

Improved Approximating Algorithms for Directed Steiner Forest

Moran Feldman*

Guy Kortsarz †

Zeev Nutov [‡]

October 4, 2007

Abstract

We consider the k-Directed Steiner Forest (k-DSF) problem: given a directed graph G=(V,E) with edge costs, a collection $D\subseteq V\times V$ of ordered node pairs, and an integer $k\le |D|$, find a minimum cost subgraph H of G that contains an st-path for (at least) k pairs $(s,t)\in D$. When k=|D|, we get the Directed Steiner Forest (DSF) problem. The best known approximation ratios for these problems are: $\tilde{O}(k^{2/3})$ for k-DSF by Charikar et. al [3], and $O(k^{1/2+\varepsilon})$ for DSF by Chekuri et. al [4]. We improve these approximation ratios as follows.

For DSF we give an $\tilde{O}(n^{4/5+\varepsilon})$ -approximation scheme using a novel LP-relaxation that seeks to connect pairs with "cheap" paths. This is the first sub-linear (in terms of n=|V|) approximation ratio for the problem; all previous algorithm had ratio $\Omega(n^{1+\varepsilon})$.

For k-DSF we give a simple greedy $O(k^{1/2+\varepsilon})$ -approximation algorithm. This improves the best known ratio $\tilde{O}(k^{2/3})$ by Charikar et. al [3], and (almost) matches in terms of k the best ratio known for the undirected variant [2]. Even when used for the particular case of DSF, our algorithm favorably compares to the one of [4], which repeatedly solves linear programs and uses complex space and time consuming transformations. Our algorithm is much simpler and faster, since it essentially reduces k-DSF to a variant of the Directed Steiner Tree problem. The simplification is due to a new notion of "junction star-tree" – a union of an in-star and an out-branching having the same root, which is of independent interest.

1 Introduction

Network design problems seek to find a minimum cost subgraph of a given (directed or undirected) graph, that satisfies prescribed requirements. These problems are among the most studied problems in the fields of Combinatorial Optimization and Approximation Algorithms. We hereby list some classic network design problems on undirected graphs. One of the most basic network design problems is the Steiner Tree problem: given a graph G = (V, E) with edge costs, and a set $T \subseteq V$ of terminals, find a min-cost subtree of G that spans U. Unlike the classic Spanning Tree problem (the case U = V), the Steiner Tree problem is NP-complete (cf. [13]). This classic problem was extensively studied with respect to approximation (see [30] and the references therein). A classic generalization is the Steiner Forest problem: given a graph G = (V, E) with edge costs and a collection $D \subseteq V \times V$ of (unordered)

^{*}The Open University of Israel. feldsh@netvision.net.il

[†]IBM research center Yorktown heights. At sabbatical from Rutgers University. guyk@camden.rutgers.edu

[‡]The Open University of Israel. nutov@openu.ac.il

node pairs, find a minimum cost subgraph H of G that connects all pairs in D (namely, contains an st-path for every $\{s,t\} \in D$). The best approximation known for this problem is 2 [1, 15]. In the more general k-Steiner Forest problem, we are also given an integer $k \leq |D|$, and the goal is to connect at least k (arbitrary) pairs from D. Here a significant obstacle lies in the way of achieving a good (say, even polylogarithmic) approximation ratio even for undirected graphs. It was observed in [16] that this problem is harder than the minimization variant of the k-dense subgraph problem which is commonly believed not to admit a polylogarithmic approximation. (See [11] for an $O(n^{1/3-\varepsilon})$ approximation ratio for the maximization variant, with $\varepsilon \approx 1/60$. Despite several attempts of improvements this ratio was not improved for 11 years.) The best known approximation ratio for the k-Steiner Forest problem is $O(\min\{\sqrt{n}, \sqrt{k}\})$, see a recent paper by Gupta et. al [2]. In [2] the k-Steiner Forest problem is shown to have further significance due to its relation to the Dial a Ride problem.

In this paper we consider the *directed* variant of the k-Steiner Forest problem, namely:

k-Directed Steiner Forest (k-DSF)

Instance: A directed graph G = (V, E), costs $\{c(e) : e \in E\}$, a set $D \subseteq V \times V$ of ordered pairs, and an integer $k \leq |D|$.

Objective: Find a min-cost subgraph H of G that contains an st-path for (at least) k pairs $(s,t) \in D$.

When k = |D| we get the **Directed Steiner Forest** (DSF) problem. Another particular case of k-DSF is the k-Directed Steiner Tree (k-DST) problem, where $D = \{s\} \times T$ for some $s \in V$ and a terminal set $T \subseteq V - \{s\}$. We note that the name "Directed Steiner Forest" is a bit misleading and used just to relate the problem to the undirected version. Indeed, in the undirected version, any minimal feasible solution is a forest. However in the directed case the structure of a solution may be complicated (e.g., it may contain cycles). For example, if all costs are 1 and $D = V \times V$, then a directed Hamiltonian cycle is the best solution one can expect.

1.1 Directed and undirected Steiner forests and related problems

Usually, the directed variants of network design problems are much harder to approximate that the undirected ones (we shall later see that for k-DSF this is not the case!). For example, while the undirected Steiner Tree and k-Steiner Tree problems admit a constant approximation ratio (see [30, 8]), even a very special case of DST – the Group Steiner problem on trees, is unlikely to admit a $\log^{2-\varepsilon} n$ ratio for any $\varepsilon > 0$ [17]. In fact, the best known ratio for DST is much worse than its proved lower bound. Extending and simplifying the recursive greedy method introduced by Zelikovsky [31] and Kortsarz and Peleg [25], Charikar et. al [3] gave a combinatorial $O(\ell^3 k^{2/\ell})$ -approximation algorithm for k-DST that runs in $O(k^{2\ell}n^{\ell})$ time (where k = |T|). Substituting $\ell = 2/\varepsilon$ gives an $O(k^{\varepsilon})$ -approximation scheme, namely, an $O(k^{\varepsilon}/\varepsilon^3)$ -approximation algorithm that runs in $O(k^{4/\varepsilon}n^{2/\varepsilon})$ time for any fixed $\varepsilon > 0$. Substituting $\ell = \log k$ gives an $O(\log^3 k)$ -approximation in quasi-polynomial time.

For the Steiner Forest problem the comparison between directed and undirected graphs becomes even worse. The problem admits a constant approximation for undirected graphs [1, 15]. However, for DSF strong lower bounds are known [9]. Dodis and Khanna [9] showed that DSF is at least as hard as the LABEL-COVER_{max} problem [29]. This implies that DSF cannot be approximated within $O(2^{\log^{1-\varepsilon} n})$ for any fixed $\varepsilon > 0$, unless NP-hard problems can be solved in quasi-polynomial time [29].

The situation for DSF (and thus also for the more general k-DSF) is much worse than the above in the current state of the art. The best known ratio for LABEL-COVER_{max} is $O(\sqrt{n})$ [28]. This ratio seems hard to improve and better ratio algorithms for LABEL-COVER_{max} are not known even for very simple versions of the problem (e.g., when the structure of the graph obeys the rules of the Unique Game Conjecture [20], when the admissible pairs of answers of the two provers on any fixed query induces a matching). If LABEL-COVER_{max} is indeed $\Omega(\sqrt{n})$ hard to approximate, then so is DSF.

Still, there is no evidence yet discarding the possibility that DSF admits an $O(\sqrt{n})$ approximation ratio. Indeed, as already mentioned, we provide the first step in this direction by giving a sublinear approximation scheme, in terms of n.

Perhaps the most extreme example of the difference between undirected and directed network design problems is the Steiner Network problem. In this problem each pair (s,t) has connectivity requirement r(s,t), namely, r(s,t) edge disjoint st-paths are required for every $(s,t) \in D$. On undirected graphs, this problem admits a 2-approximation algorithm due to Jain [19]. As far as we know no non-trivial ratio is known for the Steiner Network problem on directed graphs.

For other related problems, including the closely related *Group Steiner Tree* problem see [5, 14, 22, 17, 18, 12, 23] and surveys in [10] and [21, 24].

1.2 Our results

For DSF, the best known approximation ratio, in terms of n, is $O(n^{1+\varepsilon})$, which can be easily derived from the algorithm of [3] for DST. For k-DSF, Charikar et. al [3] gave an $\tilde{O}(k^{2/3})$ -approximation algorithm, thus, the best ratio for k-DSF in terms of n was $\tilde{O}(n^{4/3})$, since $k = O(n^2)$.

A natural question is whether DSF admits an $O(n^{1-\varepsilon})$ approximation ratio. In particular, is there an $O(\sqrt{n})$ -approximation algorithm? Our first result makes a progress toward answering this question, by giving the first sublinear, in terms of n, approximation algorithm for the problem.

Theorem 1.1 DSF admits an $O(n^{4/5+\varepsilon})$ -approximation scheme.

The algorithm of [4] for DSF does not extend to k-DSF; see the reasons for that in Section 1.3.1. Thus another natural question is: What is the best ratio possible for k-DSF in terms of k? We prove:

Theorem 1.2 k-DSF admits an $O(k^{1/2+\varepsilon})$ -approximation scheme.

This improves the $\tilde{O}(k^{2/3})$ ratio of [3]. It almost matches the best approximation $O(\sqrt{k})$ known (in terms of k) for undirected graphs [2]. A striking feature of the state of the art of the k-Steiner Forest problem is that the ratios known for the directed and undirected cases are not that different in terms of k: $O(\sqrt{k})$ for undirected graphs [2] versus $O(k^{1/2+\varepsilon})$ in our paper. However, in terms of n, the difference \sqrt{n} versus $n^{4/5+\varepsilon}$ is still quite large.

The running time of our algorithm for k-DSF: Suppose that k-DST admits an α -approximation in T(n,k) time. We show that then k-DSF admits an $O(\alpha\sqrt{k})$ -approximation in $O(nk^2T(2n+k,k))$ time (assuming T(n,k) is increasing in k). In particular, k-DSF admits an $O(k^{1/2+\varepsilon}/\varepsilon^3)$ -approximation algorithm that runs in $O(nk^{2+4/\varepsilon}(2n+k)^{2/\varepsilon})$ time for any fixed $\varepsilon > 0$. Using the specific properties of the k-DST algorithm of [3], the time complexity can be reduced to $O(nk^{1+4/\varepsilon}(2n+k)^{2/\varepsilon})$.

Comparing our algorithm and the algorithm of [4] on DSF: In addition to the above improvements, our $O(k^{1/2+\varepsilon})$ -approximation algorithm for k-DSF, when restricted to the special case of DSF, achieves the same ratio as [4] but is much simpler and much faster. The algorithm of [4] repeatedly solves linear programs while our algorithm can be seen as a reduction to k'-DST and is purely combinatorial; this is the reason our running time is much lower. We achieve this by introducing a new notion of junction star-trees that simplifies matters.

1.3 Main new techniques: junction star-trees and a novel LP for DSF

1.3.1 Junction star-trees and their advantages

All known algorithms for k-DST accumulate $good\ density$ trees until enough pairs are connected. The density of a solution is its cost over the number of new pairs it connects.

The idea of low-density junction trees was first invented for approximating Buy-at-Bulk problems [6]. For the sake of Buy-at-Bulk, it was enough to define a junction tree as a collection of paths, all going via the same node, and sending a (possibly fractional) unit of $s_i t_i$ -flow for "many" s_i , t_i pairs at a "low" cost. The reason this definition suffices is that there are known methods to round such fractional solutions into trees of low cost with only polylogarithmic loss compared to the fractional value (see [27, 7]).

For problems on *directed* graphs, it does not seem that we can easily use fractional flow methods to achieve a low ratio approximation algorithm. Even for DST, it is not clear if it is possible to round a fractional flow solution into a low cost out-branching. The only tool we have for tasks of finding low cost out- and in-branchings is the recursive greedy algorithm of [3].

Hence, in the directed setting a more careful definition of junction tree is used [4]. A junction tree is an in-branching T_I into r plus an out-branching T_O out of r connecting several pairs from D [4]. In the definition of [4], T_I and T_O are allowed to intersect. ¹

We present a few details of the [4] algorithm. Setting the goal of achieving a roughly \sqrt{k} -approximation, a simple averaging argument shows that there is a node r so that at least \sqrt{k} $s_i t_i$ -paths go via it (otherwise, a \sqrt{k} ratio is easily derived [4]) giving a low density junction tree. ²

The question is how to find such a low density junction tree, this is a non-trivial challenge. The goal is to "match" the "source" s_i with the proper terminal t_i . A "naive" application of [3] is guessing the root r and the number k' of sources in T_I (which equals the number of terminals in T_O), and finding an in-branching with k' sources and an out-branching with k' terminals using [3]. This method fails because the sources in the in-branching and the terminals in the out-branching found may not match.

In [4], some clever manipulations are performed to overcome that difficulty. This includes a phase called *paths splitting* and a use of a "density type" *linear program* that in effect "forces" the sources

¹It seems more natural to require that $T_I \cap T_O = \emptyset$. However, this makes no difference. It is easy to handle the extra requirement $T_I \cap T_0 = \emptyset$ by taking shortest $s_i t_i$ -paths, after joining via the junction node two copies of the input graph.

²Technically speaking, a union of $s_i t_i$ -paths all going via r is not a junction tree as defined in [4]. However, is easy to see that it contains a junction tree.

to match the terminals. See a simpler application of a density type LP in [6]. The situation in [6] is simpler then here as the graph in [6] is undirected.

We overcome some of the above difficulties using junction star-trees. A junction star-tree is a star with leaves s_i entering a root r joined to an out-branching covering the respective t_i . If we can find a junction star-tree of low density the difficulties of matching s_i and t_i no longer apply. There is an easy way to force the s_i , t_i to match by "attaching" each s_i as a child of t_i with a directed edge $t_i s_i$ of cost $c(s_i r)$. Thus, the s_i become the terminals, and s_i belongs to the solution if and only if t_i does (see a more formal proof of this in Section 4). We show that the metric completion of the input graph G always contains a junction star-tree of good density. Hence the problem is reduced to k'-DST problem (we still need to guess the root r and the number k' of pairs in the junction star-tree), and we do not need to use LP methods. Obviously, a drawback is that it is harder to prove the existence of a low density junction star-tree (see the Junction Star-Tree Theorem 4.5 and its proof in Section 4.1), than just the existence of a low density junction tree.

Another disadvantage of the LP method used by [4] is that it is unable to deal with the k-DSF problem. The LP may connect an arbitrary number of pairs (albeit, it returns a solution of good density). Hence, the number of pairs the LP connects may be much larger than k. The use of junction star-trees allows us to use the algorithm of [3] for k-DST (by solving the k'-DST problem, $k' \leq k$) instead of the LP methods, which in turn allows us to control the number of pairs connected.

1.3.2 A novel LP for cheap paths in the sublinear algorithm for DSF

Intuitively, a pair $st \in D$ is "good" if there are "many" nodes r so that a "cheap" st-path via r exists; otherwise, the pair is "bad". There are three main procedures in our sublinear algorithm for DSF:

- 1. The first procedure uses randomization to find a relatively small "junction subset" $R \subset V$ through which all good pairs can be connected. As R is small, and the paths are cheap, we can show that the cost incurred in connecting all good pairs via R is $\tilde{O}(n^{4/5}) \cdot \text{opt}$. After all good pairs are connected, they are excluded from D, and we remain with bad pairs only.
- 2. If in some optimal solution at least half of bad pairs are connected by "long path" then we prove, by standard averaging, the existence of a low density junction-tree (as defined in [4]). A sub-graph with density close to the density of such a tree is found using the procedure of [4].
- 3. The difficult case is when optimal solution connect most of the bad pairs by "cheap" paths. To handle this case, we formulate a novel LP-relaxation which asks to connect pairs by cheap paths only. This LP assigns capacity x_e to every edge e so that it will be possible to send a unit of $s_i t_i$ -flow (separately for every i) along cheap paths, and so that $\sum_{e \in E} c(e) x_e$ is minimized. We show how to find approximate solutions for this LP in polynomial time, and that rounding up entries x_e of large enough value gives a low density augmentation.

2 Preliminaries

2.1 The ρ -Greedy Algorithm

We use a known result about the performance of a *Greedy Algorithm* for the following type of problems:

COVERING PROBLEM

Instance: A groundset E and non-negative functions ν, c on 2^E , given by an evaluation oracle.

Objective: Find $F \subseteq E$ with $\nu(F) = 0$ and c(F) minimized.

We call ν the deficiency function (it measures how far is F from being a feasible solution) and c the cost function.

Definition 2.1 Let $F \subseteq E$ be a partial solution (partial cover) for an instance of Covering Problem and let $J \subseteq E$. Let $\rho(x)$ be a positive function, and let opt be the optimal solution value for Covering Problem. We say that $J \subseteq E$ obeys the $\rho(x)$ -Density Condition if:

$$\sigma_F(J) = \frac{c(J)}{\nu(F) - \nu(F \cup J)} \le \text{opt} \cdot \frac{\rho(\nu(F))}{\nu(F)} \tag{1}$$

The quantity $\sigma_F(J)$ in (1) is the density of J (w.r.t. F). The $\rho(x)$ -Greedy Algorithm starts with $F = \emptyset$ and iteratively adds to F a subset $J \subseteq E$ obeying (1). A set-function f on 2^E is decreasing if $f(F_2) \le f(F_1)$ for any $F_1 \subseteq F_2 \subseteq E$, and subadditive if $f(F_1 \cup F_2) \le f(F_1) + f(F_2)$ for any $F_1, F_2 \subseteq E$. The following statement is well known (e.g., see a slightly weaker version in [3]).

Theorem 2.1 If ν is decreasing, c is subadditive, and $\rho(x)/x$ is a decreasing function, then the $\rho(x)$ -Greedy Algorithm computes a solution F with:

$$c(F) \le \operatorname{opt} \cdot \int_0^{\nu(\emptyset)} \frac{\rho(x)}{x} dx$$
 (2)

In our setting, the ground-set is the set E of edges of the graph. For every partial solution $F \subseteq E$, the deficiency $\nu(F)$ of F is the number of ordered pairs not connected by F. Formally, $\nu(F) = \max\{k - |D(F)|, 0\}$, where D(F) denotes the set of pairs from D connected by F. Clearly, ν is decreasing, and c is subadditive.

2.2 Some simple reductions

We briefly describe some well known reductions to be used later that we can apply with negligible loss (in time complexity or approximation ratio) on a given k-DSF instance.

Reduction 1 We may assume that $S \cap T = \emptyset$ and that no edge enters S or leaves T. This can be achieved by adding for every node v two new nodes s_v, t_v with edges $s_v v, v t_v$ of cost 0 each, and replacing every ordered pair $(u, v) \in D$ by the pair (u_s, v_t) .

Reduction 2 We may assume that G is transitively closed and that the costs are metric. This is achieved by applying metric completion.

Given an instance of k-DSF, Reductions 1 and 2 can be implemented in $O(n^3)$ time, hence negligible in our context, and result in an instance with 3n = O(n) nodes.

Reduction 3 We may assume that we know τ such that opt $\leq \tau \leq 2 \cdot \text{opt}$.

This can be done by checking all values $\tau \in \{1, 2, 4, \dots, 2^{\lceil \log_2 c(E) \rceil}\}$; we omit the details from this preliminary draft, and for simplicity of exposition assume that $\tau = \mathsf{opt}$.

3 A sublinear algorithm for DSF (Proof of Theorem 1.1)

Given an instance of DSF assume that all reductions from Subsection 2.2 are implemented. In what follows, let p, α , ℓ be parameters eventually set to:

$$p = 2 \ln k / n^{2/5}, \quad \alpha = n^{2/5}, \quad \ell = \tau / \alpha^2$$

For a graph H, let $\mathsf{dist}_H(u,v)$ denote the minimum cost of a uv-path in H.

Definition 3.1 A path P is short if $c(P) \leq \ell$, and long otherwise. For $(s,t) \in D$, let $U(s,t) = \{u \in V : \mathsf{dist}_G(s,u), \mathsf{dist}_G(u,t) \leq \ell\}$. A pair $(s,t) \in D$ is good if $|U(s,t)| \geq \alpha$, and is bad otherwise.

3.1 Connecting good pairs

Lemma 3.1 There exists a polynomial time algorithm that given an instance of DSF finds an edge set F of cost $c(F) \leq 4pn^2\ell = \tilde{O}(n^{4/5}) \cdot \tau$ that connects all good pairs.

Proof: Form a set $R \subseteq V$ by picking every node $v \in V$ into R with probability p. For a given good pair (s,t) we have:

$$\Pr[R \cap U(s,t) = \emptyset] \le (1-p)^{\alpha} \le \frac{1}{k^2}$$

By the union bound, the probability that $R \cap U(s,t) \neq \emptyset$ for every good pair (s,t) is at least 1-k. |R| is a random variable with binomial distribution B(n,p). Thus E(|R|) = pn. Using the Chernoff Bound we get:

$$\Pr[|R| \le 2pn] = \Pr[|R| \le 2 \cdot E(|R|)] > 1 - e^{-pn/4}$$
.

For $pn/4 \ge \ln k$ we get that with high probability both $|R| \le 2pn$ and $R \cap U(s,t) \ne \emptyset$ for every good pair (s,t). This procedure can be derandomized using the method of conditional probabilities. We connect by a short path every node $s \in S$ to every node $v \in R$, if such path exists. Similarly, we connect by a short path every node $v \in R$ to every node $t \in T$, if such path exists. Let H be the sub-graph constructed by the above procedure. Clearly H connects all good pairs. As $|S| + |T| \le 2n$, we get that $c(H) \le |R| \cdot 2n \cdot \ell \le 2pn \cdot 2n \cdot \ell = 4pn^2\tau/\alpha^2 = \tau \cdot \tilde{O}\left(n^{4/5}\right)$.

3.2 Connecting bad pairs

After all good pairs are connected using the algorithm of Lemma 3.1, they are excluded from D, and we remain with bad pairs only.

Lemma 3.2 There exists an algorithm that given a DSF instance without good pairs and a constant $\varepsilon > 0$, computes in polynomial time an edge set $J \subseteq E$ of density $\tilde{O}(n^{4/5+\varepsilon}) \cdot \tau/|D|$.

In the rest of this section we prove Lemma 3.2. We compute two edge sets using two different algorithms, and choose among them the one with lower density. For the analysis, let us fix some optimal solution H, so $c(H) = \mathsf{opt} = \tau$. Let $L = \{(s,t) \in D : \mathsf{dist}_H(s,t) \ge \ell\}$. We will consider two cases: $|L| \ge |D|/2$ and |D - L| > |D|/2.

Definition 3.2 (From [4]) An edge set J in a directed graph is called junction tree if it is the union of an ingoing tree and an outgoing tree (not necessarily edge disjoint), both rooted at the same node r.

Lemma 3.3 (Due to [4]) The problem of finding a minimum density junction tree admits an $O(k^{\varepsilon})$ -approximation scheme.

Proposition 3.4 H contains a junction tree J of density at most

$$\sigma(J) \le \frac{\tau}{\ell} \cdot \frac{\tau}{|L|} = n^{4/5} \cdot \frac{\tau}{|L|}$$

Hence if $|L| \ge |D|/2$, the algorithm of [4] finds a junction tree J of density $O(n^{4/5+\varepsilon}) \cdot \tau/|D|$.

Proof: Let $\Pi(L)$ be a set of paths in H corresponding to the pairs in L. The sum of the costs of the paths in $\Pi(L)$ is at least $|L| \cdot \ell$. Since the paths of $\Pi(L)$ are in H, there must be an edge of H which belongs to at least $|L| \cdot \ell/\tau$ paths. This implies that there is a junction tree in H connecting at least $|L| \cdot \ell/\tau$ pairs from $\Pi(L)$. The density of such tree is at-most $c(H)/(|L| \cdot (\ell/\tau)) \leq (\tau/|L|) \cdot (\tau/\ell)$, as claimed.

Now suppose that |L| < |D|/2, so |D - L| > |D|/2. Consider the following LP-relaxation (LP1) for the problem of connecting at least $k' \le |D - L|$ pairs from $D = \{(s_1, t_1), \ldots, (s_k, t_k)\}$. Intuitively, (LP1) decides on a capacity x_e for every $e \in E$ and an amount y_i of $s_i t_i$ -flow. The sum of the y_i 's is at least k'. The main restriction is that the flow has to be delivered on (simple) paths of cost $\le \ell$. This is done as follows. Let $\Pi(i)$ be the set of (simple) $s_i t_i$ -paths in G of cost $\le \ell$, and let $\Pi = \bigcup_i \Pi(i)$. For every i, decompose the final $s_i t_i$ -flow in the graph into flow paths. For every $P \in \Pi(i)$, the variable f_P is the amount of $s_i t_i$ -flow through P. The total $s_i t_i$ -flow equals the sum of the flows on the paths in $\Pi(i)$, namely, $y_i = \sum_{P \in \Pi(i)} f_P$. For every i and i

(LP1) min
$$\sum_{e \in E} c(e)x_e$$

s.t. $\sum_i y_i \geq k'$
 $\sum_{\Pi(i)\ni P\ni e} f_P \leq x_e$ $\forall i, e \in E$
 $\sum_{P\in\Pi(i)} f_P = y_i$ $\forall i$
 $y_i, x_e \leq 1$ $\forall i, e \in E$
 $y_i, f_P, x_e \geq 0$ $\forall i, P \in \Pi, e \in E$

The corresponding dual LP is:

(LP2)
$$\max \sum_{e \in E} x_e + \sum_i y_i - W \cdot k'$$

$$\text{s.t.} \quad \sum_i z_{i,e} + c(e) \leq x_e \qquad \forall e \in E$$

$$y_i + w_i \geq W \qquad \forall i$$

$$w_i \leq \sum_{e \in P} z_{i,e} \qquad \forall i, P \in \Pi(i)$$

$$W, x_e, y_i, z_{i,e} \geq 0 \qquad \forall i, e \in E$$

Lemma 3.5 For any $k' \leq |D - L|$ the optimal value of (LP1) is at most opt. Furthermore, a solution for (LP1) of value $\leq (1 + \varepsilon)$ opt can be found in polynomial time.

Proof: The first statement is obvious, as (LP1) is a relaxation for the problem. We show how to find an approximate solution in polynomial time. Although the number of variables in (LP1) might be exponential, any basic feasible solution to it has $O(|D| \cdot m)$ non-zero variables. Now, if we had a polynomial time separation oracle for (LP2), we could compute an optimal solution to (LP1) (the non-zero entries) in polynomial time. The number of non-zero entries in such a computed solution is polynomial in $O(|D| \cdot m)$. The only problematic constraints are $w_i \leq \sum_{e \in P} z_{i,e}$, unfortunately, for these constraints, a polynomial time separation oracle may not exist, since the separation problem defined by a specific pair (s_i, t_i) is equivalent to the following problem, which is NP-hard [26]:

Restricted Shortest Path (RSP)

Instance: A directed graph G = (V, E), transition times $\{z(e) : e \in E\}$, lengths $\{\ell(e) : e \in E\}$, a pair (s, t), and an integer Z.

Objective: Find a minimum length st-path P such that $\sum_{e \in P} z(e) \leq Z$.

RSP admits a FPTAS [26], therefore we get an approximate separation oracle, which for any $\varepsilon > 0$ checks whether there exists a path $P \in \Pi(i)$ so that $w_i \leq \sum_{e \in P} z_{i,e}/(1+\varepsilon)$. This implies that we can solve the following linear program in time polynomial in $1/\varepsilon$ and the size of the original DSF problem:

(LP3)
$$\max \sum_{e \in E} x_e + \sum_i y_i - W \cdot k'$$
s.t.
$$\sum_i z_{i,e} + c(e) \leq x_e \qquad \forall e \in E$$

$$y_i + w_i \geq W \qquad \forall i$$

$$w_i \leq \sum_{e \in P} z_{i,e} / (1 + \varepsilon) \qquad \forall i, P \in \Pi(i)$$

$$W, x_e, y_i, z_{i,e} \geq 0 \qquad \forall i, e \in E$$

Thus we can also solve the dual of (LP3), which is:

(LP4) min
$$\sum_{e \in E} c(e)x_e$$

s.t. $\sum_{i} y_i \geq k'$
 $\sum_{\Pi(i)\ni P\ni e} f_P \leq x_e \cdot (1+\varepsilon)$ $\forall i, e \in E$
 $\sum_{P\in\Pi(i)} f_P = y_i$ $\forall i$
 $y_i, x_e \leq 1$ $\forall i, e \in E$
 $y_i, f_P, x_e \geq 0$ $\forall i, P \in \Pi, e \in E$

Let $\mathsf{opt}(\varepsilon)$ denote the optimal value of (LP4). Clearly, $\mathsf{opt}(\varepsilon) \leq \mathsf{opt}$. Note that if $x(\varepsilon)$ is a feasible solution to (LP4) then by replacing the value of every variable x_e in $x(\varepsilon)$ by $\min\{1, x_e \cdot (1+\varepsilon)\}$ we get a new solution x which is a feasible solution to (LP1). The value of such x is at most $(1+\varepsilon) \cdot \mathsf{opt}(\varepsilon) \leq (1+\varepsilon) \cdot \mathsf{opt}$.

Lemma 3.6 Let x, y be a feasible solution to (LP1) and let $0 \le \beta < k'/|D|$ arbitrary. Then at most $(|D| - k')/(1 - \beta)$ pairs in D have flow $y_i < \beta$. Thus, the number of pairs in D that have flow $y_i \ge \beta$ is at least:

$$|\{i: y_i \ge \beta\}| \ge |D| - \frac{|D| - k'}{1 - \beta} = \frac{k' - \beta|D|}{1 - \beta}$$

Proof: If more than $(|D| - k')/(1 - \beta)$ pairs in D have flow strictly less than β , then the sum of the flows between all pairs must be strictly less than:

$$\frac{|D| - k'}{1 - \beta} \cdot \beta + \left(|D| - \frac{|D| - k'}{1 - \beta}\right) \cdot 1 = |D| + (\beta - 1) \cdot \frac{|D| - k'}{1 - \beta} = k'$$

This is a contradiction, since in any feasible solution of (LP1), the sum of the flows between all pairs must be at least k'.

Lemma 3.7 Let x, y be a feasible solution to (LP1) and let $0 \le \beta < 1$. If $y_i \ge \beta$ for some i then $J = \{e \in E : x_e \ge 4\beta/\alpha^2\}$ contains an $s_i t_i$ -path.

Proof: We claim that $C \cap J \neq \emptyset$ for every $s_i t_i$ -cut C. Suppose to the contrary that $C \cap J = \emptyset$ for some $s_i t_i$ -cut C, namely, $x_e < 4\beta/\alpha^2$ for every $e \in C$. Thus $|C| \ge \alpha^2/4$, since $\sum_{e \in C} x_e \ge y_i \ge \beta$. Every edge $e = uv \in C$ that carries a positive amount of $s_i t_i$ -flow belongs to some short $s_i t_i$ -path, thus $u, v \in U(s_i, t_i)$. We got that $U(s_i, t_i)$ contains end nodes of at least $\alpha^2/4$ edges of the cut C, implying that $U(s_i, t_i)$ contains at least $2\sqrt{\alpha^2/4} = \alpha$ nodes. Thus (s_i, t_i) is a good pair, contradicting our assumption that all the pairs are bad.

Corollary 3.8 Assuming $k' \leq |D - L|$, let (x, y) be the feasible solution of (LP1) that can be found using Lemma 3.5 and $0 \leq \beta < k'/|D|$, the edge set $J = \{e \in E : x_e \geq 4\beta/\alpha^2\}$ has density at most:

$$\frac{\alpha^2\mathsf{opt}\cdot(1+\varepsilon)}{4\beta}\cdot\frac{(1-\beta)}{k'-\beta|D|}$$

In particular, for $k' = |D|/2 \le |D-L|$ and $\beta = 1/4$, the density of J is at most $3\alpha^2 \cdot \mathsf{opt} \cdot (1+\varepsilon)/\mathsf{D} = \mathsf{O}(\mathsf{n}^{4/5}) \cdot \mathsf{opt}/|\mathsf{D}|$.

Proof: Since $k' \leq |D - L|$, the value of (LP1) is at most $\text{opt} \cdot (1 + \varepsilon)$, by Lemma 3.5. Thus $c(J) \leq \text{opt} \cdot (1+\varepsilon)/(4\beta/\alpha^2) = \text{opt} \cdot (1+\varepsilon)\alpha^2/(4\beta)$. By Lemmas 3.6 and 3.7, $|D(J)| \geq (k'-\beta|D|)/(1-\beta)$. Thus:

$$\sigma(J) = \frac{c(J)}{|D(J)|} \leq \frac{\mathsf{opt} \cdot (1+\varepsilon)\alpha^2/(4\beta)}{(k'-\beta|D|)/(1-\beta)} = \frac{\alpha^2 \mathsf{opt} \cdot (1+\varepsilon)}{4\beta} \cdot \frac{(1-\beta)}{k'-\beta|D|}$$

Proof of Lemma 3.2: We execute two algorithms to compute edge sets J', J'' and choose among them the one with the better density. The set J' is computed using the algorithm of Lemma 3.3. The set J'' is computed using the algorithm of Corollary 3.8 with parameters k' = |D|/2 and $\beta = 1/4$. If $|L| \ge |D|/2$ then the density of J' is $\tilde{O}(n^{4/5+\varepsilon}) \cdot \tau/|D|$. Otherwise, if $|D - L| \ge |D|/2$, the density of J'' is $O(n^{4/5}) \cdot \tau/|D|$. In any case, one of J', J'' has density $\tilde{O}(n^{4/5+\varepsilon}) \cdot \tau/|D|$.

3.3 Putting everything together

Implement Reductions 1, and 2, in this order. Assuming that we know τ (Reduction 3), the entire algorithm is as follows:

- 1. Find an edge set F as in Lemma 3.1, and exclude all good pairs from D.
- 2. While F is not a feasible solution do:
 - Find an edge set J as in Lemma 3.2;
 - $F \leftarrow F + J$;
 - $D \leftarrow D D(J)$.

EndWhile

3. Return F.

The reductions incur only a constant loss in the approximation ratio. The total cost of the edges added at Step 1 is $\tilde{O}(n^{4/5}) \cdot \tau$, by Lemma 3.1. Step 2 is essentially a ρ -Greedy Algorithm with $\rho = \tilde{O}(n^{4/5+\varepsilon})$, by Lemma 3.2. Thus by Theorem 2.1, the total cost of the edges added at Step 2 is $\tilde{O}(n^{4/5+\varepsilon}) \cdot \tau = \tilde{O}(n^{4/5+\varepsilon}) \cdot \text{opt}/|D|$. This finishes the proof of Theorem 1.1.

Remark: Note that during the algorithm we do not zero the cost of the edges accumulated by the partial solution at Steps 1,2, but only exclude the pairs already connected from D. This is since zeroing costs of edges might make bad pairs good, while we connect the good pairs only once, at the beginning of the algorithm at Step 1. Although it does not improve the ratio we can prove, it is possible to zero the costs of the edge sets found, by postponing connecting the good pairs to the end of the algorithm. This might improve the ratio in practice, and is achieved as follows. First, connect the bad pairs only; at every iteration zero the costs of the edge sets added into the partial solution, and update accordingly the set of bad pairs. Second, when no bad pairs remain, connect all good pairs by the algorithm of Lemma 3.1.

4 An algorithm for k-DSF (Proof of Theorem 1.2)

This section is organized as follows: Subsection 4.1 defines the notation of "junction star-trees" and proves the "The Junction Star-Tree Theorem" which ensures the existence of a good density junction star-tree in the metric completion of any graph. Subsection 4.2 describes the algorithm for k-DSF.

4.1 Junction star-trees

Definition 4.1 Let G be a graph with a set $D = \{(s_1, t_1), \ldots, (s_{|D|}, t_{|D|})\}$ of ordered pairs; $S = \{s_1, \ldots, s_{|D|}\}$ are sources and $T = \{t_1, \ldots, t_{|D|}\}$ are terminals. A subgraph J of G is a junction startree if it is a union of an out-branching J_T rooted at r in $(G - S) \cup \{r\}$ and a star J_S ingoing to r in $(G - T) \cup \{r\}$.

Roughly speaking, J is a junction star-tree if it can be obtained by taking a tree rooted at r (with no source nodes, except for r) that connects r to a set T' of terminals, and adding for every $t_i \in T'$ the edge $s_i r$.

The main result of this section is the following statement that is used in the algorithm presented in the next section, and which we believe is of independent interest.

Theorem 4.1 (The Junction Star-Tree Theorem) Let H = (V, E) be a graph with edge costs $\{c(e) : e \in E\}$ containing a set Π of k paths connecting a set $D \subseteq S \times T$ of k node pairs, so that $S \cap T = \emptyset$ and so that no edge enters S or leaves T. If $c(P) \ge c(H)/g$ for every $P \in \Pi$ then the metric completion of H contains a junction star-tree J of density at most:

$$\frac{c(J)}{|D(J)|} \le c(H) \cdot \left(\frac{g}{k} + \frac{2}{g}\right) \tag{3}$$

In the rest of this section we will prove Theorem 4.1. For every st-path $P \in \Pi$, the truncated path \bar{P} of P is the maximal sv-subpath of P so that $c(\bar{P}) < c(H)/g$. Let e_P be the edge in $P - \bar{P}$ leaving the last node of \bar{P} . Since $c(P) \geq c(H)/g$, then by the definition of \bar{P} : e_P always exists, and $c(\bar{P} + e_P) \geq c(H)/g$. Let $\bar{\Pi} = \{\bar{P} : P \in \Pi\}$.

Definition 4.2 We say that two (not necessarily different) truncated paths in $\bar{\Pi}$ collide if they have a node in common.

Lemma 4.2 There exists a partition $\bar{\mathcal{P}}_1, \ldots, \bar{\mathcal{P}}_q$ of $\bar{\Pi}$ into $q \leq g$ parts, and a set of pairwise non-colliding paths $\{\bar{P}_i \in \bar{\mathcal{P}}_i : i = 1, \ldots, q\}$, such that \bar{P}_i collides with every path in $\bar{\mathcal{P}}_i$, $i = 1, \ldots, q$. Thus there is a path $\bar{P} \in \bar{\Pi}$ colliding with at least $\ell \geq k/g$ paths in $\bar{\Pi}$.

Proof: We will construct the partition iteratively. Assuming that at the end of iteration i-1 we constructed a subpartition $\{\bar{\mathcal{P}}_1,\ldots,\bar{\mathcal{P}}_{i-1}\}$ of $\bar{\Pi}$, which is not yet a partition of $\bar{\Pi}$, in iteration i perform two steps:

- 1. Pick a path $\bar{P}_i \in \bar{\Pi}$ which does not belong to any part yet, and place it in a new part \bar{P}_i .
- 2. Add to $\bar{\mathcal{P}}_i$ every path that collides with \bar{P}_i and does not belong to any other part yet.

By the construction, it is clear that eventually we will get a partition of $\bar{\Pi}$, such that \bar{P}_i collides with every path in $\bar{\mathcal{P}}_i$ for every i, and that $\{\bar{P}_i\}_{i=1}^q$ are pairwise non-colliding. Hence we only need to show that the number q of parts is bounded by g. Let $e_i = e_{P_i}, i = 1, \ldots, q$. Note that since $\bar{P}_1, \ldots, \bar{P}_q$ are pairwise node disjoint, the paths $\bar{P}_1 + e_1, \ldots, \bar{P}_q + e_q$ are pairwise edge-disjoint. Thus their total cost is at most c(H). Since $c(\bar{P}_i + e_i) \geq c(H)/g$ for every i, the statement follows.

Focus on a path $\bar{P} \in \bar{\Pi}$ and a set of $\bar{P} = \{\bar{P}_1, \dots, \bar{P}_\ell\}$ of $\ell \geq k/g$ truncated paths colliding with \bar{P} ($\bar{P} \in \bar{P}$), which existence is guaranteed by Lemma 4.2. Let $\mathcal{P} = \{P_1, \dots, P_\ell\} \subseteq \Pi$ be the set of corresponding non-truncated paths. Let $\bar{S} = \{s_1, \dots, s_\ell\}$ and $\bar{T} = \{t_1, \dots, t_\ell\}$ be the sets of sources and terminals of the paths in \mathcal{P} , respectively. Let r_1, \dots, r_d be the sequence of nodes of \bar{P} arranged in reverse order; r_d is the first node of \bar{P} , r_{d-1} is the second, and so on; the last node of \bar{P} is r_1 (see Fig. 1(a)).

Lemma 4.3 There exists in H a family J_1, \ldots, J_d of pairwise edge disjoint trees so that (see Fig. 1(b)):

1. Every J_i is rooted at r_i , i = 1, ..., d.

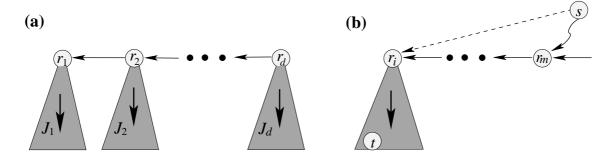


Figure 1: (a) The trees J_1, \ldots, J_d hanged on the path \bar{P} ; the trees are edge disjoint, but might not be node disjoint; some of the trees might consist of the root only. (b) Illustration of property 3 in Lemma 4.3 and the "shortcut" in the proof of Corollary 4.4.

- 2. Every $t \in \overline{T}$ belongs exactly one tree J_i , $1 \le i \le d$.
- 3. If $t \in \overline{T} \cap J_i$ and $(s,t) \in D$, then there is $m \geq i$ so that r_m belongs to a path in \overline{P} starting at s.

Proof: We construct the trees iteratively. J_1 is any inclusion minimal tree in H rooted at r_1 that contains the set T_1 of all the terminals in \bar{T} that are reachable in H from r_1 . J_2 is any inclusion minimal tree in H rooted at r_2 that contains the set T_2 of all the terminals in $\bar{T} - T_1$ that are reachable in H from r_2 . And, in general, J_i is any inclusion minimal tree in H rooted at r_i that contains the set T_i of all the terminals in $\bar{T} - T_1 \cup \cdots \cup T_{i-1}$ that are reachable in H from r_i . By the construction, and since every path in $\bar{\mathcal{P}}$ collides with \bar{P} and no edge leave the terminals, it is clear that the three properties given in the lemma hold. We explain why the trees J_1, \ldots, J_d are pairwise edge disjoint. Otherwise, there are $1 \leq m < i \leq d$ so that J_m and J_i have an edge uv in common. By the minimality of J_i , there is a terminal $t \in \bar{T}_i$ reachable from v in J_i (possibly v = t). But then t is also reachable from r_m , hence, by the construction, t should have appeared in J_m and not in J_i , contradiction.

Using Lemma 4.3, we show that the metric completion of H contains a low density junction startree as a subgraph. For a subgraph J of H let $k(J) = |V(J) \cap \bar{T}|$ denote the number of terminals from \bar{T} in J.

Corollary 4.4 There exists a junction star-tree J in the metric completion of H, such that (3) holds.

Proof: Let J_1, \ldots, J_d be the decomposition of H into trees as in Lemma 4.3. We will extend these rooted trees to junction star-trees by adding for every st path in \mathcal{P} an edge sr_i from s to the root r_i of the tree J_i which includes t (see Fig. 1(b), if $s = r_i$ we need not add this edge). The cost of each new edge is at most 2c(H)/g, since it shortcuts a path that is obtained by joining two subpaths of truncated paths (recall that each truncated path has cost less than c(H)/g). Let J_1^+, \ldots, J_d^+ denote the resulting junction star-trees. Every junction star-tree connects all its sources to the corresponding terminals, and therefore $\sum_{i=1}^d k(J_i^+) = \ell$. On the other hand we can bound the sum of the costs of the junction star-trees as follows:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{d} c(J_i^+) < \sum_{i=1}^{d} c(J_i) + \ell \cdot \frac{2c(H)}{g} \le c(H) + \ell \cdot \frac{2c(H)}{g}$$

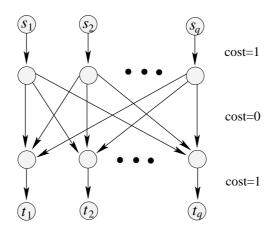


Figure 2: An example showing that the bound in Lemma 4.5 is tight.

The last inequality holds because J_1, \ldots, J_d are subgraphs of H that are pairwise edge disjoint. Using an averaging argument we get that there must be a junction star-tree $J = J_i^+$ whose density is bounded by:

$$\frac{c(J)}{k(J)} \le \frac{c(H) + \ell \cdot 2c(H)/g}{\ell} = \frac{c(H)}{\ell} + \frac{2c(H)}{g} \le c(H) \cdot \left(\frac{g}{k} + \frac{2}{g}\right)$$

The last inequality holds because $\ell \geq k/g$.

4.2 The algorithm

Given a k-DSF instance assume that Reduction 1 and 2 are implemented.

Lemma 4.5 For any k-DSF instance (after applying Reductions 1, 2), there exists a junction star-tree J so that $c(J)/|D(J)| \leq \mathsf{opt} \cdot \sqrt{8/k}$.

Proof: This follows from Theorem 4.1 by choosing H as an optimal solution of a k-DSF instance (after applying Reductions 1, 2) and $g = \sqrt{2k}$. Indeed, if $c(P) \le c(H)/g$ for some st-path P with $(s,t) \in D$, then P is a junction star-tree of density $\le c(H)/g = c(H)/\sqrt{2k}$; otherwise, by Theorem 4.1, H contains a junction star-tree J of density $c(J)/|D(J)| \le \sqrt{8/k} \cdot c(H)$.

Example: The following example shows that the bound in Lemma 4.5 is tight up to a constant factor. Consider the graph in Fig. 2, where $D = \{(s_i, t_j) : 1 \le i, j \le k\}$. Here $k = q^2$, and the lowest possible density of a junction star-tree is (q+1)/q > 1, while the density of the optimal solution (which is the entire graph) is $2q/q^2 = 2/q$.

Lemma 4.6 Suppose that there exists an algorithm that given an instance of k-DSF finds an edge set J of density $\sigma \leq \operatorname{opt} \cdot \rho(k)/k$ and the set D(J) of demand pairs that J connects in T'(n,k) time. Then the $\rho(x)$ -Greedy Algorithm for k-DSF can be implemented in O(kT'(n,k)) time.

Proof: We need to show how to find a low density edge set J for every instance G, c, D of k-DSF and every partial cover F. For that, set $D \leftarrow D - D(F)$ to get an instance G, c, D' of (k - |D(F)|)-DSF. Then use the given algorithm for finding an edge set J of density at most $\mathsf{opt'} \cdot \rho(k - |D(F)|)/(k - |D(F)|) =$

 $\operatorname{opt}' \cdot \rho(\nu(F))/\nu(F) \leq \operatorname{opt} \cdot \rho(\nu(F))/\nu(F)$, where opt and opt' denote the optimum solution values of the instances G, c, D and G, c, D', respectively. The number of iterations is at most k, since in each iteration at least one more demand pair is satisfied. Hence the time complexity is O(kT'(n,k)).

If we could find a low-density junction star-tree as in Lemma 4.5 in polynomial time, then we would obtain an $O(\sqrt{k})$ -approximation algorithm for k-DSF, by Theorem 2.1 and Lemma 4.6. We will show how to find a junction star-tree of approximately optimal density using any approximation algorithm for k-DST; in particular, we can use the algorithm of [3].

Corollary 4.7 If k-DST admits an α -approximation in T(n,k) time then there exists an algorithm that given an instance of k-DSF finds a junction star-tree J satisfying $\sigma(J) \leq \operatorname{opt} \cdot \alpha \cdot \sqrt{8k}/k$ and D(J) in O(nkT(2n+k,k)) time.

Proof: We may assume that we know the root r of some optimal density star-junction tree, as we may try every $r \in V$. For every demand pair $(s,t) \in D$, add a new node t' and the edge tt' of cost c(sr) (if s = r let the cost of the edge be 0). Let T' be the set of nodes added. For every $1 \le k' \le k$ apply the α -approximation algorithm on the obtained instance of k'-DST with root r and terminal set T'. From the solutions computed, output one J' of the minimum density. The junction star-tree J is obtained from J' by replacing every terminal t' of J' by the corresponding edge sr. It is easy to see that J' is as required, and that it is possible to calculate D(J) without increasing the time complexity. The graph on which we call the algorithm for k'-DST has n + |T| + |S| + k nodes due to Reduction 1 and the addition of the nodes of T'. However, |S| of these nodes are sources (into which no edge enters) and can be removed before the algorithm for k'-DST is called. The time complexity follows. \square

Combining Corollary 4.7 with the result of [3], Theorem 2.1, and Lemma 4.6, gives Theorem 1.2. **Remark:** When using the algorithm of [3] for k-DST, the time complexity in Corollary 4.7 is in fact O(nT(2n+k,k)), since this algorithm approximates the minimum density augmentation tree in k-DST within the same time bound as approximating k-DST.

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ECCC ISSN 1433-8092