

last time: Reciprocity formula.

$G = (V, E)$ a simple graph

$$V = [n]$$

$\bar{G} = (V, \bar{E})$ its complementary

graph.

$$G^+ = \text{Diagram showing a vertex } 0 \text{ connected to all vertices of } G$$

one extra vertex
connected with all
vertices of G

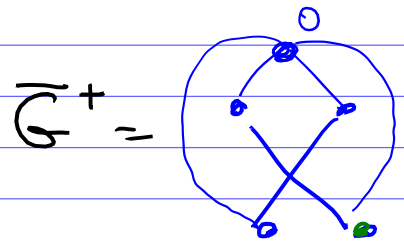
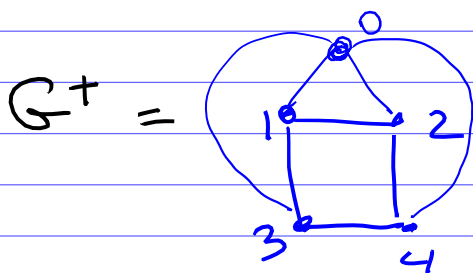
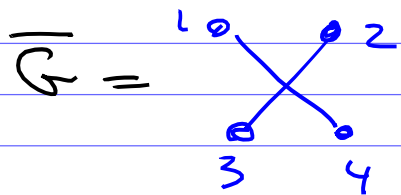
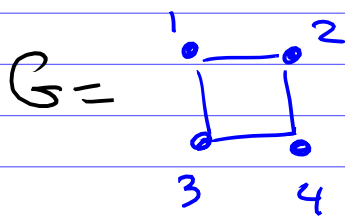
$$F_G(x) = \sum_{T \text{ spanning tree of } G^+} x^{\deg_T(0)-1}$$

Then # spanning trees of G

$$= \frac{1}{n} F_G(0).$$

Theorem $F_G = (-1)^{n-1} F_{\bar{G}}(-x-n).$

Example



$$F_G(x) = x^3 + 8x^2 + 20x + 16$$

$$F_{\bar{G}}(x) = x^3 + 4x^2 + 4x + 0$$

$$F_G(x) = (-1)^3 F_{\bar{G}}(-x-4).$$

We can easily deduce many formulas from this theorem.

Some Examples

1. The "empty" graph

$$\mathcal{O}_n = ([n], \emptyset) = \begin{array}{c} \bullet \quad \bullet \quad \dots \quad \bullet \\ 1 \quad 2 \quad \dots \quad n \end{array}$$

$$\mathcal{O}_n^+ = \begin{array}{c} \bullet \\ / \quad | \quad \backslash \\ \bullet \quad \bullet \quad \bullet \quad \dots \quad \bullet \\ 1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4 \quad \dots \quad n \end{array}$$

$$F_{\mathcal{O}_n}(x) = x^{n-1}$$

$$\overline{\mathcal{O}}_n = K_n$$

$$\begin{aligned} F_{K_n}(x) &= (-1)^{n-1} (-x-n)^{n-1} \\ &= (x+n)^{n-1} \end{aligned}$$

\Rightarrow # spanning trees of K_n

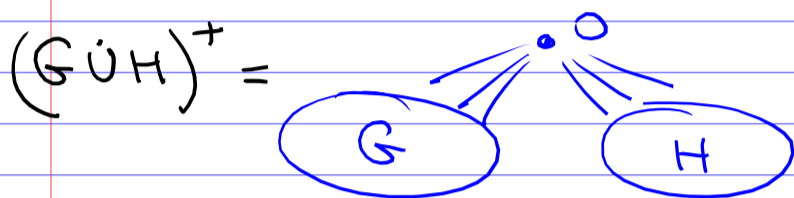
$$= \frac{1}{n} F_{K_n}(0) = \frac{1}{n} \cdot n^{n-1}$$

$$= \boxed{n^{n-2}} \quad \text{Cayley's formula}$$

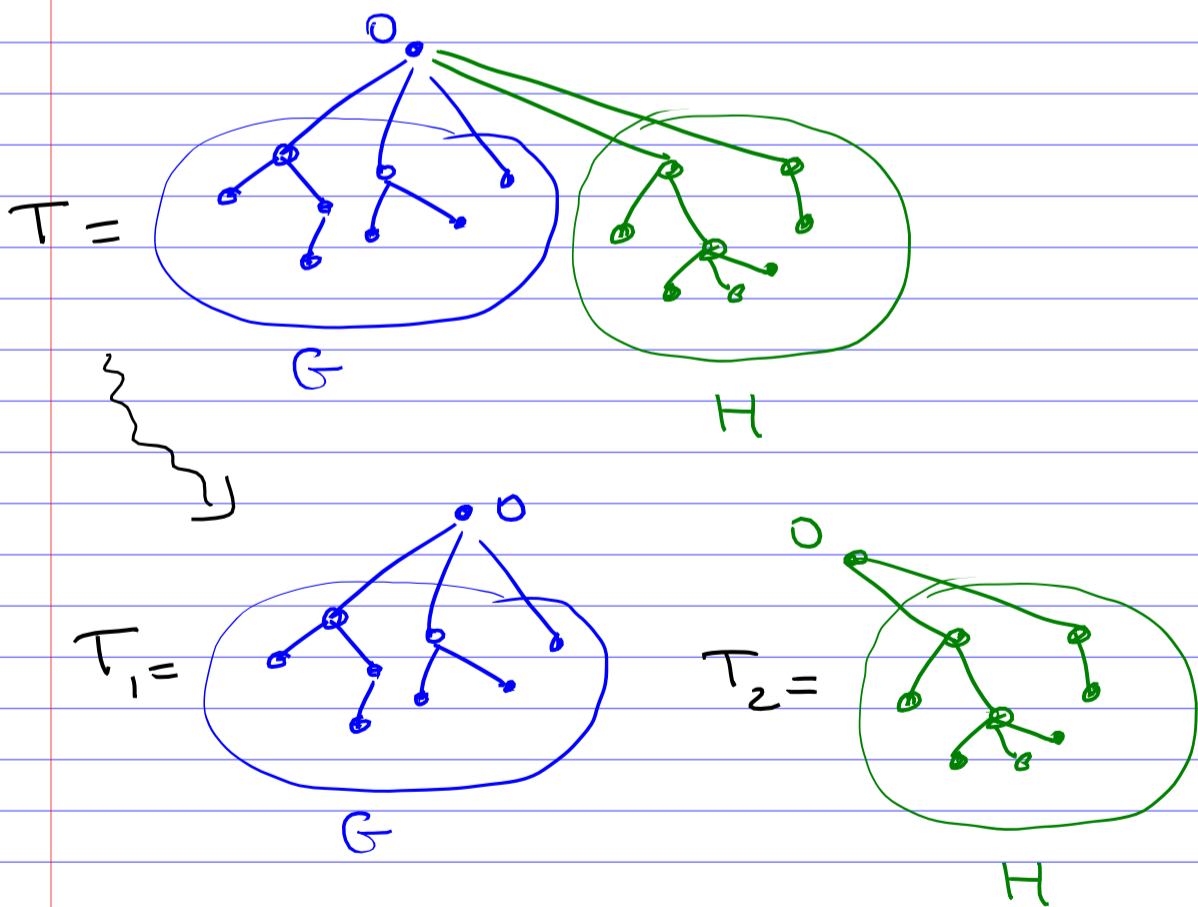
2. Let $G \dot{\cup} H$ be the disjoint union of two graphs:

$$G \dot{\cup} H = \textcircled{G} \quad \textcircled{H}$$

$$F_{G \dot{\cup} H}(x) = x \cdot F_G(x) \cdot F_H(x)$$



Indeed, any spanning tree T of $(G \dot{\cup} H)^+$ is the union of a spanning tree T_1 of G^+ and a spanning tree T_2 of H^+ .



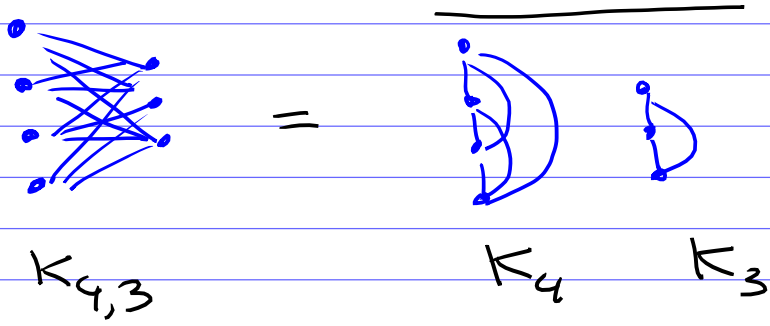
$$\begin{aligned}
 (\deg_T(o) - 1) &= (\deg_{T_1}(o) - 1) \\
 &\quad + (\deg_{T_2}(o) - 1) \\
 &\quad + 1.
 \end{aligned}$$

Notice that

the complete bipartite graph

$$\rightarrow K_{m,n} = \overline{K_m \cup K_n}$$

Example



$$F_{K_m \cup K_n}(x) = x F_{K_m}(x) \cdot F_{K_n}(x)$$

$$= x \cdot (x+m)^{m-1} \cdot (x+n)^{n-1}$$

$$F_{K_{m,n}}(x) = F_{\overline{K_m \cup K_n}}(x)$$

$$= (-1)^{m+n-1} (-x-m-n)$$

$$\cdot ((-x-m-n)+m)^{m-1} ((-x-m-n)+n)^{n-1}$$

$$= (x+m+n) \cdot (x+n)^{m-1} \cdot (x+m)^{n-1}$$

So # spanning trees of $K_{m,n}$

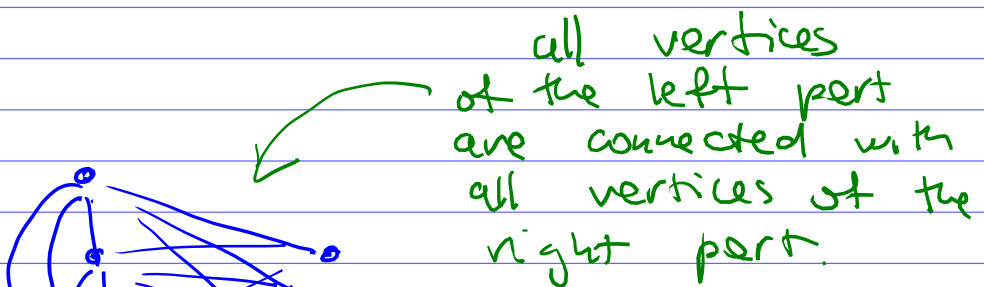
is $\frac{1}{m+n} F_{K_{m,n}}(0) =$

$$= \frac{1}{m+n} \cdot (m+n) n^{m-1} \cdot m^{n-1}$$

$$= \boxed{n^{m-1} \cdot m^{n-1}}$$

Exercise

Find an exact formula for # spanning trees in the graph:



the complete graph K_m inside the left part

the "empty" graph O_n inside the right part

Generalizations of the Matrix Tree Theorem

Weighted MTT

$$G = (V, E) \text{ graph on } V = [n]$$

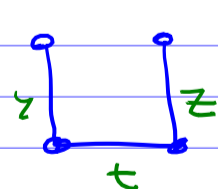
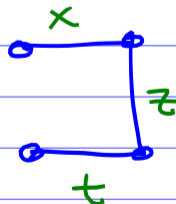
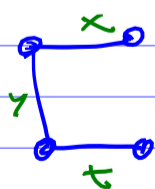
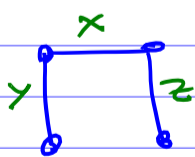
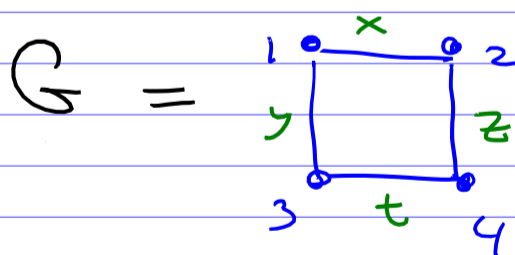
Assign weights x_e to edges $e \in E$ of G .

For a spanning tree T , let

$$\text{wt}(T) := \prod_{\substack{e \text{ edge} \\ \text{of } T}} x_e$$

$$\text{Let } \Pi_G := \sum_{\substack{T \text{ is a} \\ \text{spanning} \\ \text{tree of} \\ G}} \text{wt}(T).$$

Example.



$$\begin{aligned} \Pi_G &= x \cdot y \cdot z + x \cdot y \cdot t + \\ &+ x \cdot z \cdot t + y \cdot z \cdot t. \end{aligned}$$

Weighted Laplacian Matrix

$$L = (l_{ij}) \quad n \times n \text{ matrix}$$

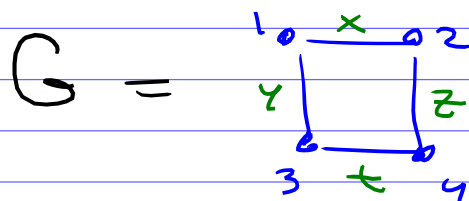
$$l_{ij} = \begin{cases} -\sum_{\substack{e \text{ edge} \\ \text{between } i \& j}} x_e & i \neq j \\ \sum_{\substack{e \text{ edge} \\ \text{incident to } i}} x_e & i = j \end{cases}$$

\tilde{L} reduced weighted
Laplacian, ($n-1$) \times ($n-1$)
matrix

i.e. L with i^{th} row & i^{th}
column removed.

(Assume $i = n$)

Example



$$L = \begin{bmatrix} x+y & -x & -y & 0 \\ -x & x+z & 0 & -z \\ -y & 0 & y+z & -t \\ 0 & -z & -t & z+t \end{bmatrix}$$

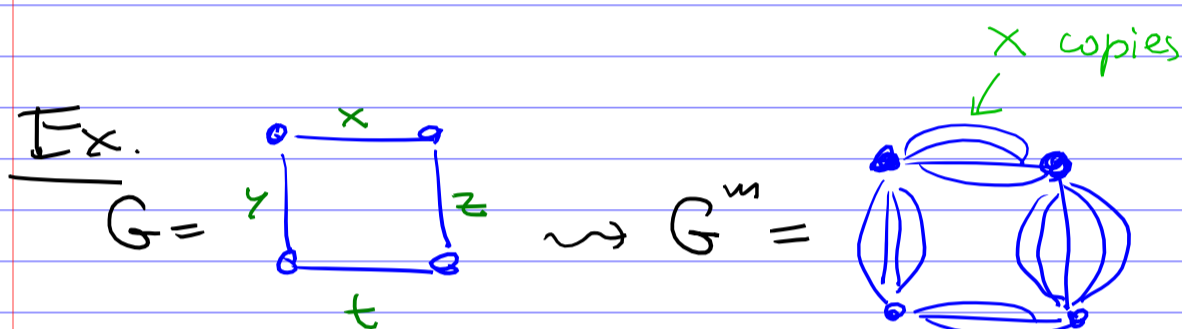
$$\tilde{L} = \begin{bmatrix} x+y & -x & -y \\ -x & x+z & 0 \\ -y & 0 & y+z \end{bmatrix}$$

Theorem (Weighted MTT)

$$\mathbb{T}_G = \det(\tilde{L}).$$

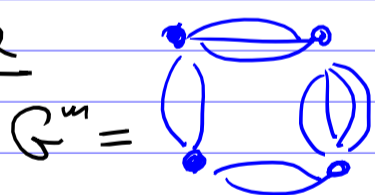
Proof Enough to prove it if all weights x_e are positive integers.

Let G^m be the graph obtained from G by replacing each edge e of G by x_e copies of e .



Then \mathbb{T}_G is the number of spanning trees of G^m , and the weighted Laplacian L of G is the usual Laplacian of G^m .

Example



$$\begin{aligned} x &= 3 \\ y &= 2 \\ z &= 4 \\ t &= 2 \end{aligned}$$

Spanning trees of G^m is $3 \cdot 2 \cdot 4 + 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 + 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 2 + 2 \cdot 4 \cdot 2$.

$$L(G^m) = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -3 & -2 & 0 \\ -3 & 7 & 0 & -4 \\ -2 & 0 & 4 & -2 \\ 0 & -4 & -2 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

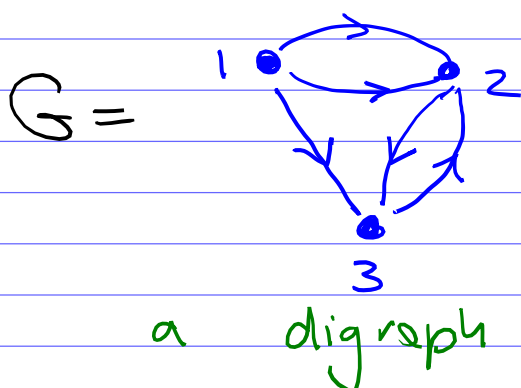
So Usual MTT \Rightarrow weighted MTT.

□

Directed Matrix Tree Theorem

$G = (V, E)$ a directed graph,
(or digraph) on $V = [n]$

Example



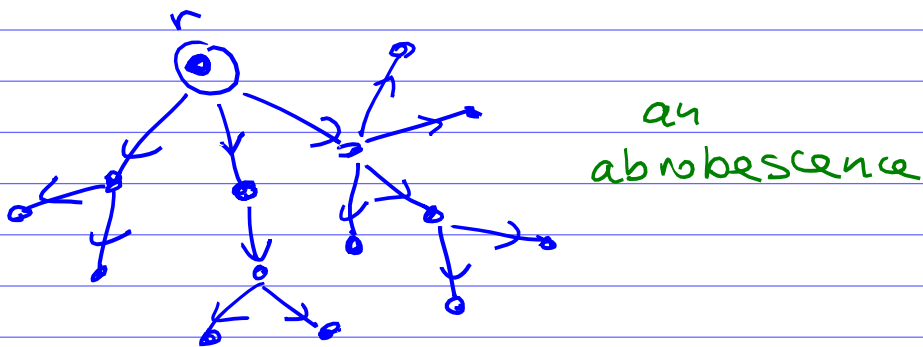
"Directed spanning trees" are called "arborescences".

Fix a root vertex $r \in V$

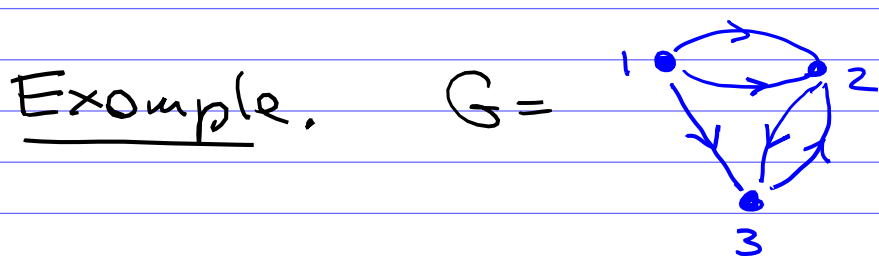
Definition. An arborescence T in G with root r is a subgraph of G s.t.

- T is a spanning tree of G (considered as an undirected graph)
- \forall vertex $v \in V$, there exists a directed path in T from the root r to v .

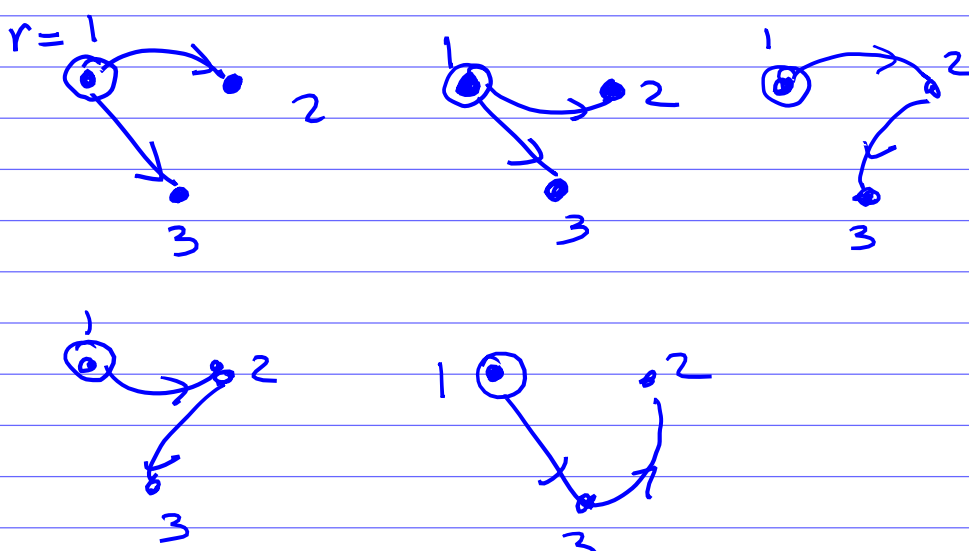
In other words, an arborescence is a tree with all edges directed away from the root:



(Arborescences are also called "out-trees".)



has 5 arborescences with root $r = 1$:



5 arborescences

Adjacency matrix of G is the $n \times n$ matrix $A = (a_{ij})$, where a_{ij} is the number of directed edges from i to j .

Example For G as above

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

← this is no longer a symmetric matrix

Let $\text{indeg}_G(v)$ and $\text{outdeg}_G(v)$ be the indegree and the outdegree of vertex v in G .

Example G as above

indegrees:

$$\text{indeg}(1) = 0, \text{indeg}(2) = 3, \text{indeg}(3) = 2.$$

outdegrees:

$$\text{outdeg}(1) = 3, \text{outdeg}(2) = 1, \text{outdeg}(3) = 1.$$

Define the Laplacian matrix of digraph G , as follows:

$$L = L^{\text{in}} := \text{diag}(d_1, \dots, d_n) - A$$

where $d_i = \text{indeg}_G(i)$.

Example G as above

$$L = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -2 & -1 \\ 0 & 3 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

the diag. entries are the indegrees

(Notice that all column sums of L are zero. But row sums can be non-zero.)

Def. The $(i,j)^{\text{th}}$ cofactor of matrix L is

$$L^{ij} := (-1)^{i+j} \det \left(\begin{array}{c} L \text{ without} \\ i^{\text{th}} \text{ row and} \\ j^{\text{th}} \text{ column} \end{array} \right).$$

Directed Matrix Tree Theorem.

Fix any $r, k \in [n]$.

The number of arborescences in G with root at r equals the cofactor L^{kr} .

Example G as above, $r=1$.

$$L^{11} = \begin{vmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 3 \cdot 2 - 1 = 5$$

$$L^{21} = - \begin{vmatrix} -2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 2 \cdot 2 + 1 = 5$$

$$L^{31} = \begin{vmatrix} -2 & -1 \\ 3 & -1 \end{vmatrix} = 2 + 3 = 5$$

$$\text{So } L^{11} = L^{21} = L^{31} =$$

= # arborescences rooted at 1.

Remarks.

- In this directed MTT, we count arborescences, i.e. out-trees of G and use the matrix $L = L^{\text{in}}$ with indegrees on the diagonal.
- All cofactors L^{kr} are independent of k , (i.e. $L^{kr} = L^{k'r} \quad \forall k, k'$).
But they may be different for different r 's.

For example (for above G),

$$L^{12} = L^{22} = L^{32} = 0$$

and G has no arborescences rooted at $r=2$.

(G has no directed path from vertex 2 to 1.)

Special Case:

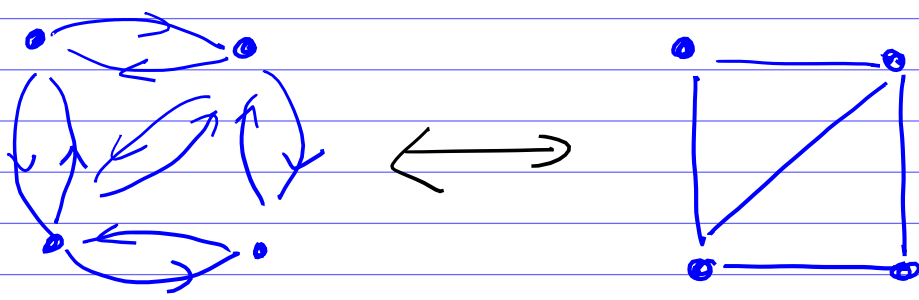
Assume that A & L are symmetric matrices, i.e.,

$$a_{ij} = a_{ji} \quad \forall i, j.$$

(# edges from i to j
= # edges from j to i .)

$$\text{indeg}_G(i) = \text{outdeg}_G(i) \quad \forall i$$

In other words, G can be viewed as an undirected graph:



In this case, arborescences (for any fixed r) correspond to usual spanning trees in the undirected graph.

So we deduce the usual MTT from directed MTT.

Corollary Let L be the usual Laplacian matrix of an (undirected) graph G .

Then all cofactors L^{ij} of L are equal to each other,

$$L^{ij} = \# \text{Spanning trees of } G$$

$$\forall i, j \in [n].$$

Remark. This is a stronger claim than the MTT that we proved earlier.

(Earlier we considered only the principle cofactors L^{ii} of L .)

There are several ways to prove directed MTT.

- Proof by induction on # edges in G .
- Proof by the involution principle.

It is hard to give an inductive proof for the original (undirected) version of MTT.

But we'll see next week that the directed MTT has a simple proof by induction.

We've seen a similar phenomenon when we discussed Cayley's formula:

$$n^{n-2} \rightsquigarrow (x_1 + \dots + x_n)^{n-2}$$

hard to prove by induction easy to prove by induction

Q: How is it possible?

Why is it easier to prove a stronger claim?

Is this a contradiction to the basic principles of logic?

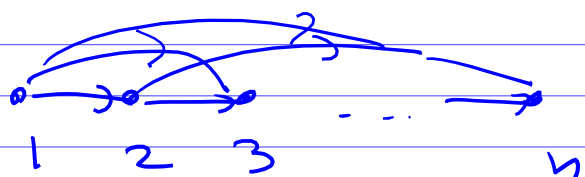
A. No. This is not a logical contradiction.

If we want to prove a stronger claim by induction, that means that the induction hypothesis is a stronger claim. So it is easier to deduce things using a stronger hypothesis.

Bottom line: Sometimes It is easier to prove more difficult theorems.

Example Let's calculate

arborescences rooted at 1
in the digraph



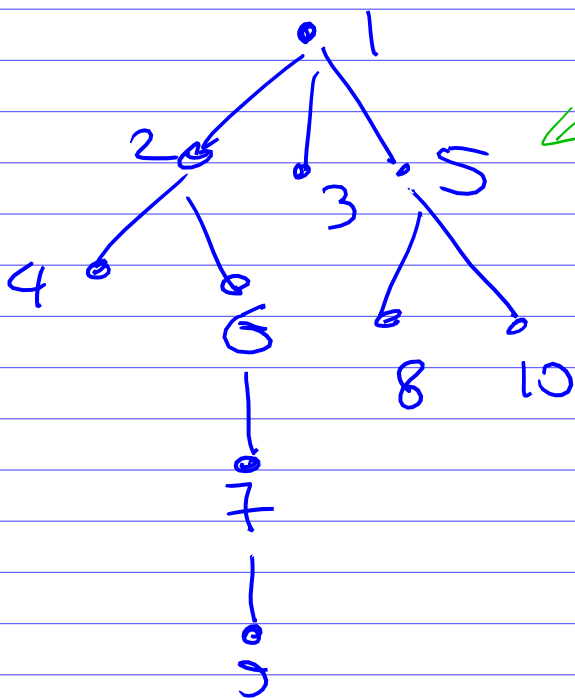
all vertices
 $i < j$ connect
by edges
 $i \rightarrow j$

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & -1 & \dots & -1 \\ & 1 & -1 & \dots & -1 \\ & & 2 & \dots & -1 \\ \bigcirc & & & \dots & \\ & & & & n-1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$L'' = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot \dots \cdot (n-1) = (n-1)!$$

Arborescences for this
graph are called
increasing trees:

An increasing tree:



the labels
increase as
we go down

Corollary. # increasing trees
on n vertices equals $(n-1)!$