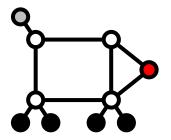
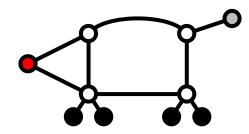
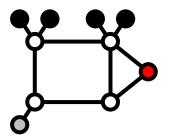
Isomorphism motivation



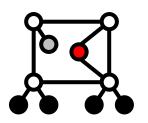
Tiny piglet



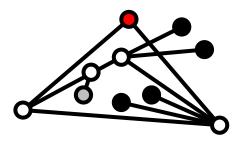
Getting strong and backwards



Reflected in water



Inspecting its tail

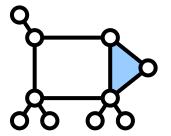


Painted by abstract artist

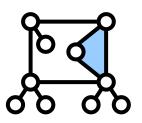


Serialized in Java file

Isomorphism motivation



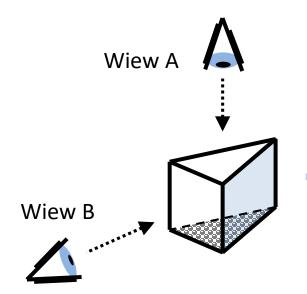
Triangle **outside** the square

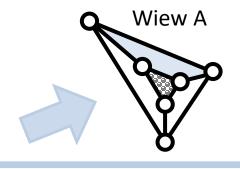


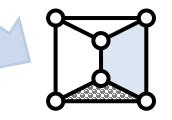
Triangle **inside** the square



Should we consider these two schemes to be identical regardless of the pictures geometry?







Wiew B

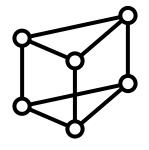
Wiew A

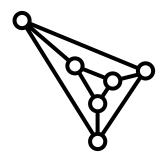
One triangle and **three** quadrilaterals inside a **triangle**.

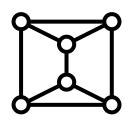
Different representations (views) of **the same** original structure.

Wiew B **Two** triangles and **two** quadrilaterals
inside a **rectangle**.

Isomorphism informally

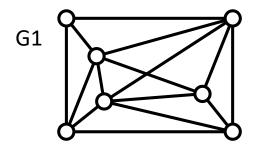


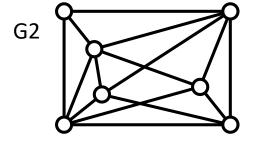


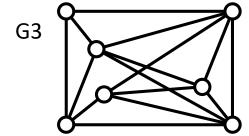


Geometry does not help to confirm the fact that **different representations** (**pictures**, **descriptions...**) correspond to the **same structure**.

On the contrary, it rather seems to obscure the fact quite easily:





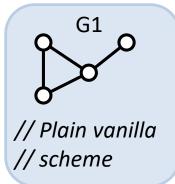


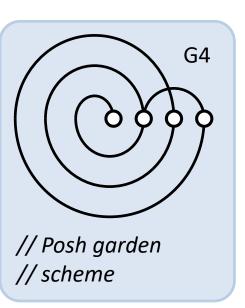
G1 and G2 do not depict the same structure, while G1 and G3 do.

The structure, in this context, is the set of nodes and the set of edges between them.

Isomorphism informally

Two graphs are called **isomorphic** to each other when, in fact, they are absolutely the same graph. They only pretend to be different (if they pretend it at all).





Clearly, G1, G2, G3, G4, G5, are all pairwise isomorphic to each other.

Each time it is the same graph.

```
\begin{pmatrix}
0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0
\end{pmatrix}
```

// Adjacency matrix of G3

G5 is an undirected simple graph consisting of 4 nodes and 4 edges. It contains a node of degree 1.

// This defines G5 unambiguously.

Isomorphism formally

Two graphs, G1 and G2, are called **isomorphic** to each other when there exists a one-to-one correspondence between the nodes of G1 and the nodes of G2. Additionally, this correspondence between the nodes also completely mirrors the information about the edges in both graphs, in the sense:

There is and edge between x and y in G1
if and only if
there is an edge between nodes corresponding to x and y in G2

There may be more than one such correspondence between then nodes of G! and G2 when the graphs are isomorphic.

According to informal definition, when G1 and G2 are isomorphic, they both represent the same graph. In effect, the one-to-one correspondence between the nodes of G1 and G2 is a one-to-one correspondence between the nodes of a single graph. Is there any practical sense of studying ?

Automorphism digression

Let G be a graph. A one-to-one correspondence between the nodes of G is called a **automorphism** of G when

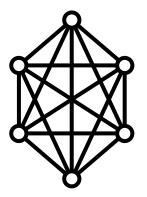
There is and edge between x and y in G
if and only if
there is an edge between nodes corresponding to x and y in G.

There always exists at least one automorphism for any graph. Trivially, it is possible to map each node to itself.

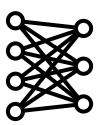
The one-to-one correspondence between the nodes of a graph is a permutation of the nodes.

There are N! different permutations of the nodes. Which of them are automorphisms, and which of them are not, that depends on the graph itself.

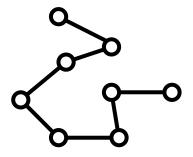
Automorphism digression



On a complete graph on N nodes, there are N! automorphisms, any permutation of the nodes is an automorphisms. For N = 6 there are 720 different automorphisms.

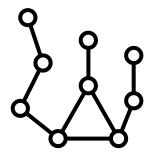


On a complete bipartite graph on M and N nodes, there are $2 \times M! \times N!$ automorphisms. Any permutation which maps a node to another node in the same partition is an automorphisms. Also, the partitions may be swapped. For M = 4, N = 3, there are $2 \times 4! \times 3! = 2 \times 24 \times 6 = 288$ different automorphisms.



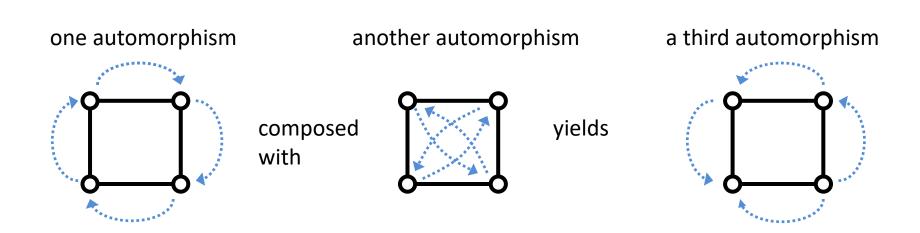
On a path graph N nodes, there are 2 automorphisms. One is the identity permutation, the other automorphism is the permutation which maps each node to its counterpart on the same place on the "reversed" path.

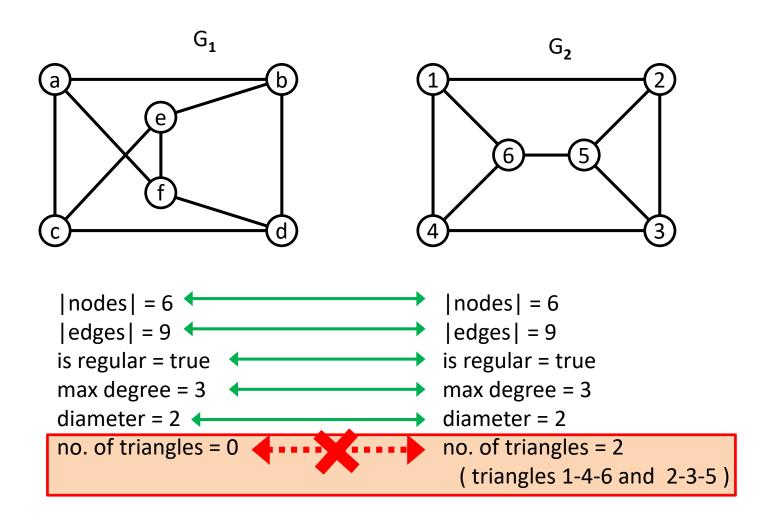
Automorphism digression

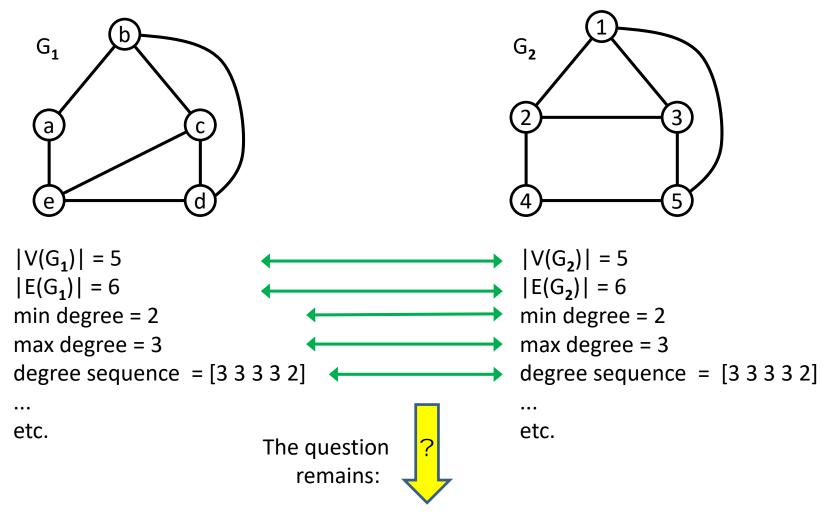


On many graphs, there is only one automorphism, represented by the identity permutation of the nodes.

In general, the composition of two automorphisms is another automorphism (it is a composition of permutations), and the set of automorphisms of a given graph, under the composition operation, forms a group, the automorphism group of the graph.

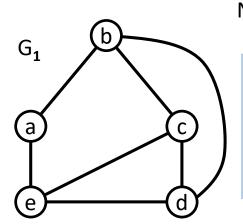




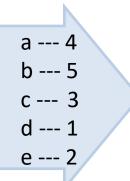


Are G₁ and G₂ isomorphic to each other?

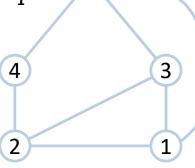




Nodes mapping



 G_1



G₂ (1) (3) (4) (5)

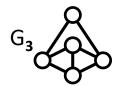
G₁: Set of edges:

{ {a, e} {a, b} {b, c} {c, e} {e, d} {c, d} {b, d} } Nodes mapping

a --- 4 b --- 5 c --- 3 d --- 1 e --- 2 G₁: Set of mapped edges:

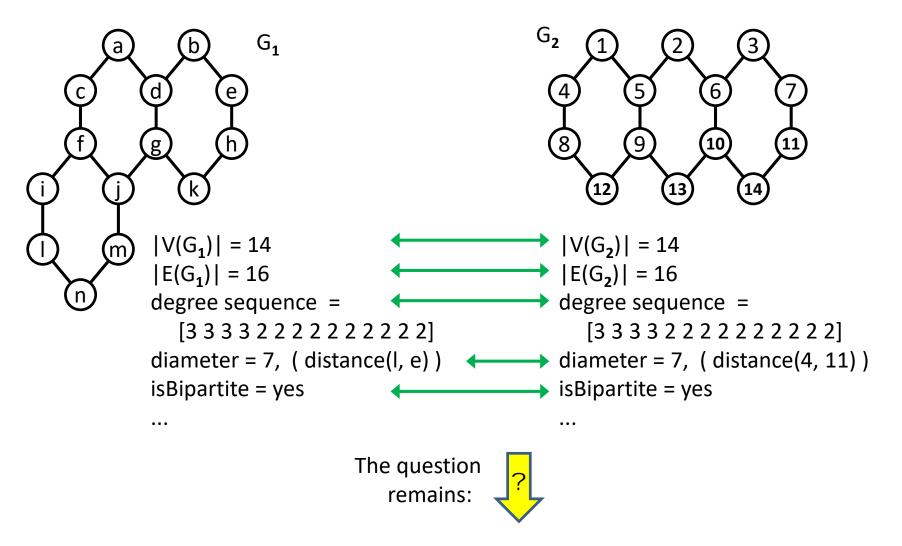
{ {4, 2} {4, 5} {5, 3} {3, 2} {2, 1} {3, 1} {5, 1} } G₂: Set of edges:

{ {1, 2} {1, 3} {1, 5} {2, 3} {2, 4} {3, 5} {4, 5} }



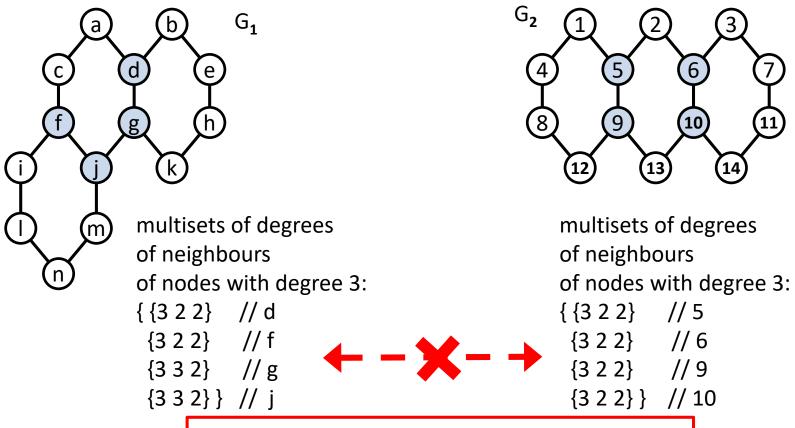
Both sets of edges are the same. G_1 and G_2 are isomorphic.

(Verification: Sort all sets, compare items one by one.)



Are G_1 and G_2 isomorphic to each other?





G₁ and G₂ are not isomorphic to each other.

Another Invariant:

G₁ -- nodes of degree 3 form a connected subgraph.

G₂ -- nodes of degree 3 form two mutually unconnected subgraphs.

More invariants: Try yourself....
PAL 2020/04 Graph isomorphism notes

Difficulty

Is there a **fixed set of properties** which values can be calculated for any graph, no matter how effectively (linearly, polynomially, exponentially), and which values would decide whether two given graphs G_1 , G_2 are isomorphic? In the sense:



values calculated on G_1 == values calculated on G_2 if and only if G_1 is isomorphic to G_2

So far, no such set of properties is known.

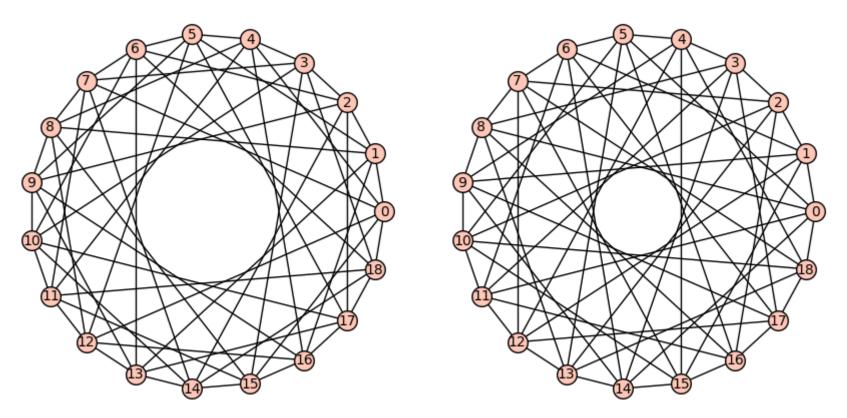
It is also unknown whether it is **NP-hard/complete** to check if two graphs are isomorphic.

Partial solution

Advanced heuristical approaches solve the problem in many practical settings: SW: **nauty** and **Traces:** https://pallini.di.uniroma1.it/

based on papers by Brendan D.McKay and AdolfoPiperno: *Practical graph isomorphism I and II*. http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/summary?doi=10.1.1.169.6684 https://arxiv.org/abs/1301.1493

Isomorphism is difficult to confirm/reject when the graphs are highly symmetric. Informally, symmetry means that a graph "looks the same" in the vicinity of each node. The number of candidate bijections is then difficult to reduce when there are no obvious invariants which values would help to distinguish between different nodes. As a simple example, consider the following pair of graphs.



Picture credit to https://sagecell.sagemath.org and code
g1 = graphs.CirculantGraph(19, [1,5,8]); g1.show()
g2 = graphs.CirculantGraph(19, [1,4,7]); g2.show()

Isomorphism of directed graphs

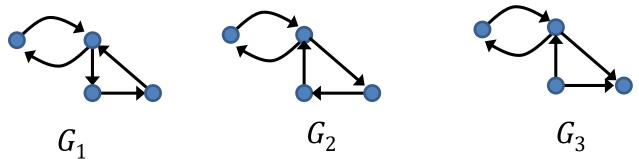
In these slides, term graph always refers to an undirected graph, if not specified otherwise.

All isomorphism properties, algorithms, notions, etc. defined for undirected graphs, can be analogously defined and analyzed/solved in analogous manner for directed graphs.

Two directed graphs $G_1=(V_1,E_1)$ and $G_2=(V_2,E_2)$ are isomorphic if there is a bijection $f:V_1\to V_2$ such that

$$\forall x, y \in V_1 : (f(x), f(y)) \in E_2 \Leftrightarrow (x, y) \in E_1$$

Example:



Graphs G_1 and G_2 are isomorphic, G_3 is not isomorphic to any of G_1 , G_2 .

| N | Number f(N) of graphs on N nodes (i | ncl. unconnected ones) https://oeis.org/A000088 | |
|----|--|---|--|
| 1 | 1 | | |
| 2 | 2 | Approximation of $\binom{N}{2}$ | |
| 3 | 4 | the number of graphs: $f(N) \le \frac{2^{(2)}}{N!}$ | |
| 4 | 11 | Ni | |
| 5 | 34 | | |
| 6 | 156 | f(N) | |
| 7 | 1044 | The formula approximates $\lim_{N\to\infty} \frac{(N)}{\binom{N}{2}} = 1$ | |
| 8 | 12346 | f(N) tightly, in the sense: $2^{(2)}$ | |
| 9 | 274668 | N! | |
| 10 | 12005168 | | |
| 15 | 31426485969804308768 | | |
| 20 | 645490122795799841856164638490742749440 ~ 6.5 · 10 ³⁸ | | |
| 30 | 3344943163092576692494395699280800289566314799353930643299678348872177345348 | | |
| | 80582749030521599504384 \sim 3.3 \cdot 10 ⁹⁸ 7793841167914977954582550817575177766066055272533160501864210580719699592280 | | |
| 40 | 7/93841167914977934382350817375177766066033272333160301864210380719699392280 | | |
| | 63462449691949358853053120648183808 ~ 7.8 · 10 ¹⁸⁶ | | |
| N | see inset | | |

Applying brute force and checking all graphs for would be a hopeless effort.

| N | Number f'(N) of connected graphs on N nodes https://oeis.org/A001349 | | | |
|----|--|--|--|--|
| 1 | 1 | | | |
| 2 | 1 | | | |
| 3 | 2 | | | |
| 4 | 6 | | | |
| 5 | 21 | | | |
| 6 | 112 | | | |
| 7 | 853 | | | |
| 8 | 11117 | | | |
| 9 | 261080 | | | |
| 10 | 11716571 | | | |
| 15 | 31397381142761241960 | | | |
| 20 | 645465483198722799426731128794502283004 | | | |
| 30 | 3344942976179029274740625889887714205924003404484971757354867875739197630926 | | | |
| | 64433461017585013705594 | | | |
| 40 | 7793841167347901373159586190645563996131177435680973666982243627070377497235 4174178748323987582425416768805527046107079810797229883124475331332011126406 | | | |
| | 04192083672776028633590109166374659 | | | |
| N | asymptotically same as all graphs, in the sense: $\lim \{ N \rightarrow \infty, f'(N) / f(N) \} = 1$ | | | |

Applying brute force and checking all graphs for would be a hopeless effort.

| N | Number f"(N) of undirected trees on N nodes | https://oeis.org/A001349 |
|-----|--|--------------------------|
| 1 | 1 | |
| 2 | 1 | |
| 3 | 1 | |
| 4 | 2 | |
| 5 | 3 | |
| 6 | 6 | |
| 7 | 11 | |
| 8 | 23 | |
| 9 | 47 | |
| 10 | 106 | |
| 15 | 7741 | |
| 20 | 823065 | |
| 30 | 14830871802 ~ 1.5 · 10 ¹⁰ | |
| 40 | 363990257783343 ~ 3.6 · 10 ¹⁴ | |
| 100 | 630134658347465720563607281977639527019590 | |
| N | Formula is too complex to fit here, see the OEIS reference above | |

Applying brute force and checking all trees would be a hopeless effort.

Examples of more graph invariants (a tiny! selection):

- (.) Maximum/maximum node degree
- (.) Degree sequence (sequence of all node degrees sorted in non-increasing order)
- (.) Connected yes/no
- (.) Number of edges
- (.) Bipartite yes/no
- (.) Regular yes/no (the degree of all nodes is the same)
- (.) Tree yes/no
- (.) Planar yes/no (can be drawn in a plane without edges crossing)
- (X) Diameter, radius, eccentricity, number of centers
- (X) Number of triangles
- (X) Length of the shortest cycle (so called *girth* of the graph)
- (.) Number of bridges/cutvertices/blocks
- (X) Hamiltonian yes/no (Hamilton path or cycle exists in the graph)
- (X) Spectrum (= multiset of eigenvalues) of adjacency (Laplacian) matrix of the graph
- (X) Number of automorphisms
- (X) Chromatic/independence/dominancy/clique numbers (see respective definitions...)

•••

...

(.) O(E+V), (X) more complex than O(E+V), polynomial or exponential.

Two random graphs are extremely(!) probably NOT isomorphic

When two graphs G1, G2 are selected randomly from the set of all graphs on N nodes or when they are generated randomly, then

- A. The probability that G1 and G2 are isomorphic is very close to 0. *)
- B. The probability that the values of some (in fact, of many) of invariants in G1 and G2 are different is very close to 1.
- A. \equiv Very probably, G1 and G2 are not isomorphic.
- B. \equiv Very probably, it is (relatively) easy to verify G1 and G2 are not isomorphic.

Conclusion:

When the graphs are not isomorphic, checking the values of various (easy to compute, preferentially!) invariants in both graphs, quickly confirms this fact in majority of (random) cases.

*) How close? The probability p is in the order of $n! / 2^{comb(n,2)}$. For example, n = 10, $p = 10! / 2^{45} \cong 10^{-7}$; n = 100, $p = 100! / 2^{4950} \cong 10^{-1332}$.

Isomorphism of general graphs -- computation approaches

1. Elementary

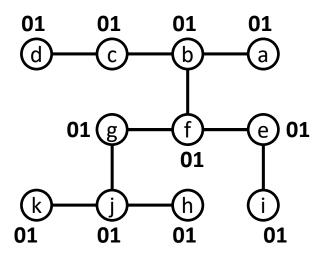
Fix nodes of G1. Generate all permutations of nodes of G2. For each permutation of nodes in G2 check if mapping nodes in G1 to permuted nodes in G2 is an isomorphism.

2. Exploiting node properties

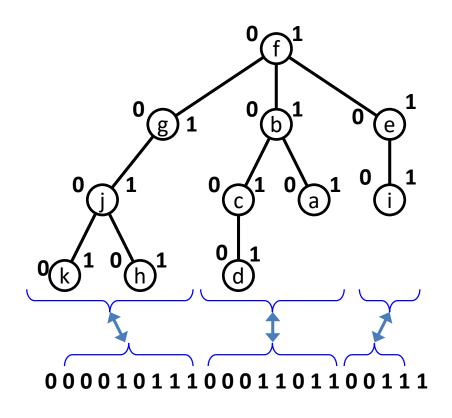
In G1 and in G2, split nodes to separate subsets, in which nodes share identical properties. Strive to minimize subset sizes (= compute many node properties). Generate all permutations of nodes inside each subset in G2. For each set of permutations of nodes in all subsets in G2 check if mapping nodes in subsets in G1 to permuted nodes in subsets in G2 is an isomorphism.

3. Exploiting node properties, recursive backtrack

In G1 and in G2, split nodes to separate subsets, in which nodes share identical properties. Strive to minimize subset sizes (= compute many node properties). Recursively try to match a pair of nodes X in G1 and Y in G2, X and Y belong to subsets with identical properties. For X in G1, try all Y in the corresponding subset in G2. If matching X -- Y does not violate isomorphism condition, recurse to next node in G1, otherwise backtrack. Isomorphism condition in this case is: Already matched neighbours of X are matched exactly to already matched neighbours of Y.



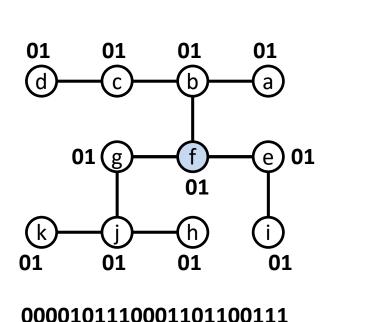
0000101110001101100111

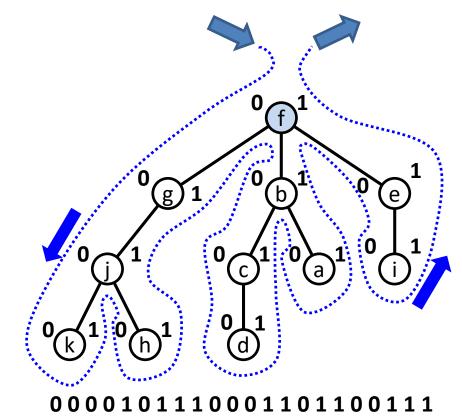


Describe any tree completely by sequence of 0s and 1s, a so-called certificate.

The certificates are same for two trees iff the trees are isomorphic.

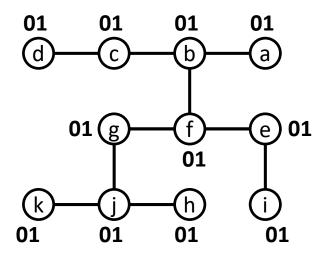
Thus, checking isomorphism between two trees reduces to computing certificates of both trees and checking wheter the certificates are identical.

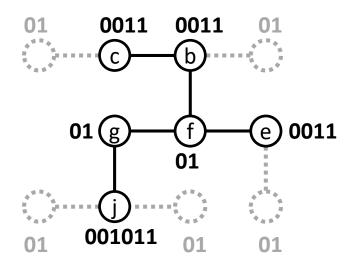


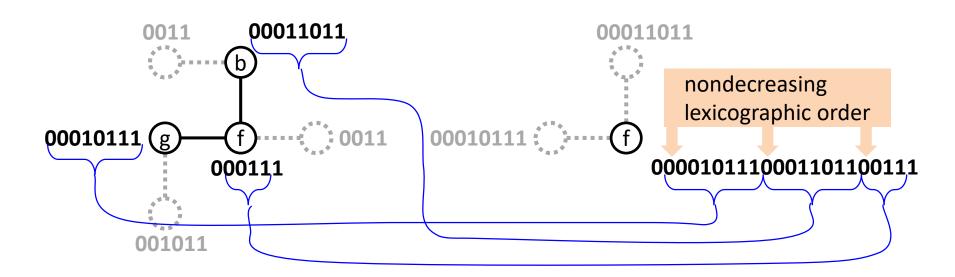


❖ Perform DFS from the root == center of the tree. Always expand DFS into that subtree which certificate is lexicographically the smallest.

- Output 0 when the node is being open and output 1 when the node is being closed.
- ❖ The output sequence is the tree certificate, it is obvious by induction.
- Drawback: DFS cannot know the subtrees certificates in advance.
- The idea can be used only for reconstructing the tree from the certificate.





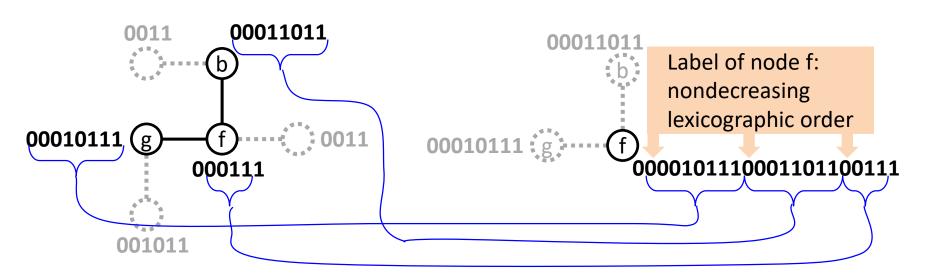


Tree certificate computation

- 1. Label all the vertices of G with the string 01.
- 2. While there are more than two vertices in G do:

For each non-leaf *x* of G:

- a) Let Y be the multi-set of labels of the leaves adjacent to x and also the label of x, with the initial 0 and trailing 1 deleted from the label of x.
- b) Replace the label of x with concatenation of the labels in Y sorted in increasing lexicographic order, with 0 prepended and a 1 appended.
- c) Remove all leaves adjacent to x in G.
- 3. If there is only one vertex x left in G, report the label of x as certificate.
- 4. If there are two vertices x and y left in G, report the labels of x and y, concatenated in increasing lexicographic order, as the certificate.



Tree certificate example

```
proc reconstructTree( certificate )
nodesList = emptyList()
 edgesList = emptyList()
 centers = emptyList() // one or two centers
 stack = emptyStack()
 for digit in certificate
   if digit == '0'
    create node X
    nodesList.add( X )
     if stack.isEmpty()
       centers.add( X )
                                          0000101110001101100111
    else
       edgesList.add( pair(stack.top(),X) )
     stack.push( X )
   else // digit == '1'
     stack.pop()
 if centers.size() == 2 // two centers
   edgesList.add( pair(centers[0],centers[1]) )
return nodesList, edgesList, centers
```

Tree certificate example - Python reconstruction

```
def reconstruct( certificate ):
   nodes, edges, stack = [], [], []
   centers = [] # 1 or 2 centers
   newNode = 0 # nodes are integers
   for digit in certificate:
      if digit == '0':
         newNode += 1 # 'create' new node
         nodes.append( newNode )
                                                0000101110001101110000111011
         if len( stack ) == 0: # empty
            centers.append( newNode )
         else:
            edges.append( [newNode, stack[-1]] )
         stack.append( newNode )
      else: # digit == '1':
         stack.pop()
   if len( centers ) == 2:
      edges.append( [centers[0], centers[1]] )
   return nodes, edges, centers
cer = "0000101110001101110000111011"
nodes, edges, centers = reconstruct( cer )
```