# Lies, Damn Lies, and Internet Measurements Statistics and Network Measurements

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There are three kinds of lies: lies, damned lies, and statistics. Mark Twain

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There are three kinds of lies: lies, damned lies, and statistics. Mark Twain



looking for someone who can make all three of these work for us."

# Statistics and Network Measurements

- Everyone here understands the value of network measurements
- However, not wanting to be too controversial, the NM community is hopeless at statistics
  - it's not a unique problem (e.g., see health sciences)
  - but it can cause some misinterpretations and other problems
- War stories
  - e.g., X is better than Y, and related rankings
  - e.g., The red board

# A little history of Network Measurements

1969- ARPANET and all that ...

- measurements are part of it, but not much is published (as far as I know)
- stochastic simulation is the norm
- lots of stochastic models proposed and used for data traffic – few measurements used
- c1992-97 Beran, Erramilli, Leland, Taqqu, Sherman, Willinger, Wilson, and a few others publish a series of papers about self-similar traffic
- c1992-97 Vern Paxson does his PhD at Berkeley on "Measurement and Analysis of End-to-End Internet Dynamics"
- c1995-97 Cunha, Bestavros, and Crovella look at web traces
  - $2000+ \ Network \ measurements \ exploded$ 
    - 2000 First PAM
    - 2001 First IMW (becomes IMC in 2003)
    - 2001 Endace founded

# A little history of Network Measurements

- This is hardly a fair history
  - much is missing
  - focus on what I see as seminal (because it influenced me)
  - apologies to those I left out (CAIDA, Neville Brownlee, TMA, and many others)
- I'm trying to make a point though
  - around 92-97 the Internet was growing and changing very rapidly
  - and we went from being data poor to data rich very quickly
  - initial studies were motivated and supported by stochastic models
  - their impact derived from data
- We took the last bit on board
  - data is now seen as key
  - huge efforts to make this data "good"
  - we seem to have forgotten some of the original modelling and statistics that also made those early result so valuable

### Some Little Examples

Let's look at a few illustrative examples

### Case 1: the test

Statistics means never having to say you're certain

- Common test: test for a problem
  - in medicine it might be a disease
  - ▶ in networks, often look for an "anomaly"
- Let me propose a test for disease X
  - there are two types of error

type I false alarm or false positive

type II failed to detect the problem (false negative)

## Case 1: example

• Imagine a hypothetical test for cancer with the following properties

- ▶ if you have the cancer, it will be detected 90% of the time
- if you don't have the cancer, then 90% of the time, the test will tell you that you don't
- 1/100 people have the disease
- You go to your doctor, and he tells you (in a serious voice) that your test has come back positive
- Should you be scared?
  - what is the chance that you actually have the disease?

# Case 1: analysis

It's a conditional probability problem, but it's actually easier to just consider frequencies.

Consider 1000 people, on average

- 1 in 100 has cancer, so there are 10 with the disease
- The test will identify 9 in the 10
- 990 don't have cancer, but 1 in 10 of these will have a false alarm
- So the test tell us 108 people have the disease, but only 9 are correct: so the probability you have the disease, given the test is only

$$\frac{9}{108}\simeq 9\%$$

• Our "90% accurate" test has a less than 10% chance of being right

### Case 1: network measurement case

- Anomaly detection:
  - ▶ 99% detection probability
  - 1% false alarm probability
- Applied to network
  - SNMP link traffic: bytes and packets
  - collected every 5 minutes, on each link
  - 1000 links
  - average 10 real problems per day

false alarms per day  $\simeq 1000 \times 24 \times 12 \times 2 \times 2 \times 0.01 = 11,520$ 

 $Pr(alarm is genuine) = 9.9/11,520 \simeq 0.0009$ 

• Result: ops switch off the alarm system

### Case 1: the issues

- How many False Alarms are too many
  - often we report a "false-alarm probability"
  - but these test might be conducted many times
  - too many false alarms, and you are "crying wolf"
  - the number depends
    - \* how critical are alerts?
    - \* how easy is it to fix alarms?
- False Discovery Rate is often what we really need
  - average number of false alarms per discovery
- Tests often have tradeoffs
  - often through choice of a threshold or similar parameter
  - by tuning this, we can exchange false alarms for failed detections
  - testing one without the other is pointless
  - comparisons must be of (ROC) curves of the tradeoff

# Case 2: Simpson's Paradox

We commonly report results of experiments

- often we group the data
- often as percentages
- and we think they are meaningful
  - ★ e.g. we can see some causality in the data
- we drawn conclusions from them
  - ★ e.g., A is better than B
- 2 To do analysis properly
  - firstly we need to know whether our proportions are statistically significant
  - but even then beware Simpson's paradox

# Case 2: Simpson's Paradox example

Berkeley gender bias case

- University was sued for bias against women
  - more men were accepted than women (of qualified applicants)

	applicants	admitted
Men	8442	44%
Women	4321	35%

- difference unlikely to be due to chance
  - looks like an obvious case of bias against women

# Case 2: explanation

#### Examine individual departments

	Men		Wor	nen
Department	Applicants	Admitted	Applicants	Admitted
A	825	62%	108	82%
В	560	63%	25	68%
С	325	37%	593	34%
D	417	33%	375	35%
E	191	28%	393	24%
F	373	6%	341	7%

- Larger proportion of female applicants to hard departments
- Not really any (provable) bias

# Case 2: Simpson's Paradox

Other examples

The issue can often lead to reverses in conclusions

- Batting averages
  - ▶ player A has better average than B in 2012 and 2013
  - but player B's average over the two years is better
- Death penalty case
  - if you look uncritically, it looks like more white people than black are given the death penalty
  - if you control for the race of the victim, then the correlation goes the other way

# Case 2: network measurement example

We compare performance of two networks

- we conduct packet probe experiments
  - round-trip probes
  - assume we know how to do that correctly
  - assume we do enough to be statistically significant

#### results

	loss rate
А	1%
В	5%

• Obviously A is better than B?

# Case 2: network measurement example

Cooked up example

But really

- The networks carry 2 types of traffic
  - ► type X
    - $\star$  is real-time, and unresponsive to congestion
    - $\star\,$  both networks prioritise it and it has effectively 0% loss on both
  - ► type Y
    - $\star$  is bulk data, and adapts to congestion
    - ★ the two networks have the same "amount" of congestion, and a resulting loss rate of 10% for this type of traffic
- The two networks have different traffic mixes

	Х	Y
А	90%	10%
В	50%	50%

- hence the loss measurements
- but neither network is better than the other

# Case 2: conclusion

- Obviously, the example is cooked
  - in reality, we might use two different types of probes to assess the different performance
  - but the problem is generic, not specific
- But the point remains
  - danger's of averages
  - correlation doesn't imply causality
  - beware hidden "confounding" variables

#### lurking variables

# Obligatory xkcd cartoon



http://xkcd.com/552/

## Case 3: estimating loss

- Estimating loss probability
  - packets are dropped in queues
  - want to measure end-to-end loss probability
  - it's a useful measure of how well the network is working
  - high loss rate indicates congestion, or other problems
  - SLAs (Service Level Agreements)
- Strategies
  - active: send probe packets
  - passive: measure traffic at two points
- Metric

$$Prob\{packet \ loss\} = \frac{N_{lost \ packets}}{N_{measured \ packets}}$$

### Examples: Performance

- Active performance measurements
- Send probe packets from  $A \rightarrow B$  across the network
- Measure the performance experienced by packets



# Case 3: estimating loss Questions?

- How many probe packets should I send?
- How accurate is a particular measurement?
- My measurement of network A > network B, what does that mean?

These questions are all really asking the same question!

# Case 3: estimating loss

Real question

• If we repeated a set of measurements under the same exact circumstances how much could the result vary?

or the other way around

• Given a desired maximum variability in the estimates, how many measurements do I need?

We often wrap these ideas up in **confidence intervals**, though this isn't the only way to approach the problem.

### Case 3: estimating confidence intervals for loss

Naive approach using Gaussian Confidence Intervals (CIs)

• For N measurements, with n losses

$$\hat{p} = \frac{n}{N}$$

and this estimate  $\hat{p}$  is unbiased (its mean is correct) and its variance is

$$\sigma_p^2 = p(1-p)/N$$

and so we choose confidence intervals

$$\hat{p} \pm z_{lpha} \sigma_{\hat{p}} / \sqrt{N}$$

where for 95% CIs (the typical case)  $z_{lpha}=1.96.$ 

• Stats intuition: you need enough measurements for the Gaussian approximation to be correct, so make sure *N* is big enough that

$$N\hat{p}(1-\hat{p}) > 10$$

### Case 3: estimating confidence intervals for loss What's wrong with this?

- The result is widely cited, but WRONG!
- Why?
  - The estimate  $\hat{p}$  is used also to estimate CIs
  - The CIs are symmetric, which means you can have negative values!
  - The measure is continuous, but the experimental results are discrete
  - ► The measure assumes that loss measurements are not correlated!

### Case 3: what do we do about it?

• The actual variance of the estimate is

$$Var(\hat{p}) = \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} R(\tau_{ij}),$$

where  $R(\cdot)$  is the autocovariance function and the  $\tau_{ij}$  are the times between measurements

- Process
  - Estimate R(·)
    - \* have to be careful how to do this with limited measurements [NR13]
  - Use Cls, but with a better variance estimate

### Case 3: cross-validation





### Case 3: cross-validation



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April 7, 2016 28 / 34

# Case 3: conclusion

- Cls for loss-probabilities estimates need more care http://bandicoot.maths.adelaide.edu.au/SAIL/
  - ▶ reasonable CIs are usually MUCH wider than IID Gaussian CIs
  - more measurements are needed than you think
- Most Internet loss measurements studies and tools have ignored the problem
  - many research conclusions are WRONG!!!!
  - there may have been SLA violations reported that weren't supportable
  - network op.s decisions made on the basis of bad information, or network op.s stop listening to measurements
- And that doesn't even take into account the other problems which occur when probabilities are small [SBE+11, BCD01, Wil27]

# Some other statistical problems

- Sampling
  - do I need to test everyone?
  - remember many experiments are just samples of some underlying phenomena
    - ★ e.g., packet probes sample a network's performance
- Comparisons
  - ▶ is A better than B?
  - this is a statistical question, whether you know it or not
  - there are aspects to the question not discussed above
  - ranked orderings are particularly dangerous
- Models
  - curve fitting is potentially misleading
  - but lots of people do even that part really badly
- Gnarly "little" issues
  - long-range correlations
  - infinite variance
  - PASTA

### What to do

- There's lots of research going on
  - some is on how to do this stuff better
- Be careful with statistics (obviously)
  - learn enough (to be dangerous)
  - consult with a statistician
    - $\star$  this seems to be becoming the norm for medical studies
- Consult your statistician early

To consult the statistician after an experiment is finished is often merely to ask him to conduct a post mortem examination. He can perhaps say what the experiment died of. *Ronald Fisher* 

- Sorry about the Stats 101 for those already initiated
- Any questions?

# Further reading I

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