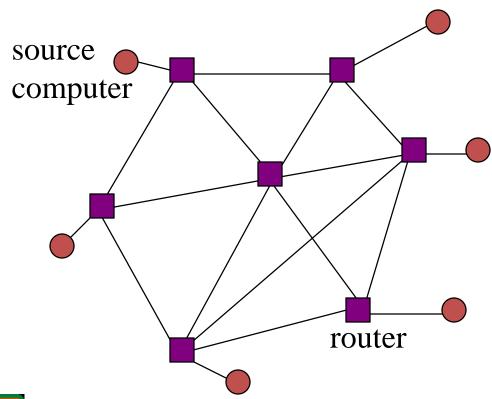
Ch 11.4 Spanning Trees

- A simple graph is connected
 if and only if it has a spanning tree.
- Applied in IP multitasking.



A network of computers and routers:





 How can a packet (message) be sent from the source computer to every other computer?

- The inefficient way is to use broadcasting
 - send a copy along every link, and have each router do the same
 - each router and computer will receive many copies of the same packet
 - loops may mean the packet never disappears!

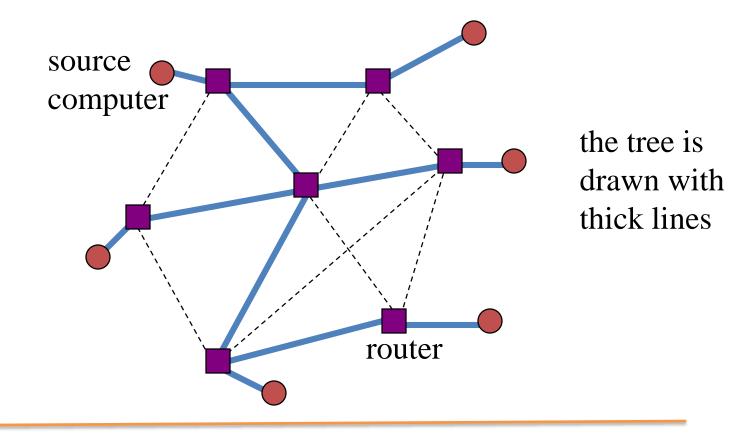


- IP multicasting is an efficient solution
 - send a single packet to one router
 - have the router send it to 1 or more routers in such a way that a computer never receives the packet more than once

This behaviour can be represented by a spanning tree.



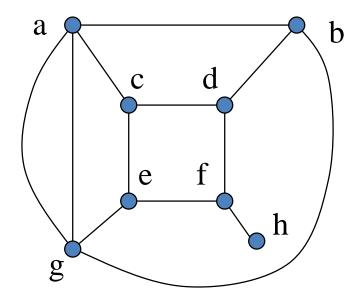
The spanning tree for the network:



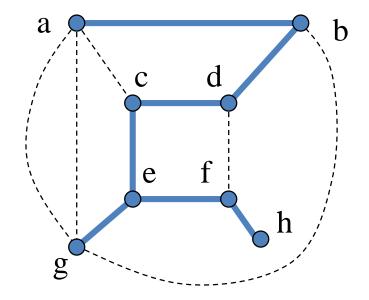


- Let G be a simple graph.
- A spanning tree of G is a subgraph of G that is a tree containing every vertex of G.

• Example graph G:



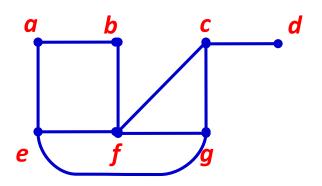
One possible spanning tree:

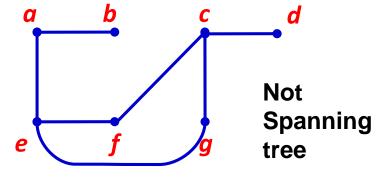


the tree is drawn with thick lines

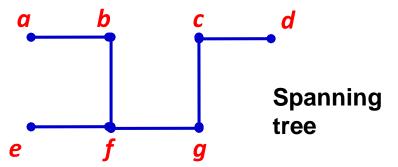


• Example Spanning Tree



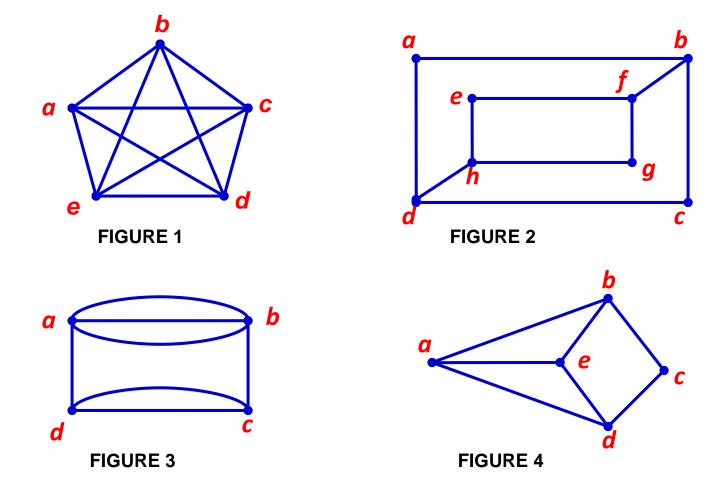


A simple graph





Find a spanning tree for the following graphs.

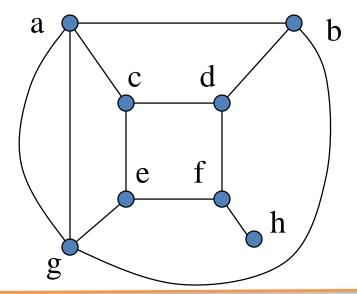


Finding a Spanning Tree

- There are two main types of algorithms:
 - breadth-first search
 - depth-first search

Breadth-first Search

- Process all the verticies at a given level before moving to the next level.
- Example graph G (again):



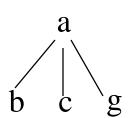


- 1) Put the verticies into an ordering
 - e.g. {a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h}

• 2) Select a vertex, add it to the spanning tree T: e.g. a

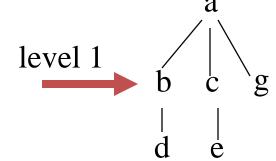
• 3) Add to T all edges (a,X) and X verticies that do not create a cycle in T

$$-$$
 i.e. (a,b), (a,c), (a,g)
 $T = \{a, b, c, g\}$



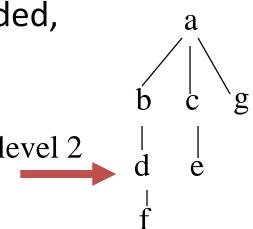
 Repeat step 3 on the verticies just added, these are on level 1

i.e. b: add (b,d)c: add (c,e)g: nothingT = {a,b,c,d,e}



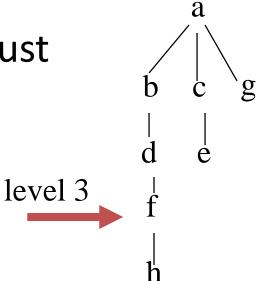
 Repeat step 3 on the verticies just added, these are on level 2

i.e. d: add (d,f)e: nothingT = {a,b,c,d,e,f}



 Repeat step 3 on the verticies just added, these are on level 3

```
- i.e. f: add (f,h)
T = {a,b,c,d,e,f,h}
```

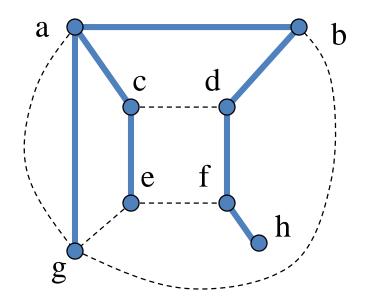


- Repeat step 3 on the verticies just added, these are on level 4
 - i.e. h: nothing, so stop



Breadth-first Search

Resulting spanning tree:

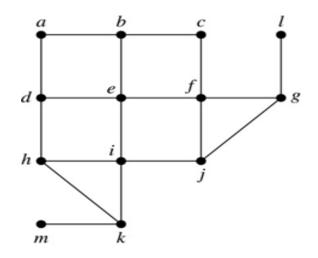


a different spanning tree from the earlier solution



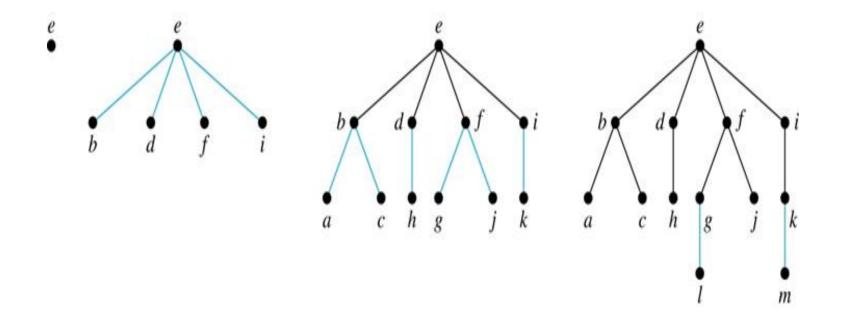
Breadth-First Search

Example: Use breadth-first search to find a spanning tree for this graph.





Breadth-First Search





Breadth-First Search Algorithm

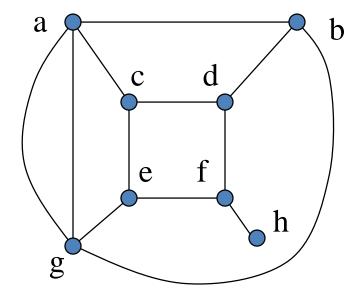
 We now use pseudocode to describe breadthfirst search.

```
procedure BFS(G: connected graph with vertices <math>v_1, v_2, ..., v_n) T:= tree consisting only of the vertex <math>v_1 L:= empty \ list \ visit(v_1) put v_1 in the list L of unprocessed vertices while L is not empty remove the first vertex, v, from L for each neighbor w of v if w is not in L and not in T then add w to the end of the list L add w and edge \{v, w\} to T
```



Depth-first Search

- Process all the verticies down one path, then backtrack (go back) to verticies along other paths.
- Example graph G (again):



1) Put the verticies into an ordering
– e.g. {a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h}

• 2) Select a vertex, add it to the spanning tree T: e.g. a

• 3) Add the edge (a,X) where X is the smallest vertex in the ordering, and does not make a cycle in T

a | |b



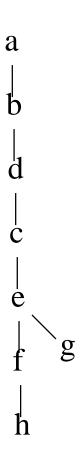
i.e. (a,b), T = {a, b}

- 4) Repeat step 3 with the new vertex, until there is no possible new vertex
 - i.e. add the edges (b,d) (d,c) (c,e) (e,f) (f,h)
 T = {a,b,d,c,e,f,h}
- 5) At this point, there is no (h,X), so backtrack to a vertex that does have another edge:
 - parent of h == f but there is no new (f,X) to add, so backtrack

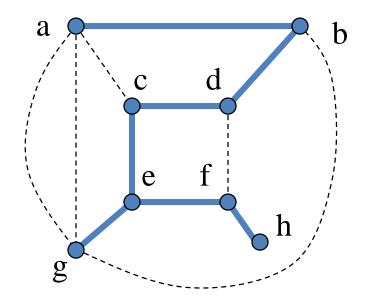
a

- parent of f == e
- there is an (e,g) to add, so repeat step 3 with

• 6) After g is added, there are no further verticies to add, so stop.



Resulting spanning tree:

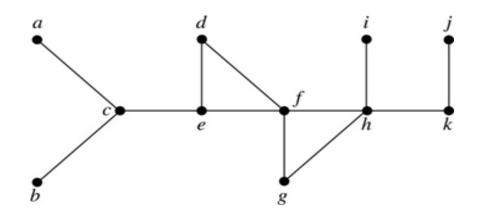


a different spanning tree from the breadth-first solution



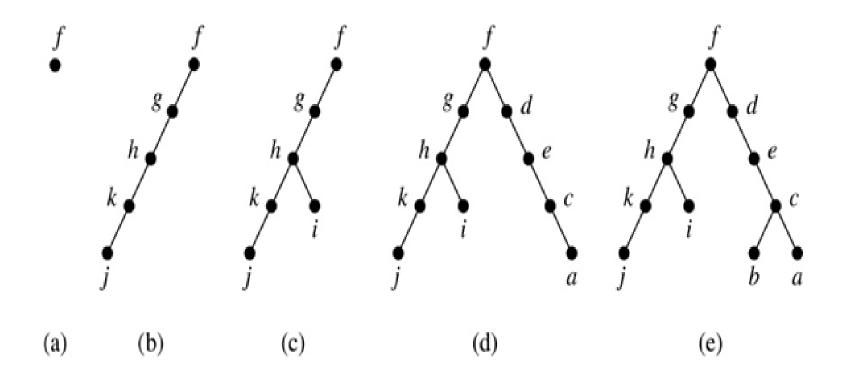
Depth-First Search (continued)

Example: Use depth-first search to find a spanning tree of this graph.





Depth-First Search





Depth-First Search

- The edges selected by depth-first search of a graph are called tree edges. All other edges of the graph must connect a vertex to an ancestor or descendant of the vertex in the graph. These are called back edges.
- In this figure, the tree edges are shown with heavy blue lines. The two thin black edges are back edges.

Depth-First Search Algorithm

• We now use pseudocode to specify depth-first search. In this recursive algorithm, after adding an edge connecting a vertex v to the vertex w, we finish exploring w before we return to v to continue exploring from v.

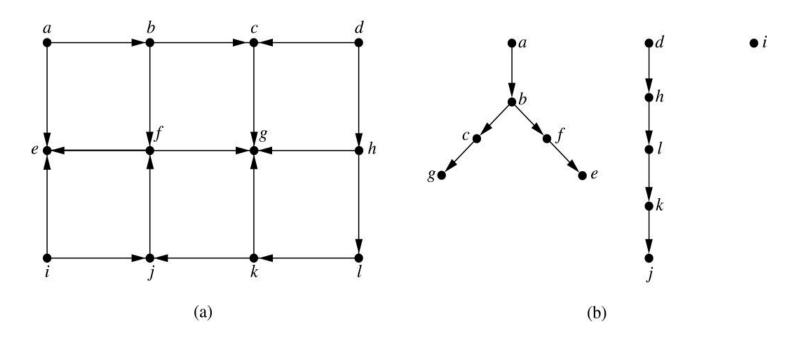
```
procedure DFS(G: connected graph with vertices v_1, v_2, ..., v_n)
T := \text{tree consisting only of the vertex } v_1
visit(v_1)

procedure visit(v): vertex of G)

for each vertex w adjacent to v and not yet in T
add vertex w and edge \{v, w\} to T
visit(w)
```

Depth-First Search in Directed Graphs

 Both depth-first search and breadth-first search can be easily modified to run on a directed graph. But the result is not necessarily a spanning tree, but rather a spanning forest.



Practical Applications: Web Spiders

- Also called crawlers, bots
- Search engines such as Google, Yahoo index websites
- BFS, DFS both used
- Start with an initial web page
- Stop until a page with no new links are found
- Web Graph web pages are vertices, links are directed edges



BFS & DFS

- BFS uses a queue to store information during tree traversal queue uses more memory to store pointers
- BFS more memory intensive than DFS
- DFS uses a stack to push nodes onto, stack is LIFO
- DFS less memory intensive than BFS
- BFS finds shortest paths, in the sense of fewest edges
- Edges in the original graph not in BFS tree are cross edges, not in DFS tree are back edges, useful for problems such as special colorings



Find a spanning tree for the following graphs using BFS and DFS.

