

Graph Theory and Complex Networks: An Introduction

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Chapter 05: Trees

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Introduction

Definition

A connected graph without cycles is a **tree**.

Connector problem: Set up a communication infrastructure such that the total costs are minimized.

Communication network: Set up an **overlay network** such that the total costs from a **source** to all destinations are minimized.

- 1 Formalities
- 2 Spanning trees
- 3 Routing in communication networks

Fundamentals: characterization (1)

Theorem

For any connected (simple) graph G with n vertices and m edges, $n \leq m + 1$.

Proof by induction on m

- $m = 1 \Rightarrow n = 2 \Rightarrow$ OK. Consider G with $k > 1$ edges.
- Assume G has a cycle C . Let $e \in E(C)$ and $G^* = G - e$.
 - G^* is still connected
 - $n = |V(G^*)| \leq |E(G^*)| + 1 = k - 1 + 1 = k \leq k + 1$.
- Assume G is acyclic. Let P be a longest path in G , connecting vertices u and w .
 - P is longest path $\Rightarrow \delta(u) = \delta(w) = 1$
 - Let $G^* = G - u \Rightarrow |E(G^*)| = |E(G)| - 1 = k - 1$
 - $|V(G^*)| = n - 1 \leq |E(G^*)| + 1 = k \Rightarrow n \leq k + 1$

Fundamentals: characterization (2)

Theorem

A connected graph G with n vertices and m edges for which $n = m + 1$, is a tree.

Proof by contradiction

- Assume G contains a cycle C and let $e \in E(C)$.
- $G^* = G - e$ is connected
 $\Rightarrow n = |V(G^*)| \leq |E(G^*)| + 1 = (m - 1) + 1 = m$.
Contradicts fact that $n = m + 1$. G must be acyclic, i.e., a tree.

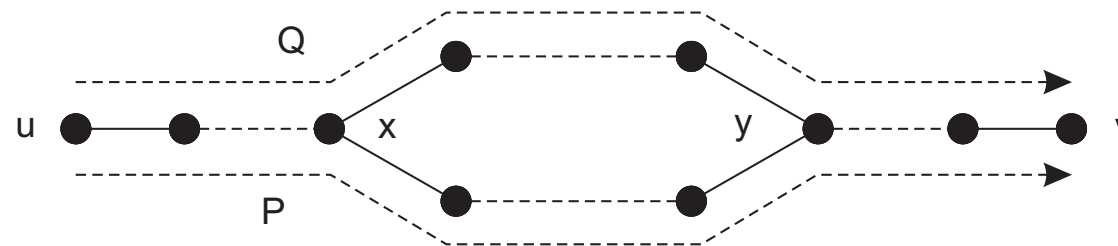
Fundamentals: characterization (3)

Theorem

A graph G is a tree iff $\forall u, v \in V(G) : \exists!(u, v)\text{-path}$.
(Notation: $\exists!$ means exists exactly one.)

Proof G tree $\Rightarrow \forall u, v \in V(G) : \exists!(u, v)\text{-path}$

- Let $u, v \in V(G)$ and (u, v) -path P .
- Assume another distinct (u, v) -path Q .
- Let x be last vertex common to P and Q , and y first common one succeeding $x \Rightarrow$ have identified a cycle:



Fundamentals: characterization (3)

Proof $\forall u, v \in V(G) : \exists!(u, v)\text{-path} \Rightarrow G \text{ is a tree}$

- By contradiction: assume G is not a tree.
- **Note:** G is connected.
- G is connected, not a tree \Rightarrow there exists a cycle
 $C = [v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n = v_1]$.
- $\forall v_i, v_j \in V(C)$: there are *two* distinct paths:
 - $P_{i \rightarrow j} = [v_i, v_{i+1}, \dots, v_{j-1}, v_j]$
 - $P_{j \rightarrow i} = [v_j, v_{j+1}, \dots, v_{i-1}, v_i]$

Fundamentals

Theorem

An edge e of a graph G is a cut edge if and only if e is not part of any cycle of G .

Proof e is not part of a cycle $\Rightarrow e$ is a cut edge of G

- By contradiction: assume that $e = \langle u, v \rangle$ is not a cut edge $\Rightarrow u, v$ in the same component in $G - e$.
- $\exists (u, v)$ -path P in $G - e$.
- But: $P + e$ is a cycle in G . Contradiction.

Fundamentals

Proof e is cut edge $\Rightarrow e$ is not in any cycle of G

- By contradiction: assume $e = \langle u, v \rangle$ was part of a cycle C .
- Let x and y be in different components of $G - e$.
- e is cut edge $\Rightarrow \exists (x, y)$ -path P in G and $e \in E(P)$.
- Assume u precedes v when traversing from x to y .
 $P_1 = (x, u)$ -part of P , $P_2 = (v, y)$ -part of P .
- **Note:** $C - e$ is (u, v) -path in $G - e$.
- u^* is first vertex common to P_1 and $C - e$;
 v^* is first vertex common to P_2 and $C - e$.
- $x \xrightarrow{P_1} u^* \xrightarrow{C-e} v^* \xrightarrow{P_2} y$ is an (x, y) -path in $G - e$, contradicting that x and y are in different components.

Fundamentals: characterization (4)

Theorem

A connected graph G is a tree if and only if every edge is a cut edge.

Proof

G is tree $\Rightarrow \forall e \in E(G) : e$ is cut edge: Let G be a tree and $e \in E(G)$.
 G contains no cycles $\Rightarrow e$ not contained in any cycle $\Rightarrow e$ is cut edge.

$\forall e \in E(G) : e$ is cut edge $\Rightarrow G$ is tree: Assume G contains a cycle
 $C \Rightarrow \forall e \in E(C) : e$ is not a cut edge \Rightarrow not every edge in G is a cut edge, contradicting our starting-point.

Spanning tree

Definition

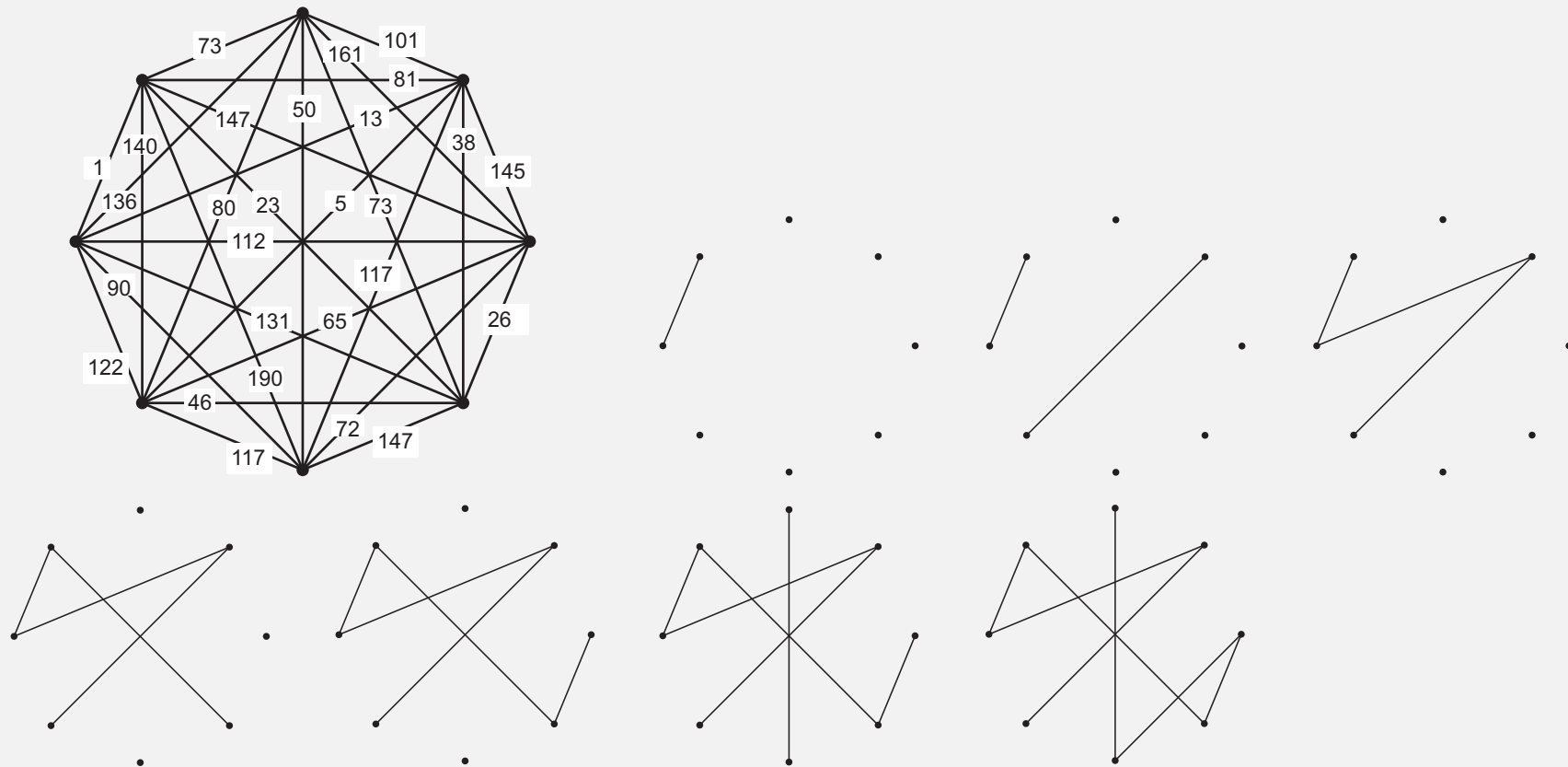
$T \subseteq G$ is a **minimal** spanning tree of G iff $V(T) = V(G)$ and $\sum_{e \in E(T)} w(e)$ is minimal.

Algorithm (Kruskal)

G is connected, weighted graph. $\forall e \in E(G) : w(e) \in \mathbb{R}$. Choose edge e_1 with minimal weight.

- 1 Assume edges $E_k = \{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_k\}$ have been chosen so far. Choose next edge $e_{k+1} \in E(G) \setminus E_k$ such that:
 - (1) $G_{k+1} = G[\{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_k, e_{k+1}\}]$ is acyclic (but not necessarily connected).
 - (2) $\forall e \in E(G) \setminus E_k : w(e) \geq w(e_{k+1})$.
- 2 Stop when no such edge e_{k+1} can be selected.

Example Kruskal's algorithm



Correctness Kruskal's algorithm

Theorem

Any spanning tree T_{opt} of a weighted connected graph G constructed by Kruskal's algorithm has minimal weight.

Proof by construction and contradiction

- Notation: \forall spanning $T \neq T_{opt}$, $\iota(T)$ smallest index $i : e_i \notin E(T)$.
- Assume T_{opt} is not optimal. Let T be spanning with maximal $\iota(T)$.
- $\iota(T) = k \Rightarrow e_1, e_2, \dots, e_{k-1} \in E(T) \cap E(T_{opt})$.
- **Note:** $T + e_k$ contains a unique cycle C (**Why?**)

Correctness Kruskal's algorithm

Proof by construction and contradiction (cntd)

- Let $\hat{e} \in \{E(C) \cap E(T)\} \setminus E(T_{opt})$.
- $\hat{e} \in E(C) \Rightarrow \hat{T} = (T + e_k) - \hat{e}$ is connected and spanning tree of G .
- $w(\hat{T}) = w(T) + w(e_k) - w(\hat{e})$ with $w(\hat{e}) \geq w(e_k)$ (**Why?**)
- Implication: \hat{T} must be optimal.
- However: $e_k \in E(\hat{T}) \Rightarrow \iota(\hat{T}) > \iota(T)$. Contradiction.

Routing

Basics

In a communication network, each node u maintains a **routing table** \mathbf{R}_u with $\mathbf{R}_u[i, j] = k$ meaning that messages from i to j should be forwarded to neighbor k .

Issue

Messages to destination u should follow a path along a **spanning tree rooted at u** .

Technically

We need to construct a spanning tree optimized for all (v, u) -paths, called a **sink tree**.

Dijkstra's algorithm

Algorithm (Dijkstra, sink tree construction)

D is directed, weighted graph with nonnegative weights.

$\forall u : v \in S_t(u) \Rightarrow \text{shortest } (v, u)\text{-path found.}$

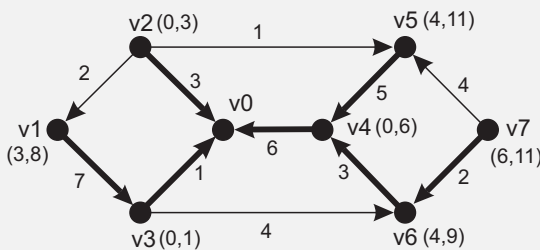
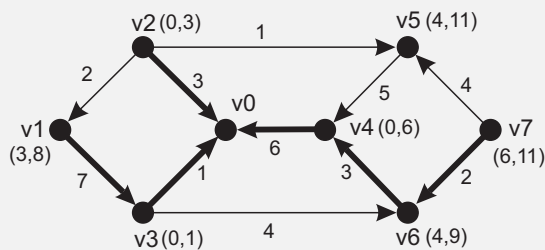
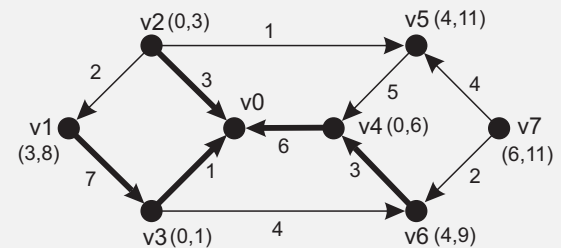
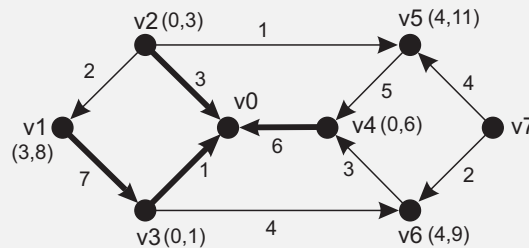
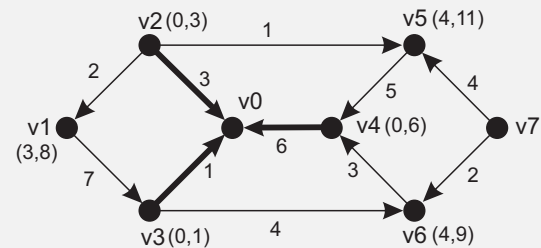
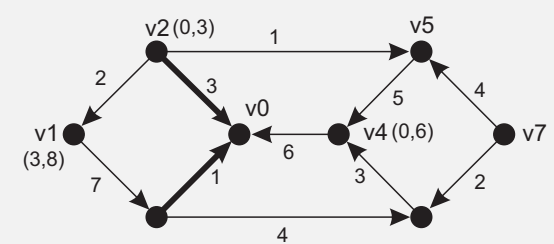
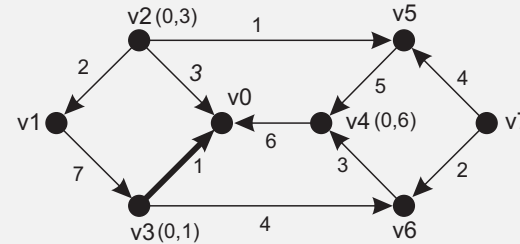
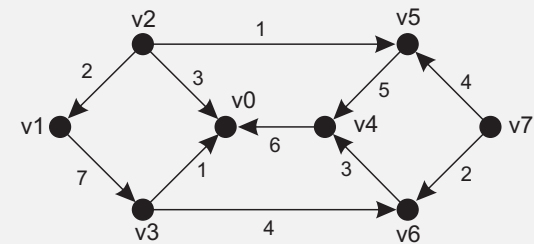
$\forall v : \mathbf{L}(v) = (L_1(v), L_2(v))$ with

- $L_1(v)$: vertex succeeding v in shortest (v, u) -path so far.
- $L_2(v)$: total weight (length) of that path.

Let $R_t(u) = S_t(u) \cup_{v \in S_t(u)} N(v)$, with $N(v) = \{w | \exists \text{ arc } \langle \overrightarrow{w}, \overrightarrow{v} \rangle\}$.

- 1 Initialize $t \leftarrow 0$; $\mathbf{L}(u) \leftarrow (u, 0)$; $\forall v \neq u : \mathbf{L}(v) \leftarrow (-, \infty)$; $S_0(u) \leftarrow \{u\}$.
- 2 $\forall y \in R_t(u) \setminus S_t(u)$, select $x \in S_t(u) : L_2(x) + w(\langle \overrightarrow{y}, \overrightarrow{x} \rangle)$ is minimal.
Set $\mathbf{L}(y) \leftarrow (x, L_2(x) + w(\langle \overrightarrow{y}, \overrightarrow{x} \rangle))$.
- 3 Let $z \in R_t(u) \setminus S_t(u) : L_2(z)$ is minimal. Set $S_{t+1}(u) \leftarrow S_t(u) \cup \{z\}$.
If $S_{t+1}(u) = V(G)$, stop. Otherwise, $t \leftarrow t + 1$, recompute $R_t(u)$ and repeat previous step.

Example: Dijkstra's shortest path algorithm



Correctness of Dijkstra's algorithm

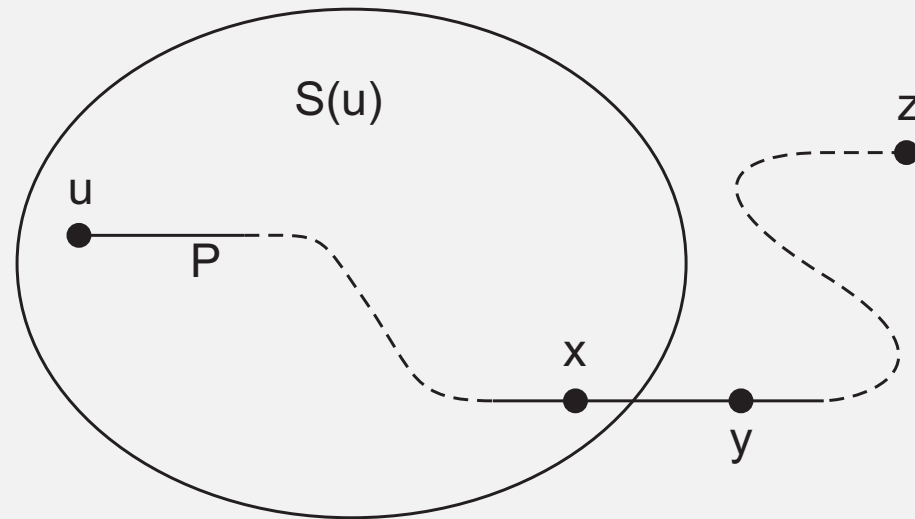
Theorem

Applying Dijkstra's algorithm vertex $u \in V(D)$, each time a vertex z is added to $S_t(u)$, $L_2(z)$ corresponds to the shortest (z, u) -path in D .

Proof by contradiction

- Let $d(w, u)$ be total weight of shortest (w, u) -path.
- Let z be first vertex added to $S_t(u)$, such that $L_2(z) > d(z, u)$.
- **Note:** $L_2(z) < \infty$ (otherwise z would never have been added).
- Let P be shortest (z, u) -path.
- Let y be last vertex on P not in $S_t(u)$, and x its successor (and thus in $S_t(u)$).

Correctness of Dijkstra's algorithm



- **Note:** $L_2(x) = d(x, u)$ and $L_2(y) \leq L_2(x) + w(\langle \overrightarrow{y, x} \rangle)$.
- **Also:** y is on shortest (z, u) -path $\Rightarrow L_2(y) = d(y, u)$.
- y was **not** selected at step $t \Rightarrow L_2(z) \leq L_2(y)$.
- **Note:** $d(z, y) + d(y, u) = d(z, u)$
- $L_2(z) \leq L_2(y) = d(y, u) \leq d(y, u) + d(z, y) = d(z, u)$.
Contradiction.

Decentralized routing

Observation

In order to execute Dijkstra's algorithm, each vertex should know the **topology** of the entire network.

Alternative

Let nodes tell their **neighbors** on shortest paths to other nodes discovered so far.

Observation

If a neighbor v of u knows about a path to w , **and tells u** , then u discovers a path to w (namely via v).

Bellman-Ford routing

Algorithm (Bellman-Ford)

- Consider node v_i . We proceed in **rounds**: in every round t , each node evaluates its routing table $\mathbf{R}_i[j] = d^t(i, j)$ with:

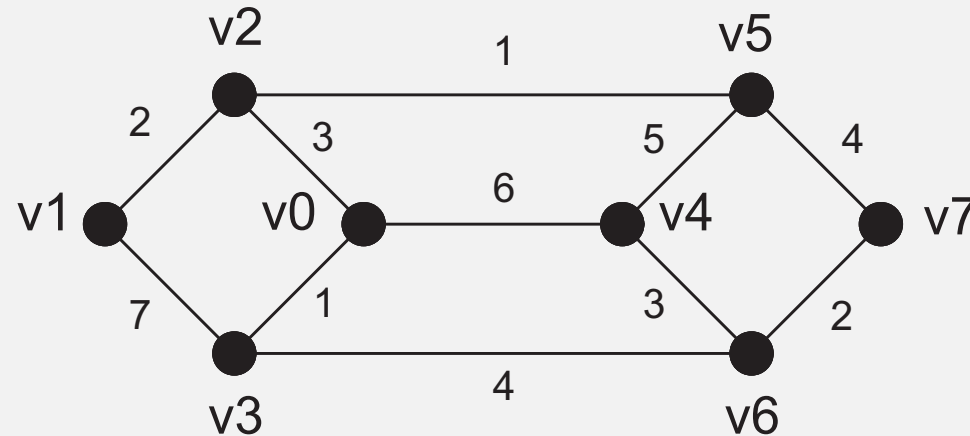
$$d^0(i, j) \leftarrow \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i = j \\ \infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Every round, **adjust** $d^t(i, j)$ to:

$$d^{t+1}(i, j) \leftarrow \min_{k \in N(v_i)} w(\langle v_i, v_k \rangle) + d^t(k, j)$$

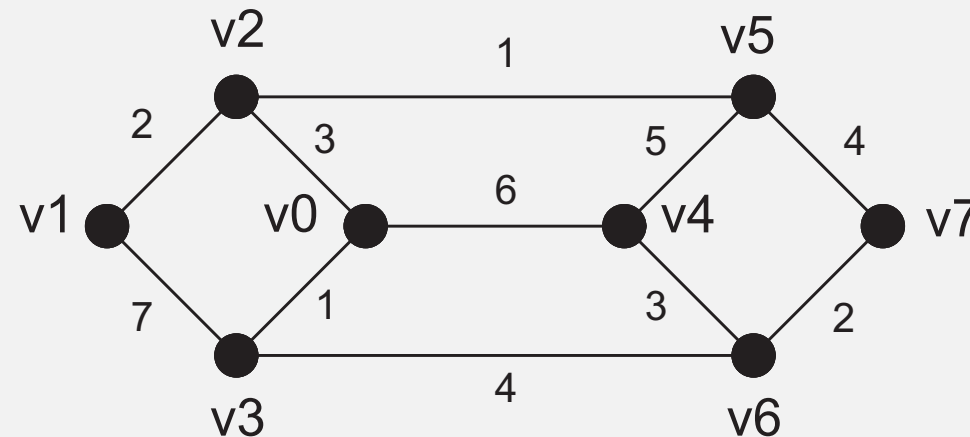
- With $d^t(i, j)$ thus denoting the total weight of optimal (v_i, v_j) -path, found by v_i after t rounds.

Example: Bellman-Ford



	Destination							
	v_0	v_1	v_2	v_3	v_4	v_5	v_6	v_7
$v_0 :$	$(0, v_0)$		$(3, v_2)$	$(1, v_3)$	$(6, v_4)$			
$v_1 :$		$(0, v_1)$	$(2, v_2)$	$(7, v_3)$				
$v_2 :$	$(3, v_0)$	$(2, v_1)$	$(0, v_2)$			$(1, v_5)$		
$v_3 :$	$(1, v_0)$	$(7, v_1)$		$(0, v_3)$			$(4, v_6)$	
$v_4 :$	$(6, v_0)$				$(0, v_4)$	$(5, v_5)$	$(3, v_6)$	
$v_5 :$			$(1, v_2)$		$(5, v_4)$	$(0, v_5)$		$(4, v_7)$
$v_6 :$				$(4, v_3)$	$(3, v_4)$		$(0, v_6)$	$(2, v_7)$
$v_7 :$						$(4, v_5)$	$(2, v_6)$	$(0, v_7)$

Example: Bellman-Ford after 2 rounds



Destination

	v_0	v_1	v_2	v_3	v_4	v_5	v_6	v_7
v_0 :	(0, v_0)	(5, v_2)	(3, v_2)	(1, v_3)	(6, v_4)	(4, v_2)	(5, v_3)	
v_1 :	(5, v_2)	(0, v_1)	(2, v_2)	(7, v_3)		(3, v_2)	(11, v_3)	
v_2 :	(3, v_0)	(2, v_1)	(0, v_2)	(4, v_0)	(6, v_5)	(1, v_5)		(5, v_5)
v_3 :	(1, v_0)	(7, v_1)	(4, v_0)	(0, v_3)	(7, v_0)		(4, v_6)	(6, v_6)
v_4 :	(6, v_0)		(6, v_5)	(7, v_6)	(0, v_4)	(5, v_5)	(3, v_6)	(5, v_6)
v_5 :	(4, v_2)	(3, v_2)	(1, v_2)		(5, v_4)	(0, v_5)	(6, v_7)	(4, v_7)
v_6 :	(5, v_3)	(11, v_3)		(4, v_3)	(3, v_4)	(6, v_7)	(0, v_6)	(2, v_7)
v_7 :			(5, v_5)	(6, v_6)	(5, v_6)	(4, v_5)	(2, v_6)	(0, v_7)

A note on efficiency

Observation

Dijkstra's algorithm roughly requires each node to inspect every other node once, implying a total of approximately n^2 steps.

The Bellman-Ford algorithm requires that for each node we inspect exactly the tables of each of its neighbors. Because we have $\sum \delta(v) = 2m$ with m the number of edges, there are a total of roughly $n \cdot m$ steps.

A note on efficiency

