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## AN APPROXIMATE SOLUTION FOR THE STEINER PROBLEM IN GRAPHS

Hiromitsu TAKAHASHI\* and Akira MATSUYAMA\*

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Abstract. An  $O(kn^2)$  time algorithm finding an approximate solution for the Steiner problem in graphs is considered, where n is the number of vertices in a given graph and k is the number of vertices that must be connected. The worst case cost-ratio of the obtained solution to the optimal solution is tightly  $2 \cdot (1 - 1/k)$ .

1. Introduction. Let G = (V, E) be a connected, undirected graph with a cost function c, where V is a finite set of vertices, E is a set of unordered pairs of distinct vertices in V called edges, and c maps each edge  $(v_i, v_j)$  of E to a positive number  $c(v_i, v_j)$  called the cost of edge  $(v_i, v_j)$ . A subgraph G' = (V', E') of G = (V, E) is a graph such that  $V' \subseteq V$  and  $E' \subseteq E$ . The cost of a subgraph G' is the sum of the cost of edges in G'. The Steiner problem in graphs is: given graph G = (V, E) and a subset S of V, find a subgraph with the minimum cost among all connected subgraphs that contain S. It is evident that the subgraph which is a solution of this problem must be a tree. We briefly call it an optimal tree.

Let |V| = n, and |S| = k ( $k \ge 2$ ) (|X| denotes the number of elements in set X). The Steiner problem in graphs is reduced to the "shortest path problem" when k = 2, and to the "minimum-cost spanning tree problem" when k = n. These two problems are solved effectively by many authors [2], [3], [6], [7], etc. Dreyfus and Wagner [4] gave an algorithm solving the Steiner problem in graphs which requires time proportional to  $n^3/2 + n^2 \cdot (2^{k-1} - k - 1) + n \cdot (3^{k-1} - 2^k + 3)/2$ . But this method is useful only for small values of k. No polynomial time algorithms of solving the Steiner problem in graphs are likely to exist, since Karp [5] showd that this problem is NP-complete. Hence it is of practical importance to obtain approximation methods which find trees whose costs are close to optimal.

Let H = (S, E') be the complete graph on the vertices S, and let the cost of edge (u, v) in H be the length of a shortest path between u and v in G. It pointed out in [9] that a minimum-length spanning tree in H is an approximate solution of the Steiner tree problem for G whose worst case cost-ratio to an optimal trees is less than or equal to 1/2.

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<sup>\*</sup> Department of Mathematical Sciences, University of Osaka Prefecture, Sakai 591, Japan.

In this paper we propose a more practical and reasonable algorithm to find an approximate solution for the Steiner problem in graphs and analyze it to bound the worst case cost-ratio of the obtained tree to an optimal tree.

 An approximation algorithm. In this section we give an algorithm for finding an approximate solution for the Steiner problem in graphs.

At each step in this algorithm, a tree containing a subset of S has been built up, and a new vertex in S is inserted together with a shortest path connecting the tree and the vertex. Let PATH(W, v) denote a path whose cost is minimum among all shortest paths from vertices in W to vertex v where  $W \subseteq V$  and  $v \notin W$ . Denote by  $\hat{c}(W, v)$  the cost of PATH(W, v). Then the algorithm to find an approximate solution  $T_k$  may be described as follows:

Step 1. Start with subgraph  $T_1=(V_1,E_1)$  consisting a single vertex, say  $v_1$ , in S, that is, set  $V_1=\{v_1\}$  and  $E_1=\emptyset$ .

 $\begin{array}{lll} \textit{Step} & 2. & \text{For each } i=2,3,\cdots,k \text{ do}: \text{ Find a vertex in } S-V_{i-1}, \text{ say } \nu_i, \text{ such that } \hat{c}(V_{i-1},\nu_i) = \min \left\{ \hat{c}(V_{i-1},\nu_i) \mid \nu_i \in S-V_{i-1} \right\}. & \text{Construct tree } T_i = (V_i,E_i) \\ \text{by adding } \operatorname{PATH}(V_{i-1},\nu_i) \text{ to } T_{i-1}, \text{ i.e., set } V_i = V_{i-1} \cup \left\{ \text{ vertices in } \operatorname{PATH}(V_{i-1},\nu_i) \right\}. \\ v_i) \} & \text{and } E_i = E_{i-1} \cup \left\{ \text{ edges in } \operatorname{PATH}(V_{i-1},\nu_i) \right\}. \end{array}$ 

We assume that when there are ties in step i, they can be broken arbitrarily.

We note that this algorithm requires at most  $O(kn^2)$  time, since  $PATH(V_{i-1}, v_i)$  can be computed in time complexity  $O(n^2)$  by Dijkstra's algorithm [3].

Let d(u, v) be the cost of the path between vertices u and v in an optimal tree. We use OPTIMAL to represent the cost of an optimal tree.

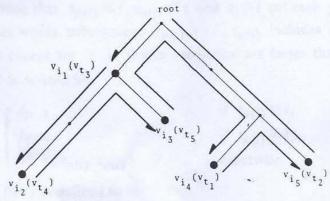
Lemma 1. There exists a permutation  $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_k$  of  $1, 2, \dots, k$  such that  $d(v_{t_1}, v_{t_2}) + \dots + d(v_{t_{k-1}}, v_{t_k}) + d(v_{t_k}, v_{t_1}) = 2 \cdot \text{OPTIMAL}$ 

and

$$d(v_{t_k}, v_{t_1}) \ge (2/k) \cdot \text{OPTIMAL}.$$

*Proof.* Suppose that  $v_{i_j}$  in S is visited after  $v_{i_{j-1}}$  in S for each  $2 \le i \le k$  by a

Fig. 1. An example of a preorder traversal of an optimal tree  $(d(v_{i_3}, v_{i_4}) = \max\{d(v_{i_1}, v_{i_2}), \dots, d(v_{i_4}, v_{i_5}), d(v_{i_5}, v_{i_1})\}$ ).



preorder traversal [1, p. 54] of an optimal tree from an arbitrary vertex (see Fig. 1). Then  $d(v_{i_1}, v_{i_2}) + \cdots + d(v_{i_{k-1}}, v_{i_k}) + d(v_{i_k}, v_{i_1}) = 2 \cdot \text{OPTIMAL}$ . Assume  $d(v_{i_{r-1}}, v_{i_r}) = \max \left\{ d(v_{i_1}, v_{i_2}), \cdots, d(v_{i_{k-1}}, v_{i_k}), d(v_{i_k}, v_{i_1}) \right\}$  for some  $r, 2 \le r \le k$ . Then setting  $t_1 = i_r, \cdots, t_{k-r+1} = i_k, t_{k-r+2} = i_1, \cdots, t_k = i_{r-1}$ , we have  $d(v_{t_{j-1}}, v_{t_{j}}) \le d(v_{t_k}, v_{t_1})$  for all  $2 \le j \le k$ . Hence  $d(v_{t_k}, v_{t_1}) \ge (2/k) \cdot \text{OPTIMAL}$ .  $\square$ 

Let APPROXIMATE be the cost of the obtained tree  $T_k$  by the algorithm. Then APPROXIMATE is equal to  $\sum_{i=2}^k \hat{c}(V_{i-1}, v_i)$ .

Theorem 1. For all n and  $k (2 \le k \le n-1)$ ,

APPROXIMATE / OPTIMAL 
$$\leq 2 \cdot (1 - 1/k)$$
.

Moreover if k = n, APPROXIMATE is equal to OPTIMAL.

**Proof.** If k = n, the algorithm is Prim's algorithm [7] computing a minimum-cost spanning tree. Hence the latter half of the theorem is proved.

Since the cost of PATH $(V_{i-1}, \nu_i)$  is minimum among all paths between vertices in  $V_{i-1}$  and vertices in  $S-V_{i-1}$ , we have

(1) 
$$\hat{c}(V_{i-1}, v_i) \leq d(v_p, v_q) \quad \text{for all } 2 \leq i \leq k$$

if  $1 \le \min\{p, q\} \le i-1$  and  $i \le \max\{p, q\} \le k$ . By Lemma 1 there is a permutation  $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_k$  of  $1, 2, \dots, k$  such that

(2) 
$$d(v_{t_1}, v_{t_2}) + \dots + d(v_{t_{k-1}}, v_{t_k}) + d(v_{t_k}, v_{t_1}) = 2 \cdot \text{OPTIMAL}$$

and
(3)  $d(v_{t_k}, v_{t_k}) \ge (2/k) \cdot \text{OPTIMAL}.$ 

We can construct a one-to-one correspondence between numbers  $i, i = 2, 3, \dots, k$  and pairs  $(t_{i-1}, t_i), j = 2, 3, \dots, k$ , such that

$$\hat{c}(V_{i-1}, v_i) \leq d(v_{t_{j-1}}, v_{t_j}).$$

Such a correspondence can be established by the method which Rosenkrantz, et al. used in more general case [8, Proof of Lemma 3]. For each i with  $i \ge 2$ , consider the longest subsequence  $t_{p(i)}, t_{p(i)+1}, \cdots, i, \cdots, t_{q(i)-1}, t_{q(i)}$  including i of sequence  $t_1, t_2, \cdots, t_k$  such that  $t_{p(i)} \le i$ ,  $t_{q(i)} \le i$  and  $t_j \ge i$  for each  $j, j = p(i) + 1, \cdots, q(i) - 1$ . In other words, subsequence  $t_{p(i)}, \cdots, t_{q(i)}$  includes i, and all the intermediate numbers except for i in that subsequence are larger than i. The critical number  $i^*$  for i is defined by

$$i^* = \begin{cases} t_{p(i)} & \text{if } t_{q(i)} = i, \\ t_{q(i)} & \text{if } t_{p(i)} = i, \\ \max \{t_{p(i)}, t_{q(i)}\} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The *critical pair* for i is defined to be

$$(t_{p(i)}, t_{p(i)+1})$$
 if  $i^* = t_{p(i)}$ ,  
 $(t_{q(i)-1}, t_{q(i)})$  if  $i^* = t_{q(i)}$ .

Next we show that no two numbers can have the same critical pair. Assume to the contrary that i and j (i < j) have the same critical pair  $(t_{m-1}, t_m)$ . Assume that  $t_m < t_{m-1}$ . Then  $t_m$  is critical for i and j, and m = q(i) = q(j). Since all the intermediate numbers in the subsequence from j to  $t_m$  of subsequence  $t_1, t_2, \cdots, t_k$  are larger than j, number i can not be in that sequence. This implies number j is in the sequence from i to  $t_m$ . Since  $t_m < i$ , all the numbers in the sequence from i to j are larger than  $t_m$ . Thus  $t_{p(j)} > t_m = t_{q(j)}$ . This contradicts the assumption that  $t_m$  is critical for j. The same contradiction is concluded when  $t_m > t_{m-1}$ .

Let  $[t_{m(i)-1}, t_{m(i)}]$  be the critical pair for i, then from (1) we have, since  $\min\{t_{m(i)-1}, t_{m(i)}\} < i \le \max\{t_{m(i)-1}, t_{m(i)}\}$  holds,

(4) 
$$\hat{c}(V_{i-1}, v_i) \leq d(v_{t_m(i)-1}, v_{t_m(i)}).$$

From (2), (3) and (4), we have

APPROXIMATE = 
$$\sum_{i=2}^{k} \hat{c}(V_{i-1}, v_i)$$

$$\leqslant \sum_{i=2}^{k} d(v_{t_m(i)-1}, v_{t_m(i)}) = \sum_{p=2}^{k} d(v_{t_{p-1}}, v_{t_p})$$

$$= 2 \cdot \text{OPTIMAL} - d(v_{t_k}, v_{t_1})$$

$$\leqslant 2 \cdot (1 - 1/k) \cdot \text{OPTIMAL}. \quad \Box$$

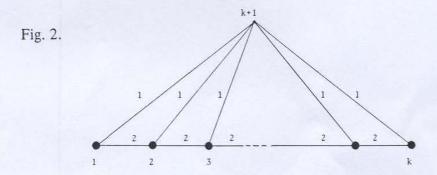
If  $k \le n-1$ , we can construct graphs for which the ratio is equal to  $2 \cdot (1-1/k)$ .

Theorem 2. For all n and k ( $2 \le k \le n$ ), there exists a graph for which APPROXIMATE / OPTIMAL =  $2 \cdot (1 - 1/k)$ .

*Proof.* Let V be the set of integers,  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ , E be the set  $\{(i, j) | i = 1, 2, \dots, n, j = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$ , and S be the set  $\{1, 2, \dots, k\}$ . Suppose that

$$c(i, j) = \begin{cases} 1 & i = 1, 2, \dots, k, j = k+1, \\ 2 & i = 1, \dots, k-1, j = i+1, \\ 10 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

(see Fig. 2). It is evident that the tree  $(S \cup \{k+1\}, \{(i, k+1) | i=1, 2, \dots, k\})$ 



is obtainable by the algorithm and the cost of this tree is  $2 \cdot (k-1)$ . The ratio is then established by dividing  $2 \cdot (k-1)$  by OPTIMAL.  $\square$ 

By Theorems 1 and 2, the worst case ratio of APPROXIMATE to OPTIMAL is 2:(1-1/k).

The authors have studied two other types of approximate solutions which can be computed in time complexity  $O(n^2)$ ; (1) a tree obtained from a minimum-cost spanning tree for G=(V,E) by deleting edges not essential in order to connect vertices in S, and (2) a union of k-1 shortest paths from a single vertex in S. We have been able to show that cost ratios for these solutions are tightly bounded by n-k+1 and k-1, respectively. It follows that there is little reason to consider these types of approximations further.

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