

GRAPH ALGORITHMS AND THEIR APPLICATIONS

Thesis

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Contents

Acknowledgements	iv
Summary	v
1 Basic Definitions	1
1.1 Graph terminologies	1
1.2 Fundamentals of algorithmics	7
1.2.1 Problems and algorithms	7
1.2.2 Complexity of algorithms	9
1.2.3 Hard problems	10
1.3 Graph representations in programs	13
2 Combinatorial Optimization	17
2.1 Optimization problems	18
2.1.1 Definitions	18
2.1.2 Graph problems	22
2.2 Applications	30
2.3 Solving hard problems	35
3 Approximation Algorithms & Heuristics	38

3.1	Approximation algorithms	38
3.1.1	Definitions and theorems	38
3.1.2	Approximation schemes	43
3.1.3	Classification of $\mathcal{NPO}$	44
3.2	Heuristics	47
3.2.1	Local search heuristics	50
3.2.2	Simulated annealing heuristics	57
3.2.3	Tabu search heuristics	61
3.2.4	Genetic algorithms	63
4	Ant Colony Optimization	66
4.1	Background and history	67
4.2	Ant algorithms for TSP	70
4.2.1	The ant system for TSP	71
4.2.2	Extensions for the $\mathcal{AS}$	80
4.3	The ACO metaheuristic	84
4.3.1	The ACO metaheuristic algorithm	84
4.3.2	Applications to other problems	89
5	Ant Algorithms for Graph Coloring	92
5.1	Application challenges	93
5.2	Assignment type problems ($\mathcal{ATPs}$)	101
5.2.1	An ant algorithm for $\mathcal{ATPs}$	103
5.3	How ants color graphs?	106
5.3.1	The $\mathcal{ANTCOL}$ algorithm	108
5.3.2	Constructive methods for coloring	111
5.3.3	Two coloring approaches	114

5.4	The main <i>ANTCOL</i> results	123
5.5	Modifications	129
Conclusion		136
A Program Implementations		139
A.1	The LEDA [®] package	139
A.2	Program codes	143
A.2.1	The <i>AS</i> code	143
A.2.2	The <i>ANTCOL</i> code	149
Bibliography		174

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Summary

The combinatorial optimization algorithms are fundamental for solving hard optimization problems in many fields, especially that appear in Computer Science. However, the thesis focuses on graph algorithms and their applications because these algorithms have a great importance and have a variety of practical applications in Computer Science.

In this thesis we present an extensive study of applying the very recent technique of ant colony optimization to the hard optimization problem of graph coloring. We give a detailed description of the well-known *ANTCOL* algorithm that develops an ant algorithm for solving the graph coloring problem. Then we illustrate our modification to the original *ANTCOL* algorithm. Practical results that have been obtained by applying these algorithms are given and analyzed. Our results show notable improvements over that of the original ones.

The thesis consists of five chapters and an appendix.

Chapter One includes the terminologies in graph theory and in algorithmics, that are needed throughout the rest of the thesis. Also, the complexity measures of hard problems are discussed.

Chapter Two contains the formal definitions of optimization problems. The chapter includes a survey about some applications of different optimization problems. Also, a discussion about how hard optimization problems are dealt with in practice is given.

In the third chapter, definitions of approximation algorithms and heuristics are introduced. The properties of such algorithms are discussed. Also, examples of these algorithms are demonstrated in some details.

In the fourth chapter, a detailed introduction to the ant colony optimization concepts is given. Also, a heuristic algorithm based on these concepts is presented to solve the hard optimization problem of the Traveling Salesperson. In addition, a general method for solving many other optimization problems using these concepts is explained.

In Chapter Five, the graph coloring problem is studied extensively. A heuristic and an exact algorithm for solving

this problem are presented. The chapter includes a detailed description of an ant colony algorithm for solving the coloring problem with our modifications to it. Comparisons between the practical results obtained by implementing the original and the modified algorithms are discussed.

In the Appendix, we first explain how the presented graph algorithms may be implemented, then we give the script codes of our implementations using the programming language C++ and the LEDA[®] package. Finally, we present a conclusion that summarizes the obtained results and points out some prospectives for future works.

Chapter 1

Basic Definitions

This chapter gives an introduction to graph theory. The definitions needed in the next chapters, such as algorithms and complexity, are also introduced.

1.1 Graph terminologies

This section gives some terminologies in graph theory. For these and other terms, we refer to [13] and [19].

Graphs

A *graph* G is a pair $G = (V, E)$ consisting of a finite set $V \neq \emptyset$, called the *vertex set* of G , and a set E of two-element subsets of V called the *edge set* of G . An element $v \in V$ is called a *vertex* (or *node*), while an element $e = \{u, v\} \in E$ is called an *edge* with *end vertices* u and v , $u \neq v$. If $e = \{u, v\}$ is an edge, then the vertices u and v are said to be *incident* with the edge e in G , also u and v are called *adjacent* in

G , and we write $e = uv$. The notations $V(G)$ and $E(G)$ can be used to denote the vertex set and the edge set of a graph G , respectively.

Graphs are often illustrated by drawing pictures in the plane. The vertices of a graph G are represented by (bold) points, and edges are represented by (curved or straight) lines joining the end vertices. A graph G is called a *planar graph* if it can be drawn in the plane in such a way that no two edges (or rather, the curves representing them) intersect, except possibly at a common end vertex.

For any vertex v of a graph $G = (V, E)$, the *degree* of v in G , $\deg_G(v)$, is the number of edges incident with v in G . If all vertices of G have the same degree r , then G is called a *regular graph of degree r* , or an *r -regular graph*.

There are some important series of examples of graphs:

- The *null graph* N_n , which has n vertices and no edges. The null graph is also called *trivial*.
- The *complete graph* K_n , which has n vertices and every two distinct vertices are adjacent.
- The *complete bipartite graph* $K_{m,n}$, which has as vertex set the disjoint union of two sets V_1 and V_2 , such that V_1 has m vertices and V_2 has n vertices. The edge set is $E(K_{m,n}) = \{uv \mid u \in V_1, v \in V_2\}$.

The *complement* of a graph $G = (V, E)$ is the graph $\overline{G} = (V, \overline{E})$, where $\overline{E} = \{uv \notin E \mid u, v \in V, u \neq v\}$. For example, $N_n = \overline{K_n}$.

Subgraphs and cliques

Let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph, and $V' \subseteq V$. Denote the set of edges e , which have both their end vertices in V' , by $E|V'$. The graph $(V', E|V')$ is called the *induced subgraph* on V' and is denoted by $G|V'$. Any graph $G' = (V', E')$, where $V' \subseteq V$ and $E' \subseteq E|V'$, is called a *subgraph* of G . A subgraph with $V' = V$ is called a *spanning subgraph* of G . A *clique* in a graph $G = (V, E)$ is a subset $C \subseteq V$, where any two vertices in C are adjacent in G . An *independent set* (or *stable set*) in G is a subset $I \subseteq V$, where no two vertices in I are adjacent in G . The maximal cardinality of a clique in a graph G is called the *clique number* of G , and is denoted by $\omega(G)$.

Paths and cycles

Let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph. A *path* P in G is a sequence of distinct vertices $(v_0, \dots, v_k)$, $v_i \in V$ for $i = 0, \dots, k$, where the edges of P are $e_i = v_{i-1}v_i \in E$ for $i = 1, \dots, k$. The vertex v_0 is called the *start vertex* of P , and v_k is called the *end vertex* of P . The *length* of the path is the number of its edges. A *trivial path* is a path of length 0. If P is not trivial then it can also be written as a sequence of its edges

$(e_1, \dots, e_k)$. If P has the start vertex u and the end vertex v then it is called a u - v path, and if $u = v$ then P is called a *cycle*. A graph is called *acyclic* if it does not contain a cycle. An acyclic graph is referred to as a *forest*.

A path that contains all the vertices of a given graph G is called a *Hamiltonian path* of G . A graph that contains a Hamiltonian cycle is called *Hamiltonian*.

Connected graphs

In a graph $G = (V, E)$, two vertices $u, v \in V$ are called *connected* if there exists a u - v path. If any two vertices of G are connected, then G is called a *connected graph*, otherwise, G is *disconnected*.

A *tree* is a connected acyclic graph. A tree $T = (V, E')$ is a *spanning tree* of $G = (V, E)$, where $E' \subseteq E$. Obviously, connectedness is an equivalence relation on the vertex set of a graph. The equivalence classes of this relation are called the *connected components* of the graph, or simply, the components of the graph. If a connected component contains only one vertex, then that vertex is called *isolated vertex*.

Let u and v be two vertices in the same component of a graph $G = (V, E)$, then the *distance* $d(u, v)$ between them is the minimum length of all u - v paths.

Directed graphs

A *directed graph* G is a pair $G = (V, E)$, where $V \neq \emptyset$ is the vertex set, and $E \subseteq \{(u, v) \mid u \neq v, u, v \in V\}$ is the set of directed edges or *arcs*. An arc $(u, v) \in E$, is said to leave u and enter v . An arc $e = (u, v)$ may also be written as $e = \overrightarrow{uv}$.

Weighted graphs

Let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph or a directed graph on which a mapping $w : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is defined, then G is called a *weighted graph*. The pair $\langle G, w \rangle$ is called a *network*. The number $w(e)$ is called the *weight* of the edge $e \in E$. The weight of any subset of edges $T \subseteq E$ is equal to the sum of the weights of the edges $e \in T$, that is

$$w(T) = \sum_{e \in T} w(e).$$

In particular, $w(P) = w(e_1) + w(e_2) + \dots + w(e_k)$ is the weight of the path $P = (e_1, e_2, \dots, e_k)$.

Graph coloring

A *coloring* of a graph $G = (V, E)$ is a mapping $\mathcal{C}$ from the vertex set of G to the set of positive integers $\{1, \dots, |V|\}$. The mapping $\mathcal{C}$ assigns for each vertex $v \in V$ an integer

value $\mathcal{C}(v)$, called the color of the vertex v , such that any two adjacent vertices are mapped to different values. That is $\mathcal{C}(u) \neq \mathcal{C}(v)$, $\forall uv \in E$. A k -coloring of G is a coloring that maps V into the set $\{1, \dots, k\}$, where $k \leq |V|$.

If there exists a k -coloring for the graph G , then G is said to be k -colorable. The *chromatic number* of the graph G , $\chi(G)$, is the minimal number k for which G is k -colorable. If $\chi(G) = k$ then G is said to be k -chromatic. An *optimal coloring* of G is a coloring that uses exactly $\chi(G)$ colors.

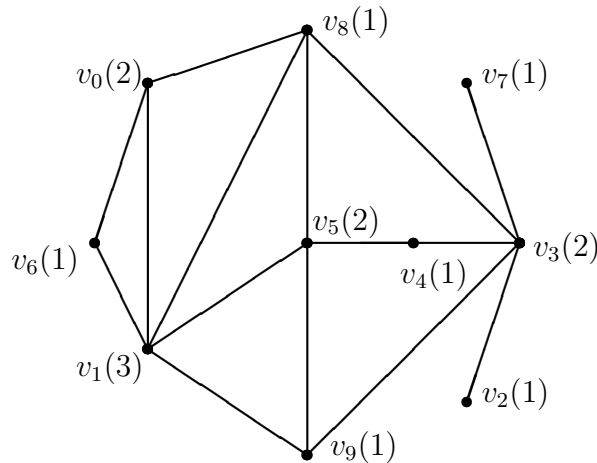


Figure 1.1: An optimal coloring for a graph. The colors are represented by the numbers between parentheses.

It is clear that the set of vertices having the same color is independent. A k -coloring of a graph $G = (V, E)$ gives a partition of the vertex set V into k independent sets of vertices. In Figure 1.1, a 3-coloring of a graph having 10

vertices is given. This coloring is optimal, hence G is 3-chromatic.

Random graphs

Generally, a *random graph* is a graph in which the edges are placed between pairs of vertices chosen uniformly at random. A random graph $G_{n,p}$ has n vertices such that each possible edge between any two vertices is present with a fixed probability p and absent with probability $1 - p$. The existence of one edge is independent of the existence of another.

1.2 Fundamentals of algorithmics

In this section, the algorithmic terminologies, notations, and basic concepts which will be used in all chapters that follow are recalled, [12, 17, 19, 21].

1.2.1 Problems and algorithms

A *problem* is a general question to be answered and may have several parameters. An answer to the problem is called a *solution*. A problem is specified by giving a general description of all its parameters, and a statement of what properties the solution is required to satisfy. An *instance* of a problem is obtained by specifying particular values for