Constructing independent spanning trees for locally twisted cubes

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Abstract

The independent spanning trees (ISTs) problem attempts to construct a set of pairwise independent spanning trees and it has numerous applications in networks such as data broadcasting, scattering and reliable communication protocols. The well-known ISTs conjecture, Vertex/Edge Conjecture, states that any \( n \)-connected/\( n \)-edge-connected graph has \( n \) vertex-ISTs/edge-ISTs rooted at an arbitrary vertex \( r \). It has been shown that the Vertex Conjecture implies the Edge Conjecture. In this paper, we consider the independent spanning trees problem on the \( n \)-dimensional locally twisted cube \( LTQ_n \). The very recent algorithm proposed by Hsieh and Tu (2009) [12] is designed to construct \( n \) edge-ISTs rooted at vertex 0 for \( LTQ_n \). However, we find out that \( LTQ_n \) is not vertex-transitive when \( n \geq 4 \); therefore Hsieh and Tu’s result does not solve the Edge Conjecture for \( LTQ_n \). In this paper, we propose an algorithm for constructing \( n \) vertex-ISTs for \( LTQ_n \); consequently, we confirm the Vertex Conjecture (and hence also the Edge Conjecture) for \( LTQ_n \).

1. Introduction

Two spanning trees in a graph \( G \) are said to be vertex/edge independent if they are rooted at the same vertex \( r \) and for each vertex \( v \) of \( G \), \( v \neq r \), the paths from \( r \) to \( v \) in two trees are vertex/edge disjoint except the two end vertices. A set of spanning trees of \( G \) are said to be vertex/edge independent if they are pairwise vertex/edge independent. The vertex/edge independent spanning trees (ISTS) problem attempts to construct a set of pairwise vertex/edge independent spanning trees and it has applications such as data broadcasting, scattering and reliable communication protocols. For example, a rooted spanning tree in the underlying graph of a network can be viewed as a broadcasting scheme for data communication and fault-tolerance can be achieved by sending \( n \) copies of the message along the \( n \) independent spanning trees rooted at the source node [1]. For other applications, see [3] for the multi-node broadcasting problem, [21] for one-to-all broadcasting, and [2] for \( n \)-channel graphs, reliable broadcasting and secure message distribution.

The independent spanning trees problem has been widely studied in the last two decades. Two well-known conjectures on this problem are raised by Zehavi and Itai [27]: (refer to [4] or [23] for graph terminologies)

**Conjecture 1.1** (Vertex Conjecture). Any \( n \)-connected graph has \( n \) vertex-ISTS rooted at an arbitrary vertex \( r \).

**Conjecture 1.2** (Edge Conjecture). Any \( n \)-edge-connected graph has \( n \) edge-ISTS rooted at an arbitrary vertex \( r \).

Zehavi and Itai [27] also raised the question: It would be interesting to show that either the Vertex Conjecture implies the Edge Conjecture, or vice versa. Later, Khuller and Schieber [16] successfully proved that the Vertex Conjecture implies the Edge Conjecture, i.e., if any \( n \)-connected graph has \( n \) vertex-ISTS, then any \( n \)-edge-connected graph has \( n \) edge-ISTS. Khuller

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and Schieber’s proof also works for the directed graphs. For the directed case, Edmonds [7] solved the Edge Conjecture. Khuller and Schieber [16] pointed out that the Vertex Conjecture for directed graphs is the strongest conjecture since it implies all the other conjectures.

The vertex and the edge conjectures have been confirmed only for \( n \leq 4 \). In particular, in [15], Itai and Rodeh proposed a linear-time algorithm for constructing two edge-ISTs for a 2-edge-connected graph; they also solved the Vertex Conjecture for \( n = 2 \). In [27], Zehavi and Itai solved the Vertex Conjecture for \( n = 3 \), but they did not propose an algorithm for constructing three vertex-ISTs. In [6], Cherian and Maheshwari proposed an \( O(|V(G)|^2) \)-time algorithm for constructing three vertex-ISTs in a 3-connected graph. In [5], Curran et al. proposed an \( O(|V(G)|^3) \)-time algorithm for constructing four vertex-ISTs in a 4-connected graph. When \( n \geq 5 \), both the vertex and the edge conjectures are still open. It has been proven that the Vertex/Edge Conjecture holds for several restricted classes of graphs or digraphs, such as planar graphs [9,10,17,18], maximal planar graphs [19], product graphs [20], chordal rings [14,24], de Bruijn and Kautz digraphs [8,11], and hypercubes [22,26]. Note that the development of algorithms for constructing vertex-ISTs tends toward pursuing two research goals: One is to design efficient construction schemes (for example, [14,17,19,24] proposed linear-time algorithms) and the other is to reduce the heights of vertex-ISTs (for example, [11,22,24] proposed the idea of height improvements).

The hypercube (\( Q_n \)) is one of the most popular interconnection network topologies due to its simple structure and ease of implementation. Several commercial machines with hypercube topology have been built and a huge amount of research work, both theoretical and practical, has been done on various aspects of the hypercube. However, it has been shown that the hypercube does not achieve the smallest possible diameter for its resources. Therefore, many variants of the hypercube have been proposed. The most well-known variants are locally twisted cubes (LTQ\(_n\)), twisted cubes (TQ\(_n\)), crossed cubes (CQ\(_n\)) and Möbius cubes (MQ\(_n\)). A concise comparison including the connectivity, edge-connectivity and diameters of \( Q_n \) and its variants is shown in Table 1. Clearly, one advantage of LTQ\(_n\) over \( Q_n \) is that the diameter of LTQ\(_n\) is only about half of that of \( Q_n \).

Before going further, we now briefly review results of the vertex-ISTs problem for \( Q_n \). It is well known that \( Q_n \) is \( n \)-connected. Since \( Q_n \) is a product graph, the algorithm proposed by Obokata et al. [20] can be used to construct \( n \) vertex-ISTs for \( Q_n \). As to the construction of the height-reduced vertex-ISTs on \( Q_n \), Tang et al. [22] modified the algorithm in [20] and proposed an \( O(n^2) \)-time algorithm for constructing an optimal set (in the sense of smallest average path lengths) of \( n \) vertex-ISTs for \( Q_n \). It was pointed out by Yang et al. [26] that the algorithms in [20,22] are designed by a recursive fashion and such a construction forbids the possibility that the algorithm could be parallelized; Yang et al. [26] therefore proposed a parallel construction for an optimal set of \( n \) vertex-ISTs for \( Q_n \).

The purpose of this paper is to confirm the Vertex Conjecture for the \( n \)-dimensional locally twisted cube LTQ\(_n\). The very recent algorithm proposed by Hsieh and Tu [12] is designed to construct \( n \) vertex-ISTs on LTQ\(_n\). As the construction of the height-reduced vertex-ISTs on LTQ\(_n\), it was pointed out that LTQ\(_n\) is not vertex-transitive whenever \( n \geq 4 \) (see Section 2). Therefore, Hsieh and Tu did not solve the Edge Conjecture for LTQ\(_n\). In this paper, we will propose an algorithm for constructing \( n \) vertex-ISTs rooted at an arbitrary vertex of LTQ\(_n\). Therefore, we will confirm the Vertex Conjecture for LTQ\(_n\). Since vertex-ISTs are edge-ISTs, we also confirm the Edge Conjecture for LTQ\(_n\).

In the remaining discussion, we will simply use ISTs to denote vertex-ISTs unless otherwise specified. This paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we give definitions and notations used in the paper. In Section 3, we present an algorithm to construct \( n \) ISTs rooted at an arbitrary vertex of LTQ\(_n\). In Section 4, we prove the correctness of our algorithm. Concluding remarks are given in the last section.

### Table 1
The connectivity, edge-connectivity and diameters of \( Q_n \) and its variants.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topology</th>
<th>( \kappa(G) )</th>
<th>( \lambda(G) )</th>
<th>Diameter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( Q_n )</td>
<td>( n )</td>
<td>( n )</td>
<td>( n )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LTQ(_n)</td>
<td>( n )</td>
<td>( n )</td>
<td>( [(n + 1)/2] ) if ( n &lt; 5 ) ( [(n + 3)/2] ) if ( n \geq 5 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TQ(_n)</td>
<td>( n )</td>
<td>( n )</td>
<td>( [(n + 1)/2] )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MQ(_n)</td>
<td>( n )</td>
<td>( n )</td>
<td>( [(n + 2)/2] ) in 0-MQ(_n) for ( n \geq 4 ) ( [(n + 1)/2] ) in 1-MQ(_n) for ( n \geq 1 )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Preliminaries

All graphs in this paper are simple undirected graphs. Let \( G \) be a graph with vertex set \( V(G) \) and the edge set \( E(G) \). Let \( x, y \in V(G) \). A path from \( x \) to \( y \) is denoted as \( x, y \)-path. The distance between two vertices \( x \) and \( y \), denoted by \( d(x, y) \), is the length of a shortest \( x, y \)-path. Two \( x, y \)-paths \( P \) and \( Q \) are edge-disjoint if \( E(P) \cap E(Q) = \emptyset \). Two \( x, y \)-paths \( P \) and \( Q \) are internally edge-disjoint if \( V(P) \cap V(Q) = \{x, y\} \). A subgraph \( T \) of \( G \) is a spanning tree if \( T \) is a tree and \( V(T) = V(G) \). Two spanning trees \( T \) and \( T’ \) of \( G \) are vertex-independent/edge-independent if \( T \) and \( T’ \) are rooted at the same vertex, say \( r \), and
for each \( v \in V(G) \), \( v \neq r \), the \( r, v \)-path in \( T \) and the \( r, v \)-path in \( T' \) are (internally) vertex-disjoint/edge-disjoint. A set of spanning trees of \( G \) are vertex-independent/edge-independent if they are pairwise vertex-independent/edge-independent.

2.1. The locally twisted cube

The \( n \)-dimensional locally twisted cube \( LTQ_n \) \((n \geq 2)\), proposed first by Yang et al. [25], has \( 2^n \) vertices. Each vertex is an \( n \)-string on \( \{0, 1\} \), i.e., a binary string of length \( n \). The \( LTQ_n \) is defined recursively as follows.

**Definition 1** ([25]).

1. \( LTQ_2 \) is the graph consisting of four vertices labeled with 00, 01, 10, and 11, respectively, and connected by the four edges \((00, 01), (00, 10), (01, 11), (10, 11)\).
2. \( LTQ_n \) \((n \geq 3)\) is built from two disjoint copies of \( LTQ_{n-1}'s \) as follows: Let \( 0LTQ_{n-1} \) (respectively, \( 1LTQ_{n-1} \)) denote the graph obtained by prefixing the label of each vertex in one copy of \( LTQ_{n-1} \) with 0 (respectively, 1). Connect each vertex \( 0x_{n-2}x_{n-3} \cdots x_0 \) of \( 0LTQ_{n-1} \) to the vertex \( 1(x_{n-2} \oplus x_0)x_{n-3} \cdots x_0 \) of \( 1LTQ_{n-1} \) with an edge, where “\( \oplus \)” represents the XOR operation, or equivalently, the modulo 2 addition.

**Fig. 1.** (a) \( LTQ_3 \). (b) A symmetric drawing of \( LTQ_3 \).

**Fig. 2.** \( LTQ_4 \) and its perfect matchings \( \{M_0, M_1, M_2, M_3\} \).

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**Definition 2** ([25]).

Let \( x = x_{n-1}x_{n-2} \cdots x_0 \) and \( y = y_{n-1}y_{n-2} \cdots y_0 \) be two vertices of \( LTQ_n \) \((n \geq 2)\). Then vertices \( x \) and \( y \) are adjacent if and only if one of the following conditions is satisfied.

1. There is an integer \( 2 \leq k \leq n - 1 \) such that
   (a) \( x_k = \bar{y}_k \) (\( \bar{y}_k \) is the complement of \( y_k \) in \( \{0, 1\} \))
   (b) \( x_{k-1} = y_{k-1} \oplus x_0 \)
   (c) all the remaining bits of \( x \) and \( y \) are identical.
2. There is an integer \( 0 \leq k \leq 1 \) such that \( x \) and \( y \) only differ in the \( k \)th bit.

From **Definition 2**, \( LTQ_n \) is obviously an \( n \)-regular graph, and the labels of any two adjacent vertices of \( LTQ_n \) differ in at most two consecutive bits. Note that in the remaining part of this paper, the label of a vertex in \( LTQ_n \) is presented in binary representation and decimal representation interchangeably when there is no ambiguity.
2.2. The neighbor information and the perfect matchings of the locally twisted cube

From **Definition 2**, the \( n \) neighbors of an arbitrary vertex \( x = x_{n-1}x_{n-2} \ldots x_0 \) of \( \text{LTQ}_n \) is given by

\[
\begin{align*}
    f_0(x) &= x_{n-1}x_{n-2}x_{n-3} \ldots x_2x_1x_0, \\
    f_1(x) &= x_{n-1}x_{n-2}x_{n-3} \ldots x_2\bar{x}_1x_0, \\
    f_2(x) &= x_{n-1}x_{n-2}x_{n-3} \ldots \bar{x}_2(x_1 \oplus x_0)x_0, \\
    &\vdots \\
    f_{n-2}(x) &= x_{n-1}\bar{x}_{n-2}(x_{n-3} \oplus x_0)x_{n-4} \ldots x_1x_0, \\
    f_{n-1}(x) &= \bar{x}_{n-1}(x_{n-2} \oplus x_0)x_{n-3} \ldots x_2x_1x_0,
\end{align*}
\]  

where \( f_k(x), 0 \leq k \leq n - 1 \), is called the \( k \)-th dimensional neighbor of \( x \); see also **Lemma 4** in **[13]**. By (1), the \( n \) neighbors of vertices 0 and 1 can be determined as follows.

**Lemma 2.1.** The \( n \) neighbors of vertex 0 in \( \text{LTQ}_n \) is given by

\[
f_k(0) = 2^k,
\]

for \( k = 0, 1, \ldots, n - 1 \). The \( n \) neighbors of vertex 1 in \( \text{LTQ}_n \) is given by

\[
f_k(1) = \begin{cases} 
    0 & \text{if } k = 0, \\
    3 & \text{if } k = 1, \\
    2^k + 2^{k-1} + 1 & \text{if } 2 \leq k \leq n - 1.
\end{cases}
\]

Given a graph \( G = (V, E) \), a matching \( M \) of \( G \) is a set of pairwise non-adjacent edges of \( G \). A **perfect matching** is a matching that saturates all the vertices; in other words, every vertex in the graph is incident to exactly one edge in the matching. From Eq. (1), for all vertices \( x \) of \( \text{LTQ}_n \) and for all \( 0 \leq k \leq n - 1 \), we have

\[
f_k(f_k(x)) = x.
\]

Therefore, for a fixed \( k \), the set of edges connecting a vertex and its \( k \)-th dimensional neighbor forms a perfect matching of \( \text{LTQ}_n \). More precisely,

\[
M_k = \{(x, f_k(x) \mid x \in V(\text{LTQ}_n))\}
\]

is a perfect matching of \( \text{LTQ}_n \). See **Fig. 2** for an illustration.

2.3. The even–odd-vertex-transitivity of the locally twisted cube

A graph is vertex-transitive if for every pair of vertices \( u \) and \( v \), there is an automorphism that maps \( u \) to \( v \). Intuitively, a vertex-transitive network looks the same from every node. The vertex-transitive property is advantageous to the design and simulation of some algorithms. It is not difficult to see that \( \text{LTQ}_2 \) and \( \text{LTQ}_3 \) are vertex-transitive; see **Fig. 1**. However, in the following, we will show that \( \text{LTQ}_n \) is not vertex-transitive when \( n \geq 4 \).

**Theorem 2.2.** The locally twisted cube \( \text{LTQ}_n \) is not vertex-transitive for \( n \geq 4 \).

**Proof.** For \( n = 4 \), let \( N_k(r) \) denote the set \( N_k(r) = \{x \in V(\text{LTQ}_n) \mid d(x, r) = k\} \). Consider the set \( \Omega(r) = \{x \in N_2(r) \mid N_1(x) \cap N_1(r) = 1 \} \) and \( N_1(x) \cap N_3(r) = 1 \}. Then \( \Omega(0) = \{7\} \), but \( \Omega(1) = \{6, 12\}; \) see **Fig. 3** for an illustration. Therefore \( \text{LTQ}_4 \) is not vertex-transitive.

Now consider \( \text{LTQ}_n \) with \( n \geq 5 \). It is well-known that vertices 0 and \( 2^n - 2 \) are at the farthest distance of \( \text{LTQ}_n \) and \( d(2^n - 2, 0) = \left\lceil \frac{2^n - 3}{2} \right\rceil \). In the following, we prove that \( \text{LTQ}_n \) is not vertex-transitive by showing the following claim.
Claim 2.3. For an arbitrary vertex \( x \in V (LTQ_n) \), \( n \geq 5 \), the distance \( d(x, 1) \leq \left\lceil \frac{n+1}{2} \right\rceil \).

Proof of Claim 2.3. Before showing the claim, some notations are introduced first. Let \( x = x_{n-1}x_{n-2} \ldots x_0 \). Scanning the bits of \( x \) from \( x_{n-1} \) to \( x_1 \) (notice that we ignore the bit \( x_0 \)). Suppose there are a total of \( m \) bits equal to 1 and a total of \( k \) disjoint pairs of consecutive bits equal to “11”, we denoted it by “11”-bits. A bit \( x_i \), \( 1 \leq i \leq n-1 \), is said to be isolated if after removing the \( k \) disjoint pairs of “11”-bits of \( x \) we have \( x_i = 1 \). For example, consider \( x = 111011 \) in \( LTQ_6 \). Then \( m = 4 \), \( k = 1 \) and \( x_1 \), \( x_2 \) are isolated. Clearly, \( 0 \leq k \leq \left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil \) holds.

It should be noticed that if \( m < \left\lceil \frac{n+1}{2} \right\rceil \), then there exists a trivial path from \( x \) to 1: (i) if \( x_0 = 0 \), then corrects all \( x_i = 1 \) bits, \( 1 \leq i \leq n-1 \), to 0, and then corrects \( x_0 \) to 1; (ii) if \( x_0 = 1 \), then corrects \( x_0 \) to 0, then corrects all \( x_i = 1 \) bits, \( 1 \leq i \leq n-1 \), to 0, and then corrects \( x_0 \) to 1. Clearly, both paths have length at most \( m + 2 \leq \left\lceil \frac{n+1}{2} \right\rceil \). In the following, we assume \( m \geq \left\lceil \frac{n+1}{2} \right\rceil \).

Therefore,

\[
m - \left\lceil \frac{n-1}{2} \right\rceil \leq k \leq \left\lfloor \frac{m}{2} \right\rfloor
\]

holds. There are two cases.

Case 1: \( x_0 = 0 \). A path from \( x \) to 1 can be found as follows: Step 1: Remove all the isolated bits of \( x \). Step 2: Correct \( x_0 \) to 1. Step 3: Match all “11”-bits. Clearly, Steps 1, 2 and 3 take \( m - 2k \), 1 and \( k \) steps, respectively. The total number of steps is

\[
m - k + 1 \leq m - \left( m - \left\lceil \frac{n-1}{2} \right\rceil \right) + 1 = \left\lceil \frac{n+1}{2} \right\rceil
\]

For example, consider \( x = 111011010 \) in \( LTQ_n \). We have \( m = 5 \), \( k = 1 \) and \( x_1 \), \( x_3 \), \( x_5 \) are isolated bits. A path from \( x \) to 1 is built as follows:

\[
11101010 \xrightarrow{\text{Step 1}} 11001010 \xrightarrow{\text{Step 1}} 11000100 \xrightarrow{\text{Step 1}} 11000000 \xrightarrow{\text{Step 2}} 11000001 \xrightarrow{\text{Step 3}} 00000001.
\]

Case 2: \( x_0 = 1 \). We further divide this case into two subcases:

Subcase 2.1: \( m + 1 - \left\lceil \frac{n-1}{2} \right\rceil \leq k \leq \left\lfloor \frac{m}{2} \right\rfloor \). Then a path from \( x \) to 1 can be found as follows: Step 1: Correct \( x_0 \) to 0. Step 2: Remove all the isolated bits of \( x \). Step 3: Correct \( x_0 \) to 1. Step 4: Match all “11”-bits. Clearly, Steps 1, 2, 3 and 4 take \( m - 2k \), 1 and \( k \) steps, respectively. Thus the total number of steps is

\[
m - k + 2 \leq \left\lceil \frac{n+1}{2} \right\rceil
\]

For example, consider \( x = 110110111 \) in \( LTQ_n \). We have \( m = 5 \), \( k = 2 \) and \( x_1 \) is a isolated bit. A path from \( x \) to 1 is built as follows:

\[
11011011 \xrightarrow{\text{Step 1}} 11011010 \xrightarrow{\text{Step 2}} 11011000 \xrightarrow{\text{Step 3}} 11011001 \xrightarrow{\text{Step 4}} 00011001 \xrightarrow{\text{Step 4}} 00000001.
\]

Subcase 2.2: \( k = m - \left\lceil \frac{n+1}{2} \right\rceil \). In this case, all bits \( x_{n-2}, x_{n-3}, \ldots, x_1 \) must equal to 1 if \( n \) is even; either all bits \( x_{n-2}, x_{n-3}, \ldots, x_1 \) or all bits \( x_{n-1}, x_{n-2}, \ldots, x_2 \) must equal to 1 if \( n \) is odd. Thus a path from \( x \) to 1 can be found by bitwise correcting the bits to 0 (by scanning the bits from \( x_{n-1} \) to \( x_1 \)). Since it takes one step to correct an isolated bit and one step to correct a “11”-bit, the total step is

\[
(m - 2k) + k = \left\lceil \frac{n-1}{2} \right\rceil
\]

For example, consider \( x = 101111011 \) in \( LTQ_n \). We have \( m = 5 \), \( k = 1 \). A path from \( x \) to 1 is built as follows:

\[
011111011 \xrightarrow{\text{isolated “11”-bits}} 00111011 \xrightarrow{\text{isolated “11”-bits}} 00000011 \xrightarrow{\text{isolated “11”-bits}} 00000001.
\]

From the above discussion, we have \( d(x, 1) \leq \left\lceil \frac{n+1}{2} \right\rceil \). As a result, \( LTQ_n \) is not vertex-transitive for \( n \geq 4 \).

Although \( LTQ_n \) fails to be vertex-transitive for \( n \geq 4 \), it does satisfy the even–odd-vertex-transitive property: for every pair of vertices \( x = x_{n-1}x_{n-2} \ldots x_0, y = y_{n-1}y_{n-2} \ldots y_0 \) with the same parity, i.e., \( x_0 = y_0 \), there is an automorphism \( \psi \) that maps \( x \) to \( y \). In other words, in \( LTQ_n \), all even-numbered vertices are symmetric and all odd-numbered vertices are symmetric. By using this property, we may pay our attention of constructing ISTs to use vertex 0 and vertex 1 as the common root without loss of generality.

Theorem 2.4. The locally twisted cube \( LTQ_n \) satisfies the even–odd-vertex-transitive property.

Proof. It suffices to prove that there exists an automorphism which maps \( v \neq 0 \) to 0 (resp., \( v \neq 1 \) to 1), whenever \( v \) is an even-numbered (resp., odd-numbered) vertex. For two \( n \)-bits binary strings \( x \) and \( y \), let \( x \oplus y \) denote the bitwise XOR (modulo 2) of \( x \) and \( y \). Let \( v = v_{n-1}v_{n-2} \ldots v_0 \in V(LTQ_n) \).

Suppose \( v \) is an even-numbered vertex. For \( x = x_{n-1}x_{n-2} \ldots x_0 \in V(LTQ_n) \), define a function \( \psi_0 \) as follows:

\[
\psi_0(x) = v \oplus x.
\]

It is not difficult to see that \( \psi_0 \) is a bijection from \( V(LTQ_n) \) to \( V(LTQ_n) \). Now we verify that \( \psi_0 \) preserves the adjacency. Consider any edge \( (x, f(x)) \in E(LTQ_n) \). Since \( v_0 = 0 \), we have

\[
\psi_0(x) = (v_{n-1} \oplus x_{n-1}) (v_{n-2} \oplus x_{n-2}) \ldots (v_{k+1} \oplus x_{k+1}) (v_k \oplus x_k) (v_{k-1} \oplus x_{k-1}) \ldots (v_1 \oplus x_1) x_0.
\]
Also,
\[
\psi_0(f_k(x)) = \begin{cases} 
(v_{n-1} \oplus x_{n-1}) (v_{n-2} \oplus x_{n-2}) \ldots (v_1 \oplus x_1) x_0 & \text{if } k = 0, \\
(v_{n-1} \oplus x_{n-1}) (v_{n-2} \oplus x_{n-2}) \ldots (v_2 \oplus x_2) (v_1 \oplus x_1) x_0 & \text{if } k = 1,
\end{cases}
\]
and for \(2 \leq k \leq n - 1,
\[
\psi_0(f_k(x)) = (v_{k-1} \oplus x_{k-1}) (v_{k-2} \oplus x_{k-2}) \ldots (v_{k+1} \oplus x_{k+1}) (v_k \oplus x_k) (v_{k-1} \oplus x_{k-1} \oplus x_0) (v_{k-2} \oplus x_{k-2}) \ldots (v_1 \oplus x_1) x_0.
\]
Since \(v_k \oplus x_k = v_k \oplus x_k\) no matter \(v_k = x_k\) or \(v_k \neq x_k\), we have
\[
\psi_0(f_k(x)) = f_k(\psi_0(x))
\]
and hence \((\psi_0(x), \psi_0(f_k(x))) \in E(\text{LTQ}_n)\).

Similar arguments can be applied to the case of \(v\) being an odd-numbered vertex, except that the bijection function from \(V(\text{LTQ}_n)\) to \(V(\text{LTQ}_n)\) is replaced by
\[
\psi_1(x) = v \oplus x \oplus 1.
\]

3. The algorithm

We now present an algorithm, called \textsc{construct IST}, for constructing \(n\) ISTs \(T_0, T_1, \ldots, T_{n-1}\) rooted at an arbitrary vertex \(r\) for the locally twisted cube \(\text{LTQ}_n\) in Algorithm 1. For convenience, call the for-loop in lines 4–12 of this algorithm the “outer for-loop” and call the for-loop in lines 6–10 the “inner for-loop”. This algorithm constructs \(T_0, T_1, \ldots, T_{n-1}\) simultaneously and it works as follows. Since \(\text{LTQ}_n\) is \(n\)-regular, the \(n\) neighbors of the root \(r\) must be the unique child of the root \(r\) in \(T_0, T_1, \ldots, T_{n-1}\), respectively. In this algorithm, the unique child of the root \(r\) in \(T_i\) is set as \(f_i(r)\). Thus, initially \(V(T_0) = \{f_0(r)\}\). At the \(t\)th iteration of the outer for-loop, each vertex \(v\) in \(V(T_i)\) is connected to a new vertex by using the edges in \(\text{LTQ}_n\) by using the edges in perfect matching \(M_{[t+1]} \mod n\), and the edge \((v, u)\) is added to \(T_i\) (i.e., the parent of \(v\) is set as \(v \oplus u\) in \(T_i\)). After \(n\) iterations of the outer for-loop, \(T_i\) is constructed.

Example 1. We now demonstrate how Algorithm \textsc{construct IST} constructs \(T_2\) rooted at vertex 1 in \(\text{LTQ}_4\). In line 2 of the algorithm, the unique child of the root 1 is set as \(f_2(1) = 7\). Thus \(V(T_2) = \{7\}\). Now consider the outer for-loop. For \(t = 1\), each vertex in \(V(T_2)\) is connected to a new vertex by using the edges in \(M_4\); thus the edge \((7, 11)\) is added to \(T_2\); so \(S\) becomes \([11]\) and \(V(T_2)\) becomes \([7, 11]\). For \(t = 2\), each vertex in \(V(T_2)\) is connected to a new vertex by using the edges in \(M_4\); thus the edges \((7, 6)\) and \((11, 10)\) are added to \(T_2\); so \(S\) becomes \([6, 10]\) and \(V(T_2)\) becomes \([7, 11, 6, 10]\). For \(t = 3\), each vertex in \(V(T_2)\) is connected to a new vertex by using the edges in \(M_4\); thus the edges \((7, 5)\), \((11, 9)\), \((6, 4)\) and \((10, 8)\) are added to \(T_2\); so \(S\) becomes \([5, 9, 4, 8]\) and \(V(T_2)\) becomes \([7, 11, 6, 10, 5, 9, 4, 8]\). Finally, for \(t = 4\), each vertex in \(V(T_2)\) is connected to a new vertex by using the edges in \(M_4\); thus the edges \((7, 1)\), \((11, 13)\), \((6, 2)\), \((10, 14)\), \((5, 3)\), \((9, 15)\), \((4, 0)\) and \((8, 12)\) are added to \(T_2\); so \(S\) becomes \([1, 13, 2, 14, 3, 15, 0, 12]\) and \(V(T_2)\) becomes \([7, 11, 6, 10, 5, 9, 4, 8, 1, 13, 2, 14, 3, 15, 0, 12]\). See Fig. 4 for an illustration.

4. Correctness

The purpose of this section is to prove that \(T_0, T_1, \ldots, T_{n-1}\) generated by Algorithm \textsc{construct IST} are \(n\) ISTs rooted at an arbitrary vertex \(r\) for \(\text{LTQ}_n\). To this end, some notations are first introduced in Section 4.1. We show that \(T_0, T_1, \ldots, T_{n-1}\) are \(n\) spanning trees of \(\text{LTQ}_n\) in Section 4.2. The vertex-independency of \(T_0, T_1, \ldots, T_{n-1}\) is shown in Section 4.3.
4.1. The notations

Definition 3. For \( V' \subseteq V(LTQ_n) \), define \( f_i(V') \) to be
\[
f_i(V') = \{ f_i(v) \mid v \in V' \}.
\]

Definition 4. For a fixed integer \( i, 0 \leq i \leq n - 1 \), define \( O_i^0 \) to be the ordered set
\[
O_i^0 = \{ i, (i - 1) \bmod n, (i - 2) \bmod n, \ldots, (i - n + 1) \bmod n \}.
\]
Notice that \( O_i^0 \) can be obtained by arranging \( 0, 1, \ldots, n - 1 \) around a circle, starting from the number \( i \) and picking up these \( n \) numbers counterclockwise. For example, \( O_0^0 = \{0, 3, 2, 1\} \), \( O_1^0 = \{1, 0, 3, 2\} \) and \( O_2^0 = \{3, 2, 1, 0\} \).

Definition 5. The Hamming distance between two vertices \( x, y \in V(LTQ_n) \), denoted by \( Ham(x, y) \), is the number of positions at which the corresponding symbols are different. More precisely, \( Ham(x, y) = |\{ i \mid x_i \neq y_i, 0 \leq i \leq n - 1 \}| \). For two fixed vertices \( x, y \in V(LTQ_n) \), suppose \( Ham(x, y) = m \). Define \( H_i(x, y) \) to be an ordered set consisting of the indices of the \( m \) different bits, listed according to the order given by \( O_i^0 \).

Definition 6. For two fixed vertices \( x, y \in V(LTQ_n) \), suppose \( H_i(x, y) = \{c_{m-1}, c_{m-2}, \ldots, c_0\} \) with \( m \geq 2 \) and \( H_i(x, y) \neq O_i^0 \). We say that \( j \) is between \( c_u \) and \( c_{u-1} \) for some \( 0 \leq u \leq m - 1 \) with respect to \( O_i^0 \) if \( j \not\in H_i(x, y) \) and when \( 0, 1, \ldots, n - 1 \) are arranged on a circle, the location of \( j \) on the circle is between \( c_u \) and \( c_{u-1} \).

For example, consider \( LTQ_4 \). Suppose \( v = 12 \). Then \( H_0(v, 0) = \{3, 2\}, H_1(v, 3) = \{1, 0, 3, 2\}, H_2(v, 7) = \{1, 0, 3\} \) and \( H_3(v, 13) = \{0\} \). Since \( 1 \not\in H_0(v, 0) \), \( 1 \) is between \( c_u = 3 \) and \( c_{u-1} = 2 \); \( 0 \not\in H_0(v, 0) \), \( 0 \) is between \( c_u = 2 \) and \( c_{u-1} = 3 \).

Definition 7. For two vertices \( x, y \in V(LTQ_n) \), define \( \Pi_i(x, y) \) to be the ordered set consisting of all the indices of perfect matchings used in the \( x, y \)-path in \( T_i \), \( 0 \leq i \leq n - 1 \), listed according to the order from \( x \) to \( y \).

For example, consider \( T_2 \) rooted at vertex 1 of \( LTQ_4 \) in Fig. 4. Suppose \( v = 12 \). Then \( \Pi_2(v, 7) = \{2, 1, 0, 3\} \). Moreover, the path from \( v \) to \( 7 \) is
\[
1100 \xrightarrow{M_5} 1000 \xrightarrow{M_1} 1010 \xrightarrow{M_0} 1011 \xrightarrow{M_3} 0111.
\]

Definition 8. Define \( I(a, b) \), where \( a \geq b \), to be the sequence such that
\[
I(a, b) = \begin{cases} 
    a, a - 1, \ldots, b + 1 & \text{if } a > b, \\
    a & \text{if } a = b.
\end{cases}
\]
4.2. The spanning trees

Throughout this subsection, let $T_0, T_1, \ldots, T_{n-1}$ be the output of Algorithm Construct_\text{IST}. The purpose of this subsection is to prove that $T_0, T_1, \ldots, T_{n-1}$ are $n$ spanning trees rooted at $r$. By Theorem 2.4, we assume $r = 0$ and $r = 1$ as the common roots without loss of generality. To prove that $T_i, 0 \leq i \leq n - 1$, is a spanning tree rooted at $r$, we prove the following loop invariant:

**Loop invariant:** At the start of the $i$th iteration of the outer for-loop, $T_i$ is connected, $|V(T_i)| = 2^i - 1$ and $|E(T_i)| = |V(T_i)| - 1$.

The loop invariant is trivially true prior to the first loop iteration since in line 3, Algorithm Construct_\text{IST} sets $V(T_0) = \{f_0(r)\}$. Hence $T_0$ is connected, $|V(T_0)| = 2^0$ and $|E(T_0)| = |V(T_0)| - 1$. We now prove that if the loop invariant is true before the $i$th iteration of the outer for-loop, then it remains true before the next iteration. Algorithm Construct_\text{IST} first resets $S$ to be empty in line 5. For each vertex $v$ in $V(T_i)$, Algorithm Construct_\text{IST} adds the edge $(v, u)$ to $T_i$ in line 8, where $u = f_{i+1}(v)$ or $n(v)$, by using the edges in $M_{i+1}$ and $n$, and adds $u$ to $S$ in line 9. Since each newly generated edge is incident to a vertex in $V(T_i)$, $T_i$ remains to be connected. Now we claim that

**Claim 4.1.** $V(T_i) \cap S = \emptyset$.

If Claim 4.1 is true, then at the end of the inner for-loop, the newly generated edges between $V(T_i)$ and $S$ clearly form a matching that saturates $V(T_i)$ and $S$. Consequently, after the $i$th iteration of the outer for-loop, $T_i$ is connected, $|V(T_i)| = 2^{i-1} + 2^{i-1} = 2^i$ and $|E(T_i)| = 2^i - 1 + 2^i - 1 = 1 = |V(T_i)| - 1$. When the outer for-loop terminates, $t = n + 1$. Therefore, $T_n$ is connected, $|V(T_n)| = 2^n$ and $|E(T_n)| = |V(T_n)| - 1$.

By the loop invariant, $T_n$ induces a tree before the $n$th iteration of the outer for-loop, Algorithm Construct_\text{IST} adds the edge $(r, f_n(r))$ to $T_n$. Therefore $T_n$ is a spanning tree rooted at $r$ of $LTQ_n$. In the following, we prove that Claim 4.1 is true for $r = 0$ and $r = 1$. We first consider the case of $r = 0$.

**Lemma 4.2.** Claim 4.1 is true for $r = 0$.

**Proof.** Consider the $n$th iteration of the outer for-loop. Set $k = (i + t) \mod n$ for easy writing. Let $v \in V(T_i)$ and $u \in S$. If $t \in \{1, 2, \ldots, n - 1\}$, then $(v_k, u_k) = (0, 1)$. If $t = n$, then we have $(v_i, u_i) = (1, 0)$. Therefore $V(T_i) \cap S = \emptyset$. □

**Lemma 4.3.** Claim 4.1 is true for $r = 1$.

**Proof.** Consider the $n$th iteration of the outer for-loop. Set $k = (i + t) \mod n$ for easy writing. Let $v \in V(T_i)$ and $u \in S$. If $t \in \{1, 2, \ldots, n - 1\}$, then $(v_k, u_k) = (0, 1)$. If $t = n$, then we have $(v_i, u_i) = (1, 0)$. Therefore $V(T_i) \cap S = \emptyset$.

**Subcase 3.1:** $t = 1$. The proof of this case is the same as Subcase 2.

**Subcase 3.2:** $t = n$. By the loop invariant, $T_i$ induces a tree before the $n$th iteration of the outer for-loop. Partition $V(T_i)$ into $V_0$ and $V_1$ as follows:

$V_0 = \{\text{all the vertices in the subtree rooted at } f_i(f_1(1))\}$ and $V_1 = V(T_i) \setminus V_0$.

See Fig. 5 for an illustration.

By (1) and by Lemma 4.6, we have: (i) the $i$th bit of all the vertices in $V_0$ is 0 and hence the $i$th bit of all the vertices in $f_i(V_0)$ is 1, and (ii) the $i$th bit of all the vertices in $V_1$ is 1 and hence the $i$th bit of all the vertices in $f_i(V_1)$ is 0. Notice that

$S = f_i(V_0) \cup f_i(V_1)$.

Therefore, to prove Claim 4.1, it suffices to prove that

$V_0 \cap f_i(V_1) = \emptyset$ and $V_1 \cap f_i(V_0) = \emptyset$. (3)

If $i = n - 2$, then the $(n - 1)$-bit of all the vertices in $V_0$ and $f_{n-2}(V_0)$ is 1; however, the $(n - 1)$-bit of all the vertices in $V_1$ and $f_{n-2}(V_1)$ is 0. Thus when $i = n - 2$, $V_0 \cap f_{n-2}(V_1) = \emptyset$ and $V_1 \cap f_{n-2}(V_0) = \emptyset$. Now suppose $i \in \{1, 2, \ldots, n - 3\}$. Partition $V_0$ into $V_{0,0}$ and $V_{0,1}$ such that

$V_{0,0} = \{\text{all the vertices in the subtree rooted at } f_{i+2}(f_{i+1}(1))\}$ and $V_{0,1} = V_0 \setminus V_{0,0}$.

Partition $V_1$ into $V_{1,0}$ and $V_{1,1}$ such that

$V_{1,0} = \{\text{all the vertices in the subtree rooted at } f_{i+2}(f_{i+1}(1))\}$ and $V_{1,1} = V_1 \setminus V_{1,0}$.

By (1) and Lemma 4.6, the pair of the $(i + 1)$th and the $i$th bit of all the vertices in $V_{0,0}$ and $f_i(V_{1,1})$ is $(0, 0)$; in $f_i(V_{0,0})$ and $V_{1,1}$ is $(0, 1)$; in $V_{0,0}$ and $f_i(V_{1,0})$ is $(1, 0)$ and in $f_i(V_{0,1})$ and $V_{1,0}$ is $(1, 1)$. Thus to prove (3), it suffices to prove that

$V_{0,0} \cap f_i(V_{1,1}) = \emptyset$, $V_{1,1} \cap f_i(V_{0,0}) = \emptyset$, $V_{1,0} \cap f_i(V_{0,1}) = \emptyset$ and $V_{0,1} \cap f_i(V_{1,0}) = \emptyset$. (4)

For $v = v_{n-1}, v_{n-1}, \ldots, v_0 \in V(LTQ_n)$ with $v \neq 0$, let $q$ be the largest index of $v$ such that $v_q = 1$. If $v = 0$, then let $q = -1$. By (1) and Lemma 4.6, we have Table 2.
However, for each $y \in V_{1,1} \cup f_i(V_{1,1})$, the bit string of $y$ formed by $y_q$ to $y_{i+2}$ is in

$$L_1 = \{ \overline{000\cdots01}, \overline{000\cdots10}, \overline{100\cdots01}, \overline{100\cdots10}, \overline{1010\cdots01}, \overline{1100\cdots01}, \overline{1100\cdots10} \}.$$

It is not difficult to check that $L_0 \cap L_1 = \emptyset$. Hence we have $V_{0,0} \cap f_i(V_{1,1}) = \emptyset$ and $V_{1,1} \cap f_i(V_{0,0}) = \emptyset$.

Similar arguments can show that $V_{0,1} \cap f_i(V_{1,0}) = \emptyset$ and $V_{1,0} \cap f_i(V_{0,1}) = \emptyset$, except that $V_{0,0} \cup f_i(V_{0,0})$ is replaced by $V_{1,0} \cup f_i(V_{1,0})$ and $V_{1,0} \cup f_i(V_{1,1})$ is replaced by $V_{0,1} \cup f_i(V_{0,1})$. From the above discussion, we have (4) and hence have (3). Therefore $V(T_i) \cap S = \emptyset$. □

By Theorem 2.4 and Lemmas 4.2 and 4.3, we have the following result.

**Lemma 4.4.** $T_0, T_1, \ldots, T_{n-1}$ are $n$ spanning trees rooted at $r$ for $LTQ_n$.

### 4.3. The vertex-independency of the $n$ spanning trees

In this subsection, we show that $T_0, T_1, \ldots, T_{n-1}$ generated by Algorithm Construct IST are vertex-independent trees rooted at an arbitrary vertex $r$ for $LTQ_n$. By Theorem 2.4, without loss of generality, we may assume $r = 0$ and $r = 1$ as the common roots. To this end, we need to show that for any $i, j$ with $0 \leq i < j \leq n - 1$ and for each $v \in V(LTQ_n)$, the $r, v$-path in $T_i$ and the $r, v$-path in $T_j$ are internally vertex-disjoint. Recall that the child of the root in $T_i$ and $T_j$ are $f_i(r)$ and $f_j(r)$, respectively. In the following, we further assume $v \not\in \{f_i(r), f_j(r)\}$ since if $v \in \{f_i(r), f_j(r)\}$, then the $r, v$-path in $T_i$ and the $r, v$-path in $T_j$ are clearly internally vertex-disjoint. Let $parent_i(v)$ (resp., $parent_j(v)$) be the parent of vertex $v$ in $T_i$.
(resp., $T_j$). Let $P_i$ (resp., $P_j$) be the parent($v_i$)($v_j$)-path (resp., parent($v_i$)($v_j$)-path) in $T_i$ (resp., $T_j$). Since $f_i(r) \neq f_j(r)$, the $r$, $v_i$-path in $T_i$ and the $r$, $v_j$-path in $T_j$ are internally vertex-disjoint if and only if $V(P_i) \cap V(P_j) = \emptyset$. We prove $T_i$ and $T_j$ are vertex-independent by showing the following claim:

**Claim 4.5.** $V(P_1) \cap V(P_2) = \emptyset$.

Before proving Claim 4.5, we need a lemma.

**Lemma 4.6.** $T_i$, $0 \leq i \leq n - 1$, constructed by Algorithm Construct IST has the property that for each $v \in V(LTQ_n) \setminus \{r, f_i(r)\}$, the path from $v$ to $f_i(r)$ in $T_i$ uses each perfect matching in $\{M_0, M_1, \ldots, M_{n-1}\}$ at most once.

**Proof.** It follows from the fact that $f_{i(t+1)} \mod n$ used in the for-loop between the inner for-loop are distinct when the outer for-loop iterates from $t = 1$ to $t = n$. $\square$

We first consider the case of $r = 0$.

**Lemma 4.7.** $T_0$, $T_1$, \ldots, $T_{n-1}$ are $n$ vertex-independent trees rooted at $r = 0$ for $LTQ_n$.

**Proof.** To prove Claim 4.5, we first describe the path from $v$ to the child of the root in $T_i$ when $r = 0$. For any $v \in V(T_i) \setminus \{0, f_i(0)\}$, the $v$, $f_i(0)$-path in $T_i$ can be determined by $\Pi_i(v, f_i(0))$. In addition, $\Pi_i(v, f_i(0))$ can be determined by $H_i(v, f_i(0))$ as follows. Suppose $v = v_{n-1}v_{n-2}\ldots v_0$ and $H_i(v, f_i(0)) = \{c_{m-1}, c_{m-2}, \ldots, c_0\}$. If $v_0 = 0$, then $\Pi_i(v, f_i(0))$ can be determined by

$$\Pi_i(v, f_i(0)) = \begin{cases} H_i(v, f_i(0)) & \text{if } i = 0, \\ \{c_{m-1} = 0, I(c_{m-2}, c_{m-3}), \ldots, I(c_2, c_1), I(c_1, 0)\} & \text{if } i = 0 \text{ and } m - 1 \text{ is even}, \\ \{c_{m-1} = 0, I(c_{m-2}, c_{m-3}), \ldots, I(c_2, c_1), I(c_0, 0)\} & \text{if } i = 0 \text{ and } m - 1 \text{ is odd}. \end{cases}$$

(5)

If $v_0 = 1$ and $i \neq 0$, then $H_i(v, f_i(0))$ must contain 0; in this case, we assume $c_e = 0$ for some $e$. Thus if $v_0 = 1$, $\Pi_i(v, f_i(0))$ can be determined by

$$\Pi_i(v, f_i(0)) = \begin{cases} \{I(c_{m-1}, c_{m-2}), I(c_{m-3}, c_{m-4}), \ldots, I(c_1, 0)\} & \text{if } i = 0 \text{ and } m \text{ is even}, \\ \{I(c_{m-1}, c_{m-2}), I(c_{m-3}, c_{m-4}), \ldots, I(c_2, c_1), I(c_0, 0)\} & \text{if } i = 0 \text{ and } m \text{ is odd}, \\ \{I(c_{m-1}, c_{m-2}), I(c_{m-3}, c_{m-4}), \ldots, I(c_{e+2}, c_{e+1}), c_e, c_{e-1}, \ldots, c_0\} & \text{if } i \neq 0 \text{ and } m - e \text{ is odd}, \\ \{I(c_{m-1}, c_{m-2}), I(c_{m-3}, c_{m-4}), \ldots, I(c_{e+1}, 0), c_e, c_{e-1}, \ldots, c_0\} & \text{if } i \neq 0 \text{ and } m - e \text{ is even}. \end{cases}$$

(6)

Now we show that Claim 4.5 is true for $r = 0$. Suppose not, then there exists a vertex $a (\neq v) \in V(P_1) \cap V(P_2)$. Suppose $H_i(v, f_i(0)) = H_i(v, 2^i) = \{c_{m-1}, c_{m-2}, \ldots, c_0\}$.

(7)

There are four cases.

**Case 1:** $v_i = 1$ and $v_j = 1$. Then there must exist $u$ such that $c_u = j$. Thus

$$H_j(v, f_j(0)) = H_j(v, 2^j) = \{c_{u-1}, c_{u-2}, \ldots, c_0, i, c_{m-1}, c_{m-2}, \ldots, c_{u+1}\}.$$ 

(8)

By (5)-(7), $c_{m-1}$ is the first element in $\Pi_i(v, 2^i)$. Let $x \in V(P_1)$. Then the $(c_{m-1})_{th}$ bit of $x$ is $v_{c_{m-1}} = 1$ only when $(i)$ $(c_{m-1} + 1) \in \Pi_i(v, 2^i)$, and $(ii)$ $(c_{m-1} + 1) = 2$, and $(iii)$ there exists $q = q_{n-1}q_{n-2}\ldots q_0 \in V(P_1)$ such that $x = f_{c_{m-1}+1}(q)$ and $q_0 = 1$. We now prove that (i)-(iii) will not occur simultaneously; hence for all $x \in V(P_1)$, the $(c_{m-1})_{th}$ bit of $x$ is $v_{c_{m-1}}$. If $|H_i(v, 2^i)| = 1$, then (i) cannot occur. Suppose $|H_i(v, 2^i)| \geq 2$ and both (i) and (ii) occur; that is, there exists $q = q_{n-1}q_{n-2}\ldots q_0 \in V(P_1)$ such that $x = f_{c_{m-1}+1}(q)$ and $q_0 = 1$. By (7), $c_{m-1} + 1$ is the last element in $\Pi_i(v, 2^i)$.

By Lemma 4.6 and by the fact that $I(c_0, 0) = \{c_0, c_0 - 1, \ldots, 1\}$, we have $c_{m-1} = 1 = 1$. Thus (ii) does not occur and consequently the $(c_{m-1})_{th}$ bit of all the vertices in $V(P_1)$ is $v_{c_{m-1}}$. Since $v_1 = 1$, the $ith$ bit of all the vertices in $V(P_1)$ is 1. By (5) and (6) and (8), the $(c_{m-1})_{th}$ bit of those vertices in $V(P_2)$ with the $ith$ bit being 1 is $v_{c_{m-1}}$. Thus no such a exists and Claim 4.5 is true.

**Case 2:** $v_i = 0$ and $v_j = 0$. Then $c_{m-1} = 1$. If $|H_i(v, 2^i)| = 1$, then $H_i(v, 2^i) = \{i\}$, which implies that $v = 0$; this contradicts the assumption that $v \neq 0$. Thus $|H_i(v, 2^i)| \geq 2$ and there must exist $u$ such that $j$ is between $c_u$ and $c_{u-1}$ with respect to $O^a$. Thus

$$H_j(v, 2^i) = \begin{cases} \{j, c_{m-2}, \ldots, c_{u+1}, \ldots, c_u\} & \text{if } j = i + 1, \\ \{j, c_{u-1}, c_{u-2}, \ldots, c_0, c_{m-2}, \ldots, c_{u+1}\} & \text{if otherwise}. \end{cases}$$

(9)

By (5)-(7), the $ith$ bit of all vertices in $V(P_1)$ is 1. By (5) and (6) and (9), the $jth$ bit of all the vertices in $V(P_2)$ is 1. The $ith$ bit and the $jth$ bit of $a$ are both 1. If $I(c_{u-1}, c_{u-2}) \not\subseteq I_1(v, 2^i)$, each vertex in $V(P_1)$ has its $jth$ bit to be 0. If $(i) j \neq i + 1$ and $I(c_{u-1}, c_{u-2}) \not\subseteq I_1(v, 2^i)$, or if $(ii) j = i + 1$ and $v_0 \neq 1$, then each vertex in $V(P_2)$ has its $ith$ bit to be 0. Thus the existence of a implies that $I(c_{u-1}, c_{u-2}) \subseteq I_1(v, 2^i)$ and $I(c_0, c_{m-2}) \subseteq I_1(v, 2^i)$. Note that $I(c_u, c_{u-1}) \subseteq I_1(v, 2^i)$ implies that $i = 0$ and
hence $v_0 = 0$ (since case 2 requires $v_1 = 0$). However, $I(c_0, c_{m-2}) \subseteq \Pi'_1(v, 2^l)$ implies $v_0 = 1$, which contradicts to $v_0 = 0$. Thus no such $a$ exists and Claim 4.5 is true.

Case 3: $v_1 = 0$ and $v_1 = 1$. Then $c_{m-1} = i$ and there must exist $u$ such that $c_u = j$. If $|H(v, 2^l)| = 1$, then $H_j(v, 2^l) = \emptyset$. This implies that $v = 2^l$, which contradicts to the assumption that $v \neq 2^l$. Thus

$$H'_j(v, 2^l) = \{c_{u-1}, \ldots, c_u, \ldots, c_0, c_{m-2}, \ldots, c_{m-3}, \ldots, c_{u+1}\}. \quad (10)$$

By (5)–(7), the $i$th bit of all vertices in $V(P_i)$ is 1. The $i$th bit of $a$ is 1. If $I(c_0, c_{m-2}) \nsubseteq \Pi'_1(v, 2^l)$, each vertex in $V(P_2)$ has its $i$th bit to be 0. Thus the existence of $a$ implies that $I(c_0, c_{m-2}) \nsubseteq \Pi'_1(v, 2^l)$, which further implies $v_0 = 1$. Since $I(c_0, c_{m-2}) \nsubseteq \Pi'_1(v, 2^l)$, $V(P_2)$ has only one vertex $x = x_{m-1} \ldots x_0$ such that $x_i = 1$ and $x = f_{i+1}(q)$ for some $q \in V(P'_2)$. The existence of $a$ implies that $x = a$. Since $v_0 = 0$, $\Pi'_1(v, 2^l)$ starts with $I(i, c_{m-2})$, i.e., $\Pi'_1(v, 2^l)$ is of the form $I(i, c_{m-2}) \ldots$. By (6), $c_{m-3}$ is the first element after $I(i, c_{m-2})$ in $\Pi'_1(v, 2^l)$. Recall that $\Pi'_1(v, 2^l)$ is an ordered set of all the indices of perfecting matchings used in the $v$, $2^l$-path in $T_i$ listed according to the order from $v$ to $2^l$. Thus the first vertex in $V(P_1)$ can be obtained by applying the first perfect matching obtained from the first element in $\Pi'_1(v, 2^l)$ to $v$, the second vertex in $V(P_1)$ can be obtained by applying the second perfect matching obtained from the second element in $\Pi'_1(v, 2^l)$ to the first vertex in $V(P_1)$, and so on. Thus we can partition $V(P_1)$ into $V_1, V_2$ such that $V_1$ consists of those vertices in $V(P_1)$ before $f_{m-3}$ is applied and $V_1 = V(P_1) - V_1$. Let $y = y_{n-1} \ldots y_0$ be an arbitrary vertex in $V_1$. Then $Ham(y_1 y_0 \ldots y_{m-2}, v_0 v_1 v_2 \ldots v_{c_{m-1}-2}) = 2$. However, $Ham(x_0 y_1 \ldots x_{m-2}, v_0 v_1 v_2 \ldots v_{c_{m-1}}) = 0$. Thus $x \not\in V_1$. On the other hand, $x_{m-3} = v_{m-3}$, but the $(m-3)$th bit of all the vertices in $V_1$ is $v_{m-3}$, thus $x \not\in V_1$. Since $x \not\in V_1$ and $x \not\in V_2$, we have $x \not\in V(P_1)$. Since $x = a$, it follows that $a \not\in V(P_1)$. Thus no such $a$ exists and Claim 4.5 is true.

Case 4: $v_1 = 1$ and $v_1 = 0$. Then there must exist $u$ such that $j$ is between $c_u$ and $c_{u-1}$ with respect to $O_1$. Thus

$$H'_j(v, 2^l) = \begin{cases} \{j, i, c_{m-1}, c_{m-2}, \ldots, c_u = 0\} & \text{if } i \text{ is between } c_0 \text{ and } c_{m-1} \text{ with respect to } O_1, \\ \{j, i, c_{u-1}, c_{u-2}, \ldots, c_0, i, c_{m-1}, c_{m-2}, \ldots, c_u\} & \text{if otherwise}. \end{cases} \quad (11)$$

By (5), (6) and (11), the $j$th bit of all vertices in $V(P_2)$ is 1. Since $v_1 = 1$, the $i$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_1)$ is 1. The $i$th bit and the $j$th bit of $a$ are both 1. By (11), we have two subcases.

Subcase 4.1: $i$ is between $c_0$ and $c_{m-1}$ with respect to $O_1$. Then $V(P_2)$ has only one vertex $f_j(v)$ with its $i$th bit and $j$th bit both being 1. By (5)–(7), $c_{m-1}$ is the first element in $\Pi'_1(v, 2^l)$. Thus the $(m-1)$th bit of those vertices in $V(P_1)$ with the $j$th bit being 1 is $v_{m-1}$. However, by (5), (6) and (11), the $(m-1)$th bit of $f_j(v)$ is $v_{m-1}$. Thus no such $a$ exists and Claim 4.5 is true.

Subcase 4.2: $i$ is not between $c_0$ and $c_{m-1}$ with respect to $O_1$. By (5), (6) and (11), the $i$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_1)$ is 1. If $|H'_1(v, 2^l)| = 1$, then $H'_1(v, 2^l) = \{c_0\}$; when $v_0 = 0$, we have $c_0 \neq j$, which implies that each element in $V(P_1)$ has its $i$th bit to be 0 and consequently no such $a$ exists and Claim 4.5 is true. Now suppose $|H'_1(v, 2^l)| \geq 2$. Then when $I(c_0, c_{m-1}) \nsubseteq \Pi'_1(v, 2^l)$, each vertex in $V(P_1)$ has its $i$th bit to be 0. Thus the existence of $a$ implies that $I(c_0, c_{m-1}) \subseteq \Pi'_1(v, 2^l)$. Since $I(c_0, c_{m-1}) \subseteq \Pi'_1(v, 2^l)$, $V(P_1)$ has only one vertex $x = x_{m-1} \ldots x_0$ such that $x_i = 1$ and $x = f_{i+1}(q)$ for some $q \in V(P_1)$. The existence of $a$ implies that $x = a$. By (5), (6) and (11), the $(m-1)$th bit of those vertices in $V(P_2)$ with the $i$th bit being 1 is $v_{m-1}$. However, the $x_{m-1} = v_{m-1}$. So if $x \in V(P_1)$, then $x \not\in V(P_2)$. Thus no such $a$ exists and Claim 4.5 is true.

From the above discussion, Claim 4.5 is true and therefore $T_0, T_1, \ldots, T_{n-1}$ are vertex-independent rooted at $r = 0$ of $LTQ_n$.

Now we consider the case of $r = 1$.

**Lemma 4.8.** $T_0, T_1, \ldots, T_{n-1}$ are $n$ vertex-independent trees rooted at $r = 1$ for $LTQ_n$.

**Proof.** To prove Claim 4.5, we first describe the path from $v$ to the child of the root in $T_i$ when $r = 1$. For any $v \in V(T_i) \setminus \{1, f_1(1)\}$, the $v, f_1(1)$-path in $T_i$ can be determined by $\Pi'_1(v, f_1(1))$. Furthermore, $\Pi'_1(v, f_1(1))$ can be determined by the ordered set $H(v, f_1(1))$ as follows. Suppose $v = v_{n-1} v_{n-2} \ldots v_0$ and $H(v, f_1(1)) = \{c_{m-1}, c_{m-2}, \ldots, c_0\}$. Let $c_e$ be the first (from $c_{m-1}$ to $c_0$) member in $H(v, f_1(1))$ that is larger than $i$. If $i = 0$, $\Pi'_1(v, f_1(1))$ can be determined by

$$\Pi'_0(v, f_1(1)) = H_0(v, f_1(1)). \quad (12)$$

If $i \neq 0$ and $v_0 = 0$, we have $c_0 = 0$ for some $e$. Thus $\Pi'_1(v, f_1(1))$ can be determined by

$$\Pi'_1(v, f_1(1)) = \begin{cases} \{c_{m-1}, c_{m-2}, \ldots, c_e, I(c_{e-1}, c_{e-2}), I(c_{e-3}, c_{e-4}), \ldots, I(c_0, c_0)\} & \text{if } e \text{ is even}, \\ \{c_{m-2}, c_{m-3}, \ldots, c_e, I(c_{e-1}, c_{e-2}), I(c_{e-3}, c_{e-4}), \ldots, I(c_0, c_0)\} & \text{if } e \text{ is odd and } c_{m-1} = i, \\ \{i, c_{m-1}, c_{m-2}, \ldots, c_e, I(c_{e-1}, c_{e-2}), I(c_{e-3}, c_{e-4}), \ldots, I(c_0, c_0)\} & \text{if } e \text{ is odd and } c_{m-1} \neq i. \end{cases} \quad (13)$$
When \( i \neq 0 \) and \( v_0 = 1 \), in order to obtain \( \Pi_i(v, f_i(1)) \) from \( H_i(v, f_i(1)) \), the following notations are introduced. Define \( H^1_i \) to be the sequence

\[
H^1_i = \begin{cases} 
  \c_{m-1}, \c_{m-2}, \ldots, \c_e & \text{if } |H^2_i| \text{ is even,} \\
  i, \c_{m-1}, \c_{m-2}, \ldots, \c_e & \text{if } |H^2_i| \text{ is odd and } \c_{m-1} \neq i \\
  \c_{m-2}, \c_{m-3}, \ldots, \c_e & \text{if } |H^2_i| \text{ is odd and } \c_{m-1} = i,
\end{cases}
\]

and define \( H^2_i \) to be the sequence

\[
H^2_i = \c_{e-1}, \c_{e-2}, \ldots, \c_0.
\]

Define \( \zeta_i(v, f_i(1)) \) to be the sequence

\[
\zeta_i(v, f_i(1)) = \begin{cases} 
  H^1_i, H^2_i & \text{if } |H^1_i| \text{ is even and } |H^2_i| \text{ is even,} \\
  H^1_i, H^2_i, i & \text{if } |H^1_i| \text{ is even and } |H^2_i| \text{ is odd,} \\
  H^1_i, 0, H^2_i & \text{if } |H^1_i| \text{ is odd and } |H^2_i| \text{ is even,} \\
  H^1_i, 0, H^2_i, i & \text{if } |H^1_i| \text{ is odd and } |H^2_i| \text{ is odd.}
\end{cases}
\]

(14)

Suppose

\[
\zeta_i(v, f_i(1)) = \zeta_u, \zeta_{u-1}, \ldots, \zeta_0.
\]

Thus if \( i \neq 0 \) and \( v_0 = 1 \), \( \Pi_i(v, f_i(1)) \) can be determined by

\[
\Pi_i(v, f_i(1)) = \{ l(\zeta_u, \zeta_{u-1}), l(\zeta_{u-2}, \zeta_{u-3}), \ldots, l(\zeta_1, \zeta_0) \}.
\]

(15)

Now we show that Claim 4.5 is true for \( r = 1 \). Suppose not, then there exists a vertex \( a \ (\neq v) \in V(P_1) \cap V(P_2) \). Suppose

\[
H_i(v, f_i(1)) = \{ \c_{m-1}, \c_{m-2}, \ldots, \c_0 \}.
\]

(16)

There are four cases.

Case 1: \( 0 = i \leq j \leq n - 1 \). The proof of this case is divided into two parts, depending on \( v_0 = 1 \) or \( v_0 = 0 \). Suppose \( v_0 = 1 \). Then \( 0 \notin H_0(v, f_0(1)) \). Thus the 0th bit of all the vertices in \( V(P_2) \) is 1. By (12) and (16), 0 is the first element in \( H_0(v, f_0(1); \) this implies that the 0th bit of all the vertices in \( V(P_1) \) is 0. Thus no such \( a \) exists. In the following, we assume \( v_0 = 0 \). Then \( 0 \notin H_0(v, f_0(1)) \). The 0th bit of all the vertices in \( V(P_1) \) is 0; this implies that the 0th bit of \( a \) is 0. There are two possibilities: \( j = 1 \) or \( j > 1 \).

Subcase 1.1: \( j = 1 \). Note that either \( 1 \notin \Pi_1(v, f_1(1)) \) or \( 1 \notin \Pi_1(v, f_1(1)) \). If \( 1 \notin \Pi_1(v, f_1(1)) \), then 0 is the first element in \( \Pi_1(v, f_1(1)) \). This implies that the 0th bit of all the vertices in \( V(P_2) \) is 1. Thus no such \( a \) exists. If \( 1 \notin \Pi_1(v, f_1(1)) \), then 1 and 0 are the first element and the second element in \( \Pi_1(v, f_1(1)) \), respectively. Thus the 0th bit of all the vertices in \( V(P_2) \setminus \{ f_i(v) \} \) is 1. The existence of a implies that \( f_i(v) = a \).

If \( v_1 = 0 \), then \( 1 \notin H_0(v, f_0(1)) \). This implies that the 1st bit of all the vertices in \( V(P_1) \) is 0. However, it is obvious that the 1st bit of \( f_1(v) \) is 1. Therefore \( f_1(v) \notin V(P_1) \). Thus no such \( a \) exists. Now suppose \( v_1 = 1 \). Since \( 1 \notin \Pi_1(v, f_1(1)) \), there must exist some \( k > 1 \) such that \( v_k = 1 \); this implies that \( \c_{m-1} > 1 \). By (12) and (16), the (\( \c_{m-1} \))th bit of all the vertices in \( V(P_1) \) is \( \overline{1} \). However, the (\( \c_{m-1} \))th bit of \( f_1(v) \) is \( \c_{m-1} \). Therefore \( f_1(v) \notin V(P_1) \). Thus no such \( a \) exists and \( V(P_1) \cap V(P_2) = \emptyset \).

Subcase 1.2: \( j > 1 \). By (12), (13) and (16), we have: \( \c_{m-1} \) is the first element in \( H_i(v, f_i(1)) \), \( \c_{m-1} \in H_i(v, f_i(1)) \), 0 \( \in H_i(v, f_i(1)) \), and \( \c_{m-1} \) appears after 0 in the ordered set \( H_i(v, f_i(1)) \). Thus the (\( \c_{m-1} \))th bit of all the vertices in \( V(P_1) \) is \( \overline{1} \). However, the (\( \c_{m-1} \))th bit of those vertices with the 0th bit being 0 in \( V(P_2) \) is \( \c_{m-1} \). Thus no such \( a \) exists.

From the above discussion, Claim 4.5 is true for Case 1.

Case 2: \( 1 = i < j \leq n - 1 \). The proof of this case is divided into two parts, depending on \( v_0 = 0 \) or \( v_0 = 1 \).

Subcase 2.1: \( v_0 = 0 \). Then it is not difficult to see (by comparing the jth and the 0th bits of \( f_i(v) \) and all the vertices in \( V(P_1) \)) that \( f_i(v) \notin V(P_1) \). Thus \( a \) can not be \( f_i(v) \). It remains to consider those vertices in \( V(P_2) \setminus \{ f_i(v) \} \). The remaining proof is further divided into two parts, depending on \( v_{j-1} = 0 \) or \( v_{j-1} = 1 \).

Subcase 2.1.1: \( v_{j-1} = 0 \). Since \( v_0 = 0 \) and \( v_{j-1} = 0 \), \( j - 1 \in \Pi_i(v, f_i(v)) \). Since \( v_0 = 0 \) and \( j - 1 \in \Pi_i(v, f_i(v)) \), the (\( j - 1 \))th bit of all the vertices in \( V(P_2) \setminus f_i(v) \) is 1. However, the (\( j - 1 \))th bit of all the vertices in \( V(P_1) \) is 0. Thus no such \( a \) exists and Claim 4.5 is true.

Subcase 2.1.2: \( v_{j-1} = 1 \). We claim that: the bits from \( v_{j-2} \) to \( v_2 \) are all 0, i.e., \( v_{j-2} = v_{j-3} = \cdots = v_2 = 0 \). Suppose this claim is not true and let \( k \) be the largest number between \( j - 2 \) and 2 (inclusive) such that \( v_k = 1 \). By (13) and (16), the (\( j - 1 \))th and the kth bits of all the vertices in \( V(P_2) \setminus f_i(v) \) is 1 and 0, respectively. However, the (\( j - 1 \))th bit of those vertices in \( V(P_1) \) with kth bit being 0 is 0. Thus \( v_{j-2} = v_{j-3} = \cdots = v_2 = 0 \). So the 1st bit of all the vertices in \( V(P_1) \) is 1 and the 1st bit of all the vertices in \( V(P_2) \setminus f_i(v) \) is 0. Thus no such \( a \) exists and Claim 4.5 is true.
Subcase 2.2: \( v_0 = 1 \). The proof of this part is further divided into six parts as follows.

Subcase 2.2.1: \( j = 2 \), \( v_1 = 1 \) and \( v_2 = 1 \). Since \( v_0 = 1 \) and \( v_1 = 1 \) and \( v_2 = 1 \),

\[
H_j(v, f_j(1)) = (c_{m-1}, c_{m-2}, \ldots, c_1).
\]

Suppose \( m \) is even. Then by (14) and (15),

\[
\Pi_l(v, f_l(1)) = \{ I(c_{m-1}, c_{m-2}), \ldots, I(c_1, c_0 = 2) \}
\]

and

\[
\Pi_l(v, f_l(1)) = \{ I(2, 0), I(c_{m-1}, c_{m-2}), \ldots, I(c_1, 2) \}.
\]

Thus, the 2nd bit of all the vertices in \( V(P_1) \) are 1. However, the 2nd bit of all the vertices in \( V(P_2) \) are 0. Thus no such \( a \) exists. Suppose \( m \) is odd. Then by (14) and (15),

\[
\Pi_l(v, f_l(1)) = \{ I(c_{m-1}, c_{m-2}), \ldots, I(c_0, 1) \}
\]

and

\[
\Pi_l(v, f_l(1)) = \{ I(c_{m-2}, c_{m-3}), \ldots, I(c_2, c_1) \}.
\]

Hence the 1st bit of all the vertices in \( V(P_1) \) is 0. However, the 1st bit of all the vertices in \( V(P_2) \) is 1. Thus no such \( a \) exists.

Subcase 2.2.2: \( j = 2 \), \( v_1 = 0 \) and \( v_2 = 1 \). Since \( v_0 = 1 \) and \( v_1 = 0 \) and \( v_2 = 1 \), we have \( c_{m-1} = 1, c_0 = 2 \) and

\[
H_j(v, f_j(1)) = \{ c_{m-1}, c_{m-2}, \ldots, c_1 \}.
\]

Suppose \( m - 1 \) is odd. Then by (14) and (15),

\[
\Pi_l(v, f_l(1)) = \{ I(c_{m-2}, c_{m-3}), \ldots, I(c_0, 1) \}
\]

and

\[
\Pi_l(v, f_l(1)) = \{ I(c_{m-2}, c_{m-3}), \ldots, I(c_1, 2) \}.
\]

Thus, the 2nd bit of all vertices in \( V(P_1) \) are 1. However, the 2nd bit of all vertices in \( V(P_2) \) is 0. Thus no such \( a \) exists.

Subcase 2.2.3: \( j = 2 \), \( v_1 = 1 \) and \( v_2 = 0 \) (resp., \( v_1 = 0 \) and \( v_2 = 0 \)). Then

\[
H_j(v, f_j(1)) = \{ 2, c_{m-1}, c_{m-2}, \ldots, c_0 \}.
\]

Suppose \( m \) (resp., \( m - 1 \)) is even. Then by (14) and (15), the 2nd bit of all vertices in \( V(P_1) \) is 0. However, the 2nd bit of all vertices in \( V(P_2) \) is 1. Suppose \( m \) (resp., \( m - 1 \)) is odd. Then by (14) and (15), the 1st bit of all vertices in \( V(P_1) \) is 0. However, the 1st bit of all vertices in \( V(P_2) \) is 1. Thus no such \( a \) exists.

Subcase 2.2.4: \( j \neq 2 \) and \( v_{j-1} = 0 \). Then the \( (j - 1) \)th bit of all the vertices in \( V(P_1) \) are 0. However, the \( (j - 1) \)th bit of all the vertices in \( V(P_2) \) are 1. Thus no such \( a \) exists.

Subcase 2.2.5: \( j \neq 2 \), \( v_{j-1} = 1 \) and at least one of the bits in \( v_{j-2}v_{j-3} \ldots v_2 \) is 1. Then there exists \( q \) such that \( v_q = 1 \) and \( q \) is the largest number between \( j - 2 \) and 2 (inclusive).

Subcase 2.2.5.1: Suppose \( l(j, q) \nsubseteq \Pi_l(v, f_l(1)) \). Then the \( q \)th and the \( (j - 1) \)th bit of all the vertices in \( V(P_2) \) are 0 and 1, respectively; however, the \( (j - 1) \)th bit of those vertices in \( V(P_1) \) with the \( q \)th bit being 0 is 0. Thus no such \( a \) exists.

Subcase 2.2.5.2: Suppose \( l(j, q) \subseteq \Pi_l(v, f_l(1)) \). Then we partition \( V(P_2) \) into \( V_{2,1} \) and \( V_{2,2} \) such that

\[
V_{2,1} = \{ \text{all the vertices in } V(P_2) \text{ before the perfect matching } M_q \text{ is applied} \} \text{ and } V_{2,2} = V(P_2) \setminus V_{2,1}.
\]

Consider the vertices in \( V_{2,1} \). Suppose \( v_j = 0 \). Since \( j \in l(j, q) \), we can compare the \( j \)th bit of all vertices in \( V(P_1) \) and in \( V_{2,1} \) to see that no such \( a \) exists. Suppose \( v_j = 1 \). Then the number of bits in \( v_{n-1}v_{n-2} \ldots v_{j+1} \) that are 1 is odd, i.e., \( |H_j^2| \) is odd. This implies that \( c_{m-1} \neq j \). Since \( c_{m-1} \neq j \), by comparing the \( c_{m-1} \)th bit of all the vertices in \( V(P_1) \) and in \( V_{2,1} \), we know that \( V(P_1) \cap V_{2,1} = \emptyset \). Consider the vertices in \( V_{2,2} \). Then the \( q \)th and the \( (j - 1) \)th bit of all the vertices in \( V_{2,2} \) are 0 and 1, respectively. However, the \( (j - 1) \)th bit of those vertices in \( V(P_1) \) with the \( q \)th bit being 0 is 0. Hence \( V(P_1) \cap V_{2,2} = \emptyset \). Since \( V(P_1) \cap V_{2,1} = \emptyset \) and \( V(P_1) \cap V_{2,2} = \emptyset \), no such \( a \) exists.
Subcase 2.2.6: $j \neq 2$, $v_{j-1} = 1$ and all the bits in $v_{j-2}v_{j-3} \ldots v_2$ are 0 (i.e., $v_{j-2} = v_{j-3} = \cdots = v_2 = 0$). For convenience, let $t(w_1, w_2)$ denote the number of bits in $v_{w_1}v_{w_1-1} \ldots v_{w_2}$ that are 1. There are three possibilities.

Subcase 2.2.6.1: Suppose $(n-1, i + 1)$ is even. Then $(n-1, j)$ is odd. Thus the $i$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_2)$ is 0. However, the $i$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_1)$ is 1. Thus no such $a$ exists.

Subcase 2.2.6.2: Suppose $(n-1, i + 1)$ is odd and $v_1 = 0$. Then $(n-1, j + 1)$ is even. Thus the $j$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_2)$ is 1. However, the $j$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_1)$ is 0. Thus no such $a$ exists.

Subcase 2.2.6.3: Suppose $(n-1, i + 1)$ is odd and $v_1 = 1$. Then $(n-1, j + 1)$ is odd. Thus the $i$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_1)$ is 0 and the $j$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_2)$ is 0. Then the $i$th and the $j$th bit of $a$ are 0. By (15), the $(i-1)$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_2)$ with the $i$th and the $j$th bit be 0 is 1. However, only the vertex $2^{i-1} + 1$ in $V(P_1)$ with the $(j-1)$th bit is 1, and the $i$th and the $j$th bit are 0. The existence of a implies $a = 2^{i-1} + 1$. Since $(n-1, j + 1)$ is odd, there exists $v_k = 1$, where $k > j$. Then it is easy to find that $a \not\in V(P_2)$ by comparing the $k$th the $j$th and the $i$th bit of $a$ and all the vertices in $V(P_2)$. Thus no such $a$ exists.

From the above discussion, Claim 4.5 is true for Case 2.

Case 3: $3 \leq i + 1 = j \leq n - 1$. By (12)-(16), we have the following results. Suppose $(n-1, i + 1)$ is odd. Then the $i$th bit of all vertices in $V(P_1)$ is 0 and $j \not\in \Pi_1(v, f_j(1))$; however, the $i$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_2)$ is 1. Suppose $(n-1, i + 1)$ is even and $v_1 = 0$. Then the $j$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_1)$ is 1; however, the $i$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_1)$ is 0. Suppose $(n-1, i + 1)$ is even and $v_1 = 1$. Then the $j$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_2)$ is 0; however, the $i$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_1)$ is 1. Thus no such $a$ exists and Claim 4.5 is true.

Case 4: $3 \leq i + 1 < j \leq n - 1$. We divide the proof into three parts, depending on the values of $v_{j-1}$ and $v_{j-1}$.

Subcase 4.1: $v_{j-1} = 0$. Then if $j \in \Pi_1(v, f_j(1))$, then $V(P_1)$ has only one vertex (say, vertex $x$) with its $(j-1)$th bit being 1. By comparing from the $j$th to the $(i-1)$th bits of $x$ with the $j$th to the $(i-1)$th bits of each vertex in $V(P_2)$, we have $x \not\in V(P_2)$. If $j \in \Pi_1(v, f_j(1))$, then $f_j(1)$ is the unique vertex in $V(P_2)$ with its $(j-1)$th bit being 0. By comparing from the $j$th to the $(i-1)$th bits of $f_j(1)$ with the $j$th to the $(i-1)$th bits of each vertex in $V(P_1)$, we have $f_j(1) \not\in V(P_1)$. Then by (12)-(16), the $(i-1)$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_1) \setminus \{x\}$ is 0; however, the $(j-1)$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_2) \setminus f_j(1)$ is 1. Thus no such a exists.

Subcase 4.2: $v_{j-1} = 0$. Then we can use similar arguments to prove that no such $a$ exists.

Subcase 4.3: $v_{j-1} = 1$ and $v_{j-1} = 1$. By (12)-(15), we have the following results. When $i \in \Pi_1(v, f_j(1))$ and $v_0 = 1$, $V(P_1)$ has only one vertex $f_j(1)$ with the $(i-1)$th bit being 0. It is easy to find $f_j(1) \not\in V(P_2)$ by comparing those bits from the $(j-1)$th to the $(i-1)$th of $f_j(1)$ with each vertex in $V(P_2)$. And since the $(j-1)$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_1) \setminus f_j(1)$ is 1, the existence of $a$ implies that the $(i-1)$th bit of $a$ must be 1.

Partition $V(P_2)$ into two $V_{2,1}$ and $V_{2,2}$ such that

$$V_{2,1} = \{\text{all the vertices in } V(P_2) \text{ before the perfect matching } M_i \text{ is applied}\} \text{ and } V_{2,2} = V(P_2) \setminus V_{2,1}.$$ 

Thus the $(i-1)$th bit of all the vertices in $V_{2,1}$ is 1, and if $a$ exists, then $a \in V_{2,1}$. We now claim that:

Claim 4.9. If $a$ exists, then $v_{j-2} = v_{j-3} = \cdots = v_{i+1} = 0$.

**Proof of Claim 4.9.** Suppose this claim is not true. Then let $q$ be the largest index between $j - 2$ and $i + 1$ (inclusive) such that $v_q = 1$. Let $y = y_{n-1}y_{n-2} \ldots y_0$ be an arbitrary vertex in $V_{2,1} \setminus f_j(1)$. Note that $f_j(1) \in V_{2,1}$ only when $j \in \Pi_1(v, f_j(1))$. Also note that $q \in \Pi_1(v, f_j(1))$. Moreover, if $j \in \Pi_1(v, f_j(1))$, then $q$ is the first element after $j$ in $H_1(v, f_j(1))$; if $j \not\in \Pi_1(v, f_j(1))$, then $q$ is the first element in $H_1(v, f_j(1))$. Since $q$ exists, by (13)-(15), the bits $v_{j-2} \ldots v_{j-3} \ldots v_{i+1}$ will be different from the bits $v_{j-2}v_{j-3} \ldots v_{j+1}$. However, let $x = x_{n-1}x_{n-2} \ldots x_0$ be an arbitrary vertex in $V(P_1)$. Then the bits $x_{j-2} \ldots x_{j-3} \ldots x_{i+1}$ are identical to the bits $v_{j-2} \ldots v_{j-3} \ldots v_{i+1}$. Thus every vertex in $V_{2,1} \setminus f_j(1)$ is not in $V(P_1)$. Although $f_j(1) \in V_{2,1}$, it is not in $V(P_1)$ (this can be observed by comparing the $j$th bit and from the $(j-2)$th to the $(i+1)$th bits of all the vertices in $V(P_1)$ with $j$th bit and the bits from the $(j-2)$th to the $(i+1)$th bits of $f_j(1)$). Thus $V(P_1) \cap V_{2,1} = \emptyset$. Since if $a$ exists, then $a \in V_{2,1}$. Thus $a$ does not exists and we have this claim. □

By Claim 4.9, in the remaining proof, we assume $v_{j-1} = 1$, $v_{j-1} = 1$ and $v_{j-2} = v_{j-3} = \cdots = v_{i+1} = 0$. For convenience, let $t$ denote the number of bits in $v_{i-1}v_{i-2} \ldots v_{j+1}$ that are 1. We further divide the proof into four subcases.

Subcase 4.3.1: $v_{j-1} = 1$ and $v_{j-1} = 1$. Suppose $t$ is even. Then the first member in $\Pi_1(v, f_j(1))$ is $i$. However, $i \not\in \Pi_1(v, f_j(1))$. Thus no such $a$ exists and $V(P_1) \cap V(P_2) = \emptyset$. Suppose $t$ is odd. Then $j \not\in \Pi_1(v, f_j(1))$ and $(i-1, i) \subset \Pi_1(v, f_j(1))$. Thus the $j$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_2)$ is 0. Partition $V(P_1)$ into $V_{1,1}$ and $V_{1,2}$ such that

$$V_{1,1} = \{\text{all the vertices in } V(P_1) \text{ before the perfect matching } M_{i+1} \text{ mod } n \text{ is applied}\} \text{ and } V_{1,2} = V(P_1) \setminus V_{1,1}.$$ 

Thus the $j$th bit of all vertices in $V_{1,1}$ is 1 and the $j$th bit of all vertices in $V_{1,2}$ is 0. By the fact that the $j$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_2)$ is 0, to prove $V(P_1) \cap V(P_2) = \emptyset$, it suffices to prove $V_{1,2} \cap V(P_2) = \emptyset$. If $v_0 = 1$, then the $(j-1)$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_2) \setminus f_j(1)$ is 1; however, the $(j-1)$th bit of all the vertices in $V_{1,2}$ is 0. Since the $i$th bit of is 1, but the $i$th bit of
all the vertices in $V_{1,2}$ is $0,f_j(v) \not\in V_{1,2}$. If $v_k = 0$, then the $(j - 1)$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_2)$ is 1, and the $(j - 1)$th bit of all the vertices in $V_{1,2} \setminus \{z = 2^{j-1} + 2^{j-1} + 1\}$ is 0. Since $t$ is odd, there exists $v_k = 1$ for some $k > j$. Thus $z \not\in V(P_2)$ by comparing the $k$th bit of them. Therefore, no such $a$ exists in this case.

Subcase 4.3.2: $v_l = 0$ and $v_j = 0$. Suppose $t$ is even. Then the $j$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_2)$ is 1. However, the $j$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_1)$ is 0. Suppose $t$ is odd. Then the number of bits in $v_{n-1} v_{n-2} \ldots v_{i+1}$ that are 1 is even; this implies that $i$ is the first member in $I_t(v, f_j(1))$. Thus the $i$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_1)$ is 0. However, the $i$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_1)$ is 1. Thus no such $a$ exists.

Subcase 4.3.3: $v_l = 0$ and $v_j = 1$. Suppose $t$ is even. Then the first member in $I_t(v, f_j(1))$ is $i - 1$ and the first member in $I_t(v, f_j(1))$ is $i$. So the $i$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_2)$ is 0; however, the $i$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_1)$ is 1. Suppose $t$ is odd. Define $q$ to be the index of the leftmost nonzero bit of $v$. Then $q > j$. Thus the $(i - 1)$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_2)$ $\not\in f_j(v)$ is 0; however, the $(i - 1)$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_1)$ is 1. By comparing the $j$th and the $q$th bits of $f_j(v)$ with the $j$th and the $q$th bits of every vertex in $V(P_1)$, we have $f_j(v) \not\in V(P_1)$. Thus no such $a$ exists.

Subcase 4.3.4: $v_l = 1$ and $v_j = 1$. If the number of those bits from $v_{n-1}$ to $v_{i+1}$ being 1 is even, then the $j$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_2)$ is 1; however, the $j$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_1)$ is 0. If the number of those bits from $v_{n-1}$ to $v_{i+1}$ being 1 is odd, then the number of bits in $v_{n-1} v_{n-2} \ldots v_{i+1}$ that are 1 is even. Thus $i$ is the first member of $I_t(v, f_j(1))$; but $i \not\in I_t(v, f_j(1))$, which implies that the $i$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_2)$ is 0 but the $i$th bit of all the vertices in $V(P_1)$ is 1. So Claim 4.5 is true for this case.

As a result, Claim 4.5 is true for Case 4. From the above discussion, Claim 4.5 is true for all the cases, and therefore $T_0, T_1, \ldots, T_{n-1}$ are vertex-independent rooted at $r = 0$ of $LTQ_n$. □

By Theorem 2.4 and Lemmas 4.7 and 4.8, we have the following result.

**Theorem 4.10.** $T_0, T_1, \ldots, T_{n-1}$ are $n$ vertex-ISTs rooted at $r$ for $LTQ_n$.

5. Concluding remarks

The independent spanning trees (ISTs) problem attempts to construct a set of pairwise independent spanning trees and it has numerous applications in networks such as data broadcasting, scattering and reliable communication protocols. The well-known ISTs conjecture, Vertex/Edge Conjecture, states that any $n$-connected/$n$-edge-connected graph has $n$ vertex-ISTs/edge-ISTs rooted at an arbitrary vertex $r$. Both the Vertex and Edge Conjectures are still open on general graphs for $n \geq 5$.

In this paper, we consider the ISTs problem on the $n$-dimensional locally twisted cube $LTQ_n$. The very recent algorithm proposed by Hsieh and Tu [12] is designed to construct $n$ edge-ISTs rooted at vertex 0 for $LTQ_n$. However, we find that $LTQ_n$ is not vertex-transitive when $n \geq 4$ and therefore Hsieh and Tu’s result does not solve the Edge Conjecture for $LTQ_n$. In this paper, we present an algorithm to construct $n$ vertex-independent spanning trees rooted at an arbitrary vertex for $LTQ_n$. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first result to confirm the Vertex Conjecture for the locally twisted cubes. In addition, it is also interesting to confirm whether the Vertex Conjecture is true for other hypercube variants.

**References**


