The generation of connected random graphs is non-trivial and important to many applications. In particular, it is not easy to sample a connected random graph from the space  $\mathcal{G}$  of all connected graphs with uniformity; i.e. without a bias for graphs of a special kind. This entry contains two algorithms for sampling random connected graphs that do not overcome a special kind of bias. A third algorithm which overcomes all bias, though at great computational expense, is presented.

## 1 Bottom-up approach

Before proceeding, quick definitions.

- Let  $\mathcal{T}_n$  the set of all trees of n vertices,  $\mathcal{G}_n$  the set of all graphs with n vertices. We shall assume the vertices of these graphs are labeled  $1, \ldots, n$ .
- For any  $T \in \mathcal{T}_n$ , we define  $\mathcal{U}_T := \{G \in \mathcal{G}_n : T \subseteq G\}$  and refer to it as the universe of T.
- Let  $\Gamma(n) = \{\{x, y\} : x, y \in \{1, \dots, n\}\}.$

In general, whenever I write of a tree T, I mean an arbitrary  $T \in \mathcal{T}_n$ ; and whenever I write of a graph G, I mean an arbitrary  $G \in \mathcal{G}_n$ .

There are several properties of trees which make them attractive for graph generation. On one hand, any finite G contains a finite number of spanning trees  $T \subseteq G$ ; on the other, any tree spans a finite number of graphs. It is trivial to observe that  $T \subseteq G$  if and only if there is some  $S \in \Gamma(n)$  s.t.  $E(G) = E(T) \cup S$ . We can make use of this special relationship between  $\Gamma(n)$  and  $\mathcal{U}_T$  to produce random connected graphs.

Each tree is perfectly identified by its Prüfer sequence. Then, for a fixed n, the language  $\{1, \ldots, n\}^{n-2}$  indexes a family of functions  $\mathcal{F}$  defined as:

$$\mathcal{F}(w): \mathcal{U}_{T_w} \to \Gamma(n)$$
  
 $\mathcal{F}(w)(G) = E(G) - E(T_w)$ 

where  $T_w$  is the tree corresponding to the Prüfer sequence w. We shall use  $\mathcal{F}_w$  to abbreviate  $\mathcal{F}(w)$ .

Since there is a perfect correspondence between any given  $G \in \mathcal{U}_T$  and the set of edges which, if aggregated to T, produce G,  $\mathcal{F}_w$  is a bijection. (This is easy to

prove.) This entails that any  $G \in \mathcal{G}_n$  which may be spanned from  $T_w$  corresponds to a unique set in  $\Gamma(n)$ —namely, that which extends T into G.

Thus, we have established a series of generational relations. A Prüfer sequence maps to a unique tree T, the tree maps to a universe of connected graphs  $\mathcal{U}_T$ , and each graph in this universe is perfectly determined by a set in  $\Gamma(n)$ . This inspires the following effective procedure for generating random connected graphs of n vertices.

- (1) Generate randomly  $p = p_1 \dots p_{n-2} \in \Sigma^{n-2}$ .
- (2) Span the tree T = (V, E) of the Prüfer sequence p.

(3) Let 
$$k \in_R \left\{0, \dots, \frac{n(n-1)}{2}\right\}$$
.

- (4) Let  $\ell_1, \ldots, \ell_k \in_R \Gamma(n) E(T)$ , all distinct.
- (5) Let  $E = E \cup \{\ell_1, \dots, \ell_k\}$

Because all trees of n vertices correspond to a sequence, all trees can be sampled. And all connected graphs can be derived from the set of all spanning trees. Then this procedure generates all graphes in  $\mathcal{G}_n$ .

The question is whether it is equally likely to generate any two graphs in  $\mathcal{G}_n$ . It is obvious that it is equally likely to generate any tree. And the probability that a given graph is generated depends entirely on the number of spanning trees it contains. Not all graphs have the same number of spanning trees.  $\therefore$  It is more likely to generate a graph with many spanning trees than a graph with few spanning trees.

The second algorithm extends the input from only n, the number of vertices, to m, the number of edges. Thus, it specifies the problem further into the question of how to generate denser or sparser connected graphs of n edges. The effective procedure to do this is:

- (1) Generate randomly  $p = p_1 \dots p_{n-2} \in \Sigma^{n-2}$ .
- (2) Span the tree T = (V, E) of the Prüfer sequence p.
- (3) If  $V = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ , list all its non-neighbours; i.e. generate  $\Gamma^c(v_1), \dots, \Gamma^c(v_n)$ .
- (4) Sample a random, non-saturated vertex  $v \in V$ , and sample a random vertex w from  $\Gamma^c(v)$ .
- (5) Add  $\{v, w\}$  to E. Remove v from the list of non-neighbours of w, and w from the list of non-neighbours of v.

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(6) If |E| = m, finish. Otherwise go to 4.
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It is clear that the procedure always finishes, and since the tree is connected the generated graph is connected. A pseudo-code algorithm may look as follows.

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Input: n, m
(V, E) = \mathbf{gen\_random\_tree}(n)
S = \left[ \Gamma^c(v_1), \dots, \Gamma^c(v_n) \right]
                                                         {Non-neighbours}
C = [|S[1]|, \ldots, |S|[n]|]
                                                             {Cardinalities}
V = [1, \ldots, n]
                                                 {Non-saturated vertices }
n' = n
while |E(T)| < m do
     i := \mathbf{random}(1, n')
      v := V[i]
     if (d(v) == n - 1) do
           delete_at(V, i)
           n' := n' - 1
      else
           j = \mathbf{random}(1, C[v])
           w := S[v][j]
           E(T) := E(T) \cup \{v, w\}
           C[v] := C[v] - 1
           \mathbf{delete\_at}(S[v], j)
           delete_element(S[w], v)
     fi
od
return T
```

Generating a tree from a random Prüfer sequence is  $O(n^2)$ . Listing all the non-neighbours is also  $O(n^2)$ . Within the while loop there are simply index manipulations, so the complexity of the loop is  $\varphi \times O(1) = \varphi$ , with  $\varphi$  the complexity of the number of iterations.

All iterations add an edge except those where a saturated vertex is chosen. A saturated vertex may be chosen at most once.  $\therefore$  There are O(n) iterations where a saturated vertex is chosen. Since the rest of the iterations add an edge, their

number is fixed: m - (n - 1), where (n - 1) is the number of edges in the spanned tree.  $\therefore$  There are exactly m - n + 1 edge-adding iterations.

$$\therefore \varphi = O(n) + O(m-n+1) = O(n) + O(m) = O(n^2)$$

 $\therefore$  The complexity of the algorithm is  $O(n^2) + O(n^2) = O(n^2)$ .