

Some graph theory applications to communications networks

Keith Briggs

Keith.Briggs@bt.com

<http://keithbriggs.info>

Computational Systems Biology Group, Sheffield - 2006 Nov 02 1100

graph_problems_Sheffield_2006_Nov_02.tex TYPESET 2006 OCTOBER 27 14:08 IN PDF \LaTeX ON A LINUX SYSTEM

BT Research at Martlesham, Suffolk



- ★ Cambridge-Ipswich high-tech corridor
- ★ 2000 technologists
- ★ 15 companies
- ★ UCL, Univ of Essex

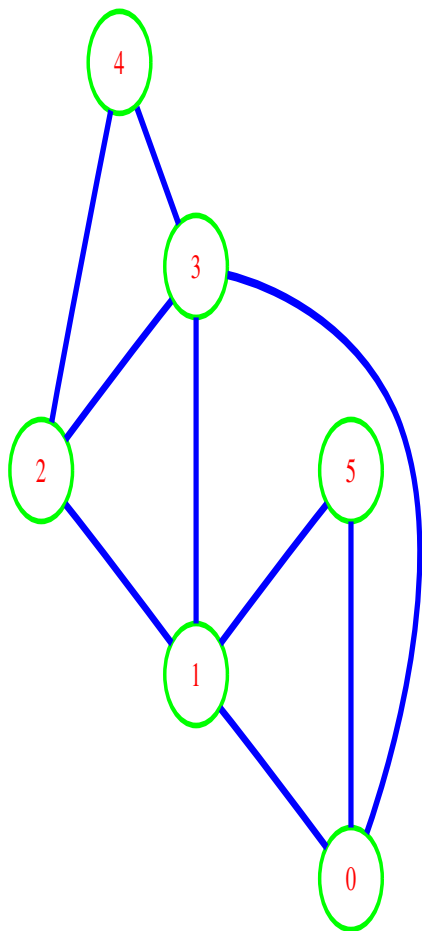
Mathematics in telecoms

- ★ graph theory - network models
- ★ optimization of network topology
- ★ information theory
- ★ Markov chains & queuing theory
- ★ coding, compression, and cryptography
- ★ packet protocols & traffic characteristics
- ★ asynchronous distributed algorithms
- ★ caching and data distribution strategies
- ★ optimization of dynamic processes on networks (typically convex but non-smooth)
- ★ business modelling & financial forecasting
- ★ complex systems?

Talk outline

- ★ graph concepts and problems
- ★ connectivity
- ★ chromatic number and clique number
- ★ channel allocation
- ★ the challenge - to balance (exact) theory with (real) practice

Graph concepts



- ★ *clique* - a complete subgraph
- ★ *maximal clique* - a clique that cannot be extended to a larger one
- ★ *lonely set* - a pairwise disjoint set of nodes (stable set, independent set)
- ★ *colouring* - an assignment of colours to nodes in which no neighbours have the same colour
- ★ *chromatic number* χ - the number of colours in a colouring with a minimal number of colours
- ★ *loneliness* α - the number of nodes in a largest lonely set
- ★ *clique number* ω - the number of nodes in a largest maximal clique

The Bernoulli random graph model $G\{n, p\}$

- ★ let G be a graph of n nodes
- ★ let $p = 1 - q$ be the probability that each possible edge exists
- ★ edge events are independent
- ★ let $P(n)$ be the probability that $G\{n, p\}$ is connected
- ★ then $P(1) = 1$ and $P(n) = 1 - \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k-1} P(k) q^{k(n-k)}$
for $n = 2, 3, 4, \dots$.

$$P(1) = 1$$

$$P(2) = 1 - q$$

$$P(3) = (2q + 1)(q - 1)^2$$

$$P(4) = (6q^3 + 6q^2 + 3q + 1)(1 - q)^3$$

$$P(5) = (24q^6 + 36q^5 + 30q^4 + 20q^3 + 10q^2 + 4q + 1)(q - 1)^4$$

- ★ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, we have $P(n) \rightarrow 1 - nq^{n-1}$.

Probability of connectivity - the $G(n, m)$ model

- ★ problem: compute the numbers of connected labelled graphs with n nodes and $m = n-1, n, n+1, n+2, \dots$ edges
- ★ exponential generating function for all labelled graphs:

$$g(w, z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (1+w)^{\binom{n}{2}} z^n / n!$$

- ★ i.e., the number of labelled graphs with m edges and n nodes is $[w^m z^n]g(w, z)$
- ★ exponential generating function for all connected labelled graphs:

$$\begin{aligned} c(w, z) &= \log(g(w, z)) \\ &= z + w \frac{z^2}{2} + (3w^2 + w^3) \frac{z^3}{6} + (16w^3 + 15w^4 + 6w^5 + w^6) \frac{z^4}{4!} + \dots \end{aligned}$$

Probability of connectivity for $G(n, m)$

$$\star \frac{P(n, n-1)}{2^n e^{2-n} n^{-1/2} \xi} \sim \frac{1}{2} - \frac{7}{8} n^{-1} + \frac{35}{192} n^{-2} + \frac{1127}{11520} n^{-3} + \frac{5189}{61440} n^{-4} + \frac{457915}{3096576} n^{-5} + \frac{570281371}{1857945600} n^{-6} + \frac{291736667}{495452160} n^{-7} + O(n^{-8})$$

▷ *check:* $n = 10$, *exact*=0.1128460393, *asymptotic*=0.1128460359

$$\star \frac{P(n, n+0)}{2^n e^{2-n} \xi} \sim \frac{1}{4} \xi - \frac{7}{6} n^{-1/2} + \frac{1}{3} \xi n^{-1} - \frac{1051}{1080} n^{-3/2} + \frac{5}{9} \xi n^{-2} + O(n^{-3})$$

▷ *check:* $n = 10$, *exact*=0.276, *asymptotic*=0.319

$$\star \frac{P(n, n+1)}{2^n e^{2-n} n^{1/2} \xi} \sim \frac{5}{12} - \frac{7}{12} \xi n^{-1/2} + \frac{515}{144} n^{-1} - \frac{28}{9} \xi n^{-3/2} + \frac{788347}{51840} n^{-2} - \frac{308}{27} \xi n^{-5/2} + O(n^{-3})$$

▷ *check:* $n = 10$, *exact*=0.437, *asymptotic*=0.407

▷ *check:* $n = 20$, *exact*=0.037108, *asymptotic*=0.037245

▷ *check:* $n = 100$, *exact*= 2.617608×10^{-12} , *asymptotic*= 2.617596×10^{-12}

Hard graph problems

- ★ finding χ , α and ω is proven to be NP-complete
 - ▷ *this means that it is unlikely that any algorithm exists which runs in time which is a polynomial function of the number of nodes*
- ★ we therefore have two options:
 - ▷ *use a heuristic, which is probably fast but may give the wrong answer*
 - ▷ *use an exact algorithm, and try to make it as fast as possible by clever coding*
- ★ the theory is well developed and presented in many places, but little practical experience gets reported
- ★ therefore, it is interesting to try exact algorithms for these problems to determine how big the problems can be in practice, and compared the timings with approximate (relaxed) algorithms

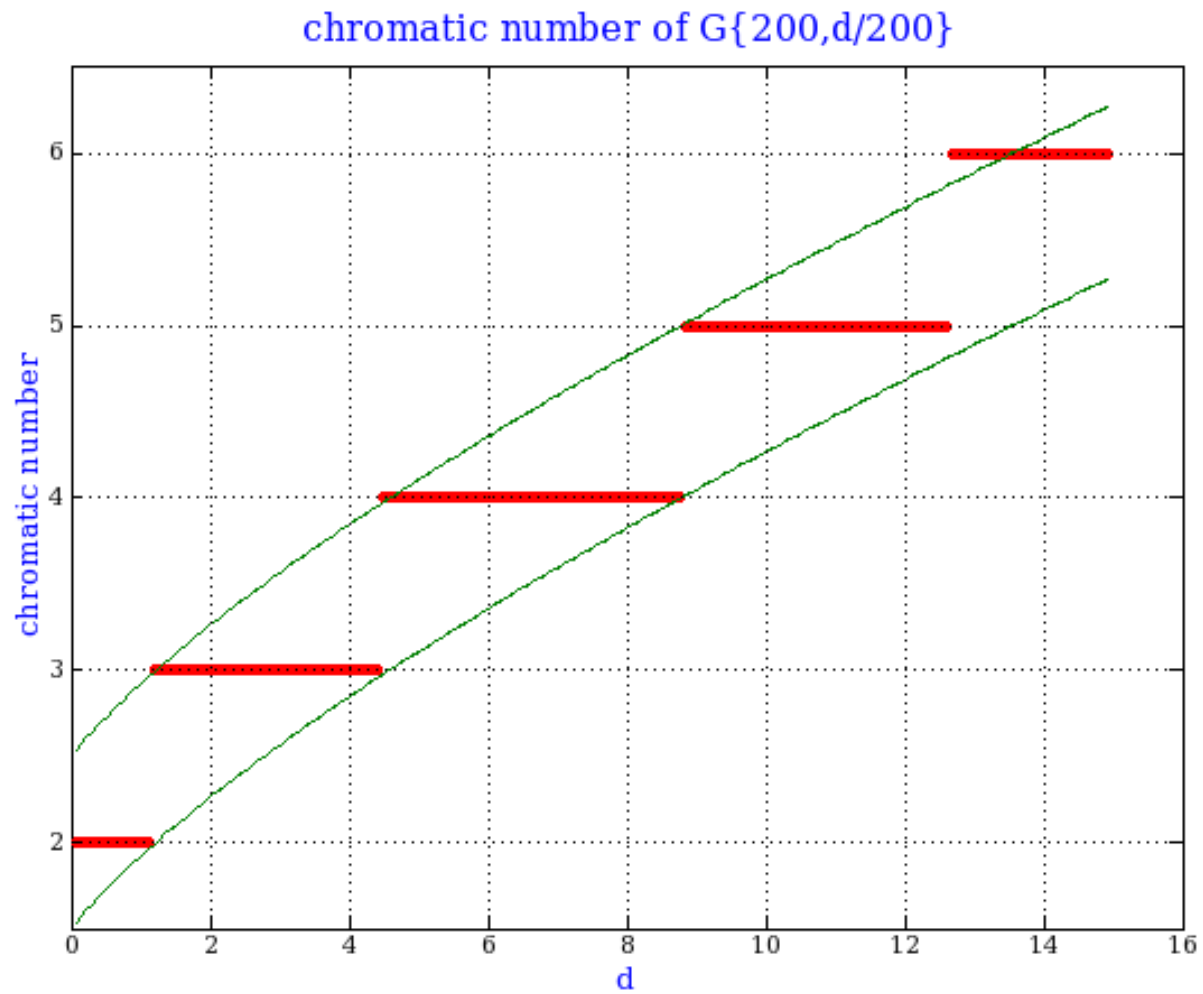
Chromatic number χ

- ★ many papers appeared in the 1980s about backtracking (branch-and-bound) methods. Some had errors
 - ▷ *idea: start to compute all colourings, but abort one as soon as it is worse than the best so far*
- ★ can be combined with heuristics (greedy colourings) and exact bounds like $\omega \leq \chi \leq \Delta + 1$, where Δ is the maximum degree
- ★ tradeoff in using heuristics depends on type of graph
- ★ in practice (with a well-written C program), up to 100 nodes is ok, and up to 200 for very sparse or very dense graphs
- ★ best results are in a PhD by Chiarandini (Darmstadt 2005)
<http://www.imada.sdu.dk/~marco/public.php>
- ★ determining χ may be easy for many real-world graphs with specific structures (Coudert, DAC97)

Achlioptas & Naor

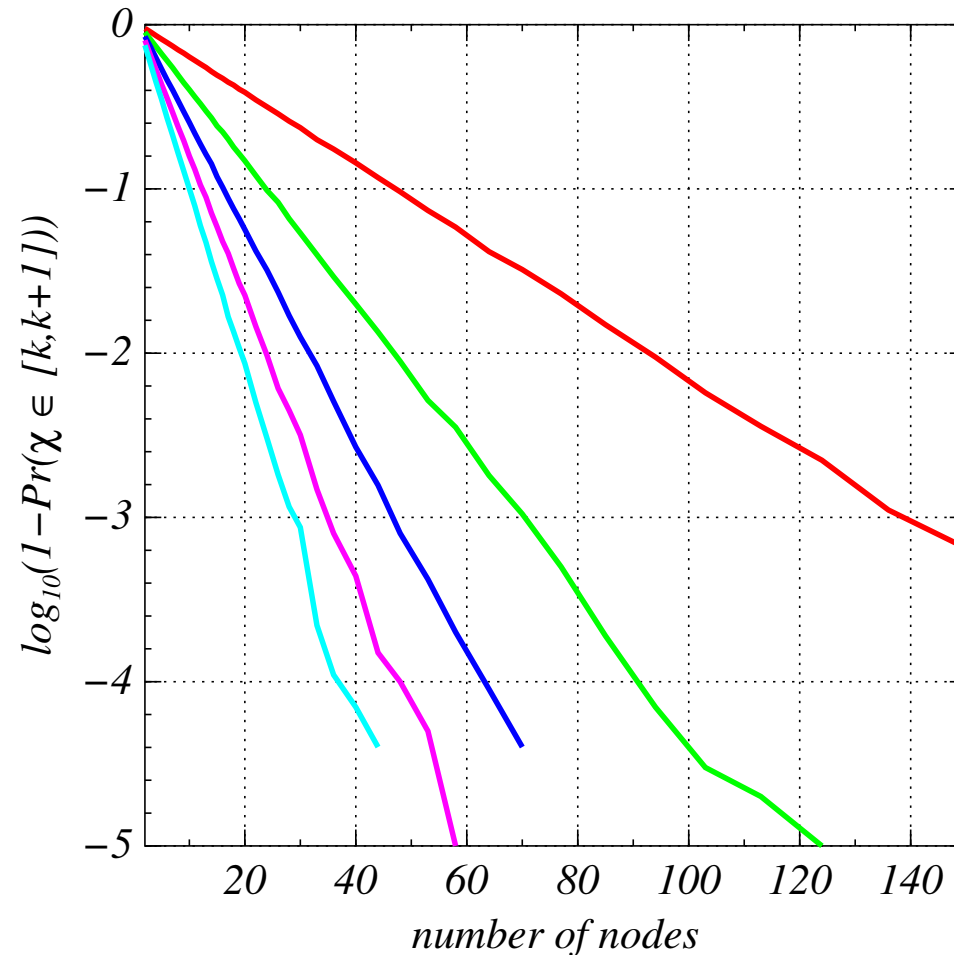
- ★ *The two possible values of the chromatic number of a random graph* *Annals of Mathematics*, **162** (2005)
<http://www.cs.ucsc.edu/~optas/>
- ★ the authors show that for fixed d , as $n \rightarrow \infty$, the chromatic number of $G\{n, d/n\}$ is either k or $k+1$, where k is the smallest integer such that $d < 2k \log(k)$. In fact, this means that k is given by $\lceil d/(2W(d/2)) \rceil$
- ★ $G\{n, p\}$ means the random graph on n nodes and each possible edge appears independently with probability p

Achlioptas & Naor contd.



Achlioptas & Naor - my conjecture

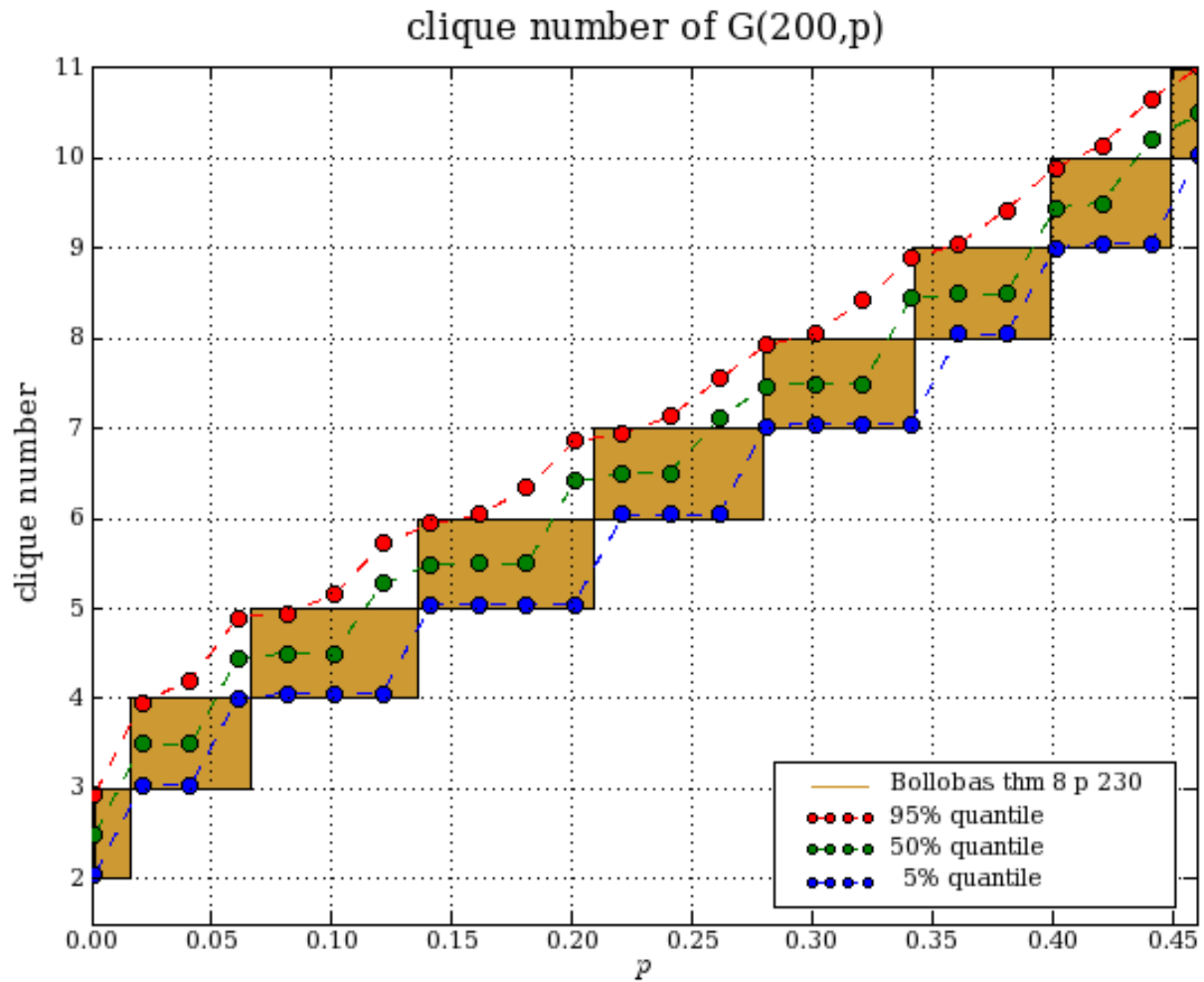
- ★ the next graph (each point is the average of 1 million trials) suggests that for small d , we have $\Pr[\chi \in [k, k+1]] \sim 1 - \exp(-dn/2)$



Clique number

- ★ In *Modern graph theory*, page 230, Bollobás shows that the clique number of $G(n, p)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ is almost surely d or $d+1$, where d is the greatest natural number such that $\binom{n}{d} p^{\binom{d}{2}} \geq \log(n)$
- ★ How accurate is this formula when n is small?
- ★ We have $d = 2 \log(n) / \log(1/p) + \mathcal{O}(\log \log(n))$.

Clique number - simulation results



Counting graphs

Number of graphs on n nodes with chromatic number k :

$n =$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
k	-----										
2	0	1	2	6	12	34	87	302	1118	5478	A076278
3	0	0	1	3	16	84	579	5721	87381	2104349	A076279
4	0	0	0	1	4	31	318	5366	155291	7855628	A076280
5	0	0	0	0	1	5	52	867	28722	1919895	A076281
6	0	0	0	0	0	1	6	81	2028	115391	A076282
7	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	7	118	4251	
8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	8	165	
9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	9	
10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	
11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	

(A-numbers from <http://www.research.att.com/~njas/sequences/>)

A *real-world* hard problem

- ★ I use *real* 802.11b spectral characteristics & interference behaviour
- ★ the channel allocation problem is to minimize the maximum interference problem
- ★ randomly placed nodes
- ★ hexagonal lattices

The channel allocation problem

- ★ choose x such that some objective function is minimized
- ★ This is a combinatorial optimization problem, so to find the exact solution we must explicitly enumerate and evaluate all channel assignments
- ★ the number of assignments grows as (number of nodes)^{number of channels} and becomes infeasible to do a complete search beyond about 12 channels and 12 nodes
- ★ so we use branch and bound method for the maximum interference problem.
 - ▷ *we build a tree showing all possible assignment vectors with the depth of tree representing the number of nodes being considered and each leaf a different complete assignment. We do this by testing partial solutions and disregarding ones worse than the best so far.*

The maximum interference problem

- ★ the *maximum interference at node i* is

$$w_i = \max_{\substack{j=1, \dots, n \\ j \neq i}} I_{ij}$$

- ★ the *objective function* is $w(x) = \max_i w_i(x)$; that is, the worst maximum interference at any AP
- ★ the *optimization problem* is

$$\min_x w(x);$$

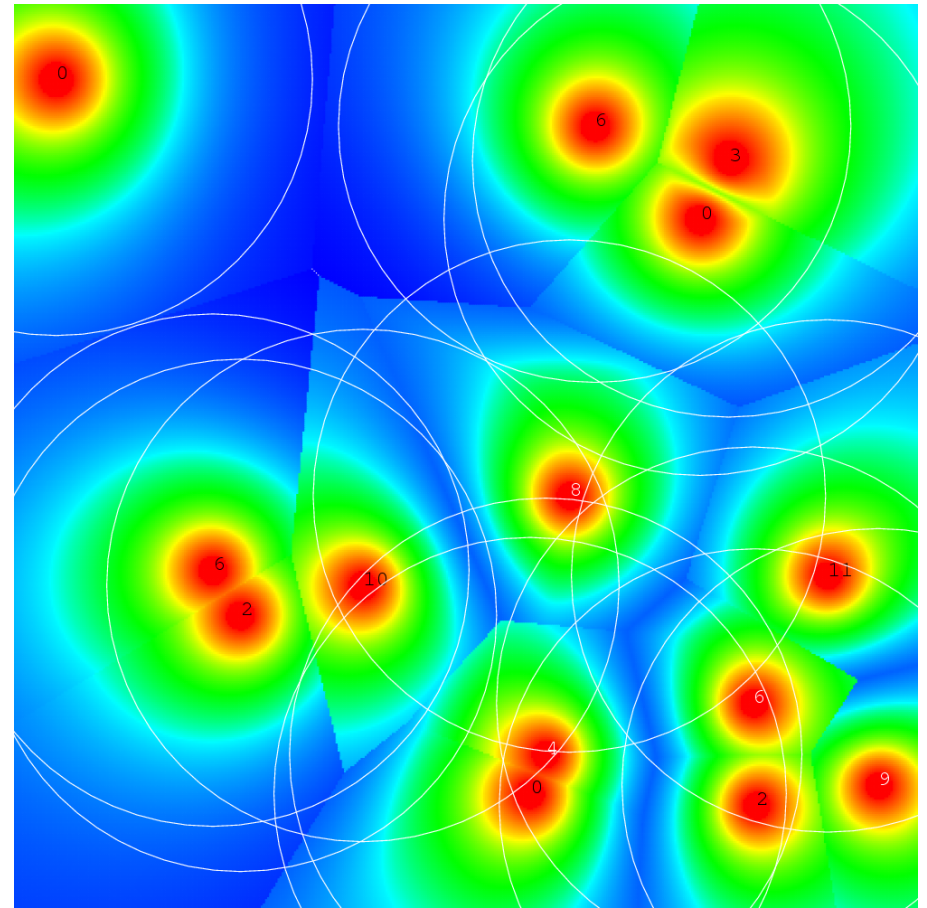
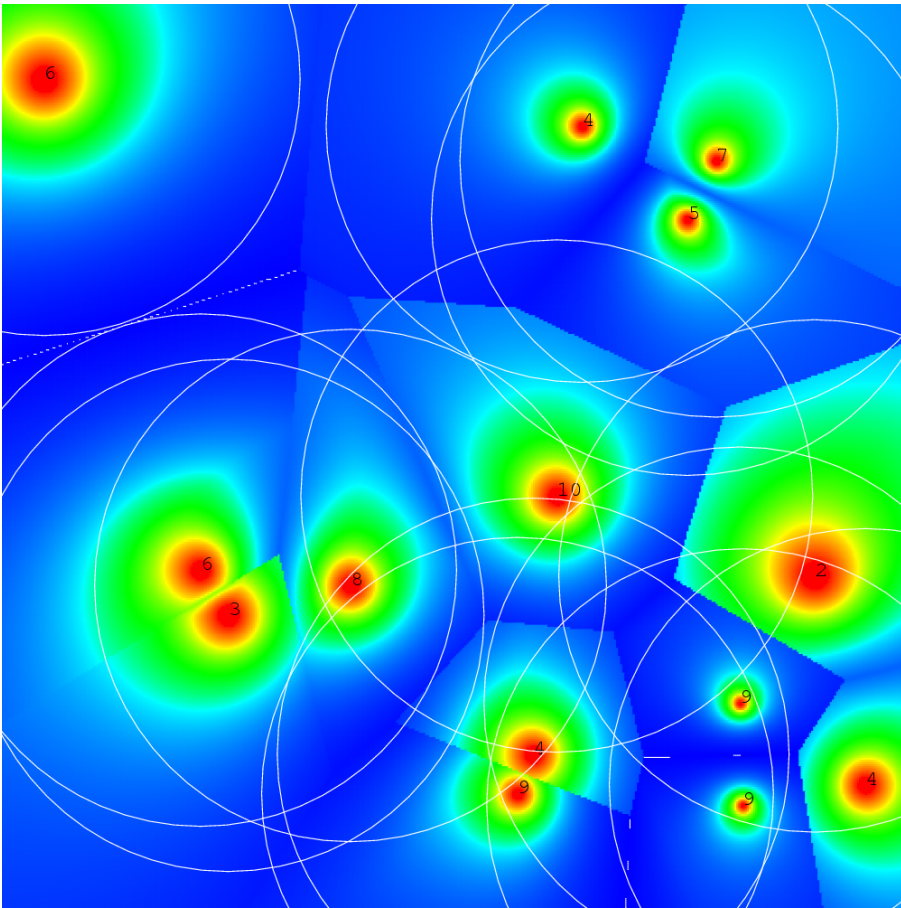
that is, we aim to minimize the worst maximum interference

- ★ this is feasible to solve exactly if good pruning strategies can be found

Pruning and preprocessing

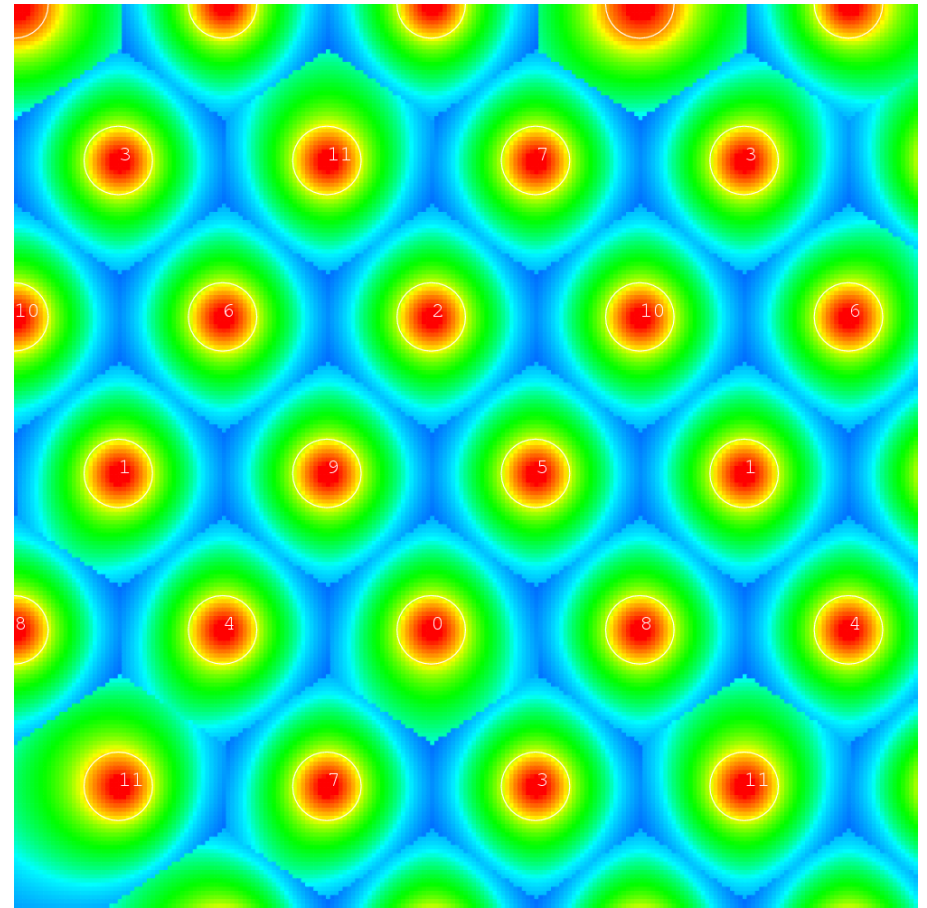
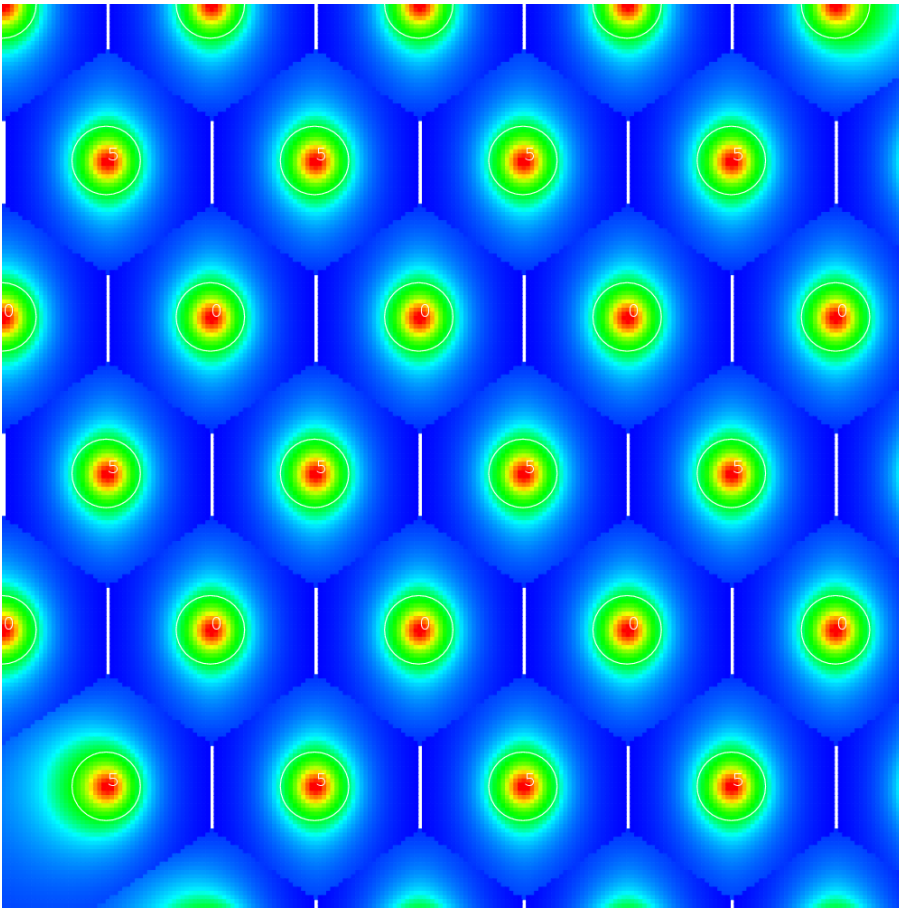
- ★ to have any advantage over complete enumeration efficient pruning strategies must be found
- ★ testing of partial solutions to determine possible good solutions
 - ▷ *in a typical example the number of function calls can drop from $6 \cdot 10^6$ to about 6000*
- ★ calculation of minimum separations from interference matrix
 - ▷ *this can usually give a further 50–75% reduction in function calls*
- ★ while branch and bound is powerful on its own it is sensitive to the order in which the nodes are considered.
- ★ by using the k -means heuristic to locate clusters and analysing these first pruning, become much more effective

Randomly placed nodes: before & after optimization



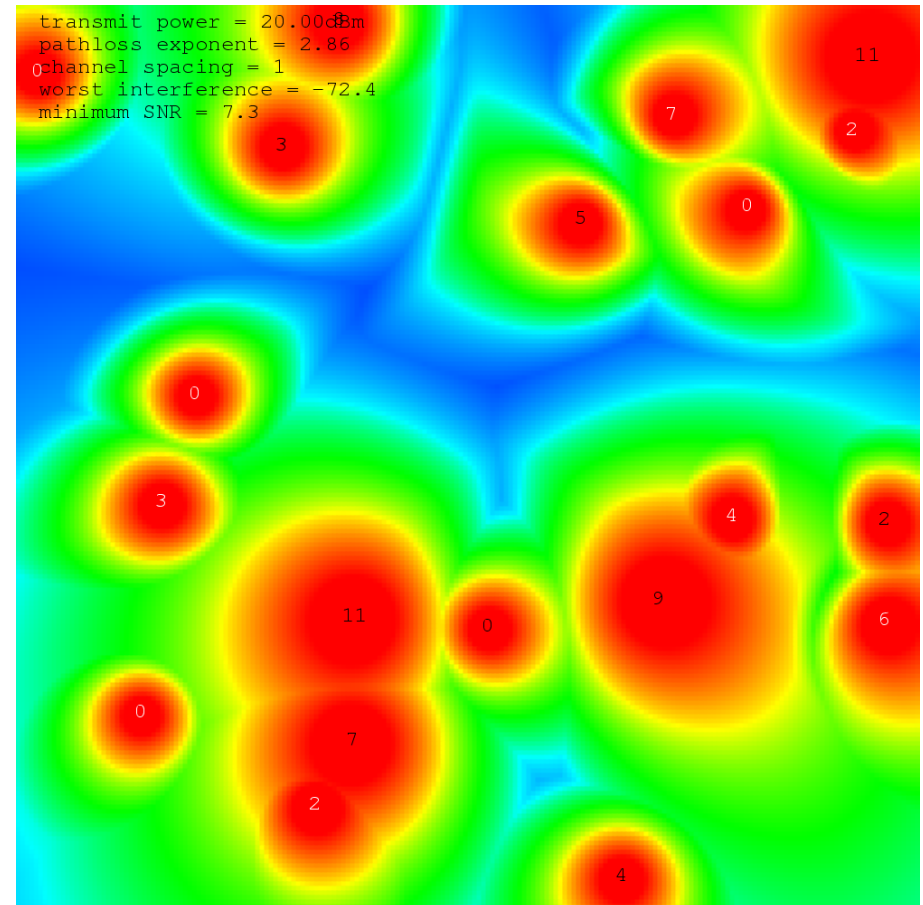
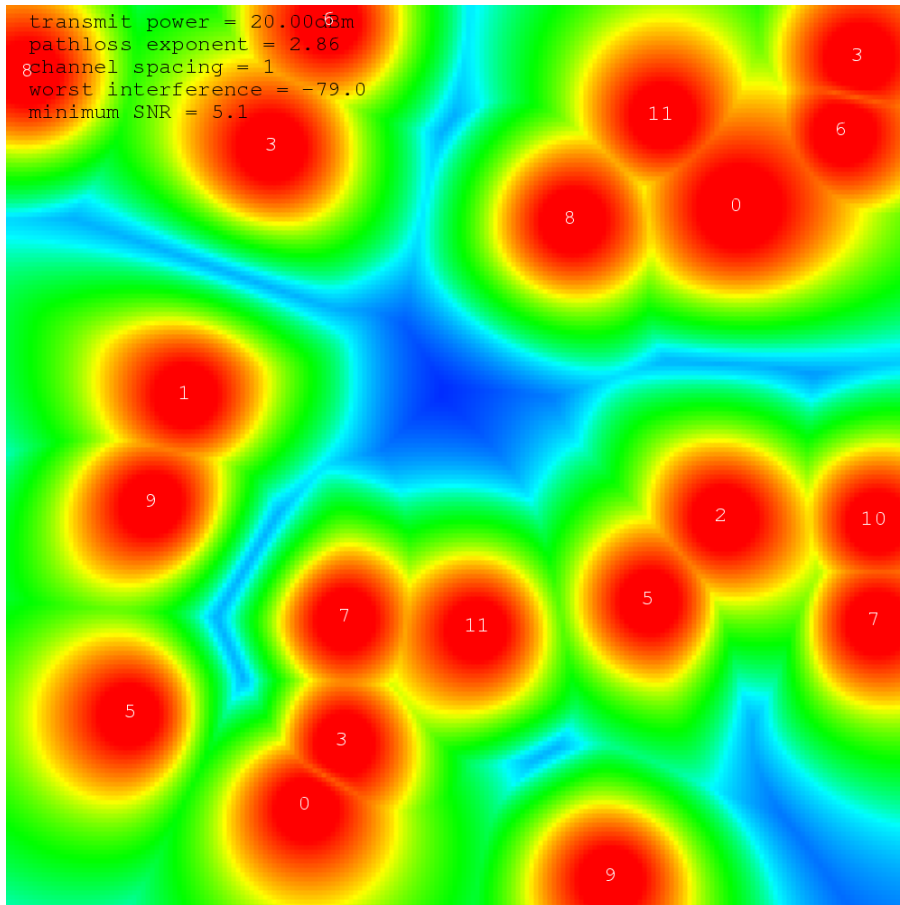
typical improvement: 2Mbps coverage goes from 50% to 90%.

Hexagonal lattice - 3 and 12 channels



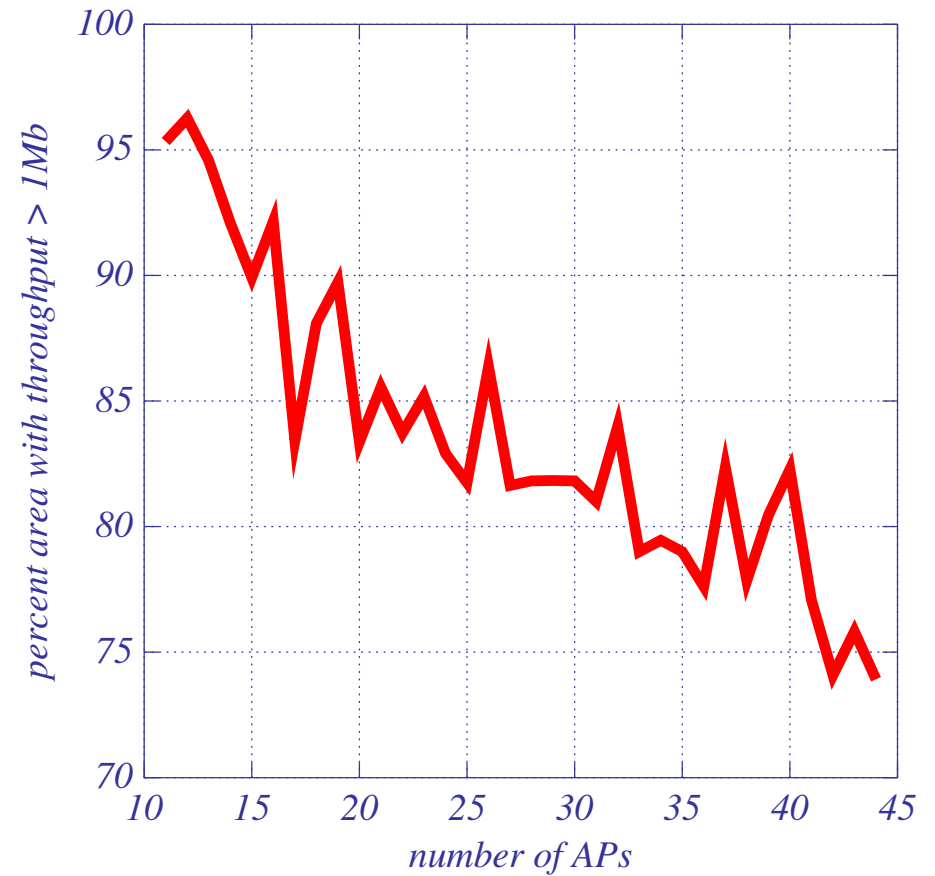
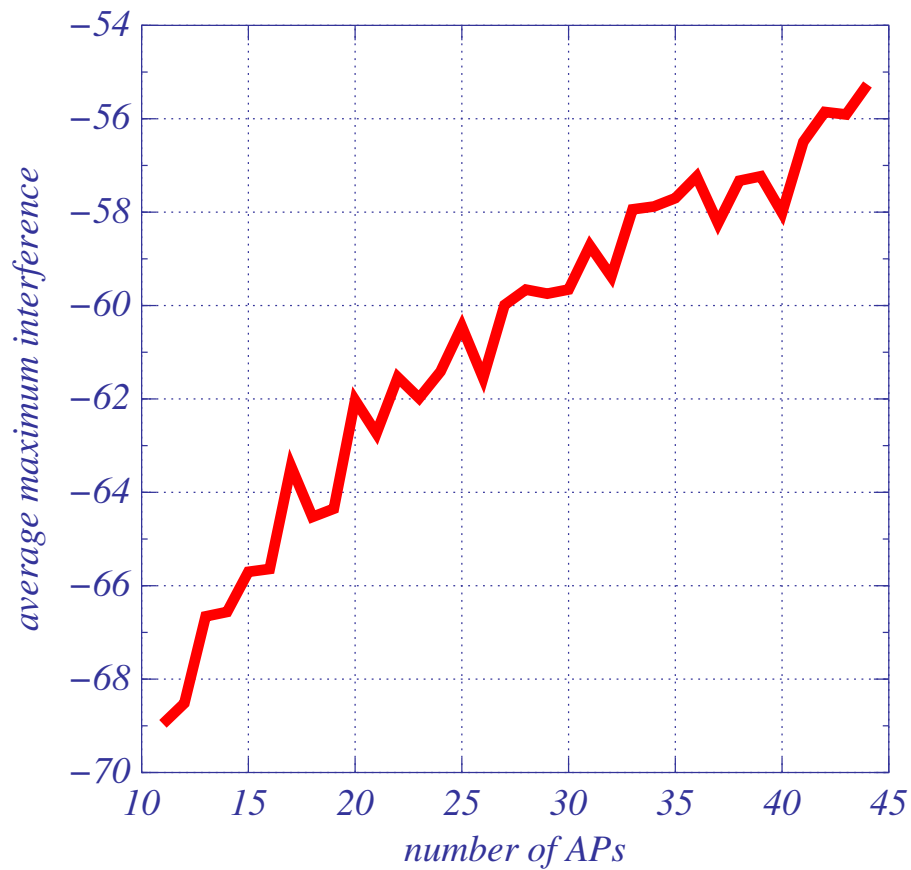
typical improvement: 12Mbps coverage goes from 26% to 100%.

Two-network optimization



First optimize all 20 nodes, then imagine the first 10 nodes belong to a competitor's network and are optimized and then frozen, and then we come in with the second 10 nodes. How is our coverage and SNR affected by the competitor's network? (Answer: only about 2dB.)

Scaling of interference & throughput with node density



Results here are averaged over many instances of Poisson point process.