

Matching matchings

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Abstract—This paper presents the first steps toward a graph comparison method based on matching matchings, or in other words, comparison of independent edge sets in graphs. The novelty of our approach is to use matchings for calculating distance of graphs in case of edge-colored graphs. This idea can be used as a preprocessing step of graph querying applications, to speed up exact and inexact graph matching methods. We introduce the notion of colored matchings and prove some interesting properties of colored matchings in edge colored complete graphs and complete bipartite graphs in case of two colors.

I. INTRODUCTION

Graph based representation has become one of the main directions of modeling in pattern recognition during the last few decades. The main reason of the growing interest in graph based modeling and algorithms is the variety of available graph models leading to expressive and compact data representations. Another motivation is that many graph based pattern recognition methods have low computational cost. For example graph cut based methods [22], [18] or minimum weight spanning tree based algorithms ([16], [15]) are applied often in computer vision.

Graph comparison is a frequently appearing problem in graph based pattern recognition applications. Graph comparison or as it is often called *graph matching* is an essential part of algorithms applied in image retrieval, or in comparison of molecular compounds, just to mention some application areas. Due to its high importance in theoretical approaches and engineering applications as well, several papers have investigated this topic, see [6].

The main drawback of matching graphs is the computational complexity, since most problems related to this topic belong to the NP-complete problem class.

The idea is that the objects (fingerprints [25], business processes [8], molecular compounds, shapes, etc) are represented by graphs, and the comparison of these objects is done by comparing the corresponding graphs.

As mentioned, matching graphs is a hard problem from algorithmic point of view. Two types of graph matching are usually distinguished: exact and inexact matching. Exact matching is also called graph isomorphism. In case of inexact matching, we do not require the two graphs to be the same, just *similar enough*. This is the reason why

these algorithms are often referred to as error tolerant or approximate graph matchings.

The exact subgraph matching for arbitrary graphs is NP-complete [13]. An experimental comparison on the running time of some exact graph matching methods is presented in [11]. However, in case of special graph classes, for example planar graphs, there exist algorithms with polynomial running time [17]. We remark here that the following statement is an old conjecture: the general isomorphism problem is neither polynomial nor NP-complete (it is in NP, of course).

Although several approaches are also known for speeding up isomorphism testing as well - for example a heuristic based method in [21] or [14] using random walks -, in general for arbitrary graphs inexact graph matching methods have become more popular. These methods also have to deal with computational complexity issues (see [2]), but in case of real datasets and applications flexibility and error tolerance are required.

Depending on the application the applied inexact graph matching methods are also varied. In case of image comparison or object categorization simple structures, such as trees are compared (see [23]). Image processing tasks are typical examples for the case when the shape of the graphs can also be important, since vertices have coordinates (see [3]).

However, the most frequently applied approaches are to compare graphs using a distance measure based on graph edit distance ([29], [28]) or a maximum common subgraph ([10]) In case of these metrics, the position of the vertices is irrelevant.

A detailed survey on graph edit distance is presented in [12]. Despite the number of papers that are concerned with this topic, very few contributions can be found in the literature about learning the parameters that control the matching [26], [19].

In [4] the authors analyze the connection between the two distance measures.

Our suggestion is to define a distance function between graphs based on a special type of maximum common subgraph searching: finding the maximum common matching in edge colored graphs.

The paper is organized as follows. In Section II we present some basic definitions and notation. Section III

87 presents our idea of comparing graphs by matching match-139
88 ings: subsection III-A contains our suggestion in case of 140
89 graphs without edge colors subsection III-B analyzes the 141
90 case of edge-colored graphs. Some interesting properties of 142
91 2-edge-colored complete and complete bipartite graphs are 143
92 presented in Section IV. The suggested algorithm for finding 144
93 colored matchings in l -edge-colored graphs is introduced 145
94 in Section V with some remarks on special graph classes. 146
95 Section VI presents test results on evaluating the usefulness 147
96 of comparing matchings. Section VII concludes our work 148
97 and also points out to our future goals. 149

98 II. DEFINITIONS AND NOTATION 150

99 A simple undirected graph is an ordered pair $G = (V, E)$,
100 where $V = v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$ denotes the set of vertices, and
101 $E \subseteq V \times V$ denotes the set of edges. The edge between vertex 151
102 v_i and v_j is denoted by $(v_i, v_j) = e_{ij}$. A vertex v is incident 152
103 to edge e , if $v \in e$. The number of vertices is called the order
104 of the graph. Complete graph (or clique) K_n on n vertices 153
105 is a graph where each vertex pair is connected: $\forall v_i, v_j \in V$,
106 $(v_i, v_j) \in E$. A bipartite graph is a triplet $G = (A, B, E)$. A 154
107 graph is bipartite if its set of vertices V can be divided into 155
108 two disjoint sets A, B , such that each edge in E connects 156
109 a vertex in A to a vertex in B . **Remark** For disconnected 157
110 bipartite graph, A and B are not unique. The complete 158
111 bipartite graph $K_{m,n}$, is a bipartite graph, where $|A| = m$, 159
112 $|B| = n$ and each vertex in A is connected to each vertex 160
113 in B . In an arbitrary graph two edges are independent, if 161
114 they do not have a common vertex. A matching is a set of
115 pairwise independent edges. If every vertex of the graph is 162
116 incident to exactly one edge of the matching, it is called a 163
117 perfect matching. For further introduction to graph theory 164
118 and algorithm complexity, see for example [7]. 165

119 III. COMPARING MATCHINGS OF TWO GRAPHS 166

120 A. Comparing matchings of graphs without edge colors 167

121 Finding the largest common subgraph of two graphs is in 169
122 general an NP-hard problem. Our suggestion is to modify (or 170
123 specialize) the idea of finding the largest common subgraph
124 to finding the largest common matching of two graphs.

125 Matchings are an appropriate choice for comparing graphs
126 without colors, since it is relatively easy to find a maximum
127 sized matching. There are polynomial methods for finding 171
128 the largest (or maximum) matching in a bipartite graph, and 172
129 in non-bipartite graphs as well (Edmonds-algorithm [9]). 173
130 These algorithms are also applicable in case of weighted 174
131 graphs. 175

132 Although graphs with maximum matchings of the same 176
133 size can differ in structure, this measure is suitable to 177
134 run pre-filtering in graph comparison applications. Recently, 178
135 the size of the available input datasets have increased 179
136 rapidly in several areas applying graph-based modeling (web 180
137 analysis, protein-protein interaction networks, etc.). This 181
138 naturally requires the development of efficient graph storing 182

and searching techniques. For example graph indexing and
querying receives more and more attention, see [31] or [27].
Testing relatively easily computable features of graphs help
reducing the search space (branch-and-bound or tree pruning
techniques). In our case, a pruning condition is the size of
the matching in the query graph and the ones in the graph
database. Comparing a simple structural property can speed
up exact and inexact graph matching techniques as well.

Let the distance between two graphs be derived from the
difference of the size of their maximum matchings. That is,
let G_1 and G_2 be two arbitrary graphs. The distance between
these graphs is the following:

$$D(G_1, G_2) = \text{abs}(|M_1| - |M_2|) \quad (1)$$

where $|M_i|$ is the size of the maximum matching in graph
 G_i .

B. Comparing matchings of edge colored graphs

Investigation of matching in graphs is an extensively
studied topic, however the main directions of research take
graphs into consideration without edge colors. One of the
novel aspects of our approach is to compare colored match-
ings as well.

Definition 1. (In this work) an edge colored - or edge
labeled graph (V, E, c) is a graph such that color $c(e_{ij})$ is
the color assigned to edge e_{ij} .

Note that the usual definition contains the following
additional condition: edges having a common vertex can not
have the same color (proper coloring). The definition here
is drastically different.

Edge colored graphs offer more possibilities for compar-
ing matchings, or calculating the distance of graphs based
on matchings, than the ones without edge colors. The first
idea is to extend Equation 1., to handle more colors, see
Equation 2.

$$D1_{\text{color}}(G_1, G_2) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n_c} w_i (|M_{c_i,1}| - |M_{c_i,2}|)^2} \quad (2)$$

where n_c is the number of colors, c_i is the i^{th} color. $|M_{c_i,j}|$
is the size of the maximum matching in the subgraph of G_j
containing only the edges with color c_i . If it is necessary,
the colors can also be weighted.

The advantage of this distance calculating method is that
the colors are handled separately. The same polynomial
algorithm is suitable to find the maximum matching for each
color, as in case of graphs without colors on the edges.

However, the drawback is that we gain quite a little
information on the correspondence between the edges with
different colors. Our suggestion is to use a distance function,
that takes into consideration matchings with mixed coloring.

Definition 2. A colored matching $(c_1, c_2, \dots, c_{n_c}) = (e_1, e_2, \dots, e_{n_c})$ is a matching of e_i edges with color c_i . For example $(\text{yellow}, \text{green}) = (1, 3)$ is a matching of one yellow and three green edges.

This definition is somewhat similar to the definition of rainbow matchings [20] (or heterochromatic matchings [30]), however in these type of matchings, no two edges have the same color. In other words a rainbow matching is a $(c_1, c_2, \dots, c_{n_c}) = (e_1, e_2, \dots, e_{n_c})$ colored matching, where $\forall e_i \leq 1$.

Although there exist interesting theoretical results in case of matchings of not properly edge-colored graphs (Labeled Maximum/Perfect Matching problem, see [5], [1] or [24]) our work aims to solve problems that to the best of our knowledge were not addressed before. The goal of the Labeled Maximum Matching problem is to find a maximum matching in an edge-colored graph with the maximum (or minimum) number of colors in it.

Our work is more general, since we are interested not only in the number of appearing colors in a matching, but the number of edges corresponding to each color as well. The advantage of this approach is that it gives more information on the structure of the colored matchings.

The comparison of edge-colored graphs and the distance calculation between them is based on the distance between their selected colored matchings. Note that these matchings do not necessarily have the same size. The exact method of comparing colored matchings depends on the application and the role of the colors. The colors are weighted in order to handle different importance of edges.

$$\text{Dist}(CM_1, CM_2) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n_c} w_i (|c_i : CM_1| - |c_i : CM_2|)^2} \quad (3)$$

where $|c_i : CM_j|$ is the number of edges with color c_i in the colored matching CM_j .

If there are no selected colored matchings to represent the graphs, calculation of the distance becomes more complex. Similarly to graph edit distance calculations, the matchings with the smallest distance should be selected. Of course in this case, the size of the matchings should also be taken into consideration.

IV. COMPARING MATCHINGS OF 2-EDGE-COLORED GRAPHS K_n AND $K_{m,n}$

In this section we will present some properties of the matchings in complete graphs and complete bipartite graphs using two colors. Analyzing these types of graphs helps us to understand the behavior of more general graph classes. Here, we are interested in exact matching of matchings, that is our assumption is that in the query graph we have found a (y, g) matching of y yellow and g green edges, and we would like whether the given colored matching exists in another given

colored graph. As mentioned, here our graphs are complete or complete bipartite graphs. It means we know the type of connection (color) between all pair of vertices.

First, we will present a theorem and a short proof on finding (y, g) matchings in complete graphs with a fixed coloring. Then we introduce a rephrased version of the theorem with a longer proof. Although this proof is more complex than the first one and it also depends on parity, nevertheless it has a strong algorithmic nature, and it reveals important properties of the structure of the edge colored graphs, that will be useful in generalizing our theorem.

Preliminary remark Suppose there is a matching with size $y + g$, containing y yellow and g green edges in a graph G . Obviously, for this property, the following is a necessary condition: there is a yellow matching of size y and a green matching of size g in G separately. The condition $2(y + g) \leq n$ is also necessary. Here we investigate the question: When are these conditions sufficient in the complete graph?

A. 2-edge-colored graphs K_n

Theorem 1. Let K_n be an edge colored complete graph with two colors. We have no constraint for the parity of n .

Furthermore, let M denote a set of edges, that contains a yellow matching of y edges and a green matching of g edges, where $y + g < n/2$. Furthermore, suppose that among all the sets of edges with this property, M has the smallest number of vertices belonging to a green and a yellow matching edge as well. Then, M is a (y, g) matching.

Proof. In an edge set with the edge coloring introduced above, let the vertices that are incident with a yellow and a green edge called *bad* vertices. Suppose, there exists a vertex x in M which is bad. Let V_M denote the vertices covered by M . $V_M < n$, since $2 \cdot (y + g) < n$, and $V_M < 2 \cdot (y + g)$, otherwise we have found a (y, g) matching.

- If the number of vertices is even ($n = 2t$): at least 3 vertices remain outside V_M .
Let v_1 and v_2 denote two of the vertices outside V_M . We do not know the color of the edge between these vertices, but it is not important. If it is yellow, then we remove the yellow matching edge in M incident to x , and substitute it with this yellow edge between v_1 and v_2 . (If the (v_1, v_2) edge was green, we remove the green edge incident to x). The result is a M' edge set, that consists of a yellow matching of size y and a green matching of size g . This edge set contains at least one less bad vertex than M , which is a contradiction, since M was chosen to be the one with the least bad vertices.
- If the number of vertices is odd ($n = 2t + 1$): at least 2 vertices remain outside V_M , so the previous method is appropriate in this case as well.

The proof is complete. \square

281 *B. 2-edge-colored graphs $K_{m,n}$* 332

282 The method of the proof can also be applied in case 333
 283 of complete bipartite graphs. In this way we obtained the 334
 284 following theorem. 335

285 **Theorem 2.** *Let $K_{m,n}$ be an edge colored complete bipartite 337
 286 graph with two colors. We have no constraint for the parity 338
 287 of n or m .* 339

288 *Furthermore, let M denote a set of edges, that contains 340
 289 a yellow matching of y edges and a green matching of g 341
 290 edges, where $y + g < \min(m, n)$. Furthermore, suppose that 342
 291 among all the sets of edges with this property, M has the 343
 292 smallest number of vertices belonging to a green and a 344
 293 yellow matching edge as well. Then, M is a (y, g) matching. 345*

294 The next two subsections present the detailed proof of the 346
 295 rephrased version of Theorem 1. with respect to the parity 347
 296 of n . 348

297 *C. 2-edge-colored graphs K_n with odd number of vertices* 350

298 **Theorem 3.** *Let K_n be an edge colored complete graph 351
 299 with two colors. Furthermore, let the number of vertices be 352
 300 $n = 2t + 1$. If there is a yellow matching of size y and green 353
 301 matching of size g separately in K_n so that $y + g \leq t$, then 354
 302 there is a matching with size $y + g$, containing y yellow and 355
 303 g green edges. 356*

304 **Proof.** We know that there exists a yellow matching with 357
 305 size y , moreover, we can find it in polynomial time. Denote 358
 306 this yellow matching with Y . On the remaining vertices we 359
 307 can select some additional edges to the matching with green 360
 308 color. Let us denote this green matching with G' , and its size 361
 309 with g' . If $g' = g$, we would have found a (y, g) matching. 362
 310 So let us suppose that $g' < g$. We will prove that if $g' < g$, 363
 311 then G' can be amended with one more green edge, so that 364
 312 we gain a $g' + 1 + y$ sized matching with $g' + 1$ green, and 365
 313 y yellow edges. 366

314 There are at least 3 vertices remaining in K_n that are 367
 315 contained neither by Y , nor by G' . The explanation is the 368
 316 following. Since n is odd at least one vertex was left out 369
 317 of the matchings. Besides that, note that $y + g' < t$, so Y 370
 318 and G' contain at most $2 \cdot t - 2$ vertices together. Let us 371
 319 denote these remaining vertices with X . Note that all the 372
 320 edges between the vertices in X are yellow, otherwise a 373
 321 green edge could have been selected to increase the size 374
 322 of G' , see Fig.1(a). 375

323 The other important fact is that all the edges between 376
 324 the vertices in $V(X)$ and $V(Y)$ respectively, are also yellow. 377
 325 (These are the sets of endpoints of the matchings.) The 378
 326 explanation is the following. Let us denote 3 arbitrary 379
 327 vertices in X by v_1, v_2, v_3 . Suppose there is a green edge 380
 328 between a $w \in V(Y)$ and $v_1 \in V(X)$ see Fig.1(b). The size 381
 329 of the G' matching can be increased by this green edge. The 382
 330 yellow matching edge with w end vertex can be replaced by 383
 331 the yellow edge between v_2 and v_3 , see Fig.1(c). 383

For the next step we will use the information that there is a green matching with size g in K_n , and we are able to find one in polynomial time. Denote this by G'' . Suppose we keep only the edges of G' and G'' in the graph. Furthermore we delete the edges that both matchings contain. Thus, the remaining graph consists of two types of green edges forming alternating paths and circles.

Since $|G''| = g > |G'| = g'$, there exists at least one path with more edges of G'' than of G' . Let P denote one of the alternating paths with this property.

Obviously, the end vertices of P can not be in G' .

Now we will examine the possible positions of the end vertices of P :

- Both end vertices are in X . This way we could have found a larger green matching than G' , by replacing the edges of G'' with the ones of G' . This is a contradiction, since we have selected G' to be the maximum sized green matching that amends Y .
- One end vertex is in X , the other one is in Y . By keeping the edges of G'' instead of G' in the alternating path P , we will gain a larger green matching. However, we use one vertex that was the end vertex of a yellow edge in Y . But we are able to replace this edge by one in X the same way as illustrated on Fig.1(c). See the example on Fig.2(a).
- Both end vertices are in Y . If they are in the same yellow matching edge, then we will replace it, as in the previous case (see Fig.2(b)). If the end vertices of the path belong to two yellow matching edges, by increasing the green matching with one, we will lose two yellow matching edges. Since we have proved that between the vertices of Y and X all the edges are yellow, and there are more than two vertices in X , we can restore the yellow matching by replacing the lost yellow edges (see Fig.2(c)).

All the cases have been examined. Thus we have proved that if $|G'| = g' < g$, then there exists one more green edge to amend the matching with. That is, until we reach a matching of y yellow and g green edges, we can always improve the matching. \square

323 *D. 2-edge-colored graphs K_n with even number of vertices*

Theorem 4. *Let K_n be an edge colored complete graph 375
 376 with two colors. Furthermore, let the number of vertices be 377
 378 $n = 2t$. If there is a yellow matching of size y and a green 379
 380 matching of size g separately in K_n so that $y + g < t$, then 381
 382 there is a matching with size $y + g$, containing y yellow and 383
 384 g green edges.*

Proof. First of all, note that all matchings in K_n of size $< t$ can be extended to a matching of size t . Similarly to the proof of Theorem 3., we know that there exists a yellow matching of size y . However, if the largest yellow

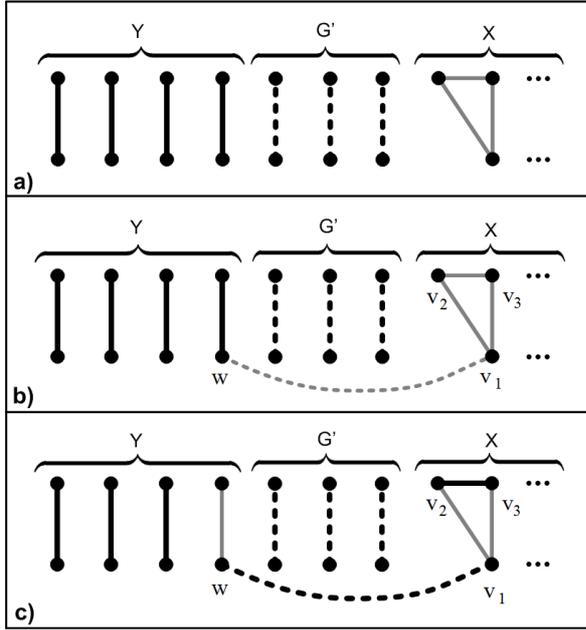


Figure 1: Edges of the matchings are colored black, the other edges are colored grey. a) Y and G' : the two matchings, remaining vertex set: X . b) An example: green edge between Y and X . c) Modified matching with y yellow and $g' + 1$ green edges.

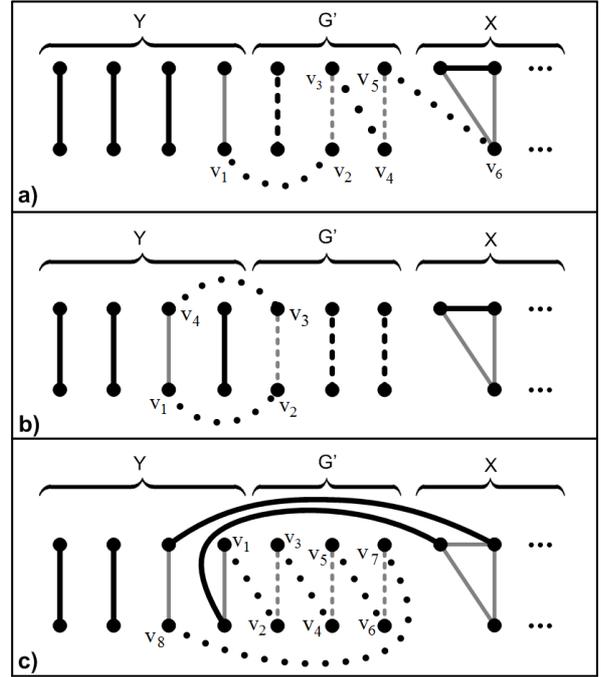


Figure 2: Edges of the matchings are colored black, the other edges are colored grey. a) v_1, \dots, v_6 : alternating path with one end in X and one in Y . b) v_1, \dots, v_4 alternating path with end vertices corresponding to one edge in Y . c) v_1, \dots, v_8 alternating path with end vertices corresponding to two edges in Y .

384 matching in K_n has only y edges, we would be done,
 385 since the additional edges to the perfect matching would
 386 be necessarily green.

387 Otherwise, there exists a yellow matching of size $y + 1$,⁴¹¹
 388 which can also be found in polynomial time. Denote this⁴¹²
 389 matching by Y . Its role is not the same as above. Let G' ⁴¹³
 390 denote the largest green matching on the leftover vertices.⁴¹⁴
 391 The size of this matching will be denoted by g' , it is smaller⁴¹⁵
 392 than g , similarly as above. ⁴¹⁶

393 Again, similarly to the proof of Theorem 3., there are⁴¹⁷
 394 remaining vertices, with yellow edges between them (vertex⁴¹⁸
 395 set X), and their number is at least 2. We also know that,⁴¹⁹
 396 in the whole graph, there exists a green matching of size g ,⁴²⁰
 397 denote this by G'' . Let P be an alternating path between the⁴²¹
 398 edges of G' and G'' , as it was in the proof of Theorem 3..⁴²²
 399 The case partition of the position of the end vertices of P is⁴²³
 400 also analogous with the mentioned proof:

- 401 • The two end vertices are in $V(X)$. This way we would⁴²⁴
 402 have found a green matching of size larger than g' ,⁴²⁵
 403 which is a contradiction. ⁴²⁶
- 404 • One of the end vertices (v_1) is in $V(X)$, the other one⁴²⁷
 405 (v_k) is in $V(Y)$. By replacing the edges of the green⁴²⁸
 406 matching G' with G'' , we gain one green edge, and⁴²⁹
 407 lose one yellow (the one with v_k as end vertex). But⁴³⁰
 408 still we have y yellow matching edges. ⁴³¹
- 409 • If both of the end vertices are in Y , then similarly to⁴³²
 410 the case of odd number of vertices, the Y matching will

be decreased by one or two edges. Since X contains at least two vertices, connected by a yellow edge, there is at least one edge to increase the yellow matching with. The size of Y was $y + 1$, so at least y yellow edges remain.

We proved that if the G' matching contained less than g edges, we could always extend it with at least one green edge by keeping at least y independent yellow edges \square .

Theorem 4 deals with the case when $n = 2 \cdot t$ and $y + g < t$. If $y + g = t$, Theorem 2 does not hold, see the following example.

Example 1. Let $n = 2t$ and $y + g = t$. Then there exists a complete graph K_n edge colored with two colors, with the following properties. K_n contains a yellow matching of size $y = t - 1$ and a green matching of size $g = 1$, but there is no $(y, g) = (t - 1, 1)$ matching. An example is presented on Figure 3. for $n = 6$, $y = 2$, $g = 1$.

E. Conclusions of our theorems

Our theorems state that if a yellow matching of size y and a green matching of size g appears in a complete or a complete bipartite graph somewhere, and $y + g < n/2$, then there is a (y, g) colored matching. We have also presented

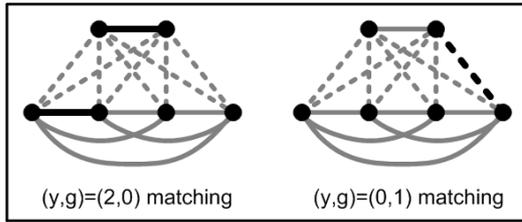


Figure 3: An example graph with 6 vertices, where a yellow 2-matching and a green 1-matching exist, but there is no $(y, g) = (2, 1)$ matching.

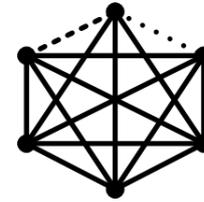


Figure 4: An example graph with 6 vertices and three different colors on the edges. There is a red matching (dotted line) of size one, and a green matching (dashed line) of size one as well, but there is not $(r, y, g) = (1, 0, 1)$ colored matching in the graph.

methods, to find a colored matching with the given property.

Suppose, there are edges in the graph with no information of their colors, and denote this set with T . Our theorems also mean that, if we have found a yellow and a green matching in this graph of the given size, no matter how we choose the colors of the edges in T , the gained colored complete graph will have an (y, g) matching.

V. ALGORITHM FOR FINDING COLORED MATCHINGS IN l -EDGE-COLORED GRAPHS

In subsection V-C we give an algorithm for finding (c_1, c_2, \dots, c_l) colored matchings in an l -edge-colored graph but the first two subsections contain some remarks on colored matchings in case of restrictions on the number of colors and on the graph structure.

A. Perfect colored matchings in 2-edge-colored graphs K_n

Note that perfect matchings can occur only in graphs with even number of vertices. Hence in this subsection we will assume that $n = 2t$. As explained in the previous sections, in case of 2-edge-colored complete graphs, Theorem 1 holds only if $y + g < n/2$ (see Example 1). In this subsection we present an algorithm to decide if there exists a perfect (y, g) colored matching in K_n , that is $y + g = n/2$. The basic idea of the algorithm is the following. Instead of analyzing the K_n graph, we select the edges corresponding to one of the colors, and process the graph induced by these edges.

Assume that the yellow edges were selected. Let $G_y = (V_y, E_y)$ denote the graph induced by the yellow edges. In this graph each matching of size y should be checked if it can be augmented by a green matching of size g .

B. Perfect colored matchings in 1-edge-colored graphs K_n

Our conjecture for 3 (or more) colors is that it is NP-hard to decide if a graph has a (r, y, g, \dots) matching of red, yellow and green, etc. colors even if we have found matchings of these colors of the given size separately.

A simple example is presented on Fig. 4, with a complete graph colored with 3 colors. There exists a red and a green matching of size one in the graph separately, but there is no $(r, y, g) = (1, 0, 1)$ colored matching. Note that $r + y + g = 2 < n/2 = 3$, so in case of more than two colors, the existence

of a (r, y, g, \dots) colored matching cannot be guaranteed even if its size is less than $n/2$.

However, matchings corresponding to each color are useful in case of inexact graph matching, even if the colors are handled separately. In case of colored matchings, the effectiveness of the comparison depends on the size of the matchings.

C. Algorithm for finding colored matchings

The method presented in Algorithm 1 is based on the recursive function *ColMatch*. The graphs induced by the colors are handled in the different levels of the recursion. Note that ranking the colors can decrease the running time. Colors should be ranked based on the number of their occurrence in the graph. The smaller the number of edges, the faster the algorithm can rule out the existence of the colored matching (if there is no such matching).

Note that before running this algorithm it is worth checking for matchings of the required size in case of each color separately, since it can be carried out by Edmonds's algorithm in polynomial time.

Further simplification of the method in case of special graph classes is in progress.

VI. TEST RESULTS

Our suggested method for speeding up graph query was tested on a dataset of 'AIDS Screened' chemical structural data available at

http://dtp.nci.nih.gov/docs/aids/aids_data.html. The dataset contains the structure of 42390 chemical compounds. The description of this dataset (number of vertices of the graphs modeling the compounds and the corresponding maximum matchings) is presented on Fig. 5. For a fixed number of vertices the size of the maximum matchings might be different. The small histograms show the distribution of the size of the maximum matchings in case of 30, 50, 75 and 100 vertices. As the number of vertices raises the deviation of the size of the maximum matchings also increases.

Tests were carried out on this dataset in order to evaluate the efficiency of using maximum matching as a descriptor of graphs. Each graph in the dataset was used as query to search

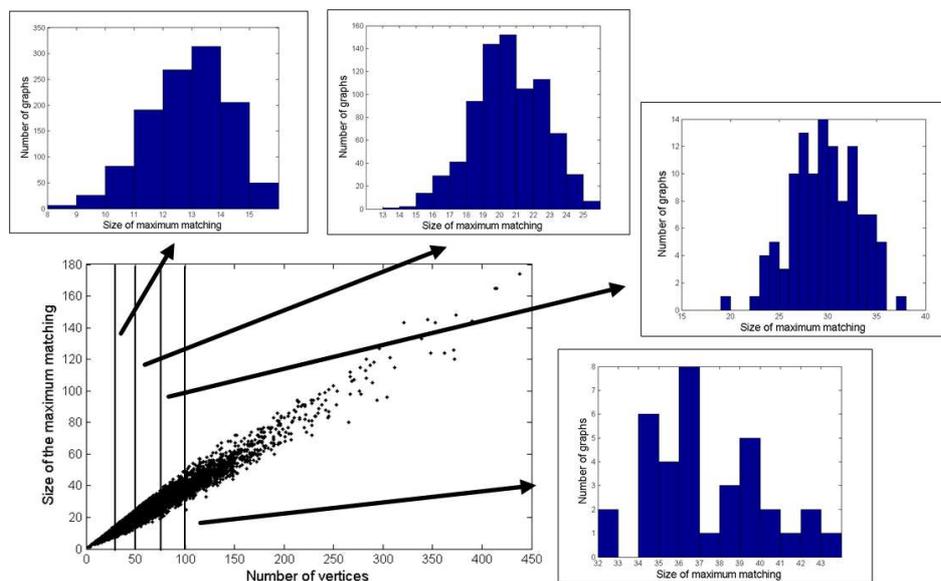


Figure 5: Description of the test dataset. For 42390 chemical compounds the size of the graphs and the size of the corresponding maximum matchings are visualized. Detailed description for graphs with 30,50,75,100 vertices is also presented. Each histogram shows the distribution of the size of the maximum matchings for graphs with 30,50,75,100 vertices.

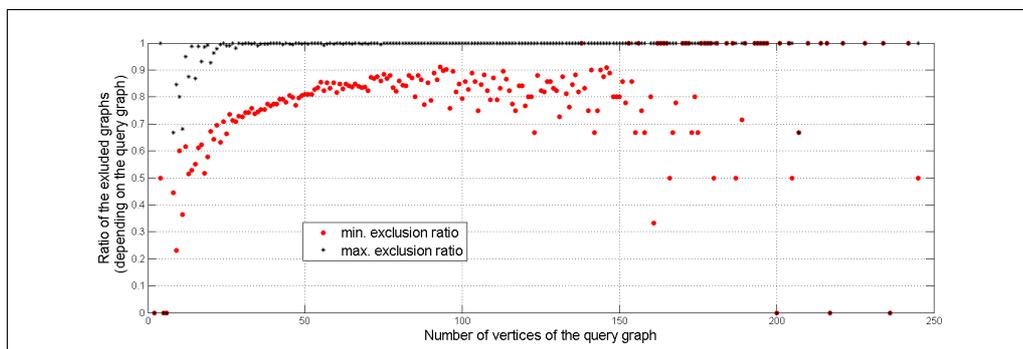


Figure 6: Test results on the dataset described on Fig. 5. Suppose that the query graph has n vertices. This figure shows the ratio of the graphs with n vertices that can be excluded based on their maximum matching. Tests were carried out with each graph selected as query. The black stars and the red dots show the best and the worst exclusion ratios among the graphs with a given number of vertices, respectively.

511 the dataset. Since the number of vertices is a property that 524
 512 is easy to be checked, we only ran the query within graphs 525
 513 of the same order. 526

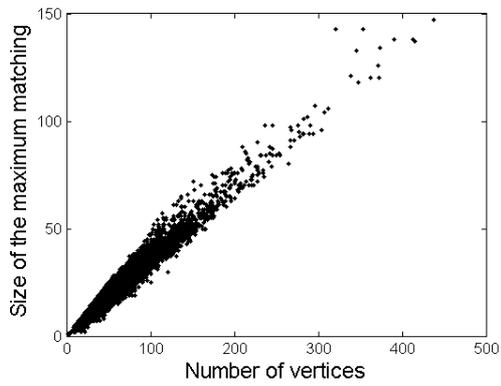
514 Test results on the exclusion ratio, i.e. the ratio of the 527
 515 graphs excluded by the query within graphs of the same 528
 516 order are presented on Fig. 6. The exclusion ratio (ER) was 529
 517 computed the following way: $ER(G) = 1 - \frac{N_M - 1}{N_V - 1}$. N_V is the 530
 518 number of graphs of the database with the same order as 531
 519 graph G . N_M is the number of graphs with the same order 532
 520 as G in what the corresponding matching has the same size 533
 521 as in case of G . 534

522 A query was run with each graph and for all different 535
 523 graph orders, the best and the worst result is shown on the 536

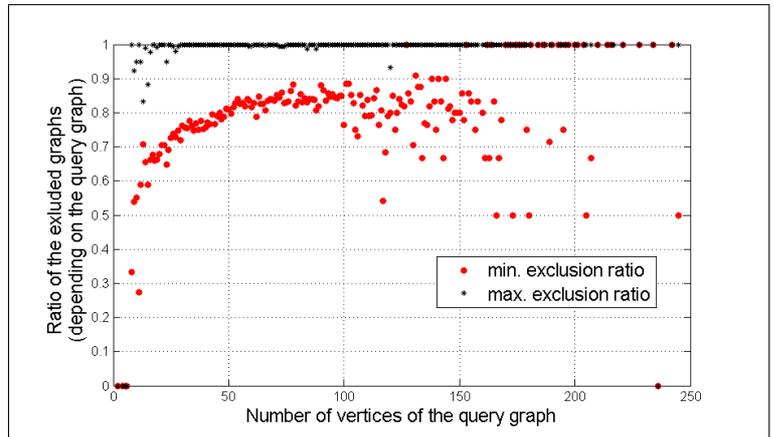
figure marked with black and red, respectively. A query is
 considered to be better than another, if the corresponding
 exclusion ratio is higher, i.e. the larger number of graphs
 could be excluded.

With a few exceptions, even the worst excluding ratios
 (red marks) reach 0.5, that is, at least half of the graphs of a
 given order can be excluded regardless of the selected query
 graph.

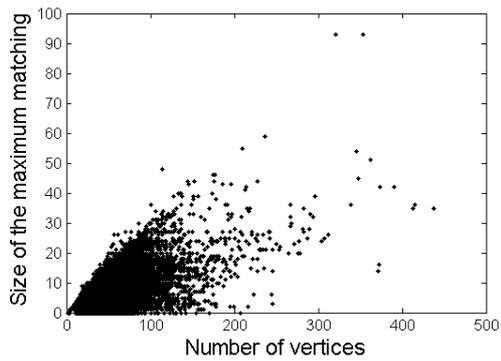
Two types of edges are marked in the database depending
 on the strength of the connection between the elements of
 the compounds. For further analysis, the types (labels) of
 the edges are also taken into consideration. For each 2-
 edge-labeled graph, two new graphs were generated keeping



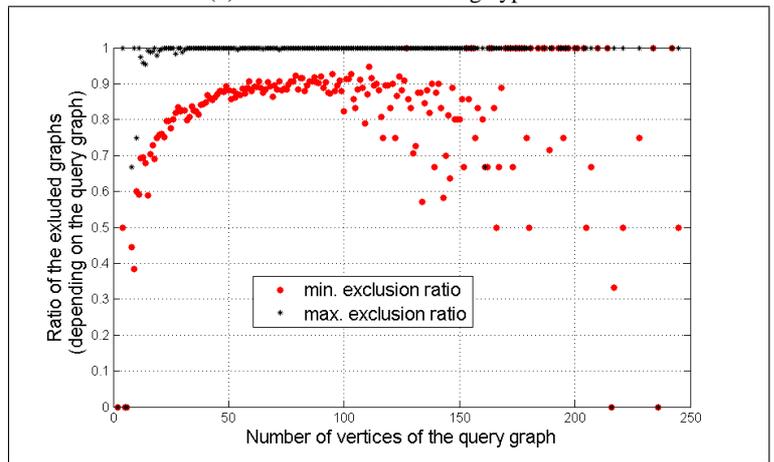
(a) Maximum matchings in the graphs of edgetype 1.



(b) Exclusion ratios for edgetype 1.



(c) Maximum matchings in the graphs of edgetype 2.



(d) Exclusion ratios for edgetype 2.

Figure 7: Distribution of the maximum matchings in the graphs of edge types 1 (a) and 2 (c). Corresponding exclusion ratios on (b) and (d) respectively.

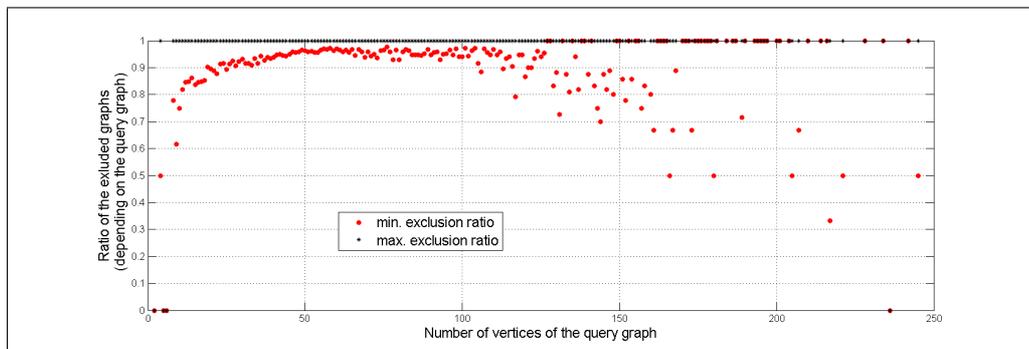


Figure 8: Best (red) and worst (black) exclusion ratios based on the colored matchings (output of Algorithm 1.)

Algorithm 1 Finds a $(c_1, c_2, c_3, \dots, c_l)$ matching in l -edge-colored arbitrary graphs (if exists).

```

1: function ISINDEPENDENT( $e_1, e_2$ )
2:   if  $e_1 \cap e_2 = \emptyset$  then return true
3:   elsereturn false
4:   end if
5: end function
6:
7: function COLMATCH( $E_{rem}, M, Size, Color, level$ )
8:    $M_{level} = \{e \in M | c(e) = Color(level)\};$ 
9:   if  $|M_{level}| = Size(level)$  then
10:    if  $|Color| = level$  then return M
11:    else
12:      $l = level + 1;$ 
13:      $Res = COLMATCH(E_{rem}, M, Size, Color, l);$ 
14:     return Res
15:    end if
16:  else
17:    $E_{level} = \{e \in E_{rem} | c(e) = Color(level)\};$ 
18:   for  $i = 1; i \leq |E_{level}|; i ++;$  do
19:    if ISINDEPENDENT( $M, E_{level}(i)$ ) then
20:      $R = E_{rem} \setminus E_{level}(i);$ 
21:      $E' = \{e \in R | e \cap E_{level}(i) \neq \emptyset\};$ 
22:      $R = R \setminus E';$ 
23:      $m = M \cup E_{level}(i);$ 
24:      $Res = COLMATCH(R, m, Size, Color, level);$ 
25:     if  $Res \neq \emptyset$  then return Res
26:     end if
27:    end if
28:   end for
29:   return  $\emptyset$ 
30:  end if
31: end function
32:
33: function MAIN( $E, Size, Color$ )
34:    $level = 1; E_{rem} = E; M = \emptyset;$ 
35:    $Res = COLMATCH(E_{rem}, M, Size, Color, level);$ 
36:   if  $Res \neq \emptyset$  then Output: Res
37:   elseOutput: No such matching.
38:   end if
39: end function

```

only the edges of type 1 and 2, respectively. The maximum matchings (Figs. 7a, 7c) and the exclusion ratios (Figs. 7b, 7d) were also computed for these new graphs as in the unlabeled case. The results clearly show that matchings of edges of type 2 tend to be more unique. Due to this, the corresponding exclusion ratios are tend to be higher than in case of edge type 1.

Another interesting conclusion of the tests are the results of the 2-edge-labeled case, where colored matchings were compared. Algorithm 1 was run to compute the colored

matchings. Since the edges of type 2 performed better, this color was chosen at first. The exclusion ratios are presented on Fig. 8.

The worst exclusion ratios clearly outperform the ones corresponding to the unlabeled case. The tests confirm that colored matchings perform better than standard ones, however these are more complicated to compute.

VII. CONCLUSION

We have presented the first steps toward a graph matching method based on comparison of matchings. Our aim was to introduce a novel approach to compare graphs even if their edges are colored (or labeled). Our suggestion is to use matchings of graphs as a basis of distance measures, to overcome some of the complexity issues of graph comparison. We have shown interesting properties of colored matchings in case of two colors. We have analyzed the circumstances of the appearance of colored matchings using the well known method of finding matchings in graphs without edge colors. An algorithm was suggested to find colored matchings in l -edge-colored graphs. Test were run on a dataset of chemical compounds. We have shown that comparing matchings is a useful descriptor in graph comparison in this application field. Our goal in the future is the further analysis of the properties of edge colored graphs in case of more than two colors, concerning algorithmic complexity as well.

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