

# Graph Theory and Complex Networks: An Introduction

Maarten van Steen

VU Amsterdam, Dept. Computer Science  
Room R4.20, steen@cs.vu.nl

## Chapter 05: Trees

Version: April 21, 2014



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## Contents

Chapter	Description
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03: Extensions	Directed & weighted graphs, colorings
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<b>05: Trees</b>	Graphs without <a href="#">cycles</a> ; routing algorithms
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Trees 5.1/5.2 Fundamentals

## 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

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## 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  $G^* = G - u \Rightarrow |E(G^*)| = |E(G)| - 1 = k - 1$
  - $|V(G^*)| = n - 1 \leq |E(G^*)| + 1 = k \Rightarrow n \leq k + 1$

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## 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.

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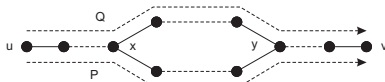
## Fundamentals: characterization (3)

## 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:



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## Fundamentals: characterization (3)

**Proof  $\forall u, v \in V(G) : \exists (u, v)\text{-path} \Rightarrow G$  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:
  - $P_{i \rightarrow j} = [v_i, v_{i+1}, \dots, v_{j-1}, v_j]$
  - $P_{j \rightarrow i} = [v_j, v_{j+1}, \dots, v_{i-1}, v_i]$

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## 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  $G - e$ .
- $\exists (u, v)\text{-path } P$  in  $G - e$ .
- But:  $P + e$  is a cycle in  $G$ . Contradiction.

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## 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  $\Rightarrow \exists (x, y)\text{-path } P$  in  $G$  and  $e \in E(P)$ .
- Assume  $u$  precedes  $v$  when traversing from  $x$  to  $y$ .  
 $P_1 = (x, u)\text{-part of } P$ ,  $P_2 = (v, y)\text{-part of } P$ .
- **Note:**  $C - e$  is  $(u, v)\text{-path}$  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  $(x, y)\text{-path}$  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.

- 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:

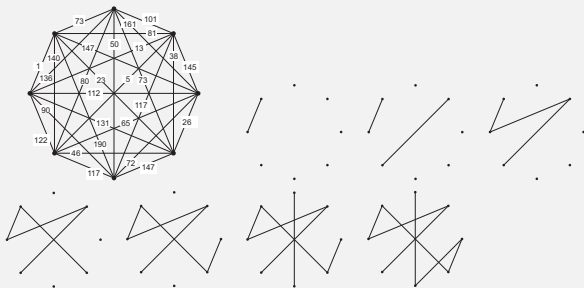
- (1)  $G_{k+1} = G[\{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_k, e_{k+1}\}]$  is acyclic (but not necessarily connected).  
 (2)  $\forall e \in E(G) \setminus E_k : w(e) \geq w(e_{k+1})$ .

- 2 Stop when no such edge  $e_{k+1}$  can be selected.

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## Example Kruskal's algorithm



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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  $i : e_i \notin E(T)$ .
- 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?)

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## 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.

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## 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**.

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## 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.

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

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

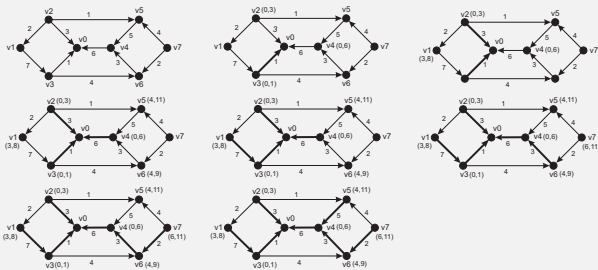
Let  $R_t(u) = S_t(u) \cup_{v \in S_t(u)} N(v)$ , with  $N(v) = \{w \mid \exists \text{ arc } \langle \overrightarrow{w, v}\rangle\}$ .

- Initialize  $t \leftarrow 0$ ;  $L(u) \leftarrow (u, 0)$ ;  $\forall v \neq u : L(v) \leftarrow (-, \infty)$ ;  $S_0(u) \leftarrow \{u\}$ .
- $\forall y \in R_t(u) \setminus S_t(u)$ , select  $x \in S_t(u) : L_2(x) + w(\langle \overrightarrow{y, x} \rangle)$  is minimal.  
Set  $L(y) \leftarrow (x, L_2(x) + w(\langle \overrightarrow{y, x} \rangle))$ .
- 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.

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## Example: Dijkstra's shortest path algorithm



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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  $D$ .

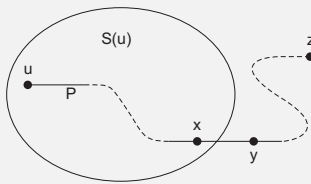
## Proof by contradiction

- Let  $d(w, u)$  be total weight of shortest  $(w, u)$ -path.
- 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  $S_t(u)$ ).

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## Correctness of Dijkstra's algorithm



- **Note:**  $L_2(x) = d(x, u)$  and  $L_2(y) \leq L_2(x) + w(\langle \vec{y}, \vec{x} \rangle)$ .
- **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.

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## 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  $v$ ).

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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  $R_i[j] = d^t(i, j)$  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:

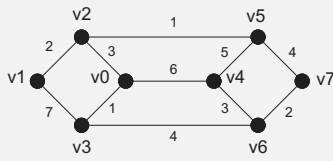
$$d^{t+1}(i, j) \leftarrow \min_{k \in N(v_i)} w(\langle v_i, v_k \rangle) + d^t(k, j)$$

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

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## Example: Bellman-Ford

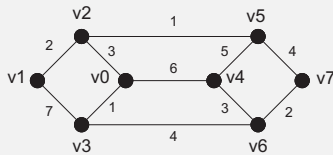


	Destination							
	$v_0$	$v_1$	$v_2$	$v_3$	$v_4$	$v_5$	$v_6$	$v_7$
$v_0 :$	$(0, v_0)$		$(3, v_2)$	$(1, v_3)$	$(6, v_4)$			
$v_1 :$		$(0, v_1)$	$(2, v_2)$	$(7, v_3)$				
$v_2 :$	$(3, v_0)$	$(2, v_1)$	$(0, v_2)$			$(1, v_5)$		
$v_3 :$	$(1, v_0)$	$(7, v_1)$		$(0, v_3)$			$(4, v_6)$	
$v_4 :$	$(6, v_0)$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

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## 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, $v_7$ )

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## 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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## A note on efficiency

