

# DATA NETWORKS

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## A P P E N D I X A: Review of Markov Chain Theory

The purpose of this appendix is to provide a brief summary of the results we need from discrete- and continuous-time Markov chain theory. We refer the reader to books on stochastic processes for detailed accounts.

### 3A.1 Discrete-Time Markov Chains

Consider a discrete-time stochastic process  $\{X_n | n = 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$  that takes values from the set of nonnegative integers, so the states that the process can be in are  $i = 0, 1, \dots$ . The process is said to be a *Markov chain* if whenever it is in state  $i$ , there is a fixed probability  $P_{ij}$  that it will next be in state  $j$  regardless of the process history prior to arriving at  $i$ . That is, for all  $n > 0$ ,  $i_{n-1}, \dots, i_0, i, j$

$$\begin{aligned} P_{ij} &= P\{X_{n+1} = j | X_n = i, X_{n-1} = i_{n-1}, \dots, X_0 = i_0\} \\ &= P\{X_{n+1} = j | X_n = i\} \end{aligned}$$

We refer to  $P_{ij}$  as the *transition probabilities*. They must satisfy

$$P_{ij} \geq 0, \quad \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} P_{ij} = 1, \quad i = 0, 1, \dots$$

The corresponding transition probability matrix is denoted

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} P_{00} & P_{01} & P_{02} & \cdots \\ P_{10} & P_{11} & P_{12} & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ P_{i0} & P_{i1} & P_{i2} & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

Consider the  $n$ -step transition probabilities

$$P_{ij}^n = P\{X_{n+m} = j | X_m = i\}, \quad n \geq 0, i, j \geq 0.$$

The *Chapman-Kolmogorov equations* provide a method for calculating  $P_{ij}^n$ . They are given by

$$P_{ij}^{n+m} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_{ik}^n P_{kj}^m, \quad n, m \geq 0, i, j \geq 0$$

From these equations, we see that  $P_{ij}^n$  are the elements of the matrix  $P^n$  (the transition probability matrix  $P$  raised to the  $n^{\text{th}}$  power).

We say that two states  $i$  and  $j$  *communicate* if for some  $n$  and  $n'$ , we have  $P_{ij}^n > 0$ ,  $P_{ji}^{n'} > 0$ . If all states communicate, we say that the Markov chain is

*irreducible.* We say that the Markov chain is *aperiodic* if for each state  $i$  there is no integer  $d \geq 2$  such that  $P_{ii}^n = 0$  except when  $n$  is a multiple of  $d$ . A probability distribution  $\{p_j | j \geq 0\}$  is said to be a *stationary distribution* for the Markov chain if

$$p_j = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} p_i P_{ij}, \quad j \geq 0. \quad (3A.1)$$

We will restrict attention to irreducible and aperiodic Markov chains, since this is the only type we will encounter. For such a chain, denote

$$p_j = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_{jj}^n, \quad j \geq 0$$

It can be shown that the limit above exists and when  $p_j > 0$ , then  $1/p_j$  equals the *mean recurrence time of  $j$* , i.e., the expected number of transitions between two successive visits to state  $j$ . If  $p_j = 0$ , the mean recurrence time is infinite. Another interpretation is that  $p_j$  represents the proportion of time the process visits  $j$  on the average. The following result will be of primary interest:

**Theorem.** In an irreducible, aperiodic Markov chain, there are two possibilities:

1.  $p_j = 0$  for all  $j \geq 0$  in which case the chain has no stationary distribution.
2.  $p_j > 0$  for all  $j \geq 0$  in which case  $\{p_j | j \geq 0\}$  is the unique stationary distribution of the chain.

A typical example of case 1 above is an  $M/M/1$  queueing system where the arrival rate  $\lambda$  exceeds the service rate  $\mu$ .

In case 2, there arises the issue of characterizing the stationary distribution  $\{p_j | j \geq 0\}$ . For queueing systems, the following technique is often useful. Multiplying the equation  $P_{jj} + \sum_{i=0, i \neq j}^{\infty} P_{ji} = 1$  by  $p_j$  and using Eq. (3A.1), we have

$$p_j \sum_{\substack{i=0 \\ i \neq j}}^{\infty} P_{ji} = \sum_{\substack{i=0 \\ i \neq j}}^{\infty} p_i P_{ij} \quad (3A.2)$$

These equations are known as the *global balance equations*. They state that, at equilibrium, the probability of a transition out of  $j$  (left side of Eq. (3A.2)) equals the probability of a transition into  $j$  (right side of Eq. (3A.2)).

The global balance equations can be generalized to apply to an entire set of states. Consider a subset of states  $S$ . By adding Eq. (3A.2) over all  $j \in S$ , we obtain

$$\sum_{j \in S} p_j \sum_{i \notin S} P_{ji} = \sum_{i \notin S} p_i \sum_{j \in S} P_{ij} \quad (3A.3)$$

which means that *the probability of a transition out of the set of states  $S$  equals the probability of a transition into  $S$ .*

An intuitive explanation of these equations is based on the fact that when the Markov chain is irreducible, the state (with probability one) will return to the set  $S$  infinitely many times. Therefore, for each transition out of  $S$  there must be (with probability one) a reverse transition into  $S$  at some later time. As a result, the proportion of transitions out of  $S$  (over all transitions) equals the proportion of transitions into  $S$ . This is precisely the meaning of the global balance equations (3A.3).

### 3A.2 Detailed Balance Equations

As an application of the global balance equations, consider a Markov chain typical of queueing systems and, more generally, birth-death systems where two successive states can only differ by unity as in Fig. 3A.1. We assume that  $P_{i,i+1} > 0$  and  $P_{i+1,i} > 0$  for all  $i$ . This is a necessary and sufficient condition for the chain to be irreducible. Consider the sets of states

$$S = \{0, 1, \dots, n\}$$

Application of Eq. (3A.3) yields

$$p_n P_{n,n+1} = p_{n+1} P_{n+1,n}, \quad n = 0, 1, \dots \quad (3A.4)$$

i.e., in steady state, the probability of a transition from  $n$  to  $n+1$  equals the probability of a transition from  $n+1$  to  $n$ . These equations can be very useful in computing the stationary distribution  $\{p_j | j \geq 0\}$  (see sections 3.3 and 3.4).



Figure 3A.1 Transition probability diagram for a birth-death process.

Equation (3A.4) is a special case of the equations

$$p_j P_{ji} = p_i P_{ij}, \quad i, j \geq 0 \quad (3A.5)$$

known as the *detailed balance equations*. These equations need not hold in any given Markov chain. However, in many important special cases, they do hold and greatly simplify the calculation of the stationary distribution. A common method of verifying the validity of the detailed balance equations for a given irreducible, aperiodic Markov chain is to hypothesize their validity and try to solve them for the steady-state probabilities  $p_j$ ,  $j \geq 0$ . There are two possibilities; either the system (3A.5) together with  $\sum_j p_j = 1$  is inconsistent or else a distribution  $\{p_j | j \geq 0\}$  satisfying Eq. (3A.5) will be found. In the latter case, this distribution will clearly

also satisfy the global balance equations (3A.2). These equations are equivalent to the condition

$$p_j = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} p_i P_{ij}, \quad j = 0, 1, \dots$$

so, by the theorem given earlier,  $\{p_j | j \geq 0\}$  is the unique stationary distribution.

### 3A.3 Partial Balance Equations

Some Markov chains have the property that their stationary distribution  $\{p_j | j \geq 0\}$  satisfies a set of equations which is intermediate between the global and the detailed balance equations. For every node  $j$ , consider a partition  $S_j^1, \dots, S_j^k$  of the complementary set of nodes  $\{i | i \geq 0, i \neq j\}$  and the equations

$$p_j \sum_{i \in S_j^m} P_{ji} = \sum_{i \in S_j^m} p_i P_{ij}, \quad m = 1, 2, \dots, k \quad (3A.6)$$

Equations of the form above are known as a set of *partial balance equations*. If a distribution  $\{p_j | j \geq 0\}$  solves a set of partial balance equations, then it will also solve the global balance equations so it will be the unique stationary distribution of the chain. A technique that often proves useful is to guess the right set of partial balance equations satisfied by the stationary distribution and then proceed to solve them.

### 3A.4 Continuous-Time Markov Chains

A continuous-time Markov chain is a process  $\{X(t) | t \geq 0\}$  taking values from the set of states  $i = 0, 1, \dots$  that has the property that each time it enters state  $i$ :

1. The time it spends in state  $i$  is exponentially distributed with parameter  $\nu_i$ . We may view  $\nu_i$  as the average rate (in transitions/sec) at which the process makes a transition when at state  $i$ .
2. When the process leaves state  $i$ , it will enter state  $j$  with probability  $P_{ij}$ , where  $\sum_j P_{ij} = 1$ .

We will be interested in chains for which:

1. The number of transitions in any finite length of time is finite with probability one (such chains are called *regular*).
2. The discrete-time Markov chain with transition probabilities  $P_{ij}$  (called the *imbedded chain*) is irreducible.

Under the preceding conditions, it can be shown that the limit

$$p_j = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} P\{X(t) = j | X(0) = i\} \quad (3A.7)$$

exists and is independent of the initial state  $i$ . Furthermore if the imbedded chain has a stationary distribution  $\{\pi_j | j \geq 0\}$ , the steady-state probabilities  $p_j$  of the continuous chain are all positive and satisfy

$$p_j = \frac{\pi_j / \nu_j}{\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \pi_i / \nu_i}, \quad j = 0, 1, \dots \quad (3A.8)$$

The interpretation here is that  $\pi_j$  represents the proportion of visits to state  $j$ , while  $p_j$  represents the proportion of time spent in state  $j$  in a typical system run.

For every  $i$  and  $j$ , denote

$$q_{ij} = \nu_i P_{ij} \quad (3A.9)$$

Since  $\nu_i$  is the rate at which the process leaves  $i$  and  $P_{ij}$  is the probability that it then goes to  $j$ , it follows that  $q_{ij}$  is the rate at which the process makes a transition to  $j$  when at state  $i$ . Consequently,  $q_{ij}$  is called the *transition rate* from  $i$  to  $j$ .

Since we will often analyze continuous-time Markov chains in terms of their time-discretized versions, we describe the general method for doing this.

Consider any  $\delta > 0$ , and the discrete-time Markov chain  $\{X_n | n \geq 0\}$ , where

$$X_n = X(n\delta), \quad n = 0, 1, \dots$$

The stationary distribution of  $\{X_n\}$  is clearly  $\{p_j | j \geq 0\}$ , the stationary distribution of the continuous chain (cf. Eq. (3A.7)). The transition probabilities of  $\{X_n | n \geq 0\}$  are

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{P}_{ij} &= \delta q_{ij} + o(\delta), \quad i \neq j \\ \overline{P}_{ii} &= 1 - \delta \sum_{j \neq i} q_{ij} + o(\delta) \end{aligned}$$

Using these expressions in the global balance equations for the discrete chain (cf. Eq. (3A.2)) and taking the limit as  $\delta \rightarrow 0$ , we obtain

$$p_j \sum_{\substack{i=0 \\ i \neq j}}^{\infty} q_{ji} = \sum_{\substack{i=0 \\ i \neq j}}^{\infty} p_i q_{ij}, \quad j = 0, 1, \dots \quad (3A.10)$$

*These are the global balance equations for the continuous chain.* Similarly, the detailed balance equations take the form

$$p_j q_{ji} = p_i q_{ij}, \quad i, j = 0, 1, \dots, \quad (3A.11)$$

One can also write a set of partial balance equations and attempt to solve them for the distribution  $\{p_j | j \geq 0\}$ . If a solution is found, it provides the stationary distribution of the continuous chain.