

Chapter 1

Trees

4.1 Basics of Trees and Forests

Definition 4.1.1 ► Tree, Forest, Leaf

A **tree** is a connected graph that contains no cycles. A **forest** is a collection of one or more trees. A vertex of degree 1 in a tree is called a **leaf**.

As in nature, graph-theoretic trees come in many shapes and sizes. They can be thin (P_{10}) or thick ($K_{1,1000}$), tall (P_{1000}) or short (K_1 and K_2). You can check out how these graphs look by looking them up on google.

There are some interesting names that can be assigned to certain graphs. Such as, K_1 is called a stump and K_2 is called a twig. Similarly, any $K_{1,3}$ graph is called a claw. There are more graphs, which have been assigned such interesting names, and the list is just a web search away from you.

Theorem 4.1.1

A tree T of order n has $(n - 1)$ edges.

Proof. We use induction to prove this theorem.

Base Case: For $n = 1$ the only tree is the stump (K_1), and it of course has 0 edges.

Induction Hypothesis: Assume that the result is true for all trees of order less than k .

Inductive Step: Let, T be a tree of order k . Choose some edge of T and call it e . Since T is a tree, it must be that $T - e$ is disconnected with two connected components that are trees themselves. Say that these two components of $T - e$ are T_1 and T_2 , with orders k_1 and k_2 , respectively. Thus, k_1 and k_2 are less than n and $k_1 + k_2 = k$.

Since $k_1 < k$, the theorem is true for T_1 . Thus T_1 has $k_1 - 1$ edges. Similarly, T_2 has $k_2 - 1$ edges. Now, since $E(T)$ is the disjoint union of $E(T_1)$, $E(T_2)$, and $\{e\}$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}|E(T)| &= (k_1 - 1) + (k_2 - 1) + 1 \\ &= k_1 + k_2 - 1 \\ &= k - 1\end{aligned}$$

Hence, a tree T of order n has $n - 1$ edges. □

The next two theorems can be trivially proved by using the idea of the preceding theorem and so are left as an exercise for the reader. But before stating them we need to define some terminology. We denote the number of connected components in a graph G by $\beta_0(G)$.

Theorem 4.1.2

If F is a forest of order n , then F has $(n - \beta_0(G))$ edges.

Proof. Easy exercise. □

Theorem 4.1.3 (Characterization of tree)

For an n -vertex graph G (with $n > 1$), the following are equivalent (and characterize the trees with n vertices).

- G is connected and has no cycles.
- G is connected and has $n - 1$ edges.
- G has $n - 1$ edges and no cycles.
- For $u, v \in V(G)$, G has exactly one u, v -path.

Theorem 4.1.4

If T is a tree of order $n \geq 2$, then T has atleast two leaves.

Proof. Use Theorem 1.2.1 and Theorem 4.1.3 to prove this. □

4.2 Subgraph of Trees or Trees as Subgraphs

Theorem 4.2.1

In any tree, the center is either a single vertex or a pair of adjacent vertices.

Proof. Given a tree T , we form a sequence of trees as follows. Let $T_0 = T$. Let, T_1 be the graph obtained from T_0 by deleting all of its leaves. Note here that T_1 is also a tree. Let, T_2 be the tree obtained from T_1 by deleting all of the leaves of T_1 . In general, for as long as it is possible, let T_j be the tree obtained by deleting all of the leaves of T_{j-1} . Since T is finite, there must be an integer r such that T_r is either K_1 or K_2 .

Consider now a consecutive pair T_i, T_{i+1} of trees from the sequence $T = T_0, T_1, \dots, T_r$. Let, v be a non-leaf of T_i . In T_i , the vertices that are at the greatest distance from v are leaves of T_i . This means that the eccentricity of v in T_{i+1} is one less than the eccentricity of v in T_i . Since this is true for all non-leaves of T_i , it must be that the center of T_{i+1} is exactly the same as the center of T_i .

Therefore, the center of T_r is the center of T_{r-1} , which is the center of T_{r-2}, \dots , which is the center of $T_0 = T$. Since, T_r is either K_1 or K_2 , the proof is complete. □

We will now add consider trees as subgraphs of graphs, that may or may not be trees.

Theorem 4.2.2

Let T be a tree with k edges. If G is a graph whose minimum degree satisfies $\delta(G) \geq k$, then G contains T as a subgraph. Alternatively, G contains every tree of order at most $\delta(G) + 1$ as a subgraph.

Proof. We induct on k . If $k = 0$, then $T = K_1$, and it is clear that K_1 is a subgraph of any graph. Further, if $k = 1$, then $T = K_2$, and K_2 is a subgraph of any graph whose minimum degree is 1. Assume that the result is true for all trees with $k - 1$ edges ($k \geq 2$), and consider a tree T with exactly k edges. We know that T contains at least two leaves. Let, v be one of them, and let, w be the vertex that is adjacent to v . Consider the graph $T - v$. Since $T - v$ has $k - 1$ edges, the induction hypothesis applies, so $T - v$ is a subgraph of G .

We can think of $T - v$ as actually sitting inside of G . Now, since G contains at least $k + 1$ vertices and $T - v$ contains k vertices, there exist vertices of G that are not a part of the subgraph $T - v$. Further, since the degree in G of w is at least k , there must be a vertex u not in $T - v$ that is adjacent to w . The subgraph $T - v$ together with u forms the tree T as a subgraph of G . \square

Definition 4.2.1 ► Spanning Tree

Given a graph G , and a subgraph T , we say that T is a spanning tree of G , if T is a tree that contains every vertex of G .

Theorem 4.2.3 (Cayley's Tree formula)

There are n^{n-2} distinct labeled trees of order n . In other words, the number of spanning trees of K_n is n^{n-2} .