

SPAs for performance modelling: Lecture 5 — Tackling State Space Explosion

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12th April 2013



THE UNIVERSITY
of EDINBURGH

Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Model reduction
- 3 Decomposed solutions
- 4 Fluid Approximation
- 5 Case Study
- 6 Summary

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State Space Explosion

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Unfortunately, the size of these entities often exceeds what can be handled in memory.

This problem is known as **state space explosion**.

(All discrete state modelling approaches are prone to this problem.)

A simple example: processors and resources

$$Proc_0 \stackrel{def}{=} (task1, r_1).Proc_1$$
$$Proc_1 \stackrel{def}{=} (task2, r_2).Proc_0$$
$$Res_0 \stackrel{def}{=} (task1, r_3).Res_1$$
$$Res_1 \stackrel{def}{=} (reset, r_4).Res_0$$
$$Proc_0 \boxtimes_{\{task1\}} Res_0$$

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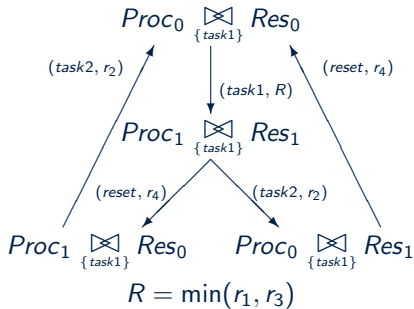
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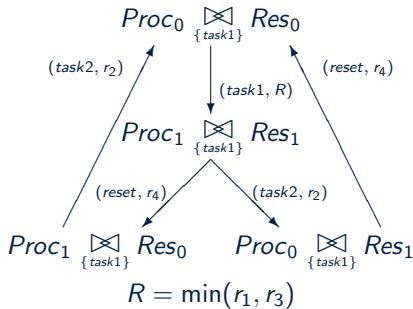
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$$Q = \begin{pmatrix} -R & R & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -(r_2 + r_4) & r_4 & r_2 \\ r_2 & 0 & -r_2 & 0 \\ r_4 & 0 & 0 & -r_4 \end{pmatrix}$$

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CTMC interpretation

Processors (N_P)	Resources (N_R)	States ($2^{N_P+N_R}$)
1	1	4
2	1	8
2	2	16
3	2	32
3	3	64
4	3	128
4	4	256
5	4	512
5	5	1024
6	5	2048
6	6	4096
7	6	8192
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The size of state space: $2^{N_P} \times 2^{N_R}$.

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 - state space reduction via **aggregation**;
 - **decomposed solution** techniques
 - **stochastic simulation** over the discrete state space;
 - **fluid approximation** of the state space.

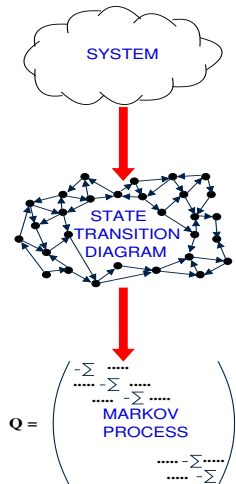
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Performance Modelling using CTMC

Model Construction

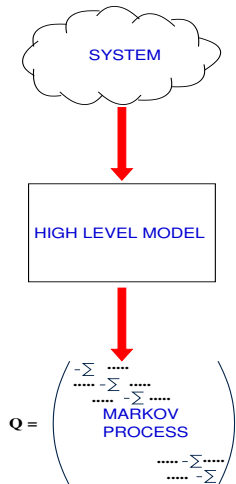
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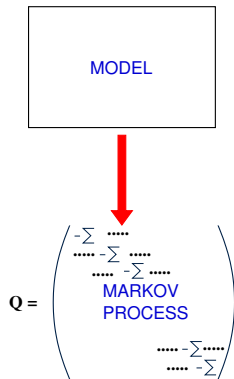
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- model simplification
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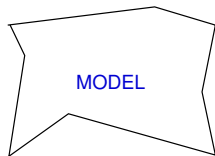
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$$Q = \begin{pmatrix} -\Sigma & \dots & & \\ \dots & -\Sigma & \dots & \\ & & \dots & -\Sigma \end{pmatrix}$$

MARKOV PROCESS

Performance Modelling using CTMC

Model Construction

- describing the system using a high level modelling formalism
- generating the underlying CTMC

Model Manipulation

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Model Solution

- solving the CTMC to find steady state probability distribution
- deriving performance measures

Model Manipulation

Model simplification: use a **model-model** equivalence to substitute one model by another which is more attractive from a solution point of view, e.g. smaller state space, special class of model, etc.

Model Manipulation

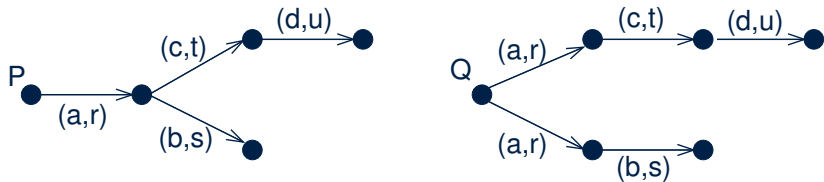
- Model simplification:** use a **model-model** equivalence to substitute one model by another which is more attractive from a solution point of view, e.g. smaller state space, special class of model, etc.
- Model aggregation:** use a **state-state** equivalence to establish a partition of the state space of a model, and replace each set of states by one **macro-state**, i.e. take a different stochastic representation of the same model.

Strong Equivalence in PEPA

Strong equivalence in PEPA is a bisimulation in the style of Larsen of Skou.

Strong Equivalence in PEPA

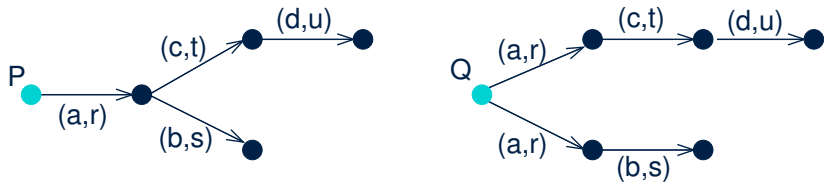
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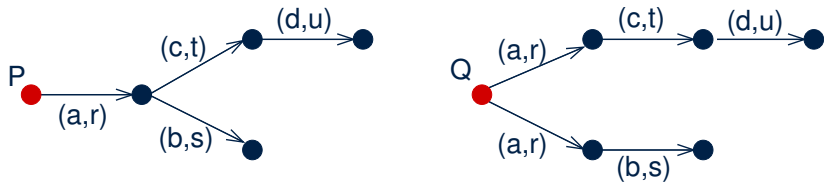
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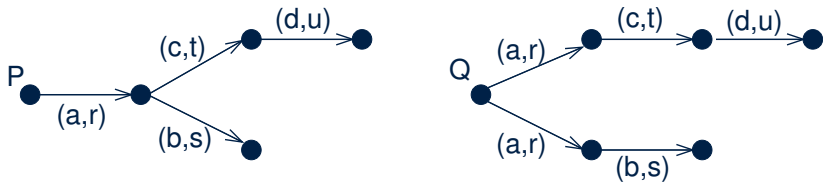
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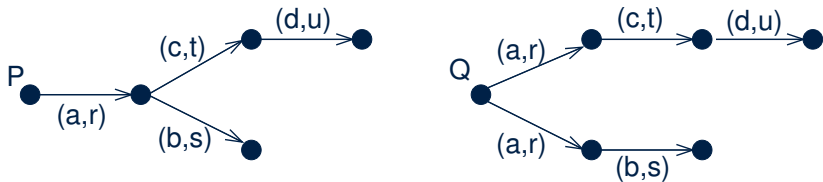


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Expressed as rates to equivalence classes of processes

Strong Equivalence in PEPA

Definition

An equivalence relation $\mathcal{R} \subseteq \mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{C}$ is a *strong equivalence* if whenever $(P, Q) \in \mathcal{R}$ then for all $\alpha \in \mathcal{A}$ and for all $S \in \mathcal{C}/\mathcal{R}$

$$q[P, S, \alpha] = q[Q, S, \alpha].$$

where

$$q[C_i, S, \alpha] = \sum_{C_j \in S} q(C_i, C_j, \alpha)$$

Strong Equivalence and Lumpability

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- Given this definition it is fairly straightforward to show that if we consider **strong equivalence of states within a single model**, it induces an ordinarily lumpable partition on the state space of the underlying Markov chain.
- Moreover it can be shown that strong equivalence is a congruence.
- This means that aggregation based on lumpability can be applied component by component, avoiding the previous problem of having to construct the complete state space in order to find the lumpable partitions.

Using this result in practice

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A more recent approach shifts to a **numerical representation of states and transitions**. [Jie Ding, PhD thesis, Edin. 2010]

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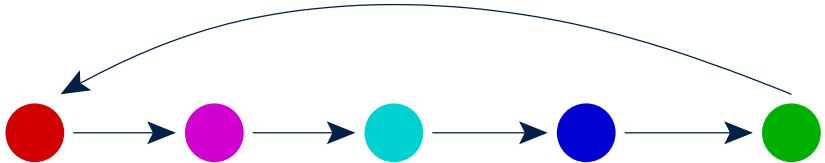
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However, in general we do not care **which** such instance is involved in an event, just that one of them is, i.e. it is sufficient to **count** the instances that are in the possible local states.

Thus we change to a state representation which is a **numerical state vector**.

Reducing by lumpability



When we use the numerical vector state representation for PEPA we group together those expressions that have the same counts for each of the local states and we are certain that the partition that we induce on the state space is **lumpable** and so the lumped process is **still a Markov process**.

Numerical Vector Form [QEST 2005]

Definition

For an arbitrary PEPA model \mathcal{M} with n component types $C_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, each with d_i distinct local derivatives, the numerical vector form of \mathcal{M} , $\mathbf{m}(\mathcal{M})$, is a vector with $d = \sum_{i=1}^n d_i$ entries.

The entry $\mathbf{m}[C_j]$ records how many instances of the j th local derivative of component type C_i are exhibited in the current state.

The entries in the system vector or a sequential component's vector are no longer syntactic terms representing the local derivative, but the number of components currently exhibiting this local derivative.

Example revisited

$$Proc_0 \stackrel{def}{=} (task1, r_1).Proc_1$$

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$$Res_0 \stackrel{def}{=} (task1, r_1).Res_1$$

$$Res_1 \stackrel{def}{=} (reset, s).Res_0$$

$$(Res_0 \parallel Res_0) \bowtie_{\{task1\}} (Proc_0 \parallel Proc_0)$$

Numerical vector form

For our example model:

$$\mathbf{m} = (\mathbf{m}[Proc_0], \mathbf{m}[Proc_1], \mathbf{m}[Res_0], \mathbf{m}[Res_1]).$$

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When $N_P = N_R = 2$, the system equation of the model determines the starting state:

$$\mathbf{m} = (N_P, 0, N_R, 0) = (2, 0, 2, 0)$$

We can apply the possible activities in each of the states until we find all possible states.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{s}_1 &= (2, 0, 2, 0), & \mathbf{s}_2 &= (1, 1, 1, 1), & \mathbf{s}_3 &= (1, 1, 2, 0), \\ \mathbf{s}_4 &= (1, 1, 0, 2), & \mathbf{s}_5 &= (0, 2, 1, 1), & \mathbf{s}_6 &= (2, 0, 1, 1), \\ \mathbf{s}_7 &= (0, 2, 0, 2), & \mathbf{s}_8 &= (0, 2, 2, 0), & \mathbf{s}_9 &= (2, 0, 0, 2). \end{aligned}$$

Numerical vector form

The initial state is $(2, 0, 2, 0)$ where the entries in the vector are counting the number of Res_0 , Res_1 , $Proc_0$, $Proc_1$ local derivatives respectively, exhibited in the current state.

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If we consider the state $(1, 1, 1, 1)$ it is representing four distinct syntactic states

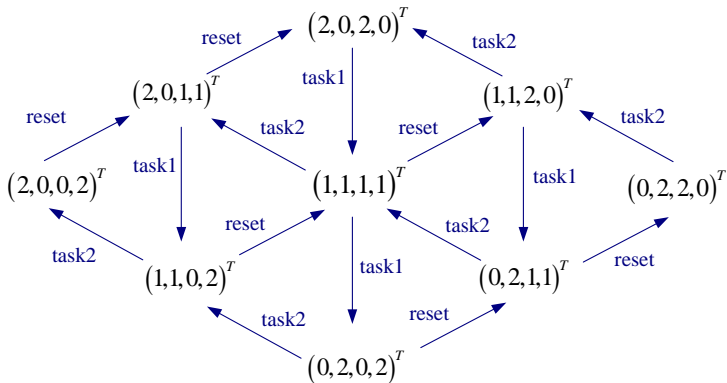
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The resulting state space



The size of the state space: $(N_P + d_P - 1)^{d_P - 1} \times (N_R + d_R - 1)^{d_R - 1}$.

Solution of an aggregated model

Once we have the state space of the aggregated model we construct the CTMC in the obvious way — associating one state with each node in the aggregated state transition diagram.

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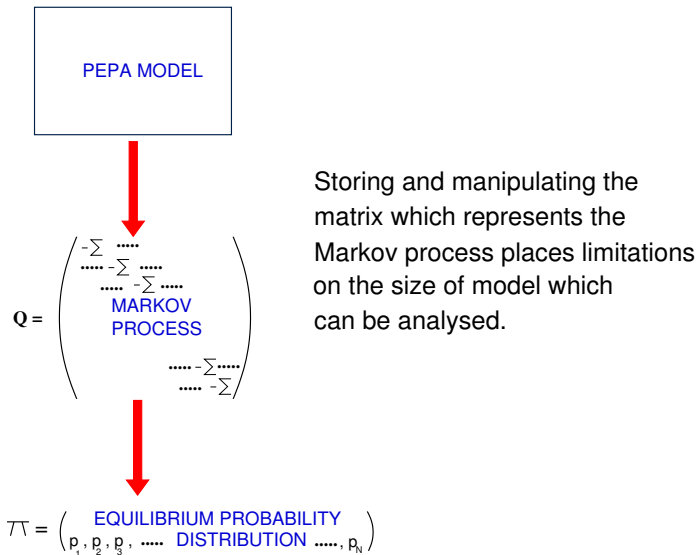
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The solution gives you the probability of being in the set of states that have the same behaviour.

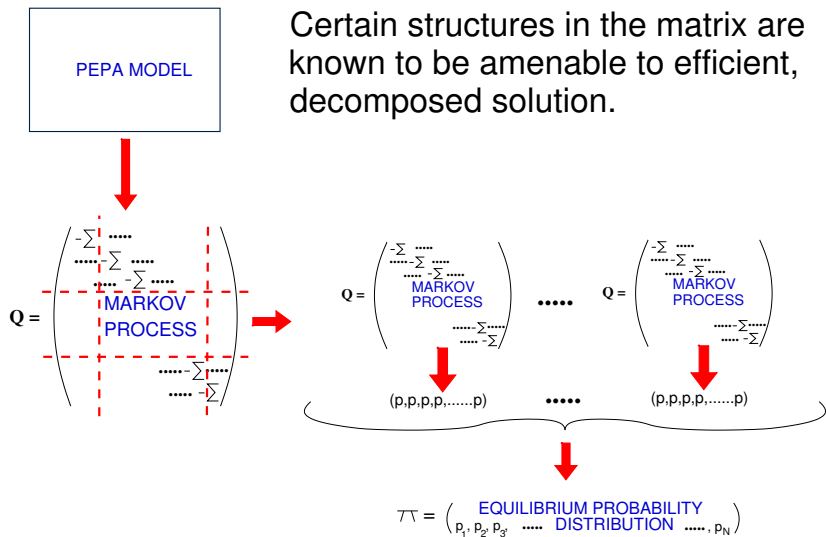
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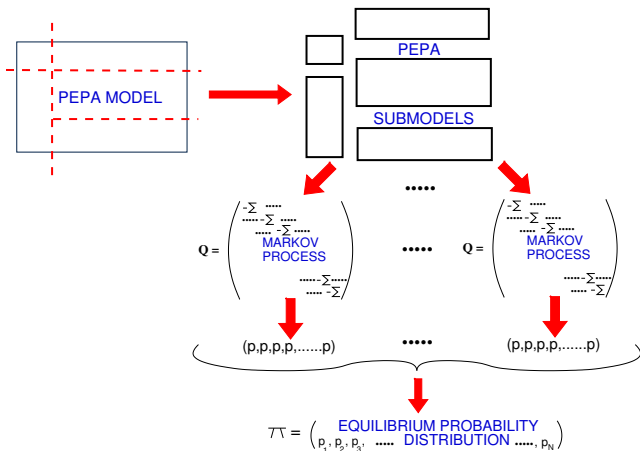
Characterising efficient solution



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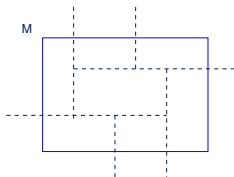


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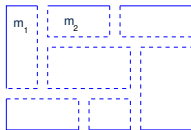
Finding the corresponding structures in the process algebra means that these techniques can be applied automatically, before the monolithic matrix is formed.

Decomposed solution: product form models



$$M = (m_1, m_2, \dots, m_n)$$

Partition the model M into n **statistically independent** submodels m_1, m_2, \dots, m_n



In isolation, find the steady state distribution p for each of the submodels m_i

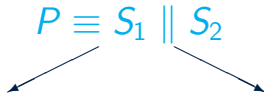
$$p(M)$$

$$p(M) = G \times p(m_1) \times p(m_2) \times \dots \times p(m_n)$$

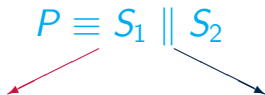
Form the steady state distribution of M as the product of the solutions for each submodel m_i and a normalising constant

When do PEPA components behave as if they were statistically independent...?

Product Form PEPA Models

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Add restricted **direct interaction**
between components with a
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S_1, S_2 and L all restricted

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Add **indirect interaction** via a third component with a particular structure and type of interaction

$$P \equiv (S_1 \parallel S_2) \underset{L}{\bowtie} R$$

L and R restricted (wrt S_1 and S_2)

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$$P \equiv S_1 \underset{L}{\bowtie} S_2$$

S_1, S_2 and L all restricted

- Quasi-reversibility
- Reversibility
- Routing process approach

Add **indirect interaction** via a third component with a particular structure and type of interaction

$$P \equiv (S_1 \parallel S_2) \underset{L}{\bowtie} R$$

L and R restricted (wrt S_1 and S_2)

- Boucherie resource contention
- Queueing discipline models
- Quasi-separability

Approximate solutions

Numerical solution of the full Markov process is regarded as the **exact** result and aggregation based on lumpability is also regarded as being exact.

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However due to the difficulties of staying within the confines of the Markov property most techniques for tackling state space explosion are not exact.

We are sometimes prepared to **trade exactness for tractability**.

Time Scale Decomposition

- Based on a well-established technique in the underlying CTMC, this approach partitions the states of the process according to the rates at which they undertake activities.

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Time Scale Decomposition

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- The assumption is that the model will form local equilibria within “islands” of fast activities, before occasionally moving on to a different “island” via a slow activity.
- Fast interacting states are modelled in detail in isolation, and an aggregated model captures the transitions between the clusters of states.

Time Scale Decomposition in SPA [Mertsiotakis 98]

- Activities are partitioned into **fast** activities and **slow** activities.

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- Similarly the aggregated model, with one state per cluster of fast activity is found by disabling the fast activities, again through null cooperation.

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- In SPA models, null cooperation over slow action types is used to identify the islands of fast activity, and each is solved as a separate model.
- Similarly the aggregated model, with one state per cluster of fast activity is found by disabling the fast activities, again through null cooperation.
- Each of the resulting CTMCs is solved and the results combined to give the overall solution.

Throughput Approximation in SPA [Mertsiotakis 98]

- The model is partitioned into two in such a way that there is a **one flow each way** between them.
- In SPA terms this means that the two subcomponents interact between a pair of actions, each passive with respect to one of them.
- Each subcomponent is solved in isolation to give an estimate of the throughput of the interface activity for which it is active, and assuming a rate for the interface activity for which it is passive.
- This pair of solutions is carried out **iteratively**, each time updating the passive rate according to the previous solution **until convergence** is achieved.

Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Model reduction
- 3 Decomposed solutions
- 4 Fluid Approximation**
- 5 Case Study
- 6 Summary

Fluid Approximation

The fourth approach to tackling state space explosion that we consider is the use of **fluid** or **continuous** approximation.

Fluid Approximation

The fourth approach to tackling state space explosion that we consider is the use of **fluid** or **continuous** approximation.

Here the key idea is to approximate the behaviour of a discrete event system which **jumps between discrete states** by a continuous system which **moves smoothly over a continuous state space**.

Continuously varying counting variables

When this is applied in performance models the state space is usually characterised by **counting variables**:

- the number of customers in a queue,
- the number of servers who are busy, or
- the number of local derivatives in a particular state in a PEPA model.

Continuously varying counting variables

When this is applied in performance models the state space is usually characterised by **counting variables**:

- the number of customers in a queue,
- the number of servers who are busy, or
- the number of local derivatives in a particular state in a PEPA model.

Allowing continuous variables for these quantities might seem odd to begin with — **what does it mean for 0.65 servers to be busy?** — but when we think of it as the expectation it becomes easier to interpret.

Simple illustrative example

Tiny example

$$P_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{start}, r).P_2$$

$$P_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{run}, r).P_3$$

$$P_3 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{stop}, r).P_1$$

$$\text{System} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (P_1 \parallel P_1)$$

Simple illustrative example

Tiny example

$$P_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (start, r).P_2 \quad P_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (run, r).P_3 \quad P_3 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (stop, r).P_1$$

$$System \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (P_1 \parallel P_1)$$

This example defines a system with nine reachable states:

$$1 \quad P_1 \parallel P_1$$

$$4 \quad P_2 \parallel P_1$$

$$7 \quad P_3 \parallel P_1$$

$$2 \quad P_1 \parallel P_2$$

$$5 \quad P_2 \parallel P_2$$

$$8 \quad P_3 \parallel P_2$$

$$3 \quad P_1 \parallel P_3$$

$$6 \quad P_2 \parallel P_3$$

$$9 \quad P_3 \parallel P_3$$

The transitions between states have quantified duration r which can be evaluated against a CTMC or ODE interpretation.

Analysis based on Continuous-time Markov Chains

Tiny example

$$P_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{start}, r).P_2$$

$$P_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{run}, r).P_3$$

$$P_3 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{stop}, r).P_1$$

$$\text{System} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (P_1 \parallel P_1)$$

Using transient analysis we can evaluate the probability of each state with respect to time. For $t = 0$:

$$\mathbf{1} \quad 1.0000$$

$$\mathbf{4} \quad 0.0000$$

$$\mathbf{7} \quad 0.0000$$

$$\mathbf{2} \quad 0.0000$$

$$\mathbf{5} \quad 0.0000$$

$$\mathbf{8} \quad 0.0000$$

$$\mathbf{3} \quad 0.0000$$

$$\mathbf{6} \quad 0.0000$$

$$\mathbf{9} \quad 0.0000$$

Analysis based on Continuous-time Markov Chains

Tiny example

$$P_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{start}, r).P_2$$

$$P_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{run}, r).P_3$$

$$P_3 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{stop}, r).P_1$$

$$\text{System} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (P_1 \parallel P_1)$$

Using transient analysis we can evaluate the probability of each state with respect to time. For $t = 1$:

$$\mathbf{1} \quad 0.1642$$

$$\mathbf{4} \quad 0.1567$$

$$\mathbf{7} \quad 0.0842$$

$$\mathbf{2} \quad 0.1567$$

$$\mathbf{5} \quad 0.1496$$

$$\mathbf{8} \quad 0.0804$$

$$\mathbf{3} \quad 0.0842$$

$$\mathbf{6} \quad 0.0804$$

$$\mathbf{9} \quad 0.0432$$

Analysis based on Continuous-time Markov Chains

Tiny example

$$P_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{start}, r).P_2$$

$$P_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{run}, r).P_3$$

$$P_3 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{stop}, r).P_1$$

$$\text{System} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (P_1 \parallel P_1)$$

Using transient analysis we can evaluate the probability of each state with respect to time. For $t = 2$:

$$\mathbf{1} \quad 0.1056$$

$$\mathbf{4} \quad 0.1159$$

$$\mathbf{7} \quad 0.1034$$

$$\mathbf{2} \quad 0.1159$$

$$\mathbf{5} \quad 0.1272$$

$$\mathbf{8} \quad 0.1135$$

$$\mathbf{3} \quad 0.1034$$

$$\mathbf{6} \quad 0.1135$$

$$\mathbf{9} \quad 0.1012$$

Analysis based on Continuous-time Markov Chains

Tiny example

$$P_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{start}, r).P_2$$

$$P_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{run}, r).P_3$$

$$P_3 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{stop}, r).P_1$$

$$\text{System} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (P_1 \parallel P_1)$$

Using transient analysis we can evaluate the probability of each state with respect to time. For $t = 3$:

$$1 \quad 0.1082$$

$$4 \quad 0.1106$$

$$7 \quad 0.1100$$

$$2 \quad 0.1106$$

$$5 \quad 0.1132$$

$$8 \quad 0.1125$$

$$3 \quad 0.1100$$

$$6 \quad 0.1125$$

$$9 \quad 0.1119$$

Analysis based on Continuous-time Markov Chains

Tiny example

$$P_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{start}, r).P_2$$

$$P_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{run}, r).P_3$$

$$P_3 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{stop}, r).P_1$$

$$\text{System} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (P_1 \parallel P_1)$$

Using transient analysis we can evaluate the probability of each state with respect to time. For $t = 4$:

$$1 \quad 0.1106$$

$$4 \quad 0.1108$$

$$7 \quad 0.1111$$

$$2 \quad 0.1108$$

$$5 \quad 0.1110$$

$$8 \quad 0.1113$$

$$3 \quad 0.1111$$

$$6 \quad 0.1113$$

$$9 \quad 0.1116$$

Analysis based on Continuous-time Markov Chains

Tiny example

$$P_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{start}, r).P_2$$

$$P_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{run}, r).P_3$$

$$P_3 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{stop}, r).P_1$$

$$\text{System} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (P_1 \parallel P_1)$$

Using transient analysis we can evaluate the probability of each state with respect to time. For $t = 5$:

$$\mathbf{1} \quad 0.1111$$

$$\mathbf{4} \quad 0.1110$$

$$\mathbf{7} \quad 0.1111$$

$$\mathbf{2} \quad 0.1110$$

$$\mathbf{5} \quad 0.1110$$

$$\mathbf{8} \quad 0.1111$$

$$\mathbf{3} \quad 0.1111$$

$$\mathbf{6} \quad 0.1111$$

$$\mathbf{9} \quad 0.1111$$

Analysis based on Continuous-time Markov Chains

Tiny example

$$P_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{start}, r).P_2$$

$$P_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{run}, r).P_3$$

$$P_3 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{stop}, r).P_1$$

$$\text{System} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (P_1 \parallel P_1)$$

Using transient analysis we can evaluate the probability of each state with respect to time. For $t = 6$:

$$\mathbf{1} \quad 0.1111$$

$$\mathbf{4} \quad 0.1111$$

$$\mathbf{7} \quad 0.1111$$

$$\mathbf{2} \quad 0.1111$$

$$\mathbf{5} \quad 0.1110$$

$$\mathbf{8} \quad 0.1111$$

$$\mathbf{3} \quad 0.1111$$

$$\mathbf{6} \quad 0.1111$$

$$\mathbf{9} \quad 0.1111$$

Analysis based on Continuous-time Markov Chains

Tiny example

$$P_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (start, r).P_2$$

$$P_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (run, r).P_3$$

$$P_3 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (stop, r).P_1$$

$$System \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (P_1 \parallel P_1)$$

Using transient analysis we can evaluate the probability of each state with respect to time. For $t = 7$:

$$1 \quad 0.1111$$

$$4 \quad 0.1111$$

$$7 \quad 0.1111$$

$$2 \quad 0.1111$$

$$5 \quad 0.1111$$

$$8 \quad 0.1111$$

$$3 \quad 0.1111$$

$$6 \quad 0.1111$$

$$9 \quad 0.1111$$

Analysis based on Ordinary Differential Equations

Tiny example

$$P_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{start}, r).P_2 \quad P_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{run}, r).P_3 \quad P_3 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{stop}, r).P_1$$
$$\text{System} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (P_1 \parallel P_1)$$

Using the ordinary differential equation semantics we can compute the expected number of each type of component.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{For } t = 0: & P_1 \quad 2.0000 \\ & P_2 \quad 0.0000 \\ & P_3 \quad 0.0000 \end{array}$$

Analysis based on Ordinary Differential Equations

Tiny example

$$P_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{start}, r).P_2 \quad P_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{run}, r).P_3 \quad P_3 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{stop}, r).P_1$$
$$\text{System} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (P_1 \parallel P_1)$$

Using the ordinary differential equation semantics we can compute the expected number of each type of component.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{For } t = 1: & P_1 \quad 0.8121 \\ & P_2 \quad 0.7734 \\ & P_3 \quad 0.4144 \end{array}$$

Analysis based on Ordinary Differential Equations

Tiny example

$$P_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (start, r).P_2 \quad P_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (run, r).P_3 \quad P_3 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (stop, r).P_1$$
$$System \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (P_1 \parallel P_1)$$

Using the ordinary differential equation semantics we can compute the expected number of each type of component.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{For } t = 2: & P_1 \quad 0.6490 \\ & P_2 \quad 0.7051 \\ & P_3 \quad 0.6457 \end{array}$$

Analysis based on Ordinary Differential Equations

Tiny example

$$P_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{start}, r).P_2 \quad P_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{run}, r).P_3 \quad P_3 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{stop}, r).P_1$$
$$\text{System} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (P_1 \parallel P_1)$$

Using the ordinary differential equation semantics we can compute the expected number of each type of component.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{For } t = 3: & P_1 \quad 0.6587 \\ & P_2 \quad 0.6719 \\ & P_3 \quad 0.6692 \end{array}$$

Analysis based on Ordinary Differential Equations

Tiny example

$$P_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (start, r).P_2 \quad P_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (run, r).P_3 \quad P_3 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (stop, r).P_1$$
$$System \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (P_1 \parallel P_1)$$

Using the ordinary differential equation semantics we can compute the expected number of each type of component.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{For } t = 4: & P_1 \quad 0.6648 \\ & P_2 \quad 0.6665 \\ & P_3 \quad 0.6685 \end{array}$$

Analysis based on Ordinary Differential Equations

Tiny example

$$P_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (start, r).P_2 \quad P_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (run, r).P_3 \quad P_3 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (stop, r).P_1$$
$$System \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (P_1 \parallel P_1)$$

Using the ordinary differential equation semantics we can compute the expected number of each type of component.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{For } t = 5: & P_1 \quad 0.6666 \\ & P_2 \quad 0.6663 \\ & P_3 \quad 0.6669 \end{array}$$

Analysis based on Ordinary Differential Equations

Tiny example

$$P_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{start}, r).P_2 \quad P_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{run}, r).P_3 \quad P_3 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{stop}, r).P_1$$
$$\text{System} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (P_1 \parallel P_1)$$

Using the ordinary differential equation semantics we can compute the expected number of each type of component.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{For } t = 6: & P_1 \quad 0.6666 \\ & P_2 \quad 0.6666 \\ & P_3 \quad 0.6666 \end{array}$$

Analysis based on Ordinary Differential Equations

Tiny example

$$P_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (start, r).P_2 \quad P_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (run, r).P_3 \quad P_3 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (stop, r).P_1$$
$$System \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (P_1 \parallel P_1)$$

Using the ordinary differential equation semantics we can compute the expected number of each type of component.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{For } t = 7: & P_1 \quad 0.6666 \\ & P_2 \quad 0.6666 \\ & P_3 \quad 0.6666 \end{array}$$

Analysis based on Ordinary Differential Equations

Slightly larger example

$$P_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{start}, r).P_2 \quad P_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{run}, r).P_3 \quad P_3 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{stop}, r).P_1$$
$$\text{System} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (P_1 \parallel P_1 \parallel P_1)$$

A slightly larger example with a third copy of the process also initiated in state P_1 .

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{For } t = 0: & P_1 \quad 3.0000 \\ & P_2 \quad 0.0000 \\ & P_3 \quad 0.0000 \end{array}$$

Analysis based on Ordinary Differential Equations

Slightly larger example

$$P_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{start}, r).P_2 \quad P_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{run}, r).P_3 \quad P_3 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{stop}, r).P_1$$

$$\text{System} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (P_1 \parallel P_1 \parallel P_1)$$

A slightly larger example with a third copy of the process also initiated in state P_1 .

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{For } t = 1: & P_1 \quad 1.1782 \\ & P_2 \quad 1.1628 \\ & P_3 \quad 0.6590 \end{array}$$

Analysis based on Ordinary Differential Equations

Slightly larger example

$$P_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{start}, r).P_2 \quad P_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{run}, r).P_3 \quad P_3 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{stop}, r).P_1$$
$$\text{System} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (P_1 \parallel P_1 \parallel P_1)$$

A slightly larger example with a third copy of the process also initiated in state P_1 .

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{For } t = 2: & P_1 \quad 0.9766 \\ & P_2 \quad 1.0754 \\ & P_3 \quad 0.9479 \end{array}$$

Analysis based on Ordinary Differential Equations

Slightly larger example

$$P_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{start}, r).P_2 \quad P_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{run}, r).P_3 \quad P_3 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{stop}, r).P_1$$
$$\text{System} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (P_1 \parallel P_1 \parallel P_1)$$

A slightly larger example with a third copy of the process also initiated in state P_1 .

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{For } t = 3: & P_1 \quad 0.9838 \\ & P_2 \quad 1.0142 \\ & P_3 \quad 1.0020 \end{array}$$

Analysis based on Ordinary Differential Equations

Slightly larger example

$$P_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{start}, r).P_2 \quad P_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{run}, r).P_3 \quad P_3 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{stop}, r).P_1$$
$$\text{System} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (P_1 \parallel P_1 \parallel P_1)$$

A slightly larger example with a third copy of the process also initiated in state P_1 .

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{For } t = 4: & P_1 \quad 0.9981 \\ & P_2 \quad 0.9995 \\ & P_3 \quad 1.0023 \end{array}$$

Analysis based on Ordinary Differential Equations

Slightly larger example

$$P_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{start}, r).P_2 \quad P_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{run}, r).P_3 \quad P_3 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{stop}, r).P_1$$
$$\text{System} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (P_1 \parallel P_1 \parallel P_1)$$

A slightly larger example with a third copy of the process also initiated in state P_1 .

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{For } t = 5: & P_1 \quad 1.0001 \\ & P_2 \quad 0.9996 \\ & P_3 \quad 1.0003 \end{array}$$

Analysis based on Ordinary Differential Equations

Slightly larger example

$$P_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{start}, r).P_2 \quad P_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{run}, r).P_3 \quad P_3 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{stop}, r).P_1$$
$$\text{System} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (P_1 \parallel P_1 \parallel P_1)$$

A slightly larger example with a third copy of the process also initiated in state P_1 .

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{For } t = 6: & P_1 \quad 1.0001 \\ & P_2 \quad 0.9999 \\ & P_3 \quad 1.0000 \end{array}$$

Analysis based on Ordinary Differential Equations

Slightly larger example

$$P_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{start}, r).P_2 \quad P_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{run}, r).P_3 \quad P_3 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{stop}, r).P_1$$
$$\text{System} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (P_1 \parallel P_1 \parallel P_1)$$

A slightly larger example with a third copy of the process also initiated in state P_1 .

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{For } t = 7: & P_1 \quad 1.0000 \\ & P_2 \quad 0.9999 \\ & P_3 \quad 0.9999 \end{array}$$

Analysis based on Ordinary Differential Equations

Slightly larger example

$$P_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{start}, r).P_2 \quad P_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{run}, r).P_3 \quad P_3 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\text{stop}, r).P_1$$
$$\text{System} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (P_1 \parallel P_1 \parallel P_1)$$

A slightly larger example with a third copy of the process also initiated in state P_1 .

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{For } t = 8: & P_1 \quad 1.0000 \\ & P_2 \quad 1.0000 \\ & P_3 \quad 1.0000 \end{array}$$

Isn't this just the Chapman-Kolmogorov equations?

It is possible to perform transient analysis of a continuous-time Markov chain by solving the Chapman-Kolmogorov differential equations:

$$\frac{d\pi(t)}{dt} = \pi(t)Q$$

[Stewart, 1994]

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It is possible to perform transient analysis of a continuous-time Markov chain by solving the Chapman-Kolmogorov differential equations:

$$\frac{d\pi(t)}{dt} = \pi(t)Q$$

[Stewart, 1994]

That's not what we're doing. We go directly to ODEs.

Fluid approximation

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- We can represent the state of the system as the **count** of the current number of each possible local derivative or **component type**.

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- We can **approximate** the behaviour of the model by treating each count as a **continuous variable**, and the state of the model as a whole as the set of such variables.
- The **evolution** of each count variable can then be described by an **ordinary differential equation** (assuming rates are deterministic).

Appropriate for models in which there are large numbers of components of the same type.

Differential equations from PEPA models

- The PEPA definitions of the component specify the **activities** which can **increase** or **decrease** the **number of components** exhibited in the current state.
- The **cooperations** show when the number of instances of another component will have an **influence** on the evolution of this component.

Example revisited

$$Proc_0 \stackrel{def}{=} (task1, r_1).Proc_1$$

$$Proc_1 \stackrel{def}{=} (task2, r_2).Proc_0$$

$$Res_0 \stackrel{def}{=} (task1, r_1).Res_1$$

$$Res_1 \stackrel{def}{=} (reset, r_4).Res_0$$

$$Proc_0[N_P] \boxtimes_{\{task1\}} Res_0[N_R]$$

Example revisited

$$Proc_0 \stackrel{def}{=} (task1, r_1).Proc_1$$

$$Proc_1 \stackrel{def}{=} (task2, r_2).Proc_0$$

$$Res_0 \stackrel{def}{=} (task1, r_1).Res_1$$

$$Res_1 \stackrel{def}{=} (reset, r_4).Res_0$$

$$Proc_0[N_P] \boxtimes_{\{task1\}} Res_0[N_R]$$

- *task1* decreases $Proc_0$ and Res_0
- *task1* increases $Proc_1$ and Res_1
- *task2* decreases $Proc_1$ and increases $Proc_0$
- *reset* decreases Res_1 and increases Res_0

We can capture exactly this relationship between activities and components the **activity matrix** which has one row for each component and one column for each activity.

Example revisited

$$Proc_0 \stackrel{def}{=} (task1, r_1).Proc_1$$

$$Proc_1 \stackrel{def}{=} (task2, r_2).Proc_0$$

$$Res_0 \stackrel{def}{=} (task1, r_1).Res_1$$

$$Res_1 \stackrel{def}{=} (reset, r_4).Res_0$$

$$Proc_0[N_P] \boxtimes_{\{task1\}} Res_0[N_R]$$

	r_1	r_2	r_4
$Proc_0$	-1	1	0
$Proc_1$	1	-1	0
Res_0	-1	0	1
Res_1	1	0	-1

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ODE interpretation

$$\frac{dx_1}{dt} = -r_1 \min(x_1, x_3) + r_2 x_2$$

$x_1 =$ no. of $Proc_1$

$$\frac{dx_2}{dt} = r_1 \min(x_1, x_3) - r_2 x_2$$

$x_2 =$ no. of $Proc_2$

$$\frac{dx_3}{dt} = -r_1 \min(x_1, x_3) + r_4 x_4$$

$x_3 =$ no. of Res_0

$$\frac{dx_4}{dt} = r_1 \min(x_1, x_3) - r_4 x_4$$

$x_4 =$ no. of Res_1

We can capture exactly this relationship between activities and components the **activity matrix** which has one row for each component and one column for each activity.

Differential equations from PEPA models

- As we have already seen in deriving the activity matrix, the PEPA definitions of the component specify the **activities** which can **increase** or **decrease** the **number of components** exhibited in the current state.
- Moreover we can see for each component, which activities are **entry activities** and **exit activities** respectively.
- The **cooperations** show when the number of instances of another component will have an **influence** on the evolution of this component.

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In the following derivation we restrict to the case where all components that cooperate on an activity have the same rate for that activity.

Differential equations from PEPA models

Let $N(C_{ij}, t)$ denote the number of C_{ij} type components at time t .

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Consider the change in a small time δt :

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 N(C_{ij}, t + \delta t) - N(C_{ij}, t) = & \\
 & - \underbrace{\sum_{(\alpha,r) \in \text{Ex}(C_{ij})} r \times \min_{C_{k_l} \in \text{pre}(\alpha,r)} (N(C_{k_l}, t)) \delta t}_{\text{exit activities}} \\
 & + \underbrace{\sum_{(\alpha,r) \in \text{En}(C_{ij})} r \times \min_{C_{k_l} \in \text{pre}(\alpha,r)} (N(C_{k_l}, t)) \delta t}_{\text{entry activities}}
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Differential equations from PEPA models

Let $N(C_{ij}, t)$ denote the number of C_{ij} type components at time t .

Dividing by δt and taking the limit, $\delta t \rightarrow 0$:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dN(C_{ij}, t)}{dt} = & - \sum_{(\alpha, r) \in Ex(C_{ij})} r \times \min_{C_{k_l} \in pre(\alpha, r)} (N(C_{k_l}, t)) \\ & + \sum_{(\alpha, r) \in En(C_{ij})} r \times \min_{C_{k_l} \in pre(\alpha, r)} (N(C_{k_l}, t)) \end{aligned}$$

Activity matrix

Derivation of the system of ODEs representing the PEPA model can proceed via the **activity matrix** which records the influence of each activity on each component type/derivative.

The matrix has **one row for each component type** and **one column for each activity type**.

One ODE is generated corresponding to each row of the matrix, taking into account the **negative entries** in the non-zero columns as these are the **components for which this is an exit activity**.

Activity matrix for the small example

	$task_1$	$task_2$	$reset$	
$Proc_0$	-1	+1	0	x_1
$Proc_1$	+1	-1	0	x_2
Res_0	-1	0	+1	x_3
Res_1	+1	0	-1	x_4

Activity matrix to ODEs

The entry in the (i, j) -th position in the matrix can be $-1, 0$, or 1 .

- If the entry is -1 it means that this local state undertakes an activity of that type and so when the activity is completed there will be one less instance of this local state.

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- If the entry is 0 this local state is not involved in this activity.
- If the entry is 1 it means that this local state is produced when the activity of that type is completed, so there will be one more instance of this local state.

ODEs

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dx_1(t)}{dt} &= -r_1 \min(x_1(t), x_3(t)) + r_2 x_2(t) \\ \frac{dx_2(t)}{dt} &= r_1 \min(x_1(t), x_3(t)) - r_2 x_2(t) \\ \frac{dx_3(t)}{dt} &= -r_1 \min(x_1(t), x_3(t)) + s x_4(t) \\ \frac{dx_4(t)}{dt} &= x_1 \min(x_1(t), x_3(t)) - s x_4(t)\end{aligned}$$

- The form of ODEs is independent of the number of instances of components in the model.

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- The form of ODEs is independent of the number of instances of components in the model.
- The only impact of changing the number of instances is to alter the initial conditions.

Initialising the ODEs

Consider the model $Proc_0[100] \xrightarrow[\{task1\}]{} Res_0[80]$.

There are initially 100 processors, all starting in state $Proc_0$ and 80 resources, all of which start in state Res_0 .

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Then we set the initial conditions of the ODEs to be:

$$x_1(0) = 100 \quad x_2(0) = 0 \quad x_3(0) = 80 \quad x_4(0) = 0$$

Initialising the ODEs

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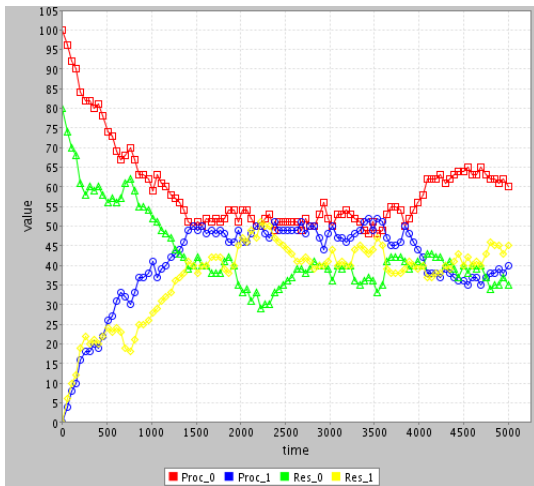
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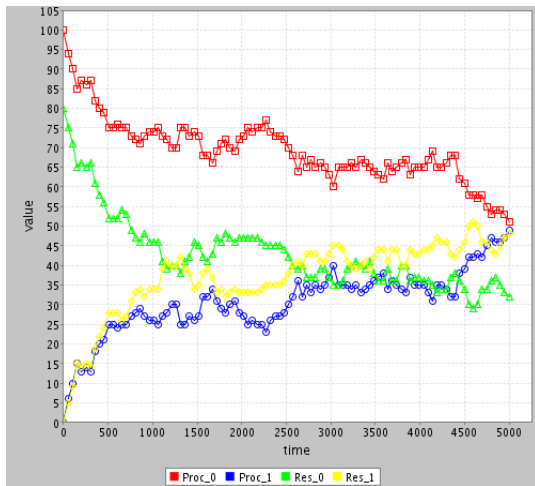
$$x_1(0) = 100 \quad x_2(0) = 0 \quad x_3(0) = 80 \quad x_4(0) = 0$$

The system of ODEs can then be given to any suitable numerical solver as an initial value problem.

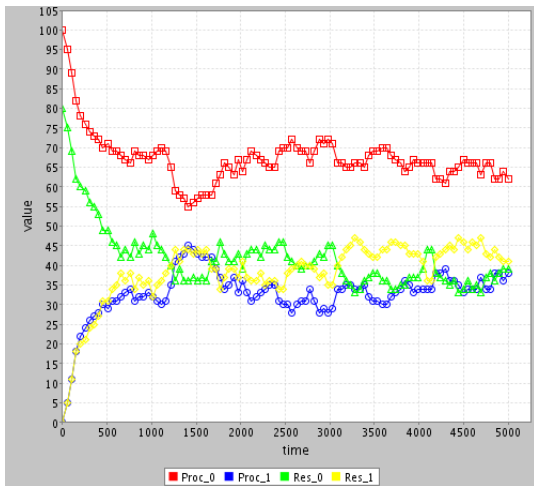
100 processors and 80 resources (simulation run A)



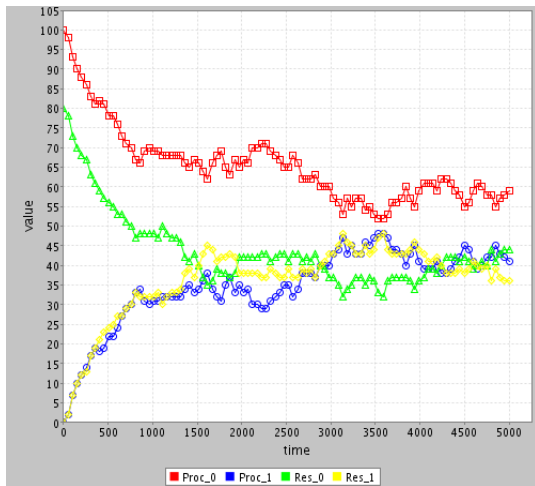
100 processors and 80 resources (simulation run B)



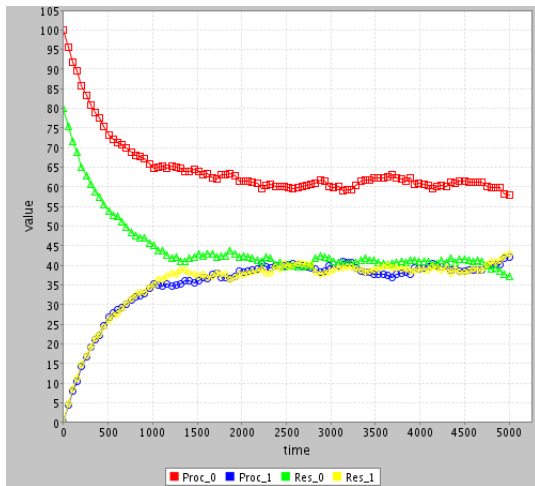
100 processors and 80 resources (simulation run C)



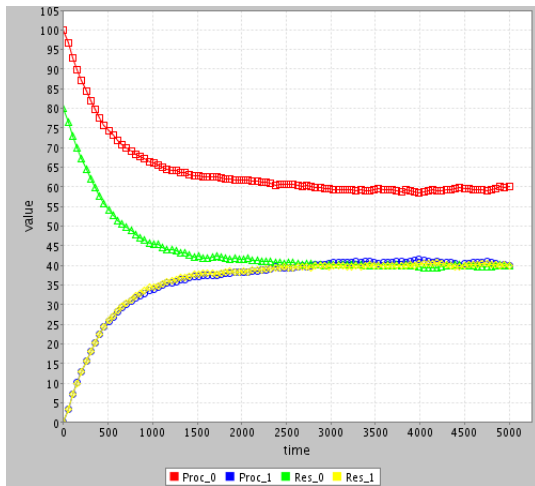
100 processors and 80 resources (simulation run D)



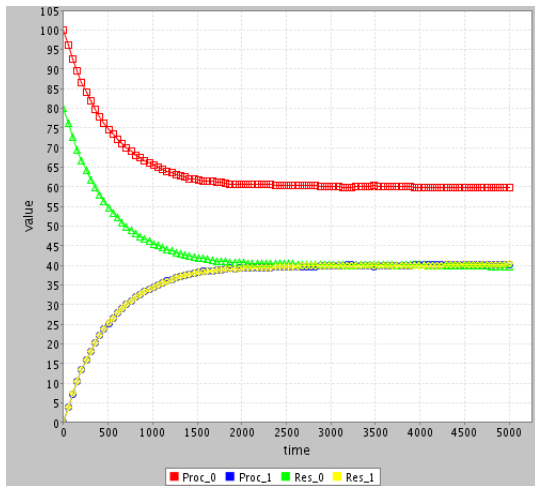
100 processors and 80 resources (average of 10 runs)



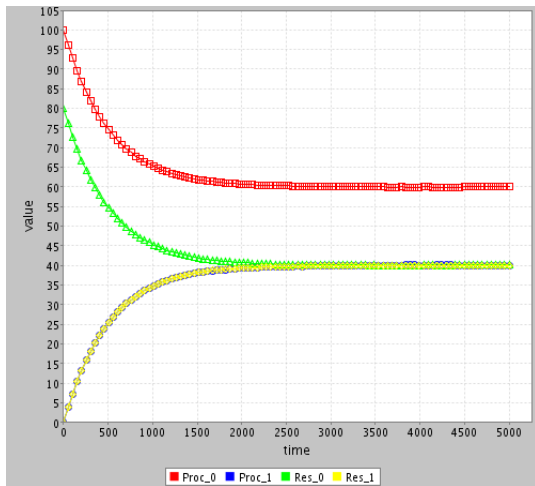
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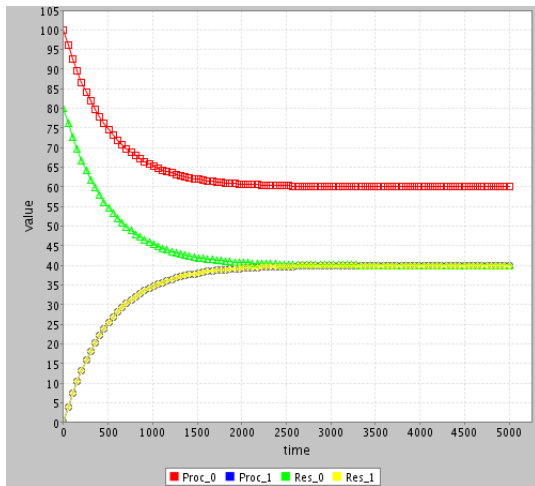
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100 processors and 80 resources (average of 10000 runs)



100 processors and 80 resources (ODE solution)



Outline

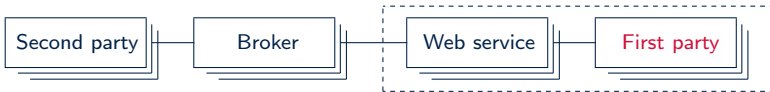
- 1 Introduction
- 2 Model reduction
- 3 Decomposed solutions
- 4 Fluid Approximation
- 5 Case Study**
- 6 Summary

Example: Secure Web Service use



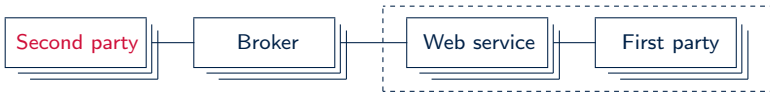
- The example which we consider is a **Web service** which has two types of clients:
 - first party application clients which access the web service across a secure intranet, and
 - second party browser clients which access the Web service across the Internet.
- Second party clients route their service requests via trusted brokers.

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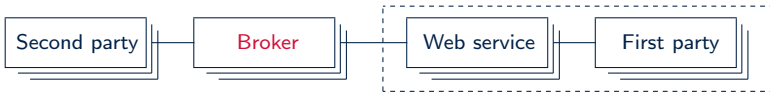
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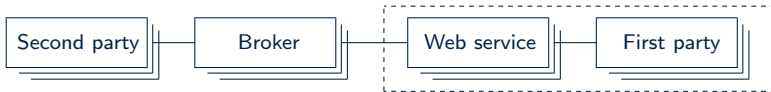
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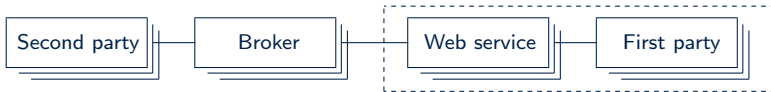
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Scalability and replication



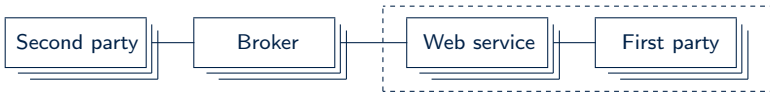
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Scalability and replication



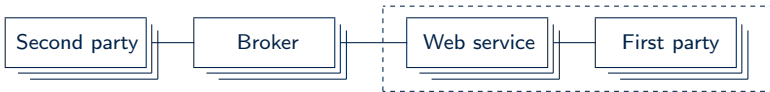
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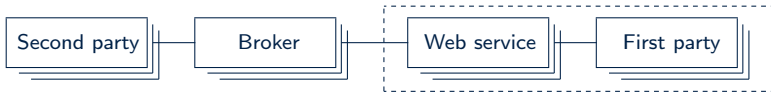
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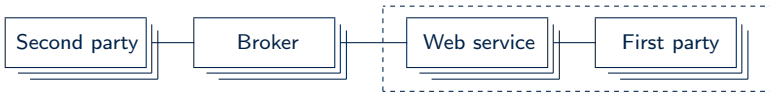
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- There are numerous second party clients outside the firewall.

Security and use of encryption



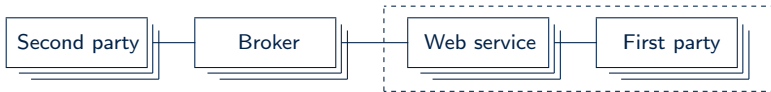
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Security and use of encryption



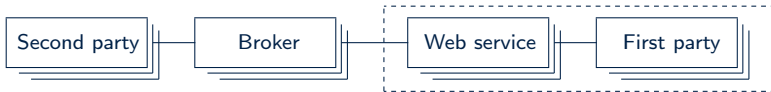
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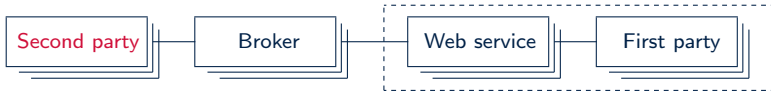
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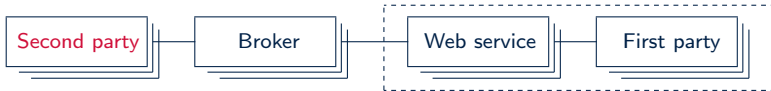
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 - When processing a request from a second party client brokers decrypt the request before re-encrypting it for the Web service.
 - When the response to a request is returned to the broker it decrypts the response before re-encrypting it for the client.

PEPA model: Second party clients and Brokers



- A second party client composes service requests, encrypts these and sends them to its broker.

PEPA model: Second party clients and Brokers



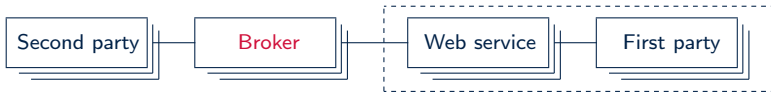
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PEPA model: Second party clients and Brokers



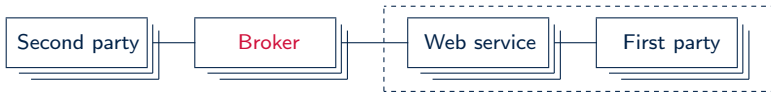
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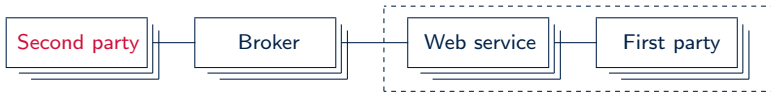
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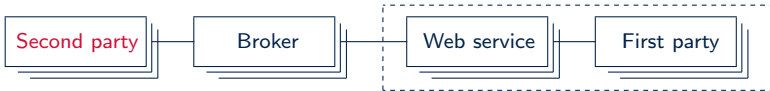
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- Decryption and re-encryption are performed before returning the response to the client.

PEPA model: Second party clients



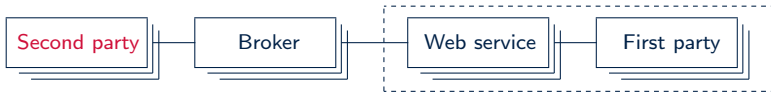
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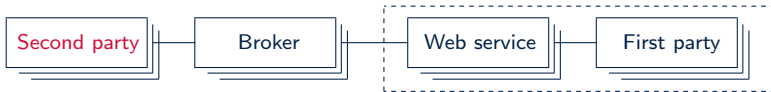
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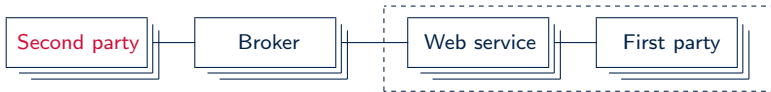
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PEPA model: Second party clients



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- It then waits for a response from the broker.
- The rate at which the first three activities happen is under the control of the client.
- The rate at which responses are produced is determined by the interaction of the broker and the service endpoint.

PEPA model: Second party clients



$$SPC_{idle} \stackrel{def}{=} (compose_{sp}, r_{sp_cmp}).SPC_{enc}$$

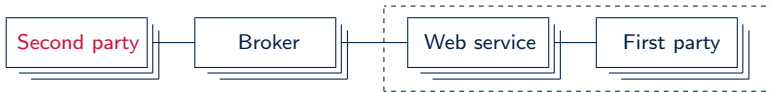
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$$SPC_{waiting} \stackrel{def}{=} (response_b, \top).SPC_{dec}$$

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PEPA model: Second party clients



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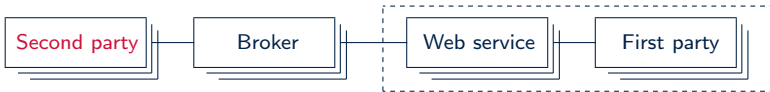
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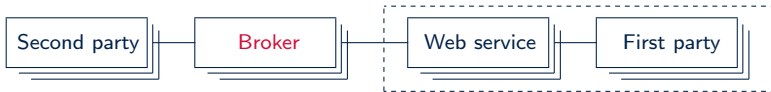
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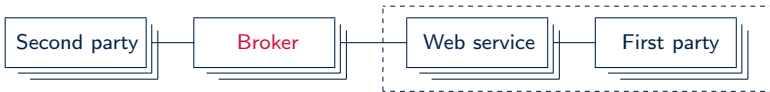
$$SPC_{dec} \stackrel{def}{=} (decrypt_b, r_{sp_decb}).SPC_{idle}$$

PEPA model: Brokers



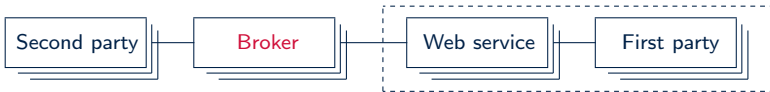
- The broker is inactive until it receives a request.

PEPA model: Brokers



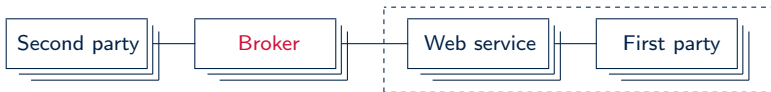
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PEPA model: Brokers



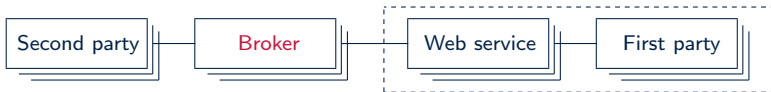
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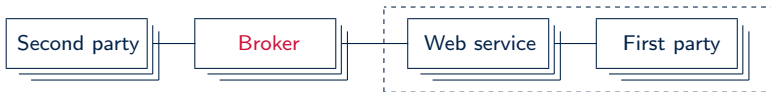
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- The corresponding decryption and re-encryption are performed before returning the response to the client.

PEPA model: Brokers



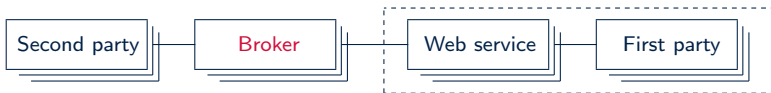
$$\begin{aligned}
 & \text{Broker}_{idle} && \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} && (\text{request}_b, \top). \text{Broker}_{dec_input} \\
 & \text{Broker}_{dec_input} && \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} && (\text{decrypt}_{sp}, r_{b_dec_sp}). \text{Broker}_{enc_input} \\
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 & \text{Broker}_{sending} && \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} && (\text{request}_{ws}, r_{b_req}). \text{Broker}_{waiting} \\
 & \text{Broker}_{waiting} && \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} && (\text{response}_{ws}, \top). \text{Broker}_{dec_resp} \\
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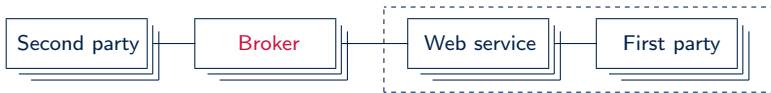
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PEPA model: Brokers



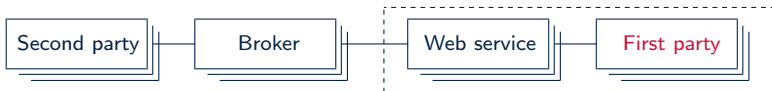
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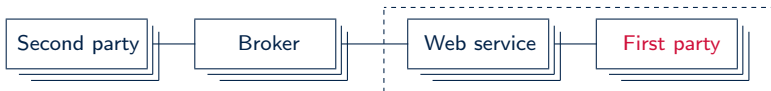
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PEPA model: First party clients



- The lifetime of a first party client mirrors that of a second party client except that encryption need not be used when all of the communication is conducted across a secure intranet.

PEPA model: First party clients



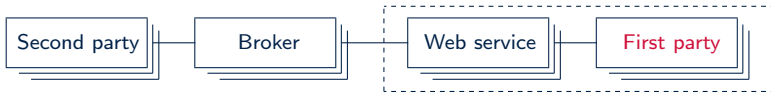
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- Also the service may be invoked by a remote method invocation to the host machine instead of via HTTP.

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- Also the service may be invoked by a remote method invocation to the host machine instead of via HTTP.
- Thus the first party client experiences the Web service as a blocking remote method invocation.

PEPA model: First party clients



$$FPC_{idle} \stackrel{def}{=} (compose_{fp}, r_{fp_cmp}).FPC_{calling}$$

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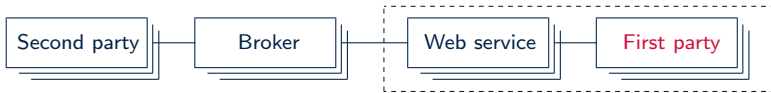


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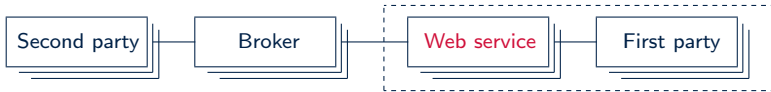


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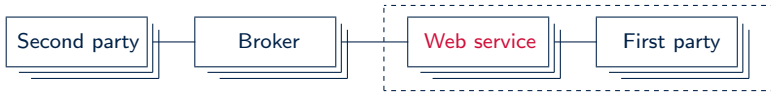
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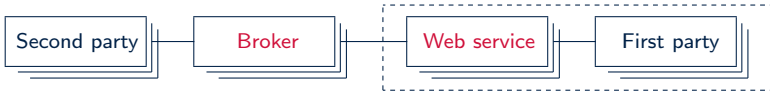
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- The difference is only in whether encryption is needed and whether the result is delivered via HTTP or not.

PEPA model: Web service



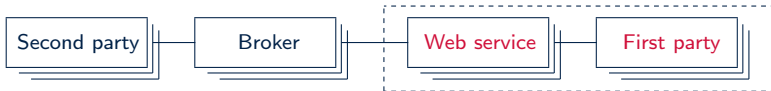
$$\begin{aligned}
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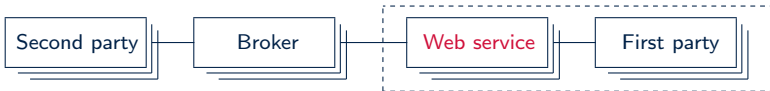
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PEPA model: System composition

In the initial state of the system model we represent each of the four component types being initially in their idle state.

$$\text{System} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (SPC_{idle} \bowtie_{\mathcal{K}} Broker_{idle}) \bowtie_{\mathcal{L}} (WS_{idle} \bowtie_{\mathcal{M}} FPC_{idle})$$

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This model represents the smallest possible instance of the system, where there is one instance of each component type. We evaluate the system as the number of clients, brokers, and copies of the service increase.

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 - Monte Carlo Markov Chain simulation (a Java implementation of Gillespie's Direct Method).

Running times from analyses (in seconds)

1	Second party clients
1	Brokers
1	Web service instances
1	First party clients
48	Number of states in the full state-space
48	Number of states in the aggregated state-space
1.04	Sparse matrix steady-state
1.10	Matrix/MTBDD steady-state
1.01	Transient solution for time $t = 100$
2.47	MCMC simulation one run to $t = 100$
2.81	ODE solution

Running times from analyses (in seconds)

2	1	Second party clients
2	1	Brokers
2	1	Web service instances
2	1	First party clients
6,304	48	Number of states in the full state-space
860	48	Number of states in the aggregated state-space
2.15	1.04	Sparse matrix steady-state
2.26	1.10	Matrix/MTBDD steady-state
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2	2	2	2	6,304	860	2.15	2.26	2.31	2.45	2.81
3	3	3	3	1,130,496	161,296	172.48	255.48	588.80	2.48	2.83
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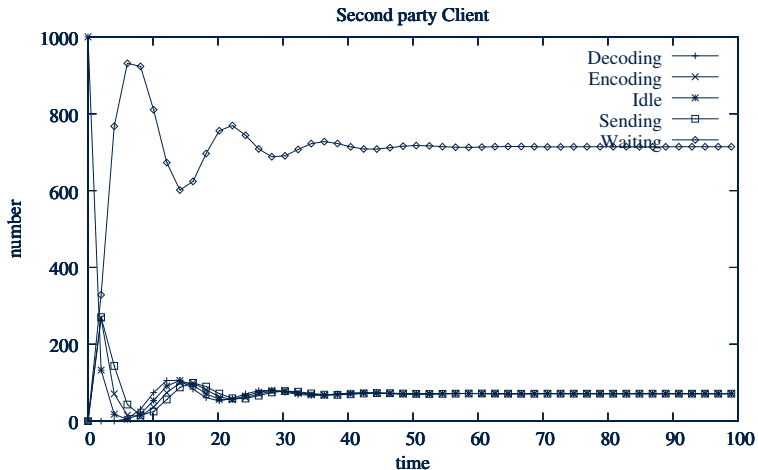
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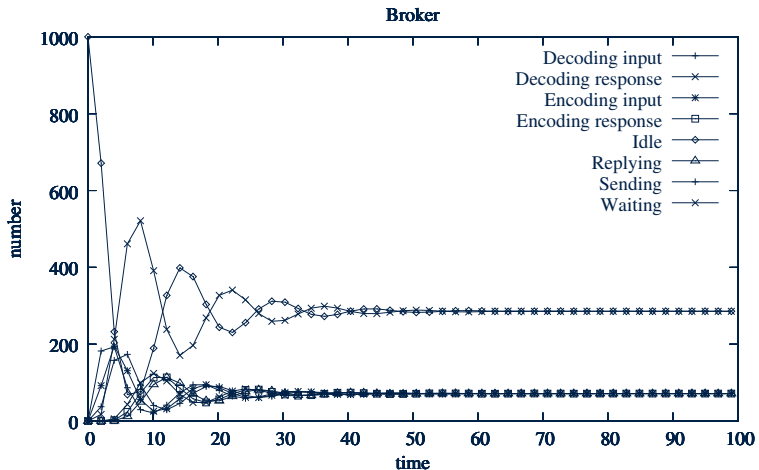
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- We can observe an initial flurry of activity until the system stabilises into its steady-state equilibrium at time (around) $t = 50$.

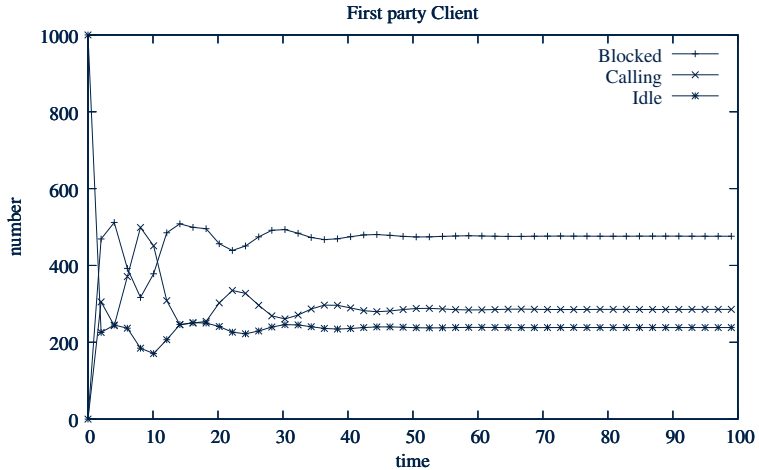
Second party clients



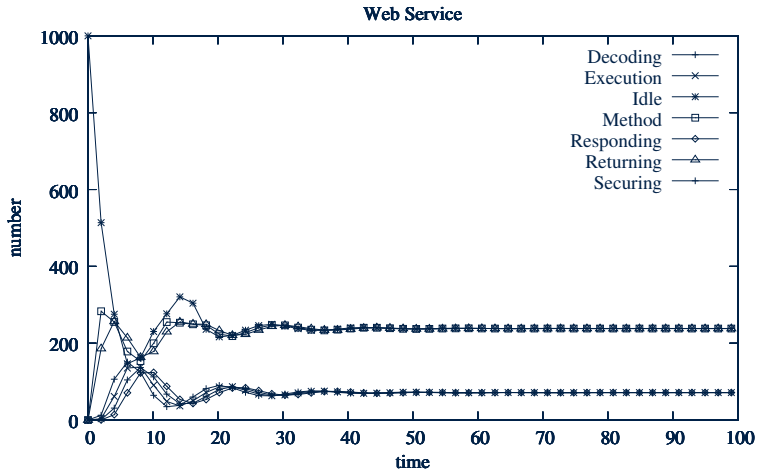
Brokers



First party clients



Web service



Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Model reduction
- 3 Decomposed solutions
- 4 Fluid Approximation
- 5 Case Study
- 6 Summary**

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Each of these has tool support so that the underlying model is derived automatically according to the predefined rules.