

Graph Theory and Topology Design

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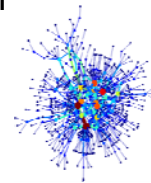
Slides 4

<http://www.sis.pitt.edu/~dtipper/2110.html>

Top Down Network Design Approach



- Top down network design project approach should follow three phases:
 - Conceptual Model
 - Objectives, Requirements, Constraints
 - Logical Model
 - Technology, network graph, node location, link size, etc. (where algorithms are used to minimize cost)
 - Physical Model
 - Specific hardware/software implementations
 - (e.g., wiring diagram, repeater locations, etc.)
- Focus on Algorithms for Logical Model Design
 - Graph Theory
 - Optimization



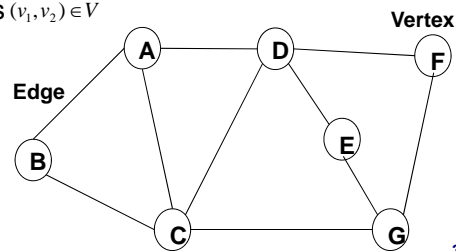
Graphs



- Telecommunication and computer networks are naturally represented by graphs
- A graph $G = (V, E)$ is a mathematical structure consisting of two sets V and E
 - Elements of V are called *vertices* (or nodes)
 - For example, switches, routers, crossconnects
 - Elements of E are called *edges*
 - Communication links are edges (wired or wireless)
 - Each edge has two endpoints $(v_1, v_2) \in V$

$V = \{A, B, C, D, E, F, G\}$

$E = \{(A,B), (A,C), (A,D), (B,C), \dots, (F,G)\}$



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Terminology



- Networking tends to use notation $G(N,L)$ instead of $G(V, E)$ for a graph where N is set of nodes and L is set of links
- A graph is *simple* if it has no loops or parallel edges.
 - *Loop*
 - Link where both endpoints are the same node. Also called a self-loop.
 - *Parallel edges*
 - A collection of two or more links having identical ends. Also called a multi-edge.
 - Focus on simple graphs
- *Degree* of a node (vertex): d_i
 - Number of links/edges out of a node (assuming same number of in and out links)
- *Adjacent nodes/vertices*:
 - Two nodes are adjacent if there is a link that has them as endpoints → node degree d_i = number of neighbor nodes of node i

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Terminology Cont.



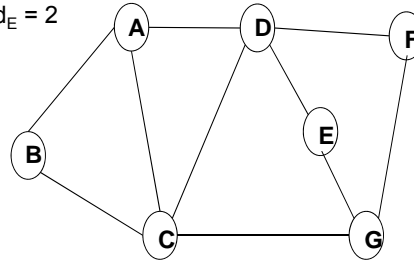
Example network: simple graph

Degree of Node A $d_A = 3$, Degree of Node E $d_E = 2$

A and B are adjacent, A and E not

Size of graph characterized by number of nodes $|N|$ and number of links $|L|$

Example network: $|N| = 7$, $|L| = 10$



- Can represent graph by *Adjacency matrix A* which is $|N| \times |N|$ matrix where
 - $a_{ij} = 1$ if link exist between nodes i and j
 - $a_{ij} = 0$ otherwise

$A =$	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	
	A	-	1	1	1	0	0	0
	B	0	-	1	0	0	0	0
	C	1	1	-	1	0	0	1
	D	1	0	1	-	1	1	0
	E	0	0	0	1	-	0	1
	F	0	0	0	1	0	-	1
	G	0	0	1	0	1	1	-

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Paths and Cycles



- **Path from node A to node Z:**
 - An alternating sequence of nodes and links, representing a continuous traversal from vertex A to vertex Z.
- **Trail:** a path with no repeated edges.
- **Cycle:** a path starting and ending on the same node
- **Connected graph:**
 - A graph in which every pair of distinct nodes has a path between them.
- **Weighted Graph:**
 - A graph $G(N,L)$ is weighted if there is a value w_{ij} associated with each link $l_{ij} \in L$
 - For example, link speed, cost, etc.
 - We often denote this graph (G, W) or $G(N,L,W)$.

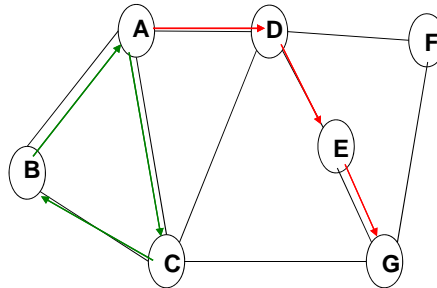
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Terminology Cont.



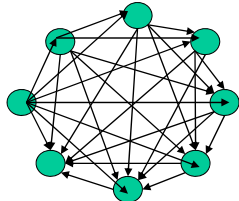
Example: Path from A to G is given by (A,D),(D,E),(E,G)
Cycle at A is given by (A,C), (C,B), (B,A)
Example is a connected Graph



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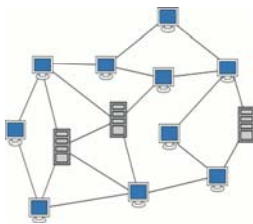
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Graph Types



Complete Graph: every node is connected to every other node – also called a *Full Mesh*

N node network – every node has degree $(N-1)$



- *Mesh Graph*

- Each node having degree 2 or more and forming a connect graph in which every pair of distinct nodes has a path between them.

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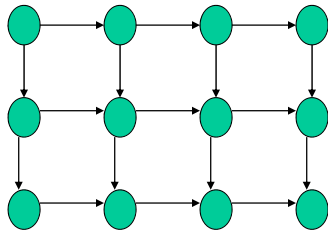
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Graph Types



Grid Graph: Nodes have a regular grid pattern:

Occurs in parallel computing, sensor networks , etc.



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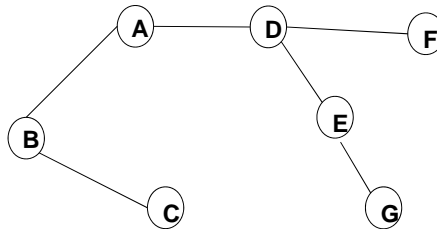
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Graph Types



- Tree: a connected, simple graph without cycles.
- Any tree with N nodes has $N-1$ links
- Trees often used in access networks



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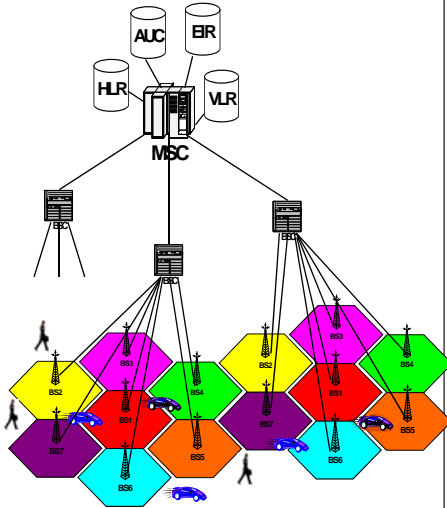
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Tree Terminology



Typical Cellular Network



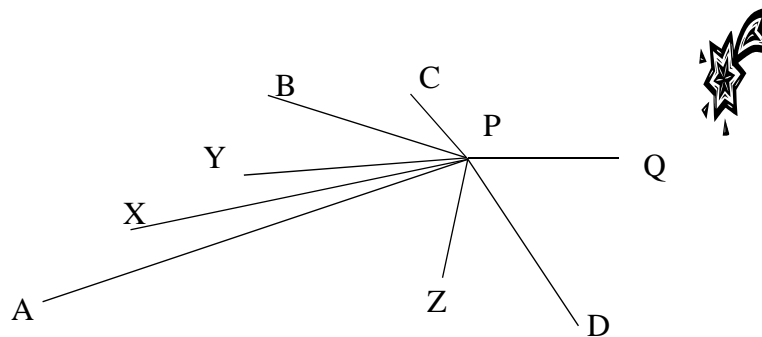
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- **Root:** One node of a tree may be designated as a root (has no parent only children)
- Each node (besides root) has a single **parent** node which is the node closest to the root
- Each node has zero or more **child** nodes which are the adjacent nodes farthest from the root
- **Leaf:** a node without a child

Graph Types



- A tree is a **STAR** if only 1 node has degree >1



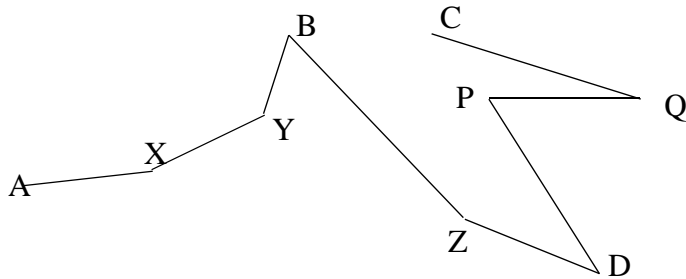
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Graph Types



- A **CHAIN** is a tree with no nodes of degree >2



- Trees are usually the cheapest network design
–However have poor reliability

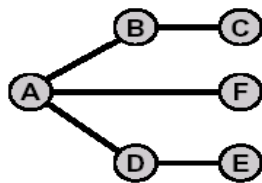
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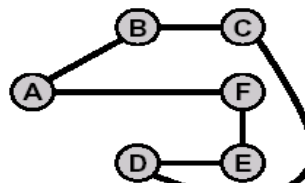
Graph Types



- In graph theory, a *tour* refers to a possible solution of the traveling salesman problem (TSP). Given a set of Nodes $N = \{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_N\}$ a *tour* is a set of N links $l \in L$ such that each node N has degree 2 and the graph is connected – in networking this is a *ring* topology
- **Rings** are used when reliability is important



Tree



Tour

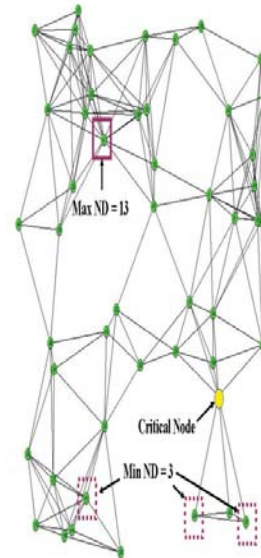
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Graph Analysis



- Basic graph theory analysis to study/compare network topologies
- Some Typical Metrics
 - Maximum Node degree
 - Average node degree
 - Minimum node degree
 - Average path length between a node pair
 - Average shortest path length network wide
 - Network Diameter
 - length of longest shortest path in the network
 - Number of critical points in graph
 - Link/node whose loss partitions graph
 - K-connectivity
 - G is k-connected in removal of any combination of k-1 nodes doesn't partition the graph
 - Etc..



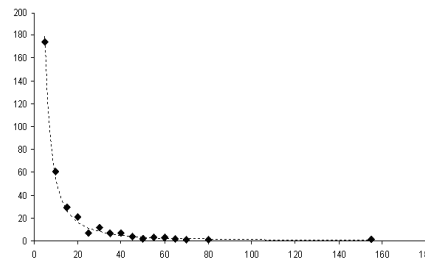
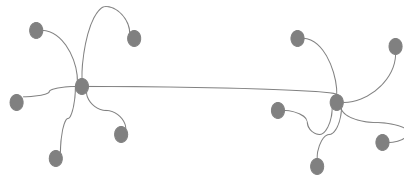
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Small World Graphs/Networks



- A property of some networks is "small world" or scale free behavior
 - Small number of hops to reach most people
 - Clustering into Neighborhoods
- Used to model social networks



Scale-Free Networks

Distribution of node degree has a power law behavior $\sim k^{-r}$ where $k = \#$ links;
 $r > 1$, typically $2 < r < 3$

Simple test for scale free is to plot a histogram of node degree – test power law behavior

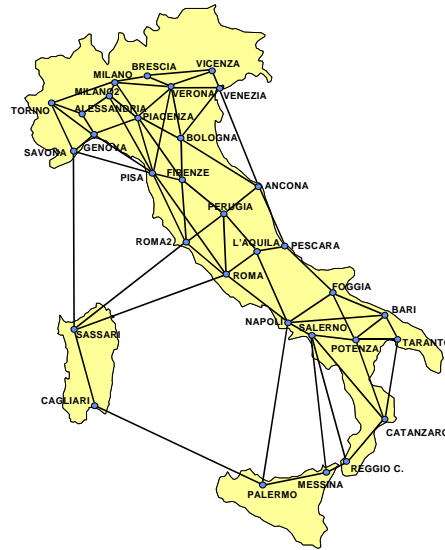
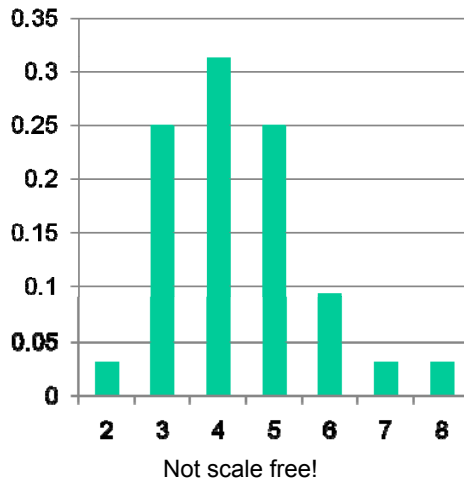
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Testing if Scale Free
get frequency histogram



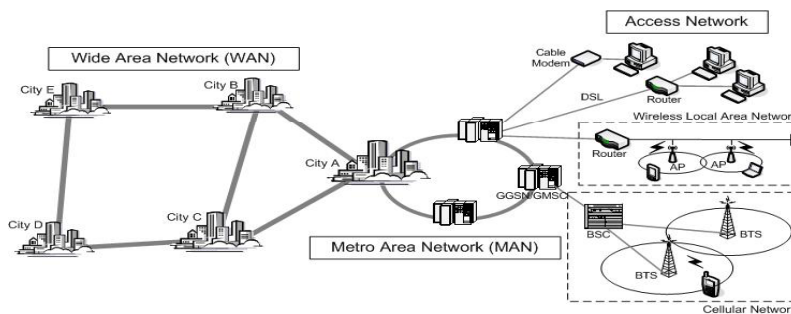
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Network Topologies



- Most networks a mix of trees, rings, mesh – depending on network type, cost/traffic/reliability
- Need to know how to determine good topologies for
 - Tree, Ring and Mesh
 - Use graph theory derived algorithms for Tree and Rings



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Design of Trees



- Many algorithms for design and types of trees
 - Minimum Spanning Trees, Shortest Path Trees, etc.
- Spanning Trees and Subgraphs
 - Subgraph of graph G obtained by selecting number of links and nodes from G
 - For each link, the two nodes incident on that link must be selected
 - Give graph $G(N,L)$, graph $G'(N',L')$ is a subgraph of G iff
 - $N' \subseteq N$ and $L' \subseteq L$ and
 - $\exists l' \in L', \text{ if } l' \text{ incident on } e' \text{ and } w' \text{ then } e', w' \in N'$
 - A *spanning* subgraph includes *all the nodes* of G
 - A tree T is a *spanning tree* of G if T is a spanning subgraph of G
 - Not usually unique \rightarrow typically many spanning trees

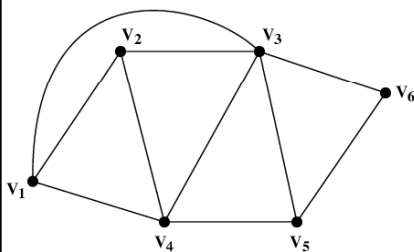
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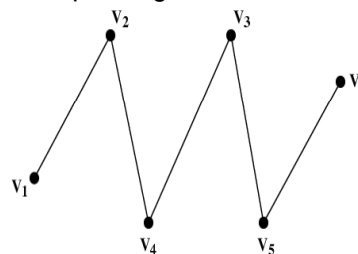
Spanning Tree Examples



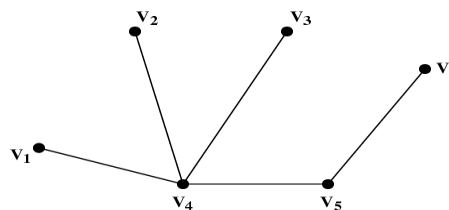
Network Graph Considered



Spanning Tree 1



Spanning Tree 2



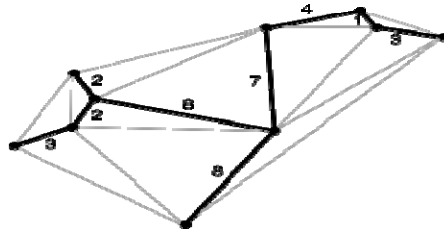
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Finding the MST



- The *Minimal Spanning Tree (MST)*
 - A spanning tree of G whose total weight is a minimum → minimum cost spanning tree
 - Can have many MSTs – all with same cost
- MSTs are used in for network designs when have just few nodes and cost is dominant factor (Access networks)
- Two algorithms *Kruskal* and *Prim*



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Prim's Algorithm



- Algorithm
 - given a weighted graph $G(N,L,W)$ starts by selecting a node
 - adding the “least expensive link”
 - iterates until tree is built
- U = set of nodes in MST
- V' = set of nodes that are NOT in MST but are adjacent to nodes in U
 1. Place any node in U and update V'
 2. Find the link with smallest weight that connects a node in V' to a node in U
 3. Add that edge to the tree and update U & V' .
 4. Repeat 2 & 3 until all nodes are included $|U| = |N|$

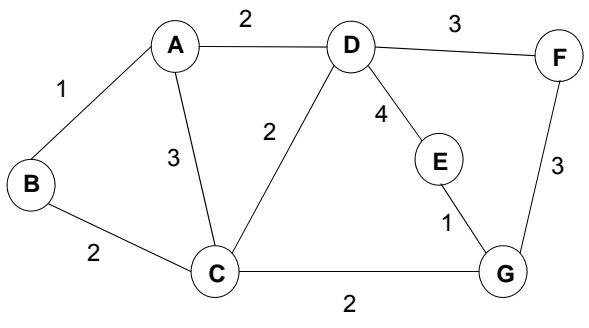
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Algorithm Example



Apply Prim algorithm to the graph below

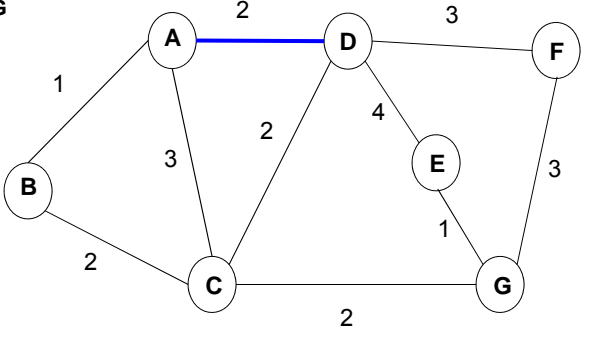


Prim's Algorithm Example



Arbitrarily pick node D to start with – min cost link to a node in V' is (D,A)

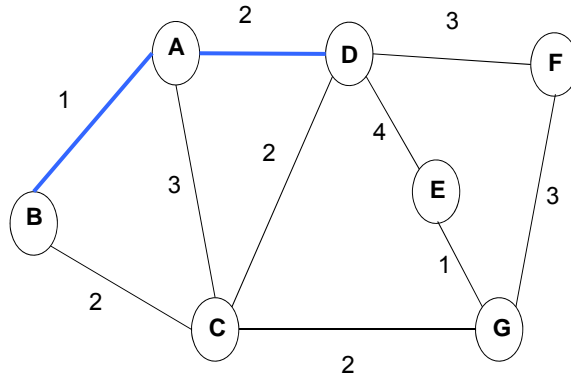
Iteration	U	V'
0	D	A,B,C,E,F,G
1	D,A	B,C,E,F,G



Prim's Algorithm Example



Iteration	U	V'
0	D	A,B,C,E,F,G
1	D,A	B,C,E,F,G
2	D,A,B	C,E,F,G



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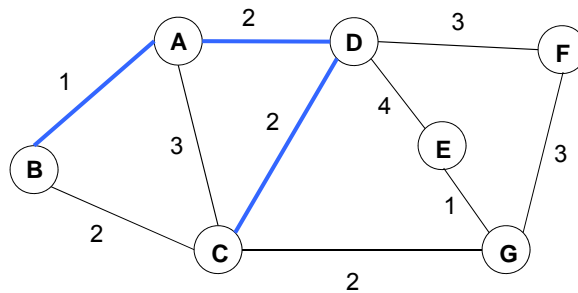
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Prim's Algorithm Example



Iteration	U	V
0	D	A,B,C,E,F,G
1	D,A	B,C,E,F,G
2	D,A,B	C,E,F,G
3	D,A,B,C	E,F,G

<= arbitrarily pick (D,C) link rather than (B,C)



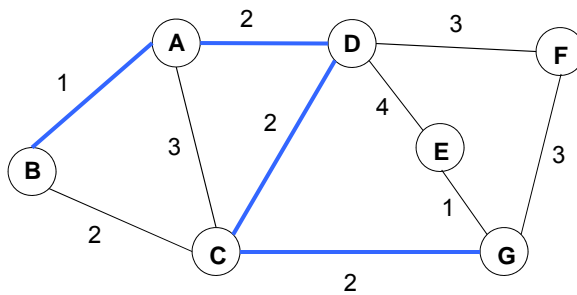
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Prim's Algorithm Example



Iteration	U	V
0	D	A,B,C,E,F,G
1	D,A	B,C,E,F,G
2	D,A,B	C,E,F,G
3	D,A,B,C	E,F,G
4	D,A,B,C,G	E,F



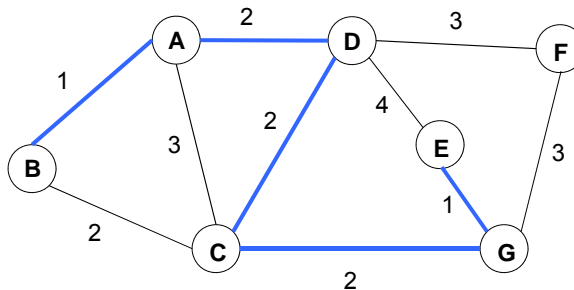
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Prim's Algorithm Example



Iteration	U	V
0	D	A,B,C,E,F,G
1	D,A	B,C,E,F,G
2	D,A,B	C,E,F,G
3	D,A,B,C	E,F,G
4	D,A,B,C,G	E,F
5	D,A,B,C,G,E	F



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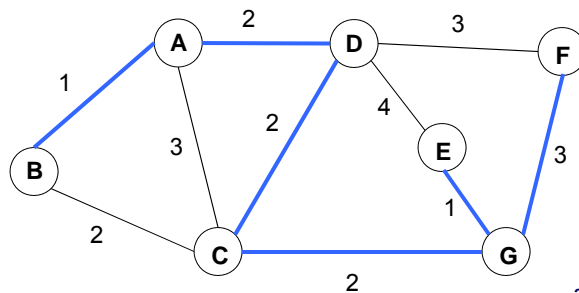
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Prim's Algorithm Example



Iteration	U	V'
0	D	A,B,C,E,F,G
1	D,A	B,C,E,F,G
2	D,A,B	C,E,F,G
3	D,A,B,C	E,F,G
4	D,A,B,C,G	E,F
5	D,A,B,C,G,E	F
6	D,A,B,C,G,E,F	<= arbitrarily pick (G,F) link rather than (D,F) link

MST is complete weight is 11



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Kruskal's Algorithm



- Kruskal achieves the MST by starting with a graph and picking out edges based on cost
- 1. Check that the graph G is connected. If it is not connected stop
- 2. Sort the edges of the graph G in *ascending* order of weight.
- 3. Mark each node as a separate component.
- 4. Examine each of the sorted edges:
if the edge connects two separate components, add it ; otherwise, discard and go to step1

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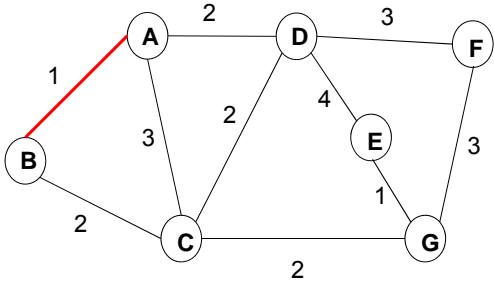
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Algorithm Example



Apply Kruskal's algorithm to the graph below

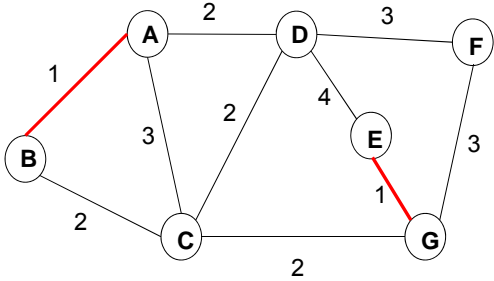
Pick one of the edges with minimum weight
Arbitrarily pick (A,B) rather than (E,G)



Algorithm Example



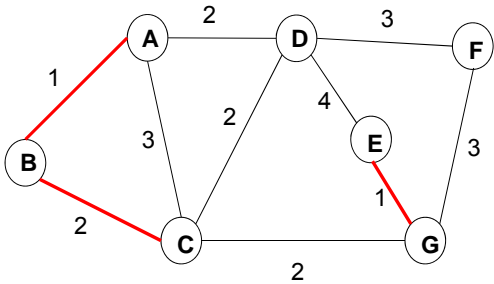
Iteration 2 pick (E,G) as it has minimum weight



Algorithm Example



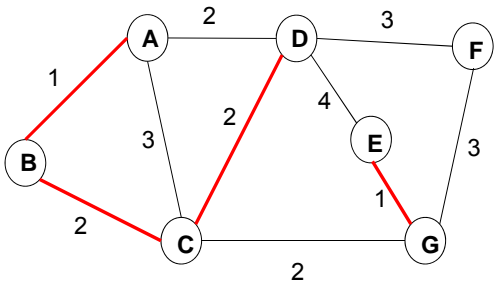
Iteration 3
Arbitrarily pick (B,C) out of possible choices (B,C), (A,D), (C,D),(C,G)



Algorithm Example



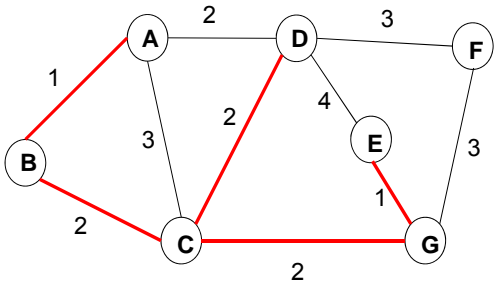
Iteration 4
Arbitrarily pick (C,D) out of possible choices (A,D), (C,D),(C,G)



Algorithm Example



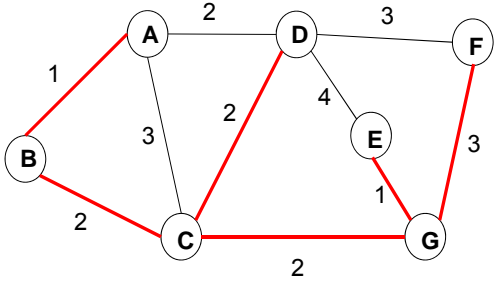
Iteration 5 pick (C,G) as (A,D) is not a valid choice (A and D are in same component)



Algorithm Example



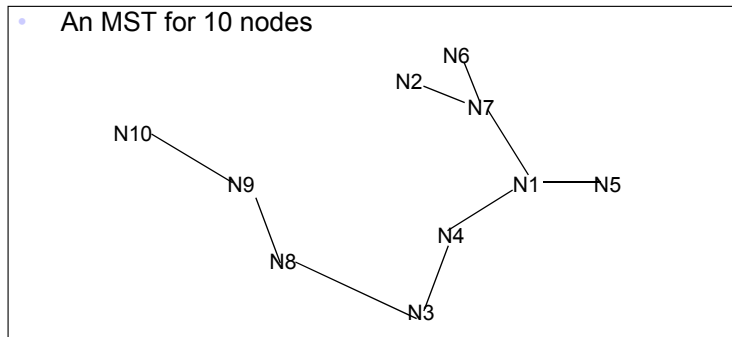
Iteration 6 pick (G,F) from possible choices (D,F), (G,F)
MST is complete weight is 11



MST's Drawbacks



• An MST for 10 nodes



MSTs don't scale well when traffic is internal – note graph above is beginning to have a leggy look, which means that some traffic is taking a circuitous route between its source and destination.

Shortest-Path Trees (SPT)



- Shortest Path

Given a weighted graph (G, W) and nodes n_1 and n_2 , the shortest path from n_1 to n_2 is a path P such that the sum of link weights along the path $\sum_{e \in P} w(e)$ is a minimum.

- Shortest Path Tree

- Given a weighted graph (G, W) and a node n_1 , a shortest – path tree rooted at n_1 is a tree T such that, for any other node $n_2 \in G$, the path from n_1 to n_2 in the tree T is a shortest path between the nodes.

- SPT vs. MST

- SPT **cost more**, but will have lower link utilization and lower delay, smaller average hop count

Finding a Shortest Path Tree



- Given a connected graph G and a node selected to be a root
- Dijkstra's algorithm can be used to find a shortest path tree
- The algorithm is similar to Prim's in that one iteratively builds a tree
 - Let N = set of Nodes
 - S = source node
 - U = set of nodes incorporated so far
 - $W()$ is the link cost, specifically $w(i,j)$ is the cost from node i to node j , $w(i,j) = \infty$ if the two vertices are not directly connected
 - d_min is the currently known minimum cost path from node s to node k

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Finding a Shortest Path Tree



- Dijkstra's Algorithm
- 1. Initialization: Mark every node as unscanned and $U = \{s\}$, $d_min(k) = w(s,k)$ for $k \neq s$
- 2. Loop until you have scanned all the nodes.
 - A. Find the node x not in tree T with the minimum cost path from s , add x to T
 - B. Update the minimum cost paths
$$d_min(k) = \min\{d_min(k), d_min(x) + w(x,k)\}$$
- Terminate when all nodes added to T
- Requires $|N|$ iterations

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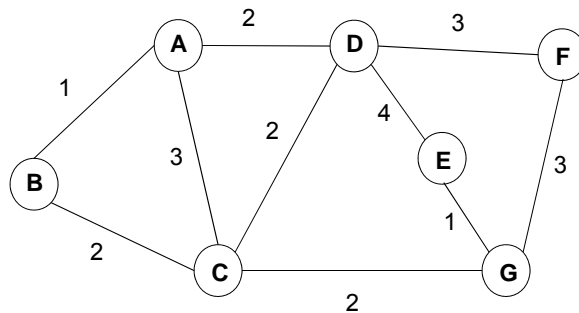
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Algorithm Example



Apply Dijkstra's algorithm to find a SPT rooted at D

Iteration	T	d_min(A) Path	d_min(B) Path	d_min(C) Path	d_min(E) Path	d_min(F) Path	d_min(G) Path
1	{D}	2 (D,A)	∞ -	2 (D,C)	4 (D,E)	3 (D,F)	∞ -
2	{D,C}	2 (D,A)	4 (B,C),(C,D)	2 (D,C)	4 (D,E)	3 (D,F)	4 (G,C),(C,D)



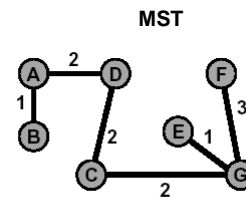
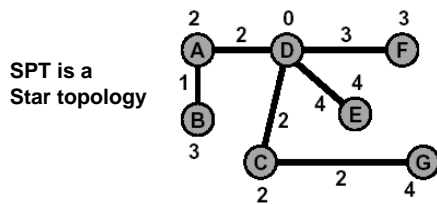
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Algorithm Example



Iteration	T	d_min(A) Path	d_min(B) Path	d_min(C) Path	d_min(E) Path	d_min(F) Path	d_min(G) Path
1	{D}	2 (D,A)	∞ -	2 (D,C)	4 (D,E)	3 (D,F)	∞ -
2	{D,C}	2 (D,A)	4 (B,C),(C,D)	2 (D,C)	4 (D,E)	3 (D,F)	4 (G,C),(C,D)
3	{D,C,A}	2 (D,A)	3 (B,A),(A,D)	2 (D,C)	4 (D,E)	3 (D,F)	4 (G,C),(C,D)
4	{D,C,A,F}	2 (D,A)	3 (B,A),(A,D)	2 (D,C)	4 (D,E)	3 (D,F)	4 (G,C),(C,D)
5	{D,C,A,F,B}	2 (D,A)	3 (B,A),(A,D)	2 (D,C)	4 (D,E)	3 (D,F)	4 (G,C),(C,D)
6	{D,C,A,F,B,E}	2 (D,A)	3 (B,A),(A,D)	2 (D,C)	4 (D,E)	3 (D,F)	4 (G,C),(C,D)
7	{D,C,A,F,B,E,G}	2 (D,A)	3 (B,A),(A,D)	2 (D,C)	4 (D,E)	3 (D,F)	4 (G,C),(C,D)



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Prim – Dijkstra Trees



- MSTs have high delay – but are cheap
- SPTs have lower delay and utilization but more expensive
- Prim-Dijkstra algorithm – interpolates between MST and SPT (comprise)
- Algorithms :
 - 1) Prim's: $\min_{\text{neighbors}} \text{dist}(\text{node}, \text{neighbor})$
 - 2) Dijkstra's: $\min_{\text{neighbors}} (\text{dist}(\text{root}, \text{neighbor}) + \text{dist}(\text{neighbor}, \text{node}))$
 - 3) Prim-Dijkstra's: $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$
 $\min_{\text{neighbors}} (\alpha \times \text{dist}(\text{root}, \text{neighbor}) + \text{dist}(\text{neighbor}, \text{node}))$

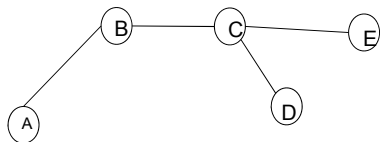
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Rings



- A tree maybe too unreliable to be a good network design as they are subject to single point of failure
- Consider the reliability of Tree vs. Ring
 - Let p = probability of a link failure
- Five Node Tree

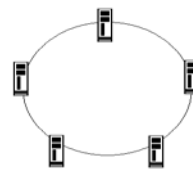


$$P(\text{No Failure}) = (1-p)^4$$

$$P(\text{Failure}) = 1 - (1-p)^4 = 1 - (1 - 4p + 6p^2 - 4p^3 + p^4)$$

$$= 4p - 6p^2 + 4p^3 - p^4$$

Five Node Ring



$$P(\text{Failure}) = 1 - (1-p)^5 - 5p(1-p)^4$$

$$P(\text{Failure}) = 10p^2(1-p)^3 + 10p^3(1-p)^2 + 5p^4(1-p) + p^5$$

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Rings and Reliability



- Comparing the reliability of Trees vs Rings

p	Tree	Ring
.1	.3439	.0815
.01	.0394	9.8×10^{-4}
.001	.004	9.98×10^{-6}
.0001	3.9994×10^{-4}	9.998×10^{-8}
.00001	3.9994×10^{-5}	9.9998×10^{-10}
.000001	4×10^{-6}	1×10^{-11}

- How can one find a good ring topology?

Traveling Salesman Problem (TSP)



- Number of tours in a set of N nodes is $(N-1)!/2$
- Finding a tour/ring is equivalent to the Traveling Salesman Problem (TSP)
- Given a set of nodes (n_1, n_2, \dots, n_N) and a distance/cost function $d : N \times N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$, the traveling salesman problem is to find the tour such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^N d(n_i, n_{i+1}) \text{ is a minimum.}$$

- TSP is a tough problem (NP Hard)
- Solve using use heuristic algorithms.

Nearest-neighbor Algorithm



1. Start at a node we call *root* and set *current_node* = *root*.
2. Loop until we have all the nodes in the tour.
 - Find the node closest (i.e., min cost or distance) to the *current_node* that is not in the tour. We call this *best_node*.
 - Create an edge between *current_node* and *best_node*.
 - Reset the *current_node* to the *best_node*.
3. Finally create an edge between the last node and the root to complete the tour.

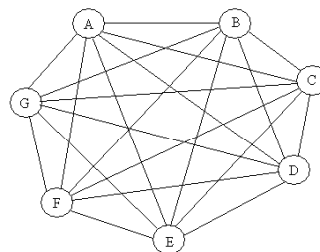
Nearest Neighbor Example



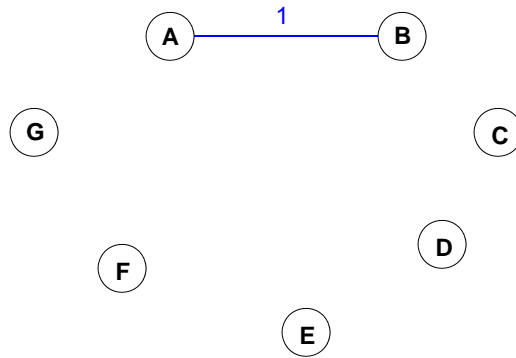
- Example: Start at node A

Table 6.1 Example Network Link Costs

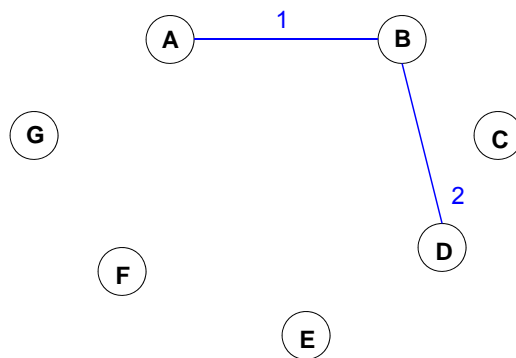
	Node					
Node	B	C	D	E	F	G
A	5	6	9	10	11	15
B		9	6	6	8	17
C			7	9	8	12
D				10	5	11
E					14	9
F						8



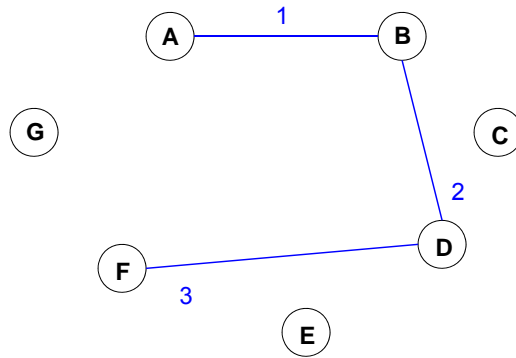
Nearest Neighbor Example



Nearest Neighbor Example



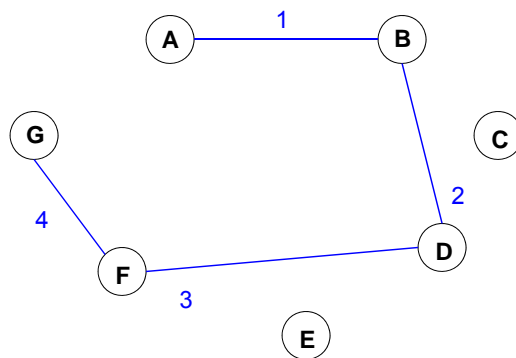
Nearest Neighbor Example



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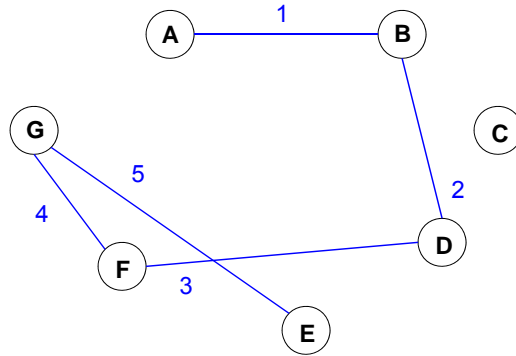
Nearest Neighbor Example



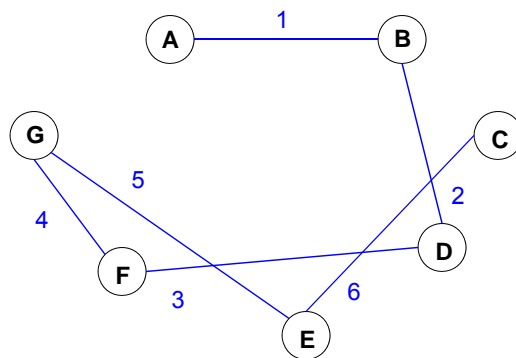
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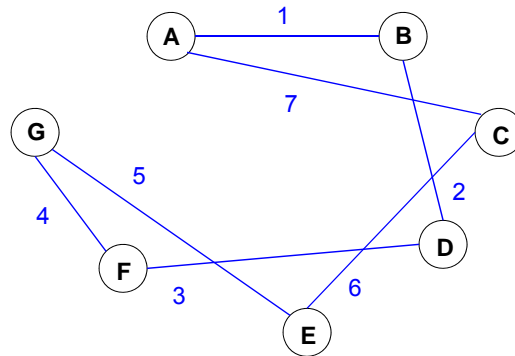
Nearest Neighbor Example



Nearest Neighbor Example



Nearest Neighbor Example



Total Cost = 50

Nearest-neighbor Algorithm



- **Observation:**
 - * **Good (?)**:
We are trying to produce a short tour, we will always move to the best possible next location.
 - * **Bad (?)**:
When we look at the figure produced, we can see the lines may cross frequently.
- Several improved version of nearest-neighbor in the literature - will look at optimization based approaches later
- Simple improvement is grow ring/tour from both ends
 - That is when finding best node to move to look at option from both ends of current partial tour

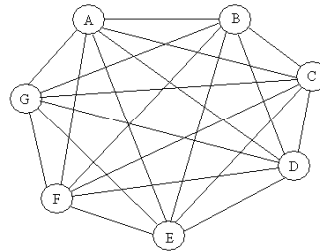
Nearest Neighbor



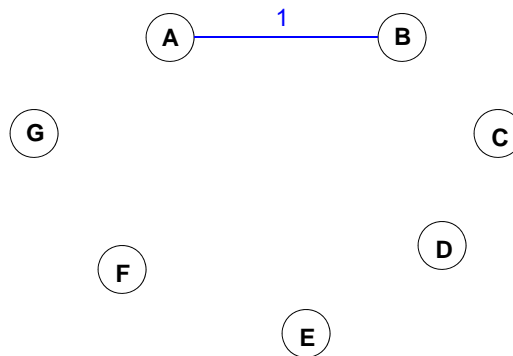
- Example: Start at node A

Table 6.1 Example Network Link Costs

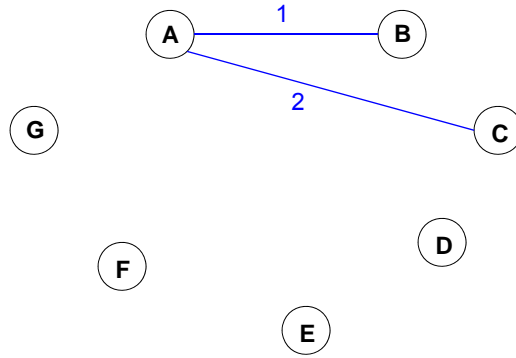
		Node					
Node	B	C	D	E	F	G	
A	5	6	9	10	11	15	
B		9	8	8	8	17	
C			7	9	7	12	
D				10	5	11	
E					14	9	
F						8	



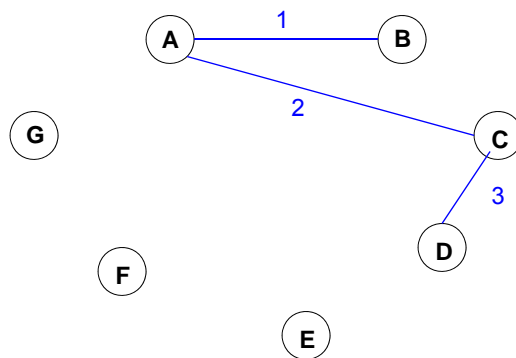
Nearest Neighbor Example



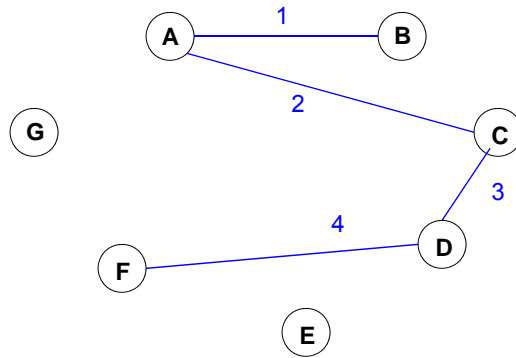
Nearest Neighbor Example



Nearest Neighbor Example



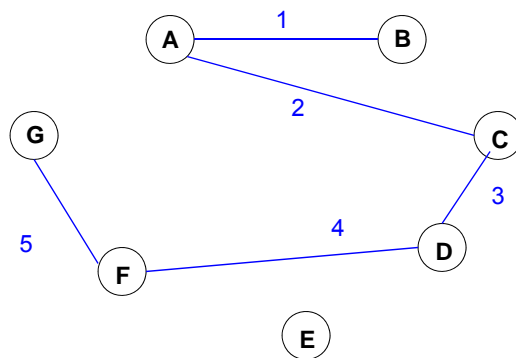
Nearest Neighbor Example



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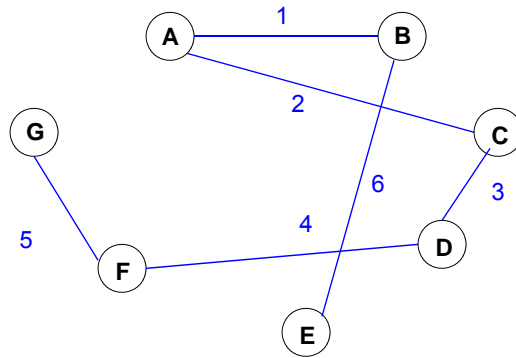
Nearest Neighbor Example



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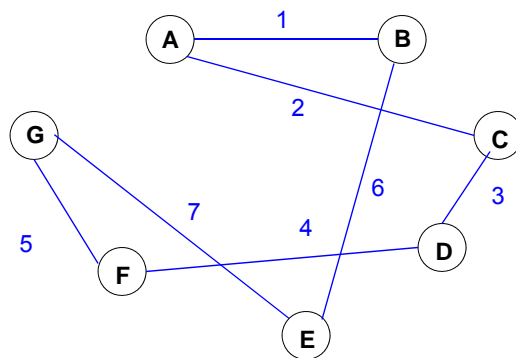
Nearest Neighbor Example



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Nearest Neighbor Example



Total Cost = 48

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(Rings) Do Not Scale



Given uniform traffic any Ring of N nodes has $\overline{hops} = \frac{N+1}{4}$
 if n is odd and $\frac{N^2}{4(N-1)}$ if n is even.

- Comparison of average number of hops for MST and TSP:

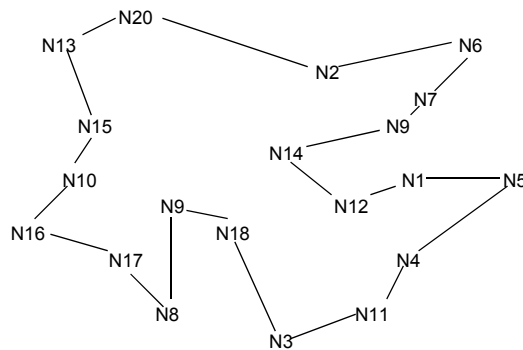
Number of nodes	\overline{hops}_{MST}	\overline{hops}_{TSP}
5	1.8	1.5
10	3.1778	2.777
20	4.4158	5.263
50	8.5159	12.755
100	13.9479	25.252

Improving Ring Topologies



- Can reduce hop count by adopting a multi-ring topology.
- Topology is a set of interconnected rings

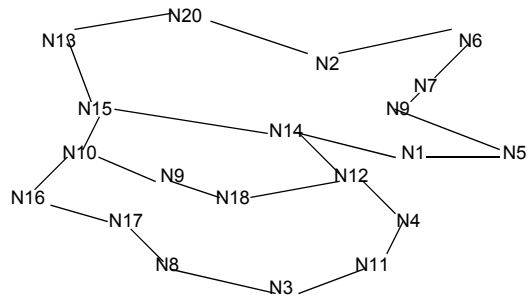
- Example, a TSP tour on 20 nodes. The average number of hops is 5.263. We want to reduce the average hop count but keep the 2-connectivity.



Divide and Conquer



- Grouping into 2 groups of 10 nodes. Then running the nearest neighbor algorithm gives two rings as below. Joining the two rings at their closet points results in



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Level 3 N. American Network



Snapshot of their backbone in mid 90's



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Typical Network Design

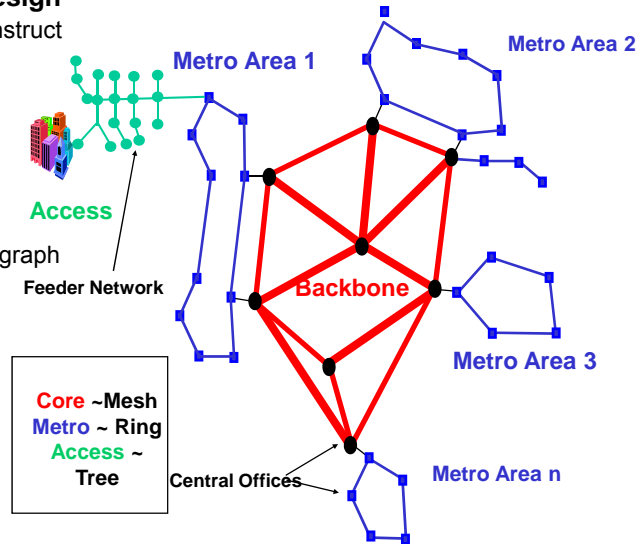


- **Network Topology Design**

- Need to know how to construct

- Trees
- Rings
- Mesh networks

- Algorithms adopted from graph theory are used for Trees and Rings



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Summary



- Basic Graph theory terminology and techniques
 - Analysis useful to compare/evaluate designs
- Trees and Rings are often used in access networks
- Trees
 - MST (Prim, Kruskal algorithms)
 - SPT
 - Prim-Dijkstra Trees
- Rings
 - Better reliability than trees
 - Nearest neighbor, Improved nearest neighbor
 - Multi-Ring

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