

# CMPSCI 250: Introduction to Computation

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Lecture #22: Graphs, Paths, and Trees  
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# Graphs, Paths, and Trees

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- Graph Definitions
- Paths and the Path Predicate
- Cycles, Directed and Undirected
- Forests and Trees
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## Graph Definitions

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- A **graph** is a set of points called **nodes** or **vertices**, together with a set of **edges**. In an **undirected graph** each edge connects two different nodes. In a **directed graph** each edge (or **arc**) goes *from* some node *to* some node, possibly the same one.
- Two graphs are considered to be equal if their **edge predicates** are the same. The edge predicate  $E(x, y)$  takes two nodes  $x$  and  $y$  as arguments, and is true if there is an edge from  $x$  to  $y$  (or between  $x$  and  $y$ , in the case of an undirected graph).
- There are also **multigraphs**, which are allowed to have more than one edge with the same starting point and ending point.
- Graphs can be **labelled** by assigning some information to each node or edge.

## Paths and the Path Predicate

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- A **path** in a graph is a sequence of edges, where the endpoint of each edge is the starting point of the next edge. We can have **undirected paths** in an undirected graph or **directed paths** in a directed graph.
- The **path predicate**  $P(x, y)$  is true if and only if there is a path from node  $x$  to node  $y$ . We define the path predicate and the set of paths recursively.
- For any node  $x$ ,  $P(x, x)$  is true and the **empty path**  $\lambda$  is a path from  $x$  to  $x$ .
- If  $\alpha$  is a path from  $x$  to  $y$ , and there is an edge from  $y$  to  $z$ , then  $P(x, z)$  is true and  $\beta$  is a path from  $x$  to  $z$ , where  $\beta$  consists of  $\alpha$  followed by the edge  $(y, z)$ . Thus if  $P(x, y)$  and  $E(y, z)$  are both true, then  $P(x, z)$  is true.

## Transitivity of Paths

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- It stands to reason that if there is a path  $\alpha$  from node  $x$  to node  $y$ , and a path  $\beta$  from node  $y$  to node  $z$ , then there exists a path from node  $x$  to node  $z$  obtained from first taking  $\alpha$  and then taking  $\beta$ .
- Proving this will take an induction on the second path  $\beta$ , using the recursive definition of paths. The base case is when  $\beta$  is an empty path. In this case  $\alpha$ , which is a path from  $x$  to  $y$ , is also the desired path from  $x$  to  $z$  because  $y = z$ .
- For the inductive case, assume that  $\beta$  is made by adding an edge  $(w, z)$  to some path  $\gamma$  from  $y$  to  $w$ , and that the IH applies to  $\gamma$ . So there exists a path from  $x$  to  $w$  made from  $\alpha$  and  $\gamma$ . By the definition of paths, we can add the edge  $(w, z)$  to this path and get the desired path from  $x$  to  $z$ .

## Cycles, Directed and Undirected

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- A **cycle** is a path from a node to itself that meets certain “non-triviality” conditions.
- In an undirected graph, a cycle is a **simple** nonempty path from a node to itself, meaning a path that does not reuse a node or edge. An undirected cycle must have three or more edges.
- A directed cycle in a directed graph is any nonempty directed path from a node to itself.
- A graph is **acyclic** if it has no cycles. A **directed acyclic graph** or **DAG** is a directed graph with no directed cycles. Acyclic undirected graphs (with no undirected cycles) are called **forests**.

## Forests and Trees

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- Any undirected graph can be divided into **connected components**. It is easy to show that the path predicate in an undirected graph is an equivalence relation, and the connected components are the equivalence classes. They are the maximal subgraphs that are connected -- a node's connected component is the subgraph formed by all the nodes to which it has a path.
- An undirected graph with no cycles is called a **forest** because it is divided into one or more connected components called **trees**. A tree, in graph theory, is a **connected** undirected graph with no cycles. Remember that we can draw a graph with the nodes and edges anywhere, as long as the edges connect the correct nodes. So a graph-theoretic tree may or may not look like the other trees in computer science.
- Trees of one, two, or three nodes have only one shape per size. There are two shapes of four-node trees, and three shapes of five-node trees.

## The Unique Simple Path Theorem

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- **Theorem:** If  $x$  and  $y$  are nodes in a tree  $T$ , there is exactly one simple path in  $T$  from  $x$  to  $y$ . (Remember that a simple path is one that does not reuse a node or edge.)
- **Proof:** First, there must be at least one path because a tree is defined to be a connected graph, where every node has a path to every other node. Could there be two different simple paths  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  from  $x$  to  $y$ ? Suppose there were. Let  $z$  be the first node where the two paths split ( $z$  might be  $x$ ). Let  $u$  be the next node after  $z$  on  $\alpha$ , and  $v$  be the next node after  $z$  on  $\beta$ . Note that  $z$ ,  $u$ , and  $v$  are three different nodes.
- There must be some point  $w$ , at or after  $u$  on  $\alpha$  and at or after  $v$  on  $\beta$ , that is on both paths. (Certainly  $y$  is such a point, but let  $w$  be the earliest one, which might be  $u$  or  $v$ .) Then there is a simple path from  $z$  to  $u$  to  $w$  to  $v$  to  $z$ , and since this path has at least three edges, it is a cycle. But  $T$  is a tree, so our assumption that there were two paths has led to a contradiction.



## Rooted Trees

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- A **rooted tree** is a graph-theoretic tree with one of its nodes designated as the **root**. We can make a directed tree out of the undirected rooted tree by directing every edge away from the root.
- If we now draw such a tree with the root at the top, it looks like other “trees” we have seen in computer science. If we call the root Level 0, we have its **children** at level 1, the nodes to which it now has directed edges. Level 1 nodes have children at Level 2, and so forth. The **depth** of a tree is its largest level number -- the length of the longest directed path from the root. Nodes with no children are called **leaves**.
- Such trees model many kinds of **hierarchies**, such as parts of an organization, inheritance of classes in Java, or the hierarchy of directories (folders) on a computer.

## A Recursive Definition of Rooted Trees

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- A single node, with no edges, is a rooted tree and the node is its root.
- We can make a rooted tree out of one or more existing rooted trees plus a new node  $x$ . The root of the new tree is  $x$ , and we add edges from  $x$  to the roots of each of the existing trees.
- The only possible rooted trees are those made by the two rules above.
- As with our other recursively defined types, we have a Law of Mathematical Induction for rooted trees. If we prove  $P(T)$  whenever  $T$  has only one node, and that  $P(T)$  is true when  $T$  is made from subtrees  $U_1, U_2, \dots, U_k$  and  $P(U_i)$  is true for all  $i$ , then we may conclude that  $P(T)$  is true for any rooted tree  $T$ .

## A Theorem About Trees

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- Let's use this induction rule to prove a theorem.
- **Theorem:** If  $T$  is any rooted tree with  $n$  nodes and  $e$  edges, then  $e = n - 1$ .
- Base Case: If  $T$  is a one-node tree, then  $e = 0$  and  $n = 1$  so  $e = n - 1$  is true.
- Inductive Step: Let  $T$  be made by the second rule from  $U_1, U_2, \dots, U_k$  and say that each of the  $U_i$ 's has  $n_i$  nodes and  $e_i$  edges, so that  $e_i = n_i - 1$  by the IH.  $T$  has all the nodes and edges from all the subtrees, plus one new node (its root) and  $k$  new edges (one from its root to each of the existing roots).
- So  $n$ , the number of nodes in  $T$ , is the sum of the  $n_i$ 's plus 1. And  $e$ , the number of edges in  $T$ , is the sum of the  $e_i$ 's plus  $k$ . The sum  $S$  of the  $e_i$ 's is the sum of the  $n_i$ 's minus  $k$ , so  $e = S + k$  and  $n = (S + k) + 1$ , and so  $e = n - 1$ .