

PALMETTO LECTURE IN STATISTICS, UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH CAROLINA

NETWORK RELIABILITY: A FRESH LOOK AT SOME BASIC QUESTIONS

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I. The Mathematical Representation of Communications Networks

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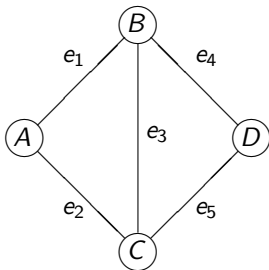


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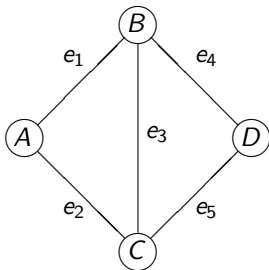


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The main quality of interest in a communications network is *connectivity*. Different types of connectivity may be relevant at a given time or for a particular purpose.

For any integer $k = 2, \dots, v$, *k-terminal connectivity* means that there is a working path linking any pair in a set of k distinguished vertices.

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- (b) **A widely-applicable submodel.** If X_i is the failure time of the i th edge, then the X_i are independent, with $X_i \sim F_i$, $i = 1, \dots, n$. The probability that edge i is working at time t_0 is $p_i = \bar{F}_i(t_0)$ where $\bar{F}_i = 1 - F_i$.

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- (c) **An important special case.** Edge failure times have identical distributions, that is,

$$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} F.$$

At time t_0 , the probability that any given edge is working is $p = \bar{F}(t_0)$.

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- Assuming independence, if the common edge reliability p may be reasonably assumed to be a lower bound on all p_i , or if $\bar{F}_i(t) \geq \bar{F}(t)$ for all t , then the network’s reliability is bounded below by the reliability of the network based on the i.i.d. assumption with $p_i \equiv p$ or $\bar{F}_i \equiv \bar{F}$.

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- The i.i.d. framework “levels the playing field” when comparing competing networks, and differences between network designs can be characterized through distribution-free summaries like “network signatures.”

III. The Signature of a Network

Consider a network in the $G(v, n)$ class, and assume that its n edges have failure times $\{X_i\}$ which can be modeled as $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} F$. Suppose that a given type of connectivity is of interest. Let T be the time at which connectivity fails. The failure of connectivity coincides with a particular edge failure.

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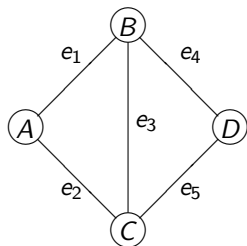
Definition: The *signature* \mathbf{s} of a $G(v, n)$ network is an n -dimensional probability vector whose i th element is $s_i = P(T = X_{i:n})$, where $X_{i:n}$ is the i th smallest X among the edge failure times X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n .

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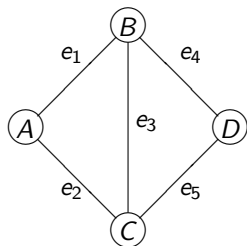


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- It follows that $P(T = X_{3:5}) = 3/5$.

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- Since it is not possible to connect 4 vertices with just 2 edges, connectivity will fail at or before the 3rd edge failure. Thus, $P(T = X_{4:5}) = 0$ and $P(T = X_{3:5}) = 4/5$.

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See Samaniego, F. J. (2007) *System Signatures and their Application in Engineering Reliability*, New York: Springer, for more details.

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- The “sp” ordering applies to discrete or continuous (X, Y) .
- For independent random variables X and Y , “ $X \leq_{st} Y$ ” implies “ $X \leq_{sp} Y$.”
- If network failure times T_1 and T_2 satisfy $T_1 <_{sp} T_2$, then $P(T_1 < T_2) > 0.5$, that is, the chances are that network 2 will last longer than network 1.

V. Comparing two $G(v, n)$ networks

When all edges work independently of each other and have a common probability p of working, the reliability of a network with n edges can be written as an n th degree polynomial. The reliability polynomial of the network can be expressed, in standard form, as

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Satyanarayana and Prabhakar (1978) provided an efficient technique for computing the “signed dominations” $\{d_r\}$ in the reliability polynomial.

The survival function of a network's lifetime T can be written as a function of \mathbf{s} and F . At a fixed time t_0 , where $P(X_j > t_0) = p$ for all j , this representation reduces to the reliability polynomial in “ pq -form,” where $q = 1 - p$:

$$\begin{aligned} h(p) &= \sum_{j=1}^n \left(\sum_{i=n-j+1}^n s_i \right) \binom{n}{j} p^j q^{n-j} \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^n a_j \binom{n}{j} p^j q^{n-j}, \end{aligned}$$

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where $a_j = \sum_{i=n-j+1}^n s_i$ for $j = 1, \dots, n$. The vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{s} are linearly related. We'll express this as $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{P}\mathbf{s}$, where

$$P_{uv} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } u + v \leq n \\ 1 & \text{if } u + v > n \end{cases}.$$

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$$(m_{i1}^*, \dots, m_{ii}^*, 0, \dots, 0) = \left(\underbrace{\frac{(i)_1}{(n)_1}, \frac{(i)_2}{(n)_2}, \dots, \frac{(i)_i}{(n)_i}}_{i \text{ slots}}, \underbrace{0, \dots, 0}_{n-i \text{ slots}} \right).$$

Expanding $q^{n-j} = (1 - p)^{n-j}$ by the binomial theorem, we may identify each domination d_i as a linear combination of the elements a_1, \dots, a_n . More specifically, we may write $\mathbf{d} = \mathbf{M}\mathbf{a}$, where

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} \binom{n}{1} \binom{n-1}{0} & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ -\binom{n}{1} \binom{n-1}{1} & \binom{n}{2} \binom{n-2}{0} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \binom{n}{1} \binom{n-1}{2} & -\binom{n}{2} \binom{n-2}{1} & \binom{n}{3} \binom{n-3}{0} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \pm \binom{n}{1} \binom{n-1}{n-1} & \mp \binom{n}{2} \binom{n-2}{n-2} & \pm \binom{n}{3} \binom{n-3}{n-3} & \cdots & \binom{n}{n} \binom{n-n}{n-n} \end{pmatrix}$$

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Since $\mathbf{d} = \mathbf{M}\mathbf{P}\mathbf{s}$, we may express the relationship of interest to us as

$$\mathbf{s} = \mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{M}^{-1}\mathbf{d}.$$

Theorem: (Boland, Samaniego and Vestrup, 2003) Let \mathbf{d} and \mathbf{s} denote the domination and signature vectors for a given network of order n . Then for $i = 1, \dots, n$, we have

$$s_i = \sum_{j=1}^{n-i} \frac{(n-i+1)_j - (n-i)_j}{(n)_j} d_j + \frac{(n-i+1)_{n-i+1}}{(n)_{n-i+1}} d_{n-i+1} .$$

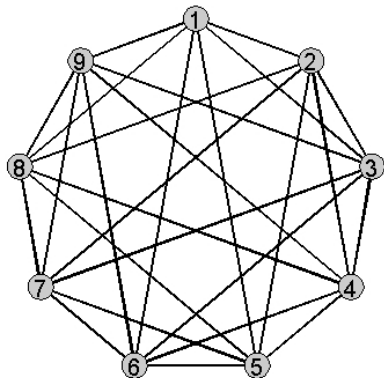
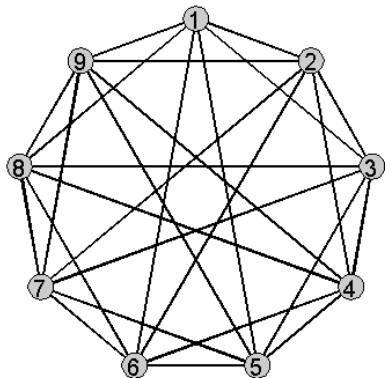
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Having the relationship $\mathbf{s} = f(\mathbf{d})$ in hand enables us to exploit both the computational advantages of dominations and the interpretive value of signatures.

Example: Consider the comparison between the two $G(9, 27)$ networks pictured below.

Networks G_1 and G_2



The reliability polynomials are displayed below:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbf{h}_{G_1}(\mathbf{p}) = & 419904p^{27} - 6021144p^{26} + 41705280p^{25} - 18489826p^{24} \\
 & + 586821717p^{23} - 1413876060p^{22} + 2677774329p^{21} \\
 & - 4074363810p^{20} + 5048856414p^{19} - 5135792742p^{18} \\
 & + 4303029693p^{17} - 2967712776p^{16} + 1676975886p^{15} \\
 & - 769265910p^{14} - 282176568p^{13} + 80853282p^{12} \\
 & + 17445456p^{11} - 2667060p^{10} + 257634p^9 - 11828p^8
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbf{h}_{G_2}(\mathbf{p}) = & 414720p^{27} - 5934288p^{26} + 41015964p^{25} - 181453380p^{24} \\
 & + 574666025p^{23} - 1381692972p^{22} + 2611463517p^{21} \\
 & - 3965536554p^{20} - 4904464002p^{19} + 4979513718p^{18} \\
 & + 4164454729p^{17} - 2867022480p^{16} + 1617256842p^{15} \\
 & - 740601350p^{14} - 271201476p^{13} + 77576922p^{12} \\
 & + 16709916p^{11} - 2550156p^{10} + 245898p^9 - 11268p^8
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The difference $\mathbf{h}_{G_1}(\mathbf{p}) - \mathbf{h}_{G_2}(\mathbf{p})$ is a 27th degree polynomial with alternating signs.

Table: Signature Tail Probabilities $S(x) = \sum_{i=x}^{27} s_i$
and Their Ratios

x	$S_{G_1}(x)$	$S_{G_2}(x)$	$S_{G_1}(x)/S_{G_2}(x)$
1	1.0	1.0	1.0
3	1.0	1.0	1.0
5	1.0	1.0	1.0
7	0.999970	0.999970	1.0
9	0.999149	0.999149	1.0
11	0.993612	0.993612	1.0
13	0.971744	0.971743	1.0000005
15	0.906907	0.906867	1.0000442
17	0.747317	0.746717	1.0008024
19	0.417560	0.415077	1.0059834
21	0.0	0.0	—
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots
27	0.0	0.0	—

From the second and third columns of this table, we see that $\mathbf{s}_{G_1}(x) \geq_{\text{st}} \mathbf{s}_{G_2}(x)$ for all x , an inequality that immediately implies that $h_{G_1}(p) \geq h_{G_2}(p)$ for $p \in (0, 1)$. Further, $\mathbf{s}_{G_1} \geq_{\text{hr}} \mathbf{s}_{G_2}$, a conclusion that is not possible to obtain from an analysis of the polynomials $h_{G_1}(p)$ and $h_{G_2}(p)$ alone. This additional fact establishes that G_1 is not only better than the network G_2 , it's actually better in quite a strong sense.

VI. The “Traditional” Approach to Identifying Uniformly Optimal Networks

The search for Uniformly Optimal Networks (UONs) among networks $G(v, n)$ of a given size includes work by Boesch, Li and Suffel (Networks, 1991), who, for example, identified the unique UON among networks in the $G(v, v - 1)$, $G(v, v)$, $G(v, v + 1)$ and $G(v, v + 2)$ classes. The UON in the $G(v, v + 3)$ class was later identified by Wang (1994).

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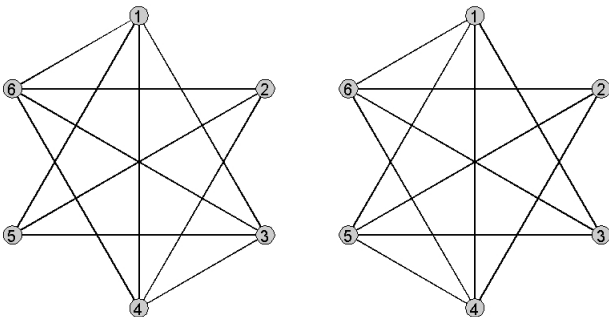
Letting $p = \bar{F}(t_0)$, where F is the *common lifetime distribution* of the network's edges, these investigators identified the network G^* (with lifetime T^*) which satisfies the inequality

$$P_{G^*}(T^* > t_0) = h_{G^*}(p) \geq h_G(p) = P_G(T > t_0) \quad \forall p \in [0, 1] \quad \text{and/or} \quad \forall t > t_0$$

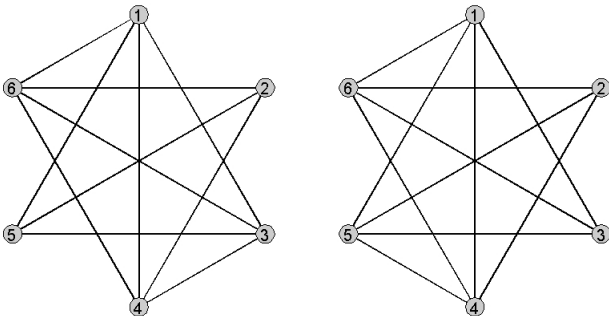
for any network G (with lifetime T) in the class of interest. (That is, $T \leq_{\text{st}} T^*$.)

Impossibility Theorems: Myrvold, Cheung, Page and Perry (Networks, 1991) showed that for some classes of networks, e.g., the class $G(v, \binom{v}{2} - \frac{v}{2} - 1)$ for any even $v \geq 6$, a *UON does not exist*. They proved the existence of a network in this class which dominated every other network in the class for p sufficiently large, but was inferior to an alternative network if p is suitably small.

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Networks G_8 and G_9 

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This paper all but squelched the vigorous research that had focused on the identification of UONs.

VII. Reversal of Fortune

Could it be that stochastic ordering is too strong a criterion to expect uniform optimality of a single member of a class $G(v, n)$? Consider the following empirical study of $G(6, 11)$ networks by McAssey and Samaniego.

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It is easy to verify that the $G(6, 11)$ class contains $\binom{15}{11} = 1365$ possible network designs. Suppose we are interested in all-terminal connectivity. When edges are independent with reliabilities p_i all equal to p , we can compute the signatures of each of these networks. One finds that there are precisely nine distinct signatures. These are shown in the following table.

Table: The Nine Possible Signatures of $G(6, 11)$ Networks.

s_1	=	(0.0909, 0.0909, 0.0909, 0.1061, 0.1407, 0.2100, 0.2706, 0, 0, 0, 0)
s_2	=	(0.0000, 0.0182, 0.0485, 0.0939, 0.1662, 0.2835, 0.3896, 0, 0, 0, 0)
s_3	=	(0.0000, 0.0182, 0.0424, 0.0848, 0.1619, 0.2922, 0.4004, 0, 0, 0, 0)
s_4	=	(0.0000, 0.0182, 0.0364, 0.0758, 0.1489, 0.2879, 0.4329, 0, 0, 0, 0)
s_5	=	(0.0000, 0.0000, 0.0242, 0.0788, 0.1697, 0.3117, 0.4156, 0, 0, 0, 0)
s_6	=	(0.0000, 0.0000, 0.0182, 0.0636, 0.1541, 0.3117, 0.4524, 0, 0, 0, 0)
s_7	=	(0.0000, 0.0000, 0.0182, 0.0606, 0.1485, 0.3052, 0.4675, 0, 0, 0, 0)
s_8	=	(0.0000, 0.0000, 0.0121, 0.0515, 0.1398, 0.3095, 0.4870, 0, 0, 0, 0)
s_9	=	(0.0000, 0.0000, 0.0121, 0.0485, 0.1385, 0.3160, 0.4848, 0, 0, 0, 0)

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Notes: Network G_8 has signature \mathbf{s}_8 and network G_9 has signature \mathbf{s}_9 . The signatures \mathbf{s}_8 and \mathbf{s}_9 are not comparable relative to stochastic ordering. There are many $G(6, 11)$ networks that are “isomorphic” to a given network with any one of the signatures above.

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$$\mathbf{S}_1 <_{\text{sp}} \mathbf{S}_2 <_{\text{sp}} \mathbf{S}_3 <_{\text{sp}} \mathbf{S}_4 <_{\text{sp}} \mathbf{S}_5 <_{\text{sp}} \mathbf{S}_6 <_{\text{sp}} \mathbf{S}_7 <_{\text{sp}} \mathbf{S}_8 <_{\text{sp}} \mathbf{S}_9$$

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2. Further, the following preservation result holds for all $G(6, 11)$ networks under stochastic precedence: if $\mathbf{s}_i \leq_{\text{sp}} \mathbf{s}_j$, then $T_i \leq_{\text{sp}} T_j$, where T_k represents the time of connectivity failure for network k , with $k = 1, \dots, 9$. The following comparisons show that the network G_9 is the Uniformly Optimal Network relative to the stochastic precedence ordering:

$$\begin{aligned} P(T_9 > T_8) &= 0.501, & P(T_9 > T_7) &= 0.510, & P(T_9 > T_6) &= 0.514 \\ P(T_9 > T_5) &= 0.528, & P(T_9 > T_4) &= 0.534, & P(T_9 > T_3) &= 0.546 \\ P(T_9 > T_2) &= 0.553, & P(T_9 > T_1) &= 0.659 \end{aligned}$$

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SO, THERE DOES EXIST A UNIFORMLY OPTIMAL NETWORK DESIGN AFTER ALL! IT'S CLEAR THAT THE CRITERION USED IN COMPARING NETWORKS MATTERS. BTW, THERE ARE 180 DISTINCT $G(6, 11)$ NETWORKS THAT HAVE SIGNATURE \mathbf{s}_9 .

VIII. Reliability Economics

Relative to the sp criterion, one is able to identify G_9 as the Universally Optimal Network within the $G(6, 11)$ class. This network, and those with the same signature, have the uniformly best performance among all $G(6, 11)$ networks.

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Now, suppose that network costs are taken into account. Consider the criterion function

$$m_r(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{c}) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i s_i / \left(\sum_{i=1}^n c_i s_i \right)^r,$$

where the vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{c} can be chosen arbitrarily within the context of two natural constraints: $0 < a_1 < \dots < a_n$ and $0 < c_1 < \dots < c_n$; the constant $r > 0$ is a calibration parameter that places more or less weight on costs depending on whether $r > 1$ or $r < 1$.

Again, taking

$$m_r(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{c}) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i s_i \Big/ \left(\sum_{i=1}^n c_i s_i \right)^r,$$

we note that when $a_i = EX_{i:n}$, the numerator of m is simply ET . The linear form of the denominator of m arises, for example, in the “salvage model” for a wired network which yields an expected cost of the network equal to

$$EC = \sum_{i=1}^n (C_f + n(A - B) + Bi) s_i,$$

where C_f is fixed cost of manufacturing the networks of interest, A is the cost of an individual edge and B is the salvage value of an edge that is used but working when the network fails.

Example 3. Suppose the lifetimes of edges in a $G(6, 11)$ network are i.i.d. exponential variables with mean life 100 hours. Taking $a_i = EX_{i:11}$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, 11$, we may calculate the vector \mathbf{a} as

a_1	a_2	a_3	a_4	a_5	a_6	a_7	a_8	a_9	a_{10}	a_{11}
9.1	19.1	30.2	42.7	57.0	73.7	93.7	118.7	152.0	202.0	302.0

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$$m(\mathbf{s}) = m_2(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{c}) = \sum_{i=1}^{11} a_i s_i \bigg/ \left(\sum_{i=1}^{11} c_i s_i \right)^2,$$

and we obtain the following results for the criterion function m for the 9 distinct signatures of $G(6, 11)$ networks:

$m(\mathbf{s}_1)$	$m(\mathbf{s}_2)$	$m(\mathbf{s}_3)$	$m(\mathbf{s}_4)$	$m(\mathbf{s}_5)$	$m(\mathbf{s}_6)$	$m(\mathbf{s}_7)$	$m(\mathbf{s}_8)$	$m(\mathbf{s}_9)$
5.034	4.757	4.748	4.740	4.710	4.698	4.697	4.687	4.686

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5.034	4.757	4.748	4.740	4.710	4.698	4.697	4.687	4.686

From this, we see that any $G(6, 11)$ network with signature \mathbf{s}_1 is optimal on the basis of this performance vs. cost analysis, with $r = 2$.

Given the same criterion function with $c_i = U + V i$ and a_i as above, we varied r from 1 to 10, and for each r we varied both U and V independently from 1 to 100. At each pair (U, V) we evaluated the criterion function for each of the nine signatures, and noted which signature produces the maximum. For each r , the relative frequency distribution for the optimal signature over the grid of (U, V) pairs is shown below.

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When $r = 1$, signature 9 is optimal at all 10,000 pairs (U, V) . For $r > 1$, optimality is distributed among signatures 1, 4, 8 and 9 over the grid, with signature 1 dominating:

Relative frequency of optimality				
r	S_1	S_4	S_8	S_9
1	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	1.0000
2	0.8718	0.0000	0.0353	0.0929
3	0.9450	0.0015	0.0118	0.0417
4	0.9657	0.0019	0.0069	0.0255
5	0.9761	0.0013	0.0046	0.0180
6	0.9820	0.0012	0.0033	0.0135
7	0.9859	0.0009	0.0032	0.0100
8	0.9887	0.0011	0.0019	0.0083
9	0.9906	0.0008	0.0019	0.0067
10	0.9921	0.0008	0.0021	0.0050

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1. For fixed but arbitrary v and n , and any specific connectivity goal (from 2-terminal connectivity to all-terminal connectivity), does there exist a Uniformly Optimal Network (UON) in the $G(v, n)$ class under the stochastic precedence ordering?

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3. What network designs offer scalable, secure, reliable communications under specific budgetary constraints? What are the advantages and disadvantages of modular designs? Can optimal designs be identified under various design constraints?