

Stochastic Network Modeling (SNM)

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Web page <http://docencia.ac.upc.edu/master/MIRI/SNM>

Parts

- I Introduction
- II Discrete Time Markov Chains (DTMC)
- III Continuous Time Markov Chains (CTMC)
- IV Queuing Theory

Evaluation

- $NF = 0.1 * NP + 0.30 * \max(EF, C) + 0.60 * EF$
where:
 - NF = final mark
 - EF = final theory exam
 - NP = Problems delivered by the students
 - C = average assessments mark: $C = 0.5 * C1 + 0.5 * C2$

Part I

Introduction

Outline

- Probability
- Stochastic Process (SP)



Introduction

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Ingredients of Probability

Venn Diagrams

Random Variable

Probability Measure

Conditional Probability and Bayes Formula

Law of total probability

Probability in \mathbb{R}^k

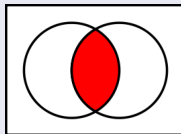
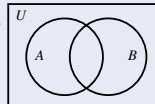
Stochastic Process (SP)

Ingredients of Probability

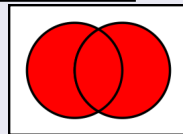
- **Random experiment**, e.g. toss a die.
- **Outcome**, ω , e.g. tossing a die can be $\omega = 2$, choosing a fruit can be $\omega = \text{orange}$.
- **Sample space or Universal set**, U , set of all possible outcomes. E.g. tossing a die $U = \{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$.
- **Event**, A , any subset of U (e.g. tossing a die $A = \{1,2,3\}$). We say the event A occurs if the outcome of the experiment $\omega \in A$. U is the **sure event**, and we represent by the empty set \emptyset an **impossible outcome**.

Venn Diagrams

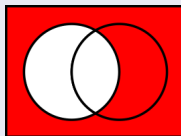
Graphical representation of events



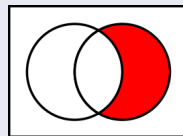
Intersection $A \cap B$



Union $A \cup B$



Complement of A in U
 $A^c = U \setminus A$



Complement of A in B
(B minus A) $A^c \cap B = B \setminus A$

source: wikipedia



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Random Variable

- For simplicity it is defined a **random variable (RV)**, X as a function that assigns a real number to each outcome in the sample space U , i.e.:

$$X: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

- We will represent the experiment by a RV, X , and the possible outcomes by its values. **$X = x_i$ is the outcome $X(\omega_i) = x_i$.**
- Using RVs the sample space is mapped in a subset of \mathbb{R} . So, in terms of X , **U is a set of points of \mathbb{R} . The same for any event.**
- Normally the definition of **X comes naturally from the experiment**, e.g. tossing a die: $X = \{\text{number in the toss}\}$.
- RVs can be **discrete** (e.g. tossing a die) or **continuous** (e.g. waiting time of a packet in a queue).



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Probability Measure of Discrete RV

- If the sample space U of the RV X is **finite (discrete RV)**, $U = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$, a **probability measure** is an assignment of numbers $P(x_i)$, referred to as **probabilities**, to each **outcome x_i** such that:

$$0 \leq P(x_i) \leq 1$$

$$P(A) = \sum_{x_i \in A} P(x_i)$$

$$P(U) = 1$$

E.g. tossing a fair die,

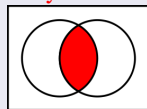
$$P(x_i) = 1/6$$

$$P(X \in \{2, 4, 6\}) = \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Conditional Probability and Bayes Formula

- Given the the sample space U and the **events** $A, B \in U$ with $P(B) > 0$ the **probability of A conditioned by B** is defined as:

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$



Intersection $A \cap B$

NOTE: It's common to use commas to denote set intersection, and write $P(A \cap B)$ as $P(A, B)$.

- Bayes Formula**

$$P(A|B) P(B) = P(B|A) P(A) \Rightarrow P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A) P(A)}{P(B)}$$



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Law of total probability

- Let B_i a **partition** of the sample space U ($\cup_i B_i = U$, $B_i \cap B_j = \emptyset, \forall i \neq j$), then

$$P(A) = \sum_i P(A|B_i) P(B_i)$$

- For **conditional probabilities**:

$$P(A|C) = \sum_i P(A|C \cap B_i) P(B_i|C)$$

- If C is **independent** of any of the B_i

$$P(A|C) = \sum_i P(A|C \cap B_i) P(B_i)$$



Probability Measure of Continuous RV

- If the sample space of the RV X is continuous (**continuous RV**), the events are intervals of \mathbb{R} . The probability measure is defined by means of the **cumulative distribution function, CDF**:

$$F(x) = P(X \in (-\infty, x]) = P(X \leq x)$$

- X is called absolutely continuous^a if there exists the **probability density function, PDF**, such that for any interval $I = \{x \mid a \leq x \leq b\}$:

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = P(X \in I) = F(b) - F(a)$$

^aSome special distributions, called singular, do not have a PDF. One example is the Cantor distribution (see Wikipedia).



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Expected value

- Given the discrete $N \in \mathbb{Z}$, respectively continuous $X \in \mathbb{R}$ RV, the **expected value** is:

$$E[N] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} k P(N = k)$$

$$E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx$$

Variance

- The amount of dispersion of a RV X with expected value $\mu = E[X]$ is measured by the **Variance**:

$$\text{Var}(X) = \sigma^2 = E[(X - \mu)^2] = E[X^2] - \mu^2$$

- Often it is used the **standard deviation** $\sigma = \sqrt{\text{Var}(X)}$.



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Indicator Function

$$I(A) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } A \text{ occurs,} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Therefore:

$$\mathbf{E}[I(A)] = 0 \times P(I(A) = 0) + 1 \times P(I(A) = 1) = \mathbf{P(A)}$$

Expected value of non negative RVs

- For **non negative** RVs, $N \geq 0$ discrete and $X \geq 0$ continuous:

$$E[N] = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k P(N = k) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P(N > k)$$

$$E[X] = \int_0^{\infty} x f(x) dx = \int_0^{\infty} P(X > x) dx = \int_0^{\infty} (1 - F(x)) dx$$

Proof

$$N = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} 1 = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} I(N > k)$$

$$X = \int_0^X dx = \int_0^{\infty} I(X > x) dx$$

and take expectations.



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Wald's Equation

- Definition:** An positive integer RV $N > 0$ is a **stopping time** of a sequence X_1, X_2, \dots if the event $N = n$ is independent of X_{n+1}, X_{n+2}, \dots .
E.g. toss a die until you get 6. Let N be the number of tosses. N does not depend on the values obtained after getting 6.
- Wald's Equation** If X_1, X_2, \dots are independent and identically distributed and N is a stopping time:

$$E \left[\sum_{n=1}^N X_n \right] = E[X] E[N]$$

Wald's Equation

- Wald's Equation** If X_1, X_2, \dots are independent and identically distributed and N is a stopping time:

$$E \left[\sum_{n=1}^N X_n \right] = E[X] E[N]$$

- Proof**

$$E \left[\sum_{n=1}^N X_n \right] = E \left[\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} X_n I(n \leq N) \right] = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} E[X_n] E[I(n \leq N)] =$$

$$E[X] \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(n \leq N) = E[X] \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P(N > n) = E[X] E[N]$$



Probability in \mathbb{R}^k

Aka multivariate random variable

If we have a set of k RV $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_k)$ taking values in \mathbb{R}^k ($\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^k$), we define the **joint distribution**:

- Discrete RV

$$P(\mathbf{x}) = P(x_1, \dots, x_k) = P(X_1 = x_1, \dots, X_k = x_k)$$

- Continuous RV:

- **cumulative distribution function, CDF**:

$$F(\mathbf{x}) = F(x_1, \dots, x_k) = P(X_1 \in (-\infty, x_1], \dots, X_k \in (-\infty, x_k])$$

- with **joint density** function $f(\mathbf{x}) = f(x_1, \dots, x_k)$ (if exists):

$$F(\mathbf{x}) = F(x_1, \dots, x_k) = \int_{-\infty}^{x_1} \dots \int_{-\infty}^{x_k} f(x_1, \dots, x_k) dx_k \dots dx_1$$

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = f(x_1, \dots, x_k) = \frac{\partial^k F(x_1, \dots, x_k)}{\partial x_1 \dots \partial x_k}$$



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Marginal distributions

Let $\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{X}_1, \mathbf{X}_2)$, where $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^k, \mathbf{X}_1 \in \mathbb{R}^r, \mathbf{X}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{k-r}, 1 \leq r < k$:

- Discrete RV

$$P(\mathbf{x}_2) = \sum_{\mathbf{x}_1} \cdots \sum_{\mathbf{x}_r} P(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2)$$

- Continuous RV

$$f(\mathbf{x}_2) = \int_{\mathbf{x}_1} \cdots \int_{\mathbf{x}_r} f(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) d\mathbf{x}_1 \cdots d\mathbf{x}_r$$



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Independent RV

- Discrete RV

$$P(\mathbf{x}) = P(x_1, \dots, x_k) =$$

$$P(X_1 = x_1, \dots, X_k = x_k) =$$

$$P(X_1 = x_1) \cdots P(X_k = x_k)$$

- Continuous RV

$$F(\mathbf{x}) = F(x_1, \dots, x_k) = F_{X_1}(x_1) \cdots F_{X_k}(x_k)$$

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = f(x_1, \dots, x_k) = f_{X_1}(x_1) \cdots f_{X_k}(x_k)$$



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Conditional Distribution

- Let $\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{X}_1, \mathbf{X}_2)$, where $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^k$, $\mathbf{X}_1 \in \mathbb{R}^r$, $\mathbf{X}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{k-r}$, the r -dimensional distribution of \mathbf{X}_1 conditioned by $\mathbf{X}_2 = \mathbf{x}_2$, $P(\{\mathbf{X}_2 = \mathbf{x}_2\}) > 0$ is:

$$F(\mathbf{X}_1 | \mathbf{X}_2) = P(\mathbf{X}_1 \leq \mathbf{x}_1 | \mathbf{X}_2 = \mathbf{x}_2) = \frac{P(\mathbf{X}_1 \leq \mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{X}_2 = \mathbf{x}_2)}{P(\mathbf{X}_2 = \mathbf{x}_2)}.$$

If \mathbf{X} is **discrete** with probability $P(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2)$ or absolutely **continuous** with density $f(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2)$:

$$P(\mathbf{x}_1 | \mathbf{x}_2) = \frac{P(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2)}{P(\mathbf{x}_2)}$$

$$f(\mathbf{x}_1 | \mathbf{x}_2) = \frac{f(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2)}{f(\mathbf{x}_2)}$$



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Bayes formula

$$f(\mathbf{x}_1|\mathbf{x}_2)f(\mathbf{x}_2) = f(\mathbf{x}_2|\mathbf{x}_1)f(\mathbf{x}_1) \Rightarrow f(\mathbf{x}_1|\mathbf{x}_2) = \frac{f(\mathbf{x}_2|\mathbf{x}_1)f(\mathbf{x}_1)}{f(\mathbf{x}_2)}$$

in which f is the density or probability, accordingly.



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Law of total probability

Aka composition of marginals and conditionals

Using the previous formulas we can compute (\mathbf{X} can be a mixture of discrete and continuous RV):

- If $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2$ are **discrete** RV: $P(\mathbf{x}_2) = \sum_{\mathbf{x}_1} P(\mathbf{x}_2 | \mathbf{x}_1) P(\mathbf{x}_1)$
- If \mathbf{x}_1 is **discrete** and \mathbf{x}_2 is **cont.**: $f(\mathbf{x}_2) = \sum_{\mathbf{x}_1} f(\mathbf{x}_2 | \mathbf{x}_1) P(\mathbf{x}_1)$
- If $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2$ are **cont.**: $f(\mathbf{x}_2) = \int_{\mathbf{x}_1} f(\mathbf{x}_2 | \mathbf{x}_1) f(\mathbf{x}_1) d\mathbf{x}_1$
- If \mathbf{x}_1 is **cont.** and \mathbf{x}_2 is **discrete**: $P(\mathbf{x}_2) = \int_{\mathbf{x}_1} P(\mathbf{x}_2 | \mathbf{x}_1) f(\mathbf{x}_1) d\mathbf{x}_1$

Conditional expected value

- Given $X \in \mathbb{R}$, $\mathbf{Y} \in \mathbb{R}^k$ with density $f(x, \mathbf{y})$:

$$E[X \mid \mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y}] = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x f(x \mid \mathbf{y}) dx$$

$$E[X] = \int_{\mathbb{R}^k} E[X \mid \mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y}] f(\mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{y}$$

where the **marginal** $f(\mathbf{y}) = \int_{x=-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, \mathbf{y}) dx$ and the **conditional** $f(x \mid \mathbf{y}) = f(x, \mathbf{y}) / f(\mathbf{y})$.

Thus, the law of total probability also applies to expected value, and it is known as **law of total expectation**.



Master in Innovation and Research in Informatics (MIRI)
Computer Networks and Distributed Systems

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Example: Poisson
Process

Example: Queue with
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Example: Telegraph
signal

Analysis of Stochastic
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Introduction

- **Sequence of RVs** $\{X(t)\}_{t \geq 0}$.
- $X(t)$ is the **state** at time t .
- The **state** $X(t)$ can be **continuous** or **discrete**.
- The **index** can be **continuous** or **discrete**. We shall use n for the **index**, and refer to it as **steps** when it is **discrete**, and t and refer to it as **time** when it is **continuous**.
- We call a possible sequence of states of the SP the **sample function** (or sample path) of the SP.

Stochastic Process (SP)

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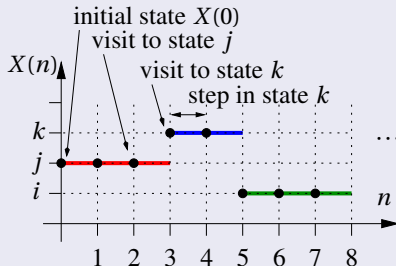
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Sample Path

- Possible evolution (**sample path**) of a **discrete state**, **discrete time** SP $\{X(n)\}_{n \geq 0}$:



- To characterize the stochastic process we would need the distribution and **joint probabilities** of the $\{X(n)\}_{n \geq 0}$ RVs:

$$P(X(n) = i, X(n-1) = k, \dots, X(0) = j)$$

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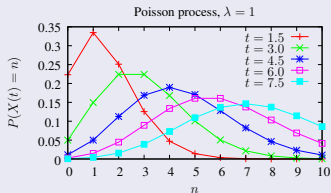
Example: Poisson Process

- It is a discrete state continuous time SP.
- It counts the number of events occurred in a time interval.
- Often used to build models of other stochastic processes.
- Definition: The number of “events” in any interval of length t , $X(t)$, is **Poisson distributed** with mean λt , i.e.

$$P(X(t+s) - X(s) = n) = P(X(t) - X(0) = n) =$$

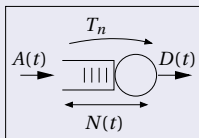
$$P(X(t) = n) = e^{-\lambda t} \frac{(\lambda t)^n}{n!}$$

where we assume $X(0) = 0$.

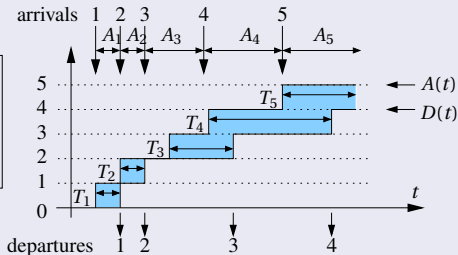


Example: Queue with Poisson Arrivals

- The queue arrivals, $A(t)$, are modeled as a **Poisson process** with mean λt . Each event model an arrival.



$$N(t) = A(t) - D(t)$$



Stochastic Process (SP)

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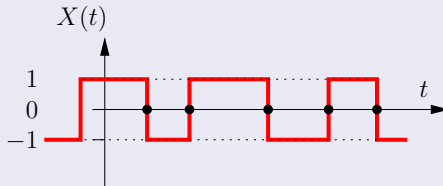
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Example: Telegraph signal [1]

- The signal is modeled as a **Poisson process** with mean λt such that $X(0) = 1$ or $X(0) = -1$ with equal probability of $1/2$ and:

$$X(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if the number of events in } (0, t] \text{ is even} \\ -1 & \text{if the number of events in } (0, t] \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$$



- [1] Athanasios Papoulis and S Unnikrishna Pillai. *Probability, Random Variables and Stochastic Processes*. McGraw-Hill Education, 2002.



Analysis of Stochastic Processes

- **Signal Theory**: Normally interested in the **spectral analysis** of the signal. The basic tool is the **Fourier transform** of the **autocorrelation function** of the process (**energy spectral density**). We will not do this analysis.

$$R(t) = E[X(\tau) X(\tau - t)]$$

autocorrelation

$$F(f) = \mathcal{F}[R(t)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(t) e^{-j2\pi f t} dt$$

Fourier transform

(energy spectral density)

- **Computer Networks**: Normally interested in probabilistic models using **Markov Chains** and **Queueing Theory**.