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# Benchmarking Virtual Network Mapping Algorithms

Jin Zhu

*University of Massachusetts Amherst*

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VNMBENCH: A BENCHMARK FOR VIRTUAL  
NETWORK MAPPING ALGORITHMS

A Thesis Presented

by

JIN ZHU

Submitted to the Graduate School of the  
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September 2012

Electrical and Computer Engineering

# VNMBENCH: A BENCHMARK FOR VIRTUAL NETWORK MAPPING ALGORITHMS

A Thesis Presented

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JIN ZHU

Approved as to style and content by:

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Tilman Wolf, Chair

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Weibo Gong, Member

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Aura Ganz, Member

---

C.V.Hollot, Department Head  
Electrical and Computer Engineering

**ABSTRACT**  
**VNMBENCH: A BENCHMARK FOR VIRTUAL NETWORK MAPPING**  
**ALGORITHMS**

September 2012

Jin Zhu

B.E, NANJING UNIVERSITY OF POSTS AND TELECOMMUNICATIONS

M.S, UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS AMHERST

Directed by: Professor Tilman Wolf

The network architecture of the current Internet cannot accommodate the deployment of novel network-layer protocols. To address this fundamental problem, network virtualization has been proposed, where a single physical infrastructure is shared among different virtual network slices. A key operational problem in network virtualization is the need to allocate physical node and link resources to virtual network requests. While several different virtual network mapping algorithms have been proposed in literature, it is difficult to compare their performance due to differences in the evaluation methods used. In this thesis work, we proposed VNMBench, a virtual network mapping benchmark that provides a set of standardized inputs and evaluation metrics. Using this benchmark, different algorithms can be evaluated and compared objectively. The benchmark model separate into two parts: static model and dynamic model, which operated in fixed and changed mapping process. We present such an evaluation using three existing virtual network mapping algorithms. We compare the evaluation results of our synthetic benchmark with those of actual Emulab requests to show that VNMBench is sufficiently realistic. We believe this work provides an important foundation to quantitatively evaluating the performance of a critical component in the operation of virtual networks.

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# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Network Virtualization and Benchmark

As the Internet has grown to a global communication infrastructure that connects large numbers of diverse distributed applications, new requirements for functionality and performance have emerged. These requirements include security (e.g., protection against address spoofing), diverse communication paradigms (e.g., content-addressable networks), and quality of service (e.g., performance guarantees for streaming media).

The current Internet architecture cannot accommodate these requirements since the Internet Protocol (IP), which is used by all systems in the Internet, cannot be changed without creating incompatibilities [10]. While some shortcomings of IP can be addressed by middle-boxes [16], such as firewalls [22] or network address translators [13], they do not provide a general solution that can adapt to fundamentally different network layer protocols, such as content-addressable networking [17].

An alternative network architecture that provides fundamental flexibility in the protocols that are deployed, including the network layer protocol, is network virtualization [2], [27]. In network virtualization, a single physical infrastructure is shared among multiple virtual network slices (similar to how operating system virtualization allows multiple different operating systems to share a single computer). Network virtualization supports multiple coexisting heterogeneous network architecture from different service providers with independent applications or protocols, called Virtual Networks (abbreviates as VN) sharing a common physical substrate managed by

multiple infrastructure providers, called Substrate Network (abbreviates as SN) [6]. Through decoupling service providers from infrastructure providers, network virtualization introduces flexibility for innovation and change.

Figure 1.1 gives the model of virtual network mapping. In the SN (the gray network in the Figure 1.1), nodes are representative of the basic network infrastructure, such as routers and hosts, which are interconnected by physical links. VN (the red network in the Figure 1.1) is a group of *virtual nodes* (such as virtual routers) that are hosted on different substrate nodes and interconnected by dedicated *virtual links* over a substrate network. Multiple virtual networks may share the same underlying substrate network resources. The substrate nodes have distributed fixed resources such as CPU and substrate links have bandwidth resources. Each VN request has also resource constraints, such as processing resources on the nodes and bandwidth resources on the links, sometimes we even consider the additional constraints such as node location or link propagation delay. When there is a VN request needs to process, the service providers are responsible to form the substrate network into a slide, to satisfy the requests embedding.

A key challenge in operating virtual networks is the problem of assigning logical nodes and links to physical resources. Specifically, mapping a new VN, with constraints on the virtual nodes and links, on to specific physical nodes and links in the SN. This virtual network mapping problem has received considerable attention in recent years [7, 14, 34, 40] because it is a NP hard multi-way separator problem[1], even if all the VN requests are known in advance, and because improvements in the quality of mapping algorithm can significantly improve how many virtual networks can be accommodated in an infrastructure and reduce the consuming time.

Despite the attention focused on the virtual network mapping problem, it is still difficult to judge how well different algorithms perform under realistic operational conditions. Every proposed virtual network mapping algorithm has the specific metrics

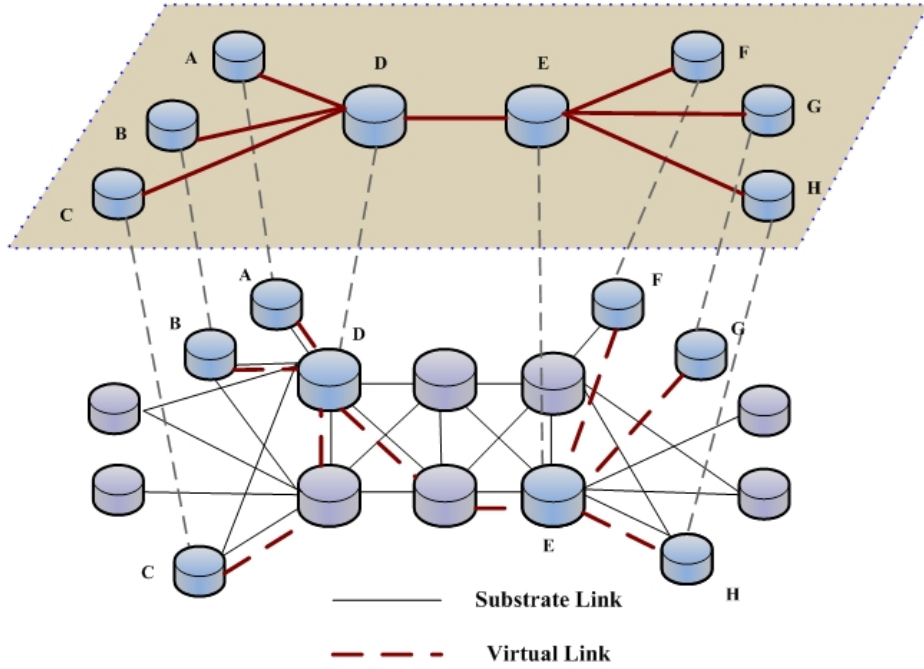


Figure 1.1: The configuration of Virtual Network Mapping Problem

with SN and VN. Some performance settings use small size of SN (amount of nodes around 50) with a high node degree (more than 10) [34]; some set the nodes restriction of CPU and link restriction of bandwidth in VN, however others use distance-based constraints instead [18]; some algorithms consider the different distribution of edges in the VN and the effect of "alive" time of VN requests in the requirement [25]. So how to use a benchmark to fair judge the performance of diversity mapping algorithms becomes a significant key in the network virtualization. Perhaps one algorithm may perform better for a particular scenario, but might have much less success mappings when there is a small change in the setting of environment.

## 1.2 Objectives

The primary objective of this thesis project is to provide a benchmark to make a quantitative comparison between competing mapping algorithms. Important cri-

teria of this benchmark are that the inputs (i.e., the virtual network substrate and the virtual network requests) are representative of what would be encountered in a real virtual network system, and the selected metrics used to judge the algorithms could be representative of the main and important performance in the virtual network mapping problems. In order to illustrate the benchmark is sufficiently realistic, it also needs to compare the evaluation results of synthetic benchmark with the actual requests.

### 1.3 Contributions

1. Design of a benchmark, VNMBench, for evaluating virtual network mapping algorithms. The benchmark consists of a variety of substrate network configurations and virtual network requests and of a set of evaluation metrics that are meaningful in this context.
2. Discussion of the representativeness of VNMBench (i.e., why the specific inputs used by the benchmark can be considered typical for a virtual network mapping environment).
3. Evaluation of three existing virtual network mapping algorithms using VNMBench. The results demonstrate the types of quantitative results that can be obtained for determining the performance of any given virtual network mapping algorithm.
4. Comparison of mapping results obtained from VNMBench with results obtained from real network virtualization environment (i.e., Emulab[32]). The comparison results show that the synthetic VNMBench requests lead to similar mapping results, thus showing that VNMBench generates a representative workload



5. Separate the VNMBench model into two kinds: static model and dynamic model. Evaluate the performance of different mapping algorithms in situation of fixed virtual requests duration time and changed virtual requests duration time.

## 1.4 Thesis Organization

The remainder of thesis is organized as follows: Chapter 2 presents the background on network virtualization and the related work in the benchmark creation. Chapter 3 introduces the VNMBench model in detail, separate into static model and dynamic model, including the method of topology generation and classification of substrate network and virtual network requests. The existing three main VN mapping algorithms are presented in the Chapter 4, we introduce the basic mathematical conceptions and process of these algorithms. In Chapter 5, we present the evaluation results by VNMBench to make a comparison between three mapping algorithms in static VNMBench model and dynamic static VNMBench model. The conclusion of our benchmark is showed in Chapter 6.

## CHAPTER 2

### RELATED WORK

In this chapter, we first introduce the general conception of the network virtualization system, points out three mainly requirements for modern virtual network system. The realistic and accurate of network model, which could representative of the real network, play a significant role on the research of many domains. From the pure random methods to the hierarchical methods, researchers aim at finding the best model for the constantly changing network. Different mapping algorithms using diversity evaluate environment and metrics to illustrate the performance of the mapping results. At last, we list some typical benchmark used in the existed algorithms.

#### 2.1 Network Virtualization System

In this section, we provide an exposition of the diversified Internet concept, the solution to address the problem of the network ossification and the challenges.

The Internet plays a significant role in global commerce, media and defense, which also becomes a critical infrastructure in the wide range of applications. However, the ever-expanding scope and scale usage of the Internet also make it suffer from the adverse effects of inertia. On the one hand, the existence of multiple stakeholders with conflicting goals and policies creates a barrier to the deployment of new, radically different technology. On the other hand, the end-to-end design of IP requires coordination and the holistic agreement to deploy changes. At the same time, Internet Service Providers (ISPs) lack of incentive to change their fixed patterns and models due to their predominant role in the Internet works. All these reasons make the In-

ternet architecture suffer from the ossification, it is difficult to support diversity types of applications such as global video conferencing, telephony and broadcast television. Without supporting the diversity application impose a significant barrier of Internet to innovation.

Thus, new requirements for functionality and performance have emerged. Some of the examples as follows:

1. Security: With the increasing importance of the Internet, the network security also plays a dominant role in the technologically advanced world. Guarantee the authenticity of data and messages, protect systems from network-based attacks and address spoofing, prevent the attack of the viruses, hackers and electronic fraud are the significant fundamental element to approve the normal operation of the Internet.
2. Diverse Communication Paradigm: Such as the Content Addressable Network (CAN)[23], which is a distributed infrastructure that provides hash table-like functionality on Internet-like scales. It is a scalable peer-to-peer file distribution system used in small and large scale storage management, which could considered as a end-system virtualization.
3. Quality Of Service (QoS): QoS describes the performance of the applications or traffic in the Internet. It includes the service differentiation and performance assurance. Performance assurance for the Internet application such as streaming media mainly including the bandwidth, loss of packets, delay. Service differentiation is mainly about the IP address, port number and protocol.

Thus, with the proposal of the virtualization, it opens the opportunity for the evolution path to the future Internet by deploying the different architectures and protocols over a shared physical infrastructure, also could extenuate the ossifying forces of the current Internet and stimulate innovation. The concept of the multiple

co-existing networks is not the new technique, current Internet infrastructure has already supported or potential to support a basic form of the network virtualization in some parts. Such as T-Mobile UK and 3UK share network sites [15], VLAN(Virtual Local Area Network) and MPLS(Multipreprotocol Label switching) are all the examples of the exist virtualization inside the network. A virtual private network, known as VPN, which could connect multiple distributed sites shared a common physical infrastructure, is a specific virtual networks. But it is restricted that all virtual networks are based on the same technology and protocol stack. Today the network virtualization make a further step to achieve the independent programmability of the virtual networks and want to handle multi-provider scenarios and hide the specificities of the network infrastructure.[3], not just an illusory isolation, as provided by VPNs.

## 2.2 Current Models for Internet Structure

After having a historical perspective of the network virtualization, the important part of designing the benchmark is the usage of the network topology generators to generate realistic topologies. There are many examples to illustrate the significant of the network model. Doar et al.[12] use the hierarchically structure graphs will decrease around twice of inefficiency in their dynamic multicasting algorithms than use the random graphs. Wei et al.[31] the traffic concentration is around 30% lower in the shortest-path trees than the core-based trees., so the multiscale structure of the Internet is fundamental to many network research problems.

But with the enormous smaller networks with potentially relevant distinctive properties and shortage of the shared topology information of network owners and operators, it is impossible to have a direct inspection of the network, and assess the characterize and essential of network structure. Different empirical and theoretic approaches have developed by experimentalists and researchers. There are also many

methods to exploit phenomenological and graph-theoretic descriptions of large-scale network structure and evaluate the ability of synthetic topology generators [4], [33].

The fundamental and popular topology generator to be used in the network simulation was the Waxman model [28], after inspecting into the real networks, we could find that they are clearly not random but do exhibit certain obvious hierarchical features. One of the standard topology generator is the Georgia Tech Internetwork Topology Models(GT-ITM). A key point of the network connectivity should be considerable attention is the heavy-tailed distributions in the node degree. In our work, we choose to use GT-ITM tool to generate the substrate network and virtual network requests.

### 2.3 Current Exist Mapping Algorithms

There are many mapping algorithms proposed to solve the virtual network mapping problem. Make efficient use of the substrate network, take the least time, increase the amount of successful mapping are primary objectives of the mapping algorithms. However, some challenges still exist for the mapping problem: First, node and link constraints, which include the processing resources on the nodes, bandwidth resources on the links, node location and link delay. Second, online requests, to be practical, the arrival of virtual requests are based on a distribution rather than arrive at once in a large collection. In additional, the duration time of requests are infinite, so the mapped requests will stay in the substrate network all the time, or the duration time of requests are limited, so they will be removed from substrate network when duration time expired. Third, the diverse topologies of the network, how to simulate a real network topology and what kind of method to be used are key points in this challenge.

A survey of network virtualization and virtual network mapping algorithms is given in [6]. Some algorithms assume that the substrate network resources are un-

limited and restrict to allocating topologies to the substrate network, such as Fan and Ammar [14]. To propose a solution for determining dynamic topology reconfiguration, Zhu et al. [40] calculate the whole mapping periodically. Lu et al. [18] make a termination constraints, distance constraints and pairwise traffic constraints for the link and ignore the node constraints. It only uses a backbone star topology for the offline requests process. Yu et al. [34] (GMCF) consider to use the general and spoke topology as well as tree topology for the network model. They propose the greedy heuristic for node mapping and multicommodity flow algorithm for the link mapping, also process the online requests. Chowdhury et al.[8] (Dvine) supports the path splitting and consider the online requests. The algorithm are separated into two stages, and also uses the multicommodity flow algorithm for solving the link mapping problem and integer program for the node mapping. Lischka et al.[20] combine the two stages into one stage, and use the backtracking algorithm to solve the subgraph isomorphism problem. The details of the algorithms GMCF, Dvine and VnmFlib will be introduced in Chapter 4. The following table 2.1 lists the conditions and parameters of different mapping algorithms.

Comparing evaluation results between published results is difficult because different evaluation environments are used. Yu et al. [34] use a substrate network with 100 nodes and 500 links in a  $100 \times 100$  grid, virtual network requests nodes with uniform distribution between 2 and 10, and CPU and link data rates with uniform distribution between 0 to 100 units. However, Chowdhury et al. [8] use a 50-node substrate network in a  $25 \times 25$  grid, CPU requirements uniformly distributed from 0 to 20, and bandwidth resources uniformly distributed between 50 and 100. These differences affect the results since parameters settings have an important effect on the mapping result. Some mapping algorithms are more suitable for small networks with a high node degree, some algorithms have a better performance in large and sparse networks. The benchmark we develop in this paper can help in providing the

basis for fair and effective comparison of algorithms and to evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of different approaches.

Table 2.1: Parameters Comparison on Virtual Network Mapping Algorithms

Algorithm	Mapping Method	Link Constraints	Nodes Constraints	Online Process	Request Specification	Optimization Objective
Zhu et al. [40]	greedy; heuristic	bandwidth	CPU	online	general topology	achieve low & balanced load
Lu et al. [18]	integer program	termination; pairwise; traffic distance	none	offline	backbone star topology	average cost
Yu et al. [34] (GMCF)	greedy heuristic; MCF	bandwidth propagation delay	CPU location	online	hub-spoke tree	revenue
Chowdhury et al. [8](Dvine)	MCF; integer program	bandwidth	CPU location	online	general topology	average acceptance ratio; provision cost;
Lischka [20] (VnmFlib)	back-tracking	bandwidth	CPU	online	general topology	revenue; cost load; balancing

## CHAPTER 3

### VNMBENCH

The benchmark we develop in the work consists of two components: (1) input sets for virtual network mapping algorithms and (2) metrics for evaluating the outputs of virtual network mapping algorithms. The inputs consist of a variety of different scenarios that cover typical virtual network mapping uses. The metrics evaluate the performance of virtual network mapping results in terms of the quality of the mapping that was achieved and the running time. The following describes the general operation of the benchmark, the various input parameter settings and metrics.

The benchmark provides parameters for generating two types of inputs: (1) one substrate network, which represents the physical infrastructure on which virtual networks are mapped, and (2) multiple virtual network requests, which need to be mapped onto the substrate network. Both links and nodes have constraints associated with them. Substrate links provide a limited amount of bandwidth; substrate nodes provide a limited amount of processing. Request nodes are constrained in their location and require processing resources. Paths between mapped request nodes require network bandwidth [35]. The mapping algorithms determine the placement of request nodes and paths while avoiding resource conflicts in the substrate.

When multiple requests need to be mapped to a substrate, there are several different ways of handling mapping operation: multiple requests could be mapped one after another or at the same time; in case of incremental mappings, prior mappings can be considered fixed or can be changed (e.g., in order to make scarce resources available to later mapping requests); once multiple mappings have completed, additional



mappings can be performed either until the substrate is full or prior mappings can be removed as they expire. Clearly, these differences in operation have a considerable impact on the results obtained from an evaluation of mapping algorithms.

In our work, we separate the VNMBench model into two kinds: *static VNMBench model* and *dynamic VNMBench model*. The virtual network requests are fixed and will occupy the substrate network resource permanently after successful mapping in the static model. In the dynamic model, every request has a lifetime and will remove from the substrate network when lifetime expired. We will introduce the topology generation, parameter settings of each model in this chapter.

## 3.1 Static VNMBench Model

### 3.1.1 Operation of Benchmark

In the static model, we aim to stress-test the algorithms under considerations. Therefore, we choose (what we call *online*) operation, where virtual network requests are mapped successively onto a substrate without ever removing (or changing) a mapping that has been completed. With every successful mapping of a virtual network request, the remaining substrate resources become increasingly sparse. Therefore, finding mapping solutions becomes increasingly difficult. In case a virtual network request cannot be accommodated, it is considered a failed mapping attempt and the next virtual network request is processed. The mapping process continues for a specified number of requests (in our case 1000). After all virtual network requests have been processed, the number of successful mappings and other metrics are determined.

It is important to note that VNMBench can be used for any type of operation since the input sets and (to some extent) the metrics are agnostic of the specific operation. Thus, VNMBench users can adapt the benchmark for their specific use. In the next section, we will introduce the *Dynamic VNMBench Model*.

### 3.1.2 Benchmark Inputs

In both static and dynamic VNMBench model, the inputs for the virtual network mapping algorithm are a substrate network and multiple virtual network requests. We model the substrate network as a weighted undirected graph denoted by  $G^S = (N^S, E^S)$ , where  $N^S$  is the set of the substrate nodes and  $E^S$  is the set of the substrate links. Each substrate node  $n_i^S \in N^S$  has an associated processing capacity denoted by  $c(n_i^S)$ . Each substrate link  $e_i^S(u, v) \in E^S$  between two substrate nodes  $u$  and  $v$  is associated with the bandwidth capacity value  $b(e_i^S(u, v))$ . We set  $\lambda(u, v)$  denote the length of  $e_i^S(u, v)$  between two substrate nodes  $u$  and  $v$ .

A virtual network request is defined by a weighted undirected graph  $G^V = (N^V, E^V)$ , where  $N^V$  is the set of the virtual nodes and  $E^V$  is the set of the virtual links. The processing resource requested by a virtual network node  $n_i^V \in N^V$  is denoted by  $c(n_i^V)$ , for each virtual link  $e_i^V(u, v) \in E^V$  also has the bandwidth capacity  $b(e_i^V(u, v))$ .

The virtual network requests are divided into three sizes: small requests have 5 nodes, medium requests have 10 nodes, and large requests have 20 nodes. The processing resources of all requests are uniformly distributed (between 0 and 20) and link bandwidth requests are also uniformly distributed (between 0 and 30). A total of 1,000 virtual network requests is generated for each run of the benchmark.

#### 3.1.2.1 Topology Generation

Due to the explosive growth and diversity changing of networking, networks are difficult to be modeled by a simple graph. A key challenge in VNMBench is to determine how to generate representative topologies for the network substrate and the virtual network requests. In general, networks are difficult to model. The standard approach is to generate the a graph such that the key metrics match with those of typical networks. There are mainly three kinds of methods to generate the graph, flat random topologies, regular topologies, and hierarchical topologies.

The flat random method connects the set of nodes with a specific probability by edges. It can control the number of edges of the graph by changing the probability of connection of random nodes, but cannot control the configuration of the edges. It is more suitable to generate small graphs because it may have high node degree when generating large graphs [39], which is not typical for the Internet. Since the Internet can be viewed as a collection of interconnected routing domains [9], the Trans-Stub method generate large graphs efficiently with a realistic average node degree [39]. Therefore, we choose this method to generate our substrate network. For the edge method, we use the improved Waxman method [21] (rather than the pure random method or exponential method, which are more likely to have long edges).

To generate substrate and request topologies in VNMBench, we use the GT-ITM tool [38]. For the substrate network, we use the Trans-Stub topology generation method [39] and for virtual network requests, we use the Waxman method.

### 3.1.2.2 Substrate Network

In VNMBench, a topology generator that uses certain settings generates substrate network and virtual request topologies randomly. To provide some control over the topology, we fix the topology and size of the substrate network and the corresponding processing resources and link bandwidth. To explore a range of network configurations, we consider two substrate network sizes: medium size with 100 nodes and large size with 500 nodes. Each substrate size is further separated by the distinction of link density: dense substrate network has approximated two times the number of links of the sparse substrate network.

We choose to use two different sizes of the substrate network in our benchmark because real networks there are medium size networks (e.g., corporate or campus network) and large size networks (e.g., national network). We set the two sizes to differ by a factor of 5 in the number nodes. In VNMBench, the medium substrate networks

number of nodes is 100 and node placement is random within a (100×100) grid. In the large substrate network, there are 500 nodes and placed within a (200×200) grid.

The density of the links in the network plays an important role in the virtual network requests mapping, because it is easier for mapping algorithms to find suitable substrate nodes and links in the dense style, but more difficult to solve the mapping problems when the network is sparse. In VNMBench, the sparse substrate network has 129 links and the dense substrate network has 255 links in the medium size, and 639 links and 1294 links, respectively, in the large size.

In order to create a realistic network, we fix the node degree of sparse substrate network around 2.5 and dense substrate network around 5.1, which are close to the realistic average node degrees 6 [39]. When the node number is 100 in sparse style, the graph has 2 transit domains, each transit domain has an average of 2 nodes, 4 stub domains per transit node, and no extra transit-stub or stub-stub edges. Each stub domain also has 6 nodes on average. According to the formula of the average node degree of the transit stub graph, we can calculate the node degree of two kinds substrate networks:

$$ND = \frac{2(E_t + (1 + E_s N_s)K)}{1 + KN_s} \quad (3.1)$$

where the  $E_t$  and  $E_s$  are the edge densities of the transit and stub domains, respectively.  $N_s$  is the average nodes per stub domain,  $K$  is the average stub domains per transit node. The average node degree is approximately 2.58. In the dense style, there are 50 extra transit-stub links or stub-stub links and node degree is approximately 5.10.

The same as the large substrate network setting, the specific parameters as showed in the table 3.1 .

### 3.1.2.3 Virtual Network Requests

We separate the Virtual Network Requests into three size, 5 nodes, 10 nodes and 20 nodes. generated by the Waxman method. In the Waxman model, the probability of edges connected pairs of nodes  $u$  and  $v$  is based on the Euclidean distance between them,

$$P(u, v) = \alpha e^{-\frac{d(u,v)}{\beta L}} \quad (3.2)$$

where  $d(u, v)$  is the distance from node  $u$  to node  $v$ ,  $\alpha > 0, \beta \leq 1, L$  is the maximum distance between any two edges. Parameter  $\alpha$  increases the number of edges in the graph, and parameter  $\beta$  increases the ratio of long edges to short edges [29]. In our benchmark, we set the  $\alpha$  is in the range from 0.3 to 0.8 and  $\beta$  from 0.15 to 0.25. Thus, for every virtual network request, the node degree is in the range of 2.5 to 5, which is typical of actual network.

### 3.1.2.4 Parameter Settings

The VNMBench parameters are summarized Table 3.1 and 3.2. Figure 3.1 is the examples of virtual network requests topology separately in 5 nodes, 10 nodes and 20 nodes.

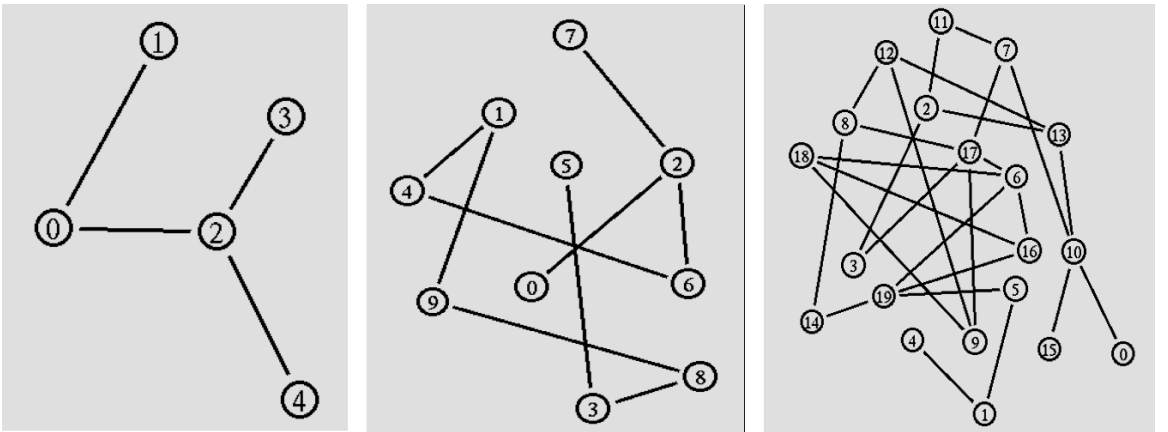


Figure 3.1: The Virtual Network Requests Topology Examples

Table 3.1: Parameters of Substrate Network Topology Generator

	Medium Size		Large Size	
	Sparse	Dense	Sparse	Dense
Number of nodes	100	100	500	500
Number of links	129	255	639	1294
Node Degree	2.58	5.10	2.55	5.17
Scale	100×100	100×100	200×200	200×200
Transit domains	2	2	2	2
Nodes per transit	2	2	5	5
Stubs per transit node	4	4	7	7
Nodes per sub	6	6	7	7
Extra links	0	50	0	250

Table 3.2: Parameters of Virtual Network Requests Topology Generator

	Small	Medium	Large
Number of nodes	5	10	20
Number of links	[4,6]	[9,15]	[19,47]
Edge method	Waxman		
Processing Resource	uniform distribution (0,20)		
Bandwidth Resource	uniform distribution (0,30)		
Range of $\alpha$	[0.3,0.8]		
Range of $\beta$	[0.15,0.25]		

## 3.2 Dynamic VNMBench Model

### 3.2.1 Operation of Benchmark

In the dynamic VNMBench model, we focus on the dynamic mapping capacity of each algorithm. We also choose the online operation, the embedding algorithm must handle VN requests as they arrive, rather than handling a large collection of requests at once. However, the virtual network requests arrive dynamically and stay in the substrate network for an arbitrary period of time before departing if they mapping

successfully. The model has many applications in the real life, such as a researcher may start a new experiment at any time, to run for some duration based on the needs of the experiment. Similarly, a service provider may deploy a new service at any time, and continue supporting the service indefinitely, possibly discontinuing the service when it is no longer profitable. If the users occupy the resources of substrate network even through they don't use them anymore, it will decrease the flexibility and utilization of substrate network. Therefore, the substrate resources will be released when the mapped virtual network requests expired the lifetime and departed, this situation offer more opportunities and resources for the following virtual requests, and also improve the utilization of substrate network resources.

The "dynamic" mainly reflected in two respects in this model: one is the VN requests arrival rate  $\lambda$ , the other is the duration time of VN requests in the substrate network. In order to better compute the average amount of VN requests stayed in the substrate network, we fix the requests arrival rate to  $1/sec$ , and set the lifetime as exponential distribution with average duration time  $N$ . According to the Little's Law, the long-term average number of requests in a stable system  $E$  is equal to the long-term average effective arrival rate  $\lambda$ , multiplied by the average time a request spends in the substrate network  $N$ ., which is entirely independent of any of the probability distributions involved.

$$E = \lambda \cdot N \tag{3.3}$$

In our work, we choose the different value of average duration time of VN requests in each situation. When the average number of active VN requests in the substrate network is small, most mapping algorithms could handle the arriving requests successfully, so it is difficult to compare and evaluate the performance of them. With the increasing of the average duration time of VN requests, the average amount of active VN requests is rising. It is more difficult for algorithms to handle the VN requests, so the divergence of performance in processing the VN requests and amount

of successful mappings will be more obvious in various algorithms. In addition, in order to observe the algorithms performance in the steady state, we choose to use the varied total number of requests rather than fixed 1000 in the static VNMBench model. When the average duration time is only 50 unit time, every mapping algorithm only needs to process 1000 requests, because the number of active VN requests tend to in the steady stage around 50 after 300 mapping iteration. However, when the average duration time is increasing to 1000 unit time, we need to set the total number of mapping iteration as 5000.

### 3.2.2 Parameter Settings

The average duration time of requests settings are summarized in Table 3.3. We choose different range for medium size network and large size network. From the experiment results of static VNMBench model, we could find the larger size of substrate network, the more VN requests could be mapped successfully. So we need to choose the suitable amount of average number of requests in order to observe the variation trend of different mapping algorithms.

We set the virtual requests arrival rate as  $1/sec$ , and the duration time as the exponential distribution with average number  $N$ . Figure 3.2 shows the cumulative distribution function of typical average lifetime of requests.



Table 3.3: Average Duration Time of Requests Setting in Different Situation

VN requests	SN:100 nodes		SN: 500 nodes	
	Sparse(link:129)	Dense(link:255)	Sparse(link:639)	Dense(link:1294)
5 nodes	50, 100, 150	50, 100, 150	200, 300, 400	200, 300, 400
	200, 300, 350	200, 300, 400	500, 600, 700	500, 600, 700
	400, 450, 500	450, 500, 600	800, 900	800, 900
	600, 800, 1100	800, 900, 1100	1000, 1100	1000, 1100
10 nodes	50, 100, 150	50, 100, 200	50, 100, 200	50, 100, 200
	200, 250, 300	250, 300, 400	300, 400, 500	300, 400, 500
	400, 500	500, 600, 700	600, 700	600, 700
	700, 800	800, 1000	800, 900	800, 900
20 nodes	5, 10, 20	50, 100, 150	100, 200	100, 200
	30, 40, 50	200, 250, 300	300, 400	300, 400
	60, 100	350, 450	500, 600	500, 600

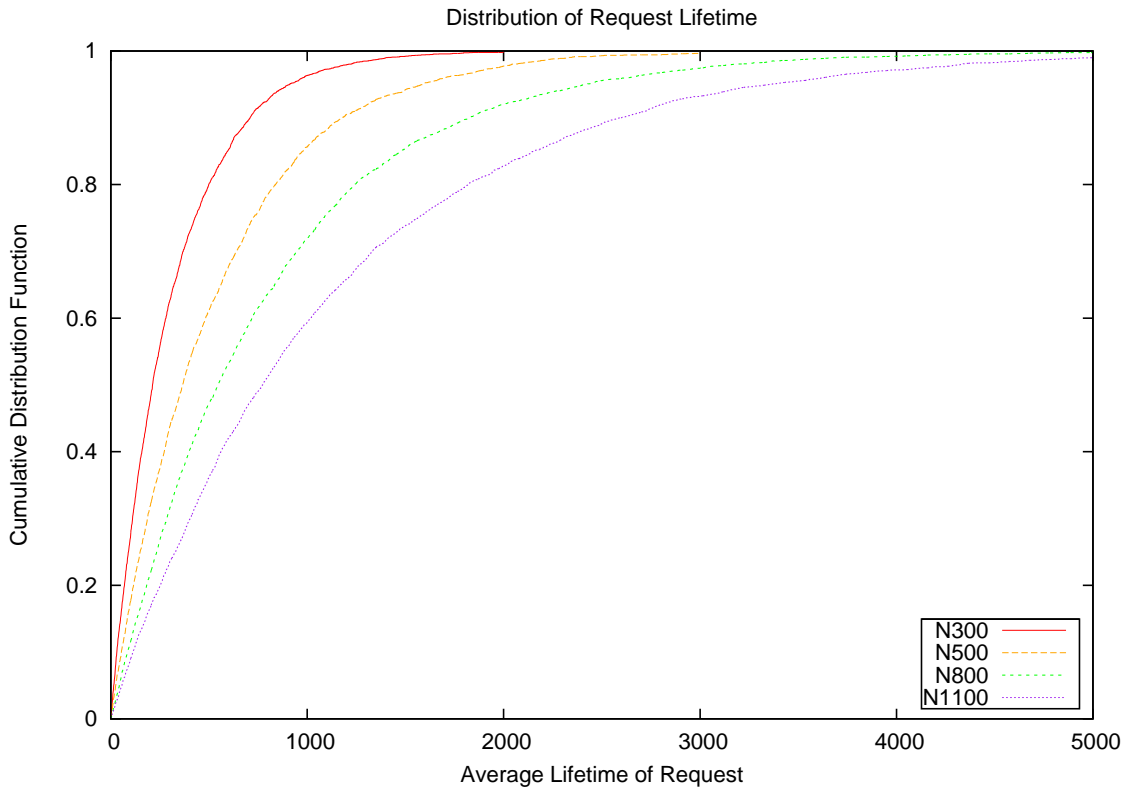


Figure 3.2: LifeTime Distribution of Virtual Requests

### 3.3 Related Methodology Conceptions

#### 3.3.1 Transit-Stub Topology Generator

There are mainly three kinds of the topology generation methods: the first is the flat random graph method, which is a group of nodes distribute randomly in the plane and add the edges probabilistically in these vertices, such as the Waxman method. The second is the hierarchical method, which extends the topology based on the original smaller network components. It mainly contains N-level method and transit-stub method. The third is the degree-based method, which focus on generating the network with the power-law degree distributions [5].

In our work, we choose to use the transit-stub topology method to model the real word Internet topology. For the random graph method, it is insensitive to the edge length between nodes and adds the edges in the topology without control for the length. The random graph method prefer generating the longer edges, so leading to the longer paths in terms of Euclidean distance and much higher node degree than the realistic average amount. For the power-law degree distribution topology generation, it mainly emphasis the degree and degree-rank exponents in the topology and solely on how well the nodes degree distribution fit the real Internet topology [26]. It is more suitable to resemble the large Internet scale. In our work, we generate the small Internet topology with 20 nodes in the virtual network requests, 100 and 500 nodes in the substrate network. So, we choose the transit-stub topology method to generate the topology model.

The transit-stub topology method is one of the hierarchical methods of the network topology generators, it contains two domains in the topology: transit domain and stub domain [37]. The method to generate the model is as following: first, it generates a connected stochastic graph as the transit domain, every node in the transit domain representative of an entire transit domain. Then, for each node in the transit domain, it is replaced by another connected random graphs representing the stub domains.

At last, add the additional edges interconnected between the transit domain and stub domain or two stub domains. The Figure 3.3 is an example of transit-stub topology. This method avoid the shortage of the high node degree appeared when the scale of the Internet is increasing and could also control the detail edges connection in the topology. In generating the topology, we could set the parameters in both the transit domain and stub domain, including the average amount of the transit domain, the average number of stub domains in transit node and the average number of nodes in the stub domain.

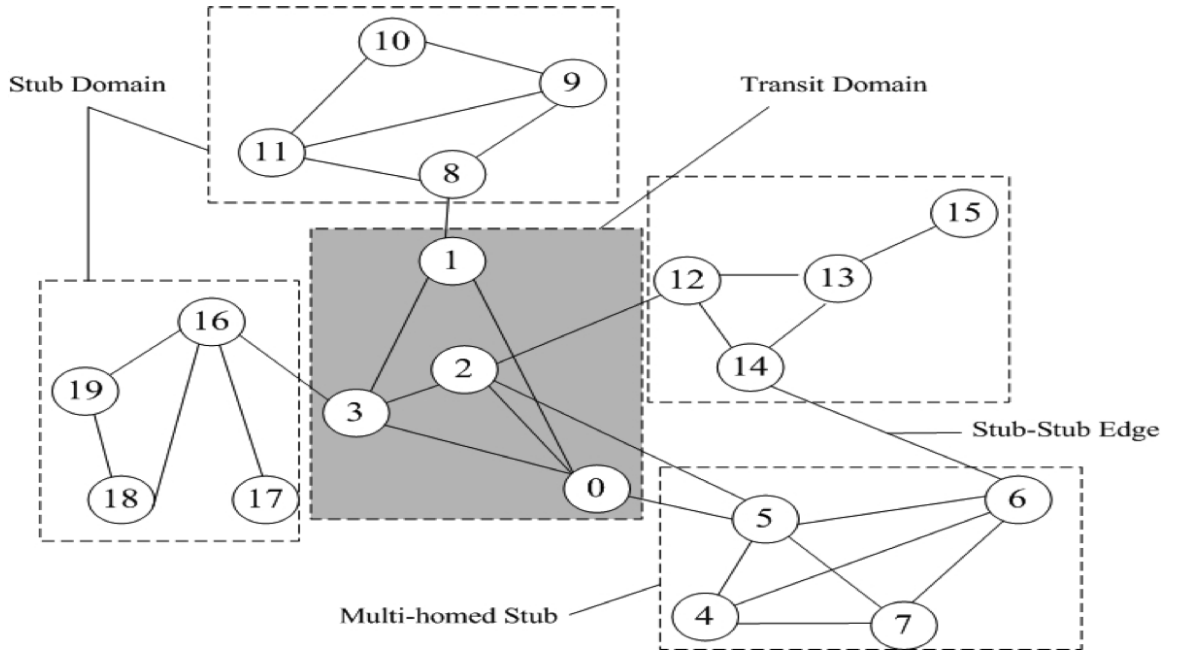


Figure 3.3: The Transit-Stub Topology

In order to prove the desired locality characteristics: there are many constraints related with the selected edges through restricting the weights of the edges. It prefers choosing the intra-stub and intra-transit edges rather than any inter-stub and inter-transit one; first choosing the all-transit path when there is the collision with any path with three stubs; choose the direct connection between a pair of stub domains in some specific situation. The details as following [36]:

Table 3.4: Parameters and Restriction of GT-ITM

Parameter	Meaning
$W_{tt}$	Weight of a transit-transit interdomain edge
$W_{ts}$	Weight of a transit-stub interdomain edge
$W_{ss}$	Weight of a stub-stub interdomain edge
$D_{top}$	Diameter of transit-domain connectivity graph
$D_t$	Maximum diameter of any transit domain graph
$D_s$	Maximum diameter of any stub domain graph

$$W_{tt} := \lceil D_t/2 \rceil \quad (3.4)$$

$$W_{ts} := \lceil D_{top}W_{tt}/2 \rceil + \lceil (D_{top} + 1)D_t \rceil \quad (3.5)$$

$$W_{ss} := D_s + 2W_{ts} \quad (3.6)$$

### 3.3.2 Waxman Topology Generator

Waxman method is put forward by Bernard M.Waxman, which is the common network topology generator and widely used in model of the network problems. This graph model aims at address the problem of multipoint connections in the packet switched network.

The probability of the edges is mainly affected by Euclidean distance between the nodes. After a set of nodes randomly distributed in a coordinate grid, each node is assigned a fixed integer coordinates, the probability of the links connected any two nodes is decided by

$$P(x, y) = \alpha e^{-\frac{d(x,y)}{\beta L}} \quad (3.7)$$

where  $d(x, y)$  is the distance from node x to node y,  $\alpha > 0, \beta \leq 1, L$  is the maximum distance between any two edges. Parameter  $\alpha$  increases the number of edges in the graph, and parameter  $\beta$  increases the ratio of long edges to short edges [29].

There are also many other algorithms focus on the problem of routing multi-cast connections in networks which are variations of the Waxman method, such as Matthew et al.[21] and Liming et al.[30]. In order to ensure the average node degree remains constant, without increasing with the number of nodes, Matthew et al.[21] add another factor  $\frac{k\varepsilon}{|\omega|}$  in the probability function, where  $\varepsilon$  is the average degree of a node and  $|\omega|$  is the amount of the nodes exist in the connected graph. Another method is replacing the  $d(x, y)$  by a random number between 0 and  $L$ . In the GT-ITM topology generator, call this method the Waxman2 model [36]

### 3.3.3 Little's Law

The definition of Little's Law is, under steady state conditions, the long-term average number of items in a queuing system equals the long-term average effective arrival rate multiplied by the average time that an item spends in the system [19].

$$E = \lambda \cdot N \tag{3.8}$$

$N$  = average waiting time in the system for an item

$\lambda$  = average number of items arriving per unit time

$E$  = average number of items in the queuing system

The relationship is remarkably simple and general. It implies that the item behavior is entirely independent of any of the probability distributions involved, and hence requires no assumptions about the schedule according to which items arrive.

Figure 3.4 shows a realization of a queuing system, the y-axis is the  $n(t)$ , the number of items at time  $t$  in the queuing system, the x-axis is the time. In the time period  $T$ ,  $A(T)$  is the cumulative number of items in the system, so the average queue length  $L(T)$  is  $L(T) = A(T)/T$ ,  $N(T)$  is the cumulative number of arrivals, so the average arrival rate during time period  $T$  is  $\lambda(T) = N(T)/T$ , we could also calculate the average waiting time in the system per arrival during  $T$ , define as  $W(T) =$

$A(T)/N(T)$ . From the figure, we could find  $L(T)$  and  $\lambda(T)$  go up and down somewhat as items arrive and later leave.

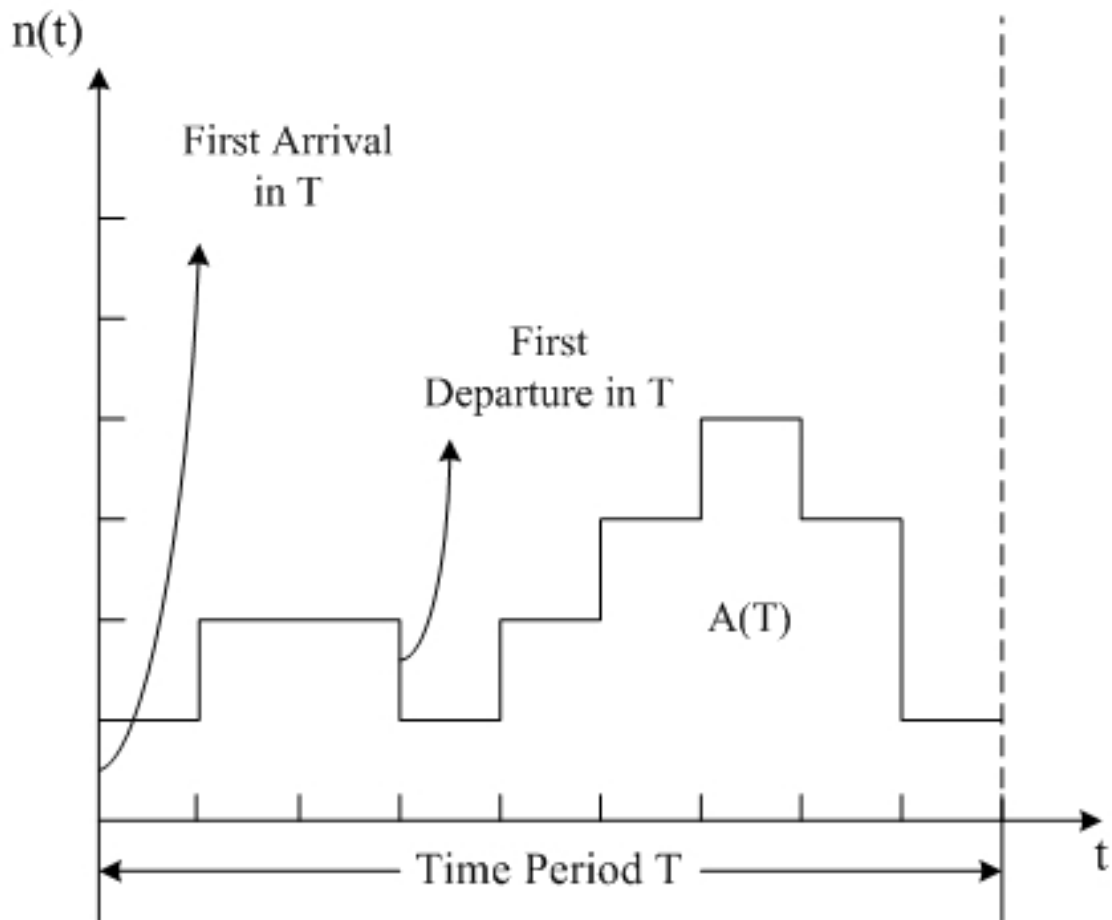


Figure 3.4: Number of items in a queuing system versus time

$n(t)$  = the number of items in the queuing system at time  $t$ ;

$T$  = a long period of time;

$A(T)$  = the area under the curve  $n(t)$  over the time period  $T$ ;

$N(T)$  = the number of arrivals in the time period  $T$ .

## CHAPTER 4

### VN MAPPING ALGORITHMS

In this chapter, we introduce three mapping algorithms GMCF, Dvine and VnmFlib in details. GMCF algorithm has a contribution on presenting the path splitting and path migration method in the mapping. Dvine algorithm combines the mixed integer programming (MIP) formulation and multi-commodity flow algorithm, it points out a new definition "meta-nodes" and "meta-edges" for the virtual requests to find an optimal link in the most efficient way. For the VnmFlib algorithm, it combines the links mapping stage and nodes mapping stage into one stage, and using the subgraph isomorphism based method in solving the mapping problem. Then, we also present the corresponding mathematical conception used in these algorithms.

#### 4.1 Existing Virtual Network Mapping Algorithms

##### 4.1.1 Rethinking Virtual Network Embedding: Substrate Support for Path Splitting and Migration[35]

In order to mapping the virtual network requests to the substrate network as much as possible, most algorithms focus on improving the effective of the heuristic algorithm itself. At a different angle, this paper uses a new point at the improvement of substrate network, the primary contribution as follows:

- The algorithm supports split the link request of the virtual network and map to the substrate network with a flexible path-splitting ratio.
- The algorithm also supports that the existing successful virtual link requests could be reoptimize periodically by the substrate network, select new idle links

or adapting the splitting ratios for the existing links, in order to better use the substrate resources.

This algorithm based on two prerequisites: First, node and link constraints. The paper considers the CPU capacity and location for the node restrictions and bandwidth capacity for link restrictions. Second, the algorithm aims at resolve the online problem, which is the virtual network requests are not known in advance and on the contrary they arrive in the random time and stay in the network for an arbitrary period of time before leaving. The paper points out the definition *revenue* and aims at maximize the long-term average revenue as a objective of the embedding problem:

$$\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sum_{t=0}^T R(G^v(t))}{T} \quad (4.1)$$

where  $R(G^v(t))$  is the virtual network requests at time  $t$ , including both the node and link requirements.

The key point of the algorithm is the *link splitting* and *link migration*. The algorithm uses the greedy node mapping algorithm, which maximize the substrate resources to map the virtual nodes to the substrate nodes, so as to minimize the usage of the resources at both the nodes and links [40]. After the node mapping, the algorithm called the flexible link splitting, find the satisfied links in the substrate network. In order to keep mapping successfully in the best performance, the algorithm revisits the node mapping decisions for these virtual links. Here, the paper uses a parameter  $T_{try}$  to control the difference of the chosen links and parameter  $T_{dur}$  as a threshold to choose the virtual requests for the link migrating, in order to exclude the requests with short living time. The algorithm also uses the hash-based splitting method to prevent the out-of-order packet delivery in the network, which could direct all packets from the same flow to the same link.



But the algorithm also has some shortages. The algorithm only focused on the path migration, without the node migration, which lean to the link successful mapping.

At last, the paper creates an evaluation environment to evaluate the performance of the algorithm. The details of the parameters setting showed in the table 4.1.1. In this paper, the evaluation of algorithm based on the online requests, the arrivals of virtual network requests are in the Poisson process, the average amount of mean requests is 5, the duration of the requests are based on exponential distribution with average 10 time windows.

Table 4.1: Parameters of Evaluation Environment in the GMCF algorithm

	Substrate Network	Virtual Network Requests
Nodes	Number:100 CPU distribution: Uniform [0,100] (units)	Amount Distribution: Uniform [2,10]
Edges	Number:500 Bandwidth distribution: Uniform [0.100](units)	Connected probability:0.5

#### 4.1.2 Virtual Network Embedding with Coordinated Node and Link Mapping[8]

This paper mainly focuses on the improvement of the coordination between the nodes mapping phase and links mapping phase. It proposes two virtual network (VN) algorithms D-ViNE (Deterministic VN Embedding) and R-ViNE (Randomized VN Embedding), the former one use the deterministic rounding techniques and the later one use the randomized rounding techniques on the solution of the linear program in the mixed integer programming(MIP) formulation[24], which used to solve the embedding problem. The main contribution of the paper as following:

- Introduce the new definition *augmented substrate graph*, *meta-nodes* and *meta-edges*, which are supported to coordinate the two mapping phases. Augmented substrate graph is the extension of the basic substrate network, contains the clusters of substrate nodes and meta-nodes, meta-edges.
- Separate the algorithms into deterministic and randomized rounding techniques to process the linear program. The paper relaxes the integer constraints in the MIP due to the difficulty and infeasible of this problem, and uses these two techniques to obtain the integer values and embed VN requests.

The paper also considers the nodes and link restrictions, uses the CPU capacity weight, geographic location, and bandwidth capacity weight as prerequisites, the algorithm also based on the online virtual network embedding problems. The objective of the algorithm is to maximize the revenue and minimize the cost of the infrastructure provider (InP) in a long time.

$$R(G^V) = \sum_{e^V \in E^V} b(e^V) + \sum_{n^V \in N^V} c(n^V) \quad (4.2)$$

$$C(G^V) = \sum_{e^V \in E^V} \sum_{e^S \in E^S} f_{e^S}^{e^V} + \sum_{n^V \in N^V} c(n^V) \quad (4.3)$$

where  $b(e^V)$  denotes the bandwidth capacity weight of the virtual links,  $c(n^V)$  denotes the CPU capacity weight of the virtual nodes,  $f_{e^S}^{e^V}$  denotes the total amount of bandwidth allocated on the substrate link  $e^S$  for virtual link  $e^V$ .

Here, we mainly introduce the algorithm of D-ViNE, which is the algorithm estimated in our benchmark. The algorithm first creates an augmented substrate graph, then uses the augmentation method for the VN requests. The algorithm checks whether the unmapped substrate nodes exist or not and satisfied for the specific VN requests, if non-empty, the deterministic rounding procedure is initiated. D-ViNE calculate a parameter  $p_z$  for each substrate node in the corresponding cluster for each

virtual node, the cluster is divided according to the location of nodes in the substrate network.  $p_z$  is the product of the binary values of meta-edge and the total flow passing through the meta-edge in both directions. The algorithm maps the virtual node onto the idle substrate node with the highest  $p_z$  value. The higher the value, the better the solution of the MIP is. Once the virtual nodes mapped successfully, the algorithm use the multi-commodity flow algorithm [25] to map the virtual edges onto the substrate links.

The detail of the evaluation environment in this paper is listed in the table. VN requests also arrive in a Poisson process, the average rate is 4 in 100 time units and the lifetime of each VN request is exponentially distributed with an average value  $u = 1000$  time units.

Table 4.2: Parameters of Evaluation Environment in the D-ViNE algorithm

	Substrate Network	Virtual Network Requests
Nodes	Number:50 CPU distribution: Uniform [50,100] (units)	Amount Distribution:Uniform [2,10] CPU distribution: Uniform [0,20] (units)
Edges	connected probability: 0.5 Bandwidth distribution: Uniform [50,100](units)	Connected probability:0.5 Bandwidth distribution: Uniform [0,50](units)

#### 4.1.3 A Virtual Network Mapping Algorithm based on Subgraph Isomorphism Detection[20]

Most of the Virtual Network Mapping(VNM) algorithms are separated into two steps: the node mapping and the links mapping. This paper figures out a new mapping method: combine the two mapping stages into just one process. The evaluation of the algorithm proves that this method could not only have better mappings but also improve the running time of the process. The mainly contribution as follows:

- The paper use subgraph isomorphism based method in the Virtual Network Mapping Problem(VNMP), integrate the two mapping stages into one mapping process. After one node mapping successfully, the algorithm will check the corresponding link mapping, until satisfy all the requirements of the nodes and links.
- Set two parameters  $\varepsilon$  and  $\omega$ , the former is the restriction of the length of substrate paths which virtual links are mapped, the later is the restriction of the number of mapping steps and force the algorithm to stop the search if the amount of searching trend to enormous.

The paper set the CPU capacity with each node and data rate constraint with each link and also add the error rate cost of each substrate link. Consider the online mapping problems, the algorithm also consider the arrival time and the life time of the Virtual Network Requests(VNR). For the node restriction, the constraint cost function are defined by the sum of the cost function together

$$cost(M(G^V)) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \cdot cost_i(M(G^V)) \quad (4.4)$$

For the data rate or delay cost of the link, the constraint cost function is

$$cost_i(M(G^V)) = \sum_{l \in L^V} C_i^V(l) \cdot length(M(l)) \quad (4.5)$$

VNM  $M(G^V)$ denotes the virtual network mapping onto the substrate network,  $\alpha_i$ denotes the tunable weight constant, for making a balance between different constraint costs.  $M(l)$ is the substrate path mapped by the virtual link.

Let  $C_1(n)$  denotes the CPU capacity of the node and  $C_2(l)$  denotes the data rate capacity of the link, so the cost function of each capacity is

$$cost_1(M(G^V)) = \sum_{n \in N^V} C_1(n) \quad (4.6)$$

$$cost_2(M(G^V)) = \sum_{l \in L^V} C_2(l) \cdot length(M(l)) \quad (4.7)$$

where  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$  are both equal to 1.

The algorithm use the  $R/C - Ratio$  (Revenue-to-Cost-Ratio) as the criterion of algorithm performance.

$$R/C - Ratio = \frac{R(G^V)}{M(G^V)} \quad (4.8)$$

$$R(G^V) = \alpha_1 \cdot \sum_{n \in N^V} C_1(n) + \alpha_2 \cdot \sum_{l \in L^V} C_2(l) \quad (4.9)$$

The ratio set between 0 and 1, the larger of ratio, the better of the optimal mapping.

First, the algorithm use the *genneigh()* function to generate a set of node pairs  $(n^V, n^P)$ , separately representative of the virtual nodes and substrate nodes, then add the nodes to corresponding graph respectively. Second, use the *valid()* function to check whether the resulting mapping from the first step is valid. If so, call the Vn-mFlib algorithm, map the virtual links connected to the corresponding virtual nodes into substrate network and check the data rate capacity of links as well, otherwise the termination condition is checked. If it does not satisfy the termination condition, the next node pair is examined. The *genneigh()* function have two effects, one is select substrate nodes that satisfy the CPU constraint of the virtual nodes, the other one is select the substrate links that within the link length restriction. The *valid()* function checks whether any node constraints are violated and whether there is broken connections in the substrate network.

The detail of evaluation environment of the algorithm is list in the table, the paper use the GT-ITM tool to generate the network topologies. Instead of setting the

specific number of the maximum amount of CPU and bandwidth capacity in virtual network requests, the paper use  $\beta$  as the substitute number. The algorithm use the Revenue-to-Cost ratio and running time as the metrics to evaluate the performance.

Table 4.3: Parameters of Evaluation Environment in the VnmFlib algorithm

	Substrate Network	Virtual Network Requests
Nodes	Number:100 CPU distribution: Uniform [0,100] (units)	Amount Distribution:Uniform [2,10] CPU distribution: Uniform [0, $\beta$ ] (units)
Edges	Number:around 500 Bandwidth distribution: Uniform [0,100](units)	Connected probability:0.5 Bandwidth distribution: Uniform [0, $\beta$ ](units)

## 4.2 Related Mathematical Conception

In this section, we introduce two mathematical problems related to the mapping algorithms, one is the Muti-commodity Flow Algorithm, the other is Subgraph Isomorphism Based Method. The former one mainly used in the link mapping stage of GMCF and Dvine algorithms, the later one mainly used in the VnmFlib algorithm. Through understanding the key methods used in the algorithms, we could better compare the difference and the similar of these algorithms.

### 4.2.1 Multi-commodity Flow problem

Multi-commodity flow problem is a network flow problem that allowing multiple commodities between different sources and destination nodes to share the same network. We suppose a directed graph  $G = (V, E)$ , every edge  $(u, v) \in E$  has a nonnegative capacity  $c(u, v) \geq 0$ . There are k different commodities, defined as  $K_1, K_2, \dots, K_i, \dots, K_k$ , for *ith* commodity, we specify by  $K_i = (s_i, t_i, d_i)$ . Here, node  $s_i$

is the source, node  $t_i$  is the destination and  $d_i$  is the demand of the commodity  $K_i$ , which is the capacity flow of the commodity  $i$  from the source to the destination.

Assume  $f_i(u, v)$  is the flow of commodity  $i$  from the node  $u$  to node  $v$ ,  $f_{uv} = \sum_{i=1}^k f_i(u, v)$  is the sum of the different commodity flows, so in order to satisfy the link capacity constraints and flow conservation, the objective function is to minimize the cost. For each commodity  $(u, v) \in V$  and each  $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$ , the total capacity of links should be less than the maximum nonnegative link capacity  $c(u, v)$ :

$$\sum_{i=1}^k f_i(u, v) \leq c(u, v) \quad (4.10)$$

$$f_i(u, v) \geq 0 \quad (4.11)$$

For each capacity except the source and destination node, the incoming flow should be equal to the outgoing flow, thus, for each  $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$  and for each  $u, v \in V - \{s_i, t_i\}$

$$\sum_{v \in V} f_i(u, v) - \sum_{v \in V} f_i(v, u) = 0 \quad (4.12)$$

For the source and destination nodes, suppose the value of the flow is  $d$  units, so

$$\sum_{v \in V} f(s, v) - \sum_{v \in V} f(v, s) = d \quad (4.13)$$

In addition to the capacity  $c(u, v)$  for each edge  $(u, v)$ . we also suppose a real cost  $a(u, v)$  for each edge. So if we send  $d$  units of flow from the source to destination in one flow, we need to minimize the total cost  $C(u, v)$  of the flow, this problem is defined as the *minimum-cost-flow problem*

$$C(u, v) = \sum_{(u, v) \in E} a(u, v) f_i(u, v) \quad (4.14)$$

### 4.2.2 Subgraph Isomorphism Based Method

Assume that there are two graphs, one is the original graph as  $G_o = (N_1, L_1)$ , the other is a target graph as  $G_t = (N_2, B_2)$ , the target of subgraph isomorphism problem is to find a original graph in the target graph. if there exist a objective function that prove the branch structure of the two graphs, it defined as isomorphism[11]. If there exist an isomorphism between  $G_t$  and a subgraph of  $G_o$  and  $M$  maps the part of  $G_o$  onto a part of  $G_t$  and vice versa,  $M$  is said to be a subgraph isomorphism. For the vnmFlib algorithm, it extend the Vlib algorithm, which is also based on Subgraph Isomorphism method. The mapping of links to paths which is shorter than the predefined distance would also accepted.



## CHAPTER 5

### EVALUATION RESULTS

To demonstrate how VNMBench can be used in practice, we evaluate three mapping algorithms: GMCF [35], VnmFlib [20] and Dvine [8]. These algorithms are typical representatives for virtual network mapping algorithms. Thus, showing that VNMBench can be applied to all of them to provide comparative results illustrates the usefulness of our virtual network mapping benchmark.

All algorithms are set to the best possible parameters as mentioned by the authors and are presented with the input data generated by VNMBench. All algorithms can use path-splitting and thus can map a virtual link onto multiple physical paths. A virtual node can be mapped to any physical node in the substrate. The substrate resources can be mapped at an arbitrarily fine granularity to virtual networks.

In this chapter, we first introduce the evaluation environment including the topology generation, metrics and then point out the result of the comparison through the VNMBench for three mapping algorithms. We separate the evaluation results into two parts, one is based on the static VNMBench model and the other is based on dynamic VNMBench model.

## **5.1 Experiment Environment**

### **5.1.1 Mapping Algorithm Implement**

In the Chapter 4, we have introduced the details and process of these three mapping algorithms. In order to better understand the result of the benchmark evaluation, here we make a conclusion:

1. GMCF embedding algorithm: greedy node mapping algorithm and Multi-commodity Flow Algorithm(MCF) link mapping algorithm.
2. D-ViNE embedding algorithm: deterministic rounding techniques on node mapping and MCF algorithm used in the link mapping
3. VnmFlib embedding algorithm: node and link mappings are both based on subgraph isomorphism detection.

For the evaluation environment, GMCF and VnmFlib algorithm use almost the same size and distribution in the substrate network and virtual network requests, VnmFlib replace the fixed maximum value of CPU resources of virtual nodes into variables. Dvine use a smaller size of substrate network and different CPU and bandwidth distribution in nodes and links. In order to better evaluate the performance of different mapping algorithms, we need to use the same evaluation criteria.

### 5.1.2 Network Generation

We use the GT-ITM to generate the substrate and virtual network topology. For the substrate network, we separate the size of network into medium (100 nodes) and large (500 nodes). For each size, we separate the density of network into sparse and dense with different node degree. The details of parameters setting in the GT-ITM file list in the table 5.1. For each parameter, the explanation is in the table 5.2. First we choose one of the hierarchical models: transit-stub as the topology model, and Waxman2 as the edge creation method, then set amount of stub domain and transit domain. We add the extra transit-stub and stub-stub edges and increase the probability of the connected edges in the dense substrate in order to increase the node degree. The value of  $\beta$  set as 0.5 in all kinds of substrate networks in order to keep the equal proportion of long edges and short edges.

Table 5.1: Parameters setting in the Topology Generation

Medium Size		Large Size	
(A) Sparse	(B) Dense	(C) Sparse	(D) Dense
ts 1 100	ts 1 100	ts 1 100	ts 1 100
4 0 0	4 50 50	7 0 0	7 250 250
2 50 2 0.5 0.5	2 50 2 0.8 0.5	2 100 2 0.5 0.5	2 100 2 0.8 0.5
2 50 2 0.5 0.5	2 50 2 0.8 0.5	5 100 2 0.5 0.5	5 100 2 0.8 0.5
6 10 2 0.5 0.5	6 10 2 0.8 0.5	7 20 2 0.5 0.5	7 20 2 0.8 0.5

Table 5.2: Parameters Explanation in the Topology Generation

GT-ITM file	Explanation					
ts 1 100	Graph Method: Transit-stub		Number of graphs		Initial seed	
4 0 0	Stub domain per transit node		Extra transit-stub edges		Extra stub- stub edges	
2 50 2 0.5 0.5	<i>Top-level parameter</i>	Transit domain	One-sided dim- -ension of space	Waxman2	$\alpha$	$\beta$
2 50 2 0.5 0.5	<i>Transit domain parameter</i>	Nodes per transit	One-sided dim- -ension of space	Waxman2	$\alpha$	$\beta$
6 10 2 0.5 0.5	<i>Stub domain parameter</i>	Nodes per stub	One-sided dim- -ension of space	Waxman2	$\alpha$	$\beta$

The details of parameters in virtual network request is list in the table 3.2. Instead of setting the fixed value of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , we use a random variable chosen in a range. Thus, the node degree of each virtual network is in the range of 2.5 to 5, which could also representative of the typical actual networks in sparse type and dense type.

### 5.1.3 Evaluation Metrics

In VNMBench, we consider three metrics to compare and evaluate mapping algorithm performance: number of successful mapping, revenue-to-cost ratio, and running time. In the Section IV, we compare three specific mapping algorithms with respect to these metrics to show that meaningful inferences about algorithm performance are possible.

1. *Number of Successful Mappings*

One of the main goals of the network virtualization is enable as much as possible multiple heterogeneous virtual networks to coexist together on a shared substrate network. Even though each virtual network request has a different topology, different processing resource on nodes and different bandwidth resource on links, the mapping algorithms should try to maximize the number of the coexisting virtual network requests [6]. Therefore, we choose the total number of successful mappings as one of the key metrics for VNMBench.

Note that this metric assumes online operation as discussed above. Also, it is assumed that there are enough requests to completely fill up the substrate network. In case a request cannot be mapped to the substrate, it is considered a mapping failure. In this case, it can be distinguished if the mapping failed due to the lack of node resources or link resources. This distinction may help in understanding why the performance of a particular substrate network (or a

particular mapping algorithm) is limited. The virtual network mapping problem requires the mapping algorithms to map virtual nodes and links in a given request to substrate nodes and links. The successful mapping amount could be separate into node successful mapping and link successful mapping, either one is mapping failed would lead to this virtual network request denied. So we first set the total successful mapping amount as a metric to evaluate the performance of the different mapping algorithms.

## 2. Revenue-to-Cost Ratio

Another important metric is to measure the amount of substrate resources are necessary to accommodate a request. In virtual network mapping, it is common to refer to the complexity of a request as "revenue" (i.e., how much customer would pay for having their network installed in a substrate). The amount of substrate resources necessary is referred to as "cost" of a mapping.

We let the  $G_j^V = (N_j^V, E_j^V)$  denote the  $j^{th}$  virtual network request, and define the revenue, cost and the ratio of them with this request. The cost of mapping the  $j^{th}$  request is the total cost of allocation of substrate network resources to the  $j^{th}$  virtual network. We consider node resources and link resources, so the total cost can be separated into two parts: the node mapping cost and the link mapping cost.

We defined the total cost as

$$cost(G_j^V) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \cdot cost_i(G_j^V) \quad (5.1)$$

where  $\alpha_i$  is the weight constant for each cost to strike a balance between the different constraint costs.

$$cost(G_j^V) = \alpha \cdot cost_N(G_j^V) + \beta \cdot cost_L(G_j^V) \quad (5.2)$$

We set the  $\alpha$  as the node mapping cost factor,  $\beta$  as the link mapping cost factor instead of  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$ , set the  $c(e_j^V)$  as the demand of links in the  $j^{th}$  virtual network,  $\lambda(f_E(u, v))$  is the length of the path that the virtual link  $(u, v)$  is mapped to the set of substrate links in  $G^S$ . So the link mapping cost is

$$cost_L(G_j^V) = \sum_{e_j^V(u,v) \in E_j^V} \lambda(f_E(u, v)) \cdot c(e_j^V) \quad (5.3)$$

so the total mapping cost is defined as

$$C(G_j^V) = \alpha \cdot \sum_{n_j^V \in N_j^V} c(n_j^V) + \beta \cdot \sum_{e_j^V(u,v) \in E_j^V} \lambda(f_E(u, v)) \cdot c(e_j^V) \quad (5.4)$$

We define the Revenue  $R(G_j^V)$  generated by the  $j^{th}$  virtual network request as

$$R(G_j^V) = \alpha_1 \cdot \sum_{n_j^V \in N_j^V} c(n_j^V) + \alpha_2 \cdot \sum_{e_j^V(u,v) \in E_j^V} c(e_j^V) \quad (5.5)$$

where  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$  are weight constant for node and link revenue, we often set  $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = 1$ .

The revenue-to-cost-ratio is based on the above definition:

$$R/C - Ratio = \frac{R(G_j^V)}{C(G_j^V)} \quad (5.6)$$

the  $R/C - Ratio$  has values between 0 and 1. It is set to 0 when the virtual network requests mapping fails and achieves 1 when an optimal virtual network

mapping is found, which means every virtual link uses a direct physical link in the substrate.

In order to better understand the computation of revenue and cost, we make an example to illustrate this evaluation metric in our work. The left part in the Figure 5.1 is the virtual request and the right part is the substrate network. After mapping the request into the substrate network (the blue dash network), the revenues generated by virtual network is  $R = (12+14+16)+(10+8+6) = 66$  (we set the  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$  equal to 1) and the cost is  $C = (12 + 14 + 16) + (8 \times 1 + 10 \times 1 + 6 \times 2) = 72$ , so the ratio is 0.916.

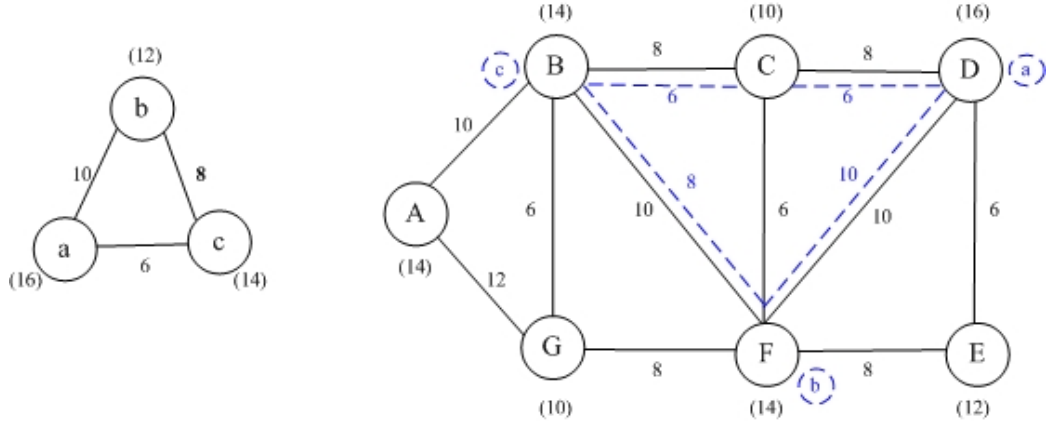


Figure 5.1: Example of Revenue-To-Cost Computation

### 3. Running Time

The definition of running time is the average time of processing one virtual network request by the mapping algorithm. The running time of a mapping algorithm is of practical importance - especially since virtual network requests are often handled dynamically in an online fashion. Therefore, the running time of an algorithm is also a metric in our benchmark. We determine the average time by measuring the total running time for all 1000 requests (including failed mappings) and dividing accordingly.

## 5.2 Static VNMBench Model

In the static VNMBench Model, a total of 1000 requests are processed by each algorithm. For solving the Dvine, GMCF and VnmFlib formulations, we have used GLPSOL Optimization Studio. These experiments were run on Intel Quad-core CPU running at 2.5 GHZ with 3 MB of level-2 cache and 3.4 G of main memory.

### 5.2.1 Successful Mapping and Revenue-to-Cost Ratio

Figure 5.2 and 5.3 show number of successful mappings and revenue-to-cost ratio for sparse and dense substrate networks of medium size. Figure 5.4 and Figure 5.5 show the same metrics of large size in different density of network. The x-axis is the request mapping iteration from 0 to 1,000 and the y-axis is the number of successful mappings or the revenue-to-cost ratio up to that iteration. Each subgraph is shown for virtual network requests of 5 nodes, 10 nodes, and 20 nodes.

For the medium substrate network, we can make the following observations from Figure 5.2 and 5.3 :

- We find that the VnmFlib algorithm has the largest number of successful mappings and the highest revenue-to-cost ratio among all three algorithms in both the sparse and dense substrate network. For dense substrate network, the successful mappings of VnmFlib are approximately 3 times more than GMCF and 15 times than Dvine; For the sparse substrate network, the amount of successful mappings of VnmFlib are around 4 times than GMCF and 22 times than Dvine. The revenue-to-cost ratio is almost 1.5 times higher. All of the three algorithms mapping requests successfully in the dense substrate than in the sparse substrate. Because the dense substrate network style has twice the node degree of the sparse style, there are more possibilities to map edges successfully for all algorithms.



- In both the sparse and dense substrate, GMCF can satisfy more virtual network requests and has a higher revenue-to-cost ratio than Dvine. But, with an increasing number of successful mappings, the revenue-to-cost ratio of Dvine and VnmFlib also increase, but GMCF improves the number of successful mappings at the expense of the revenue-to-cost ratio. In detail, we could find GMCF and Dvine have the same failed node mapping amount, but Dvine has a higher failed edge mapping amount than GMCF.
- Dvine is not good for large virtual network requests. When the size of virtual request increase to 20 nodes, it could only map successfully 2 requests in the dense substrate network.

For the large substrate network, we could find the following conclusion from Figure 5.4 and Figure 5.5:

- VnmFlib mapping requests successfully around 2 times than in the medium substrate network, also has the most amount of successful mapping and the highest revenue-to-cost ratio in the three algorithms.
- When the amount of virtual requests nodes increases to 10 and 20, mapping of Dvine fails entirely, and only maps 17 requests with 5 nodes. So it is not suitable for Dvine algorithm when the substrate networks and virtual network requests in large size.
- With the increasing in the scale of virtual network requests, the difference between VnmFlib and GMCF in successful mappings and revenue-to-cost ratio become smaller in dense network and become larger in sparse network.

Overall, for the medium and large size substrate network, the VnmFlib algorithm is the best choice used, but it takes a lot of time (see below). If the emphasis is on the amount of successful mapping, GMCF may be preferable. If the emphasis is on revenue-to-cost ratio, then Dvine may be preferable.

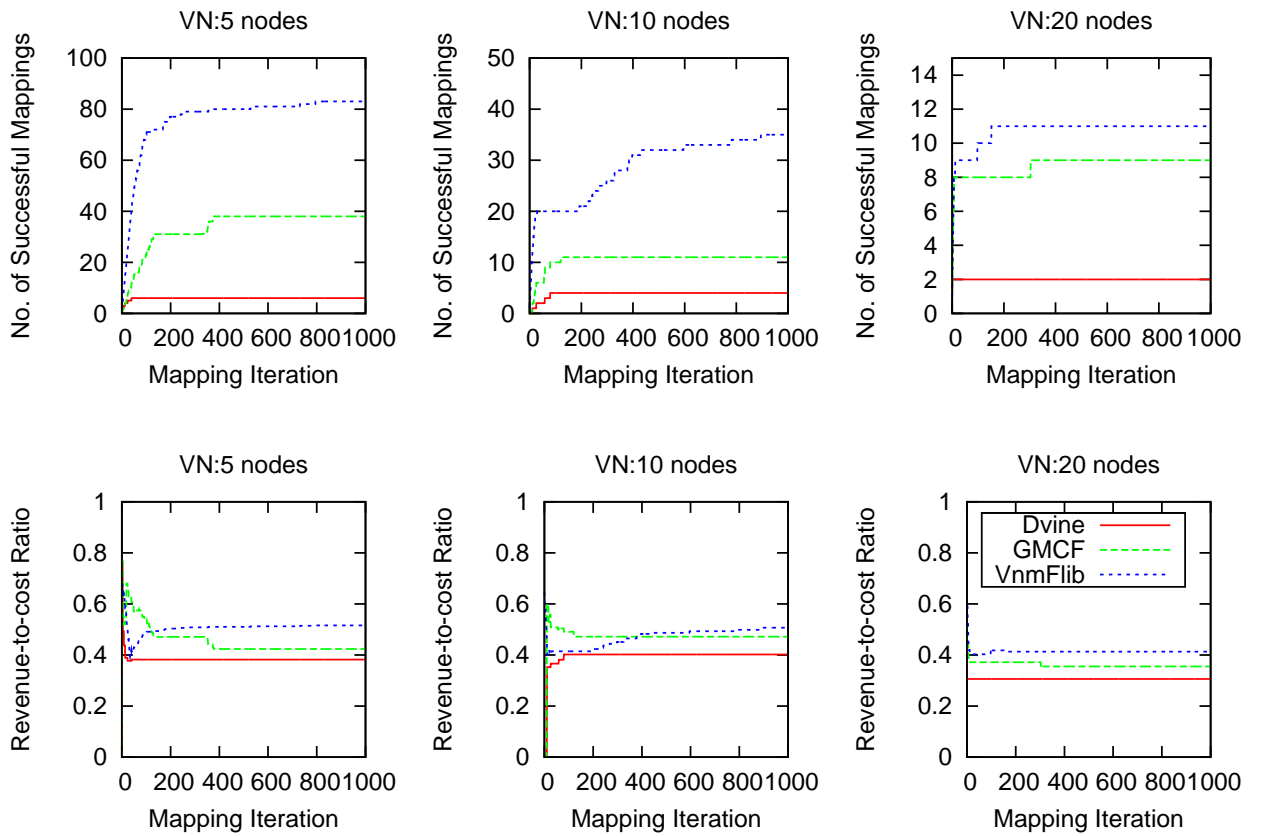


Figure 5.2: Comparison of Amount of Successful Mapping and Revenue-to-Cost Ratio(Dense Substrate Network with 100 Nodes)

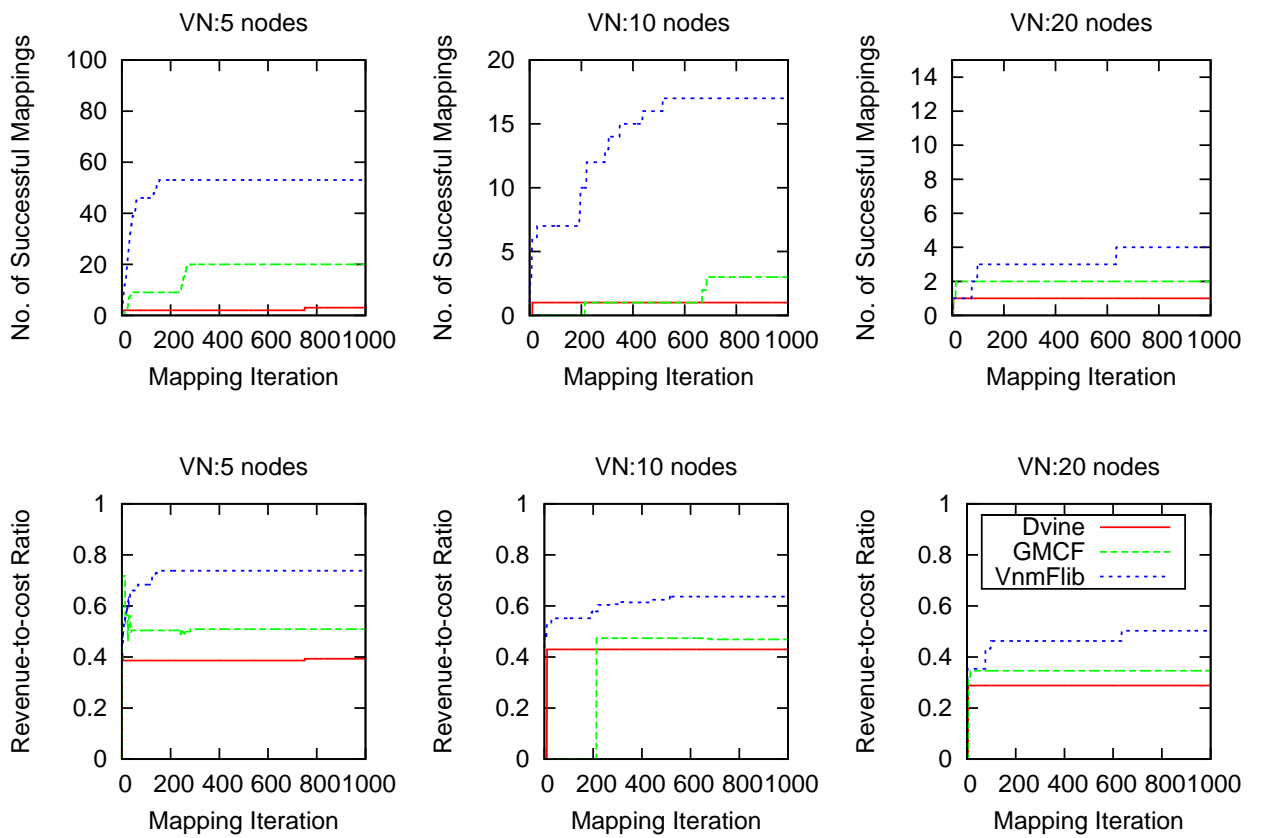


Figure 5.3: Comparison of Amount of Successful Mapping and Revenue-to-Cost Ratio(Sparse Substrate Network with 100 Nodes)

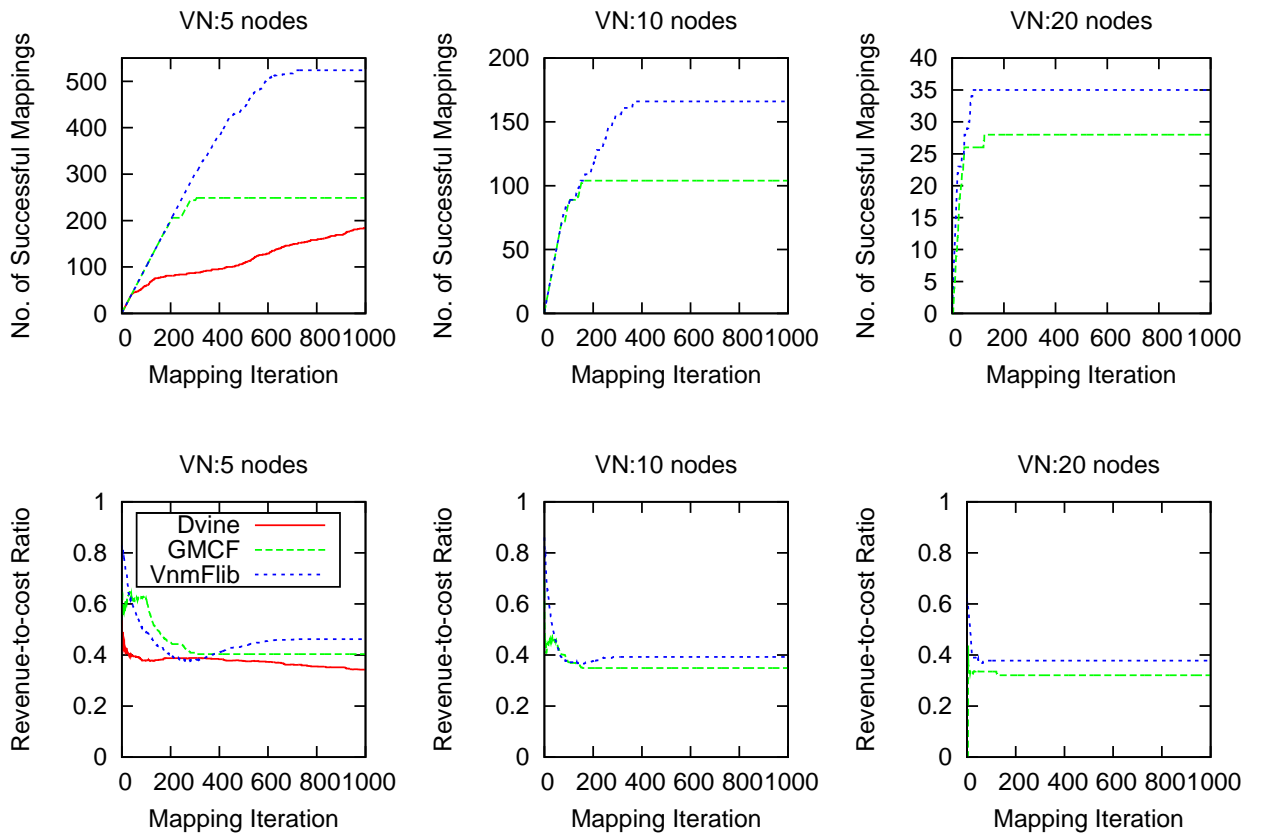


Figure 5.4: Comparison of Amount of Successful Mapping and Revenue-to-Cost Ratio(Dense Substrate Network with 500 Nodes)

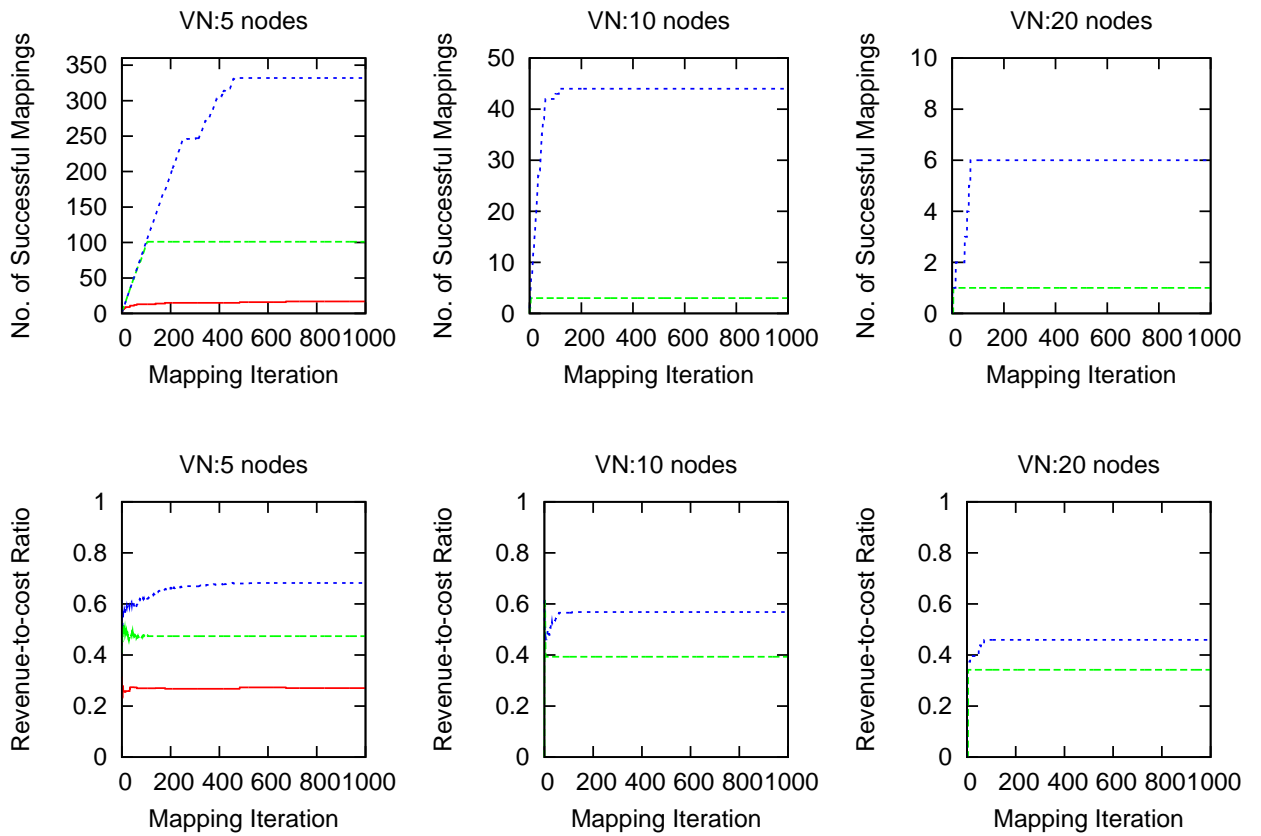


Figure 5.5: Comparison of Amount of Successful Mapping and Revenue-to-Cost Ratio(Sparse Substrate Network with 500 Nodes)

### 5.2.2 Running time

Figure 5.6 and Figure 5.7 show the distribution of number of successful mappings and revenue-to-cost ratio with respect to the running time in the medium substrate network. We observe that VnmFlib has the highest number of successful mappings and revenue-to-cost ratio but also a longer running time. GMCF has the shortest running time. Dvine performs the worst in the three mapping algorithms since it takes more time than GMCF algorithm with a lower successful mapping amount.

Thus, one can choose to use the mapping algorithm with small running time and corresponding higher successful mapping performance (such as GMCF) if one emphasizes on the time to complete the mapping process. If one considers the amount of successful mapping of virtual network requests as the only requirement, one can choose the algorithm with the best performance in mapping (such as VnmFlib). In addition, Dvine and VnmFlib are both a good choice if one aims to increase the revenue-to-cost ratio with increasing successful mappings.

Figure 5.8 show the relationship of number of successful mapping with running time in the large substrate network. Because Dvine has failed totally when the nodes of virtual requests are 10 and 20, the graph mainly show the comparison of GMCF and VnmFlib. From the graph, we could find the VnmFlib satisfy larger virtual requests with a much longer running time than GMCF. Thus, for the large virtual network mapping, we will choose GMCF if focus on the shorter running time and choose VnmFlib if emphasis on the amount of successful mapping.

Clearly, the evaluation of these algorithms using static VNMBench model provides interesting insights into the operation of and tradeoffs between algorithms. (We are less focused on which particular algorithm outperforms another.)

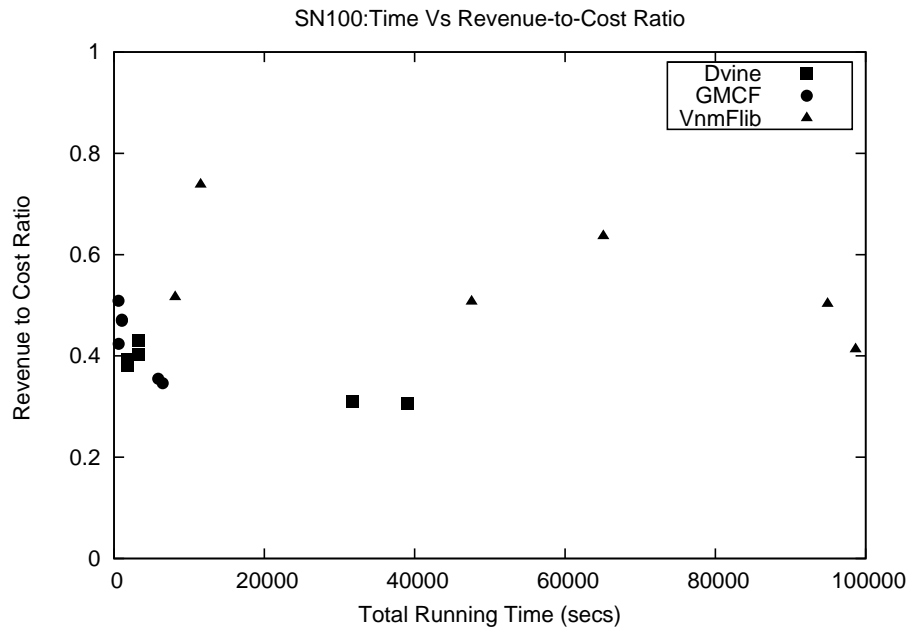


Figure 5.6: Comparison of Time and Number of Revenue-to-Cost Ratio (Substrate Network with 100 Nodes)

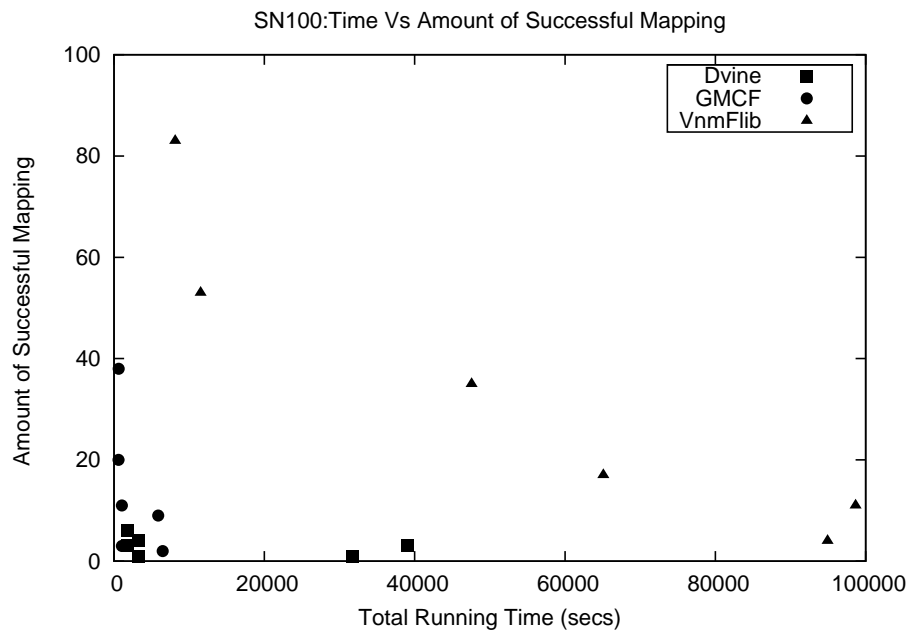


Figure 5.7: Comparison of Time and Number of Successful Mapping (Substrate Network with 100 Nodes)

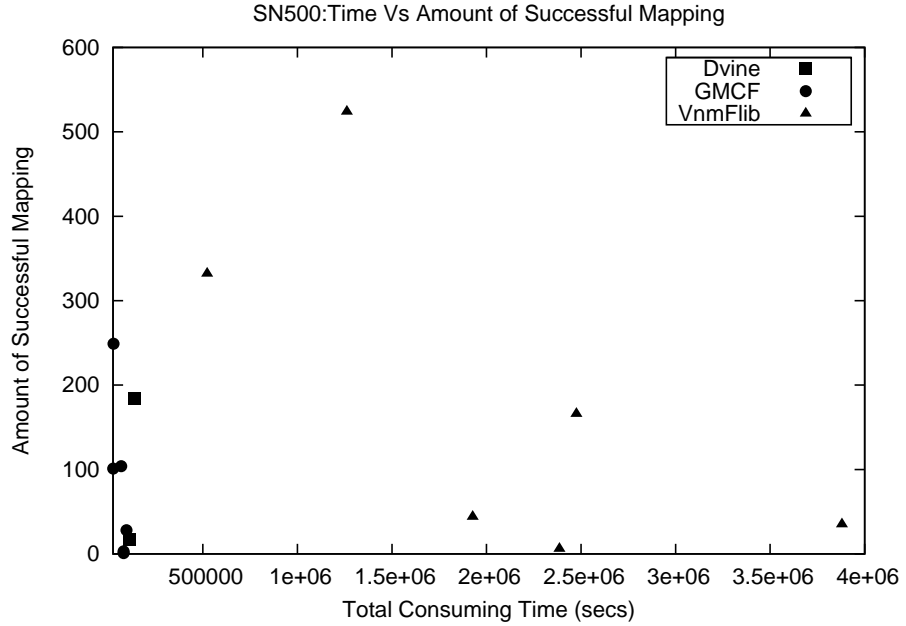


Figure 5.8: Comparison of Time and Number of Successful Mapping (Substrate Network with 500 Nodes)

### 5.2.3 Comparison of VNMBench Results and Emulab Results

A key requirement of any benchmark is that it generates a representative workload. To demonstrate that VNMBench generates a realistic set of virtual network mapping requests, we compare these requests to requests that were issued by real users in Emulab. Since it is difficult to compare the actual requests (due to topology, parameters, etc.), we compare the mapping results obtained from both scenarios. If the mapping results are similar in both cases, it can be assumed that the synthetic requests issued by VNMBench are sufficiently representative of what happens in reality in Emulab. (Of course, the benefit of a synthetic benchmark, like VNMBench, is that it can be scaled to other configurations, which is not possible with traces.)

The Emulab request traces have topologies with 2 to 15 nodes. Since the traces do not have explicit processing demands, we added them based on a uniform distribution between 0 and 20. Edge bandwidth demands are uniformly distributed between 0



and 50. For comparison, we use the same substrate network generated in VNMBench model with node processing resources and edge bandwidth resources set to 100 units on a  $100 \times 100$  grid.

We separate the experiments into two parts. First, we extract 1000 requests with 5 nodes from the Emulab collected requests and make a comparison with 5-node virtual network requests in VNMBench model. Figure 5.9 shows the number of successful mappings and revenue-to-cost ratio of three mapping algorithms based on Emulab requests and VNMBench requests in the sparse substrate network with 100 nodes. From the figure, we observe the successful mapping amount of Dvine and GMCF are equal in both scenarios and VnmFlib can successfully map 48 Emulab requests and 52 VNMBench requests. For the revenue-to-cost ratio, the value and variation trend of the three mapping algorithms is also similar for Emulab requests and VNMBench requests. For both scenarios, VnmFlib performs better than the other two algorithms in these two metrics, GMCF has more successful mappings than Dvine, but with a decrease of revenue-to-cost ratio. Thus, the results for VNMBench are extremely similar to those for real Emulab requests.

When using Emulab requests with varying numbers of nodes, the comparison to VNMBench becomes more difficult. Since we offer many topologies for mapping, the algorithms will successfully map many of the smaller Emulab topologies. In contrast, VNMBench uses the same size topologies and thus does not offer "easy" mappings. In the second part, we extract 1000 requests randomly from Emulab virtual network requests and also using 5-node requests in VNMBench model to make a comparison in the evaluation results of different mapping algorithms. The probability of node number between 2 to 5 is around 0.6 in Emulab requests, the average node number in the successful mapping requests is around 3 and average link number is around 2 when using GMCF and VnmFlib mapping algorithms. The smaller node and link number, the easier for virtual network requests mapping successfully. Therefore,

the number of successful mappings is 118 for VnmFlib algorithm based on Emulab requests, which is larger than the number of mappings from VNMBench requests. For Dvine, the average node number of successful mapping is 4 and link number is 3, which is similar to the VNMBench model (number of nodes is 5 and average number of links is 4). Thus, Dvine has the same amount of successful mapping. Despite these differences, there are still many similarities in the results, especially when considering the revenue-to-cost ratio.

Thus, these comparisons show that VNMBench does generate inputs that are representative of virtual network mapping requests generated in real virtualized networks.

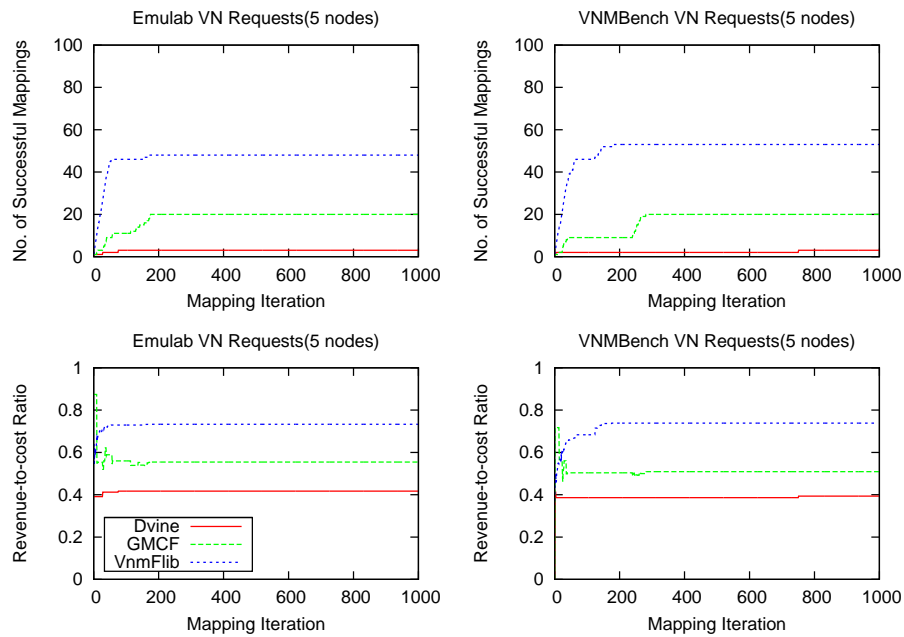


Figure 5.9: Result Comparison between Emulab requests and VNMBench (Sparse Substrate Network with 100 Nodes)

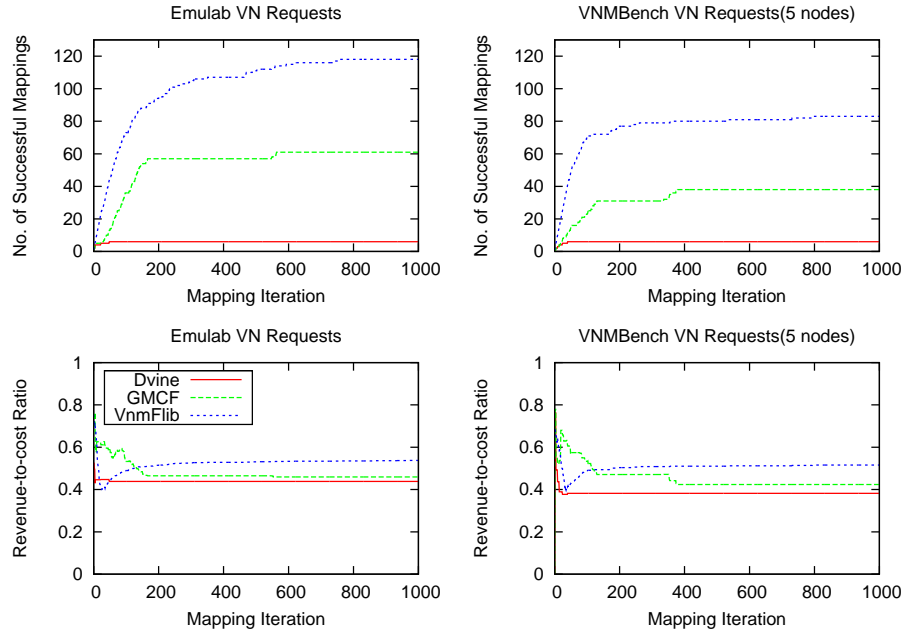


Figure 5.10: Result Comparison between Emulab requests and VNMBench (Dense Substrate Network with 100 Nodes )

### 5.3 Dynamic VNMBench Model

For the dynamic VNMBench Model, multiple virtual network requests are mapped one after another with the arrival rate  $1/sec$ , all requests have a limited duration time, which means they will be removed from the substrate network and release the corresponding nodes resources and link resources when the duration time expire if they are mapping successfully. Different from the static VNMBench model, the remaining substrate resources will not become increasing sparse due to the removed requests. This model used to evaluate the performance of mapping algorithms when the substrate network resources are more flexible to use.

We set the duration time of each request as exponential distribution with a mean value  $N$ . Due to the the Little's Law, the long-term average number of requests in the stable system is equal to the average arrival rate  $\lambda$ , multiplied by the average duration time of each request, which is entirely independent of any of the probability

distributions involved. Therefore, in the stable system, the average number of virtual network requests is equal to  $N$ . In order to have the best performance of each algorithm, we set the path splitting rate to 100% in link mapping.

In this section, we separate the experiment results into two parts, the comparison of successful mapping iteration and the comparison of average amount of successful mapping in different average amount of active requests.

### 5.3.1 Comparison of Successful Mapping Iteration

Figure 5.11 to Figure 5.15 show the variation trend of successful mappings in different average duration time for sparse and dense substrate networks of medium size. The x-axis is the request mapping iteration, we choose the range when the system in the stable stage. The y-axis is the number of successful mappings to that iteration. At the beginning, all of the substrate network nodes and links resources are available to use, with the increasing of virtual requests arrivals, more and more resources are used and difficult for algorithms to find the optimal resolution, then there are some prior mappings removed due to they expire and release their occupied resources in substrate network. In the stable stage, the system will maintain the average amount of virtual requests in the substrate network. In order to compare the performance of mapping algorithms in this stable stage, we choose different range of iteration value in different size of substrate network and virtual network requests. In the experiment, we totally choose ten different value of average duration time for each input situation and showed the six typical results here. In additional, in the sparse substrate network, all the 20-node virtual requests are mapping failed when using Dvine and GMCF algorithm except VnmFlib algorithm. Here, we just listed the representative of results.

For solving the Dvine, GMCF and VnmFlib formulations, we also used GLP-SOL optimization studio. These experiments were run on a 24-core Intel Xeon CPU running at 2.00 GHz with 18MB of level-2 cache and 128G of main memory.

Figure 5.11 shows the result of successful mapping iteration in dense medium substrate network with 5-node requests. From the figure, we could find the VnmFlib algorithm has the largest number of successful mappings among the three algorithms and almost handle all the requests when average amount of active requests is smaller than 300. The successful mappings of VnmFlib are approximately 3 times more than GMCF and 4 times than Dvine algorithm. Dvine and GMCF almost have the same trend of successful mapping iteration when  $N$  is smaller than 800. When  $N$  increasing to 1100, we could find the obvious difference between GMCF and Dvine.

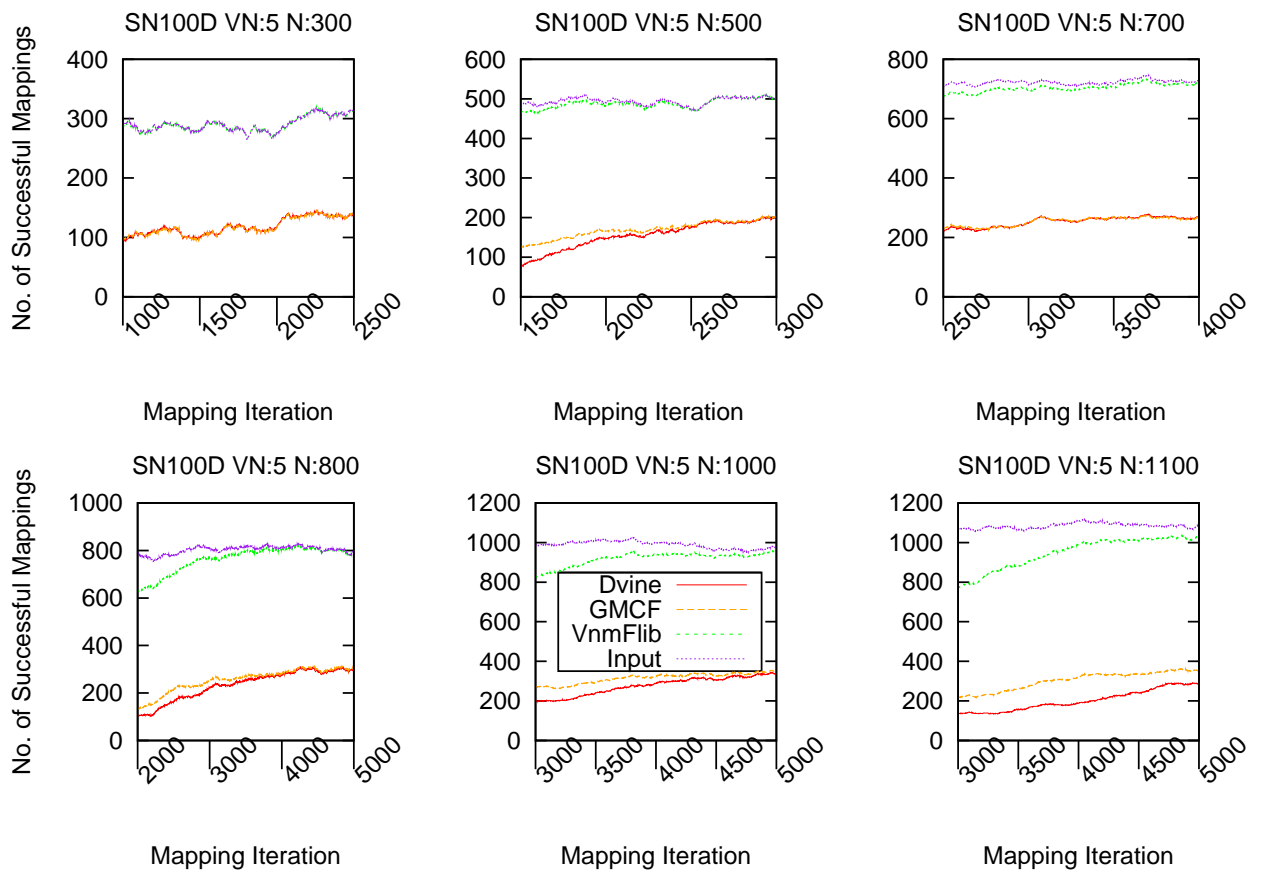


Figure 5.11: Comparison of Amount of Successful Mapping in Different Amount of active requests (Dense Substrate Network with 100 Nodes, Virtual Network with 5 Nodes)

Figure 5.12 shows the result of same substrate network as above with 10-node requests. VnmFlib algorithm also has the best performance among the three algorithms. The successful mappings of VnmFlib are approximately 3 times than GMCF and 4 times than Dvine algorithm. GMCF and Dvine have the same amount of successful mappings when  $N$  is smaller than 400. With the increasing of  $N$ , the successful mappings of GMCF algorithm are almost 1.3 times than Dvine. Due to the increase of requests node amount, it is more difficult for the algorithms to find the optimal solutions mapping to the substrate network. The total amount of successful mappings of each algorithms is smaller than the 5-node requests mapping.

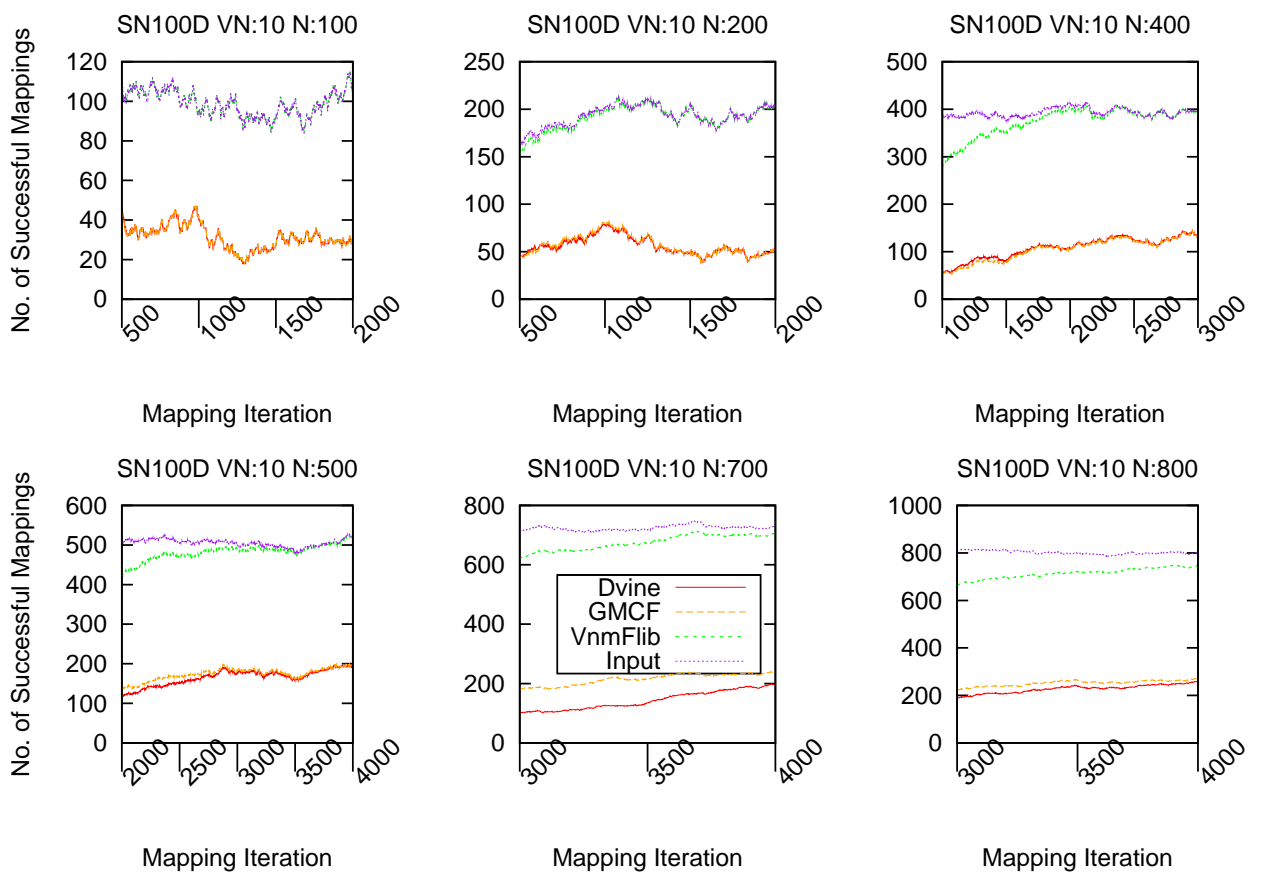


Figure 5.12: Comparison of Amount of Successful Mapping in Different Average Duration Time (Dense Substrate Network with 100 Nodes, Virtual Network with 10 Nodes)

Figure 5.13 shows the result of medium dense substrate network with 20-node requests. Dvine algorithm could only successful mapping one or two requests when  $N$  is smaller than 50 and failed mapping all requests when  $N$  is increasing. From the graph, we could find VnmFlib has the larger successful mapping amount than GMCF, but they almost have the same amount of total successful mappings when  $N$  is smaller than 150, and VnmFlib algorithm has approximately 1.2 times than GMCF algorithm when  $N$  is equal to 450. So GMCF algorithm could successful handle more requests of larger size (20-node) than requests of small size (5-node). However, Dvine is not suitable for the larger size requests process.

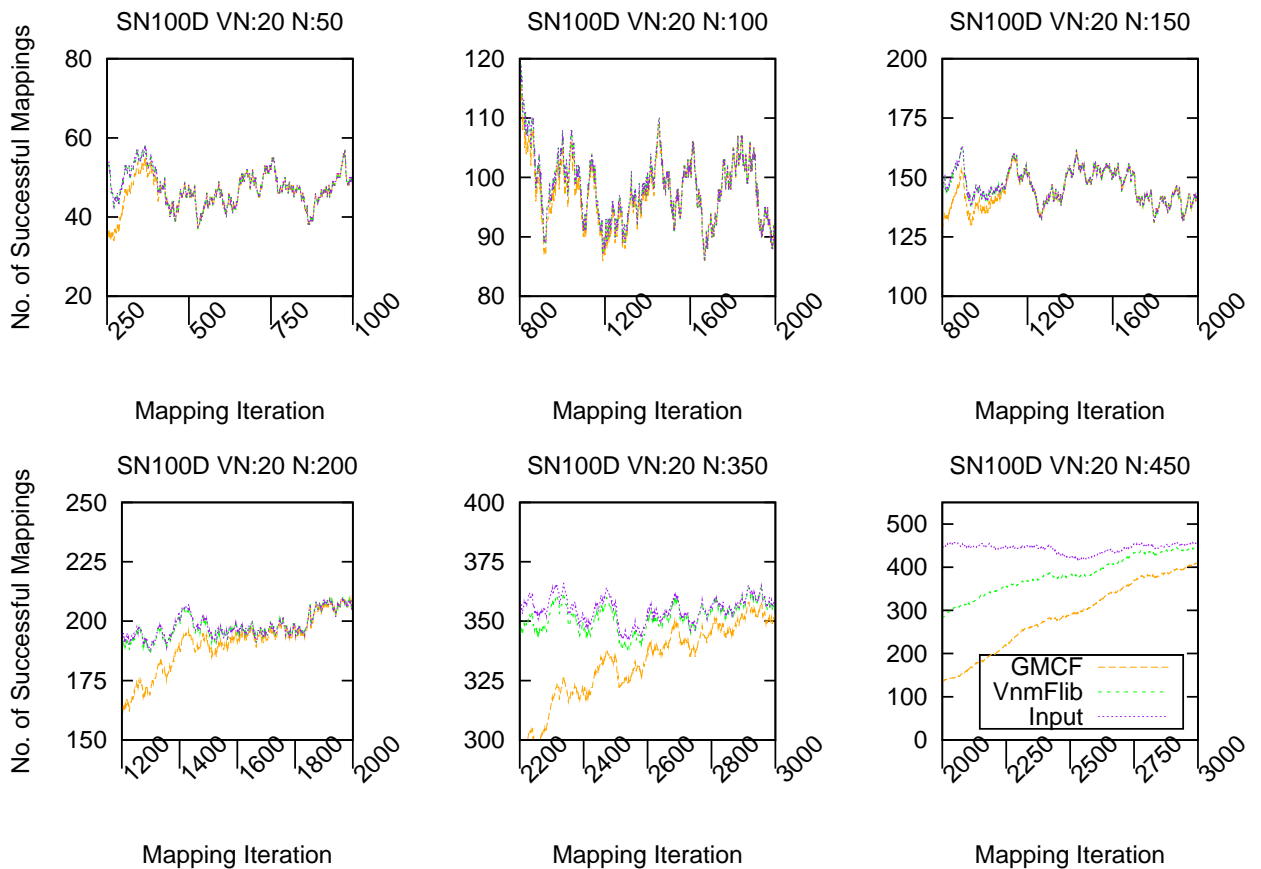


Figure 5.13: Comparison of Amount of Successful Mapping in Different Average Duration Time (Dense Substrate Network with 100 Nodes, Virtual Network with 20 Nodes)



Figure 5.14 shows the result of sparse substrate network with 100 nodes and virtual network requests with 5 nodes. VnmFlib algorithm also has the largest amount of successful mappings among three algorithms. Dvine could map more virtual requests than GMCF. From the graph, we could find when  $N$  is larger than 500, with the increasing of mapping iteration, the trend variation of GMCF algorithm and Dvine algorithm become much more different. Even though Dvine is not "good at" large size virtual requests, it has a better performance in sparse medium substrate network with small size requests.

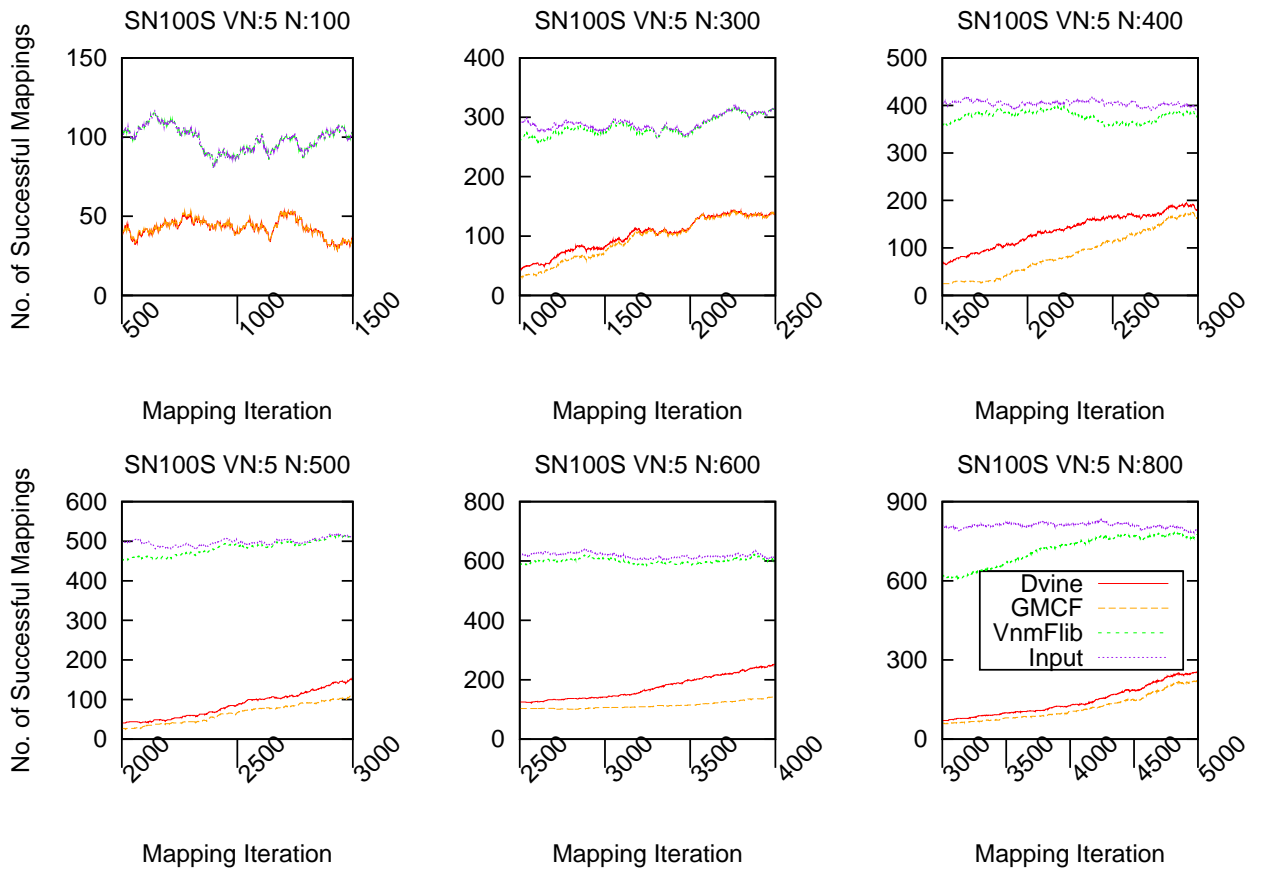


Figure 5.14: Comparison of Amount of Successful Mapping in Different Average Duration Time (Sparse Substrate Network with 100 Nodes, Virtual Network with 5 Nodes)

Figure 5.15 shows the result of sparse substrate network with 100 nodes and virtual network requests with 10 nodes. We could find the successful mapping amount of GMCF is larger than Dvine and VnmFlib algorithm also has the highest amount. Compared with the medium dense substrate network, the amount of successful mappings in sparse substrate network are much smaller, especially when  $N$  equal to 700. For details, the amount of successful mappings of VnmFlib is 675 (totally 4000), which is 3 times than GMCF and 3.85 times than Dvine in dense substrate network; the amount of successful mappings of VnmFlib is 504 (totally 4000), which is 2.65 times than GMCF and 4 times than Dvine. The dense substrate has a higher node degree than sparse substrate, which could offer more link resources for virtual requests.

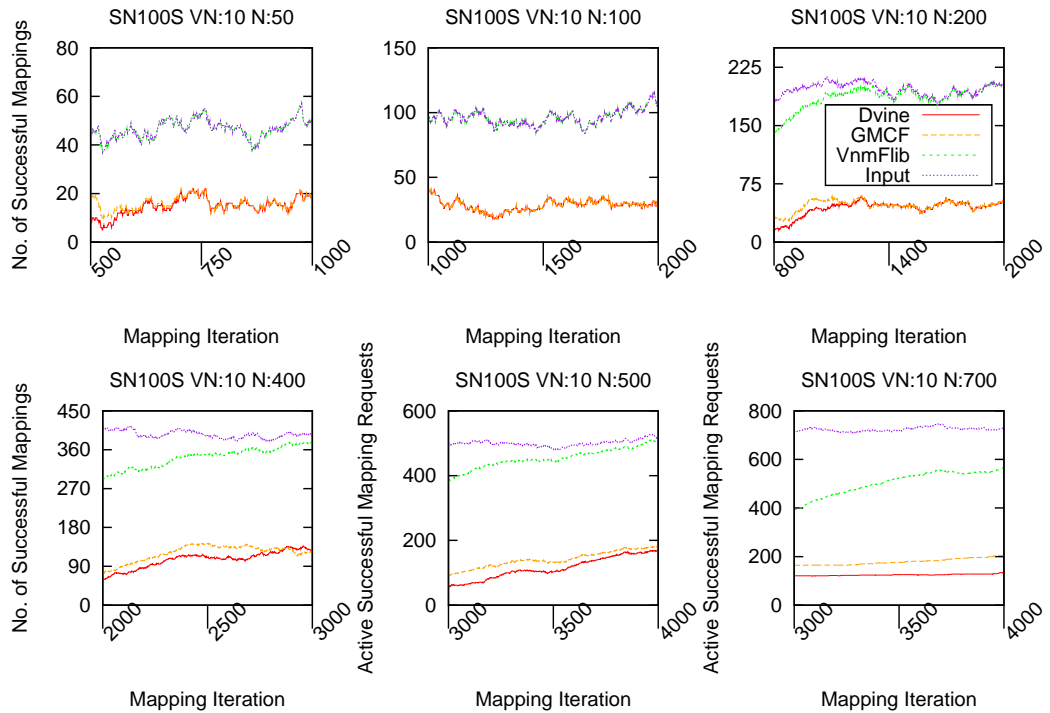


Figure 5.15: Comparison of Amount of Successful Mapping in Different Average Duration Time (Sparse Substrate Network with 100 Nodes, Virtual Network with 10 Nodes)

Figure 5.16 shows the result of dense substrate network with 500 nodes and virtual network requests with 5 nodes. We could find when  $N$  is smaller than 300, all of three algorithms have a good performance, the amount of successful mappings are approach to the input. VnmFlib could almost handle all requests successfully even though  $N$  is increasing to 1000. When  $N$  is smaller than 300, GMCF and Dvine have the similar variation tendency. When  $N$  is increasing to 400, the amount of successful mappings of Dvine is 1.5 times than GMCF. Compare with the medium substrate network, Dvine is more suitable to the large substrate network.

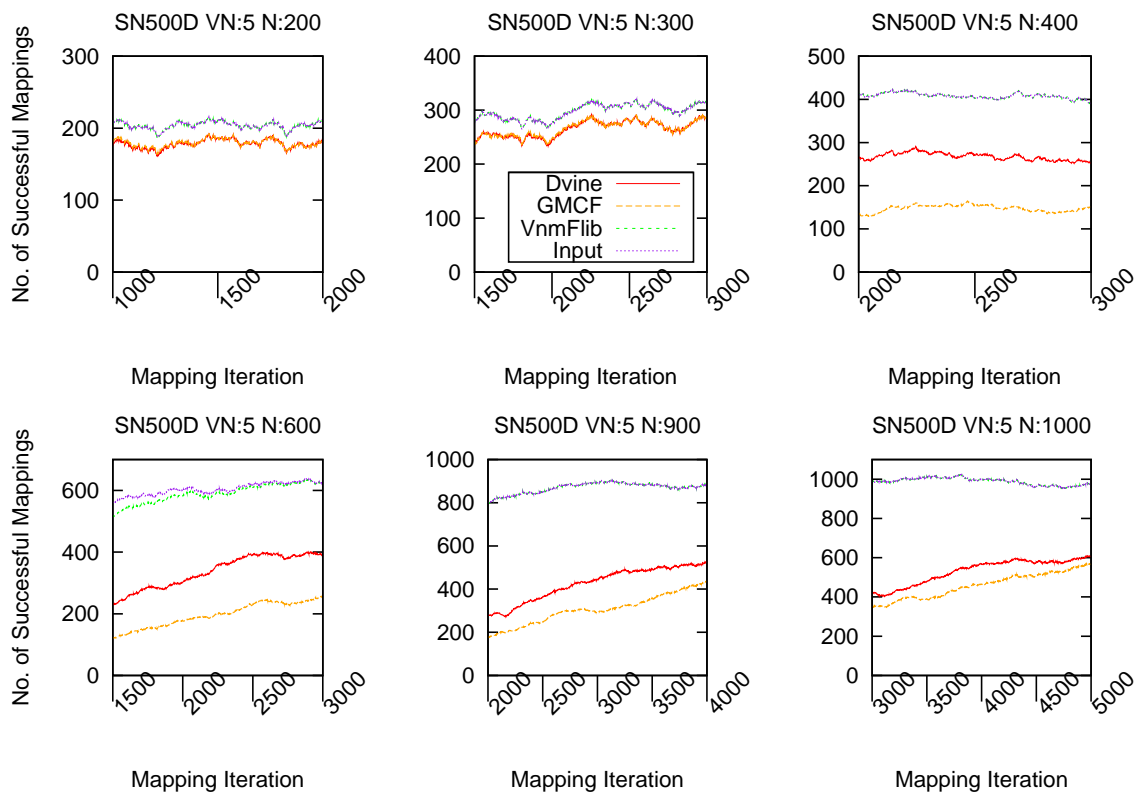


Figure 5.16: Comparison of Amount of Successful Mapping in Different Average Duration Time (Dense Substrate Network with 500 Nodes, Virtual Network with 5 Nodes)

Figure 5.17 shows the result of sparse substrate network with 500 nodes and virtual network requests with 5 nodes. When  $N$  is smaller than 300, VnmFlib could almost map all requests successfully and GMCF, Dvine could successful handle more than half of input requests. When  $N$  is increasing to 500, the amount of successful mapping of GMCF is 908 (total 4000) and Dvine is 1181 (total 4000), which is only a quarter of input requests. In the sparse substrate network, the node degree is only half of dense substrate network. There are less opportunity for mapping algorithms to find the optimized mapping solutions. Dvine is also has a better performance than GMCF and VnmFlib still has the highest amount of successful mappings.

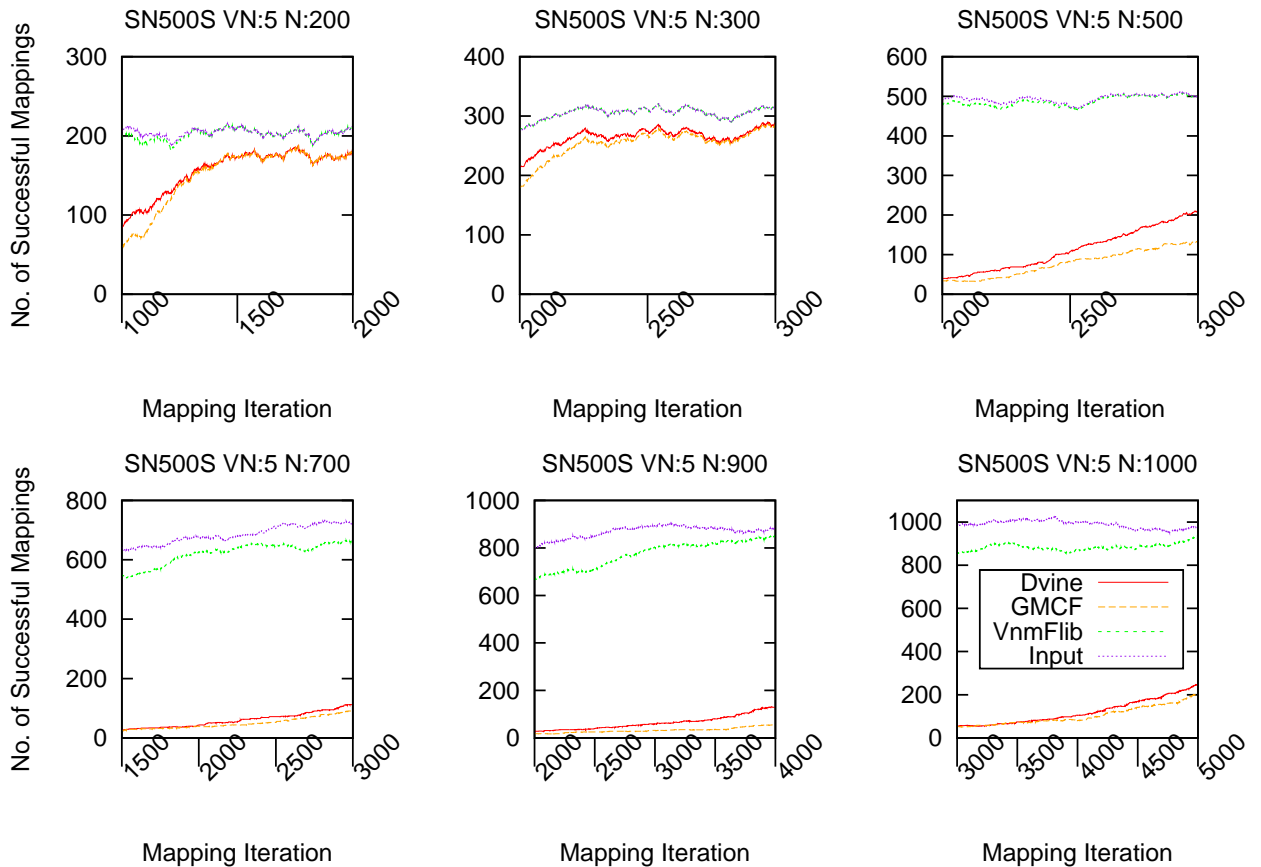


Figure 5.17: Comparison of Amount of Successful Mapping in Different Average Duration Time (Sparse Substrate Network with 500 Nodes, Virtual Network with 5 Nodes)

### 5.3.2 Comparison of Different Average Amount of Active Requests

Figure 5.18 to Figure 5.22 show the average successful mapping amount respect to average amount of active requests in the substrate network. The x-axis is the average amount of active requests "stay" in the substrate network, the y-axis is average successful mapping amount of each algorithms. We also draw the "input" line, which is the "perfect" result, all of the requests have mapped successfully. We will discuss the every graph in the following:

Figure 5.18 shows the comparison of average successful mappings in dense substrate network with 100 nodes and virtual network with 5 nodes. We could find VnmFlib algorithm mostly approach the input line, which has the largest amount of successful mappings. Dvine and GMCF algorithm almost has the same variant trend when  $N$  is smaller than 800, with the increasing of  $N$ , the difference between them become obvious.

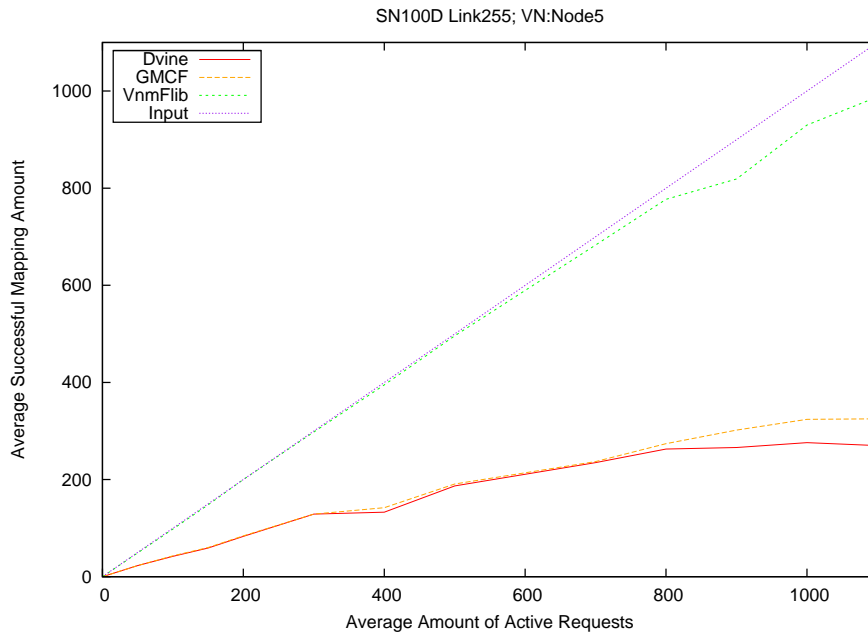


Figure 5.18: Comparison of Different Average Amount of Active Requests (Dense Substrate Network with 100 Nodes, Virtual Network with 5 Nodes)

Figure 5.19 shows the comparison of average successful mappings in the same substrate network like above with 10-node requests. VnmFlib algorithm could handle almost all the requests until  $N$  larger than 500. GMCF algorithm has a higher successful mapping amount than Dvine algorithm. We could find the difference between GMCF algorithm and Dvine algorithm become obvious when  $N$  is equal to 500. Compared with the Figure 5.18,  $N$  is smaller when appears obvious difference, because it is more difficult for algorithms to find the mapping solutions when the size of requests become larger.

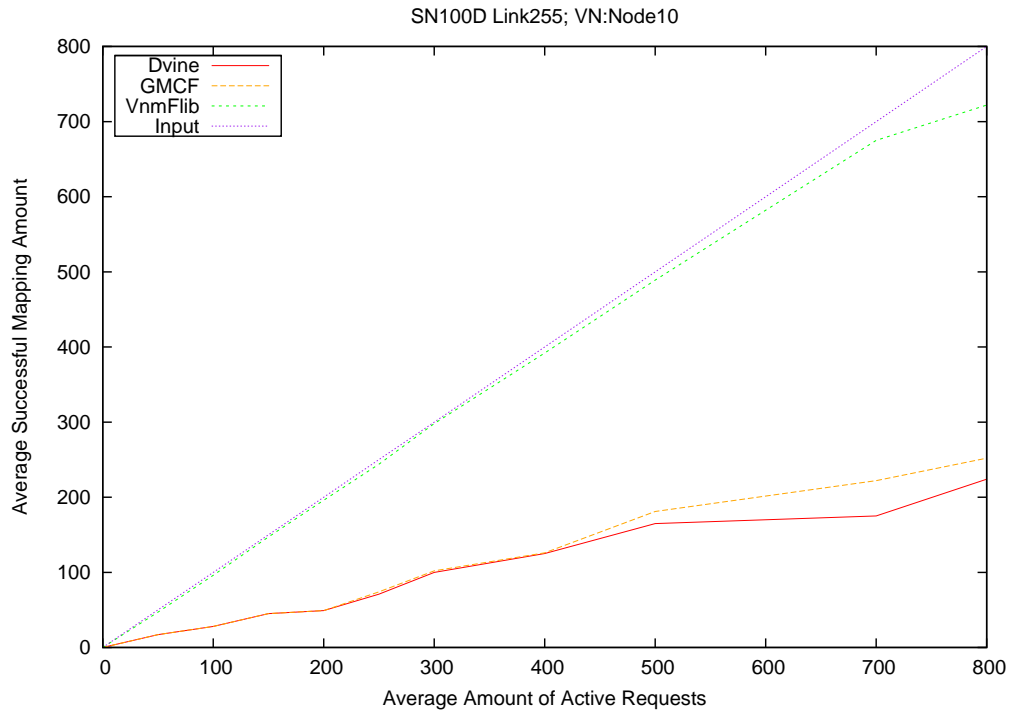


Figure 5.19: Comparison of Different Average Amount of Active Requests (Dense Substrate Network with 100 Nodes, Virtual Network with 10 Nodes)

Figure 5.20 shows the result of medium dense substrate network with 20-node requests. From the graph, we could find the GMCF algorithm is much more approach to the input line than the former situation (mapping 5-node requests and 10-node requests). For the details, we could find all the failed mapping requests due to the failed link mapping for GMCF. With the increasing of  $N$ , the amount of successful mappings of VnmFlib rise faster than GMCF. When  $N$  is larger than 350, the difference between GMCF and VnmFlib becomes larger.

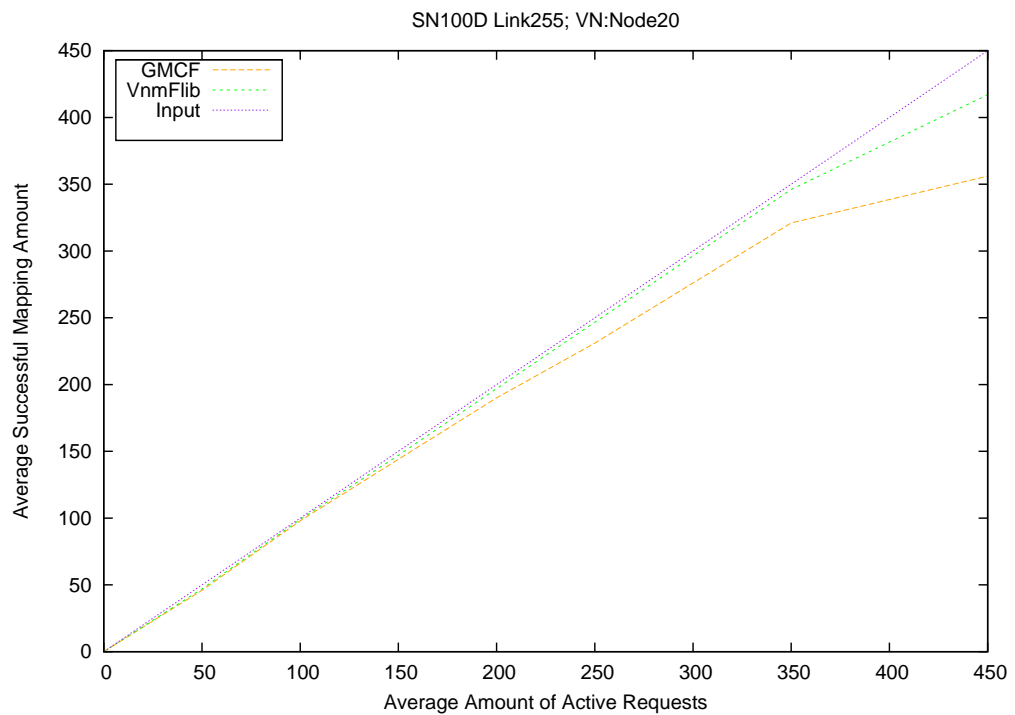


Figure 5.20: Comparison of Different Average Amount of Active Requests (Dense Substrate Network with 100 Nodes, Virtual Network with 20 Nodes)

Figure 5.21 shows the result of medium sparse substrate network with 5-node requests. From the graph, we could find VnmFlib also has the best performance among three algorithms. Dvine could map more virtual requests than GMCF, but the slope of straight line of GMCF is increasing and the slope of straight line of Dvine is decreasing and tends to steady. There is obvious difference between GMCF and Dvine when  $N$  is equal to 350, however, in dense substrate network, the variation trend of these two algorithms almost the same until  $N$  equal to 800. Because it is easier for algorithms to find the optimal mapping resources in the higher node degree network, most of algorithms could handle the requests when average amount of active requests is small in the substrate network. When node degree is smaller, it is more difficult to find the solution even though the value of  $N$  is small.

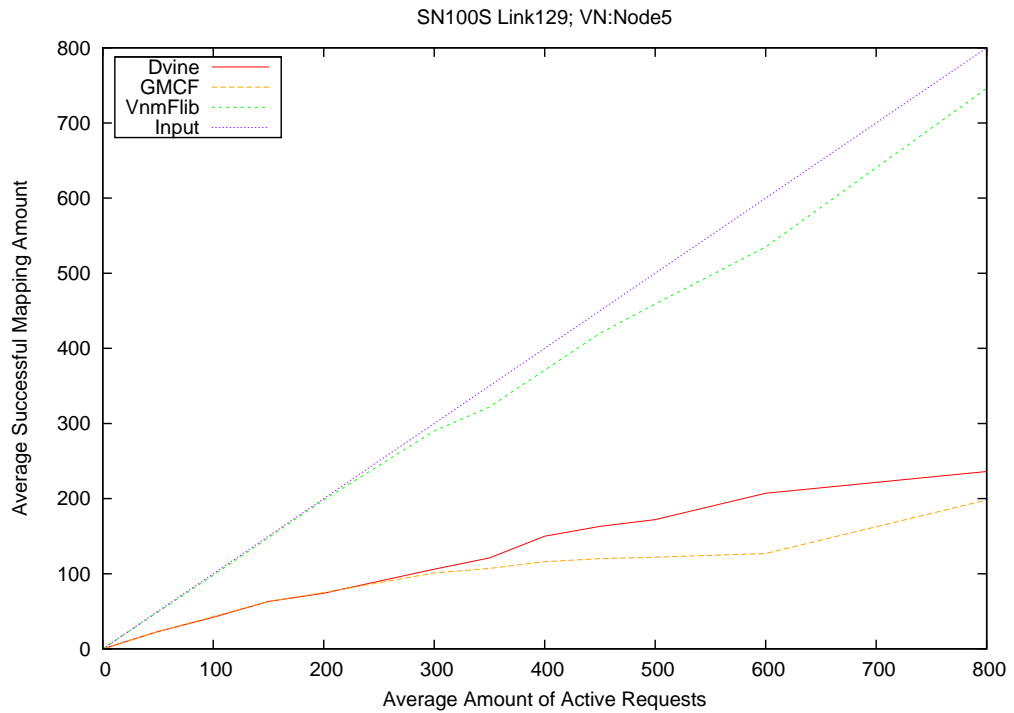


Figure 5.21: Comparison of Different Average Amount of Active Requests (Sparse Substrate Network with 100 Nodes, Virtual Network with 5 Nodes)



Figure 5.22 shows the result of medium sparse substrate network with 10-node requests. Even though the VnmFlib algorithm most approach to the input line, the slope of straight line is decreasing when  $N$  is bigger than 500, which is different from the Figure 5.21. Dvine and GMCF algorithm tend to steady state when the average amount of active requests is higher than 500 and GMCF also could successful map more requests than Dvine.

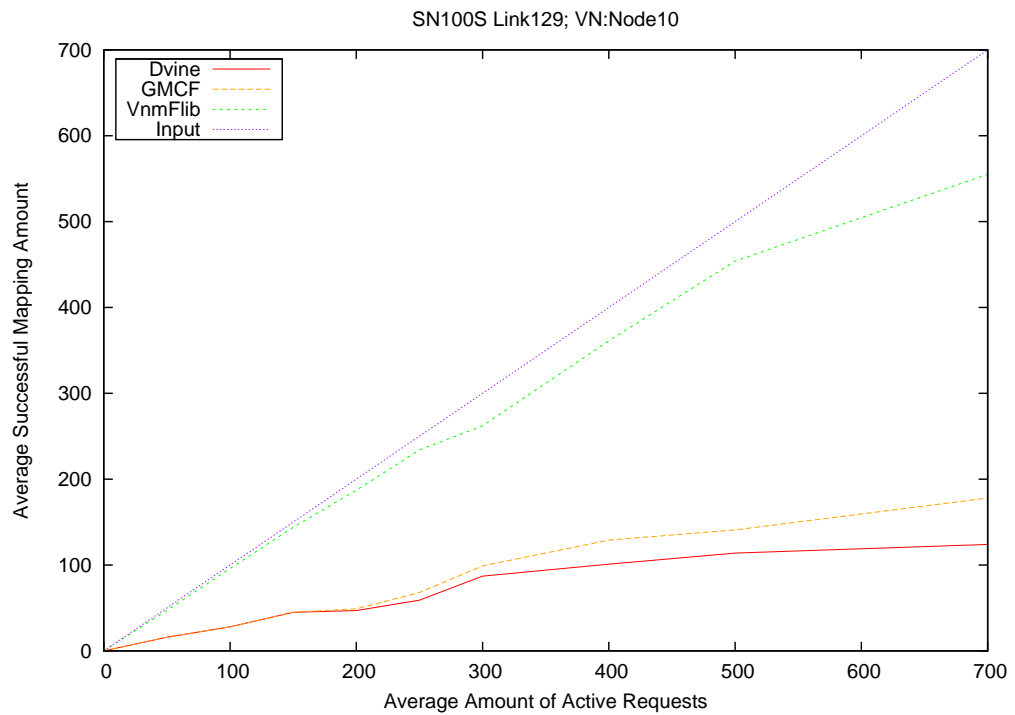


Figure 5.22: Comparison of Different Average Amount of Active Requests (Sparse Substrate Network with 100 Nodes, Virtual Network with 10 Nodes)

### 5.3.3 Conclusion of Experiment Results

Overall, in the dynamic VNMBench model, VnmFlib algorithm has the highest successful mapping amount in the situation of different average amount of active requests. It also has the shortest running time among the three algorithms when node of requests is 5. With the increasing of average amount of active requests, VnmFlib still could handle most of the requests and its line approach to the input line. So VnmFlib algorithm is the best choice to resolve the virtual network mapping problem in dynamic VNMBench model with both medium and large substrate network.

For GMCF algorithm and Dvine algorithm, they have the similar successful mapping amount and variant tendency in dynamic model when amount of success mapping requests is small. With the increasing of value of  $N$ , the difference between them becomes obvious. Dvine is more suitable for the small size virtual requests and GMCF has better performance in the large size virtual requests. For the large size substrate network, Dvine could map more requests than GMCF when virtual requests in small size. In additional, Dvine takes the longest running time among the three algorithms. For example, its running time is almost 5 times than VnmFlib and 3 times than GMCF in dense medium substrate network with 5-node requests. GMCF has the shortest running time when requests node is 10, so for the medium size requests, if we emphasis the running time, GMCF is a better choice. There is more obvious difference among three algorithms using sparse medium substrate network than using dense medium substrate network in the dynamic VNMBench model.

## CHAPTER 6

### CONCLUSION

Network virtualization is a way of sharing a physical network among virtual networks that can differ in functionality. The mapping of virtual network requests to physical resources is an important aspect of operation of a virtual network system. Various mapping algorithms have been developed in literature, but a detailed quantitative understanding of their performance has been difficult due to differences in their performance evaluation.

In our work, we introduce VNMBench, a benchmark for evaluation virtual network mapping algorithms that allows thorough evaluation and comparison of these algorithms. We discuss the design of the benchmark, its inputs, and its performance metrics. In order to better evaluate the mapping algorithms, we separate our model into *static* and *dynamic*. For static VNMBench model, all requests are mapped successively onto a substrate without ever removing (or changing) a mapping that has been completed. It could test the performance of algorithms when there are limited resources in the substrate network. Similar to the situation that most customers occupy the network resources for a long time to do the experiments, the mapping algorithm need to find the optimized solution for the next request in the limited resources. For dynamic VNMBench model, each request has a lifetime, they will be moved from the substrate network and release their resources when they expire. Similar to the situation that a service provider may deploy a new service at any time, and continue supporting the service indefinitely, possibly discontinuing the service when it is no longer profitable. We evaluate three different algorithms using VNMBench

and show that detailed performance results and comparisons between algorithms can be achieved. We also show that the results obtained when using VNMBench are comparable to those from real Emulab requests.

From the experiment results, we could find mapping algorithms have different performance in the static model and dynamic model in different metrics. Such as even though VnmFlib has the highest amount of successful mappings in both model, it takes much higher running time in the static VNMBench model than in the dynamic VNMBench model. GMCF could successful handle more requests than Dvine in static VNMBench model in medium size, but Dvine has a better performance than GMCF in dynamic VNMBench model in large size. We provide a detailed model to compare different mapping algorithms and user could choose the most suitable mapping algorithm based on the different evaluation results. For the new mapping algorithms, in the static model, we think they need to consider how to improve the running time when they maintain a highest successful mapping amount. In the dynamic model, the new mapping algorithm need to consider how to improve the amount of successful mappings when the size of virtual network requests is large.

We believe that our work provides an important foundation to quantitatively evaluating the performance of a critical component in the operation of virtual networks, and presents an important step toward finding faster and more effective virtual network mapping algorithms in the future.

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