

Combinatorics

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1 Lecture 6. Trees

Definition 1.1. A graph G is connected, if for any vertices u and v , G contains a path from u to v . Otherwise, we say G is disconnected.

Definition 1.2. A component of a graph G is a maximal connected subgraph of G .

Definition 1.3. A graph T is called a tree if it is connected but contains no cycles. A vertex in a tree T with degree one is called a leaf.

Fact 1.4 (Euler's Formula on trees). For any tree $T = (V, E)$, we have $|V| = |E| + 1$.

Proof. First, any tree has at least one leaf. As otherwise, all vertices have degree at least 2, then this gives a cycle, a contradiction.

Next we apply induction on n . Consider the base case that $n = 2$, the tree is an edge, then we are done. Now we assume the statement holds for any tree on $n - 1$ vertices. Consider a tree T on n vertices ($n \geq 2$). We know that T contains a leaf, call v . It is easy to see that $T - \{v\}$ is still a tree as it is connected and has no cycles which has $n - 1$ vertices. By induction, $T - \{v\}$ has $n - 2$ edges. So T has $n - 1$ edges. ■

Fact 1.5. Any tree T with at least 2 vertices has at least 2 leaves.

Proof. Assume for a contradiction that an n -vertex tree T has exactly one leaf v , then $d(u) \geq 2$ for any $u \in V(T) \setminus \{v\}$. Thus

$$2(n - 1) = 2e(T) = \sum_{x \in V(T)} d(x) \geq 2(n - 1) + 1 = 2n - 1,$$

a contradiction. ■

Theorem 1.6 (Tree characterization). Let $T = (V, E)$ be a graph. Then the following are equivalent:

- (i). T is a tree (i.e. connected and no cycle).
- (ii). T is a "minimal" connected graph. (i.e. deleting any edge will result in a disconnected graph.)
- (iii). T is a "maximal" graph without a cycle. (i.e. adding any new edge will result in a cycle.)

Proof. (i) \Rightarrow (ii): Suppose (ii) fails, then there exists $e = xy \in E(T)$ such that $T - \{e\}$ is still connected. Then $T - \{e\}$ has a path P from x to y . So $P \cup \{e\}$ is a cycle in T , a contradiction.

(ii) \Rightarrow (i): Suppose (i) fails, then T contains a cycle C . If we delete any edge e from C , $T - \{e\}$ remains connected, a contradiction.

(i) \Rightarrow (iii): For any new edge $e = xy$, as T is connected, T has a path P from x to y . Thus, $P \cup \{e\}$ gives a cycle.

(iii) \Rightarrow (i): Suppose (i) fails, so T is disconnected. Then T has two components, say D_1 and D_2 . Pick $x \in D_1$ and $y \in D_2$. If we add the new edge $e = xy$, then it is easy to see that $T + \{e\}$ still has no cycle, a contradiction. ■

Definition 1.7. Given a graph G , a subgraph H of G is a spanning subgraph if $V(H) = V(G)$.

Fact 1.8. Any graph G is connected if and only if it contains a spanning tree.

Proof. If G has a spanning tree then it is connected.

Suppose G is connected. Deleting edges of G until it satisfies the property (ii) in the theorem-1.6, then we get a spanning tree. ■

Definition 1.9. Given a connected graph G with n vertices, say v_1, \dots, v_n . Let $ST(G)$ be the number of labelled spanning trees in G .

Theorem 1.10 (Cayley's Formula). For an integer $n \geq 2$,

$$ST(K_n) = n^{n-2}.$$

We will give 3 proofs for this formula.

1.1 The first proof of Cayley's formula

Let $V(K_n) = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$ and given a spanning tree T . Then

$$\sum_{i=1}^n d(v_i) = 2e(T) = 2n - 2.$$

Now we introduce a lemma.

Lemma 1.11. Let d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n be positive integers with $\sum_{i=1}^n d_i = 2n - 2$. Then the number of spanning trees in K_n on vertex set $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ satisfying $d(v_i) = d_i$ is equal to

$$\frac{(n-2)!}{(d_1-1)!(d_2-1)! \cdots (d_n-1)!}.$$

Proof. We prove by induction on n . Base case is trivial. When $n = 2$, $d_1 = d_2 = 1$. There is only one spanning tree.

Now we assume that this statement holds for any sequence of $n - 1$ positive integers. Then consider d_1, \dots, d_n with $\sum_{i \in [n]} d_i = 2n - 2$. By average, $(\sum d_i)/n < 2$, so there exists some $d_i = 1$, say $d_n = 1$. Let \mathcal{F} be the family of all spanning trees with $d(v_i) = d_i$ for $i \in [n]$. And let $\mathcal{F}_i = \{T - \{v_n\} : T \in \mathcal{F}, \text{ the unique neighbor of } v_n \text{ in } T \text{ is } v_i\}$. So $|\mathcal{F}| = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} |\mathcal{F}_i|$. All trees in \mathcal{F}_i have $n - 1$ vertices $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{n-1}\}$ such that

$$\begin{cases} d(v_j) = d_j & j \neq i \\ d(v_i) = d_i - 1 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

By induction, we have

$$|\mathcal{F}_i| = \frac{(n-3)!}{(d_1-1)! \cdots (d_i-2)! \cdots (d_{n-1}-1)!} = \frac{(n-3)!(d_i-1)}{\prod_{j=1}^{n-1} (d_j-1)!}.$$

So

$$|\mathcal{F}| = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} |\mathcal{F}_i| = \frac{(n-3)!}{\prod_{j=1}^{n-1} (d_j-1)!} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (d_i-1) \right) = \frac{(n-2)!}{\prod_{j=1}^n (d_j-1)!}.$$

■

Recall the multinomial Theorem:

$$(x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_k)^n = \sum_{i_1 + \cdots + i_k = n} \frac{n!}{i_1! \cdots i_k!} x_1^{i_1} \cdots x_k^{i_k},$$

which implies

$$k^n = \sum_{i_1 + \cdots + i_k = n} \frac{n!}{i_1! \cdots i_k!}.$$

Thus we have

$$ST(K_n) = \sum_{\substack{\sum_{i=1}^n d_i = 2n-2 \\ d_i \geq 1}} \frac{(n-2)!}{\prod_{j=1}^n (d_j-1)!} = n^{n-2}.$$

1.2 The second proof of Cayley's formula

Definition 1.12. A digraph $D = (V, A)$ consists of a vertex set V and an arc set $A \subseteq \{(i, j) : i, j \in V\}$

Let \mathcal{D} be the family of digraphs $D = ([n], A)$ such that each vertex in D has exactly one arc going out (i.e. each vertex has out degree one).

Fact 1.13.

$$|\mathcal{D}| = n^n.$$

Proof. Consider the set $\mathcal{F} = \{\text{all mapping } f : [n] \rightarrow [n]\}$. It is easy to see there exists a bijection between \mathcal{D} and \mathcal{F} . So $|\mathcal{D}| = |\mathcal{F}| = n^n$. ■

Definition 1.14. Given a spanning tree of K_n , we choose 2 special vertices (one marked by a circle and the other marked by a square; these two vertices can be the same vertex). We call such a subject (the spanning tree with 2 special vertices) as a vertebrate.

Let \mathcal{V} be a family of all vertebrates on $[n]$. Clearly, $|\mathcal{V}| = ST(K_n)n^2$. So to get the Cayley's formula, it suffices to show $|\mathcal{V}| = n^n$.

Lemma 1.15. There exists a bijection between \mathcal{V} and \mathcal{D} .

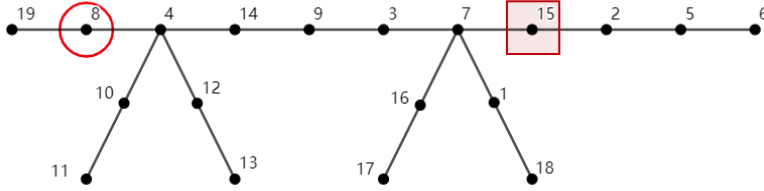


Figure 1: A vertebrate

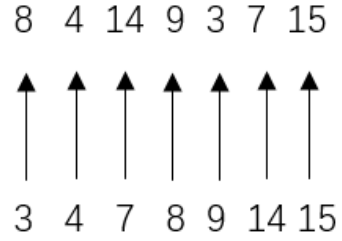


Figure 2: D_1

Proof. Consider a $W \in \mathcal{V}$ (see figure 1). Let P be the unique path in W between the two special vertices (marked by a circle and a square); and view P as a directed path from the circle to the square.

We then define a digraph D_1 on $V(P)$ by assign the following arcs (figure 2): that is, we place two rows, where the 1st row is from P and the 2nd row is the increasing sequence of $V(P)$, then we orient the arcs of D_1 from the vertices of the 2nd row to the one above it. Thus each vertex in D_1 has exactly one arc out and one arc going in.

Exercise 1.1. D_1 consists of vertex-disjoint directed cycle. (possibly loops and 2-cycles)

Next, we extend D_1 to a digraph D on $[n]$, by the following:

- (1) We remove all edges of P from W .
- (2) Then $W - E(P)$ consists of subtrees, each having one vertex from $V(P)$. We direct the edges of these subtrees such that they point to the unique vertex of the component contained in $V(P)$.
- (3) There arcs product in (2) together with the arcs of D_1 , define a new graph D_W on $[n]$. This should be easy to see that $D_W \in \mathcal{D}$.

So we just define a mapping $\varphi : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$, by assigning $\varphi(W) = D_W$, $W \in \mathcal{D}$. Next, We show φ is a bijection.

Step 1. We can define $\varphi^{-1} : \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$ such that $\varphi^{-1} \cdot \varphi = Id$.

Remark: In any D_W , $V(D_1)$ consists of all vertices in D_W contained in a directed cycle.

Take any $D \in \mathcal{D}$, there exists some vertex of D contained in a directed cycle. Let X be the set of all such vertices of D . Since $D[X]$ consists of vertex-disjoint directed cycles, there is a nature way to define a path as following (see figure 3):

First, list the vertices of X in the increasing order. Second, list the out-neighbor vertices of X in another row, respectively. Then the second row defines a path P be the special path in the vertebrate. Then it is easy to define the rest part of the vertebrate say W . So we have $D \in \mathcal{D} \xrightarrow{\varphi^{-1}} W \in \mathcal{V}$. We can check that $\varphi^{-1} \cdot \varphi = Id$.

Step 2. φ is a surjective.

We have proved in Step 1 that for any $D \in \mathcal{D}$, there exists $W \in \mathcal{V}$ satisfying $\varphi(W) = D$.

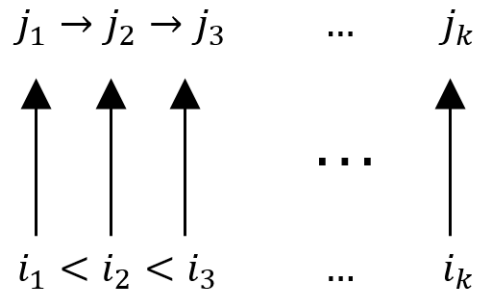


Figure 3: Define a path

Therefore indeed φ is a bijection. ■

Combining Fact 1.13 with Lemma 1.15, we get $ST(K_n) = n^{n-2}$.