

# ON THE PROBLEM OF STEINER

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1. There is a well-known elementary problem:

( $S_3$ ) Given a triangle  $T$  with the vertices  $a_1, a_2, a_3$ , to find in the plane of  $T$  the point  $p$  which minimizes the sum of the distances  $|pa_1| + |pa_2| + |pa_3|$ .

$p$ , called the Steiner point of  $T$ , is unique: if an angle of  $T$  is  $\geq 2\pi/3$  then  $p$  is its vertex, otherwise  $p$  lies inside  $T$  and the sides of  $T$  subtend at  $p$  the angle  $2\pi/3$ . In the latter case  $p$  is called the S-point of  $T$ , and it can be found by the following simple construction: let  $a_{12}$  be the third vertex of the equilateral triangle whose other two vertices are  $a_1$  and  $a_2$ , and whose interior does not overlap that of  $T$ , let  $C$  be the circle through  $a_1, a_2, a_{12}$ ; then  $p$  is the intersection of  $C$  and the straight segment  $a_{12}a_3$ . It is easily proved that any one of the three ellipses through  $p$  with two of the vertices of  $T$  as foci is tangent at  $p$  to the circle through  $p$  about the third vertex of  $T$ .

A generalization of ( $S_3$ ) is the problem:

( $P_n$ ) Given a convex polygon  $P$  with the vertices  $a_1, \dots, a_n$ , to find in the plane of  $P$  the point  $q$  which minimizes the sum  $\sum_{j=1}^n |qa_j|$ .

$q$  shares with the point  $p$  of ( $S_3$ ) the tangency property. Given  $k \geq 1$  points  $f_1, \dots, f_k$  in the plane, a  $k$ -ellipse with the foci  $f_1, \dots, f_k$  is the locus of points  $x$  in the plane, for which  $\sum_{j=1}^k |xf_j| = \text{const}$ . If a  $k$ -ellipse is a locus with at least two points then it is a closed smooth convex curve. One can show now that a  $k$ -ellipse,  $1 \leq k < n$ , with any  $k$  consecutive

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vertices of  $P$  as foci, and passing through  $q$ , is tangent at  $q$  to the  $(n - k)$ -ellipse through  $q$  whose foci are the remaining vertices of  $P$ . This proves, among other things, the uniqueness of  $q$ .

A much greater interest attaches to a different generalization of  $(S_3)$ , known as the Steiner problem:

$(S_n)$  Given  $n$  points  $a_1, \dots, a_n$  in the plane,  $n \geq 3$ , to construct the shortest tree(s) whose vertices contain these  $n$  points.

For our purpose a tree may be defined as follows. Given  $N$  points  $b_1, \dots, b_N$  in the plane, a tree  $U$  on the vertices  $b_1, \dots, b_N$  is any set consisting of some of the  $\binom{N}{2}$  closed straight segments  $b_i b_j$ , with the property that any two vertices can be joined by a sequence of segments belonging to  $U$  in one and only one way. A segment  $b_i b_j$  in  $U$  is called a branch, the length  $L(U)$  of  $U$  is the sum of the lengths of its branches,  $\{b_i\}$  is the set of all vertices sending branches to the vertex  $b_i$ , and  $w(b_i)$  is their number. It will be observed that a tree may be self-intersecting.

There are two other problems similar to  $(S_n)$  and  $(P_n)$ :

$(C_n)$  To connect  $n$  given points in the plane by the shortest tree whose vertices are these  $n$  points, and

$(T_n)$  Given  $n$  points  $a_1, \dots, a_n$  in the plane, to find the shortest unbranched tree with these  $n$  points as vertices.

A tree is unbranched if  $w(a) \leq 2$  for everyone of its vertices  $a$ . The problem  $(C_n)$  is known as the problem of the shortest spanning subtree or the shortest connecting network, while  $(T_n)$  is related to the travelling salesman problem.

It is possible also to formulate a problem including  $(S_n)$ ,  $(P_n)$ ,  $(C_n)$ ,  $(T_n)$  as special cases:

$(S_{n\alpha\beta\gamma})$  Given three real numbers  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$ , and  $n$  points  $a_1, \dots, a_n$  in the plane, to find an integer  $k$  and  $k$  points  $P_1, \dots, P_k$ , and to construct the tree  $U$  on the vertices  $a_1, \dots, a_n, P_1, \dots, P_k$  so as to minimize the sum

$$L(U) + \alpha \sum_{j=1}^n w(a_j) + \beta \sum_{j=1}^k w(p_j) + \gamma k.$$

We obtain  $(S_n)$  when  $\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 0$ ,  $(C_n)$  when  $\alpha = 0$  and  $\max(\beta, \gamma) \gg 1$ ,  $(P_n)$  when  $\beta = 0$  and  $\alpha > \gamma \gg 1$  (and the points  $a_1, \dots, a_n$  are the vertices of a convex polygon), and  $(T_n)$  when  $\max(\beta, \gamma) \gg \alpha \gg 1$ .

We offer now an economic interpretation of the problem  $(S_{n\alpha\beta\gamma})$ ; this will explain how the above four problems arise as special cases of  $(S_{n\alpha\beta\gamma})$  and also point out some possible applications. Let the points  $a_1, \dots, a_n$  represent  $n$  cities and let the tree  $U$  represent a system of roads connecting the cities. Let a point at which  $s$  roads meet,  $s \geq 3$ , be called an  $s$ -junction. Suppose that the cost of building one unit of length of the road is 1 (in some monetary units), that a city  $s$ -junction costs  $s\alpha$ , any other  $s$ -junction costs  $s\beta$ , and in addition there is a fixed charge  $\gamma$  for each junction outside of a city. Now  $(S_{n\alpha\beta\gamma})$  is formally identical with asking: what is the cheapest system of roads that connects the  $n$  cities?

Suppose next that  $\alpha = 0$  and that  $\max(\beta, \gamma)$  is sufficiently large. This puts a great premium on avoiding any junctions outside of the cities, and one obtains the problem  $(C_n)$ . Similarly, if  $\beta = 0$  and  $\alpha > \gamma$ , where  $\gamma$  is sufficiently high, then there is a premium on avoiding junctions in the cities and also on keeping the number  $k$  of new junctions possibly low. For suitable  $\alpha$  it will follow that the most economical system will have exactly one  $s$ -junction, and since  $\beta = 0$ , that is, since the number  $s$  does not influence the total cost, we obtain the problem  $(P_n)$ . The case of  $(T_n)$  can be handled similarly.

Of the several problems mentioned  $(P_n)$  is elementary,  $(C_n)$  is completely solved [1], [2], [3],  $(T_n)$  can be solved, in principle at least, by trial and error, being discrete, and  $(S_{n\alpha\beta\gamma})$  is apparently too hard to be attacked in its full generality. Several necessary conditions are known for  $(S_n)$  [4], but they do not suffice to construct the solution(s). Call a geometrical construction Euclidean if it uses only the ruler and compass in the traditional sense. We shall prove

**THEOREM 1.** For every  $n$  there exists a finite sequence of Euclidean constructions yielding all the minimizing trees of the problem  $(S_n)$ .

2. Let  $U$  be a minimizing tree of  $(S_n)$ , then

- (1)  $U$  has the vertices  $a_1, \dots, a_n, s_1, \dots, s_k$ ,
- (2)  $U$  is non-selfintersecting,
- (3)  $w(s_i) = 3, 1 \leq i \leq k$ ,
- (4) each  $s_i, 1 \leq i \leq k$ , is the  $S$ -point of the triangle  $\{s_i\}$ ,
- (5)  $w(a_j) \leq 3, 1 \leq j \leq n$ ,
- (6)  $0 \leq k \leq n - 2$ .

It is understood that when  $k = 0$  the only vertices of  $U$  are  $a_1, \dots, a_n$ . The conditions (2) - (5) are easy consequences of the solution for  $(S_3)$  given in the previous section, and (6) is given, although not proved, in [4], p. 361. It appears that the conditions (1) - (6) sum up the total present knowledge about the minimizing trees of  $(S_n)$ . We let  $A = \{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$ .

We shall call every tree  $U$  which satisfies (1) - (6) an  $S$ -tree. To bring out the dependence on  $k$  we shall also call an  $S$ -tree with  $n + k$  vertices an  $S_k$ -tree. It follows from (6) that every  $S$ -tree is an  $S_k$ -tree for some  $k, 0 \leq k \leq n - 2$ . The set  $\{s_1, \dots, s_k\}$  of the vertices of an  $S_k$ -tree, other than those in  $A$ , will be called its  $S_k^n$ -set; it is empty when  $k = 0$ .

3. LEMMA 1. The number  $N(n, k)$  of  $S_k^n$ -sets is finite for every  $n$  and  $k$ , and every such set can be obtained by a Euclidean construction.

This will be proved by induction. We have first  $N(n, 0) = 1$  by definition. Let  $k = 1$ , then any  $S_1^n$ -set consists of a single point  $s$  which is by (4) an  $S$ -point of some triangle with the vertices in  $A$ . Therefore  $N(n, 1) \leq \binom{n}{3}$  and each  $S_1^n$ -set can be found by the Euclidean construction of the problem  $(S_3)$ . Suppose now that the lemma has been proved for  $k = 1, \dots, K, K \leq n - 3$ , for every  $n$ . Consider a particular  $S_{K+1}^n$ -set  $Y$ . There must be in  $Y$  a point  $s$  such that  $\{s\}$  includes at least two points of  $A$ , say  $a_{i_1}$  and  $a_{i_2}$ . Let  $b$  be the third point in  $\{s\}$ ;  $b$  may be either in  $A$  or in  $Y$ . Let  $a$  be the intersection of the circle  $C$  through  $a_{i_1}, a_{i_2}$ , and  $s$ , and the extension of the straight

segment  $sb$  beyond  $s$ . Then it follows, as in the construction for  $(S_3)$ , that  $a$  is the third vertex of the equilateral triangle with two vertices  $a_{i_1}$  and  $a_{i_2}$ , or rather, that it is the third vertex of one of the two such triangles. Since there are two such triangles and since there are  $\binom{n}{2}$  ways of selecting  $a_{i_1}$  and  $a_{i_2}$  in  $A$ , it follows that there are  $n(n-1)$  possibilities for  $a$ . The crucial point is that  $a$ , or rather the possible  $a$ 's, can be found by Euclidean constructions based on the set  $A$  alone. It is clear now that the  $K$  members of  $Y$ , other than  $s$ , form an  $S_K^{n+1}$ -set for the points  $a_1, \dots, a_n, a$ . Hence

$$(7) \quad N(n, K+1) \leq n(n-1) N(n+1, K).$$

Since it has been shown that  $N(n, 1) \leq \binom{n}{3}$  it follows from (7) that

$$(8) \quad N(n, k) \leq [(n+k-2)!(n+k-3)!] \binom{n+k-1}{3} / [(n-1)!(n-2)!],$$

and each of these  $N(n, k)$  sets can be found by Euclidean constructions. This proves the lemma.

LEMMA 2. There is a finite number of  $S$ -trees and each one can be obtained by a Euclidean construction.

Consider a particular  $S_k^n$ -set  $\{s_1, \dots, s_k\}$ . This, together with  $A$ , gives the set of  $n+k$  vertices. It is known, [5], that there are  $N^{n-2}$  trees on  $N$  distinct vertices. Hence there are  $(n+k)^{n+k-2}$  trees on the given  $n+k$  vertices. Since there are by lemma 1  $N(n, k)$  possibilities for the  $S_k^n$ -set, there are together

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-2} N(n, k) (n+k)^{n+k-2}$$

trees to examine. However, given any one of these trees, it is clearly possible by Euclidean constructions to decide whether it is an  $S$ -tree or not.

4. The proof of theorem 1 follows immediately. We first

construct all the S-trees; by lemma 2 this can be done. The process of finding the length of an S-tree, as well as the process of finding the minimum length of a finite number of trees, can be carried out by Euclidean constructions. Since the S-trees comprise the minimizing tree(s) of the problem  $(S_n)$ , the proof is complete.

It is obvious that our algorithm, although effective, is extremely redundant and inefficient. On the other hand, the full power of the conditions (1) - (6), and other similar ones that can be derived, has not been used. Work is currently in progress on a practicable algorithm, by means of which the problem  $(S_n)$  can be solved with the aid of an automatic computer for, say,  $n = 30$ . The preliminary results seem to indicate that the number of operations necessary is of the order  $p(n)$ , where  $p$  is the partition function for unrestricted partitions. It is hoped to be able to report the results of this work in the near future.

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