



# **Methods of Stochastic Modelling**

## **(Métodos de Modelação Estocástica)**

Modelação e Desempenho de Redes e Serviços

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# Random experiment

- In a random experiment, the sample space,  $S$ , is the set of all possible results of the experiment
- Any subset  $E$  of the sample space  $S$  is named an event

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- Given two events  $E$  and  $F$  :
  - The union of the events,  $E \cup F$ , is the set of possible results that belong to at least one of them
  - The intersection of the events,  $EF$ , is the set of possible results that belong to both events simultaneously

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- When  $EF = \emptyset$  ( $\emptyset$  is the empty set), we say that the events are mutually exclusive
- The complement of an event  $E$ ,  $E^c$ , is the set of all possible results (i.e., all results in the sample space  $S$ ) that do not belong to  $E$

# Probabilities defined over events

- For each possible event  $E$  of a sample space  $S$ , the assignment of a real value  $P(E)$  can represent the occurrence probability of event  $E$ , if it satisfies the following conditions:
  - (1)  $0 \leq P(E) \leq 1$
  - (2)  $P(S) = 1$
  - (3) For any set of mutually exclusive events  $E_1, E_2, E_3, \dots$

$$P\left(\bigcup_i E_i\right) = \sum_i P(E_i)$$

- Corollaries:

$$P(E) + P(E^c) = 1$$

$$P(E \cup F) = P(E) + P(F) - P(EF)$$

# Conditional probabilities

- Given two events  $E$  and  $F$ , the conditional probability of  $E$  knowing that  $F$  has occurred, represented by  $P(E|F)$ , is given by

$$P(E|F) = P(EF) / P(F)$$

- Two events  $E$  and  $F$  are named independent events if

$$P(EF) = P(E)P(F)$$

- If  $E$  and  $F$  are independent events, then:

$$P(E|F) = P(EF) / P(F) = P(E)P(F) / P(F) = P(E)$$

$$P(F|E) = P(FE) / P(E) = P(F)P(E) / P(E) = P(F)$$

meaning that the occurrence probability of one event does not change if we know that the other event has occurred.

## Bayes Rule

Consider a set of events  $F_1, F_2, \dots, F_n$  that are mutually exclusive, and their union is the sample space  $S$  of a random experiment. Consider any other event  $E$ .

The probability of event  $E$  is given by:

$$P(E) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(EF_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(E|F_i)P(F_i)$$

Moreover, knowing that event  $E$  has occurred, the occurrence probability of event  $F_j$  (with  $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ) is given by:

$$P(F_j | E) = \frac{P(EF_j)}{P(E)} = \frac{P(E|F_j)P(F_j)}{P(E)} = \frac{P(E|F_j)P(F_j)}{\sum_{i=1}^n P(E|F_i)P(F_i)}$$

## Example 1 – conditional probabilities

In a multiple-choice test, a student knows the answer with probability  $p$  (and, of course, guesses it with probability  $1 - p$ ). When guessing the answer, the student answers correctly with probability  $1/m$ , where  $m$  is the number of multiple-choice answers.

Determine the probability of the student (i) to answer correctly each question and (ii) to know the answer when he answers correctly the question.

Events:  
 $E$  – the student answers correctly  
 $F_1$  – the student knows the answer  
 $F_2$  – the student does not know the answer

$$\begin{aligned}(i) P(E) &= P(E|F_1)P(F_1) + P(E|F_2)P(F_2) \\&= 1 \times p + 1/m \times (1 - p) = \\&= p + (1 - p)/m\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}(ii) P(F_1|E) &= P(E|F_1)P(F_1) / P(E) \\&= 1 \times p / [p + (1 - p)/m] = \\&= p m / [1 + (m - 1) p]\end{aligned}$$

If  $p = 50\%$  and  $m = 4$ , then (i)  $P(E) = 62.5\%$  and (ii)  $P(F_1|E) = 80\%$

## Example 2 – conditional probabilities

In a wireless link between two hosts, the probability of the transmitted data packets being received with errors is 0.1% in normal link conditions or 10% with external interferences. The probability of external interferences is 2%. In reception, the hosts are able detect if each data packet is or is not received with errors.

Determine: (i) the probability of a data packet being received with errors and (ii) the probability of the link being with interference when a data packet is received with errors.

Events:  $E$  – the packet is received with errors

$F_1$  – the link is in the normal state

$F_2$  – the link is with interference

$$\begin{aligned}(i) P(E) &= P(E|F_1)P(F_1) + P(E|F_2)P(F_2) \\&= 0.001 \times (1 - 0.02) + 0.1 \times 0.02 \\&= 0.00298 = 0.298\%\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}(ii) P(F_2|E) &= P(E|F_2)P(F_2) / P(E) \\&= 0.1 \times 0.02 / 0.00298 \\&= 0.671 = 67.1\%\end{aligned}$$

# Random variables

- A random variable  $X$  is a function that assigns a real value to each possible result in  $S$  of a random experiment.
- The distribution function (or *cumulative distribution function*) of a random variable  $X$  is defined as:

$$F(x) = P(X \leq x) , -\infty < x < +\infty$$

- Properties of the distribution function:
  - (1)  $0 \leq F(x) \leq 1$  for all values of  $x$
  - (2) if  $x_1 \leq x_2$  then  $F(x_1) \leq F(x_2)$  (non-decreasing function)
  - (3)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F(x) = 0$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} F(x) = 1$
  - (4)  $P(a < X \leq b) = F(b) - F(a)$ , for  $a < b$

# Discrete random variables

- $X$  is a discrete random variable if it can only take a finite number of values or a countable number of distinct separate values  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_i, \dots$
- The probability function (or *mass probability function*) of a discrete random variable  $X$  is defined as:

$$f(x_i) = P(X = x_i) \quad \text{for all values of } i = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

- It is mandatory that: 
$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} f(x_i) = 1$$
- Consequently, the distribution function of  $X$  becomes:

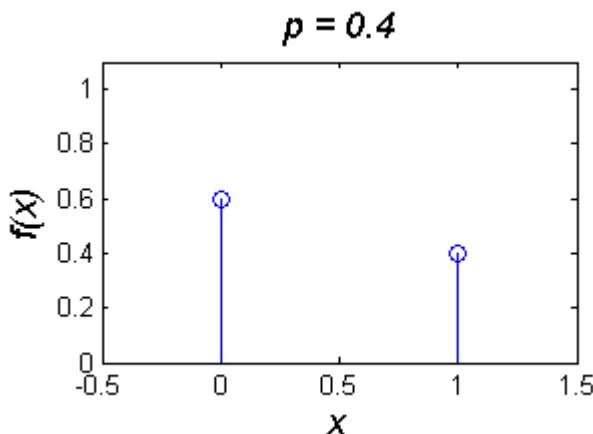
$$F(x) = \sum_{x_i \leq x} f(x_i) \quad , -\infty < x < +\infty$$

# Examples of discrete random variables

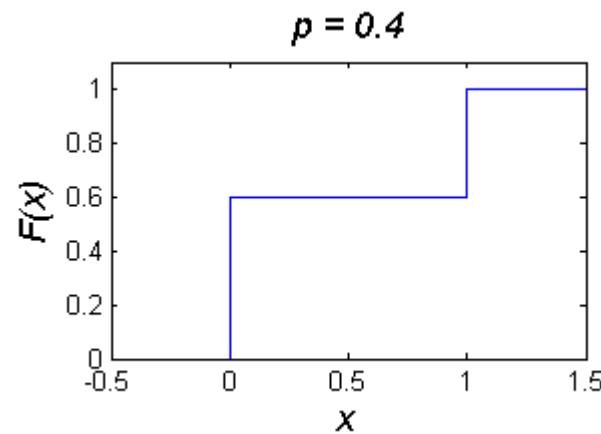
Bernoulli random variable represents an experiment that can be a success with probability  $p$  or a failure with probability  $1 - p$ .

If  $X = 1$  represents the success and  $X = 0$  the failure, the probability function is:

$$f(i) = p^i (1-p)^{1-i}, i = 0, 1$$



$f(x)$  – probability function



$F(x)$  – distribution function

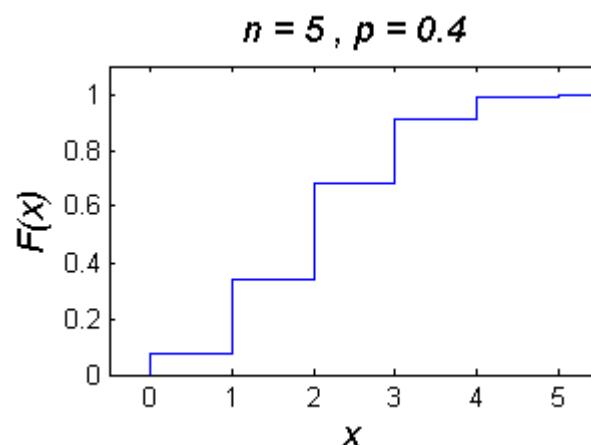
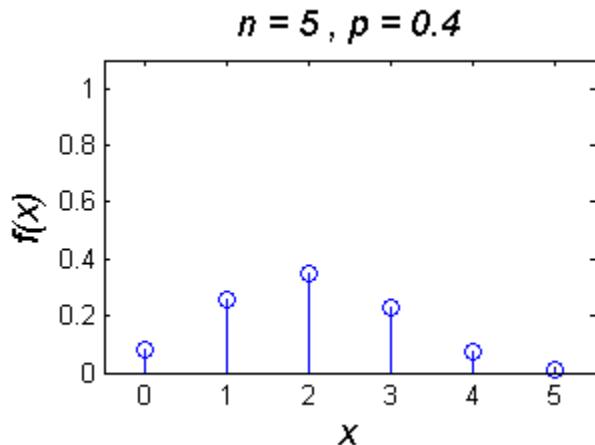
## Examples of discrete random variables

Binomial random variable represents a set of  $n$  independent Bernoulli experiments, each one that can be a success with probability  $p$  or a failure with probability  $1 - p$ .

If  $X$  represent the number of successes in  $n$  experiments, the probability function is:

$$f(i) = \binom{n}{i} p^i (1-p)^{n-i}, i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$$

where  $\binom{n}{i} = \frac{n!}{i!(n-i)!}$

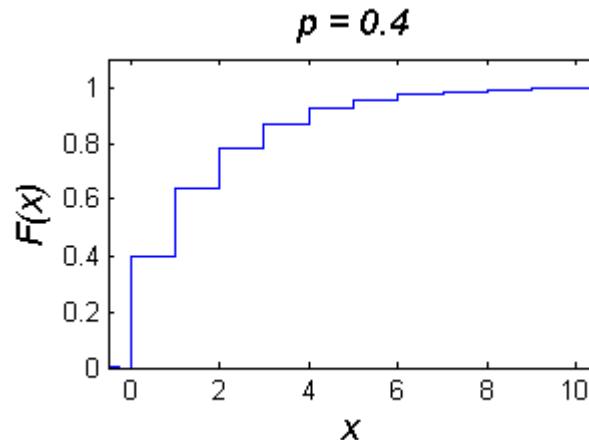
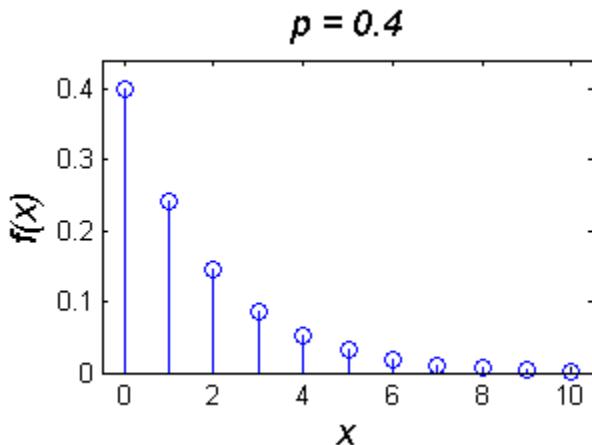


## Examples of discrete random variables

Geometric random variable: represents a set independent Bernoulli experiments, all with the same success probability, until an experiment results in a success.

If  $X$  represents the number of failures before the success, the probability function is

$$f(i) = (1-p)^i p , i = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$



If  $X$  represents the number of experiments until the success, the probability function is

$$f(i) = (1-p)^{i-1} p , i = 1, 2, \dots$$

## Example 3 – discrete random variables

On a given data link, the BER (*bit error rate*) is  $10^{-5}$  and the errors in the different bits of a data packet are statistically independent.

Determine: (i) the probability of a data packet of size 100 Bytes to be received without errors and (ii) the probability of a data packet of size 1000 Bytes to be received with at least 2 errors.

The number of bits in error on a data packet is a binomial random variable with the probability of success given by the BER value and the number of Bernoulli experiments given by the number of bits of the packet

$$f(i) = \binom{n}{i} p^i (1-p)^{n-i}, i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$$

$$(i) \quad f(0) = \binom{n}{0} p^0 (1-p)^{n-0} = \binom{100 \times 8}{0} \times (1 - 10^{-5})^{100 \times 8} = 0.992 = 99.2\%$$

$$\begin{aligned} (ii) \quad 1 - f(0) - f(1) &= 1 - \binom{n}{0} p^0 (1-p)^{n-0} - \binom{n}{1} p^1 (1-p)^{n-1} \\ &= 1 - (1 - 10^{-5})^{8000} - 8000 \times 10^{-5} (1 - 10^{-5})^{7999} = 3.034E - 3 = 0.3\% \end{aligned}$$

# Continuous random variables

- A random variable  $X$  is said continuous if it exists a non-negative function  $f(x)$  such that for any interval of continuous values  $B$ :

$$P(X \in B) = \int_B f(x)dx \quad \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x)dx = 1$$

$f(x)$  is the probability density function of the random variable  $X$

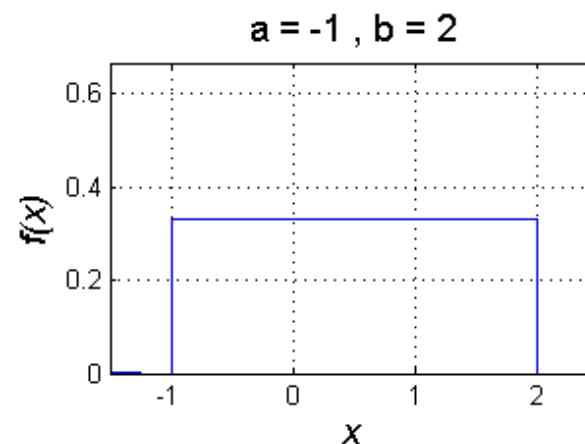
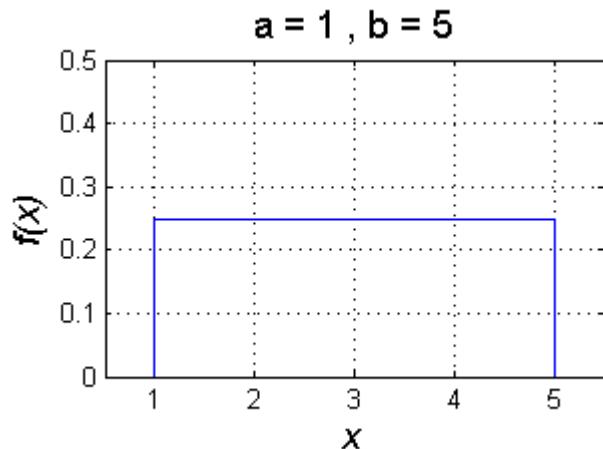
- Therefore:
- The distribution function of the random variable  $X$  becomes:

$$F(x) = P(X \in [-\infty, x]) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(y)dy$$

# Examples of continuous random variables

Random variable with uniform distribution: a random variable is uniformly distributed in the interval  $[a,b]$  if its probability density function is given by

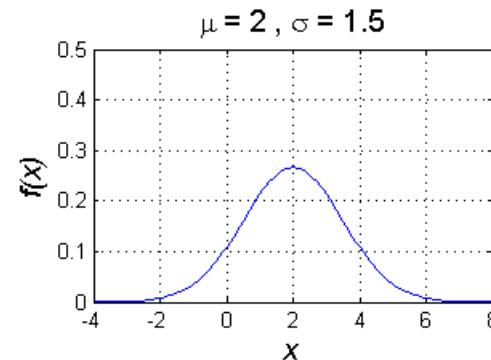
$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & , a < x < b \\ 0 & , \text{cc} \end{cases}$$



# Examples of continuous random variables

Random variable with Normal (ou Gaussian) distribution: a random variable has a normal distribution with average  $\mu$  and standard deviation  $\sigma$  if its probability density function is:

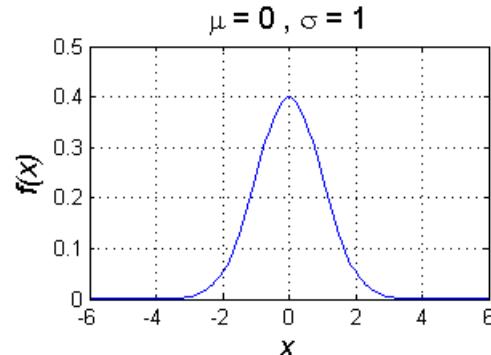
$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-(x-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2}$$



The Standard Normal (or Gaussian) distribution is the normal distribution with average 0 and standard deviation 1.

In this case:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2/2}$$



# Average (or expected value) of a random variable

- Average (or expected value),  $E[X]$ , of a random variable  $X$ :

$$E[X] = \begin{cases} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} x_j f_X(x_j) & \text{if } X \text{ discrete} \\ \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x f_X(x) dx & \text{if } X \text{ continuous} \end{cases}$$

- Important property of the average:  $E \left[ \sum_{i=1}^n c_i X_i \right] = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i E[X_i]$
- Average of a random variable  $Y = g(X)$ :

$$E[g(X)] = \begin{cases} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} g(x_j) f_X(x_j) & \text{if } X \text{ discrete} \\ \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} g(x) f_X(x) dx & \text{if } X \text{ continuous} \end{cases}$$

# Variance and standard deviation of a random variable

- Variance of a random variable  $X$ :

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

- Important properties of the variance:

*2<sup>nd</sup> moment of X*

$$\text{Var}[X] \geq 0$$

$$\text{Var}[cX] = c^2 \text{Var}[X]$$

$$\text{Var}\left[\sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right] = \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}[X_i] \quad \text{if } X_i \text{ are independent}$$

- Standard deviation of a random variable  $X$ :

$$\sigma[X] = \sqrt{\text{Var}[X]}$$

## Example 4

A data link of 10 Mbps supports a flow of data packets whose size is 100 Bytes with probability 10%, 500 Bytes with probability 50% and 1500 Bytes with probability 40%. Consider the random variable  $X$  representing the packet transmission time.

Determine: (i) the average packet transmission time  $E[X]$ , (ii) the second moment of the packet transmission time  $E[X^2]$  and (iii) the variance of the packet transmission time  $\text{Var}[X]$ .

$$(i) \quad E[X] = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} x_j f_X(x_j) = \frac{100 \times 8}{10^7} \times 0.1 + \frac{500 \times 8}{10^7} \times 0.5 + \frac{1500 \times 8}{10^7} \times 0.4 \\ = 0.688 \times 10^{-3} \text{ sec} = 0.688 \text{ msec}$$

$$(ii) \quad E[X^2] = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} (x_j)^2 f_X(x_j) = \left( \frac{100 \times 8}{10^7} \right)^2 \times 0.1 + \left( \frac{500 \times 8}{10^7} \right)^2 \times 0.5 + \left( \frac{1500 \times 8}{10^7} \right)^2 \times 0.4 \\ = 6.5664 \times 10^{-7} \text{ sec}^2$$

## Example 4 - continuation

A data link of 10 Mbps supports a flow of data packets whose size is 100 Bytes with probability 10%, 500 Bytes with probability 50% and 1500 Bytes with probability 40%. Consider the random variable  $X$  representing the packet transmission time.

Determine: (i) the average packet transmission time  $E[X]$ , (ii) the second moment of the packet transmission time  $E[X^2]$  and (iii) the variance of the packet transmission time  $Var[X]$ .

$$(iii) \text{ 1st alternative: } Var[X] = E[(X - E[X])^2]$$

$$Var[X] = \left( \frac{100 \times 8}{10^7} - E[X] \right)^2 \times 0.1 + \left( \frac{500 \times 8}{10^7} - E[X] \right)^2 \times 0.5 + \left( \frac{1500 \times 8}{10^7} - E[X] \right)^2 \times 0.4 \\ = 1.833 \times 10^{-7} \text{ sec}^2$$

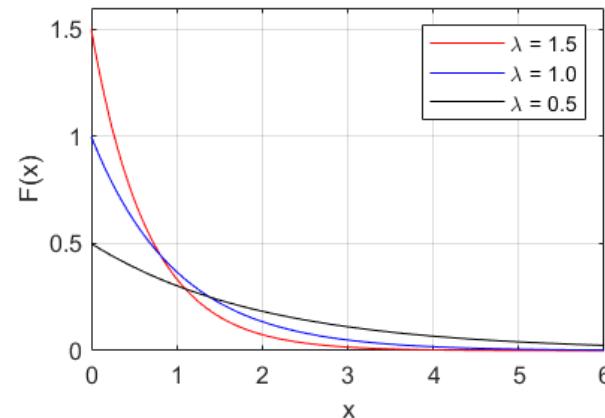
$$\text{2nd alternative: } Var[X] = E[X^2] - E[X]^2$$

$$Var[X] = 6.5664 \times 10^{-7} - (0.688 \times 10^{-3})^2 = 1.833 \times 10^{-7} \text{ sec}^2$$

# Random variable with exponential distribution

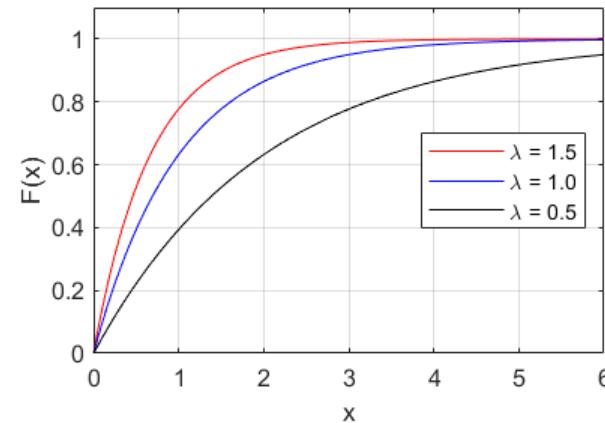
- A continuous random variable  $X$  following an exponential distribution with parameter  $\lambda$ ,  $\lambda > 0$ , has the probability density function:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x}, & x \geq 0 \\ 0, & x < 0 \end{cases}$$



- The distribution function is:

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - e^{-\lambda x}, & x \geq 0 \\ 0, & x < 0 \end{cases}$$



# Exponential distribution

- The average, variance and standard deviation of an exponentially distributed random variable  $X$  are only dependent on parameter  $\lambda$ :

$$E[X] = \frac{1}{\lambda} \quad Var[X] = \left(\frac{1}{\lambda}\right)^2 \quad \sigma[X] = \frac{1}{\lambda}$$

- The exponential distribution has no memory, meaning that:

$$P\{X > s + t \mid X > t\} = P\{X > s\}$$

- If the random variables  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are independent and exponentially distributed with averages  $1/\lambda_1$  and  $1/\lambda_2$  respectively, then:

$$P\{X_1 < X_2\} = \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2}$$

## Example 5 – exponential distribution

A data link of 10 Mbps supports a flow of data packets whose size is exponentially distributed with an average of 1000 Bytes. Consider the random variable  $X$  representing the packet transmission time.

Determine: (i) the average packet transmission time  $E[X]$ , (ii) the variance of the packet transmission time  $Var[X]$  and (iii) the second moment of the packet transmission time  $E[X^2]$ .

(i) 
$$E[X] = \frac{1000 \times 8}{10^7} = 8 \times 10^{-4} = 0.8 \text{ msec}$$
 Capacity of the link in pps (packets per second)

$$E[X] = \frac{1}{\mu} \Leftrightarrow \mu = \frac{1}{E[X]} = \frac{1}{8 \times 10^{-4}} = 1250 \text{ pps}$$

(ii) 
$$Var[X] = \left(\frac{1}{\mu}\right)^2 = (8 \times 10^{-4})^2 = 6.4 \times 10^{-7} \text{ sec}^2$$

(iii) 
$$Var[X] = E[X^2] - E[X]^2 \Leftrightarrow E[X^2] = Var[X] + E[X]^2$$

$$E[X^2] = 6.4 \times 10^{-7} + (8 \times 10^{-4})^2 = 1.28 \times 10^{-6} \text{ sec}^2$$

# Stochastic process

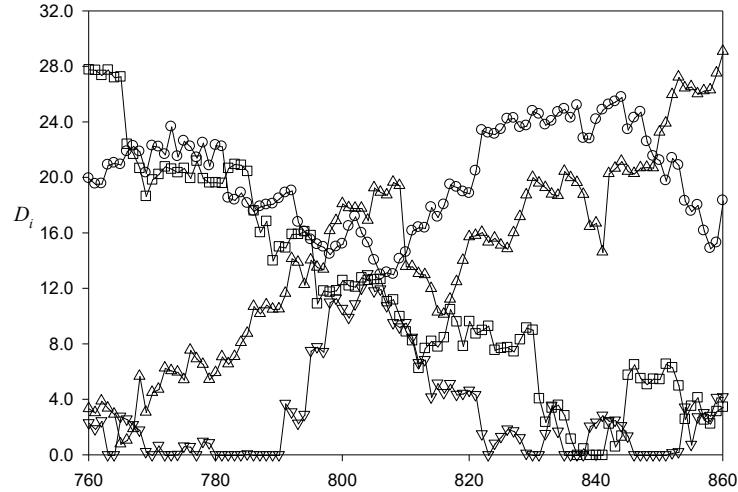
- A stochastic process  $\{X(t), t \in T\}$  is a set of random variables: for each value  $t \in T$ ,  $X(t)$  is a random variable.
- Index  $t$  is frequently seen as a time instant. In this interpretation, the random variable  $X(t)$  represents the state of the stochastic process on time instant  $t$ .
- Set  $T$  is the set of all possible indices of the stochastic process:
  - (1) if  $T$  is a countable set, the stochastic process is designated as being in discrete time
  - (2) if  $T$  is an interval of continuous values, the stochastic process is designated as being in continuous time
- The state space of the stochastic process is the set of all possible values that the random variables  $X(t)$  can take.

# Examples of stochastic processes

Consider a system with a queue and a server. Clients arrive to the system and are either immediately served (if the server is empty) or go to the queue to wait to be served.

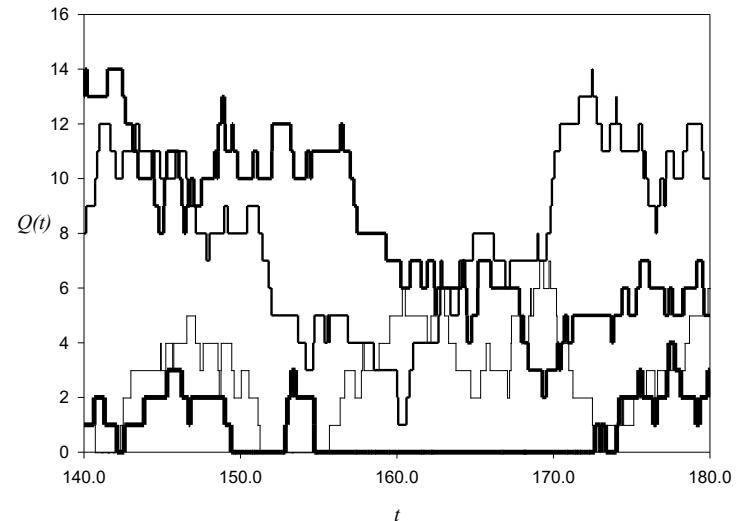
## Queuing delay of clients

- (1) is a stochastic process in discrete time (1<sup>st</sup> client, 2<sup>nd</sup> client, ...)
- (2) the state is a continuous value (queuing delay value continuous)



## Number of clients in the queue

- (1) is a stochastic process in continuous time
- (2) the state is a discrete value (0 clients, 1 client, 2 clients, ...)



# Counting process

- A stochastic process  $\{N(t), t \geq 0\}$  is a counting process if  $N(t)$  represents the total number of events occurred until time instant  $t$ .
- A counting process satisfies the following conditions:
  - (1)  $N(t) \geq 0$ .
  - (2)  $N(t)$  takes only non-negative integer values.
  - (3) If  $s < t$ , then  $N(s) \leq N(t)$ .
  - (4) If  $s < t$ , then  $N(t) - N(s)$  is equal to the number of events occurred in the time interval  $[s,t]$ .
- A counting process has independent increments if the number of events in disjoint time intervals is independent.
- A counting process has stationary increments if the distribution function of the number of events occurred in any time interval is only dependent on the time interval length.

# Poisson process

- A counting process is a Poisson process with rate  $\lambda$ ,  $\lambda > 0$ , if the following conditions hold:
  - (1)  $N(0) = 0$ ;
  - (2) the process has independent increments;
  - (3) the number of events in a time interval of length  $t$  has a Poisson distribution with average  $\lambda t$ , i.e., for all  $s, t \geq 0$

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

- A Poisson process has stationary increments and the average number of events in a time interval of length  $t$  is:

$$E[N(t)] = \lambda t$$

the reason why the parameter  $\lambda$  is named the rate (i.e., the average number of events per time unit) of the Poisson process.

# Properties of a Poisson process

- **Property 1:** Consider in a Poisson process with rate  $\lambda$  that:
  - $T_1$  is the time instant of the first event
  - $T_n$ ,  $n > 1$ , is the time interval length between the  $(n-1)^{\text{th}}$  event and the  $n^{\text{th}}$  event
- Then,  $T_n$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ , are independent and identically distributed random variables with an exponential distribution with average  $1/\lambda$ .
- **Property 2:** Consider in a Poisson process  $\{N(t), t \geq 0\}$  with rate  $\lambda$  that each event is independently classified as:
  - event of type 1 with probability  $p$
  - event of type 2 with probability  $1 - p$and that  $\{N_1(t), t \geq 0\}$  and  $\{N_2(t), t \geq 0\}$  represent the number of events of each type occurred in the time interval  $[0, t]$ .
- Then,  $N_1(t)$  e  $N_2(t)$  are both independent Poisson processes with rates  $\lambda p$  and  $\lambda(1-p)$ , respectively.

## Properties of a Poisson process

- **Property 3:** Consider  $\{N_1(t), t \geq 0\}$  and  $\{N_2(t), t \geq 0\}$  as two independent Poisson processes with rates  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$ , respectively.
- Then, the process  $N(t) = N_1(t) + N_2(t)$  is also a Poisson process with rate  $\lambda = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2$ .
- **Property 4:** Consider that we know that exactly  $n$  events have occurred from the beginning until time instant  $t$  in a Poisson process.
- Then, the occurrence time instants of the  $n$  events are independent random variables with a uniform distribution in the interval  $[0, t]$ .

# Markov chain in continuous time

- Consider a stochastic process in continuous time  $\{X(t), t \geq 0\}$  with a state space defined by the set of non-negative integer values, i.e.,  $\{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ .
- $X(t)$  is a Markov chain if for all  $s, t \geq 0$  and non-negative integer values  $i, j, x(u), 0 \leq u < s$  :

$$P\{X(s+t) = j \mid X(s) = i, X(u) = x(u), 0 \leq u < s\} = \\ P\{X(s+t) = j \mid X(s) = i\}$$

- This property means that the probability of a future state  $X(s+t)$  knowing the present state  $X(s)$  and all past states  $X(u)$ ,  $0 \leq u < s$ , depends only on the present state and is independent from the past.
- If  $P\{X(s+t) = j \mid X(s) = i\}$  is independent of  $s$ , then it is said that the Markov chain has homogeneous transition probabilities:

$$P\{X(s+t) = j \mid X(s) = i\} = P\{X(t) = j \mid X(0) = i\}$$

# Markov chain in continuous time

- A Markov chain in continuous time has the following properties:
  - (1) The holding time of the process in each state  $i$  (i.e., the time interval from the moment the process enters state  $i$  until the moment the process leaves state  $i$ ) is an exponentially distributed random variable with average  $1/q_i$ ;  
NOTE: This property is equivalent to say that when the process is in state  $i$ , it jumps to another state with a transition rate  $q_i$ .
  - (2) When the process leaves state  $i$ , it jumps to state  $j$  with a probability  $P_{ij}$  in accordance with the following conditions:

$$P_{ii} = 0 \quad 0 \leq P_{ij} \leq 1 \quad , j \neq i \quad \sum_j P_{ij} = 1$$

- In a Markov chain in continuous time, the holding time on each state and the next state to where the process jumps are independent random variables.

# Markov chain in continuous time: transition rates

- For any pair of states  $i$  and  $j$ , consider:

$$q_{ij} = q_i P_{ij}$$

$q_i$  - the transition rate from state  $i$  to another state (introduced in the previous slide)

$P_{ij}$  - the probability of jumping to state  $j$  when the process leaves state  $i$  (introduced in the previous slide)

$q_{ij}$  - the transition rate from state  $i$  to state  $j$

- The state transition rates  $q_{ij}$  are the usual values represented in the state transition diagrams of Markov chains in continuous time.

- Since 
$$q_i = \sum_j q_i P_{ij} = \sum_j q_{ij}$$
 
$$P_{ij} = \frac{q_{ij}}{q_i} = \frac{q_{ij}}{\sum_j q_{ij}}$$

we can always obtain all parameters of interest from the state transition rates  $q_{ij}$  in a Markov chain in continuous time.

## State limit probabilities

- Consider  $P_{ij}(t) = P\{X(s+t) = j \mid X(s) = i\}$   
the probability of state  $j$  after a time duration  $t$  when the Markov chain is in state  $i$  at the present time.
- The probability of a Markov chain in continuous time being on state  $j$  converges to a limit value which is independent of the initial state:

$$\pi_j \equiv \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} P_{ij}(t)$$

- For a Markov chain to have state limit probabilities  $\pi_j$ , it must be:
  - irreducible (all states can reach each other),
  - aperiodic (there's no fixed cycle of states),
  - positive recurrent (starting on any state, the average time to return to it is finite to all states).
- In this course unit, all Markov chains of interest have these properties.

# Computing state limit probabilities

- The state limit probabilities  $\pi_j$  can be computed by resolving the following set of equations:

$$q_j \pi_j = \sum_{k \neq j} q_{kj} \pi_k , \quad \text{for all states } j$$

$$\sum_j \pi_j = 1$$

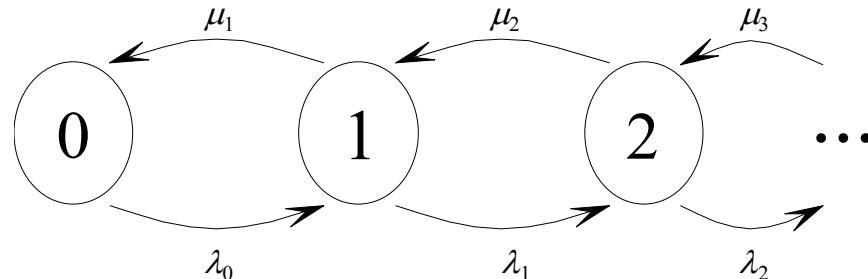
- These equations are known as the balance equations:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{rate at which the system transits from state } j \text{ to another state} \\ & \qquad \qquad \qquad = \\ & \text{rate at which the system transits from another state to state } j \end{aligned}$$

- The probability  $\pi_j$  gives also the percentage of time that the process is in state  $j$ .
- The state limit probabilities are also named stationary probabilities: if the initial state is characterized by the distribution  $\{\pi_j\}$ , then the probability of each state  $j$  is  $\pi_j$ , for all  $t$ .

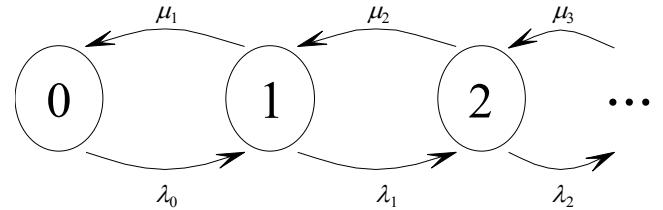
# Birth-dead process

- Consider a system whose state represents the number of clients, and the system has an infinite capacity (i.e., the system can accommodate an infinite number of clients).
- When the system is in state  $n$  (i.e., it has  $n$  clients):
  - (1) new clients arrive to the system at an exponential rate  $\lambda_n$
  - (2) clients leave the system at an exponention rate  $\mu_n$
- This Markov chain is named a birth-dead process.
- Parameters  $\lambda_n$  ( $n = 0, 1, \dots$ ) and  $\mu_n$  ( $n = 1, 2, \dots$ ) are referred to as the birth rates and the dead rates, respectively.



State transition diagram of a birth-dead process

# Balance equations of a birth-dead process



In a birth-dead process, it is possible to determine the state limit probabilities  $\pi_n$  of each state  $n$  ( $= 0, 1, 2, \dots$ ) as follows.

Balance equations:

$$q_j \pi_j = \sum_{k \neq j} q_{kj} \pi_k \quad , \text{ for each state } n$$

*State                  rate from State = rate to State*

$$0 \quad \lambda_0 \pi_0 = \mu_1 \pi_1$$

$$1 \quad (\lambda_1 + \mu_1) \pi_1 = \mu_2 \pi_2 + \lambda_0 \pi_0$$

$$2 \quad (\lambda_2 + \mu_2) \pi_2 = \mu_3 \pi_3 + \lambda_1 \pi_1$$

$$n, n \geq 1 \quad (\lambda_n + \mu_n) \pi_n = \mu_{n+1} \pi_{n+1} + \lambda_{n-1} \pi_{n-1}$$

Or equivalently (by manipulation of the previous equations):

$$\lambda_n \pi_n = \mu_{n+1} \pi_{n+1}, \quad n \geq 0$$

# State limit probabilities of birth-dead processes

State limit probabilities:

$$\pi_0 = \frac{1}{1 + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda_0 \lambda_1 \cdots \lambda_{i-1}}{\mu_1 \mu_2 \cdots \mu_i}}$$

$$\pi_n = \frac{\lambda_0 \lambda_1 \cdots \lambda_{n-1}}{\mu_1 \mu_2 \cdots \mu_n \left( 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda_0 \lambda_1 \cdots \lambda_{i-1}}{\mu_1 \mu_2 \cdots \mu_i} \right)} = \frac{\lambda_0 \lambda_1 \cdots \lambda_{n-1}}{\mu_1 \mu_2 \cdots \mu_n} \cdot \pi_0, \quad n \geq 1$$

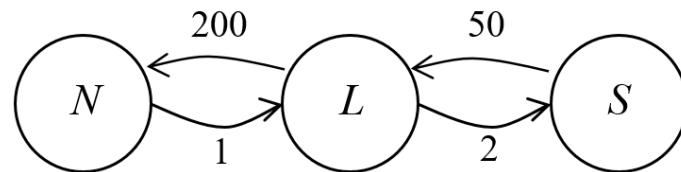
NOTE: If the process has a finite number  $N$  of states (i.e.,  $n = 0, 1, \dots, N$ ), the summations in the above expressions are from 0 to  $N$ .

In the case of an infinite number of states, the state limit probabilities exist only if:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda_0 \lambda_1 \cdots \lambda_{i-1}}{\mu_1 \mu_2 \cdots \mu_i} < \infty$$

## Example 6

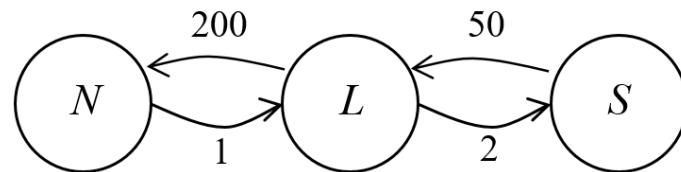
Consider a wireless link for packet transmission that can be in one of 3 possible states – Normal ( $N$ ), Light Interference ( $L$ ) or Severe Interferences ( $S$ ) – according with the following Markov chain (rates in transitions per hour):



- Determine the probability of each state.
- Determine the average holding time of the link in each state (in minutes).
- Knowing that of each data packet being received with errors (i.e., with one or more errors) is 0.01% in state  $N$ , 0.1% in state  $L$  and 1% in state  $S$ , what is the probability of state  $N$  when a data packet is received with errors?

## Example 6 – solution of (a)

Consider a wireless link for packet transmission that can be in one of 3 possible states – Normal ( $N$ ), Light Interference ( $L$ ) or Severe Interferences ( $S$ ) – according with the following Markov chain (rates in transitions per hour):



(a) Determine the probability of each state.

$$P_N = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{200} + \frac{1}{200} \times \frac{2}{50}} = 0.99483 = 99.483\%$$

$$P_L = \frac{\frac{1}{200}}{1 + \frac{1}{200} + \frac{1}{200} \times \frac{2}{50}} = 0.00497 = 0.497\%$$

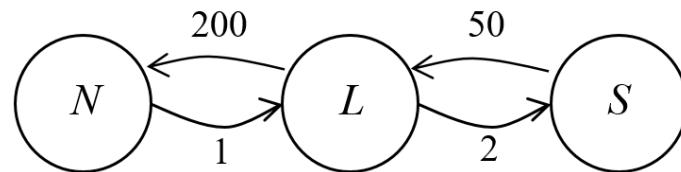
$$P_S = \frac{\frac{1}{200} \times \frac{2}{50}}{1 + \frac{1}{200} + \frac{1}{200} \times \frac{2}{50}} = 0.0002 = 0.02\%$$

$$\pi_0 = \frac{1}{1 + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda_0 \lambda_1 \dots \lambda_{i-1}}{\mu_1 \mu_2 \dots \mu_i}}$$

$$\pi_n = \frac{\lambda_0 \lambda_1 \dots \lambda_{n-1}}{\mu_1 \mu_2 \dots \mu_n} \cdot \pi_0$$

## Example 6 – solution of (b)

Consider a wireless link for packet transmission that can be in one of 3 possible states – Normal ( $N$ ), Light Interference ( $L$ ) or Severe Interferences ( $S$ ) – according with the following Markov chain (rates in transitions per hour):



(b) Determine the average holding time of the link in each state (in minutes).

$$T_N = \frac{1}{1} = 1 \text{ hour} = 60 \text{ minutes}$$

Average holding time:  
 $T = 1/q_i$

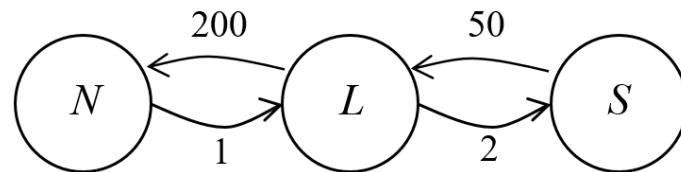
$$T_L = \frac{1}{2 + 200} = 0.00495 \text{ hours} = 0.3 \text{ minutes}$$

$$q_i = \sum_j q_i P_{ij} = \sum_j q_{ij}$$

$$T_S = \frac{1}{50} = 0.02 \text{ hours} = 1.2 \text{ minutes}$$

## Example 6 – solution of (c)

Consider a wireless link for packet transmission that can be in one of 3 possible states – Normal ( $N$ ), Light Interference ( $L$ ) or Severe Interferences ( $S$ ) – according with the following Markov chain (rates in transitions per hour):



(c) Knowing that of each data packet being received with errors (i.e., with one or more errors) is 0.01% in state  $N$ , 0.1% in state  $L$  and 1% in state  $S$ , what is the probability of state  $N$  when a data packet is received with errors?

by the Bayes rule

$$\begin{aligned} P(N|E) &= \frac{P(E|N) \times P(N)}{P(E|N) \times P(N) + P(E|L) \times P(L) + P(E|S) \times P(S)} \\ &= \frac{0.0001 \times 0.99483}{0.0001 \times 0.99483 + 0.001 \times 0.00497 + 0.01 \times 0.00020} \\ &= 0.9346 = 93.46\% \end{aligned}$$

# Little's theorem definitions

- Consider the observation of a system from time instant  $t = 0$ . Consider:  
 $L(t)$  – number of clients in the system in time instant  $t$ ,  
 $N(t)$  – number of clients that arrived at the system until time instant  $t$ ,  
 $W_i$  – amount of time that the  $i^{\text{th}}$  client stays in the system.

- Average number of clients in the system until time instant  $t$ :

$$L_t = \frac{1}{t} \int_0^t L(\tau) d\tau \quad L = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} L_t$$

- Average arrival rate of clients in the time interval  $[0, t]$ :

$$\lambda_t = N(t)/t \quad \lambda = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \lambda_t$$

- Average amount of time that clients stay in the system until time instant  $t$ :

$$W_t = \frac{\sum_{i=0}^{N(t)} W_i}{N(t)} \quad W = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} W_t$$

## Little's theorem

- The Little's theorem state that the long-term average number  $L$  of clients in a system is equal to the long-term average arrival rate  $\lambda$  multiplied by the average time  $W$  that a client spends in the system:

$$L = \lambda W$$

- This theorem translates the intuitive idea that, for the same client arrival rate  $\lambda$ , more congested systems (higher  $L$ ) impose greater delays (higher  $W$ ).
- Examples:
  - On a rainy day, the same car traffic rate  $\lambda$  is slower than normal (larger  $W$ ) and consequently the streets are more congested (larger  $L$ ).
  - A fast-food restaurant (smaller  $W$ ) needs a smaller room (smaller  $L$ ) than a regular restaurant, for the same customer arrival rate  $\lambda$ .

## PASTA property *(Poisson Arrivals always See Time Averages)*

- Consider a system such that each client arrives one at a time and is served one at a time.
- Consider  $L(t)$  as the number of clients in the system in time instant  $t$ .
- Consider  $P_n$ ,  $n \geq 0$ , defined as the stationary probability of exactly  $n$  clients being in the system (or the percentage of time the system has exactly  $n$  clients):

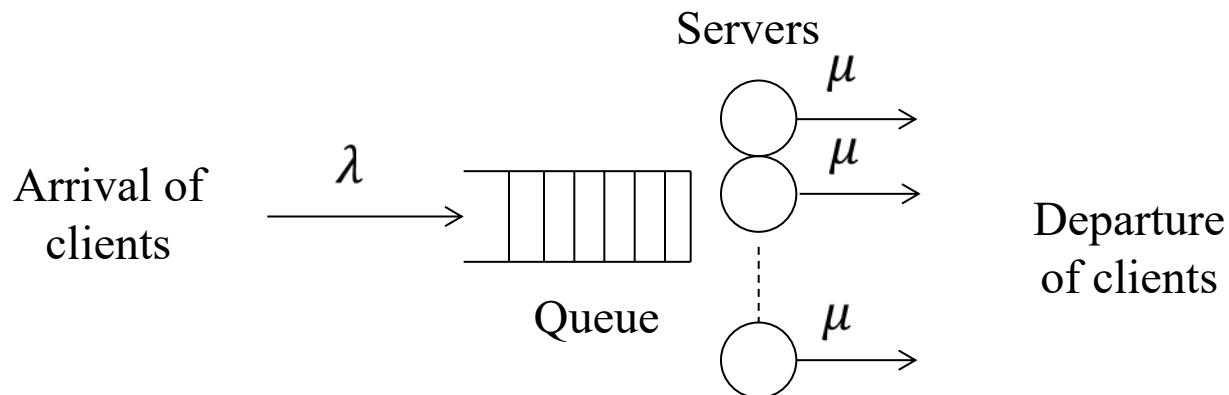
$$P_n = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} P\{L(t) = n\}$$

- Consider  $a_n$  as the percentage of clients that upon arrival to the system see the system with exactly  $n$  clients.
- **PASTA property:**  
Clients arriving according to a Poisson process such that the serving time of each client is statistically independent of its arrival time instant always see time averages:

$$a_n = P_n$$

# Queuing system

- A queuing system is characterized by:
  - a set of  $c$  servers, each one serving clients with an average rate  $\mu$
  - a queue with a given capacity (in number of clients)
- Clients arrive at the system with an average rate  $\lambda$
- When a client arrives:
  - if at least one of the servers is free, the client starts being served by an available server and departs from the system after being served
  - if all servers are busy, the client either goes to the queue (if the queue is not full) or is lost (if the queue is full)
- Clients in the queue are served with a FIFO (*First-In-First-Out*) queuing discipline



# Queuing system

- A queuing system is generically represented by:

$$A/B/c/d$$

*A* – process of client arrivals:

*M* – Markovian, *D* – Deterministic, *G* – Generic

*B* – service time distribution:

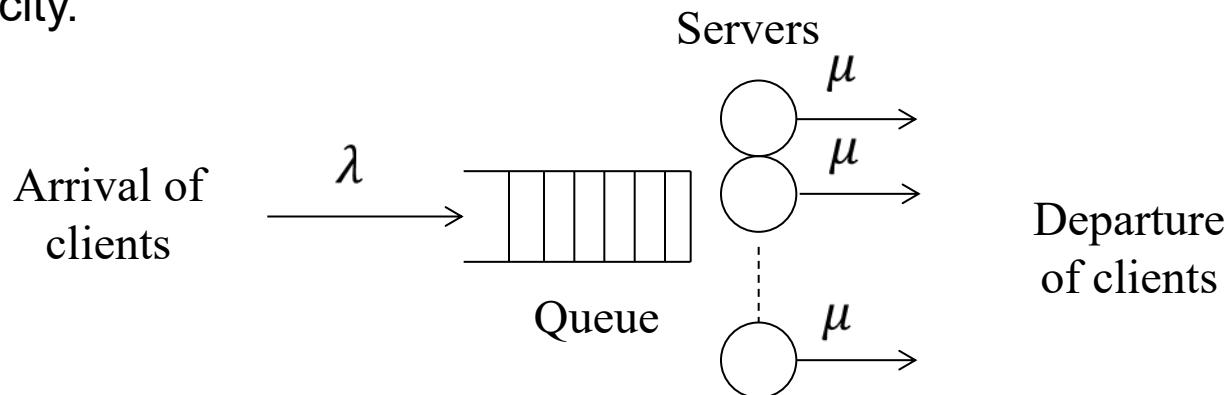
*M* – Markovian, *D* – Deterministic, *G* – Generic

*c* – number of servers

*d* – capacity of the system in number of clients:

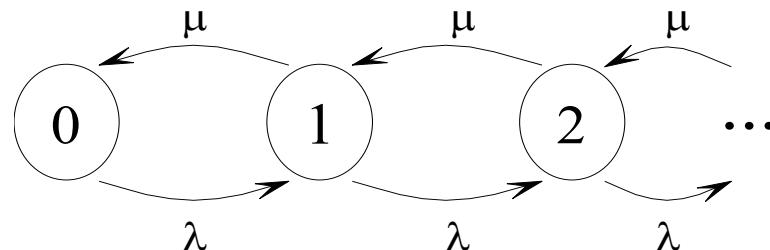
number of clients + capacity of the queue

- When *d* is not specified, it means that the queue has an infinite capacity.



## **M/M/1 queuing system**

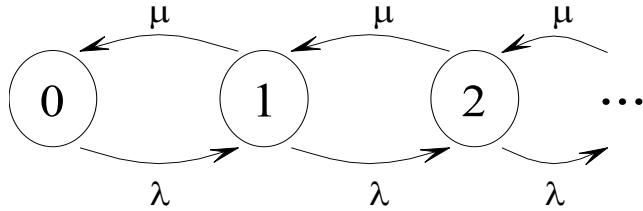
- Birth-dead process such that:
  - (1) the client arrivals is a Poisson process with rate  $\lambda$
  - (2) the serving time of each server is exponentially distributed with average  $1/\mu$  (i.e., the serving rate of each server is  $\mu$ )
  - (3) the system has 1 server
  - (4) the system capacity is infinite (and, therefore, the birth-dead process has an infinite number of states)



- Example: a link with a capacity of  $\mu$  packets/s and a very long queue such that data packets arrive with a Poisson rate of  $\lambda$  packets/s and data packets are exponentially distributed is modelled by an *M/M/1* queuing system.

# **M/M/1**

## **queuing system**



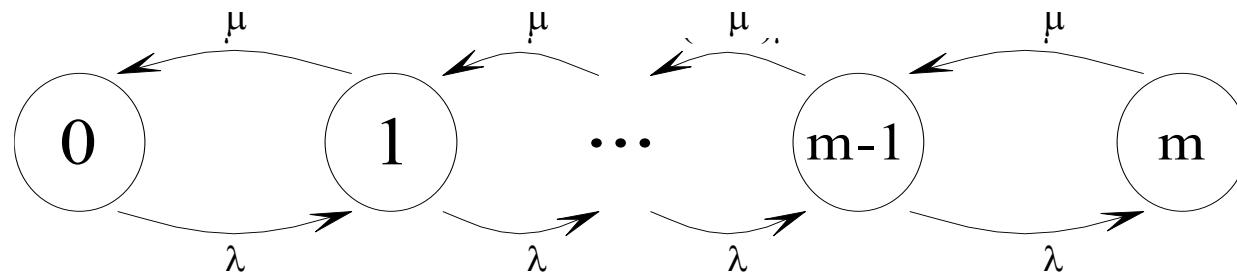
$$P_0 = \frac{1}{1 + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda_0 \lambda_1 \cdots \lambda_{i-1}}{\mu_1 \mu_2 \cdots \mu_i}} = \frac{1}{1 + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu}\right)^i}$$

$$P_n = \frac{\lambda_0 \lambda_1 \cdots \lambda_{n-1}}{\mu_1 \mu_2 \cdots \mu_n} \cdot P_0 = \left( \frac{\lambda}{\mu} \right)^n \cdot P_0 = \frac{\left( \frac{\lambda}{\mu} \right)^n}{1 + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{\lambda}{\mu} \right)^i}$$

- Average no. of clients in the system: 
$$L = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} nP_n = \frac{\lambda}{\mu - \lambda}$$
  - Average system delay of clients: 
$$W = \frac{L}{\lambda} = \frac{1}{\mu - \lambda}$$
 ← by Little's theorem
  - Average queuing delay of clients: 
$$W_Q = W - \frac{1}{\mu} = \frac{\lambda}{\mu(\mu - \lambda)}$$
  - Average no. of clients in the queue: 
$$L_Q = \lambda W_Q = \frac{\lambda^2}{\mu(\mu - \lambda)}$$

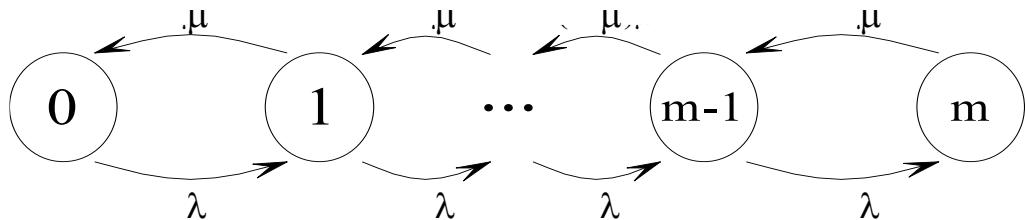
## **$M/M/1/m$ queuing system**

- Birth-dead process such that:
  - (1) the client arrivals is a Poisson process with rate  $\lambda$
  - (2) the serving time of each server is exponentially distributed with average  $1/\mu$  (i.e., the serving rate of each server is  $\mu$ )
  - (3) the system has 1 server
  - (4) the system capacity is  $m$  clients (i.e., the queue has a capacity of  $m - 1$  clients)



The number of states of the birth-dead process is  $m + 1$

# *M/M/1/m* queuing system



- Balance equations:

$$\lambda P_{n-1} = \mu P_n, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots, m$$

- Stationary probability of  $n$  clients in the system:

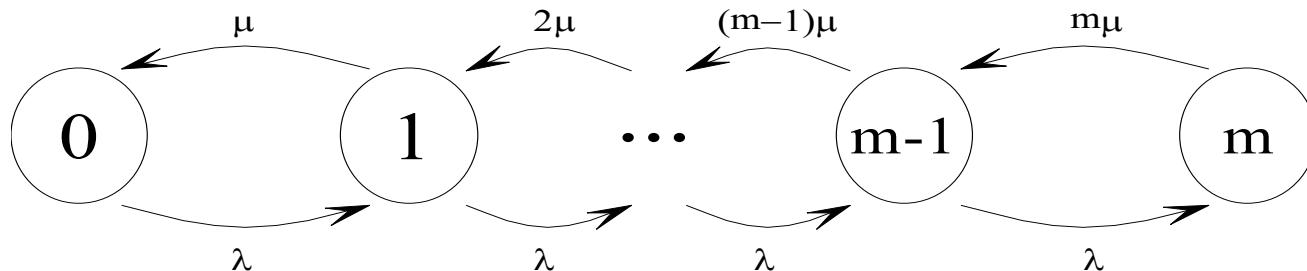
$$P_n = \frac{(\lambda/\mu)^n}{\sum_{i=0}^m (\lambda/\mu)^i} \quad n = 0, 1, \dots, m$$

- By PASTA probability, the probability of an arrival client seeing the system full (*i.e.*, the server not available and the queue fully occupied) is given by the probability of state  $m$ :

$$P_m = \frac{(\lambda/\mu)^m}{\sum_{i=0}^m (\lambda/\mu)^i}$$

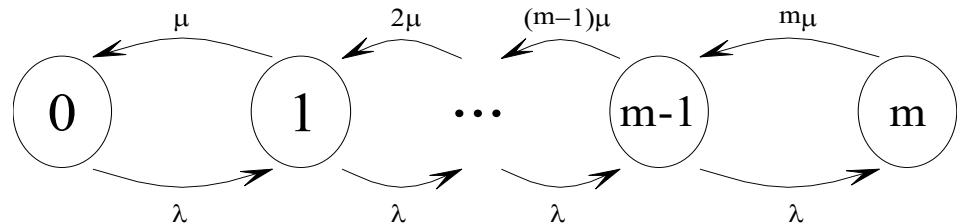
## **$M/M/m/m$ queuing system**

- Birth-dead process such that:
  - (1) the client arrivals is a Poisson process with rate  $\lambda$
  - (2) the serving time of each server is exponentially distributed with average  $1/\mu$  (i.e., the serving rate of each server is  $\mu$ )
  - (3) the system has  $m$  servers
  - (4) the system capacity is  $m$  clients (i.e., there is no queue)



- The number of states of the birth-dead process is  $m + 1$ .
- Since state  $n$  represents  $n$  servers attending one client each, the dead rate of state  $n$  is  $n\mu$ .

# **M/M/m/m queuing system**



- Balance equations:

$$\lambda P_{n-1} = n\mu P_n, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots, m$$

- Stationary probability of  $n$  clients in the system:

$$P_n = \frac{(\lambda/\mu)^n / n!}{\sum_{i=0}^m (\lambda/\mu)^i / i!} \quad n = 0, 1, \dots, m$$

- By PASTA probability, the probability of an arrival client seeing the system full (*i.e.*, all servers unavailable) is given by the probability of state  $m$  (ErlangB formula):

$$P_m = \frac{(\lambda/\mu)^m / m!}{\sum_{i=0}^m (\lambda/\mu)^i / i!}$$

# **M/G/1 queuing system**

- Birth-dead process such that:
  - (1) the client arrivals is a Poisson process with rate  $\lambda$
  - (2) the serving time  $S$  of each client has a generic distribution and is independent of the client arriving time instant
  - (3) the system has 1 server
  - (4) the system capacity is infinite
- If the average,  $E[S]$ , and the 2<sup>nd</sup> moment,  $E[S^2]$ , of the serving time  $S$  is known, the average queuing delay of each client,  $W_Q$ , is given by the Pollaczek - Khintchine formula:

$$W_Q = \frac{\lambda E[S^2]}{2(1 - \lambda E[S])}$$

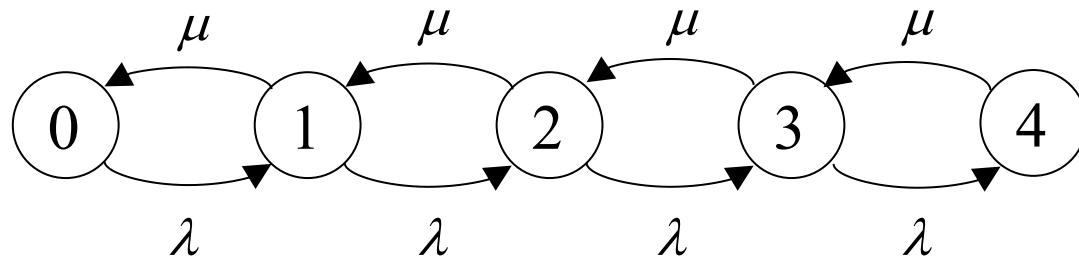
- Therefore, the average client delay in the system,  $W$ , is given by the sum of the average queuing delay plus the average serving time:

$$W = \frac{\lambda E[S^2]}{2(1 - \lambda E[S])} + E[S]$$

## Example 7

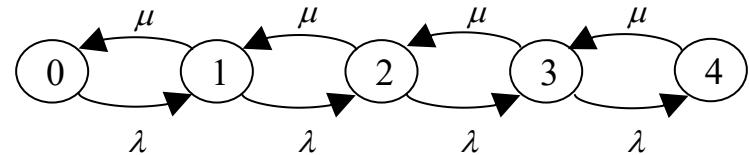
Consider a data packet transmission system with a queue of capacity 3 packets and a link of 64 Kbps. The link is supporting a data flow of packets whose arrivals are a Poisson process with rate 15 pps (packets/sec). The packets length is exponentially distributed with average 400 bytes. Determine:

- (a) the percentage of lost packets,
- (b) the percentage of packet not suffering queuing delay,
- (c) the percentual utilization of the link.



M/M/1/4 model

## Example 7 – solution of (a)



Consider a data packet transmission system with a queue of capacity 3 packets and a link of 64 Kbps. The link is supporting a data flow of packets whose arrivals are a Poisson process with rate 15 pps (packets/sec). The packets length is exponentially distributed with average 400 bytes. Determine:

(a) the percentage of lost packets,

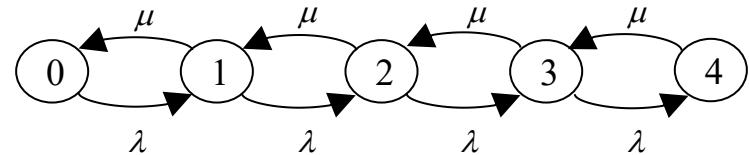
$$\mu = \frac{64000 \text{ bps}}{400 \times 8 \text{ bpp}} = 20 \text{ pps} \quad \lambda = 15 \text{ pps}$$

$$P_n = \frac{(\lambda/\mu)^n}{\sum_{i=0}^m (\lambda/\mu)^i} \quad n = 0, 1, \dots, m$$

$$P_4 = \frac{\left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu}\right)^4}{\left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu}\right)^0 + \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu}\right)^1 + \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu}\right)^3 + \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu}\right)^4} \quad \xleftarrow{\text{By PASTA property}}$$

$$P_4 = \frac{\left(\frac{15}{20}\right)^4}{1 + \frac{15}{20} + \left(\frac{15}{20}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{15}{20}\right)^3 + \left(\frac{15}{20}\right)^4} = 0.104 = 10.4\%$$

## Example 7 – solution of (b)



Consider a data packet transmission system with a queue of capacity 3 packets and a link of 64 Kbps. The link is supporting a data flow of packets whose arrivals are a Poisson process with rate 15 pps (packets/sec). The packets length is exponentially distributed with average 400 bytes. Determine:

(b) the percentage of packet not suffering queuing delay,

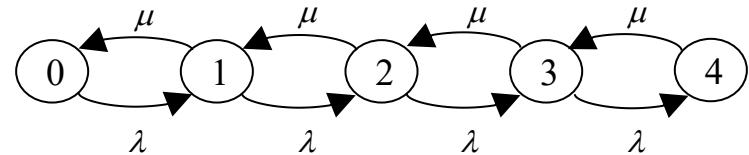
$$\mu = \frac{64000 \text{ bps}}{400 \times 8 \text{ bpp}} = 20 \text{ pps} \quad \lambda = 15 \text{ pps}$$

$$P_n = \frac{(\lambda/\mu)^n}{\sum_{i=0}^m (\lambda/\mu)^i} \quad n = 0, 1, \dots, m$$

$$P_0 = \frac{\left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu}\right)^0}{\left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu}\right)^0 + \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu}\right)^1 + \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu}\right)^3 + \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu}\right)^4} \quad \xleftarrow{\text{By PASTA property}}$$

$$P_0 = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{15}{20} + \left(\frac{15}{20}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{15}{20}\right)^3 + \left(\frac{15}{20}\right)^4} = 0.328 = 32.8\%$$

## Example 7 – solution of (c)



Consider a data packet transmission system with a queue of capacity 3 packets and a link of 64 Kbps. The link is supporting a data flow of packets whose arrivals are a Poisson process with rate 15 pps (packets/sec). The packets length is exponentially distributed with average 400 bytes. Determine:

(c) the percentual utilization of the link.

$$U = 0 \times P_0 + 1 \times P_1 + 1 \times P_2 + 1 \times P_3 + 1 \times P_4$$

$$U = P_1 + P_2 + P_3 + P_4 = 1 - P_0$$

$$U = 1 - 0.328 = 0.672 = 67.2\%$$

## Example 8

Consider a data packet transmission system with a very large queue and a link of 128 kbps. The system supports 2 data flows sharing the queue: in flow 1, packets are of constant size 128 Bytes and the packet arrivals is a Poisson process with rate 30 packets/sec; in flow 2, packets are of constant size 512 Bytes and the packet arrivals is a Poisson process with rate 10 packets/sec.

- (a) Indicate and justify the type of queuing system that models this transmission system.
- (b) Determine the average system delay of each data flow.

## Example 8 – solution of (a)

Consider a data packet transmission system with a very large queue and a link of 128 kbps. The system supports 2 data flows sharing the queue: in flow 1, packets are of constant size 128 Bytes and the packet arrivals is a Poisson process with rate 30 packets/sec; in flow 2, packets are of constant size 512 Bytes and the packet arrivals is a Poisson process with rate 10 packets/sec.

(a) Indicate and justify the type of queuing system that models this transmission system.

This is a  $M/G/1$  queuing system:

- The sum of 2 Poisson processes is a Poisson process (' $M$ ' in  $M/G/1$ ) with rate  $30 + 10 = 40$  pps.
- The packet size distribution of the sum of the two flows is neither exponential nor constant and therefore is generic (' $G$ ' in  $M/G/1$ ): packet size is 128 Bytes with probability  $30/(30+10) = 0.75$  or 512 Bytes with probability  $10/(30+10) = 0.25$ .
- The number of servers is one ('1' em  $M/G/1$ ) since the link is fully used to transmit one packet at a time.
- The queue is very large and, therefore, the system capacity is considered infinite.

## Example 8 – solution of (b)

Consider a data packet transmission system with a very large queue and a link of 128 kbps. The system supports 2 data flows sharing the queue: in flow 1, packets are of constant size 128 Bytes and the packet arrivals is a Poisson process with rate 30 packets/sec; in flow 2, packets are of constant size 512 Bytes and the packet arrivals is a Poisson process with rate 10 packets/sec.

(b) Determine the average system delay of each data flow.

$$W_Q = \frac{\lambda E[S^2]}{2(1 - \lambda E[S])}$$

$$S_{128} = (128 \times 8)/128000 = 8 \times 10^{-3} \text{ sec} \quad S_{512} = (512 \times 8)/128000 = 32 \times 10^{-3} \text{ sec}$$

$$\begin{aligned} E[S] &= 0.75 \times S_{128} + 0.25 \times S_{512} = \\ &= 0.75 \times 8 \times 10^{-3} + 0.25 \times 32 \times 10^{-3} = 14 \times 10^{-3} \text{ sec} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} E[S^2] &= 0.75 \times (S_{128})^2 + 0.25 \times (S_{512})^2 = \\ &= 0.75 \times (8 \times 10^{-3})^2 + 0.25 \times (32 \times 10^{-3})^2 = 3.04 \times 10^{-4} \text{ sec}^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$W_Q = \frac{\lambda E[S^2]}{2(1 - \lambda E[S])} = \frac{40 \times 3.04 \times 10^{-4}}{2(1 - 40 \times 14 \times 10^{-3})} = 0.0143 = 14.3 \text{ msec}$$

$$W_{128} = W_Q + S_{128} = 14.3 + 8 = 22.3 \text{ msec}$$

$$W_{512} = W_Q + S_{512} = 14.3 + 32 = 46.3 \text{ msec}$$