7.1.1 Definition and Properties of Undirected Trees Minimum Leaf Theorem for Trees(e.g.)



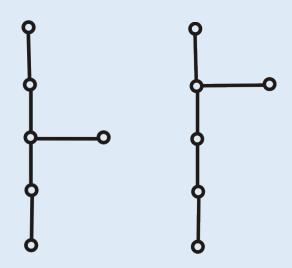
- **Example:** Given an undirected tree *T* with one vertex of degree 3, two vertices of degree 2, and all other vertices being leaves, determine the *number of leaves* and draw all non-isomorphic undirected trees that satisfy these conditions.
- Solution: Let the tree have x leaves m edges and n (= 1+2+ x) vertices. The total degree is = 3*1+2*2+1* x. Using the properties of trees m=n-1 and the Handshaking Lemma:

$$2 \times m = 2 \times (n-1) = 2 \times (3+x-1) = 2 \times (2+x)$$

 $2 \times (2+x) = 1 \times 3 + 2 \times 2 + x$

Answer: The tree has 3 leaves.

The degree sequence of T: 1, 1, 1, 2, 2, 3.



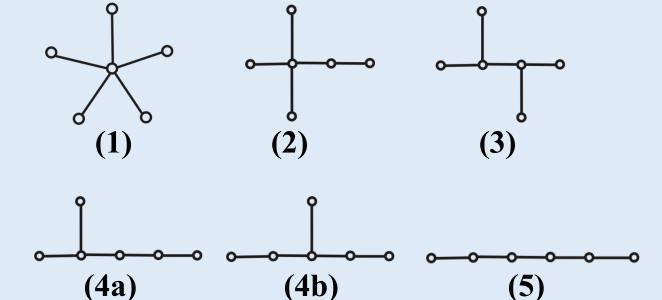


7.1.1 Definition and Properties of Undirected Trees Constructing an Undirected Tree: An Example



- **Example:** Draw all non-isomorphic undirected trees of order 6.
- **Solution:** There are 5 edges, and the total degree is 10.

Possible degree sequences:



7.1 Undirected Trees

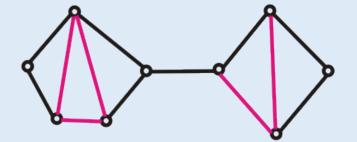


- 7.1.1 Definition and Properties of Undirected Trees
- 7.1.2 Spanning Trees

Spanning Tree T and Its Co-Tree T



- Let **G** be an undirected connected graph.
 - A *spanning tree T* of *G*: a spanning subgraph of *G* that is also a tree.
 - A branch of the spanning tree T: an edge of G that belongs to T.
 - A *chord* of the spanning tree *T*: an edge of *G* that does **not** belong to *T*.
 - The *co-tree* of the spanning tree *T*: the subgraph induced by the set of all chords.
- Note: The co-tree \overline{T} is not necessarily connected, and it may contain cycles.
- **Example:** The black edges form a spanning tree, and the red edges form the co-tree.





Spanning Tree Existence Theorem



- Theorem 7.3: Every undirected connected graph has a spanning tree.
- Proof: Use the cycle-breaking method.
 - 1 If the graph contains no cycles, then the graph itself is a spanning tree.
 - ② Otherwise, remove any edge from a cycle this does not destroy connectivity.
 - 3 Repeat this process until there are no cycles remaining. The resulting graph is a spanning tree of the original graph.
- **Corollary 1:** If an undirected connected graph has n vertices and m edges, then $m \ge n-1$.
- **Corollary 2:** If an undirected connected graph has n vertices and m edges, then the co-tree of any spanning tree contains m-n+1 edges.







- Each edge e of a graph G is assigned a real number w(e), called the weight of edge e.
 - The graph G together with the weights on its edges is called a weighted graph, denoted by G=<V,E,W>.
 - Let H be a subgraph of G, The weight of H denoted W(H) is the sum of the weights of all edges in H.
- Minimum Spanning Tree (MST):

A spanning tree of a weighted graph *G* that has the **minimum total** weight among all possible spanning trees.





Kruskal's MST Algorithm - Cycle-Avoidance Approach

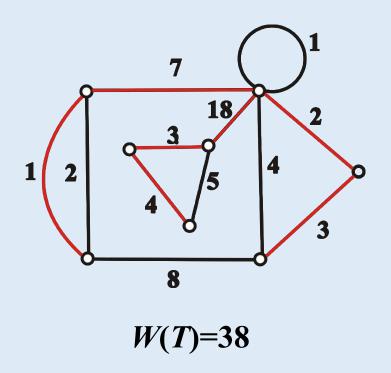
- Kruskal's Algorithm An algorithm for *finding a minimum* spanning tree. Let G be an undirected connected weighted graph of order n.
 - (1) Sort all edges in non-decreasing order of weight (excluding cycles), i.e. $W(e_1) \le W(e_2) \le ... \le W(e_m)$.
 - (2) Initialize $T \leftarrow \emptyset$, $i \leftarrow 1$, $k \leftarrow 0$.
 - (3) If e_i does not form a cycle with the edges already in T_i , then set $T \leftarrow T \cup \{e_i\}$, $k \leftarrow k+1$.
 - (4) If k < n-1, then set $i \leftarrow i+1$, and repeat step (3).





Kruskal's MST Algorithm - Cycle-Avoidance Approach(e.g.)

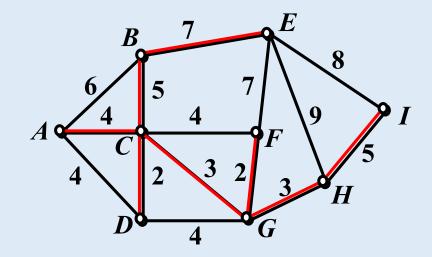
Example: Find a minimum spanning tree of the graph.



Kruskal's MST Algorithm - Cycle-Avoidance Approach(e.g.)



- **Example:** A telecommunications company has a *fiber-optic network* coverage requirement as shown in the figure. The possible cable routes between buildings and their lengths (in meters) are given in the diagram.
- Question: Under the condition that the entire network must be connected, how should the cable routes be selected to ensure that the total cable length is minimized?
- Solution:



Total Length:

2+2+3+3+4+5+5+7=31(meters)



7.1 Undirected Trees • Brief summary



Objective:

Key Concepts:





Discrete Mathematics 2025 Spring



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Chapter 7: Trees and Their Applications



- 7.1 Undirected Trees
- 7.2 Rooted Trees and Their Applications



7.2 Rooted Trees and Their Applications



- 7.2.1 Rooted Trees and Their Classifications
- 7.2.2 Optimal Trees and the Huffman Algorithm
- 7.2.3 Optimal Prefix Codes
- 7.2.4 Traversals of Rooted Trees and Their Applications
 - Inorder Traversal, Preorder Traversal, and Postorder Traversal
 - Polish Notation and Reverse Polish Notation



7.2.1 Rooted Trees and Their Classifications





- *Directed Tree*: A directed graph that becomes an undirected tree when edge directions are ignored.
- Rooted Tree: A nontrivial directed tree in which exactly one vertex has indegree 0 (the root), and all other vertices have in-degree 1.
- Root: The vertex with in-degree 0 in a directed tree.
- **Leaf:** A vertex with in-degree 1 and *out-degree 0* in a directed tree.
- Internal Vertex: A vertex with in-degree 1 and out-degree greater than 0 in a directed tree.
- Branching Vertex: A general term referring to both the root and internal vertices.
- **Level of a Vertex v:** The *length of the path* from the root to vertex v.
- **Height of the Tree:** The *maximum level* among all vertices in the directed tree.

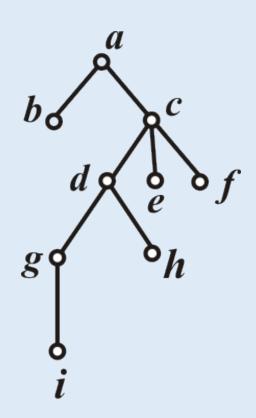


7.2.1 Rooted Trees and Their Classifications

Drawing a Rooted Tree(e.g.)



- **Example:** (as shown in the diagram on the right):
 - a is the root.
 - b,e,f,h,I are the leaves.
 - c,d,g are internal vertices.
 - a,c,d,g are branching vertices.
 - a is at level 0; level 1 contains b,c; level 2 contains d,e,f; level 3 contains g,h; level 4 contains i.
 - The height of the tree is 4.





7.2.1 Rooted Trees and Their Classifications





- If vertex a is adjacent to vertex b, then b is called the child of a, and a is the parent of b.
- If **b** and **c** are both children of the same vertex, they are called siblings.
- If $a \neq b$ and a can reach b, then a is an ancestor of b, and b is a descendant of a.
- Let *v* be a vertex in the rooted tree that is not the root. The subgraph induced by *v* and all its descendants is called the *subtree* rooted at *v*.
- If a fixed order is assigned to the vertices at each level of a rooted tree, it is called an *ordered tree*.



7.2.1 Rooted Trees and Their Classifications - r-ary Tree and Ordered r-ary Tree



- Rooted trees can be further classified based on the number of child nodes per parent, the order of child nodes, the regularity of the structure, and the completeness of the tree.
 - *r-ary Tree*: A rooted tree in which each branching vertex has at most *r* children.
 - *r-ary Regular Tree*: A rooted tree in which each branching vertex has exactly *r* children.
 - Complete r-ary Regular Tree: An r-ary regular tree in which all leaves are at the same level.
 - Ordered r-ary Tree: An r-ary tree in which a specific order is assigned to the children of each vertex.
 - Ordered r-ary Regular Tree: An ordered tree in which each branching vertex has exactly r ordered children.
 - Ordered Complete r-ary Regular Tree: An ordered r-ary regular tree in which all leaves are at the same level.

7.2 Rooted Trees and Their Applications



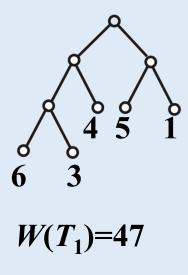
- 7.2.1 Rooted Trees and Their Classifications
- 7.2.2 Optimal Trees and the Huffman Algorithm
- 7.2.3 Optimal Prefix Codes
- 7.2.4 Traversals of Rooted Trees and Their Applications
 - Inorder Traversal, Preorder Traversal, and Postorder Traversal
 - Polish Notation and Reverse Polish Notation

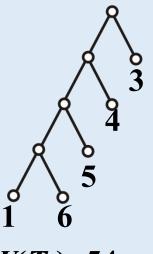


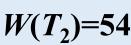
7.2.2 Optimal Trees and the Huffman Algorithm Optimal Binary Tree

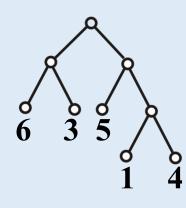


- **Definition7.1:** Let T be a binary tree with t leaves v_1 , v_2 , ..., v_t , and let the weights of the leaves be w_1 , w_2 , ..., w_t .
 - The weight of tree T is defined as: $W(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{t} w_i l(v_i)$, where $l(v_i)$ is the level (depth) of leaf v_i .
 - Among all binary trees with t leaves and weights $w_1, w_2, ..., w_t$, the one with the minimum total weight W(T),) is called the optimal binary tree.
- Example:









$$W(T_3)=43$$





7.2.2 Optimal Trees and the Huffman Algorithm Static Huffman Coding Algorithm



- Huffman Algorithm: Constructing the Optimal Binary (Huffman) Tree. Given real numbers $w_1, w_2, ..., w_t$:
 - ①Create t leaves, each assigned a weight of $w_1, w_2, ..., w_t$ respectively.
 - ②Among all vertices with in-degree **0** (not necessarily leaves), select the two with the smallest weights. Create a new branching node with these two as its children. The weight of the new node is the sum of its two children's weights.
 - 3 Repeat step 2 until there is only one vertex with in-degree 0 remaining.
- The total weight W(T) is the sum of the weights of all branching nodes. The resulting binary tree is the *optimal binary tree*, having the *minimum weighted path length*.

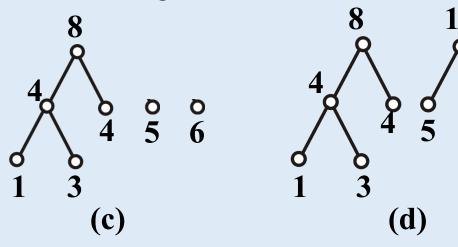


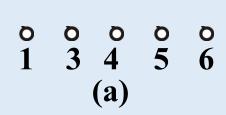
7.2.2 Optimal Trees and the Huffman Algorithm Static Huffman Coding Algorithm(e.g.)

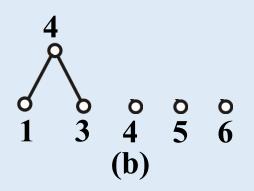
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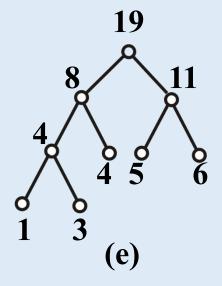
- **Example:** Find the optimal binary tree with weights 1, 3, 4, 5, and 6, and compute its total weight.
- Solution:

Steps (a) through (e) show the computation process using the Huffman algorithm.









$$W(T)=4+8+1$$

1+19=42



7.2 Rooted Trees and Their Applications



- 7.2.1 Rooted Trees and Their Classifications
- 7.2.2 Optimal Trees and the Huffman Algorithm
- 7.2.3 Optimal Prefix Codes
- 7.2.4 Traversals of Rooted Trees and Their Applications
 - Inorder Traversal, Preorder Traversal, and Postorder Traversal
 - Polish Notation and Reverse Polish Notation



Prefix Codes and Binary Prefix Codes



Definition 7.2:

- Let $\beta = \alpha_1 \alpha_2 ... \alpha_{n-1} \alpha_n$ be a string of length n, and let $\alpha_1 \alpha_2 ... \alpha_j$ ($1 \le j \le n$) be a *prefix* of β (with length j).
- If no two distinct strings β_i , β_j ($i \neq j$) in a non-empty set $B = \{\beta_1, \beta_2, ..., \beta_m\}$ are prefixes of one another, then B is called a *prefix code*.
- A prefix code that uses only two symbols (e.g., 0 and 1) is called a binary prefix code.

Examples:

- {0,10,110, 1111}, {10,01,001,110} are binary prefix codes.
- {0,10,010, 1010} is **not** a prefix code.

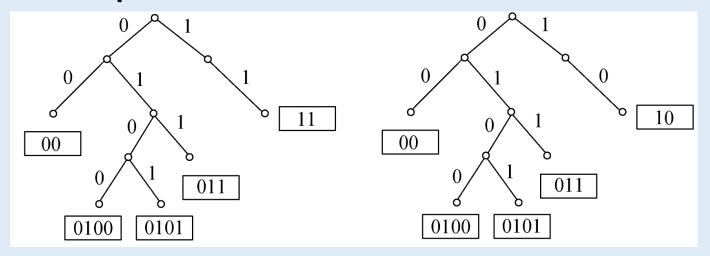


Generating Binary Prefix Codes Using a Binary Tree



- A binary tree can generate a set of *binary prefix codes*:
- 1 For each branching node, if it has two associated edges, label the **left** edge with 0 and the **right** edge with 1.
- ②If a branching node has only **one** associated edge, you may label it with either **0** (interpreted as left) or **1** (interpreted as right).
- ③For each leaf, record the sequence of digits along the path from the root to that leaf. The resulting strings form a *binary prefix code*.

Examples:



Prefix Code:

{00, 11, 011, 0100 , 0101},
{00, 10, 011, 0100 , 0101}







Examples of Binary Prefix Code Applications



- **Example:** In communication, suppose the frequency (%) of octal digits is given as follows: 0: 30, 1: 20, 2: 15, 3: 10, 4: 10, 5: 5, 6: 5,7: 5.
 - Using binary prefix codes, find the binary prefix code that transmits the digits with the fewest number of binary bits (this is called the optimal prefix code).
 - Also, calculate the total number of binary digits needed to transmit 10,000 octal digits following the given frequency distribution using the optimal prefix code.
 - The total number of binary digits required if a fixed-length code (of length 3) is used for each octal digit instead.



Examples of Binary Prefix Code Applications



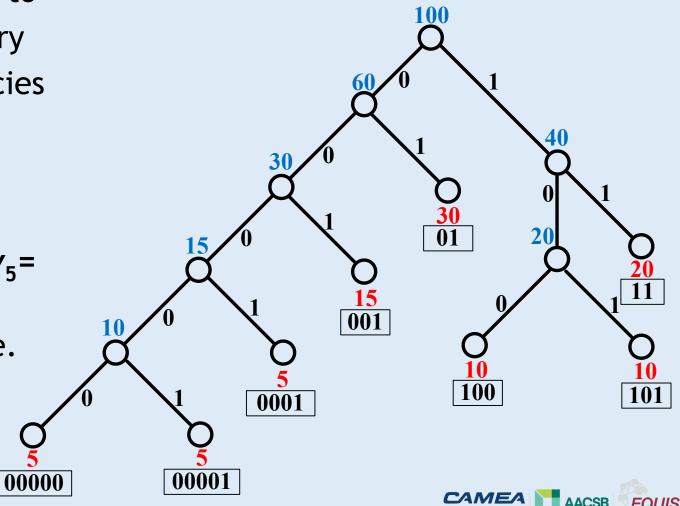
Solution:

1 Use the Huffman algorithm to construct the optimal binary tree, treating the frequencies (multiplied by 100) as the weights.

Let:

 $W_1 = 5, W_2 = 5, W_3 = 5, W_4 = 10, W_5 =$ $10, w_6 = 15, w_7 = 20, w_8 = 30.$

2 Construct the Huffman tree.









Examples of Binary Prefix Code Applications



Solution:

3 Assign codes. For characters with the same frequency, their codes or fixed-length codes can be interchanged without affecting the **validity** or **optimality** of the encoding.

Digit	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Frequency	30%	20%	15%	10%	10%	5%	5%	5%
Huffman Code	01	11	001	100	101	0001	00001	00000
Code Length	2	2	3	3	3	4	5	5
Fixed-Length (Length 3) Code	000	001	010	011	100	101	110	111



Examples of Binary Prefix Code Applications



Solution:

- 4 Calculate the number of binary digits required to transmit 10,000 octal digits according to the given frequency distribution:
- Huffman encoding (optimal prefix code):

$$W(T)=(3000+2000)*2+(1500+1000+1000)*3+500*4+(500+500)*5=27500.$$

- Fixed-length encoding (length 3): 10000*3=30000.
- Bits saved by using the optimal prefix code: 30000-27500=2500, approximately 8.33%.



7.2 Rooted Trees and Their Applications



- 7.2.1 Rooted Trees and Their Classifications
- 7.2.2 Optimal Trees and the Huffman Algorithm
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- 7.2.4 Traversals of Rooted Trees and Their Applications
 - Inorder Traversal, Preorder Traversal, and Postorder Traversal
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7.2.4 Traversals of Rooted Trees and Their Applications



• Preorder, inorder, and postorder of an ordered rooted tree

- Traversing (Touring) a Rooted Tree:
 Visiting each vertex of a rooted tree exactly once.
- Traversal methods for a *binary ordered tree*:
 - (1) *Inorder traversal*: Left subtree → Root → Right subtree
 - (2) *Preorder traversal*: Root → Left subtree → Right subtree
 - (3) *Postorder traversal*: Left subtree → Right subtree → Root
 - When the binary ordered tree is not a full (regular) tree, the left or right subtree may be absent.

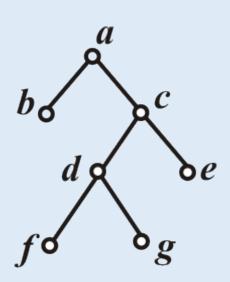


7.2.4 Traversals of Rooted Trees and Their Applications



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- **Example:** The traversal results of the tree on the right are:
 - (1) Inorder traversal: $b \underline{a} (f \underline{d} g) \underline{c} e$
 - (2) Preorder traversal: $\underline{a} b (\underline{c} (\underline{d} f g) e)$
 - (3) Postorder traversal: b ((f g <u>d</u>) e <u>c</u>) <u>a</u>
- Note: Underlined nodes are (sub)tree roots, and each pair of parentheses encloses a subtree.





7.2.4 Traversals of Rooted Trees and Their Applications Expression Tree Construction Rules



- 1 Place an operator at each branching node.
- 2 A binary operator node has two children. The operation applies to the subexpressions represented by the left and right subtrees. By convention, the minuend or dividend is placed in the left subtree.
- (3) A unary operator node has only one child. The operation applies to the subexpression represented by the subtree rooted at that child.
- 4 Numbers and variables are placed at the leaves of the tree.



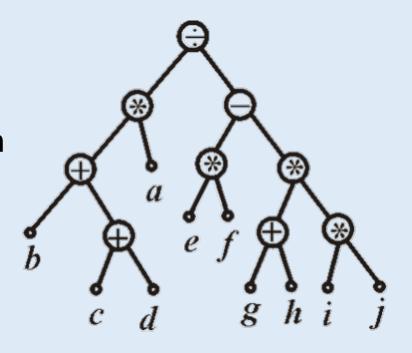
7.2.4 Traversals of Rooted Trees and Their Applications





Example:

- The diagram on the right is a binary ordered tree representing the expression ((b+(c+d))*a)÷((e*f)-(g+h)*(i*j))
- The inorder traversal of this binary ordered tree yields the original expression.



7.2.4 Traversals of Rooted Trees and Their Applications Polish and reverse Polish notations of a rooted tree



Polish Notation (Prefix Notation):

Traverse the binary ordered tree representing the expression using **preorder traversal**, and omit all parentheses.

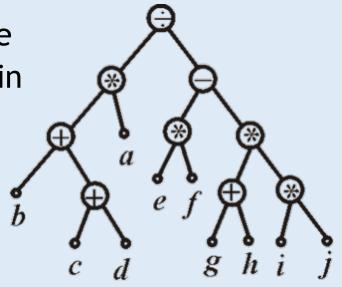
Reverse Polish Notation (Postfix Notation):
Traverse the binary ordered tree using postorder traversal,
and omit all parentheses.

Example: The Polish notation and Reverse Polish notation for the expression shown in the diagram on the right are:

• Polish Notation (Prefix):

$$\div*+b+cda-*ef*+gh*ij$$

Reverse Polish Notation (Postfix):









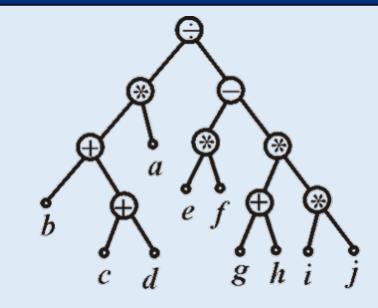
7.2.4 Traversals of Rooted Trees and Their Applications





Computer Processing Method:

- For an expression represented in Polish notation, computation starts from the root node—the operator is encountered first, followed by its operands.
- For an expression in Reverse Polish
 notation, computation begins from the
 leaf nodes and proceeds upward step by
 step until reaching the root node.



• Polish Notation (Prefix):

$$\div*+b+cda-*ef*+gh*ij$$

Reverse Polish Notation (Postfix):



7.2 Rooted Trees and Their Applications • Brief summary



Objective:

Key Concepts:



Chapter 7: Trees and Their Applications • Brief summary



- 7.1 Undirected Trees
- 7.2 Rooted Trees and Their Applications