

# 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.
  - $n = |V(G^*)| \leq |C(G^*)| + 1 = k - 1 + 1 = k \leq k + 1$ .
- 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  $G^* = G - u \Rightarrow |C(G^*)| = |C(G)| - 1 = k - 1$ .
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*A connected graph  $G$  with  $n$  vertices and  $m$  edges for which  $n = m + 1$ , is a tree.*

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- Assume  $G$  contains a cycle  $C$  and let  $e \in E(C)$ .
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Contradicts fact that  $n = m + 1$ .  $G$  must be acyclic, i.e., a tree.

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## Fundamentals: characterization (3)

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

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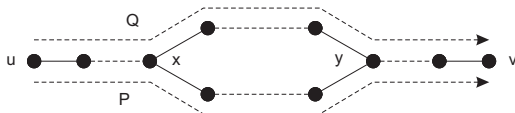
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**Proof**  $\forall u, v \in V(G) : \exists!(u, v)\text{-path} \Rightarrow G \text{ is a tree}$

- 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:
  - $P_{i \rightarrow j} = [v_i, v_{i+1}, \dots, v_{j-1}, v_j]$
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*An edge  $e$  of a graph  $G$  is a cut edge if and only if  $e$  is not part of any cycle of  $G$ .*

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- By contradiction: assume that  $e = \langle u, v \rangle$  is not a cut edge  $\Rightarrow u, v$  in the same component in  $G - e$ .
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- 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.

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# 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.

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# 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.

- ➊ 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).
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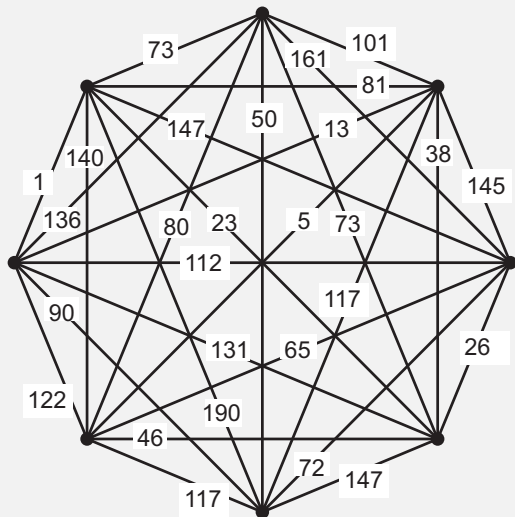
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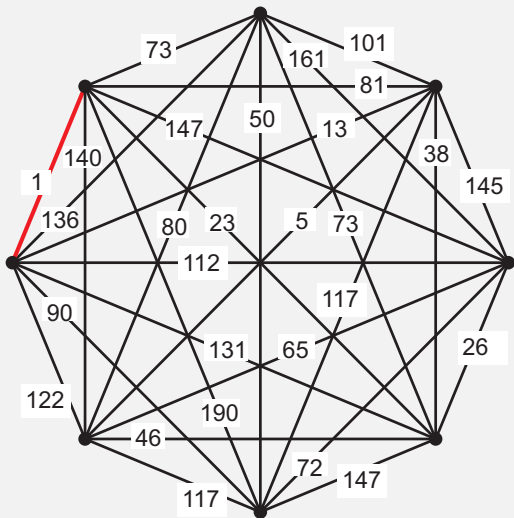
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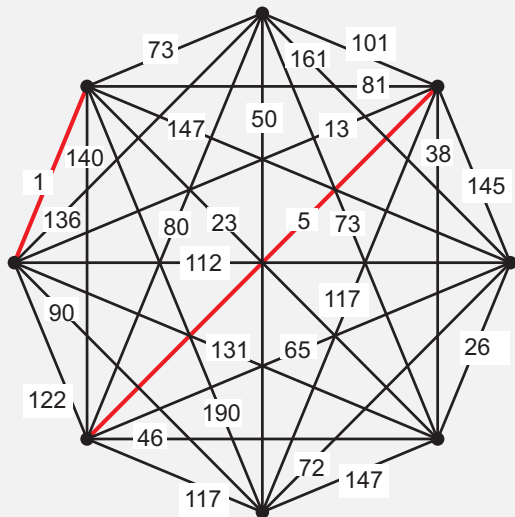
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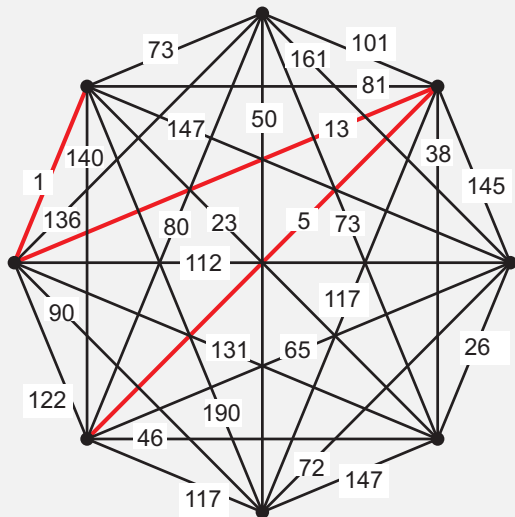
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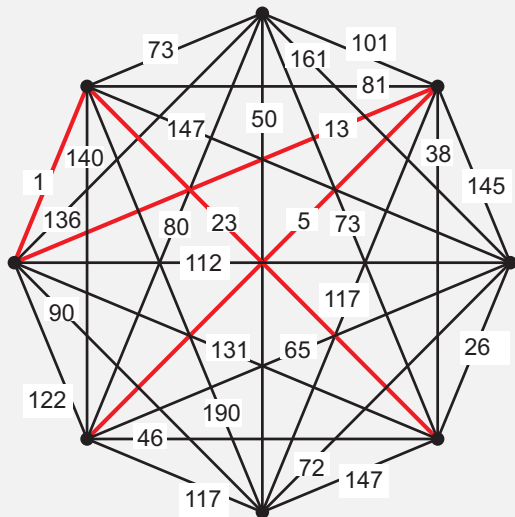
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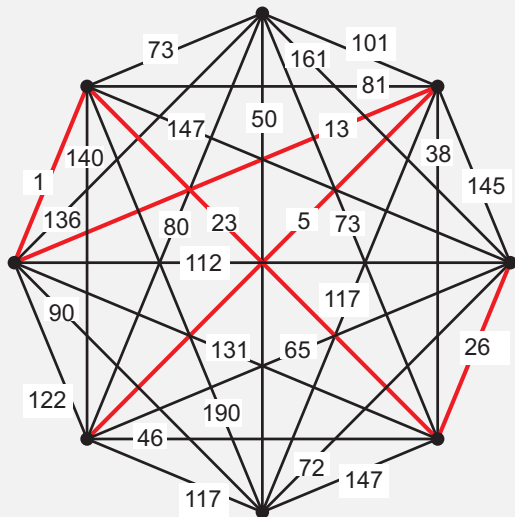
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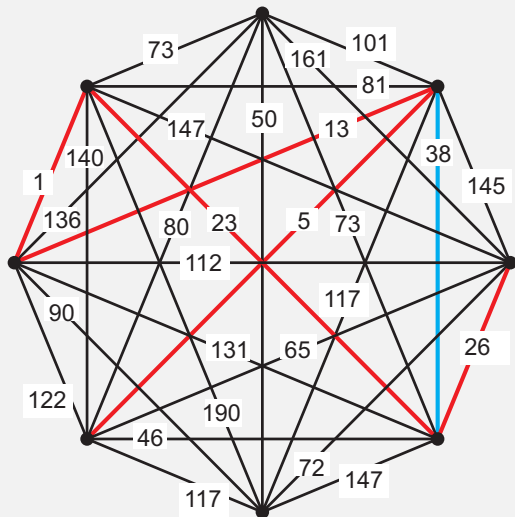
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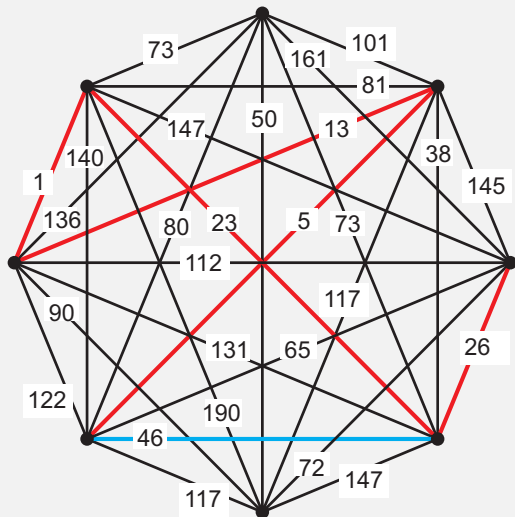


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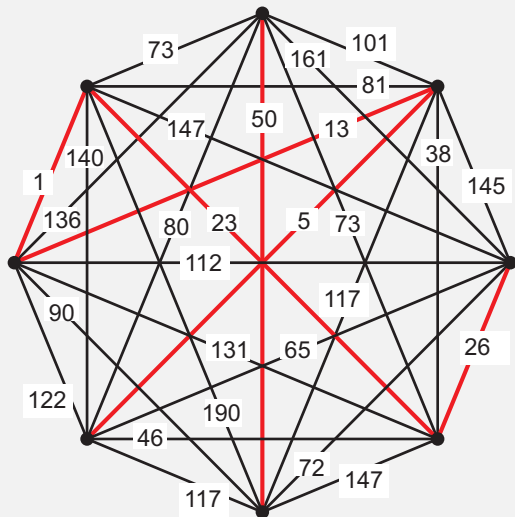




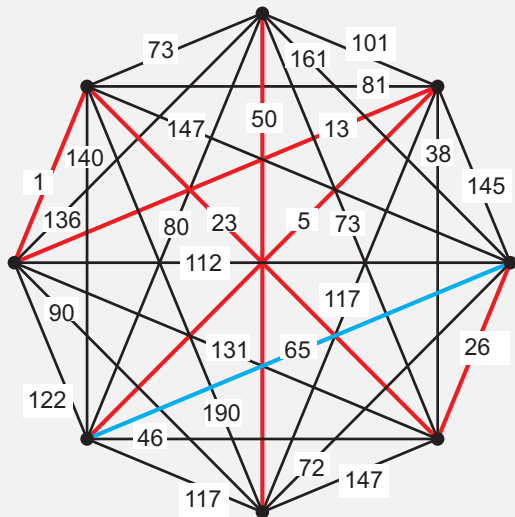
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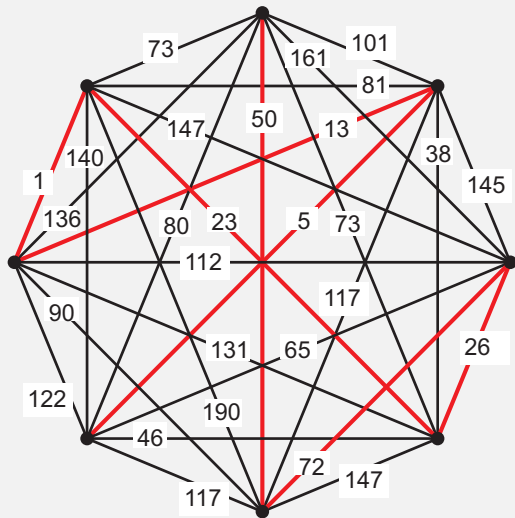
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# Correctness Kruskal's algorithm

## 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  $i : e_i \notin E(T)$ .
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- **Note:**  $T + e_k$  contains a unique cycle  $C$

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- $\hat{e} \in E(C) \Rightarrow \hat{T} = (T + e_k) - \hat{e}$  is connected and spanning tree of  $G$ .
- $w(\hat{T}) = w(T) + w(e_k) - w(\hat{e})$  with  $w(\hat{e}) \geq w(e_k)$
- 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.*

*$\forall u : v \in S_t(u) \Rightarrow$  shortest  $(v, u)$ -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.*
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- 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  $x \in S_t(u) : L_2(x) + w(\langle \overrightarrow{y, x} \rangle)$  is minimal.  
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- 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  $R_t(u)$   
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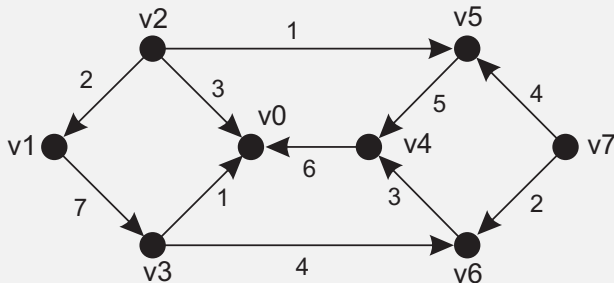
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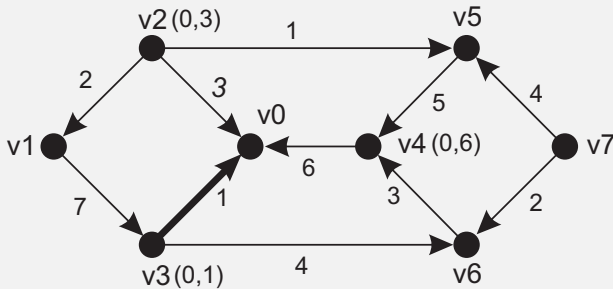
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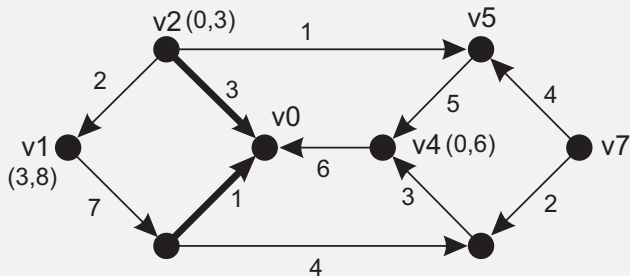
# Example: Dijkstra's shortest path algorithm



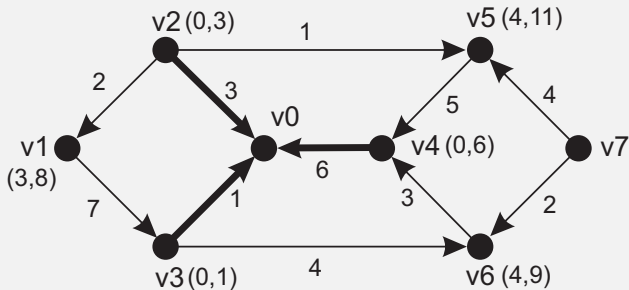
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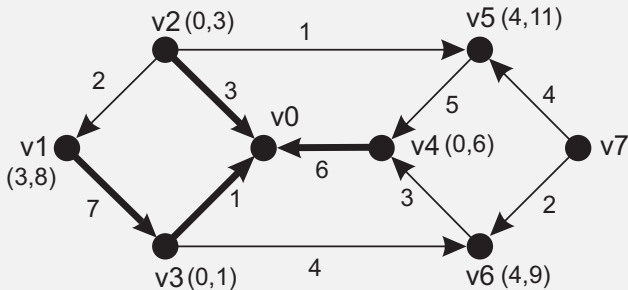
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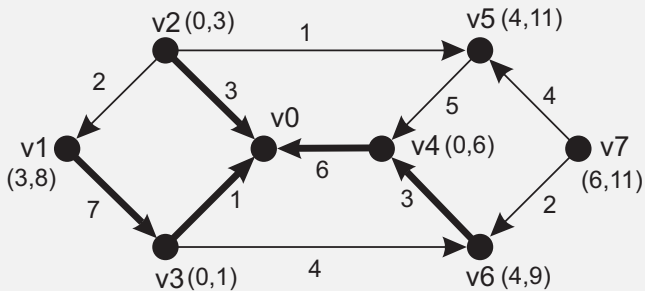
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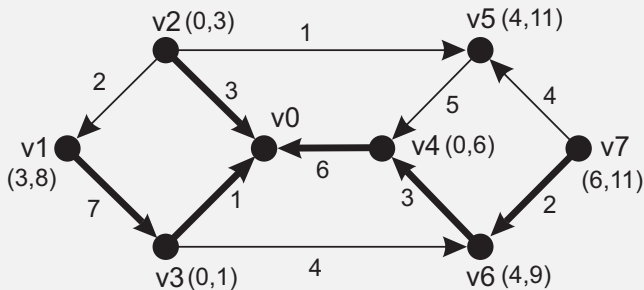


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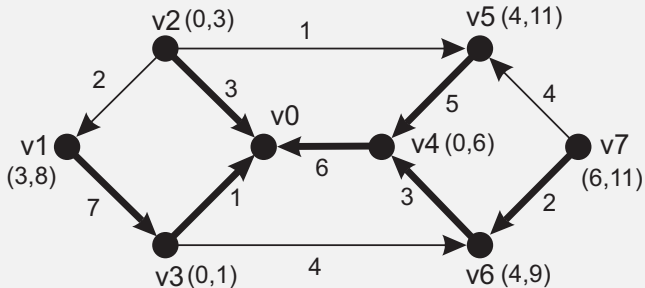




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# Correctness of Dijkstra's algorithm

## 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.
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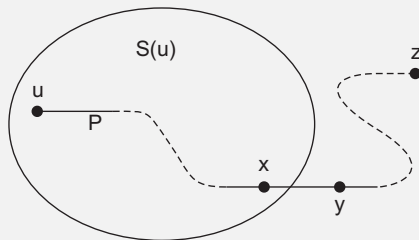
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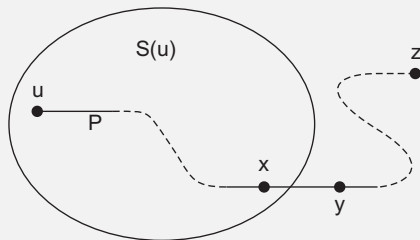
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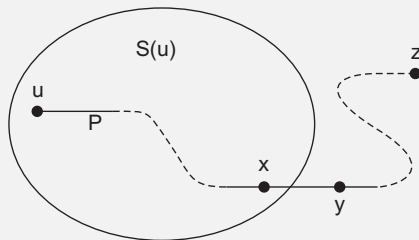
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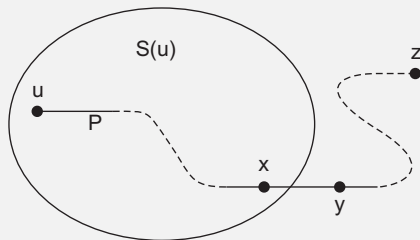
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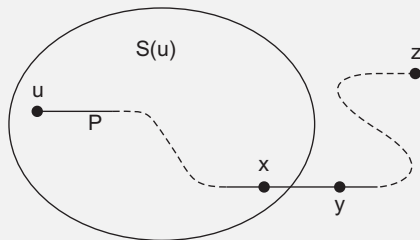
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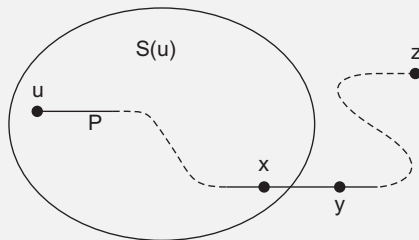
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- $L_2(z) \leq L_2(y) = d(y, u) \leq d(y, u) + d(z, y) = d(z, u)$ .  
Contradiction.

# 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.

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



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# 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:

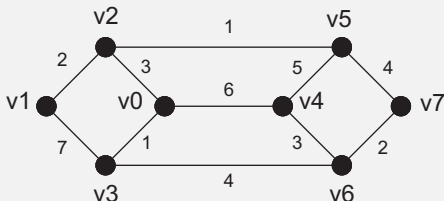
$$d^0(i, j) \leftarrow \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i = j \\ \infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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

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

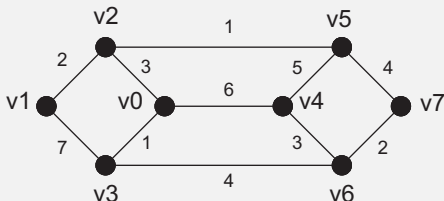
- With  $d^t(i, j)$  thus denoting the total weight of optimal  $(v_i, v_j)$ -path, found by  $v_i$  after  $t$  rounds.

# 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.

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