

An Evolutionary and Graph-Rewriting based Approach to Graph Generation

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Abstract: This paper describes an evolutionary computation based graph rewriting approach to generating classes of graphs that exhibit a set of desired global features. A set of rules are used to generate, in a constructive manner, classes of graphs. Each rule represents a transformation from one graph to another. Each of these transformations causes local changes in the graph. Probabilities can be assigned to the rules which govern the frequency with which they will be applied. By assigning these probabilities correctly, one can generate graphs exhibiting desirable global features. However, choosing the correct probability distribution to generate the desired graphs is not an easy task for certain graphs and the task of finding the correct settings for these graphs may represent a difficult search space for the evolutionary algorithms. In order to generate graphs exhibiting desirable features, an evolutionary algorithm is used to find the suitable probabilities to assign to the rules. The fitness function rewards graphs that exhibit the desired properties. We show, using a small rule base, how a range of graphs can be generated.

1 INTRODUCTION

Graphs are used in a large range of domains in computer science and mathematics and in a range of applications of these fields. Many problems can be elegantly and intuitively modelled or abstracted as graph problems. Popular classes of graph problems include path finding (Pohl, 1970), graph colouring (Wood, 1969) and graph partitioning (Kernighan and Lin, 1970).

Many problem domains such as simulation in spatial game theory or modelling the spread of information in a population involve the need to create classes of graphs that exhibit specific features. Often the question of interest relates to exploring the potential impact of certain features in a graph. In these scenarios, analysis can be facilitated by generating graphs that exhibit those features.

One approach that has been used to create these classes of graphs is to sample data from the real problem domain and build graphs from these samples. There have been many attempts to undertake such a task in a range of domains; for example Álvarez-García build multi-partite graphs from given data (Álvarez-García et al., 2014). Oftentimes, such data is prohibitively expensive or impossible to obtain. In such domains, global features of these graphs can be

observed and measured and one can then build graphs exhibiting these features.

Many approaches have been used to generate artificial graphs that exhibit various features. There have been a range of approaches to generating random graphs including Erdős-Rényi graphs (Erdős and Rényi, 1961), (Gilbert, 1959) and random geometric graphs (Penrose, 2003) and a number of techniques to generate graphs that exhibit the scale free property (Barabási and Albert, 1999), small world properties (Newman, 2000) and other properties such as a desired clustering coefficient (Li and O’Riordan, 2013) and community structure (Seshadhri et al., 2012). These approaches generate a class of graphs that exhibit a set of features.

A graph rewriting system represents a more general approach to generating graphs. Graph rewriting systems involve transforming a graph by applying rewrite rules; a component of the original graph is replaced with a new component. Many existing techniques such as preferential attachment (Barabási and Albert, 1999), the Chung-Lu model (Chung and Lu, 2002) forest fire model (Leskovec et al., 2005b) can be viewed as graph-rewriting system where an original graph is transformed by the application of a number of transformations. The type of graphs generated depends on both the set of rules to be applied and

the frequency with which they are applied. Other approaches that have been adopted include generating graphs using evolutionary computation and then applying noise to the graphs (Bach et al., 2013), using multiplication of Kronecker matrices (Leskovec et al., 2005a), (Leskovec et al., 2010).

The contributions of this work are two-fold: first, we introduce an approach that combines evolutionary computation and re-writing rules to generate graphs that exhibit desired global features and second, we illustrate the approach by generating classes of graphs that display desired global features (in our case, a desired clustering coefficient and a fixed set of nodes), using a small set of rewriting rules.

The paper is laid out as follows. Some preliminary concepts are introduced and then we discuss the proposed model. We then discuss some simple rules and demonstrate the ability of the evolutionary algorithm to generate a class of graphs exhibiting pre-defined properties. We compare the approach with existing graph generation techniques. Finally, we present some conclusions and suggest future directions for the research.

2 BACKGROUND CONCEPTS

A graph, G , comprises a set, V , of nodes (or vertices) and a set E of edges such that each edge e in E comprises a unique pair (v_i, v_j) of nodes in V . A graph rewriting system comprises a set of rules of the form $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ which transform a graph G to a new graph G' . In these rules, α represents an existing construct in the graph ($\alpha \in G(V, E)$) and β represents a new construct which replaces α . Typically, the construct β is bigger than the construct α and results in the graph growing in terms of the number of vertices, number of edges, or both. The re-write rules to be applied can be selected based on probabilities assigned to them.

Many previous graph creation approaches have led to the creation of graphs with specific features (low average degree, small world property, community structure etc.). Depending on the domain, different properties may be of interest. These include, among others, the following features:

- Degree Distribution: the degree distribution of a graph is the fraction of nodes in the network with a given degree.
- Diameter: the diameter of a graph is the length of the longest path between any pairs of nodes.
- Clustering Coefficient: the clustering coefficient of a graph is a measure of how closely clustered

together vertices on the graph are. The local clustering coefficient of a node is defined as the number of edges between a node's neighbours divided by the possible number of edges between a node's neighbours. The global clustering coefficient is the average of the local clustering coefficient over all nodes.

- Centrality Measures: centrality measures are used to quantify how central or important a given node is. There are many measures of centrality that have been proposed in the literature including degree centrality (the higher the degree of a node, the higher this measure), closeness centrality (measures how close the node is to other nodes in the graph) and betweenness centrality (measures how often a node is a member of the shortest path between two pairs of nodes).

3 GRAPH CREATION MODEL

The approach contains two distinct components—first, a graph generation component which repeatedly applies a number of transformation rules to create a new graph from an original graph (outlined in Algorithm 1), and second, an evolutionary component which, for a set of specified desired features, learns the best probabilities to assign to the rules (outlined in Algorithm 2).

The graph generation model comprises the following components: an initial state which comprises an initial graph $G_0(V_0, E_0)$, a set of re-write rules $\{R\}$, which can transform a graph G to a new graph G' , a probability distribution $\{P_i\}$ over these rules and the number of times ($NumSteps$), to select and apply a rule.

Algorithm 1: Generate.

Graph Generation Algorithm($G_0(V_0, E_0), \{R\}, \{P_i\}, NumSteps$)

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G ← G0
for i ← 1 to NumSteps
  Choose Ri with probability Pi
  Apply Ri to G to create G'
  G ← G'
return(G)

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The evolutionary component uses a genetic algorithm over a population of size m where the chromosomes are of length $n + 1$ when there are n rules; the final $n + 1^{st}$ gene, $NumSteps$, is used to determine how many rules are to be applied.

Genecode = $\langle P_{R_1}, P_{R_2}, \dots, P_{R_{n-1}}, P_{R_n}, NumSteps \rangle$

A set of predefined features are used to guide the search; the overall fitness function is defined by how close the graph is to having these features. If a user specifies k features, the following fitness function is used:

$$\text{Fitness} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k \omega_i \times \text{closeness}_i(G, f_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^k \omega_i}$$

The set of closeness _{i} functions measure how well the graph G exhibits each feature f_i . The ω_i values allow the user to give higher priority to some features over others. The overall fitness is effectively a linear combination of a number of closeness measures.

Algorithm 2: Evolution Algorithm.

Evolution Algorithm(Gen, G_0 , PopSize, SampleSize)
 Create a population of chromosomes, $\{C_i\}$, each of length m
 $G \leftarrow G_0$
 for $g \leftarrow 1$ to Gen
 for $p \leftarrow 1$ to PopSize
 for $s \leftarrow 1$ to SampleSize
 NumSteps $\leftarrow C_i[m]$
 $G_{ps} \leftarrow \text{Generate}(G_0, \{R\}, C_i[0 \dots m - 1], \text{NumSteps})$
 for $i \leftarrow 1$ to NumberFeatures
 Measure presence of feature f_i in G_{ps}
 Calculate overall fitness of G_{ps}
 Calculate average fitness over graphs from the sample

Tournament Selection
 Mutation
 Crossover

Due to the stochasticity in the graph generation algorithm, samples of graphs are created to evaluate each chromosome; the features are measured for each graph in the sample and the fitness assigned to the chromosome is calculated as the average of these fitness values. Tournament selection is adopted to select chromosomes for the next generations; these selected chromosomes are then subjected to potential mutation and crossover.

Mutation has two aspects. If the gene to be mutated represents the *NumSteps*, creep mutation is used to increase or decrease this value by an amount chosen randomly from a pre-defined range. If the gene chosen represents a probability associated with a specific rule, then that probability is modified using creep mutation. To ensure correctness, the change and its magnitude is reflected across the other probabilities equally to ensure the resulting probabilities sum to

unity. Crossover is one-point and similar consideration is given to ensuring correctness.

4 SAMPLE GRAPH GENERATION USING RE-WRITING RULES

4.1 Sample Rule Set

In this illustrative example, we include three rather simple rules. The semantics of these rules are formalised in Tables 1 to 3. The rules are used to transform an existing graph into a new graph. The first rule adds a new vertex and a new edge; the new vertex is connected together to an existing vertex. This existing vertex is chosen randomly. This can be viewed as a rewriting rule where a vertex is replaced by a vertex connected to a new vertex.

The second rule attempts to add an edge between two existing vertices in the graph where one does not already exist. This has the effect of increasing the density of the graph. The vertices to connect together are chosen randomly. If no such pair of vertices exist (i.e. on a complete graph), the rule is not applied.

The third and final rule included was one that replaces an existing vertex with a ‘triangle’, i.e two new vertices are added to the graph; these vertices are both connected to an existing vertex; finally an edge is added to these two vertices. This rule can be seen as a re-writing rule that changes an existing node to a ‘triangle’ of nodes. This new ‘triangle’ will contain some vertices with a high local clustering coefficient.

Each of these rules transforms a graph $G(V, E)$ to another graph $G'(V', E')$. For all our rules $V' \supseteq V$ and $E' \supseteq E$ and so the graph grows monotonically.

Table 1: Conditions for Rule 1.

Name	Add a vertex
Pre-condition	$v_i \in V, v_j \notin V$
Post-condition	$v_i \in V', v_j \in V', e(v_i, v_j) \in E'$

Table 2: Conditions for Rule 2.

Name	Add an edge
Pre-condition	$v_i \in V, v_j \in V, e(v_i, v_j) \notin E$
Post-condition	$v_i \in V', v_j \in V', e(v_i, v_j) \in E'$

Table 3: Conditions for Rule 3.

Name	Add a triangle
Pre-condition	$v_i \in V, v_j, v_k \notin V$
Post-condition 1	$v_i, v_j, v_k \in V'$
Post-condition 2	$e(v_i, v_j), e(v_j, v_k), e(v_i, v_k) \in E'$

4.2 Illustration of Graph Generation

By assigning probabilities to the rules and specifying the number of times to apply the rules, we can generate a large set of graphs. Depending on the probabilities assigned, the graphs generated may exhibit different global properties. We now show two such examples.

For the first example, we assigned the probabilities 0.1, 0.8 and 0.1 to the first, second and third rules respectively. We apply the rules 100 times starting with a simple original graph of two vertices connected with an edge. Given the high probability associated with the second rule, we expect to generate graphs with a high number of edges and a high density. The graph shown in Fig. 1 has been generated with this probability distribution over the rules. As expected, the graph displays a high density. The graph has 28 vertices, 117 edges, an average degree of 8.357, and a clustering coefficient of 0.56.

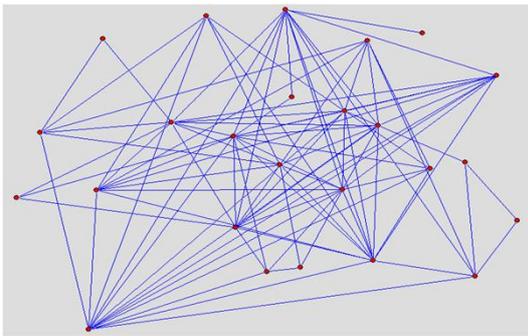


Figure 1: An illustrative graph generated with probabilities 0.1, 0.8, 0.1.

The second example involves generating a graph using a different probability distribution. The graph in Fig. 2 shows a graph generated with the same three simple rules and probabilities 0.1, 0.1 and 0.8 respectively. In this case, the graph should have more ‘triangles’ and hence more nodes and a higher clustering coefficient. The resulting graph has 158 vertices, 235 edges, an average degree of 2.97 and a clustering coefficient of 0.698.

These examples illustrate the graph generation approach using a set of simple graph rewriting rules. By choosing, different distributions we can generate classes of graphs that exhibit substantially different global phenomena. It is worth noting, that due to the stochastic nature of the process, we can generate a large set of graphs with the same probability distribution over the rule set which will exhibit similar global phenomena.

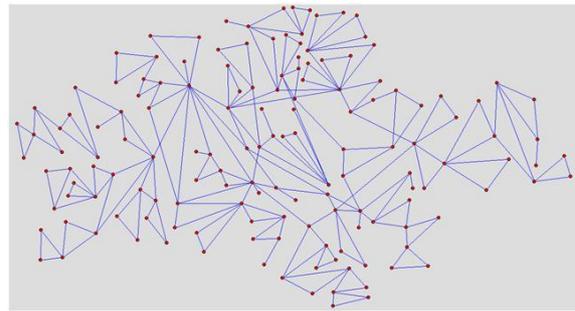


Figure 2: An illustrative graph generated with probabilities 0.1, 0.1, 0.8.

5 SAMPLE EVOLUTION AND GRAPH GENERATION

5.1 Evolutionary Settings

In the evolutionary setting, the desirable global features must be specified. In order to facilitate search, some mechanism is needed to measure their presence in the graph in order to define the *closeness* functions needed in the fitness function. The genetic algorithm, outlined in Algorithm 2, evolves a population of weightings and converges towards settings that allow the generation of graphs with the desired features.

To illustrate its performance, we adopt a small set of features as the desirable global features: namely the number of vertices and the clustering coefficient.

The genetic algorithm parameters are as follows: population size 100, number of generations 30, mutation 1%, no crossover, tournament size 10. For the fitness function, we give equal credence to both the desirable functions, i.e., $\omega_i = 1, \forall \omega_i$.

We illustrate the evolutionary process with three different settings for the features representing three fitness landscapes for the evolutionary process to search:

1. No. of vertices = 100; Clustering coefficient = 0.0
2. No. of vertices = 100; Clustering coefficient = 0.4
3. No. of vertices = 100; Clustering coefficient = 0.7

5.2 Illustration of Graph Evolution

For the first fitness function, with minimal clustering of nodes, the evolutionary algorithm quickly evolves to finding such a graph with the ideal number of nodes and ideal clustering coefficient according to the fitness function. The chromosome selected by the evolutionary algorithm is as follows: $\langle 100, 0, 0, 100 \rangle$, indicating that the second and third rule were never

applied and rule 1 (adding a new vertex to an existing vertex) is applied 100 times. Figure 3 illustrates a graph generated using these evolved values.

We see a tree like structure emerge. It is worth noting, that other graphs can be formed that are not strictly trees but that can have a low or zero level of clustering. However, given the set of rules, it would seem that the less one applies the rule involving add ‘triangles’, the lower the clustering coefficient. Similarly, in applying the second rule involving adding an edge, there is a probability of forming triangles in the graph which would increase the clustering coefficient. The best rule to apply in creating a graph with minimal clustering coefficient is the rule that adds a node connected to an existing node.

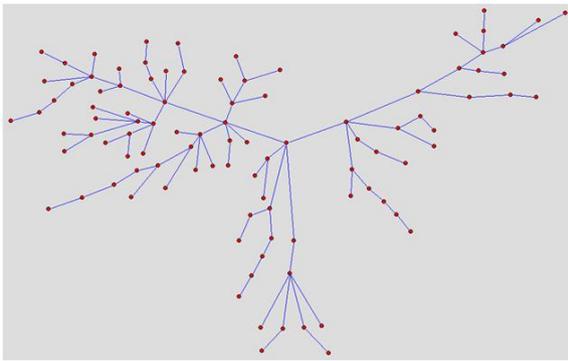


Figure 3: Desired features: number of nodes 100, clustering coefficient= 0.0.

For the second fitness function, the genetic algorithm quickly finds a chromosome with a set of values that captures the balance between applying the three rules and the correct number of time steps. A chromosome found by the genetic algorithm is as follows: $\langle 44, 25, 21, 86 \rangle$. Figure 4 illustrates a graph generated with these rules. The illustrated graph has just less than 100 nodes and clustering coefficient of 0.403.

For the third and final fitness function, a much higher clustering coefficient is required. This takes longer to find and a greater variance is witnessed in applying the evolved rules. An illustrative chromosome found was as follows: $\langle 1, 61, 38, 83 \rangle$ which was used to generate the graph in Figure 5.

In summary, these examples show that we can search the space of possible probability values to assign to the rules and find suitable settings in order to generate graphs exhibiting the desirable global features. It is worth noting that for any evolutionary run, we may find a number of settings that generate suitable graphs (this will depend on the landscape and whether it is unimodal or not), and for each setting, we can generate a family of graphs.

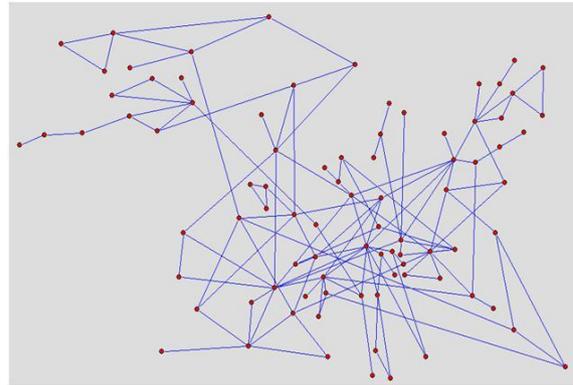


Figure 4: Desired feature - number of nodes 100, clustering coefficient= 0.4.

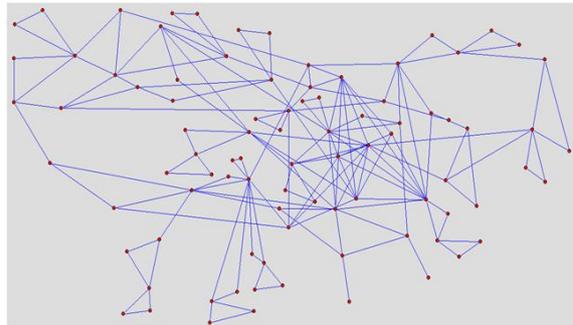


Figure 5: Desired feature - number of nodes 100, clustering coefficient= 0.7.

5.3 Evolutionary Algorithm

For each of the problem cases, we run the algorithm twenty times. In all cases, the evolutionary algorithm finds suitable graphs in each run with little variation in the number of generations taken per individual cases. For the intermediate case with a clustering coefficient of 0.4, the genetic algorithm converged to good graphs quickly; the genetic algorithm found very good solutions (fitness value less than 0.005) within a small number of generations (5-7). This is not surprising given that there are many graphs with such a value for the clustering coefficient.

For the problem where graphs with a clustering coefficient of 0.7 of required; the genetic algorithm never reached solutions with as low fitness function values as for the previous case. Runs typically converged in 10 to 15 generations to a reasonably good set of rules to generate graphs with the desirable features. The stochastic nature of the problem domain meant that fitness values of between 0.05 and 0.1 were found and maintained through the evolutionary run.

For the third case involving attempting to evolve a graph with a clustering coefficient of zero had a similar trajectory to the previous case with convergence

happening in the first 10-15 generations and a fitness value of between 0.05 and 0.1 achieved.

6 DISCUSSION

Bach et al. (Bach et al., 2013) discuss an approach to generating graphs with evolutionary algorithms. Their approach involves using motif generators which create specified topological patterns and a module that introduces noise to the graph. Of the works encountered, this work is most similar to ours in that an evolutionary algorithm is used to guide the search. There are also parallels in that a level of abstraction is adopted in both approaches; we adopt rules to transform graphs whereas in the work of Bach et. al. motifs are used as building blocks. The work differs from ours in that they extend the basic approach to allow user feedback also guide the evolution.

Another well-known evolutionary approach to generate graphs has been described by Stanley and Miikkulainen and others (e.g. (Stanley and Miikkulainen, 2002), (Stanley et al., 2003)) where evolutionary approaches are used to evolve neural networks. The focus in this work is less on producing graphs or networks with specific topological features, but rather on the resulting neural network's ability to learn a particular task.

Many existing graph generator models can produce graphs that guarantee specific statistical properties (diameter, average degree). As argued by Shuail et. al (Shuai et al., 2013), it can be difficult to maintain other properties. They report on their work which allows the generation of very large graphs that preserve other patterns that may be important given the semantics of a particular domain. Our approach can capture succinctly the requirements of a particular domain by incorporating specific rules to produce desired local properties; the required local and global properties can be ensured via the genetic algorithm.

The application problem tackled in this paper of generating graphs with a predefined clustering coefficient is one that has been addressed by other researchers; for example, Herrera *et al* (Herrera and Zufria, 2011), (Heath and Parikh, 2011) and Holme *et al* (Holme and Kim, 2002) present techniques to generate different types of graphs with a tunable clustering coefficient. Graphs with different levels of clustering have been explored in the domain of evolutionary game theory in order to explore the effect of clustering on the emergence of cooperation (Gang et al., 2008), (O'Riordan et al., 2008); in order to pursue research in a similar vein it is important to be able to generate graphs with particular features.

We have shown with a small example rule set and a small set of features how this approach can be used to generate classes of graphs exhibiting these features. For simulation domains, one often wishes to generate a large potentially diverse set of graphs that exhibit similar global features. Adopting an evolutionary approach, a set of chromosomes with similar fitness can be evolved. Each chromosome can be used to generate a set of graphs that will include some level of variation. This is a useful benefit of the approach.

Another benefit is the level of abstraction afforded. Given the ability to specify the desirable graph features and some means to measure these features, the approach can be applied. Furthermore, if domain knowledge is available about useful local properties, we can augment our set of rules accordingly.

One caveat worth noting is that genetic algorithms are a suitable approach where a non-binary measure can be assigned to the solution. This is true for many features of graphs of interest in social science and social simulation. For example, for the features considered in this paper (clustering coefficient, degree), we can calculate how close the graph is to exhibiting these features. For other graph features, defining such a measure may be computationally expensive or even intractable.

On a related note, the specified desirable properties may conflict with each other in some way; for example adding an edge will increase the average degree but it might also have another effect (introducing a cycle, increasing the clustering coefficient etc.). Similarly, one or more rules may partially cover another rule. In these cases, an alternative type of fitness function may be reasonable. Adopting a multi-objective fitness function and returning a range of graphs may be suitable.

7 CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

We have shown that graph rewriting rules can be used in conjunction with genetic algorithms to generate classes of graphs that exhibit specified global features. While the approach discussed and presented in this paper has been successful in generating graphs exhibiting certain properties, further work is needed to test the approach on more complex graph generation. In order to further motivate and justify this approach, it is necessary to illustrate its ability on a wider range of graphs types and properties.

Proposed future work includes applying the approach to a wider range of graph properties to further

explore the applicability of this approach. We aim to show that graphs generated by other approaches can be generated adopting this approach. It would also be interesting to discover if there are graph generation approaches that we cannot replicate with this approach.

Another strand of future work is to explore an extended set of rules that includes rules of a different type. Currently all our rules are like those in a regular grammar; the right hand side of the rules are merely graph constructs. One could include non-terminals in the right hand side which would in turn trigger another rule.

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