

sample function of the Poisson process has an infinite number of discontinuities.

X Lecture 12, Nov. 24, 04  
Mean Square Derivative

The random process  $X(t)$  has mean square derivative  $X'(t)$  at  $t$  defined as,

$$X'(t) = \text{l.i.m.}_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{X(t+\epsilon) - X(t)}{\epsilon}$$

provided that

$$\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \left[ \left( \frac{X(t+\epsilon) - X(t)}{\epsilon} - X'(t) \right)^2 \right] = 0$$

The mean square derivative of  $X(t)$  at  $t$  exists if  $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t_1 \partial t_2} R_X(t_1, t_2)$  exists at point  $(t, t)$ .

Proof: We use Cauchy criterion, i.e., we show that

$$\lim_{\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2 \rightarrow 0} E \left[ \left( \frac{X(t+\epsilon_1) - X(t)}{\epsilon_1} - \frac{X(t+\epsilon_2) - X(t)}{\epsilon_2} \right)^2 \right] \Rightarrow 0$$

$$= E \left[ \left( \frac{X(t+\epsilon_1) - X(t)}{\epsilon_1} \right)^2 \right] + E \left[ \left( \frac{X(t+\epsilon_2) - X(t)}{\epsilon_2} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$- 2E \left[ \left( \frac{X(t+\epsilon_1) - X(t)}{\epsilon_1} \right) \left( \frac{X(t+\epsilon_2) - X(t)}{\epsilon_2} \right) \right]$$

The first term:

$$E \left[ \left( \frac{X(t+\varepsilon_1) - X(t)}{\varepsilon_1} \right)^2 \right] = \frac{1}{\varepsilon_1} \left[ \frac{R_x(t+\varepsilon_1, t+\varepsilon_1) - R_x(t, t+\varepsilon_1)}{\varepsilon_1} - \frac{R_x(t+\varepsilon_1, t) - R_x(t, t)}{\varepsilon_1} \right]$$

as  $\varepsilon_1 \rightarrow 0$

$$E \left[ \left( \frac{X(t+\varepsilon_1) - X(t)}{\varepsilon_1} \right)^2 \right] \rightarrow \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t, \partial t_2} R_x(t, t)$$

Similarly

as  $\varepsilon_2 \rightarrow 0$

$$E \left[ \left( \frac{X(t+\varepsilon_2) - X(t)}{\varepsilon_2} \right)^2 \right] \rightarrow \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t, \partial t_2} R_x(t, t)$$

similarly as  $\varepsilon_1 \rightarrow 0$  and  $\varepsilon_2 \rightarrow 0$

$$\begin{aligned} & -2 E \left[ \left( \frac{X(t+\varepsilon_1) - X(t)}{\varepsilon_1} \right) \left( \frac{X(t+\varepsilon_2) - X(t)}{\varepsilon_2} \right) \right] \\ &= -\frac{2}{\varepsilon_1} \left[ \frac{R_x(t+\varepsilon_1, t+\varepsilon_2) - R_x(t+\varepsilon_1, t)}{\varepsilon_2} - \frac{R_x(t, t+\varepsilon_2) - R_x(t, t)}{\varepsilon_2} \right] \end{aligned}$$

tends to  $-2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t, \partial t_2} R_x(t, t)$

If  $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t, \partial t_2} R_x(t, t)$  exists then sum of the three terms would be zero.

For the case where  $X(t)$  is WSS :

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t_1 \partial t_2} R_X(t_1, t_2) &= \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t_1 \partial t_2} R_X(t_1 - t_2) \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t_1} \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial t_2} R_X(t_1 - t_2) \right] \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t_1} \left[ -\frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} R_X(t_1 - t_2) \right] = \boxed{-\frac{d^2}{d\tau^2} R_X(\tau)}.\end{aligned}$$

For a Gaussian random process  $X(t)$ ,  
the derivative  $X'(t)$  is also Gaussian.

Mean, Cross-Correlation and auto correlation  
of the derivative :

$$\begin{aligned}E[X'(t)] &= E \left[ \text{l.i.m.}_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{X(t+\epsilon) - X(t)}{\epsilon} \right] \\ &= \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} E \left[ \frac{X(t+\epsilon) - X(t)}{\epsilon} \right] \\ &= \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{m_X(t+\epsilon) - m_X(t)}{\epsilon} = \frac{d}{dt} m_X(t)\end{aligned}$$

Cross-correlation between  $X(t)$  and  $X'(t)$

$$\begin{aligned} R_{X, X'}(t_1, t_2) &= E \left[ X(t_1) \text{ l.i.m.}_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{X(t_2 + \epsilon) - X(t_2)}{\epsilon} \right] \\ &= \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{R_X(t_1, t_2 + \epsilon) - R_X(t_1, t_2)}{\epsilon} \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t_2} R_X(t_1, t_2) \end{aligned}$$

Autocorrelation of  $X'(t)$

$$\begin{aligned} R_{X'}(t_1, t_2) &= E \left[ \text{l.i.m.}_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \left\{ \frac{X(t_1 + \epsilon) - X(t_1)}{\epsilon} \right\} X'(t_2) \right] \\ &= \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{R_{X, X'}(t_1 + \epsilon, t_2) - R_{X, X'}(t_1, t_2)}{\epsilon} \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t_1} R_{X, X'}(t_1, t_2) \\ &= \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t_1 \partial t_2} R_X(t_1, t_2) \end{aligned}$$

When  $X(t)$  is WSS

$$R_{X, X'}(\tau) = \frac{\partial}{\partial t_2} R_X(t_1 - t_2) = -\frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} R_X(\tau)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} R_{X'}(\tau) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t_1} \left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial t_2} R_X(t_1 - t_2) \right\} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t_1} \left\{ -\frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} R_X(t_1 - t_2) \right\} \\ &= -\frac{d^2}{d\tau^2} R_X(\tau) \end{aligned}$$

Example: Wiener process

$$R_x(t_1, t_2) = \alpha \min(t_1, t_2) = \begin{cases} \alpha t_2 & t_2 < t_1 \\ \alpha t_1 & t_2 > t_1 \end{cases}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t_2} R_x(t_1, t_2) = \begin{cases} \alpha & t_2 < t_1 \\ 0 & t_2 > t_1 \end{cases} = \alpha u(t_1 - t_2)$$

$u(t_1 - t_2)$  is discontinuous at  $t_1 = t_2$  so, derivative w.r.t.  $t_1$  (strictly speaking) does not exist.

To capture the derivative of a step function at its point of discontinuity, one may use the delta "function" to get

$$R_{x'}(t_1, t_2) = \frac{\partial}{\partial t_1} \alpha u(t_1 - t_2) = \alpha \delta(t_1 - t_2)$$

Note that this is not a physically feasible process as  $E[x'(t)^2] = \alpha \delta(0) = \infty$ , i.e., the signal has infinite power.

Also note that for any  $t_1 \neq t_2$ ,  $R_{x'}(t_1, t_2) = 0$  that means that no matter how close two points in time we take samples of  $x'(t)$  at these two points are uncorrelated. This process is the so called ~~AWGN~~ White Gaussian Noise.

## Mean Square Integrals

The ~~ms~~ integral of a random process  $X(t)$ , exists (in the mean square sense) if the integral

$$\int_{t_0}^* \int_{t_0}^* R_X(u, v) du dv$$

exists.

The mean and variance of  $Y(t) = \int_{t_0}^* X(t') dt'$  are:

$$\begin{aligned} m_Y(t) &= E \left[ \int_{t_0}^* X(t') dt' \right] = \int_{t_0}^* E[X(t')] dt' \\ &= \int_{t_0}^* m_X(t') dt' \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} R_Y(t_1, t_2) &= E \left[ \int_{t_0}^{t_1} X(u) du \int_{t_0}^{t_2} X(v) dv \right] \\ &= \int_{t_0}^{t_1} \int_{t_0}^{t_2} R_X(u, v) du dv \end{aligned}$$

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Reading :

Pages 373 to 376

mean square integrals  
and

Response of linear systems to Random inputs.

### Ergodic Theorems

Ergodic Theorems give the condition under which observations in time coincide with the expected values of the observables.

For example, we can find the time average of a <sup>single realization of</sup> random process  $X(t)$ , say  $X(t, \omega)$  as

$$\langle X(t) \rangle_T = \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T X(t, \omega) dt$$

We would like to know under what condition this quantity converges to the expected value of  $X(t)$ .

Example :  $X(t) = A \quad \forall t$  where  $A$  is a zero-mean random variable :

$$\langle X(t) \rangle_T = \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T A dt = A.$$

However,  $E[X(t)] = \underbrace{m_X(t)}_{125} = E[A] = 0$

So, the time average does not converge to  $m_X(t) = 0$ . Note that the process is stationary but not ergodic.

- Ergodic Theorem for the time average of WSS processes.

Since the estimate  $\langle X(t) \rangle_T = \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T X(t, \omega) dt$  for  $E[X(t)] = m_X(t)$  gives only one value, it is natural that mean ergodicity be of importance ~~only~~ for the case where  $m_X(t) = m$ .

$$E[\langle X(t) \rangle_T] = E\left[\frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T X(t) dt\right] = \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T E[X(t)] dt = m$$

So  $\langle X(t) \rangle_T$  is an unbiased estimate of  $m$

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

$$= E\left[\left\{\frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T (X(t) - m) dt\right\} \left\{\frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T (X(t') - m) dt'\right\}\right]$$

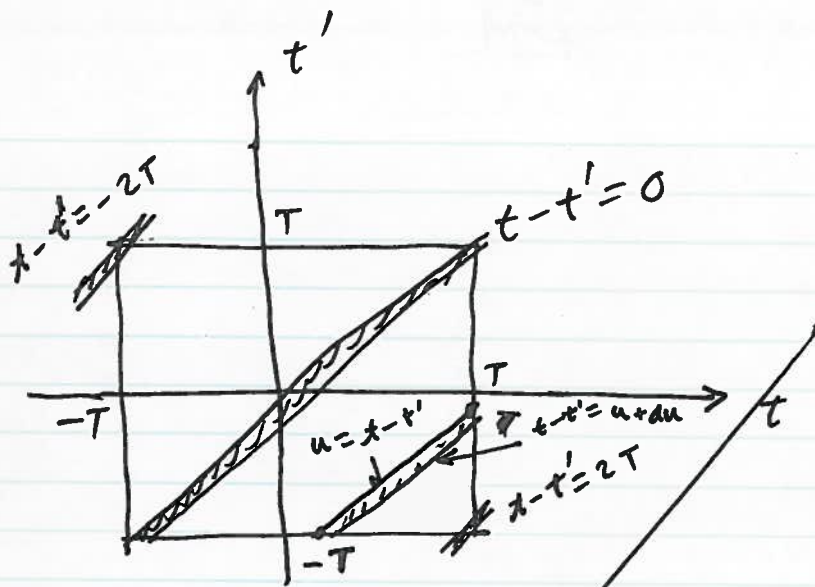
$$= \frac{1}{4T^2} \int_{-T}^T \int_{-T}^T E[(X(t) - m)(X(t') - m)] dt dt'$$

$$= \frac{1}{4T^2} \int_{-T}^T \int_{-T}^T C_X(t, t') dt dt'$$

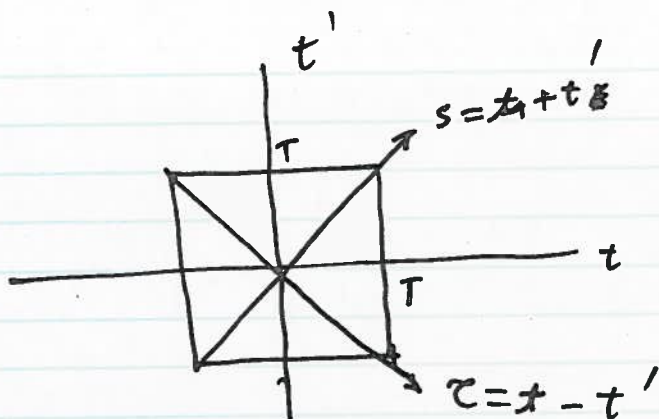
when  $X(t)$  is WSS

$$\text{Var}[\langle X(t) \rangle_T] = \frac{1}{4T^2} \int_{-T}^T \int_{-T}^T C_X(t - t') dt dt'$$





Note that the integrand,  $C_x(x - t')$  is a function of  $t - t'$ . Letting  $u = x - t'$ , we see that the integrand is constant on the line defined by  $u = x - t'$



Noting that the integrand is a function of  $\tau = t - t'$ , we make the change of variable

$$\begin{aligned} s &= t + t' \\ \tau &= t - t' \end{aligned} \Rightarrow |J| = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial s}{\partial t} & \frac{\partial s}{\partial t'} \\ \frac{\partial \tau}{\partial t} & \frac{\partial \tau}{\partial t'} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{vmatrix} = 2$$

So

$$dt dt' = |J|^{-1} ds d\tau = \frac{1}{2} ds d\tau$$

So:

$$\text{Var}[\langle X(t) \rangle] = \frac{1}{4T^2} \int_{-2T}^{2T} \left[ \int_{-(2T-|\tau|)}^{(2T-|\tau|)} \frac{1}{2} C_X(\tau) ds \right] d\tau$$

$$= \frac{1}{4T^2} \int_{-2T}^{2T} (2T - |\tau|) C_X(\tau) d\tau$$

$$= \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-2T}^{2T} \left(1 - \frac{|\tau|}{2T}\right) C_X(\tau) d\tau$$

Theorem: For a WSS process

$$\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \langle X(t) \rangle = m$$

in the mean square sense if:

$$\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-2T}^{2T} \left(1 - \frac{|\tau|}{2T}\right) C_x(\tau) d\tau = 0$$

Then the process is said to be ergodic in the mean (or mean ergodic)

Example: A random telegraph signal

$$C_x(\tau) = e^{-2\alpha|\tau|}$$

$$\text{Var}[\langle X(t) \rangle_T] = \frac{2}{2T} \int_0^{2T} \left(1 - \frac{\tau}{2T}\right) e^{-2\alpha\tau} d\tau$$

$$< \frac{1}{T} \int_0^{2T} e^{-2\alpha\tau} d\tau = \frac{1 - e^{-4\alpha T}}{2\alpha T}$$

as  $T \rightarrow \infty$  the bound approaches zero.

So, the process is ergodic.

~~Example~~

## Power Spectral Density

For WSS processes:

$$S_x(f) = \mathcal{F}[R_x(\tau)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R_x(\tau) e^{-j2\pi f\tau} d\tau$$

is called the PSD.

$$S_x(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R_x(\tau) \cos(2\pi f\tau) d\tau - j \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R_x(\tau) \sin(2\pi f\tau) d\tau$$

for real-valued random processes  $R_x(\tau)$  is even so  $R_x(\tau) \sin(2\pi f\tau)$  is odd. Therefore, the second integral is zero. So,

$$S_x(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R_x(\tau) \cos(2\pi f\tau) d\tau$$

$$E[X^2(t)] = R_x(0) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S_x(f) df$$

Cross-power Spectral Density:

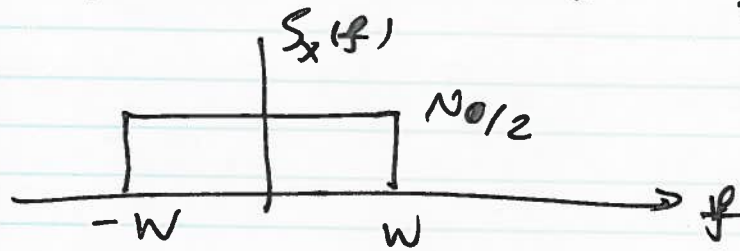
$$S_{x,y}(\tau) = \mathcal{F}[R_{x,y}(\tau)]$$

where

$$R_{x,y}(\tau) = E[X(t+\tau)Y(t)]$$

Example :

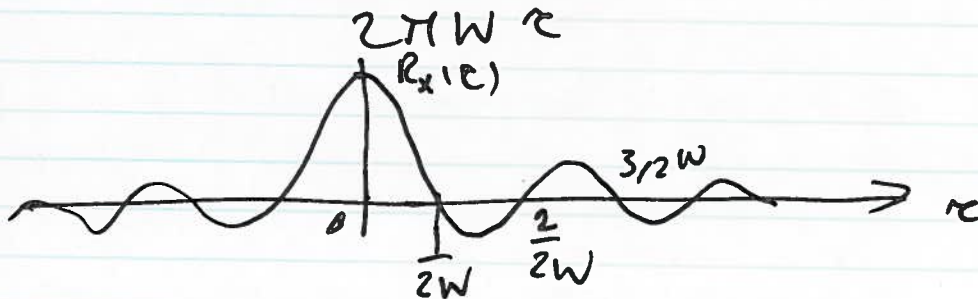
A WSS process with  $S_x(f) = \frac{N_0}{2} \quad |f| < W$



$$E[x^2(t)] = \int_{-W}^W \frac{N_0}{2} df = N_0 W$$

$$R_x(\tau) = \frac{1}{2} N_0 \int_{-W}^W e^{j2\pi f\tau} df$$
$$= \frac{N_0}{2} \frac{e^{-j2\pi W\tau} - e^{j2\pi W\tau}}{-j2\pi\tau}$$

$$= \frac{N_0 \sin(2\pi W\tau)}{2\pi\tau}$$



$x(t)$  and  $x(t+\tau)$  are uncorrelated if  $\tau = \pm \frac{k}{2W}$

White noise

$$S_x(f) = \frac{N_0}{2} \quad \text{all } f$$

$$\text{then } R_x(\tau) = \frac{N_0}{2} \delta(\tau)$$

Example: PSD of random Telegraph signal

$$R_x(\tau) = e^{-2\alpha|\tau|}$$

$$S_x(f) = \int_{-\infty}^0 e^{2d\tau} e^{-j2\pi f\tau} d\tau + \int_0^{\infty} e^{-2d\tau} e^{-j2\pi f\tau} d\tau$$

$$= \frac{1}{2d - j2\pi f} + \frac{1}{2d + j2\pi f} = \frac{4d}{4d^2 + 4\pi^2 f^2}$$

Discrete-time random processes

$$S_x(f) = \mathcal{F}[R_x(k)] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} R_x(k) e^{-j2\pi f k}$$

$$R_x(k) = \int_{-1/2}^{1/2} S_x(f) e^{j2\pi f k} df$$

We only need to consider  $-\frac{1}{2} < f < \frac{1}{2}$

Since  $S_x(f)$  is periodic, in  $f$ , with period 1.

Example:  $X_n$  is a sequence of zero-mean uncorrelated r.v.'s with variance  $\sigma_x^2$ .

Find  $S_x(f)$

$$R_x(k) = \begin{cases} \sigma_x^2 & k=0 \\ 0 & k \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

So  $S_x(f) = \sigma_x^2$   $-\frac{1}{2} < f < \frac{1}{2}$  (it has equal power in each frequency)

## Response of Linear Systems to Random Signals



A system is linear if:

$$T[\alpha x_1(t) + \beta x_2(t)] = \alpha T[x_1(t)] + \beta T[x_2(t)]$$

i.e., if superposition works.

A system is time invariant if

$$y(t) = T[x(t)] \Rightarrow y(t - \tau) = T[x(t - \tau)]$$

i.e., if the response to a signal delayed by  $\tau$  is a delayed (by  $\tau$ ) version of the response to the original signal.

## Response of LTI filters

$$x(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t-s) \delta(s) ds = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(s) \delta(t-s) ds$$

i.e., any function can be written as a

weighted sum of  $\delta(\cdot)$  functions.

That is why

So, the input of an LTI to a delta function plays an important role.

$$h(t) = T[\delta(t)]$$

is called the impulse response of the system  $T(\cdot)$ .

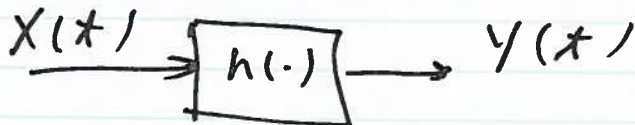
The response of  $T(\cdot)$  to  $x(t)$  is

$$\begin{aligned} y(t) &= T[x(t)] = T\left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(s)\delta(t-s)ds\right] \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(s)T[\delta(t-s)]ds \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(s)h(t-s)ds = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(s)x(t-s)ds \end{aligned}$$

or

$$y(t) = x(t) * h(t)$$

Let's now consider the output of an LTI system to a random signal  $x(t)$



$$\begin{aligned} R_y(\tau) &= E[y(t)y(t+\tau)] = E\left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(s)x(t-s)ds \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(r)x(t+\tau-r)dr\right] \\ &= E\left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(s)x(t-s)ds \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(r)x(t+\tau-r)dr\right] \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(s)h(r)E[x(t-s)x(t+\tau-r)]dsdr \end{aligned}$$



$$R_y(\tau) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(s)h(r)R_x(\tau+s-r) ds dr$$

and

$$S_y(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R_y(\tau) e^{-j2\pi f\tau} d\tau$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(s)h(r)R_x(\tau+s-r) e^{-j2\pi f\tau} ds dr d\tau$$

let  $u = \tau + s - r$

$$S_y(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(s)h(r)R_x(u) e^{-j2\pi f(u-s+r)} ds dr du$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(s) e^{+j2\pi fs} ds \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(r) e^{-j2\pi fr} dr \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R_x(u) e^{-j2\pi fu} du$$

$$= H^*(f)H(f)S_x(f) = \boxed{|H(f)|^2 S_x(f)}$$

Similarly,

$$R_{y,x}(\tau) = \bar{E}[Y(t+\tau)X(t)] = E[X(t) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(t+\tau+s)h(s) ds]$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \bar{E}[X(t)X(t+\tau+s)] h(s) ds$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R_x(\tau-s)h(s) ds = \boxed{R_x(\tau) * h(\tau)}$$

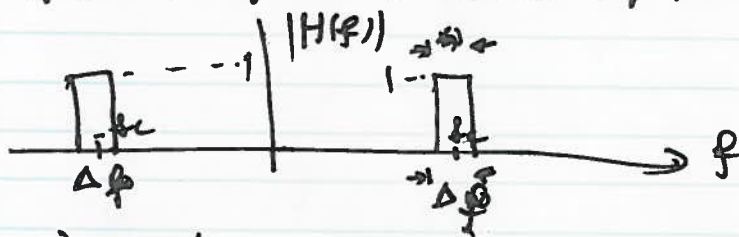
and

$$S_{y,x}(f) = H(f)S_x(f)$$

also  $S_{x,y}(f) = S_{y,x}^*(f) = H^*(f)S_x(f)$  / since  $R_{xy}(\tau) = R_{yx}(\tau)^*$

### Example

Find the power of the output of the filter

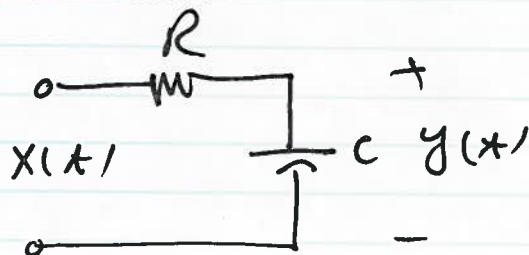


When the input  $X(t)$  is applied to it

$$S_y(f) = |H(f)|^2 S_x(f) = S_x(f) \quad \text{for } f_c - \frac{\Delta f}{2} < |f| < f_c + \frac{\Delta f}{2}$$

$$E[y^2(t)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S_y(f) df = \int_{f_c - \frac{\Delta f}{2}}^{f_c + \frac{\Delta f}{2}} 2S_x(f_c) \Delta f$$

Example: A white Gaussian signal is applied to an RC circuit



Find the average power of the output

$$X(t) = RC \frac{dy(t)}{dt} + y(t)$$

$$X(f) = j2\pi fRC Y(f) + Y(f)$$

$$H(f) = \frac{1}{1 + j2\pi fRC}$$

$$S_y(f) = |H(f)|^2 S_x(f)$$

$$S_y(f) = \frac{N_0/2}{1 + 4\pi^2 f^2 R^2 C^2}$$

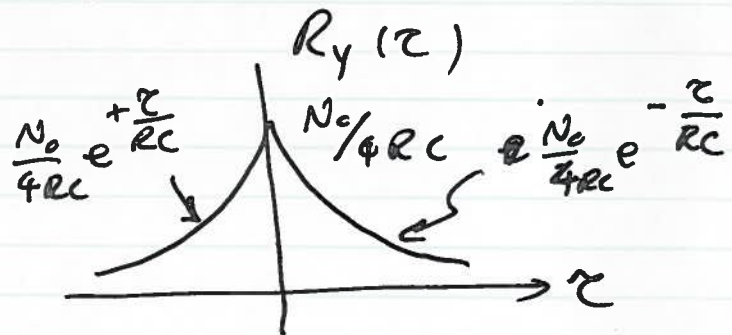
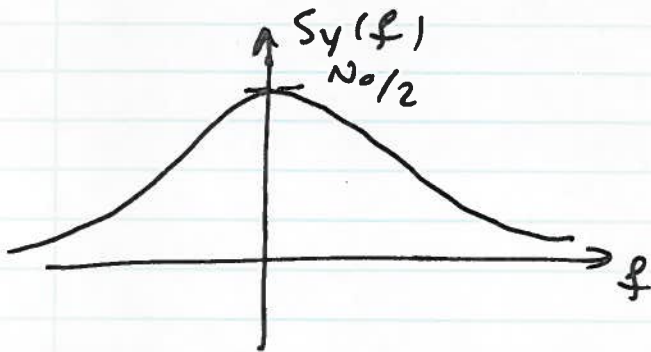
$$E[Y^2(x)] = R_y(0) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{N_0/2}{1 + 4\pi^2 f^2 R^2 C^2} df$$

$$= N_0 \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{1 + (2\pi RCf)^2} df$$

$$= \frac{N_0}{2\pi RC} \tan^{-1}(2\pi RCf) \Big|_0^{\infty} = \boxed{\frac{N_0}{4RC}}$$

$$R_y(\tau) = \mathcal{F}^{-1} \left[ \frac{N_0/2}{1 + 4\pi^2 f^2 R^2 C^2} \right]$$

$$= \frac{N_0}{4RC} e^{-\frac{|\tau|}{RC}}$$



## Markov Processes

A random process  $X(t)$  is a Markov Process if the future of it given present is independent of the past, i.e.

$$\begin{aligned} P[X(t_{k+1}) = x_{k+1} | X(t_k) = x_k, \dots, X(t_1) = x_1] \\ = P[X(t_{k+1}) = x_{k+1} | X(t_k) = x_k] \end{aligned}$$

For a discrete-valued process:

$$\begin{aligned} P[a < X(t_{k+1}) < b | X(t_k) = x_k, \dots, X(t_1) = x_1] \\ = P[a < X_k(t_{k+1}) < b | X(t_k) = x_k] \end{aligned}$$

for continuous valued process:

$$f_{X(t_{k+1})}(x_{k+1} | X(t_k) = x_k, \dots, X(t_1) = x_1) = f_{X(t_{k+1})}(x_{k+1} | X(t_k) = x_k)$$

### Example

$$S_n = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n = S_{n-1} + X_n$$

~~$P[S_{n+1} = s_{n+1} | S_n = s_n, \dots, S_1 = s_1]$~~

$$\begin{aligned} P[S_{n+1} = s_{n+1} | S_n = s_n, \dots, S_1 = s_1] &= P[X_{n+1} = s_{n+1} - s_n] \\ &= P[S_{n+1} = s_{n+1} | S_n = s_n] \end{aligned}$$

An integer valued Markov Process is called a Markov Chain.

For Markov chain the joint pmf is:

$$\begin{aligned} & P[X(t_{k+1})=x_{k+1}, X(t_k)=x_k, \dots, X(t_1)=x_1] \\ &= P[X(t_{k+1})=x_{k+1} | X(t_k)=x_k] P[X(t_k)=x_k | X(t_{k-1})=x_{k-1}] \dots \\ & \dots P[X(t_2)=x_2 | X(t_1)=x_1] P[X(t_1)=x_1] \end{aligned}$$

### Discrete-time Markov Chains

Let  $X_n$  for  $n=0, 1, \dots$  form a Markov chain with  $p_j(0) \triangleq P[X_0=j]$   $j=0, 1, 2, \dots$

The joint pmf of  $X_0, X_1, \dots, X_n$  is

$$P[X_n=i_n, \dots, X_0=i_0] = P[X_n=i_n | X_{n-1}=i_{n-1}] \dots P[X_1=i_1 | X_0=i_0] p_{i_0}$$

So, the pmf can be written as a product of one step transition probabilities of the form

$$P[X_{n+1}=j | X_n=i] = p_{ij} \quad \text{all } n$$

(assuming that transition probabilities are independent of time, i.e., we have homogeneous transition probabilities.)

Then the joint pmf is given as

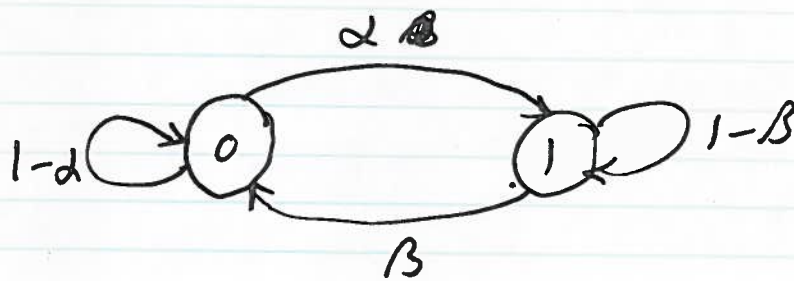
$$P[X_{n_0} = i_{n_0}, \dots, X_0 = i_0] = P_{i_0}(0) P_{i_0, i_1} \dots P_{i_{n_0-1}, i_{n_0}}$$

The process  $X_n$  is completely specified by the initial pmf  $P_i(0)$  and the transition matrix

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} P_{00} & P_{01} & P_{02} & \dots \\ P_{10} & P_{11} & P_{12} & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ P_{i_0} & P_{i_1} & P_{i_2} & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

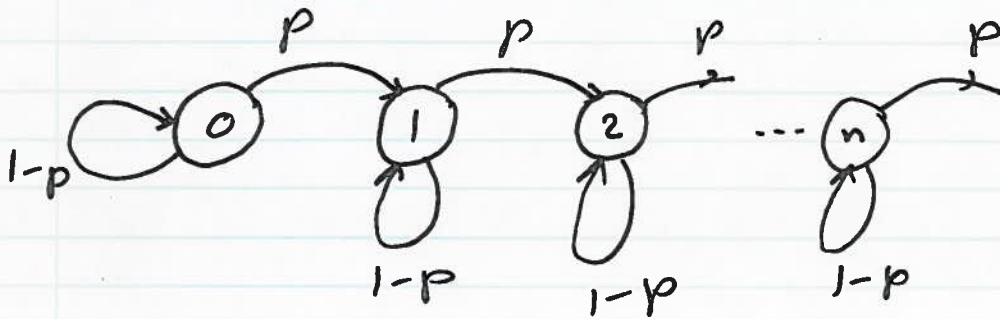
Where for each row  $\sum_j P_{ij} = 1$

Example On-off source



$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1-\alpha & \alpha \\ \beta & 1-\beta \end{bmatrix}$$

## Binomial Counting process



$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1-p & p & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & 1-p & p & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 1-p & p & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{bmatrix}$$

The n-step Transition Probabilities

Example of on-off source and  $n=2$

$$P(x_{n+1}=0|x_n=0) = P_{00}(2) = \alpha^2 + \alpha\beta = P(x_2=0|x_0=0)$$

$$P_{01}(2) = [\alpha(1-\beta) + \alpha(1-\alpha)]$$

$$P_{10}(2) = [\beta(1-\beta) + \beta(1-\alpha)]$$

$$P_{11}(2) = [(1-\beta)^2 + \alpha\beta]$$

$$P(2) = \begin{bmatrix} 1-\alpha & \alpha \\ \beta & 1-\beta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1-\alpha & \alpha \\ \beta & 1-\beta \end{bmatrix} = p^2$$

in general

$$P(n) = p^n$$

The state Probabilities:

Let  $\underline{P}(n) = \{p_j(n)\}$  be the <sup>state</sup> probabilities at time  $n$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} p_j(n) &= \sum_i P[X_n=j | X_{n-1}=i] P[X_{n-1}=i] \\ &= \sum_i P_{ij} p_i(n-1) \end{aligned}$$

i.e.,

$$\underline{P}(n) = \underline{P}(n-1) \underline{P}$$

By recursion

$$\underline{P}(n) = \underline{P}(n-1) \underline{P} = \underline{P}(n-2) \underline{P}^2 = \dots = \underline{P}(0) \underline{P}^n$$

At the steady state  $\underline{P}(n) = \underline{P}(0) = \underline{\pi}$  so:

$$\underline{\pi} \underline{P}^n = \underline{\pi} \text{ for all } n$$

gives the initial probabilities.

~~Example: non-iff~~

$$p_j(n) = \sum_i P_{ij} p_i(n-1)$$

as  $n \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow p_j(n) \rightarrow \pi_j$  and  $p_i(n-1) \rightarrow \pi_i$ . So,

$$\pi_j = \sum_i P_{ij} \pi_i \Rightarrow \underline{\pi} = \underline{\pi} \underline{P} \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \sum_i \pi_i = 1$$



Example: Steady state probabilities of the on-off source

$$\pi P = \pi \Rightarrow [\pi_0 \ \pi_1] \begin{bmatrix} 1-\alpha & \alpha \\ \beta & 1-\beta \end{bmatrix} = [\pi_0 \ \pi_1]$$

$$\pi_0 = \pi_0(1-\alpha) + \pi_1\beta$$

$$\pi_1 = \pi_0\alpha + \pi_1(1-\beta)$$

$$\rightarrow \pi_0 = \pi_0 - \alpha\pi_0 + \pi_1\beta$$

$$\alpha\pi_0 = \pi_1\beta = (1-\pi_0)\beta$$

$$\frac{\pi_0}{1-\pi_0} = \frac{\beta}{\alpha} \Rightarrow \boxed{\pi_0 = \frac{\beta}{\alpha+\beta} \text{ and } \pi_1 = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha+\beta}}$$

## Continuous-time Markov Chains

### Transition rate

Consider the time interval  $\delta$  and define the rate at which process  $X(t)$  jumps from state  $i$  to  $j$  as  $\lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \frac{P_{ij}(\delta)}{\delta} = \gamma_{ij}$

Then, it can be shown that:

$$p_i'(t) = \sum_j \gamma_{ij} p_j(t)$$

This is called Chapman-Kolmogorov Equation.

## Global Balance Equations

In the steady-state  $p_j(x) \rightarrow p_j$

So  $p_j'(x) \rightarrow 0$  and, therefore,

$$\sum_i \gamma_{ij} p_i = 0 \quad \text{all } j.$$

These are called the global balance equations.

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## Queues

system

A queueing system consists of:

- An arrival process

- A service regime: No. of servers, their departure rule.

- A queue of certain size

A queue is defined by

$a/b/m/K$

where  $a$  is the arrival process, e.g.,

$M$  for Poisson

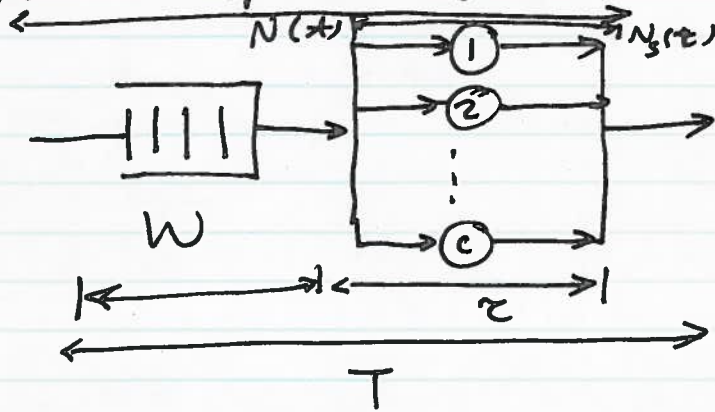
$b$ : The service time distribution, e.g.,

$M$  exponential

$D$  deterministic

$G$  general

$m$  denotes the number of servers  
 $K$  the total number of customers in the system.



$$T = W + \tau$$

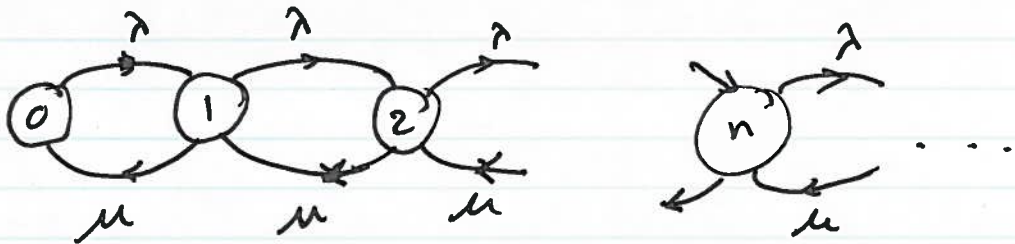
$T$  is the total time in the system

$W$  is the waiting time

$\tau$  is the service time

### Example

$M/M/1/\infty$  or  $M/M/1$  Queue



In a small period  $\delta$ , Prob. of one Arrival is

$$\begin{aligned}
 1) P[A(\delta) = 1] &= \frac{\lambda \delta}{1!} e^{-\lambda \delta} = \lambda \delta \left[ 1 - \frac{\lambda \delta}{1!} + \frac{(\lambda \delta)^2}{2!} - \dots \right] \\
 &= \lambda \delta + o(\delta) \approx \lambda \delta
 \end{aligned}$$

2)

$$P[A(\delta) \geq 2] = o(\delta)$$

3) Probability that there is one departure is:

$$P[\tau < \delta] = 1 - e^{-\mu\delta} = \mu\delta + o(\delta)$$

4) Probability that there is one arrival and one departure is

$$P[A(\delta) = 1, \tau \leq \delta] = P[A(\delta) = 1]P[\tau \leq \delta] = o(\delta)$$

Global Balance Equations are

$$\lambda P_0 = \mu P_1,$$

$$\textcircled{A} (\lambda + \mu) P_j = \lambda P_{j-1} + \mu P_{j+1} \quad j = 1, 2, \dots$$

Note that  $\textcircled{A}$  implies:

$$\lambda P_j - \mu P_{j+1} = \lambda P_{j-1} - \mu P_j \quad j = 1, 2, \dots$$

that is  $\lambda P_{j-1} - \mu P_j = \text{Constant} \quad j = 1, 2, \dots$

But for  $j=1 \Rightarrow \lambda P_{j-1} - \mu P_j = 0$

So

$$\lambda P_{j-1} = \mu P_j \quad \text{all } j$$

$$P_j = \frac{\lambda}{\mu} P_{j-1} \Rightarrow$$

Let  $p = \frac{\lambda}{\mu}$  then

$$P_j = p P_{j-1} = p^2 P_{j-2} = p^3 P_{j-3} = \dots = p^j P_0$$

$$\sum_j P_j = 1 \Rightarrow \sum_j p^j P_0 = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow P_0 [1 + p + p^2 + \dots] = 1$$

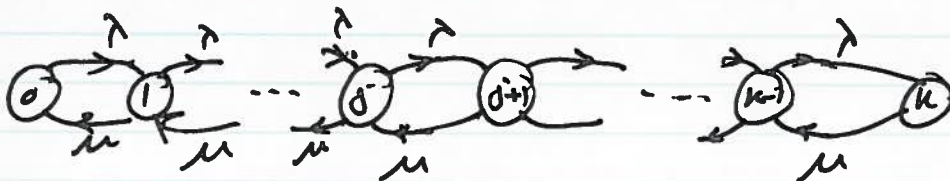
$$\Rightarrow P_0 \frac{1}{1-p} = 1 \Rightarrow P_0 = 1-p$$

or

$$P_j = (1-p) p^j \quad j = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

we need  $p = \frac{\lambda}{\mu} < 1$   
for stability.

M/M/1/K queue



$$\lambda P_0 = \mu P_1$$

$$(\lambda + \mu) P_j = \lambda P_{j-1} + \mu P_{j+1} \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, K-1$$

$$\mu P_K = \lambda P_{K-1}$$

Let  $p = \frac{\lambda}{\mu}$

It is easy to show that in the steady state

$$P[N=j] = \frac{(1-p)p^j}{1-p^{K+1}} \quad j=0,1,2,\dots,K$$

Blocking Probability, i.e., probability of rejecting a customer is:

$$P[N=K] = \frac{(1-p)p^K}{1-p^{K+1}} = (1-p)p^K \left[ 1 + p^{K+1} + (p^{K+1})^2 + \dots \right]$$

if we had used an infinite queue system to approximate this probability, we had

$$P[N=K] = (1-p)p^K \quad (\text{of } M/M/1 \text{ queue})$$

which is the first term in the expansion.

M/M/c/c queue



$$P_0 \lambda = P_1 \mu$$

$$\lambda P_j + j \mu P_j = \lambda P_{j-1} + (j+1) \mu P_{j+1}$$

$$\lambda P_{j-1} - j \mu P_j = \text{Constant} = 0$$

$$P_j = \frac{1}{j} \left( \frac{\lambda}{\mu} \right) P_{j-1}$$

$$\text{Let } a = \frac{\lambda}{\mu}$$

Then

$$p_j = \frac{a^j}{j!} p_0$$

$$\sum_{j=0}^c p_j = p_0 \sum_{j=0}^c \frac{a^j}{j!} = 1 \Rightarrow p_0 = \frac{1}{\sum_{j=0}^c \frac{a^j}{j!}}$$

$$P_B = P[N=c] = \frac{a^c/c!}{1 + a + \frac{a^2}{2!} + \dots + \frac{a^c}{c!}}$$

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Example: A company has four telephone lines with an arrival rate of one call every two minutes. The duration of a call is 4 minutes on the average. What is the blocking probability?

$$\lambda = \frac{1}{2} \text{ and } \mu = \frac{1}{4} \Rightarrow a = \frac{\lambda}{\mu} = 2$$

$$P_B = \frac{2^4/4!}{1 + 2 + \frac{2^2}{2!} + \frac{2^3}{3!} + \frac{2^4}{4!}} = 0.095 \text{ or } 9.5\%$$

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## Little's Formula

$$E[N] = \lambda E[T]$$

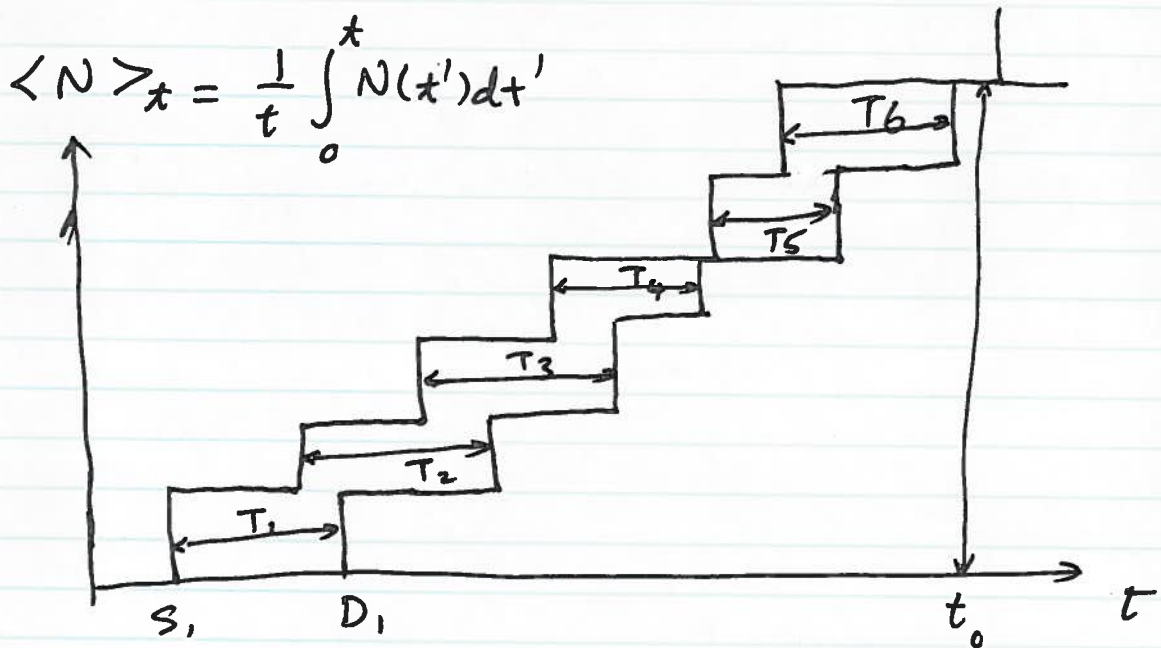
That is, the average number of customers in the system is the rate of arrival times the average time in the system.

Let  $A(t)$  be the number of arrivals until time  $t$ .

$D(t) \triangleq$  number of departures until  $t$ .

Then

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



$$\langle N(t) \rangle = \frac{1}{t} \sum_{i=1}^{A(t)} T_i$$

$$\langle \lambda \rangle_t = \frac{A(t)}{t} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{t} = \frac{\langle \lambda \rangle_t}{A(t)}$$



$$\langle N(t) \rangle_t = \langle \lambda \rangle_t \frac{1}{A(t)} \approx \sum_{i=1}^{A(t)} T_i$$

But

$$\frac{1}{A(t)} \sum_{i=1}^{A(t)} T_i = \langle T \rangle_t$$

So,

$$\langle N(t) \rangle_t = \langle \lambda \rangle_t \langle T \rangle_t$$

as  $t \rightarrow \infty$ , we assume that

$$\langle N(t) \rangle \rightarrow E[N]$$

$$\langle \lambda \rangle_t \rightarrow \lambda$$

$$\langle T \rangle_t \rightarrow E[T]$$

So:

$$E[N] = \lambda E[T]$$

Example: M/M/1 queue

$$P_j = (1-p) p^j$$

$$E[N] = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} j P_j = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} (1-p) j p^j = \frac{p}{1-p}$$

$$E[T] = \frac{E[N]}{\lambda} = \frac{p/\lambda}{1-p} = \frac{1/\mu}{1-p} = \frac{E[\tau]}{1-p} = \frac{1}{\mu - \lambda}$$

Expected waiting time in the queue is:

$$E[W] = E[T] - E[\tau] = \frac{E[\tau]}{1-p} - E[\tau]$$

$$E[W] = \frac{p}{1-p} E[\tau] = \frac{\lambda/\mu}{\mu - \lambda}$$

Expected number in queue

$$E[N_q] = \lambda E[W] = \frac{p^2}{1-p}$$

Server utilization is

$$1 - P_0 = 1 - (1-p) = p = \frac{\lambda}{\mu}$$