An in-depth study of the syntactic analysis of graphs using search matching algorithms, to the degree of sub graphs

October 19, 2015

1 Graph Basics

1.1 Graph Overview

A Graph in Mathematics and Computer Science is defined as a pair G = (V, E), where V is the set of vertices and E is the set of edges, formed by pairs of vertices with each other. Figure 1 demonstrates the structural attributes of a simple graph.

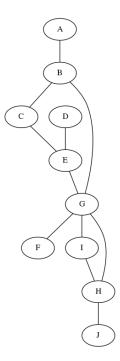


Figure 1: Representation of a graph

Graphs can either directed or they can undirected. This means that the edges in the graph could have an abscence of direction as in the 1 above, or they could have a direction showing from which vertice the edge is coming from, and to which vertice the edge is going to. Figure 2 demonstrates a directed graph, commonly known as a digraph. This characteristic is demonstrated by the edge 3, that goes from node B to node C.

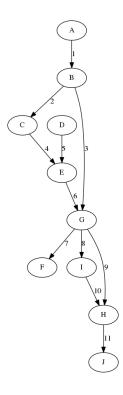


Figure 2: Representation of a digraph

Note that the undirected graph mentioned above is commonly referred to as a bigraph because the direction of its edges could be percieved as to going in both direction as it is not specified.

In this paper, the focus is primarily on directed graphs, and they shall be referred to as digraphs from here onward.

1.2 Digraph

A Digraph in mathematics is defined as is a pair of disjoint vertices and edges (V, E), and their repective mappings that comprises of two components, namely the initial vertix and terminal vertice of each edge i.e. each edge has a initial vertix:

$$Ei \to Vi$$
 (1)

and a terminal vertix:

$$Vj \to Ej$$
 (2)

for some vertices Vi, Vj in V and edges Ei, Ej in E [7] refer to the figure 2.

1.3 Graph representation

Graphs are represented in a variaty of ways, from adjacency lists, incident matrices and adjacency matrices. The algorithms that are studied in this paper make us of adjacency matrices and adjacency list representations of graphs.

1.3.1 Adjacency matrices

An adjacency matrices is a nxn matrix A, with A(i,j) = 1 if f(i,j)E [9]. This means that wherever there is an edge in the graph, it is denoted by a 1 in the matrix, places in the matrix where there is an absence of an edge, are denoted by 0.

Figure 3 depicts the association between the graph in figure 1 and its adjacency matrix.

	A	В	C	D	E	G	F	I	H	J	
A	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
В	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	
С	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	
D	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	
E	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	
G	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	
F	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	
I	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	
Н	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	
J	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	

Figure 3: Representation of a graph and its associated adjacency matrix

1.3.2 Adjacency list

An Adjacency list is vertices of a graph, of which each vertice is connected to the list. The vertices in an adjacency list point to their own list of edges that they are connected to (i.e. the list contains the edges that connect them to other vertices).

Figure 4 depicts the association between the graph in figure 1 and its adjacency list.

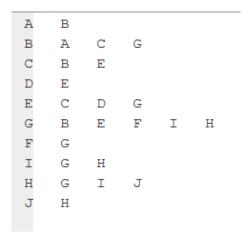


Figure 4: Representation of a graph and its associated adjacency list

1.4 Supergraphs and subgraphs

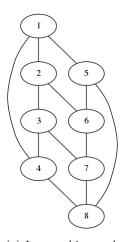
Let G_A be be graph define as follows $G_A = (V_A, E_A)$ and let G_B be another graph that is defined as follows $G_B = (V_B, E_B)$ where V_A, V_B are sets of vertices and E_A, E_B are sets of edges. In graph theory, a graph G_A is said to be a subgraph of graph G_B , and graph G_B is said to be a supergraph of graph G_A if all the vertices and edges that are in graph G_A are also in graph G_B , that is [3]:

- (1) $V_A \subseteq V_B$, and
- (2) Every edge of G_A is also an edge in G_B .

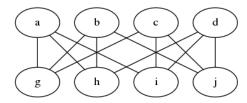
In figure 1, the graph constructed by vertices D, E, G, F and I is the sub-graph of the entire graph. And thus the graph is a super-graph of the sub-graph constructed by the vertices, namely D, E, G, F and I.

1.5 Graph Isomorphism

Two graphs are said to be isomorphic if they are syntactically similar to each other iff there is a bijection between their respective nodes which make each edge of G_{A} correspond to exactly one edge of G_{B} , and vice versa [12], i.e. the graphs are structurally the same to each other. This property is demonstrated in figures 5b.



(a) Isomorphic graph on the left



(b) Isomorphic graph on the right

Figure 5: A demostration of two isomorphic graphs

The two graphs look very different, but when they are further inspected, it is evident that the two are a representation of the same structural scheme or maybe even the same graph that has been rearranged.

Consider the vertice 1 from the left-most graph, it has three edges going to and from vertices 2,4 and 5, and now consider the vertix a from the right-most graph, it also has three vertices going to and from it, namely g, h and i. These two vertices have the same structural, but from two different graphs, the same goes for all the other vertices in both graphs .i.e each vertice in the left-most graph can be associtated with one in the right-most graph as we did for vertices 1 and a.

2 Search Matching Algorithm

2.1 Introduction

Subgraph ismorphis can be determined using a brute-force approach on the tree representation of a graph G_A . Though this technique is effective, it is however not efficient, this is because all the possible permutation subgraphs of a graph G_A are tested against the graph G_B to determine if there are subgraphs in graph G_A that are isomorphic to graph G_B . The number of subgraphs of a graph G_A increase at an exponential rate with every addition of a vertice V_B into the graph, thus the total number of subgraphs that can be evaluated are

$$ST = 2^{n/2} \tag{3}$$

where ST is the total number of subgraphs and n the number if vertices in the graph G_A .

The matching process is computationally expensive due to this very fact, that is the more vertices there are in the graph G_A , the more expensive it becomes to detect the subgraph ismorphisms because of the amount of subgraphs it has and thus must be evaluated.

This paper explores two graphs that are very effective with regards to graph isomorphis and subgraph isomorphism detection. The algorithms that are invesicated are the Ullman Algorithm and the VF2 algorithm.

2.2 Ullman Algorithm

2.2.1 Algorithm

The Ullman algorithm was developed by J.R.Ullman and was published in his paper titled "An Algorithm for Subgraph Isomorphism" [1]. The algorithm performs graph matching on an adjacency matrix representation of both the graphs, and uses the depth search first(DSF) recursive approach to traverse through the graphs and perform the graph matching process. The Ullman algorithm improves the efficiency of the brute-force approach at detecting subgraph ismorphisms by deductively eleminating nodes in the tree that are in graph G_A , but are not in graph G_B , thus reducing the number of subgraphs that are matched against graph G_B to determine ismorphism.

The algorithm starts by building a starting adjacency matrix M0 using the two adjacency matrix representations of graphs G_A and G_B using the following procedure.

- (1) Construct a n * m matrix where n is the number of rows of graph G_B and m is the number of column of graph G_A .
- (2) Set all the entries in the matrix to the value of 1.
- (3) Apply the following rule: Set the values in M0 to 0 for all $M0_{ij}$ where the degree of a vertice in graph $G_{\rm A}$ at j is greater then the degree of the same vertice in graph $G_{\rm B}$.i.e.

$$deg(Ai) < deg(Bj). (4)$$

A more formal representation of this rule is as follows

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } deg(Ai) \ge deg(Bj) \\ 0, & \text{otherwise } \forall i, j \end{cases}$$

When the starting matrix has been constructed, we systematically permute matrices M^d from the starting matrix M0 where d represents the depth of the generated matrix. The procedure of generating the permuted matrices follows a depth search first (DSF) recursive approach where the stopping condition (leaf matrices) conform to the following form:

- (1) M contains only 0's and 1's.
- (2) There is exactly one 1 in each row.
- (3) Not more than one 1 in each colum.

An demonstration of how the permutation matrices are generated is demonstrated in figure 6.

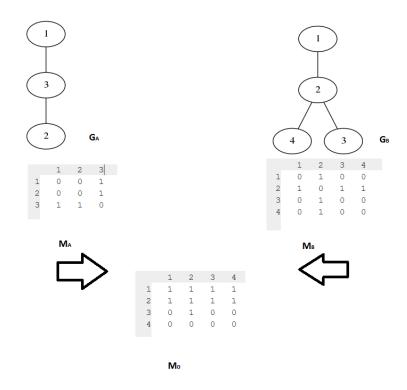


Figure 6: Demonstation of how a permutation matrix is generated from two graphs

Once all the permutation matrices have been generated, each one of the matrices is matched with a graph C, that is obtained from the dot product of the permuted matrix and the graph G_A . The formula for calculating graph C is follows: $C=M_n(M_n . G_A)T$, where G_A = input graph and M_n = permutated matrix M_n in M^d , obtained from the starting matrix M_n (M_n . G_A)T = the transpose of the dot product of the permutated matrix M_n and the graph G_A . If there is a single instance of the matrix C, that is calculated using some permutated matrix M_n obtained from the starting matrix M_n , that is equal to matrix G_B , then G_B is isomorphic to G_A . Thus G_B is isomorphic to G_A if G_B

$$ij = 1 \to Cij = 1 \forall i, j$$
 (5)

If non of the generated permutated matrices can statisfy this condition, then $G_{\rm B}$ is not isomorphic to $G_{\rm B}$.

2.2.2 Ullman Pseudo code

```
M = M^0, d = 1, H_1 = 0,
         for all i = 1, \dots, p_{\alpha} \text{ set } F_{\bullet} := 0;
         refine M, if exit FAIL then terminate algorithm;
Step 2.
         If there is no value of j such that m_d, = 1 and f, = 0 then go to step 7,
         M_d := M;
         if d = 1 then k = H_1 else k = 0;
Step 3
         k = k + 1,
         if m_{dk} = 0 or f_k = 1 then go to step 3;
         for all j \neq k set m_{d_j} = 0;
         refine M; if exit FAIL then go to step 5;
Step 4
         If d < p_{\alpha} then go to step 6 else give output to indicate that an isomorphism has been found;
Step 5
         If there is no j > k such that m_d, = 1 and f, = 0 then go to step 7,
         M = M_d;
         go to step 3,
Step 6 H_d = k, F_k = 1; d = d + 1;
         go to step 2,
Step 7. If d = 1 then terminate algorithm,
         F_k = 0; d = d - 1; M = M_d, k := H_d;
         go to step 5;
```

Figure 7: Pseudo code of the Ullman algorith [1]

2.3 VF2 Algorithm

2.3.1 Algorithm

The VF2 algorithm was introduced by L.P.Cordella, P.Foggiaa, C.Sansone and M.Vento [11]. The algorithm is suitable for graph matching and isomorphic determination, including subgraph isomorphic determination on large graphs, this is attributed to the Data structures that the algorithm uses and the manner in which they are used [11], this feature is discussed later in the paper.

The algorithm performs the matching process by attempting to find a mapping M, of vertices in graph $G_{\rm A}$ which correspond to vertices in graph $G_{\rm B}$. The mapping is then used to determine if the two graphs are completely syntactically similar (isomorphic), partially syntactically similar or have no structural similarities at all.

2.3.1.1 Matching and Mapping definition

A mapping M is defined as a set of pairs (n, m), where n is a vertice from G_A and m a vertice from G_B , thus $n \subseteq G_A$ and $m \subseteq G_B$.

The isomorphism determining properties of the mapping are defined as follows, a mapping $M \subset N_A$ * N_B is isomorphic iffM is a bijection, that preserves the branching structure of G_A and G_B , where N_A is a set of vertices from G_A and N_B a set of vertices from G_B .

The mapping $M \subset N_A*N_B$ is subgraph isomorphic iffM is isomorphic to G_A and a subgraph of G_B .

2.3.1.2 Mapping Procedure

The mapping M comprises of state based partial solution morphisms M(s) for each state s. The process of finding the mapping M that is described above uses State Space Representations (SSR) [12]. The partial solution morphisms M(s) selects two subgraphs from G_A and G_B , namely $G_A(s)$ and $G_B(s)$ respectively. The subgraphs comprises of only vertices that are present in the partial solution M(s) for the state s as well as the edges joining them together.

The algorithm starts with an initial state s0 that has no mapping between the two graphs, thus M(s0) = NULL. The algorithm then computes a set of candidate pairs P(s). Each candidate p in the set is checked against the feasibility function that is discussed in the following chapter, if p is successful then it is added to the state s. And the successor s' is computed using a combination of the predecessor state and the candidate p, thus:

$$s' = s \cup p \tag{6}$$

The process of generating successor states is a recursive procedure that makes use of the depth first traversal for graphs. When a path has been exhausted and a solution has not yet been found, the algorithm uses backtracking to explore the alternative paths [11,13].

2.3.1.3 Definition of the set P(s) and of the feasibility function F(s, n, m)

The VF2 algorithm generates the states with close consideration that only some of the states are consistant with the desired morphisms [12]. The algorithm avoids inconsistant states by making use of a set of rules in it's state generation procedure, thus ensuring that only consistant state are generated, these rules are referred to as feasibility rules.

The algorithm uses a function called a feasibility function to test that an addition of a pair (n, m) to a state will be consistant. If the addition of the pair passes all the feasibility rules, the algorithm will return a true value, if not, a false value indicating that the procedure results in an inconsistant successor state s', and thus that state s' will not be explored by the algorithm.

A further filter can be applied in the consistent states to rule out those states whose successor states will be inconsistant, this approach is employed by adding a additional rules called k - look - ahead rules [12]. They check to see if the current state s will have a consistant successor state after k steps, i.e. they check to see if the states from s to s^k are consistant with the desired morphisms.

2.3.1.4 Condidate Pairs

The candidate pairs are obtained by considering the vertices that are connect to $G_A(s)$ and $G_B(s)$, the sub-graphs of G_A and G_B in the state s. The vertexs are used to form the pairs (n, m) as defined above. In order explain how the pairs are formed, we must first introduce the following definitions: Let:

- (1) $T_{A}in(s)$ be the set of vertexs that are not yet in the partial mapping M(s) and are the origin of the edges from graph G_{A}
- (2) $T_{\rm B}in(s)$ be the set of vertexs that are not yet in the partial mapping M(s) and are the origin of the edges from graph $G_{\rm B}$
- (3) $T_{A}out(s)$ be the set of vertexs that are not yet in the partial mapping M(s) and are the destination of the edges from graph G_{A}
- (4) $T_{\text{B}}out(s)$ be the set of vertexs that are not yet in the partial mapping M(s) and are the destination of the edges from graph G_{B}

The pair (n, m) is made by vertex n from $T_{A}out(s)$ and m from $T_{B}out(s)$. If the any of the sets is empty, then we consider the vertex n from $T_{A}in(s)$ and m from $T_{B}in(s)$. In the case where that graphs are not connected, the pairs will be made by all the vertex not yet contained in either $G_{A}(s)$ and $G_{B}(s)$. These pairs form the entries in the set P(s) for that respective state s.

2.3.1.5 The feasibility rules

The feasibility rules that are used to ensure that the states that are evaluated play a role in improving the performance, by preventing inconsistent states from being explored and thus optimizing the execution of the algorithm. There are five general feasibility rules defined as R_{pred} , R_{succ} , R_{in} , R_{out} and R_{new} respectively.

The feasibility functions check for two main things, firstly they check the consistency of the partial solution in the successor state s', namely M(s'). Rules R_{pred} and R_{succ} are the rules used for this checking.

The remaining rules are used for pruning the search space for different levels of look ahead. The R_{in} and R_{out} are used to look ahead one level and determine which of those successor states are consistent, and R_{new} is used for the same purpose, but for a look ahead level of two. The definition for each rule is as follows:

$$(\forall n' \in M1(s) \cap Pred(GB, n) \exists m' \in Pred(GA, m) | (n', m') \exists M(s) \land \\ \forall m' \in M2(s) \cap Pred(GA, m) \exists n' \in Pred(GB, n) | (n', m') \exists M(s)), \quad (7)$$

$$Rsucc(s, n, m) \iff (\forall n' \in M1(s) \cap Succ(GB, n) \exists m' \in Succ(GA, m) | (n', m') \exists M(s) \land \\ \forall m' \in M2(s) \cap Succ(GA, m) \exists n' \in Succ(GB, n) | (n', m') \exists M(s)), \quad (8)$$

$$Rin(s, n, m) \iff (Card(Succ(GB, n) \cap TBin(s)) \geq Card(Succ(GA, m) \cap TAin(s))) \cap \\ (Card(Pred(GB, n) \cap TBin(s)) \geq Card(Pred(GA, m) \cap TAin(s))) \cap \\ (Card(Succ(GB, n) \cap TBout(s)) \geq Card(Succ(GA, m) \cap TAout(s))) \cap \\ (Card(Pred(GB, n) \cap TBout(s)) \geq Card(Pred(GA, m) \cap TAout(s))) \cap \\ (Card(Pred(GB, n) \cap TBout(s)) \geq Card(Pred(GA, m) \cap TAout(s))) \cap \\ (Card(NA(s) \cap Pred(GB, n)) \geq Card(NB(s) \cap Pred(GA, n)) \land \\ Card(NA(s) \cap Succ(GB, n)) \geq Card(NB(s) \cap Succ(GA, n)) \quad (11)$$

In order for a state to be considered consistent, it must pass a combination of all of the five rules, namely:

$$Fsyn(s, n, m) = Rpred \land Rsucc \land Rin \land Rout \land Rnew$$
 (12)

where $F_{\text{syn}}(s, n, m)$ the feasibility function that is envoked upon the state s.

2.3.2 VF2 Pseudo code

```
PROCEDURE Match(s)

INPUT: an intermediate state s; the initial state s_0 has M(s_0) = \emptyset

OUTPUT: the mappings between the two graphs

IF M(s) covers all the nodes of G_2 THEN

OUTPUT M(s)

ELSE

Compute the set P(s) of the pairs candidate for inclusion in M(s)

FOREACH p in P(s)

IF the feasibility rules succeed for the inclusion of p in M(s) THEN

Compute the state s obtained by adding p to M(s)

CALL Match(s)

END IF

END FOREACH

Restore data structures

END IF
```

Figure 8: Pseudo code of the VF2 algorith [11]

2.4 Conclusion

The Ullman and VF2 algorithm that are discussed above both follow a similar approach in attempting to perform graph mathing. They both construct a tree from the adjacency representation of their input graphs and use the depth first tree traversal techniques to evaluate the graphs, this is done every effectively by both the algorithms.

Though both algorithms are effective in their own respective regards, they are optimized rather differently and thus differe in their degree of complexity. The VF2 algorithm optimizes its execution by performing a look-ahead operation of two states from its current states in an attempt to ignore paths that will result in inconsistant states.

The Ullman algorithm on the other hand optimizes its execution by not computing all possible sub-graphs of some graph G, but reduces the computated matrices by initially computing a matrice M0 from the input graphs and then ensuring that all the matrices that are computed from M0 are tested so as to prevent the algorithm from exploring a branch that will not result in a graph or sub-graph isomorphism

3 VFLibGraph Library

3.1 Introduction

The VFLibGraph library is a graph matching library that is written in C++, it was developed at the Intelligent Systems and Artificial Vision Lab (SIVALab) which is situated in the University of Naples [13]. The library was originally developed to test the VF algorithm [13], the predecessor of the VF2 algorithm, but the library has since evolved to include some of the latest graph matching algorithms such as the Schmidt and Druffel algorithm.

3.2 Using the library

The library provides interfaces to the implemented algorithms that it has in its employ, and it also has a comprehensive documentation of how each algorithms interface can be constructed, as well as the matching process between two input graphs.

We have constructed interfaces for the Ullman algorithm and the VF2 algorithm to test against our data set, which comprises on graphs of various number of vertices and edges.

4 Experimentation

4.1 Data Set

The graph data that is used in the experimentation was created by David S. Johnson, Cecilia R. Aragon, Lyle A. McGeoch and Catherine Schevon [14]. It was created in 1991 to study optimization by simulated annealing. One of the graphs that used was chosen to be experimented on to study the subject algorithms, namely the Ullman and VF2 algorithms. The graph used can be found here [14].

The graph is a large direct graph that comprises of 250 vertices and 3218 edges [14], and it is used as the super-graph in the experiments, and will be referred to as the subject-graph from here on out. Figure 8 depicts a diagram of how the graph looks like.

The algorithms both need two graph in order to determine if they are isomorphically related to each other or not, thus subgraphs from our object graph are required for this comparison. These subgraphs are then generated from the object graph and they all meet the condition that:

• They are either partially or completely isomorphic in relation to one or other digraph inside the set.

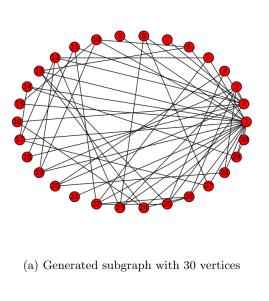


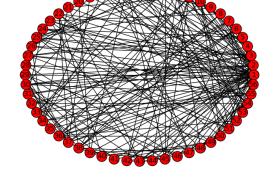
Figure 9: The super-graph used in the experiment comprising of 250 vertices

The subgraphs will be refered to as subject-graphs from here on out.

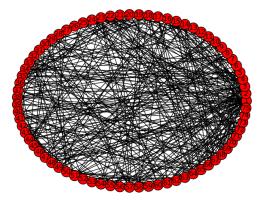
The generated subgraphs have the following number of vertices: 30,56,75,92,109,121,148,166,181,197,211 and 222. Each one of the graphs is sub-graph isomorphic to the object graph, and will compared with it to determine how long it takes to find the isomorphic relationship, and how much virtual memory [15] is used to find the relationship.

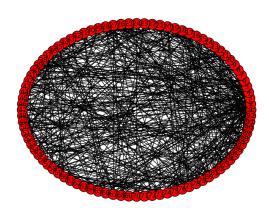
Figure 9 depics how some of the generated subgraphs lot relative to figure Figure 8.





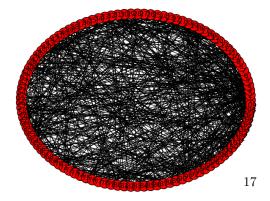
(b) Generated subgraph with 56 vertices





(c) Generated subgraph with 75 vertices

(d) Generated subgraph with 92 vertices





(e) Generated subgraph with 109 vertices

(f) Generated subgraph with 121 vertices

Figure 10: A demostration of two isomorphic graphs

4.2 Experiment

The experiment that is conducted on the Ullman [1] and the VF2 [11] algorithm uses a quantitative approach that evaluates the algorithms against each other. The search graph matching algorithms are implemented and experimented on, using two digraph objects at a time. The experiment for that is employed, measures and records the algorithms ability and performance of the algorithms in cases where Graph G_A and Graph G_B are either partially or completely isomorphic.

4.2.1 Experiment implementation

We will refer to Graphs G_A and G_B in this context.

The algorithm has to insert an arbitrarily large number of nodes.

The comparison that is done, is dependent on the relationship between Graph G_A and G_B .

Syntactic comparison

- (1) $G_{\rm A}$ is compared with the whole of $G_{\rm B}$ for syntactical similarity.
 - (I) A new subgraph of Graph B is generated.
 - (II) The subgraph is compared with Graph G_A for syntactical similarity.
 - (A) The time taken to perform the comparison is recorded.
 - (B) The amount of memory used by the algorithm to perform the comparison is recorded.
 - (III) Once all the subgraphs of Graph B have been experimented upon, the result of the subgraph with the best degree of syntactical(isomorphic) similarity is then considered the found subgraph.
- (2) If Graph G_A and G_B are not completely syntactically similar, Graph G_A is compared with all the possible subgraphs of Graph B.

The recorded results from all the algorithms is analyzed and used to identify which amongst the algorithms is the best and for which cases it is the best in.

The results from the algorithms are weighed against a comparison criteria, and it is this criteria that is used to evaluate the algorithms against each other.

4.2.2 The comparison criteria

The criteria that the algorithm results are weighed against is specified below.

Space efficiency: This factor measures the amount of virtual memory (RAM) that is used by the algorithm in the graph matching process of its execution. The unit used to measure the amount of memory by the respective algorithms is measured in bytes (b).

Time efficiency: This factor measures the time taken by the algorithm to start and *successfully* complete the graph matching process of its execution. The unit used to measure the amount of time taken by the respective algorithms is measured in millisecond (ms).

Once the results have been obtained and throughly evaluated, then the algorithms with the best perform per criteria field are recorded.

And from that set, the best algorithm is chosen overall relative to the others based on the criteria.

5 Experiment Results

This chapter presents the results of the Ullman and the VF2 algorithms on the proposed data set in chapter 4.1. An evaluation of the results is performed before the algorithms can be compared against each other based on the criteria specified in chater 4, namely the time and space efficiency of the algorithms.

5.1 Memory Results

This chapter compares the efficiency of the two algorithms in terms of their memory. The amount of virtual memory used by the two algorithms are graphically represented, analysed and a conclusion of as to which of the two algorithm is more efficient in terms of memory is reached based on figure 10.

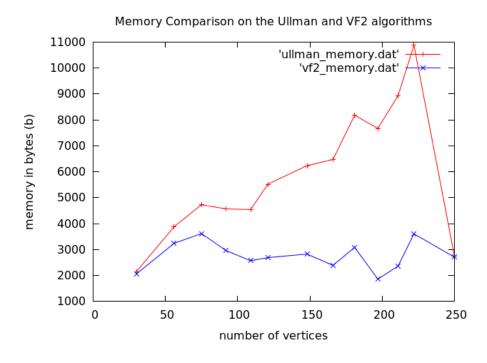


Figure 11: Graph depiting the results for the memory comparison between the algorithms

5.1.1 Analysis of results

Figure 10 depicts the comparison of the Ullman and the VF2 algorithms on the criteria of memory used during the execution of the graph matching processes of the respective algorithms.

The virtual memory used by the Ullman algorithm is depicted by the *red* line in figure 10 and the *blue* line represents the virtual memory used by the VF2 algorithm.

Figure 10 depicts that the memory usage of the two algorithms is approximatly the same for smaller graphs of 30 - 40 vertices. But from approximatly 40 and above, it is clear that the performance of the VF2 algorithm is exceptionally superior to that of the Ullman algorithm. This deduction is derived from the observation on figure 10, we can see the more vertices there are in the graph, the more virtual memory resources is required by both graphs, but the Ullman algorithm requires a greater amount of resources than those used by the VF2 algorithm.

The superiority of the VF2 algorithm for this data set is limited, this is because when the number of vertices in the graph is approximatly 220, the required memory resources for both algorithms start dropping rapidly, and they finally end up requiring the same amount of memory resources.

5.1.2 Conclusion

Figure 10 has provided with a graphical representation of the virtual memory required by both algorithms, and thus a way to make deductions about the efficiency of the two algorithms in terms of memory.

From 10, it is clear that the VF2 is algorithm is more memory efficient than the Ullman algorithm as it requires the least amount of virtual memory overall for its execution.

5.2 Time Results

This chapter compares the efficiency of the two algorithms in terms of their time. The amount of taken by the two algorithms are graphically represented, analysed and a conclusion of as to which of the two algorithm is more efficient in terms of taken is reached based on figure 11.

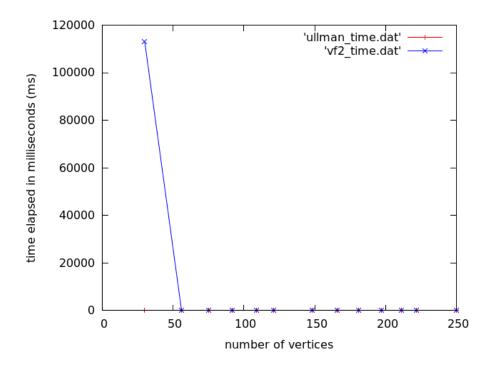


Figure 12: Graph depiting the results for the time comparison between the algorithms

5.2.1 Analysis of results

Figure 11 depicts the comparison of the Ullman and the VF2 algorithms on the criteria of the time taken during the execution of the graph matching processes of the respective algorithms.

The amount of time taken by the Ullman algorithm is depicted by the *blue* line in figure 11, and the time taken by VF2 algorithm is depicted by VF2 algorithm is depicted by the *red* line in figure 11.

Figure 11 depicts that the amount of time taken by the Ullman algorithm to successfully complete its graph matching processes is very small and consistant for the data set used in the experimentation.

The time taken by the VF2 algorithm however is very high for small sets of vertices, approximately 40 - 60 vertices. But as the number of vertices increase, the amount of time declines rapidly and it equal to that of the Ullman algorithm.

5.2.2 Conclusion

Based of figure 11, it can be deduced that the time efficiency of the Ullman and VF2 algorithms are approximately equal to each other overall, with the exception that for small graphs, the Ullman

algorithm is more efficient than the VF2 algorithm in terms of the time taken to complete the graph matching procedures.

5.3 Boundary Cases

5.3.1 Introduction

This chapter evaluates the best, average and worst cases for the Ullman and the VF2 algorithms in terms of time and memory efficiency. The best, average and worst cases are by the graph traversal stratedy that is followed by both algorithms as well as the number of edges that the graphs have.

The best, average and worst cases for graph matching are define below as well as a graphical representation of 10 vertices depicting how the specific case looks like.

Best case: The best case for graph matching G_A onto graph G_B is defined as a graph G_A having no edges defined in their graphs, i.e $E_A = 0$. Figure 12 depicts a graph of 10 vertices depicting the best case scenario.



Figure 13: Graph of 10 vertices representing the best case scenario

Average case: The average case for graph matching G_A onto G_B is defined as a graph G_A with half of its vertices connected to each other. Thus the graph will have (n(n-1)/2)/2 edges that are uniquily connected to each vertice in the graph. Figure 13 depicts a graph of 10 vertices depicting the average case scenario.

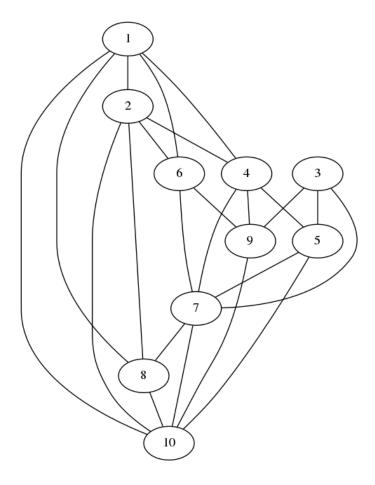


Figure 14: Graph of 10 vertices representing the average case scenario

Worst case: The worst case for matching graph G_A onto G_B is defined as a graph G_A with all its vertices connected to each other. Thus the graph will have n(n-1)/2 edges that are uniquily connected to each vertice in the graph. Figure 14 depicts a graph of 10 vertices depicting the worst case scenario.

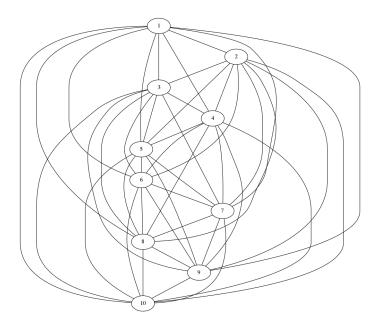


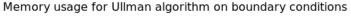
Figure 15: Graph of 10 vertices representing the worst case scenario $\,$

5.3.2 Experiment

5.3.3 Memory Boundary Results

This chapter depicts the amount of memory used by the algorithms over time, especially on the boundary conditions of the experiment.

5.3.4 Ullman Algorithm



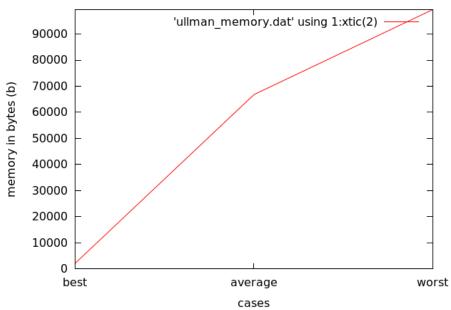


Figure 16: Representation of the memory usage by the Ullman algorithm on boundaries

5.3.4.1 Analysis of results Figure 15 depicts the amount of memory used by the Ullman algorithm over time. The figure indicated that the amount of memory used by the algorithm increases at a steady from the defined best case to the worst case for some graph G.

Based on the results from figure 15, it is clear that the algorithm consumes more of the systems RAM on the worst of the extreme case and the most little of RAM in the best of such cases.

5.3.5 VF2 Algorithm

Memory usage for VF2 algorithm on boundary conditions 'VF2_memory.dat' using 1:xtic(2) 90000 80000 70000 memory in bytes (b) 60000 50000 40000 30000 20000 10000 0 best average worst cases

Figure 17: Representation of the memory usage by the VF2 algorithm on boundaries

5.3.5.1 Analysis of results Figure 16 depicts that amount of memory used by the VF2 algorithm during the execution of the graph matching procedure of the VF2 algorithm over time. The figure demonstrates the memory consumption characteristics of the algorithm on the defined boundary conditions.

Based on the results from 16, we can see that the amount of memory used by the VF2 algorithm, much like the Ullman algorithm also increases overtime.

5.3.6 Conclution

The memory consumption characteristics demonstrated in figures 15 and 16 respectively have similarly characteristics. The characteristic being that both algorithms seem to use very little amount of memory for the best case of the boundaries, but as the case of the boundaries becomes gradually worse, the more memory is required by both algorithms.

Apart from the foremention characteristic, another observation that is made is that the memory used by the algorithms seems to be arbitrarily similary for each instance of their respective executions.

Best: condition, the Ullman algorithm uses 2136 bytes of memory and so does the VF2 algorithm.

Average: case, the Ullman algorithm uses 66780 bytes and the VF2 algorithm uses 66784 bytes.

Worst: case, Ullman uses 99344 and VF2 uses 99340 bytes. Thus it can be concluded from this observation that with regards to the memory used, the two algorithms are arbitrarily similar in that regards.

5.3.7 Time Boundary Results

This chapter depicts the amount of time taken by the algorithms in order to successfully complete the graph matching procedure, especially on the boundary conditions of the experiment.

5.3.8 Ullman Algorithm

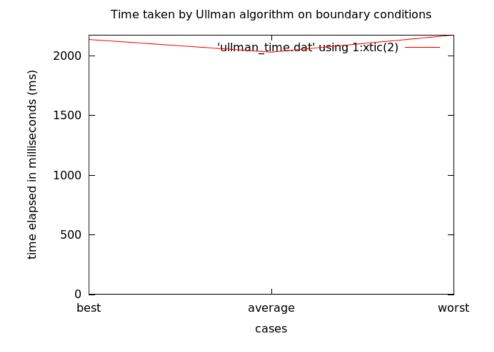


Figure 18: Representation of the time taken by the Ullman algorithm on boundaries

5.3.8.1 Analysis of results Figure 17 demonstrates the amount of time taken by the Ullman algorithm to successfully complete its graph matching procedure. From figure 17, we can see that the Ullman algorithm is extremely resource intensive will regards to the time it takes. Even in the **best**, the algorithm takes a relatively long time to complete its execution.

A secondary observation made from 17 is that, though the time values are high, they do appear to show very little flactuations, and are thus steady.

5.3.9 VF2 Algorithm

70 - 'VF2_time.dat' using 1:xtic(2) - | Specond | | Sp

Time taken by VF2 algorithm on boundary conditions

Figure 19: Representation of the time taken by the Ullman algorithm on boundaries

5.3.9.1 Analysis of results Figure 18 depicts the amount of time taken by the VF2 algorithm to successfully complete its graph matching procedure. From figure 18, it is clear that the amount of time taken to successfully complete the matching procedure increases over time, and the increase seems to be constant, from the **best** case to the worst.

5.3.10 Conclution

The Ullman and VF2 algorithms demonstrate very different behaviours with regards to the amount of time take to complete their respective matching procedures.

The Ullman algorithm requires a much larger amount of time for its completion, even in the **best** case, where the time required is 2136 ms.

The VF2 algorithm however, requires very little time relative to the Ullman algorithm, especially in the best case, as oppose to the Ullman algorithm. The time required by the algorithm does increase as the cases worsen, and based on figure 18, we can see that the increase is relatively constant.

By analysing the time requirements of both algorithms, we can safely deduce that the VF2 algorithm is castly more efficient than the Ullman algorithm in terms of the amount of time required

to complete the graph matching procedure. The values for each case indicating this fact are demonstrated in the table below.

Table 1: Time values for Ullman algorithm vs. VF2 algorithm

Case	Algorithm				
	Ullman	VF2			
Best	2136	6			
Average	2030	53			
Worst	2173	76			

6 Conclusion

This chapter introduces the result of the comparison of the algorithms based on chater 5. The results in chapter 5 indicated that the two algorithms are arbitrarily similar with regards to the amount of memory used when performing the graph matching procedures of their respective executions.

The two algorithms perform very differently when it comes to their respective execution times. The Ullman algorithm requires a a lot of time complete its exection, even best cases scenrio where the conditions are favourable. The time required across all different cases is relatively consistant. The VF2 algorithm performs differently across its test cases. The algorithm requires very little time to complete its graph matching procedures for the best cases, but the time required gradually increases as the cases become worse. Thus based on the presented evidence, the deduction that the VF2 algorithm is more efficient than the Ullman algorithm when considering the time required to complete its execution.

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