Simulation and Optimisation of Queueing Systems

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[Motivation](#page-1-0)

Motivation

Figure 1: Tesco Queue

Queueing systems are a fundamental part of our every day lives. For example, we see queues in:

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- Retail
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Our goal is to be able to accurately model these queues, in hopes that we are able to optimise the system.

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- As a result, we propose the usage of simulations as an approach to model queueing systems.

[Queueing Theory Introduction](#page-8-0)

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A key feature of these distributions are that they are memoryless processes.

Hence, a system with one server would be denoted using Kendall's notation as an $M/M/1$ queue.

The state of the queues can also be modelled similar to that of a continuous time Markov Chain.

Figure 2: Markov Chain Respresentation of Queue States

[M/M/1 Queue](#page-13-0)

• The simulation of queues uses the interarrival time distribution to simulate discrete time points where events occur.

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- This interarrival time is distributed by an exponential distribution.

Simulation of M/M/1 Queues

Figure 3: Queueing Simulation with $\lambda = 0.6$ and $\mu = 0.8$ up to $t = 100$

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In an M/M/1 queue when $\lambda < \mu$, we have the closed form steady state solution:

$$
p_n=(1-\rho)\rho^n, \quad \rho=\frac{\lambda}{\mu}
$$

Figure 4: Density Histogram of 1000 Queue Simulations to Steady State Solution

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- Impatient Customers
- Scheduling Disciplines
- Group arrivals and departures
- and many more...

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Today, we will look at the issue of non-constant arrival rate.

[M\(t\)/M/1 Queue](#page-24-0)

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What could be the issues with an inhomogeneous poisson process?

- Now the interarrival time will not necessarily be exponentially distributed. Could simulation be harder?
- With varying transitional properties, this makes the problem an inhomogeneous process, hence a steady state solution will likely not be available.
- We simulate a homogeneous queue with an arrival rate of $\overline{\lambda}$ = sup_t $\lambda(t)$.
- For each arrival, we want to accept the arrival with probability:

$$
\mathbb{P}\{\text{Accept Arrival}\} = \frac{\lambda(t)}{\bar{\lambda}}
$$

where *t* represents the time in which the arrival at rate $\bar{\lambda}$ has occurred.

This is what is known as a thinning algorithm.

Thinning Algorithm

Figure5: Thinning algorithm [[Chen, 2016\]](#page-60-0)

Inhomogeneous Poisson Process

Figure 6: Inhomogeneous Poisson Process with $\lambda(t) = \sin(t) + 1$

Due to a lack of steady state solution, we use numerical integration for the comparison of our simulation.

Notation used:

 $p_n(t) = \mathbb{P}\{n \text{ in state at time } t\}$

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- 2. Apply classical queueing theory model for the next time step:

$$
p_n(t + d) = \lambda(t)dp_{n-1}(t) + [1 - \lambda(t)d - \mu d]p_n(t) + \mu dp_{n+1}(t)
$$

\n
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(1)

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- 3. Increment time point: $t = t + d$
- 4. Repeat until you reach maximum time.

To compare the results, we use average system length of both simulation and numerical integration result.

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We use this formula to calculate average system length of queue.

$$
L(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{n_{\text{max}}} np_n(t)
$$

Comparison

Figure 7: M(t)/M/1 Average System Length

[Queue Extensions](#page-39-0)

Comparison

Figure 8: Taxi Queue in Ibiza

One of the extensions we looked at was double-ended queueing systems.

Figure 9: Double-Ended Queueing System

Figure 10: Simulation of a double-ended queue with $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = 1$ and $\mu = 2$.

Sanity Check

With $\mu \to \infty$, one side of the queue will always be empty.

Figure 11: Simulation of a double-ended queue with $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = 1$ and $\mu = 10000$

[Decision Making - Optimisation](#page-44-0)

- Target variable is *λ*.
- We want to optimise to a certain objective denoted *F*(*λ*).
- \cdot An example can be within an M/M/1 queue where we maximise entry with respect to a cost of waiting time.
- Typically in reality, we will also require observations of our service time to complete this $\hat{\mu}$.

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- 2. Use the MLE to estimate the departure parameter *µ*.
- 3. Simulate the queue over a selected set of *λ*s.
- 4. Choose $\lambda_t^* = \arg \max_{\lambda} F(\lambda)$. Set the next cycle $\lambda_{t+1} = \lambda_t^*$.

Figure 12: Simulation Optimisation Flow Chart

Decision-making assumptions made:

- At *t*max, the queue no longer accepts entries but the simulation continues until all customers are served.
- Without this, computation may be more difficult as it would skew rate $\hat{\mu}$ upwards and average waiting time downwards.
- Begin with $\lambda_0 = 0.2$ and true $\mu = 1.5$.
- Cycle through 24 time units per cycle for 365 cycles.
- 40 (week long) simulations for each *λ* when optimising.
- Objective function is set as:

$$
F(\lambda) = \frac{\#arrivals}{t_{\text{max}}} - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i}{n}
$$

• The steady state equivalent for this is

$$
F(\lambda) = \lambda - \frac{\lambda}{\mu(\mu - \lambda)}
$$

Example Optimisation

Pros

- Converges relatively quickly dependent on $\hat{\mu}$.
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Cons

- Computationally slow with more complex systems.
- Does not settle on a solution and constantly fluctuates (hence the need for splines for understandability).

[Conclusion](#page-57-0)

- Improve computational time for simulations.
- Develop simulations for more advanced queues with less assumptions, i.e. multi-server queue
- Develop optimisations for more advanced queues, i.e. double-ended taxi queues.
- Explore further simulation optimisation methodologies.

[References](#page-59-0)

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Any questions?

[Appendix](#page-62-0)

Proof: Poisson Arrival Implies Exponential Interarrival

Let *Tⁿ* and *Tⁿ−*¹ denote the time difference between two arrivals, i.e. the interarrival time, and $p_n(t) = \frac{(\lambda t)^n}{n!}$ $\frac{\lambda(t)}{n!}$ exp($\lambda(t)$).

> $F(t) = \mathbb{P}(T_n - T_{n-1} \leq t)$ $= \mathbb{P}(T_1 \leq t)$ due to memoryless property = P*{*at least one event occured (0*,t*]*}* = 1 *−* P*{*no event occured (0*,t*]*}* $= 1 - p_0(t)$ $= 1 - \exp(-\lambda t)$

Hence obtaining the PDF, we can differentiate *F*(*t*)

$$
f(t) = \frac{dF(t)}{dt} = \lambda \exp(-\lambda t)
$$

Which is the PDF for the exponential distribution.

(2)

Objective functions can be chosen to suit needs of decision maker. Examples:

• Maintain unit of time by replacing arrival count with interarrival time.

$$
F(\lambda) = -\frac{1}{\lambda} - \frac{\lambda}{\mu(\mu - \lambda)}
$$

• Adjust severeness of reward or cost of existing objective function by *α* and *β*.

$$
F(\lambda) = \alpha \lambda - \beta \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu(\mu - \lambda)} \right)
$$