

# Constructing Independent Spanning Trees on Locally Twisted Cubes in Parallel\*

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## Abstract

Let  $LTQ_n$  denote the  $n$ -dimensional locally twisted cube. Hsieh and Tu (2009) [13] presented an algorithm to construct  $n$  edge-disjoint spanning trees rooted at vertex 0 in  $LTQ_n$ . Later on, Lin et al. (2010) [23] proved that Hsieh and Tu's spanning trees are indeed independent spanning trees (ISTs for short), i.e., all spanning trees are rooted at the same vertex  $r$  and for any other vertex  $v(\neq r)$ , the paths from  $v$  to  $r$  in any two trees are vertex-disjoint except the two end vertices  $v$  and  $r$ . Shortly afterwards, Liu et al. (2011) [24] pointed out that  $LTQ_n$  fails to be vertex-transitive for  $n \geq 4$  and proposed an algorithm for constructing  $n$  ISTs rooted at an arbitrary vertex of  $LTQ_n$ . Although this algorithm can simultaneously construct  $n$  ISTs in parallel, it is not fully parallelized for the construction of each spanning tree. In this paper, we revisit the problem of constructing  $n$  ISTs rooted at an arbitrary vertex of  $LTQ_n$ . As a consequence, we present a fully parallelized approach that is obtained from Hsieh and Tu's algorithm with a slight modification.

**Keyword:** independent spanning trees; edge-disjoint spanning trees; locally twisted cubes; interconnection networks; fault-tolerant broadcasting;

## 1 Introduction

Interconnection networks are usually modeled as undirected simple graphs  $G = (V, E)$ , where the vertex set  $V(= V(G))$  represents the set of processing elements and the edge set  $E(= E(G))$  represents the set of communication channels, respectively. A *tree* is a connected graph without cycle.

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A *rooted tree* is a tree with a distinguished vertex called the root. A subgraph  $T$  in a graph  $G$  is called a *spanning tree* if  $T$  is a tree such that  $V(T) = V(G)$ . Let  $\mathcal{T}$  be a set of  $k$  spanning trees of  $G$  rooted at a vertex  $r$ . We say that  $\mathcal{T}$  is *edge-disjoint* if the paths from any vertex  $v(\neq r)$  to  $r$  on the  $k$  trees share no common directed edges. By contrast,  $\mathcal{T}$  is said to be *independent* if the paths from any vertex  $v(\neq r)$  to  $r$  on the  $k$  trees have no common vertex except  $x$  and  $y$  (i.e., the paths are *internally vertex-disjoint*).

Constructing independent spanning trees (ISTs for short) in networks have been studied from not only the theoretical point of view but also some practical applications such as fault-tolerant broadcasting [1, 19] and secure message distribution [1, 31, 40]. Let  $G$  be a graph and denote  $G - F$  the graph obtained from  $G$  by removing a set of vertices  $F$ . A graph  $G$  is  *$k$ -connected* if  $|V(G)| > k$  and  $G - F$  is connected for every subset  $F \subseteq V(G)$  with  $|F| < k$ . A conjecture proposed by Zehavi and Itai [49] says that any  $k$ -connected graph has  $k$  ISTs rooted at an arbitrary vertex  $r$ . Henceforth, we refer the conjecture as the IST-Conjecture. From then on, the IST-Conjecture has been confirmed only for  $k$ -connected graphs with  $k \leq 4$  (see [19] for  $k = 2$ , [8, 49] for  $k = 3$ , and [9] for  $k = 4$ ), and it is still open for  $k$ -connected graphs with  $k \geq 5$ . In addition, by providing construction schemes of ISTs, the IST-Conjecture has been agreed for several restricted classes of graphs or digraphs. For example, the graph classes related to planarity [16, 17, 27, 28], graph classes defined by Cartesian product [3, 29, 32, 33, 36, 42, 46], special classes of digraphs [10, 12, 18, 37], variations of hypercubes [4–7, 24, 34, 35, 40], subclasses of Cayley graphs [21, 22, 31, 41, 44, 45], and chordal ring [20, 43].

The family of locally twisted cubes was first introduced by Yang et al. [47] as a variation of

hypercube architecture to achieving the improvement in diameter. Hsieh and Tu [13] studied the construction of edge-disjoint spanning trees on locally twisted cubes. Since the  $n$ -dimensional locally twisted cube  $LTQ_n$  is  $n$ -connected, they presented an algorithm to construct  $n$  edge-disjoint spanning trees rooted at vertex 0. At a later time, Lin et al. [23] proved that Hsieh and Tu's spanning trees are indeed independent. Liu et al. [24] pointed out that  $LTQ_n$  fails to be vertex-transitive for  $n \geq 4$  and it does not satisfy the even-odd-vertex-transitive property. Thus, the proof of [23], together with Hsieh and Tu's algorithm [13], does not solve the IST-Conjecture on  $LTQ_n$ . Furthermore, Liu et al. [24] proposed an algorithm for constructing  $n$  ISTs rooted at an arbitrary vertex of  $LTQ_n$ , and thus confirmed the IST-Conjecture for  $LTQ_n$ . Although the algorithm in [24] can simultaneously construct  $n$  ISTs in parallel, it is not fully parallelized for the construction of each spanning tree (in fact, it looks like a constructing scheme of binomial tree in a recursive fashion). In this paper, with a slight modification from Hsieh and Tu's algorithm, we present a fully parallelized approach for constructing  $n$  ISTs rooted at an arbitrary vertex of  $LTQ_n$ .

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 formally gives the definition of locally twisted cubes and introduces our constructing scheme of ISTs for  $LTQ_n$ . Section 3 shows the correctness by proving the independency of the constructed spanning trees. The final section contains our concluding remarks.

## 2 Constructing ISTs on $LTQ_n$ in parallel

Let  $\oplus$  denote the modulo 2 addition. For  $n \geq 2$ , the  $n$ -dimensional locally twisted cube  $LTQ_n$  is a graph with  $\{0, 1\}^n$  as its vertex set, and two vertices  $x = x_{n-1}x_{n-2} \cdots x_0$  and  $y = y_{n-1}y_{n-2} \cdots y_0$  are adjacent in  $LTQ_n$  if and only if either

- (1) there is an integer  $i \in \{2, 3, \dots, n-1\}$  such that  $x_i = \bar{y}_i$  and  $x_{i-1} = y_{i-1} \oplus x_0$ , and  $x_j = y_j$  for all remaining bits, or
- (2) there is an integer  $i \in \{0, 1\}$  such that  $x_i = \bar{y}_i$ , and  $x_j = y_j$  for all remaining bits.

If one of the above conditions is fulfilled, then  $y$  is called the  $i$ -neighbor of  $x$  and is denoted by  $y = N_i(x)$ . Figure 1 shows the graphs  $LTQ_3$  and  $LTQ_4$ , respectively. The locally twisted cube can be equivalently defined by the following recursive fashion:

- (1)  $LTQ_2$  is a graph consisting of four vertices labeled with 00, 01, 10, and 11, respectively, con-

nected by four edges (00,01), (00,10), (01,11), and (10,11).

- (2) For  $n \geq 3$ ,  $LTQ_n$  is constructed from two disjoint copies of  $LTQ_{n-1}$  according to the following steps: Denote  $0LTQ_{n-1}$  (respectively,  $1LTQ_{n-1}$ ) the graph obtained by prefixing the label of each vertex in one copy of  $LTQ_{n-1}$  with 0 (respectively, 1). Each vertex  $x = 0x_{n-2}x_{n-3} \cdots x_0$  in  $0LTQ_{n-1}$  is connected with the vertex  $1(x_{n-2} \oplus x_0)x_{n-3} \cdots x_0$  in  $1LTQ_{n-1}$  by an edge.

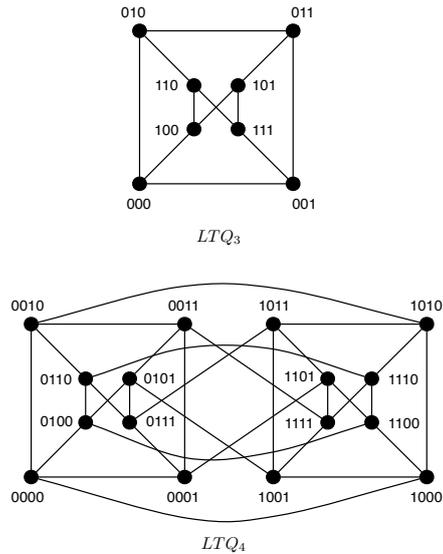


Figure 1: Locally twisted cubes  $LTQ_3$  and  $LTQ_4$ .

From the above definition, it is clear that  $LTQ_n$  is an  $n$ -regular graph, and the binary strings of any two adjacent vertices in  $LTQ_n$  differ in at most two successive bits. Yang et al. [47] showed that  $LTQ_n$  has a connectivity of  $n$ . Also, from [24], we know that  $LTQ_n$  possesses the property of *even-odd-vertex-transitive*, i.e., for every pair of vertices  $x = x_{n-1}x_{n-2} \cdots x_0$  and  $y = y_{n-1}y_{n-2} \cdots y_0$  with the same parity (i.e.,  $x_0 = y_0$ ), there is an automorphism that maps  $x$  to  $y$ . More previous results on  $LTQ_n$  can be found in the literature, e.g., the studies of diagnosability [39], mesh embedding [11], fault-hamiltonicity [14], pancyclicity [25], pancyclicity and fault-pancyclicity [2, 15, 26, 30, 38, 48].

In this paper, we also use the following notation. Two paths  $P$  and  $Q$  joining two distinct vertices  $x$  and  $y$  are *internally vertex-disjoint*, denoted by  $P \parallel Q$ , if  $V(P) \cap V(Q) = \{x, y\}$ . Let  $T$  be a spanning tree rooted at a vertex  $r$  of  $LTQ_n$ . The parent of a vertex  $x (\neq r)$  in  $T$  is denoted by  $\text{PARENT}(T, x)$ . For  $x, y \in V(T)$ , the unique path from  $x$  to  $y$  is denoted by  $T[x, y]$ . Hence, two spanning trees  $T$  and  $T'$  with the same root  $r$  are ISTs if and only if  $T[x, r] \parallel T'[x, r]$  for every vertex  $x \in V(T) \setminus \{r\}$ .

Since  $LTQ_n$  has connectivity  $n$ , the root in each spanning tree must have a unique child. Let  $\mathbb{Z}_n = \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$ . For  $i \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ , we denote  $T_i$  as the tree such that the root  $r$  takes its  $i$ -neighbor  $N_i(r)$  as the unique child. Let  $N_i(r) = c_{n-1}c_{n-2} \cdots c_0$ . For each vertex  $x = x_{n-1}x_{n-2} \cdots x_0 \in V(T_i) \setminus \{r\}$ , we define  $I_i(x) = \{j \in \mathbb{Z}_n : x_j \neq c_j\}$  and  $\alpha_i(x) = |\{j \in I_i(x) : j > i\}|$ . Moreover, if  $i \neq 0$ ,  $c_0 = 1$  and  $\alpha_i(x)$  is odd, we let  $H_i(x) = (I_i(x) \cup \{i\}) \setminus (I_i(x) \cap \{i\})$ ; otherwise, let  $H_i(x) = I_i(x)$ . Also, we define the following function:

$$\text{NEXT}(i, x) = \begin{cases} i & \text{if } H_i(x) = \emptyset; \\ \max H_i(x) & \text{if } H_i(x) \neq \emptyset \text{ and } i < \min H_i(x); \\ \max\{j \in H_i(x) : j \leq i\} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

That is, we regard  $H_i(x)$  as a cyclic ordered set in decreasing order. If  $H_i(x) = \emptyset$  or  $i \in H_i(x)$ , the function outputs  $i$ ; otherwise, the function outputs the next element in the cyclic order of  $H_i(x)$  with respect to  $i$ .

In what follows, we present a fully parallelized algorithm for constructing  $n$  spanning trees with an arbitrary vertex  $r = r_{n-1}r_{n-2} \cdots r_0$  as their common root in  $LTQ_n$ . For each vertex  $x \in V(LTQ_n) \setminus \{r\}$  with binary string  $x = x_{n-1}x_{n-2} \cdots x_0$ , the construction can be carried out by describing the parent of  $x$  in each spanning tree  $T_i$ .

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**Algorithm CONSTRUCTING-ISTs**  
**Input:** All vertices of  $LTQ_n$  and an arbitrary root  $r = r_{n-1}r_{n-2} \cdots r_0$ .  
**Output:**  $n$  ISTs  $T_0, T_1, \dots, T_{n-1}$  root at  $r$ .  
1: **for**  $i = 0$  to  $n-1$  **do in parallel**  
    /\* construct  $T_i$  simultaneously \*/  
2:   **for each** vertex  $x = x_{n-1}x_{n-2} \cdots x_0$  in  $LTQ_n$   
    **do in parallel** /\* generate parent of each vertex  $x$  simultaneously \*/  
3:      $j = \text{NEXT}(i, x)$   
4:     **if**  $j \geq 2$  and  $x_0 = 1$  **then**  
5:          $\text{PARENT}(T_i, x) = x + (-1)^{x_j} \times 2^j + (-1)^{x_{j-1}} \times 2^{j-1}$   
6:     **else**  
7:          $\text{PARENT}(T_i, x) = x + (-1)^{x_j} \times 2^j$

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Figure 2: Algorithm for constructing  $n$  spanning trees in  $LTQ_n$ .

**Example 1.** Consider  $LTQ_4$  and suppose we choose  $r = 1011_2 = 11$  as the common root. For conciseness, we represent a vertex in  $LTQ_4$  by decimal. We describe how the CONSTRUCTING-ISTs algorithm constructs  $T_2$  in  $LTQ_4$  as follows. Clearly, the 2-neighbor of  $r$  is  $N_2(11) = c_3c_2c_1c_0 = 1101_2 = 13$ . Let  $x (\neq r)$  be an arbitrary vertex in  $LTQ_4$  with  $x = x_3x_2x_1x_0$ . If  $0 \leq x \leq 7$ , then  $\alpha_2(x) = 1$ ; otherwise,  $\alpha_2(x) = 0$ . Since

$i = 2$  and  $c_0 = 1$ , we have  $H_2(x) = I_2(x) \setminus \{2\}$  for  $x \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$  and  $H_2(x) = I_2(x) \cup \{2\}$  for  $x \in \{4, 5, 6, 7\}$ . Also, we have  $H_2(x) = I_2(x)$  for  $8 \leq x \leq 15$  and  $x \neq 11$ . Consequently, we can determine  $j = 0$  when  $x \in \{0, 12\}$ ;  $j = 1$  when  $x \in \{2, 3, 14, 15\}$ ;  $j = 3$  when  $x = 1$ ; and  $j = 2$  otherwise. For  $x \in \{1, 5, 7, 9, 13\}$ , since  $j \geq 2$  and  $x_0 = 1$ , we have  $\text{PARENT}(T_2, x) = x + (-1)^{x_j} \times 2^j + (-1)^{x_{j-1}} \times 2^{j-1}$  according to Line 5 of the algorithm. Otherwise, we have  $\text{PARENT}(T_2, x) = x + (-1)^{x_j} \times 2^j$  according to Line 7 of the algorithm. Table 1 summarizes the information for constructing  $T_i$  for  $0 \leq i \leq 3$  in  $LTQ_4$ .

Figure 3 illustrates the construction for  $LTQ_4$  using Algorithm CONSTRUCTING-ISTs. For convenience, we adopt the notation  $x \xrightarrow{\pm 2^j} y$  (respectively,  $x \xrightarrow{\pm 2^i \pm 2^{i-1}} y$ ) to mean that  $x \pm 2^i = y$  (respectively,  $x \pm 2^i \pm 2^{i-1} = y$ ) and  $x$  and  $y$  are adjacent in  $LTQ_n$ . For instance, we have  $T_2[6, 11] = 6 \xrightarrow{-2^2} 2 \xrightarrow{-2^1} 0 \xrightarrow{+2^0} 1 \xrightarrow{+2^3+2^2} 13 \xrightarrow{-2^2+2^1} 11$  in Figure 3.

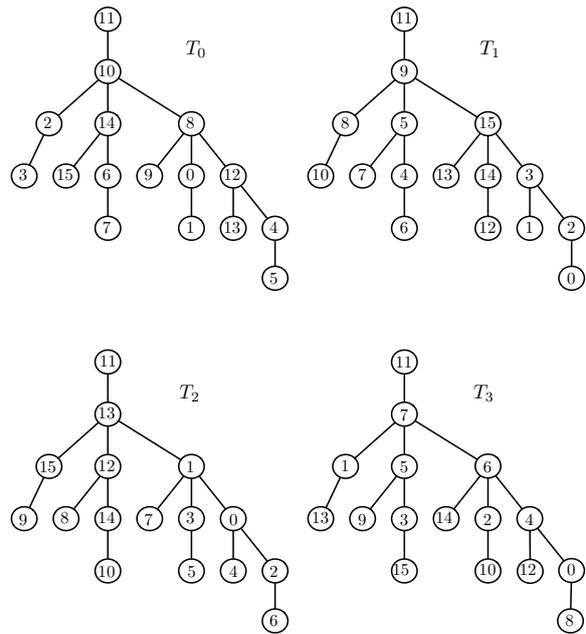


Figure 3: Four ISTs of  $LTQ_4$ .

### 3 Correctness

In this section, we will show the validity of the algorithm. Firstly, we prove the reachability between every vertex  $x (\neq r)$  and the vertex  $r$  in  $T_i$ , thereby proving the existence of a unique path from  $x$  to the root in the tree.

**Theorem 1.** *Let  $r$  be an arbitrary vertex of  $LTQ_n$ . The construction of  $T_i$  for  $i \in \mathbb{Z}_n$  are spanning trees with a common root at  $r$ .*

Table 1: The parent of vertices  $x \in V(LTQ_4) \setminus \{11\}$  in  $T_i$  with root  $r = 1011_2 = 11$ .

$i = 3, N_3(11) = 0111_2 = 7$									
$x$	binary string	$I_3(x)$	$\alpha_3(x)$	$H_3(x)$	$j = \text{NEXT}(3, x)$	$x_0$	$x_j$	$x_{j-1}$	$\text{PARENT}(T_3, x)$
0	0000	{0, 1, 2}	even	{0, 1, 2}	2	0	0	0	$= 0 + 2^2 = 4$
1	0001	{1, 2}	even	{1, 2}	2	1	0	0	$= 1 + 2^2 + 2^1 = 7$
2	0010	{0, 2}	even	{0, 2}	2	0	0	1	$= 2 + 2^2 = 6$
3	0011	{2}	even	{2}	2	1	0	1	$= 3 + 2^2 - 2^1 = 5$
4	0100	{0, 1}	even	{0, 1}	1	0	0	0	$= 4 + 2^1 = 6$
5	0101	{1}	even	{1}	1	1	0	1	$= 5 + 2^1 = 7$
6	0110	{0}	even	{0}	0	0	0	-	$= 6 + 2^0 = 7$
7	0111	$\emptyset$	even	$\emptyset$	3	1	0	1	$= 7 + 2^3 - 2^2 = 11$
8	1000	{0, 1, 2, 3}	even	{0, 1, 2, 3}	3	0	1	0	$= 8 - 2^3 = 0$
9	1001	{1, 2, 3}	even	{1, 2, 3}	3	1	1	0	$= 9 - 2^3 + 2^2 = 5$
10	1010	{0, 2, 3}	even	{0, 2, 3}	3	0	1	0	$= 10 - 2^3 = 2$
12	1100	{0, 1, 3}	even	{0, 1, 3}	3	0	1	1	$= 12 - 2^3 = 4$
13	1101	{1, 3}	even	{1, 3}	3	1	1	1	$= 13 - 2^3 - 2^2 = 1$
14	1110	{0, 3}	even	{0, 3}	3	0	1	1	$= 14 - 2^3 = 6$
15	1111	{3}	even	{3}	3	1	1	1	$= 15 - 2^3 - 2^2 = 3$

$i = 2, N_2(11) = 1101_2 = 13$									
$x$	binary string	$I_2(x)$	$\alpha_2(x)$	$H_2(x)$	$j = \text{NEXT}(2, x)$	$x_0$	$x_j$	$x_{j-1}$	$\text{PARENT}(T_2, x)$
0	0000	{0, 2, 3}	odd	{0, 3}	0	0	0	-	$= 0 + 2^0 = 1$
1	0001	{2, 3}	odd	{3}	3	1	0	0	$= 1 + 2^3 + 2^2 = 13$
2	0010	{0, 1, 2, 3}	odd	{0, 1, 3}	1	0	1	0	$= 2 - 2^1 = 0$
3	0011	{1, 2, 3}	odd	{1, 3}	1	1	1	1	$= 3 - 2^1 = 1$
4	0100	{0, 3}	odd	{0, 2, 3}	2	0	1	0	$= 4 - 2^2 = 0$
5	0101	{3}	odd	{2, 3}	2	1	1	0	$= 5 - 2^2 + 2^1 = 3$
6	0110	{0, 1, 3}	odd	{0, 1, 2, 3}	2	0	1	1	$= 6 - 2^2 = 2$
7	0111	{1, 3}	odd	{1, 2, 3}	2	1	1	1	$= 7 - 2^2 - 2^1 = 1$
8	1000	{0, 2}	even	{0, 2}	2	0	0	0	$= 8 + 2^2 = 12$
9	1001	{2}	even	{2}	2	1	0	0	$= 9 + 2^2 + 2^1 = 15$
10	1010	{0, 1, 2}	even	{0, 1, 2}	2	0	0	1	$= 10 + 2^2 = 14$
12	1100	{0}	even	{0}	0	0	0	-	$= 12 + 2^0 = 13$
13	1101	$\emptyset$	even	$\emptyset$	2	1	1	0	$= 13 - 2^2 + 2^1 = 11$
14	1110	{0, 1}	even	{0, 1}	1	0	1	0	$= 14 - 2^1 = 12$
15	1111	{1}	even	{1}	1	1	1	1	$= 15 - 2^1 = 13$

$i = 1, N_1(11) = 1001_2 = 9$									
$x$	binary string	$I_1(x)$	$\alpha_1(x)$	$H_1(x)$	$j = \text{NEXT}(1, x)$	$x_0$	$x_j$	$x_{j-1}$	$\text{PARENT}(T_1, x)$
0	0000	{0, 3}	odd	{0, 1, 3}	1	0	0	0	$= 0 + 2^1 = 2$
1	0001	{3}	odd	{1, 3}	1	1	0	1	$= 1 + 2^1 = 3$
2	0010	{0, 1, 3}	odd	{0, 3}	0	0	0	-	$= 2 + 2^0 = 3$
3	0011	{1, 3}	odd	{3}	3	1	0	0	$= 3 + 2^3 + 2^2 = 15$
4	0100	{0, 2, 3}	even	{0, 2, 3}	0	0	0	-	$= 4 + 2^0 = 5$
5	0101	{2, 3}	even	{2, 3}	3	1	0	1	$= 5 + 2^3 - 2^2 = 9$
6	0110	{0, 1, 2, 3}	even	{0, 1, 2, 3}	1	0	1	0	$= 6 - 2^1 = 4$
7	0111	{1, 2, 3}	even	{1, 2, 3}	1	1	1	1	$= 7 - 2^1 = 5$
8	1000	{0}	even	{0}	0	0	0	-	$= 8 + 2^0 = 9$
9	1001	$\emptyset$	even	$\emptyset$	1	1	0	1	$= 9 + 2^1 = 11$
10	1010	{0, 1}	even	{0, 1}	1	0	1	0	$= 10 - 2^1 = 8$
12	1100	{0, 2}	odd	{0, 1, 2}	1	0	0	0	$= 12 + 2^1 = 14$
13	1101	{2}	odd	{1, 2}	1	1	0	1	$= 13 + 2^1 = 15$
14	1110	{0, 1, 2}	odd	{0, 2}	0	0	0	-	$= 14 + 2^0 = 15$
15	1111	{1, 2}	odd	{2}	2	1	1	1	$= 15 - 2^2 - 2^1 = 9$

$i = 0, N_0(11) = 1010_2 = 10$									
$x$	binary string	$I_0(x)$	$\alpha_0(x)$	$H_0(x)$	$j = \text{NEXT}(0, x)$	$x_0$	$x_j$	$x_{j-1}$	$\text{PARENT}(T_0, x)$
0	0000	{1, 3}	even	{1, 3}	3	0	0	0	$= 0 + 2^3 = 8$
1	0001	{0, 1, 3}	even	{0, 1, 3}	0	1	1	-	$= 1 - 2^0 = 0$
2	0010	{3}	odd	{3}	3	0	0	0	$= 2 + 2^3 = 10$
3	0011	{0, 3}	odd	{0, 3}	0	1	1	-	$= 3 - 2^0 = 2$
4	0100	{1, 2, 3}	odd	{1, 2, 3}	3	0	0	1	$= 4 + 2^3 = 12$
5	0101	{0, 1, 2, 3}	odd	{0, 1, 2, 3}	0	1	1	-	$= 5 - 2^0 = 4$
6	0110	{2, 3}	even	{2, 3}	3	0	0	1	$= 6 + 2^3 = 14$
7	0111	{0, 2, 3}	even	{0, 2, 3}	0	1	1	-	$= 7 - 2^0 = 6$
8	1000	{1}	odd	{1}	1	0	0	0	$= 8 + 2^1 = 10$
9	1001	{0, 1}	odd	{0, 1}	0	1	1	-	$= 9 - 2^0 = 8$
10	1010	$\emptyset$	even	$\emptyset$	0	0	0	-	$= 10 + 2^0 = 11$
12	1100	{1, 2}	even	{1, 2}	2	0	1	0	$= 12 - 2^2 = 8$
13	1101	{0, 1, 2}	even	{0, 1, 2}	0	1	1	-	$= 13 - 2^0 = 12$
14	1110	{2}	odd	{2}	2	0	1	1	$= 14 - 2^2 = 10$
15	1111	{0, 2}	odd	{0, 2}	0	1	1	-	$= 15 - 2^0 = 14$

**Proof.** From CONSTRUCTING-ISTS, we know that every vertex  $v \in V(LTQ_n)$  implies  $v \in T_i$ . It follows that  $T_i$  is a spanning subgraph of  $LTQ_n$ . Hereafter, for every vertex  $v \in V(LTQ_n) \setminus \{r\}$ , all indices of elements of  $H_i(v)$  are taken modulo  $|H_i(v)|$ . Let  $x = x_{n-1}x_{n-2} \cdots x_0$  be any vertex of  $LTQ_n$ . We claim that  $T_i[x, r]$  is the unique path connecting  $x$  and  $r$  in  $T_i$ . Clearly, if  $H_i(x) = \emptyset$ , then  $x = N_i(r)$  and  $\text{NEXT}(i, x) = i$ . If  $i \geq 2$  and  $x_0 = 1$ , let  $J = (-1)^{x_i} \times 2^i + (-1)^{x_{i-1}} \times 2^{i-1}$ ; otherwise, let  $J = (-1)^{x_i} \times 2^i$ . Thus,  $T_i[x, r] = x \xrightarrow{J} r$  is the desired path that connects  $x$  and  $r$  in  $T_i$ . Next, we suppose that  $H_i(x) = \{j_0, j_1, \dots, j_{p-1}\}$  is nonempty and  $j_0 < j_1 < \dots < j_{p-1}$ . Consider the following two cases:

**Case 1:**  $i \notin H_i(x)$ . We assume that  $j_k = \text{NEXT}(i, x)$  is the next element in the cyclic order of  $H_i(x)$  with respect to  $i$ , where  $0 \leq k \leq p-1$ . If  $j_k \geq 2$  and  $x_0 = 1$ , let  $J_1 = (-1)^{x_{j_k}} \times 2^{j_k} + (-1)^{x_{j_k-1}} \times 2^{j_k-1}$ ; otherwise, let  $J_1 = (-1)^{x_{j_k}} \times 2^{j_k}$ . Thus, we have  $\text{PARENT}(T_i, x) = x + J_1$ . Let  $y = y_{n-1}y_{n-2} \cdots y_0 = x + J_1$  be such a vertex and consider the following scenarios for  $H_i(y)$ . For  $j_k \geq 2$  and  $x_0 = 1$ , if  $j_{k-1} = j_k - 1$ , then  $H_i(y) = H_i(x) \setminus \{j_k, j_{k-1}\}$ ; otherwise,  $H_i(y) = (H_i(x) \setminus \{j_k\}) \cup \{j_k - 1\}$ . On the other hand (i.e.,  $j_k \in \{0, 1\}$  or  $x_0 = 0$ ), we have  $H_i(y) = H_i(x) \setminus \{j_k\}$ . By a similar argument, we let  $j_\ell = \text{NEXT}(i, y)$  and  $z = z_{n-1}z_{n-2} \cdots z_0 = \text{PARENT}(T_i, y) = y + J_2$ , where  $J_2 = (-1)^{x_{j_\ell}} \times 2^{j_\ell} + (-1)^{x_{j_\ell-1}} \times 2^{j_\ell-1}$  for  $j_\ell \geq 2$  and  $y_0 = 1$ ; or  $J_2 = (-1)^{x_{j_\ell}} \times 2^{j_\ell}$  otherwise. Again, we can determine  $H_i(z)$  according to  $j_\ell, y_0$  and the condition  $j_{\ell-1} = j_\ell - 1$  or  $j_{\ell-1} \neq j_\ell - 1$ . By this way, we find a sequence of vertices  $y, z, \dots, w$  in  $T_i$  such that  $H_i(w) = \emptyset$ , and thus  $w = N_i(r)$ . Recall that we have constructed  $T_i[w, r] = w \xrightarrow{J} r$  for connecting  $N_i(r)$  and  $r$  in  $T_i$ . Therefore, we obtain the following unique path that connects  $x$  and  $r$  in  $T_i$ :

$$T_i[x, r] = x \xrightarrow{J_1} y \xrightarrow{J_2} z \xrightarrow{J_3} \dots \xrightarrow{J_d} w \xrightarrow{J} r.$$

**Case 2:**  $i \in H_i(x)$ . Suppose  $i = j_k$  for some  $k \in \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\}$ . In this case, we have  $\text{NEXT}(i, x) = i$  by definition. If  $i \geq 2$  and  $x_0 = 1$ , let  $\hat{J} = (-1)^{x_i} \times 2^i + (-1)^{x_{i-1}} \times 2^{i-1}$ ; otherwise, let  $\hat{J} = (-1)^{x_i} \times 2^i$ . Moreover, we let  $y = \text{PARENT}(T_i, x) = x + \hat{J}$ . Clearly,  $j_k \notin H(y)$ , and thus  $y$  is in the situation of Case 1. Let  $P = T_i[y, r]$  be the path connecting  $y$  and  $r$  in  $T_i$ . Therefore, we obtain the unique path  $T_i[x, r]$  by concatenating  $x \xrightarrow{\hat{J}} y$  and  $P$ .  $\square$

To show the independency of  $T_0, T_1, \dots, T_{n-1}$ , we assume that  $p, q \in \mathbb{Z}_n$  are any two distinct integers. Let  $x = x_{n-1}x_{n-2} \cdots x_0 \in V(LTQ_n) \setminus \{r\}$  be any vertex and two paths  $P = T_p[x, r]$  and  $Q = T_q[x, r]$  be constructed in Theorem 1. Without loss of generality, we assume  $p > q$ . Let  $c = N_p(r) =$

$c_{n-1}c_{n-2} \cdots c_0$  and  $d = N_q(r) = d_{n-1}d_{n-2} \cdots d_0$ . For notational convenience, the subpath of  $P$  between two vertices  $u, v \in V(P)$  is denoted by  $P(u, v)$ . Moreover, we write  $y_i|P(u, v) = b$  for  $i \in \mathbb{Z}_n$  and  $b \in \{0, 1\}$  to mean that  $y_i$  is assigned to  $b$  for every vertex  $y = y_{n-1}y_{n-2} \cdots y_0$  in the path  $P(u, v)$ . Similarly, we can define  $Q(u, v)$  and  $y_i|Q(u, v) = b$  by the same way. In what follows, we always assume that  $y = y_{n-1}y_{n-2} \cdots y_0$  is any vertex in  $P \setminus \{x, r\}$  and  $z = z_{n-1}z_{n-2} \cdots z_0$  is any vertex in  $Q \setminus \{x, r\}$ . In particular, let  $\hat{y} = \hat{y}_{n-1}\hat{y}_{n-2} \cdots \hat{y}_0$  (respectively,  $\hat{z} = \hat{z}_{n-1}\hat{z}_{n-2} \cdots \hat{z}_0$ ) be the vertex adjacent to  $x$  in  $P$  (respectively, in  $Q$ ). To show that  $P||Q$ , it suffices to prove that  $P(\hat{y}, c) \cap Q(\hat{z}, d) = \emptyset$ . For  $P$  and  $Q$ , we also use underscore to mark the different bits between the two paths.

Note that we omit the proof if one of  $P(\hat{y}, c)$  and  $Q(\hat{z}, d)$  is a null path (i.e.,  $H_p(x) = \emptyset$  or  $H_q(x) = \emptyset$ ). Moreover, due to the space limitation, we only prove Lemmas 2, 3, 4 and 5, and omit the following four cases: (i)  $c_0 = d_0 = 1$  and  $x_0 = 0$ ; (ii)  $c_0 = 1$  and  $d_0 = x_0 = 0$ ; (iii)  $c_0 = d_0 = x_0 = 1$ ; and (iv)  $c_0 = x_0 = 1$  and  $d_0 = 0$ .

**Lemma 2.** *If  $c_0 = d_0 = x_0 = 0$ , then  $P||Q$ .*

**Proof.** Since  $p > q$  and  $c_0 = d_0 = 0$ , it implies  $r_0 = 0$  and  $p > q \neq 0$ . Moreover, since  $c_0 = d_0 = 0$ , it follows that  $H_p(x) = I_p(x)$  and  $H_q(x) = I_q(x)$ . In addition, we have  $c_p \neq d_p, c_q \neq d_q$  and  $c_i = d_i$  for  $i \in \mathbb{Z}_n \setminus \{p, q\}$ . Let  $p' = \text{NEXT}(p, x)$  and  $q' = \text{NEXT}(q, x)$ . We consider the following three scenarios.

**Case 1:**  $x_p \neq c_p$  (i.e.,  $p \in H_p(x)$ ). In this case,  $p = p'$  and  $q \geq q'$ . Since  $x_0 = 0$ , by Line 7 of the algorithm, we have  $\hat{y} = x + (-1)^{x_p} \times 2^p$ . Thus,  $\hat{y}_p = c_p$ . Moreover, since  $T_p$  takes  $(-1)^{c_p} \times 2^p$  as the last link to connect the root, it implies  $y_p|P(\hat{y}, c) = c_p$ . On the other hand, since  $x_p \neq c_p$  and  $c_p \neq d_p$ , we have  $x_p = d_p$ . Thus,  $Q$  never changes the bit  $z_p$  in the path and  $z_p|Q(\hat{z}, d) = d_p \neq c_p$ . As a result,  $P||Q$ . (For example, consider  $P = T_3[0, 4] : 0000 \xrightarrow{+2^3} 1000 \xrightarrow{+2^2} 1100 \xrightarrow{-2^3} 0100$  and  $Q = T_1[0, 4] : 0000 \xrightarrow{+2^1} 0010 \xrightarrow{+2^2} 0110 \xrightarrow{-2^1} 0100$  in  $LTQ_4$ .)

**Case 2:**  $x_q \neq d_q$  (i.e.,  $q \in H_q(x)$ ). In this case,  $p \geq p'$  and  $q = q'$ . Since  $x_q \neq d_q$  and  $c_q \neq d_q$ , we have  $x_q = c_q$ . Thus,  $P$  never changes the bit  $y_q$  in the path and  $y_q|P(\hat{y}, c) = c_q$ . On the other hand, since  $x_0 = 0$ , by Line 7 of the algorithm, we have  $\hat{z} = x + (-1)^{x_q} \times 2^q$ . Thus,  $\hat{z}_q = d_q$ . Moreover, since  $T_q$  takes  $(-1)^{d_q} \times 2^q$  as the last link to connect the root, it implies  $z_q|Q(\hat{z}, d) = d_q \neq c_q$ . As a result,  $P||Q$ . (For example, consider  $P = T_2[12, 4] : 1100 \xrightarrow{-2^2} 1000 \xrightarrow{-2^3} 0000 \xrightarrow{+2^2} 0100$  and  $Q = T_1[12, 4] : 1100 \xrightarrow{+2^1} 1110 \xrightarrow{-2^3} 0110 \xrightarrow{-2^1} 0100$  in  $LTQ_4$ .)

**Case 3:**  $x_p = c_p$  and  $x_q = d_q$  (i.e.,  $p \notin H_p(x)$  and  $q \notin H_q(x)$ ). In this case,  $p > p'$  and  $q > q'$ . Clearly,  $x_{p'} \neq c_{p'}$  and  $x_{q'} \neq d_{q'}$ . There are three subcases as follows.

**Case 3.1:**  $p' = q$ . Since  $x_0 = 0$ , by Line 7 of the algorithm, we have  $\hat{y} = x + (-1)^{x_{p'}} \times 2^{p'}$ . Thus,  $\hat{y}_{p'} = c_{p'}$ . Moreover, since it remains unchanged the bit  $y_{p'}$  for every vertex  $y \in P(\hat{y}, c)$ , we have  $y_{p'}|P(\hat{y}, c) = c_{p'}$  (i.e.,  $y_q|P(\hat{y}, c) = c_q$ ). On the other hand, since  $x_q = d_q$  and  $T_q$  takes  $(-1)^{d_q} \times 2^q$  as the last link to connect the root, it implies  $z_q|Q(\hat{z}, d) = d_q \neq c_q$ . Thus,  $P||Q$ . (For example, consider  $P = T_3[10, 4] : 1010 \xrightarrow{+2^2} 1110 \xrightarrow{-2^1} 1100 \xrightarrow{-2^3} 0100$  and  $Q = T_2[10, 4] : 1010 \xrightarrow{-2^1} 1000 \xrightarrow{-2^3} 0000 \xrightarrow{+2^2} 0100$  in  $LTQ_4$ .)

**Case 3.2:**  $q' = p$ . Since  $x_p = c_p$  and  $T_p$  takes  $(-1)^{c_p} \times 2^p$  as the last link to connect the root, it implies  $y_p|P(\hat{y}, c) = c_p$ . On the other hand, since  $x_0 = 0$ , by Line 7 of the algorithm, we have  $\hat{z} = x + (-1)^{x_{q'}} \times 2^{q'}$ . Thus,  $\hat{z}_{q'} = d_{q'}$ . Moreover, since it remains unchanged the bit  $z_{q'}$  for every vertex  $z \in Q(\hat{z}, d)$ , we have  $z_{q'}|Q(\hat{z}, d) = d_{q'}$  (i.e.,  $z_p|Q(\hat{z}, d) = d_p \neq c_p$ ). Thus,  $P||Q$ . (For example, consider  $P = T_3[10, 4] : 1010 \xrightarrow{+2^2} 1110 \xrightarrow{-2^1} 1100 \xrightarrow{-2^3} 0100$  and  $Q = T_1[10, 4] : 1010 \xrightarrow{-2^3} 0010 \xrightarrow{+2^2} 0110 \xrightarrow{-2^1} 0100$  in  $LTQ_4$ .)

**Case 3.3:**  $p' \neq q$  and  $q' \neq p$ . Clearly,  $c_{p'} = d_{p'}$  and  $c_{q'} = d_{q'}$ . In this case, an argument similar to Case 3.1 shows that  $y_{p'}|P(\hat{y}, c) = c_{p'}$ . Also, an argument similar to Case 3.2 shows that  $y_p|Q(\hat{y}, c) = c_p$ . On the other hand, since  $x_p = c_p \neq d_p$ ,  $x_{p'} \neq c_{p'} = d_{p'}$  and  $d_0 = 0$ , we have  $p, p' \in H_q(x)$ . Let  $w (= w_{n-1}w_{n-2} \cdots w_0)$  and  $w'$  be vertices on  $Q$  such that  $w' = w + (-1)^{w_p} \times 2^p$ . Since  $Q(\hat{z}, w)$  has not dealt with the bit  $z_{p'}$  for every vertex  $z \in Q(\hat{z}, w)$ , we have  $z_{p'}|Q(\hat{z}, w) = x_{p'} \neq c_{p'}$ . Also, since  $Q(w', d)$  has dealt with the bit  $z_p$ , we have  $z_p|Q(w', d) = d_p \neq c_p$ . Thus,  $P(\hat{y}, c) \cap (Q(\hat{z}, w) \cup Q(w', d)) = \emptyset$  and  $P||Q$ . (For example, consider  $P = T_4[26, 4] : 11010 \xrightarrow{-2^3} 10010 \xrightarrow{+2^2} 10110 \xrightarrow{-2^1} 10100 \xrightarrow{-2^4} 00100$  and  $Q = T_2[26, 4] : 11010 \xrightarrow{-2^1} 11000 \xrightarrow{-2^4} 01000 \xrightarrow{-2^3} 00000 \xrightarrow{+2^2} 00100$  in  $LTQ_5$ .)  $\square$

**Lemma 3.** *If  $c_0 = x_0 = 0$  and  $d_0 = 1$ , then  $P||Q$ .*

**Proof.** Since  $p > q$ ,  $c_0 = x_0 = 0$  and  $d_0 = 1$ , it implies  $r_0 = 0$  and  $p > q = q' = 0$ , where  $q' = \text{NEXT}(q, x)$ . Moreover, since  $x_0 \neq d_0$ , it follows that  $0 \in I_0(x) (= H_0(x))$ . Since  $x_0 = c_0$ ,  $P$  never changes the bit  $y_0$  in the path, and thus  $y_0|P(\hat{y}, c) = c_0 = 0$ . On the other hand, by Line 7 of the algorithm, we have  $\hat{z} = x + (-1)^{x_0} \times 2^0 = x + 1$ . Thus,  $\hat{z}_0 = 1$ . Moreover, since it remains unchanged the bit  $z_0$  for every vertex  $z \in Q(\hat{z}, d)$ , we have  $z_0|Q(\hat{z}, d) = 1$ . Thus,  $P||Q$ . (For exam-

ple, consider  $P = T_3[10, 4] : 1010 \xrightarrow{+2^2} 1110 \xrightarrow{-2^1} 1100 \xrightarrow{-2^3} 0100$  and  $Q = T_0[10, 4] : 1010 \xrightarrow{+2^0} 1011 \xrightarrow{-2^3+2^2} 0111 \xrightarrow{-2^1} 0101 \xrightarrow{-2^0} 0100$  in  $LTQ_4$ .)  $\square$

**Lemma 4.** *If  $c_0 = d_0 = 0$  and  $x_0 = 1$ , then  $P||Q$ .*

**Proof.** Since  $p > q$  and  $c_0 = d_0 = 0$ , it implies  $r_0 = 0$  and  $p > q \neq 0$ . Moreover, since  $c_0 = d_0 = 0$ , it follows that  $H_p(x) = I_p(x)$  and  $H_q(x) = I_q(x)$ . In addition, we have  $c_p \neq d_p$ ,  $c_q \neq d_q$  and  $c_i = d_i$  for  $i \in \mathbb{Z}_n \setminus \{p, q\}$ . Let  $p' = \text{NEXT}(p, x)$  and  $q' = \text{NEXT}(q, x)$ . We consider the following three scenarios.

**Case 1:**  $x_p \neq c_p$  (i.e.,  $p \in H_p(x)$ ). In this case,  $p = p' \geq 2$ . Since  $x_0 = 1$ , by Line 5 of the algorithm, we have  $\hat{y} = x + (-1)^{x_p} \times 2^p + (-1)^{x_{p-1}} \times 2^{p-1}$ . Thus,  $\hat{y}_p = c_p$ . Moreover, since  $T_p$  takes  $(-1)^{c_p} \times 2^p$  as the last link to connect the root, it implies  $y_p|P(\hat{y}, c) = c_p$ . On the other hand, since  $x_p \neq c_p$  and  $c_p \neq d_p$ , we have  $x_p = d_p$ . Thus,  $Q$  never changes the bit  $z_p$  in the path and  $z_p|Q(\hat{z}, d) = d_p \neq c_p$ . As a result,  $P||Q$ . (For example, consider  $P = T_3[1, 4] : 0001 \xrightarrow{+2^3+2^2} 1101 \xrightarrow{-2^0} 1100 \xrightarrow{-2^3} 0100$  and  $Q = T_1[1, 4] : 0001 \xrightarrow{+2^1} 0011 \xrightarrow{-2^0} 0010 \xrightarrow{+2^2} 0110 \xrightarrow{-2^1} 0100$  in  $LTQ_4$ .)

**Case 2:**  $x_p = c_p$  and  $x_q \neq d_q$  (i.e.,  $p \notin H_p(x)$  and  $q \in H_q(x)$ ). In this case,  $p > p'$  and  $q = q'$ . Moreover, we have  $x_{p'} \neq c_{p'}$ . Since  $x_q \neq d_q$  and  $c_q \neq d_q$ , it implies  $x_q = c_q$ , and thus  $p' \neq q$  and  $c_{p'} = d_{p'}$ . There are two subcases as follows.

**Case 2.1:**  $p' > q$ . In this case, we have  $p' \geq 2$ . Since  $x_0 = 1$ , by Line 5 of the algorithm, we have  $\hat{y} = x + (-1)^{x_{p'}} \times 2^{p'} + (-1)^{x_{p'-1}} \times 2^{p'-1}$ . Thus,  $\hat{y}_{p'} = c_{p'}$ . Moreover, since  $P$  never changes the bit  $y_{p'}$  in the succedent path again, it follows that  $y_{p'}|P(\hat{y}, c) = c_{p'}$ . Also, since  $T_p$  takes  $(-1)^{c_p} \times 2^p$  as the last link to connect the root, it implies  $y_p|P(\hat{y}, c) = c_p$ . On the other hand, let  $w (= w_{n-1}w_{n-2} \cdots w_0)$  and  $w'$  be vertices on  $Q$  such that  $w' = w + (-1)^{w_p} \times 2^p$ . Since  $Q(\hat{z}, w)$  has not dealt with the bit  $z_{p'}$  for every vertex  $z \in Q(\hat{z}, w)$ , we have  $z_{p'}|Q(\hat{z}, w) = x_{p'} \neq c_{p'}$ . Also, since  $Q(w', d)$  has dealt with the bit  $z_p$ , we have  $z_p|Q(w', d) = d_p \neq c_p$ . Thus,  $P(\hat{y}, c) \cap (Q(\hat{z}, w) \cup Q(w', d)) = \emptyset$  and  $P||Q$ . (For example, consider  $P = T_3[9, 4] : 1001 \xrightarrow{+2^2+2^1} 1111 \xrightarrow{-2^1} 1101 \xrightarrow{-2^0} 1100 \xrightarrow{-2^3} 0100$  and  $Q = T_1[9, 4] : 1001 \xrightarrow{+2^1} 1011 \xrightarrow{-2^0} 1010 \xrightarrow{-2^3} 0010 \xrightarrow{+2^2} 0110 \xrightarrow{-2^1} 0100$  in  $LTQ_4$ .)

**Case 2.2:**  $q > p'$ . Since  $x_q = c_q$  and  $p > q = q' > p'$ , the path  $P$  never changes the bit  $y_q$ . Thus,  $y_q|P(\hat{y}, c) = x_q$ . On the other hand, since  $x_0 = 1$ , by Line 5 of the algorithm, we have  $\hat{z} = x + (-1)^{x_q} \times 2^q + (-1)^{x_{q-1}} \times 2^{q-1}$ . Thus,  $\hat{z}_q = d_q$ . Moreover,  $T_q$  takes  $(-1)^{d_q} \times 2^q$  as the last link to

connect the root, it follows that  $z_q|Q(\hat{z}, d) = d_q \neq x_q$ . As a result,  $P||Q$ . (For example, consider  $P = T_3[15, 4] : 1111 \xrightarrow{-2^1} 1101 \xrightarrow{-2^0} 1100 \xrightarrow{-2^3} 0100$  and  $Q = T_2[15, 4] : 1111 \xrightarrow{-2^3-2^2} 1001 \xrightarrow{-2^0} 1000 \xrightarrow{-2^3} 0000 \xrightarrow{+2^2} 0100$  in  $LTQ_4$ .)

**Case 3:**  $x_p = c_p$  and  $x_q = d_q$  (i.e.,  $p \notin H_p(x)$  and  $q \notin H_q(x)$ ). Since  $x_0 \neq d_0$ , it follows that  $p > q > q' \geq 0$ , and thus  $q' \neq p$ . Moreover, we have  $x_{p'} \neq c_{p'}$  and  $x_{q'} \neq d_{q'}$ . There are two subcases as follows.

**Case 3.1:**  $p' = q$ . By Line 5 or Line 7 of the algorithm,  $P$  first changes the bit  $x_{p'}$ . Thus,  $\hat{y}_{p'} = c_{p'}$ . Moreover, since  $P$  never changes the bit  $y_{p'}$  in the succedent path again, it follows that  $y_{p'}|P(\hat{y}, c) = c_{p'} = c_q$ . On the other hand, since  $x_q = d_q$  and  $T_q$  takes  $(-1)^{d_q} \times 2^q$  as the last link to connect the root, it follows that  $z_q|Q(\hat{z}, d) = d_q \neq c_q$ . As a result,  $P||Q$ . (For example, consider  $P = T_3[9, 4] : 1001 \xrightarrow{+2^2+2^1} 1111 \xrightarrow{-2^1} 1101 \xrightarrow{-2^0} 1100 \xrightarrow{-2^3} 0100$  and  $Q = T_2[9, 4] : 1001 \xrightarrow{-2^0} 1000 \xrightarrow{-2^3} 0000 \xrightarrow{+2^2} 0100$  in  $LTQ_4$ .)

**Case 3.2:**  $p' \neq q$ . In this case, the proof is similar to Case 2.1. That is, we can show that  $y_{p'}|P(\hat{y}, c) = c_{p'}$  and  $y_p|P(\hat{y}, c) = c_p$ . On the other hand,  $z_{p'}|Q(\hat{z}, w) = x_{p'} \neq c_{p'}$  and  $z_p|Q(w', d) = d_p \neq c_p$ , where  $w (= w_{n-1}w_{n-2} \cdots w_0)$  and  $w' = w + (-1)^{w_p} \times 2^p$  are two adjacent vertices on  $Q$ . (For example, consider  $P = T_3[11, 4] : 1011 \xrightarrow{+2^2-2^1} 1101 \xrightarrow{-2^0} 1100 \xrightarrow{-2^3} 0100$  and  $Q = T_1[11, 4] : 1011 \xrightarrow{-2^0} 1010 \xrightarrow{-2^3} 0010 \xrightarrow{+2^2} 0110 \xrightarrow{-2^1} 0100$  in  $LTQ_4$ .)  $\square$

**Lemma 5.** *If  $c_0 = 0$  and  $d_0 = x_0 = 1$ , then  $P||Q$ .*

**Proof.** Since  $p > q$  and  $c_0 = 0$ , we have  $r_0 = 0$ . Also, since  $r_0 \neq d_0$  and  $d_0 = x_0$ , it follows that  $q = 0$  and  $q' \neq q$ . Moreover,  $c_0 = 0$  and  $q = 0$  imply  $H_p(x) = I_p(x)$  and  $H_0(x) = I_0(x)$ . In addition, we have  $c_p \neq d_p$ ,  $c_0 \neq d_0$  and  $c_i = d_i$  for  $i \in \mathbb{Z}_n \setminus \{p, 0\}$ . Let  $p' = \text{NEXT}(p, x)$  and  $q' = \text{NEXT}(q, x)$ . We consider the following two scenarios.

**Case 1:**  $x_p \neq c_p$  (i.e.,  $p \in H_p(x)$ ). In this case,  $p = p'$ . Since  $c_p \neq d_p$  and  $x_p \neq c_p$ , it implies  $x_p = d_p$ . Since  $x_{q'} \neq d_{q'}$ , we have  $q' \neq p$ . There are two subcases as follows.

**Case 1.1:**  $p > q'$ . In this case, we have  $p = p' > q' > q = 0$ . Since  $p \geq 2$  and  $x_0 = 1$ , by Line 5 of the algorithm, we have  $\hat{y} = x + (-1)^{x_p} \times 2^p + (-1)^{x_{p-1}} \times 2^{p-1}$ . Thus,  $\hat{y}_p = c_p$ . Moreover, since  $T_p$  takes  $(-1)^{c_p} \times 2^p$  as the last link to connect the root, it follows that  $y_p|P(\hat{y}, c) = c_p$ . On the other hand, since  $x_p = d_p$  and  $Q$  never changes the bit  $z_p$  in the path, we have  $z_p|Q(\hat{z}, d) = d_p \neq c_p$ . This shows that  $P||Q$ . (For example, consider  $P = T_3[1, 4] : 0001 \xrightarrow{+2^3+2^2} 1101 \xrightarrow{-2^0} 1100 \xrightarrow{-2^3} 0100$  and

$Q = T_0[1, 4] : 0001 \xrightarrow{+2^2+2^1} 0111 \xrightarrow{-2^1} 0101 \xrightarrow{-2^0} 0100$  in  $LTQ_4$ .)

**Case 1.2:**  $q' > p$ . In this case, we have  $q' > p = p' > q = 0$ . Clearly,  $P$  first changes the bit  $x_p$  in  $x$  and takes  $(-1)^{c_p} \times 2^p$  as the last link to connect the root of  $T_p$ . Let  $w (= w_{n-1}w_{n-2} \cdots w_0)$  and  $w'$  be vertices on  $P$  such that  $w' = w + (-1)^{w_q} \times 2^q = w + (-1)^{w_0}$ . Since  $P(\hat{y}, w)$  has not dealt with the bit  $y_{q'}$  for every vertex  $y \in P(\hat{y}, w)$ , we have  $y_{q'}|P(\hat{y}, w) = x_{q'} \neq d_{q'}$ . Also, since  $P(w', c)$  has dealt with the bit  $y_q (= y_0)$ , we have  $y_0|P(w', c) = c_0 = 0$ . On the other hand, since  $q' \geq 2$  and  $x_0 = 1$ , by Line 5 of the algorithm, we have  $\hat{z} = x + (-1)^{x_{q'}} \times 2^{q'} + (-1)^{x_{q'-1}} \times 2^{q'-1}$ . Thus,  $\hat{z}_{q'} = d_{q'}$ . Moreover, since  $Q$  never changes the bit  $z_{q'}$  in the succedent path again, it follows that  $z_{q'}|P(\hat{z}, d) = d_{q'}$ . Also, since  $x_0 = d_0 = 1$  and  $Q$  takes  $(-1)^{d_q} \times 2^q (= -1)$  as the last link to connect the root of  $T_0$ , it follows that  $z_0|Q(\hat{z}, d) = d_0 = 1$ . Thus,  $(P(\hat{y}, w) \cup P(w', c)) \cap Q(\hat{z}, d) = \emptyset$  and  $P||Q$ . (For example, consider  $P = T_2[15, 4] : 1111 \xrightarrow{-2^2-2^1} 1001 \xrightarrow{-2^0} 1000 \xrightarrow{-2^3} 0000 \xrightarrow{+2^2} 0100$  and  $Q = T_0[15, 4] : 1111 \xrightarrow{-2^3-2^2} 0011 \xrightarrow{+2^2-2^1} 0101 \xrightarrow{-2^0} 0100$  in  $LTQ_4$ .)

**Case 2:**  $x_p = c_p$  (i.e.,  $p \notin H_p(x)$ ). In this case,  $p \neq p'$ . Clearly,  $x_{p'} \neq c_{p'}$ . There are three subcases as follows.

**Case 2.1:**  $p' = q$ . In this case, we have  $p > p' = q = 0$ . By Line 7 of the algorithm, we have  $\hat{y} = x + (-1)^{x_{p'}} \times 2^{p'} = x - 1$ . Thus,  $\hat{y}_0 = 0$ . Moreover, since  $P$  never changes the bit  $y_0$  in the succedent path again, it follows that  $y_0|P(\hat{y}, c) = 0$ . On the other hand, since  $x_0 = 1$  and  $T_q$  takes  $(-1)^{d_q} \times 2^q (= -1)$  as the last link to connect the root, it follows that  $z_0|Q(\hat{z}, d) = 1$ . This shows that  $P||Q$ . (For example, consider  $P = T_1[15, 4] : 1111 \xrightarrow{-2^0} 1110 \xrightarrow{-2^3} 0110 \xrightarrow{-2^1} 0100$  and  $Q = T_0[15, 4] : 1111 \xrightarrow{-2^3-2^2} 0011 \xrightarrow{+2^2-2^1} 0101 \xrightarrow{-2^0} 0100$  in  $LTQ_4$ .)

**Case 2.2:**  $q' = p$ . In this case, we have  $q' = p > q = 0$ . Since  $x_p = c_p$  and  $T_p$  takes  $(-1)^{c_p} \times 2^p$  as the last link to connect the root, it follows that  $y_p|P(\hat{y}, c) = c_p$ . On the other hand, since  $Q$  first changes the bit  $x_{q'} (= x_p)$  in  $x$  and never changes the bit  $z_p$  in the succedent path again, it follows that  $z_p|Q(\hat{z}, d) = d_p \neq c_p$ . This shows that  $P||Q$ . (For example, consider  $P = T_3[11, 4] : 1011 \xrightarrow{+2^2-2^1} 1101 \xrightarrow{-2^0} 1100 \xrightarrow{-2^3} 0100$  and  $Q = T_0[11, 4] : 1011 \xrightarrow{-2^3+2^2} 0111 \xrightarrow{-2^1} 0101 \xrightarrow{-2^0} 0100$  in  $LTQ_4$ .)

**Case 2.3:**  $p' \neq q$  and  $q' \neq p$ . In this case, we have  $q' > p > p' > q = 0$ . Since  $P$  first changes the bit  $x_{p'}$  in  $x$ , we have  $\hat{y}_{p'} = c_{p'}$ . Moreover, since  $P$  never changes the bit  $y_{p'}$  in the succedent path again, it follows that  $y_{p'}|P(\hat{y}, c) = c_{p'}$ . Also, since  $x_p = c_p$  and  $P$  takes  $(-1)^{c_p} \times 2^p$  as the last link

to connect the root of  $T_p$ , we have  $y_p|P(\hat{y}, c) = c_p$ . On the other hand, let  $w (= w_{n-1}w_{n-2} \cdots w_0)$  and  $w'$  be vertices on  $Q$  such that  $w' = w + (-1)^{w_p} \times 2^p$ . Since  $Q(\hat{z}, w)$  has not dealt with the bit  $z_{p'}$  for every vertex  $z \in Q(\hat{z}, w)$ , we have  $z_{p'}|Q(\hat{z}, w) = x_{p'} \neq c_{p'}$ . Also, since  $Q(w', d)$  has dealt with the bit  $z_p$ , we have  $z_p|Q(w', d) = d_p \neq c_p$ . This shows that  $P \parallel Q$ . (For example, consider  $P = T_2[11, 4] : 1011 \xrightarrow{-2^1} 1001 \xrightarrow{-2^0} 1000 \xrightarrow{-2^3} 0000 \xrightarrow{+2^2} 0100$  and  $Q = T_0[11, 4] : 1011 \xrightarrow{-2^3+2^2} 0111 \xrightarrow{-2^1} 0101 \xrightarrow{-2^0} 0100$  in  $LTQ_4$ .)  $\square$

From the above lemmas, we conclude that ISTs constructed in this paper are independent. According to Theorem 1 and the result of independency, we obtain the following main theorem.

**Theorem 6.** *Let  $N = 2^n$ . For  $LTQ_n$  and an arbitrary vertex  $r \in V(LTQ_n)$ , Algorithm CONSTRUCTING-ISTs can correctly construct  $n$  ISTs rooted at  $r$  in  $\mathcal{O}(N \log N)$  time. In particular, the algorithm can be parallelized on  $LTQ_n$  by using  $N$  processors to run in  $\mathcal{O}(\log N)$  time.*

## 4 Concluding remarks

This paper provides a parallel construction of ISTs rooted at an arbitrary vertex of locally twisted cubes. Indeed, all ISTs constructed in here are isomorphic to those in [13, 24], which have height  $n + 1$ . As we have mentioned earlier, many algorithms have been proposed for constructing ISTs on some interconnection networks. However, some of these networks are not vertex-transitive, and thus the desired ISTs are in need of an arbitrary vertex as the root [4–7, 24, 34, 35]. Although most of these algorithms can simultaneously construct ISTs in parallel, the construction of each spanning tree relies on a recursive expansion and is hard to be fully parallelized. To the best of our knowledge, for class of networks without vertex-transitivity, the present paper is the first to propose the fully parallelized approach for constructing ISTs.

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