

# Modeling and Simulation in a nutshell ..

**Einführung BA-Seminar** 

Sommersemester 2019

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# Modeling and Simulation in a nutshell ..



- 1. What is a Model?
- 2. Simulation of Communication Systems
- 3. Load Modeling
- 4. Mobility Modeling





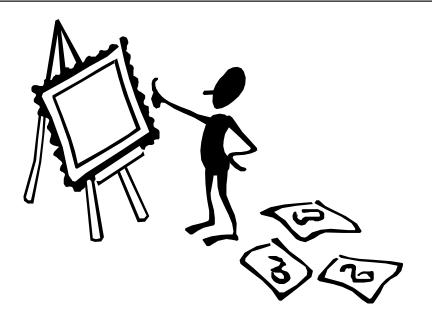
Models should be abstractions capturing relevant aspects of "reality": !!

Who does the selection? Based on which criteria?

#### Model

An approximation, representation, or idealization of selected aspects of the structure, behaviour, operation, or other characteristics of a real-world process, concept, or system. Note: models may have other models as components

Source: www.sei.cmu.edu/str/indexes/glossary/model.html







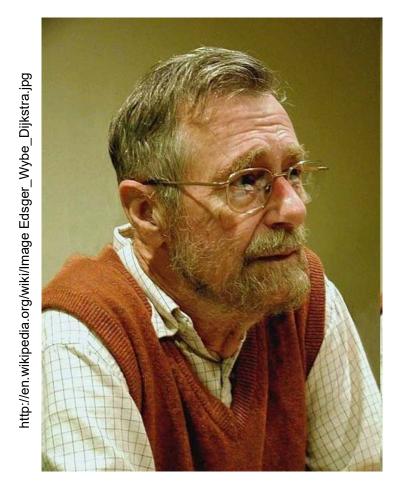
http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Image Einstein1921\_by\_F\_Schmutzer\_2.jpg

Albert Einstein during a lecture in Vienna, 1921.

"Everything should be as simple as possible but no simpler."

**Attributed to Einstein** 





Edsger W. Dijkstra, 1.8.2002

"An abstraction is one thing that represents several things equally well."

Edsger W. Dijkstra













Edsger W. Dijkstra

#### Two distinct skills are related to abstractions:

- 1. Being able to work with a given abstraction
- 2. Being able to develop a useful abstraction

Mathematical Methods
Simulation Tools
Measurement Tools

# Dijkstra

Avoiding assumptions that are not true in reality is

- ... hard to teach,
- ... hard to learn,
- ... but the essence of scientific work.





Simulation allows us to "play" with mechanisms in the simulated systems.

Simulation of communication systems is based on

- protocol specifications and/or,
- models of the real world which (ideally) include exactly the relevant details of the selected real world aspects.
  - 2.1. What is Simulation?
  - 2.2. Continuous-State versus Discrete-State Models
  - 2.3. Event-Driven Simulation
  - 2.4. Steady-State Simulation
  - 2.5. Synthetic versus Trace-Driven
  - 2.6. Limits of Applicability





"In computer science, simulation refers to the use of computation to **implement a model** of some dynamic system or phenomenon.

The purpose of simulation is usually to make experimental measurements or predict behavior, thus moving the laboratory into the computer environment.

Simulation thus provides a prototype system with which to answer questions of a "what if?" nature, or to use for teaching about the system being simulated."

Encyclopedia of Computer Science, IEEE 1993

#### Note:

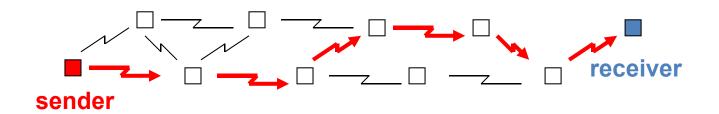
In addition to the model-based simulation addressed here, **simulation based on full protocol specifications** is used for **checking functional correctness**.

Tools for this are commercially available, e.g. for SDL.





Your company is developing a new **peer to peer software** for **mobile devices**. The idea is that mobile devices build a **wireless mesh network** in which each device may **share data with all other peers**.



Since the **transmission range** of a single mobile device is **limited**, the system specifies that devices should relay traffic for other devices.

In early development, a decision has to made between two routing algorithms.

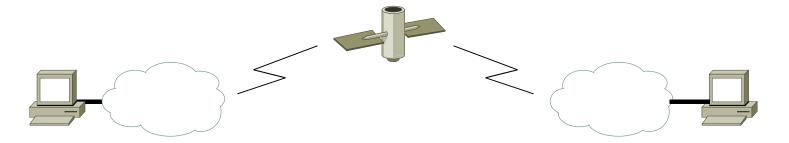
The system is supposed to scale.

- How to assess the performance of each algorithm for 100s or 1000s of nodes?
- Buying as many devices and measuring the performance is not possible.





Your company is working on a "next generation" TCP that allows efficient data transfer over links with a high bandwidth delay product (such as satellite links).



Before deploying the new TCP variant on the hosts of their network, the company has to make sure that it:

- really performs better than "regular" TCP in the target scenarios
- does not misbehave, e.g. does not push away "regular" TCP traffic (fairness)

Real world studies would require an expensive and complex measurement setup:

- Expensive satellite links
- Many physical "regular" TCP senders to examine fairness

How can we obtain the desired information by simpler means?





In network simulations, we usually study characteristic changes of system state.

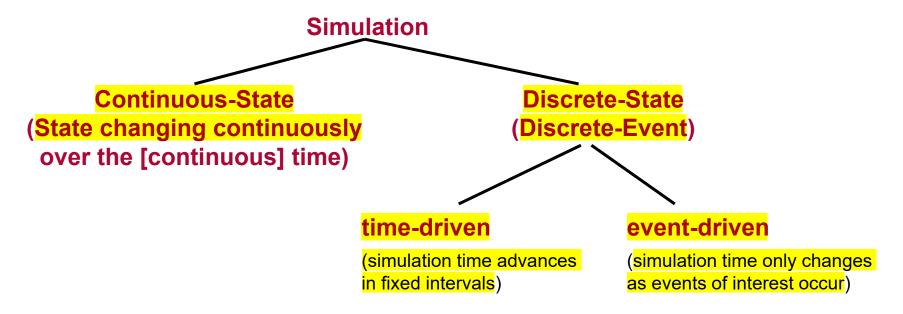
**Model World Time:** Time in the **simulated system** / in the simulated world.

(Simulation Time)

**Real World Time:** Time in the **real world**, advancing as the simulator executes.

(Wall Clock Time)

Different approaches to handle changes in the model world time yield different classes of simulation:







# **Fundamental Assumption:**

The state variables are continuous variables.

Usually, continuous-state simulations **additionally** use **continuous-time models**, i.e. models where the system state changes continually.

# **Typical Application Areas:**

Simulation of physical / chemical phenomena, simulation of streaming behavior, weather forecast, ...



## **Applicability to Communication Systems**

Communication protocols are specified by modified finite state machines consuming discrete input ("signals") such as

- message received,
- message sent,
- timer expired.

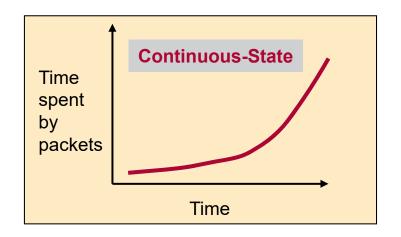
Continuous-state simulation is rarely used for communication networks.

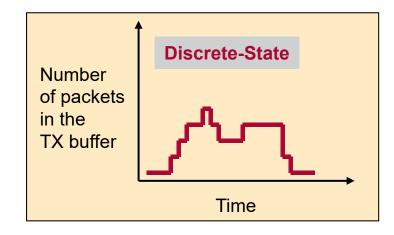




# **Fundamental Assumption:**

The state variables are discrete variables.







# Fundamental Concept of Discrete-State Simulation: The Event

Events change the system state without consuming model world time.

Each event has an associated time value indicating the time when to execute this event.

# **Examples for Events**:

- Enqueueing / dequeueing of messages into/from buffers
- Arrival of a car at a filling station
- Receiving the last and final bit of a message (and thus the complete message)



Discrete-event simulation is extensively used for studying performance aspects of communication systems.

The main component of a discrete-event simulator is a **linked list of the events** waiting to happen:

- The model time is advanced from event to event (to the next earliest event).
- As simulation progresses, events are added, processed, or dropped.

# Fundamental idea: The model system state only changes with events.

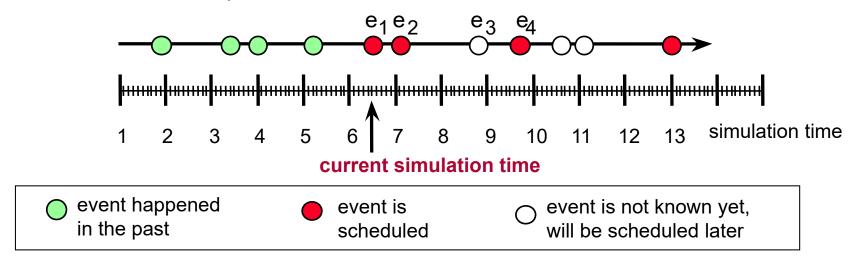
- Define an initial event
- Sort all future events in a suitable data structure (e.g. priority queue or calendar scheduler)
- Process (and then remove) the event with the earliest event time by
  - advancing the model world time to the event time
  - invoking the actions associated with this event.

The run time of an event-driven simulation strongly depends on the **number of events** and the **efficiency of event handling**.



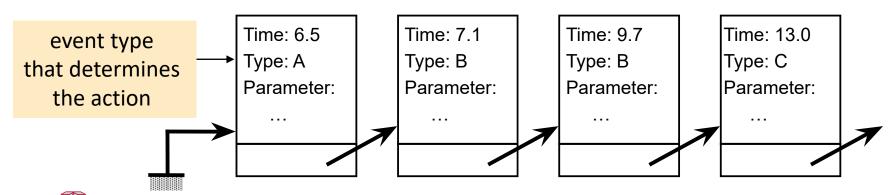


In an event-driven simulation, the simulation time has **advanced to time 6.5**. At this point in time, event **e**<sub>1</sub> occurs:



Event  $e_3$  may be caused and scheduled by  $e_1$  or  $e_2$ .

#### The event list at simulation time 6.5:



#### 2.4. Steady-State Simulation



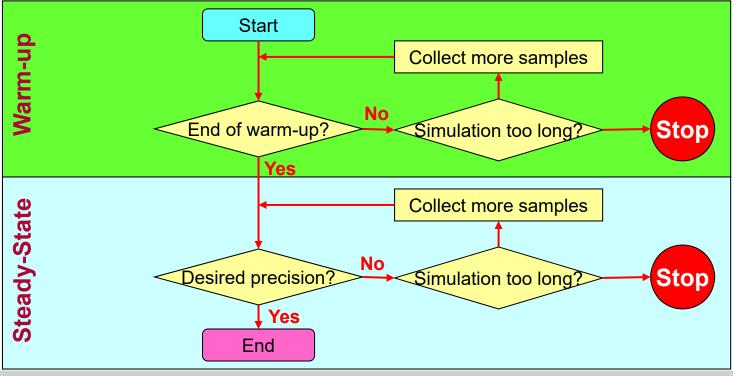
In steady-state simulations, instead of running many replications we

- collect many samples from a single run,
- analyze these samples for calculating the precision and confidence levels.

Initially, the system remains in a nonstationary "warm-up period" where the sample values fluctuate a lot. Sample values from the warm-up period are discarded when it comes to calculating the simulation results.

After warm-up, the system becomes stable and asymptotically reaches a statistical equilibrium. The simulation run time may be based on on-line statistical sample

analysis.



#### 2.5. Synthetic versus Trace-Driven

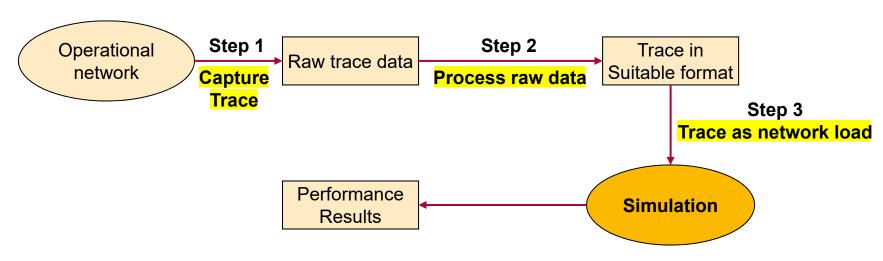


# In synthetic simulations,

input traffic is synthetically generated by **random load generators** where traffic patterns are chosen from a set of **predefined traffic models** such as Poisson Arrivals, ON-OFF-Sources, self-similar.

# With trace-driven simulations,

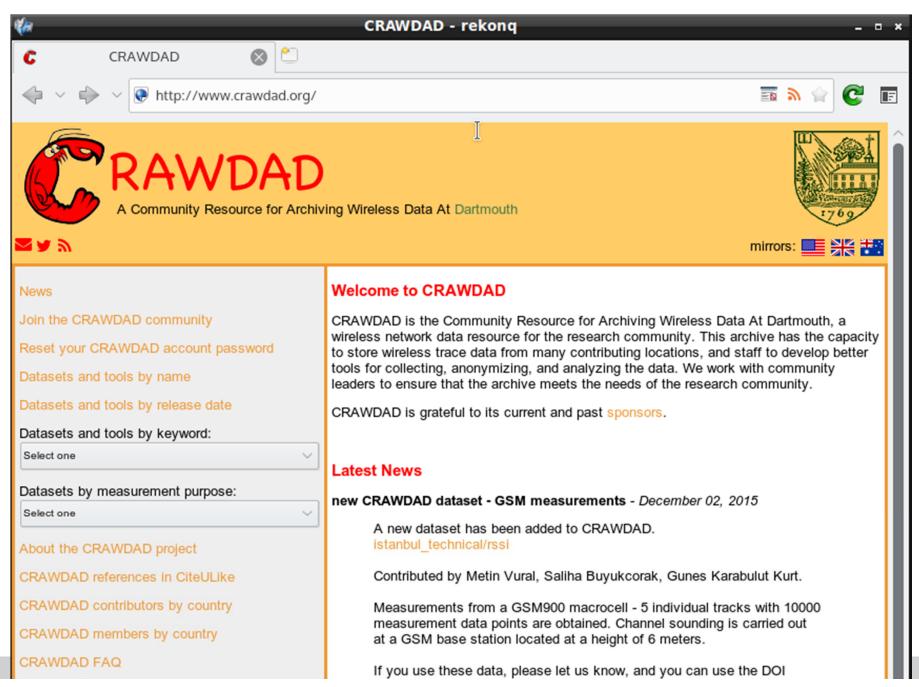
performance analysts **try to reach more credibility** by using traces as input traffic. Traces match 100 % with the actual traffic observed in a specific network during a specific interval of time.





Ш







# The most important advantages of simulation:

... when compared to mathematical analysis

**Universal applicability:** Simulation may even be used to study scenarios where mathematical analysis fails. However, in these cases the results should be thoroughly scrutinized.

• ... when compared to measurements in real systems

Universal applicability: Simulation may even be used to study scenarios where the real system does not exist is too slow, too fast, too dangerous, too expensive ....

# **Challenges when using simulation:**

Relevance and credibility of results

The quality of simulation results never exceeds the quality of the models used.

Complexity in time and storage space

⇒ ... strongly depends on the art of modeling.





Protocol development for a simulator is **similar** to protocol development for a real system! The only difference is the **interface** to the environment.

# Network simulators can be interfaced at different protocol layers:

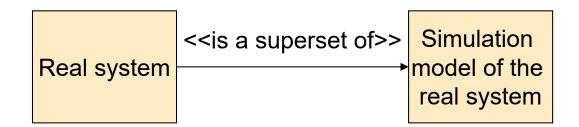
Simulators may only simulate a "Real" protocol "Real" protocol given network topology and use a physical node's real protocol "Real" lower "Real" lower implementations. layer protocol layer protocol Simulated **Network** Simulators may also provide a "Real" protocol "Real" protocol simulation of lower layer protocols while using a physical node's "real" Simulated lower layer protocols and **Network** upper layer protocol implementation. Simulators may also simulate the full communication system with Simulated protocol, lower layer protocols and all protocols and network nodes. Network





#### Create a simulation model of the protocols

- think about which characteristics of the system should be reflected in the simulation model
- **implement** the (relevant parts of the) protocols you want to examine
- avoid unnecessary complexity in the simulation model



# **Unnecessary complexity** ...

- does not increase the accuracy of the results (e.g. you do not need to spend effort in implementing the original TCP header format bit by bit)
- wastes simulation time (e.g. you don't need to simulate an ATM connection with all its protocols when a generic WAN link is sufficient)
- wastes development time (e.g. when examining TCP congestion control you don't need to implement flow control or Nagle's algorithm)





An idle system is unlikely to show the effects you are interested in...

#### Choose the load model

- simulators often provide a large set of different load models
  - custom load models (e.g. CBR, Poisson arrivals)
  - application-specific load models (e.g. FTP traffic, HTTP traffic, Telnet traffic)
- often, the load model used in a simulation has been derived from real measurements

# Specify the load model

write down what to send, when to send and from where to send.

# Sandar 1: TCD variant A hulk tra

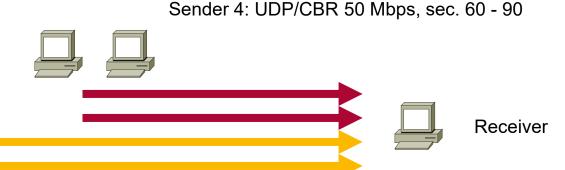
Sender 1: TCP variant A, bulk traffic,

sec. 1 - 10

**Example:** 

Sender 2: TCP variant B, HTTP traffic

sec. 20 - 30



Sender 3: UDP/CBR 20 Mbps, sec. 0 - 90



## 3. Modeling Load



The **performance** of a communication system often depends on the **characteristics of the load** applied to the system.

# Frost/Melamed (1994)

"Traffic modeling is a key element in simulating communication networks. A clear understanding of the nature of traffic in the target system and subsequent selection of an appropriate random traffic model are critical to the success of the modeling enterprise."

#### Traffic models ...

- are a means to generate load for measurements, simulation and mathematical analysis.
- are often derived by measuring real load.
- can have the form of a mathematical model (e.g. expressed in a closed formula)
- can have the form of a trace file (e.g. a file that contains the timestamps of packet arrivals)
- are the templates from which to generate artificial load that can be reproduced at any time, the measurement/simulation should be repeated.



# 3. Modeling Load



- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Renewal Traffic Models
- 3.3 Markov Traffic Models
- 3.4 Back to some measurements ...
- 3.5 Self-Similar Traffic
- 3.6 Autoregressive Traffic Models
- 3.7 Fluid Traffic Models
- 3.8 Modeling realistic data traffic for simulations
- 3.9 Do we really need to care about Load Models?

#### 3.1 Introduction



simple traffic consists of simple arrivals of discrete entities





**–** ...



mathematically described as point process

a sequence of arrival instants measured from the origin 0

• T<sub>1</sub>, T<sub>2</sub>, T<sub>3</sub>, ...

• by convention  $T_0 = 0$ 

• point processes can equally be described as:

counting process

•  $\{N(t)\}_{t=0}^{\infty}$  continuous time, non-negative, integer-valued, stochastic process

•  $N(t) = \max\{n : T_n \le t\}$  is the number of traffic arrivals in (0,t]

- interarrival time process

• a non-negative random sequence  $\{A_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ 

•  $A_n = T_n - T_{n-1}$  is the length of the time interval between two arrivals

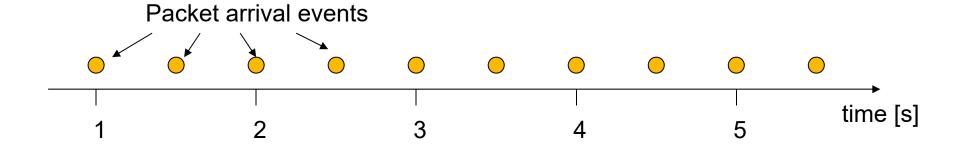
compound traffic consists of batch arrivals

more than one unit arrives at an arrival instant T<sub>n</sub>



A simple load model is to generate packets or requests at a constant time interval of length  $1/\lambda$  with  $\lambda$  the arrival rate (number of packet arrival events per time unit).

The following example shows packet arrival events with rate  $\lambda = 2 / s$  spaced every  $1 / \lambda = 0.5 s$ .



If the packet size is also constant, this load model is called the **constant bitrate** (CBR) load model.

#### **CBR model advantages:**

- **simple** to implement
- easy to handle in mathematical analysis

## **CBR model disadvantages:**

does not match realistic load (however: the active periods of Voice over IP (VoIP) and video transmission sometimes appear as CBR traffic)





- time may be
  - slotted (discrete)
    - discrete-time traffic process
  - continuously
    - continuous-time traffic process
- to generate traffic pseudo-random number streams are used
  - e.g. generation of inter-arrival times (simple traffic)

• 
$$T_0 = 0$$

• generate A<sub>1</sub> randomly

• 
$$T_1 = A_1$$

• 
$$T_{n+1} = T_n + A_{n+1}$$



- compound traffic
  - second stream B<sub>n</sub> (e.g., for the packet size / batch size)
  - ...



- commonly used:
  - start with one value $x_0$  the **seed**
  - next numbers in the sequence is a function of previous one(s)

$$x_n = f(x_{n-1}, x_{n-2},...)$$

```
example: x_n = (5x_{n-1} + 1) \mod 16 x_0 = 5 \implies 10, 3, 0, 1, 6, 15, 12, 13, 2, 11, 8, 9, 14, 7, 4, 5, 10, 3, 0, 1, 6, 15, 12, 13, 2, 11, 8, 9, ... Normalize to [0:1] by div 16: => 0.6250, 0.1875, 0.0, 0.0625, ... cycle length is 16
```

- ullet the sequence depends on the function  $\ensuremath{f}$  and the seed
- f is deterministic => pseudo-random
  - preferable for simulation applications
  - to repeat simulation experiments exactly the same way (same sequence)
- pseudo random generators repeat numbers (cycle length)
- We need to choose appropriate value for **seed** and appropriate **generator function**.



We need to choose appropriate value for **seed** and appropriate **generator function**.

## generator function:

- efficiently computable
- cycle/period should be large
- successive values should be independent and uniformly distributed
- seed: "any seed value is as good as any other"
  - do not use zero and avoid even values
    - some RNGs have problems with it
  - do not subdivide one stream
    - multistream simulations
    - to avoid correlations between two variables
  - use non-overlapping streams
    - to avoid correlations between two streams
  - do not use random seeds (e.g., time)
    - simulation can not be reproduced
    - multiple streams may overlap



- To generate random variables with a specific random distribution
  - (e.g. exponential, lognormal)
- 1) obtain a sequence of random numbers
  - uniformly distributed between 0 and 1  $\left\{u_i
    ight\}_{i=1}^k$



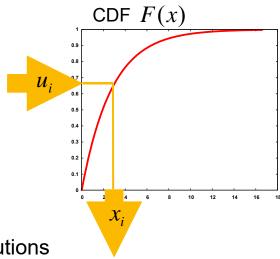
- 2) transform it to produce random values  $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^k$  of the desired distribution with CDF F(x)
  - use inverse transformation

$$u_i = F(x_i) \Longrightarrow x_i = F^{-1}(u_i)$$

Example: exponential variates

pdf: 
$$f(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}$$

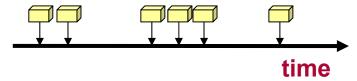
cdf: 
$$F(x) = 1 - e^{-\lambda x} = u \implies x = -\frac{1}{\lambda} \ln(1 - u)$$



- further information on generation for specific distributions
  - R. Jain "The Art of Computer Systems Performance Analysis" Wiley,
     1991 Chapter 28 and 29
- alternatively use standard libraries
  - GNU Scientific Library (GSL) http://www.gnu.org/software/gsl/



- due to random number generation and stochastic processes there is no constant arrival
  - packet bursts
  - vehicular traffic bursts
- traffic burstiness is present if arrival points appear to form visual clusters.



- interarrival times: several short ones are followed by a long one
- reason: short-term autocorrelations of interarrival times



## 3.2 Renewal Traffic models



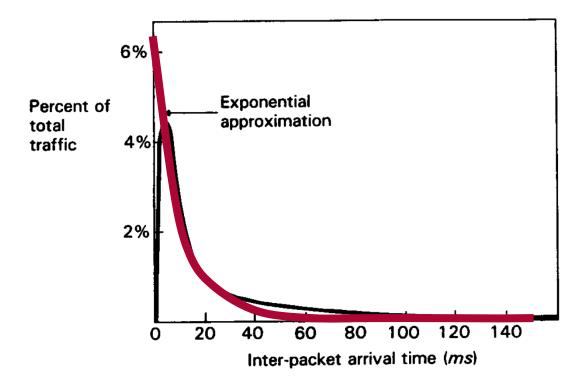
In a renewal traffic process, the interarrival times  $A_n$  are **independent**, **identically distributed**, but their distribution is allowed to be general.

- no dependencies
  - autocorrelation vanishes for all non-zero lags
- · memoryless property
- the Poisson process is a renewal process with exponentially distributed interarrival times





An early measurement study of the packet inter-arrival times in an Ethernet LAN revealed the following histogram (Shoch/Hupp, 1980):



This histogram can be approximated by the **probability density function** (**pdf**) of the **exponential distribution**.

A stochastic process that generates events with exponentially distributed inter-arrival times is called "Poisson process".



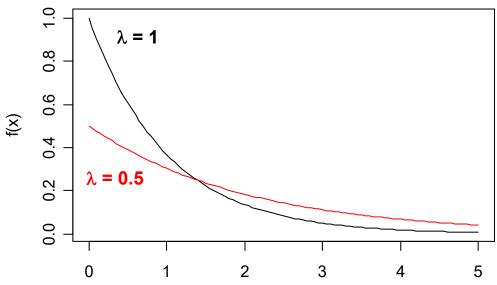


If we assume **Poisson Arrivals** then the inter-arrival time of packets is **exponentially distributed**.

The exponential distribution has the **pdf**:

$$f(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}$$

where  $\lambda$  is the mean arrival rate.



Here, the probability of *k* arrivals during an interval of length *T* [seconds] is given by the **Poisson** distribution:

P { k arrivals in T [seconds] } = 
$$\frac{(\lambda T)^k e^{-\lambda T}}{k!}$$
, k = 0, 1, 2, ...

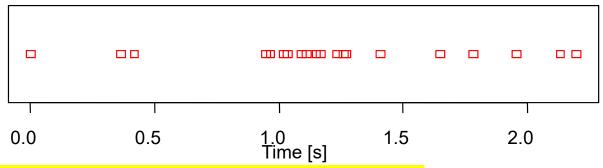
In load generators, exponentially distributed inter-arrival times can be generated by solving the exponential distribution's **cumulative distribution function** (**cdf**) ("Verteilungsfunktion") F(t) with respect to t.

$$F(t) := \int_0^t f(x) \ dx = 1 - e^{-\lambda t} =: Y \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad t = -\frac{\ln(1 - Y)}{\lambda}$$

For Y uniformly distributed between 0.0 and 1.0, t is exponentially distributed with mean  $\lambda$ 



#### Example for exponentially distributed inter-arrival times ( $\lambda = 10 / s$ ):



The arrival times vary and show both, bursty and idle periods.

#### Advantages of Poisson processes for modeling inter-arrival times:

- "simple" mathematic analysis
- superposition of independent Poisson Processes results in a new Poisson Process
  - rate = sum of component rates
- fairly common in traffic applications
  - measurements in telephone networks show that Poisson processes are a very close approximation of real arrival processes (e.g. the time between two phone calls can be well approximated by a Poisson process)

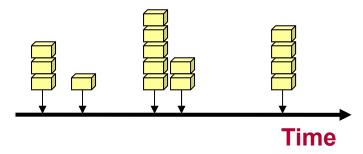
#### Disadvantages of Poisson processes for modeling inter-arrival times:

- Albeit more bursty than CBR, Poisson processes generate inter-arrival times without excessive peaks.
- Poisson processes do not resemble inter-arrival times in current communication networks very closely.





Real network traffic is more bursty than Poisson traffic. The **Batch Poisson process** models the inter-arrival times exponentially as well. However, instead of single packets, it generates **batches of packets**:



The number of packets in a batch may be modeled by an **arbitrary probability distribution**.

### **Advantages:**

- The traffic generated is more bursty than Poisson traffic.
- Arrival times are still exponentially distributed (which simplifies math)

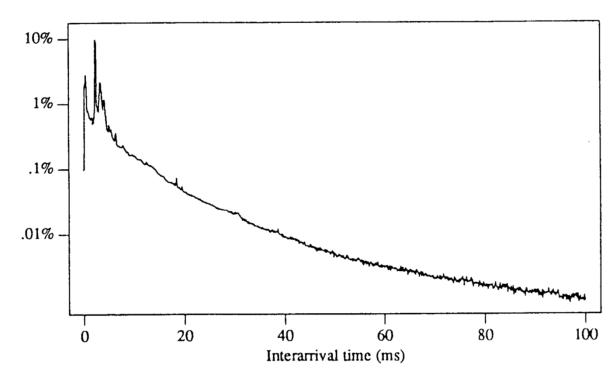
### **Disadvantage:**

- The model still is not really close to real load
  - E.g. it ignores the typical correlation between packet bursts which is caused by the typical request / response traffic patterns of common communication protocols





## Measurements by Gusella at UC Berkeley provided similar results:



#### Source:

R. Gusella, "A Measurement Study of Diskless Workstation Traffic on an Ethernet", IEEE Trans. Commun., Vol. 38, No. 9, Sept. 1990, pp. 1557 - 1568

#### Note:

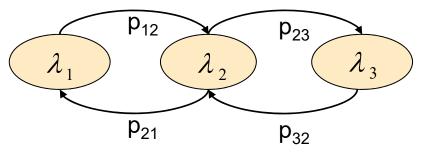
The similarity to Poisson Arrivals basically is an illusion: In real life, there are **strong interdependencies** between successive inter-arrival times (short followed by short, large followed by large).

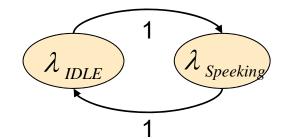




Markov traffic models introduce dependence into the sequence of interarrival times.

- Markov Process:
  - discrete state space
  - ullet exponentially distributed holding times with rate  $\lambda_i$
  - transition probabilities (Probability matrix)  $P = [p_{ij}]$





next state only depends on current state



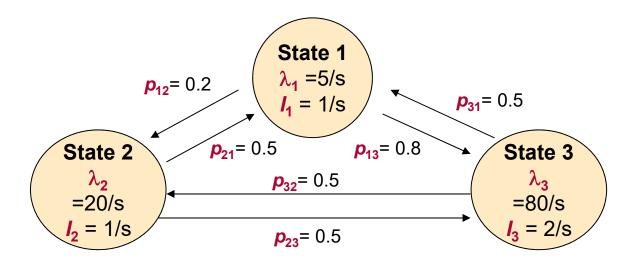
Real network traffic cannot be accurately modeled with a fixed packet arrival rate  $\lambda$ .

A Markov Modulated Poisson process (MMPP) has multiple states 1, ..., n. Each state i is associated two rates  $\lambda_i$  and  $l_i$  and a probability vector  $p_i = (p_{i1}, ..., p_{in})$ 

#### **Markov-Modulated Poisson process Traffic Generator**

- The process starts in state 1.
- The duration, the MMPP stays in state *i* is **exponentially distributed** with parameter *I*<sub>i</sub>.
- In state i, the Poisson process is configured with parameter λ<sub>i</sub>.
- After that, the process changes to the state j with probability p<sub>ii</sub>.

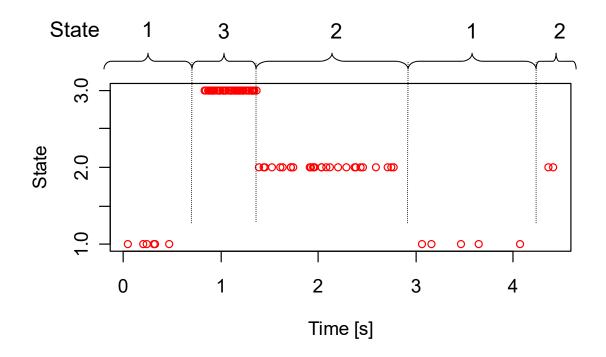
### **Example: A MMPP with three states**







### **Example: Three state MMPP packet arrivals:**



A MMPP shows varying arrival rates which correspond to its different states.

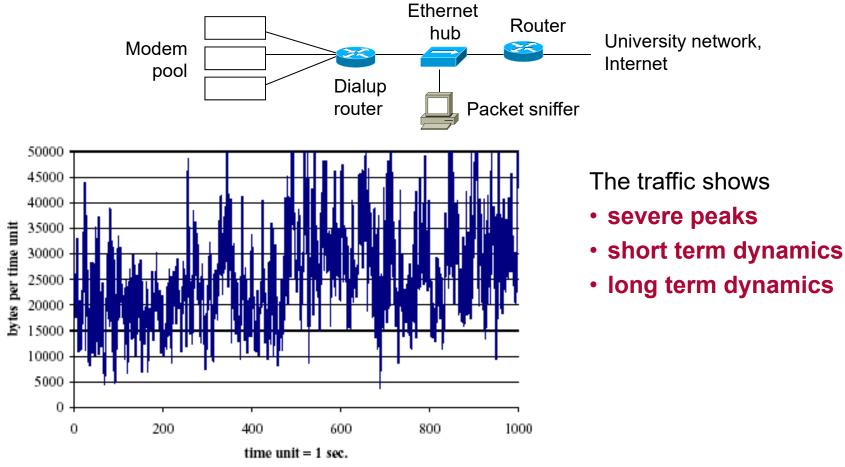
However, in some scenarios, the load variation is still **not sufficient** to represent real network traffic!





#### How close are these load models to real network traffic?

The following plot shows a **1000 second slice** of a **throughput measurement** at a ISDN dialup modem pool of the University Dortmund, Germany on Dec. 13, 2000 at 10 a.m.

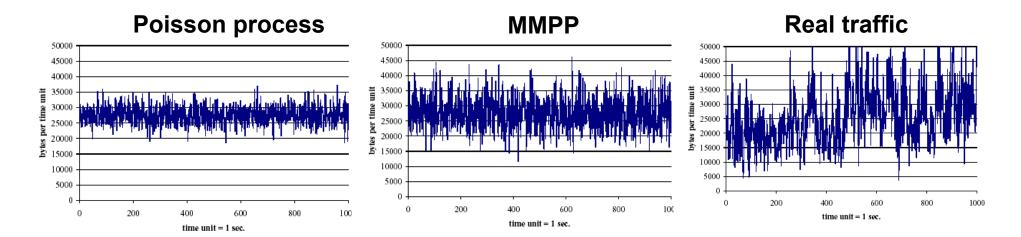


A. Klemm, Ch. Lindemann, M. Lohmann, Traffic Modeling of IP Networks Using the Batch Markovian Arrival Process, Proc. TOOLS 2002.



With statistic means, it is possible to derive the parameters of a **Poisson process** and a three state **MMPP** that have similar characteristics than the measured traffic.

The following figures show the "best" attempts to model real traffic with a Poisson process and a MMPP:



#### **Observations:**

- Poisson arrivals are much smoother than MMPP
- Real traffic is more bursty than MMPP
- The occurrence of bursts in real traffic is bursty, too!

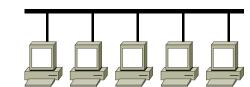
A. Klemm, Ch. Lindemann, M. Lohmann, Traffic Modeling of IP Networks Using the Batch Markovian Arrival Process, Proc. TOOLS 2002.



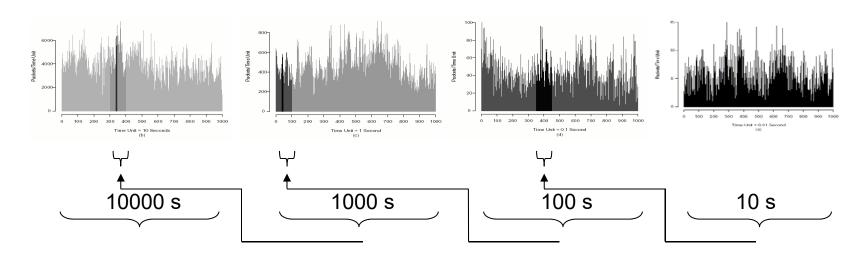


Leland et al. made clear, that LAN traffic is self-similar. Informally speaking, traffic is said to be self-similar if it "looks roughly the same" regardless at which time scale it is observed.

The following throughput plots of Ethernet traffic are based on a single measurement, depicted at **different time scales** from 0.01 s to 10 s.



They illustrate that **Ethernet traffic is self-similar**.



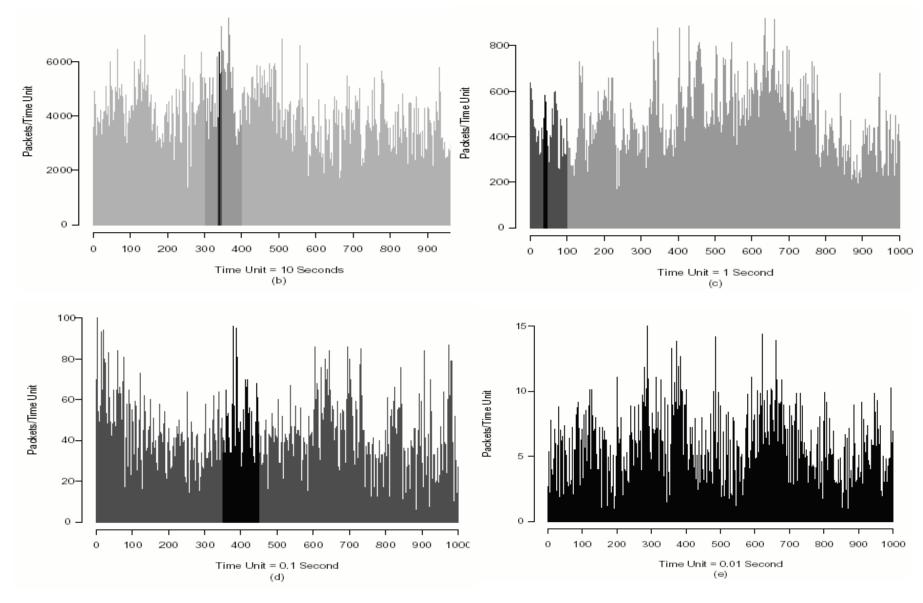
Self-similar load models are an active area of research.

W. Leland et al., "On the self-similar nature of Ethernet traffic (extended version)", IEEE/ACM Transactions on Networking, Vol. 2, No. 1, Feb. 1994.



### Self-similar Traffic (2)

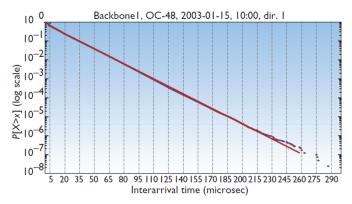


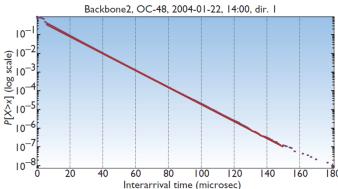


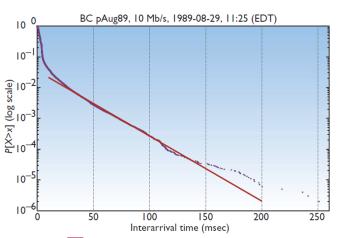
W. Leland et al., "On the self-similar nature of Ethernet traffic (extended version)", IEEE/ACM Transactions on Networking, Vol. 2, No. 1, Feb. 1994.











Self-similarity and scaling phenomena have dominated Internet traffic analysis for the past decade. With the identification of long-range dependence (LRD) in network traffic, the research community has undergone a mental shift from Poisson and memory-less processes to LRD and bursty processes. Despite its widespread use, though, LRD analysis is hindered by the difficulty of actually identifying dependence and estimating its parameters unambiguously. [..]

[..] We show that unlike the older data sets, current [backbone] network traffic can be well represented by the Poisson model for sub-second time scales. At multi-second scales, we find a distinctive piecewise-linear non-stationarity, together with evidence of long-range dependence. [..]

Just as the analogy of the two bugs in the garden shows it is important to avoid excessively large scales, we must also be careful not to focus on too small a time scale.

T.Karagiannis, M.Molle, M.Faloutsos: "Long-range dependence ten years of Internet traffic modeling", IEEE Internet Computing, 2004

T.Karagiannis, M.Molle, M.Faloutsos: "A Nonstationary Poisson View of Internet Traffic", Proc. IEEE Infocom. 2004

**Important**: Think of times for single packet delivery (RTTs).







[..] Consider the problem of determining correlation between the motions of two insects wandering randomly around a small garden. To an observer in the garden who watches the two bugs, their motions might appear completely independent and uncorrelated. However, to an observer watching the two bugs from outer space, the motions of the two bugs appear almost perfectly correlated, since they are never more than a few inches apart as they traverse a daily rotation of the earth around its axis, which is itself embedded in an annual orbit of the earth around the sun. Clearly, estimating the motions of the two bugs relative to some "average" derived from celestial-scale measurements is not appropriate for solving this problem!

Similarly, we should not try to normalize all network measurements relative to some far away global long-term average value that the system may never reach within the time scales relevant to the calculation of its primary performance metrics. [..]

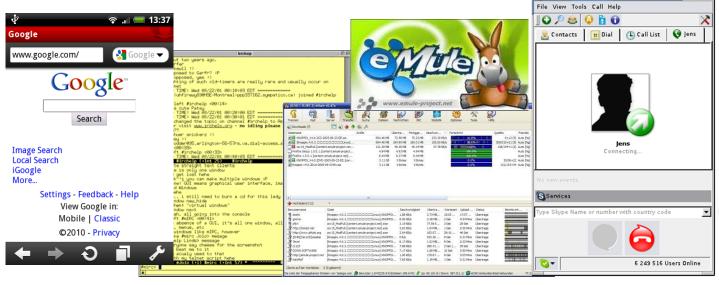
T.Karagiannis, M.Molle, M.Faloutsos: "A Nonstationary Poisson View of Internet Traffic", Proc. IEEE Infocom, 2004



### 3.8 Modeling realistic data traffic for simulations

**@y@** 

- What is realistic data traffic?
- Which kind of traffic is used in the network modeled?
- Which kind of applications are used?







3.8.1 Web-Traffic / HTTP

3.8.3 P2P-Traffic

3.8.2 Voice-Traffic

3.8.4 Chat-Traffic

3.8.5 Video-Traffic



### **4 Modeling Mobility**





A mobility model is designed to describe the movement pattern of mobile users/devices, and how their location, velocity and acceleration change over time.





A mobility model is designed to describe the movement pattern of mobile users/devices, and how their location, velocity and acceleration change over time.

#### Mobility models ...

- are a means to generate movement for simulation and mathematical analysis.
- can have the form of a mathematical model (e.g. expressed in a closed formula)
- can have the form of a trace file (e.g. a file that contains certain waypoints)
- are the templates from which to generate artificial movement that can be reproduced at any time, the measurement/simulation should be repeated.

The **performance** of a wireless communication system often depends on the **characteristics of the movements** of the mobile nodes.

- desireable to emulate the movement pattern of targeted real life applications
  - => otherwise simulation results may be misleading





## Trace based models

- based on user movement traces
- traces have to be accurate
- networks have to exist

## Synthetic models

- capture various characteristics
- represent movement in a "realistic" fashion
- macroscopic level
  - previous studies in wireless cellular networks
  - movement of users relative to a particular area (e.g. cell)
    - cell change rate
    - handover traffic
    - blocking probability
- microscopic level
  - movement of individual nodes
  - node location and relative velocity
  - impact on links



### Synthetic mobility models

#### Random Models

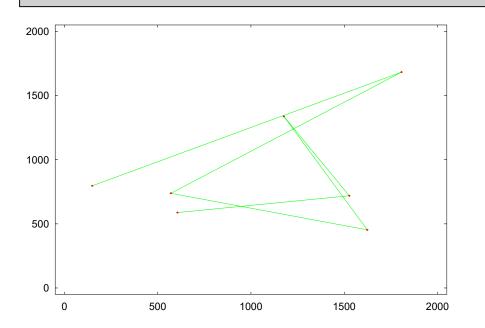
- nodes move to a randomly chosen destination with a randomly selected velocity
- independent of other nodes
- independent of previous movement
- most widely used
- most intensively analyzed
- Random Waypoint
  - D. Johnson and D. Maltz. Dynamic source routing in ad hoc wireless networks - Mobile Computing, Kluwer Academic Publishers, 1996.
- Random Walk
  - by Einstein 1926

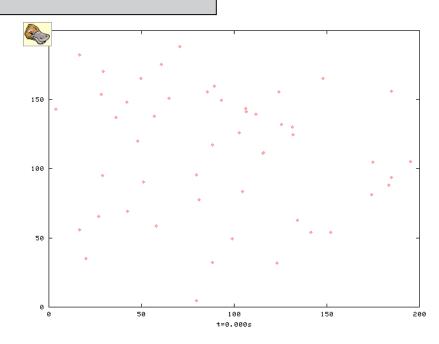






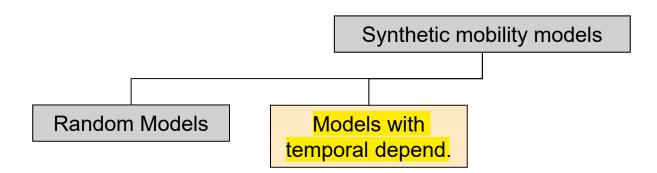
- each node starts at random position
- travels to a randomly chosen destination (x,y)
- with a constant velocity chosen randomly from [0,V<sub>max</sub>]
- bounce if boundary is reached





- often used for performance evaluation (e.g. routing protocols)
  - simplicity
  - easy to implement & widely available
- recently theoretical characteristics are examined using different metrics





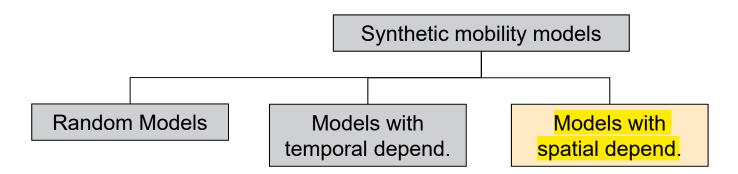
- nodes move to a randomly chosen destination with a randomly selected velocity
- independent of other nodes
- affected by its movement history
   (speed and direction dependent)
- Gauss-Markov
  - B. Liang and Z. Haas. "Predictive distance-based mobility management for PCS networks", Infocom 1999.
- Smooth Random
  - C. Bettstetter. "Smooth is Better than Sharp: A Random Mobility Model for Simulation of Wireless Networks", MSWiM 2001







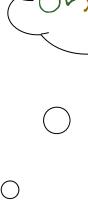




- nodes move to a randomly chosen destination with a randomly selected velocity
- correlated to the movement of other nodes
  - movement in groups
- independent of previous movement
- Reference Point Group Mobility Model
  - X. Hong, M. Gerla, G. Pei, and C. Chiang. "A group mobility model for ad hoc wireless networks". MSWiM 1999.

•









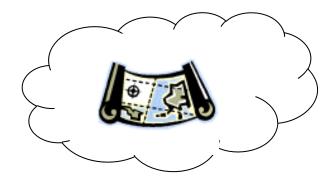
Random Models

Models with temporal depend.

Synthetic mobility models

Models with geographic restriction

- nodes movement restricted to certain areas
  - streets, freeways, obstacles
- independent of other nodes
- independent of previous movement
- Manhattan Grid
  - "Selection procedures for the choice of radio transmission technologies of the UMTS" TS30.03 v3.2.0/ 3GPP. 1998
- Obstacle Mobility Model
  - A.Jardosh, E. Belding Royer, K. Almeroth, S. Suri
    "Towards Realistic Mobility Models for Mobile Ad hoc Networks" Mobicom 2003











57

11	Model			Dependencies				Applications / Scenarios							
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[	No dependencies														
ļ	Random-Waypoint	[28]													
I	Random-Direction	[51]													
l	Modified Random-Direction	[51]													
I	Random-Walk	[12]													
l	Random-Border-Model	[8]													
l	Random-Waypoint with attraction points	[8]						√							
	Clustered-Mobility	[38]		(√)							<b>V</b>				
l	Disaster-Recovery	[46]		(√)							<b>~</b>				
[	General Ripple	[13]													
[	Temporary dependencies														
- 1	Gauss-Markov	[35]	-√												
- 1	Smooth-Random	[6]	V												
i	Spatial dependencies						_								
ı	Reference-Point-Group	[21]	(√)	√	(√)	П									
ŀ	Structured-Group	[10]	(4)	V	(٧)	-					(√)	(√)			
ŀ	Virtual Track	59	<del>                                     </del>	V					<b>√</b>		(٧)	V			
ı	Social-Network-founded	[42]	<del>                                     </del>	V					· ·						
ŀ	Mold	36	<del>                                     </del>	V		<b>√</b>									
ı	Community-based	[43]	1	Ž		Ť									
i	Geographic restrictions			v											
H	Manhattan-Grid	[17]	1		./	П			./						
ł	Graph-based	54	_		· V	-			-×						
H	Obstacle	[26]	<del>                                     </del>		V	<b>√</b>			v						
H	Weighted-Waypoint	23	<del>                                     </del>		V	V									
H	Voronoi	[60]	1		V	V			<b>√</b>						
H	Area-Graph-based	[9]	<del>                                     </del>		V	<b>√</b>			·						
ŀ	CosMos	19	<del>                                     </del>		V	·									
ł	Hotspot	[39]			V		$\vdash$	V					$\vdash \vdash$		
ı	Route	[39]	<del>                                     </del>		V			·	<b>√</b>						
ł	Random-Waypoint-City	30			V				V	V			$\vdash$		
ł	Agenda Based	[58]	1		V		$\vdash$		V	V			<b>√</b>		
ł	Graph-Random-Waypoint	[40]	1		V		$\vdash$		V	<b>√</b>			*		
ł	Graph-Random-Walk	40	1		V				V	Ž			$\vdash$		
ı	Subway	[55]			V				(√)	Ť					
i	Hybrid dependencies/restrictions														
ı	Freeway	[4]	<b>√</b>	√	✓	П				<b>√</b>					
ł	User-oriented-Meta-Model	[53]	V	V	V		$\vdash$			V			<b>√</b>		
ł	Street-Random-Waypoint	[14]	V	V	V				<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>			¥		
ł	VanetMobiSim	20	V	V	V				V	ž			$\vdash$		
Ì	Hostage-Rescue	[25]	_ *	V	V				Ť	*		<b>√</b>	М		
ŀ	Disaster-Area-Model	[2]		V	V						<b>√</b>	_	$\Box$		
l	CORPS	[24]		V	V						V		$\Box$		
_	Platoon	[49]		V	V							<b>√</b>			
Ţ	Working-Day-Model	[16]	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	V				✓				✓		

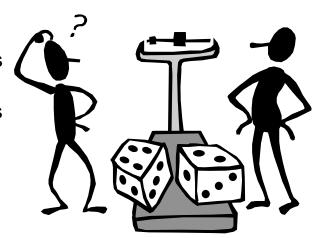
Source: Nils Aschenbruck, Aarti Munjal, Tracy Camp "Trace-based Mobility Modeling for Multi-hop Wireless Networks" Elsevier Computer Communications, Volume 34, Issue 6, May 2011, pp. 704-714.

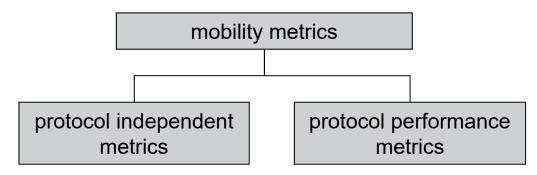
ersität Osnabrück



# Why to use mobility metrics?

- mobility metrics are needed to perform statistical analysis of the generated movement
- statistical analysis enables us to figure the characteristics of the generated movement
- only if we know these characteristics, we can properly interpret the results of the performance evaluation





(Source: F. Bai, N. Sadagopan, and A. Helmy, "IMPORTANT: A framework to systematically analyze the Impact of Mobility on Performance of RouTing protocols for Adhoc NeTworks" Proc. of the IEEE Infocom, 2003)



metrics



mobility metrics

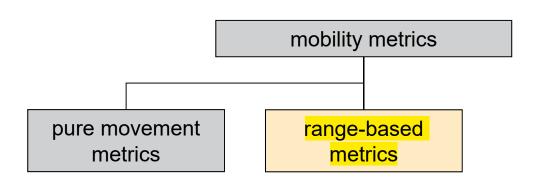
pure movement

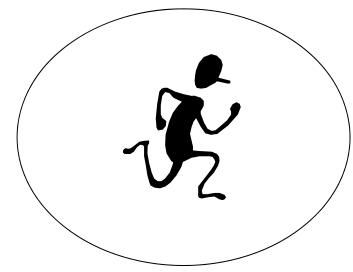


- no further assumptions
- are calculated from node statistics
- average velocity
- relative mobility
  - P. Johansson, T. Larsson, N. Hedman, B. Mielczarek, and M. Degermark "Scenario-based Performance Analysis of Routing Protocols for Mobile Ad-hoc Networks" Proc. of the IEEE Mobicom, 1999.
- node distribution
  - C. Bettstetter and C. Wagner "The Spatial Node Distribution of the Random Waypoint Mobility Model" Proc. of the 1st German Workshop on Mobile Ad-Hoc Networks (WMAN02), 2002.





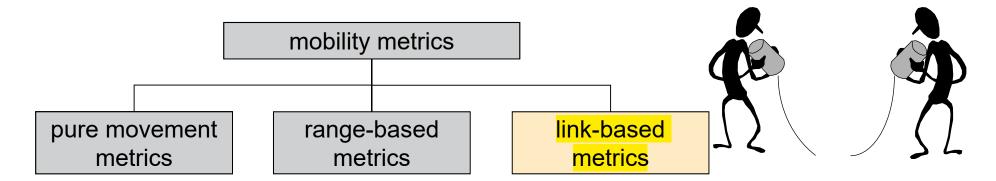




- contain a range around the node as one parameter
  - (e.g. transmission range or communication range)
- the choice of the range parameter is not trivial
- often assume that far away nodes have less impact than nodes nearby
- concept of remoteness
  - B. Kwak, N. Song, and L. Miller "A canonical measure of mobility for mobile ad hoc networks" Proc. of the IEEE Milcom, 2003.
- degree of spatial dependence
  - F. Bai, N. Sadagopan, and A. Helmy, "IMPORTANT: A framework to systematically analyze the Impact of Mobility on Performance of RouTing protocols for Adhoc NeTworks" Proc. of the IEEE Infocom, 2003







- depend on links between two nodes
- whether a link exists or not depends on the propagation model assumed
- for simplicity reasons, often times a circular range around a node is assumed

- average node degree
- average link duration
- average time to link break
- number of partitions / partition degree





- A. Allen "Probability, Statistics, and Queueing Theory with Computer Science Applications" – 2nd ed. – Academic Press, 1990
- R. Jain "The Art of Computer Systems Performance Analysis" Wiley, 1991
- A. Law, W. Kelton "Simulation Modeling and Analysis" 3rd ed. McGraw-Hill, 2000
- S. Ross "Introduction to Probability and Statistics for Engineers and Scientists" – 3rd ed. – Elsevier, 2004

