

# Design and Analysis of Algorithms for Packing Coloring

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# Introduction to Packing Coloring

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# Graph Coloring

## Definition 1.1: Vertex Coloring

A vertex  $k$  coloring of  $G$  is a map  $f : V \rightarrow \{1, \dots, k\}$ . A coloring  $f$  is said to be proper, if for every edge  $(u, v) \in E$ ,  $f(u) \neq f(v)$ . The chromatic number of a graph is the minimum value of  $k$  such that  $G$  has a proper  $k$  colouring.



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- One such variant is the packing coloring problem.
- List coloring, path coloring, repetition free colouring are some of the other prominent examples.





# Graph Packing Coloring

*We begin with a definition of the graph packing-coloring problem.*



# Graph Packing Coloring

## Definition 1.2: $S$ -Packing Coloring and Packing Coloring

*Suppose  $S = (a_i)_{i \in [1 \rightarrow \infty)}$  is a increasing sequence of integers, then  $S$  packing coloring of the graph is partition on the vertex set  $V(G)$  into sets  $V_1, V_2, V_3 \dots$  such that for every pair  $(x, y) \in V_k$  is at a distance more than  $a_k$ . If  $a_i = i$  for every  $i \in [1 \rightarrow \infty)$ , then we call the problem packing coloring.*



# Graph Packing Coloring

## Definition 1.3: $S$ -Packing Chromatic Number

*If there exists an integer  $k$  such that  $V(G) = V_1, V_2, V_3 \dots V_k$ , each  $V_i$  is a vertex-partition, then this partition is called  $S$ -packing,  $k$  coloring, and minimum of such  $k$  is the  $S$ -Packing Chromatic Number.*



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- There are several approximation algorithms for graph coloring, but there aren't any approximation algorithms for packing coloring.
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- We also know from early on that the decision version of the packing coloring is a NP complete problem.



# Difference between Packing Coloring and Graph Coloring

- There are several approximation algorithms for graph coloring, but there aren't any approximation algorithms for packing coloring.
- Any graph is three-colorable is a NP-complete problem. So there are reasons to develop an approximation scheme for graph coloring.
- We also know from early on that the decision version of the packing coloring is a NP complete problem.
- The decision version in the form of *A graph  $G$  and a positive integer  $K$ , does  $G$  have a packing- $K$  coloring*, is NP-complete for  $k = 4$  even when restricted to *planar* graphs.



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*Packing coloring is also NP-Hard for the case of trees (which are acyclic undirected unweighted graphs).*





# Packing Coloring on Trees

*Packing coloring is also NP-Hard for the case of trees (which are acyclic undirected unweighted graphs).*

It is one thing to compute the decision version of the packing coloring problem for which we don't have any efficient algorithm. It is equally or more difficult to have a fast algorithm for getting hold of an valid packing coloring assignment.



# Packing Coloring on Trees

*In this presentation I'll show an algorithm that gets us a valid packing coloring assignment in polynomial time.*



# Packing Coloring on Trees

*In this presentation I'll show an algorithm that gets us a valid packing coloring assignment in polynomial time. However the algorithm do not get us the minimum number of colors that is the packing chromatic number. It is **an approximation** of the actual packing chromatic number.*



# Simple Algorithm for Packing Coloring

*We are to find a valid assignment of packing coloring to the vertices of the graph.*



# Simple Algorithm for Packing Coloring

*We are to find a valid assignment of packing coloring to the vertices of the graph. Most straight forward algorithm we can think of is simply assign some color, and backtrack and re-color in case of conflicts.*



# Simple Greedy Heuristic for Packing Coloring

- *We'll start our algorithm to work specifically on trees first because it is easier to analyze and then we'll extend it to general graphs.*



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- *In trees every odd layer we can color with a single color 1 as every odd layer nodes are at distance more than 1.*



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- *In trees every odd layer we can color with a single color 1 as every odd layer nodes are at distance more than 1.*
- *Hence number of Node remains to be colored is significantly less than the total nodes ( $n$ ). For example a complete 3-ary tree we can color 75% of the nodes with color 1.*





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- *Hence number of Node remains to be colored is significantly less than the total nodes ( $n$ ). For example a complete 3-ary tree we can color 75% of the nodes with color 1.*
- *We first see how algorithm working on a complete trees. Then we'll look into some of the optimizations we can do to improve the performance of the algorithm.*



# Simple Greedy Heuristic for Packing Coloring

---

## Algorithm 1: BASIC GREEDY ALGORITHM FOR ANY TREE

---

**Input:** Tree  $T$

Compute Level order traversal of Tree  $T$ ;

Color Every Odd layer nodes with **COLOR(1)**;

$level \leftarrow d - 1$  ( $d$  is the last level);

**while**  $level \geq 0$  **do**

$maximum\_permissible\_color = n$ ;

$current\_color = 2$ ;

**foreach** *Node in this level* **do**

**while**  $current\_color < maximum\_permissible\_color$  **do**

            Travel to every node within distance (  $int$  )  $current\_color$  and check if  
             there is any node colored with color  $current\_color$ ;



# Simple Greedy Heuristic for Packing Coloring

---

## Algorithm 2: BASIC GREEDY ALGORITHM FOR ANY TREE

---

Travel to every node within distance ( `int` ) `current_color` and check if there is any node colored with color `current_color`;

**if** *None of the node is colored with color `current_color`* **then**

    Color this node with color `current_color`;

**break from the loop, go to next node in level;**

**else**

`current_color`  $\leftarrow$  `current_color` + 1;

`level`  $\leftarrow$  `level` - 1;

**Output:** Output this coloring assignment.

---



# Analysis of the Basic Algorithm

*During the analysis we find that there are optimizations we can do to improve the run-time of our algorithm.*



# Complexity Analysis

Our algorithm for each node  $i \in (1, n)$  in the worst case visits all the  $n$  node to find a color (from  $1 \rightarrow n$ ). Hence worst case time complexity is  $O(n^3)$ .



# Optimizations 1

We observe one simple fact, that for any complete tree, the maximum number of nodes at any level is present at the last level ( $= x^d$ ,  $x$  is the number of children and  $d$  is the depth of the last level starting root from 0).



# Optimizations 1

We are coloring every odd layer with color 1.



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Instead of that if we color the last level and then every alternate level with color 1 we'll color much more nodes with color 1 and reduce the total number of colors used. Here is a simple example how this optimization saved thousands of colors.





# Optimizations 1

Nodes	Layers	Maximum Colors used	Runtime
265720	12	20633	52m 32s 280ms
265720	12	6890	4m 17s 31ms



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*This one simple optimization reduces the runtime by 92%*



# Optimizations 2

Suppose we are at the moment trying to color node  $u$ . Our algorithm for each color  $i \in (1, n)$  goes to distance  $i$  from the node  $u$  and checks if that color exists already or not in all the nodes sitting within distance  $i$  from node  $u$ ?



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*Lets see this step of the basic algorithm with an example.*



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- We went to  $d$  distance from node  $u$  to find all the colors we find. Suppose we find color  $d, d + 1, \dots, d + k$  are present in some of the nodes.



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- So we should not check this again for node  $u$  with color  $d + (1 \rightarrow k)$ .



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- So we should not check this again for node  $u$  with color  $d + (1 \rightarrow k)$ .
- Hence we implement this modification to improve the runtime.





# Optimizations 2

*We define a subroutine called  $\text{Check}(u, d)$ . This subroutine returns a set of colors present within distance  $d$  for any node  $u$ .*



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**Algorithm 4:**  $\text{Check}(\text{Node } u, \text{Color } d)$

---

$\mathcal{C} \leftarrow \phi;$

Visit all nodes within distance  $d$  from node  $u$  and collect all the colors into  $\mathcal{C}$ ;

**return** Set  $\mathcal{C}$ ;

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# Optimizations 2

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**Algorithm 5:**  $\text{Check}(\text{Node } u, \text{Color } d)$

---

$\mathcal{C} \leftarrow \phi;$

Visit all nodes within distance  $d$  from node  $u$  and collect all the colors into  $\mathcal{C}$ ;

**return** Set  $\mathcal{C}$ ;

---

We can call this subroutine from the main coloring BFS call (we are coloring left to right, level by level). We start with the color 2 and then we follow the following coloring strategy.



# New coloring strategy

---

## Algorithm 6: Updated Main Coloring Scheme

---

**for** *Each node from last uncolored level, left to right* **do**

$d_{\text{prev}} \leftarrow \phi$ ;

**for** *Each Color  $i$  from  $2 \rightarrow n$*  **do**

**if** *Color  $i \in d_{\text{prev}}$*  **then**

            It is not possible to color this node with color  $i$  because we found color  $i$  at  
             distance less than  $i$  in  $d_{\text{prev}}$ ;

            Continue with color  $i + 1$ ;

**else**



# New coloring strategy

---

## Algorithm 7: Updated Main Coloring Scheme

---

```

for Each node from last uncolored level, left to right do
     $d_{\text{prev}} \leftarrow \phi$ ;
    for Each Color  $i$  from  $2 \rightarrow n$  do
        if Color  $i \in d_{\text{prev}}$  then
        else
             $d_{\text{new}} = \text{Check}(\text{node}, i, d_{\text{prev}})$ ;
            if  $i \notin d_{\text{new}}$  then
                Color this node with color  $i$ ;
                Break from this loop and start coloring next uncolored node;
            else
                 $d_{\text{prev}} = d_{\text{new}}$ 

```



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- This optimization comes from the observations of the structure of the complete trees.
- Complete  $x$ -ary trees has a depth of  $\log_x n$  with  $n$  many nodes in them.
- With the following optimization our algorithm time complexity will reduce from  $O(n^3)$  down to  $O(nd^2)$  for  $x$ -ary trees with  $d$  diameter. This is a significant complexity improvement.





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# Optimization 3

- Suppose  $j$  is a color that has been used in the tree for the first time (during our run of the algorithm).
- If  $j >$  the longest path in the tree, then color  $j$  can never be used again.
- Any color after  $j$  that is  $j + 1$  and so on will also not be possible to reuse.
- So there is an upper bound on the number of colors that are reusable. This depends on the longest path in the tree.



# Sorting + Searching

Before introducing other data structure in the STL library, I'll show you some algorithms and iterator access on vector which is used often.

- Iterators
- Sorting
- Searching



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- Or you can use `auto it = v.begin();`
- For example if you have an array  $v = [10, 12, 13, 14]$  then `*it` would return 10,
- Similar to pointer you can increase and decrease them, `it++`; and then `*it` would return 12.



# Last Iterator

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- `vector<int>::iterator it = v.end();` points to a non-existent element sits after the last element.
- Hence `*it` would dereference nothing when `it = v.end();`.



# Sorting

Sorting and searching is the most common thing you do on a vector.

```
#include <algorithm>

int main () {
    vector<int> v = {4,3,2,1};
    std::sort(v.begin(), v.end());
    for (auto i : v) { cout << i << " "; }
}
```



# Custom Sorting

What to do when you have a vector of custom data structure?



# Custom Sorting

**What to do when you have a vector of custom data structure?**  
For that we need to design custom comparators.



# Custom Comparators Showcase

```
int main() {  
    vector<pair<int, int>> v = {{1,2}, {-3,4}, {-12, 12}};  
    sort(v.begin(), v.end(), [](const auto &a, const auto &b) {  
        return a.first < b.first;  
    });  
}
```





# Custom Comparators Showcase II

Using this you can define your own rule for sorting, for example following shows how to sort in decreasing order.



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```
int main() {  
    vector<int> v = {1,2,3,4};  
    std::sort(v.begin(), v.end(), [](const auto &a, const auto &b) {  
        return a > b;  
    });  
}
```



# Custom Comparators Showcase III

Following is an example of sorting a custom class of data.



# Custom Comparators Showcase III

Following is an example of sorting a custom class of data.

```
class Job {
public:
    int timestamp; int jobID; vector<int> requests;
};

int main() {
    vector<Job> jobs;
    std::sort(jobs.begin(), jobs.end(), [](const auto &a, const auto &b) {
        return a.timestamp < b.timestamp; // sort according to timestamp
    });
}
```



# Note

This comparator should return true for argument  $(a, b)$  if and only if  $a$  sits left of  $b$  in the sorted array.



# `std::lower_bound` and `std::upper_bound`

- We need a non-decreasingly sorted container,
- We want to find out position of the smallest number just  $>$  (greater) a given number or position of the smallest number  $\geq$  (greater than or equal to) a given number



# `std::lower_bound` and `std::upper_bound`

- `std::lower_bound` returns iterator to first element in the given range which is equal or greater than the value.
- `std::upper_bound` returns iterator to first element in the given range which is greater than the value.



# List container

- List is a doubly linked list, this includes functions such as `push_front`, `push_back`, `insert`, `erase`, etc.





# List container

- List is a doubly linked list, this includes functions such as `push_front`, `push_back`, `insert`, `erase`, etc.
- However I'd say not to use `std::list` as a data structure because difficult to manipulate.



# Few Example

Following is the usage of `front()`, `back()` on a list. This runs in  $O(1)$  time.



# Few Example

Following is the usage of `front()`, `back()` on a list. This runs in  $O(1)$  time.

```
#include <list>
#include <iostream>

int main() {
    std::list<char> letters {'d', 'm', 'g', 'w', 't', 'f'};

    if (!letters.empty()) {
        std::cout << "The first character is '" << letters.front() << "'.\n"
;
        std::cout << "The last character is '" << letters.back() << "'.\n";
    }
}
```



# Singly Linked List

- Similarly there is singly linked list called `std::forward_list`.



# Singly Linked List

- Similarly there is singly linked list called `std::forward_list`.
- It is not recommended to use these list data structures as you have limited control on the pointers.



# Example Usage

## Finding Middle of linked list

```
ListNode *middleNode(ListNode *head) {  
  
    if (!head->next) {  
        return head;  
    }  
  
    ListNode *slowPointer = head;  
    ListNode *fastPointer = head;  
  
    while (fastPointer != NULL && fastPointer->next != NULL) {  
        slowPointer = slowPointer->next;  
        fastPointer = fastPointer->next->next;  
    }  
  
    return slowPointer;  
}
```



# Example Usage on STL List

## Finding Middle of STL Forward List

```
template <class T>
T findMiddleElement(forward_list<T> *list) {

    // Using 2 pointer approach
    auto slowPointer = list->begin();
    auto fastPointer = list->begin();
```



# Example Usage on STL List

```
// Update the slowPointer slowly and fastPointer quickly

while (fastPointer != list->end() &&
       std::next(fastPointer, 1) != list->end()) {

    std::advance(slowPointer, 1);
    std::advance(fastPointer, 2);
}

return *slowPointer;

}
```





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- Associative containers (Map and Set) are not sequential; they use keys to access data.
- Both Maps and Sets are internally implemented using trees,
- Allows for efficient searching, insertion and deletion



# Set Example

- Stores unique values



# Set Example

- Stores unique values
- Interface functions: `insert`, `erase`, `clear`, `find`, `upper_bound`, `lower_bound`.



# Example Usage

```
#include <set>
using namespace std;

int main () {
    set<int> marks;
    marks.insert(10); marks.insert(20); marks.insert(30);
    marks.insert(100); marks.insert(100);

    for (auto elem : marks) { cout << elem << " "; }

    return 0;
}
```



# Example Usage

## Storing from Larger to Smaller

```
#include <set>
using namespace std;

int main () {
    set<int, greater<int>> marks;
    marks.insert(10); marks.insert(20); marks.insert(30);
    marks.insert(100); marks.insert(100);

    for (auto elem : marks) { cout << elem << " "; }

    return 0;
}
```



# std::multiset

**Multiset** works same as a set but allows duplicate values.

```
#include <set>

int main () {
    multiset<int, greater<int>> marks;
    marks.insert(100); marks.insert(100); marks.insert(100);
    marks.insert(20); marks.insert(30);

    // 100 100 100 30 20
    for(auto e : marks) cout << e << " ";

    return 0;
}
```





# `std::map`

To store Key-Value pairs you have two options `std::map` and `std::unordered_map`.



# `std::map`

In `std::map` when you access the elements you get the values in sorted order.



# std::map

- Each key is unique



# `std::map`

- Each key is unique
- Internally implemented using Red-Black Trees



# std::map

- Each key is unique
- Internally implemented using Red-Black Trees
- Interface contains functions such as `find`, `count`, `clear`, `erase`, etc,
- Also supports array-like indexing with keys.



# `std::unordered_map`

- Works same as the map, but has better time complexity when access, find, and erase is called.



# `std::unordered_map`

- Works same as the map, but has better time complexity when access, find, and erase is called.
- Each of the operations on `std::map` is  $O(\lg n)$  but on `std::unordered_map` each access, find, erase is amortized  $O(1)$ .



# Amortization

- With C++11 we got hash set and hash map in the form of `std::unordered_set` and `std::unordered_map`





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# Amortization

- With C++11 we got hash set and hash map in the form of `std::unordered_set` and `std::unordered_map`
- By amortized  $O(1)$  insertion time we mean that each item only runs into  $O(1)$  collisions on average, This means there exists a sequence of elements for which `std::unordered_map` has collisions in every insertion.



# Other hash functions

The **builtin** hash function for C++ is not optimal. There exists far better hash functions one such example is **SplitMix64**.



# SplitMix64

## Example Usage

```

struct SplitMix64 {
    static uint64_t splitmix64(uint64_t x) {
        // http://xorshift.di.unimi.it/splitmix64.c
        x += 0x9e3779b97f4a7c15;
        x = (x ^ (x >> 30)) * 0xbf58476d1ce4e5b9;
        x = (x ^ (x >> 27)) * 0x94d049bb133111eb;
        return x ^ (x >> 31);
    }

    size_t operator()(uint64_t x) const {
        static const uint64_t FIXED_RANDOM = chrono::steady_clock::now().
time_since_epoch().count();
        return splitmix64(x + FIXED_RANDOM);
    }
};

```



# SplitMix64

## Redefinition With SplitMix64

Now you define the `unordered_map` as `unordered_map<int, int, SplitMix64> unmap;`

