

Complementary Graph Coloring

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Abstract

The objective of the Graph Coloring problem is to color vertices of a graph in such a way that no two vertices that share an edge are assigned the same color. Aircraft Scheduling, Frequency Assignment, register allocation are all real life applications that can be solved using graph coloring. Graph Coloring is a well-known NP-complete problem to the academia in computer science and mathematics. In this paper we use the concept of complementary graphs to come up with a new heuristic for graph coloring. Our results are compared with an exact algorithm and other heuristic algorithms to evaluate our algorithm's performance.

Keywords: Graph Coloring; Complementary Graphs; Chromatic Number.

1. Introduction

Graph Coloring is one of the most common optimization problems in the field of computer science and mathematics. There have been many approaches to solve this problem using approximations and heuristics. There are various real life applications of graph coloring, which include allocating radio frequencies in cellular networks, exam scheduling, air traffic scheduling and register allocation. These systems can be modelled as graphs, where we have a set of limited number of resources (colors) assigned to a set of variables (nodes) under certain incompatibility constraints (edges).

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1.1. Definitions

- A Graph $G(V,E)$ is a set of vertices V (nodes) which are connected through edges E (links)
- A Connected Graph is a graph where each node can reach every other node
- A Directed Graph is a graph where the relationship between two vertices is implied one way. That is, there exists a relation between vertex $a \rightarrow b$, but a relation between $b \rightarrow a$ does not exist. This is referred to as an ordered pair of edges
- An Undirected Graph is a graph where each edge is not associated with any order, where the edge (a,b) is identical to the edge (b,a)
- Adjacent nodes are nodes connected through an edge, therefore if an edge exists between vertex A and vertex B then A is adjacent to B
- The Chromatic Number of graph G is the minimum number of colors required to properly color a graph and is represented by $\chi(G)$
- Degree of a vertex A is the number of edges connected to that vertex
- A Clique of size k is a completely connected sub-graph of graph G that contains k vertices
- Saturation degree of a given vertex is number of differently colored neighbors connected to it

1.2. Problem Statement

To color a graph G we must assign each vertex in the graph a specific color. To properly color this graph we have to ensure that no two adjacent vertices are assigned the same color. The challenge in such a problem is finding the chromatic number required to color this graph. Such a problem is known to be NP-Complete because there is no efficient algorithm that can solve this problem in polynomial time. The proof of NP-Completeness is done by reducing the problem to another well known NP-Complete problem [4].

In this work we propose a new greedy algorithm that is based on complementary graphs and evaluate its performance. The rest of this paper is organized as follows; Section 2 illustrates the related work that others have done in this area. Section 3 contains our detailed approach along with the pseudo code of our algorithm. Finally, Section 4 contains evaluation and comparison of our algorithm along with other approaches in the literature.

2. Related Work

Most optimal graph coloring solutions in the literature are based on greedy algorithms, where finding locally optimal solutions would lead to a globally optimal solution. These greedy algorithms depend on ordering the nodes in a certain way, ordering of the nodes significantly affects the overall performance. The work done by Welsh & Powell in [8] is based on this greedy concept, where they model the graph as a set of points and construct an incompatibility matrix M , where $M_{ij} = 1$ if there exist an adjacent node in an undirected graph. They achieve graph coloring by bounding the chromatic number $\chi(G) \leq d+1$ to the highest degree. This is done by first sorting the vertices in descending order based on the magnitude of their degrees and picking a color for this vertex along with any other vertex that is not connected to, traversing through them in descending order. It

will then repeat the previous procedure recursively at the next highest degree number and picking a new color until all nodes are colored.

Other work proposed by Brelaz in [1] was the DSTAUR branch and bound algorithm which was based on Welch's work. DSTAUR uses dynamic sequential coloring where it employs the greedy approach to pick the vertex with the highest saturation degree. Similar to Welsh, it starts by assigning color 1 to the vertex with the highest degree. Then it orders vertices by descending saturation degrees. More commonly, this can be represented as the maximum clique, where the clique size determines the lower bound for the chromatic number. Each vertex is assigned a set of allowable colors. It repeatedly selects the vertex with the highest saturation degree and assigns it the smallest valid color from the set of allowable colors. However, in the event of a tie of saturation degrees, the algorithm selects the vertex with the highest number of uncolored neighbors. Further ties are handled lexicographically. This approach of dynamically picking the highest saturation degree at each iteration aims to reduce the chromatic number. For every partial coloring at each step a new sub problem is created to branch into forming a search tree, therefore the branch and bound approach. Reaching a leaf node in the search tree determines the current upper bound for the chromatic number. Finally, the algorithm terminates when the lower bound = upper bound.

The previous algorithm determines the exact chromatic number, but has a very high complexity. Such problems are classified as NP-Complete as it requires exhaustive trials of all valid coloring combinations to determine the best coloring possible [2]. Lawler was the first to tackle this in [3] by introducing a polynomial time $O(2.445n)$ algorithm that uses dynamic programming to quickly determine the exact chromatic number for a given graph. He achieves this by bounding the number of maximal independent sets (MIS) to $3n/3$.

To reduce the number of sub-problems generated by the branch and bound algorithm, Sewell in [6] proposed a new saturation degree tie breaking strategy that selects the vertex with the highest number of common allowable colors that it shares with its neighbors, rather than the highest degree of uncolored neighbors. As a further improvement to the original algorithm PASS algorithm was proposed in [5], which imposes further restrictions limiting the number of sub-problems. Similar to Sewell, in case of a tie it selects the vertex with maximum common available colors shared with its neighbors, but this time the only qualifying vertices are those with the highest chromatic numbers, while the rest are eliminated.

The authors in [7] introduced a new graph coloring algorithm based on breadth first search (BFS). The algorithm first creates an array of colors, where the size is equal to the number of nodes in the graph. The array is initialized with a single color c . The algorithm starts by selecting a pivot node that it chooses either randomly or heuristically. This pivot node is considered the root of the BFS search tree, traversing through all the outgoing edges marking them with the same color. It then repeats the previous step, until all the graph is colored and creates multiple disjoint sets. While traversing through the outgoing edges a condition must be satisfied; if color of visited node is smaller than the pivot's color, it is assigned the pivot's color. Subsequently, the algorithm traverses through the incoming edges starting at the pivot and it removes vertices with incompatible colors.

3. Our Approach

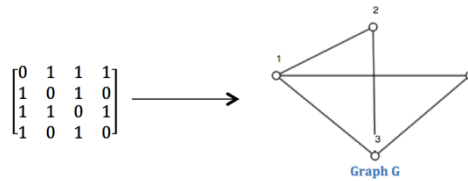


Figure 1: Original Graph

Any graph G can be represented as a $V \times V$ matrix where V is the number of vertices in the graph such that each element in the matrix E_{ij} is an edge from vertex i to vertex j . Each edge in the matrix has the value of 0 or 1, where 0 means no edge exists between the vertices and 1 means an edge exists between the vertices. (See Figure 1)

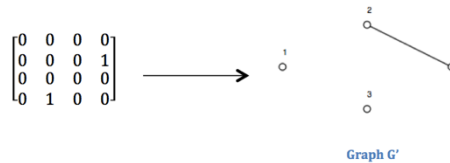


Figure 2: Complementary Graph

Let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph, the complement of G denoted as G' has the same vertices of G such that if and only if an edge e exists between V_i & V_j in G , V_i & V_j are disconnected in G' and if V_i & V_j are disconnected in G , they have to be connected in G' . Given a matrix as a graph G we can easily find G' by flipping the 0's and 1's and ignoring the diagonal. (See Figure 2)

We approached this problem by coloring the complement of a graph G given in the form of $n \times n$ matrix. To color G' first we have to create n empty color sets. Vertices of G' are ordered based on a specific order scheme discussed in the following section. Vertices are traversed in order and are added to a color set by satisfying the following condition:

$$V_i \rightarrow \exists E_{ij} \forall V_j \in ColourSet \tag{1}$$

This condition says that for a vertex i to be added to a color set; it must contain an edge to every node in that set, else it checks for compatibility with the next set. After traversing all the vertices and adding them to our color sets, we remove all the empty color sets. The number of color sets remaining denotes our chromatic number. (See Figure 3)

From our previous graph, since we have 4 nodes we will create 4 empty color sets. We order the vertices from the complementary graph G' in a specific order, say highest degree to lowest degree. These vertices are initially assigned to the set of uncolored vertices.

Table 1: Step 1

Ordered Vertices	Empty Sets
4, 2, 1, 3	Color Set 1 = {}
	Color Set 2 = {}

If the degree of a vertex is tied with another vertex we can randomly select a vertex. In our example we will choose vertex 4 and 1 before vertex 2 and 3 respectively. According to Figure 3 we select the next ordered vertex, which is vertex 4 from the set of uncolored vertices. We start to check the compatibility of vertex 4 with the color sets using Equation 1. Vertex 4 is compatible with the first color set, therefore it is added to that set. Color set 1 will contain vertex 4 and the rest of the color sets will remain empty.

Table 2: Step 2

Ordered Vertices	Empty Sets
4, 2, 1, 3	Color Set 1 = {4}
	Color Set 2 = {}

Vertex 4 is removed from the set of uncolored vertices and the next ordered vertex is selected. The next vertex selected from the set is 2. We check if vertex 2 is compatible with color set 1. Vertex 2 is compatible, therefore we vertex 2 is added to color set 1. Color set 1 will contain vertex 4 and 2 and the rest of the color sets will remain empty.

Table 3: Step 3

Ordered Vertices	Empty Sets
4, 2, 1, 3	Color Set 1 = {4,2}
	Color Set 2 = {}

After inserting all the nodes in the color sets vertex 4 & 2 are in the same set, vertex 1 & 3 in separate sets. By removing the empty sets our chromatic number will be the number of used sets, that is 3.

The main data structure used to implement complementary graph coloring is an array where the input to the algorithm is a graph represented by an adjacency matrix and the out- put is a colored graph along with its chromatic number. Two arrays are maintained, one for the ordered nodes set and the other for the color set. Upon ordering the nodes the resulted ordered nodes are maintained in the ordered nodes set. When coloring any node, the location of the node is added to the color set array. Since the graph is represented by an adjacency matrix, nodes are represented by indexes of the adjacency matrix, which are either the rows or columns. The

color set array is a special array, where each cell represents a color and contains a linked list containing the nodes associated with that color.

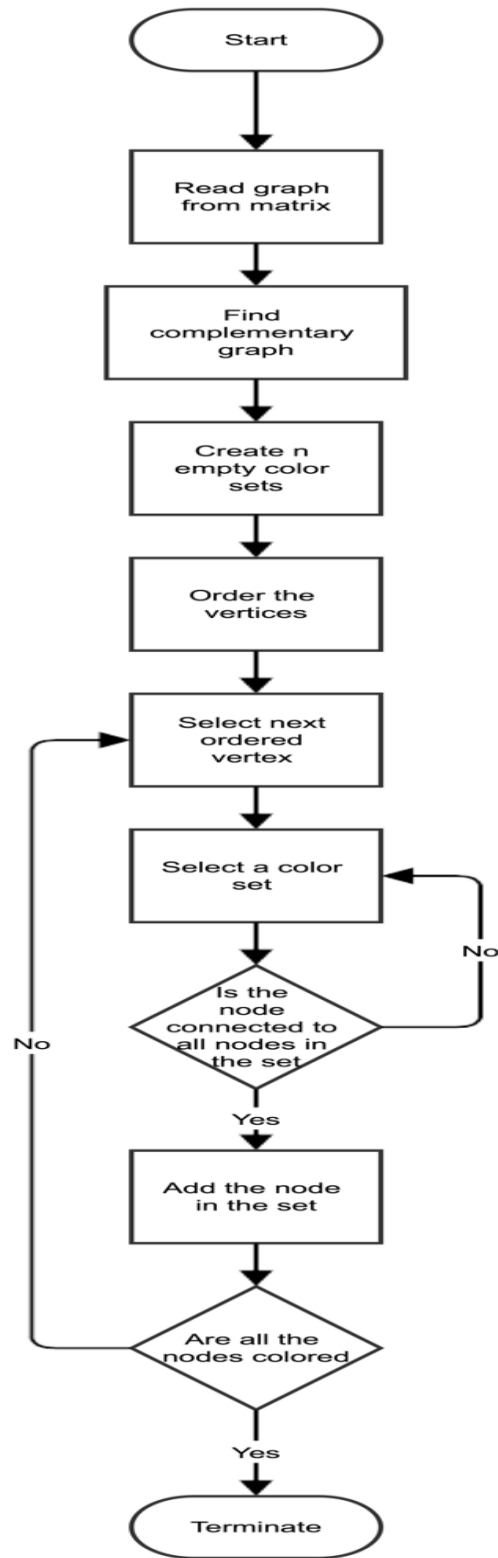


Figure 3: Algorithm Flow Chart

Table 4: Step 4

Ordered Vertices	Empty Sets
4, 2, 1, 3	Color Set 1 = {4,2}
	Color Set 2 = {1}

The order of the nodes is an important issue, since order can significantly affect the outcomes of an algorithm. In our approach four different orderings were used; highest degree to lowest (order 1), lowest degree to highest (order 2), random order (order 3) and ordering based on connected and disconnected graphs (order 4).

Table 5: Step 5

Ordered Vertices	Empty Sets
4, 2, 1, 3	Color Set 1 = {4,2}
	Color Set 2 = {1}
	Color Set 3 = {3}

Figure 4 shows a pseudo-code for our algorithm. In figure 5 we compare the different types of order schemes based on the yielded chromatic number. Ordering the nodes from lowest degree to highest degree (order 2) in the complementary graph outperformed in contrast with the other ordering schemes. Based on these results ordering scheme 2 was chosen in our approach.

Algorithm 1 Complementary Graph Colouring

```

1: procedure COLOUR
2:   colourSets ← Create Empty Colour Sets
3:   orderedNodes ← orderedNodes(graph) //procedure
4:   to order nodes
5:   loop-1 from i=0 ⇒ n //loop ordered nodes
6:   loop-2 from j=0 ⇒ n //loop colours
7:   boolean condition ← true
8:   loop-3 from k=0 ⇒ n //loop nodes in current colour set
9:   if node k is not connected node i then
10:     condition ← false
11:     exit loop-3
12:   goto loop-3.
13:   if condition then
14:     Add current node to current colour set
15:     exit loop-2
16:   goto loop-2.
17:   goto loop-1.

```

Figure 4: Algorithm Pseudo-Code

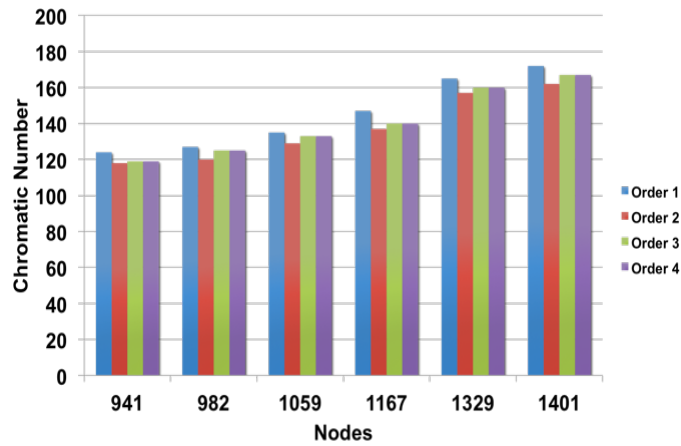


Figure 5: Ordering Comparison

4. Evaluation

The algorithms were implemented in Java environment and each of them evaluated identical graph input. A different graph is generated randomly using a randomizer, producing unique graphs with varying number of vertices ranging between predetermined bounds for every run. In every run each algorithm evaluates the graph and computes the chromatic number for a valid coloring. The generated graph can range from a weakly connected graph to a strongly connected graph taking into account all types of graphs. We ran the program for 200 runs generating random graphs with nodes ranging between 1000-5000. After running the program for 200 runs we calculated the average chromatic number for each algorithm as shown in fig 6.

Table 6: Running Time Complexities

Approaches	Big O Complexity
Complementary Graph	$O(c * n^3)$
Welsh & Powell	$O(c * n^3)$
BFS Approach	$O(c * n^3)$
Exact DSATUR	Exponential Complexity

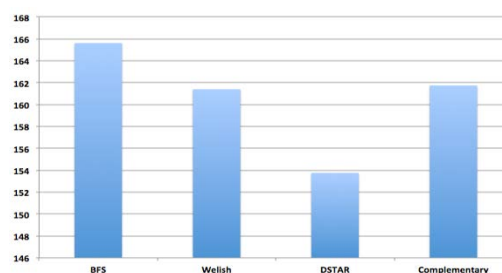


Figure 6: Average Chromatic Number

We observed from the results obtained that the complementary graph coloring yielded a chromatic number roughly identical to Welsh. DASTUR is an exact approach where it gives us a solution within the close vicinity of the optimal solution.

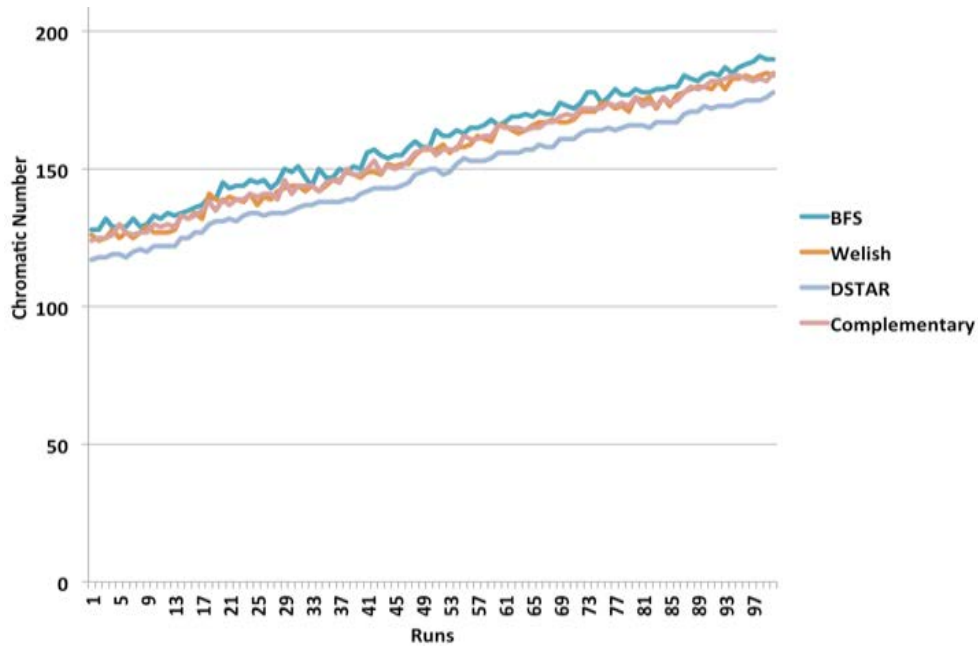


Figure 7: Chromatic Number Comparison

Figure 7 clearly demonstrates the relationship between the chromatic number and the number of nodes. As the number of nodes increases, so does the chromatic number required to color the graph properly. We noticed that BFS contributed to the highest chromatic number, while our algorithm and Welsh performed closely similarly. DSTAR however, out-performed all the other algorithms in terms of chromatic number due to its exact coloring characteristic.

As illustrated in fig 8, DSATUR was eliminated for a fair comparison as it was producing exponential times results in magnitudes of seconds, while the others algorithms were running in polynomial time in magnitudes of milliseconds. The running time increases as the number of nodes increases, but we noticed a fluctuation which was caused due to the nature of the random graph generated at each run. Heavily connected graphs consumed higher times, while weakly connected graphs exhibited minimal times. Welsh clearly outperforms BFS and complementary graph coloring algorithms by a factor of $\frac{n}{\log n}$. The difference between our algorithm and Welsh is the sorting technique used. Welsh uses a heap sort method to order his nodes, while our approach used the classic bubble sort method to implement its ordering there- fore introducing a gap. As n grows the dominating factor of both algorithms will be $O(n^3)$ therefore this gap can be neglected. It can also be observed that BFS's performance is similar to our approach and Welsh due to the fact of coloring each disconnected graph in $O(n^2)$ time yields a worst case analysis of $O(c * n^3)$. We can conclude that as the number of nodes in the graph grows, the dominating factor in all algorithms will be $O(n^3)$.

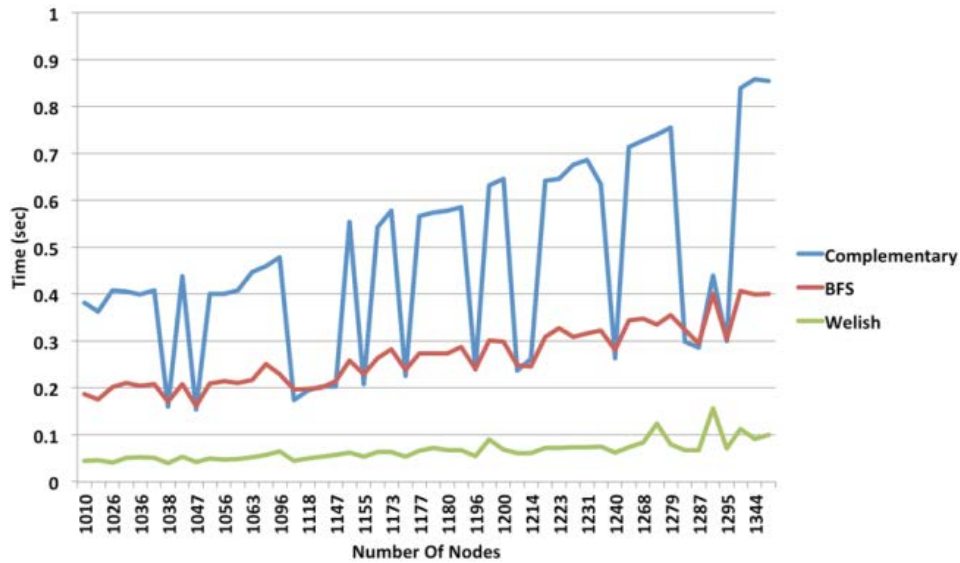


Figure 8

5. Conclusion

It can be concluded from our study of different colouring algorithms, that Welsh-Powell has demonstrated to be the ideal algorithm in terms of run time and chromatic number. However, as shown from our results DSATUR produces the closest to optimal chromatic numbers, but at an extremely high run time cost as compared to other approaches making impractical. On the contrary, our approach colours the graph in a reasonable manner, producing chromatic numbers similar to Welsh and a running time complexity identical to BFS.

Future work involves experimenting our algorithm with different data structures such as heaps that is used by Welsh, with the intention of reducing the overall running time complexity. Since both of our algorithms have $O(n^2)$ running time complexity, by using a different data structure we believe that we could achieve better running than Welsh.

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