

A Branching System: Given $\mathbf{R} = \{R(i): \text{for each } i = 1, \dots, k, R(i) \text{ is a subset of the nodes of a directed graph, } G\}$, an $R(i)$ -branching (i.e., a branching rooted at node-set $R(i)$) is subset, $B(i)$, of the edges of the edges of G , such that

- (a) $B(i)$ forms a forest in G (i.e., does not contain the edges of a cycle in G);
- (b) no edge of $B(i)$ enters any node in $R(i)$;
- (c) for each node, v , not in $R(i)$, exactly one edge of $B(i)$ enters node v .

An "(edge-disjoint) branching system", $\mathbf{B} = \{B(i): i = 1, \dots, k\}$, is where the edge-sets, $B(i)$, are disjoint.

"The optimum branching-system problem" is:

Given a directed graph, G , and an R as above, and a cost $c(e) \geq 0$ for each edge e of G , find a branching system, B , as above, such that the sum of its edge-costs is minimum.

There is a polytime algorithm for it. The simplest known statement of the algorithm uses matroid partitioning and matroid intersection.

[The “optimum branching system problem” is simpler to talk about and essentially the same in its methods of solution in the case where each $R(i)$ is the same single node r .]

“The optimum r -rooted branching system problem”

asks: given a directed graph G , and a node r , an integer k , and a cost for each edge, find, if such exists, a cheapest set of k edge-disjoint branchings each rooted at r .

A r -branching B in G is a spanning tree B of G such that every path in B which starts at node r is a directed path.

i.e., Where r is a single node of G , an r -branching B in G is a spanning tree of G which has no edge entering node r , and exactly one edge entering every other node of G .

For a subset $S \subseteq V$ of the nodes of a digraph $G = (V, E)$, a **cut**, $d(S, G)$, means the set of edges of G which enter S , i.e., the edges j such that $h(j) \in S$ and $t(j) \notin S$.

(2.2.0) Edge-disjoint branching theorem:

Either there are k edge-disjoint r -branchings in G or there is a cut of size $k-1$ separating some non-empty subset S of nodes from r . (Not both.) In other words:
the maximum number of edge-disjoint r -rooted branchings in G = the minimum size of a cut separating some non-empty subset S of nodes from r .

Unlike finding k edge-disjoint paths in G from r to t , in order to find k edge-disjoint r -branchings in G , we grow a partial r -branching T (i.e., , for some $r \in R \subset V$, T is an r -branching of the subgraph of G induced by R) such that

(2.2.1) **$G' \equiv (V, [E(G) - E(T)])$ has $|d(S, G')| \geq (k - 1)$,
 \forall non-empty S not containing r .**

As soon as the node-set of T is V , we have the 1st of our r -branchings of G . Because G' satisfies (2.2.1), we can repeat using G' instead of G to find a 2nd r -branching T' of G such that $G'' \equiv (V, [E(G') - E(T')])$ has $|d(S, G'')| \geq (k - 2)$, \forall non-empty S not containing r . And so on until we have k edge-disjoint r -branchings of G .

For this to work we must have

(2.2.2) Lemma. For any graph $G \equiv (V, E(G))$ such that $|d(S, G)| \geq k$, \forall non-empty S not containing r ;
 and any partial r -branching T in G , with node-set R , $r \in R \subset V$, such that (2.2.1) holds,
 there is an edge $j = (u, v)$ with $u \in R$ and $v \in V - R$ such that property (2.2.1) still holds when T is extended by edge j .

To prove Lemma (2.2.2) we use the following easy but important "submodularity lemma" which is left to the reader:

(2.2.3) For any digraph $G = (V, E)$, and subsets A and B of V ,

$$|d(A \cup B, G)| + |d(A \cap B, G)| \leq |d(A, G)| + |d(B, G)|.$$

To get the edge j of Lemma (2.2.2) is no problem if the inequality of (2.2.1) is " $\geq k$ " for every $r \notin S$ such that $(S - R)$ is not empty. Otherwise let A be a minimal set, $r \notin A$, and $(A - R)$ not empty, such that $|d(A, G')| = (k - 1)$. There is an edge $j = (u, v)$ where $u \in A \cap R$ and $v \in (A - R)$ since $|d(A - R, G')| \geq k$.

For any other set $B \subseteq V - r$, we trivially still have, after we delete edge j from G' , at least $(k - 1)$ edges entering B , unless $u \in (V - B)$ and $v \in B$.

We have that also **when $u \in (V - B)$ and $v \in B$,** since it then follows from submodularity that

$$|d(B, G')| \geq |d(A \cup B, G')| + |d(A \cap B, G')| - |d(A, G')| \geq k,$$

since $|d(A \cup B, G')| \geq (k - 1)$ by the construction of T , and

$$|d(A \cap B, G')| \geq k \text{ and } |d(A, G')| = k - 1$$

by the minimality choice of A . That proves ((2.2.2)).

(2.2.4) **“The optimum (single) r-branching theorem”:**

For a given directed graph G , and specified root node r , and an integer edge-cost, $c(e) \geq 0$, for each edge e of G ,

the minimum cost of an r-branching in digraph G

= the maximum size of a multi-set H of cuts

(“multi-set” means that H might contain multiple copies of a cut), each separating a non-empty subset of nodes from r , such that, for each edge e , H uses at most $c(e)$ copies of cuts containing e .

The theorem is proved by an elegant polytime algorithm for finding a minimum cost r-branching in digraph G

(not nearly as simple as an algorithm

for finding a minimum cost spanning tree in a graph):

(2.2.5) Algorithm for finding an optimum r -branching in G . Keep doing the following "Phase 1" until, in the graph resulting from the shrinkings, the chosen edges form an r' -branching where r' is either r or the pseudo-node containing r :

Choose a cheapest edge j directed toward a node or pseudo-node, v , toward which no unshrunk edge has yet been chosen.

If this creates a directed cycle C of chosen edges then shrink C to be a pseudo-node, $v(C)$.

For each unshrunk edge j directed toward $v(C)$, let h be the edge of C which has the same head in C as j .

Change the effective cost of j from $c(j)$ to $c(j) - c(h)$.

Then do "Phase 2": Expand pseudo-nodes $v(C)$ in the order they were created, and each time delete from the set of chosen edges the unique edge of C which will preserve that the remaining chosen edges form an r' -branching.

(2.2.6) Theorem. The final set of chosen edges form a least cost r -branching in G .

There are two interesting LP relaxations of finding an optimum r -branching which are obviously equivalent:

(2.2.7) minimize cx , where $x \geq 0$ satisfies

(2.2.7.1) \forall node $v \neq r$, $\sum[x(j): h(j) = v] = 1$; and

(2.2.7.2) \forall subset $S \subseteq V$, $\sum[x(j): j \text{ has both ends in } S] \leq |S| - 1$.

(2.2.8) minimize cx , where $x \geq 0$ satisfies

(2.2.8.1) node $v \neq r$, $\sum[x(j): h(j) = v] = 1$; and

(2.2.8.2) \forall subset $S \subseteq V$, $\sum[x(j): j \in d(S, G)] \geq 1$.

The incidence vector x of the r -branching given by algorithm (2.2.5) in fact solves (2.2.7) or (2.2.8).

The proof is to derive from the algorithm an (integer-valued) optimum for the dual linear program.

For LP (2.2.8) that dual optimum gives Theorem (2.2.4).

From LP (2.2.7) we see **optimum r -branchings** are an instance of optimum matroid intersections.

[$\forall, \subseteq, \cup, \in, \notin, \equiv, |, \geq, \cap, \leq, \sum, \neq$

]