CS4423-W05-1

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CS4423-Networks: Lecture 9 [Final]

Week 5, Lecture 2: Trees and Algorithms

Niall Madden, School of Mathematical and Statistical Sciences University of Galway

This Jupyter notebook, and PDF and HTML versions, can be found at https://www.niallmadden.ie/2425-CS4423/#Week05

This notebook was written by Niall Madden, adapted from notebooks by Angela Carnevale.

0.1 Modules for this notebook

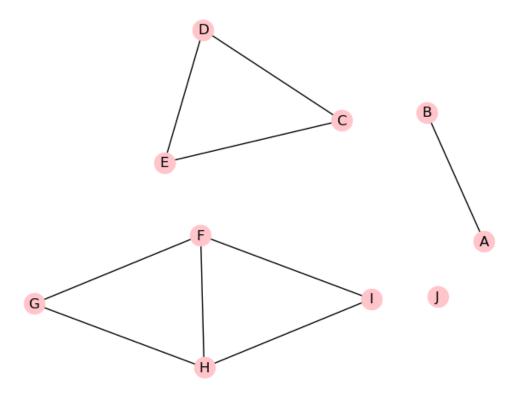
Today, we'll default to light rose-coloured nodes, with has an RGB code of #ffc5cb. For more options, see https://matplotlib.org/stable/users/explain/colors/colors.html

```
[1]: import networkx as nx
import numpy as np
opts = { "with_labels": True, "node_color": '#ffc5cb' } # show labels; rose_\(\sigma\)
\(\sigma\)noodes
```

0.2 Example

Short discussion (again) of paths and cycles, and connected componets

```
[2]: nodes = 'ABCDEFGHIJ'
edges = ['AB', 'CD', 'DE', 'CE', 'FG', 'FH', 'FI', 'GH', 'HI']
G2 = nx.Graph()
G2.add_nodes_from(nodes)
G2.add_edges_from(edges)
nx.draw_kamada_kawai(G2, **opts)
```



- A cycle in a simple graph provides, for any two nodes on that cycle, (at least) two different paths from one to the other.
- It can be useful to provide alternative routes for connectivity in case one of the edges should fail (e.g. in a electricity networks).
- (C, D, E, C) is a 3-cycle; there are others too.
- The graph is not connected: there are 4 connected components.

0.3 Trees

- A graph is called **acyclic** if it does not contain any cycles.
- A tree is a (simple) graph that is connected and acyclic.

In other words, between any two vertices in a tree there is **exactly one simple path**.

Trees can be characterized in many different ways.

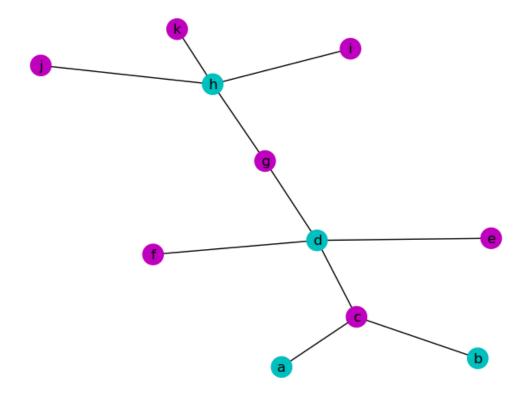
Theorem. Let G = (X, E) be a (simple) graph of order n = |X| and size m = |E|. Then the following are equivalent:

- G is a tree (i.e. acyclic and connected);
- G is connected and m = n 1;
- G is a minimally connected graph (i.e., removing any edge will disconnect G);
- G is acyclic and m = n 1;
- G is a maximally acyclic graph (i.e., adding any edge will introduce a cycle in G).
- There is a unique path between each pair of nodes in G.

0.3.1 Another fact about trees

All trees are bipartite. There are a few ways of thinking about this. One is the a graph is bipartite if has no cycles of odd-length. Since a tree has no cycles - it must be bipartite!

```
[3]: G3 = nx.Graph(["ac","bc","cd","de", "df", "dg","gh", "hi", "hj", "hk"])
top,bottom = nx.bipartite.sets(G3)
G3_colours = ['c' if node in top else 'm' for node in G3.nodes()]
nx.draw(G3, node_color=G3_colours, with_labels=True )
```



0.4 How many trees are there?

- 1. There is one tree with a single node.
- 2. There is also just one tree with two nodes.
- 3. We can easily see that there are 3 trees with 3 nodes (see notes on the board).
- 4. After that, it gets a little harder to count!

0.4.1 Cayley's Formula

Theorem (Cayley's Formula). There are exactly n^{n-2} distinct (labelled) trees on the *n*-element vertex set $X = \{0, 1, 2, ..., n-1\}$, if n > 1.

We'll later see why this is true. But let's see what the numbers look like:

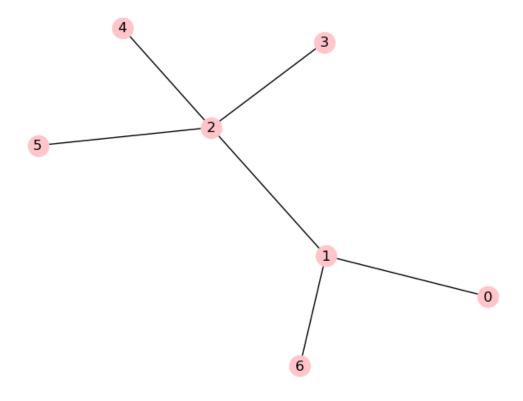
```
[4]: domain = range(2, 10) print(np.array([domain, [n**(n-2) for n in domain]]))
```

```
2
                                                      7
3
                           4
                                    5
                                             6
                                                               8
                                                                        91
 Γ
         1
                 3
                          16
                                  125
                                                         262144 4782969]]
                                         1296
                                                 16807
```

To see why this is true, we'll learn about **Prüfer Codes**.

Let's look at an example: a tree of order n=7

```
[5]: T4 = nx.Graph()
T4.add_nodes_from(range(0,7))
T4.add_edges_from([(0,1),(1,2),(2,3),(2,4),(2,5),(1,6)])
nx.draw(T4, **opts)
```



0.4.2 Computing the Prüfer code

How to determine the Prüfer code of a tree T (destructively):

- Start with a tree, T with nodes labeled $0, 1, \dots, n-1$, and empty list **a**.
- 1. Find the **leaf** x with the smallest label (a "leaf" is a node of degree 1. Every tree must have at least 2).
- 2. Append the label of its unique neighbour, y to the list a
- 3. Remove x (and the edge x-y) from T.
- 4. Repeat Steps 1-3 until T has only 2 nodes left. We now have the code as a list of length n-2.

So the graph above has Pruefer code $\{1, 2, 2, 2, 1\}$

We'll write some code to compute the Prufer code of a tree.

Since the algorithm is recursive, we first write a function that does Steps 1-3: * Find the **leaf** x with the smallest label * Set y to be its neighbour. * Delete x from T * Return y

One of the steps involves finding the neighbour of x. A minor technical issue is that the method T.neighbours(x) returns a iterable. To get its one and only item, we'll use the next() function (there are a few other ways to do this, including converting it to a list)'.

```
[6]: # Does Steps 1-3 of the Algorithm
def pruefer_node(tree):
    for x in tree: # go through nodes in order
        if tree.degree(x) == 1: # first one of degree 1 (is a leaf)
            y = next(tree.neighbors(x)) # y is its only neighbour
             tree.remove_node(x)
            return(y)
```

Since our function destroys the list, we'll make a copy before we start. Also, since we know the list has length n-2, we just call this function n-2 times, adding the value returned to the list:

```
[7]: n = T4.order()
T = T4.copy()
a = [] # empty list
for k in range(n-2):
    y = pruefer_node(T)
    a+=[y]
print(a)
```

[1, 2, 2, 2, 1]

If you prefer list comprehension:

```
[8]: T = T4.copy()
a = [pruefer_node(T) for k in range(n-2)]
print(a)
```

[1, 2, 2, 2, 1]

Let's wrap this up as a python function

```
[9]: def pruefer_code(tree):
    return [pruefer_node(tree) for k in range(tree.order() - 2)]
```

Test it:

```
[10]: T = T4.copy()
code = pruefer_code(T)
code
```

[10]: [1, 2, 2, 2, 1]

0.4.3 Making a tree from a Prüfer code

Maybe surprisingly, the tree can be reconstructed from its Prüfer code. This is based on the following fact and shows that the map from trees to codes is a bijection!

Fact: The degree of node x is 1 plus the number of entries x in the Prüfer code of T.

Example

```
[11]: d = n*[1] # list of n 1's/
for k in code:
    d[k] += 1
print(f"degree list: {d}")
```

degree list: [1, 3, 4, 1, 1, 1, 1]

```
[12]: print(f'Check: {[T4.degree[x] for x in T4]}')
```

Check: [1, 3, 4, 1, 1, 1, 1]

How to compute a tree from a Prüfer code **a** (Note that **a** is a list of length n-2, with all entries numbers 0 to n-1).

- 1. Set G to be a graph with node list [0, 1, 2, ..., n-1] (and no edges yet).
- 2. Compute the list of node degrees d from the code.
- 3. For $k = 0, 1, \dots n 2$
 - Set y=a[k]
 - Set x to be the node with smallest degree in d
 - Add the edge (x,y) to G
 - Set d[x]=d[x]-1 and d[y]=d[y]-1 (i.e., decrease the degrees of both x and y by 1).
- 4. Finally, connect the remaining 2 nodes of degrees 1 by an edge.

Tip: if d is a list, d.index(1) returns the index of the first entry of d that has the value 1.

```
[13]: T4a = nx.empty_graph( T4.order() )
nx.draw(T4a, **opts)
```

2

5

3

4

0

6

```
[14]: code
```

```
[14]: [1, 2, 2, 2, 1]
```

```
[15]: d = n*[1] # list of n 1's/
    for k in code:
        d[k] += 1
# repeat n-2 times:
    for k in range(n-2):
        y = a[k]
        x = d.index(1) # firsty
        T4a.add_edge(x, y)
        d[x] -= 1; d[y] -= 1
        print(f'Degrees = {d} : adding edge {x}-{y}')
```

```
Degrees = [0, 2, 4, 1, 1, 1, 1] : adding edge 0-1

Degrees = [0, 2, 3, 0, 1, 1, 1] : adding edge 3-2

Degrees = [0, 2, 2, 0, 0, 1, 1] : adding edge 4-2

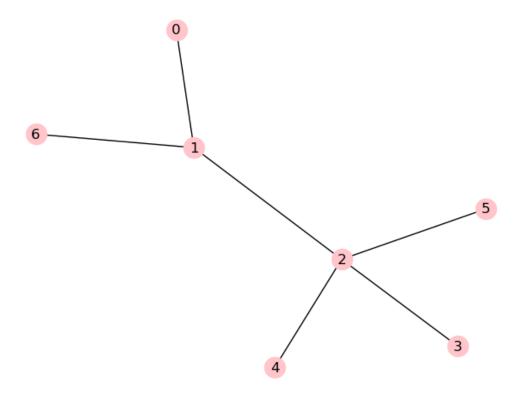
Degrees = [0, 2, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1] : adding edge 5-2

Degrees = [0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1] : adding edge 2-1
```

Add the final edge, by find the index to the remaining two 1's. We can find the first with x=d.index(1), and the second with y=d.index(1), x+1) (could also use list comprehension, of course: see below).

```
[16]: x = d.index(1)
y = d.index(1, x+1)
T4a.add_edge(x,y)
```

```
[17]: nx.draw(T4a, **opts)
```



Finished here Wednesday

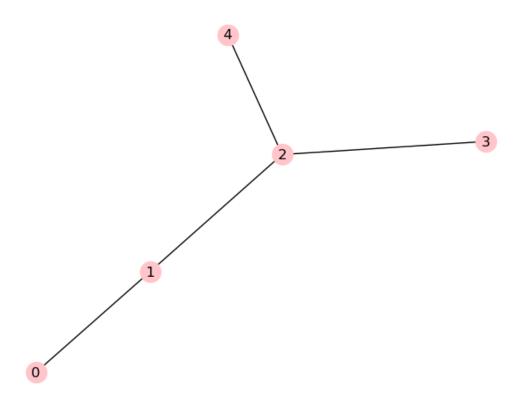
Turn the entire procedure into a python function:

```
[18]: def pruefer_to_tree(code):
    # initialize graph and defects
    n = len(code) + 2
    tree = nx.empty_graph(n)
    d = n*[1]
    for y in code:
        d[y] += 1
```

```
# add edges
for y in code:
    x = d.index(1)
    tree.add_edge(x, y)
    d[x]-=1; d[y]-=1;
# final edge
e = [x for x in tree if d[x] == 1]
tree.add_edge(*e)
return tree
```

Let's check it works:

```
[19]: T4b = pruefer_to_tree([1,2,2])
nx.draw(T4b, **opts)
```



Since we have now sown that there is a bijection between labeled trees and Prüfer codes, we can prove Cayley's Theorem easily: * A tree with n nodes has a Prüfer code of length n-2. * There are n choices for each entry in the code. * So there are n^{n-2} possible codes for a tree with n nodes * So there are n^{n-2} possible trees with n nodes.

0.5Exercises

- 1. A tree T uniquely determines its Prüfer code, and hence the two nodes that remain after (destructively) computing the code. What are those two nodes, in terms of properties of T, or its Prüfer code?
- 1. What tree has Prüfer code $[0,1,2,\ldots,n-3]$?
 - 2. What tree has Prüfer code $[0,0,0,\dots,0]$?
 3. What tree has Prüfer code $[0,1,2,\dots,n-3]$?
- 3. Give the Prüfer for the tree with nodes $\{0,1,2,3,4,5\}$ and edges $0-1,\,0-2,\,1-3,\,1-4,$