USING DISTRIBUTED-EVENT PARALLEL SIMULATION TO STUDY DEPARTURES FROM MANY QUEUES IN SERIES

by

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Abstract

Exciting new opportunities for efficient simulation of complex stochastic systems are emerging with the development of parallel computers with many processors. In this paper we describe an application of a new distributed-event approach for speeding up a single long simulation run to study the transient behavior of a large non-Markovian network of queues. In particular, we implemented the parallel-prefix-based algorithm of Greenberg, Lubachevsky and Mitrani (1991) on the 8192-processor CM-2 Connection machine to simulate the departure times D(k, n) of the kth customer from the nth queue in a long series of single-server queues. Each queue has unlimited waiting space and the first-in first-out discipline; the service times of all the customers at all the queues are i.i.d. with a general distribution; the system starts out with kcustomers in the first queue and all other queues empty. Glynn and Whitt (1991) established limit theorems for this model, but unfortunately very little could be said about the limits themselves. The simulation results here describe the limits and the quality of the approximations. For this model, speeding up a single long run is far superior to independent replications, because very long runs are required to obtain unbiased estimates of the desired quantities and the variance of the estimator at the end of the run is small. The achieved simulation rate was about thirty billion service completions per hour, which is a speedup by about a factor of 100 compared to simulation on a conventional single-processor machine.

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1. Introduction

The motivation behind this paper is our desire to better understand the performance of complex stochastic systems such as the AT&T long distance network. This goal leads to the following three questions:

- 1. What models are appropriate?
- 2. What do we want to learn from these models?
- 3. How can we effectively exploit simulation for this purpose?

As always, the appropriate model depends on the features of the system we want to better understand. One important feature is the "network effect." To capture the network effect, we are led to consider multidimensional models, but to be able to say anything about these multidimensional models, we must make them otherwise relatively simple; e.g., they might be symmetric. Classic examples of models of this sort are the loss networks in Kelly (1991) and Mitra, Gibbens and Huang (1991a,b).

One class of interesting questions about these models concerns the transient behavior: How does the multidimensional structure influence the approach to equilibrium? A classic study of the transient behavior of a multidimensional stochastic system is the study of card shuffling in Aldous and Diaconis (1987).

In this paper, following Glynn and Whitt (1991), we focus on the transient behavior of a multidimensional non-Markovian model. In particular, we consider a series of n single-server queues, each with unlimited waiting space and the first-in first-out (FIFO) service discipline. The service times of all the customers at all the queues are i.i.d. but with a general distribution. At time 0 the system is empty and k customers are placed in the first queue. We wish to describe the time D(k,n) required for all k customers to complete service from all n queues. In the scheduling literature, this time is often called the makespan.

This series network problem is of interest in its own right, but we believe it is also of interest as an illustration of the kind of multidimensional models we want to consider and the kinds of questions we want to ask. Hence, when we consider how to effectively apply simulation to analyze this particular problem, we believe that this has important implications for the way we can effectively exploit simulation more generally.

As we detail in Section 3, Glynn and Whitt (1991) proved limit theorems describing the asymptotic behavior of D(k,n) as $k \to \infty$ and/or $n \to \infty$. Appropriate normalizations were found under which limits exist, but unfortunately very little could be said about the limits themselves. One purpose here is to apply simulation to describe the limits. Our first answer to the third question above is that simulation can be effectively exploited when used together with mathematical analysis. Together the two methods of analysis yield more than either alone.

Another purpose here is to present a case for distributed-event parallel simulation. We contend that models like our series queueing network are natural candidates for applying parallel simulation. Moreover, as we detail in Section 2, we contend that the distributed-event approach is especially effective for these models. We support this claim by our implementation of the distributed-event parallel-prefix-based algorithm of Greenberg, Lubachevsky and Mitrani (1991) on the 8192-processor CM-2 Connection machine to simulate departures from this series network. The achieved simulation rate was about thirty billion service completions per hour, providing speedup by about a factor of 100 compared to simulation on a conventional single-processor machine.

Here is how the rest of the paper is organized. In Section 2 we provide background on parallel simulation and in Section 3 we provide background on the limit theorems for the series network. In Section 4 we present our simulation results and in Section 5 we describe our simulation methodology in more detail.

2. Background on Parallel Simulation

The approaches for using parallel processing to speed up simulations can be divided into two classes – those that use parallelism for speeding up a single run and those that do not. The methods that use parallelism to speed up a single run can be further classified as following either the distributed-subsystem approach or the distributed-event approach. We discuss each of these in turn.

In evaluating the different approaches, we have in mind very large numbers of processors, including the thousands that are available today and even more that will be available in the future. In particular, the simulations reported here were performed on the 8192-processor CM-2 Connection machine.

2.1 Methods That Do Not Use Parallelism on a Single Run

Parallelism sometimes can be effectively exploited by simply performing separate runs on each processor. The different runs may represent different scenarios or independent replications. With different scenarios, we typically use a common random number stream to facilitate comparisons. With independent replications, we typically use independent random number streams and average the results from all the runs to reduce variance. Independent replications also helps determine the statistical quality of the results.

The great appeal of these approaches is their simplicity, but they do have drawbacks. First, it may be difficult to simultaneously execute a separate run on each processor. For example, the memory associated with each processor may not be sufficient for a complex system. Moreover, there may be inefficiencies because some scenarios may require much longer runs than others.

Second, the "batch processing" nature of multiple scenarios thwarts rapid use of parallel processing for interactive simulation studies. In practice, one simulation suggests another. Determining which scenarios to simulate, and even how long to run the simulation of each

scenario, requires experimentation.

Independent replications avoids some of the difficulties associated with multiple scenarios and indeed it seems to have great promise; see Heidelberger (1986a,b), Glynn and Heidelberger (1990a,b) and Heidelberger and Stone (1990). Many stochastic systems require large experiments in order to obtain reliable estimates; e.g., this is true of even a single queue with high traffic intensity; see Whitt (1989). Moreover, in many cases independent replications are as effective as one long run. However, there typically are difficulties with very large numbers of independent replications may have difficulty exploiting the full power of very large numbers of processors.

Moreover, we contend that multidimensional complex stochastic systems often exhibit two structural properties that make independent replications even less helpful:

First Structural Property. To obtain a useful result from a single replication, the run often must be very long. Independent replications, by itself, thus offers no way to reduce the time required for a given replication.

Second Structural Property. The variance of the desired result obtained from each independent replication often is not large. The variance may be such that ten replications may be needed to obtain reliable results, but not thousands.

These two structural properties do not hold for the single-queue models discussed in Whitt (1989, 1991), but we contend that these properties often appear with more complex multidimensional stochastic models. Indeed, this is dramatically illustrated by the series queueing network model considered here.

2.2 The Distributed-Subsystem Approach

Most parallel simulation methods that have been proposed take the following distributedsubsystem approach; see Fujimoto (1991) for a survey. The system to be simulated is partitioned into subsystems and a different processor is assigned to each subsystem. Applied to the simulation problem here, a different processor would be assigned to each queue or group of queues. A processor generates the sample path of its subsystem, taking care to coordinate with other processors on events that couple their sample paths. Unfortunately, the degree of parallelism is limited to the number of subsystems, e.g., the number of queues. On parallel computers having thousands of processors, it may be difficult or impossible to fashion an efficient simulation by partitioning into thousands of subsystems.

2.3 The Distributed-Event Approach

If *E* events with comparable running times are to be simulated on *P* processors, then the ideal running time would be O(E/P), as if the *E* events were distributed evenly among the *P* processors (without significant overhead). The distributed-event approach tries to attain this goal by exploiting parallel methods and by exploiting special properties of the system being simulated. Indeed, for the simulation problem here, we do use completely different methods, presented in Greenberg, Lubachevsky and Mitrani (1991), which exploit special properties of the recurrences describing job arrivals and departures in a series of queues.

Our problem here is to simulate the passage of the first *K* jobs through a series of *N* queues, yielding O(KN) events. Our algorithm in Section 5 takes $O(N((K/P + \log P)))$ time using *P* processors. By duality, see Section 2 of Glynn and Whitt (1991), *K* and *N* are interchangeable, so that we may take *K* to be the larger than *N*. For large *K*, the time becomes O(NK/P), which is optimal. The method is simple and well suited for implementation on today's massively parallel SIMD (single-instruction, multiple-data; i.e., each processor executes the same instruction at each cycle but applies the instruction to different data) computers. We implemented the algorithm on an 8192 processor CM-2 Connection machine.

3. Background on the Series Queueing Network Model

The model we consider is a series of *n* single-server queues, each with unlimited waiting space and the FIFO discipline. The service times of all the customers at all the queues are i.i.d. with a general distribution having mean 1 and finite positive variance σ^2 . At time 0 the system is

empty and k customers are placed in the first queue. We wish to describe the distribution of the time D(k, n) required for all k customers to complete service from all n queues.

In Glynn and Whitt (1991a), hereafter referred to as GW, limit theorems were proved which describe the asymptotic behavior of D(k, n) as $k \to \infty$ and/or $n \to \infty$. We complement GW by applying simulation to describe the limits. The simulation results suggest several interesting conjectures.

In §2 of GW it is noted that there is a duality implying that D(k, n) is distributed the same as D(n, k) for each k and n. Hence, limits as $n \to \infty$ have counterparts as $k \to \infty$. As a consequence, a heavy-traffic limit theorem by Iglehart and Whitt (1970) for the case $k \to \infty$ with fixed n implies that

$$n^{-\frac{1}{2}}[D(k,n) - n] \Rightarrow \sigma \hat{D}_k(1) \quad \text{as } n \to \infty \quad \text{for each } k , \qquad (3.1)$$

where \Rightarrow denotes convergence in distribution and $\hat{D}_k(1)$ is a functional of a standard *k*dimensional Brownian motion (BM) $\hat{B} \equiv (\hat{B}_1, \dots, \hat{B}_k)$, which has independent one-dimensional standard (zero drift, unit variance) BMs $B_i \equiv \{B_i(t) : t \ge 0\}$ as components; i.e., $\hat{D}_1(t) = \hat{B}_1(t)$ and

$$\hat{D}_{k}(t) = \sup_{0 \le s \le t} \left\{ D_{k-1}(s) + B_{k}(t) - B_{k}(s) \right\}, \ t \ge 0.$$
(3.2)

We may also choose to focus on the interdeparture times, defined by

$$\Delta(k, n) = D(k+1, n) - D(k, n) , k \ge 1 .$$
(3.3)

The corresponding limit is

$$n^{-\frac{1}{2}}\Delta(k,n) \Rightarrow \sigma \hat{\Delta}_k(1) \text{ as } n \to \infty,$$
 (3.4)

where $\hat{\Delta}_k = \hat{D}_k - \hat{D}_{k-1}$ with $D_k \equiv \{D_k(t) : t \ge 0\}$. The process $(\hat{\Delta}_1, \dots, \hat{\Delta}_k)$ is a kdimensional reflected Brownian motion (RBM) as in Harrison (1978), Harrison and Reiman (1981a,b), Reiman (1984) and Harrison and Williams (1987). The RBM is to be expected because $\Delta(k, n)$ is distributed the same as the sojourn time of customer *n* at queue *k*, S(n, k) = D(n, k) - D(n, k - 1), by virtue of the duality mentioned above.

Given the convergence in (3.1) and (3.4), our main problem is to say something about the limits $\hat{D}_k(1)$ and $\hat{\Delta}_k(1)$. It is significant that these limits do not depend on the underlying service-time distribution. Of course, the convergence in (3.1) and (3.4) depends on the first two moments of the service-time distribution, but only through elementary scaling. Hence, knowledge about $\hat{D}_k(1)$ and $\hat{\Delta}_k(1)$ has quite wide applicability.

We are interested in approximations for D(k, n) and $\Delta(k, n)$ not only when *n* is large but also when *k* is large. This suggests considering the asymptotic behavior of $\hat{\Delta}_k(1)$ and $\hat{\Delta}_k(1)$ as $k \to \infty$. Theorem 7.1 of GW implies that

$$k^{-\frac{1}{2}}\hat{D}_k(1) \Rightarrow \alpha \text{ as } k \to \infty,$$
 (3.5)

where α is deterministic. One of our primary goals is to estimate the limit α in (3.5). Hence, it is important to note that, for this purpose, our model possesses the two structural properties in §2.1. We need a long run to estimate $k^{-1/2} E \hat{D}_k(1)$ for large k. At the same time, by (3.5), the variance $\operatorname{Var}[k^{-1/2} \hat{D}_k(1)]$ is going to zero. Indeed, based on our simulations, we conjecture that $\operatorname{Var} \hat{D}_k(1) \to 0$ without normalization, so that the variance of $k^{-1/2} \hat{D}_k(1)$ is small indeed.

Based on (3.5), we also conjecture that

$$k^{\frac{1}{2}}E[\Delta_k(1)] \Rightarrow \alpha/2 \text{ as } k \to \infty$$
 (3.6)

Indeed, if $k^{\frac{1}{2}}a_k \to a$ as $k \to \infty$ for a deterministic sequence $\{a_k : k \ge 1\}$, then necessarily $k^{-\frac{1}{2}} \sum_{j=1}^k a_j \to 2a$ (e.g., see Lemma 4 of Glynn and Whitt (1992)).

The limits (3.5) and (3.6) suggest that we might profitably look at D(k, n) with the scaling $[D(k, n) - n]/\sqrt{kn}$ for $k \le n$. The advantage of this perspective is apparent from Table 3 in

Section 4. For $k \le 5000$ and $n \le 10^6$, all observed normalized averages fall in the interval [0.76, 3.00].

We have mentioned that one of our goals is to estimate the constant α appearing in (3.5) and (3.6). Our simulation evidence strongly indicates that $2 \le \alpha \le 2.63$. In fact, we conjecture that $\alpha = 2$. It should be apparent that the estimation presents a challenge for simulation because, by (3.6), $\alpha/2$ is a limit of the *k*th coordinate of *k*-dimensional RBM as $k \to \infty$.

To obtain information about $\hat{D}_k(1)$, $\hat{\Delta}_k(1)$ and α as well as D(k, n) and $\Delta(k, n)$, we simulated the series of queues for two service-time distributions having mean and variance one: exponential and Bernoulli. The Bernoulli random variables assume the values 0 and 2 each with probability 1/2. To obtain relatively reliable estimates, we performed multiple independent replications for *n* up to 10⁶ and *k* up to 5000. (In fact, we actually switched the role of *n* and *k*.)

In GW attention was not only focused on the iterative limit as first $n \to \infty$ in (3.1) and then $k \to \infty$ in (3.5), but also on the joint limit with $k \equiv k_n \to \infty$ as $n \to \infty$. Indeed, in some sense it is shown that

$$[D(k_n, n) - n] / \sqrt{nk_n} \Rightarrow \alpha \text{ as } n \to \infty$$
(3.7)

with $k_n \to \infty$ satisfying $k_n \le n^{1-\varepsilon}$. However, a very different story exists for $k_n = n$. Theorem 6.3 of GW shows that for service-time distributions having an exponential tail that

$$n^{-1}D(\lfloor xn \rfloor, n) \to \gamma(x) \text{ as } n \to \infty,$$
 (3.8)

where $\lfloor x \rfloor$ is the integer part of x. In the case of exponential service-time distributions, it follows from Srinivasan (1989) that $\gamma(x) = (1 + \sqrt{x})^2$. In GW it is conjectured that $\gamma(1)$ in (3.8) depends on the service-time distribution beyond its first two moments. This is verified by simulation here. From the simulation results, it is clear that $\gamma(1) < 4$ for the Bernoulli distribution. For estimating the limit $\gamma(x)$ in (3.8), it is also evident that we have the two structural properties in §2.1.

4. Simulation Results

4.1 The Simulation Cases

Table 1 displays estimates of the first, second and fourth moments of $\Delta(k, n)/\sqrt{n}$ for an exponential service time with mean 1 in the cases k = 1, 2, ..., 10 and $n = 10^j$ for j = 1, 2, ..., 6. Table 2 contains the associated estimates of the squared coefficient of variation (SCV, variance divided by the square of the mean) of $\Delta(k, n)/\sqrt{n}$ based on Table 1. These estimates are based on 1000 independent replications. In each replication, $D(k, 10^j)$ is obtained for each k and j, so that the results for different k and j are dependent. Obviously the dependence is greater as we change k for fixed j than when we change j for fixed k.

Tables 3 and 4 display the mean, second moment and SCV of $[D(k, n) - n]/\sqrt{kn}$ for the same cases, based on the same 1000 replications. The normalization is motivated by the limits (3.1), (3.5), (3.7) and (3.8).

To obtain estimates of $\Delta(k, n)$, D(k, n), $\hat{\Delta}_k(1)$ and $\hat{D}_k(1)$ for larger k, we performed 10 independent replications for $k = 10^3$ and $n = 10^6$. These values appear in Tables 3, 5 and 7. We also performed a few runs for k = 5000 and $n = 10^6$. In addition to the case of exponential service times, we also considered Bernoulli service times, which assume the values 0 or 2, each with probability 1/2. Results for the Bernoulli distribution appear in Tables 5-7.

4.2 Properties of $\hat{D}_k(1)$ and $\hat{\Delta}_k(1)$

By (3.2), $\hat{D}_k(1)$ is increasing in k and, by §5 of GW, $\hat{\Delta}_k(1)$ is stochastically decreasing in k. By Remark 3.3 of GW, $\hat{\Delta}_1 = \hat{B}_2 - \hat{B}_1 \stackrel{d}{=} \sqrt{2 |\hat{B}_1|}$. Hence, $\hat{\Delta}_1(1)$ has a positive normal distribution with $E[\hat{\Delta}_1(1)] = 2/\sqrt{\pi} = 1.128$, $E[\hat{\Delta}(1)^2] = 2$ and $E[\hat{\Delta}(1)^4] = 12$. We now describe additional properties deduced from the simulations.

The numerical evidence strongly supports the conclusions that $E[\hat{D}_k(1)]/\sqrt{k}$ is increasing in k to the established limit α and that, remarkably, $\operatorname{Var} \hat{D}_k(1) \to 0$ as $k \to \infty$; see Tables 3, 5 and 6. The numerical evidence also suggests that $E\hat{D}_k(1) - \alpha\sqrt{k} = o(\sqrt{k})$ as $k \to \infty$, so that

$$\hat{D}_k(1) - \alpha \sqrt{k} \Rightarrow 0 \text{ as } k \to \infty$$
 (4.1)

It is of course hard to pin down specific numbers precisely, but it appears that $\alpha = 2.0$. The numerical evidence appears stronger in the Bernoulli case in Table 6 than in the exponential case in Table 3, but both give quite strong support. In addition to the numerical evidence, we offer the following heuristic argument (developed after seeing the numerical results). For the exponential case, we know that $n^{-1}D(\lfloor xn \rfloor, n) \rightarrow (1 + \sqrt{x})^2$ w.p.1 as $n \rightarrow \infty$ for each fixed x by Theorem 6.1 of GW. We act as if this is true for x of the form x/n. Then

$$n^{-1}[D(\lfloor x \rfloor, n) - n] \approx (1 + \sqrt{x/n})^2 - 1 = 2\sqrt{x/n} + x/n$$
 for large *n*

or

$$n^{-\frac{1}{2}}[D(\lfloor x \rfloor, n) - n] \approx 2\sqrt{x} + x/\sqrt{n}$$
 for large n . (4.2)

Finally, we act as if the first term on the right of (4.2) is valid for all service-time distributions.

As rough approximations for the mean and standard deviation of $\hat{D}_k(1)$, we propose

$$E\hat{D}_k(1) \approx 2\sqrt{k} - 1.6 \frac{\log k}{\sqrt{k}}$$
 and $SD(\hat{D}_k(1)) \approx \frac{4}{3\log k}$; (4.3)

e.g., see Tables 3, 5 and 6. It is quite difficult to determine the asymptotic form of $SD(\hat{D}_k(1))$ from the simulation results; e.g., it might be of order $k^{-1/4}$ instead of $(\log k)^{-1}$ as in (4.3). For the three cases in Table 5 with $k = 10^j$ for j = 1, 2, 3, (4.3) yields estimates for $SD(\hat{D}_k(1))$ of 0.58, 0.29 and 0.19; whereas $k^{-\frac{1}{4}}$ yields 0.56, 0.32 and 0.18.

As an extension of (4.1), we conjecture that

$$\frac{\hat{D}_k(1) - 2\sqrt{k}}{SD(D_k(1))} \Longrightarrow L_1 \text{ as } k \to \infty, \qquad (4.4)$$

where L_1 has mean 0 and variance 1. From (4.3)–(4.4), we obtain the approximation.

$$\hat{D}_k(1) \approx 2\sqrt{k} - 1.6 \frac{\log k}{\sqrt{k}} \pm \frac{4}{3\log k}$$
, (4.5)

where $\pm \delta$ means that δ is the estimated standard deviation.

Note that (4.5) implies that the approximation improves, in an absolute sense as well as a relative sense, as k increases. For example, by (4.5),

$$\hat{D}_{10}(1) \approx 6.32 - 1.18 \pm 0.58 \approx 5.14 \pm 0.58$$
 (4.6)

and

$$\hat{D}_{1000}(1) \approx 63.25 - 0.35 \pm 0.19 \approx 62.90 \pm 0.19$$
 (4.7)

Turning to $\hat{\Delta}_k(1)$, we conjecture that

$$\sqrt{k} E \hat{\Delta}_k(1) \to 1 \text{ as } k \to \infty,$$
(4.8)

by virtue of (3.6). Indeed, the limit in (4.8) seems to provide a remarkably good approximation for all *k*. We conjecture that

$$\sqrt{k} E \hat{\Delta}_k(1) \ge 1$$
 for all k (4.9)

and

$$|\sqrt{k} E \hat{\Delta}_k(1) - 1| \le 0.10$$
 for all $k \ge 2$. (4.10)

We also estimate the m^{th} moment of $\hat{\Delta}_k(1)$ for m = 1, 2, 3 and 4 by estimating the m^{th} moment of $\Delta(k, n)/\sqrt{n}$ for $n = 10^6$ using the following estimator

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \left[\frac{\Delta(k,j)}{\sqrt{j}} \right]^m . \tag{4.11}$$

The smoothing in (4.11) significantly decreases the variance, but it also introduces a bias, which is itself hard to estimate. We used (4.11) in 10 replications with $n = 10^6$ and $k = 10^3$. The resulting 95% confidence intervals (based on a *t*-distribution with 9 degrees of freedom) were

$$\sqrt{k} E[\hat{\Delta}_{k}(1)] = 1.070 \pm 0.005 k E[\hat{\Delta}_{k}(1)^{2}] = 2.237 \pm 0.023$$

$$k^{2} E[\hat{\Delta}_{k}(1)^{4}] = 25.8 \pm 0.76 .$$

$$(4.12)$$

If the bias in (4.11) is not significant, then (4.12) implies that $\hat{\gamma}(1) \approx 2.14$ instead of 2.0. However, we suspect the discrepancy is due to the bias in (4.11).

We also conjecture that the SCV of $\hat{\Delta}_k(1)$ is increasing in k from the exact value of 0.57 for k = 1 to an upper limit, which we conjecture is 1. (See Table 4. The estimates in (4.12) indicate that the upper limit should be about 0.954.) Hence, we further conjecture that

$$\sqrt{k \Delta_k(1)} \Rightarrow L_2 \text{ as } k \to \infty,$$
(4.13)

where $E L_2 = \text{Var } L_2 = 1$ and $EL_2^4 \approx 25$. The limit (4.13) leads to the approximation

$$\hat{\Delta}_k(1) \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}} \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}}.$$
(4.14)

As we should expect, (4.5) and (4.14) indicate that $\hat{\Delta}_k(1)$ is much more relatively variable than $\hat{D}_k(1)$ and thus harder to predict.

If the random variables $\hat{\Delta}_k(1)$ were uncorrelated, then we would have $\operatorname{Var} \hat{D}_k(1) \approx \log k$, assuming that $\operatorname{Var} \hat{\Delta}_k(1) \approx 1/k$. However, from (4.3) we see that $\operatorname{Var} \hat{D}_k(1) \approx 1.8/(\log k)^2$. The fact that

$$\operatorname{Var} \hat{D}_{k}(1) \ll \sum_{j=1}^{k} \operatorname{Var} \hat{\Delta}_{j}(1)$$
(4.15)

indicates that there is considerable negative correlation among the variables $\hat{\Delta}_k(1)$.

4.3 The Hydrodynamic Limit

In GW it was conjectured that the limit $\gamma(x)$ in (3.8) depends on the service-time distribution beyond its first two moment. This conjecture is strongly confirmed by the simulations.

Ten independent replications of $n^{-1}D(n, n)$ for n = 1000 were simulated for the exponential and Bernoulli distributions. The ten exponential values fell in the interval [3.902, 3.999], while the ten Bernoulli values fell in the interval [3.604, 3.630]. For n = 1000, we can statistically conclude that the two distributions of $n^{-1}D(n, n)$ have different means. Moreover, the exponential variables had mean 3.951 which is within 0.049 of the known limit.

It is interesting that in the Bernoulli case we have the w.p.1 bound $D(n, n) \le 4n - 2$. This upper bound corresponds to a path from (1,1) to (n, n) in the $n \times n$ array of service times discussed in §2 of GW containing all 2's. Evidently the maximum path contains only about 81% 2's asymptotically as $n \to \infty$.

From (3.8) we know that $n^{-2} \operatorname{Var} D(n, n) \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$. Assuming that $n^{-\beta} \operatorname{Var} D(n, n)$ converges to a proper limit as $n \to \infty$, from Table 7 it appears that the exponent β , as well as the limit, depends on the distribution. For the Bernoulli case, we estimate $\beta = 1/2$; for the exponential case, we estimate that $3/4 \le \beta \le 1$.

Even though the limit $\gamma(x)$ in (3.8) evidently depends on the service-time distribution, the heuristic argument supporting (4.2) leads us to conjecture that

$$\gamma(x) = 1 + 2\sqrt{x} + o(x) \quad \text{as } x \to 0 ,$$
 (4.16)

at least for a large class of service-time distributions.

4.4 The Approximations

The simulations also reveal how well D(k, n) and $\Delta(k, n)$ are approximated by the limits in (3.1) and (3.4)–(3.8), at least in the cases considered of exponential and Bernoulli random variables. The tables indicate that the limits $E \hat{D}_k(1)$ and $E \hat{\Delta}_k(1)$ are approached monotonically as $n \to \infty$.

From Table 7, the rate of convergence of ED(n, n)/n to $\gamma(1)$ appears to be about $O(1/\sqrt{n})$. A rough approximation in the exponential case is

$$ED(n, n) \approx 4n - 1.8\sqrt{n}$$
 (4.17)

For fixed k, Tables 3 and 6 suggest that the rate of convergence of $[ED(k, n) - n]/\sqrt{n}$ to $E\hat{D}_k(1)$ also seems to be about $O(1/\sqrt{n})$. The rate of convergence seems to be faster for the Bernoulli service-time distribution.

The data in Table 3 also suggest as a rough approximation

$$\frac{ED(\lfloor xn^{\frac{1}{2}}\rfloor, n)}{\sqrt{xn^{\frac{1}{2}}n}} \approx 2 + \frac{\log x}{n^{\frac{1}{4}}}$$
(4.18)

in the exponential case for $n \ge 10^3$ and $0.1 \le x \le 4.0$.

5. The Simulation Methodology

Following Greenberg et al. (1991), our basic building block is a fast, parallel method for simulating a long run of a single FIFO queue. Specifically, use *P* processors we compute the arrival and departure times of the first *K* customers in $O((K/P) + \log P)$ time. We describe this simulation method in some detail, and then the extension to simulating queues in series. Afterwards, we tell how to deal with delay computations and space constraints.

A basic problem and its parallel solution lies behind our methods. Given K inputs x_1, \ldots, x_K and an associative operator o, the *parallel prefix problem* is to compute the K partial

products $x_1, x_1 o x_2, \ldots, x_1 o x_2 o \cdots o x_K$; see Ladner and Fischer (1980) and pp. 47, 341 of Akl (1989). The problem can be solved in $O((K/P) + \log P)$ time using *P* processors; see Kruskal, Rudolph and Snir (1985). Moreover, as shown by Leighton (1992), very efficient solutions can be tailored to a wide variety of parallel architectures, and special hardware or microcode is commonly used to effect such solutions. Parallel prefix problems arise below the operator *o* being either addition or matrix multiplication.

We now show that the standard recursions for the arrival times and departure times (e.g., (2.1) of Glynn and Whitt (1991)) can be expressed as parallel prefix problems. In particular, let A(k) and D(k) denote the arrival and departure times of the k^{th} customer. For all $k \ge 0$,

$$A(k+1) = A(k) + U(k)$$
(5.1)

and

$$D(k+1) = (A(k+1) \lor D(k)) + V(k) , \qquad (5.2)$$

where $x \lor y = \max\{x, y\}$, A(0) = D(0) = 0 and U(k) and V(k) are the kth interarrival time and kth service time, respectively. A significant part of our approach is to exploit the recurrences in (5.1) and (5.2) instead of event lists and other standard features of general purpose simulation languages. However, the recurrences by themselves do not exploit the parallelism. Indeed, the recurrences are often used without exploiting the parallelism; e.g., see Suresh and Whitt (1990).

Our approach is to first compute the arrival times $A(1), \ldots, A(K)$, and then the departure times $D(1), \ldots, D(K)$. Telescoping (5.1), i.e., writing

$$A(k+1) = U(1) + \dots + U(k) , \qquad (5.3)$$

shows that computing the first K arrival times is a parallel prefix problem, where the inputs are the random variables U(k).

To treat the departure times, we recast the departure-time recurrence (5.2) in terms of a semiring over the reals, where \vee acts as the addition operator (with identity $-\infty$) and + as the multiplication operator (with identity 0). In this setting, the distributive law becomes

$$x + (y \lor z) = (x + y) \lor (x + z)$$

and the departure-time recurrence becomes

$$\begin{bmatrix} D(k+1)\\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} V(k) & A(k+1) + V(k)\\ -\infty & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} D(k)\\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$
 (5.4)

Checking the first row,

$$D(k+1) = (V(k) + D(k)) \vee ((A(k+1) + V(k)) + 0) = (D(k) \vee A(k+1)) + V(k) .$$

The second row is an entirely formal computation, which would not be retained in implementation. Identifying the left side of (5.4) with a 2-vector $\tilde{D}(k + 1)$ and the 2 × 2 matrix on the right hand side with a matrix M(k + 1), and telescoping, we obtain

$$\tilde{D}_{k+1} = M_k \cdot M_{k-1} \cdots M_1 \cdot \tilde{D}_0 .$$
(5.5)

Thus, a mirror image of the parallel prefix problem appears: Compute the *K* matrix products M_1 , $M_2 \cdot M_1, \ldots, M_K \cdots M_1$. The matrices are of the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ -\infty & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

and the product formula is

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \\ -\infty & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 & y_2 \\ -\infty & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (x_1 + y_1) & ((x_1 + y_2) \lor x_2) \\ -\infty & 0 \end{bmatrix} .$$

Having solved this parallel prefix problem, it remains only to multiply each result $M_k \cdots M_1$ by \tilde{D}_0 , an operation of the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \\ -\infty & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (x_1 + y) \lor x_2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

which is quite simple since D(0) = 0.

Generating K independent versions of the random variables U(k) and V(k) is completely parallelizable; i.e., the cost is O(K/P) time using P processors. The parallel prefix problem that produces the K arrival times A(k) costs $O((K/P) + \log P)$ time using P processors. Computing K matrix products $M_k \cdots M_1$ has cost of the same order. The final multiplications by \tilde{D}_0 are completely parallelizable. Thus, in $O((K/P) + \log P)$ time, we can compute $A(1), \ldots, A(K)$, and $D(1), \ldots, D(k)$, as was to be shown.

A short step brings us to our algorithm for simulating the first *K* customers through a series of *N* queues. For the first queue, compute arrivals $D(0,1), \ldots, D(0,K)$ and departures $D(1,1), \ldots, D(1,K)$ as above in $O((K/P) + \log P)$ time. Taking these departures as arrivals to the second queue, compute the departures from that queue, $D(2,1), \ldots, D(2,K)$ in $O((K/P) + \log P)$ time. Taking in turn these departures as arrivals to the third queue, compute the departures as arrivals to the third queue, compute the departures as arrivals to the third queue, compute the departures from the third queue, and so forth. In this way, the total computation is completed in $O(N((K/P) + \log P))$ time using *P* processors. By overwriting the arrivals to the n^{th} queue with departures from the $(n + 1)^{\text{st}}$, the total space needed is held to O(K).

By the duality, we can freely interchange K and N. For the way we have developed the algorithm, we want to have $N \le K$. For K sufficiently large, the required time of $O((NK/P) + N \log P)$ is O(NK/P), which is optimal.

We remark that we have treated the successive queues in a serial manner above, as in Suresh and Whitt (1990), but the operation of computing departure sequences $\{D(k,n) : 1 \le k \le K\}$ for $1 \le n \le N$ is also a parallel prefix problem. We do not exploit this fact, because we have already put all the processors to work. If we exploited the full associativity, we could achieve a solution in $O((NK/P) + \log P)$ instead of $O((NK/P) + N \log P)$. Assuming that $(K/P) > \log P$, the gain is not first order.

For the investigations reported here we require delay statistics. Consider the problem of computing the delay of the k^{th} customer at the n^{th} queue, $\Delta(k,n) = D(k,n) - D(k,n-1)$; computing total delays D(k,N) - D(k,0) is similar. Having the D(k,n) and the D(k,n-1) simultaneously in memory, tallying $\Delta(k,n)$ is completely parallelizable. Computing delay moments entails powering individual delays and summing the results. The powering problem is completely parallelizable, and the summing can be done in tree-like fashion in $O((K/P) + \log P)$ time. Thus, delay statistics have cost of the same order as the rest of the computation. Queue-length statistics can be computed at comparable cost via merging and parallel prefix computations; see Greenberg, Lubachevsky and Mitrani (1991).

In practice, for large *K*, it may be necessary to make do with less than O(K) space. Consider the single-queue computation. Suppose that there is sufficient space to hold $A(1), \ldots, A(B)$ and $D(1), \ldots, D(B)$, for some B < K. We can compute these vectors in $O((B/P) + \log P)$ time. Next, we can overwrite these vectors with a second batch of values, $A(B + 1), \ldots, A(2B)$, and $D(B + 1), \ldots, D(2B)$, using the same algorithm, and retaining only A(B) and D(B) (playing the roles of A(0) and D(0), resp.) from the first batch. Processing in this way, the time used becomes $O(N((K/P) + (K/B) \log P))$.

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	k	$n - 10^{1}$	$n - 10^2$	$n - 10^3$	$n - 10^4$	$n = 10^5$	$n - 10^{6}$
		n = 10	n = 10	n = 10	n = 10	n = 10	<i>n</i> = 10
	1	1.113	1.144	1.137	1.123	1.131	1.190
	2	0.922	0.850	0.816	0.801	0.783	0.745
	3	0.741	0.697	0.650	0.645	0.614	0.612
m = 1	4	0.717	0.597	0.545	0.545	0.543	0.497
m = 1	5	0.689	0.499	0.492	0.458	0.473	0.524
	6	0.624	0.493	0.481	0.464	0.435	0.418
	7	0.613	0.450	0.420	0.391	0.396	0.386
	8	0.621	0.487	0.410	0.383	0.369	0.377
	9	0.589	0.427	0.379	0.369	0.342	0.357
	10	0.562	0.393	0.345	0.341	0.339	0.309
	k	$n = 10^1$	$n = 10^2$	$n = 10^3$	$n = 10^4$	$n = 10^5$	$n = 10^6$
<i>m</i> = 2	1	2.05	2.06	1.95	2.03	1.99	2.14
	2	1.44	1.22	1.12	1.04	1.00	0.93
	3	1.000	0.816	0.721	0.697	0.634	0.647
	4	0.890	0.636	0.529	0.505	0.496	0.433
	5	0.873	0.456	0.422	0.388	0.400	0.488
	6	0.693	0.453	0.417	0.408	0.339	0.315
	7	0.711	0.391	0.325	0.272	0.282	0.283
	8	0.706	0.443	0.313	0.271	0.231	0.255
	9	0.636	0.343	0.264	0.241	0.226	0.236
	10	0.596	0.283	0.222	0.209	0.206	0.185
	k	$n = 10^1$	$n = 10^2$	$n = 10^3$	$n = 10^4$	$n = 10^5$	$n = 10^6$
	1	14.9	13.0	10.4	12.7	11.0	13.2
	2	7.7	4.9	4.1	3.6	3.2	2.8
	3	4.4	2.4	2.0	1.7	1.4	1.6
	4	3.23	1.72	1.18	0.95	0.87	0.80
m = 4	5	3.07	0.83	0.65	0.66	0.62	1.01
	6	2.45	0.97	0.76	0.83	0.49	0.41
	7	2.29	0.83	0.50	0.29	0.34	0.44
	8	2.11	0.88	0.47	0.36	0.21	0.28
	9	1.73	0.56	0.29	0.23	0.29	0.30
	10	1.81	0.35	0.26	0.18	0.18	0.19

Table 1. Estimates of $E[(\Delta(k, n)/\sqrt{n})^m] = E[(S(n, k)\sqrt{n})^m]$ in the case of exponential service times with mean 1 for m = 1, 2, 4, k = 1, ..., 10 and $n = 10^j$ for j = 1, ..., 6. These estimates are based on 1000 independent replications. For the case m = 1 (m = 2), the width of 95% confidence intervals are about 6% (10-15%) of the given values, approximately uniformly over all cases.

k	$n = 10^1$	$n = 10^2$	$n = 10^3$	$n = 10^4$	$n = 10^5$	$n = 10^6$	average
1	0.65	0.57	0.52	0.61	0.56	0.51	0.57
2	0.69	0.69	0.68	0.62	0.63	0.68	0.67
3	0.82	0.68	0.71	0.68	0.68	0.72	0.72
4	0.73	0.78	0.78	0.70	0.68	0.75	0.74
5	0.84	0.83	0.74	0.85	0.79	0.78	0.81
6	0.78	0.86	0.80	0.90	0.52	0.80	0.78
7	0.89	0.93	0.84	0.78	0.80	0.90	0.86
8	0.83	0.87	0.86	0.85	0.70	0.79	0.82
9	0.83	0.88	0.84	0.77	0.93	0.85	0.85
10	0.88	0.83	0.87	0.80	0.79	0.94	0.85
avg.	0.79	0.79	0.76	0.76	0.71	0.77	0.77

Table 2. Estimates of $c^2(\Delta(k, n)/\sqrt{n}) \equiv \operatorname{Var}(\Delta(k, n)/(E[\Delta(k, n)])^2)$ using the estimates from Table 1. (The exact limiting value as $n \to \infty$ for k = 1 is 0.571.)

k	$n = 10^1$	$n = 10^2$	$n = 10^3$	$n = 10^4$	$n = 10^5$	$n = 10^{6}$
2	0.76	0.78	0.76	0.76	0.80	0.84
3	1.15	1.13	1.09	1.08	1.10	1.12
4	1.37	1.32	1.27	1.26	1.26	1.27
5	1.55	1.46	1.38	1.38	1.38	1.36
6	1.69	1.53	1.46	1.44	1.44	1.46
7	1.80	1.60	1.54	1.51	1.50	1.51
8	1.90	1.66	1.58	1.55	1.54	1.54
9	1.98	1.70	1.63	1.59	1.58	1.58
10	2.07	1.77	1.66	1.61	1.59	1.60
11	2.15	1.81	1.68	1.64	1.62	1.62
20		2.04	1.74	1.81	1.74	1.80
50		2.43	2.01	1.93	1.87	1.82
100		2.81	2.20	2.02	1.98	1.94
200			2.37	2.06	1.99	1.97
500			2.65	2.19	2.04	1.98
1000			2.95	2.30	2.07	2.01
2000				2.45	2.13	2.04
4000				2.63	2.21	2.07
5000				2.72	2.23	2.07
10 ⁶						3.00*

Table 3. Estimates of $E[D(k, n) - n]/\sqrt{kn}$ in the case of exponential service times with mean 1. For $k \le 11$, the estimates are based on 1000 independent replications. The 95% confidence intervals are about 1% of the given values, as can be seen from Table 4. For $20 \le k \le 1000$, the estimates are based on 10 independent replications. For $2000 \le k \le 5000$, the estimates are from a single run. (The exact limiting value as $n \to \infty$ for k = 2 is 0.798. The asterisked value for $k = 10^6$ is the exact limiting value as $n \to \infty$ for k = n.)

k	$n = 10^3$	$n = 10^4$	$n = 10^5$	$n = 10^6$
50	1.85	1.88	1.87	1.87
100	2.03	1.93	1.90	1.93
200	2.11	1.96	1.99	1.96
500	2.35	2.04	2.00	2.00
1000	2.62	2.06	2.01	1.99
2000		2.15	2.02	2.00
4000		2.30	2.04	2.00
5000		2.37	2.04	2.01
10 ⁶				2.63*

Table 6. Estimates of $E[D(k, n) - n]/\sqrt{kn}$ in the case of Bernoulli – $\{0, 2\}$ service times. The estimates are based on ten independent replications for $k \le 1000$ and a single run for k > 1000. The asterisked value for $k = 10^6$ is estimated from the case k = n = 5000.

	k	$n = 10^1$	$n = 10^2$	$n = 10^3$	$n = 10^4$	$n = 10^5$	$n = 10^6$
	2	1.15	1.05	0.96	0.96	1.00	1.03
	3	1.74	1.55	1.41	1.40	1.42	1.45
	4	2.20	1.95	1.77	1.74	1.75	1.76
	5	2.66	2.26	2.02	2.00	2.00	1.99
second	6	3.08	2.47	2.22	2.17	2.18	2.22
moment	7	3.44	2.69	2.43	2.34	2.33	2.34
	8	3.79	2.85	2.56	2.46	2.44	2.45
	9	4.17	3.07	2.70	2.58	2.54	2.56
	10	4.50	3.22	2.82	2.68	2.62	2.66
	11	4.81	3.34	2.90	2.76	2.70	2.71
			1	1			
	k	$n = 10^1$	$n = 10^2$	$n = 10^3$	$n = 10^4$	$n = 10^5$	$n = 10^6$
	<u>k</u> 2	$n = 10^1$ 0.76	$n = 10^2$ 0.66	$n = 10^3$ 0.62	$n = 10^4$ 0.62	$n = 10^5$ 0.60	$n = 10^{6}$ 0.57
	$\frac{k}{2}$	$n = 10^1$ 0.76 0.65	$n = 10^2$ 0.66 0.52	$n = 10^3$ 0.62 0.47	$n = 10^4$ 0.62 0.48	$n = 10^5$ 0.60 0.46	$n = 10^{6}$ 0.57 0.44
	$\begin{array}{c} k \\ \hline 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{array}$	$n = 10^{1}$ 0.76 0.65 0.57	$n = 10^2$ 0.66 0.52 0.46	$n = 10^3$ 0.62 0.47 0.40	$n = 10^4$ 0.62 0.48 0.39	$n = 10^5$ 0.60 0.46 0.40	$n = 10^{6}$ 0.57 0.44 0.38
	$\begin{array}{c} k \\ \hline 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 5 \end{array}$	$n = 10^{1}$ 0.76 0.65 0.57 0.50	$n = 10^2$ 0.66 0.52 0.46 0.36	$n = 10^{3}$ 0.62 0.47 0.40 0.34	$n = 10^4$ 0.62 0.48 0.39 0.31	$n = 10^{5}$ 0.60 0.46 0.40 0.31	$n = 10^{6}$ 0.57 0.44 0.38 0.38
standard		$n = 10^{1}$ 0.76 0.65 0.57 0.50 0.47	$n = 10^{2}$ 0.66 0.52 0.46 0.36 0.36	$n = 10^{3}$ 0.62 0.47 0.40 0.34 0.30	$n = 10^{4}$ 0.62 0.48 0.39 0.31 0.31	$n = 10^{5}$ 0.60 0.46 0.40 0.31 0.33	$n = 10^{6}$ 0.57 0.44 0.38 0.38 0.30
standard deviation	$\begin{array}{c} k\\ 2\\ 3\\ 4\\ 5\\ 6\\ 7 \end{array}$	$n = 10^{1}$ 0.76 0.65 0.57 0.50 0.47 0.45	$n = 10^{2}$ 0.66 0.52 0.46 0.36 0.36 0.36	$n = 10^{3}$ 0.62 0.47 0.40 0.34 0.30 0.24	$n = 10^{4}$ 0.62 0.48 0.39 0.31 0.31 0.24	$n = 10^{5}$ 0.60 0.46 0.40 0.31 0.33 0.28	$n = 10^{6}$ 0.57 0.44 0.38 0.38 0.30 0.24
standard deviation	$ \begin{array}{c} k\\ 2\\ 3\\ 4\\ 5\\ 6\\ 7\\ 8 \end{array} $	$n = 10^{1}$ 0.76 0.65 0.57 0.50 0.47 0.45 0.42	$n = 10^{2}$ 0.66 0.52 0.46 0.36 0.36 0.36 0.31	$n = 10^{3}$ 0.62 0.47 0.40 0.34 0.30 0.24 0.25	$n = 10^{4}$ 0.62 0.48 0.39 0.31 0.31 0.24 0.24	$n = 10^{5}$ 0.60 0.46 0.40 0.31 0.33 0.28 0.26	$n = 10^{6}$ 0.57 0.44 0.38 0.38 0.30 0.24 0.28
standard deviation	$ \begin{array}{c} k\\ 2\\ 3\\ 4\\ 5\\ 6\\ 7\\ 8\\ 9 \end{array} $	$n = 10^{1}$ 0.76 0.65 0.57 0.50 0.47 0.45 0.42 0.50	$n = 10^{2}$ 0.66 0.52 0.46 0.36 0.36 0.36 0.31 0.42	$n = 10^{3}$ 0.62 0.47 0.40 0.34 0.30 0.24 0.25 0.21	$n = 10^{4}$ 0.62 0.48 0.39 0.31 0.31 0.24 0.24 0.23	$n = 10^{5}$ 0.60 0.46 0.40 0.31 0.33 0.28 0.26 0.21	$n = 10^{6}$ 0.57 0.44 0.38 0.38 0.30 0.24 0.28 0.25
standard deviation	$ \frac{k}{2} 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 $	$n = 10^{1}$ 0.76 0.65 0.57 0.50 0.47 0.45 0.42 0.50 0.46	$n = 10^{2}$ 0.66 0.52 0.46 0.36 0.36 0.36 0.31 0.42 0.30	$n = 10^{3}$ 0.62 0.47 0.40 0.34 0.30 0.24 0.25 0.21 0.25	$n = 10^{4}$ 0.62 0.48 0.39 0.31 0.31 0.24 0.24 0.23 0.30	$n = 10^{5}$ 0.60 0.46 0.40 0.31 0.33 0.28 0.26 0.21 0.30	$n = 10^{6}$ 0.57 0.44 0.38 0.38 0.30 0.24 0.28 0.25 0.32
standard deviation		$n = 10^{1}$ 0.76 0.65 0.57 0.50 0.47 0.45 0.42 0.50 0.46 0.43	$n = 10^{2}$ 0.66 0.52 0.46 0.36 0.36 0.36 0.31 0.42 0.30 0.25	$n = 10^{3}$ 0.62 0.47 0.40 0.34 0.30 0.24 0.25 0.21 0.25 0.28	$n = 10^{4}$ 0.62 0.48 0.39 0.31 0.31 0.24 0.24 0.23 0.30 0.27	$n = 10^{5}$ 0.60 0.46 0.40 0.31 0.33 0.28 0.26 0.21 0.30 0.27	$n = 10^{6}$ 0.57 0.44 0.38 0.38 0.30 0.24 0.28 0.25 0.32 0.29

Table 4. Estimates of the second moment and standard deviation of $[D(k, n) - n]/\sqrt{kn}$ in the case of exponential service times with mean 1 based on 1000 independent observations.

	quantity estimated	exponential	Bernoulli
k = 10	mean	5.112	5.065
	std. dev.	0.648	0.627
	mean/ \sqrt{k} 95% conf. int.	1.617 ±0.0013	1.602 ±0.0012
k = 100	mean	19.40	19.25
	std. dev.	0.29	0.28
k = 100	mean/ \sqrt{k}	1.940	1.925
	95% conf. int.	±0.0066	±0.0063
1 1000	mean	63.763	62.821
	std. dev.	0.177	0.208
$\kappa = 1000$	mean/ \sqrt{k}	2.016	1.987
	95% conf. int.	±0.0013	±0.0015

Table 5. Estimates of the mean and standard deviation of $[D(k, n) - n]/\sqrt{n}$ for $n = 10^6$ and $k = 10^j$ for j = 1, 2, 3. The cases k = 100 and 1000 are based on 10 independent replications, while the case k = 10 is based on 1000 independent replications. The 95% confidence interval for the mean/ \sqrt{k} is given in each case based on the Student *t* distribution.

	service-time distribution						
		exponentia	1	Bernoulli			
	n = 10	n = 10 $n = 100$ $n = 1000$			n = 100	n = 1000	
mean	30.8	380.8	3,951	29.9	356.8	3,619	
standard deviation	4.26	7.21	25.8	2.90	5.00	9.3	
variance	18.19	52.00	666.1	8.39	24.97	87.4	
sample size	1000	10	10	1000	10	10	
variance/n	1.82	0.52	0.67	0.84	0.25	0.087	
variance/n ^{3/4}	3.23	1.64	3.74	1.49	0.79	0.49	
variance/n ^{1/2}	5.75	5.20	21.1	2.65	2.50	2.76	

Table 7. Estimates of the mean standard deviation and variance of D(n, n) for $n = 10^{j}$ for j = 1, 2, 3 for the cases of exponential and Bernoulli service times.

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In the new latgreen (verylatgreen?) there are some pictures included using

To get this to work for you you should strip the /usr/albert/Ward/DATA part, and in the troff command include -mpictures after your -mm.

If that doesn't make sense, its fine to just comment out these pictures by bracketing them with

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USING DISTRIBUTED-EVENT PARALLEL SIMULATION TO STUDY DEPARTURES FROM MANY QUEUES IN SERIES

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February 5, 1992

Abstract

Exciting new opportunities for efficient simulation of complex stochastic systems are emerging with the development of parallel computers with many processors. In this paper we describe an application of a new distributed-event approach for speeding up a single long simulation run to study the transient behavior of a large non-Markovian network of queues. In particular, we implemented the parallel-prefix-based algorithm of Greenberg, Lubachevsky and Mitrani (1990, 1991) on the 8,192-processor CM-2 Connection machine and the 16,384-processor MasPar computer to simulate the departure times D(k, n) of the k^{th} customer from the n^{th} queue in a long series of single-server queues. Each queue has unlimited waiting space and the first-in first-out discipline; the service times of all the customers at all the queues are i.i.d. with a general distribution; the system starts out with k customers in the first queue and all other queues empty. Glynn and Whitt (1991) established limit theorems for this model, but very little could be said about the limits themselves. The simulation results here describe the limits and the quality of the approximations resulting from using the limits for finite k and n. Indeed, the simulations suggest some very interesting conjectures. For this model, speeding up a single long run is far superior to independent replications, because very long runs are required to obtain unbiased estimates of the desired quantities and the variance of the estimator at the end of the run is small. The achieved simulation rate was about seventeen billion service completions per hour, which is a speedup by about a factor of 100 compared to simulation on a conventional single-processor machine. This speedup contributed greatly to performing the desired experiments.

AMS 1980 subject classifications. primary 60K25, 60F17; secondary 90B22, 60J60.

Keywords and phrases. simulation, parallel simulation, parallel processing, queues, queueing networks, tandem queues, departure process, transient behavior, reflected Brownian motion, limit theorems, hydrodynamic limit.

6. Introduction

The motivation behind this paper is our desire to better understand the performance of complex stochastic systems such as the AT&T long distance network. This goal leads to the following three questions:

- 1. What models are appropriate?
- 2. What do we want to learn from these models?
- 3. How can we effectively exploit simulation for this purpose?

As always, the appropriate model depends on the features of the system we want to better understand. One important feature is the "network effect." To capture the network effect, we are led to consider multidimensional models, but to be able to say anything interesting about these multidimensional models, we must make them otherwise relatively simple; e.g., they might be symmetric. Classic examples of models of this sort are the loss networks in Kelly (1991) and Mitra, Gibbens and Huang (1991a,b).

One class of interesting questions about these models concerns the transient behavior. For example, how does the multidimensional structure influence the approach to equilibrium? A classic study of the transient behavior of a multidimensional stochastic system is the study of card shuffling in Aldous and Diaconis (1987).

In this paper, following Glynn and Whitt (1991), we focus on the transient behavior of a multidimensional non-Markovian model, for which there is no nondegenerate equilibrium. In particular, we consider a series of n single-server queues, each with unlimited waiting space and the first-in first-out (FIFO) service discipline. The service times of all the customers at all the queues are i.i.d. but with a general distribution. At time 0 the system is empty and k customers

are placed in the first queue. We wish to describe the time D(k,n) required for all k customers to complete service from all n queues. (In the long run, all queues are empty.) In the scheduling literature, the time D(k,n) is often called the makespan.

This series network problem is of interest in its own right, but we believe it is also of interest as an illustration of the kind of multidimensional models we want to consider and the kinds of questions we want to ask. Hence, when we consider how to effectively apply simulation to analyze this particular problem, we believe that this has important implications for the way we can effectively exploit simulation more generally.

As we detail in Section 3, Glynn and Whitt (1991) proved limit theorems describing the asymptotic behavior of D(k,n) as $k \to \infty$ and/or $n \to \infty$. Appropriate normalizations were found under which limits exist, but unfortunately very little could be said about the limits themselves. One purpose here is to apply simulation to describe the limits. (This paper is a revision of our 1990 paper cited in Glynn and Whitt (1991).) Our first answer to the third question above is that simulation can be effectively exploited when used together with mathematical analysis. Together the two methods of analysis yield more than either alone.

The limit theorems assist further analysis by indicating appropriate ways to scale the variables D(k,n) as functions of k and n. This is important for both having an effective algorithm (see Section 5) and interpreting the simulation results (see Section 4). Moreover, since some of the limits involve invariance principles (see Section 3), we see that simulation of the model for *one* service-time distribution yields useful results for *all* service-time distributions.

Another purpose of this paper is to present a case for distributed-event parallel simulation (described below). We contend that models like our series queueing network are natural candidates for applying parallel simulation. Moreover, as we detail in Section 2, we contend that the distributed-event approach is especially effective for these models. We support this claim by

our implementation of the distributed-event parallel-prefix-based algorithm of Greenberg et al. (1990,1991) on the 8,192-processor CM-2 Connection machine and the 16,384-processor MasPar computer. (We performed our first experiments on the Connection machine in 1990; we started using the MasPar in 1991.) The achieved simulation rate was about seventeen billion service completions per hour, providing speedup by about a factor of 100 compared to simulation on a conventional single-processor high-speed workstation.

Here is how the rest of the paper is organized. In Section 2 we provide background on parallel simulation and in Section 3 we provide background on the limit theorems for the series network. In Section 4 we present our simulation results and in Section 5 we describe our simulation methodology in more detail. We conclude in Section 6 with a theorem that provides additional support for one of the principal conjectures.

7. Background on Parallel Simulation

The approaches for using parallel processing to speed up simulations can be divided into two classes – those that use parallelism for speeding up a single run and those that do not. The methods that use parallelism to speed up a single run can be further classified as following either a distributed-subsystem approach or a distributed-event approach. We discuss each of these in turn.

In evaluating the different approaches, we have in mind very large numbers of processors, including the thousands that are available today and even more that will be available in the future. In particular, the simulations reported here were performed on the 8,192-processor CM-2 Connection machine built by Thinking Machines (1990) and the 16,384-processor MasPar computer; see Blank (1990). Both are SIMD (single-instruction multiple-data) machines; i.e., each processor executes the same instruction at each cycle but applies the instruction to different

7.1 Methods That Do Not Use Parallelism on a Single Run

Parallelism sometimes can be effectively exploited by simply performing separate runs on each processor. The different runs may represent different scenarios or independent replications. With different scenarios, we typically use a common random number stream to facilitate comparisons. With independent replications, we typically use independent random number streams and average the results from all the runs to reduce variance. Independent replications also helps determine the statistical quality of the results.

The great appeal of these approaches is their simplicity, but they do have drawbacks. First, it may be difficult to simultaneously execute a separate run on each processor. For example, the memory associated with each processor may not be sufficient for a complex system. Moreover, there may be inefficiencies because some scenarios may require much longer runs than others.

Second, the "batch processing" nature of multiple scenarios thwarts rapid use of parallel processing for interactive simulation studies. In practice, one simulation suggests another. Determining which scenarios to simulate, and even how long to run the simulation of each scenario, requires experimentation.

Independent replications avoids some of the difficulties associated with multiple scenarios and indeed it seems to have great promise; see Heidelberger (1986a,b) and Glynn and Heidelberger (1990a,b). Many stochastic systems require large experiments in order to obtain reliable estimates; e.g., this is true of even a single queue with high traffic intensity; see Whitt (1989). Moreover, in many cases independent replications are as effective as one long run. However, there typically are difficulties with very large numbers of independent replications of very short runs; see Whitt (1991). Thus, independent replications may have difficulty exploiting the full power of very large numbers of processors.

Moreover, we contend that multidimensional complex stochastic systems often exhibit two

structural properties that make independent replications even less helpful:

First Structural Property. To obtain a useful result from a single replication, the run often must be very long. Independent replications, by itself, thus offers no way to reduce the time required for a given replication.

Second Structural Property. The variance of the desired result obtained from each independent replication often is not large. The variance may be such that ten replications may be needed to obtain reliable results, but not thousands.

These two structural properties do not hold for the single-queue models discussed in Whitt (1989, 1991), but we contend that these properties often appear with more complex multidimensional stochastic models. Indeed, this is dramatically illustrated by the series queueing network model considered here.

7.2 Methods that Do Use Parallelism on a Single Run

The Distributed-Subsystem Approach

Most simulation methods that have been proposed to use parallelism to speed up a single run take the following *distributed-subsystem* approach; see Fujimoto (1991) for a survey. The system to be simulated is partitioned into subsystems and a different processor is assigned to each subsystem. Applied to the simulation problem here, a different processor would be assigned to each queue or group of queues. A processor generates the sample path of its subsystem, taking care to coordinate with other processors on events that couple their sample paths. Unfortunately, the degree of parallelism is limited to the number of subsystems, e.g., the number of queues. On parallel computers having thousands of processors, it may be difficult or impossible to fashion an efficient simulation by partitioning into thousands of subsystems.

The Distributed-Event Approach

If *E* events with comparable running times are to be simulated on *P* processors, then the ideal running time would be O(E/P), as if the *E* events were distributed evenly among the *P* processors (without significant overhead). The *distributed-event* approach tries to attain this goal

by exploiting parallel methods and by exploiting special properties of the system being simulated. Indeed, for the simulation problem here, we do use methods that are completely different from their serial counterparts, which exploit special properties of the recurrences describing job arrivals and departures in a series of queues. This approach is quite new. Thus far, distributed-event methods have appeared for simulations of networks of queues and related systems in Greenberg et al. (1990,1991) and Baccelli and Canales (1991), trace-driven cache simulations in Heidelberger and Stone (1990) and Nicol et al. (1991), and simulations of multiserver queues without waiting rooms in Feder et al. (1992).

Indeed, the present study seems to be the first implementation of the distributed-event approach to simulate a stochastic system on a massively parallel computer. As indicated above, we used both the 8,192-processor CM-2 Connection machine and the 16,384-processor MasPar computer. The examples in Greenberg et al. (1990,1991) were preformed on the 16-processor Sequent machine. Reports of subsequent implementations on the MasPar computer appear in Nicol et al. (1991) and Feder et al. (1992).

Our problem here is to simulate the passage of the first *K* jobs through a series of *N* queues, yielding O(KN) events. Our algorithm in Section 5 takes $O(N((K/P + \log P)))$ time using *P* processors. By duality, see Section 2 of Glynn and Whitt (1991), *K* and *N* are interchangeable, so that we may take *K* to be larger than *N*. For large *K*, the time becomes O(NK/P), which is optimal. The method is simple and well suited for implementation on today's massively parallel SIMD computers.

8. Background on the Series Queueing Network Model

The model we consider is a series of *n* single-server queues, each with unlimited waiting space and the FIFO discipline. The service times of all the customers at all the queues are i.i.d. with a general distribution having mean 1 and finite positive variance σ^2 . At time 0 the system is

empty and k customers are placed in the first queue. We wish to describe the distribution of the time D(k, n) required for all k customers to complete service from all n queues.

As noted in Section 2 of Glynn and Whitt (1991), hereafter referred to as GW, this problem also has an abstract formulation. Let V(i,j) be i.i.d. random variables (the service times) for $1 \le i \le k$ and $1 \le j \le n$. Let $\Pi(k,n)$ be the set of all rectilinear nondecreasing paths (of length k + n - 1) from (1,1) to (k,n) in the set of ordered pairs (i,j) with $1 \le i \le k$ and $1 \le j \le n$. Then D(k,n) is distributed as the maximum over all paths in $\Pi(k,n)$ of the sum of the k + n - 1service times on the path.

In GW, limit theorems were proved which describe the asymptotic behavior of D(k, n) as $k \to \infty$ and/or $n \to \infty$. In §2 of GW it is noted that there is a duality implying that D(k, n) is distributed the same as D(n, k) for each k and n. Hence, limits as $n \to \infty$ have counterparts as $k \to \infty$. As a consequence, a heavy-traffic limit theorem by Iglehart and Whitt (1970) for the case $k \to \infty$ with fixed n implies that

$$[D(k, n) - n] / \sqrt{n} \Rightarrow \sigma \hat{D}_k(1) \quad \text{as } n \to \infty \quad \text{for each } k , \qquad (3.1)$$

where \Rightarrow denotes convergence in distribution and $\hat{D}_k(1)$ is a functional of a standard *k*dimensional Brownian motion (BM) $\hat{B} \equiv (\hat{B}_1, \ldots, \hat{B}_k)$, which has independent one-dimensional standard (zero drift, unit variance) BMs $B_i \equiv \{B_i(t) : t \ge 0\}$ as components; i.e., $\hat{D}_1(t) = \hat{B}_1(t)$ and

$$\hat{D}_{k}(t) = \sup_{0 \le s \le t} \left\{ D_{k-1}(s) + B_{k}(t) - B_{k}(s) \right\}, \ t \ge 0.$$
(3.2)

We may also choose to focus on the interdeparture times, defined by

$$\Delta(k, n) = D(k+1, n) - D(k, n) , k \ge 1 .$$
(3.3)

The corresponding limit is

$$\Delta(k, n) / \sqrt{n} \Rightarrow \sigma \hat{\Delta}_k(1) \text{ as } n \to \infty , \qquad (3.4)$$

where $\hat{\Delta}_k = \hat{D}_k - \hat{D}_{k-1}$ with $D_k \equiv \{D_k(t) : t \ge 0\}$. The process $(\hat{\Delta}_1, \dots, \hat{\Delta}_k)$ is a *k*dimensional reflected Brownian motion (RBM) as in Harrison (1978), Harrison and Reiman (1981a,b), Reiman (1984) and Harrison and Williams (1987), but note that this RBM does not have a proper limiting distribution as $t \to \infty$. The RBM is to be expected because $\Delta(k, n)$ is distributed the same as the sojourn time of customer *n* at queue *k*, S(n, k) = D(n, k) - D(n, k - 1), by virtue of the duality mentioned above.

Given the convergence in (3.1) and (3.4), our main problem is to say something about the limits $\hat{D}_k(1)$ and $\hat{\Delta}_k(1)$. It is significant that these limits are invariance principles; i.e., they do not depend on the underlying service-time distribution beyond its first two moments. Of course, the convergence in (3.1) and (3.4) depends on the first two moments of the service-time distribution, but only through elementary scaling. Hence, *knowledge about* $\hat{D}_k(1)$ and $\hat{\Delta}_k(1)$ has quite wide applicability.

We are interested in approximations for D(k, n) and $\Delta(k, n)$ not only when *n* is large but also when *k* is large. This suggests considering the asymptotic behavior of $\hat{D}_k(1)$ and $\hat{\Delta}_k(1)$ as $k \to \infty$. Theorem 7.1 of GW implies that

$$\hat{D}_k(1)/\sqrt{k} \Rightarrow \alpha \text{ as } k \to \infty,$$
(3.5)

where α is deterministic, but the theorem does not determine the numerical value of α in (3.5). One of our primary goals is to estimate α . Hence, it is important to note that, for this purpose, our model possesses the two structural properties in §2.1. We need a long run to estimate $E\hat{D}_k(1)/\sqrt{k}$ for large k. (We need k and n both large to have (3.1) and (3.5). Moreover, as we discuss below, we actually need n large compared to k.) At the same time, by (3.5), the variance $\operatorname{Var}[\hat{D}_{k}(1)/\sqrt{k}]$ is going to zero. Indeed, remarkably, based on our simulations we conjecture that $\operatorname{Var}[\hat{D}_{k}(1)]$ is decreasing without normalization, so that the variance of $\hat{D}_{k}(1)/\sqrt{k}$ is small indeed.

In GW attention was not only focused on the iterated limit as first $n \to \infty$ in (3.1) and then $k \to \infty$ in (3.5), but also on the joint limit with $k \equiv k_n \to \infty$ as $n \to \infty$. Indeed, in some sense it is shown that

$$[D(k_n, n) - n] / \sqrt{\sigma^2 n k_n} \Rightarrow \alpha \text{ as } n \to \infty$$
(3.6)

with $k_n \to \infty$ satisfying $k_n \le n^{1-\varepsilon}$ for fixed ε with $0 < \varepsilon < 1$. However, a very different story applies for $k_n = n$. Theorem 6.3 of GW shows that for service-time distributions having an exponential tail that

$$D(\lfloor xn \rfloor, n)/n \to \gamma(x) \text{ as } n \to \infty,$$
 (3.7)

where $\lfloor x \rfloor$ is the integer part of x. In the case of exponential service-time distributions, it follows from Srinivasan (1992) that $\gamma(x) = (1 + \sqrt{x})^2$, so that $\gamma(1) = 4$. In GW it is conjectured that $\gamma(1)$ in (3.7) depends on the service-time distribution beyond its first two moments. For estimating the limit $\gamma(x)$ in (3.7), it is also evident that we have the two structural properties in §2.1.

9. Simulation Results

9.1 The Simulation Cases

To obtain information about $\hat{D}_k(1)$, $\hat{\Delta}_k(1)$, α and $\gamma(1)$, as well as D(k, n) and $\Delta(k, n)$, we simulated the series of queues for two service-time distributions having mean and variance one: exponential and Bernoulli. The Bernoulli random variables assume the values 0 and 2 each with probability 1/2. (By the invariance property, the limits except for $\gamma(1)$ are the same for these two

distributions.) To obtain relatively reliable estimates, we performed multiple independent replications for *n* up to 10^6 and *k* up to 5000.

Table 1 displays estimates of the first, second and fourth moments of $\Delta(k, n)/\sqrt{n}$ for an exponential service time with mean 1 in the cases k = 1, 2, ..., 10 and $n = 10^j$ for j = 1, 2, ..., 6. Table 2 contains the associated estimates of the squared coefficient of variation (SCV, variance divided by the square of the mean) of $\Delta(k, n)/\sqrt{n}$ based on Table 1. These estimates are based on 1000 independent replications. In each replication, $D(k, 10^j)$ is obtained for each k and j, so that the results for different k and j are dependent. The dependence is greater as we change k for fixed j than when we change j for fixed k.

Tables 3 and 4 display the estimated mean, second moment and standard deviation of $[D(k, n) - n]/\sqrt{kn}$ for the same exponential cases, based on the same 1000 replications. (Simulation results for other cases are also displayed in Table 3.) The normalization is motivated by the limits (3.1), (3.5), (3.6) and (3.7). (Note that the normalization in (3.6) and (3.7) are consistent since k = n in (3.7).) The advantage of this perspective is dramatically demonstrated by Table 3. For $k \leq 5000$ and $n \leq 10^6$, all observed normalized averages fall in the interval [0.76, 3.00]. This shows that much of the behavior of D(k,n) is captured by the scaling. This also helps us to focus on the remaining effects.

To obtain estimates of $\Delta(k, n)$, D(k, n), $\hat{\Delta}_k(1)$ and $\hat{D}_k(1)$ for larger k, we performed 100 replications for k = 100 and $n = 10^6$ and 20 independent replications for k = 5000 and $n = 10^6$. These values appear in Tables 3, 5, 6 and 7.

9.2 Properties of $\hat{D}_k(1)$

We first discuss the limiting Brownian motion functional $\hat{D}_k(1)$ in (3.2). This is the limit as $n \to \infty$ in (3.1). By (3.2), $\hat{D}_k(1)$ is increasing in k. We now describe additional properties deduced from the simulations.

We infer properties about $\hat{D}_k(1)$ by simulating $[D(k,n) - n]/\sqrt{n}$ for large *n*, which is justified by (3.1). (Here $\sigma = 1$.) Hence, we regard the last $n = 10^6$ column of Tables 3 and 6 as estimates of $\hat{D}_k(1)/\sqrt{k}$. By (3.5), $\hat{D}_k(1)/\sqrt{k}$ approaches α as $k \to \infty$. However, for larger values of *k*, we begin to see the effect of the different limit in (3.7). Thus in Tables 3 and 6 the values evidently go above α for each *n* when *k* gets sufficiently large.

Conjectures 4.1. We make the following conjectures about the limit variables $\hat{D}_k(1)$ in (3.1), (3.2) and (3.5):

- (i) $E[\hat{D}_k(1)]/\sqrt{k}$ is increasing in k;
- (ii) The limit in (3.5) is $\alpha = 2$;
- (iii) $\operatorname{Var}[D_k(1)]$ is decreasing in k;
- (iv) $\operatorname{Var}[D_k(1)] \to \beta \text{ as } k \to \infty, \text{ where } 0 < \sqrt{\beta} < 0.25;$
- (v) $E[\hat{D}_k(1)] \alpha \sqrt{k} \to 0 \text{ as } k \to \infty;$
- $(vi) \quad \hat{D}_k(1) \alpha \sqrt{k} \Longrightarrow L_1 \ as \ k \to \infty, \ where \ E[L_1^2] < \infty;$
- (vii) $[\hat{D}_k(1) \alpha \sqrt{k}] / \sqrt{\operatorname{Var}[\hat{D}_k(1)]} \Rightarrow N(0,1)$ as $k \to \infty$, where N(0,1) is a standard normal random variable.

Discussion. (i) The monotonicity of $E[\hat{D}_k(1)]/\sqrt{k}$ is strongly supported by the final columns in Tables 3 and 6. Indeed, it appears that $E[D(k,n) - n]/\sqrt{kn}$ is increasing in k for each n, at least for these two distributions.

(ii) It is of course hard to pin down specific numbers precisely, but it appears that $\alpha = 2.0$. The numerical evidence appears stronger in the Bernoulli case in Table 6 than in the exponential case in Table 3, but both give quite strong support. Our uncertainty is primarily due to the effect of the diagonal limit in (3.7) rather than the variability of the estimator. The half-width of 95% confidence intervals for $E[D(k,n) - n]/\sqrt{kn}$ for k = 5000 and $n = 10^6$ was 0.0014 for both the exponential and Bernoulli distributions with 20 replications, as can be seen from Table 5. (A 95% confidence interval using the Student-*t* distribution is obtained by dividing the standard deviation in Table 5 by $\sqrt{20k}$ and multiplying by 2.09.)

In addition to the numerical evidence, we offer the following heuristic argument (developed after seeing the numerical results). For the exponential case, we know that $n^{-1}D(\lfloor xn \rfloor, n) \rightarrow (1 + \sqrt{x})^2$ w.p.1 as $n \rightarrow \infty$ for each fixed x by Theorem 6.1 of GW. We act as if this is true for x of the form y/n. Then

$$n^{-1}[D(\lfloor xn \rfloor, n) - n] \approx (1 + \sqrt{y/n})^2 - 1 = 2\sqrt{y/n} + y/n$$
 for large n

or

$$n^{-\frac{1}{2}} [D(\lfloor y \rfloor, n) - n] \approx 2\sqrt{y} + \frac{y}{\sqrt{n}} \qquad \text{for large } n . \tag{4.1}$$

Finally, we act as if the first term on the right of (4.1) is valid for all service-time distributions. Stronger evidence (although not a proof) is provided by a new limit theorem in Section 6.

(iii) – (iv) Remarkably, $\operatorname{Var}[\hat{D}_k(1)]$ seems to be decreasing in k, without normalization, as can be seen from Table 5. While this monotonicity is quite evident, it is not clear whether the limit β is zero (as claimed in Remark 7.1 of GW). Since the observed values decrease so slowly, we now conjecture that $\beta > 0$, but the evidence is not strong. If actually $\beta = 0$, then it appears that the rate of decrease of $\operatorname{Var}[D_k(1)]$ is quite slow. For example, we might have

$$Var[\hat{D}_k(1)] \sim \frac{4}{(\log k)^2} \text{ as } k \to \infty$$
 (4.2)

(v) - (vi) From Tables 3 and 5 it appears that

$$\frac{E[D_k(1)]}{\sqrt{k}} - \alpha = o\left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{k}}\right] \text{ as } k \to \infty, \qquad (4.3)$$

which is equivalent to (v). A rough approximation based on our data is

$$E[\hat{D}_k(1)] \approx 2\sqrt{k} - 1.6 \frac{\log k}{\sqrt{k}}$$
 (4.4)

Conjectures (iii)-(v) naturally suggest (vi).

(vii) Looking at the data for $100 \le k \le 5000$ and $n = 10^6$ (e.g., via *Q-Q* plot, see an unpublished appendix) supports the conclusion that $\hat{D}_k(1)$ is approximately normally distributed for large *k*. Since $\hat{D}_k(1)$ is the *k*-fold partial sum of $\hat{\Delta}_j(1)$, $1 \le j \le k$, this is to be anticipated. However, the property is not immediate because the random variables $\hat{\Delta}_j(1)$ are neither independent nor identically distributed.

9.3 Properties of $\hat{\Delta}_k(1)$

We now turn to the variables $\hat{\Delta}_k(1) \equiv \hat{D}_{k+1}(1) - \hat{D}_k(1)$. By §5 of GW, $\Delta_k(1)$ is stochastically decreasing in k. By Remark 3.3 of GW, $\hat{\Delta}_1 = \hat{B}_2 - \hat{B}_1 \stackrel{d}{=} \sqrt{2|\hat{B}_1|}$. Hence, $\hat{\Delta}_1(1)$ has a positive normal distribution with $E[\hat{\Delta}_1(1)] = 2/\sqrt{\pi} = 1.128$, $E[\hat{\Delta}(1)^2] = 2$ and $E[\hat{\Delta}(1)^4] = 12$.

Conjectures 4.2. We make the following conjectures about the limit variables $\hat{\Delta}_k(1)$ in (3.4):

(i)
$$\sqrt{kE[\hat{\Delta}_k(1)]} \rightarrow \alpha/2 = 1 \text{ as } k \rightarrow \infty;$$

(*ii*)
$$|\sqrt{kE}[\Delta_k(1)] - 1| \le 0.1 \text{ for all } k \ge 2;$$

(iii)
$$\sqrt{kE[\Delta_k(1)]} \ge 1.0$$
 for all k,

(iv)
$$SCV(\Delta_k(1))$$
 is increasing in k;

(v)
$$SCV(\hat{\Delta}_k(1)) \to 1 \text{ as } k \to \infty;$$

•

(vi) $\sqrt{k} \overrightarrow{\Delta}_k(1) \Rightarrow L_2 \text{ as } k \rightarrow \infty$; where L_2 has an exponential distribution with mean 1.

Discussion. (i)–(v) The mean and SCV formulas are consistent with Tables 1 and 2. (In Table 1 the values should be multiplied by \sqrt{k} to see the effect.) We also estimated the m^{th} moment of $\hat{\Delta}_k(1)$ for m = 1, 2, 3 and 4 by estimating the m^{th} moment of $\Delta(k, n)/\sqrt{n}$ for $n = 10^6$ using the following estimator

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \left[\frac{\Delta(k,j)}{\sqrt{j}} \right]^m .$$
(4.5)

The smoothing in (4.5) significantly decreases the variance, but it also introduces a bias, which is itself hard to estimate. We used (4.5) in 10 replications with $n = 10^6$ and $k = 10^3$. The resulting 95% confidence intervals (based on a *t*-distribution with 9 degrees of freedom) were

$$\sqrt{k} E[\hat{\Delta}_{k}(1)] = 1.070 \pm 0.005$$

$$k E[\hat{\Delta}_{k}(1)^{2}] = 2.237 \pm 0.023 \qquad (4.6)$$

$$k^{2} E[\hat{\Delta}_{k}(1)^{4}] = 25.8 \pm 0.76 .$$

If the bias in (4.5) is not significant, then (4.6) implies that $\alpha \approx 2.14$ instead of 2.0. However, we believe that the discrepancy is due to the bias in (4.5).

Conjecture 4.2(i) is also related to Conjecture 4.1(v), because for any sequence of real numbers $\{a_k : k \ge 1\}$ if $\sqrt{ka_k} \to a$ as $k \to \infty$, then $\sum_{j=1}^k a_j / \sqrt{k} \to 2a$; e.g., see Lemma 4 of

Glynn and Whitt (1992). In other words, Conjecture 4.2(i) implies Conjecture 4.1(i).

(vi) Note that (4.6) is consistent with an exponential distribution with mean 1, because its first four moments are 1, 2, 6 and 24. Moreover, the 100-point data set for k = 100 and $n = 10^6$ looks like it is from an exponential distribution, as can be seen from the Q-Q plot in Figure 1.

We remark that for estimating α , i.e., the limiting behavior of $\hat{D}_k(1)/\sqrt{k}$, both structural properties in Section 2.1 hold, but for estimating the limiting behavior of $[\hat{D}_k(1) - \alpha\sqrt{k}]$ and $\sqrt{k}\Delta_k(1)$ as $k \to \infty$, the second structural property does *not* hold. To pin down these refined limits, we would want many replications as well as having k large with n large compared to k.

If the random variables $\hat{\Delta}_k(1)$ were uncorrelated, then Conjecture 4.2(v) implies that we would have Var $[\hat{D}_k(1)] \approx \log k$. However, Conjecture 4.1 (iii) implies that Var $[\hat{D}_k(1)]$ does not grow with k. This indicates that there is considerable negative correlation among the variables $\hat{\Delta}_k(1)$.

9.4 The Hydrodynamic Limit

We now turn to the hydrodynamic limit in (3.7). Recall that, unlike (3.1), this limit is *not* an invariance principle, so that $\gamma(x)$ depends on the service-time distribution in a yet-to-bedetermined way. Some of the conjectures are motivated by stochastic comparisons that can be made for D(k,n); we discuss these first.

As noted in Remark 2.1 of GW, the function mapping the service times into the departure times D(k,n) is increasing and convex. This allows us to deduce how D(k,n) depends on the service time distribution. We say that one real-valued random variable Y_1 is less than or equal to another Y_2 in the *convex (increasing convex) stochastic order*, and write $Y_1 \leq_c Y_2$ ($Y_1 \leq_{ic} Y_2$), if $Ef(Y_1) \leq Ef(Y_2)$ for all convex (increasing convex) real-valued functions f for which the expectations are well defined; e.g., see Stoyan (1983).

Proposition 4.1. If $V_1 \leq_c V_2$, where V_1 and V_2 are two candidate service-time distributions, then $D_1(k,n) \leq_{ic} D_2(k,n)$ for all k and n, so that $E[D_1(k,n)^m] \leq E[D_2(k,n)^m]$ for all k,n and M.

Proof. Note that any increasing convex function of D(k,n) is an increasing convex function of the service times because the composition of increasing convex functions is increasing and

convex.

Conjectures 4.3. We make the following conjectures concerning the hydrodynamic limit (3.8):

(*i*) The limit $\gamma(x)$ depends on the service-time distribution;

(ii) If V_1 and V_2 are two candidate service distributions with $V_1 \leq_c V_2$, then $\gamma_1(x) \leq \gamma_2(x)$ for all x;

(iii) For the Bernoulli case, the limit in (3.7) satisfies $3.60 \le \gamma(1) \le 3.70$, so that the proportion of 2's on the maximum path in $\Pi(n,n)$ is asymptotically $0.90 < \gamma(1)/4 < 0.925$.

(iv) The rate that var[D(n,n)] grows with n depends on the distribution;

(v) For the Bernoulli case, $n^{-1/2} \operatorname{Var}[D(n,n)] \to \xi > 0$ as $n \to \infty$;

(vi) For any service-time distribution with finite first two moments,

$$\gamma(x) = 1 + 2\sqrt{x} + o(x) \text{ as } x \to 0$$
. (4.7)

Discussion. (i) Ten independent replications of $n^{-1}D(n, n)$ for n = 1000 were simulated for the exponential and Bernoulli distributions. The ten exponential values fell in the interval [3.902, 3.999], while the ten Bernoulli values fell in the interval [3.604, 3.630]; see Table 7. For n = 1000, we can statistically conclude that the two distributions of $n^{-1}D(n, n)$ have different means. Moreover, the exponential variables had mean 3.951 which is within 0.049 of the known limit as $n \to \infty$.

(ii) This conjecture would follow from Proposition 4.1 if $ED(\lfloor xn \rfloor, n)/n \rightarrow \gamma(x)$, which in turn is true if $\{D(\lfloor xn \rfloor, n)/n : n \ge 1\}$ is uniformly integrable. However, these properties remain to be established.

(iii) The observations in (i) above, support the numerical estimate. In the Bernoulli case we have the w.p.1 bound $D(n, n) \le 4n - 2$. This upper bound corresponds to a path from (1,1) to

(n, n) in the $n \times n$ array of service times discussed in §3 containing all 2's. Hence, the maximum path contains about 91% 2's asymptotically as $n \to \infty$.

(iv) – (v) >From (3.7) we know that $n^{-2} \operatorname{Var} D(n, n) \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$. Assuming that $n^{-\beta} \operatorname{Var} D(n, n)$ converges to a proper limit as $n \to \infty$, from Table 7 it appears that the exponent β , as well as the limit, depends on the distribution. For the Bernoulli case, we estimate $\beta = 1/2$; for the exponential case, we estimate that $3/4 \le \beta \le 1$.

(vi) Even though the limit $\gamma(x)$ in (3.7) evidently depends on the service-time distribution, the heuristic argument supporting (4.2) leads us to conjecture (4.7).

9.5 The Approximations

The simulations also reveal how well D(k, n) and $\Delta(k, n)$ are approximated by the limits in (3.1) and (3.4)–(3.7), at least in the cases considered of exponential and Bernoulli random variables.

Conjectures 4.4. We make the following conjectures about the way D(k,n) and $\Delta(k,n)$ are approximated by the limits in (3.1) and (3.4)–(3.7) for the two distributions under consideration:

(i) $E[\Delta(k,n)^m]/\sqrt{n}$ is decreasing in n for all k and m;

(ii) $E[(D(k,n) - n)^m]/\sqrt{n}$ is decreasing in n for all k and m;

(iii) For a given n, $E[\hat{\Delta}_k(1)^m]$ and $E[\hat{D}_k(1)^m]$ improve as approximations for $E[(\Delta(k,n)/\sqrt{n})^m]$ and $E[(D(k,n)-n]/\sqrt{n}]^m]$, respectively, as k decreases;

(iv) E[D(n,n)/n] is increasing in n;

$$(v)\gamma(1) - E[D(n,n)/n]$$
 is $O(\sqrt{n})$.

Discussion. (i)–(v) The monotonicity is strongly supported by the tables. >From Table 7, the rate of convergence of ED(n, n)/n to $\gamma(1)$ appears to be about $O(1/\sqrt{n})$. A rough approximation in the exponential case is

$$ED(n, n) \approx 4n - 2\sqrt{n}. \tag{4.8}$$

For fixed k, Tables 3 and 6 suggest that the rate of convergence of $[ED(k, n) - n]/\sqrt{n}$ to $E\hat{D}_k(1)$ also seems to be about $O(1/\sqrt{n})$, but the limit is clearly a better approximation for smaller n when k is smaller. The rate of convergence also seems to be faster for the Bernoulli service-time distribution.

We conclude by briefly discussing approximations for D(k,n) when $k \ll n$. The simplest heuristic approximation (letting k = 1) is

$$D(k,n) \approx n \pm \sqrt{n}$$
(4.9)

A refinement based on the limit theorem and Table 5 is

$$D(k,n) \approx (n+2\sqrt{kn}) \pm 0.4\sqrt{n}, \qquad (4.10)$$

noting that the true standard deviation decreases from about 0.65 to 0.2. We obtain a further refinement from Table 3 for specific k and n. For example, suppose k = 10 and n = 10,000. Then

$$E[D(k,n)] \approx (n + 2\sqrt{kn}) - 0.4\sqrt{kn} = 10,632 - 126$$
(4.11)

while, from Table 4

$$SD[D(k,n)] \approx 0.3\sqrt{kn} = 95$$
. (4.12)

Thus, the three approximations (4.9), (4.10) and (4.11) plus (4.12) yield, respectively:

$$10,000 \pm 100$$

$$10,632 \pm 40$$
 (4.13)

$$10,506 \pm 95$$
.

The three formulas in (4.13) show that the crude approximation (4.9) is remarkably good. The main improvement is the additional $2\sqrt{kn}$ term in the mean. As a proportion of the true mean, this is approximately $2\sqrt{k/n}$. For k = 10, this improvement is about 6% when n = 10,000 and 20% when n = 1,000. The fluctuations about the mean, as indicated by the standard deviation, are relatively small (slightly less than the adjustment in the mean), essentially as predicted by (4.9).

The limits help construct approximations much more when k is the same order as n. Then $\gamma(x)$ in (3.7) can be very useful.

10. The Simulation Methodology

In this Section, we describe how the simulation methods of Greenberg et al. (1990, 1991) were tailored to the application here.

A basic problem and its parallel solution lies behind these methods. Given K inputs x_1 , ..., x_K and an associative operator \circ , the *parallel prefix problem* is to compute the K partial products $x_1, x_1 \circ x_2, ..., x_1 \circ x_2 \circ \cdots \circ x_K$; see Ladner and Fischer (1980) and pp. 47, 341 of Akl (1989). The problem can be solved in $O((K/P) + \log P)$ time using P processors; see Kruskal, Rudolph and Snir (1985). Moreover, as discussed in Leighton (1992), very efficient solutions can be tailored to a wide variety of parallel architectures, and special hardware or microcode is commonly used to effect such solutions.

Now, consider the problem of simulating the passage of *K* jobs through *N* queues. Specifically, the problem is to compute, for each k = 1 to *K* and each n = 1 to *N*, the departure time D(k,n) of job *k* from queue *n*. It is advantageous here to treat *K* as the larger parameter, rather than *N*; there is no loss in doing so, by the duality of D(k,n) and D(n,k) mentioned above. We show that solving the standard recursion for these departure times (e.g., (2.1) of GW) can be expressed as a parallel prefix problem. The recursion is

$$D(k,n) = \left[D(k,n-1) \lor D(k-1,n) \right] + V(k,n) , \qquad (5.1)$$

where $x \lor y = \max\{x, y\}$, $D(k, 0) \equiv 0$ for all k since it is assumed that all jobs are initially present at queue 1, and V(k,n) is the service time that the k^{th} job requires at queue n. A significant part of our approach is to exploit recurrence (5.1) instead of event lists and other standard features of general purpose simulation languages. However, the recurrence by itself does not exploit the parallelism. Indeed, the recurrence is often used without exploiting the parallelism; e.g., see Suresh and Whitt (1990).

Our approach is to compute the $K \times N$ matrix of values D(k,n) one column at a time, using the values D(1,n-1), ..., D(K,n-1) of column n-1 to compute the values D(1,n), ..., D(K,n) of column n. Column n=0 is identically 0. Consider the computation for any column $n \ge 1$. Simplifying notation, for all k=1 to K, let A(k)=D(k,n-1) denote the job arrival times to queue n, V(k) their service demands at queue n, and D(k) their departure times from queue n. Thus (5.1) becomes

$$D(k) = \left[A(k) \lor D(k-1) \right] + V(k) .$$
 (5.2)

To expose the parallelism in (5.2) it helps to recast (5.2) in terms of a semiring over the reals, where \vee acts as the addition operator (with identity $-\infty$) and + as the multiplication operator (with identity 0). In this setting, the distributive law becomes

$$x + (y \lor z) = (x + y) \lor (x + z)$$

and recurrence (5.2) becomes

$$\begin{bmatrix} D(k) \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} V(k) & A(k) + V(k) \\ -\infty & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} D(k-1) \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$
 (5.3)

Checking the first row,

$$D(k) = \left[V(k) + D(k-1)\right] \lor \left[A(k) + V(k) + 0\right] = \left[D(k-1) \lor A(k)\right] + V(k) .$$

The second row represents an entirely formal computation, which would not be retained in implementation. Identifying the left side of (5.3) with a 2-vector $\tilde{D}(k)$ and the 2 × 2 matrix on the right hand side with a matrix M(k), and telescoping, we obtain

$$\tilde{D}(k) = M(k) \cdot M(k-1) \cdot \dots \cdot M(1) \cdot \tilde{D}(0) .$$
(5.4)

The matrices are of the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ -\infty & 0 \end{bmatrix} ,$$

the matrix product formula is

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \\ -\infty & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 & y_2 \\ -\infty & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (x_1 + y_1) & ((x_1 + y_2) \lor x_2) \\ -\infty & 0 \end{bmatrix} ,$$
(5.5)

and the matrix vector product formula is

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \\ -\infty & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (x_1 + y) \lor x_2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$
 (5.6)

The key to the algorithm is the associativity of matrix multiplication, allowing us to apply parallel prefix computation, which breaks up the products in (5.4) in an advantageous way. Suppose that *P* processors are available and, for simplicity, that *P* divides K, Q = P/K. The *i*th processor is responsible for the computation of the variables with index *k* in the range [(i-1)Q+1,iQ], for i = 1 to *P*. The algorithm proceeds as follows.

1. Each processor *i* generates the matrices M(k) and forms the products

$$\overline{M}(k) = M(k) \cdot M(k-1) \cdot \cdots \cdot M((i-1)Q+1)$$

for k = (i - 1)Q + 1 to iQ.

- 2. Processors 1, ..., P-1 collectively solve the parallel prefix problem on the P-1 inputs $\overline{M}(Q)$, $\overline{M}(2Q)$, ..., $\overline{M}((P-1)Q)$, to produce $\hat{M}(1) = \overline{M}(Q)$, $\hat{M}(2) = \overline{M}(2Q) \cdot \overline{M}(Q)$, ..., $\hat{M}(P-1) = \overline{M}((P-1)Q) \cdot ... \cdot \overline{M}(Q)$.
- 3. Each processor i = 2 to *P* forms $v(i) = \hat{M}(i-1)\tilde{D}(0)$ and then computes $\tilde{D}(k) = M(k)v(i)$, for k = (i-1)Q + 1 to iQ, completing the solution.

In step 1, each processor acts completely independently, and completes the step in O(Q) = O(K/P) time. The parallel prefix problem of step 2 is solved in $O(\log P)$ time. (Alternatively, there is no harm in carrying out this step serially if K is $O(P^2)$.) In step 3, again the processors work independently and complete the step in O(K/P) time. Thus, using P processors, we compute the n^{th} column of values D(k,n) in time $O(K/P + \log P)$. We may overwrite the arrivals A(k) with the departures D(k) setting the stage for the computation of the values of the next column. The space needed is essentially 3K locations per processor: 2K to hold the upper rows of the 2×2 matrices that arise and K to hold the results D(k). After, N repetitions, we obtain the D(k,N). The total time required is $O(N(K/P + \log P))$, which is O(NK/P) in the common case that $K \ge P \log P$. This three-step algorithm is essentially the $O(K/P + \log P)$ parallel prefix algorithm of Kruskal et al. (1985); the one difference is replacing the natural matrix multiplication in step 3 with vector multiplications.

The product formulae (5.4) and (5.6) are quite stable numerically; the only operations are a few additions and maximizations of real numbers. However, since the increments V(k,n) are mean 1 random variables, the matrix components D(k,n) are expected to be O(kn). For very large k and n numerical problems might arise unless some scaling method is applied. As discussed in Section 3, the limit theorems established in GW suggest that as $k \to \infty$ the values

$$[D(k,n) - k]/\sqrt{kn} \tag{5.7}$$

should fall in a finite (albeit *a priori* unknown) range. However, using (5.7) to scale the D(k,n) would entail computing square roots and divisions, costly floating point operations that would significantly slow the computation. A more practical approach is to work with the scaled variables

$$D'(k,n) = D(k,n) - k ,$$

which should tend to values $O(\sqrt{kn})$. This moderate growth rate is easily managed using double precision. Moreover, this scaling can be "brought inside" the recurrence as follows, with the benefit that all intermediate results are also scaled. Let

$$A'(k) = A(k) - k + 1$$
 , (5.8)
 $V'(k) = V(k) - 1$,

so that (5.2) becomes

$$D'(k) = \left[D'(k-1) \lor A'(k) \right] + V'(k) \quad . \tag{5.9}$$

For the investigations reported here we require delay statistics. Consider the problem of computing the delay of the k^{th} customer at the n^{th} queue, $\Delta(k,n) = D(k,n) - D(k,n-1)$; computing total delays D(k,N) - D(k,0) is similar. Having the D(k,n) and the D(k,n-1) simultaneously in memory, tallying $\Delta(k,n)$ is completely parallelizable. Computing delay moments entails powering individual delays and summing the results. The powering problem is completely parallelizable, and the summing can be done in tree-like fashion in $O((K/P) + \log P)$ time. Thus, delay statistics have cost of the same order as the rest of the computation. Queue-length statistics can be computed at comparable cost via merging and parallel prefix computations; see Greenberg et al. (1990, 1991).

In practice, for large *K*, it may be necessary to make do with less than O(K) space. Consider the computation for a single column of values D(1,n), ..., D(K,n). Suppose that there is sufficient space to support the computation for $K \leq B$, for some fixed *B*. To handle general *K*, the computation is easily adapted to work in batches of size *B*. First, we compute the submatrix of values D(k,n) for k = 1 to *B* and n = 1 to *N*, column by column as described above. Next, we overwrite those values with the values of the submatrix D(k,n) for k = B + 1 to 2*B* and n = 1 to *N*. This second matrix is computed column by column as before; the only adjustment needed is to set D(0) for column *n* to the value D(B) computed for column *n* in the first batch. Next, those values are overwritten with the submatrix of values D(k,n) for k = 2B + 1 to 3*B* and n = 1 to *N*, and so forth. The time needed to compute each $B \times N$ submatrix is $O(N((B/P) + \log P))$. The total time needed is $O(NK/B((B/P) + \log P))$, which if *B* is of the same order as PlogP (a condition easily arranged in practice) is O(NK/P).

Suppose that, for given K, N, and the service time distribution, we wish to perform R independent replications of the simulation of K jobs through N queues. Problems of this sort fit easily into our framework, via *segmented parallel prefix* computation; see Leighton (1992). A segmented parallel prefix problem is a sequence of independent parallel prefix problems involving

the same associative operator. *R* such problems with sizes K_1 , ..., K_R can be solved together in time $O((K_1 + \cdots + K_R)/P + \log P)$ using *P* processors. Similarly, with little additional overhead, our algorithm can be adapted to handle the *R* replications in $O(N((KR)/P + \log P))$ time. The computation is nearly identical to simulating K' = KR through the queues. Thus, independent replications can be accommodated in a flexible, efficient way, without any special programming to assign groups of processors to individual replications. In addition, we have seen that for large speedup we want *K* (assumed to be larger than *N*) to be moderately larger than the number of processors *P*. In cases where *K* is small, large speedup is possible if *R* replications are needed and *KR* is moderately larger than *P*.

Table 8 gives timings for simulations of a single M/M/1 queue (the equivalent of two queues in series with exponential service times under our setup), and Table 9 gives times for simulations of series of M/M/1 queues. The timings were collected on the CM-2 parallel computer. For long series of queues, the speed of the code is about 17 billion simulated services per hour. We found this to be over 100 times faster than solving the recurrence in the straightforward way on a MIPS RS2000 workstation.

It is possible to reduce the asymptotic running time further as follows. As indicated in Section 3, the problem of solving recurrence (5.1) can be recast as a problem of computing shortest paths in the *grid graph* on vertices (n,k), for n = 1 to N and k = 0 to K, where (n,k) is connected to (n-1,k) by an edge of weight -V(n,k) if n > 0 and to (n,k-1) by an edge of weight -V(n,k) if k > 0. Then -D(n,k) is the sum of -V(1,1) and the weight of the least weight path from (n,k) to (1,1). The problem of parallel computation of the shortest paths in such graphs has received extensive study in the Computer Science literature in the context of string editing and related problems; cf. Wagner and Fischer (1973). Adapted to our problem, the asymptotically most efficient solution is a clever divide-and-conquer algorithm of Apostolico et al. (1990). This algorithm produces the D(k,n)'s in time $O(\log N \log K)$ using $O(KN/\log N)$

processors, assuming a model of parallel computation that allows different processors to concurrently read common locations in memory in unit time. It may be possible to adapt their algorithm to obtain one with running time $O(NK/P + \log P)$ using *P* processors. However, the algorithm is complicated, and the implicit constant in the running time bound is likely to be large. For large *K*, which is natural for our application, the simpler parallel-prefix based algorithm given above has running time O(NK/P), and has the advantage of simplicity and favorable implicit constants.

11. A New Supporting Limit Theorem

In this section we establish a new limit theorem (developed after the rest of the work was done) that provides strong support for Conjecture 4.1 (ii), i.e., that the limit α in (3.5) and (3.6) is two. Indeed, we establish a modification of limit (3.6) where the service-time distributions change with *n*. In this new theorem we can conclude that the numerical value of the limit is indeed two, but since the service-time distributions change with *n*, we cannot yet conclude that $\alpha = 2$ in (3.5) and (3.6). (By the invariance principle associated with (3.6), we can restrict attention to any single convenient service-time distribution, but (3.6) has not yet been established for service-time distributions depending on *n*.)

In particular, we now consider a family of queueing network models indexed by n. As in (3.6), model n has n queues with k_n customers initially in queue 1, where $k_n \to \infty$ as $n \to \infty$. As before the service times of all the customers at all the queues are i.i.d. with finite variance. However, now the service-time distribution is allowed to depend on n. In model n, the nk_n service times of the k_n customers at the n queues are i.i.d. with the distribution of V_n , where V_n has the two-point distribution

$$P(V_n = 1 + \sqrt{nk_n}) = 1 - P(V_n = 1) = \frac{\sigma}{nk_n} , \qquad (6.1)$$

where σ is a positive constant with $\sigma < nk_n$ for all $n \ge n_0$ for some n_0 .

>From (6.1), since $nk_n \to \infty$ as $n \to \infty$, it is easy to see that $V_n \Rightarrow 1$, $E[V_n] \to 1$ and Var $[V_n] \to \sigma^2$, but $E[V_n^{2+\delta}] \to \infty$ for all $\delta > 0$ as $n \to \infty$. Moreover, it is evident that, for all $n, V_n = 1 + X_n$ where X_n has the two-point distribution

$$P(X_n = \sqrt{nk_n}) = 1 - P(X_n = 0) = \frac{\sigma}{nk_n}$$
 (6.2)

Let $D_n(i,j)$ and $D'_n(i,j)$ be the departure time of customer *i* from queue *j* in model *n* with service times V_n and X_n , respectively. >From above, it is clear that

$$D_n(k_n, n) - (n + k - 1) = D'_n(k_n, n) , \qquad (6.3)$$

where $D'_n(k_n, n)$ should be relatively easy to analyze as there are relatively few positive entries. For this purpose, we apply previous results on the length of the longest increasing subsequence in a random permutation; see Frieze (1991) and references cited there.

Let $\{U_n : n \ge 1\}$ be a sequence of i.i.d. random variables uniformly distributed on [0,1]. Let M_n be the length of the longest increasing subsequence among the first *n* variables U_1, \ldots, U_n . (Note that L_n has the distribution of the length of the longest increasing subsequence in a random partition of the vector of integers $(1, \ldots, n)$.) It is known that

$$L_n / \sqrt{n} \to 2 \text{ w.p.1 as } n \to \infty$$
 (6.4)

Let $\Pi(\lambda)$ be a Poisson random variable with mean λ that is independent of $\{L_n : n \ge 1\}$ and let

$$L(\lambda) = L_{\Pi(\lambda)} ; \qquad (6.5)$$

i.e., $L(\lambda)$ is the length of the longest increasing subsequence among the Poisson random number

of uniform random variables. By the strong law of large numbers,

$$\Pi(\lambda)/\lambda \to 1 \text{ w.p.1 as } \lambda \to \infty .$$
(6.6)

Then (6.4)–(6.6) imply that

$$L(\lambda)/\sqrt{\lambda} \to 2 \text{ w.p.1 as } \lambda \to \infty$$
 (6.7)

Theorem 6.1. Let the service times be as in (6.1). (a) If $k_n \to \infty$ as $n \to \infty$, then

$$[D(k_n, n) - (n + k_n - 1)] / \sqrt{nk_n} \Rightarrow L(\sigma^2) \text{ as } n \to \infty.$$
(6.8)

(b) If $k_n/n \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$, then

$$[D(k_n, n) - n] / \sqrt{\sigma^2 n k_n} \Rightarrow 2$$
(6.9)

as first $n \to \infty$ and then $\sigma^2 \to \infty$.

(c) As first $n \to \infty$ and then $\sigma^2 \to \infty$,

$$D(n,n)/\sigma n \Rightarrow 2$$
. (6.10)

Proof. First, (6.9)–(6.10) follow directly from (6.7) and (6.8), so we focus on (6.8). By (6.3), it suffices to prove that $D'_n(k_n,n)/\sqrt{nk_n} \Rightarrow L(\sigma^2)$ as $n \to \infty$. Let $X_n(i,j)$ be the service time of customer *i* at queue *j* in model *n*, distributed as in (6.2). For each *n*, put service time $X_n(i,j)$ at the point $(i/k_n, j/n)$ in the unit square $[0,1]^2$ for $1 \le i \le k_n$ and $1 \le j \le n$. Let N_n be a counting process on $[0,1]^2$, with $N_n(A)$ counting the number of points $(i/k_n, j/n)$ in the measurable subset *A* such that $X_n(i,j) > 0$. It is easy to see that

$$N_n \Rightarrow M_{\sigma^2} \text{ as } n \to \infty ,$$
 (6.10)

where M_{λ} is a Poisson random measure with intensity measure $v(A) = \lambda \mu(A)$, with μ being

Lebesgue measure on $[0,1]^2$; e.g., see Whitt (1972) or Daley and Vere-Jones (1988).

Next, for a finite point process on $[0,1]^2$, the maximum number of points on a nondecreasing path from (0,0) to (1,1) is a measurable function which is continuous almost surely with respect to the limiting Poisson random measure. (We can use the usual topology of weak convergence for both the underlying space of finite measures on $[0,1]^2$ and the space of probability measures on this space; see Appendix 2 of Daley and Vere-Jones (1988).) Hence, by the continuous mapping theorem,

$$D'(k_n, n)/\sqrt{nk_n} \Rightarrow L(\sigma^2) \text{ as } n \to \infty,$$
 (6.12)

which completes the proof. \blacksquare

Remarks. Part (b) suggests, but does not imply, that $\alpha = 2$ in (3.6). Part (c) suggests that $\gamma(1)$ in (3.7) can assume any value greater than or equal to the obvious lower bound 2 for service-time distributions with mean 1. Finally, our Conjecture 4.1 (iii) suggests that the distribution of the longest increasing subsequence in a random permutation may concentrate much more closely about its mean than indicated by the bound in Frieze (1991).

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	k	$n = 10^1$	$n = 10^2$	$n = 10^3$	$n = 10^4$	$n = 10^5$	$n = 10^{6}$
	1	1.113	1.144	1.137	1.123	1.131	1.190
	2	0.922	0.850	0.816	0.801	0.783	0.745
	3	0.741	0.697	0.650	0.645	0.614	0.612
	4	0.717	0.597	0.545	0.545	0.543	0.497
m = 1	5	0.689	0.499	0.492	0.458	0.473	0.524
	6	0.624	0.493	0.481	0.464	0.435	0.418
	7	0.613	0.450	0.420	0.391	0.396	0.386
	8	0.621	0.487	0.410	0.383	0.369	0.377
	9	0.589	0.427	0.379	0.369	0.342	0.357
	10	0.562	0.393	0.345	0.341	0.339	0.309
	k	$n = 10^{1}$	$n = 10^2$	$n = 10^3$	$n = 10^4$	$n = 10^5$	$n = 10^{6}$
	1	2.05	2.06	1.95	2.03	1.99	2.14
	2	1.44	1.22	1.12	1.04	1.00	0.93
	3	1.000	0.816	0.721	0.697	0.634	0.647

	4	0.890	0.636	0.529	0.505	0.496	0.433
m = 2	5	0.873	0.456	0.422	0.388	0.400	0.488
	6	0.693	0.453	0.417	0.408	0.339	0.315
	7	0.711	0.391	0.325	0.272	0.282	0.283
	8	0.706	0.443	0.313	0.271	0.231	0.255
	9	0.636	0.343	0.264	0.241	0.226	0.236
	10	0.596	0.283	0.222	0.209	0.206	0.185
	k	$n = 10^1$	$n = 10^2$	$n = 10^3$	$n = 10^4$	$n = 10^5$	$n = 10^{6}$
	1	14.9	13.0	10.4	12.7	11.0	13.2
	2	7.7	4.9	4.1	3.6	3.2	2.8
	3	4.4	2.4	2.0	1.7	1.4	1.6
	4	3.23	1.72	1.18	0.95	0.87	0.80
m = 4	5	3.07	0.83	0.65	0.66	0.62	1.01
	6	2.45	0.97	0.76	0.83	0.49	0.41
	7	2.29	0.83	0.50	0.29	0.34	0.44
	8	2.11	0.88	0.47	0.36	0.21	0.28
	9	1.73	0.56	0.29	0.23	0.29	0.30
	10	1.81	0.35	0.26	0.18	0.18	0.19

Table 1. Estimates of $E[(\Delta(k, n)/\sqrt{n})^m]$ in the case of exponential service times with mean 1 for m = 1, 2, 4, k = 1, ..., 10 and $n = 10^j$ for j = 1, ..., 6. These estimates are based on 1000 independent replications. For the case m = 1 (m = 2), the width of 95% confidence intervals are about 6% (10-15%) of the given values, approximately uniformly over all cases.

k	$n = 10^{1}$	$n = 10^2$	$n = 10^3$	$n = 10^4$	$n = 10^5$	$n = 10^{6}$	average
1	0.65	0.57	0.52	0.61	0.56	0.51	0.57
2	0.69	0.69	0.68	0.62	0.63	0.68	0.67
3	0.82	0.68	0.71	0.68	0.68	0.72	0.72
4	0.73	0.78	0.78	0.70	0.68	0.75	0.74
5	0.84	0.83	0.74	0.85	0.79	0.78	0.81
6	0.78	0.86	0.80	0.90	0.52	0.80	0.78
7	0.89	0.93	0.84	0.78	0.80	0.90	0.86
8	0.83	0.87	0.86	0.85	0.70	0.79	0.82
9	0.83	0.88	0.84	0.77	0.93	0.85	0.85
10	0.88	0.83	0.87	0.80	0.79	0.94	0.85
avg.	0.79	0.79	0.76	0.76	0.71	0.77	0.77

Table 2. Estimates of SCV $(\Delta(k, n)/\sqrt{n}) \equiv Var(\Delta(k, n)/(E[\Delta(k, n)])^2)$ using the estimates from Table 1. (The exact limiting value as $n \to \infty$ for k = 1 is 0.571.)

$n = 10^{1}$	$n = 10^2$	$n = 10^3$	$n = 10^4$	$n = 10^5$	$n = 10^{6}$
0.76	0.78	0.76	0.76	0.80	0.84
1.15	1.13	1.09	1.08	1.10	1.12
1.37	1.32	1.27	1.26	1.26	1.27
1.55	1.46	1.38	1.38	1.38	1.36
1.69	1.53	1.46	1.44	1.44	1.46
1.80	1.60	1.54	1.51	1.50	1.51
1.90	1.66	1.58	1.55	1.54	1.54
1.98	1.70	1.63	1.59	1.58	1.58
2.07	1.77	1.66	1.61	1.59	1.60
2.15	1.81	1.68	1.64	1.62	1.62
	2.04	1.74	1.81	1.74	1.80
	2.43	2.01	1.93	1.87	1.82
	2.81	2.20	2.02	1.98	1.95
		2.37	2.06	1.99	1.97
		2.65	2.19	2.04	2.009
		2.95	2.30	2.07	2.023
			2.43	2.14	2.043
			2.62	2.20	2.067
			2.70	2.22	2.075
					3.00*
	$n = 10^{1}$ 0.76 1.15 1.37 1.55 1.69 1.80 1.90 1.98 2.07 2.15	$n = 10^{1} \qquad n = 10^{2}$ 0.76 0.78 1.15 1.13 1.37 1.32 1.55 1.46 1.69 1.53 1.80 1.60 1.90 1.66 1.98 1.70 2.07 1.77 2.15 1.81 2.04 2.43 2.81	$n = 10^{1} \qquad n = 10^{2} \qquad n = 10^{3}$ 0.76 0.78 0.76 1.15 1.13 1.09 1.37 1.32 1.27 1.55 1.46 1.38 1.69 1.53 1.46 1.80 1.60 1.54 1.90 1.66 1.58 1.98 1.70 1.63 2.07 1.77 1.66 2.15 1.81 1.68 2.04 1.74 2.43 2.01 2.81 2.20 2.37 2.65 2.95	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$

Table 3. Estimates of $E[D(k, n) - n]/\sqrt{kn}$ in the case of exponential service times with mean 1. For $k \le 11$, the estimates are based on 1000 independent replications. For $k \le 11$, the 95% confidence intervals are about ± 0.04 , as can be seen from Table 4. The other estimates are based on 20 independent replications. For $k \ge 1000$, the 95% confidence intervals are less than ± 0.01 . (The exact limiting value as $n \to \infty$ for k = 2 is 0.798. The asterisked value for $k = 10^6$ is the exact limiting value as $n \to \infty$ for k = n.)

	k	$n = 10^1$	$n = 10^2$	$n = 10^3$	$n = 10^4$	$n = 10^5$	$n = 10^{6}$
	2	1.15	1.05	0.96	0.96	1.00	1.03
	3	1.74	1.55	1.41	1.40	1.42	1.45
	4	2.20	1.95	1.77	1.74	1.75	1.76
	5	2.66	2.26	2.02	2.00	2.00	1.99
second	6	3.08	2.47	2.22	2.17	2.18	2.22
moment	7	3.44	2.69	2.43	2.34	2.33	2.34
	8	3.79	2.85	2.56	2.46	2.44	2.45
	9	4.17	3.07	2.70	2.58	2.54	2.56
	10	4.50	3.22	2.82	2.68	2.62	2.66
	11	4.81	3.34	2.90	2.76	2.70	2.71
	k	$n = 10^1$	$n = 10^2$	$n = 10^3$	$n = 10^4$	$n = 10^5$	$n = 10^{6}$
	k 2	$n = 10^1$ 0.76	$n = 10^2$ 0.66	$n = 10^3$ 0.62	$n = 10^4$ 0.62	$n = 10^5$ 0.60	$n = 10^6$ 0.57
	k 2 3	$n = 10^1$ 0.76 0.65	$n = 10^2$ 0.66 0.52	$n = 10^3$ 0.62 0.47	$n = 10^4$ 0.62 0.48	$n = 10^5$ 0.60 0.46	$n = 10^{6}$ 0.57 0.44
	k 2 3 4	$n = 10^{1}$ 0.76 0.65 0.57	$n = 10^2$ 0.66 0.52 0.46	$n = 10^{3}$ 0.62 0.47 0.40	$n = 10^4$ 0.62 0.48 0.39	$n = 10^5$ 0.60 0.46 0.40	$n = 10^{6}$ 0.57 0.44 0.38
	k 2 3 4 5	$n = 10^{1}$ 0.76 0.65 0.57 0.50	$n = 10^{2}$ 0.66 0.52 0.46 0.36	$n = 10^{3}$ 0.62 0.47 0.40 0.34	$n = 10^4$ 0.62 0.48 0.39 0.31	$n = 10^5$ 0.60 0.46 0.40 0.31	$n = 10^{6}$ 0.57 0.44 0.38 0.38
standard	k 2 3 4 5 6	$n = 10^{1}$ 0.76 0.65 0.57 0.50 0.47	$n = 10^{2}$ 0.66 0.52 0.46 0.36 0.36	$n = 10^{3}$ 0.62 0.47 0.40 0.34 0.30	$n = 10^4$ 0.62 0.48 0.39 0.31 0.31	$n = 10^{5}$ 0.60 0.46 0.40 0.31 0.33	$n = 10^{6}$ 0.57 0.44 0.38 0.38 0.30
standard deviation	k 2 3 4 5 6 7	$n = 10^{1}$ 0.76 0.65 0.57 0.50 0.47 0.45	$n = 10^{2}$ 0.66 0.52 0.46 0.36 0.36 0.36	$n = 10^{3}$ 0.62 0.47 0.40 0.34 0.30 0.24	$n = 10^{4}$ 0.62 0.48 0.39 0.31 0.31 0.24	$n = 10^{5}$ 0.60 0.46 0.40 0.31 0.33 0.28	$n = 10^{6}$ 0.57 0.44 0.38 0.38 0.30 0.24
standard deviation	k 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	$n = 10^{1}$ 0.76 0.65 0.57 0.50 0.47 0.45 0.42	$n = 10^{2}$ 0.66 0.52 0.46 0.36 0.36 0.36 0.36 0.31	$n = 10^{3}$ 0.62 0.47 0.40 0.34 0.30 0.24 0.25	$n = 10^{4}$ 0.62 0.48 0.39 0.31 0.31 0.24 0.24	$n = 10^{5}$ 0.60 0.46 0.40 0.31 0.33 0.28 0.26	$n = 10^{6}$ 0.57 0.44 0.38 0.38 0.30 0.24 0.28
standard deviation	k 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	$n = 10^{1}$ 0.76 0.65 0.57 0.50 0.47 0.45 0.42 0.50	$n = 10^{2}$ 0.66 0.52 0.46 0.36 0.36 0.36 0.31 0.42	$n = 10^{3}$ 0.62 0.47 0.40 0.34 0.30 0.24 0.25 0.21	$n = 10^{4}$ 0.62 0.48 0.39 0.31 0.31 0.24 0.24 0.23	$n = 10^{5}$ 0.60 0.46 0.40 0.31 0.33 0.28 0.26 0.21	$n = 10^{6}$ 0.57 0.44 0.38 0.38 0.30 0.24 0.28 0.25
standard deviation	k 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	$n = 10^{1}$ 0.76 0.65 0.57 0.50 0.47 0.45 0.42 0.50 0.46	$n = 10^{2}$ 0.66 0.52 0.46 0.36 0.36 0.36 0.36 0.31 0.42 0.30	$n = 10^{3}$ 0.62 0.47 0.40 0.34 0.30 0.24 0.25 0.21 0.25	$n = 10^{4}$ 0.62 0.48 0.39 0.31 0.31 0.24 0.24 0.23 0.30	$n = 10^{5}$ 0.60 0.46 0.40 0.31 0.33 0.28 0.26 0.21 0.30	$n = 10^{6}$ 0.57 0.44 0.38 0.38 0.30 0.24 0.28 0.25 0.32

Table 4. Estimates of the second moment and standard deviation of $[D(k, n) - n]/\sqrt{kn}$ in the case of exponential service times with mean 1 based on 1000 independent observations.

	expo	nential	Bernoulli {0,2}		
k	mean	std. dev.	mean	std. dev.	
10	5.11	0.65	5.07	0.63	
100	19.52	0.45	19.27	0.42	
200	27.91	0.42	27.63	0.38	
500	44.92	0.35	44.12	0.25	
1000	63.97	0.26	62.80	0.32	
2000	91.38	0.33	89.00	0.24	
4000	130.73	0.28	126.11	0.21	
5000	146.72	0.22	141.17	0.22	

Table 5. Estimates of the mean and standard deviation of $[D(k,n) - n]/\sqrt{n}$ for $n = 10^6$. The number of independent replications was 1000 for k = 10, with 100 for k = 100 and 20 in all other cases.

k	$n = 10^3$	$n = 10^4$	$n = 10^5$	$n = 10^{6}$
50	1.85	1.88	1.87	1.87
100	2.03	1.93	1.90	1.93
200	2.11	1.96	1.99	1.95
500	2.35	2.04	2.00	1.97
1000	2.62	2.06	2.01	1.986
2000		2.15	2.01	1.990
4000		2.29	2.03	1.994
5000		2.36	2.04	1.996
10^{6}				2.63*

Table 6. Estimates of $E[D(k, n) - n]/\sqrt{kn}$ in the case of Bernoulli – $\{0, 2\}$ service times. The estimates are based on 20 independent replications for $n = 10^6$. The asterisked value for $k = 10^6$ is estimated from the case k = n = 5000.

	service-time distribution						
		exponential			Bernoulli		
	<i>n</i> = 10	<i>n</i> = 100	<i>n</i> = 1000	<i>n</i> = 10	<i>n</i> = 100	n = 1000	
mean	30.8	380.8	3951	29.9	356.8	3619	
standard deviation	4.26	7.21	25.8	2.90	5.00	9.3	
variance	18.19	52.00	666.1	8.39	24.97	87.4	
sample size	1000	10	10	1000	10	10	
variance/n	1.82	0.52	0.67	0.84	0.25	0.087	
variance/ $n^{3/4}$	3.23	1.64	3.74	1.49	0.79	0.49	
variance/n ^{1/2}	5.75	5.20	21.1	2.65	2.50	2.76	

service-time distribution

Table 7. Estimates of the mean standard deviation and variance of D(n, n) for $n = 10^{j}$ for j = 1, 2, 3 for the cases of exponential and Bernoulli service times.

# jobs simulated	running time (secs)
2^{13}	.01
2^{14}	.02
2^{15}	.02
2^{16}	.03
2^{17}	.06
2^{18}	.12
2^{19}_{22}	.21
2^{20}_{21}	.42
2^{21}	.80

 Table 8. Time to simulate a single M/M/1 queue.

# queues	running time (secs)
10	4.87
100	45.11
1000	446.03

Table 9. Time to simulate $2^{21} = 2,097,152$ jobs through a series of M/M/1 queues.



Figure 1. Q-Q plot with the exponential mean 1 distribution of estimates of $\Delta(k, n)/\sqrt{n}$, for $n = 10^6$ and k = 100, and the Bernoulli {0,2} service times. There are 100 estimates from 100 independent replications. The scale is log-log.

APPENDIX

In this appendix we provide some of the data obtained from the simulations. Tables A1 and A2 display 20 independent replications of estimates of $[D(k,n)-n]/\sqrt{kn}$ for $n = 10^6$ and various values of k, for the exponential and Bernoulli distributions, respectively. Tables A3-A6 display 100 independent replications of estimates of $[D(k,n)-n]/\sqrt{kn}$ and $\Delta(k-1,n)/\sqrt{n}$ for k = 100 and $n = 10^6$, for the exponential and Bernoulli distributions, respectively. Tables A7 and A8 display 20 independent replications of estimates of $[D(k,n)-n]/\sqrt{kn}$ for $n = 10^j$ with j = 4,5 and 6 and various k, for the exponential and Bernoulli distribution, respectively.

Figure A1 displays the Q - Q plot, for k = 100, $n = 10^6$, and Bernoulli {0,2} service times, comparing the sample distribution of $[D(k,n)-n]/\sqrt{kn}$ with the normal distribution.

			k			
100	200	500	1000	2000	4000	5000
1.998753	2.007075	2.007203	2.031406	2.047681	2.056927	2.075226
1.976843	2.001208	2.002918	2.030268	2.046753	2.061122	2.079361
1.986527	2.050240	2.042037	2.019230	2.037350	2.068164	2.078118
1.987959	1.977029	2.018986	2.024594	2.048730	2.075183	2.076821
2.034640	1.969923	1.994518	2.037267	2.036755	2.067429	2.072372
2.012347	1.948945	2.011910	2.018378	2.058709	2.071884	2.070145
1.974565	1.958451	2.004516	2.025490	2.051376	2.072193	2.076544
1.943724	1.973839	2.000796	2.014577	2.036499	2.066570	2.079022
2.043871	1.989753	2.015234	2.011691	2.035696	2.066313	2.075178
1.972256	1.955060	1.984847	2.027526	2.042803	2.067340	2.072258
1.869204	1.975322	2.003858	2.027604	2.038704	2.068214	2.078987
2.027284	1.955040	2.002342	2.020948	2.040203	2.061393	2.070942
1.906604	1.985931	1.988228	2.037999	2.040915	2.068830	2.077133
1.928227	1.935804	2.013405	2.009276	2.035517	2.070393	2.077745
1.986888	1.985068	1.994496	2.018189	2.045798	2.063246	2.071285
1.946783	1.982769	1.996152	2.013738	2.042711	2.067094	2.072692
2.012421	2.010218	2.043726	2.024400	2.060917	2.073584	2.075952
2.034717	1.929336	2.006183	2.018344	2.042848	2.066962	2.071069
1.942283	1.946502	2.029564	2.022015	2.035932	2.066467	2.076104
1.899810	1.935085	2.015304	2.035475	2.041577	2.067276	2.072136
			mean			
1.974285	1.973630	2.008811	2.023421	2.043374	2.067329	2.074954
			std. dev.			
0.048644	0.029811	0.015781	0.008319	0.007316	0.004350	0.003061

Table A1. Estimates of $[D(k,n)-n]/\sqrt{kn}$ for n = 1,000,000 and the exponential distribution. Each row was obtained from an independent replication.

			k			
100	200	500	1000	2000	4000	5000
1.872000	1.975515	1.980888	1.993816	1.993097	1.999730	1.995880
1.966000	1.933654	1.968276	1.965925	1.991755	1.993089	1.999245
1.894800	1.954726	1.980530	1.984772	1.984197	1.992836	1.998171
1.857600	1.916259	1.974359	1.988630	1.985941	1.997706	1.996417
1.918000	2.008466	1.980530	1.968708	1.986031	1.992614	1.995172
1.915800	1.964484	1.982408	1.985721	1.985986	1.993658	1.993249
1.961200	1.970707	1.963357	1.984519	1.995691	1.996188	1.997096
1.901800	1.911734	1.966309	1.984835	2.001683	1.991128	1.997520
2.016000	1.967312	1.973106	1.996283	1.995378	1.989262	1.998680
1.958800	1.947513	1.990727	1.997927	1.992068	1.997231	1.999698
1.931400	1.906077	1.968813	1.984203	1.985673	1.996662	1.999585
1.904200	1.940160	1.977310	2.001595	1.999179	1.995144	1.993560
1.866800	1.970282	1.973375	2.005706	1.989161	1.995650	2.004167
1.943800	1.979475	1.949494	1.977309	1.981469	1.995144	1.992287
1.915400	1.971555	1.951908	1.986416	1.985539	1.986922	1.992966
1.840800	1.969151	1.960763	1.988693	1.988848	1.991761	1.991411
1.924600	1.950483	1.968008	1.977941	1.993320	1.991761	1.995766
1.914000	1.919653	1.982230	1.979396	1.987686	1.997358	1.998991
1.951400	1.980040	1.982230	1.982685	1.986925	1.989262	1.994946
1.895800	1.949211	1.988938	1.980724	1.997032	1.992108	1.993985
			mean			
1.917510	1.954323	1.973178	1.985790	1.990333	1.993761	1.996440
			std. dev.			
0.041862	0.026650	0.011174	0.009967	0.005465	0.003288	0.003145

Table A2. Estimates of $[D(k,n)-n]/\sqrt{kn}$ for n=1,000,000 and the Bernoulli $\{0,2\}$ distribution. Each row was obtained from an independent replication.

1.998753	1.884486	2.051369	1.945816	2.032164
1.976843	1.962321	1.987444	1.942332	1.888333
1.986527	1.954882	1.945446	1.921279	1.876464
1.987959	1.918168	1.951275	2.003974	1.883310
2.034640	1.984230	1.944113	1.886833	1.888263
2.012347	1.904058	1.931673	1.928797	1.904042
1.974565	1.933798	1.924885	1.998161	1.951595
1.943724	1.951138	1.898996	1.945314	1.905318
2.043871	1.958494	1.965789	1.934996	1.896280
1.972256	1.908429	1.926922	1.955010	1.973538
1.869204	1.993156	2.001987	1.912617	2.006016
2.027284	1.990247	1.997272	1.982567	1.890728
1.906604	1.938573	1.965913	1.940519	1.949533
1.928227	1.993936	1.886619	2.019505	1.878644
1.986888	2.042476	2.005352	1.879795	1.965861
1.946783	1.886498	2.026569	2.011599	1.952757
2.012421	1.965053	1.917412	1.871708	1.916336
2.034717	1.970512	1.930136	1.924784	1.882780
1.942283	2.004230	1.951696	2.077775	1.991115
1.899810	1.923275	1.964350	1.835061	1.937521

Table A3. Estimates of $[D(k,n)-n]/\sqrt{kn}$ for k = 100 and n = 1,000,000 and the exponential distribution, obtained from 100 independent replications.

0.448648	0.004102	0.094761	0.046664	0.068307
0.015053	0.177213	0.039410	0.010173	0.017860
0.174293	0.051265	0.151085	0.013240	0.048200
0.068300	0.050820	0.003599	0.060794	0.126213
0.320909	0.043732	0.087121	0.049883	0.047264
0.052584	0.019559	0.072102	0.035841	0.028961
0.001111	0.031887	0.004153	0.023370	0.028723
0.246465	0.072769	0.054707	0.001075	0.178570
0.097930	0.323079	0.168386	0.009408	0.098068
0.008814	0.077401	0.071538	0.091485	0.049663
0.005709	0.028984	0.134063	0.000623	0.183980
0.305782	0.130846	0.188327	0.029730	0.112284
0.269576	0.033901	0.174868	0.335035	0.585732
0.024160	0.052000	0.149231	0.001472	0.112852
0.185136	0.119467	0.059679	0.048147	0.143017
0.034370	0.015145	0.609672	0.101209	0.149134
0.230678	0.037956	0.002193	0.087990	0.028077
0.150577	0.053305	0.075133	0.001480	0.032307
0.209885	0.155704	0.136935	0.072014	0.538689
0.074992	0.113133	0.117586	0.055853	0.282955

Table A4. Estimates of $\Delta(k-1,n)/\sqrt{n}$ for k = 100 and n = 1,000,000 and the exponential distribution, obtained from 100 independent replications.

1.872000	1.886800	1.914800	1.988000	1.930600
1.966000	1.947400	1.964400	1.933400	1.896400
1.894800	1.948800	1.936400	1.944600	1.927800
1.857600	1.856400	1.921200	1.926800	1.932800
1.918000	1.940400	1.985000	1.872400	1.973800
1.915800	2.046800	1.940800	1.869200	1.935000
1.961200	1.972200	1.930600	1.904200	1.882800
1.901800	1.940600	1.924800	1.870000	1.973000
2.016000	1.956600	1.931600	1.837200	1.966200
1.958800	1.981400	2.008400	1.861600	1.956400
1.931400	1.921400	1.920800	1.864600	1.931000
1.904200	1.936800	1.881600	1.998400	1.961800
1.866800	1.911000	1.903200	1.920000	1.967400
1.943800	1.892800	1.912600	1.892800	1.953000
1.915400	1.920000	1.888200	1.960200	1.905200
1.840800	1.892200	2.041000	1.900200	1.951000
1.924600	1.881600	1.858200	1.889200	1.963000
1.914000	1.955600	1.938400	1.977600	1.960400
1.951400	1.891600	1.916200	1.945800	1.885000
1.895800	2.017400	1.918400	1.888800	1.954200

Table A5. Estimates of $[D(k,n)-n]/\sqrt{kn}$ for k = 100 and n = 1,000,000 and the Bernoulli $\{0,2\}$ distribution, obtained from 100 independent replications.

0.112000	0.026000	0.078000	0.092000	0.020000
0.130000	0.074000	0.026000	0.250000	0.042000
0.074000	0.122000	0.120000	0.004000	0.282000
0.006000	0.080000	0.154000	0.060000	0.532000
0.296000	0.044000	0.036000	0.072000	0.174000
0.104000	0.232000	0.460000	0.084000	0.020000
0.010000	0.052000	0.334000	0.006000	0.148000
0.070000	0.112000	0.012000	0.036000	0.068000
0.182000	0.206000	0.024000	0.118000	0.028000
0.558000	0.236000	0.038000	0.056000	0.236000
0.048000	0.010000	0.040000	0.018000	0.098000
0.112000	0.158000	0.136000	0.050000	0.048000
0.218000	0.094000	0.138000	0.086000	0.084000
0.050000	0.012000	0.540000	0.246000	0.068000
0.002000	0.214000	0.316000	0.018000	0.216000
0.036000	0.024000	0.032000	0.122000	0.180000
0.008000	0.054000	0.018000	0.004000	0.072000
0.250000	0.090000	0.144000	0.002000	0.046000
0.000000	0.030000	0.094000	0.020000	0.342000
0.042000	0.098000	0.026000	0.154000	0.120000

Table A6. Estimates of $\Delta(k-1,n)/\sqrt{n}$ for k = 100 and n = 1,000,000 and the Bernoulli $\{0,2\}$ distribution, obtained from 100 independent replications.

				n				
10^{4}	10^{4}	10^{4}	10^{5}	10^{5}	10^{5}	10^{6}	10^{6}	10^{6}
				k				
2000	4000	5000	2000	4000	5000	2000	4000	5000
2.4243	2.6177	2.6930	2.1358	2.2139	2.2253	2.0461	2.0615	2.0720
2.4371	2.6354	2.6948	2.1444	2.2011	2.2309	2.0391	2.0686	2.0771
2.4413	2.6269	2.7025	2.1379	2.2013	2.2237	2.0308	2.0717	2.0770
2.4299	2.6192	2.7066	2.1436	2.1972	2.2213	2.0526	2.0662	2.0718
2.4403	2.6210	2.6933	2.1450	2.1958	2.2196	2.0548	2.0649	2.0685
2.4324	2.6138	2.6835	2.1295	2.1992	2.2272	2.0412	2.0625	2.0845
2.4466	2.6111	2.6954	2.1353	2.2097	2.2184	2.0550	2.0689	2.0735
2.4245	2.6190	2.7007	2.1370	2.1987	2.2242	2.0440	2.0682	2.0808
2.4196	2.6221	2.6963	2.1372	2.2055	2.2232	2.0459	2.0645	2.0742
2.4240	2.6205	2.6860	2.1369	2.2075	2.2240	2.0455	2.0674	2.0759
				mean				
2.4320	2.6207	2.6952	2.1383	2.2030	2.2238	2.0455	2.0664	2.0755
			S	td. deviatio	on			
0.0090	0.0067	0.0070	0.0048	0.0059	0.0036	0.0075	0.0031	0.0047

Table A7. Estimates of $[D(k,n)-n]/\sqrt{kn}$ for the exponential distribution. Each row was obtained from an independent replication.

				п				
10^{4}	10^{4}	10^{4}	10^{5}	10^{5}	10^{5}	10^{6}	10^{6}	10 ⁶
				k				
2000	4000	5000	2000	4000	5000	2000	4000	5000
2.1471	2.2977	2.3569	1.9972	2.0252	2.0377	1.9854	2.0023	1.9945
2.1493	2.2920	2.3535	2.0055	2.0288	2.0370	1.9923	2.0046	1.9980
2.1515	2.2930	2.3538	2.0069	2.0297	2.0324	1.9911	1.9946	1.9920
2.1480	2.2876	2.3612	2.0134	2.0256	2.0406	1.9886	1.9978	1.9934
2.1475	2.2860	2.3524	2.0090	2.0310	2.0373	1.9991	1.9938	1.9910
2.1511	2.2927	2.3561	2.0131	2.0259	2.0329	1.9945	1.9984	1.9961
2.1560	2.2945	2.3513	2.0045	2.0297	2.0333	1.9888	1.9994	1.9992
2.1632	2.2968	2.3600	2.0116	2.0260	2.0327	1.9881	1.9929	1.9933
2.1524	2.2917	2.3569	2.0157	2.0286	2.0418	1.9948	1.9910	1.9944
2.1547	2.2885	2.3589	2.0042	2.0275	2.0363	1.9873	1.9979	1.9933
				mean				
2.1521	2.2920	2.3561	2.0081	2.0278	2.0362	1.9910	1.9973	1.9945
			S	td. deviatio	n			
0.0049	0.0038	0.0033	0.0056	0.0020	0.0034	0.0042	0.0043	0.0026

Table A8. Estimates of $[D(k,n)-n]/\sqrt{kn}$ for the Bernoulli {0,2} distribution. Each row was obtained from an independent replication.



Figure A1. Q-Q plot with the standard normal distribution of estimates of $[D(k, n) - n]/\sqrt{kn}$, for $n = 10^6$ and k = 100, and the Bernoulli $\{0,2\}$ service times. There are 100 estimates from 100 independent replications.