert matplotlib ...
networkx
```

- Jupyter or equivalent is required to visualize the `.ipynb` examples.

Partial Java ports of these libraries have been implemented or are shipped with LINE:

- Java Modelling Tools (<http://jmt.sf.net>): version 1.2.4 or later. The latest version is automatically downloaded at the first call of the JMT solver.
- KPC-Toolbox (<https://github.com/kpctoolboxteam/kpc-toolbox>): version 0.3.4 or later.
- MAMSolver (<https://www.cs.wm.edu/MAMSolver/>): tools for matrix-analytic methods.
- M3A (<https://github.com/imperial-qore/M3A>): version 1.0.0.
- BuTools (<https://github.com/ghorvath78/butools>): version 2.0 or later.
- Q-MAM/SMC (<https://win.uantwerpen.be/~vanhoudt/tools/QBDfiles.zip>).

Optional dependencies recommended to utilize all features available in LINE are as follows:

- LQNS (<https://github.com/layeredqueuing/V6>): version 6.2.28 or later. System paths need to be configured such that the `lqns` and `lqnsim` solvers need are available on the command line.

2.1.2 Documentation

This manual introduces the main concepts to define models in LINE and run its solvers. The document includes in particular several tables that summarize the features currently supported in the modeling language and by individual solvers. Additional resources are as follows:

- MATLAB manual: <https://line-solver.sf.net/doc/LINE-matlab.pdf>
- Java manual: <https://line-solver.sf.net/doc/LINE-java.pdf>
- Kotlin manual: <https://line-solver.sf.net/doc/LINE-kotlin.pdf>
- Python manual: <https://line-solver.sf.net/doc/LINE-python.pdf>

2.1.3 Getting help

For discussions, bug reports, new feature requests, please create a thread on the Sourceforge forums:

- General discussion: <https://sf.net/p/line-solver/discussion/help/>
- Bugs and issues: <https://sf.net/p/line-solver/tickets/>
- Feature requests: <https://sf.net/p/line-solver/feature-requests/>

2.2 Getting started examples

In this section, we present some examples that illustrate how to use LINE. The relevant scripts are included under the `examples/gettingstarted/` folder. The examples describe one of two main available classes of stochastic models within LINE:

- `Network` models are extended queueing networks. Typical instances are open, closed and mixed queueing networks, possibly including advanced features such as class-switching, finite capacity, priorities, non-exponential distributions, and others. Technical background on these models can be found in books such as [9, 42] or in tutorials such as [3, 41].
- `LayeredNetwork` models are layered queueing networks, i.e., models consisting of layers, each corresponding to a `Network` object, which interact through synchronous and asynchronous calls. Technical background on layered queueing networks can be found in [64].

2.2.1 Controlling verbosity

Solver verbosity may be configured at program start using, e.g.:

```
GlobalConstants.set_verbose(VerboseLevel.DEBUG)
```

The three available verbosity levels are:

- `VerboseLevel.SILENT`: Suppresses all solver output messages
- `VerboseLevel.STD`: Shows standard solver output messages (default)
- `VerboseLevel.DEBUG`: Shows detailed solver output including debug information

2.2.2 Model gallery

LINE includes a collection of classic, commonly occurring, queueing models under the `gallery/` folder. They include single queueing systems (e.g., $M/M/1$, $M/H_2/1$, $D/M/1$, ...), tandem queueing systems, and basic queueing networks. For example, to instantiate and estimate the mean response time for a tandem network of $M/M/1$ queues we may run

```
MVA(gallery_mm1_tandem(), 'method', 'exact').avg_table()
```

Obtaining the following pandas DataFrame

	Station	JobClass	QLen	Util	RespT	ResidT	ArvR	Tput
0	mySource	myClass	0.0000	0.0	0.0000	0.0000	0.0	1.0
1	Queue1	myClass	8.9992	0.9	8.9992	8.9992	1.0	1.0
2	Queue2	myClass	8.9992	0.9	8.9992	8.9992	1.0	1.0

The examples in the gallery may also be used as templates to accelerate the definition of basic models. Example 9 later shows an example of gallery instantiation of a $M/E_2/1$ queue.

2.2.3 Tutorial 1: A M/M/1 queue

The M/M/1 queue is a classic model of a queueing system where jobs arrive into an infinite-capacity buffer, wait to be processed in first-come first-serve (FCFS) order, and then leave after service completion. Arrival and service times are assumed to be independent and exponentially distributed random variables.

In this example, we wish to compute average performance measures for the M/M/1 queue. We assume that arrivals come in at rate $\lambda = 1$ job/s, while service has rate $\mu = 2$ job/s. It is known from theory that the exact value of the server utilization in this case is $\rho = \lambda/\mu = 0.5$, i.e., 50%, while the mean response time for a visit is $R = 1/(\mu - \lambda) = 1$ s. We wish to verify these values using JMT-based simulation, instantiated through LINE.

The general structure of a LINE script consists of four blocks:

1. Definition of nodes
2. Definition of job classes and associated statistical distributions
3. Instantiation of model topology
4. Solution

For example, the following script solves the M/M/1 model

```
model = Network('M/M/1')
# Block 1: nodes
source = Source(model, 'mySource')
queue = Queue(model, 'myQueue', SchedStrategy.FCFS)
sink = Sink(model, 'mySink')
# Block 2: classes
oclass = OpenClass(model, 'myClass')
source.set_arrival(oclass, Exp(1))
queue.set_service(oclass, Exp(2))
# Block 3: topology
model.link(Network.serial_routing(source, queue, sink))
```

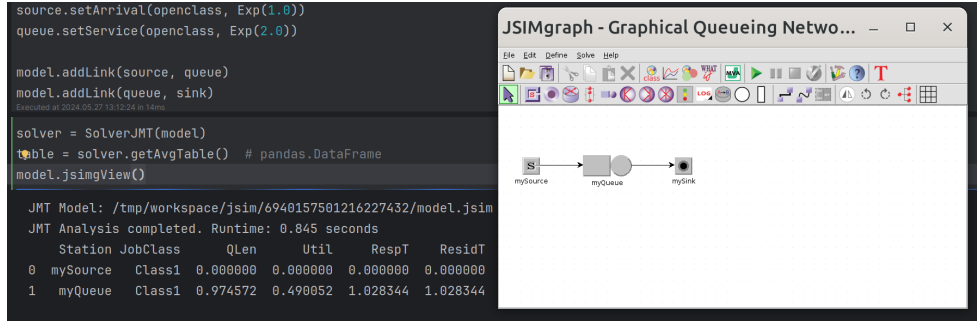


Figure 2.1: M/M/1 example in JSIMgraph

```

# Block 4: solution
avg_table = JMT(model, seed=23000, verbose=VerboseLevel.SILENT).avg_table()
# select a particular table row
print(tget(avg_table, queue, oclass))
# select a particular table row by node and class label
print(tget(avg_table, 'myQueue', 'myClass'))

```

In the example, `source` and `sink` are arrival and departure points of jobs; `queue` is a queueing station with FCFS scheduling; `jobclass` defines an open class of jobs that arrive, get served, and leave the system; `Exp(2.0)` defines an exponential distribution with rate parameter $\lambda = 2.0$; finally, the command solves for average performance measures with JMT's simulator, using for reproducibility a specific seed for the random number generator.

The result is a table with mean performance measures including: the number of jobs in the station either queueing or receiving service (`QLen`); the utilization of the servers (`Util`); the mean response time for a visit to the station (`RespT`); the mean residence time, i.e. the mean response time cumulatively spent at the station over all visits (`ResidT`); the mean throughput of departing jobs (`Tput`)

	Station	JobClass	QLen	Util	RespT	ResidT	Tput
0	Source	Class1	0	0	0	0	0.990016
1	Queue	Class1	0.950088	0.48791	0.967911	0.967911	0.997006

One can verify that this matches JMT results by first typing

```
model.jsimg_view()
```

which will open the model inside JSIMgraph, as shown in Figure 2.1. From this screen, the simulation can be started using the green “play” button in the JSIMgraph toolbar. A pre-defined gallery of classic models is also available, for example

```
model = gallery_mm1()
```

returns a M/M/1 queue with 50% utilization.

If we want to select a particular row of the `avg_table` data structure, we can use direct object-based indexing or filtering methods. In , we wrap the table with `IndexedAvgTable` to enable convenient syntax:

```
ARow = tget(avg_table, 'Queue', 'Class1')
```

gives output

	Station	JobClass	QLen	Util	RespT	ResidT	Tput
1	Queue	Class1	0.955501	0.48736	0.954293	0.954293	0.999868

If we specify only 'Queue' or 'Class1', `tget` will return all entries corresponding to that station or class. The same indexing works with `Station` and `JobClass` objects:

```
ARow = tget(AvgTable, queue, jobclass)
```

if we specify only `queue` or only `jobclass`, will return all entries corresponding to that station or class.

2.2.4 Tutorial 2: A multiclass M/G/1 queue

We now consider a more challenging variant of the first example. We assume that there are two classes of incoming jobs with non-exponential service times. For the first class, service times are Erlang distributed with unit rate and variance $1/3$; they are instead read from a trace for the second class. Both classes have exponentially distributed inter-arrival times with mean $2s$.

To run this example, let us first change the working directory to the `examples/` folder. Then we specify the node block

```
model = Network('M/G/1')
source = Source(model, 'Source')
queue = Queue(model, 'Queue', SchedStrategy.FCFS)
sink = Sink(model, 'Sink')
```

The next step consists in defining the classes. We fit automatically from mean and squared coefficient of variation (i.e., $SCV = \text{variance} / \text{mean}^2$) an Erlang distribution and use the `Replayer` distribution to request that the specified trace is read cyclically to obtain the service times of class 2

```
jobclass1 = OpenClass(model, 'Class1')
jobclass2 = OpenClass(model, 'Class2')

source.set_arrival(jobclass1, Exp(0.5))
source.set_arrival(jobclass2, Exp(0.5))

queue.set_service(jobclass1, Erlang.fit_mean_and_scv(1, 1/3))
queue.set_service(jobclass2, Replayer('example_trace.txt'))
```

Note that the `example_trace.txt` file consists of a single column of doubles, each representing a service time value, e.g.,

```
1.2377474e-02
4.4486055e-02
1.0027642e-02
2.0983173e-02
...
```

We now specify a linear route through source, queue, and sink for both classes

```
P = model.init_routing_matrix()
P.set(jobclass1, Network.serial_routing(source, queue, sink))
P.set(jobclass2, Network.serial_routing(source, queue, sink))
model.link(P)
```

and solve the model with JMT

```
jmt_avg_table = JMT(model, 'seed', 23000).avg_table()
```

which gives

```
JMT Model: /tmp/workspace/jsim/7955719514502154869/model.jsim
JMT Analysis completed. Runtime: 1.06 seconds
```

	Station	JobClass	QLen	Util	RespT	ResidT	Tput
0	Source	Class1	0	0	0	0	0.501685
1	Source	Class2	0	0	0	0	0.506538
2	Queue	Class1	0.880661	0.494749	1.737321	1.737321	0.506679
3	Queue	Class2	0.438433	0.053432	0.817414	0.817414	0.507503

We wish now to validate this value against an analytical solver. Since `jobclass2` has trace-based service times, we first need to revise its service time distribution to make it analytically tractable, e.g., we may ask LINE to fit an acyclic phase-type distribution [8] based on the trace

```
queue.set_service(jobclass2, Replayer('example_trace.txt').fit_aph())
```

We can now use a Continuous Time Markov Chain (CTMC) to solve the system, but since the state space is infinite in open models, we need to truncate it to be able to use this solver. For example, we may restrict to states with at most 2 jobs in each class, checking with the `verbose` option the size of the resulting state space

```
ctmc_avg_table2 = CTMC(model, 'cutoff', 2, 'verbose', True).avg_table()
```

which gives

	Station	JobClass	QLen	Util	RespT	ResidT	ArvR	Tput
0	Source	Class1	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.4411
1	Source	Class2	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.4758
2	Queue	Class1	0.5674	0.4411	1.2863	1.2863	0.4411	0.4411
3	Queue	Class2	0.2446	0.0481	0.5140	0.5140	0.4758	0.4758

However, we see from the comparison with JMT that the errors of CTMC are rather large. Since the truncated state space consists of just 46 states, we can further increase the cutoff to 4, trading a slower solution time for higher precision

```
ctmc_avg_table4 = CTMC(model, 'cutoff', 4, 'verbose', True).avg_table()
```

which gives

	Station	JobClass	QLen	Util	RespT	ResidT	ArvR	Tput
0	Source	Class1	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.4916
1	Source	Class2	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.4957
2	Queue	Class1	0.7958	0.4916	1.6188	1.6188	0.4916	0.4916
3	Queue	Class2	0.3756	0.0501	0.7577	0.7577	0.4957	0.4957

To gain more accuracy, we could either keep increasing the cutoff value or, if we wish to compute an exact solution, we may call the matrix-analytic method (MAM) solver instead. MAM uses the repetitive structure of the CTMC to exactly analyze open systems with an infinite state space, calling

```
MAM(model).avg_table()
```

we get

	Station	JobClass	QLen	Util	RespT	ResidT	ArvR	Tput
0	Source	Class1	0	0	0	0	0.5	0.5
1	Source	Class2	0	0	0	0	0.5	0.5
2	Queue	Class1	0.876460	0.500000	1.752920	1.752920	0.5	0.5
3	Queue	Class2	0.426996	0.050536	0.853991	0.853991	0.5	0.5

The current MAM implementation is primarily constructed on top of Java ports of the BuTools solver [37] and the SMC solver [6].

2.2.5 Tutorial 3: Machine interference problem

Closed models involve jobs that perpetually cycle within a network of queues. The machine interference problem is a classic example, in which a group of repairmen is tasked with fixing machines as they break and the goal is to choose the optimal size of the group. We here illustrate how to evaluate the performance of a given group size. We consider a scenario with $S = 2$ repairmen, with machines that break down at a rate of 0.5 failed machines/week, after which a machine is fixed in an exponential distributed time with rate 4.0 repaired machines/week. There are a total of $N = 3$ machines.

Suppose that we wish to obtain an exact numerical solution using Continuous Time Markov Chains (CTMCs). The above model can be analyzed as follows:

```
model = Network('MRP')
delay = Delay(model, 'WorkingState')
queue = Queue(model, 'RepairQueue', SchedStrategy.FCFS)
queue.set_number_of_servers(2)
cclass = ClosedClass(model, 'Machines', 3, delay)
```

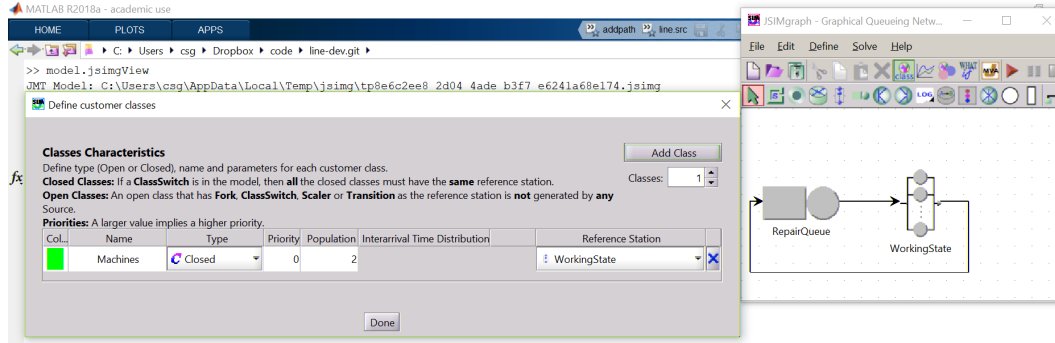



Figure 2.2: Machine interference model in JSIMgraph

```

delay.set_service(cclass, Exp(0.5))
queue.set_service(cclass, Exp(4.0))
model.link(Network.serialRouting(delay, queue))
solver = CTMC(model)
ctmc_avg_table = solver.avg_table()

```

Here, `delay` appears in the constructor of the closed class to specify that a job will be considered completed once it returns to the delay (i.e., the machine returns in working state). We say that the delay is thus the *reference station* of `cclass`. The above code prints the following result

	Station	JobClass	QLen	Util	RespT	ResidT	ArvR	Tput
0	WorkingState	Machines	2.6648	2.6648	2.0000	2.0000	1.3324	1.3324
1	RepairQueue	Machines	0.3352	0.1666	0.2515	0.2515	1.3324	1.3324

As before, we can inspect and analyze the model in JSIMgraph using the command

```
model.jsimg_view()
```

Figure 2.2 illustrates the result, demonstrating the automated definition of the closed class.

We can now also inspect the CTMC more in the details as follows

```

state_space, node_state_space = solver.state_space()
print(state_space)
inf_gen, event_filt = solver.generator()
print(inf_gen)

```

which produces in output the state space of the model and the infinitesimal generator of the CTMC

```

[[0. 1. 2.]
 [1. 0. 2.]
 [2. 0. 1.]
 [3. 0. 0.]]

```

```
[[-8.    8.    0.    0. ]
 [ 0.5 -8.5   8.    0. ]
 [ 0.    1.   -5.    4. ]
 [ 0.    0.    1.5 -1.5]]
```

For example, the first state (0 1 2) consists of two components: the initial 0 denotes the number of jobs in service in the `delay`, while the remaining part is the state of the FCFS `queue`. In the latter, the 1 means that a job of class 1 (the only class in this model) is in the waiting buffer, while the 2 means that there are two jobs in service at the `queue`.

As another example, the second state (1 0 2) is similar, but one job has completed at the queue and has then moved to the `delay`, concurrently triggering an admission in service for the job that was in the queue buffer. As a result of this, the buffer is now empty. The corresponding transition rate in the infinitesimal generator matrix is row 1 and column 2 of `inf_gen`, which has value 8.0, that is the sum of the completion rates at the queue for each server in the first state, and where indexes 1 and 2 are the rows in `state_space` associated to the source and destination states.

On this and larger infinite generators, we may also list individual non-zero transitions as follows

```
CTMC.print_inf_gen(inf_gen, state_space)
```

gives

```
[ 0.0  1.0  2.0 ] -> [ 1.0  0.0  2.0 ] : 8.0
[ 1.0  0.0  2.0 ] -> [ 0.0  1.0  2.0 ] : 0.5
[ 1.0  0.0  2.0 ] -> [ 2.0  0.0  1.0 ] : 8.0
[ 2.0  0.0  1.0 ] -> [ 1.0  0.0  2.0 ] : 1.0
[ 2.0  0.0  1.0 ] -> [ 3.0  0.0  0.0 ] : 4.0
[ 3.0  0.0  0.0 ] -> [ 2.0  0.0  1.0 ] : 1.5
```

The above printout helps in matching the state transitions to their rates.

To avoid having to inspect the `state_space` variable to determine to which station a particular column refers to, we can alternatively use the more general invocation

```
state_space, node_state_space = solver.state_space()
print(node_state_space)
```

gives

```
{0: array([[0.],
          [1.],
          [2.],
          [3.]]),
 1: array([[1., 2.],
          [0., 2.],
          [0., 1.],
          [0., 0.]])}
```

which automatically splits the state space into its constituent parts for each stateful node.

A further observation is that `model.state_space()` forces the regeneration of the state space at each invocation, whereas the equivalent function in the CTMC solver, `solver.state_space()`, returns the state space cached during the solution of the CTMC.

2.2.6 Tutorial 4: Round-robin load-balancing

In this example we consider a system of two parallel processor-sharing queues and we wish to study the effect of load-balancing on the average performance of an open class of jobs. We begin as usual with the node block, where we now include a special node, called the `Router`, to control the routing of jobs from the source into the queues:

```
model = Network('RRLB')
source = Source(model, 'Source')
lb = Router(model, 'LB')
queue1 = Queue(model, 'Queue1', SchedStrategy.PS)
queue2 = Queue(model, 'Queue2', SchedStrategy.PS)
sink = Sink(model, 'Sink')
```

Let us then define the class block by setting exponentially-distributed inter-arrival times and service times, e.g.,

```
jobclass = OpenClass(model, 'Class1')
source.set_arrival(jobclass, Exp(1.0))
queue1.set_service(jobclass, Exp(2.0))
queue2.set_service(jobclass, Exp(2.0))
```

We now wish to express the fact that the router applies a round-robin strategy to dispatch jobs to the queues. Since this is now a non-probabilistic routing strategy, we need to adopt a slightly different style to declare the routing topology as we cannot specify anymore routing probabilities. First, we indicate the connections between the nodes, using the `add_links` function:

```
model.add_links([[source, lb],
                 [lb, queue1],
                 [lb, queue2],
                 [queue1, sink],
                 [queue2, sink]])
```

At this point, all nodes are automatically configured to route jobs with equal probabilities on the outgoing links (`RoutingStrategy.RAND` policy). If we solve the model at this point, we see that the response time at the queues is around $0.66s$.

```
JMT(model, seed=23000).avg_table().print()
```

which gives

Station	JobClass	QLen	Util	RespT	ResidT	ArvR	Tput
---------	----------	------	------	-------	--------	------	------

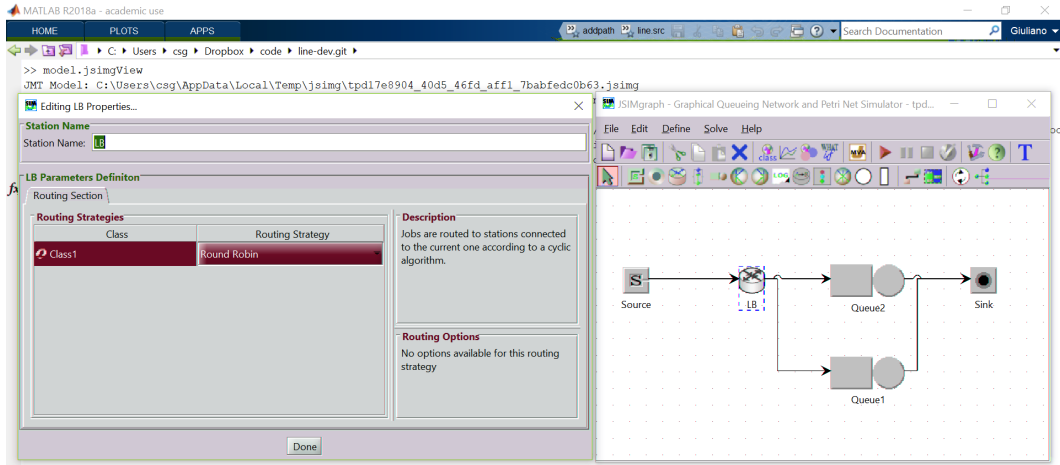


Figure 2.3: Load-balancing model

Source	Class1	0	0	0	0	0	1.01349
Queue1	Class1	0.31612	0.24682	0.65411	0.32706	0.50144	0.50100
Queue2	Class1	0.33403	0.25076	0.68406	0.34203	0.50446	0.50413

After resetting the internal data structures, which is required before modifying a model we can require LINE to solve again the model using this time a round-robin policy at the router.

```
model.reset()
lb.set_routing(oclass, RoutingStrategy.RROBIN)
```

A representation of the model at this point is shown in Figure 2.3.

Lastly, we run again JMT and find that round-robin produces a visible decrease in response times, which are now around 0.56s.

```
JMT(model, 'seed', 23000).avg_table()
```

gives

	Station	JobClass	QLen	Util	RespT	ResidT	ArvR	Tput
0	Source	Class1	0	0	0	0	1.008868	1.008868
1	Queue1	Class1	0.304291	0.261181	0.584815	0.292408	0.505255	0.505255
2	Queue2	Class1	0.292822	0.243971	0.572931	0.286466	0.505264	0.505264

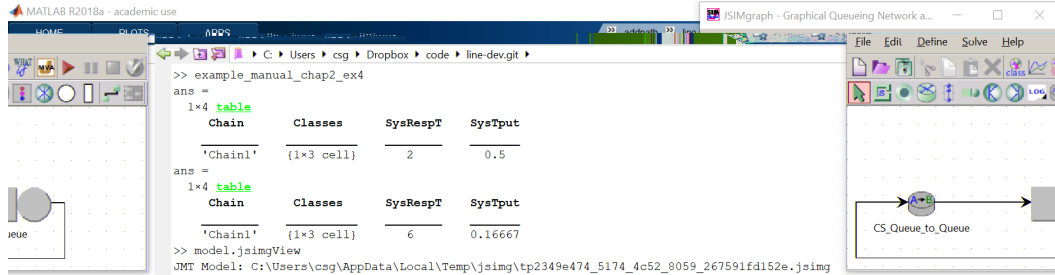


Figure 2.4: Re-entrant lines as an example of class-switching

2.2.7 Tutorial 5: Modelling a re-entrant line

Let us now consider a simple example inspired to the classic problem of modeling *re-entrant lines*. This arises in manufacturing systems where parts (i.e., jobs) re-enter multiple times a machine (i.e., a queueing station), asking at each visit a different class of service. This implies, for example, that the service time at every visit could feature a different mean or a different distribution compared to the previous visits, thus modeling a different stage of processing.

To illustrate this, consider for example a degenerate model composed of a single FCFS queue and K classes. In this model, a job that completes processing in class k is routed back at the tail of the queue in class $k + 1$, unless $k = K$ in which case the job re-enters in class 1.

We take the following assumptions: $K = 3$ and class k has an Erlang-2 service time distribution at the queue with mean equal to k ; the system starts with $N_1 = 1$ jobs in class 1 and zero jobs in all other classes.

```
model = Network('RL')
queue = Queue(model, 'Queue', SchedStrategy.FCFS)
K = 3
N = (1, 0, 0)
jobclass = []
for k in range(K):
    jobclass.append(ClosedClass(model, 'Class' + str(k), N[k], queue))
    queue.set_service(jobclass[k], Erlang.fit_mean_and_order(1+k, 2))

P = model.init_routing_matrix()
P.set(jobclass[0], jobclass[1], queue, queue, 1.0)
P.set(jobclass[1], jobclass[2], queue, queue, 1.0)
P.set(jobclass[2], jobclass[0], queue, queue, 1.0)
model.link(P)
```

The corresponding JMT model is shown in Figure 2.4, where it can be seen that the class-switching rule is automatically enforced by introduction of a `ClassSwitch` node in the network.

We can now simulate the performance indexes for the different classes, for example using LINE's normalizing constant solver (NC)

```
ncAvgTable = NC(model).avg_table()
```

gives

	Station	JobClass	QLen	Util	RespT	ResidT	ArvR	Tput
0	Queue	Class1	0.166667	0.166667	1.0	0.333333	0.166667	0.166667
1	Queue	Class2	0.333333	0.333333	2.0	0.666667	0.166667	0.166667
2	Queue	Class3	0.500000	0.500000	3.0	1.000000	0.166667	0.166667

Suppose now that the job is considered completed, for the sake of computation of system performance metrics, only when it departs the queue in class K (here `Class3`). By default, `LINE` will return *system-wide* performance metrics using the `avg_sys_table` method, i.e.,

```
ncAvgSysTable = NC(model).avg_sys_table()
```

gives

	Chain	JobClasses	SysRespT	SysTput
0	Chain1	(Class1 Class2 Class3)	2.0	0.5

This method identifies the model *chains*, i.e., groups of classes that can exchange jobs with each other, but not with classes in other chains. Since the job can switch into any of the three classes, in this model there is a single chain comprising the three classes.

We see that the throughput of the chain is 0.5, which means that `LINE` is counting every departure from the queue in any class as a completion for the whole chain. This is incorrect for our model since we want to count completions only when jobs depart in `Class3`. To require this behavior, we can tell to the solver that passages for classes 1 and 2 through the reference station should not be counted as completions

```
jobclass[0].completes = False
jobclass[1].completes = False
```

This modification then gives the correct chain throughput, matching the one of `Class3` alone

```
ncAvgSysTable = NC(model).avg_sys_table()
```

gives

	Chain	JobClasses	SysRespT	SysTput
0	Chain1	(Class1 Class2 Class3)	6.0	0.166667

2.2.8 Tutorial 6: A queueing network with caching

In this more advanced example, we show how to include in a queueing network a cache adopting a least-recently used (LRU) replacement policy. Under LRU, upon a cache miss the least-recently accessed item will be discarded to make room for the newly requested item.

We consider a cache with a capacity of 50 items, out of a set of 1000 cacheable items. Items are accessed by jobs visiting the cache according to a Zipf-like law with exponent $\alpha = 1.4$ and defined over the finite set of items. A client cyclically issues requests for the items, waiting for a reply before issuing the next request. We assume that a cache hit takes on average $0.2ms$ to process, while a cache miss takes $1ms$. We ask for the average request throughput of the system, differentiated across hits and misses.

Node block As usual, we begin by defining the nodes. Here a delay node will be used to describe the time spent by the requests in the system, while the cache node will determine hits and misses:

```
model = Network('model')
client_delay = Delay(model, 'Client')
cache_node = Cache(model, 'Cache', 1000, 50, ReplacementStrategy.LRU)
cache_delay = Delay(model, 'CacheDelay')
```

Class block We define a set of classes to represent the incoming requests (`client_class`), cache hits (`hit_class`) and cache misses (`miss_class`). These classes need to be closed to ensure that there is a single outstanding request from the client at all times:

```
client_class = ClosedClass(model, 'ClientClass', 1, client_delay, 0)
hit_class = ClosedClass(model, 'HitClass', 0, client_delay, 0)
miss_class = ClosedClass(model, 'MissClass', 0, client_delay, 0)
```

We then assign the processing times, using the `Immediate` distribution to ensure that the client issues immediately the request to the cache:

```
client_delay.set_service(client_class, Immediate())
cache_delay.set_service(hit_class, Exp.fit_mean(0.2))
cache_delay.set_service(miss_class, Exp.fit_mean(1.0))
```

The next step involves specifying that the request uses a Zipf-like distribution (with parameter $\alpha = 1.4$) to select the item to read from the cache, out of a pool of 1000 items

```
cache_node.set_read(client_class, Zipf(1.4, 1000))
```

Finally, we ask that the job should become of class `hit_class` after a cache hit, and should become of class `miss_class` after a cache miss:

```
cache_node.set_hit_class(client_class, hit_class)
cache_node.set_miss_class(client_class, miss_class)
```

Topology block Next, in the topology block we setup the routing so that the request, which starts in `client_class` at the `client_delay`, then moves from there to the cache, remaining in `client_class`

```
P = model.init_routing_matrix()
P.set(client_class, client_class, client_delay, cache_node, 1.0)
```

Internally to the cache, the job will switch its class into either `hit_class` or `miss_class`. Upon departure in one of these classes, we ask it to join in the same class `cache_delay` for further processing

```
P.set(hit_class, hit_class, cache_node, cache_delay, 1.0)
P.set(miss_class, miss_class, cache_node, cache_delay, 1.0)
```

Lastly, the job returns to `client_delay` for completion and start of a new request, which is done by switching its class back to `client_class`

```
P.set(hit_class, client_class, cache_delay, client_delay, 1.0)
P.set(miss_class, client_class, cache_delay, client_delay, 1.0)
```

The above routing strategy is finally applied to the model

```
model.link(P)
```

Solution block To solve the model, since JMT does not support cache modeling, we use the native simulation engine provided within LINE, the SSA solver:

```
ssaAvgTable = SSA(model, 'samples', 20000, 'seed', 1, 'verbose', True).avg_table()
```

The above script produces the following result

```
SSA samples: 20000
SSA analysis (method: default, lang: java) completed. Runtime: 64.073000 seconds.
  Station      JobClass  QLen  Util    RespT  ResidT  ArvR    Tput
0      Client  ClientClass  0.000  0.000  1.0000e-08  0.0000  0.0  2.8059
4  CacheDelay  HitClass    0.436  0.436  2.0000e-01  0.1582  0.0  2.1801
5  CacheDelay  MissClass    0.564  0.564  1.0000e+00  0.2088  0.0  0.5640
```

The departing flows from the `cache_delay` are the miss and hit rates. Thus, the hit rate is 2.4554 jobs per unit time, while the miss rate is 0.50892 jobs per unit time.

Let us now suppose that we wish to verify the result with a longer simulation, for example with 10 times more samples. To this aim, we can use the automatic parallelization of SSA

```
ssa_avg_table_para = SSA(model, samples=20000, seed=1).avg_table()
```

This gives us a rather similar result, when run on a dual-core machine

```
print(ssa_avg_table_para)
```


The execution time is longer than usual at the first invocation of the parallel solver due to the time needed by MATLAB to bootstrap the parallel pool, in this example around 22 seconds. Successive invocations of parallel SSA normally take much less, with this example around 7 seconds each.

2.2.9 Tutorial 7: Response time distribution and percentiles

In this example we illustrate the computation of response time percentiles in a queueing network model. We begin by instantiating a simple closed model consisting of a delay followed by a processor-sharing queueing station.

```
model = Network('Model')

node = np.empty(2, dtype=object)
node[0] = Delay(model, 'Delay')
node[1] = Queue(model, 'Queue1', SchedStrategy.PS)
```

There is a single class consisting of 5 jobs that circulate between the two stations, taking exponential service times at both.

```
jobclass = np.empty(2, dtype=object)
jobclass[0] = ClosedClass(model, 'Class1', 5, node[0], 0)
node[0].set_service(jobclass[0], Exp(1.0))
node[1].set_service(jobclass[0], Exp(0.5))

model.link(Network.serial_routing(node[0], node[1]))
```

We now wish to compare the response time distribution at the PS queue computed analytically with a fluid approximation against the simulated values returned by JMT. To do so, we call the `cdf_respt` method

```
rd_fluid = FLD(model).cdf_respt()
```

```
# rd_fluid = FLD(model).cdf_respt()
rd_sim = JMT(model, seed=23000, samples=10000).cdf_respt()
```

The returned data structures, `rd_fluid` and `rd_sim`, are arrays where element `[i,r]` describes the response times at station `i` for class `r`. The first column represents the cumulative distribution function (CDF) value $F(t) = Pr(T \leq t)$, where T is the random variable denoting the response time, while t is the percentile appearing in the corresponding entry of the second column.

For example, to plot the complementary CDF $1 - F(t)$ we can use the following code

```
# Plotting in Python using matplotlib
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
plt.semilogx(RDsim[1][0][:, 1], 1 - RDsim[1][0][:, 0], 'r', label='jmt-transient')
```

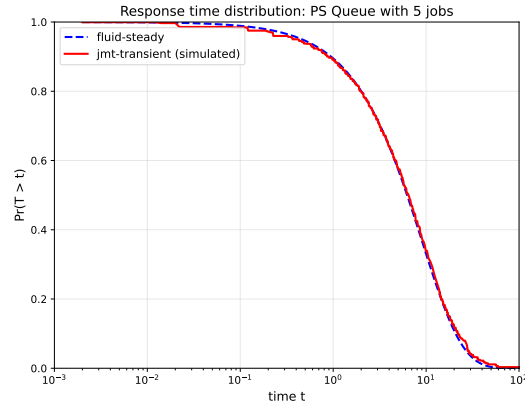


Figure 2.5: Comparison of simulated response time distribution and its fluid approximation

```
plt.semilogx(RDfluid[1][0][:, 1], 1 - RDfluid[1][0][:, 0], '--', ...
label='fluid-steady')
plt.legend()
plt.ylabel('Pr(T > t)')
plt.xlabel('time t')
plt.show()
```

which produces the graph shown in Figure 2.5. The graph shows that, although the simulation refers to a transient, while the fluid approximation refers to steady-state, there is a tight matching between the two response time distributions.

We can readily compute the percentiles from the `rd_fluid` and `rd_sim` data structures, e.g., for the 95th and 99th percentiles of the simulated distribution

```
# Calculate 95th and 99th percentiles from CDF data
cdf_data = RDsim[1][0] # station 2, class 1
mask_95 = cdf_data[:, 0] < 0.95
prc95 = np.max(cdf_data[mask_95, 1]) if np.any(mask_95) else 0
mask_99 = cdf_data[:, 0] < 0.99
prc99 = np.max(cdf_data[mask_99, 1]) if np.any(mask_99) else 0
```

That is, 95% of the response times at the PS queue (node 2, class 1) are less than or equal to 27.0222 time units, while 99% are less than or equal to 41.8743 time units.

2.2.10 Tutorial 8: Optimizing a performance metric

In this example, we show how to optimize with the help of LINE a performance metric. We wish to find the optimal routing probabilities that minimize average response times for two parallel processor sharing queues. We assume that jobs are fed by a delay station, arranged with the two queues in a closed network

topology.

We first define a Python function with header

```
def objFun(p):
```

Within the function definition, we instantiate the two queues and the delay station

```
model = Network('LoadBalCQN')
delay = Delay(model, 'Think')
queue1 = Queue(model, 'Queue1', SchedStrategy.PS)
queue2 = Queue(model, 'Queue2', SchedStrategy.PS)
```

We assume that 16 jobs circulate among the nodes, and that the service rates are $\sigma = 1$ jobs per unit time at the delay, and $\mu_1 = 0.75$ and $\mu_2 = 0.50$ at the two queues:

```
cclass = ClosedClass(model, 'Job1', 16, delay)
delay.set_service(cclass, Exp(1))
queue1.set_service(cclass, Exp(0.75))
queue2.set_service(cclass, Exp(0.50))
```

We initially setup a topology with arbitrary values for the routing probabilities between delay and queues, ensuring that jobs completing at the queues return to the delay:

```
P = model.init_routing_matrix()
P.set(cclass, cclass, queue1, delay, 1.0)
P.set(cclass, cclass, queue2, delay, 1.0)
model.link(P)
```

We now return the system response time for the jobs as a function of the routing probability p to choose queue 1 instead of queue 2: Lastly, we optimize the function we defined

```
def routing_model(p):
    # Block 4: solution
    P.set(cclass, cclass, delay, queue1, p)
    P.set(cclass, cclass, delay, queue2, 1.0 - p)
    model.reset()
    model.link(P)
    solver = MVA(model, method='exact')
    return solver.avg_sys_respt()[0]
```

Lastly, we optimize the function we defined

```
from scipy import optimize
p_opt = optimize.fminbound(routing_model, 0, 1)
print(f'Optimal p: {p_opt}')
```

We are now ready to run the example. The execution returns the optimal value 0.6104878504366782.

2.2.11 Tutorial 9: Studying a departure process

This examples illustrates LINE's support for extracting simulation data about particular events in an extended queueing network, such as departures from a particular queue.

Our goal is to obtain the squared coefficient of variation of the inter-departure times from a $M/E_2/1$ queue, which has Poisson arrivals and 2-phase Erlang distributed service times.

Because this is a classic model, we can find it in LINE's model gallery. The additional return parameters (e.g., `source`, `queue`, ...) provide handles to the entities within the model.

```
model = Gallery.gallery_merl1()
```

We now extract 50,000 samples from simulation based on the underpinning continuous-time Markov chain

```
solver = CTMC(model, cutoff=150, seed=23000)
sa = solver.sample_sys_aggr(100000)
```

The returned data structure supplies information about the stateful nodes (here `source` and `queue`) at each of the 50,000 instants of sampling, together with the events that have been collected at these instants.

```
# Display structure of sampled aggregated data
print('Sample aggregate data structure:')
print(f'State data points: {sa.shape[0]}')
print(f'Event data available: {sa.shape[1] > 1}')
```

As an example, the first two events occur both at timestamp 0 and indicate a departure event from node 1 (the type `EventType.DEP` maps to `event: DEP`) followed by an arrival event at node 2 (the type `EventType.ARV` maps to `event: ARV`) which accepts it always (`prob: 1`).

```
# Access event data
event1 = sa.get_event(1)
print(f'Event 1 - Node: {event1.node}, Event: {event1.event_type}')
event2 = sa.get_event(2)
print(f'Event 2 - Node: {event2.node}, Event: {event2.event_type}')
```

We may also plot the first 300 events as follows

```
# Plot first 300 events sample path
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
plt.plot(sa.t[:300], sa.state[queue_index][:300])
plt.xlabel('Time')
plt.ylabel('Queue Length')
plt.title('Sample Path for M/E2/1 Queue')
plt.show()
```

We are now ready to filter the timestamps of events related to departures from the `queue` node

```
# Filter events for departures from queue node
```

```
queue_index = model.get_node_index(queue)
filt_event = sa.filter_events(queue_index, EventType.DEP)
```

Followed by a calculation of the time series of inter-departure times

```
# Calculate inter-departure times (continued from above)
departure_times = [event.t for event, is_dep in zip(sa.event, filt_event) if ...
is_dep]
inter_dep_times = np.diff(departure_times)
```

We may now for example compute the squared coefficient of variation of this process

```
# Calculate squared coefficient of variation
scv_d_est = np.var(inter_dep_times) / np.mean(inter_dep_times)**2
print(f'SCV estimate: {scv_d_est}')
```

which evaluates to 0.8750. Using Marshall's exact formula for the $GI/G/1$ queue [45], we get a theoretical value of 0.8750.

2.2.12 Tutorial 10: Basic layered queueing network

This example demonstrates how to model and analyze a basic layered queueing network (LQN) representing a simple client-server application with two tiers: a client layer and a database layer. The LQN consists of a client processor P1 with a reference task T1 (10 users), a database processor P2 with an infinite server task T2, synchronous calls from the client to the database, exponential service times at both layers.

We start by creating the layered network instance:

```
model = LayeredNetwork('ClientDBSystem')
```

Next, we define the processors and tasks:

```
# Create processors
P1 = Processor(model, 'ClientProcessor', 1, SchedStrategy.PS)
P2 = Processor(model, 'DBProcessor', 1, SchedStrategy.PS)

# Create tasks
T1 = Task(model, 'ClientTask', 10, SchedStrategy.REF).on(P1)
T1.set_think_time(Exp.fit_mean(5.0)) # 5-second think time
T2 = Task(model, 'DBTask', float('inf'), SchedStrategy.INF).on(P2)
```

Now we define the entries that represent service interfaces:

```
E1 = Entry(model, 'ClientEntry').on(T1)
E2 = Entry(model, 'DBEntry').on(T2)
```

Finally, we define the activities that specify the service demand and the synchronous calls

```
# Client activity: processes request and calls DB
A1 = Activity(model, 'ClientActivity', Exp.fit_mean(1.0)).on(T1)
A1.bound_to(E1).synch_call(E2, 2.5) # 2.5 DB calls on average

# DB activity: processes database request
A2 = Activity(model, 'DBActivity', Exp.fit_mean(0.8)).on(T2)
A2.bound_to(E2).replies_to(E2)
```

Now we solve the layered network using the LN solver with MVA applied to each layer: The output shows the performance metrics for each node in the layered network:

```
solver = LN(model, SolverType.MVA)
avg_table = solver.avg_table()
print(avg_table)
```

The output shows the performance metrics for each node in the layered network:

	Node	NodeType	QLen	Util	RespT	ResidT	ArvR	Tput
ClientProcessor	Processor		NaN	0.4991	NaN	NaN	NaN	
DBProcessor	Processor		NaN	0.9982	NaN	NaN	NaN	
ClientTask	Task		7.5046	0.4991	NaN	1.7254	NaN	0.4991
DBTask	Task		6.6433	0.9982	NaN	5.3240	NaN	1.2478
ClientEntry	Entry		7.5046	NaN	15.0354	NaN	NaN	0.4991
DBEntry	Entry		6.6433	NaN	5.3240	NaN	NaN	1.2478
ClientActivity	Activity		7.5046	0.4991	15.0354	1.7254	NaN	0.4991
DBActivity	Activity		6.6433	0.9982	5.3240	5.3240	NaN	1.2478

Chapter 3

Network models

Throughout this chapter, we discuss the specification of `Network` models, which are extended queueing networks. `LINE` currently supports open, closed, and mixed networks with non-exponential service and arrivals, and state-dependent routing. All solvers support the computation of basic performance metrics, while some more advanced features are available only in specific solvers. Each `Network` model requires in input a description of the nodes, the network topology, and the characteristics of the jobs that circulate within the network. In output, `LINE` returns performance and reliability metrics.

The default metrics supported by all solvers are as follows:

- Mean queue-length (`QLen`). This is the mean number of jobs residing at a node when this is observed at a random instant of time.
- Mean utilization (`Util`). For nodes that serve jobs, this is the mean fraction of time the node is busy processing jobs. In both single-server and multi-server nodes, this is a number normalized between 0 and 1, corresponding to 0% and 100%. In infinite-server nodes, the utilization is set by convention equal to the mean queue-length, therefore taking the interpretation of the mean number of jobs in execution at the station.
- Mean response time (`RespT`). This is the mean time a job spends traversing a node within a network. If the node is visited multiple times, the response time is the time spent for a single visit to the node.
- Mean residence time (`ResidT`). This is the total time a job accumulates, on average, to traverse a node within a network. If the node is visited multiple times, the residence time is the time accumulated overall visits to the node prior to returning to the reference station or arriving to a sink.
- Mean throughput (`Tput`). This is the mean departure rate of jobs completed at a resource per time unit. Typically, this matches the mean arrival rate, unless the node switches the class of the jobs in which case the arrival rate of a class may not match its departure rate.

Table 3.1: Nodes available in `Network` models.

Node	Description
Cache	A node to switch job classes based on hits/misses in its cache
ClassSwitch	A node to switch job classes based on a static probability matrix
Delay	A station where jobs spend time without queueing
Fork	A node that forks jobs into tasks
Join	A node that joins sibling tasks into the original job
Logger	A node that logs passage of jobs
Queue	A node where jobs queue and receive service
Router	A node that routes jobs to other nodes
Sink	Exit point for jobs in open classes
Source	Entry point for jobs in open classes

The above metrics refer to the performance characteristics of individual nodes. Response times and throughputs can also be system-wide, meaning that they can describe end-to-end performance during the visit to the network. In this case, these metrics are called *system* metrics. System-level metrics include `SysRespT` (system response time), `SysTput` (system throughput), and `SysQLen` (system queue length).

3.1 Network object definition

3.1.1 Creating a network and its nodes

A queueing network can be described in `LINE` using the `Network` class constructor with a unique string identifying the model name:

```
model = Network('myModel')
```

The returned object of the `Network` class offers functions to instantiate and manage resource *nodes* (stations, delays, caches, ...) visited by jobs of several types (*classes*).

A node is a resource in the network that can be visited by a job. A node must have a unique name and can either be *stateful* or *stateless*, the latter meaning that the node does not require state variables to determine its state or actions. If jobs visiting a stateful node can be required to spend time in it, the node is also said to be a *station*. A list of nodes available in `Network` models is given in Table 3.1.

We now provide more details on each of the nodes available in `Network` models.

Queue node. A `Queue` specifies a queueing station from its name and scheduling strategy, e.g.


```
queue = Queue(model, 'Queue1', SchedStrategy.FCFS)
```

specifies a first-come first-serve queue. It is alternatively possible to instantiate a queue using the `QueueingStation` constructor, which is merely an alias for `Queue`.

Queueing stations have by default a single server. The `set_number_of_servers` method can be used to instantiate multi-server stations. For heterogeneous servers with different capabilities, use `ServerType` to define server types and `HeteroSchedPolicy` to control which server types handle which job classes.

Valid scheduling strategies are specified within the `SchedStrategy` static class and include: If a strat-

Table 3.2: Scheduling strategies available in LINE

Strategy	Code	Description
First-come first-serve	FCFS	Jobs are served in order of arrival
Infinite-server	INF	All jobs receive service simultaneously (delay station)
Processor-sharing	PS	Server capacity is shared equally among all present jobs
Service in random order	SIRO	Jobs are selected randomly for service
Discriminatory processor-sharing	DPS	Processor sharing with class-dependent weights
Generalized processor-sharing	GPS	Processor sharing with configurable weights per class
Shortest expected processing time	SEPT	Job with shortest expected processing time is served first
Shortest job first	SJF	Job with shortest service requirement is served first
Polling	POLLING	Server cycles through queues in round-robin fashion
Last-come first-serve	LCFS	Most recently arrived job is served first
Least attained service	LAS	Job with least accumulated service time gets priority
Earliest due date	EDD	Job with earliest deadline is served first
Limited processor sharing	LPS	Processor sharing with limit on concurrent jobs
Feedback scheduling	FB	Multi-level feedback scheduling
Longest expected processing time	LEPT	Job with longest expected processing time is served first

egy requires class weights, these can be specified directly as an argument to the `set_service` function or using the `set_strategy_param` function, see later the description of DPS scheduling for an example.

Delay node. Delay stations, also called infinite server stations, may be instantiated either as objects of `Queue` class, with the `SchedStrategy.INF` scheduling strategy, or using the following specialized constructor

```
delay = Delay(model, 'ThinkTime')
```

As for queues, for readability it is possible to instantiate delay nodes using the `DelayStation` class which is an alias for the `Delay` class.

Source and Sink nodes. As seen in the M/M/1 getting started example, these nodes are mandatory elements for the specification of open classes. Their constructor only requires a specification of the unique name associated to the nodes:

```
source = Source(model, 'Source')
sink = Sink(model, 'Sink')
```

Fork and Join nodes. The fork and join nodes are currently available only for the JMT solver. The `Fork` splits an incoming job into a set of sibling tasks, sending out one task for each outgoing link. These tasks inherit the class of the original job and are served as normal jobs until they are reassembled at a `Join` station.

Their specification of Fork and Join nodes only requires the name of the node

```
fork = Fork(model, 'Fork')
join = Join(model, 'Join', fork)
```

The number of tasks sent by a `Fork` on each output link can be set using the `set_tasks_per_link` method of the `fork` object. To enable effective analytical approximations, presently LINE requires that every join node is bound to a specific fork node, although specific solvers will ignore this information (e.g., JMT).

Also note that the routing probabilities out of the `Fork` node need to be set to 1.0 towards every other node connected to the `Fork`. For example, a `Fork` sending jobs in class 1 to nodes *A*, *B* and *C*, cannot send jobs in class 2 only to *A* and *B*: it must send them to all three connected nodes *A*, *B* and *C*. A new fork node visited only by class-2 jobs needs to be created in order to send that class of jobs only to *A* and *B*.

After splitting a job into tasks, LINE takes the convention that visit counts refer to the average number of passages at the target resources for the original job, scaled by the number of tasks. For example, if a job is split into two tasks at a fork node, each visiting respectively nodes *A* and *B*, the average visit count at *A* and *B* will be 0.5.

For Fork-Join response time percentiles, `SolverMAM` automatically detects valid FJ topologies (Source → Fork → K Queues → Join → Sink) and applies percentile computation as follows

```
solver = SolverMAM(model)
perc_rt = solver.get_perct_resp_t([90, 95, 99])
```

ClassSwitch node. This is a stateless node to change the class of a transiting job based on a static probabilistic policy. For example, it is possible to specify that all jobs belonging to class 1 should become of class 2 with probability 1.0, or that a transiting job of class 2 should become of class 1 with probability 0.3. This example is instantiated as follows

```
cs = ClassSwitch(model, 'ClassSwitchPoint', [[0.0, 1.0], [0.3, 0.7]])
```

Cache node. This is a stateful node to store one or more items in a cache of finite size, for which it is possible to specify a replacement policy. The *cache* constructor requires the total cache capacity and the number of items that can be referenced by the jobs in transit, e.g.,

```
cacheNode = Cache(model, 'Cache1', nitems, capacity, ReplacementStrategy.LRU)
```

If the capacity is a scalar integer (e.g., 15), then it represents the total number of items that can be cached and the value cannot be greater than the number of items. Conversely, if it is a vector of integers (e.g., [10,5]) then the node is a list-based cache, where the vector entries specify the capacity of each list. We point to [32] for more details on list-based caches and their replacement policies.

Available replacement policies are specified within the `ReplacementStrategy` static class and include:

- First-in first-out (`ReplacementStrategy.FIFO`)
- Random replacement (`ReplacementStrategy.RR`)
- Least-recently used (`ReplacementStrategy.LRU`)
- Strict first-in first-out (`ReplacementStrategy.SFIFO`)

Upon cache hit or cache miss, a job in transit is switched to a user-specified class. More details are given later in Section 3.1.5.

Router node. This node is able to route jobs according to a specified `RoutingStrategy`, which can either be probabilistic or not (e.g., round-robin). Upon entering a `Router`, a job neither waits nor receives service; it is instead directly forwarded to the next node according to the specified routing strategy. A `Router` can be instantiated as follows:

```
router = Router(model, 'RouterNode')
```

An example of use of this node is given in Section 2.2.6. Routing strategies need to be specified for each class using the `set_routing` method and valid choices are as follows

- Random routing (`RoutingStrategy.RAND`)
- Round robin (`RoutingStrategy.RROBIN`)
- Probabilistic routing (`RoutingStrategy.PROB`)
- Join-the-shortest-queue (`RoutingStrategy.JSQ`)

For example, assume that `oclass` is a class of jobs. In order to route jobs in this class with equal probabilities to every outgoing link we set

```
router.set_routing(oclass, RoutingStrategy.RAND)
```

It should be noted that `set_routing` is also available for all other nodes such as queueing stations, delays, etc. Therefore, the added value of the `Router` node is the ability to represent certain system elements that centralize the routing logic, such as load balancers.

Logger node. A logger node is a node that closely resembles the logger node available in the JSIMgraph simulator within JMT. At present, models that include this element can only be solved using the JMT solver.

A `Logger` node records information about passing jobs in a `csv` file, such as the timestamp of passage and general information about the jobs. The node can be instantiated as follows

```
logger = Logger(model, 'LoggerNode', 'logfile.csv')
```

The following methods can be used to specify the information that needs to be stored in the `csv` file

- `set_start_time`: record a timestamp for the wallclock time when the simulation started.
- `set_job_id`: record a unique id for the passing job.
- `set_job_class`: record the class of the passing job.
- `set_timestamp`: record a timestamp for the simulated time when the job passed in the logger.
- `set_time_same_class`: record the time elapsed since the last passage of a job of the same class.
- `set_time_any_class`: record the time elapsed since the last passage of a job of any class.

Each method can be called either with a single `True` or `False` argument, to enable or disable the recording of the corresponding information, e.g.

```
logger.set_job_class(True)
```

The routing behavior of jobs can be set up as explained for regular nodes such as queues or delay stations.

Place and Transition nodes. `LINE` supports stochastic Petri net modeling via `Place` and `Transition` nodes. A `Place` holds tokens representing jobs or resources, while a `Transition` fires when its enabling conditions are met, consuming tokens from input places and producing tokens at output places. Transitions support multiple firing modes, each with its own enabling/inhibiting conditions, firing priorities, and firing rate distributions. Modes allow a single transition to represent different behaviors depending on system state. For example:

```
place = Place(model, 'Buffer')
trans = Transition(model, 'Process')
trans.add_mode('fast', Exp(2.0)) # fast processing mode
```

```
trans.add_mode('slow', Exp(0.5)) # slow processing mode
trans.set_enabling_conditions(place, 1) # requires 1 token
```

Examples are provided in `spn_basic_open`, `spn_twomodes`, and related files in the `examples/` folder.

3.1.2 Advanced node parameters

Scheduling parameters

Upon setting service distributions at a station, one may also specify scheduling parameters such as weights as additional arguments to the `set_service` function. For example, if the node implements discriminatory processor sharing (`SchedStrategy.DPS`), the command

```
queue.set_service(class2, Cox2.fit_mean_and_scv(0.2,10), 5.0)
```

assigns a weight 5.0 to jobs in class 2. The default weight of a class is 1.0.

Finite buffers

The functions `set_capacity` and `set_chain_capacity` of the `Station` class are used to place constraints on the number of jobs, total or for each chain, that can reside within a station. The capacity follows standard Kendall notation where K represents the *total system capacity* (queue + in-service jobs). For an M/M/c/K system with c servers, the buffer holds $K - c$ waiting jobs plus c jobs in service. LINE does not allow one to specify buffer constraints at the level of individual classes unless chains contain a single class, in which case `set_chain_capacity` is sufficient for the purpose.

For example,

```
cqn_threeclass_hyperl()
delay.set_chain_capacity([1, 1])
model.refresh_capacity()
```

creates an example model with two chains and three classes (specified in `cqn_threeclass_hyperl.m`) and requires the second station to accept a maximum of one job in each chain. Note that if we were to ask for a higher capacity, such as `set_chain_capacity([1, 7])`, which exceeds the total job population in chain 2, LINE would have automatically reduced the value 7 to the chain 2 job population (2). This automatic correction ensures that functions that analyze the state space of the model do not generate unreachable states.

The `refresh_capacity` function updates the buffer parameterizations, performing appropriate sanity checks. Since `cqn_threeclass_hyperl` has already invoked a solver prior to our changes, the requested modifications are materially applied by LINE to the network only after calling an appropriate `refresh_struct` function, see the sensitivity analysis section. If the buffer capacity changes were made before the first solver invocation on the model, then there would not be the need for a `refresh_capacity` call, since the internal representation of the `Network` object used by the solvers is still to be created.

Cyclic polling

In the polling scheduling policy, the server cyclically visits the input buffer of each job class, processing jobs from that queue for a finite amount of time before switching to the next buffer. This scheduling policy further requires to specify the polling type at the station, chosen among:

- Exhaustive (`PollingType.EXHAUSTIVE`), where the server moves to the next input buffer only after finishing all jobs in the current buffer, including new arrivals during the service period;
- Gated (`PollingType.GATED`), where the number of served jobs for a buffer equals the jobs therein at the instant where the server switched to processing that buffer. Thus, newly arrived jobs during the service period will be processed at the next period.
- K -Limited (`PollingType.KLIMITED`), where the number of jobs processed is a constant K specified by the user. If the queue empties before k jobs have been served, the server will move on and attend the next buffer.

To specify a polling type at a queue, we may write for instance

```
queue.set_polling_type(PollingType.EXHAUSTIVE)
# or for K-Limited with K=2
queue.set_polling_type(PollingType.KLIMITED, 2)
```

3.1.3 Job classes

Jobs travel within the network placing service demands at the stations. The demand placed by a job at a station depends on the class of the job. Jobs in *open classes* arrive from the external world and, upon completing the visit, leave the network. Jobs in *closed classes* start within the network and are forbidden to ever leave it, perpetually cycling among the nodes.

Open classes

The constructor for an open class only requires the class name and the creation of special nodes called `Source` and `Sink`

```
source = Source(model, 'Source')
sink = Sink(model, 'Sink')
```

Sources are special stations holding an infinite pool of jobs and representing the external world. Sinks are nodes that route a departing job back into this infinite pool, i.e., into the source. Note that a network can include at most a single `Source` and a single `Sink`.

Once source and sink are instantiated in the model, it is possible to instantiate open classes using

```
class1 = OpenClass(model, 'Class1')
```

LINE does not require explicitly associating source and sink with the open classes in their constructors, as this is done automatically. However, the LINE language requires explicitly creating these nodes since the routing topology needs to indicate the arrival and departure points of jobs in open classes. However, if the network does not include open classes, the user will not need to instantiate a `Source` and a `Sink`.

Closed classes

To create a closed class, we need instead to indicate the number of jobs that start in that class (e.g., 5 jobs) and the *reference station* for that class (e.g., `queue`), i.e.:

```
class2 = ClosedClass(model, 'Class2', 5, queue)
```

The reference station indicates a point in the network used to calculate certain performance indexes, called *system performance indexes*. The end-to-end response time for a job in an open class to traverse the system is an example of a system performance index (system response time). The reference station of an open class is always automatically set by LINE to be the `.`. Conversely, the reference station needs to be indicated explicitly in the constructor for closed classes since the point at which a class job completes execution depends on the semantics of the model.

LINE also supports a special class of jobs, called *self-looping jobs*, which perpetually loop at the reference station, remaining in their class. The following example shows the syntax to specify a self-looping job, which is identical to closed classes but there is no need later to specify routing information.

```
model = Network('model')
delay = Delay(model, 'Delay')
queue = Queue(model, 'Queue1', SchedStrategy.FCFS)
cclass = ClosedClass(model, 'Class1', 10, delay, 0)
slclass = SelfLoopingClass(model, 'SLC', 1, queue, 0)
delay.set_service(cclass, Exp(1.0))
queue.set_service(cclass, Exp(1.5))
queue.set_service(slclass, Exp(1.5))
P = model.init_routing_matrix()
P[0] = [[0.7, 0.3], [1.0, 0.0]]
model.link(P)
```

Note that any routing information specified for the self-looping class will be ignored.

Mixed models

LINE also accepts models where a user has instantiated both open and closed classes. The only requirement is that, if two classes communicate by means of a class-switching mechanism, then the two classes must either be all closed or all open. In other words, classes in the same chain must either be both closed or open. Furthermore, for all closed classes in the same chain, it is required for the reference station to be the same.

Table 3.3: Priority scheduling strategies available in LINE

Strategy	Code	Description
FCFS with priority	FCFSPRIO	FCFS within priority classes, non-preemptive
FCFS preemptive-resume with priority	FCFSRPRIO	FCFS with preemptive-resume priority
FCFS preemptive-independent with priority	FCFSPIPRIO	FCFS with preemptive-independent priority
LCFS with priority	LCFSPRIO	LCFS within priority classes, non-preemptive
LCFS preemptive-resume with priority	LCFSRPRIO	LCFS with preemptive-resume priority
LCFS preemptive-independent with priority	LCFSPIPRIO	LCFS with preemptive-independent priority
Processor-sharing with priority	PSPRIO	PS within priority classes
Discriminatory PS with priority	DPSPRIO	DPS within priority classes
Generalized PS with priority	GPSPRIO	GPS within priority classes
SRPT with priority	SRPTPRIO	Shortest remaining processing time within priority classes

Class priorities

If a class has a priority, **with 0 representing the highest priority**, this can be specified as an additional argument to both `OpenClass` and `ClosedClass`, e.g.,

```
class2 = ClosedClass(model, 'Class2', 5, queue, 0)
```

Important: Class priorities are only effective when a station uses a priority scheduling policy (see Table 3.3). If no priority scheduling policy is explicitly assigned to a station, class priorities are ignored. In `Network` models, priorities are intended as hard priorities. Weight-based policies such as DPS and GPS may be used, as an alternative, to prevent starvation of jobs in low-priority classes.

Class switching

In LINE, jobs can switch their class while they travel between nodes (including self-loops on the same node). For example, this feature can be used to model queueing properties such as re-entrant lines in which a job visiting a station a second time may require a different average service demand than at its first visit.

A chain defines the set of reachable classes for a job that starts in the given class r and over time changes class. Since class switching in LINE does not allow a closed class to become open, and vice-versa, chains can themselves be classified into *open chains* and *closed chains*, depending on the classes that compose them.

Jobs in open classes can only switch to another open class. Similarly, jobs in closed classes can only switch to a closed class. Thus, class switching from open to closed classes (or vice-versa) is forbidden.

Table 3.4: Signal types available in `Network` models.

SignalType	Description
NEGATIVE	Removes a random number of jobs from the queue according to a removal distribution (default: 1 job)
CATASTROPHE	Removes all jobs from the queue upon arrival
REPLY	Triggers a reply action for synchronous call semantics

More details about class-switching are given in Section 3.1.5.

Reference station

Before we have shown that the specification of classes requires choosing a reference station. In `LINE`, reference stations are properties of chains, thus if two closed classes belong to the same chain they must have the same reference station. This avoids ambiguities in the definition of the completion point for jobs within a chain.

For example, the system throughput for a chain is defined as the sum of the arrival rates at the reference station for all classes in that chain. That is, the solver counts a return to the reference station as a completion of the visit to the system. In the case of open chains, the reference station is always the `Source` and the system throughput corresponds to the rate at which jobs arrive at the sink `Sink`, which may be seen as the arrival rate seen by the infinite pool of jobs in the external world. If there is no class switching, each chain contains a single class, thus per-chain and per-class performance indexes will be identical.

Reference class

Occasionally, it is possible to encounter situations where a job needs to change class while remaining inside the same station. In this case, `LINE` modifies the network automatically to introduce a class-switching node for the job to route out of the station and immediately return to it in the new class.

One complication of the approach is that, by departing the node and returning to it, the job visits the station one additional time, affecting the visit count to the station and therefore performance metrics such as the residence time. To cope with this issue, `LINE` offers a method for the class objects, called `set_reference_class`, that allows users to specify whether the visit of that class to the reference station should be considered upon computing the residence times across the network for the chain to which the class belongs. By default, all classes traversing the reference station are used in the visit count calculation.

Networks with signals

Networks with signals are supported by the `SolverDES` (discrete event simulation) and `SolverMAM` (matrix-analytic methods) solvers. Table 3.4 summarizes the signal types available in `LINE`.

All signal classes are created using the `Signal` class with a required `SignalType` parameter. A `Signal` class can be configured with:

- **Removal distribution:** A discrete distribution specifying how many jobs to remove (default: 1 job). An alternative to the default is a `Geometric` distribution for batch removals.
- **Removal policy:** Determines which jobs are selected for removal when multiple jobs are present:
 - `RemovalPolicy.RANDOM` – Select jobs uniformly at random (default)
 - `RemovalPolicy.FCFS` – Remove the oldest job in the station first
 - `RemovalPolicy.LCFS` – Remove the newest job in the station first

The following example shows how to create a negative signal class:

```
neg_signal = Signal(model, 'NegativeCustomer', SignalType.NEGATIVE,
                    removal_distribution=Geometric(0.5), # batch removal
                    removal_policy=RemovalPolicy.LCFS)   # remove newest first
source.set_arrival(neg_signal, Exp(0.1))
```

A catastrophe signal removes all jobs from a queue. Use `SignalType.CATASTROPHE`:

```
disaster = Signal(model, 'Disaster', SignalType.CATASTROPHE)
source.set_arrival(disaster, Exp(0.01)) # rare catastrophic events
```

3.1.4 Routing strategies

Probabilistic routing

Jobs travel between nodes according to the network topology and a routing strategy. Typically a queueing network will use a probabilistic routing strategy (`RoutingStrategy.PROB`), which requires specifying routing probabilities among the nodes. The simplest way to specify a large routing topology is to define the routing probability matrix for each class, followed by a call to the `link` function. This function will automatically add certain nodes to the network to ensure the correct class switching for jobs moving between stations (`ClassSwitch` elements).

In the running case, we may instantiate a routing topology as follows:

```
P = model.init_routing_matrix()
P.set(class1, class1, source, queue, 1.0)
P.set(class1, class1, queue, queue, 0.3) # self-loop with probability 0.3
P.set(class1, class1, queue, delay, 0.7)
P.set(class1, class1, delay, sink, 1.0)
P.set(class2, class2, delay, queue, 1.0) # note: closed class jobs start at delay
P.set(class2, class2, queue, delay, 1.0)
model.link(P)
```

When used as arguments to a cell array or matrix, class, and node objects will be replaced by a corresponding numerical index. Normally, the indexing of classes and nodes matches the order in which they are instantiated in the model and one can therefore specify the routing matrices using this property. In this case, we would have

```
P = model.init_routing_matrix()
pmatrx = np.empty(K, dtype=object)
pmatrx[0] = [[0,1,0,0], [0,0.3,0.7,0], [0,0,0,1], [0,0,0,0]]
pmatrx[1] = [[0,0,0,0], [0,0,1,0], [0,1,0,0], [0,0,0,0]]
P.set_routing_matrix(jobclass, node, pmatrx)
```

Where needed, the `get_class_index` and `get_node_index` functions return the numerical index associated with a node name, for example `model.get_node_index('Delay')`. Class and node names in a network *must be unique*. The list of names already assigned to nodes in the network can be obtained with the `get_class_names`, `get_station_names`, and `get_node_names` functions of the `Network` class.

It is also important to note that the routing matrix in the last example is specified between *nodes*, instead of between just stations or stateful nodes, which means that for example elements such as the need to be explicitly considered in the routing matrix. The only exception is that `ClassSwitch` elements do not need to be explicitly instantiated in the routing matrix, provided that one uses the `link` function to instantiate the topology. Note that the routing matrix assigned to a model can be printed on the screen in a human-readable format using the `print_routing_matrix` function, e.g.,

```
model.print_routing_matrix()
```

prints

```
Delay [Class1] => Queue1 [Class1] : Pr=1.0
Delay [Class2] => Queue1 [Class2] : Pr=0.001
Queue1 [Class1] => Queue1 [Class1] : Pr=0.3
Queue1 [Class1] => Source [Class1] : Pr=0.7
Queue1 [Class2] => Source [Class2] : Pr=1.0
Source [Class1] => Sink [Class1] : Pr=1.0
Source [Class2] => Queue1 [Class2] : Pr=1.0
Sink [Class2] => Source [Class2] : Pr=1.0
```

Other routing strategies

The above routing specification style is only for models with probabilistic routing strategies between every pair of nodes. A different style should be used for scheduling policies that do not require to explicit routing probabilities, as in the case of state-dependent routing. Currently supported strategies include:

- Round robin (`RoutingStrategy.RROBIN`). This is a deterministic strategy that sends jobs to outgoing links in a cyclic order.

- Random routing (`RoutingStrategy.RAND`). This is equivalent to a standard probabilistic strategy that for each class assigns identical values to the routing probabilities of all outgoing links. When a target is invalid its probability is kept to zero, e.g., random routing will not send a job in a closed class to a sink.
- Join-the-Shortest-Queue (`RoutingStrategy.JSQ`). This is a non-probabilistic strategy that sends jobs to the destination with the smallest total number of jobs in it (either queueing or receiving service). If multiple stations have the same total number of jobs, then the destination is chosen at random with equal probability.
- Weighted round robin (`RoutingStrategy.WRROBIN`). Routes jobs cyclically with configurable weights per destination.
- Power of k choices (`RoutingStrategy.KCHOICES`). Samples k destinations at random and routes to the one with shortest queue.

For the above policies, the function `add_link` should be first used to specify pairs of connected nodes

```
model.add_link(queue, queue) #self-loop
model.add_link(queue, delay)
```

Then an appropriate routing strategy should be selected at every node, e.g.,

```
queue.set_routing(class1, RoutingStrategy.RROBIN)
```

assigns round robin among all outgoing links from the `queue` node.

A model could also include both classes with probabilistic routing strategies and classes that use round-robin or other non-probabilistic strategies. To instantiate routing probabilities in such situations one should then use, e.g.,

```
queue.set_routing(class1, RoutingStrategy.PROB)
queue.set_prob_routing(class1, queue, 0.7)
queue.set_prob_routing(class1, delay, 0.3)
```

where `set_prob_routing` assigns the routing probabilities to the two links.

Routing probabilities for Source and Sink nodes

In the presence of open classes, and in mixed models with both open and closed classes, one needs only to specify the routing probabilities *out* of the source. The probabilities out of the sink can all be set to zero for all classes and destinations (including self-loops). The solver will take care of adjusting these inputs to create a valid routing table.

Simplified definition of tandem and cyclic topologies

Tandem networks are open queueing networks with a serial topology. LINE provides functions that ease the definition of tandem networks of stations with exponential service times. For example, the getting started Example 1 on the M/M/1 queue illustrates a simplified way to specify a serial routing topology, i.e.,

```
model.link(Network.serial_routing(source,queue,sink))
```

In a similar fashion, we can also rapidly instantiate a tandem network consisting of stations with PS and INF scheduling as follows

```
lam = [10,20]
D = [[11,12], [21,22]] # D(i,r) - class-r demand at station i (PS)
Z = [[91,92], [93,94]] # Z(i,r) - class-r demand at station i (INF)
modelPsInf = Network.tandem_ps_inf(lam,D,Z)
```

The above snippet instantiates an open network with two queueing stations (PS), two delay stations (INF), and exponential distributions with the given inter-arrival rates and mean service times. The `Network.tandem_ps`, `Network.tandem_fcfs`, and `Network.tandem_fcfs_inf` functions provide static constructors for networks with other combinations of scheduling policies, namely only PS, only FCFS, or FCFS and INF.

A tandem network with closed classes is instead called a cyclic network. Similar to tandem networks, LINE offers a set of static constructors:

- `Network.cyclic_ps`: cyclic network of PS queues
- `Network.cyclic_ps_inf`: cyclic network of PS queues and delay stations
- `Network.cyclic_fcfs`: cyclic network of FCFS queues
- `Network.cyclic_fcfs_inf`: cyclic network of FCFS queues and delay stations

These functions only require replacing the arrival rate vector A by a vector N specifying the job populations for each of the closed classes, e.g.,

```
# Create cyclic PS network
N = [2, 1] # job populations
D = [[11, 12], [21, 22]] # service demands
model_ps_inf = Network.cyclic_ps(N, D)
```

3.1.5 Class switching

Depending on the specified probabilities, a job will be able to switch its class only among a subset of the available classes. Each subset is called a *chain*. Chains are computed in LINE as the weakly connected components of the routing probability matrix of the network when this is seen as an undirected graph.

The function `model.get_chains()` produces the list of chains for the model, inclusive of a list of their composing classes.

The definition of class switching in a model is integrated in the specification of the routing between stations as described in the next subsection.

Probabilistic class switching

In models with class switching and probabilistic routing at all nodes, a routing matrix is required for each possible pair of source and target classes. For instance, suppose that in the previous example the job in the closed class `class2` switches into a new closed class (`class3`) while visiting the queue node. We can specify this routing strategy as follows:

```
# Set up routing matrix with class switching
P.set(class1, class1, queue, queue, 0.3) # self-loop
P.set(class1, class1, queue, delay, 0.7)
P.set(class1, class1, delay, sink, 1.0)
P.set(class2, class3, delay, queue, 1.0) # class switching
P.set(class3, class2, queue, delay, 1.0)
model.link(P)
```

Importantly, LINE assumes that a job switches class an instant *after* leaving a station, thus the performance metrics of a class at the node refer to the class that jobs had upon arrival to that node.

Class switching with non-probabilistic routing strategies

In the presence of non-probabilistic routing strategies, such as round-robin or join-the-shortest-queue, one may need to manually specify the details of the class switching mechanism. This can be done through addition to the network topology of `ClassSwitch` nodes.

The constructor of the `ClassSwitch` node requires a probability matrix C such that the element in row r and column s is the probability that a job of class r arriving into the node switches to class s during the visit. For example, in a 2-class model, the following node will switch all visiting jobs into class 2

```
# Block 1: nodes
...
csnode = ClassSwitch(model, 'ClassSwitch 1')
# Block 2: classes
jobclass = np.empty(2, dtype=object)
jobclass[0] = OpenClass(model, 'Class1', 0)
jobclass[1] = OpenClass(model, 'Class2', 0)
...
# Block 3: topology
C = csnode.init_class_switch_matrix()
C[0][1] = 1.0
C[1][1] = 1.0
csnode.set_class_switching_matrix(C)
```

Note that for a network with M stations, up to M^2 `ClassSwitch` elements may be required to implement class-switching across all possible links, including self-loops.

Cache-based class-switching

An advanced feature of `LINE` available for example within the `Cache` node, is that the class-switching decision can dynamically depend on the state of the node (e.g., cache hit/cache miss). However, in order to statically determine chains, `LINE` requires that every class-switching node declares the pair of classes that can potentially communicate with each other via a switch. This is called the *class-switching mask* and it is automatically computed. The boolean matrix returned by the `model.get_class_switching_mask` function provides this mask, which has an entry in row r and column s set to true only if jobs in class r can switch into class s at some node in the network.

Upon cache hit or cache miss, a job in transit is switched to a user-specified class, as specified by the `set_hit_class` and `set_miss_class`, so that it can be routed to a different destination based on whether it found the item in the cache or not. The `set_read` function allows the user to specify a discrete distribution (e.g., `Zipf`, `DiscreteSampler`) for the frequency at which an item is requested. For example,

```
refModel = Zipf(0.5,nitems)
cacheNode.set_read(initClass, refModel)
cacheNode.set_hit_class(initClass, hitClass)
cacheNode.set_miss_class(initClass, missClass)
```

Here `init_class`, `hit_class`, and `miss_class` can be either open or closed instantiated as usual with the `OpenClass` or `ClosedClass` constructors.

3.1.6 Service and inter-arrival time processes

A number of statistical distributions are available to specify job service times at the stations and inter-arrival times from the station. The class `Markovian` offers distributions that are analytically tractable, which are defined using absorbing Markov chains consisting of one or more states (*phases*) and called phase-type distributions. They include as special cases the distributions shown in Table 3.5.

For example, given mean $\mu = 0.2$ and squared coefficient of variation $SCV=10$, where $SCV=\text{variance}/\mu^2$, we can assign to a node a 2-phase Coxian service time distribution with these moments as

```
queue.set_service(class2, Cox2.fit_mean_and_scv(0.2,10.0))
```

where `Cox2` is a static class to fit 2-phase Coxian distributions. Inter-arrival time distributions can be instantiated in a similar way, using `set_arrival` instead of `set_service` on the `Source` node. For example, if the `Source` is node 3 we may assign the inter-arrival times of class 2 to be exponential with mean 0.1 as follows

```
source.set_arrival(class2, Exp.fit_mean(0.1))
```

Table 3.5: Phase-type distributions available in LINE

Distribution	Description
Exponential	$\text{Exp}(\lambda)$, where λ is the rate of the exponential
n -phase Erlang	$\text{Erlang}(\alpha, n)$, where α is the rate of each of the n exponential phases
2-phase hyper-exponential	$\text{HyperExp}(p, \lambda_1, \lambda_2)$, that returns an exponential with rate λ_1 with probability p , and an exponential with rate λ_2 otherwise
n -phase hyper-exponential	$\text{HyperExp}(p, \lambda)$, that builds a n -phase hyper-exponential from a rate vector $\lambda = [\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n]$ and phase selection probabilities $p = [p_1, \dots, p_n]$
2-phase Coxian	$\text{Coxian}(\mu_1, \mu_2, \phi_1)$, which assigns phases μ_1 and μ_2 to the two rates, and completion probability from phase 1 equal to ϕ_1 (the probability from phase 2 is $\phi_2 = 1.0$)
n -phase Coxian	$\text{Coxian}(\mu, \phi)$, which builds an arbitrary Coxian distribution from a vector $\mu = [\mu_1, \dots, \mu_n]$ of n rates and a completion probability vector $\phi = [\phi_1, \dots, \phi_n]$ with $\phi_n = 1.0$
n -phase acyclic phase-type	$\text{APH}(\alpha, T)$, which defines an acyclic phase-type distribution with initial probability vector $\alpha = [\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n]$ and transient generator T
n -phase matrix exponential	$\text{ME}(\alpha, A)$, which defines a matrix exponential distribution with initial vector $\alpha = [\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n]$ (possibly non-normalized) and matrix parameter A . This generalizes phase-type distributions by allowing non-stochastic initial vectors [7]
Rational arrival process	$\text{RAP}(H_0, H_1)$, which defines a correlated arrival process with hidden transition matrix H_0 and visible transition matrix H_1 , where $H_0 + H_1$ forms a generator matrix. This generalizes the Markovian arrival process (MAP) [2]
Markovian arrival process	$\text{MAP}(D_0, D_1)$, which defines a point process with phase-dependent arrival rates via matrices D_0 (hidden transitions) and D_1 (arrivals)
Markov-modulated Poisson process	$\text{MMPP2}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \sigma_1, \sigma_2)$, a two-phase MMPP with arrival rates λ_i and switching rates σ_i
Batch Markovian arrival process	$\text{BMAP}(D)$, which generalizes MAP to allow batch arrivals via a set of arrival matrices $D = \{D_0, D_1, \dots, D_k\}$
General phase-type	$\text{PH}(\alpha, T)$, which defines a phase-type distribution with initial probability vector α and transient generator T , allowing cyclic phase transitions

Is it also possible to plot the structure of a phase-type distribution using `Markovian.plot` static method.

Non-Markovian distributions are also available, but typically they can restrict the available solvers to the JMT simulator. They include the distributions shown in Table 3.6.

When non-Markovian distributions are used with the CTMC, SSA, or MAM solvers, they are automatically converted to phase-type (PH) distributions using a Bernstein polynomial approximation. A warning message is issued when this conversion occurs. The number of phases used in the approximation can be controlled via `options.config.bernstein` (default: 20 phases).

Table 3.7 shows the internal parameter storage format for each non-Markovian distribution. These parameters are stored in the `proc{ist}{r}` field of the network structure.

Table 3.6: Non-Markovian distributions available in LINE

Distribution	Description
Deterministic	<code>Det(μ)</code> assigns probability 1.0 to the value μ
Uniform	<code>Uniform(a, b)</code> assigns uniform probability $1/(b - a)$ to the interval $[a, b]$
Gamma	<code>Gamma(α, k)</code> assigns a gamma density with shape α and scale k
Pareto	<code>Pareto(α, k)</code> assigns a Pareto density with shape α and scale k
Weibull	<code>Weibull(r, α)</code> assigns a Weibull density with shape r and scale α
Lognormal	<code>Lognormal(μ, σ)</code> assigns a lognormal density with parameters μ and σ
Zipf	<code>Zipf(s, N)</code> assigns power-law probabilities $p(k) \propto k^{-s}$ for $k = 1, \dots, N$
Trace-based distributions (replay empirical data from files)	
Replayer	<code>Replayer(filename)</code> reads interarrival or service times cyclically from a CSV file
Trace	<code>Trace(data)</code> wraps an empirical dataset as a distribution
EmpiricalCDF	<code>EmpiricalCDF(x,F)</code> defines a distribution from CDF values F at points x

Table 3.7: Non-Markovian distribution parameter formats in `proc{ist}{r}`

Distribution	Format
Gamma	{shape (α), scale (β)}
Weibull	{shape (r), scale (α)}
Lognormal	{ μ, σ }
Pareto	{shape (α), scale (k)}
Uniform	{min (a), max (b)}
Det	{ t }

Lastly, we discuss two special distributions. The `Disabled` distribution can be used to explicitly forbid a class to receive service at a station. This may be useful to declare in models with sparse routing matrices to debug the model specification. Performance metrics for disabled classes will be set to `float('nan')`.

Conversely, the `Immediate` class can be used to specify instantaneous service (zero service time). Normally, solvers will replace zero service times with small positive values ($\varepsilon = \text{GlobalConstants.FineTol}$).

Fitting a distribution

The `fit_mean_and_scv` function is available for all distributions that inherit from the `Markovian` class. This function provides exact or approximate matching of the first two moments, depending on the theoretical constraints imposed by the distribution. For example, an Erlang distribution with $\text{SCV}=0.75$ does not exist, because in a n -phase Erlang it must be $\text{SCV}=1/n$. In a case like this, `Erlang.fit_mean_and_scv(1, 0.75)` will return the closest approximation, e.g., a 2-phase Erlang ($\text{SCV}=0.5$) with unit mean. The Erlang distribution also offers a function `fit_mean_and_order(μ, n)`, which instantiates a n -phase Erlang with given

mean μ .

In distributions that are uniquely determined by more than two moments, `fit_mean_and_scv` chooses a particular assignment of the residual degrees of freedom other than mean and SCV. For example, `HyperExp` depends on three parameters, therefore it is insufficient to specify mean and SCV to identify the distribution. Thus, `HyperExp.fit_mean_and_scv` automatically chooses to return a probability of selecting phase 1 equal to 0.99. Compared to other choices, this particular assignment corresponds to a higher probability mass in the tail of the distribution. `HyperExp.fit_mean_and_scv_balanced` instead assigns p in a two-phase hyper-exponential distribution so that $p/\mu_1 = (1 - p)/\mu_2$.

Inspecting and sampling a distribution

To verify that the fitted distribution has the expected mean and SCV it is possible to use the `get_mean` and `get_scv` functions, e.g.,

```
dist = Exp(1)
print(dist.get_mean())
print(dist.get_scv())
```

Moreover, the `sample` function can be used to generate values from the obtained distribution, e.g. we can generate 3 samples as

```
print(dist.sample(3))
```

The `eval_cdf` and `eval_cdf_interval` functions return the cumulative distribution function at the specified point or within a range, e.g.,

```
print(dist.eval_cdf_interval(2, 5))
print(dist.eval_cdf(5) - dist.eval_cdf(2))
```

For more advanced uses, the distributions of the `Markovian` class also offer the possibility to obtain the standard (D_0, D_1) representation used in the theory of Markovian arrival processes by means of the `get_representation` function [9].

Load-dependent service

A queueing station i is called *load-dependent* whenever its service rate is a function of the number n_i of resident jobs at the station, summed across the ones in service and the ones in the waiting buffer. For example, a multi-server station with c identical servers, each with processing rate μ , may be shown to behave similarly to a single-server load-dependent station where the service rate is $\mu(n_i) = \mu\alpha(n_i) = \mu \min(n_i, c)$.

LINE presently supports *limited load-dependence* [15], meaning that it is possible to specify the form of the load-dependent service up to a finite range of n_i . As such, the support is currently limited to closed models, which are guaranteed to have a finite population at all times.

To specify a load-dependence service for a queueing station over the range $n_i \in [1, N]$ it is sufficient to call the `set_load_dependence` method, passing a vector of size N in its input with the scaling factor values for each n_i . For example, to instantiate a c -server node we write

```
queue.set_load_dependence(np.minimum(np.arange(0,N,1), c))
```

where the i -th element of the vector argument of `set_load_dependence` is the scaling factor $\alpha(n_i)$. It is assumed by default that $\alpha(0) = 1$.

Class-dependent service

A generalization of load-dependent service is *class-dependent* service, where the service rate is now a function of the vector $n_i = [n_{i,1}, \dots, n_{i,R}]$, where $n_{i,r}$ is the current number of class- r jobs at station i .

LINE supports class-dependence in the MVA solver, provided that this is specified as a function handle. The solver implicitly assumes that the function is smooth and defined also for fractional values of $n_{i,r}$. For example, in a two-class model we may write

```
# Class-dependent service using lambda function
queue.set_class_dependence(lambda ni: min(ni[1], c))
```

applies a multiserver-type only to class-2 jobs, but not to the others.

Switchover times

In multiclass models, queueing stations alternate over time the processing of jobs of different classes. In some real-world situations, overheads may arise when a server needs to be reconfigured to process a different class of service. Such overheads are referred to as *switchover times*.

LINE supports switchover times in queueing stations. For example, to configure the overhead to begin processing *jobclass2* jobs after *jobclass1* we may write

```
queue.set_switchover(jobclass1, jobclass2, Exp(1))
```

A special case arises when the station uses (deterministic) polling scheduling. In this situation, the switchover time specifies the time for moving from the input buffer of class i to the input buffer of class $i + 1 \bmod R$, where R is the total number of input classes to the queue. Using this fact, we need only to specify the switchover time after each class, e.g., the switchover time to begin processing *jobclass2* jobs after *jobclass1* is set as

```
queue.set_switchover(jobclass1, Exp(1))
```

Impatience (customer abandonment)

LINE supports customer impatience through configurable patience distributions. When a job arrives at a queue, it draws a patience time from the specified distribution. If the job has not entered service before its patience expires, it reneges (abandons) the queue and is routed to the next station or sink. Impatience can be configured at queue-level or class-level:

```
queue.set_patience(jobclass, Exp(0.5)) # Mean patience = 2.0
jobclass.set_patience(Det(5.0)) % Fixed timeout = 5.0 everywhere
```

When both global and queue-specific patience are configured, the queue-specific setting takes precedence. Impatience supports all standard distributions except modulated processes (BMAP, MAP, MMPP2).

Temporal dependent processes

It is sometimes useful to specify the statistical properties of a *time series* of service or inter-arrival times, as in the case of systems with short- and long-range dependent workloads. When the model is stochastic, we refer to these as situations where one specifies a *process*, as opposed to only specifying the *distribution* of the service or inter-arrival times. In LINE processes include the 2-state Markov-modulated Poisson process (MMPP2) and empirical traces read from files (Replayer).

For the latter, LINE assumes that empirical traces are supplied as text files (ASCII), formatted as a column of numbers. Once specified, the `Replayer` object can be used as any other distribution. This means that it is possible to run a simulation of the model with the specified trace. However, analytical solvers will require tractable distributions from the `Markovian` class.

3.2 Internals

In this section, we discuss the internal representation of the `Network` objects used within the LINE solvers. By applying changes directly to this internal representation it is possible to considerably speed up the sequential evaluation of models.

3.2.1 Representation of the model structure

For efficiency reasons, once a user requests to solve a `Network`, LINE calls internally generate a static representation of the network structure using the `refresh_struct` function. This function returns a representation object that is then passed on to the chosen solver to parameterize the analysis.

The representation used within LINE is the `NetworkStruct` class, which describes an extended multi-class queueing network with class-switching and acyclic phase-type (APH) service times. APH generalizes known distributions such as Coxian, Erlang, Hyper-Exponential, and Exponential. The representation can be obtained as follows

```
sn = model.get_struct()
```

The `NetworkStruct` class in the Python version provides a wrapper around the JAR implementation, exposing properties as native Python data types. Table 3.8 lists the main properties available through the Python interface.

Table 3.8: `NetworkStruct` properties (Python version)

Field	Type	Description
<code>nstations</code>	<code>int</code>	Number of stations in the network
<code>nstateful</code>	<code>int</code>	Number of stateful nodes in the network
<code>nnodes</code>	<code>int</code>	Number of nodes in the network
<code>nclasses</code>	<code>int</code>	Number of classes in the network
<code>nclosedjobs</code>	<code>int</code>	Total number of jobs in closed classes
<code>nchains</code>	<code>int</code>	Number of chains in the network
<code>nodenames</code>	<code>tuple</code>	Name of node i (accessed as <code>nodenames[i]</code>)
<code>classnames</code>	<code>tuple</code>	Name of class r (accessed as <code>classnames[r]</code>)
<code>nodetype</code>	<code>tuple</code>	Type of node i (e.g., <code>NodeType.Queue</code>)
<code>njobs</code>	<code>numpy.ndarray</code>	Number of jobs in class r (<code>numpy.inf</code> for open classes)
<code>nservers</code>	<code>numpy.ndarray</code>	Number of servers at station i
<code>classprio</code>	<code>numpy.ndarray</code>	Priority of class r (0 = highest priority)
<code>connmatrix</code>	<code>numpy.ndarray</code>	True if node i can route jobs to node j
<code>isstation</code>	<code>numpy.ndarray</code>	True if node i is a station
<code>isstateful</code>	<code>numpy.ndarray</code>	True if node i is a stateful node
<code>isstatedep</code>	<code>numpy.ndarray</code>	True if node i has state-dependent section (axis 1: 0=input, 1=service, 2=routing)
<code>sched</code>	<code>numpy.ndarray</code>	Scheduling strategy at station i (e.g., <code>'ps'</code> , <code>'fcfs'</code>) - 1D array of strings
<code>schedparam</code>	<code>numpy.ndarray</code>	Parameter for class r scheduling strategy at station i
<code>mu</code>	<code>numpy.ndarray</code>	Service or arrival rate in phase k for class r at station i , with <code>numpy.nan</code> if <code>Disabled</code> and <code>10⁷</code> if <code>Immediate</code> (2D array: stations \times classes)
<code>phi</code>	<code>numpy.ndarray</code>	Completion probability in phase k for class r at station i (2D array: stations \times classes)
<code>pie</code>	<code>numpy.ndarray</code>	Entry probability in phase k for class r at station i (2D array: stations \times classes)
<code>proc</code>	<code>numpy.ndarray</code>	Matrix representation of the class r service process at station i . For Markovian distributions, this follows the standard (D_0, D_1) representation (3D array: stations \times classes \times 2)
<code>procid</code>	<code>numpy.ndarray</code>	Service or arrival process type name for class r at station i (2D array of strings)
<code>droprule</code>	<code>numpy.ndarray</code>	Drop rule for class r at station i (2D array of strings)
<code>routing</code>	<code>numpy.ndarray</code>	Routing strategy for class r upon departing node i (2D array of strings)
<code>phases</code>	<code>numpy.ndarray</code>	Number of phases for service process of class r at station i
<code>refstat</code>	<code>numpy.ndarray</code>	Index of reference station for class r
<code>refclass</code>	<code>numpy.ndarray</code>	Index of reference class for chain c
<code>nodeparam</code>	<code>list</code>	Parameters for local variable instantiation at stateful node i (<code>None</code> if not stateful)
<code>nodeToStation</code>	<code>numpy.ndarray</code>	Map from node index to station index (-1 if not a station)
<code>nodeToStateful</code>	<code>numpy.ndarray</code>	Map from node index to stateful index (-1 if not stateful)
<code>stationToNode</code>	<code>numpy.ndarray</code>	Map from station index to corresponding node index
<code>chains</code>	<code>numpy.ndarray</code>	True if class r is in chain c , or False otherwise

Continued on next page

Table 3.8 – Continued from previous page

Field	Type	Description
rates	numpy.ndarray	Service rate of class r at station i (or arrival rate if i is a Source)
visits	dict	Number of visits that a job in chain c pays to stateful node i in class r (accessed as <code>visits[c]</code>)
nodevisits	dict	Number of visits that a job in chain c pays to node i in class r (accessed as <code>nodevisits[c]</code>)
rt	numpy.ndarray	Probability of routing from stateful node i to j , switching class from r to s
rtnodes	numpy.ndarray	Same as <code>rt</code> , but i and j are nodes, not necessarily stateful ones
inchain	dict	Indexes of classes in chain c (accessed as <code>inchain[c]</code>)
space	numpy.ndarray	The state space for each station (1D array of objects)
state	numpy.ndarray	Current state of each stateful node (1D array of objects)
phasessz	numpy.ndarray	Number of state vector elements used to describe phase
phaseshift	numpy.ndarray	Position shift to read phase element in state
nvars	numpy.ndarray	Number of local state variables for stateful node i . Position r describes state variables for class- r service; position $r = \text{nclasses} + s$ for class- s routing; positions after $2 \times \text{nclasses}$ are used for class-independent variables
isslc	numpy.ndarray	True if class r is a self-looping class
fj	numpy.ndarray	True if forked tasks from fork node f join at node j
nregions	int	Number of finite capacity regions
region	list	Per-class capacity in each region; last column = global max
regionrule	numpy.ndarray	DropStrategy id for each region
lldscaling	numpy.ndarray	Load-dependent scaling when station i contains n_i jobs, including the ones in service
stateprior	numpy.ndarray	Prior probability for states of each stateful node (1D array of objects)
varsparam	numpy.ndarray	Variable parameters for stateful nodes (None if not available)
cdscaling	dict	Class-dependent scaling functions by station name (dict with callable values)
gsync	dict	Global synchronization specifications by integer key
lst	dict	Laplace-Stieltjes transform functions by station and class names (nested dict)
rtorig	dict	Original routing probabilities for class switching (nested dict by class names)
sync	dict	Synchronizations among stateful nodes
rtfun	callable	State-dependent routing function (None if not available)

The Python exposes computed properties derived from the JAR backend, converted to Python-native data structures as described in Table 3.8. Additional computed properties are accessible through the same interface using the property names listed in the JAR version table above, with automatic conversion to NumPy arrays, Python dictionaries, or lists as appropriate.

For advanced nodes, such as Cache and Transition, additional parameters are specified under the `nodeparam` cell array for the corresponding node. Tables 3.9 and 3.10 illustrate the Python implementation of these parameters.

Table 3.9: TransitionNodeParam fields (Python version)

Field	Type	Description
enabling	list	Enabling condition matrices for modes (list of numpy arrays)
inhibiting	list	Inhibiting condition matrices for modes (list of numpy arrays)

Continued on next page

Table 3.9 – Continued from previous page

Field	Type	Description
modenames	list	Names of modes as Python strings
nmodes	int	Number of modes for transition node
nmodeservers	numpy.ndarray	Number of servers for each mode
timing	list	Firing timing strategy names for each mode (list of strings)
firingprocid	dict	Firing process type names by mode (dict with string values)
firingproc	dict	Matrix representation of firing process by mode
firingpie	dict	Entry probabilities for firing process phases by mode
firingphases	numpy.ndarray	Number of phases for firing process of each mode
firing	list	Firing output matrices (list of numpy arrays)
firingprio	numpy.ndarray	Firing priority for each mode
fireweight	numpy.ndarray	Firing weight for each mode

Table 3.10: CacheNodeParam fields (Python version)

Field	Type	Description
accost	numpy.ndarray	Access cost matrices for moving items between lists (multi-dimensional array)
hitclass	numpy.ndarray	Class switching specification for cache hits
itemcap	numpy.ndarray	Item capacity for each list
missclass	numpy.ndarray	Class switching specification for cache misses
nitems	int	Number of items in the cache
pread	dict	Probability distributions for reading items by class (dict of lists)
replacestrat	str	Replacement policy name (e.g., 'lru', 'fifo')
actualhitprob	numpy.ndarray	Actual hit probabilities (computed)
actualmissprob	numpy.ndarray	Actual miss probabilities (computed)

As shown in the tables, internally to LINE there is an explicit differentiation between properties of nodes, stations, and stateful nodes. This distinction has impact in particular over routing and class-switching mechanisms, and also allows solvers to better differentiate between different kinds of nodes.

In some cases, one may want to access some properties of nodes that are contained in `NetworkStruct` fields that are however referenced by station or stateful node index. To help this and similar situations, the `NetworkStruct` class also provides static methods to quickly convert the indexing of nodes, stations, and stateful nodes, which is used in referencing its data structures:

- `node_to_stateful`
- `node_to_station`
- `station_to_node`
- `station_to_stateful`
- `stateful_to_node`

As an example, we can determine the portion of the `nodevisits` field that refers to stateful nodes in chain $c = 1$ as follows

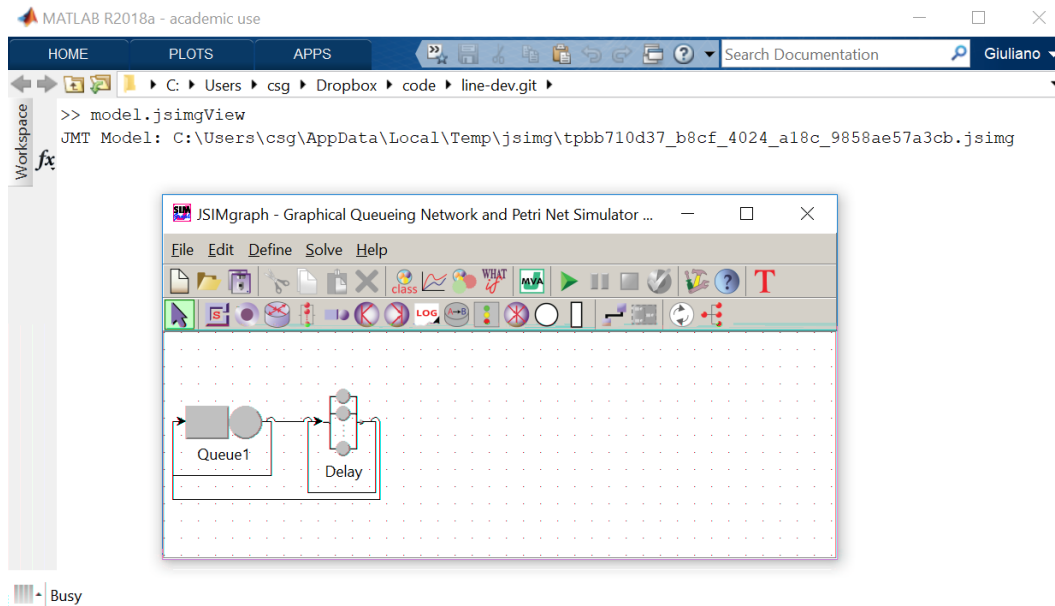


Figure 3.1: jsimgView function

```

c = 0 # class index (0-based)
V = np.zeros((sn.nstateful, 1))
sn = model.get_struct() # NetworkStruct object
for ind in range(sn.nnodes):
    if sn.isstateful[ind]:
        isf = sn.node_to_stateful[ind]
        V[isf, 0] = sn.nodevisits[c][ind, 1]

```

3.3 Debugging and visualization

JSIMgraph is the graphical simulation environment of the JMT suite. LINE can export models to this environment for visualization purposes using the command

```
model.jsimg_view()
```

An example is shown in Figure 3.1. Using a related function, `jsimw_view`, it is also possible to export the model to the JSIMwiz environment, which offers a wizard-based interface.

Another way to debug a LINE model is to transform it into a graph object, i.e.,. Another way to debug a LINE model is to transform it into a graph object, i.e.,.


```
# Display graph edges
G = model.get_graph()
print(f'Nodes: {G.nodes()}')
print(f'Edges: {G.edges(data=True)}')
```

3.4 Model import and export

LINE offers a number of scripts to import external models into `Network` object instances that can be analyzed through its solvers. The available scripts are as follows:

- `JMT2LINE` imports a JMT simulation model (`.jsimg` or `.jsimw` file) instance.

This script requires in input the filename and desired model name, and returns a single output, e.g.,

```
sn = JMT2LINE.load('examples/data/JMT/jmt_example.jsimg', 'Mod1')
```

where `sn` is an instance of the `class`.

3.4.1 Supported JMT features

Table 3.4.1 lists the JSIMgraph/JSIMwiz model features supported by the `JMT2LINE` transformation. We indicate as “Fully” supported a feature that is supported in the import and such that the resulting model can be solved in LINE using at least JMT. A feature with “Partial” support implies that some core aspects of this feature available in JSIM are not available in LINE.

A few notes are needed to clarify the entries with partial support:

- `Fork` and `Join` are supported with their default policies. Advanced policies, such as partial joins or setting a distribution for the forked tasks on each output link, are not supported yet.
- a single `Sink` and a single `Source` can be instantiated in a LINE model, whereas there is no such constraint in JMT.

Table 3.11: Supported JSIM features for automated model import and analysis

JMT Feature	Support	Notes
Distributions	Full	Phase-Type, Burst (MAP), Burst (MMPP2), Matrix Exponential (ME), Rational Arrival Process (RAP), Deterministic, Disabled, Exponential, Erlang, Gamma, Hyperexponential, Coxian, Logistic, Pareto, Uniform, Zero Service Time, Replayer, Weibull
Classes	Full	Open class, Closed class, Class priorities
Metrics	Full	Number of customers, Residence Time, Throughput, Response Time, Throughput per sink, Utilization, Arrival Rate
Nodes	Full	Finite Capacity Region, ClassSwitch, Place, Delay, Logger, Queue, Router, Transition
Routing	Full	Random, Probabilities, Round Robin, Join the Shortest Queue

Continued on next page

Table 3.11 – *Continued from previous page*

JMT Feature	Support	Notes
Mechanisms	Full	Polling, Setup times, Delay-off times, Switchover times, Impatience, Load Dependence, Retrial, Soft deadlines, Heterogeneous servers, Server Compatibilities
Scheduling	Full	FCFS, FCFS-PRIO, LCFS, LCFS-PR, SIRO (Random), SJF, SEPT, LJF, LEPT, PS, DPS, GPS, PS Priority, DPS Priority, GPS Priority, LPS, EDD, EDF, SRPT
Nodes	Partial	Fork, Join, Source, Sink
Distributions	No	Burst (General), Normal
Nodes	No	Scaler, Semaphore
Routing	No	Shortest Response Time, Least Utilization, Fastest Service, Load Dependent, Class Switch Routing
Metrics	No	Drop rate, Response time per sink, Power
Scheduling	No	TBS, QBPS
Mechanisms	No	Parallelism

Chapter 4

Analysis methods

4.1 Performance metrics

As discussed earlier, LINE supports a set of steady-state and transient performance metrics. Table 4.1 summarizes the definition of the associated random variables. For each metric, one or more analysis types may be available, which are extensively discussed in the next sections.

Table 4.1: Performance metrics

Metric	Acronym	Description
Queue-length	QLen	Number of jobs of class r (or chain- c) residing at a node i
Utilization	Util	Utilization of class- r (or chain- c) jobs at node i , scaled in $[0,1]$ for multi-server nodes, equal to QLen at infinite server nodes
Response time	RespT	Time that a class- r (or chain- c) jobs spends for a single visit at node i
Residence time	ResidT	Cumulative time that a class- r (or chain- c) jobs spends across all visits at node i
Arrival rate	ArvR	Arrival rate of class- r (or chain- c) jobs at node i
Throughput	Tput	Throughput of class- r (or chain- c) jobs at node i
System Response time	SysRespT	For an open chain c , this is the time from leaving the source to arriving at the sink for <i>any</i> class in the chain. For a closed chain c , this is the interval of time between two successive visits to the reference station in any two <i>completing classes</i> within the chain.
System Throughput	SysTput	For an open chain c , this is the departure rate towards the sink for <i>any</i> class in the chain. For a closed chain c , this is the rate of arrival of <i>completing classes</i> in the chain at the reference station.
Tardiness	Tard	Lateness metric for jobs relative to deadlines

Queue length in Finite Capacity Regions. When a station is part of a Finite Capacity Region (FCR) with `WaitingQueue` drop strategy, the reported queue length (QLen) includes both jobs currently inside the station and jobs that are blocked waiting to enter the FCR. This semantic ensures consistency with blocking queueing network models where blocked jobs are logically associated with their destination queue. For

example, if an FCR with capacity 2 contains a queue with 2 jobs, and 1 additional job is blocked waiting to enter, the reported queue length will be 3. This convention is consistent with JMT's handling of FCR blocking.

4.2 Steady-state analysis

4.2.1 Station average performance

LINE decouples network specification from its solution, allowing to evaluate the same model with multiple solvers. Model analysis is carried out in LINE according to the following general steps:

Step 1: Definition of the model. This proceeds as explained in the previous chapters.

Step 2: Instantiation of the solver(s). A solver is an instance of the `Solver` class. LINE offers multiple solvers, which can be configured through a set of common and individual solver options. For example,

```
solver = JMT(model)
```

returns a handle to a simulation-based solver based on JMT, configured with default options.

Step 3: Solution. Finally, this step solves the network and retrieves the concrete values for the performance indexes of interest. This may be done as follows, e.g.,

```
# QN(i,r): mean queue-length of class r at station i
QN = solver.avg_q_len()
# UN(i,r): utilization of class r at station i
UN = solver.avg_util()
# RN(i,r): mean response time of class r at station i (per visit)
RN = solver.avg_respt()
# TN(i,r): mean throughput of class r at station i
TN = solver.avg_tput()
# AN(i,r): mean arrival rate of class r at station i
AN = solver.avg_arv_r()
# WN(i,r): mean residence time of class r at station i (summed on visits)
WN = solver.avg_residt()
```

Alternatively, all the above metrics may be obtained in a single method call as

```
results = solver.avg()
QN = results.QN
UN = results.UN
RN = results.RN
TN = results.TN
AN = results.AN
WN = results.WN
```

In the methods above, LINE assigns station and class indexes (e.g., i , r) in order of creation in order of creation of the corresponding station and class objects. However, large models may be easier to debug by checking results using class and station names, as opposed to indexes. This can be done either by requesting LINE to build a table with the result

```
avg_table = solver.avg_table()
```

which however tends to be a rather slow data structure to use in case of repeated invocations of the solver, or by indexing the matrices returned by `avg` using the model objects. That is, if the first instantiated node is `queue` with name `MyQueue` and the second instantiated class is `cclass` with name `MyClass`, then the following commands are equivalent

```
QN[0, 1] # 0-based indexing
QN[queue, cclass] # object-based indexing
QN[model.get_station_index('MyQueue'), model.get_class_index('MyClass')]
```

Similar methods are defined to obtain aggregate performance metrics at chain level at each station, namely `avg_q_len_chain` for queue-lengths, `avg_util_chain` for utilizations, `avg_resp_t_chain` for response times, `avg_tput_chain` for throughputs, and the `avg_chain` method to obtain all the previous metrics.

4.2.2 Station response time distribution

FLD supports the computation of response time distributions for individual classes through the `cdf_resp_t` function. The function returns the response time distribution for every station and class. For example, the following code plots the cumulative distribution function at steady-state for class 1 jobs when they visit station 2:

```
solver = FLD(model)
fc = solver.cdf_respt()
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
plt.plot(fc[1][0][:, 1], fc[1][0][:, 0])
plt.xlabel('t')
plt.ylabel('Pr(RespT<t)')
plt.show()
```

4.2.3 Age of Information analysis

FLD supports the computation of Age of Information (AoI) metrics for single-queue open systems with capacity constraints. AoI measures the freshness of information in status update systems, defined as the time elapsed since the last successfully received update was generated. The solver automatically detects valid AoI topologies (Source \rightarrow Queue \rightarrow Sink) with capacity 1 (bufferless) or 2 (single-buffer) and computes exact AoI distributions using Markovian Fluid Queue analysis.

4.2.4 System average performance

LINE also allows users to analyze models for end-to-end performance indexes such a system throughput or system response time. However, in models with class switching the notion of system-wide metrics can be ambiguous. For example, consider a job that enters the network in one class and departs the network in another class. In this situation one may attribute system response time to either the arriving class or the departing one, or attempt to partition it proportionally to the time spent by the job within each class. In general, the right semantics depends on the aim of the study.

LINE tackles this issue by supporting only the computation of system performance indexes *by chain*, instead than by class. In this way, since a job switching from a class to another remains by definition in the same chain, there is no ambiguity in attributing the system metrics to the chain. The solver functions `avg_sys` and `avg_sys_table` return system response time and system throughput per chain as observed: (i) upon arrival to the sink, for open classes; (ii) upon arrival to the reference station, for closed classes.

In some cases, it is possible that a chain visits multiple times the reference station before the job completes. This also affects the definition of the system averages, since one may want to avoid counting each visit as a completion of the visit to the system. In such cases, LINE allows users to specify which classes of the chain can complete at the reference station. For example, in the code below we require that a job visits reference station 1 twice, in classes 1 and 2, but completes at the reference station only when arriving in class 2. Therefore, the system response time will be counted between successive passages in class 2.

```
solver = LINE.load('ctmc', model)
```

Note that the `completes` property of a class always refers to the reference station for the chain.

4.3 Specifying states

In some analyses it is important to specify the state of the network, for example to assign the initial position of the jobs in a transient analysis. We thus discuss the support in LINE for state modeling.

4.3.1 Station states

We begin by explaining how to specify a state s_0 for a station. For example, it is not supported for shortest job first (`SchedStrategy.SJF`) scheduling, in which state must include the service time samples for the jobs and it is therefore a continuous quantity.

Suppose that the network has R classes and that service distributions are phase-type, i.e., that they inherit from `Markovian`. Let K_r be the number of phases for the service distribution in class r at a given station. Then, we define three types of state variables:

- c_j : class of the job waiting in position $j \leq b$ of the buffer, out of the b currently occupied positions. If $b = 0$, then the state vector is indicated with a single empty element $c_1 = 0$.

- k_j : service phase of the job waiting in position $j \leq b$ of the buffer, out of the b currently occupied positions.
- n_r : total number of jobs of class r in the station
- b_r : total number of jobs of class r in the station's buffer
- s_{rk} : total number of jobs of class r running in phase k in the server

Here, by phase we mean the number of states of a distribution of class Markovian. If the distribution is not Markovian, then there is a single phase. With these definitions, the table below illustrates how to specify in LINE a valid state for a station depending on its scheduling strategy. There, S is the number of servers of the queueing station. All state variables are non-negative integers. The `SchedStrategy.EXT` policy is used for the `Source` node, which may be seen as a special station with an infinite pool of jobs sitting in the buffer and a dedicated server for each class $r = 1, \dots, R$.

Table 4.2: State descriptors for Markovian scheduling policies

Sched. strategy	Station state vector	State condition
EXT	$[\text{Inf}, s_{11}, \dots, s_{1K_1}, \dots, s_{R1}, \dots, s_{RK_R}]$	$\sum_k s_{rk} = 1, \forall r$
FCFS, FCFSPRIO, LCFS	$[c_b, \dots, c_1, s_{11}, \dots, s_{1K_1}, \dots, s_{R1}, \dots, s_{RK_R}]$	$\sum_r \sum_k s_{rk} = S$
LCFSPR, LCFSPI	$[c_b, k_b, \dots, c_1, k_1, s_{11}, \dots, s_{1K_1}, \dots, s_{R1}, \dots, s_{RK_R}]$	$\sum_r \sum_k s_{rk} = S$
SEPT, SIRO	$[b_1, \dots, b_R, s_{11}, \dots, s_{1K_1}, \dots, s_{R1}, \dots, s_{RK_R}]$	$\sum_r \sum_k s_{rk} = S$
PS, DPS, GPS, INF	$[s_{11}, \dots, s_{1K_1}, \dots, s_{R1}, \dots, s_{RK_R}]$	None

States can be manually specified or enumerated automatically. LINE library functions for handling and generating states are as follows:

- `State.from_marginal`: enumerates all states that have the same marginal state $[n_1, n_2, \dots, n_R]$.
- `State.from_marginal_and_running`: restricts the output of `State.from_marginal` to states with given number of running jobs, irrespectively of the service phase in which they currently run.
- `State.from_marginal_and_started`: restricts the output of `State.from_marginal` to states with given number of running jobs, all assumed to be in service phase $k = 1$.
- `State.from_marginal_bounds`: similar to `State.from_marginal`, but produces valid states between given minimum and maximum value of the number of resident jobs.

- `State.to_marginal`: extracts marginal statistics from a state, such as the total number of jobs in a given class that are running at the station in a certain phase.

Note that if a function call returns an empty state (`[]`), this should be interpreted as an indication that no valid state exists that meets the required criteria. Often, this is because the state supplied in input is invalid.

Example

We consider the example network in `cqn_multiserver`. We look at the state of station 3, which is a multi-server FCFS station. There are 4 classes all having exponential service times except class 2 that has Erlang-2 service times. We are interested to states with 2 running jobs in class 1 and 1 in class 2, and with 2 jobs, respectively of classes 3 and 4, waiting in the buffer. We can automatically generate this state space, which we store in the `space` variable, as:

```
space = State.from_marginal_and_running(model, 2, [2,1,1,1], [2,1,0,0])
```

Here, each row of `space` corresponds to a valid state. The argument `[2,1,1,1]` gives the number of jobs in the node for the 4 classes, while `[2,1,0,0]` gives the number of running jobs in each class. This station has four valid states, differing on whether the class-2 job runs in the first or in the second phase of the Erlang-2 and on the relative position of the jobs of class 3 and 4 in the waiting buffer.

To obtain states where the jobs have just started running, we can instead use

```
space = State.from_marginal_and_started(model, 2, [2,1,1,1], [2,1,0,0])
```

We see that the above state space restricted the one obtained with `State.from_marginal_and_running` to states where the job in class 1 is always in the first phase.

If we instead remove the specification of the running jobs, we can use `State.from_marginal` to generate all possible combinations of states depending on the class and phase of the running jobs. In the example, this returns a space of 20 possible states.

```
space = State.from_marginal(model, 2, [2,1,1,1])
```

Assigning a prior to an initial state

It is possible to assign the initial state to a station using the `set_state` function on that station's object. LINE offers the possibility to specify a prior probability on the initial states, so that if multiple states have a non-zero prior, then the solver will need to solve an independent model using each one of those initial states, and then carry out a weighting of the results according to the prior probabilities. The default is to assign a probability 1.0 to the *first* specified state. The functions `set_state_prior` and `get_state_prior` can be used to check and change the prior probabilities for the initial states specified for a station or stateful node.

4.3.2 Network states

A collection of states that are valid for each station is not necessarily valid for the network as a whole. For example, if the sum of jobs of a closed class exceeds the population of the class, then the network state would be invalid. To identify these situations, LINE requires to specify the initial state of a network using functions supplied by the `Network` class. These functions are `init_from_marginal`, `init_from_marginal_and_running`, and `init_from_marginal_and_started`. They require a matrix `n` with elements (i, r) specifying the total number of resident class- r jobs at node i and the latter two require a matrix `s` with elements (i, r) with the number of running (or started) class- r jobs at node i . The user can also manually verify if the supplied network state is going to be valid using `State.is_valid`.

It is also possible to request LINE to automatically identify a valid initial state, which is done using the `init_default` function available in the `Network` class. This is going to select a state where:

- no jobs in open classes are present in the network;
- jobs in closed classes all start at their reference stations;
- the servers at each reference station are occupied by jobs of in class order, i.e., jobs in the firstly created class are assigned to the server, then spare server are allocated to jobs in the second class, and so forth;
- service or arrival processes are initialized in phase 1 for each job;
- if the scheduling strategy requires it, jobs are ordered in the buffer by class, with the firstly created class at the head and the lastly created class at the tail of the buffer.

The `init_from_avg_q_len` method is a wrapper for `init_from_marginal` to initialize the system as close as possible to the average steady-state distribution of the network. Since averages are typically not integer-valued, this function rounds the average values to the nearest integer and adjusts the result to ensure feasibility of the initialization.

4.3.3 Initialization of transient classes

Because of class-switching, it is possible that a class r with a non-empty population at time $t = 0$ becomes empty at some positive time $t' > t$ without ever being visited again by any job. LINE allows users to place jobs in transient classes and therefore it will not trigger an error in the presence of this situation. If a user wishes to prohibit the use of a class at a station, it is sufficient to specify that the corresponding service process uses the `Disabled` distribution.

Certain solvers may incur problems in identifying that a class is transient and in setting to zero its steady-state measures. For example, the JMT solver uses a heuristic whereby a class is considered transient if it has fewer samples than jobs initially placed in the corresponding chain the class belongs to. For such classes, JMT will set the values of steady-state performance indexes to zero.

4.3.4 State space generation

As discussed in Example 3, the state space of a model can be obtained by either invoking `model.state_space()` or `solver.state_space()` on an instant of the CTMC solver, where the latter returns the state space cached during the solution of the CTMC.

LINE supports two state space generation methods, configurable using the option `options.config.state_space_gen` of the CTMC solver. Details may be found in Table 5.2.2.

4.4 Transient analysis

So far, we have seen how to compute steady-state average performance indexes, which are given by

$$E[n] = \lim_{t \rightarrow +\infty} E[n(t)]$$

where $n(t)$ is an arbitrary performance index, e.g., the queue-length of a given class at time t .

We now consider instead the computation of the quantity $E[n(t)|s_0]$, which is the *transient average* of the performance index, conditional on a given initial system state s_0 . Compared to $n(t)$, this quantity averages the system state at time t across all possible evolutions of the system from state s_0 during the t time units, weighted by their probability. In other words, we observe all possible stochastic evolutions of the system from state s_0 for t time units, recording the final values of $n(t)$ in each trajectory, and finally average the recorded values at time t to obtain $E[n(t)|s_0]$.

4.4.1 Computing transient averages

The computation of transient metrics proceeds similarly to the steady-state case. We first obtain the handles for transient averages:

```
model = Gallery.gallery_cqn(2) # closed single class queueing network
handles = model.get_tran_handles()
Qt = handles.Qt
Ut = handles.Ut
Tt = handles.Tt
```

After solving the model, we will be able to retrieve *both* steady-state and transient averages as follows

```
results = CTMC(model, timespan=[0,1]).tran_avg(Qt, Ut, Tt)
QNT = results.QNT
UNT = results.UNT
TNT = results.TNT
# matplotlib.pyplot.plot(QNT.t, QNT.metric)
```

The transient average queue-length at node i for class r is stored within `QNT` in row i and column r .

Note that the above code specifies a maximum time t for the output time series. This can be done using the `timespan` solver option. This applies also to average metrics. In the following example, the first model is solved at steady-state, while the second model reports averages at time $t = 1$ after initialization

```
# Steady-state analysis
CTMC(model).avg_table().print()

# Transient analysis at t=1
CTMC(model, timespan=[0, 1]).avg_table().print()
```

4.4.2 First passage times into stations

When the model is in a transient, the average state seen upon arrival to a station changes over time. That is, in a transient, successive visits by a job may experience different response time distributions. The function `get_tran_cdf_resp_t`, implemented by JMT offers the possibility to obtain this distribution given the initial state specified for the model. As time passes, this distribution will converge to the steady-state one computed by solvers equipped with the function `get_cdf_resp_t`.

However, in some cases one prefers to replace the notion of response time distribution in transient by the one of *first passage time*, i.e., the distribution of the time to complete the *first visit* to the station under consideration. The function `get_tran_cdf_first_pass_t` provides this distribution, assuming as initial state the one specified for the model, e.g., using `set_state` or `init_default`. This function is available only in FLD and has a similar syntax as `get_cdf_resp_t`.

4.5 Sample path analysis

With LINE is also possible to obtain a particular sample path from the stochastic process underlying the queueing network. The following functions are available for this purpose:

- `sample`: returns a data structure including the time-varying state of a given stateful node, labelled with information about the events that changed the node state.
- `sample_aggr`: returns a data structure similar to the one provided by `sample`, but where the state is aggregate to count the number of jobs in each class at the node.
- `sample_sys`: similar to the `sample` function, but returns the state of every stateful node in the model.
- `sample_sys_aggr`: similar to the `sample_aggr` function, but returns the aggregated state of every stateful node in the model.

It is worth noting that the JMT solver only supports `sample_aggr` since the simulator does not offer a simple way to extra detailed data such as phase change information in the service process. This information is instead available with the SSA solver.

For example, the following command extract a sample path consisting of 10 samples for a $APH(2)/M/1$ queue:

```
solver = LINE.load('ctmc', model)
```

In the example, `sample_path.t` refers to the time since initialization at which the node 2 (here the $APH(2)/M/1$ queueing station) enters the state shown in the second column.

If we repeat the same experiment with the SSA solver and using the `sampleSys` function, we now have the full state space of the model, including both the source and the queueing station:

```
solver = LINE.load('ctmc', model)
```

4.6 Sensitivity analysis and numerical optimization

Frequently, performance and reliability analysis requires to change one or more model parameters to see the sensitivity of the results or to optimize some goal function. In order to do this efficiently, we have discussed before the internal representation of the `Network` objects used within the `LINE` solvers. By applying changes directly to this internal representation it is possible to considerably speed-up the sequential evaluation of models as discussed next.

4.6.1 Fast parameter update

Successive invocations of `get_struct()` will return a cached copy of the `NetworkStruct` representation, unless the user has called `model.refresh_struct()` or `model.reset()` in-between the invocations. The `refresh_struct` function regenerates the internal representation, while `reset` destroys it, together with all other representations and cached results stored in the `Network` object. In the case of `reset`, the internal data structure will be regenerated at the next `refresh_struct()` or `get_struct()` call.

The performance cost of updating the representation can be significant, as some of the structure array field require a dedicated algorithm to compute. For example, finding the chains in the model requires an analysis of the weakly connected components of the network routing matrix. For this reason, the `Network` class provides several functions to selectively refresh only part of the `NetworkStruct` representation, once the modification has been applied to the objects (e.g., stations, classes, ...) used to define the network. These functions are as follows:

- `refresh_arrival`: this function should be called after updating the inter-arrival distribution at a `Source`.
- `refresh_capacity`: this function should be called after changing buffer capacities, as it updates the `capacity` and `classcapacity` fields.
- `refresh_chains`: this function should be used after changing the routing topology, as it refreshes the `rt`, `chains`, `nchains`, `nchainjobs`, and `visits` fields.

Table 4.3: Functions for direct modification of `NetworkStruct` objects

Function	Description
<code>sn_set_service</code>	Sets service rate at a specific station and class. Optional parameters: squared coefficient of variation (default 1.0) and auto-refresh flag.
<code>sn_set_arrival</code>	Sets arrival rate for a class at the Source station. Automatically locates the Source and updates its rate.
<code>sn_set_population</code>	Sets the number of jobs for a closed class. Automatically recalculates <code>nclosedjobs</code> .
<code>sn_set_servers</code>	Sets the number of servers at a station.
<code>sn_set_priority</code>	Sets the priority for a class.
<code>sn_set_routing_prob</code>	Sets a routing probability between two stateful node-class pairs.
<code>sn_set_routing</code>	Sets the full routing matrix.
<code>sn_set_fork_fanout</code>	Sets fork fanout parameters.
<code>sn_set_service_batch</code>	Sets service parameters for batch processing.

- `refresh_priorities`: this function updates class priorities in the `classprio` field.
- `refresh_scheduling`: updates the `sched`, and `schedparam` fields.
- `refresh_processes`: updates the `mu`, `phi`, `phases`, `rates` and `scv` fields.

For example, suppose we wish to update the service time distribution for class-1 at node 1 to be exponential with unit rate. This can be done efficiently as follows:

```
queue.set_service(class1, Exp(1.0))
model.refresh_struct()
```

4.6.2 Direct modification of `NetworkStruct` objects

For maximum performance in optimization loops, LINE provides low-level `sn_set_*` functions that directly modify `NetworkStruct` objects without requiring a `Network` object. These functions bypass the high-level API and operate directly on the internal data structure, making them ideal for sensitivity analysis and numerical optimization where many parameter variations must be evaluated quickly.

The available functions are listed in Table 4.3.

For example, suppose we wish to vary the service rate at station 1 for class 1 in an optimization loop:

4.6.3 Refreshing a network topology with non-probabilistic routing

The `reset_network` function should be used before changing a network topology with non-probabilistic routing. It will destroy by default all class switching nodes. This can be avoided if the function is called as,

e.g., `model.reset_network(False)`. The default behavior is though shown in the next example

```
solver = LINE.load('ctmc', model)
```

As shown, `reset_network` updates the station indexes and the revised list of nodes that compose the topology is obtained as a return parameter. To avoid stations to change index, one may simply create `ClassSwitch` nodes as last before solving the model. This node list can be employed as usual to reinstantiate new stations or `ClassSwitch` nodes. The `add_link`, `set_routing`, and possibly the `set_prob_routing` functions will also need to be re-applied as described in the previous sections.

4.6.4 Saving a network object before a change

The object, and its inner objects that describe the network elements, are always passed by reference. The `copy` function should be used to clone `LINE` objects, for example before modifying a parameter for a sensitivity analysis. This function recursively clones all objects in the model, therefore creating an independent copy of the network. For example, consider the following code

```
solver = LINE.load('ctmc', model)
```

Using the `get_name` function it is then possible to verify that `model` has now name `myModel1`, since the first assignment was by reference. Conversely, `model_by_copy.set_name` did not affect the original `model` since this is a clone of the original network.

4.7 Model adaptation

The `ModelAdapter` class provides static methods for transforming and adapting `Network` models. These methods are useful for model reduction, response time analysis, and preprocessing operations.

4.7.1 Chain aggregation

The `ModelAdapter.aggregate_chains` function transforms a multi-class model with K classes organized into C chains into a model with C classes, preserving chain population, arrival rates, service demands, and routing while reducing state space when $C \ll K$. The function returns the aggregated model, an aggregation factors matrix α satisfying $\sum_{r \in C} \alpha(i, r) = 1$, and deaggregation information for transforming chain-level results back to class-level metrics.

```
chain_model, alpha, deagg_info = ModelAdapter.aggregate_chains(model)
```

4.7.2 Flow-equivalent server aggregation

The `ModelAdapter.aggregate_fes` function replaces a subset of stations in a closed product-form queueing network with a single Flow-Equivalent Server (FES). The FES has state-dependent service rates

where the rate for each class equals the throughput of that class in an isolated subnetwork consisting only of the aggregated stations. This technique reduces the model size while preserving exact throughput and utilization metrics.

4.7.3 Tagged job models

The `ModelAdapter.tag_chain` function creates a tagged job model for response time distribution analysis. It isolates a single job from a specified chain by creating duplicate tagged classes, enabling the computation of per-job response time distributions using methods such as passage time analysis.

4.7.4 Class removal

The `ModelAdapter.remove_class` function removes a specified job class from a model, updating all station configurations, routing matrices, and class-dependent parameters accordingly. This is useful for analyzing submodels or simplifying complex multi-class networks.

Chapter 5

Network solvers

5.1 Overview

Solvers analyze objects of class `Model` to return average, transient, distributions, or state probability metrics. A solver can implement one or more *methods*, which although featuring a similar overall solution strategy, they can differ significantly from each other in the way this strategy is actually implemented and on whether the final solution is exact or approximate.

A ‘method’ flag can be passed upon invoking a solver to specify the solution method that should be used. For example, the following invocations are identical:

```
solver = LINE.load('ctmc', model)
```

In what follows, we describe the general characteristics and supported model features for each solver available in LINE and their methods.

Available solvers

The following solvers are available within LINE 3.0.x:

- **AUTO**: This solver uses an algorithm to select the best solution method for the model under consideration, among those offered by the other solvers. Analytical solvers are always preferred to simulation-based solvers. This solver is implemented by the `AUTO` class.
- **CTMC**: This is a solver that returns the exact values of the performance metrics by explicit generation of the continuous-time Markov chain (CTMC) underpinning the model. As the CTMC typically incurs state-space explosion, this solver can successfully analyze only small models. The CTMC solver is the only method offered within LINE that can return an exact solution on all Markovian models, all other solvers are either approximate or are simulators. This solver is implemented by the `CTMC` class.

- **FLD**: This solver analyzes the model by means of an approximate fluid model, leveraging a representation of the queueing network as a system of ordinary differential equations (ODEs). The fluid model is approximate, but if the servers are all PS or INF, it can be shown to become exact in the limit where the number of users and the number of servers in each node grow to infinity [49]. This solver is implemented by the `FLD` class.
- **JMT**: This is a solver that uses a model-to-model transformation to export the `LINE` representation into a `JMT` simulation (`JSIM`) or analytical (`JMVA`) models [5]. The `JSIM` simulation solver can analyze also non-Markovian models, in particular those involving deterministic or Pareto distributions, or empirical traces. This solver is implemented by the `JMT` class.
- **MAM**: This is a matrix-analytic method solver, which relies on quasi-birth death (QBD) processes to analyze open queueing systems. This solver is implemented by the `MAM` class.
- **MVA**: This is a solver based on approximate and exact mean-value analysis. This solver is typically the fastest and offers very good accuracy in a number of situations, in particular models where stations have a single-server. This solver is implemented by the `MVA` class.
- **NC**: This solver uses a combination of methods based on the normalizing constant of state probability to solve a model. The underpinning algorithm are particularly useful to compute marginal and joint state probabilities in queueing network models. This solver is implemented by the `NC` class.
- **SSA**: This is a Stochastic Simulation Algorithms based on the `CTMC` representation of the model. Contrary to the `JMT` simulator, which has online estimators for all the performance metrics, `SSA` estimates only the probability distribution of the system states, indirectly deriving the metrics after the simulation is completed. Moreover, the `SSA` execution can more efficiently parallelized on multi-core machines. Moreover, it is possible to retrieve the evolution over time of each node state, including quantities that are not loggable in `JMT`, e.g., the active phase of a service or arrival distribution. This solver is implemented by the `SSA` class.
- **QNS**: This is a dedicated wrapper solver for the `qnsolver` utility distributed within `LQNS`. This allows users to evaluate product-form models using the `MVA` algorithms implemented within `LQNS`. The available options specify the multiserver handling algorithm: Conway’s multiserver approximation (`conway`) [22], Rolia’s multiserver (`rolia`) [56], load-dependent MVA by Reiser-Lavenberg (`reiser`) [53], and Zhou-Woodside’s multiserver approximation (`zhou`) [66]. This solver is implemented by the `QNS` class.

5.2 Solution methods

We now describe the solution methods available within the solvers. Table 5.1 provides a global summary. Some of the listed methods (e.g., `mg1`) are not associated to a specific solver, as they do not fall in one of the reference formalisms. A solver that runs these methods can be instantiated as follows, e.g.:

```
solver = LINE.load('mg1', model)
solver.avg_table().print()
```

Note that the `LINE.load` notation can also be used to instantiate a custom solver pre-configured with the specified method. For example

```
solver = LINE.load('ctmc', model)
```

runs the CTMC solver with default options. Solver-specific methods can be specified by appending their name to the method option, e.g. this command creates the CTMC solver with `gpu` method enabled:

```
solver = LINE.load('ctmc.gpu', model)
```

Table 5.1: Solution methods for Network solvers.

Solver	Method	Description	Refs.
CTMC	default	Solution based on global balance	[9, § 2.1.2]
DES	default	Discrete-event simulation using SSJ and SimPy libraries	–
FLUID	default	ODE-based mean field approximations	[50, 57]
FLUID	matrix	Alias for the default method	[50, 57]
FLUID	closing	Fluid with closing method for open classes	[9, p. 507]
FLUID	statedep	Kurtz’s mean field ODEs for closed models	[50]
FLUID	softmin	Smoothed <code>statedep</code> with <i>softmin</i> replacing <i>min</i> functions	–
FLUID	diffusion	Diffusion approximation via Euler-Maruyama SDEs	[9, § 10.1.1]
FLUID	mfq	Markovian fluid queue for single-queue systems	[36]
JMT	default	Alias for the <code>jsim</code> method	–
JMT	jmva	Alias for the <code>jmva.mva</code> method	–
JMT	jmva.mva	Exact MVA in JMVA	[53]
JMT	jmva.recal	Exact RECAL algorithm in JMVA	[23]
JMT	jmva.comom	Exact CoMoM algorithm in JMVA	[12]
JMT	jmva.amva	Approximate MVA, alias for <code>jmva.bs.</code>	–
JMT	jmva.aql	AQL algorithm in JMVA	[65]
JMT	jmva.bs	Bard-Schweitzer algorithm in JMVA	[9, § 9.1.1]
JMT	jmva.chow	Chow algorithm in JMVA	[21]
JMT	jmva.dmlin	De Souza-Muntz Linearizer in JMVA	[25]
JMT	jmva.lin	Linearizer algorithm in JMVA	[20]

Continued on next page

Table 5.1 – Solution methods for `Network` solvers. *Continued from previous page*

Solver	Method	Description	Refs.
JMT	<code>jmva.ls</code>	Logistic sampling in JMVA	[13]
JMT	<code>jsim</code>	Exact discrete-event simulation in JSIM	[5]
JMT	<code>replication</code>	Transient simulation via independent replications	–
MAM	<code>default</code>	Matrix-analytic solution of structured QBDs	[37]
MAM	<code>dec.source</code>	Decomposition with arrivals as from the source	–
MAM	<code>dec.poisson</code>	Decomposition based on Poisson arrival flows	–
MAM	<code>dec.mna</code>	Decomposition based on MNA method	[43]
MAM	<code>inap</code>	Iterative Numerical Approximation Procedure via RCAT	[?]
MAM	<code>inapplus</code>	Improved INAP with weighted rates (no normalization)	[?]
MVA	<code>default</code>	Approximate MVA, same as <code>qd</code> option	–
MVA	<code>amva</code>	Approximate MVA, same as <code>qd</code> option	–
MVA	<code>bs</code>	Bard-Schweitzer approximate MVA	[9, § 9.1.1]
MVA	<code>lin</code>	Linearizer approximate MVA	[20]
MVA	<code>qd</code>	Queue-dependent approximate MVA	[17]
MVA	<code>qotlin</code>	Queue-dependent Linearizer approximate MVA	–
MVA	<code>exact</code>	Exact solution, method depends on model	–
MVA	<code>mva</code>	Alias for the <code>mva.amva</code> method	[53], [11]
MVA	<code>aba.upper</code>	Asymptotic bound analysis (upper bounds)	[9, § 9.4]
MVA	<code>aba.lower</code>	Asymptotic bound analysis (lower bounds)	[9, § 9.4]
MVA	<code>bjb.upper</code>	Balanced job bounds (upper bounds)	[16, Table 3]
MVA	<code>bjb.lower</code>	Balanced job bounds (lower bounds)	[16, Table 3]
MVA	<code>gb.upper</code>	Geometric square-root bounds (upper bounds)	[16]
MVA	<code>gb.lower</code>	Geometric square-root bounds (lower bounds)	[16]
MVA	<code>pb.upper</code>	Proportional bounds (upper bounds)	[16, Table 3]
MVA	<code>pb.lower</code>	Proportional bounds (lower bounds)	[16, Table 3]
MVA	<code>sb.upper</code>	Simple bounds (upper bounds, Thm. 3.2, $n = 3$)	[34, Table 3]
MVA	<code>sb.lower</code>	Simple bounds (lower bounds, Eq. 1.6)	[34, Table 3]
MVA	<code>gigl.allen</code>	Allen-Cunneen formula - GI/G/1	[9, § 6.3.4]
MVA	<code>gigl.heyman</code>	Heyman formula - GI/G/1	–
MVA	<code>gigl.kingman</code>	Kingman upper bound - GI/G/1	[9, § 6.3.6]
MVA	<code>gigl.klb</code>	Kramer-Langenbach-Belz formula - GI/G/1	[9, § 6.3.4]
MVA	<code>gigl.kobayashi</code>	Kobayashi diffusion approximation - GI/G/1	[9, § 10.1.1]
MVA	<code>gigl.marchal</code>	Marchal formula - GI/G/1	[9, § 10.1.3]
MVA	<code>gigk</code>	Kingman approximation - GI/G/k	

Continued on next page

Table 5.1 – Solution methods for `Network` solvers. *Continued from previous page*

Solver	Method	Description	Refs.
MVA	<code>mg1</code>	Pollaczek–Khinchine formula - M/G/1	[9, § 3.3.1]
MVA	<code>mg1.fb</code>	Feedback/LAS scheduling - M/G/1/FB	[63]
MVA	<code>mg1.lrrpt</code>	Longest remaining PT - M/G/1/LRPT	[63]
MVA	<code>mg1.psjf</code>	Preemptive SJF - M/G/1/PSJF	[63]
MVA	<code>mg1.srpt</code>	Shortest remaining PT - M/G/1/SRPT	[63]
MVA	<code>mg1.setf</code>	Shortest elapsed time first - M/G/1/SETF	[48]
MVA	<code>mm1</code>	Exact formula - M/M/1	[9, § 6.2.1]
MVA	<code>mmk</code>	Exact formula - M/M/k (Erlang-C)	
NC	<code>default</code>	Alias for the adaptive method	–
NC	<code>adaptive</code>	Automated choice of deterministic method	–
NC	<code>exact</code>	Automated choice of exact solution method.	–
NC	<code>ca</code>	Multiclass convolution algorithm (exact)	–
NC	<code>comom</code>	Class-oriented method of moments for hommo- geneous models (exact)	[12]
NC	<code>cub</code>	Grundmann-Moeller cubature rules	[13]
NC	<code>mva</code>	Product of throughputs on MVA lattice (exact)	[52, Eq. (47)]
NC	<code>imci</code>	Improved Monte carlo integration sampler	[62]
NC	<code>kt</code>	Knessl-Tier asymptotic expansion	[38]
NC	<code>le</code>	Logistic asymptotic expansion	[13]
NC	<code>ls</code>	Logistic sampling	[13]
NC	<code>nr.logit</code>	Norlund-Rice integral with logit transformation	[15]
NC	<code>nr.probit</code>	Norlund-Rice integral with probit transforma- tion	[15]
NC	<code>panacea</code>	Panacea asymptotic expansion	[47], [55]
NC	<code>rd</code>	Reduction heuristic	[15]
NC	<code>sampling</code>	Automated selection of sampling method	–
NC	<code>mem</code>	Maximum Entropy Method for open queueing networks	[40]
SSA	<code>default</code>	Alias for <code>nrm</code> if the model supports it, otherwise <code>serial</code> .	–
SSA	<code>nrm</code>	Next reaction method for population models (e.g., PS/INF scheduling).	[1]
SSA	<code>serial</code>	CTMC stochastic simulation on a single core	[33]
SSA	<code>para</code>	Parallel simulations (independent replicas)	–

5.2.1 AUTO

The `AUTO` class (aliases: `SolverAuto`, `SolverAUTO`, `LINE`) provides interfaces to the core solution functions (e.g., `avg`, ...) that dynamically bind to one of the other solvers implemented in `LINE` (`CTMC`, `NC`, ...). It is often difficult to identify the best solver without some performance results on the model, for example to determine if it operates in light, moderate, or heavy-load regime.

Therefore, heuristics are used to identify a solver based on structural properties of the model, such as based on the scheduling strategies used at the stations as well as the number of jobs, chains, and classes. Such heuristics, though, are independent of the core function called, thus it is possible that the optimal solver does not support the specific function called (e.g., `get_tran_avg`). In such cases the `LINE` solver determines what other solvers would be feasible and prioritizes them in execution time order, with the fastest one on average having the higher priority. Eventually, the solver will be always able to identify a solution strategy, through at least simulation-based solvers such as `JMT` or `SSA`.

5.2.2 CTMC

The `CTMC` class solves the model by first generating the infinitesimal generator of the and then calling an appropriate solver. Steady-state analysis is carried out by solving the global balance equations defined by the infinitesimal generator. If the `keep` option is set to `True`, the solver will save the infinitesimal generator in a temporary file and its location will be shown to the user.

Transient analysis is carried out by numerically solving Kolmogorov's forward equations using MATLAB's ODE solvers. The range of integration is controlled by the `timespan` option. The ODE solver choice is the same as for `FLD`.

The `CTMC` solver heuristically limits the solution to models with no more than 6000 states. The `force` option needs to be set to `True` to bypass this control. In models with infinite states, such as networks with open classes, the `cutoff` option should be used to reduce the `CTMC` to a finite process. If specified as a scalar value, `cutoff` is the maximum number of jobs that a class can place at an arbitrary station. More generally, a matrix assignment of `cutoff` indicates to `LINE` that `cutoff` has in row i and column r the maximum number of jobs of class r that can be placed at station i .

The following methods are available for the `CTMC` solver:

- `options.method='default'`: Direct solution of the global balance equations.
- `options.method='inap'`: INAP algorithm for product-form cooperating Markov chains [44].
- `options.method='inapplus'`: INAP+ algorithm for decomposition of cooperating structured Markov processes [4].

Details on the additional configuration options of the `CTMC` solver is given in the next table.

Table 5.2: CTMC configuration options (Python)

Option	Value	Description
<code>options.config.hide_immediate</code>	bool	If true, immediate transitions are hidden from the CTMC.
<code>options.config.state_space_gen</code>	'reachable'	Direct state space enumeration from initial state.
<code>options.config.state_space_gen</code>	'full'	Direct state space enumeration from all possible initial states.
<code>options.timestep</code>	float	Fixed time interval for transient analysis. If specified, generates equally-spaced time points instead of adaptive stepping.

Reward analysis

The CTMC solver supports reward-based analysis through custom reward functions defined on network states. Users can define state-dependent reward functions that map a state vector and the network structure to a scalar reward value. Multiple rewards can be defined by calling `setReward` multiple times with different names. The solver computes rewards using value iteration with uniformization. Results are retrieved via `solver.getAvgReward()`, which returns steady-state expected rewards, or `solver.getReward()`, which returns transient reward trajectories over time. Example applications include computing expected queue lengths, utilization, blocking probabilities, or custom cost functions.

Reward functions are defined using `model.set_reward(name, reward_fn)`, where `name` is a string identifier and `reward_fn` is a callable that takes a state vector and the network structure and returns a scalar reward value.

5.2.3 FLD

This solver implements fluid/mean-field approximation methods, based on the system of fluid ordinary differential equations for INF-PS queueing networks presented in [50]. The latter is based on Kurtz's mean-field approximation theory. The fluid ODEs are normally solved with a Java port of the LSODA algorithm for stiff and non-stiff ordinary differential equations. More details about the port are available at: <https://github.com/imperial-qore/lsoda-java>.

ODE variables corresponding to an infinite number of jobs, as in the job pool of a source station, or to jobs in a disabled class are not included in the solution vector. These rules apply also to the `options.init_sol` vector.

The solution of models with FCFS stations maps these stations into corresponding PS stations where the service rates across classes are set identical to each other with a service distribution given by a mixture of the service processes of the service classes. The mixture weights are determined iteratively by solving a sequence of PS models until convergence. Upon initializing FCFS queues, jobs in the buffer are all initialized in the first phase of the service.

The following methods are available for the FLD solver:

- `options.method='default'` or `'matrix'`: Fluid ODE solver using matrix formulation per Ruskonen et al. [57]. Supports both closed and open queueing networks.
- `options.method='closing'` or `'statedep'`: State-dependent fluid solver with closing approximations. Useful for models with DPS scheduling.
- `options.method='diffusion'`: Diffusion approximation for closed multiclass BCMP networks using the Euler-Maruyama method for stochastic differential equations. This method models queue lengths as continuous variables with Brownian noise, extending deterministic fluid models to capture stochastic fluctuations. Presently, this method supports only product-form closed networks.

5.2.4 JMT

The class is a wrapper for the JMT and consists of a model-to-model transformation from the data structure into the JMT's input XML formats (either `.jsimg` or `.jmva`) and a corresponding parser for JMT's results. Upon first invocation, the JMT JAR archive will be searched in the MATLAB path and if unavailable automatically downloaded.

This solver offers several methods. The default method is the JSIM solver (`'jsim'` method), which runs JMT's discrete-event simulator. For parallel simulation, the solver supports both serial and parallel execution methods. The alternative method is the JMVA analytical solver (`'jmva'` method), which is applicable only to queueing network models that admit a product-form solution. This can be verified calling `model.has_product_form_solution` prior to running the JMVA solver.

For transient analysis, the `'replication'` method runs independent simulation replications and interpolates the resulting sample paths to compute transient averages. This method is automatically selected when the `timespan` option is set to a finite interval (e.g., $[0, T]$ for some finite T) and the method is set to `'default'`.

In the transformation to JSIM, artificial nodes will be automatically added to the routing table to represent class-switching nodes used in the simulator to specify the switching rules. One such class-switching node is defined for every ordered pair of stations (i, j) such that jobs change class in transit from i to j .

5.2.5 MAM

This is a basic solver for some Markovian open queueing systems that can be analyzed using matrix analytic methods. The core solver is based on the BU tools library for matrix-analytic methods [37]. The solution of open queueing networks is based on traffic decomposition methods that compute the arrival process at each queue resulting from the superposition of multiple source streams.

The `getCdfRespT` method computes the response time distribution using matrix-analytic techniques. For processor-sharing (PS) queues with MAP arrivals, it uses the algorithm from Masuyama and Takine [46]. The number of CDF points computed can be controlled via `options.config.num_cdf_pts` (default: 10000).

5.2.6 MVA

The solver offers approximate mean value analysis (AMVA) (`options.method='default'`), but also exact MVA algorithms (`options.method='exact'`). The default AMVA solver is based on Linearizer [20], unless there are two or less jobs in total within closed classes, in which case the solver runs the Bard-Schweitzer algorithm [58].

Extended queueing models are handled as follows:

- Non-exponential service times in FCFS nodes are handled only in the single-server case via the method selected in the `options.config.highvar` setting. By default high variance is ignored, as the FCFS solver tends to produce good result in closed models also without specialized corrections. It is alternatively possible to handle high variance either using the Diffusion-M/G/k interpolation from [14], casted with weights $a_i = b_i = 10^{-8}$, or using the high-variance MVA (HV-MVA) corrections proposed in [10, 51]. The multi-server extension is ongoing; we point to the NC solver for a version already available.
- Multi-servers are dealt with using the methods listed in Table 5.3 for the `options.config.multiserver` option. These are coupled with a modification of the Rolia-Sevcik correction [56], where in light-load the Rolia-Sevcik correction is treated as if there was a single server.
- Non-preemptive are dealt with using the methods listed in Table 5.3 for the configuration option `options.config.np_priority`. The solver feature in particular AMVA-CL and the shadow server methods [27].
- DPS queues are analyzed with a standard method similar to the biased processor sharing approximation reported in [42, §11.4]. Here, an arriving job of class r sees a queue-length in class $s \neq r$ scaled by the correction factor w_s/w_r , where w_s is the weight of class s .
- Limited load-dependence (intended here as other than multi-server) and class-dependence are handled through the correction factors proposed in [17]. If a station is both limited load-dependent and multi-server, then if the `softmin` method is chosen the solver will suitably combine the `softmin` term and the limited load-dependent correcting factors. Moreover, iterative queue-length corrections such as those applied by the AQL and Linearizer methods are also applied to these terms. Limited load-dependence (queue-dependent AMVA or QD-AMVA) is handled through correction factors.
- Fork-join networks are assumed to feature a direct acyclic graph (DAG) in-between forks and joins. They are analyzed by iteratively transforming the sibling tasks into jobs belonging to independent classes, using the algorithm specified in `options.config.fork_join`. If a fork has fan out f (i.e., the fork out-degree), in the implementation of the Heidelberger-Trivedi [35] method, one artificial open class is created for each of $f - 1$ sibling task, while also retaining a task in the original class. The residence times along a branch are then treated as exponential random variables and their maximum, corresponding to the response time of the fork-join section, is computed using specialized results for

this distribution. LINE supports this method, but uses as a default a custom variant whereby in which the original and artificial classes can take with probability $1/f$ any of the outgoing branches. While the latter can result in states that do not exist in the original model, since two sibling tasks may take the same branch, it is correct in expectation and it does not treat differently the artificial classes than the original class, which can be beneficial when the original class is *closed* and thus differs significantly from an *open* artificial class.

Solver-specific configuration options are reported in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3: MVA configuration options (Python)

Option	Value	Description
options.config.multiserver	'default'	Equals 'softmin' at PS queues and 'seidmann' at FCFS queues.
options.config.multiserver	'seidmann'	Seidmann's decomposition [59].
options.config.multiserver	'softmin'	QD-AMVA's softmin approximation [17].
options.config.np_priority	'default'	Non-preemptive priority handling. Equals 'cl'.
options.config.np_priority	'cl'	Chandy-Lakshmi [27].
options.config.np_priority	'shadow'	Sevcik's shadow server [60].
options.config.highvar	'default'	Ignored - no correction applied.
options.config.highvar	'interp'	Diffusion-M/G/k interpolation from [14].
options.config.highvar	'hvmva'	High-variance MVA as in [10], extended to multi-class as [28, Eq. 3.21].
options.config.fork_join	'default'	Equals 'mmt'.
options.config.fork_join	'mmt'	Mixed-model transformation [26]
options.config.fork_join	'ht'	Heidelberger-Trivedi [35]

5.2.7 NC

The NC class implements a family of solution algorithms based on the normalizing constant of state probability of product-form queueing networks. Contrary to the other solvers, this method typically maps the problem to certain multidimensional integrals, allowing the use of numerical methods such as MonteCarlo sampling and asymptotic expansions in their approximation.

For cache models, the NC solver supports an importance sampling method ('sampling') that uses Monte Carlo techniques to estimate cache hit probabilities and miss rates. This method is particularly useful for large cache configurations where exact methods become computationally expensive. The sampling method can be enabled by setting the `method` option:

```
NC(model, method='sampling', samples=100000).avg_table()
```

5.2.8 SSA

The `SSA` class is a basic stochastic simulator for continuous-time Markov chains. It reuses some of the methods that underpin `CTMC` to generate the network state space and subsequently simulates the state dynamics by probabilistically choosing one among the possible events that can incur in the system, according to the state spaces of each of node in the network. For efficiency reasons, states are tracked at the level of individual stations and, in some of the algorithms, hashed.

The state space is not generated upfront, but typically stored during the simulation, starting from the initial state. If the initialization of a station generates multiple possible initial states, `SSA` initializes the model using the first state found. The list of initial states for each station can be obtained using the `get_init_state` functions of the `Network` class.

The `SSA` solver offers two comprehensive methods: `'serial'` and `'para'` (default). The serial method runs on a single core, while the parallel methods run on multicore

`SSA` solver also implements the much faster next reaction method (`'nrm'`, see [1]). However, this is available only for open and closed queueing models with specific scheduling disciplines, in particular `INF` and `PS`. The `'nrm'` method is default on such models. Moreover, by setting `options.config.state_space_gen` to `'full'` it is possible to explicitly generate during the simulation the simulated state space and its steady-state probability.

5.2.9 DES

The `DES` solver provides discrete-event simulation using the `SimPy` library. It supports open queueing networks with `FCFS` scheduling, Delay nodes, and multiserver stations. Multiple distributions are supported including `Exp`, `Erlang`, `HyperExp`, `PH`, `APH`, and `Coxian`.

5.3 Supported language features and options

5.3.1 Solver features

Once a model is specified, it is possible to use the `get_used_lang_features` function to obtain a list of the features of a model. For example, the following conditional statement checks if the model contains a `FCFS` node

```
if model.get_used_lang_features().list.SchedStrategy_FCFS:
    # ...
```

Every `LINE` solver implements the `support` to check if it supports all language features used in a certain model

```
print(JMT.supports(model))
```

5.3.2 Class functions

The table below lists the steady-state and transient analysis functions implemented by the solvers. Since the features of the LINE solver are the union of the features of the other solvers, in what follows it will be omitted from the description.

Table 5.4: Solver support for average performance metrics

Function	Regime	Network Solver							
		CTMC	DES	FLD	JMT	MAM	MVA	NC	SSA
avg	Steady-state	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
avg_table	Steady-state	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
avg_chain	Steady-state	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
avg_chain_table	Steady-state	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
avg_node	Steady-state	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
avg_node_table	Steady-state	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
avg_node_chain	Steady-state	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
avg_node_chain_table	Steady-state	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
avg_sys	Steady-state	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
avg_sys_table	Steady-state	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
avg_arv_r	Steady-state	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
avg_arv_r_chain	Steady-state	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
avg_node_arv_r_chain	Steady-state	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
avg_qlen	Steady-state	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
avg_q_len_chain	Steady-state	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
avg_node_q_len_chain	Steady-state	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
avg_resp_t	Steady-state	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
avg_resp_t_chain	Steady-state	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
avg_node_resp_t_chain	Steady-state	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
avg_sys_resp_t	Steady-state	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
avg_tput	Steady-state	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
avg_tput_chain	Steady-state	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
avg_node_tput_chain	Steady-state	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
avg_sys_tput	Steady-state	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
avg_util	Steady-state	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
avg_util_chain	Steady-state	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
avg_node_util_chain	Steady-state	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
get_tran_avg	Transient	✓	✓	✓	✓				

The functions listed above with the `_table` suffix (e.g., `avg_table`) provide results in tabular format corresponding to the corresponding core function (e.g., `avg`). The features of the core functions are as follows:

- `avg`: returns the mean queue-length, utilization, mean response time (for one visit), and throughput for each station and class.

Table 5.5: Solver support for advanced metrics

Function	Regime	Network Solver							
		CTMC	DES	FLD	JMT	MAM	MVA	NC	SSA
get_cdf_resp_t	Steady-state	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			
	Steady-state			✓					
	Steady-state			✓					
get_prob	Steady-state	✓	✓						
get_prob_aggr	Steady-state	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	
get_prob_sys	Steady-state	✓	✓						✓
get_prob_sys_aggr	Steady-state	✓	✓		✓			✓	
get_prob_norm_const_aggr	Steady-state				✓		✓	✓	
get_tran_cdf_pass_t	Transient		✓	✓					
get_tran_cdf_resp_t	Transient		✓		✓				
get_tran_prob	Transient	✓	✓						
get_tran_prob_aggr	Transient	✓	✓						
get_tran_prob_sys	Transient	✓	✓						
get_tran_prob_sys_aggr	Transient	✓	✓						
sample	Transient		✓						✓
sample_aggr	Transient		✓		✓				✓
sample_sys	Transient		✓						✓
sample_sys_aggr	Transient		✓		✓				✓

- `avg_chain`: returns the mean queue-length, utilization, mean response time (for one visit), and throughput for every station and chain.
- `avg_sys`: returns the system response time and system throughput, as seen as the reference node, by chain.
- `cdf_resp_t`: returns the distribution of response times (for one visit) for the stations at steady-state.
- `aoi`: returns the mean and variance of Age of Information (AoI) and Peak AoI for single-queue open systems with capacity constraints.
- `cdf_aoi`: returns the cumulative distribution function of AoI and Peak AoI.
- `avg_node`: behaves similarly to `avg`, but returns performance metrics for each node and class. For example, throughputs at the sinks can be obtained with this method.
- `get_prob`: returns state probabilities at equilibrium at a given station.

- `get_prob_aggr`: returns marginal state probabilities for jobs of different classes at a given station.
- `get_prob_sys`: returns joint probabilities for a given system state.
- `get_prob_sys_aggr`: returns joint probabilities for jobs of different classes at all stations.
- `get_prob_norm_const_aggr`: returns the normalizing constant of the state probabilities for the model.
- `get_tran_avg`: returns transient mean queue length, utilization and throughput for every station and chain from a given initial state.
- `get_tran_cdf_pass_t`: returns the distribution of first passage times in transient regime.
- `get_tran_cdf_resp_t`: returns the distribution of response times in transient regime.
- `sample`: returns the transient marginal state for a station from a given initial state.
- `sample_aggr`: returns the transient marginal state for jobs of different classes at a given station from a given initial state.
- `sample_sys`: returns the transient marginal system state for a station from a given initial state.
- `sample_sys_aggr`: returns the transient marginal system state for jobs of different classes at a given station from a given initial state.

5.3.3 Node types

The table below shows the node types supported by the different solvers. It should be noted that the `FLD` solver is capable of handling `and` nodes, but due to low accuracy when run on open models this feature is disabled in the current release.

5.3.4 Scheduling strategies

The table below shows the supported scheduling strategies within `LINE` queueing stations. Each strategy belongs to a policy class:

- preemptive resume (`SchedStrategyType.PR`)
- preemptive restart independent (`SchedStrategyType.PI`)
- non-preemptive (`SchedStrategyType.NP`)
- non-preemptive priority (`SchedStrategyType.NPPrio`).

Table 5.6: Solver support for nodes

Strategy	Network Solver							
	CTMC	DES	FLD	JMT	MAM	MVA	NC	SSA
Cache	✓	✓		✓		✓	✓	✓
ClassSwitch	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Delay	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Fork		✓		✓		✓		
Join		✓		✓		✓		
Queue	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Sink	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Source	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

The `SchedStrategyType.PR` policy class includes scheduling strategies like `LCFS`, where a pre-empted job resumes service from the point it was interrupted. In contrast, the `SchedStrategyType.PI` policy class includes strategies like `LCFSPI` (Last-Come-First-Served Preemptive-restart Independent), where a preempted job restarts from scratch with a new service time sample that is independent of the past.

The table primarily refers to invocation of the `avg` methods. Specialized methods, such as transient or response time distribution analysis, may be available only for a subset of the scheduling strategies supported by a solver.

5.3.5 Statistical distributions

The table below summarizes the current level of support for arrival and service distributions within each solver. `Replayer` represents an empirical trace read from a file, which will be either replayed as-is by the JMT solver, or fitted automatically to a `Cox` by the other solvers. Note that JMT requires that the last row of the trace must be a number, *not* an empty row.

5.3.6 Solver options

Table ?? summarizes the main options available within the LINE solvers and their default values. Solver options are encoded in LINE in a structure array that is internally passed to the solution algorithms.

This can be specified as an argument to the constructor of the solver. For example, the following two constructor invocations are identical

```
solver = LINE.load('ctmc', model)
```

Modifiers to the default options can either be specified directly in the `options` data structure, or alternatively be specified as argument pairs to the constructor, i.e., the following two invocations are equivalent

```
solver = LINE.load('ctmc', model)
```

Table 5.7: Solver support for scheduling strategies

Strategy	Class	Network Solver							
		CTMC	DES	FLD	JMT	MAM	MVA	NC	SSA
FCFS	NP	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
INF	NP	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
SIRO	NP	✓	✓		✓		✓	✓	✓
SEPT	NP	✓	✓		✓				✓
SRPT	NP		✓		✓				
SJF	NP		✓		✓				
FCFSPRIO	NPPrio	✓	✓		✓		✓		✓
EDD	NPPrio		✓		✓				
EDF	PRPrio		✓		✓				
PS	PR	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
DPS	PR	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓		✓
GPS	PR	✓	✓		✓				✓
PSPRIO	PRPrio	✓	✓		✓				✓
DPSPRIO	PRPrio	✓	✓		✓				✓
GPSPRIO	PRPrio	✓	✓		✓				✓

Available solver options are as follows:

- `cache (logical)` if set to `True` the solver after the first invocation will return the same result upon subsequent calls, without solving again the model. This option is `True` by default. Caching can be bypassed using the `refresh` methods (see Section 4.6).
- `config (struct)` this is data structure to pass solver-specific configuration options to customize the execution of particular methods.
- `cutoff (integer ≥ 1)` requires to ignore states where stations have more than the specified number of jobs. This is a mandatory option to analyze open classes using the CTMC solver.
- `force (logical)` requires the solver to proceed with analyzing the model. This bypasses checks and therefore can result in the solver either failing or requiring an excessive amount of resources from the system.
- `iter_max (integer ≥ 1)` controls the maximum number of iterations that a solver can use, where applicable. If `iter_max = n`, this option forces the FLD solver to compute the ODEs over the time-span $t \in [0, 10n/\mu^{\min}]$, where μ^{\min} is the slowest service rate in the model. For the MVA solver this option instead regulates the number of successive substitutions allowed in the fixed-point iteration.

Table 5.8: Solver support for statistical distributions

Distribution	Network Solver							
	CTMC	DES	FLD	JMT	MAM	MVA	NC	SSA
APH	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
BMAP					✓			
Coxian	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Cox2		✓	✓	✓				
Exp	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Erlang	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
HyperExp	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
MAP	✓	✓		✓	✓			✓
ME		✓		✓	✓			
MMPP2	✓	✓		✓	✓			✓
PH	✓	✓		✓				✓
RAP		✓		✓	✓			
Disabled	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Det		✓		✓				
Gamma		✓		✓				
Lognormal		✓		✓				
Pareto		✓		✓				
Replayer		✓		✓				
Uniform		✓		✓				
Weibull		✓		✓				

- `iter_tol` (double) controls the numerical tolerance used to convergence of iterative methods. In the `FLD` solver this option regulates both the absolute and relative tolerance of the ODE solver.
- `init_sol` (solver dependent) re-initializes iterative solvers with the given configuration of the solution variables. In the case of `MVA`, this is a matrix where element (i, j) is the mean queue-length at station i in class j . In the case of `FLD`, this is a model-dependent vector with the values of all the variables used within the ODE system that underpins the fluid approximation. In the case of `DES`, this is a matrix of initial queue lengths used for transient analysis, where jobs are distributed according to this matrix at simulation start instead of placing all closed class jobs at reference stations.
- `confint` (logical or real $\in (0, 1)$) enables confidence interval reporting for simulation-based solvers (`JMT`, `SSA`, `DES`). When set to `true`, a 95% confidence interval is used. When set to a numeric value between 0 and 1 (e.g., 0.99 for 99% confidence), that confidence level is used. When enabled, the `getAvgTable` output displays metrics in the format `mean \pm half-width`. Default is `false`

(disabled).

- `cimethod` (string, DES only) specifies the confidence interval computation method. Valid values are 'obm' (overlapping batch means, default), 'bm' (non-overlapping batch means), or 'none' (disable CI computation).
- `ciminbatch` (integer ≥ 2 , DES only) minimum batch size for confidence interval computation. Actual batch size is $\max(ciminbatch, \sqrt{n})$ where n is the sample count. Default is 10.
- `ciminobs` (integer ≥ 10 , DES only) minimum number of post-warmup observations required before computing confidence intervals. Default is 100.
- `config.variates` (string, DES only) specifies the variance reduction method for simulation. Valid values are 'none' (no variance reduction, default), 'antithetic' (antithetic variates using synchronized 1-U method to generate paired samples with negative correlation), 'control' (control variates using mean-based correction that applies post-hoc corrections based on deviation of sampled means from known theoretical means), or 'both' (combined antithetic and control variates). Default is 'none'.
- `keep` (logical) determines if the model-to-model transformations store on file their intermediate outputs. In particular, if `verbose` ≥ 1 then the location of the `.jsimg` models sent to JMT will be printed on screen.
- `method` (string) configures the internal algorithm used to solve the model.
- `samples` (integer ≥ 1) controls the number of samples collected for each performance index by simulation-based solvers. JMT requires a minimum number of samples of $5 \cdot 10^3$ samples.
- `seed` (integer ≥ 1) controls the seed used by the pseudo-random number generators. For example, simulation-based solvers will give identical results across invocations only if called with the same seed.
- `stiff` (logical) requires the solver to use a stiff ODE solver.
- `timespan` (real interval) requires the transient solver to produce a solution in the specified temporal range. If the value is set to $[float('inf'), float('inf')]$ the solver will only return a steady-state solution. For the FLD solver and in simulation, this setting has the same computational cost of $[0, float('inf')]$, therefore the latter is used as default for this solver.
- `timestep` (double) controls the fixed time interval for transient analysis in the CTMC solver. When specified, the solver generates equally-spaced time points instead of using adaptive time stepping. If not specified or set to empty, the solver uses adaptive ODE time stepping. This option only affects transient analysis and is ignored for steady-state computations.

- `tol` default numerical tolerance for all uses other than the ones where `iter_tol` is used.
- `tranfilter` (string, DES only) specifies the transient (warmup) detection method. Valid values are `'mser5'` (MSER-5 automatic truncation, default), `'fixed'` (fixed fraction warmup removal), or `'none'` (no transient filtering).
- `mserbatch` (integer ≥ 1 , DES only) batch size for the MSER transient detection algorithm. Only used when `tranfilter='mser5'`. Default is 5 (standard MSER-5).
- `warmupfrac` (real $\in [0, 1]$, DES only) fraction of total events discarded as warmup when using fixed transient filtering. Only used when `tranfilter='fixed'`. Default is 0.2 (20% warmup).
- `obmoverlap` (real $\in [0, 1]$, DES only) overlap fraction for overlapping batch means confidence intervals. A value of 0.5 means 50% overlap (standard OBM). Only used when `cimethod='obm'`. Default is 0.5.
- `cnvgon` (logical, DES only) enables convergence-based stopping. When enabled, simulation stops when the confidence interval half-width relative to the mean falls below the convergence tolerance for all metrics. Default is `false`.
- `cnvgtol` (real $\in (0, 1]$, DES only) convergence tolerance threshold. Simulation stops when $(\text{CI half-width}/\text{mean}) < \text{cnvgtol}$ for all metrics. A value of 0.05 means 5% relative precision. Default is 0.05.
- `cnvgbatch` (integer ≥ 1 , DES only) minimum number of batches required before checking for convergence. More batches provide more reliable confidence interval estimates. Default is 20.
- `cnvgchk` (integer ≥ 0 , DES only) number of events between convergence checks. A value of 0 means auto-calculate as `samples/50`. Default is 0 (auto).
- `verbose` controls the verbosity level of the solver. Supported levels are 0 for silent, 1 for standard verbosity, 2 for debugging.

Chapter 6

Layered network models

In this chapter, we present the definition of the `LayeredNetwork` class, which encodes the support in LINE for a class of generalized layered stochastic networks. In their basic form, these models are called layered queueing networks (LQNs) and differ from regular queueing networks as servers, in order to process jobs, can issue synchronous and asynchronous calls among each others. We point to [29] and to the LQNS user manual for an introduction [30]. Contrary to the original LQNs, layered networks in LINE can also include non-queueing servers, such as caches, hence they may be conceptualized as more general layered stochastic networks.

The topology of call dependencies in a layered network makes it possible to partition the model into a set of layers, each consisting of a subset of the servers. Each of these layers is then solved in isolation, updating with an iterative procedure its parameters and performance metrics until the layers solutions jointly converge to a consistent solution.

6.1 Basics about layered networks

Layered network models describe a collection of resources called *tasks*, each representing for example a software server, that run on resources called *host processors*. Classes of service exposed by a task are called *entries*. Each entry is an endpoint at which a task can be invoked; for example, if a task represents a web server then its web pages may be described as different entries.

A special task, called the *reference task* is used to represent a group of system users. In this case, the host processor for a reference task can either be real, as in the case of users that are themselves software systems, or fictitious, as in the case of human users.

Each entry can be specified by a workflow of operations called *activities*, typically organized as a directed acyclic graph. The time demand that each activity places at the underpinning host processor is called its *host demand* and it is a random variable with a user-specified distribution.

Activity graphs may include *calls* to entries exposed by other tasks. This is an abstraction of the calls that distributed system components have among themselves. Calls can either be *synchronous*, *asynchronous*, or

forwarding. At present, LINE supports only the first two kinds of activities. Synchronous calls are requests that block the sender until a reply is received, while asynchronous calls are non-blocking and the sender execution can continue after issuing the call. Calls can either be repeated either *deterministic* or *stochastic*, meaning in the latter case that the number of calls issued is a random variable, e.g. geometrically distributed.

Contrary to ordinary layered queueing networks, a layered network in LINE can also feature *cache tasks*, *item entries*, and *cache-access* precedence relations.

- Cache tasks have the basic properties of tasks, but add three specific properties for caching: the total number of items, the cache capacity and the cache replacement policy. Cached items can be either contents or services. Cache capacity indicates the storage constraints of the cache.
- An item-entry provides instead access to a group of entries of a cache, Item-entries have the basic properties of entries, but add the property of the popularity of the items they give access to.
- A precedence relationship called *cache-access* is defined for the cache hit and miss activities under each item-entry. That is, it is possible to proceed to a different activity depending on whether the cache access produced a cache hit or cache miss. For example, a cache miss can produce a call to a remote entry to retrieve the missing content.

Note that the above extensions are not queueing-based and this explains why these models are referred to in LINE as layered networks and not as layered queueing networks. Similar to the latter, the analysis of a layered networks uses a decomposition of the model into a set of submodels, each being a `object`, which are then iterative analyzed using different solution methods.

6.2 LayeredNetwork object definition

6.2.1 Creating a layered network topology

A layered queueing network consists of four types of elements: processors, tasks, entries and activities. An entry is a class of service specified through a finite sequence of activities, and hosted by a task running on a (physical) processor. A task is typically a software queue that models access to the capacity of the underpinning processor. Activities model either demands required at the underpinning processor, or calls to entries exposed by some remote tasks.

In the `LayeredNetwork` class, the terms *host* and *processor* are entirely interchangeable.

To create our first layered network, we instantiate a new model as

```
model = LayeredNetwork('myLayeredModel')
```

We now proceed to instantiate the static topology of processors, tasks and entries:

```
P1 = Processor(model, 'P1', 1, SchedStrategy.PS)
P2 = Processor(model, 'P2', 1, SchedStrategy.PS)
T1 = Task(model, 'T1', 5, SchedStrategy.REF).on(P1)
```

```
T2 = Task(model, 'T2', float('inf'), SchedStrategy.INF).on(P2)
E1 = Entry(model, 'E1').on(T1)
E2 = Entry(model, 'E2').on(T2)
```

An equivalent way to specify the above example is to use the `Host` class instead than the `Processor` class, with identical parameters.

In the above code, the `on` method specifies the associations between the elements, e.g., task `T1` runs on processor `P1`, and accepts calls to entry `E1`. Furthermore, the multiplicity of `T1` is 5, meaning that up to 5 calls can be simultaneously served by this element (i.e., 5 is the multiplicity of servers in the underpinning queueing system for `T1`).

Both processors and tasks can be associated to the standard LINE scheduling strategies. For instance, `T2` will process incoming requests in parallel according as an infinite server node, since we selected the `SchedStrategy.INF` scheduling policy. An exception is that `SchedStrategy.REF` should be used to denote the reference task (e.g. a node representing the clients of the models), which has a similar meaning to the reference node in the `object`.

6.2.2 FunctionTask

The `FunctionTask` class extends `Task` to model serverless functions and function-as-a-service (FaaS) systems. It adds two additional timing properties characteristic of serverless environments:

- Setup time (cold start): the initialization delay incurred when a function instance is started.
- Delay-off time (teardown): the delay incurred when a function instance is terminated.

A `FunctionTask` can be instantiated as follows:

```
F1 = FunctionTask(model, 'F1', 4, SchedStrategy.FCFS).on(P1)
F1.set_setup_time(Exp(1.0))      # cold start time (mean = 1.0)
F1.set_delay_off_time(Exp(2.0))  # teardown time (mean = 2.0)
```

Both `setSetupTime` and `setDelayOffTime` accept either a numeric value (which creates an exponential distribution with the given mean) or a `Distribution` object. A complete example is provided in `lqn_function` in the `examples/` folder.

6.2.3 Describing host demands of entries

The demands placed by an entry on the underpinning host (also called in layered queueing networks the *host demand*) is described in terms of execution of one or more activities. Although in tools such as LQNS activities can be associated to either entries or tasks, LINE supports only the more general of the two options, i.e., the definition of activities at the level of tasks. In this case:

- Every task defines a collection of activities.

- Every entry needs to specify an initial activity where the execution of the entry starts (the activity is said to be “bound to the entry”) and a replying activity, which upon completion terminates the execution of the entry.

For example, in our running example, we may now associate an activity to each entry as follows:

```
A1 = Activity(model, 'A1', Exp(1.0)).on(T1).bound_to(E1).synch_call(E2, 3.5)
A2 = Activity(model, 'A2', Exp(2.0)).on(T2).bound_to(E2).replies_to(E2)
```

Here, A1 is a task activity for T1, acts as initial activity for E1, consumes an exponentially distributed time on the processor underpinning T1, and requires on average 3.5 synchronous calls to E2 to complete. Each call to entry E2 is served by the activity A2, with a demand on the processor hosting T2 given by an exponential distribution with rate $\lambda = 2.0$.

Activity graphs

Often, it is useful to structure the sequence of activities carried out by an entry in a graph. Activity graphs can be characterized by precedence relationships of the following kinds:

- *sequence*: two activities are executed sequentially, one after each other. This is implemented through the `ActivityPrecedence.Serial` construct.
- *loop*: an activity is repeated a number of times. This is implemented in `ActivityPrecedence.Loop`.
- *and-fork*: a serial execution is forked into concurrent activities. This can be materialized using the `ActivityPrecedence.AndFork` construct.
- *or-fork*: the server chooses probabilistically which activity to execute next among a set of alternatives. This is implemented in `ActivityPrecedence.OrFork`.
- *and-join*: concurrent activities are joined into a single serial execution. This is implemented in `ActivityPrecedence.AndJoin`.
- *or-join*: merge point for alternative activities that may execute in parallel after a *or-fork*. This is implemented in `ActivityPrecedence.OrJoin`.
- *cache-access*: split point for cache hit/cache miss results in an activity graph. This is implemented in `ActivityPrecedence.CacheAccess`. For usage examples, see `cache_repl_lru` and `cache_compare_repl` in the `examples/` folder.

A composite example showing fork/join precedences and loops is given in `lqn_workflows` in the `examples/` folder.

For instance, we may replace in the running example the specification of the activities underpinning a call to E2 as

```

A20 = Activity(model, 'A20', Exp(1.0)).on(T2).bound_to(E2)
A21 = Activity(model, 'A21', Erlang.fit_mean_and_order(1.0, 2)).on(T2)
A22 = Activity(model, 'A22', Exp(1.0)).on(T2).replies_to(E2)

T2.add_precedence(ActivityPrecedence.Serial(A20, A21, A22))

```

such that a call to `E2` serially executes `A20`, `A21`, and `A22` prior to replying. Here, `A21` is chosen to be an Erlang distribution with given mean (1.0) and number of phases (2).

6.2.4 Debugging and visualization

The structure of a `LayeredNetwork` object can be graphically visualized as follows

```
model.view()
```

```
model.view()
```

The `jsimg_view` and `jsimw_view` methods can be used to visualize in JMT each layer. This can be done by first calling the `get_layers` method to obtain a list consisting of the `Network` objects, each one corresponding to a layer, and then invoking the `jsimg_view` and `jsimw_view` methods on the desired layer. This is discussed in more details in the next section.

Lastly, we note a number of specification issues that trigger errors in the LQN definition:

Error Type	Error Type
Activity in REF task replies	Entry called both synchronously and asynchronously
Entry on task calls itself	Repeated definition of parent task
Entry on task calls entry on the same task	Invalid <code>.on()</code> argument for an activity
Cycle in activity graph	Invalid <code>.on()</code> argument for a task
Unsupported <code>reply_to</code>	Repeated synch calls
Activity with <code>bound_to</code> specification	Repeated asynch calls

6.3 Internals

6.3.1 Representation of the model structure

It is possible to access the internal representation of a `LayeredNetwork` model in a similar way as for objects, i.e.:

```
lqn = model.get_struct()
```

The return `lqn` structure, of class `LayeredNetworkStruct`, contains all the information about the specified model. It relies on relative and absolute indexing for the elements of the `LayeredNetwork`.

- A *relative* index is a number between 1 and the number of similar elements in the model, e.g., for a model with 3 tasks, the relative index t of a task would be a number in $[1, 3]$.
- An *absolute* index is a number between 1 and the total number of elements (of any kind, except calls) in the model, e.g., for a model with 2 hosts, 3 tasks, 5 entries, and 8 activities, the total number of elements is `nidx=18` and last activity a may have an absolute index `aidx=18` and a relative index $a=8$.
- The difference between the relative and the absolute index of an element is referred to as *shift*, e.g., in the previous example `ashift=18-8=10`.
- Absolute and relative indexing for calls and hosts are identical, call index `cidx` ranges in $[1, ncalls]$ and host index `hidx` ranges in $[1, nhosts]$.

Using the above convention, the internal representation of the model is described in Table 6.1. As in the examples above, relative and absolute indexes are differentiated by using the suffix `idx` in the latter (e.g., a vs. $aidx$). This indexing style is used throughout the codebase as well.

The Python `LayeredNetworkStruct` provides a wrapper around the JAR implementation, converting data structures to Python-native types. Table 6.1 lists the properties available through the Python interface.

Table 6.1: `LayeredNetworkStruct` static properties (Python version)

Field	Type	Description
<code>nidx</code>	<code>int</code>	Total number of <code>LayeredNetwork</code> elements
<code>nhosts</code>	<code>int</code>	Number of <code>Hosts</code> or <code>Processor</code> elements
<code>ntasks</code>	<code>int</code>	Number of <code>Tasks</code> elements
<code>nentries</code>	<code>int</code>	Number of <code>Entry</code> elements
<code>nacts</code>	<code>int</code>	Number of <code>Activity</code> elements
<code>ncalls</code>	<code>int</code>	Number of calls issued by <code>Activity</code> elements
<code>hshift</code>	<code>int</code>	For host h , the value $h+hshift$ returns its absolute index in $1...nidx$
<code>tshift</code>	<code>int</code>	For task t , the value $t+tshift$ returns its absolute index in $1...nidx$
<code>eshift</code>	<code>int</code>	For entry e , the value $e+eshift$ returns its absolute index in $1...nidx$
<code>ashift</code>	<code>int</code>	For activity a , the value $a+ashift$ returns its absolute index in $1...nidx$
<code>cshift</code>	<code>int</code>	For call c , the value $c+cshift$ returns its absolute index in $1...ncalls$
<code>tasksof</code>	<code>numpy.ndarray</code>	Array of lists: each element contains task absolute indexes for corresponding host (<code>dtype=object</code>)
<code>entriesof</code>	<code>numpy.ndarray</code>	Array of lists: each element contains entry absolute indexes for corresponding task (<code>dtype=object</code>)
<code>actsof</code>	<code>numpy.ndarray</code>	Array of lists: each element contains activity absolute indexes for corresponding entry/task (<code>dtype=object</code>)

Continued on next page

Table 6.1 – Continued from previous page

Field	Type	Description
callsof	numpy.ndarray	Array of lists: each element contains call absolute indexes for corresponding activity (dtype=object)
hostdem	numpy.ndarray	Array of distribution objects for host demand by absolute index (dtype=object)
think	numpy.ndarray	Array of distribution objects for think time by absolute index (dtype=object)
sched	numpy.ndarray	Array of scheduling strategy names by absolute index (dtype=object, contains strings)
names	numpy.ndarray	Array of element names by absolute index (dtype=object, contains strings)
hashnames	numpy.ndarray	Array of element names with type prefixes by absolute index (dtype=object, contains strings)
schedid	numpy.ndarray	Scheduling strategy ID matrix for hosts/tasks
mult	numpy.ndarray	Multiplicity matrix for hosts/tasks by absolute index
repl	numpy.ndarray	Replication factor matrix for hosts/tasks by absolute index
type	numpy.ndarray	Element type ID matrix by absolute index
nitems	numpy.ndarray	Number of items matrix for cache tasks/item entries
itemcap	numpy.ndarray	Array of cache capacities by absolute index (dtype=object)
replacement	numpy.ndarray	Replacement strategy ID matrix for cache tasks
itemproc	numpy.ndarray	Array of item popularity distribution objects by absolute index (dtype=object)
calltype	numpy.ndarray	Array of call type names by call index (dtype=object, contains strings)
callpair	numpy.ndarray	Call relationship matrix: column 1 = activity issuing call, column 2 = entry being called
callproc	numpy.ndarray	Array of call count distribution objects by call absolute index (dtype=object)
callnames	numpy.ndarray	Array of call names by call absolute index (dtype=object, contains strings)
callhashnames	numpy.ndarray	Array of call names with type prefixes (dtype=object, contains strings)
actpretype	numpy.ndarray	Activity precedence type matrix (before activity)
actposttype	numpy.ndarray	Activity precedence type matrix (after activity)
graph	numpy.ndarray	Adjacency matrix: $\neq 0$ if element i “runs on”, “calls” or “precedes” element j
parent	numpy.ndarray	Parent element absolute index matrix
replygraph	numpy.ndarray	Boolean matrix: True if activity replies, ending entry call
taskgraph	numpy.ndarray	Boolean matrix: True if host/task i calls host/task j
iscaller	numpy.ndarray	Boolean matrix: True if element i calls element j
issynccaller	numpy.ndarray	Boolean matrix: True if element i issues synchronous call to element j
isasynccaller	numpy.ndarray	Boolean matrix: True if element i issues asynchronous call to element j
isref	numpy.ndarray	Boolean matrix: True if task is a reference task

6.3.2 Decomposition into layers

Layers are a form of decomposition where we model the performance of one or more servers. The activity of clients not detailed in that layer is taken into account through an artificial delay station, placed in a closed loop to the servers [56]. This artificial delay is used to model the inter-arrival time between calls issued by that client.

The current version of LINE adopts SRVN-type layering [30], whereby a layer corresponds to one and only one resource, either a processor or a task. The `getLayers` method returns a cell array consisting of the objects corresponding to each layer

```
layers = model.get_layers()
```

The decomposition is performed through the LN solver described later.

Within each layer, classes are used to model the time a job spends in a given activity or call, with synchronous calls being modeled by classes with label including an arrow, e.g., 'AS1=>E3' is a closed class used to represent synchronous calls from activity AS1 to entry E3, whereas 'AS1->E3' denotes an asynchronous call. Artificial delays and reference nodes are modelled as a delay station named 'Clients', whereas the task or processor assigned to the layer is modelled as the other node in the layer.

6.4 Solvers

LINE offers two solvers for the solution of a `LayeredNetwork` model consisting in its own native solver (LN) and a wrapper (LQNS) to the LQNS solver [30]. The latter requires a distribution of LQNS to be available on the operating system command line.

The solution methods available for `LayeredNetwork` models are similar to those for `Network` objects. For example, the `avg_table` can be used to obtain a full set of mean performance indexes for the model, e.g.,

```
solver = LINE.load('ctmc', model)
```

Note that in the above table, some performance indexes are marked as NaN because they are not defined in a layered queueing network. Further, compared to the `avgTable` method in `objects`, `LayeredNetwork` do not have an explicit differentiation between stations and classes, since in a layer a task may either act as a server station or a client class.

The main challenge in solving layered queueing networks through analytical methods is that the parameterization of the artificial delays depends on the steady-state performance of the other layers, thus causing a cyclic dependence between input parameters and solutions across the layers. Depending on the solver in use, such issue can be addressed in a different way, but in general a decomposition into layers will remain parametric on a set of response times, throughputs and utilizations.

This issue can be resolved through solvers that, starting from an initial guess, cyclically analyze the layers and update their artificial delays on the basis of the results of these analyses. Both LN and LQNS implement this solution method. Normally, after a number of iterations the model converges to a steady-state solution, where the parameterization of the artificial delays does not change after additional iterations.

6.4.1 LQNS

The LQNS wrapper operates by first transforming the specification into a valid LQNS XML file. Subsequently, LQNS calls the solver and parses the results from disks in order to present them to the user in the appropriate LINE tables or vectors. The `options.method` can be used to configure the LQNS execution as follows:

- `options.method='default'` or `'lqns'`: LQNS analytical solver with default settings.
- `options.method='exactmva'`: the solver will execute the standard LQNS analytical solver with the exact MVA method.
- `options.method='srvn'`: LQNS analytical solver with SRVN layering.
- `options.method='srvn.exactmva'`: the solver will execute the standard LQNS analytical solver with SRVN layering and the exact MVA method.
- `options.method='sim'` or `'lqsim'`: LQSIM simulator, with simulation length specified via the `samples` field (i.e., with parameter `-A options.samples, 0.95`).

Upon invocation, the `lqns` or `lqsim` commands will be searched for in the system path. If they are unavailable, the termination of LQNS will interrupt.

Remote Docker execution

As an alternative to local installation of the LQNS tools, LINE supports remote execution via a Docker container running the `lqns-rest` API. This is useful when LQNS binaries are not available locally or when running on systems where compilation is difficult. To enable remote execution, configure the following options:

- `options.config.remote = True`: Enable remote execution via REST API.
- `options.config.remote_url = 'http://localhost:8080'`: URL of the `lqns-rest` server (default port is 8080).

The Docker container can be started using the `imperialqore/lqns-rest` image extended with the REST API. When remote execution is enabled, the model is serialized to LQNX format and sent via HTTP POST to the remote server, which executes the solver and returns the results. This approach supports all solver methods (`lqns`, `lqsim`, etc.) and pragmas available in the local execution mode.

6.4.2 LN

The native LN solver iteratively applies the layer updates until convergence of the steady-state measures. Since updates are parametric on the solution of each layer, LN can apply any of the solvers described in the solvers chapter to the analysis of individual layers, as illustrated in the following example for the MVA solver

```
solver = LINE.load('ctmc', model)
```

Options parameters may also be omitted. The LN method converges when the maximum relative change of mean response times across layers from the last iteration is less than `options.iter_tol`.

Methods supported by the LN solver include:

- `options.method='default'`: default recursive solution based on mean values
- `options.method='moment3'`: solution by recursive 3-moment approximation of response time distributions.
- `options.method='mol'`: Method of Layers iteration with nested inner/outer loops for task and host layers.

6.5 Model import and export

A `LayeredNetwork` can be easily read from, or written to, a XML file based on the LQNS meta-model format¹. The read operation can be done using a static method of the `LayeredNetwork` class, i.e.,

```
model = LayeredNetwork.parse_xml(filename)
```

Conversely, the write operation is invoked directly on the model object

```
model.write_xml(filename)
```

In both examples, `filename` is a string including both file name and its path.

Finally, we point out that it is possible to export a LQN in the legacy SRVN file format² by means of the `write_srvn(filename)` function.

6.5.1 Ensemble merging

The `Ensemble.merge` function combines multiple independent models into a single `Network` containing disconnected subnetworks. Node and class names are prefixed with their model name to prevent conflicts, while all `Source` and `Sink` nodes are merged into single `MergedSource` and `MergedSink` nodes.

```
merged_model = Ensemble.merge([model1, model2])
```

¹<https://raw.githubusercontent.com/layeredqueueing/V5/master/xml/lqn.xsd>

²<http://www.sce.carleton.ca/rads/lqns/lqn-documentation/format.pdf>

Chapter 7

Random environments

Random environments provide a framework for modeling systems whose input parameters, such as service rates, scheduling weights, or number of stations, vary according to the state of an external environment. We refer to these environmental states as *stages*. For instance, a system that alternates between normal-load and peak-load conditions can be represented by a two-stage environment, with each stage determining the number of servers available at a queueing station. Systems of this type arise in many settings, including servers subject to breakdown and repair, auto-scaling applications, and reliability models.

In LINE, an environment is described as a continuous-time Markov chain (CTMC) or as a semi-Markov process (SMP). Compared to CTMCs, SMPs relax the restriction of having exponential transitions between stages, but they are computationally harder to evaluate. In first approximation, one may simply solve independent models for each stage and weight their solution. However, depending on the frequency of transitions between stages, this incur significant errors [18]. LINE automates the evaluation of such scenarios, applying the appropriate corrections based on the environment and system characteristics.

7.1 Environment definition

7.1.1 Specifying the environment

To specify an environment, we first create an `Environment` object

```
E = 2
env_model = Environment('UnreliableEnv', E)
```

where the second parameter indicates the number of stages in the environment. We then add two stages

```
env_model.add_stage('Online', 'UP', network1)
env_model.add_stage('Offline', 'DOWN', network2)
```

where the constructor specifies the stage name, an arbitrary string to classify the stage semantics, followed by the system model used while that environment stage is active.

We now describe that the transitions between stages are both exponential, with different rates

```
env_model.add_transition(0, 1, Exp(1))
env_model.add_transition(1, 0, Exp(2))
```

Self-loops are allowed. When multiple transitions are possible, the timer that elapses first determines the next stage.

The `get_stage_table` method summarizes the properties of an environment:

```
env_model.getStageTable()
  Stage   Name Type   Model
    0  Online  UP network1
    1 Offline DOWN network2
```

In the table, the `Stage` column gives a numerical identifier for each stage, followed by its name, type classification, and a pointer to the sub-model associated to that stage.

7.1.2 Specifying system models for each stage

LINE places loose assumptions in the way the system should be described in each stage. It is just expected that the user supplies a model object, either a `Model` or a `LayeredNetwork`, in each stage, and that a transient analysis method is available in the chosen solver, a requirement fulfilled for example by `FLD`.

7.1.3 Specifying a reset policy

A reset policy specifies whether an environment transition instantaneously brings a redistribution of the jobs across the network. When the environment transitions, by default jobs in execution at a server are required all to restart execution at that server upon occurrence of a transition. This may not be appropriate in some models, for example when a station is removed from the model and its jobs can therefore no longer execute at that station. For such cases, one may define a custom reset policy, e.g.,

```
import numpy as np

# Define a reset function that moves all jobs into station 0
def reset_rule(q_exit):
    num_stations, num_classes = q_exit.shape
    q_reset = np.zeros((num_stations, num_classes))

    # Move all jobs to station 0, preserving their classes
    for c in range(num_classes):
        q_reset[0, c] = q_exit[:, c].sum()
    return q_reset

# Add transition with reset rule
# Assuming stages are indexed (0 for 'Online', 1 for 'Offline')
```

```
env_model.add_transition(0, 1, Exp(1.0), reset_rule)
```

In the above code, `q_exit[i, r]` is the queue-length of class-`r` jobs observed at station `i` upon exiting the online state. The `reset_rule` is a function that takes a 2D numpy array and must return an array of the same shape. The reset policy in this example moves instantaneously all jobs in the network into station 0 upon entering into the offline state. Note that `reset_rule` can be configured differently for each stage transition and the default value is simply the identity function `lambda q: q`.

7.2 Solvers

The steady-state analysis of a system in a random environment is carried out in LINE using the blending method [18], which is an iterative algorithm leveraging the transient solution of the model. In essence, the model looks at the *average* state of the system at the instant of each stage transition, and upon restarting the system in the new stage re-initializes it from this average value. This algorithm is implemented in LINE by the `ENV` class, which is described next.

7.2.1 ENV

The `ENV` class (alias: `SolverENV`) applies the blending algorithm by iteratively carrying out a transient analysis of each system model in each environment stage, and probabilistically weighting the solution to extract the steady-state behavior of the system.

As in the transient analysis of objects, LINE does not supply a method to obtain mean response times, since Little's law does not hold in the transient regime. To obtain the mean queue-length, utilization and throughput of the system one can call as usual the `avg` method on the `ENV` object, e.g.,

```
# Configure solvers for each environment
solvers = []
for e in range(env_model.get_number_of_environments()):
    solvers.append(FLD(env_model.get_environment_model(e)))
    solvers[e].options = SolverOptions(SolverType.Fluid)

env_solver = ENV(env_model, solvers, options)
env_solver.avg()
result = env_solver.result
```

Note that as model complexity grows, the number of iterations required by the blending algorithm to converge may grow large. In such cases, the `options.iter_max` option may be used to bound the maximum analysis time.

Decomposition/Aggregation Methods

When the environment has many states, the `ENV` solver can use decomposition/aggregation methods to reduce computational complexity. The decomposition method can be configured using `options.config.da`.

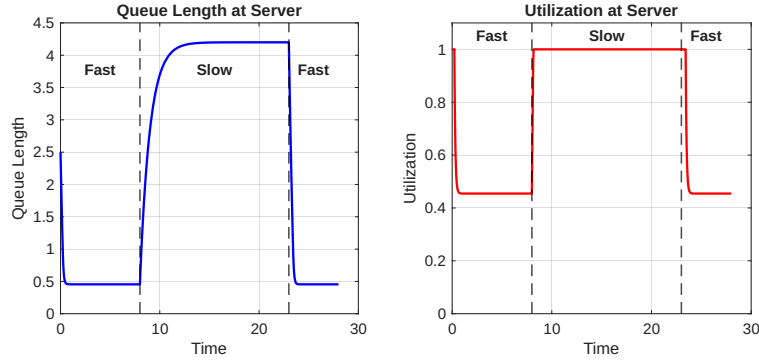


Figure 7.1: Transient queue length and utilization evolution along a sample path.

The available methods are based on nearly completely decomposable (NCD) Markov chain analysis:

- *Courtois decomposition* ('courtois'): The default method, based on [24]. It partitions the environment state space into macro-states and computes approximate steady-state probabilities.
- *Koury-McAllister-Stewart* ('kms'): An iterative aggregation-disaggregation method [39] that refines the Courtois solution through successive approximations.
- *Takahashi's method* ('takahashi'): Another iterative aggregation-disaggregation approach [61] with different convergence properties than KMS.
- *Multigrid* ('multi'): A multi-level decomposition method that applies hierarchical aggregation.

For iterative methods ('kms' and 'takahashi'), the number of iterations can be controlled using `options.config.da_iter` (default: 10).

The configuration options are summarized in Table 7.2.1.

Table 7.1: ENV configuration options (Python)

Option	Value	Description
<code>options.config.da</code>	'courtois'	Courtois decomposition (default).
<code>options.config.da</code>	'kms'	Koury-McAllister-Stewart iterative method.
<code>options.config.da</code>	'takahashi'	Takahashi's iterative method.
<code>options.config.da</code>	'multi'	Multigrid decomposition method.
<code>options.config.da_iter</code>	int	Number of iterations for iterative methods (default: 10).
<code>options.config.env_alpha</code>	float	Alpha parameter for macro-state search (default: 0.01).

7.3 Examples

7.3.1 Example 1: Fast and slow service

This example demonstrates how to model a queueing system operating in a random environment, where system parameters (e.g., service rates) change according to an underlying environmental process.

The scenario models a server that alternates between “Fast” and “Slow” modes. In Fast mode, the service rate is 10.0 (low utilization). In Slow mode, the service rate is 0.8 (high utilization, near saturation). The environment switches from Fast→Slow at rate 0.5 (mean time in Fast mode = 2.0) and from Slow→Fast at rate 1.0 (mean time in Slow mode = 1.0).

We start by creating a base closed queueing network with a delay and a queue:

```
base_model = Network('BaseModel')
delay = Delay(base_model, 'ThinkTime')
queue = Queue(base_model, 'Fast/Slow Server', SchedStrategy.FCFS)

# Closed class with 5 jobs
N = 5
jobclass = ClosedClass(base_model, 'Jobs', N, delay)
delay.setService(jobclass, Exp(1.0)) # Think time = 1.0
queue.setService(jobclass, Exp(2.0)) # Placeholder

# Connect nodes in a cycle
base_model.link(Network.serialRouting(delay, queue))
```

Next, we create the random environment with two stages, each having a different service rate:

```
env = Environment('ServerModes', 2)

# Stage 0: Fast mode (service rate = 10.0, low utilization)
fast_model = base_model.copy()
fast_queue = fast_model.getNodeByName('Fast/Slow Server')
fast_queue.setService(fast_model.classes[0], Exp(10.0))
env.addStage(0, 'Fast', 'operational', fast_model)

# Stage 1: Slow mode (service rate = 0.8, high utilization)
slow_model = base_model.copy()
slow_queue = slow_model.getNodeByName('Fast/Slow Server')
slow_queue.setService(slow_model.classes[0], Exp(0.8))
env.addStage(1, 'Slow', 'degraded', slow_model)

# Define transitions between stages
env.addTransition(0, 1, Exp(0.5)) # Fast->Slow
env.addTransition(1, 0, Exp(1.0)) # Slow->Fast
```

Finally, we solve the model using `SolverENV` with the Fluid solver (FLD) as the sub-solver for each stage:

```
# Initialize and inspect the environment
env_table = env.getStageTable()
print(env_table)

# Solve using SolverENV with Fluid sub-solver
env_solver = ENV(env, lambda m: FLD(m))
Q, U, T = env_solver.getAvg()

# Display environment-averaged results
env_avg_table = env_solver.getAvgTable()
print(env_avg_table)
```

The results show that the server spends approximately 66.67% of time in Fast mode and 33.33% in Slow mode. The environment-averaged queue length at the server is approximately 2.0 jobs, which is a weighted combination of the queue lengths in the Fast and Slow stages.

Analyzing sample paths with `getSamplePathTable`

In addition to computing steady-state metrics averaged over the environment distribution, `SolverENV` provides a method to analyze specific sample paths through the environment states. This is useful when you want to understand the transient behavior of the system as it transitions through a known sequence of environment states.

The `getSamplePathTable` method accepts a specification of a sample path—a list of (stage, duration) pairs—and computes the transient performance metrics for each segment. For each segment, the method:

1. Initializes the model from the previous segment's final queue lengths (or uniform distribution for the first segment)
2. Runs transient analysis for the specified duration using the Fluid solver
3. Extracts the initial and final values of queue length, utilization, and throughput

The output is a table with columns for segment index, stage name, duration, station, job class, and the initial/final values of each metric. An example of the transient behavior along a sample path is shown in Figure 7.1, which depicts a sample path transitioning through environment states Fast → Slow → Fast. In the Fast stage (service rate = 10.0), the server operates at low utilization ($\approx 45\%$), while in the Slow stage (service rate = 0.8), the server becomes saturated ($\approx 100\%$ utilization), causing queue buildup as arrivals accumulate faster than they can be processed.

```
# Define a sample path: Fast for 8.0, Slow for 15.0, Fast for 5.0
sample_path = [('Fast', 8.0), ('Slow', 15.0), ('Fast', 5.0)]

# Compute transient metrics along the sample path
df = solver.getSamplePathTable(sample_path)
```

```
# Display the results DataFrame
print(df)
```

The sample path can be specified using either stage names (strings) or stage indices (integers). Stages are 1-indexed in MATLAB and 0-indexed in Java/Python. The duration for each segment must be positive.

7.3.2 Example 2: Breakdown and repair

LINE provides convenience methods to simplify the common case of modeling node failures and repairs in random environments. These methods automatically create UP and DOWN stages for nodes that can break down, configure service rates appropriately, and set up breakdown and repair transitions.

The primary method is `addNodeFailureRepair`, which creates both breakdown and repair transitions in a single call:

```
env = Environment('ServerEnv', 2)
env.add_node_failure_repair(base_model, 'Server1',
    Exp(0.1), Exp(1.0), Exp(0.5))
env.obj.init()
```

where `baseModel` is the network with normal (UP) service rates, `'Server1'` is the node name, `Exp(0.1)` is the breakdown distribution (mean time to failure = 10 time units), `Exp(1.0)` is the repair distribution (mean time to repair = 1 time unit), and `Exp(0.5)` is the service distribution when the node is down.

This method automatically:

- Creates an UP stage with the service rates of the base model
- Creates a DOWN stage with the specified reduced service rate for the failed node
- Adds a breakdown transition (UP → DOWN) with the given breakdown distribution
- Adds a repair transition (DOWN → UP) with the given repair distribution

Alternative methods for more control include `addNodeBreakdown` and `addNodeRepair`, which can be called separately. Custom reset policies can be specified as optional parameters:

```
reset_breakdown = lambda q: q * 0 # Clear queues on breakdown
reset_repair = lambda q: q # Keep jobs on repair
env.add_node_failure_repair(base_model, 'Server1', Exp(0.1),
    Exp(1.0), Exp(0.5), reset_breakdown, reset_repair)
```

Reset policies can also be modified after environment creation using `setBreakdownResetPolicy` and `setRepairResetPolicy` methods.

Retrieving reliability metrics

After solving an environment model with node breakdown and repair, reliability metrics can be retrieved using the `get_reliability_table` method (aliases: `relT`, `getRelT`, `relTable`, `getRelTable`):

```
metrics = env.get_reliability_table()
print(f"MTTF: {metrics['MTTF']}")
print(f"MTTR: {metrics['MTTR']}")
print(f"MTBF: {metrics['MTBF']}")
print(f"Availability: {metrics['Availability']}")
```

The reliability metrics returned are:

- *MTTF* (Mean Time To Failure): Expected time until breakdown from the UP state. For multiple failure modes, this uses the combined failure rate: $\lambda_{\text{total}} = \sum_i \lambda_i$.
- *MTTR* (Mean Time To Repair): Expected time to restore from the DOWN state. For multiple DOWN states, this is a weighted average based on steady-state probabilities.
- *MTBF* (Mean Time Between Failures): Sum of MTTF and MTTR.
- *Availability*: Steady-state probability of the system being in the UP state.

7.3.3 Example 3: Markov-modulated service

This example shows how to convert a queueing network with MMPP2 (Markov-Modulated Poisson Process) service into an equivalent random environment model using the `MAPQN2RENV` utility. MMPP2 is a 2-phase service process where the service rate switches between two values according to an underlying Markov chain. The `MAPQN2RENV` function automatically transforms such a model into a random environment with two stages, each having exponential service at the corresponding MMPP rate.

We create a closed queueing network with an MMPP2 service process:

```
from line_solver import Network, Queue, ClosedClass, SchedStrategy, Exp
from line_solver.distributions_native.markovian import MMPP2
from line_solver.api_native.io.converters import MAPQN2RENV

model = Network('ClosedQN')
queue1 = Queue(model, 'Queue1', SchedStrategy.FCFS)
queue2 = Queue(model, 'Queue2', SchedStrategy.FCFS)

# Closed class with 3 jobs
N = 3
job_class = ClosedClass(model, 'Class1', N, queue1)

# MMPP2 service: slow_rate=2.0, fast_rate=5.0, slow_to_fast=0.5, fast_to_slow=0.3
queue1.set_service(job_class, MMPP2(2.0, 5.0, 0.5, 0.3))
```

```

queue2.set_service(job_class, Exp(3.0))

model.link(model.serial_routing(queue1, queue2))

# Convert to random environment
env = MAPQN2RENV(model)
env.print_stage_table()

```

The output shows the resulting environment structure:

```

Stage Table:
=====
Stage 1: Phase0 (Type: item)
  - Network: ClosedQN_Phase0
  - Nodes: 2
  - Classes: 1
Stage 2: Phase1 (Type: item)
  - Network: ClosedQN_Phase1
  - Nodes: 2
  - Classes: 1
Transitions:
  Phase0 -> Phase1: rate = 0.5000
  Phase1 -> Phase0: rate = 0.3000

```

The resulting environment can then be analyzed using `SolverENV` as shown in Example 1.

7.3.4 Example 4: semi-Markov process environments

This example demonstrates the analysis of random environments with non-Markovian transition distributions using semi-Markov Processes. When environment transitions follow general distributions (e.g., Log-normal), the ENV solver should be run with the 'smp' method.

Consider a system that alternates between two operational modes with log-normally distributed holding times in each stage.

```

from line_solver import Network, Queue, Source, Sink, OpenClass
from line_solver import SchedStrategy, Exp, Lognormal, Environment, ENV, FLD
from line_solver import SolverOptions

# Create two network models for different modes
model1 = Network('Model1')
queue1 = Queue(model1, 'Queue1', SchedStrategy.PS)
job_class1 = OpenClass(model1, 'Jobs')
source1 = Source(model1, 'Source')
sink1 = Sink(model1, 'Sink')
source1.set_arrival(job_class1, Exp(1.0))
queue1.set_service(job_class1, Exp(2.0))
model1.link(model1.serial_routing(source1, queue1, sink1))

model2 = Network('Mode2')

```

```

queue2 = Queue(model2, 'Queue1', SchedStrategy.PS)
job_class2 = OpenClass(model2, 'Jobs')
source2 = Source(model2, 'Source')
sink2 = Sink(model2, 'Sink')
source2.set_arrival(job_class2, Exp(1.0))
queue2.set_service(job_class2, Exp(0.8))
model2.link(model2.serial_routing(source2, queue2, sink2))

# Create environment with LogNormal transitions (non-Markovian)
env_model = Environment('SemiMarkovEnv', 2)
env_model.add_stage(0, 'Stage1', 'UP', model1)
env_model.add_stage(1, 'Stage2', 'UP', model2)
env_model.add_transition(0, 1, Lognormal(1.0, 0.5)) # Non-exponential
env_model.add_transition(1, 0, Lognormal(0.5, 0.3)) # Non-exponential

# Enable SMP method for non-Markovian transitions
options = SolverOptions()
options.method = 'smp'
solver = ENV(env_model, lambda m: FLD(m), options=options)

# Run each solver
for s in solver._solvers:
    if s is not None:
        s.runAnalyzer()

# Get average results
QN, UN, TN = solver.avg()
print('Average Queue Lengths:', QN)
print('Average Utilizations:', UN)
print('Average Throughputs:', TN)

```

The ENV solver correctly handles this by using numerical integration to compute transition probabilities from the non-Markovian distribution functions, rather than assuming Markovian (memoryless) transitions.

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Appendix A

Examples

The table below lists the Jupyter notebooks available under the `examples/` folder.

Table A.1: Examples

Example	Problem
cache_replc_rr	A small cache model with an open arrival process
cache_replc_fifo	A small cache model with a closed job population
cache_replc_lru	A layered network with a caching layer
cache_compare_replc	A layered network with a caching layer having a multi-level cache
cache_replc_routing	A caching model with state-dependent output routing
cdf_respt_closed	Station response time distribution in a single-class single-job closed network
cdf_respt_closed_threeclasses	Station response time distribution in a multi-chain closed network
cdf_respt_open_twoclasses	Station response time distribution in a multi-chain open network
cdf_respt_distrib	Simulation-based station response time distribution analysis
cdf_respt_populations	Station response time distribution under increasing job populations
cqn_repairmen	Solving a single-class exponential closed queueing network
cqn_twoclass_hyperl	Solving a closed queueing network with a multi-class FCFS station
cqn_threeclass_hyperl	Solving exactly a multi-chain product-form closed queueing network
cqn_multiserver	Local state space generation for a station in a closed network
cqn_online	1-line exact MVA solution of a cyclic network of PS and INF stations
cqn_twoclass_erl	Closed network with round robin scheduling
cqn_bcmp_theorem	Comparison of different scheduling policies that preserve the product-form solution
cqn_repairmen_multi	Multi-server closed queueing network with repairmen
cqn_twoqueues_multi	Closed queueing network with two multi-server queues
cqn_twoqueues	Simple closed network with two queues
cs_implicit	Class switching with implicit routing
cs_multi_diamond	Class switching with multiple diamond patterns
cs_single_diamond	Class switching with single diamond pattern
cs_transient_class	Class switching with transient classes
fj_basic_open	A simple single class open fork-join network
fj_twoclasses_forked	A multiclass open fork-join network

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Table A.1 – Examples. *Continued from previous page*

Example	Problem
fj_basic_nesting	A closed model with nested forks and joins
fj_nojoin	An open model with a fork but without a join
fj_basic_closed	A simple single class closed fork-join network
fj_serialfjs_open	Two open fork-joins subsystems in tandem
fj_cs_postfork	Two-class fork-join with a class that switches into the other after the fork
fj_cs_multi_visits	Two fork-joins loops within the same chain
fj_route_overlap	A model with overlapping routes in a fork-join network
fj_asymm	Asymmetric fork-join network
fj_delays	Fork-join network with delays
fj_complex_serial	Complex serial fork-join network
fj_threebranches	Fork-join network with three branches
fj_cs_prefork	Fork-join network with class-switching before fork
fj_deep_nesting	Fork-join network with deep nesting
fj_serialfjs_closed	Closed serial fork-join network
init_state_fcfs_exp	Specifying an initial state and prior in a single class model.
init_state_fcfs_nonexp	Specifying an initial state and prior in a multiclass model.
init_state_ps	Specifying an initial state and prior in a model with class-switching.
lqn_serial	Analyze a layered network specified in a LQNS XML file
lqn_multi_solvers	Specifying and solving a basic layered network
lqn_init	Specifying and solving a basic layered network with initialization
lqn_twotasks	Layered network with two tasks
lqn_bpmn	BPMN to layered network transformation
lqn_workflows	Workflow modeling in layered networks
lqn_function	Layered network function modeling
lqn_basic	Basic layered network example
ld_multiserver_fcfs	Solving a single-class load-dependent closed model
ld_multiserver_ps_twoclasses	Solving a two-node multiclass load-dependent closed model
ld_multiserver_ps	Solving a three-node multiclass load-dependent closed model
ld_class_dependence	Load-dependent model with class dependence
cqn_scheduling_dps	Parameterization of a discriminatory processor sharing (DPS) station
cqn_mmpp2_service	Automatic detection of solvers that cannot analyze the model
mqn_basic	Solving a queueing network model with both closed and open classes
mqn_multiserver_ps	A difficult mixed model with sparse routing among multi-server nodes
mqn_multiserver_fcfs	Mixed model with multiserver FCFS nodes
mqn_singleserver_fcfs	Mixed model with single server FCFS
mqn_singleserver_ps	Mixed model with single server PS
oqn_basic	Solving a queueing network model with open classes, scalar cutoff options
oqn_online	1-line solution of a tandem network of PS and INF stations
oqn_cs_routing	Solving a queueing network model with open classes, matrix cutoff options
oqn_trace_driven	Trace-driven simulation of an M/M/1 queue
oqn_vsinks	A model illustrating the emulation of multiple sinks
oqn_fourqueues	A large multiclass example with PS and FCFS
prio_hol_open	A multiclass example with PS, SIRO, FCFS, FCFSPRIO priority
prio_hol_closed	A high-load multiclass example with PS, SIRO, FCFS, FCFSPRIO priority
prio_psprio	A repaiemen model with PS priority scheduling.
prio_identical	Priority model with identical classes

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Table A.1 – Examples. *Continued from previous page*

Example	Problem
renv_twostages_repairmen renv_fourstages_repairmen renv_threestages_repairmen renv_node_breakdown_example	Solving a model in a 2-stage random environment with exponential rates Solving a model in a 4-stage random environment with Coxian rates Solving a model in a 3-stage random environment with Erlang rates Using simplified breakdown/repair API for node failures in random environments
example_rewardModel_1	Reward-based CTMC analysis using custom reward functions (setReward, getReward, getAvgReward)
sdroute_closed sdroute_twoclasses_closed sdroute_open	A model with round-robin routing A model with round-robin routing after multi-class PH and MAP service A load-balancer modeled as a router
statepr_aggr statepr_aggr_large statepr_sys_aggr statepr_sys_aggr_large statepr_allprobs_ps statepr_allprobs_fcfs	Computing marginal state probabilities for a node Computing marginal state probabilities for a node under class-switching Computing joint state probabilities for a system with two nodes under class-switching Computing joint state probabilities under class-switching and with delay nodes Computing probabilities under PS class-switching and with delay nodes Computing probabilities under PS and FCFS class-switching and with delay nodes
spn_basic_open spn_open_sevenplaces spn_twomodes spn_fourmodes spn_inhibiting spn_closed_fourplaces spn_closed_twoplaces spn_basic_closed	JMT simulation of a simple stochastic Petri net model JMT simulation of a complex stochastic Petri net model Stochastic Petri net with two modes Stochastic Petri net with four modes Stochastic Petri net with inhibiting transitions Closed Stochastic Petri net with four places Closed Stochastic Petri net with two places Basic closed stochastic Petri net
tut01_mm1_basics tut02_mg1_multiclass_solvers tut03_repairmen tut04_lb_routing tut05_completes_flag tut06_cache_lru_zipf tut07_respt_cdf tut08_opt_load_balancing tut09_dep_process_analysis tut10_lqn_basics tut12_posterior_analysis	M/M/1 queue basics M/G/1 multiclass solvers Repairmen model Load balancing routing Complete flag usage Cache LRU Zipf distribution Response time CDF analysis Optimal load balancing Dependent process analysis Layered queueing network basics Posterior analysis and parameter inference
lcq_singlehost lcq_threehosts	Single host layered cache queueing Three hosts layered cache queueing
swt_basic	Basic switchover times model
polling_exhaustive_exp polling_gated polling_klimited polling_exhaustive_det	Exhaustive polling with exponential times Gated polling K-limited polling Exhaustive polling with deterministic times

Appendix B

API Function Reference

This appendix provides a comprehensive catalog of all API functions available in the `jline.api` package. The table lists each function name, its organizational package, and a brief description of its purpose.

Table B.1: Complete API Function Reference

Function Name	Package	Description
<code>amap2_fit_gamma</code>	<code>mam</code>	Fits AMAP(2) distributions to match moments and correlation characteristics
<code>amap2_fit_gamma_map</code>	<code>mam</code>	Fits AMAP(2) by approximating arbitrary-order MAP with preserved correlation structure
<code>amap2_fit_gamma_trace</code>	<code>mam</code>	Fits AMAP(2) from empirical traces while preserving autocorrelation characteristics
<code>aph2_adjust</code>	<code>mam</code>	Adjusts moments to ensure feasibility bounds for APH(2) fitting procedures
<code>aph2_assemble</code>	<code>mam</code>	Constructs APH(2) transition matrices from specified rates and transition probabilities
<code>aph2_fit</code>	<code>mam</code>	Fits APH(2) distributions to match given moments with automatic feasibility adjustment
<code>aph2_fit_map</code>	<code>mam</code>	Fits APH(2) distributions by approximating arbitrary-order MAP processes
<code>aph2_fit_trace</code>	<code>mam</code>	Fits APH(2) distributions from empirical inter-arrival time traces
<code>aph2_fitall</code>	<code>mam</code>	Fits multiple APH(2) distributions to match given moments with exhaustive parameter search
<code>aph_bernstein</code>	<code>mam</code>	Constructs APH distributions using Bernstein exponential approximation methods
<code>aph_fit</code>	<code>mam</code>	Fits APH distributions to specified moments using optimization and approximation techniques
<code>aph_rand</code>	<code>mam</code>	APH random generation algorithms
<code>aph_simplify</code>	<code>mam</code>	Simplifies and combines APH distributions using structural pattern operations
<code>cache_erec</code>	<code>cache</code>	Implements exact recursive (EREC) algorithms for cache system analysis

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Table B.1 – API Function Reference. *Continued from previous page*

Function Name	Package	Description
cache_gamma	cache	Computes cache access factors from request arrival rates and routing matrices
cache_gamma_lp	cache	Computes cache access factors using linear programming optimization methods
cache_miss	cache	Provides general-purpose algorithms for computing cache miss rates across
cache_miss_asy	cache	Provides asymptotic approximation methods for cache miss rate analysis
cache_miss_fpi	cache	Computes cache miss probabilities using fixed-point iteration methods
cache_miss_rayint	cache	Estimates cache miss rates using ray method for partial differential equations
cache_mva	cache	Implements Mean Value Analysis algorithms for cache system performance
cache_mva_miss	cache	Implements Mean Value Analysis (MVA) algorithms for computing cache miss
cache_prob_erec	cache	Computes exact cache state probabilities using recursive methods based on
cache_prob_fpi	cache	Computes cache state probabilities using fixed-point iteration algorithms
cache_prob_rayint	cache	Computes cache state probabilities using ray integration methods for
cache_rayint	cache	Implements ray integration techniques for cache system analysis using
cache_rrm_meanfield_ode	cache	Implements the mean field ordinary differential equation system for Random
cache_t_hlru	cache	Computes response time metrics for Hierarchical Least Recently Used (H-LRU)
cache_t_lrum	cache	Computes response time metrics for Least Recently Used with Multiple servers
cache_t_lrum_map	cache	Analyzes response times for LRUM cache systems with Markovian Arrival
cache_ttl_hlru	cache	Implements TTL approximation for Hierarchical LRU (H-LRU) cache systems
cache_ttl_lrwa	cache	Implementation of Time-To-Live (TTL) approximation for LRU(A) cache systems
cache_ttl_lrum	cache	Implementation of Time-To-Live approximation for Least Recently Used with
cache_ttl_lrum_map	cache	Combines TTL approximation with LRUM cache policies and Markovian Arrival
cache_ttl_tree	cache	Tree-based TTL cache analysis implementation for the LINE solver framework
cache_xi_bvh	cache	Computes cache xi terms using the iterative method from Gastvan Houdt
cache_xi_fp	cache	Estimates cache xi terms using fixed-point algorithms. Xi terms represent

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Table B.1 – API Function Reference. *Continued from previous page*

Function Name	Package	Description
ctmc_courtois	mc	Courtois decomposition for nearly completely decomposable CTMCs
ctmc_kms	mc	Koury-McAllister-Stewart aggregation-disaggregation method for CTMCs
ctmc_makeinfgn	mc	Constructs and validates infinitesimal generator matrices for continuous-time
ctmc_multi	mc	Multi-level aggregation method for CTMCs
ctmc_pseudostochcomp	mc	API function for mc operations
ctmc_rand	mc	Generates random infinitesimal generator matrices for continuous-time Markov chains
ctmc_randomization	mc	Converts a continuous-time Markov chain into an equivalent discrete-time chain
ctmc_relsolve	mc	Equilibrium distribution of a continuous-time Markov chain re-normalized with respect to
ctmc_simulate	mc	Generates sample paths for CTMCs using the standard simulation algorithm with
ctmc_solve	mc	Computes the steady-state probability distribution for CTMCs by solving the linear
ctmc_solve_reducible	mc	Solve reducible CTMCs by converting to DTMC via randomization
ctmc_ssg	mc	API function for mc operations
ctmc_ssg_reachability	mc	CTMC State Space Generator for Reachability Analysis
ctmc_stmonotone	mc	Computes the stochastically monotone upper bound for a CTMC
ctmc_stochcomp	mc	Implements stochastic complementarity analysis for CTMCs to identify strongly
ctmc_takahashi	mc	Takahashi's aggregation-disaggregation method for CTMCs
ctmc_testpf_kolmogorov	mc	Test if a CTMC has product form using Kolmogorov's criteria
ctmc_timereverse	mc	Computes the infinitesimal generator of the time-reversed continuous-time
ctmc_transient	mc	Computes transient probabilities for CTMCs using numerical integration of the
ctmc_uniformization	mc	CTMC Transient Analysis via Uniformization
dtmc_isfeasible	mc	Check if a matrix represents a feasible DTMC transition matrix
dtmc_makestochastic	mc	Converts non-negative matrices into valid discrete-time Markov chain transition
dtmc_rand	mc	Generates random stochastic transition matrices for discrete-time Markov chains
dtmc_simulate	mc	Generates sample trajectories for DTMCs by sampling from the transition probability
dtmc_solve	mc	Computes the steady-state probability distribution for DTMCs by converting the
dtmc_solve_reducible	mc	Result class for DTMC solve reducible
dtmc_stochcomp	mc	Returns the stochastic complement of a DTMC
dtmc_timereverse	mc	Compute the infinitesimal generator of the time-reversed DTMC
dtmc_uniformization	mc	Result class for DTMC uniformization analysis containing the probability vector and maximum iterations used

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Table B.1 – API Function Reference. *Continued from previous page*

Function Name	Package	Description
lossn_erlangfp	lossn	Implements fixed-point algorithms for analyzing loss networks using Erlang
lsn_max_multiplicity	lsn	Computes maximum multiplicity constraints for load sharing network (LSN)
m3pp22_fitc_approx_cov	mam.m3pp	Implements parameter fitting for second-order Marked Markov Modulated Poisson Process
m3pp22_fitc_approx_cov_multiclass	mam.m3pp	Implements constrained optimization for fitting M3PP(2,2) parameters given an underlying
m3pp22_interleave_fitc	mam.m3pp	Implements lumped superposition of multiple M3PP(2,2) processes using interleaved
m3pp2m_fitc	mam.m3pp	Implements exact fitting of second-order Marked Markov Modulated Poisson Process
m3pp2m_fitc_approx	mam.m3pp	Implements approximation-based fitting for M3PP(2,m) using optimization methods
m3pp2m_fitc_approx_ag	mam.m3pp	Implements auto-gamma approximation method for M3PP(2,m) parameter fitting
m3pp2m_fitc_approx_ag_multiclass	mam.m3pp	Implements multiclass auto-gamma fitting for M3PP(2,m) with variance and covariance
m3pp2m_interleave	mam.m3pp	Implements interleaved superposition of multiple M3PP(2,m) processes to construct
m3pp_interleave_fitc	mam.m3pp	Implements fitting and interleaving of k second-order M3PP processes with varying
m3pp_interleave_fitc_theoretical	mam.m3pp	Implements theoretical MMAP fitting through M3PP interleaving using analytical
m3pp_interleave_fitc_trace	mam.m3pp	Implements M3PP interleaving and fitting directly from empirical trace data
m3pp_rand	mam.m3pp	Implements random generation of Markovian Multi-class Point Processes (M3PP)
m3pp_superpos_fitc	mam.m3pp	Implements superposition-based fitting of k second-order M3PP processes into
m3pp_superpos_fitc_theoretical	mam.m3pp	Implements superposition fitting of k second-order M3PP processes using theoretical
mamap22_fit_gamma_fs_trace	mam	Fits MAMAP(2,2) from trace data using gamma autocorrelation and forward-sigma characteristics
mamap22_fit_multiclass	mam	Fits MAMAP(2,2) processes for two-class systems with forward moments and sigma characteristics
mamap2m_coefficients	mam	Computes coefficients for MAMAP(2,m) fitting formulas in canonical forms
mamap2m_fit	mam	Fits MAMAP(2,m) processes matching moments, autocorrelation, and class characteristics
mamap2m_fit_fb_multiclass	mam	Fits MAMAP using combined forward and backward moment characteristics for multiclass systems
mamap2m_fit_gamma_fb_mmap	mam	Fits MAMAP with autocorrelation control using forward-backward moments from MMAP input
mamap2m_fit_mmap	mam	Fits MAPH/MAMAP(2,m) by approximating characteristics of input MMAP processes

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Table B.1 – API Function Reference. *Continued from previous page*

Function Name	Package	Description
mamap2m_fit_trace	mam	Fits MAMAP(2,m) processes from empirical trace data with inter-arrival times and class labels
map2_fit	mam	Fits MAP(2) processes to match specified moments and autocorrelation decay rates
map2mmp	mam	Converts MAP representations to MMPP format for compatibility with MMPP-specific algorithms
map_acf	mam	Computes autocorrelation function (ACF) values for MAP inter-arrival times at specified lags
map_acfc	mam	Computes ACFC values for MAP counting processes over time intervals, measuring temporal correlation
map_block	mam	Constructs MAP(2) representations from moment and autocorrelation parameters using fallback
map_ccdf_derivative	mam	Computes derivatives of MAP complementary cumulative distribution functions at zero
map_cdf	mam	Computes CDF values for MAP inter-arrival times using CTMC uniformization techniques
map_checkfeasible	mam	Comprehensive validation of MAP matrices including stochastic properties, numerical stability,
map_count_mean	mam	Computes mean number of arrivals in MAP counting processes over specified time intervals
map_count_moment	mam	Computes power moments of MAP counting processes using moment generating functions and
map_count_var	mam	Computes variance of MAP counting processes over specified time intervals using matrix
map_embedded	mam	Computes embedded DTMC matrices from MAP representations by extracting transition
map_erlang	mam	Constructs MAP representations of Erlang-k processes with specified means and phases
map_exponential	mam	Creates MAP representations of exponential inter-arrival time distributions with specified
map_feasblock	mam	Constructs feasible MAP representations when exact moment matching fails by adjusting
map_feastol	mam	Provides standard tolerance values for numerical feasibility checks in MAP algorithms
map_gamma	mam	Computes gamma parameter measuring autocorrelation decay rates in MAP processes
map_gamma2	mam	Computes largest non-unit eigenvalue of embedded DTMC for MAP correlation characterization
map_hyperexp	mam	Constructs MAP representations of two-phase hyperexponential renewal processes
map_idc	mam	Computes asymptotic index of dispersion for MAP counting processes, measuring long-term
map_infgen	mam	Computes infinitesimal generator matrix of underlying CTMC by combining MAP transition
map_isfeasible	mam	Provides convenient interface for MAP feasibility validation with configurable tolerance

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Table B.1 – API Function Reference. *Continued from previous page*

Function Name	Package	Description
map_joint	mam	Computes joint moments of MAP inter-arrival times for advanced statistical characterization
map_jointpdf_derivative	mam	Computes partial derivatives of MAP joint probability density functions at origin
map_kpc	mam	Computes Kronecker product composition of multiple MAPs for building complex arrival processes
map_kurt	mam	Computes kurtosis of MAP inter-arrival times measuring tail heaviness and distribution shape
map_lambda	mam	MAP arrival rate computation algorithms
map_largemap	mam	Provides size thresholds for determining when MAP algorithms should switch to
map_mark	mam	Creates Marked MAP (MMAP) representations by adding class labels to MAP arrivals
map_max	mam	Computes MAP representation of maximum inter-arrival times from independent MAP processes
map_mean	mam	MAP mean inter-arrival time computation algorithms
map_mixture	mam	Creates probabilistic mixtures of MAP processes with specified mixture probabilities
map_moment	mam	Computes raw moments of MAP inter-arrival times using matrix inversion techniques
map_normalize	mam	Sanitizes MAP matrices by ensuring non-negativity constraints and proper diagonal adjustments
map_pdf	mam	Computes PDF values for MAP inter-arrival times using matrix exponential techniques
map_pie	mam	Computes steady-state probability vector of embedded discrete-time Markov chain
map_piq	mam	Computes steady-state probability vector of underlying continuous-time Markov chain
map_pntiter	mam	Computes exact arrival probabilities using iterative numerical methods based on Neuts and Li
map_pntquad	mam	Computes MAP point process probabilities using ODE quadrature methods with Runge-Kutta integration
map_prob	mam	Computes equilibrium probability distribution of underlying CTMC for MAP analysis
map_rand	mam	Generates random MAP representations for testing, simulation, and statistical analysis
map_randn	mam	Generates random MAP samples with added numerical noise for robustness testing
map_renewal	mam	Creates renewal MAP by removing correlations to obtain memoryless arrival processes
map_sample	mam	Generates random samples from MAP distributions for simulation and empirical analysis
map_scale	mam	Rescales MAP inter-arrival time distributions to achieve specified mean values
map_scv	mam	Computes SCV of MAP inter-arrival times as normalized dispersion measure

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Table B.1 – API Function Reference. *Continued from previous page*

Function Name	Package	Description
map_skew	mam	Computes skewness of MAP inter-arrival times measuring asymmetry in distributions
map_stochcomp	mam	Performs state elimination through stochastic complementation while preserving MAP properties
map_sum	mam	Computes MAP representations of sums of identical MAP processes for load scaling
map_sumind	mam	Computes MAP representations of sums of independent MAP processes for modeling
map_super	mam	Creates superposition of MAP processes using Kronecker product techniques
map_timereverse	mam	Computes time-reversed MAP by adjusting transition rates based on stationary distributions
map_var	mam	MAP variance computation algorithms
map_varcount	mam	Computes variance of event counts in MAP processes over specified time intervals
maph2m_fit	mam	Fits MAPH(2,m) processes to match ordinary moments, class probabilities, and backward moments
maph2m_fit_mmap	mam	Fits MAPH(2,m) by approximating characteristics of input MMAP processes
maph2m_fit_multiclass	mam	Fits MAPH(2,m) models to multiclass characteristics with class-specific parameters
maph2m_fit_trace	mam	Fits MAPH(2,m) from empirical trace data for multiclass service time modeling
maph2m_fitc_approx	mam	Fits MAPH(2,m) using approximation methods for count statistics when exact solutions fail
maph2m_fitc_theoretical	mam	Fits MAPH(2,m) using theoretical count statistics for precise parameter estimation
mapqn_bnd_lr	mapqn	Implements general linear reduction methods for computing performance
mapqn_bnd_lr_mva	mapqn	Implements linear reduction bounds for MAP queueing networks using Mean
mapqn_bnd_lr_pf	mapqn	Implements linear reduction bounds specialized for product-form MAP
mapqn_bnd_qr	mapqn	Implements general quadratic reduction methods for computing performance
mapqn_bnd_qr_delay	mapqn	Implements quadratic reduction bounds for delay systems in MAP queueing
mapqn_bnd_qr_ld	mapqn	Implements quadratic reduction bounds for load-dependent MAP queueing
mapqn_lpmodel	mapqn	Base class for representing MAP queueing network linear programming models
mapqn_parameters	mapqn	Defines the base parameter structure for MAP queueing network analysis
mapqn_parameters_factory	mapqn	Factory class for creating parameter objects for MAP queueing network

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Table B.1 – API Function Reference. *Continued from previous page*

Function Name	Package	Description
mapqn_qr_bounds_bas	mapqn	Implements Queue-Router bounds using the Balanced Asymptotic Scaling (BAS)
mapqn_qr_bounds_rsrld	mapqn	Implements Queue-Router (QR) bounds using the Randomized Simultaneous
mmap_backward_moment	mam	Computes backward moments of MMAP inter-arrival times for each marked class
mmap_compress	mam	Compresses MMAP using various approximation methods including mixture, matching,
mmap_count_idc	mam	Computes IDC values for each marked class in MMAP counting processes
mmap_count_lambda	mam	Computes arrival rate vectors for each marked class in MMAP processes
mmap_count_mcov	mam	Computes count covariance matrices between marked classes in MMAP processes
mmap_count_mean	mam	Computes mean count vectors for each marked class in MMAP counting processes
mmap_count_var	mam	Computes variance vectors for counting processes of each marked class in MMAP
mmap_cross_moment	mam	Computes cross-moment matrices between different marked classes in MMAP processes
mmap_embedded	mam	Computes embedded discrete-time Markov chain for MMAP processes
mmap_exponential	mam	Constructs MMAP with exponential inter-arrival distributions for each marked class
mmap_forward_moment	mam	Computes forward moments of MMAP inter-arrival times for each marked class
mmap_hide	mam	Hides specified arrival classes in MMAP processes by removing observable events
mmap_idc	mam	Computes asymptotic IDC for each marked class in MMAP as time approaches infinity
mmap_isfeasible	mam	Validates mathematical feasibility of MMAP representations including stochastic
mmap_issym	mam	Checks if an MMAP is symmetric
mmap_lambda	mam	MMAP arrival rate computation algorithms
mmap_maps	mam	Extracts individual MAP processes for each marked class from MMAP representations
mmap_mark	mam	Converts a Markovian Arrival Process with marked arrivals (MMAP) into a new MMAP with redefined classes based on a given probability matrix
mmap_max	mam	Computes element-wise maximum of MMAP processes for synchronization analysis
mmap_mixture	mam	Creates probabilistic mixtures of MMAP processes with specified weights
mmap_mixture_fit	mam	Fits a mixture of Markovian Arrival Processes (MMAPs) to match the given cross-moments

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Table B.1 – API Function Reference. *Continued from previous page*

Function Name	Package	Description
<code>mmap_mixture_fit_mmap</code>	mam	Fits a mixture of Markovian Arrival Processes (MMAPs) to match the given moments
<code>mmap_mixture_order2</code>	mam	Creates a second-order MMAP mixture from a collection of MMAPs
<code>mmap_modulate</code>	mam	Modulates an MMAP by another MMAP, creating a compound arrival process
<code>mmap_normalize</code>	mam	Normalizes MMAP matrices to ensure feasibility and mathematical validity
<code>mmap_pc</code>	mam	Computes the proportion of counts (PC) for each type in a Markovian Arrival Process with marked arrivals (MMAP)
<code>mmap_pie</code>	mam	Computes steady-state probability vectors for each marked class in MMAP processes
<code>mmap_rand</code>	mam	Generates random MMAP representations for testing and simulation purposes
<code>mmap_sample</code>	mam	Generates random samples from MMAP distributions for each marked class
<code>mmap_scale</code>	mam	Rescales MMAP inter-arrival distributions to achieve specified mean values
<code>mmap_shorten</code>	mam	Converts an MMAP representation from M3A format to BUTools format
<code>mmap_sigma</code>	mam	Computes one-step class transition probabilities for a Marked Markovian Arrival Process (MMAP)
<code>mmap_sigma2</code>	mam	Computes two-step class transition probabilities for a Markovian Arrival Process (MMAP)
<code>mmap_sum</code>	mam	Computes superposition of MMAP processes creating independent multiclass arrival streams
<code>mmap_super</code>	mam	Combines multiple MMAP processes into superposed multiclass arrival streams
<code>mmap_super_safe</code>	mam	API function for mam operations
<code>mmap_timereverse</code>	mam	Computes the time-reversed version of a Markovian Arrival Process with marked arrivals (MMAP)
<code>mmpp2_fit</code>	mam	Fits MMPP(2) models to match specified moments and correlation characteristics
<code>mmpp2_fit1</code>	mam	Fits MMPP(2) models using simplified single-parameter approach for specific scenarios
<code>mmpp2_fitc</code>	mam	Fits MMPP(2) models using count statistics and index of dispersion criteria
<code>mmpp2_fitc_approx</code>	mam	Fits MMPP(2) using optimization-based approximation methods for count statistics
<code>mmpp_rand</code>	mam	Generates random MMPP models with diagonal D1 matrices for testing and simulation
<code>ms_additivesymmetricchisquared</code>	measures	Additive symmetric chi-squared distance between two probability distributions
<code>ms_adtest</code>	measures	Implements the Anderson-Darling test for assessing whether a sample comes from

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Table B.1 – API Function Reference. *Continued from previous page*

Function Name	Package	Description
ms_avglll1lfty	measures	Average L1 L-infinity distance between two probability distributions
ms_bhattacharyya	measures	Computes the Bhattacharyya distance measuring the similarity between probability
ms_canberra	measures	Canberra distance between two probability distributions
ms_chebyshev	measures	Chebyshev Distance for Probability Distributions
ms_chisquared	measures	Squared chi-squared distance between two probability distributions
ms_cityblock	measures	Implements the City block distance between probability distributions
ms_clark	measures	Clark distance between two probability distributions
ms_condentropy	measures	Computes conditional entropy measuring the remaining uncertainty
ms_cramer_von_mises	measures	Implements the Cramer-von Mises test statistic for comparing two empirical distributions
ms_cosine	measures	Computes cosine distance (1 - cosine similarity) measuring the angle between two
ms_czekanowski	measures	Czekanowski distance between two probability distributions
ms_dice	measures	Dice distance between two probability distributions
ms_divergence	measures	Divergence distance between two probability distributions
ms_entropy	measures	Implements Shannon entropy for discrete random variables
ms_euclidean	measures	Implements the standard Euclidean distance between probability distributions
ms_fidelity	measures	Fidelity distance between two probability distributions
ms_gower	measures	Gower distance between two probability distributions
ms_harmonicmean	measures	Harmonic mean distance between two probability distributions
ms_hellinger	measures	Computes the Hellinger distance measuring dissimilarity between probability distributions
ms_intersection	measures	Intersection distance between two probability distributions
ms_jaccard	measures	Jaccard distance between two probability distributions
ms_jeffreys	measures	Jeffreys divergence between two probability distributions
ms_jensendifference	measures	Jensen difference divergence between two probability distributions
ms_jensenshannon	measures	Implements Jensen-Shannon divergence, a symmetric and bounded version of
ms_jointentropy	measures	Computes joint entropy measuring the uncertainty of joint distributions
ms_kdivergence	measures	K-divergence between two probability distributions
ms_kolmogorov_smirnov	measures	Implements the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for determining if a sample follows
ms_kuiper	measures	Implements the Kuiper test statistic, a rotation-invariant variant of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov
ms_kulczynskid	measures	Kulczynski d distance between two probability distributions
ms_kulczynskis	measures	Kulczynski s distance between two probability distributions
ms_kullbackleibler	measures	Implements the Kullback-Leibler divergence measuring distribution differences

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Table B.1 – API Function Reference. *Continued from previous page*

Function Name	Package	Description
ms_kumarhassebrook	measures	Kumar-Hassebrook distance between two probability distributions
ms_kumarjohnson	measures	Kumar-Johnson distance between two probability distributions
ms_lorentzian	measures	Lorentzian distance between two probability distributions
ms_matusita	measures	Matusita distance between two probability distributions
ms_minkowski	measures	Minkowski Distance for Probability Distributions
ms_motyka	measures	Motyka distance between two probability distributions
ms_mutinfo	measures	Computes mutual information measuring the amount of shared information
ms_neymanchisquared	measures	Neyman chi-squared distance between two probability distributions
ms_nmi	measures	Computes normalized mutual information providing a scale-invariant measure
ms_nvi	measures	Computes normalized variation information measuring the normalized distance
ms_pearsonchisquared	measures	Pearson chi-squared distance between two probability distributions
ms_probsymmchisquared	measures	Probabilistic symmetry chi-squared distance between two probability distributions
ms_relatentropy	measures	Computes relative entropy measuring the information difference
ms_product	measures	Product distance between two probability distributions
ms_ruzicka	measures	Ruzicka distance between two probability distributions
ms_soergel	measures	Soergel distance between two probability distributions
ms_sorensen	measures	Sorensen distance between two probability distributions
ms_squaredchord	measures	Squared chord distance between two probability distributions
ms_squaredeuclidean	measures	Squared Euclidean distance between two probability distributions
ms_taneja	measures	Taneja distance between two probability distributions
ms_tanimoto	measures	Tanimoto distance between two probability distributions
ms_topsoe	measures	Topsoe distance between two probability distributions
ms_wasserstein	measures	Implements the Wasserstein distance measuring the minimum cost to transform
ms_wavehedges	measures	Wave-Hedges distance between two probability distributions
mtrace_backward_moment	trace	Computes backward moments of a multi-class trace
mtrace_bootstrap	trace	Implements bootstrap resampling methods for multi-class empirical trace data
mtrace_count	trace	Computes count statistics from a multi-class trace over specified time windows
mtrace_cov	trace	Computes the covariance matrix for multi-type traces
mtrace_cross_moment	trace	Computes the k-th order moment of the inter-arrival time between an event
mtrace_forward_moment	trace	Computes the forward moments of a marked trace
mtrace_iat2counts	trace	Computes the per-class counting processes of T, i.e., the counts after
mtrace_joint	trace	Given a multi-class trace, computes the empirical class-dependent joint

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Table B.1 – API Function Reference. *Continued from previous page*

Function Name	Package	Description
mtrace_mean	trace	Computes per-class means for multi-class empirical trace data. Enables separate
mtrace_merge	trace	Merges two traces in a single marked (multiclass) trace
mtrace_moment	trace	Computes empirical class-dependent statistical moments for multi-class trace data
mtrace_moment_simple	trace	Computes the k-th order moment of the inter-arrival time between an event
mtrace_pc	trace	Computes the probabilities of arrival for each class
mtrace_sigma	trace	Computes the empirical probability of observing a specific 2-element
mtrace_sigma2	trace	Computes the empirical probability of observing a specific 3-element
mtrace_split	trace	Given a multi-class trace with inter-arrivals T and labels L,
mtrace_summary	trace	Computes summary statistics for multiple trace analysis, providing
npfq_nonexp_approx	npfq	Implements approximation methods for non-product-form queueing networks
npfq_traffic_merge	npfq	Implements traffic merging algorithms for non-product-form queueing networks
npfq_traffic_merge_cs	npfq	Implements traffic merging algorithms for non-product-form queueing networks
npfq_traffic_split_cs	npfq	Implements traffic splitting algorithms for non-product-form queueing networks
pfqn_ab	pfqn.ld	Implements the Akyildiz-Bolch linearizer method for analyzing closed product-form queueing networks
pfqn_aql	pfqn.mva	Implements the Aggregate Queue Length (AQL) approximation method for analyzing closed
pfqn_bs	pfqn.mva	Implements the classic Bard-Schweitzer approximate MVA algorithm for closed queueing networks
pfqn_ca	pfqn.nc	Convolution Algorithm for Product-Form Networks
pfqn_cdfun	pfqn.ld	Provides functionality to evaluate class-dependent scaling functions in load-dependent queueing networks
pfqn_comomrm	pfqn.nc	Implements the Convolution Method of Moments specialized for repairman queueing models
pfqn_comomrm_ld	pfqn.ld	Implements the Convolution Method of Moments (COMOM) for computing normalizing constants in
pfqn_conwayms	pfqn.mva	Implements the Conway-Maxwell approximation method for analyzing closed queueing networks
pfqn_cub	pfqn.nc	Implements the cubature (multi-dimensional integration) approach for computing normalizing
pfqn_egflinearizer	pfqn.mva	Implements the Extended General-Form linearizer approximation for closed queueing networks
pfqn_fnc	pfqn.ld	Computes scaling factors for load-dependent functional servers in product-form queueing networks
pfqn_gflinearizer	pfqn.mva	Implements the general-form linearizer approximation for closed queueing networks with

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Table B.1 – API Function Reference. *Continued from previous page*

Function Name	Package	Description
pfqn_gld	pfqn.ld	Implements the generalized convolution algorithm for computing normalizing constants in
pfqn_gld_complex	pfqn.ld	Extends the generalized load-dependent convolution algorithm to handle complex-valued
pfqn_gldsingl	pfqn.ld	Provides specialized auxiliary function for computing normalizing constants in single-class
pfqn_gldsingl_complex	pfqn.ld	Provides specialized auxiliary function for computing normalizing constants in single-class
pfqn_kt	pfqn.nc	Implements the Knessl-Tier asymptotic expansion using the ray method for computing
pfqn_le	pfqn.nc	Implements the Laguerre expansion approach for computing normalizing constants in
pfqn_le_fpi	pfqn.nc	Implements the fixed-point iteration algorithm used in the Laguerre expansion method
pfqn_le_fpi2	pfqn.nc	Implements the fixed-point iteration algorithm for the Laguerre expansion method
pfqn_le_hessian	pfqn.nc	Computes the Hessian matrix used in the Laguerre expansion method for second-order
pfqn_le_hessian2	pfqn.nc	Computes the Hessian matrix used in the Laguerre expansion method for closed queueing
pfqn_linearizer	pfqn.mva	Linearizer Approximate MVA for Product-Form Networks
pfqn_linearizerms	pfqn.mva	Implements the multi-server version of Krzesinski's linearizer approximation for closed
pfqn_linearizermx	pfqn.mva	Implements linearizer-based approximation methods for mixed queueing networks with
pfqn_linearizerpp	pfqn.mva	Implements the Linearizer++ algorithm for closed queueing networks with enhanced accuracy
pfqn_lldfun	pfqn.ld	Evaluates limited load-dependent (LLD) scaling functions using spline interpolation for
pfqn_ls	pfqn.nc	Implements the logistic sampling approach for computing normalizing constants in
pfqn_mci	pfqn.nc	Implements Monte Carlo integration approaches including Importance Monte Carlo Integration
pfqn_mmint2	pfqn.nc	Implements numerical integration for computing normalizing constants in multi-class
pfqn_mmint2_gausslegendre	pfqn.nc	Implements Gauss-Legendre quadrature integration for computing normalizing constants
pfqn_mmsample2	pfqn.nc	Implements importance sampling for computing normalizing constants in multi-class
pfqn_mom	pfqn.nc	Implements the Method of Moments using exact arithmetic with BigFraction for computing
pfqn_mu_ms	pfqn.ld	Computes load-dependent scaling factors for multi-server queueing stations with finite
pfqn_mushift	pfqn.ld	Provides utility function for shifting load-dependent scaling vectors by one position,
pfqn_mva	pfqn.mva	Mean Value Analysis for Product-Form Queueing Networks

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Table B.1 – API Function Reference. *Continued from previous page*

Function Name	Package	Description
pfqn_mvald	pfqn.ld	Load-Dependent Mean Value Analysis
pfqn_mvaldms	pfqn.ld	Provides wrapper functionality for load-dependent Mean Value Analysis with automatic
pfqn_mvaldmx	pfqn.ld	Implements Mean Value Analysis for mixed queueing networks with both open and closed classes
pfqn_mvaldmx_ec	pfqn.ld	Provides auxiliary functionality for computing EC terms used in load-dependent Mean Value
pfqn_mvams	pfqn.mva	Provides comprehensive MVA solution for mixed queueing networks with multi-server stations
pfqn_mvamx	pfqn.mva	Implements MVA for mixed networks containing both open and closed classes without multi-server
pfqn_nc	pfqn.nc	Normalizing Constant Methods for Product-Form Networks
pfqn_nc_sanitiz	pfqn.nc	Sanitizes and preprocesses parameters for product-form queueing network models to
pfqn_nca	pfqn.nc	Implements the Normalizing Constant Approximation method for single-class closed
pfqn_ncl	pfqn.ld	Provides the main entry point for computing normalizing constants in load-dependent
pfqn_nrl	pfqn.nc	Implements the Normal Random Lattice approach for computing normalizing constants
pfqn_nrp	pfqn.nc	Implements the Normal Random Permutation approach for computing normalizing constants
pfqn_panacea	pfqn.nc	Implements the PANACEA approximation method for computing normalizing constants in
pfqn_pff_delay	pfqn.nc	Computes the product-form factor for delay stations in closed queueing networks
pfqn_procomom2	pfqn.ld	Implements the probabilistic class-oriented method of moments for analyzing
pfqn_propfair	pfqn.nc	Implements the proportionally fair allocation method using convex optimization
pfqn_qzgbow	pfqn.mva	Computes the lower Geometric Bound (GB) for queue lengths in closed single-class queueing
pfqn_qzgub	pfqn.mva	Computes the upper Geometric Bound (GB) for queue lengths in closed single-class queueing
pfqn_rd	pfqn.nc	Implements the Random Discretization approach for computing normalizing constants in
pfqn_recal	pfqn.nc	Implements the RECAL (Recursive Calculation) algorithm for computing normalizing constants
pfqn_schmidt	pfqn.ld	Schmidt method for load-dependent MVA with multi-server stations
pfqn_sqni	pfqn.mva	Implements the Single Queue Network Interpolation method for analyzing multi-class closed
pfqn_stdf	pfqn.nc	Implements McKenna's 1987 method for computing sojourn time distributions at
pfqn_stdf_heur	pfqn.nc	Implements a heuristic variant of McKenna's 1987 method for computing sojourn time

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Function Name	Package	Description
pfqn_xia	pfqn.ld	Implements Xia's asymptotic approximation method for computing normalizing constants
pfqn_xzabalow	pfqn.mva	Computes the lower ABA bound for throughput in closed single-class queueing networks
pfqn_xzabaup	pfqn.mva	Computes the upper ABA bound for throughput in closed single-class queueing networks
pfqn_xzgsblow	pfqn.mva	Computes the lower GSB for throughput in closed single-class queueing networks using
pfqn_xzgsbup	pfqn.mva	Computes the upper GSB for throughput in closed single-class queueing networks using
ph_reindex	mam	Reindexes phase-type distribution maps for network models using integer station and class indices
polling_qsys_1limited	polling	Implements analysis algorithms for 1-limited polling systems where the
polling_qsys_exhaustive	polling	Implements analysis algorithms for exhaustive polling systems where the
polling_qsys_gated	polling	Implements analysis algorithms for gated polling systems where the server
qbd_bmapbmap1	mam	Analyzes batch arrival and service systems using QBD matrix methods
qbd_mapmap1	mam	Analyzes MAP/MAP/1 queueing systems using QBD matrix analytic methods
qbd_r	mam	QBD R-matrix computation algorithms
qbd_r_logred	mam	Computes QBD R-matrix using logarithmic reduction method for numerical stability
qbd_raprap1	mam	Analyzes RAP/RAP/1 queueing systems using QBD methods with rational arrival processes
qbd_rg	mam	Computes fundamental R and G matrices for QBD analysis of MAP/MAP/1 queues
qbd_setupdelayoff	mam	Analyzes queueing systems with server setup delays and switch-off mechanisms
qsys_gg1	qsys	Provides comprehensive analysis of G/G/1 queues with general arrival and service processes
qsys_gig1_approx_allencunneen	qsys	Implements the widely-used Allen-Cunneen approximation for general G/G/1 queueing
qsys_gig1_approx_gelenbe	qsys	G/G/1 queue approximation using Gelenbe's method
qsys_gig1_approx_heyman	qsys	Analyzes a G/G/1 queueing system using Heyman's approximation
qsys_gig1_approx_kimura	qsys	G/G/1 queue approximation using Kimura's method
qsys_gig1_approx_klb	qsys	Analyzes a G/G/1 queueing system using the Kramer-Langenbach-Belz (KLB) approximation
qsys_gig1_approx_kobayashi	qsys	Analyzes a G/G/1 queueing system using Kobayashi's approximation
qsys_gig1_approx_marchal	qsys	Analyzes a G/G/1 queueing system using Marchal's approximation
qsys_gig1_approx_myskja	qsys	G/G/1 queue approximation using Myskja's method

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Function Name	Package	Description
qsys_gig1_approx_myskja2	qsys	G/G/1 queue approximation using enhanced Myskja's method
qsys_gig1_lbnd	qsys	G/G/1 queue lower bounds
qsys_gig1_ubnd_kingman	qsys	Calculates an upper bound on the waiting time for a G/G/1 system using Kingman's formula
qsys_gigk_approx	qsys	Analyzes a G/G/k queueing system using an approximation method
qsys_gigk_approx_cosmetatos	qsys	G/G/k queue approximation using Cosmetatos method
qsys_gigk_approx_kingman	qsys	Analyzes a G/G/k queueing system using Kingman's approximation
qsys_gigk_approx_whitt	qsys	G/G/k queue approximation using Whitt's method
qsys_gml	qsys	G/M/1 Queueing System Analysis
qsys_mgl	qsys	Implements the Pollaczek-Khinchine formula for M/G/1 queues with Poisson arrivals
qsys_mgl_prio	qsys	M/G/1 queueing system with non-preemptive class priorities
qsys_mglk_loss	qsys	M/G/1/K loss probability calculation
qsys_mglk_loss_mgs	qsys	M/G/1/K loss probability using MacGregor Smith approximation
qsys_mginf	qsys	M/G/inf queue analysis (infinite servers)
qsys_mml	qsys	Implements exact analytical solutions for the M/M/1 queue (Poisson arrivals, exponential
qsys_mmlk_loss	qsys	M/M/1/K loss probability calculation
qsys_mmk	qsys	Implements exact analytical solutions for M/M/k queues with Poisson arrivals,
qsys_mapg1	qsys	Analyzes MAP/G/1 queues with MAP arrivals and general service times using BUTools
qsys_mapm1	qsys	MAP/M/1 queueing system analysis with MAP arrivals and exponential service
qsys_mapmap1	qsys	Analyzes MAP/MAP/1 queues with MAP arrivals and MAP service times
qsys_mapmc	qsys	MAP/M/c multiserver queueing system analysis with MAP arrivals
qsys_mapph1	qsys	Analyzes MAP/PH/1 queues with MAP arrivals and phase-type service distributions
qsys_phph1	qsys	Analyzes PH/PH/1 queues with phase-type arrivals and service distributions
randp	mam	Provides random value selection based on relative probability distributions
sn_deaggregate_chain_results	sn	Calculate class-based performance metrics for a queueing network based on performance measures of its chains
sn_get_arv_r_from_tput	sn	Calculates the average arrival rates at each station from the network throughputs
sn_get_demands_chain	sn	Calculate new queueing network parameters after aggregating classes into chains
sn_get_node_arv_r_from_tput	sn	API function for sn operations
sn_get_node_tput_from_tput	sn	APIs to process NetworkStruct objects
sn_get_product_form_chain_params	sn	Calculate the parameters at class and chain level for a queueing network model

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Function Name	Package	Description
sn_get_product_form_params	sn	Extracts essential parameters (service demands, populations, visit ratios) from
sn_get_residt_from_respt	sn	Calculates the residence times at each station from the response times
sn_get_state_aggr	sn	Aggregates the state of the network
sn_has_class_switching	sn	Checks if the network uses class-switching
sn_has_closed_classes	sn	Checks if the network has one or more closed classes
sn_has_dps	sn	Check if the network includes a node with DPS scheduling
sn_has_dps_prio	sn	Check if the network includes a node with DPSPRIO scheduling
sn_has_fb	sn	Check if the network includes a node with FB (LAS) scheduling
sn_has_fcfs	sn	Identifies queueing networks using First-Come-First-Served scheduling disciplines
sn_has_fork_join	sn	Checks if the network uses fork and/or join nodes
sn_has_fractional_populations	sn	Checks if the network has closed classes with non-integer populations
sn_has_gps	sn	Check if the network includes a node with GPS scheduling
sn_has_gps_prio	sn	Check if the network includes a node with GPSPRIO scheduling
sn_has_hol	sn	Check if the network includes a node with HOL scheduling
sn_has_homogeneous_scheduling	sn	Checks if the network uses an identical scheduling strategy at every station
sn_has_inf	sn	Check if the network includes a node with INF scheduling
sn_has_lcfs	sn	Check if the network includes a node with LCFS scheduling
sn_has_lcfs_pr	sn	Check if the network includes a node with LCFSPR scheduling
sn_has_lcfs_pi	sn	Check if the network includes a node with LCFSPi scheduling
sn_has_lept	sn	Check if the network includes a node with LEPT scheduling
sn_has_ljf	sn	Check if the network includes a node with LJF scheduling
sn_has_lrpt	sn	Check if the network includes a node with LRPT scheduling
sn_has_load_dependence	sn	Checks if the network has a station with load-dependent service process
sn_has_mixed_classes	sn	Checks if the network has both open and closed classes
sn_has_multi_chain	sn	Check if the network has multiple chains
sn_has_multi_class	sn	Identifies queueing networks with multiple job classes, which require specialized
sn_has_multi_class_fcfs	sn	API function for sn operations
sn_has_multi_class_heter_exp_fcfs	sn	Checks if the network has one or more stations with multiclass heterogeneous FCFS
sn_has_multi_class_heter_fcfs	sn	Checks if the network has one or more stations with multiclass heterogeneous FCFS
sn_has_multi_server	sn	Check if the network includes a multi-server node
sn_has_multiple_closed_classes	sn	Checks if the network has one or more closed classes
sn_has_open_classes	sn	Checks if the network has one or more open classes
sn_has_polling	sn	Check if the network includes a node with polling
sn_has_priorities	sn	Checks if the network uses class priorities
sn_has_product_form	sn	Determines if a queueing network has a known product-form solution by validating

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Function Name	Package	Description
sn_has_product_form_not_het_fcfs	sn	Checks if the network satisfies product-form assumptions (does not have heterogeneous FCFS)
sn_has_ps	sn	Check if the network includes a node with PS scheduling
sn_has_ps_prio	sn	Check if the network includes a node with PSPRIO scheduling
sn_has_psjf	sn	Check if the network includes a node with PSJF scheduling
sn_has_sept	sn	Check if the network includes a node with SEPT scheduling
sn_has_single_chain	sn	Check if the network has a single chain
sn_has_single_class	sn	Check if the network has a single class
sn_has_siro	sn	Check if the network includes a node with SIRO scheduling
sn_has_sjf	sn	Check if the network includes a node with SJF scheduling
sn_has_srpt	sn	Check if the network includes a node with SRPT scheduling
sn_is_closed_model	sn	Identifies closed queueing network models with finite job populations and no external
sn_is_mixed_model	sn	Checks if the network is a mixed model
sn_is_open_model	sn	Identifies open queueing network models with external arrivals and infinite
sn_is_population_model	sn	Checks if the model is a population model (only specific scheduling strategies without priorities or fork-join)
sn_is_state_valid	sn	Stochastic Network State Validation Utility
sn_print	sn	Prints comprehensive information about a NetworkStruct
sn_print_routing_matrix	sn	Prints the routing matrix of the network, optionally for a specific job class
sn_refresh_visits	sn	Stochastic Network Visit Ratio Calculator
sn_rtnodes_to_rtorig	sn	Converts routing matrices from nodes to original format, specifically handling class switching nodes
trace_mean	trace	Computes the arithmetic mean of empirical trace data. Fundamental statistical
trace_skew	trace	Computes the skewness of the trace data using Apache Commons Math
trace_var	trace	Computes sample variance and related statistics for empirical trace data
wf_analyzer	wf	Provides comprehensive workflow analysis capabilities including pattern
wf_auto_integration	wf	Provides automatic integration capabilities for workflow analysis with
wf_branch_detector	wf	Implements algorithms for detecting branching patterns in workflow traces
wf_loop_detector	wf	Implements algorithms for detecting loop and iterative patterns in workflow
wf_parallel_detector	wf	Implements algorithms for detecting parallel execution patterns in workflow
wf_pattern_updater	wf	Implements dynamic pattern updating algorithms for workflow analysis
wf_sequence_detector	wf	Implements algorithms for detecting sequential patterns in workflow traces

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