

THE GRAPH ISOMORPHISM ALGORITHM

ASHAY DHARWADKER

JOHN-TAGORE TEVET

Abstract

We present a new polynomial-time algorithm for determining whether two given graphs are isomorphic or not. We prove that the algorithm is necessary and sufficient for solving the Graph Isomorphism Problem in polynomial-time, thus showing that the Graph Isomorphism Problem is in \mathbf{P} . The semiotic theory for the recognition of graph structure is used to define a canonical form of the sign matrix of a graph. We prove that the canonical form of the sign matrix is uniquely identifiable in polynomial-time for isomorphic graphs. The algorithm is demonstrated by solving the Graph Isomorphism Problem for many of the hardest known examples. We implement the algorithm in C++ and provide a demonstration program for Microsoft Windows.

Recommendation: <http://www.geocities.com/dharwadker/tevet/isomorphism/>

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Ashay Dharwadker

*H-501 Palam Vihar
District Gurgaon
Haryana 122017
India*

dharwadker@yahoo.com

John-Tagore Tevet

*Research Group S.E.R.R.
Euroniversity
Tallinn
Estonia*

john.tevet@graphs.ee

Selgitus

Teavik on pühendatud graafide *isomorfismiprobleemile*, st graafide isomorfismi tuvastamise algoritmi konstrueerimisele. See probleem võis kerkida ülesse juba siis, kui A. Cayley [1857] tegeles orgaaniliste isomeeride alaste uuringutega.

Isomorfismi tuvastamise ülesanne kujutab praegu endast graafiteooria keskset ülesannet. Klassifikaatori „2000 Mathematics Subject Classification” (MSC2000) järgi on graafide isomorfismi tuvastamine koos taastatavuse probleemiga kombinatoorne nähtus indeksiga 05C60. Isomorfismi tuvastamine seisneb vaid vastuses küsimusele, kas graaf G_A on isomorfne graafiga G_B ning esitada isomorfne substitutsioon.

Isomorfismi tuvastamise teoreetiline algoritm täiesti olemas – see seisneb graafi G_B seosmaatriksi ridade ja nende vastavate veergude ümberpaigutamises (permuteerimises, ümberjärjestamises, ülevahetamises) niikaua, kui see ei lange kokku graafi G_A seosmaatriksiga. Sellel on vaid üks puudus – see on väga keeruline, selle sammude arv läheneb $n!$ (n -faktoriaalini). Veel kümme aastat tagasi arvati, et $16!$ permutatsiooni arvutamine võtaks kuni 40 aastat aega. Teiste lahenduste otsimine kestab.

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1. INTRODUCTION

We present a historical perspective of the Graph Isomorphism Problem and discuss the reasons why this problem has such a distinguished place in the history of mathematics and philosophy.

1.1. Some Historical Observations

Isomorphism (Greek word *isos* – same; *morphe* – form) constitutes a philosophical category, a one-to-one correspondence between structures of objects [1][2]. Such a one-to-one correspondence can only exist between abstract, idealized objects.

In *mathematics* we define isomorphism as a one-to-one mapping of one system onto another system, which preserves the structure, i.e. relations, ordering, topology etc., of the systems. For example: isomorphism of graphs (to be defined below), ordered sets, groups, vector spaces and other algebraic structures; the image of a mapping and its mathematical expression. Isomorphism is an invertible morphism, which has an opposite morphism, such that their product is the unity morphism. A topological isomorphism is called a homeomorphism.

Structure (Latin word *structura* – building) is also a philosophical category, that is defined as an unchangeable, constant connection, relation or organization form of the elements of a system [1][3]. In other words, structure is an abstraction of the system, its “skeleton”, where its elements and relations (connections) are abstracted from their empirical meanings and what remains is only an elementary set of their organizing properties, such as connectivity, regularity, symmetry etc. Mathematical means, concepts and methods are the most appropriate “langue” for the expression of structure. With the concept of structure is due a special, but at the same time universal, relation type – composition – that can be expressed by mathematical formulas, equations, matrices, graphs etc. The differences of structural elements are expressed by their conjugacy mode – positions – in the structure. The exact definition of structure can be give by concept of the isomorphism. Since structure is a formation of related (connected) elements, it may be represented by a graph. Immanuel Kant and Georg Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel are often regarded as the originators of the structure concept.

The isomorphism problem is to design an algorithm that recognizes the isomorphism of two objects. **The graph isomorphism problem** first came into prominence in 1857, when Arthur Cayley reported his research on organic isomers. Subsequently, isomorphism became a central problem in graph theory. According to the “2000 Mathematics Subject Classification” (MSC2000), isomorphism recognition together with the reconstruction problem, is a combinatorial phenomenon 05C60, even when graph theory itself is not yet classified as a separate subject!

Two graphs are called isomorphic, if they differ only in the labeling of their vertices. An isomorphic mapping from graph G_A to graph G_B is an isomorphic substitution $\varphi: V_A \rightarrow V_B$

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} v_1 & v_2 & \dots & v_i & \dots & v_n & \\ \varphi(v_1) & \varphi(v_2) & \dots & \varphi(v_i) & \dots & \varphi(v_n) & \end{array}$$

Isomorphism recognition is an answer to the question, is graph G_A isomorphic to graph G_B ? If so, one must also provide the isomorphic substitution. On the structural aspect we can say that graphs G_A and G_B are isomorphic if and only if these have one and the same structure.

A naïve algorithm for isomorphism recognition obviously exists – try all possible substitutions (permutations) of the rows and columns of the adjacency matrix of G_B until it coincides with adjacency matrix of graph G_A . However, this is an impossible task to perform for all practical purposes, since the number of permutations that one may need to check can go up to $n!$ (n -factorial). For example, checking $16!$ permutations could take up to 40 years of time on the fastest computers presently available.

We must then begin to seek other, more useful ways for isomorphism testing. Ideally, we should *try to find a polynomial-time algorithm* for the graph isomorphism problem. That is, we should *try to show that the graph isomorphism problem is in P*. During the 1970's, this was a very popular research activity. For example, S. Toida [4] presents for this purpose the concept of a “distance matrix”. Non-isomorphism can be recognized by distance matrices “almost always”, and isomorphism testing is possible in many cases, but not always.

Algorithms of this period were heavily criticized by R. C. Read, D. G. Corneil [5] and G. Gati [6], who called this “hobby” the “isomorphism disease”. The isomorphism problem became taboo during this period. This problem is avoided in some graph textbooks to this day. For example, B. Bollobas’ “Modern Graph Theory” [7] dedicates only two words for the isomorphism problem. Nevertheless, a small visual example of graph isomorphism is presented in almost all textbooks – and nothing more is said.

There are numerous monographs dedicated specially to the isomorphism problem. The aspect of group theory was treated by C. Hoffmann [8], who asserted that the “structure” of groups was quite similar to the general isomorphism problem. Unfortunately, this similarity turned out to be elusive. The isomorphism problem is treated in great depth by Netchepurenko et al [9] where they also present corresponding algorithms and computer programs that work “almost always”. In the monograph by G. Köbler, H. Schönig and J. Toran [10] this problem is treated on the basis of structural complexity.

Without good algorithms, the treatment of the isomorphism problem is senseless. Some partial progress was made by L. Babai [11], who found that in certain cases a Monte-Carlo algorithm is suitable. G. Tinhofer, M. Lödeke, S. Baumann, L. Babel [12] feel convinced that isomorphism testing is solvable by Weisfeiler-Leman algorithm. Vidya Raj and M. S. Shivakumar [13], give some attributes for solving the problem under certain conditions. At the same time, some monographs of algorithmic graph theory, such as N. Chistofiedes [14], have nothing to say about isomorphism. S. Pemmaraju and S. Skiena [15] are limited to studying time complexity of the isomorphism problem.

The isomorphism problem has mostly been studied just on the complexity aspect [16]. It is not known whether this problem is NP-complete. Whereas nobody found any polynomial-time solutions in P before us, it has been presented as an intermediary variant, marked SPP [17].

The methods of isomorphism recognition can be divided to: a) sorting or non-sorting methods; and, b) methods with using local or global invariants.

An *invariant* is an *attribute* of an object, such as a size, form of an expression etc., which *stays unchangeable* in case of certain transformations, i.e. it is an invariant in relation to these

transformations. For example, *local invariants* can be degrees of the vertices, distances between vertices, pair signs etc. Similarly, *global invariants* can be a degree frequency vector, various codes, polynomials, spectrums etc. of a graph. If the observed transformation does not change some attribute of an object, then it is a *complete invariant* [18]. For example, a complete invariant of isomorphic graphs is their common structure that does not change in case of relabelling (remarking) and/or transposition of their vertices.

The concept of invariants has been used in mathematics since the middle of the 19th century. Invariant theory had great importance in geometry. Invariant theory is treated classically as an algebraic theory [19]. Later, this specific concept was promoted to a *philosophical category*.

According to F. Harary [18], the isomorphism problem is solvable by complete system of global invariants (polynomials, spectra) of graphs. S. Locke [20] found that 3-cube-codes (super-long binary codes) are sometimes useful for isomorphism testing. From A. Zykov's point of view [21], the isomorphism problem is solvable on the basis of a system of local invariants that characterize the compactness, cycles (girths), paths etc., of a graph.

In our historical journey so far, the question remains: *is the graph isomorphism problem in P?* Clearly, some essential ideas are still missing.

1.2. An Approach: Structure Semiotics

Semiotics is the study of *sign* processes, or signification and communication, signs and symbols, both individually and grouped into sign systems. It includes the study of how *meaning* is constructed and understood.

A *sign* is an entity which signifies another entity. A natural sign is an entity which bears a causal relation to the signified entity, as thunder is a sign of a storm. A conventional sign signifies by agreement, as a full stop signifies the end of a sentence. Semiotics, epistemology, logic, and philosophy of language are concerned about the nature of signs, what they are and how they signify.

As far back as 1938, H. Hermes [22] was of the view that semiotics was a discipline suitable for exploring the very foundations of mathematics. *Structure semiotics* or *semiotics of structure* [23] is a research domain at the frontiers of graph theory and semiotics, where the subject of investigation is the structure (i.e. graph) as such. It is a complex of heuristic methods for exploring structure and its attributes. From the philosophical point of view, it is an object-oriented study of semiotics.

Structure semiotics treats structural invariants (codes, vectors) on their *meaning aspect*, i.e. treats them as *signs*. The *pair signs* characterize the shortest paths, girths, cliques, bridges etc of a graph. Their *systems* in the form of a *sign matrix* S constitute a *text* of the structure of a graph. Structure can be recognized and investigated just by its sign matrix [23].

The isomorphism problem is solvable on the grounds of structure semiotics, as a complete invariant of a graph in the form of its sign matrix S . The first step in our graph isomorphism algorithm, cf. procedures 2.3.1, 2.3.2 and 2.3.3, is to compute the sign matrices of the given graphs in polynomial-time.

1.3. The Symmetry Problem

When we compute the sign matrices of isomorphic graphs, the sets of row and column sign frequency vectors are always the same. The second step in our graph isomorphism algorithm, cf. procedure 2.3.3, is to arrange the sign frequency vectors in lexicographic order to obtain the canonical forms of the sign matrices of the given graphs. The vertices of the graphs are partitioned into *equivalence classes* or *orbits*. For isomorphic graphs, the unordered sets of orbits are always the same. These constitute important attributes of structure and are directly connected with *symmetry properties* of the graphs.

Symmetry (A) (Greek word *symmetria*) is a structural attribute that is expressed as a regular repetition (recurrence) of similar components (parts, particles) of an object in space and/or time [1].

Unfortunately, there is a commonly restricted understanding of symmetry as a “stump” of the full definition of symmetry (A):

Symmetry (B) is a property of an object, where the components that are placed at the same distance from a centre or axis are similar [3].

Both concepts are valid, and we may say that (B) is an “axle-symmetry” only.

Symmetry has the status of a *philosophical category* in countries of Mainland-Europe. However, in Anglo-Saxon countries, and also in Estonia, symmetry has not yet been assigned such an honour [24][25].

The general concept of symmetry (A) *in mathematics* is defined as the existence of the transitivity domain of automorphisms or *orbits* in $Aut G$, for example in a graph G . An orbit is essentially an *equivalence class*. Symmetry is *measurable*. Its value is maximum, if there exists only one orbit and its value is 0, if the number of orbits corresponds to the number of elements. The general concept of symmetry is used in *graph theory*, *structure-semiotics*, *arts* etc.

The main symmetry properties of graphs are: a) *vertex symmetry*, if there exist only a vertex orbit; b) *edge symmetry*, if there exist only an edge orbit; c) *bisymmetry*, if there exist only an edge orbit and only a “non-edge” orbit, i.e. an orbit of disadjacent vertex pairs,

So far, our graph isomorphism algorithm computes the canonical forms of the sign matrices of the given graphs in polynomial-time. However, it may still happen that the canonical forms of the obtained sign matrices do not coincide for isomorphic graphs. Finally, we define a polynomial-time procedure 2.3.4, that reorders the rows and columns of the sign matrices to guarantee coincidence in the case of isomorphic graphs. Hence, we can say that the canonical form of the sign matrix is uniquely identifiable in polynomial-time for isomorphic graphs.

*

To summarize, we prove that our graph isomorphism algorithm is *necessary and sufficient* for solving the graph isomorphism problem: if graphs G_A and G_B are isomorphic, then the algorithm finds an explicit isomorphism function; if graphs G_A and G_B are not isomorphic, then the algorithm determines that no isomorphism function can exist. Finally, we show that the algorithm has *polynomial-time complexity*. Thus, **we prove that the Graph Isomorphism Problem is in P.**

2. THE GRAPH ISOMORPHISM PROBLEM IS IN P

We are pleased to announce the discovery of a new polynomial-time algorithm for determining whether two given graphs are isomorphic or not.

2.1. Introduction

One of the most fundamental problems in graph theory is the *Graph Isomorphism Problem*: given two graphs G_A and G_B , are they isomorphic? Graphs G_A and G_B are said to be *isomorphic* if their vertices can be rearranged so that the corresponding edge structure is exactly the same. To show that graphs G_A and G_B are isomorphic, it suffices to find one such rearrangement of vertices. On the other hand, to show that G_A and G_B are not isomorphic, one must prove that no such rearrangement of vertices can exist. Without a good algorithm, this problem can be very difficult to solve even for relatively small graphs.

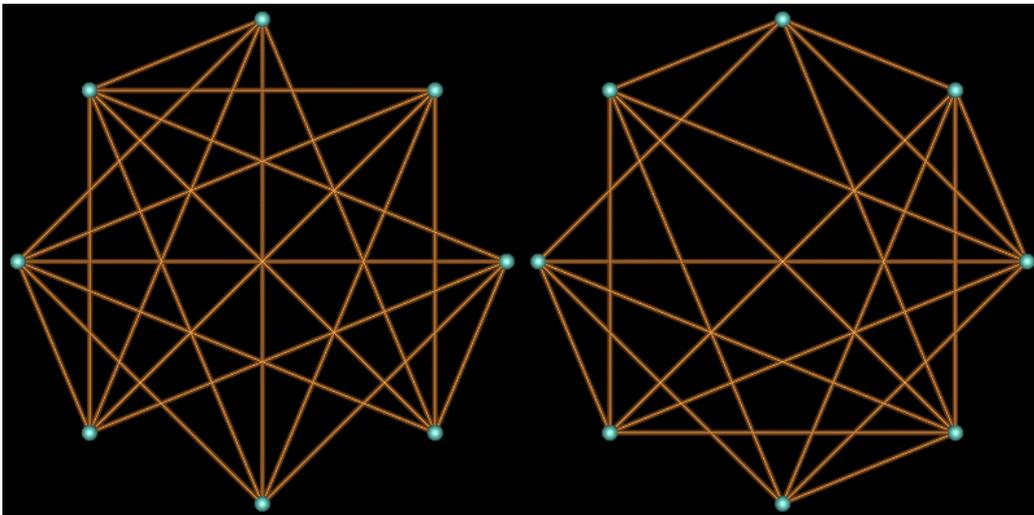


Figure 2.1.1. Are graphs G_A and G_B isomorphic?

We present a new polynomial-time **GRAPH ISOMORPHISM ALGORITHM** for determining whether two given graphs are isomorphic or not. If the given graphs are isomorphic, the algorithm finds an explicit isomorphism function in polynomial-time. In Section 2.2, we provide precise **DEFINITIONS** of all the terminology used and introduce the essential concept of a sign matrix according to the semiotic theory for the recognition of graph structure. In Section 2.3, we present a formal description of the **ALGORITHM** followed by an example to show how the algorithm works step-by-step. In Section 2.4, we prove that the algorithm is **NECESSARY AND SUFFICIENT** for solving the Graph Isomorphism Problem: if graphs G_A and G_B are isomorphic, then the algorithm finds an explicit isomorphism function; if graphs G_A and G_B are not isomorphic, then the algorithm determines that no isomorphism function can exist. In Section 2.5, we show that the algorithm has polynomial-time **COMPLEXITY**. Thus, we prove that the Graph Isomorphism Problem is in **P**. In Section 2.6, we provide an **IMPLEMENTATION** of the algorithm as a C++ program, together with demonstration software for Microsoft Windows.

2.2. Definitions

To begin with, we present elementary definitions of all the terminology used, following [26]. Thereafter, we introduce the essential concept of a sign matrix according to the semiotic theory for the recognition of graph structure, following [27].

A *finite simple graph* G consists of a set of *vertices* V , with $|V| = n$, and a set of *edges* E , such that each edge is an unordered pair of distinct vertices. The definition of a simple graph G forbids *loops* (edges joining a vertex to itself) and *multiple edges* (many edges joining a pair of vertices), whence the set E must also be finite, with $|E| = m$. We *label* the vertices of G with the integers $1, 2, \dots, n$. If the unordered pair of vertices $\{u, v\}$ is an edge in G , we say that u is *adjacent* to v and write $uv \in E$. Adjacency is a symmetric relationship: $uv \in E$ if and only if $vu \in E$. The *degree* of a vertex v is the number of vertices that are adjacent to v . A (u, v) -*path* P in G is a sequence of distinct vertices $u = v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k = v$ such that $v_i v_{i+1} \in E$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, k-1$. If such a (u, v) -path P exists, then the vertices u and v are said to be *connected* by a path of *length* $k-1$. Given any pair of vertices (u, v) in G , we define the *distance*

$$\begin{aligned} d(u, v) &= 0, \text{ if } u = v, \\ d(u, v) &= \text{the length of a shortest } (u, v)\text{-path, if } u \text{ and } v \text{ are connected, and} \\ d(u, v) &= \infty, \text{ otherwise.} \end{aligned}$$

We now introduce the key ingredients of semiotic theory. For any pair of vertices (u, v) in G , the *collateral graph* $G \setminus uv$ is defined as follows:

- If $uv \in E$, then $G \setminus uv$ is obtained by deleting the edge uv from G while preserving all the vertices of G . We use the binary sign $+$ to distinguish the distance function in this case.
- If $uv \notin E$, then $G \setminus uv = G$. We use the binary sign $-$ to distinguish the distance function in this case.

The *pair graph* G_{uv} for any pair of vertices (u, v) in G is defined as follows:

- w is a vertex of G_{uv} if and only if w belongs to a shortest (u, v) -path in $G \setminus uv$, and
- wx is an edge of G_{uv} if and only if wx is also an edge of G .

For any pair of vertices (u, v) in G , we write the (u, v) -*sign*, denoted by the symbol s_{uv} , as follows:

$$s_{uv} = \pm d_{uv} \cdot n_{uv} \cdot m_{uv}$$

where

- the leading binary sign is positive if $uv \in E$, or negative if $uv \notin E$;
- d_{uv} is the distance $d(u, v)$ in the collateral graph $G \setminus uv$;
- n_{uv} is the number of vertices of the pair graph G_{uv}
- m_{uv} is the number of edges of the pair graph G_{uv} .

The *sign matrix* S of the graph G is written as an $n \times n$ array with the (u, v) -sign s_{uv} as the entry in row u and column v ,

$$S = [s_{uv}].$$

The *adjacency matrix* of G is an $n \times n$ matrix with the entry in row u and column v equal to 1 if $uv \in E$ and equal to 0 if $uv \notin E$. Thus, the adjacency matrix of the graph G can be recovered from the leading binary signs of the entries of the sign matrix S . Note that for a simple graph G , both the adjacency matrix and the sign matrix S are symmetric. We shall now define a *canonical form* S^* of the sign matrix by ordering the rows and columns of S in a certain way. First, write the set of all distinct (u, v) -signs s_{uv} in lexicographic order s_1, s_2, \dots, s_r . Then, for each row i of the sign matrix, $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, compute the *sign frequency vector*

$$f_i = (f_i^{(1)}, f_i^{(2)}, \dots, f_i^{(r)})$$

Where $f_i^{(k)}$ is the number of times the sign s_k occurs in row i . Since S is symmetric, the sign frequency vector for column i is the same as the sign frequency vector for row i , for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$. Now, write the sign frequency vectors f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n in lexicographic order $f_{i_1}, f_{i_2}, \dots, f_{i_n}$. Reorder the rows and columns of the sign matrix according to the permutation i_1, i_2, \dots, i_n of the vertices $1, 2, \dots, n$ of G to obtain the canonical form S^* of the sign matrix.

The vertices of G are partitioned into *equivalence classes* consisting of vertices with the same sign frequency vectors. Thus, the canonical form S^* of the sign matrix is uniquely defined only upto permutations of vertices within each equivalence class.

Graphs G_A and G_B are said to be *isomorphic* if there exists a bijection

$$\varphi: V_A \rightarrow V_B$$

from the vertices of graph G_A to the vertices of graph G_B , such that uv is an edge in graph G_A if and only if $\varphi(u)\varphi(v)$ is an edge in graph G_B . The *graph isomorphism problem* is to determine whether two given graphs are isomorphic or not.

An *algorithm* is a problem-solving method suitable for implementation as a computer program. While designing algorithms we are typically faced with a number of different approaches. For small problems, it hardly matters which approach we use, as long as it is one that solves the problem correctly. However, there are many problems for which the only known algorithms take so long to compute the solution that they are practically useless. For instance, the naïve approach of computing all $n!$ possible permutations of the n vertices to show that a pair of graphs G_A and G_B are not isomorphic is impractical even for small inputs.

A *polynomial-time algorithm* is one whose number of computational steps is always bounded by a polynomial function of the size of the input. Thus, a polynomial-time algorithm is one that is actually useful in practice. The class of all problems that have polynomial-time algorithms is denoted by **P**. If graphs G_A and G_B are isomorphic then they must have the same sign frequency vectors in lexicographic order $f_{i_1}, f_{i_2}, \dots, f_{i_n}$ and we shall show that our algorithm obtains identical canonical forms of their sign matrices S_A^* and S_B^* in polynomial time, thus exhibiting an explicit isomorphism function φ . Conversely, we shall show that our algorithm determines in polynomial-time that the sign matrices S_A^* and S_B^* cannot be expressed in identical canonical forms if and only if the graphs G_A and G_B are not isomorphic. Thus, we have a polynomial-time algorithm for solving the graph isomorphism problem, showing that the graph isomorphism problem is in **P**.

2.3. Algorithm

We are now ready to present a formal description of the algorithm. After that, the steps of the algorithm will be illustrated by an example. We begin by defining four procedures.

2.3.1. Procedure. This procedure is Dijkstra's algorithm [28]. Given a graph G and a vertex u , we compute shortest (u, v) -paths to all vertices v of G . Define $a(u, v) = 1$ if $uv \in E$ and $a(u, v) = \infty$ if $uv \notin E$. We maintain a set V_{known} of vertices to which the shortest (u, v) -path is known and a tentative distance $d'(u, w)$ for each vertex w outside V_{known} .

- **Initialization:** Set $V_{known} = \{u\}$, $d(u, u) = 0$ and $d'(u, w) = a(u, w)$ for each vertex w outside V_{known} .
- **Iteration:** Select a vertex w_{min} outside V_{known} such that $d'(u, w_{min})$ is a minimum. Add w_{min} to V_{known} and update the tentative distance $d'(u, w) = \min\{d'(u, w), d(u, w_{min}) + a(w_{min}, w)\}$ for each vertex w outside V_{known} .
- **Termination:** Iterate until V_{known} contains all the vertices of G or until $d'(u, w) = \infty$ for each vertex w outside V_{known} . In the later case, no further vertex can be selected and the remaining vertices are not connected to the vertex u .

2.3.2. Procedure. Given a graph G and vertices u and v , we compute the distance $d(u, v)$ in the collateral graph $G \setminus uv$ and the pair graph G_{uv} .

- Using Procedure 2.3.1, compute shortest (u, x) -paths to all vertices x of $G \setminus uv$.
- Using Procedure 2.3.1, compute shortest (v, y) -paths to all vertices y of $G \setminus uv$.
- In particular, the length of any shortest (u, v) -path in $G \setminus uv$ is the distance $d(u, v)$.
- If $u = u_1, u_2, \dots, u_r$ and $v = v_1, v_2, \dots, v_s$ are shortest paths found above such that $u_r = v_s$ and the sum of the lengths of the two paths is the distance $d(u, v)$ in the collateral graph $G \setminus uv$, then the union of vertices of the two paths are vertices of the pair graph G_{uv} . Every vertex w of the pair graph G_{uv} is obtained this way, because any shortest (u, v) -path containing w is obtained by connecting some shortest (u, w) -path with some shortest (w, v) -path in $G \setminus uv$. Thus, at least one pair of shortest paths found above must satisfy $u_r = v_s = w$, for each vertex w of the pair graph G_{uv} .

2.3.3. Procedure. Given a graph G , we compute the sign matrix S and its canonical form S^* .

- Using Procedure 2.3.2, for every pair of vertices u and v , we compute the distance $d(u, v)$ in the collateral graph $G \setminus uv$ and the pair graph G_{uv} .
- The entry in row u and column v of the sign matrix S is $s_{uv} = \pm d_{uv} \cdot n_{uv} \cdot m_{uv}$, where the leading binary sign is positive if $uv \in E$, and negative if $uv \notin E$; d_{uv} is the distance $d(u, v)$ in the collateral graph $G \setminus uv$; n_{uv} is the number of vertices of the pair graph G_{uv} ; and m_{uv} is the number of edges of the pair graph G_{uv} .
- Write the set of all distinct signs s_{uv} in lexicographic order s_1, s_2, \dots, s_r .
- For each row i of the sign matrix S , $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, compute the sign frequency vector $f_i = (f_i^{(1)}, f_i^{(2)}, \dots, f_i^{(r)})$, where $f_i^{(k)}$ is the number of times the sign s_k occurs in row i . Since S is symmetric, the sign frequency vector for column i is the same as the sign frequency vector for row i , for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.
- Write the sign frequency vectors f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n in lexicographic order $f_{i_1}, f_{i_2}, \dots, f_{i_n}$.

- Reorder the rows and columns of the sign matrix according to the permutation i_1, i_2, \dots, i_n of the vertices $1, 2, \dots, n$ of G to obtain the canonical form S^* .

2.3.4. Procedure. Given graphs G_A and G_B such that the sign frequency vectors in lexicographic order for S_A^* and S_B^* are the same, $(f_{A i_1}, f_{A i_2}, \dots, f_{A i_n}) = (f_{B i'_1}, f_{B i'_2}, \dots, f_{B i'_n})$, we compute a reordering $i''_1, i''_2, \dots, i''_n$ of the vertices of G_B such that either the first entry of S_B^* that does not match the corresponding entry of S_A^* occurs at the greatest possible index in row major order or $S_A^* = S_B^*$.

- Set $A = S_A^*$ and $B = S_B^*$.
- Read the matrices A and B in row major order (read each row from left to right and read the rows from top to bottom). If all corresponding entries A_{ij} and B_{ij} of A and B match, then stop. Else, find the first entry B_{ij} in B that does not match the corresponding entry A_{ij} in A . Find $k > i$ such that interchanging rows (k, j) and columns (k, j) of B ensures that the first mismatch occurs later than B_{ij} in row major order (or there is no mismatch at all). If no such k exists, then stop. Repeat this process until the corresponding k cannot be found or all corresponding entries of A and B match.
- We obtain a reordering $i''_1, i''_2, \dots, i''_n$ of the vertices of G_B such that either the first entry of B that does not match the corresponding entry of A occurs at the greatest possible index in row major order or $A = B$.

2.3.5. Algorithm. Given graphs G_A and G_B , we determine whether G_A and G_B are isomorphic or not. If G_A and G_B are isomorphic, we exhibit an explicit isomorphism function.

- Using Procedure 2.3.3, we compute the canonical forms of the sign matrices S_A^* and S_B^* . If the sign frequency vectors in lexicographic order for S_A^* and S_B^* are different, then G_A and G_B are not isomorphic and we stop.
- Else, the sign frequency vectors in lexicographic order for S_A^* and S_B^* are the same, $(f_{A i_1}, f_{A i_2}, \dots, f_{A i_n}) = (f_{B i'_1}, f_{B i'_2}, \dots, f_{B i'_n})$.
 - For $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$:
 - Set $A = S_A^*$ and $B = S_B^*$.
 - Interchange rows $(1, k)$ and columns $(1, k)$ of B .
 - Using Procedure 3.4, if $A = B$ then stop. Else, start with the next value of k . If $k = n$ then stop.
 - If $A \neq B$, then G_A and G_B are not isomorphic. Else $A = B$, G_A and G_B are isomorphic and the reordering $i''_1, i''_2, \dots, i''_n$ of the vertices of G_B to obtain $S_B^* = B$ provides an explicit isomorphism function $\varphi(i_1) = i''_1, \varphi(i_2) = i''_2, \dots, \varphi(i_n) = i''_n$.

2.3.6. Example. We demonstrate the steps of the algorithm with an example. The input consists of Turán [29] graphs G_A and G_B , with vertices labeled $V_A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$ and $V_B = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$ as shown below in Figure 2.3.6.1.

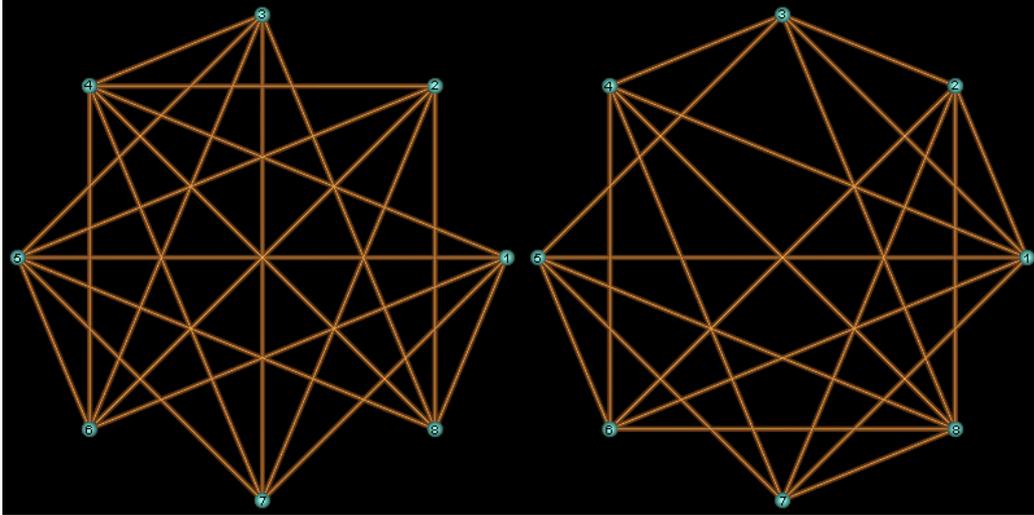


Figure 2.3.6.1. An example to demonstrate the steps of the algorithm : input

The algorithm first computes all the pair graphs of G_A . To see how this is done, let us explicitly compute the pair graph G_{12} for the pair of vertices (1, 2). First, Procedure 2.3.2 computes the shortest paths from vertex 1 in $G_A \setminus 12$ as (1), (1, 7, 2), (1, 7, 3), (1, 7), (1, 8), (1, 4), (1, 5) and (1, 6). Then, Procedure 2.3.2 computes the shortest paths from vertex 2 in $G_A \setminus 12$ as (2), (2, 7, 1), (2, 7, 3), (2, 7), (2, 8), (2, 4), (2, 5) and (2, 6). The distance $d(1, 2) = 2$ is given by the length of any shortest (1, 2)-path found in $G_A \setminus 12$ so far. Now, Procedure 2.3.2 obtains the shortest (1, 2)-paths (1, 7, 2), (1, 8, 2), (1, 4, 2), (1, 5, 2) and (1, 6, 2) whose union gives the 7 vertices of the pair graph $\{1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$. The pair graph has 16 edges $\{1,7\}$, $\{1,8\}$, $\{1,4\}$, $\{1,5\}$, $\{1,6\}$, $\{2,7\}$, $\{2,8\}$, $\{2,4\}$, $\{2,5\}$, $\{2,6\}$, $\{7,4\}$, $\{7,5\}$, $\{8,4\}$, $\{8,5\}$, $\{4,6\}$ and $\{5,6\}$. Since $\{1, 2\}$ is not an edge in G_A , the leading binary sign is negative and Procedure 2.3.3 computes the sign $s_{12} = -2.7.16$. Similarly, Procedure 2.3.3 computes all the signs s_{ij} for $i, j = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8$. Note that for $i = j$ the sign is always $-0.1.0$. Thus, Procedure 2.3.3 computes the sign matrix S_A . Then, Procedure 2.3.3 counts the number of times each sign occurs in a column of S_A and obtains the sign frequency vectors for each column of S_A . Finally, Procedure 2.3.3 reorders the rows and columns of S_A according to the lexicographic order of the sign frequency vectors, to obtain the canonical form of the sign matrix S_A^* . We use the following convention to display the sign matrix: the row and column headers show the vertex labels and the equivalence classes of vertices are distinguished by different shades of blue; the sign frequency vectors, vertex degrees and equivalence class numbers are displayed along the column footers.

S_A^*	4	5	1	2	3	7	8	6
4	-0.1.0	-2.8.21	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7
5	-2.8.21	-0.1.0	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7
1	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	-0.1.0	-2.7.16	-2.7.16	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	+2.4.5
2	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	-2.7.16	-0.1.0	-2.7.16	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	+2.4.5
3	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	-2.7.16	-2.7.16	-0.1.0	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	+2.4.5
7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	-0.1.0	-2.7.16	-2.7.16
8	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	-2.7.16	-0.1.0	-2.7.16
6	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	-2.7.16	-2.7.16	-0.1.0
Signs	4	5	1	2	3	7	8	6
-2.7.16.	0	0	2	2	2	2	2	2
-2.8.21.	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
-0.1.0.	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
+2.4.5.	0	0	3	3	3	3	3	3
+2.5.7.	6	6	2	2	2	2	2	2
Degrees	6	6	5	5	5	5	5	5
Classes	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2

Similarly, Procedure 2.3.3 obtains the canonical form of the sign matrix S_B^* :

S_B^*	1	8	7	2	3	4	5	6
1	-0.1.0	-2.8.21	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7
8	-2.8.21	-0.1.0	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7
7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	-0.1.0	+2.4.5	-2.7.16	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	-2.7.16
2	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.4.5	-0.1.0	+2.4.5	-2.7.16	-2.7.16	+2.4.5
3	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	-2.7.16	+2.4.5	-0.1.0	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	-2.7.16
4	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.4.5	-2.7.16	+2.4.5	-0.1.0	-2.7.16	+2.4.5
5	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.4.5	-2.7.16	+2.4.5	-2.7.16	-0.1.0	+2.4.5
6	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	-2.7.16	+2.4.5	-2.7.16	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	-0.1.0
Signs	1	8	7	2	3	4	5	6
-2.7.16.	0	0	2	2	2	2	2	2
-2.8.21.	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
-0.1.0.	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
+2.4.5.	0	0	3	3	3	3	3	3
+2.5.7.	6	6	2	2	2	2	2	2
Degrees	6	6	5	5	5	5	5	5
Classes	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2

Next, the algorithm checks that the sign frequency vectors in lexicographic order for S_A^* and S_B^* are the same,

$$\begin{aligned}
 (f_{A4}, f_{A5}, f_{A1}, f_{A2}, f_{A3}, f_{A7}, f_{A8}, f_{A6}) &= (f_{B1}, f_{B8}, f_{B7}, f_{B3}, f_{B6}, f_{B4}, f_{B5}, f_{B2})= \\
 &= (01106, 01106, 20132, 20132, 20132, 20132, 20132, 20132).
 \end{aligned}$$

Finally, the algorithm runs through the loop $k = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8$ to find an explicit isomorphism if it exists. Starting with $k = 1$, set $A = S_A^*$ and $B = S_B^*$:

Matrix A	4	5	1	2	3	7	8	6
4	-0.1.0	-2.8.21	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7
5	-2.8.21	-0.1.0	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7
1	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	-0.1.0	-2.7.16	-2.7.16	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	+2.4.5
2	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	-2.7.16	-0.1.0	-2.7.16	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	+2.4.5
3	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	-2.7.16	-2.7.16	-0.1.0	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	+2.4.5
7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	-0.1.0	-2.7.16	-2.7.16
8	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	-2.7.16	-0.1.0	-2.7.16
6	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	-2.7.16	-2.7.16	-0.1.0

Matrix B	1	8	7	2	3	4	5	6
1	-0.1.0	-2.8.21	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7
8	-2.8.21	-0.1.0	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7
7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	-0.1.0	+2.4.5	-2.7.16	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	-2.7.16
2	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.4.5	-0.1.0	+2.4.5	-2.7.16	-2.7.16	+2.4.5
3	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	-2.7.16	+2.4.5	-0.1.0	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	-2.7.16
4	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.4.5	-2.7.16	+2.4.5	-0.1.0	-2.7.16	+2.4.5
5	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.4.5	-2.7.16	+2.4.5	-2.7.16	-0.1.0	+2.4.5
6	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	-2.7.16	+2.4.5	-2.7.16	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	-0.1.0

Since $k = 1$, there is no initial interchange of rows and columns of B . Now, the algorithm uses Procedure 2.3.4. The entries of A and B are read in row major order. The first mismatch is found in the third row and fourth column, shown underlined. The algorithm finds that exchanging the fourth column with the fifth column (and the fourth row with the fifth row) of B will push the first mismatch further along the row major order:

Matrix B	1	8	7	3	2	4	5	6
1	-0.1.0	-2.8.21	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7
8	-2.8.21	-0.1.0	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7
7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	-0.1.0	-2.7.16	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	-2.7.16
3	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	-2.7.16	-0.1.0	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	-2.7.16
2	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	-0.1.0	-2.7.16	-2.7.16	+2.4.5
4	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	-2.7.16	-0.1.0	-2.7.16	+2.4.5
5	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	-2.7.16	-2.7.16	-0.1.0	+2.4.5
6	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	-2.7.16	-2.7.16	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	-0.1.0

The first mismatch is found in the third row and fifth column, shown underlined. The algorithm finds that exchanging the fifth column with the eighth column (and the fifth row with the eighth row) of B will push the first mismatch further along the row major order:

Matrix B	1	8	7	3	6	4	5	2
1	-0.1.0	-2.8.21	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7
8	-2.8.21	-0.1.0	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7
7	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	-0.1.0	-2.7.16	-2.7.16	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	+2.4.5
3	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	-2.7.16	-0.1.0	-2.7.16	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	+2.4.5
6	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	-2.7.16	-2.7.16	-0.1.0	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	+2.4.5
4	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	-0.1.0	-2.7.16	-2.7.16
5	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	-2.7.16	-0.1.0	-2.7.16
2	+2.5.7	+2.5.7	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	+2.4.5	-2.7.16	-2.7.16	-0.1.0

Now there is no mismatch, $A = B$. The algorithm exits the final loop and reports that an isomorphism has been found. The explicit isomorphism φ is given by reading the vertex labels of A and B in this order:

Graph G_A	Graph G_B
4	1
5	8
1	7
2	3
3	6
7	4
8	5
6	2

If the graphs G_A and G_B are redrawn with vertices ordered in this way, the isomorphism ϕ is easy to visualize.

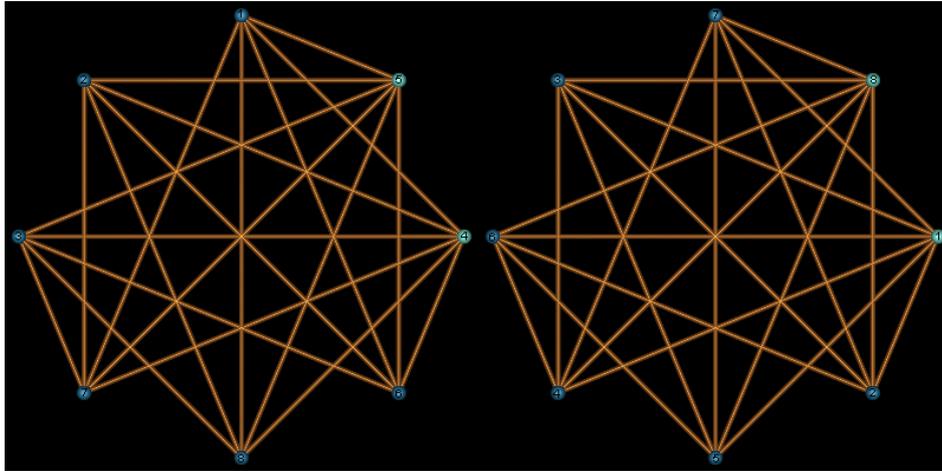


Figure 2.3.6.2. An example to demonstrate the steps of the algorithm: output

2.4. Necessity and Sufficiency

Here we prove that the algorithm is necessary and sufficient for solving the Graph Isomorphism Problem:

- if graphs G_A and G_B are isomorphic, then the algorithm finds an explicit isomorphism function;
- if graphs G_A and G_B are not isomorphic, then the algorithm determines that no isomorphism function can exist.

2.4.1. Proposition. If graphs G_A and G_B are isomorphic, then the algorithm finds an isomorphism.

Proof. Suppose graphs G_A and G_B are isomorphic and let $\phi: V_A \rightarrow V_B$ be an isomorphism from the vertices of G_A to the vertices of G_B . Note that distances are preserved bijectively under the isomorphism,

$$d(u, v) = d(\phi(u), \phi(v))$$

for all vertices u, v of G_A . Thus, all the corresponding pair graphs are isomorphic and the signs

$$s_{uv} = s_{\phi(u)\phi(v)}$$

are also preserved bijectively under the isomorphism for all vertices u, v of G_A . Hence, the sign frequency vectors in lexicographic order for the canonical sign matrices S_A^* and S_B^* are the same,

$$(\overset{f}{A}i_1, \overset{f}{A}i_2, \dots, \overset{f}{A}i_n) = (\overset{f}{B}i'_1, \overset{f}{B}i'_2, \dots, \overset{f}{B}i'_n).$$

Since φ is surjective, the algorithm finds a value of k such that if vertex v_1 is the label of row 1 and column 1 of $A = S_A^*$ then vertex $\varphi(v_1)$ is the label of row k and column k of $B = S_B^*$. Then, rows $(1, k)$ and columns $(1, k)$ of B are interchanged. We now use induction on the rows of B to show that Procedure 2.3.4 matches each row of B with the corresponding row of A . For the base of the induction, consider row 1 of B . Since vertex v_1 is the label of row 1 of A and $\varphi(v_1)$ is the label of row 1 of B , the corresponding sign frequency vectors are equal. By counting sign frequencies, as long as there is a mismatch in row 1, it is always possible to interchange the columns of B such that row 1 of A and row 1 of B are perfectly matched by Procedure 2.3.4. For the induction hypothesis, assume that rows $1, \dots, t$ of A and B have been perfectly matched by Procedure 2.3.4 such that the vertex labels for the rows $1, \dots, t$ of A are v_1, \dots, v_t and the vertex labels for the rows $1, \dots, t$ of B are $\varphi(v_1) = v'_1, \dots, \varphi(v_t) = v'_t$ respectively. Since the sign matrices are symmetric, Procedure 2.3.4 also ensures that the columns $1, \dots, t$ of A and B are perfectly matched with the same vertex labels as the rows. Thus, the first entry B_{ij} in B that does not match the corresponding entry A_{ij} in A must now occur in row $i = t+1$ and column $j \geq t+1$. By the induction hypothesis, the subgraph G_A^t of G_A with vertices $\{v_1, \dots, v_t\}$ and the subgraph G_B^t of G_B with vertices $\{\varphi(v_1) = v'_1, \dots, \varphi(v_t) = v'_t\}$ are isomorphic under φ . Thus, there must be a vertex v_{t+1} of G_A outside the subgraph G_A^t such that the corresponding vertex $\varphi(v_{t+1})$ of G_B is outside the subgraph G_B^t . Since there is a mismatch at the entry B_{ij} , the vertex $\varphi(v_{t+1})$ must be the label for a column $j' > j$. Hence, Procedure 2.3.4 will always interchange rows (j, j') and columns (j, j') of B and repeat the process until rows $i = t+1$ of A and B are perfectly matched and the vertex label for row $t+1$ of B is $\varphi(v_{t+1}) = v'_{t+1}$. This completes the induction, showing that Procedure 2.3.4 matches each row of B with the corresponding row of A . Thus, the algorithm finds an explicit isomorphism function $\varphi(v_1) = v'_1, \dots, \varphi(v_n) = v'_n$. \square

2.4.2. Proposition. If graphs G_A and G_B are not isomorphic, then the algorithm determines that there cannot be an isomorphism.

Proof. Suppose graphs G_A and G_B are not isomorphic. The algorithm first computes the canonical forms of the sign matrices S_A^* and S_B^* . If the sign frequency vectors in lexicographic order for S_A^* and S_B^* are different, then the algorithm concludes that G_A and G_B are not isomorphic. If the sign frequency vectors in lexicographic order for S_A^* and S_B^* are the same, $(\overset{f}{A}i_1, \overset{f}{A}i_2, \dots, \overset{f}{A}i_n) = (\overset{f}{B}i'_1, \overset{f}{B}i'_2, \dots, \overset{f}{B}i'_n)$, then the algorithm runs through the final loop for $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$ and cannot find any isomorphism. By Proposition 2.4.1, if G_A and G_B were isomorphic, then the algorithm would have found an explicit isomorphism for some value of k . Therefore, the algorithm concludes that there cannot be an isomorphism. \square

From Propositions 2.4.1 and 2.4.2, we have

2.4.3. Theorem. The algorithm solves the Graph Isomorphism Problem. \square

2.5. Complexity

We shall now show that the algorithm terminates in polynomial-time, by specifying a polynomial of the larger of the two number of vertices n of the input graphs, that is an upper bound on the total number of computational steps performed by the algorithm. Note that we consider

- checking whether a given pair of vertices is connected by an edge in G_A or G_B , and
- comparing whether a given integer is less than another given integer

to be *elementary computational steps*. Thus, we shall show that the Graph Isomorphism Problem is in **P**.

2.5.1. Proposition. Given a graph G with n vertices, Procedure 2.3.1 takes at most $3n^2 + 3n$ steps to find shortest paths from an initial vertex u to all other vertices.

Proof. Initialization takes at most $3n$ steps. To find the minimum distance of an unknown vertex from the initial vertex u takes at most n steps and to update the tentative distances takes at most n steps. There are at most n iterations until all the vertices are known. Finally, it takes at most n^2 steps to recover the vertices of the shortest paths. Thus, Procedure 2.3.1 terminates after at most $3n + n(n + n) + n^2 = 3n^2 + 3n$ steps. \square

2.5.2. Proposition. Given a graph G with n vertices, Procedure 2.3.2 takes at most $7n^2 + 7n$ steps to compute the distance $d(u, v)$ in the collateral graph $G \setminus uv$ and the pair graph G_{uv} for a given pair of vertices u and v .

Proof. The graph $G \setminus uv$ also has n vertices. By Proposition 2.5.1, Procedure 2.3.1 takes at most $3n^2 + 3n$ steps to find shortest paths from the initial vertex u to all other vertices and at most $3n^2 + 3n$ steps to find shortest paths from the initial vertex v to all other vertices. Then it takes at most n steps to determine the distance $d(u, v)$. Finally, it takes at most n^2 steps to run through pairs of shortest paths to find the vertices of the pair graph G_{uv} . Thus, Procedure 2.3.2 terminates after at most $3n^2 + 3n + 3n^2 + 3n + n + n^2 = 7n^2 + 7n$ steps. \square

2.5.3. Proposition. Given a graph G with n vertices, Procedure 2.3.3 takes at most $7n^4 + 7n^3 + 2n^2$ steps to compute the canonical form of the sign matrix S^* .

Proof. By Proposition 2.5.2, for each pair of vertices it takes at most $7n^2 + 7n$ steps to compute the sign s_{uv} . Since there are n^2 signs, it takes at most $n^2(7n^2 + 7n) = 7n^4 + 7n^3$ steps to compute the sign matrix S . Then it takes at most n^2 steps to compute the sign frequency vector and at most n^2 steps to sort it in lexicographic order. Thus, Procedure 2.3.3 terminates after at most $7n^4 + 7n^3 + n^2 + n^2 = 7n^4 + 7n^3 + 2n^2$ steps. \square

2.5.4. Proposition. Given a sign matrices S_A^* and S_B^* such that the sign frequency vectors in lexicographic order $(f_{A1}, f_{A2}, \dots, f_{An}) = (f_{B1}, f_{B2}, \dots, f_{Bn})$, Procedure 2.3.4 takes at most $2n^4$ steps to terminate.

Proof. Since there are n^2 entries in S_B^* , it takes at most n^2 steps to find a mismatch (i, j) with the corresponding entry in S_A^* in row major order. Then, it takes at most n^2 steps along the row i to find a column j' such that interchanging rows (j, j') and columns (j, j') leads to a mismatch later in the row major order. This may be repeated at most n^2 times until either the

corresponding interchange column j' cannot be found or all the entries in the sign matrices are perfectly matched. Thus, Procedure 2.3.4 terminates after at most $n^2(n^2 + n^2) = 2n^4$ steps. \square

2.5.5. Proposition. Given graphs G_A and G_B with n vertices, the algorithm takes at most $2n^5 + 14n^4 + 14n^3 + 4n^2$ steps to terminate.

Proof. By Proposition 2.5.3, Procedure 2.3.3 takes at most $2(7n^4 + 7n^3 + 2n^2) = 14n^4 + 14n^3 + 4n^2$ steps to compute the canonical forms of the sign matrices S_A^* and S_B^* . If the sign frequency vectors in lexicographic order $(f_{Ai_1}, f_{Ai_2}, \dots, f_{Ai_n}) = (f_{Bi'_1}, f_{Bi'_2}, \dots, f_{Bi'_n})$ are the same, then by Proposition 2.5.4 the final loop for $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$ takes at most $n(2n^4) = 2n^5$ steps. Thus, the algorithm terminates after at most $2n^5 + 14n^4 + 14n^3 + 4n^2$ steps. \square

From Theorem 2.4.3 and Proposition 2.5.5, we have

2.5.6. Theorem. The Graph Isomorphism Problem is in **P**. \square

2.6. Implementation

We provide a demonstration program for the Graph Isomorphism Algorithm written in C++ for Microsoft Windows. The input consists of the files *Graph A.txt* and *Graph B.txt* containing the adjacency matrices of graph G_A and graph G_B respectively. The program computes the sign matrices S_A^* and S_B^* in canonical form and determines whether G_A and G_B are isomorphic or not, in polynomial-time.

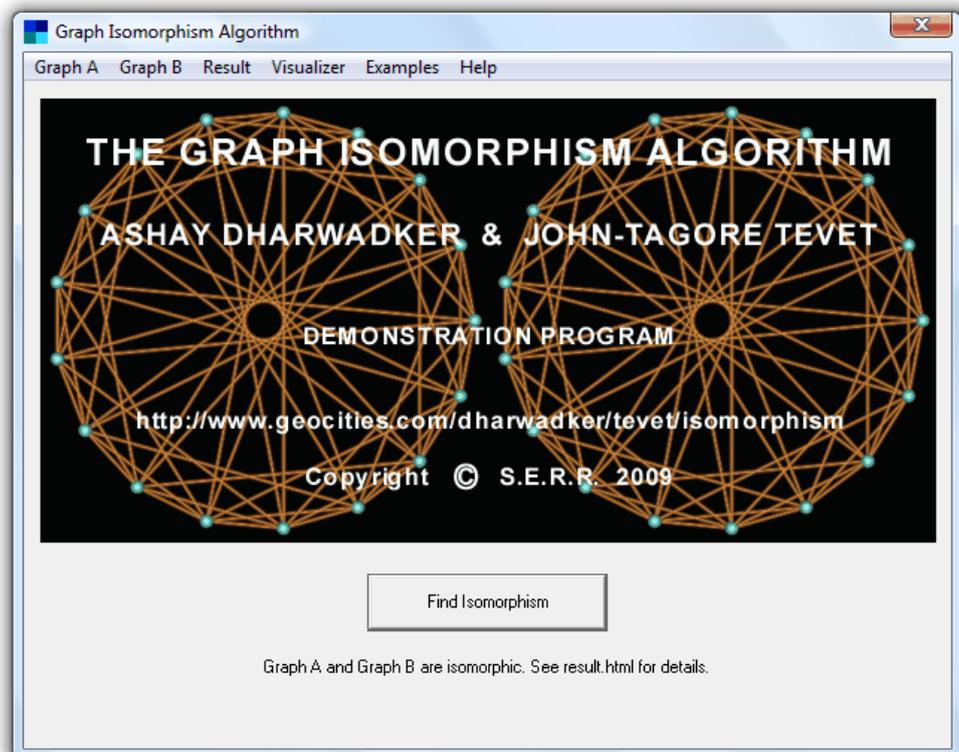


Figure 2.6.1. A demonstration program for Microsoft Windows [download]

We show how to write the input for the computation performed in Example 2.3.6:

Graph A.txt	Graph B.txt
8	8
0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1	0 1 1 1 1 1 1 0
0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1	1 0 1 0 0 1 1 1
0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1	1 1 0 1 1 0 0 1
1 1 1 0 0 1 1 1	1 0 1 0 0 1 1 1
1 1 1 0 0 1 1 1	1 0 1 0 0 1 1 1
1 1 1 1 1 0 0 0	1 1 0 1 1 0 0 1
1 1 1 1 1 0 0 0	1 1 0 1 1 0 0 1
1 1 1 1 1 0 0 0	0 1 1 1 1 1 1 0

Figure 2.6.2. Input for the demonstration program

The C++ program is shown below:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <fstream>
#include <string>
#include <vector>
#include <map>
#include <set>
#include <algorithm>
using namespace std;

vector<vector<int> > dijkstra(vector<vector<int> > graph);
vector<vector<int> > reindex(vector<vector<int> > graph, vector<int> index);
vector<int> inv(vector<int> index);
vector<int> transform(map<vector<int>, vector<int> > signmatrixA,
map<vector<int>, vector<int> > signmatrixB, vector<int> vertexA,
vector<int> vertexB, vector<int> isoB);
ifstream infileA("graphA.txt");
ifstream infileB("graphB.txt");
ofstream outfile("result.txt");

int main()
{
    cout<<"The Graph Isomorphism Algorithm"<<endl;
    cout<<"by Ashay Dharwadker and John-Tagore Tevet"<<endl;
    cout<<"http://www.geocities.com/dharwadker/tevet/isomorphism"<<endl;
    cout<<"Copyright (c) 2009"<<endl;
}
```

Figure 2.6.3. A C++ program for the graph isomorphism algorithm [download]

The output of the program for the input in Figure 2.6.2 is shown in Example 2.3.6. The next section shows many more examples of input/output files. The download package also contains a visualizer for drawing graphs according to the output of the demonstration program.

3. PROCESSING RESULTS: EXAMPLES

We demonstrate the processing results of algorithm by solving the Graph Isomorphism Problem for several examples in cases of recognition the isomorphism and non-isomorphism.

3.1. Isomorphism Cases

We now demonstrate the Graph Isomorphism Algorithm for several examples of graphs in the hardest known cases.. The first set of examples 3.1.1-3.1.5 consists of isomorphic graphs whose vertices have been permuted randomly so that the isomorphism is well and truly hidden.

3.1.1. Example. We run the program on isomorphic Petersen [30] graphs A and B as input:

Graph A										
10	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0
	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0
	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0
	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0

Graph B										
10	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1
	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1
	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0
	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0
	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0

The algorithm finds an explicit isomorphism, shown below.

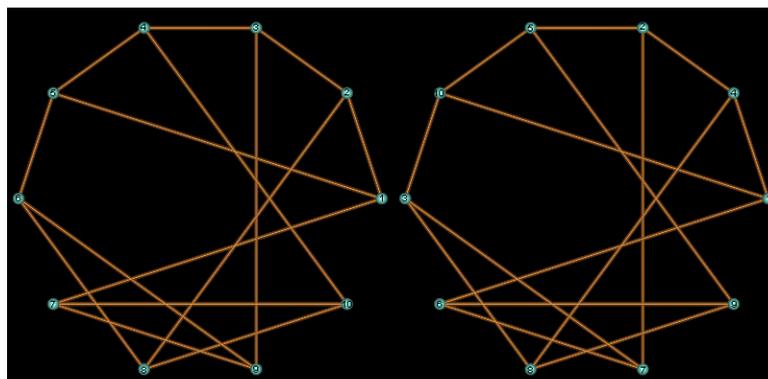


Figure 3.1.1. The bisymmetric and strongly regular Petersen graphs are isomorphic

3.1.2. Example. We run the program on isomorphic Icosahedron [31] graphs A and B as input:

Graph A											
12											
0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0
0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0
0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0
1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1
1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1
0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1
0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1
0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	0

Graph B											
12											
0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1
0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1
1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0
0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0
0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1
1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0
0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0
0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0
1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
1	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1
0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0

The algorithm finds an explicit isomorphism, shown below.

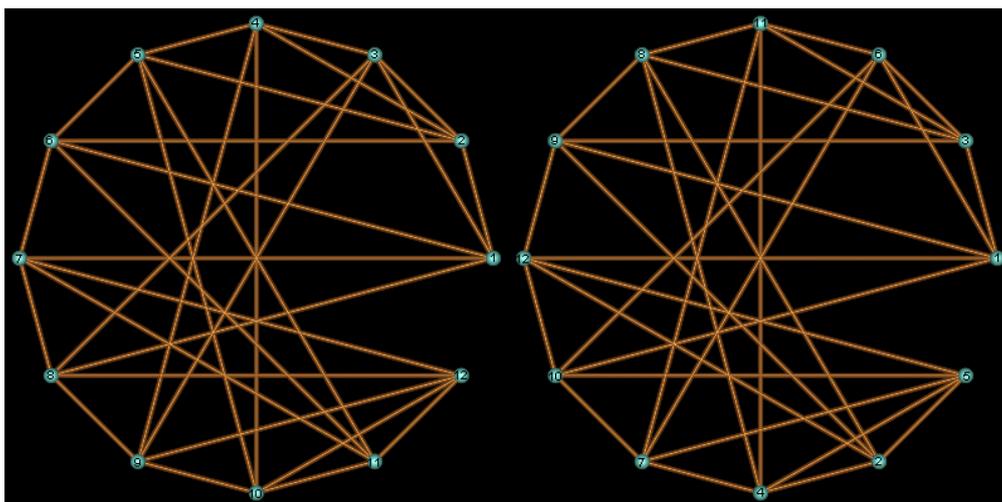


Figure 3.1.2. The vertex- and edge-symmetric Icosahedron graphs are isomorphic

3.1.3. Example. We run the program on isomorphic Ramsey [32] graphs A and B as input:

Graph A	
17	
0	1 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 1
1	0 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 1
1	1 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0
0	1 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1
1	0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0
0	1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 0
0	0 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0
0	0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0
0	0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 1
1	0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 1
1	0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 1
1	1 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 1
1	1 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 0
0	1 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 0
0	0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 0
0	0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 0
0	0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1
0	0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0
1	0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0
0	1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 1
1	0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1
1	0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1
1	1 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0
1	1 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0
1	1 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0

Graph B	
17	
0	0 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 1 1 1 1 0
0	0 0 1 1 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 1 1 0
0	1 0 0 1 1 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 0 0
0	1 0 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 1
0	1 1 1 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 1 0
1	0 1 1 0 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0
0	0 1 0 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 1 1 0 0 0 1 1
1	1 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0
1	0 0 1 1 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 1
0	0 0 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 1 1
1	0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1
0	1 1 0 0 0 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 1
1	1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 1 1 1 1
1	0 1 0 1 1 1 0 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 0 0 0
1	1 1 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 1
1	1 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 0
0	0 0 1 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 0 1 0 0

The algorithm finds an explicit isomorphism, shown below.

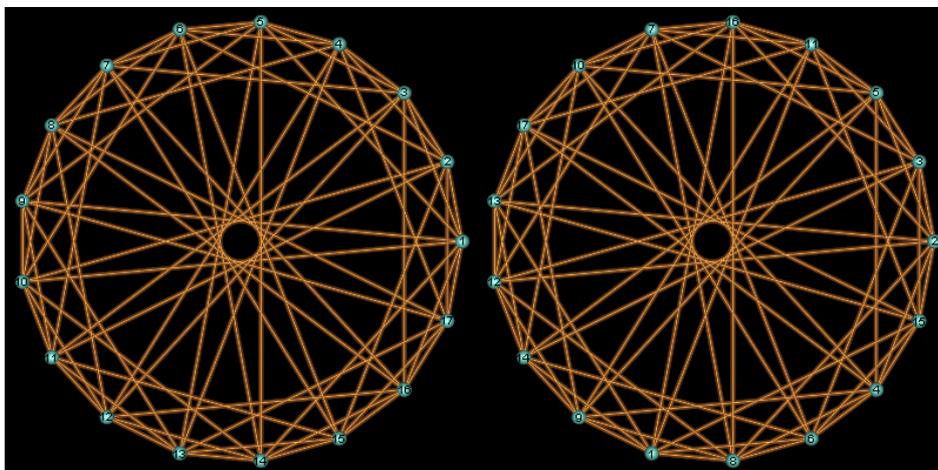


Figure 3.1.3. The self-complemented, bisymmetric and strongly regular Ramsey graphs are isomorphic

3.1.4. Example. We run the program on isomorphic Dodecahedron [31] graphs A and B as input:

Graph A																						
20	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1

Graph B																						
20	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0
	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1

The algorithm finds an explicit isomorphism, shown below.

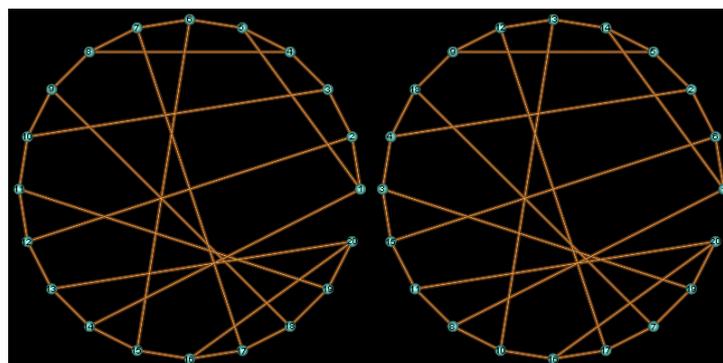


Figure 3.1.4. The vertex- and edge-symmetric Dodecahedron graphs are isomorphic

The algorithm finds an explicit isomorphism, shown below.

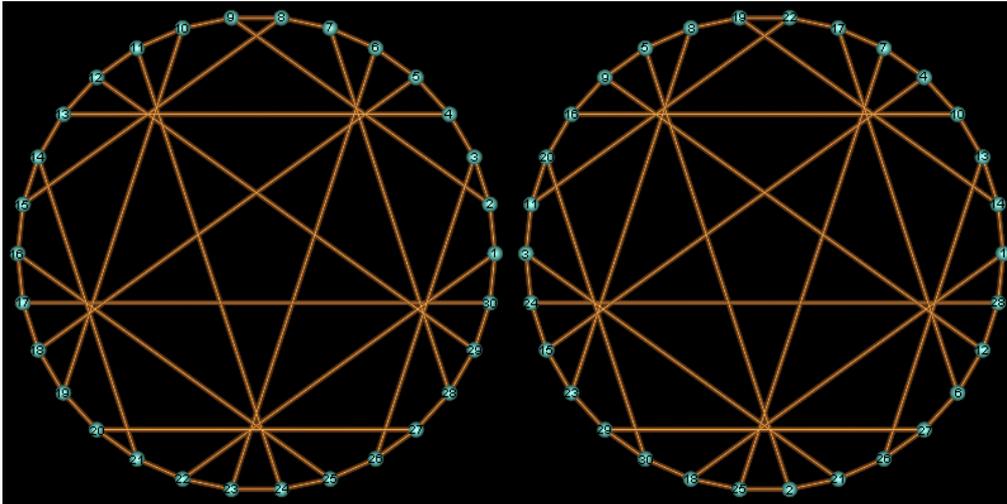


Figure 3.1.5. The vertex- and edge-symmetric Coxeter graphs are isomorphic

3.2. Non-Isomorphism Cases

The second set of examples 3.2.1-3.2.4 consists of graphs that are not isomorphic and yet have a very similar structures, hence deciding that they are not isomorphic in polynomial-time demonstrates the power of the algorithm.

3.2.1. Example. We run the program on non-isomorphic Praust [34] graphs A and B as input:

Graph A																			
20																			
	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1
	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	1
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	0

Graph B																				
20																				
	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0
	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1
	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1

Graph A and Graph B have the same sign frequency vectors in lexicographic order, so their structure is very similar. The algorithm determines that the graphs are not isomorphic, shown below.

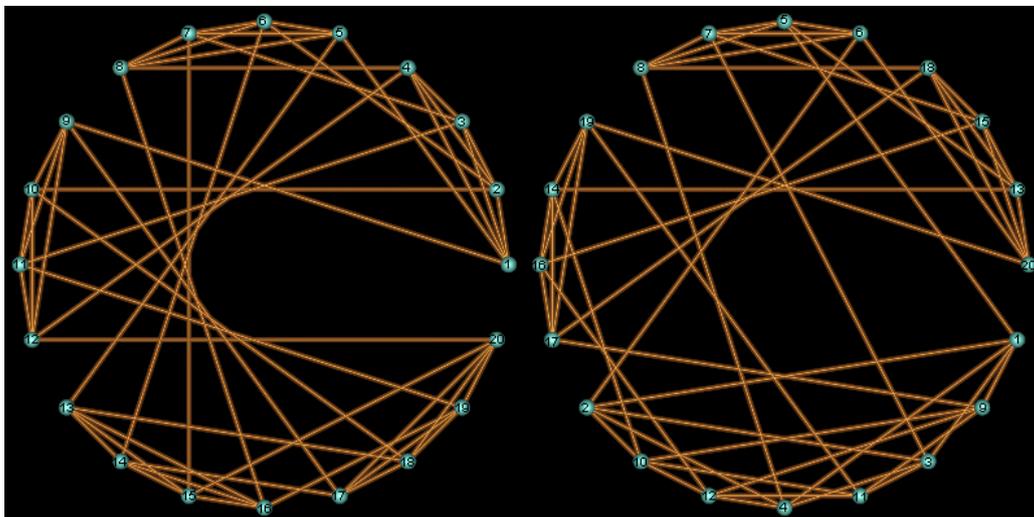


Figure 3.2.1. The vertex-symmetric Praust graphs are not isomorphic

3.2.2. Example. We run the program on nonisomorphic Mathon [35] graphs A and B as input:

Graph A																									
25	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	1
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0
	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Graph B																									
25	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0
	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Graph A and Graph B have the same sign frequency vectors in lexicographic order, so their structure is very similar. The algorithm determines that the graphs are not isomorphic, shown below.

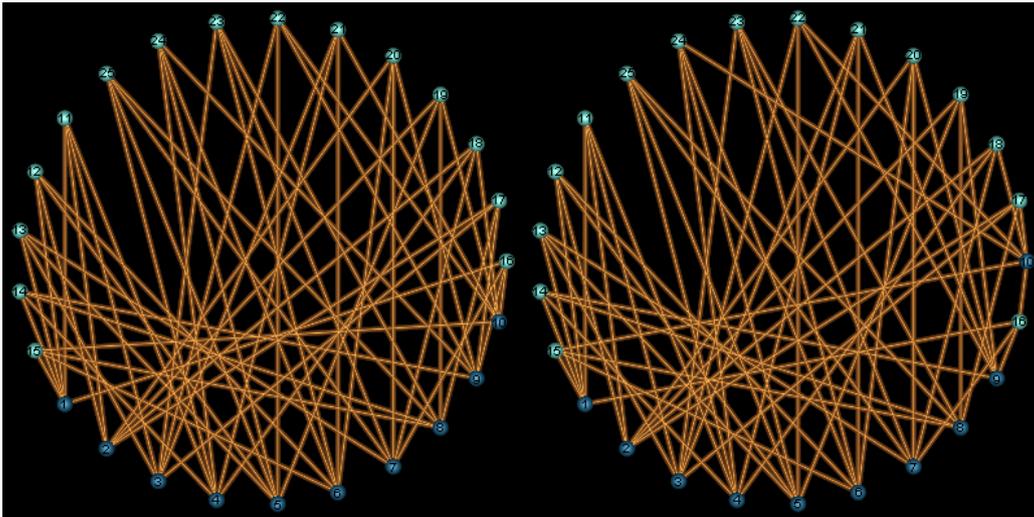


Figure 3.2.2. The bipartite Mathon graphs are not isomorphic

3.2.3. Example. We run the program on nonisomorphic Weisfeiler [36] graphs A and B as input:

Graph A																										
25	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	
	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	
	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	
	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	1
	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0
	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1
	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0
	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0
	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0
	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0
	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0
	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0
	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1
	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0
	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1

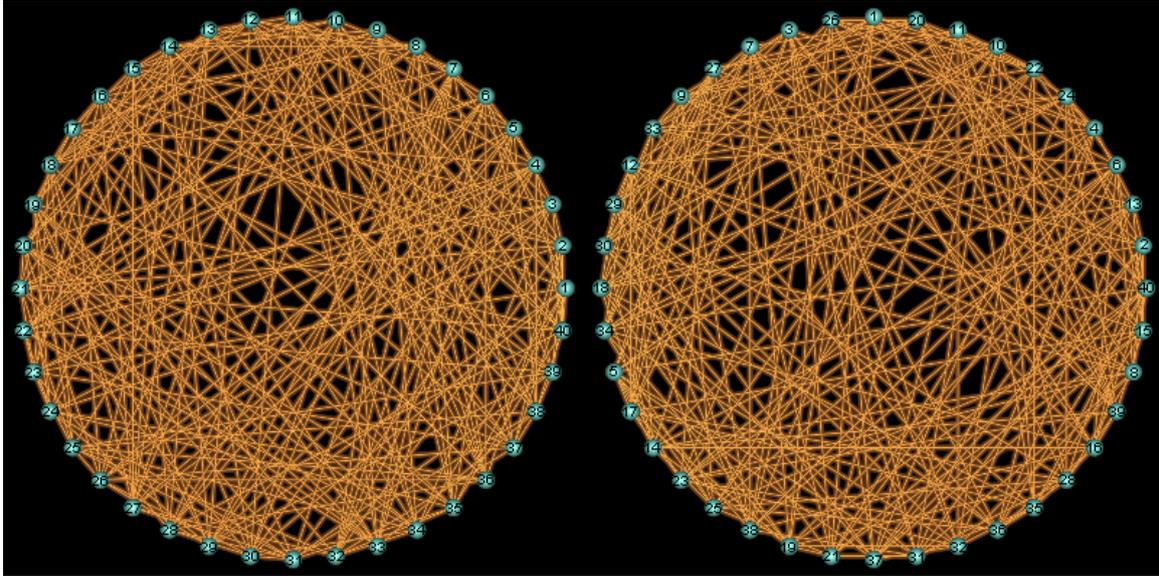


Figure 3.2.4. The bisymmetric and strongly regular Siberian graphs are not isomorphic. It was a more complicated case for isomorphism testing.

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