

Lecture 10

MATH-42021/52021 Graph Theory and Combinatorics.

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Department of Mathematical Sciences, Kent State University

July, 2016.

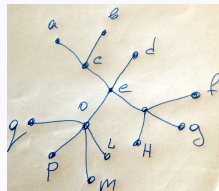
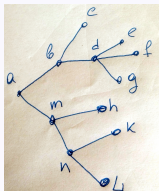
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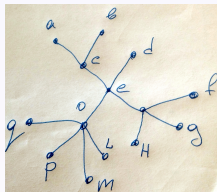
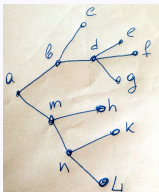
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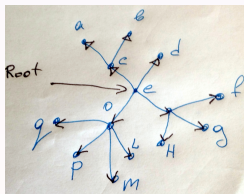
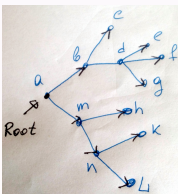
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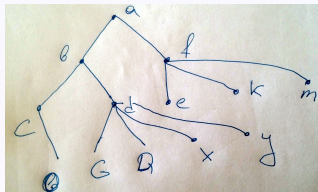


Another way to define a tree as a graph with special designated vertex - *root* such that there is a unique pass from a root to any other vertex in the tree. One can also use this definition for directed graphs.

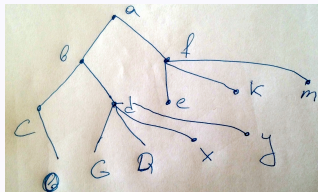


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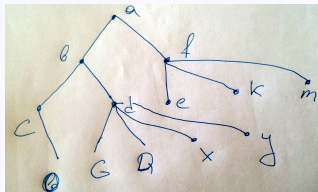


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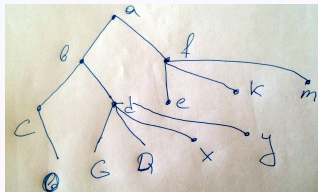
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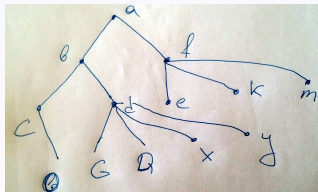
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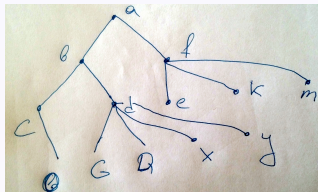
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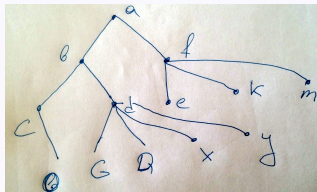
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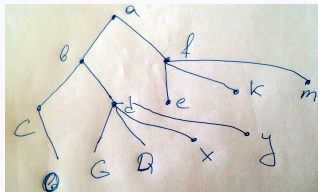
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For any vertex x , which is not the root, we say y is a parent of x if x and y are adjacent and level of y is one less than the level of x .

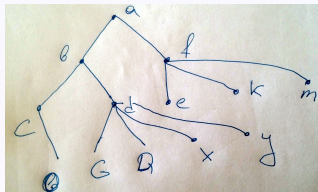
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Vertices of T with no children are called *leaves* of T (o, g, q, x, y in our example).

Vertices with children are called *internal vertices*.

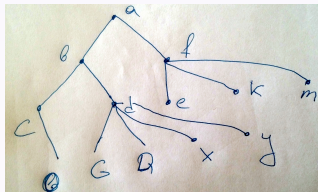
Theorem.

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Proof : We may assume that the tree is rooted (we select the root and structure the tree as before).



Then we can pair every vertex (but the root!) with unique incoming edge from its parent. This gives exactly $n - 1$ edges.

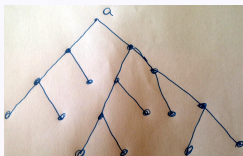
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Trees - some basic theorems

If each internal vertex of a rooted tree has m children, we call T an m -ary tree.

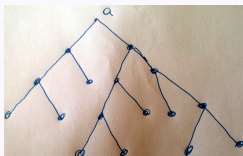
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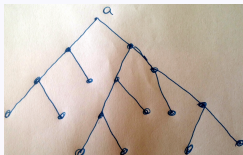


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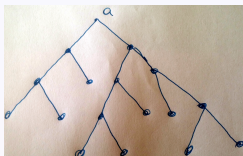
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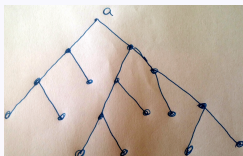
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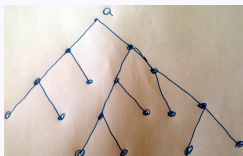
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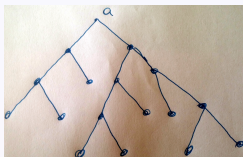
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Corollary

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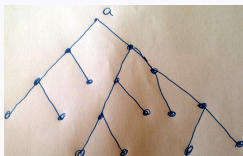
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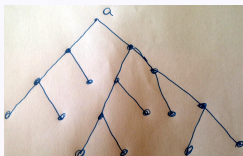
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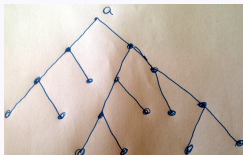
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The proof follows immediately from the theorem and the fact that $l + i = n$.

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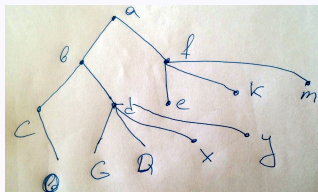
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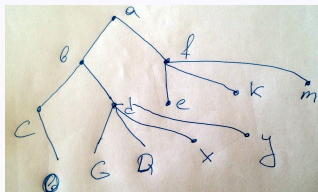
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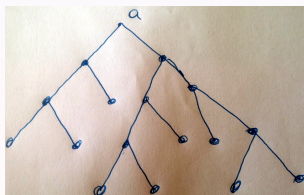


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Proof : To prove the first statement we will use the induction on h .

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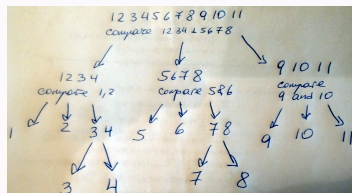
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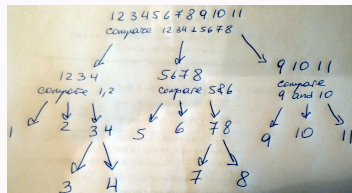
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This way we create a ternary tree with n leaves, thus the height must be $\lceil \log_3 n \rceil$.

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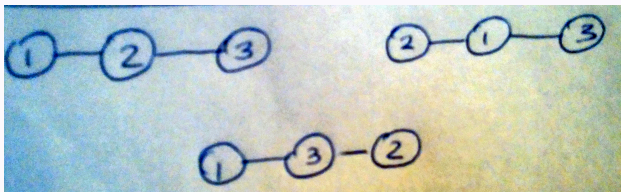
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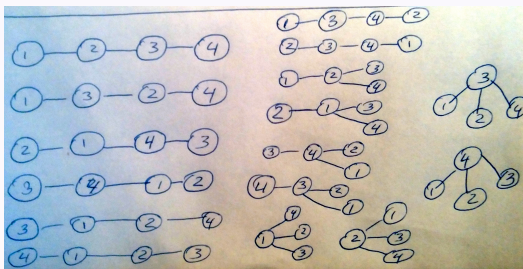
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Also note, that we now can prove the theorem by creating a one to one correspondence between trees of n -elements and sequences of n -elements.

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How many (undirected) trees are there – general theorem.

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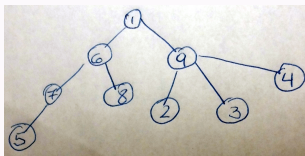
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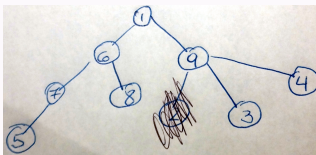
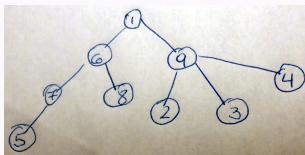
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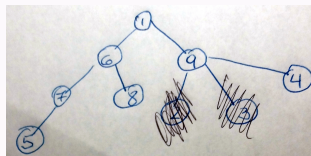
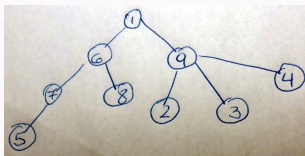
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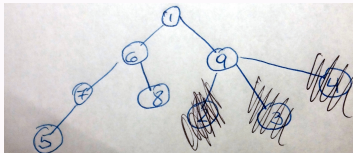
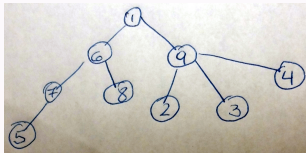
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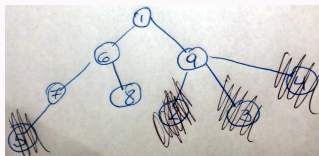
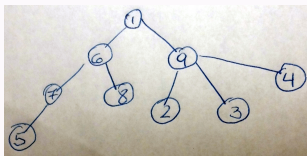
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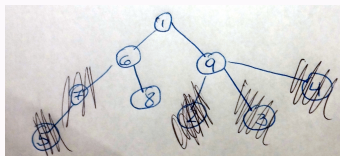
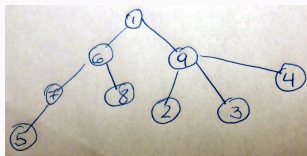
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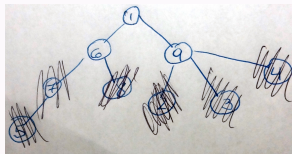
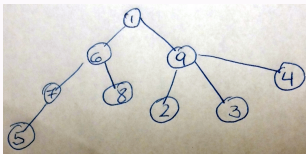
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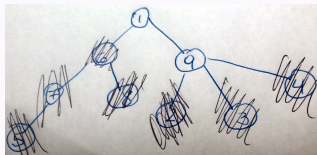
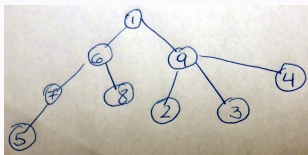
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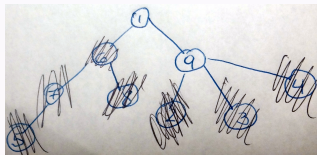
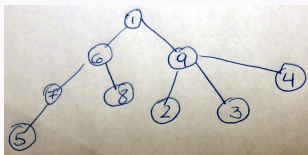
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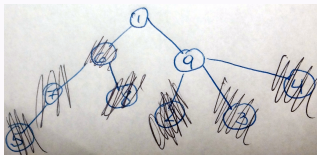
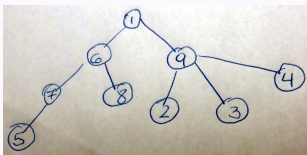
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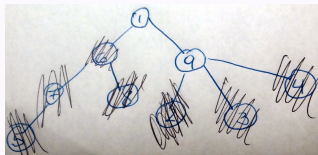
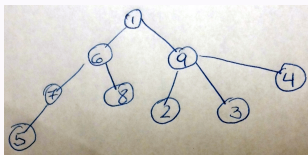
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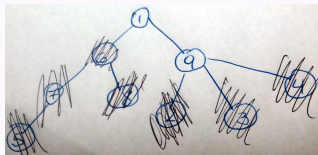
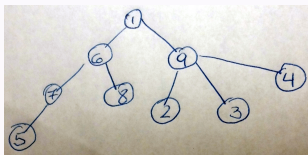
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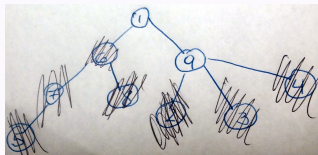
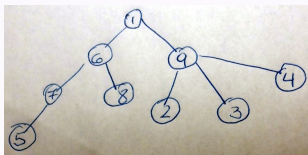
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Our next goal is to show that any such $(n-2)$ -length sequence defines a unique n -item tree. To do this we simply reverse the process. Observe that leaves (vertices of degree 1) will never appear in the sequence.

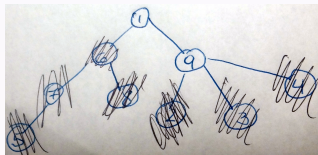
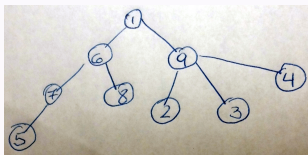
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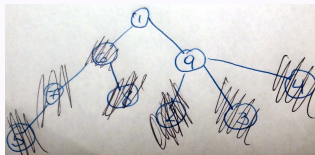
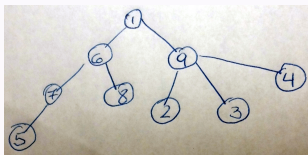
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Our next goal is to show that any such $(n-2)$ -length sequence defines a unique n -item tree. To do this we simply reverse the process. Observe that leaves (vertices of degree 1) will never appear in the sequence. So we draw them first. Next observe that the first number of the sequence (9 in our case) is the neighbor of the smallest numbered leaf (leaf with number 2 in our example)

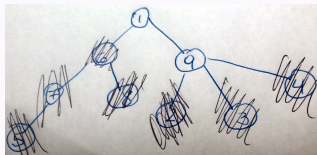
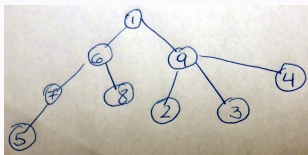
How many (undirected) trees are there – general theorem.

Theorem

There are n^{n-2} different undirected trees on n items.

Proof : First notice that n^{n-2} is a number of different sequences of length $(n-2)$ where each element is selected out of n (notice that we do not ask elements of the sequence to be different, thus we can select the first element in n ways, after the second element in n ways and continue till $(n-2)$ 'nd element, we also note that the order does matter for sequences).

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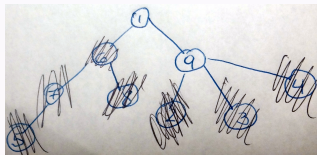
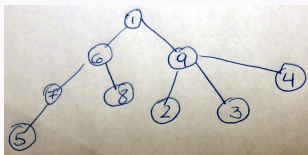
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