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A region is captured by flipping all 'O' s into 'X' s in that surrounded region.

Given a 2D board containing 'X' and 'O' (the letter O), capture all regions surrounded by 'X'.

Example:

X X X X

X O O X

| X X O X X O X X |
|---|
| After running your function, the board should be: |
| $x \times x \times$ |

X X X XX X X X $X \circ X X$ **Explanation:**

not flipped to 'X'. Any 'O' that is not on the border and it is not connected to an 'O' on the border will be flipped to 'X'. Two cells are connected if they are adjacent cells connected horizontally or vertically.

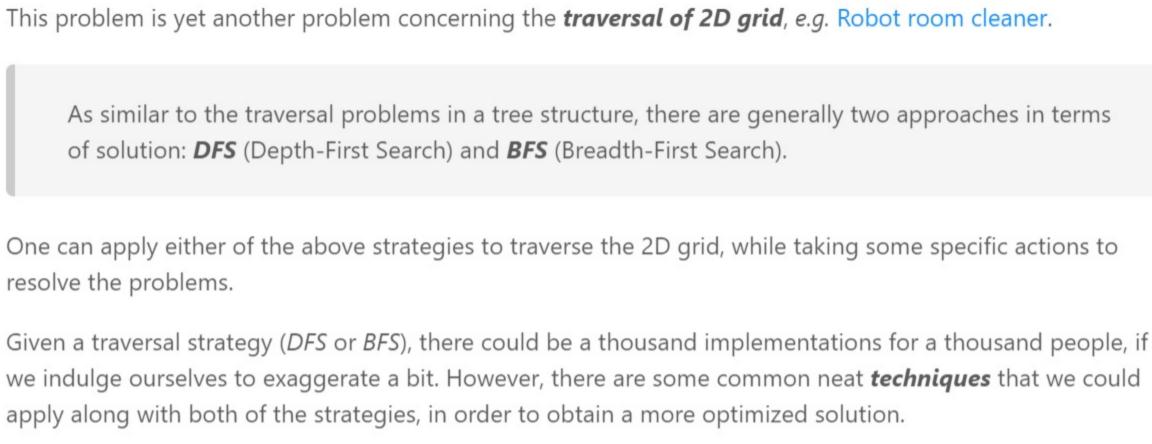
Overview This problem is *almost* identical as the capture rule of the Go game, where one captures the opponent's

escaped from the surrounding if it reaches any border.

Solution

stones by surrounding them. The difference is that in the Go game the borders of the board are considered

to the walls that surround the stones, while in this problem a group of cells (i.e. region) is considered to be



Approach 1: DFS (Depth-First Search)

The goal of this problem is to mark those *captured* cells.

Algorithm Let us start with the DFS algorithm, which usually results in a more concise code than the BFS algorithm. The

candidate cells (i.e. the ones filled with 0), and check one by one if they are captured or not, i.e. we start with

other ocells that are *connected* to this border cell, based on the description of the problem. Two

cells are *connected*, if there exists a path consisting of only O letter that bridges between the two

If we are asked to summarize the algorithm in one sentence, it would be that we enumerate all those

a candidate cell (O), and then apply either DFS or BFS strategy to explore its surrounding cells.

o Based on the above conclusion, the goal of our DFS traversal would be to mark out all those **connected** O cells that is originated from the border, with any distinguished letter such as E.

Intuition

• The one with the • letter: the cells that are spared in our DFS traversal, i.e. these cells has no connection to the border, therefore they are *captured*. We then should replace these cell with X letter.

• Step 3). Once we iterate through all border cells, we would then obtain three types of cells:

• The one with the X letter: the cell that we could consider as the wall.

result, we would revert the cell to its original letter 0.

We demonstrate how the DFS works with an example in the following animation.

DFS:

First go in direction 1 while possible, then in direction 2, etc

class Solution(object): def solve(self, board):

:rtype: None Do not return anything, modify board in-place instead.

borders = list(product(range(self.ROWS), [0, self.COLS-1])) \

+ list(product([0, self.ROWS-1], range(self.COLS)))

Step 2). mark the "escaped" cells, with any placeholder, e.g. 'E'

Step 3). flip the captured cells ('0'->'X') and the escaped one ('E'->'0')

In the above implementation, there are a few techniques that we applied *under the hood*, in order to further

Rather than iterating all candidate cells (the ones filled with 0), we check only the ones on the

if board[r][c] == '0': board[r][c] = 'X' # captured

elif board[r][c] == 'E': board[r][c] = 'O' # escaped

:type board: List[List[str]]

if not board or not board[0]:

from itertools import product

Step 1). retrieve all border cells

return

self.ROWS = len(board)

self.COLS = len(board[0])

for row, col in borders:

for r in range(self.ROWS):

optimize our solution. Here we list them one by one.

self.DFS(board, row, col)

for c in range(self.COLS):

```
borders.
In the above implementation, our starting points of DFS are those cells that meet two conditions: 1). on the
border. 2). filled with 0.
As an alternative solution, one might decide to iterate all o cells, which is less optimal compared to our
starting points.
As one can see, during DFS traversal, the alternative solution would traverse the cells that eventually might
be captured, which is not necessary in our approach.
     Rather than using a sort of visited[cell_index] map to keep track of the visited cells, we simply
     mark visited cell in place.
This technique helps us gain both in the space and time complexity.
As an alternative approach, one could use a additional data structure to keep track of the visited cells, which
goes without saying would require additional memory. And also it requires additional calculation for the
comparison. Though one might argue that we could use the hash table data structure for the visited[]
map, which has the \mathcal{O}(1) asymptotic time complexity, but it is still more expensive than the simple
comparison on the value of cell.
     Rather than doing the boundary check within the DFS() function, we do it before the invocation of
     the function.
As a comparison, here is the implementation where we do the boundary check within the DFS() function.
```

depth of recursive calls would be N as in the worst scenario mentioned in the time complexity. \circ As a result, the overall space complexity of the algorithm is $\mathcal{O}(N)$. Approach 2: BFS (Breadth-First Search) Intuition

In contrary to the DFS strategy, in BFS (Breadth-First Search) we prioritize the visit of a cell's

Though the order of visit might differ between DFS and BFS, eventually both strategies would visit the same

We could reuse the bulk of the DFS approach, while simply replacing the DFS() function with a BFS()

• Essentially we can implement the BFS with the help of queue data structure, which could be of Array

property of the queue, the one at the head of the queue would have the highest priority to be visited.

o If the popped element is of the candidate cell (i.e. 0), we mark it as escaped, otherwise we skip

• The main logic of the algorithm is a loop that iterates through the above-mentioned queue. At each

• Through the queue, we maintain the order of visit for the cells. Due to the **FIFO** (First-In First-Out)

neighbors before moving further (deeper) into the neighbor's neighbor.

function. Here we just elaborate the implementation of the BFS() function.

or more preferably LinkedList in Java or Deque in Python.

iteration of the loop, we pop out the head element from the queue.

set of cells, for most of the 2D grid traversal problems. This is also the case for this problem.

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recursion.

looks like.

Java

Python

```
Python
Java
    class Solution(object):
```

:rtype: None Do not return anything, modify board in-place instead. if not board or not board[0]: return self.ROWS = len(board) self.COLS = len(board[0]) # Step 1). retrieve all border cells from itertools import product borders = list(product(range(self.ROWS), [0, self.COLS-1])) \

+ list(product([0, self.ROWS-1], range(self.COLS)))

Step 2). mark the "escaped" cells, with any placeholder, e.g. 'E'

Step 3). flip the captured cells ('O'->'X') and the escaped one ('E'->'O')

if board[r][c] == '0': board[r][c] = 'X' # captured

elif board[r][c] == 'E': board[r][c] = 'O' # escaped

for row, col in borders:

for r in range(self.ROWS):

queue = deque([(row, col)])

(row, col) = queue.pop()

pop out the _tail_ element, rather than the head.

while queue:

#self.DFS(board, row, col)

self.BFS(board, row, col)

for c in range(self.COLS):

```
First-Out), if we use the stack data structure which follows the principle of LIFO (Last-In First-Out), we
     then switch the strategy from BFS to DFS.
Specifically, at the moment we pop an element from the queue, instead of popping out the head element, we
pop the tail element, which then changes the behavior of the container from queue to stack. Here is how it
                                                                                                    Сору
         def DFS(self, board, row, col):
             from collections import deque
```

12 if row < self.ROWS-1: queue.append((row+1, col))</pre> 13 if col > 0: queue.append((row, col-1)) 14 if row > 0: queue.append((row-1, col)) 15

Note that, though the above implementations indeed follow the DFS strategy, they are NOT equivalent to

In order to obtain the same order of visit as the recursive DFS, one should reverse the processing order of

ullet Time Complexity: $\mathcal{O}(N)$ where N is the number of cells in the board. In the worst case where it

contains only the o cells on the board, we would traverse each cell twice: once during the BFS traversal

Surrounded regions shouldn't be on the border, which means that any 'O' on the border of the board are

• Step 1). We select all the cells that are located on the borders of the board. • Step 2). Start from each of the above selected cell, we then perform the DFS traversal. o If a cell on the border happens to be 0, then we know that this cell is *alive*, together with the

algorithm consists of three steps:

cells.

Python

Java

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Python

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moment.

Algorithm

Complexity Analysis

def DFS(self, board, row, col):

board[row][col] = 'E'

if board[row][col] != '0':

return

return

if row < 0 or row >= self.ROWS or col < 0 or col >= self.COLS:

jump to the neighbors without boundary checks

self.DFS(board, row+ro, col+co)

for ro, co in [(0, 1), (1, 0), (0, -1), (-1, 0)]:

Optimizations

• The one with the E letter: these are the cells that are marked during our DFS traversal, i.e. these are the cells that has at least one connection to the borders, therefore they are not captured. As a

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traversal and the other time during the cell reversion in the last step. ullet Space Complexity: $\mathcal{O}(N)$ where N is the number of cells in the board. There are mainly two places that we consume some additional memory. • We keep a list of border cells as starting points for our traversal. We could consider the number of border cells is proportional to the total number (N) of cells. o During the recursive calls of DFS() function, we would consume some space in the function call stack, i.e. the call stack will pile up along with the depth of recursive calls. And the maximum

ullet Time Complexity: $\mathcal{O}(N)$ where N is the number of cells in the board. In the worst case where it

contains only the o cells on the board, we would traverse each cell twice: once during the DFS

This measure reduces the number of recursion, therefore it reduces the overheads with the function calls.

from 148 ms to 124 ms, i.e. 16% of reduction, which beats 97% of submissions instead of 77% at the

As trivial as this modification might seem to be, it actually reduces the runtime of the Python implementation

this iteration. o For a candidate cell, we then simply append its neighbor cells into the queue, which would get their turns to be visited in the next iterations. As comparison, we demonstrate how BFS works with the same example in DFS, in the following animation. BFS:

First explore neighbours

def solve(self, board): :type board: List[List[str]]

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From BFS to DFS In the above implementation of BFS, the fun part is that we could easily convert the BFS strategy to DFS by changing one single line of code. And the obtained DFS implementation is done in iteration, instead of The key is that instead of using the queue data structure which follows the principle of FIFO (First-In

if board[row][col] != '0': continue # mark this cell as escaped board[row][col] = 'E' 10 # check its neighbour cells 11 if col < self.COLS-1: queue.append((row, col+1))</pre>

the previous *recursive* version of DFS, *i.e.* they do not produce the exactly same sequence of visit. In the recursive DFS, we would visit the right-hand side neighbor (row, col+1) first, while in the iterative DFS, we would visit the *up* neighbor (row-1, col) first. neighbors in the above iterative DFS. Complexity