Queueing Analysis of Oblivious Packet-Routing Networks

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Abstract

We consider the problem of determining the probability distribution on the queue sizes in a general oblivious packet-routing network. We assume packets continuously arrive at each node of the network according to a Poisson Process with rate $\lambda$. We also assume that an edge may be traversed by only one packet at a time, and the time to traverse an edge is an exponentially distributed random variable with mean 1.

We show that the queueing-theoretic solution to the problem requires solving a large system of simultaneous equations.

We present a simple combinatorial formula which represents the solution to the system of queueing equations. This combinatorial formula is especially simple and insightful in the case of greedy routing to random destinations.

We use the formula to obtain results including: the probability distribution on the queue sizes, the expected queue sizes, and the expected packet delay (all as a function of $\lambda$ and $n$) in the case of an $n \times n$ array and a torus network with greedy randomized routing.

1 Introduction

1.1 Setup

Definition 1 An oblivious routing scheme $\mathcal{R}$ specifies for any (source, destination) pair exactly one acyclic path from the source to the destination.

Let $\mathcal{R}$ be any oblivious packet routing scheme.

Let $\mathcal{N}$ be any network with the following properties:

- $\mathcal{N}$ consists of $m$ processors with directed wires between some pairs of processors.
- New packets arrive at processor $i$ according to a Poisson Process with rate $r_i$. That is, the time between arrivals is exponential with rate $r_i$.

- A packet contains a destination field and a data field.
- Packets are routed from their source (origination processor in $\mathcal{N}$) to their destination processor according to $\mathcal{R}$.
- The time it takes for a packet to move through an edge has distribution $D$ and mean 1.
- Only one packet may be on a particular directed edge at a time. If two packets require the same edge, contention is resolved via First-Come-First-Serve (FCFS).

We consider the problem of determining the queue buildup on the edges of $\mathcal{N}$.

1.2 Previous History

In the above problem, if $D$ is exponential, we can convert $\mathcal{N}$ with routing scheme $\mathcal{R}$ into a Jackson Queueing Network $\mathcal{Q}$, where the nodes of $\mathcal{Q}$ correspond to the edges of $\mathcal{N}$. Since the Jackson Queueing Network $\mathcal{Q}$ is a product-form network, we can use queueing formulae to obtain the exact probability distribution on the queue sizes at the nodes of $\mathcal{Q}$. The problems with this approach are:

1. The Jackson Queueing Network requires that $D$ be exponential, whereas in most real-world networks $D$ is constant.
2. Using the Jackson Queueing Formulae requires first solving a very large system of simultaneous equations. Without first solving all these simultaneous equations, we have no information as to which edges have the greatest queue buildup, or what that queue buildup is.

Leighton’s work [11] addresses the above problem where $D$ is constant equal to 1. In this case, determining the queue sizes is much more difficult. Leighton’s analysis requires complex probabilistic reasoning and also the assumption that the packets are serviced in a Farthest-First order, rather than FCFS. Leighton’s results are for the case where $\mathcal{N}$ is a $\sqrt{N} \times \sqrt{N}$ array or torus, each packet has a random destination, and $r_i = \lambda$, $\forall i$. Unfortunately, the results are much more limited than results typically obtained using queueing

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theory.\textsuperscript{1}

Mitra and Cieslak \cite{12} study expected delay times on the Omega Network where packets arrive according to a Poisson Process with rate $\lambda$. They assume the edge service time distribution, $D$, is exponential. They are therefore able to translate their problem into a product-form queueing network. What is interesting about their work is their extensive experimental simulations comparing the case of $D =$ Exponential with mean 1 to the case of $D =$ Constant with mean 1. These simulations show that the expected delay when the service times are exponential is always an upper bound on the expected delay when the service times are constant. Furthermore, the expected delay with exponential service times never exceeds the expected delay with constant service times by more than a factor of 2.

Stamoulis and Tsitsiklis\cite{17} also take advantage of queueing theory. Their results are restricted to layered networks. They prove that for any layered network with Markovian routing, there is a product-form network (using processor-sharing scheduling) whose average delay upper bounds the average delay for the same network when the edge service times are constant and packets are serviced by FCFS. They show that the hypercube and butterfly networks are both layered networks and so they are able to obtain upper bounds on the average delay in the hypercube and butterfly (under greedy routing) by applying the queueing theory formulae for product-form queueing networks.

1.3 Synopsis of Paper

In this paper we assume $D$ is exponential. However, we show by simulation that the queue sizes obtained when $D$ is exponential are an upper bound on the queue sizes when $D$ is constant.

Since $D$ is exponential, queueing theory is applicable and we can convert $N$ with routing scheme $R$ into a Jackson Queueing Network $Q$ and compute the probability distribution on the queue size at the nodes of $Q$. A major practical drawback to using queueing theory when $m$, the number of processors in $N$, is large is that determining the queue size at the nodes of $Q$ requires first setting up and solving as many as $O(m^4)$ simultaneous equations. This system of equations determines the total arrival rate (rate of flow into a node from outside the network as well as from the node’s neighbors) at each node of $Q$.

Much research has been done specifically into how to solve the system of simultaneous equations that arise from queueing theory. Wallace \cite{19} presents an extensive survey of methods used to solve the system of equations for the total arrival rate at each node. All the methods however still require a significant amount of work and some give only approximate solutions. Also, even if one is interested only in the queue size at a particular node, one must solve the entire system of equations.

In this paper we eliminate the need to set up and solve the system of equations associated with using queueing theory. We derive a simple combinatorial formula for the total arrival rate at each node. In the special case where packets are routed to random destinations (as is done in the first half of any randomized routing algorithm \cite{18}) and where $r_i = \lambda$, $\forall i$, our combinatorial formula states that:

\[(\text{Total arrival rate into a node of } Q) = \frac{\lambda}{m} (\text{no. paths through the node consistent with } R)\]

where a path is consistent with $R$ if it is a path specified by $R$.

This formula seems so intuitive that we are surprised none of our references, including the following major queueing texts \cite{16}, \cite{20}, \cite{8} \cite{1}, \cite{2} and the foundational queueing papers \cite{6}, \cite{7}, \cite{5} make this observation. Perhaps the reason that this combinatorial relation hasn’t been noticed before is that queueing theory, although extremely popular for communication and scheduling problems (see for example \cite{9} and \cite{14}), hasn’t been applied nearly as much to randomized routing on networks.

Besides its importance from a computational point of view, the above combinatorial formula is very important because of the insight it gives us into the queue lengths. The queue size at a node of $Q$ increases with the total arrival rate at the node. Since the total arrival rate at a node is proportional to the number of paths consistent with $R$ through the node, we see that the queue size is greatest for nodes which have a lot of $R$-consistent paths through them.

Although our results apply to any network in which packets are routed via an oblivious routing scheme, as examples we look at the array network and the torus network and analyze them in the case where the destinations are random and where $R$ is greedy routing. We choose this setup specifically because it is similar to the scenario analyzed by Leighton\textsuperscript{2}, \cite{11}

\textsuperscript{1}For both array networks and torus networks, Leighton proves that if the arrival rate of packets is at most 99% of network capacity, then in any window of $T$ steps, the maximum observed queue size is $O\left(1 + \frac{\sqrt{T}}{\log T}\right)$, with probability $1 - O\left(\frac{1}{\log T}\right)$.

\textsuperscript{2}Although \cite{10} and \cite{15} also derive results on queue sizes for the array, they only analyze permutation routing.
Since for an array the number of greedy paths through a node increases as the Euclidean distance of the node from the center of the array decreases, we see by our combinatorial formula that the queue sizes in the array increase as we look at nodes closer to the center of the array. In the case of a torus, the nodes are indistinguishable, so the number of greedy paths through each node is the same, and therefore so is the queue size. For both the array and torus, we use the combinatorial formulas for total arrival rate to obtain very simple formulas for the probability distribution on the queue sizes, the expected queue sizes, and the average packet delay, as a function of $\lambda$.

1.4 Outline

In Section 2 we give a brief tutorial on queueing theory. We will not use any queueing theory beyond what is contained in this section. In Section 3 we show how to convert any network $N$, of the type described in Section 1.1 with exponential edge-traversal times, having any associated oblivious routing scheme into a Jackson Queueing Network, so that we can apply the formulae from queueing theory. Section 4 relates total arrival rate into a node to the number of $R$-consistent paths through the node. Section 5 and Section 6 apply our result to arrays and tori respectively. Lastly, Section 7 describes our simulations contrasting exponential edge-traversal times versus constant edge-traversal times. For the omitted proofs, see [3] and [4].

2 Multiple-Job-Class Open Jackson Queueing Network Model

The Queueing Network Model we use [2], [5] assumes there are $m$ servers with one processor per server. There are $r$ classes, or types of packets. Packets of class $l$ arrive at server $i$ from outside the network according to a Poisson Process with rate $\lambda_i^{(l)}$. A packet of class $l$ at server $i$ next moves to server $j$ with probability $p_{ij}^{(l)}$. (The queueing network model assumes a complete directed graph connecting the servers. We can model a network with fewer edges, by simply making some of the edge probabilities zero.) A packet at server $i$ may also leave the network, with some probability, rather than continuing to another server. Lastly the service time at server $i$ is exponentially distributed with rate $\mu_i$.

We will use the notation $n_i$ to denote the number of packets at server $i$.

**Theorem 2** [2] When the queueing network is in steady state, and if $\mu_i = 1$, $\forall i$, then the probability that there are $n_i$ packets queued at server $i$, $p_i(n_i)$, is given by

$$p_i(n_i) = (1 - \lambda_i)\lambda_i^{n_i}$$

where $\lambda_i = \sum_{l=1}^{r} \lambda_i^{(l)}$;

$$\lambda_i^{(l)} = r_i^{(l)} + \sum_{j=1}^{m} p_{ji}^{(l)}\lambda_j^{(l)}$$

and $p_i(n_i)$ is independent of $p_j(n_j), \forall i, j$.

Here $\lambda_i^{(l)}$ represents the total arrival rate of packets into server $i$ from both outside the network and from neighboring servers, and $\lambda_i^{(l)}$ is the total arrival rate into server $i$ of class $l$ packets. Equations 2 are known as the balance equations, since they balance the rate at which packets enter and leave a server.

Observe that determining $p_i(n_i)$ requires solving $O(m \cdot r)$ simultaneous equations for the $\lambda_i^{(l)}$'s.

Lastly let $N_i$ be a random variable representing the number of packets at server $i$ (in steady state). Since by Theorem 2, $N_i$ has a distribution which is geometric times a factor $\lambda_i$, we have:

$$E[N_i] = \frac{\lambda_i}{1 - \lambda_i}$$

$$var(N_i) = \frac{\lambda_i}{(1 - \lambda_i)^2}$$

$E[N_i]$ can also be used to derive the average delay of packets. Recall Little's Formula states $\bar{N} = AT$ where $\bar{N}$ is the average number of jobs in queue in the entire system and $\bar{T}$ is the average delay of a job and $A$ is the arrival rate of jobs into the system.

For the Jackson Queueing Network above, if $r_i = \sum_{l} r_i^{(l)} = \lambda$, then $\bar{N} = \sum_{i} E[N_i]$ and $A = \lambda m$, so

$$\bar{T} = \frac{\bar{N}}{\lambda m} = \frac{\sum_{i} E[N_i]}{\lambda m}$$

3 Modeling Oblivious Packet Routing on a Network as a Jackson Queueing Network

We assume we are given a network $N$ with the following properties:

- $N$ consists of $m$ processors with directed wires between some pairs of processors.
- New packets arrive at processor $i$ according to a Poisson Process with rate $r_i$. 

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- A packet contains a destination field and a data field.
- Each packet is routed from its source (originating processor in $\mathcal{N}$) to its destination processor according to an oblivious routing scheme $\mathcal{R}$ (independently of other packets).
- The time it takes for a packet to traverse an edge is exponentially distributed with mean 1.
- Only one packet may traverse a particular directed edge at a time. If two packets require the same edge, contention is resolved via First-Come-First-Serve (FCFS).

In this section, we show how to convert any network $\mathcal{N}$ as described above with an associated oblivious packet routing scheme into a Jackson Queuing Network, $\mathcal{Q}$. This allows us to use the formulae of Section 2 to determine the exact probability distribution on the queue buildup at each edge of $\mathcal{N}$.

Since congestion takes place on the edges of $\mathcal{N}$, rather than the nodes, we create one server in $\mathcal{Q}$ for each directed edge in $\mathcal{N}$ and set $\mu_i = 1$ for all servers $i$ in $\mathcal{Q}$. When a packet originates at a processor node of $\mathcal{N}$, we model it as originating at the server of $\mathcal{Q}$ which corresponds to the first edge it must traverse according to $\mathcal{R}$. Observe that $\mathcal{Q}$ may have as many as $O(m^2)$ servers.

We now must determine $p_{ij}$ for $\mathcal{Q}$, that is the probability that a packet at server $i$ next moves to server $j$, so that the routing algorithm is modeled by the $p_{ij}$’s. For our general setup, $p_{ij}$ may not be defined, and is certainly difficult to compute. Therefore, we will associate a class, $(\text{source, destination})$, with each packet and compute $p_{ij}^{(s,d)}$, which is very clearly defined.

\[
p_{ij}^{(s,d)} = \begin{cases} 
1 & \text{if } j \text{ follows } i \text{ in the path} \\
& \text{specified by } \mathcal{R} \\
& \text{from } s \text{ to } d \\
0 & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]

Note that $r_s^{(s,d)}$, the rate at which packets headed for $d$ arrive at server $s$, is also specified by $\mathcal{N}$.

Lastly, we create a server in $\mathcal{Q}$ corresponding to each node in $\mathcal{N}$. We call these destination servers. Destination servers have service rate equal to infinity. Packets only enter destination servers if they have reached their destination. Note that since queues never form at the destination servers, these servers may be omitted from the queueing analysis completely.

We have now defined $\mathcal{Q}$ to simulate $\mathcal{N}$ with routing algorithm $\mathcal{R}$. By Theorem 2, we can now calculate the $p_i(n_i)$, the probability of having $n_i$ packets at server $i$ of $\mathcal{Q}$, by first solving the system of simultaneous equations equations for the $\lambda_i^{(s,d)}$’s and then summing those to obtain the $\lambda_i$’s. However, since the number of classes is $m^2$ and the number of servers in $\mathcal{Q}$ is $O(m^2)$, we must solve $O(m^4)$ simultaneous equations just to obtain $\lambda_i$ and therefore $p_i(n_i)$. Note that system of equations is linear and has 0/1 coefficients, however, as pointed out by [19], solving the equations is still a major task when $m$ is large.

In the next section, we present a simple combinatorial formula for $\lambda_i$ in $\mathcal{Q}$ which obviates the need to set up and solve the $O(m^4)$ simultaneous equations, and provides insight into the solution.

4 Total Arrival Rate at $i \leftrightarrow \# \mathcal{R}$-consistent Paths through $i$

**Definition 3** Let $\mathcal{R}$ be an oblivious routing scheme. A directed path starting at $s$ and ending at $d$ is consistent with $\mathcal{R}$, or $\mathcal{R}$-consistent, if it is the path specified by $\mathcal{R}$ from $s$ to $d$.

**Theorem 4** Let $\mathcal{Q}$ be the queuing network associated with a network $\mathcal{N}$ of the type described in Section 3, having an oblivious routing scheme $\mathcal{R}$. Then the value $\lambda_i$ has a simple intuitive meaning: It is the sum of the frequency of use of each $\mathcal{R}$-consistent path through $i$.

If the frequencies of use of all paths are the same, $\lambda_i$ is just the frequency of use of a path times the number of $\mathcal{R}$-consistent paths through $i$.

**Proof:** For the sake of the proof, assume that each packet has a class $(s,d)$ associated with it, where $s$ is the packet’s source (server at which it entered the network) and $d$ is the packet’s destination. Then

\[
\lambda_i = \sum_{(s,d)} \lambda_i^{(s,d)}
\]

where $\lambda_i^{(s,d)}$ is the total arrival rate of packets into server $i$ which have source $s$ and destination $d$.

Since packets are routed in the network according to $\mathcal{R}$, and since $\mathcal{R}$ is oblivious, then for any $(s,d)$ and any $i$, if the path from $s$ to $d$ specified by $\mathcal{R}$ passes through $i$, then $\lambda_i^{(s,d)} = r_s^{(s,d)}$, where $r_s^{(s,d)}$ is the rate at which packets arrive at $s$ (from outside) headed for $d$. If the path from $s$ to $d$ specified by $\mathcal{R}$ doesn’t pass through $i$, then $\lambda_i^{(s,d)} = 0$. So

\[
\lambda_i = \sum_{(s,d)} \lambda_i^{(s,d)}
\]
\[
\begin{align*}
&= \sum_{(s, d) \text{ s.t. } i \text{ is on } \text{ s to } d \text{ path specified by } \mathcal{R}} p^{(s, d)}_i \\
&= \sum_{(s, d) \text{ s.t. } i \text{ is on } \text{ s to } d \text{ path specified by } \mathcal{R}} \text{ rate at which path in } \mathcal{R} \\
&= \sum_{\mathcal{R}-\text{consistent paths through } i} \text{ rate at which that path is used}
\end{align*}
\]

If each path has the same frequency of use, then

\[
\hat{\lambda}_i = \left( \text{no. paths through } i \text{ consistent with } \mathcal{R} \right) \cdot \left( \text{frequency of use of a path} \right)
\]

\section*{Theorem 5}
Let \( \mathcal{N} \) be a network of the type described in Section 3, for which \( r_i = \lambda, \forall i \), and packets have random destinations. Let \( \mathcal{R} \) be an oblivious routing scheme for \( \mathcal{N} \). Let \( \mathcal{Q} \) be the queueing network associated with \( \mathcal{N} \) and \( \mathcal{R} \). Then

\[
\hat{\lambda}_i = \frac{\lambda}{m} \left( \text{no. paths through } i \text{ consistent with } \mathcal{R} \right)
\]

\textbf{Proof:} Each path is traversed with frequency \( \frac{\lambda}{m} \).

\section*{5 Example 1: Greedy Routing on Arrays}
Let \( \mathcal{N} \) be an \( n \times n \) network of processors arranged as a doubly-directed array, where

- New packets arrive at processor \( i \) of \( \mathcal{N} \) according to a Poisson Process with rate \( \lambda \).
- A packet contains a destination field which is a \textit{random processor in the array} and a data field. (This assumption comprises the first half of any randomized routing algorithm [18]).
- The time it takes for a packet to traverse an edge is exponentially distributed with mean 1.
- Only one packet may traverse a particular directed edge at a time. If two packets require the same edge, contention is resolved via First-Come-First-Serve (FCFS).

Let \( \mathcal{R} \) be the following \textit{greedy routing algorithm} for \( \mathcal{N} \): First the packet is routed to the correct column (as specified by its destination) and then to its correct row. Observe that \( \mathcal{R} \) is an oblivious routing scheme.

Then by the method of Section 3, we can model \( \mathcal{N} \) with routing algorithm \( \mathcal{R} \) by a Jackson Queueing Network, \( \mathcal{Q} \). We don’t even need to specify the parameters of \( \mathcal{Q} \), but rather we can immediately jump to Theorem 5 and compute \( \hat{\lambda}_i \) in \( \mathcal{Q} \). By Theorem 5,

\[
\hat{\lambda}_i = \left( \text{number of greedy paths through } i \right) \cdot \frac{\lambda}{m^2}
\]

We introduce some notation. Let the rows and columns of \( \mathcal{N} \) be numbered from 0 to \( n-1 \) with \((0,0)\) being in the upper, lefthand corner. Recall that there is a server in \( \mathcal{Q} \) for each node and directed edge of \( \mathcal{N} \).

There are 4 edges directed out of node \((i, j)\) in \( \mathcal{N} \). We use the notation \( P_{ijL}, P_{ijR}, P_{ijU}, P_{ijD} \) to denote the 4 servers in \( \mathcal{Q} \) corresponding to the 4 directed edges out of processor \((i, j)\) in \( \mathcal{N} \). We use the notation \( P_{ijs} \) to denote the destination \((i, j)\) server. (L: left, R:right, D:down, U:up, C:center). We use the notation \( P_{ijs} \) as shorthand for \( \{P_{ijS} : S \in \{R, L, U, D\}\} \).

\section*{Theorem 6}
The total arrival rate of packets at server \( P_{r,c,s} \) in \( \mathcal{Q} \) is

\[
\begin{align*}
\hat{\lambda}_{P_{r,c,\text{col},L}} &= \frac{\lambda}{n} (\text{col} + 1)(n - \text{col} - 1) \\
\hat{\lambda}_{P_{r,c,\text{col},U}} &= \frac{\lambda}{n} (n - \text{col})\text{col} \\
\hat{\lambda}_{P_{r,c,\text{row},L}} &= \frac{\lambda}{n} (n - \text{row})\text{row} \\
\hat{\lambda}_{P_{r,c,\text{row},D}} &= \frac{\lambda}{n} (\text{row} + 1)(n - \text{row} - 1)
\end{align*}
\]

\textbf{Proof:} We determine the number of greedy paths through \( P_{r,c,R} \). All greedy paths through \( P_{r,c,R} \) must have a destination to the right of \((r, c)\). There are \( n(n - c - 1) \) such possible destinations. Additionally since the algorithm routes packets to the correct column before changing rows, the only possible path sources are the \( c + 1 \) sources \((r,0),(r,1), \ldots, (r,c)\). Thus there are a total of \((c + 1)n(n - c - 1)\) paths through \( P_{r,c,R} \). So \( \hat{\lambda}_{P_{r,c,R}} = \frac{\lambda}{n} (c + 1)n(n - c - 1) \). The arguments for \( P_{r,c,L}, P_{r,c,U}, P_{r,c,D} \) are similar.

\section*{5.1 Probabilistic Analysis}

Given the total arrival rates, we can now easily compute the probability distribution on the number of packets queued at each server of \( \mathcal{Q} \), using Formula 1. For example,

\[
P_r[k \text{ packets queued at } P_{r,c,R}]
= \left( \frac{\lambda}{n} (c + 1)(n - c + 1) \right)^k \cdot \left( 1 - \frac{\lambda}{n} (c + 1)(n - c + 1) \right)
\]
Theorem 7 We define \( N_{(r,c)} \) to be the sum of the number of packets queued at \( P_{r,c,R} \), \( P_{r,c,L} \), \( P_{r,c,U} \), and \( P_{r,c,D} \).

\[
E[N_{(r,c)}] = \frac{n}{\lambda} \left( \frac{1}{b + x^2 - x} + \frac{1}{b + (x + 1)^2 - (x + 1)} + \frac{1}{b + y^2 - y} + \frac{1}{b + (y + 1)^2 - (y + 1)} \right) + 4
\]

where \( b = \frac{2}{n} - \frac{n^2 - 1}{4} \) and \( x \) and \( y \) are the horizontal and vertical distance of \((r,c)\) from the center of the array.

Proof: The proof uses Formula 3 plus some algebraic manipulation. See Appendix A for details.

Speaking very loosely, Theorem 7 tells us that given a node with horizontal distance \( x \) and vertical distance \( y \) from the array center, the expected sum of the queue lengths on edges out of the node is proportional to \( \frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{1}{y^2} \). Note the relationship to the Euclidean distance of the node from the center of the array.

Theorem 8 In order for the network to reach steady state, we must have

\[
\lambda < \frac{4}{n}
\]

Proof: Recall from formula 3, the expected queue size at server \( i \) of \( Q \), \( E[N_i] = \frac{\lambda_i}{1-\lambda_i} \). This becomes infinite when \( \lambda_i = 1 \). Since by Theorem 6, \( \lambda_i \leq \frac{\lambda}{n^2} + \frac{\lambda}{n^2} \), we require \( \lambda < \frac{4}{n} \)\]

This bound agrees with that derived from bisection arguments by Leighton [11].

We know from Theorem 6 that the maximum queue size occurs at the array center. What is the probability distribution on the maximum queue size in the array?

Theorem 9 If the arrival rate \( \lambda \) is \( p \) fraction of the maximum capacity, i.e. \( \lambda = \frac{np}{n} \), then

\[
Pr[k \text{ packets at } P_{\frac{r}{n},\frac{c}{n}}] = p^k(1-p)
\]

Proof: From Theorem 6 and Formula 1.

Observe that Theorem 9 is approximately true for \( P_{\frac{r}{n},\frac{n}{n}}, P_{\frac{r}{n},\frac{c}{n}}, P_{\frac{r}{n},\frac{d}{n}} \) as well.

Theorem 10 If the arrival rate \( \lambda \) is \( p \) fraction of the maximum capacity, i.e. \( \lambda = \frac{np}{n} \), then

\[
E[N_{\frac{r}{n},\frac{c}{n}}] = \frac{4p(n^2 - 1)}{n^2(1-p) + p} \rightarrow_{n \to \infty} 4 \left( \frac{p}{1-p} \right)
\]

Theorem 11 If the arrival rate \( \lambda \) is \( p \) fraction of the maximum capacity, i.e. \( \lambda = \frac{np}{n} \), then the average delay of a packet is

\[
T = \frac{1}{p} \left( \frac{1}{p\sqrt{\frac{1}{p} - 1}} - 1 \right)
\]

Proof: The proof combines Formula 4 with our combinatorial formula for expected queue size, given in Theorem 7. See Appendix B for details.

6 Example 2: Greedy Routing on a Torus

Let \( \mathcal{N} \) be an \( n \times n \) network of processors arranged as a doubly-directed torus, having the same properties as the array network of Section 5.

Let \( R \) be the following greedy routing algorithm: A packet first moves within its row to the correct destination column by taking the shortest route to the column (either left or right \( \leq \frac{n}{2} \) steps). Then, the packet moves within that column to its destination again by taking the shortest route (either up or down \( \leq \frac{n}{2} \) steps). If \( n \) is even, for destinations exactly \( \frac{n}{2} \) nodes away (that is, equally close either direction) Up and Right have preference. Let \( Q \) be the Jackson queueing network corresponding to \( \mathcal{N} \) with \( R \), as described in Section 3.

We now state without proof results for the torus network, of the same type as we proved for the array network. The proofs are analogous, and are further simplified by the fact that the nodes of a torus are indistinguishable.

Observe the interesting correlation between Theorem 10 and Theorem 15. This shows that the expected queue size at the center node of the array equals the expected queue size at every node of the torus, when the same fraction of maximum load \( p \) is used.

Theorem 12 For an \( n \times n \) torus, where \( n \) is even, the total arrival rate of packets at \( P_{r,c,s} \) in \( Q \) is

\[
\lambda_{P_{r,c,R}} = \frac{\lambda}{8}(n+2)
\]

\[
\lambda_{P_{r,c,L}} = \frac{\lambda}{8}(n-2)
\]

\[
\lambda_{P_{r,c,U}} = \frac{\lambda}{8}(n+2)
\]

\[
\lambda_{P_{r,c,D}} = \frac{\lambda}{8}(n-2)
\]

\[
E[N_{(r,c)}] = \frac{2(n+2)}{\lambda} - \frac{2(n-2)}{\lambda}
\]
If \( n \) is odd the total arrival rate of packets at \( P_{r,c,S} \) in \( Q \) is

\[
\lambda_{P_{r,c,S}} = \frac{\lambda}{8}(n - \frac{1}{n})
\]

\[
E[N_{r,c}] = 4\frac{n^2 - 1}{n^3} - (n^2 - 1)
\]

It is interesting to observe that the total arrival rates computed above for the torus are the same as the total arrival rates in the case of a ring.

**Theorem 13** In order for the network to reach steady state, we must have

\[
\lambda < \frac{8}{n}
\]

**Theorem 14** If the arrival rate \( \lambda \) is \( p \) fraction of the maximum capacity, i.e. \( \lambda = \frac{8n}{n} \), then (assuming \( n \) is odd)

\[
Pr[k \text{ packets at } P_{r,c,S}] = (1 - p + p) \frac{p}{n^2} + (1 - 1/n^2)^k
\]

**Theorem 15** If the arrival rate \( \lambda \) is \( p \) fraction of the maximum capacity, i.e. \( \lambda = \frac{8n}{n} \), then (assuming \( n \) is odd)

\[
E[N_{r,c}] = 4\frac{p(n^2 - 1)}{n^3} + p \rightarrow 4 \left( \frac{p}{1-p} \right)
\]

**Theorem 16** If the arrival rate \( \lambda \) is \( p \) fraction of the maximum capacity, i.e. \( \lambda = \frac{8n}{n} \), then (assuming \( n \) is odd)

\[
\overline{\lambda} = \frac{N}{n^3} = 4\frac{n^2 - 1}{8n - \lambda(n^2 - 1)} \rightarrow \frac{n}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{1-p}
\]

7 Simulations: Exponential Service Times vs. Constant Service Times

Our entire paper has assumed that the edge traversal times in our network \( N \) are exponentially distributed with mean 1. In real-world applications, however, the edge traversal times are usually constant. We conjecture that the queue buildup when the edge-traversal times are exponential with mean one is an upper bound on the queue buildup when the edge-traversal times are constant with mean one. In this section we show experimentally that this is indeed the case for the array network.

We ran our simulations for various values of \( n \), the array size, and \( p \), the fraction of maximum load. For any particular \( n \) and \( p \), we used exactly the same (random) arrival pattern for both exponential and constant service times. We adapted Fuat C. Baran’s implementation of the Minimal Standard Pseudo-Random Number Generator \((A = 16807)\) proposed by Park and Miller (see [13]) for a pseudo-random number generator.

Simulations began with all queues empty, and ran until the growth of the total queue size slowed down, at which point it was assumed the network had reached steady state. Once the network reached steady state, we computed the expected queue size at a processor by averaging the queue size at the processor over several time steps. For high \( p \)’s the total queue size continued to increase slowly never reaching the theoretical size. We believe that the simulations may take a very long time to reach steady state, explaining why the results are lower than predicted.

Table 1 shows the mean queue size at the center node of different size array networks with different loads.\(^3\) (For even \( n \), the mean of the queue sizes at the four center nodes is given.) The top entry in each cell is the theoretical queue size for exponential service. The middle entry is the result of a simulation with exponential service, and the bottom entry is a simulation with constant service. The exponential simulation agrees quite well with the prediction. Observe that the expected queue size when the service time is exponential is an upper bound on the expected queue size the service time is constant.

Tables 2, 3, and 4 present the mean queue sizes for all nodes in the case of \( p = .95 \) and \( n = 5 \). Table 2 is predicted sizes for exponential service time. Table 3 is the result of simulations with exponential service time, and Table 4 is the result of simulations with constant service. \((1097 \text{ in the fourth column of the first row of table 3 is not, unfortunately, a misprint.})\)

### Acknowledgements

We thank J. George Shanthikumar, Sheldon Ross, and Abhiram Ranade for their help and suggestions in developing these results.

### References


\(^3\)As in Section 5, we think of the expected queue size at a node of the array as being the sum of the expected queue sizes on the directed edges pointing out of that node.
Table 1: Mean Queue Size at the Center Node

<table>
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<tr>
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<th>.95</th>
<th>.99</th>
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<td>38</td>
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<td>9.23</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>70.6</td>
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<td>15.0</td>
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<td>22.2</td>
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<td>19.4</td>
<td>70.2</td>
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Table 2: Predicted Mean Queue Sizes, p = .95 n = 5

<table>
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<th>13.5</th>
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<td>22.3</td>
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<td>13.5</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
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Table 3: Simulated Exponential Service, p = .95 n = 5

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<th>19.0</th>
<th>1097</th>
<th>3.0</th>
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<tr>
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<td>32.8</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>12.8</td>
<td>19.9</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Table 4: Simulated Constant Service, p = .95 n = 5

<table>
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<th>8.6</th>
<th>6.5</th>
<th>1.9</th>
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<td>12.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>6.7</td>
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<td>7.6</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


A Proof of Theorem 7

Proof: Recall we number rows and columns 0, ..., n−1. The center of the array is at \((\frac{n-1}{2}, \frac{n-1}{2})\). Let \(x = \text{col}(P) - \frac{n-1}{2}\) and \(y = \text{row}(P) - \frac{n-1}{2}\), the \(x\) and \(y\) offsets of the node from the center of the array. So \(\text{col}(P) = x + \frac{n-1}{2}\) and \(\text{row}(P) = y + \frac{n-1}{2}\). Note that when \(n\) is even, the center of the array as well as the offsets are fractions.

Rewriting the formulas from Theorem 6 in terms of \(x\) and \(y\) gives

\[
\begin{align*}
\hat{\lambda}_{P_{n,0,n}} &= \frac{\lambda}{n} \left( \frac{n-1}{2} + x + 1 \right) \left( \frac{n+1}{2} - (x + 1) \right) \\
\hat{\lambda}_{P_{n,0,l}} &= \frac{\lambda}{n} \left( \frac{n-1}{2} + x \right) \left( \frac{n+1}{2} - x \right) \\
\hat{\lambda}_{P_{n,v,u}} &= \frac{\lambda}{n} \left( \frac{n-1}{2} + y \right) \left( \frac{n+1}{2} - y \right) \\
\hat{\lambda}_{P_{n,0,d}} &= \frac{\lambda}{n} \left( \frac{n-1}{2} + (y + 1) \right) \left( \frac{n+1}{2} - (y + 1) \right)
\end{align*}
\]

Using Equation 3 and setting \(a = \frac{n^2-1}{4}\) and \(b = \frac{n}{2} - a\), we have

\[
\begin{align*}
E[N_{P_{n,0,n}}] &= \frac{a}{b} - \frac{(x+1)^2 + (x+1)}{b + (x+1)^2 - (x+1)} \\
E[N_{P_{n,0,l}}] &= \frac{a}{b} - \frac{x^2 + x}{b + x^2 - x} \\
E[N_{P_{n,v,u}}] &= \frac{a}{b} - \frac{y^2 + y}{b + y^2 - y} \\
E[N_{P_{n,0,d}}] &= \frac{a}{b} - \frac{(y+1)^2 + (y+1)}{b + (y+1)^2 - (y+1)}
\end{align*}
\]

The expected value of the queue at a node is the sum of expected values of queues at each petal, so

\[
E[N_{P_{n,l,u,v,d}}] = \sum S E[N_{P_{n,e,s}}]
\]

\[
= \frac{a}{b} - \frac{(x+1)^2 + (x+1)}{b + (x+1)^2 - (x+1)} + \frac{a - x^2 + x}{b + x^2 - x} + \frac{a - y^2 + y}{b + y^2 - y} + \frac{a - (y+1)^2 + (y+1)}{b + (y+1)^2 - (y+1)}
\]

B Proof of Theorem 11

Proof: Let \(b\) be defined as in Theorem 7. Let \(q = 4b - 1 = n(\frac{n}{2} - n)\) and \(\lambda = \frac{4q}{n}\).

We apply Formula 4 to determine the average delay, \(\mathcal{T}\), of a packet in \(Q\). Since the arrival rate of packets into the system is \(n^2\lambda\),

\[
\mathcal{T} = \frac{1}{n^2\lambda} \sum_{x=-(n-1)}^{n-1} \sum_{y=-(n-1)}^{n-1} E[N_{x,y}]
\]
\[ \begin{align*}
\hat{\lambda} &= \frac{1}{n^2 \lambda} \int_{-\frac{\lambda}{2}}^{\frac{\lambda}{2}} \int_{-\frac{\lambda}{2}}^{\frac{\lambda}{2}} E[N_{x,y}] dx dy \\
&= \frac{1}{n^2 \lambda} \int_{-\frac{\lambda}{2}}^{\frac{\lambda}{2}} \int_{-\frac{\lambda}{2}}^{\frac{\lambda}{2}} \frac{n}{\lambda} \left( \frac{\tan^{-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}}}{\sqrt{q} - 1} + \frac{\tan^{-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}}}{\sqrt{q} - 1} \right) + \\
&\quad \quad + \frac{4}{\lambda \left( \frac{n}{\sqrt{q} - 1} \right)} \left( \tan^{-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}} + \frac{\tan^{-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}}}{\sqrt{q} - 1} \right) - n \\
&= \frac{n \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{q} - 1} \right)}{\lambda} \left( \tan^{-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}} + \frac{\tan^{-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}}}{\sqrt{q} - 1} \right) - 1 \\
&= \frac{n \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{q} - 1} \right)}{\lambda} \left( \tan^{-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}} + \frac{\tan^{-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}}}{\sqrt{q} - 1} \right) - 1 \\
&= \frac{n \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{q} - 1} \right)}{\lambda} \left( \tan^{-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}} + \frac{\tan^{-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}}}{\sqrt{q} - 1} \right) - 1 \\
&= \frac{n \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{q} - 1} \right)}{\lambda} \left( \tan^{-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}} + \frac{\tan^{-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}}}{\sqrt{q} - 1} \right) - 1 \\
&= \frac{n \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{q} - 1} \right)}{\lambda} \left( \tan^{-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}} + \frac{\tan^{-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}}}{\sqrt{q} - 1} \right) - 1
\end{align*} \]