# An Approximation Algorithm for the Tree *t*-Spanner Problem on Unweighted Graphs via Generalized Chordal Graphs

Feodor F. Dragan · Ekkehard Köhler

Received: 21 December 2011 / Accepted: 2 March 2013 / Published online: 14 March 2013 © Springer Science+Business Media New York 2013

**Abstract** A spanning tree T of a graph G is called a *tree t-spanner* of G if the distance between every pair of vertices in T is at most t times their distance in G. In this paper, we present an algorithm which constructs for an n-vertex m-edge unweighted graph G:

- a tree  $(2\lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor)$ -spanner in  $O(m \log n)$  time, if G is a chordal graph (i.e., every induced cycle of G has length 3);
- a tree  $(2\rho \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor)$ -spanner in  $O(mn \log^2 n)$  time or a tree  $(12\rho \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor)$ -spanner in  $O(m \log n)$  time, if G is a graph admitting a Robertson-Seymour's tree-decomposition with bags of radius at most  $\rho$  in G; and
- a tree  $(2\lceil t/2\rceil \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor)$ -spanner in  $O(mn \log^2 n)$  time or a tree  $(6t \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor)$ -spanner in  $O(m \log n)$  time, if G is an arbitrary graph admitting a tree t-spanner.

For the latter result we use a new necessary condition for a graph to have a tree t-spanner: if a graph G has a tree t-spanner, then G admits a Robertson-Seymour's tree-decomposition with bags of radius at most  $\lceil t/2 \rceil$  and diameter at most t in G.

**Keywords** Graph algorithms  $\cdot$  Approximation algorithms  $\cdot$  Tree t-spanner problem  $\cdot$  Minimum max-stretch spanning tree problem  $\cdot$  Generalized chordal graphs  $\cdot$  Robertson-Seymour's tree-decomposition  $\cdot$  Balanced separators

Results of this paper were partially presented at the APPROX 2011 conference [24].

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### 1 Introduction

Given a connected graph G and a spanning tree T of G, we say that T is a tree t-spanner of G if the distance between every pair of vertices in T is at most t times their distance in G. Parameter t is called the stretch (or stretch factor) of T. The TREE t-SPANNER problem asks, given a graph G and a positive number t, whether G admits a tree t-spanner. Note that the problem of finding a tree t-spanner of G minimizing t is known in literature also as the Minimum Max-Stretch spanning Tree problem (see, e.g., [27] and literature cited therein). This paper concerns the TREE t-SPANNER problem on unweighted graphs. The problem is known to be NP-complete even for planar graphs and chordal graphs (see [9, 13, 28]), and this paper presents an efficient algorithm which produces a tree t-spanner with  $t < 2\log_2 n$  for every *n*-vertex chordal graph and a tree  $(2\lceil t/2\rceil \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor)$ -spanner for an arbitrary *n*-vertex graph admitting a tree t-spanner. To obtain the latter result, we show that every graph having a tree t-spanner admits a Robertson-Seymour's tree-decomposition with bags of radius at most  $\lceil t/2 \rceil$  in G. This tree-decomposition is a generalization of the wellknown notion of a clique-tree of a chordal graph, and allows us to extend our algorithm developed for chordal graphs to arbitrary graphs admitting tree *t*-spanners.

There are many applications of tree spanners in various areas. Tree spanners are useful in designing approximation algorithms for combinatorial and algorithmic problems that are concerned with distances in a finite metric space induced by a graph. An arbitrary metric space (in particular a finite metric defined by a graph) might not have enough structure to exploit algorithmically. If we approximate the distances in a graph by the distances in a tree, we can solve a problem on the tree and interpret the solution on the original graph. Tree spanners find applications also in network design and, in particular, in the context of distributed systems. One such application is the arrow distributed directory protocol introduced in [19]. This protocol supports the location of mobile objects in a distributed network. It is implemented over a spanning tree T that spans the network, and, as shown in [38], the worst case overhead ratio of the protocol is proportional to the stretch of T. Therefore, a good candidate for a backbone of the arrow protocol is a spanning tree with low stretch (see also [33]). Another application of tree spanners is in message routing in communication networks. In order to maintain succinct routing tables, efficient routing schemes can use only the edges of a tree spanner. A very efficient routing scheme is available for trees [42]. We refer to the survey paper of Peleg [37] for an overview on spanners and their applications.

Related Work Substantial work has been done on the TREE t-SPANNER problem on unweighted graphs. Cai and Corneil [13] have shown that, for a given graph G, the problem to decide whether G has a tree t-spanner is NP-complete for any fixed  $t \ge 4$  and is linear time solvable for t = 1, 2 (the status of the case t = 3 is open for general graphs). The NP-completeness result was further strengthened in [9] and [10], where Branstädt et al. showed that the problem remains NP-complete even for the class of chordal graphs (i.e., for graphs where each induced cycle has length 3)



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>When G is an unweighted graph, t can be assumed to be an integer.

and every fixed  $t \ge 4$ , and for the class of chordal bipartite graphs (i.e., for bipartite graphs where each induced cycle has length 4) and every fixed  $t \ge 5$ .

The TREE t-SPANNER problem on planar graphs was studied in [28, 39]. In [39], Peleg and Tendler presented a polynomial time algorithm for the minimum value of t for the TREE t-SPANNER problem on outerplanar graphs. In [28], Fekete and Kremer proved that the TREE t-SPANNER problem on planar graphs is NP-complete (when t is part of the input) and polynomial time solvable for t = 3. They also gave a polynomial time algorithm that for every fixed t decides for planar graphs with bounded face length whether there is a tree t-spanner. For fixed  $t \ge 4$ , the complexity of the TREE t-SPANNER problem on arbitrary planar graphs was left as an open problem in [28]. This open problem was recently resolved in [23], where it was shown that the TREE t-SPANNER problem is linear time solvable for every fixed constant t on the class of apex-minor-free graphs which includes all planar graphs and all graphs of bounded genus. Note also that a number of particular graph classes (like interval graphs, permutation graphs, asteroidal-triple—free graphs, strongly chordal graphs, dually chordal graphs, and others) admit tree t-spanners for small values of t (we refer reader to [8–10, 13, 23, 27, 28, 34, 35, 37–40] and papers cited therein).

An  $O(\log n)$ -approximation algorithm for the minimum value of t for the TREE t-SPANNER problem is due to Emek and Peleg [27], and until recently that was the only  $O(\log n)$ -approximation algorithm available for the problem. Let G be an n-vertex m-edge unweighted graph and  $t^*$  be the minimum value such that a tree  $t^*$ -spanner exists for G. Emek and Peleg gave an algorithm which produces for every G a tree  $(6t^*\lceil \log_2 n \rceil)$ -spanner in  $O(mn\log^2 n)$  time. Furthermore, they established that unless P = NP, the problem cannot be approximated additively by any o(n) term. Hardness of approximation is established also in [35], where it was shown that approximating the minimum value of t for the TREE t-SPANNER problem within factor better than 2 is NP-hard (see also [38] for an earlier result). Recently, another logarithmic approximation algorithm for the TREE t-SPANNER problem was announced in [5], but authors did not provide any details.

A number of papers have studied the related but easier problem of finding a spanning tree with good *average* stretch factor (see [1, 2, 25] and papers cited therein). One should also mention paper of Elkin and Peleg [26] which describes an algorithm that, given a graph G admitting a tree t-spanner, constructs a t-spanner of G with  $O(n \log n)$  edges.

Our Contribution In this paper, we present a new algorithm which constructs for an n-vertex m-edge unweighted graph G:

- a tree  $(2\lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor)$ -spanner in  $O(m \log n)$  time, if G is a chordal graph;
- a tree  $(2\rho \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor)$ -spanner in  $O(mn \log^2 n)$  time or a tree  $(12\rho \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor)$ -spanner in  $O(m \log n)$  time, if G is a graph admitting a Robertson-Seymour's tree-decomposition with bags of radius at most  $\rho$  in G; and
- a tree  $(2\lceil t/2\rceil \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor)$ -spanner in  $O(mn \log^2 n)$  time or a tree  $(6t \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor)$ -spanner in  $O(m \log n)$  time, if G is an arbitrary graph admitting a tree t-spanner.

For the latter result we employ a new necessary condition for a graph to have a tree t-spanner: if a graph G has a tree t-spanner, then G admits a Robertson-Seymour's



tree-decomposition with bags of radius at most  $\lceil t/2 \rceil$  and diameter at most t in G. The algorithm needs to know neither an appropriate Robertson-Seymour's tree-decomposition of G nor the true value of t. It works directly on an input graph G.

A high-level description of our method is similar to that of [27], although the details are very different. We find a "small radius" balanced disk-separator of a graph G = (V, E), that is, a disk  $D_r(v, G)$  of radius r and centered at vertex v such that removal of vertices of  $D_r(v, G)$  from G leaves no connected component with more that n/2 vertices. We recursively build a spanning tree for each graph formed by a connected component  $G_i$  of  $G[V \setminus D_r(v, G)]$  with one additional vertex v added to  $G_i$  to represent the disk  $D_r(v, G)$  and its adjacency relation to  $G_i$ . The spanning trees generated by recursive invocations of the algorithm on each such graph are glued together at vertex v and then the vertex v of the resulting tree is substituted with a single source shortest path spanning tree of  $D_r(v, G)$  to produce a spanning tree T of G. Analysis of the algorithm relies on an observation that the number of edges added to the unique path between vertices x and y in T, where xy is an edge of G, on each of  $|\log_2 n|$  recursive levels is at most 2r.

Comparing with the algorithm of Emek and Peleg [27], one variant of our algorithm has the same approximation ratio but a better run-time, other variant has the same run-time but a better constant term in the approximation ratio.<sup>2</sup> Our algorithm and its analysis, in our opinion, are conceptually simpler due to a new necessary condition for a graph to have a tree *t*-spanner.

Outline of the Paper In Sect. 2, we present the basic notions and notations used throughout the paper. As a warm up, in Sect. 3, we demonstrate our method on a simpler case, on the class of chordal graphs. The result of this section is of independent interest as it demonstrates that every chordal graph admits a logarithmic tree spanner, i.e., a tree t-spanner with  $t \le 2\lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor$ . By employing a construction from [34], we complement this with a lower bound result which says that there are chordal graphs for which any tree t-spanner has to have  $t \ge \log_2 \frac{n}{3} + 2$ . In Sect. 4, we extend our method to all graphs admitting a Robertson-Seymour's tree-decomposition with bags of radius at most  $\rho$ . Section 5 is devoted to general (unweighted) graphs. We show there that any graph having a tree t-spanner admits a Robertson-Seymour's tree-decomposition with bags of radius at most  $\lceil t/2 \rceil$  and diameter at most t. Combining this with the result of Sect. 4, we obtain our approximation algorithms for general graphs. Section 6 concludes the paper.

## 2 Preliminaries

All graphs occurring in this paper are connected, finite, unweighted, undirected, loopless and without multiple edges. We call G = (V, E) an *n-vertex m-edge graph* if |V| = n and |E| = m. A *clique* is a set of pairwise adjacent vertices of G. By G[S]

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>We realize that it is perfectly possible that the authors of [27] did not try to optimize the constants in their analysis, and it may be the case that a more careful analysis of their algorithm may lead to an improved leading constant.



we denote a subgraph of G induced by vertices of  $S \subseteq V$ . Let also  $G \setminus S$  be the graph  $G[V \setminus S]$  (which is not necessarily connected). A set  $S \subseteq V$  is called a *separator* of G if the graph  $G[V \setminus S]$  has more than one connected component, and S is called a *balanced separator* of G if each connected component of  $G[V \setminus S]$  has at most |V|/2 vertices. A set  $C \subseteq V$  is called a *balanced clique-separator* of G if G is both a clique and a balanced separator of G. For a vertex G of G the sets G if G is both a clique and a balanced separator of G are called the *open neighborhood* and the *closed neighborhood* of G, respectively.

In a graph G the *length* of a path from a vertex v to a vertex u is the number of edges in the path. The *distance*  $d_G(u,v)$  between vertices u and v is the length of a shortest path connecting u and v in G. The *diameter* in G of a set  $S \subseteq V$  is  $\max_{x,y \in S} d_G(x,y)$  and its *radius* in G is  $\min_{x \in V} \max_{y \in S} d_G(x,y)$  (in some papers they are called the *weak diameter* and the *weak radius* to indicate that the distances are measured in G not in G[S]). The *disk* of G of radius k centered at vertex v is the set of all vertices at distance at most k to v:  $D_k(v,G) = \{w \in V : d_G(v,w) \le k\}$ . A disk  $D_k(v,G)$  is called a *balanced disk-separator* of G if the set  $D_k(v,G)$  is a balanced separator of G.

Let G be a connected graph and t be a positive number. A spanning tree T of G is called a *tree t-spanner* of G if the distance between every pair of vertices in T is at most t times their distance in G, i.e.,  $d_T(x, y) \le t d_G(x, y)$  for every pair of vertices x and y of G. It is easy to see that the tree t-spanners can equivalently be defined as follows.

**Proposition 1** Let G be a connected graph and t be a positive number. A spanning tree T of G is a tree t-spanner of G if and only if for every edge xy of G,  $d_T(x, y) \le t$  holds.

This proposition implies that the stretch of a spanning tree of a graph G is always obtained on a pair of vertices that form an edge in G. Consequently, throughout this paper t can be considered as an integer which is greater than 1 (if a graph G admits a tree t-spanner with t = 1 then G itself must be a tree).

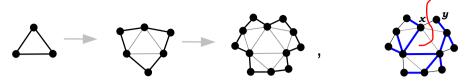
# 3 Tree Spanners of Chordal Graphs

As we have mentioned earlier the TREE t-SPANNER problem is NP-complete for every  $t \ge 4$  even for the class of chordal graphs [9]. Recall that a graph G is called *chordal* if each induced cycle of G has length 3. In this section, we show that every chordal graph with n vertices admits a tree t-spanner with  $t \le 2\log_2 n$  and that there are chordal graphs for which any tree t-spanner has to have  $t \ge \log_2 \frac{n}{3} + 2$ .

### 3.1 Lower Bound

We use the construction of "bad" chordal graphs (so called *snowflakes*) presented in [34]. They were used there to show that there is no constant *t* such that every chordal graph admits a tree *t*-spanner. In this subsection, we give an alternative proof of this





**Fig. 1** Left picture: snowflakes  $SF_1$ ,  $SF_2$  and  $SF_3$ . Right picture: any tree t-spanner of  $SF_3$  has to have  $t \ge 4$ 

and notice that, in fact, any spanning tree of a snowflake on n vertices has stretch  $\Omega(\log n)$ .

Let  $C_l$  denote a simple cycle with l edges. A snowflake with one layer (denoted by  $SF_1$ ) is just a triangle  $C_3$ , i.e., an outerplanar graph whose outer face is  $C_3$ . A snowflake with two layers (denoted by  $SF_2$ ) is obtained from  $SF_1$  by adding, for each edge of the outer face  $C_3$  of  $SF_1$ , a new vertex adjacent in  $SF_2$  only to endvertices of that edge. New vertices are placed in the outer face of  $SF_1$  to have a nice layered embedding of  $SF_2$  on the plane (see Fig. 1 for an illustration). Clearly,  $SF_2$  is an outerplanar graph with the outer face (second layer) being  $C_6$ . Generally, a snowflake with k layers,  $k \geq 2$ , (denoted by  $SF_k$ ) is obtained from the outerplanar graph  $SF_{k-1}$  by adding, for each edge of the outer face  $C_{3\cdot 2^{k-2}}$  of  $SF_{k-1}$ , a new vertex adjacent in  $SF_k$  only to end-vertices of that edge. Again, all new vertices are placed in the outer face of  $SF_{k-1}$ . Clearly,  $SF_k$  is an outerplanar graph with the outer face being  $C_{3\cdot 2^{k-1}}$ .

**Proposition 2** (Follows from [34]) For every integer  $k \ge 1$ , graph  $SF_k$  is outerplanar and chordal, it has  $n = 3 \cdot 2^{k-1}$  vertices and has no tree t-spanners with  $t < k+1 = \log_2 \frac{n}{3} + 2$ .

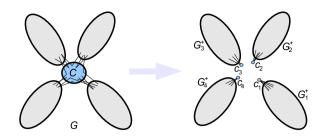
*Proof* Clearly,  $SF_k$  is an outerplanar graph with  $n=3\cdot 2^{k-1}$  vertices (the number of vertices in  $SF_k$  is twice the number of vertices in  $SF_{k-1}$ ).  $SF_k$  is a chordal graph (even a 2-tree) since it can be constructed from an edge by repeatedly adding a new vertex and making it adjacent to two old adjacent vertices (see survey [11] for details). Assume that  $SF_k$  is naturally embedded on the plane (see the construction above and Fig. 1). To show that the outerplanar graph  $SF_k$  has no tree t-spanners with t < k + 1, consider an arbitrary spanning tree T of  $SF_k$ . Since T is a planar graph with only the outer face, we can connect by a Jordan curve C a point in the outer face of  $SF_k$  with a point of the plane inside the central triangle of  $SF_k$  (i.e., the triangle of  $SF_k$  rossed by C. Since C crosses at least k inner faces (triangles) of  $SF_k$  and each of these faces contributes at least 1 to  $d_T(x,y)$  (the last face, i.e.,  $SF_1$ , contributes at least 2), we get  $d_T(x,y) \ge k+1$ . We have also  $d_G(x,y)=1$ . Thus, the stretch factor of T is at least k+1.

## 3.2 Upper Bound

We start with three lemmas that are crucial to our method.



Fig. 2 A graph G with a clique-separator C and the corresponding graphs  $G_1^+, \ldots, G_4^+$  obtained from G



Let G = (V, E) be an arbitrary connected graph with a clique-separator C, i.e., there is a clique  $C \subseteq V$  in G such that the removal of the vertices of C from G results in a graph with more than one connected component. Let  $G_1, \ldots, G_k$  be those connected components of  $G[V \setminus C]$ . Denote by  $S_i := \{x \in V(G_i) : d_G(x, C) = 1\}$  the neighborhood of C with respect to  $G_i$ . Let also  $G_i^+$  be the graph obtained from component  $G_i$  by adding a vertex  $c_i$  (representative of C) and making it adjacent to all vertices of  $S_i$ , i.e., for a vertex  $x \in V(G_i)$ ,  $c_i x \in E(G_i^+)$  if and only if there is a vertex  $x_C \in C$  with  $xx_C \in E(G)$  (see Fig. 2 for an illustration). Clearly, given a connected m-edge graph G and a clique-separator C of G, the graphs  $G_1^+, \ldots, G_k^+$  can be constructed in total time O(m). Note also that the total number of edges in graphs  $G_1^+, \ldots, G_k^+$  does not exceed the number of edges in G.

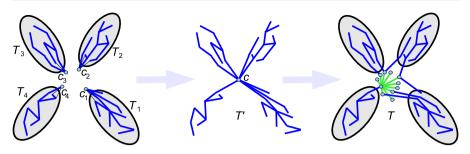
Denote by  $G_{/e}$  the graph obtained from G by contracting its edge e. Recall that edge e contraction is an operation which removes e from G while simultaneously merging together the two vertices e previously connected. If a contraction results in multiple edges, we delete duplicates of an edge to stay within the class of simple graphs. The operation may be performed on a set of edges by contracting each edge (in any order).

**Lemma 1** If a graph G is chordal then  $G_{/e}$  is chordal as well, for any edge  $e \in E(G)$ . Consequently, if a graph G is chordal then  $G_i^+$  is chordal as well, for each i = 1, ..., k.

*Proof* Clearly, contracting any edge e in a chordal graph G cannot result in creating in  $G_{/e}$  an induced cycle with more than 3 vertices (otherwise, a similar induced cycle must be present in G as well, which is impossible). We can get  $G_i^+$  from G by repeatedly contracting (in any order) edges of G that are not incident to vertices of  $G_i$ .

Let  $T_i$   $(i=1,\ldots,k)$  be a spanning tree of  $G_i^+$  such that for any edge  $xy \in E(G_i^+)$ ,  $d_{T_i}(x,y) \leq \alpha$  holds, where  $\alpha$  is some positive integer independent of i. We can form a spanning tree T of G from trees  $T_1,\ldots,T_k$  and the vertices of the clique C in the following way. For each  $i=1,\ldots,k$ , rename vertex  $c_i$  in  $T_i$  to c. Glue trees  $T_1,\ldots,T_k$  together at vertex c obtaining a tree T' (see Fig. 3). For the original clique C of G, pick an arbitrary vertex  $r_C$  of C and create a spanning star  $ST_C$  for C centered at  $r_C$ . Substitute vertex c in T' by that star  $ST_C$ . For each former edge xc of T', create an edge xc in T where xc is a vertex of C adjacent to x in C. We can show that for any edge xc in C in C in C in C the constructed from trees C in C





**Fig. 3** Spanning trees  $T_1, \ldots, T_4$  of  $G_1^+, \ldots, G_4^+$ , resulting tree T', and a corresponding spanning tree T of G

**Lemma 2** Let G be an arbitrary graph with a clique-separator C and  $G_1^+, \ldots, G_k^+$  be the graphs obtained from G as described above. Let also  $T_i$   $(i \in \{1, \ldots, k\})$  be a spanning tree of the graph  $G_i^+$ , and T be a spanning tree of G constructed from  $T_1, \ldots, T_k$  and the clique C as described above. Assume also that there is a positive integer G such that, for each G is G and every edge G is G and every edge G is G and holds. Then, for every edge G is G is G and every edge G is G and every edge G is G and holds.

*Proof* Consider an arbitrary edge xy of G. If both x and y belong to C, then evidently  $d_T(x,y) \le 2 < \alpha + 2$ . Assume now that xy is an edge of  $G_i$  for some  $i \in \{1, \ldots, k\}$ . Then, xy is an edge of  $G_i^+$  and therefore  $d_{T_i}(x,y) \le \alpha$ . If the path P of  $T_i$  connecting x and y does not contain vertex  $c_i$ , then  $d_T(x,y) = d_{T_i}(x,y) \le \alpha$  must hold. If  $c_i$  is between x and y in  $T_i$  (i.e.,  $c_i \in P$ ), then the distance in T between x and y is at most  $d_{T_i}(x,y) + 2$  (the path of T between x and y is obtained from P by substituting the vertex  $c = c_i$  by a path of star  $ST_C$  with at most 2 edges). It remains to consider the case when  $x \in C$  and  $y \in V(G_i)$ . By construction of  $G_i^+$ , there must exist an edge  $c_iy$  in  $G_i^+$ . We have  $d_{T_i}(c_i,y) \le \alpha$ . Let z be the neighbor of  $c_i$  in the path of  $T_i$  connecting vertices y and  $c_i$  (y = z is possible). Evidently,  $z \in V(G_i)$ . By construction, in T we must have an edge  $zz_C$  where  $z_C$  is a vertex of C adjacent to z in G. Vertices x and  $z_C$  both are in C and the distance in T between them is at most 2. Thus,  $d_T(x,y) \le d_T(z_C,y) + 2 = d_{T_i}(c_i,y) + 2 \le \alpha + 2$ . □

The third important ingredient to our method is the famous chordal balanced separator result of Gilbert, Rose, and Edenbrandt [31].

**Lemma 3** [31] Every chordal graph G with n vertices and m edges contains a maximal clique C such that if the vertices in C are deleted from G, every connected component in the graph induced by any remaining vertices is of size at most n/2. Such a balanced clique-separator C of a connected chordal graph G can be found in O(m) time.

Now let G = (V, E) be a connected chordal graph with n vertices and m edges. Using Lemma 1 and Lemma 3, we can build a (rooted) *hierarchical-tree*  $\mathcal{H}(G)$  for G, which can be constructed as follows. If G is a connected graph with at most 5 vertices or is a clique of size greater than 5, then  $\mathcal{H}(G)$  is a one node tree with



root node  $(G, \operatorname{nil})$ . Otherwise, find a balanced clique-separator C of G (which exists by Lemma 3 and which can be found in O(m) time) and construct the associated graphs  $G_1^+, \ldots, G_k^+$ . For each graph  $G_i^+$ ,  $i \in \{1, \ldots, k\}$ , which is chordal by Lemma 1, construct a hierarchical-tree  $\mathcal{H}(G_i^+)$  recursively and build  $\mathcal{H}(G)$  by taking the pair (G, C) to be the root and connecting the root of each tree  $\mathcal{H}(G_i^+)$  as a child of (G, C). The depth of this tree  $\mathcal{H}(G)$  is the smallest integer k such that

$$\frac{n}{2^k} + \frac{1}{2^{k-1}} + \dots + \frac{1}{2} + 1 \le 5,$$

that is, the depth is at most  $\log_2 n - 1$ .

To build a tree t-spanner T of G, we use the hierarchical-tree  $\mathcal{H}(G)$  and a bottom-up construction. We know from Proposition 1 that a spanning tree T is a tree t-spanner of a graph G if and only if for any edge xy of G,  $d_T(x, y) \le t$  holds. For each leaf (L, nil) of  $\mathcal{H}(G)$  (we know that graph L is a clique or a connected chordal graph with at most 5 vertices), we construct a tree 2-spanner  $T_L$  of L. It is known [8] that a connected chordal graph G with  $\leq 5$  vertices, that is not a tree, either has a vertex adjacent to all other vertices of G or consists of a shortest path P of length 3 (spanning 4 vertices) with one extra vertex adjacent to 2 or 3 consecutive vertices of P. Thus, G always has a tree 2-spanner. Hence, for any edge xy of L, we have  $d_{T_I}(x, y) \leq 2$ . Consider now an inner node (H, K) of  $\mathcal{H}(G)$ , and assume that all its children  $H_1^+, \ldots, H_l^+$  in  $\mathcal{H}(G)$  have tree  $\alpha$ -spanners  $T_1, \ldots, T_l$  for some positive integer  $\alpha$ . Then, a tree  $(\alpha + 2)$ -spanner of H can be constructed from  $T_1, \ldots, T_l$ and clique K of H as described above (see Lemma 2 and paragraph before it). Since the depth of the hierarchical-tree  $\mathcal{H}(G)$  is at most  $\log_2 n - 1$  and all leaves of  $\mathcal{H}(G)$ admit tree 2-spanners, applying Lemma 2 repeatedly, we will move from leaves to the root of  $\mathcal{H}(G)$  and get a tree t-spanner T of G with t being no more than  $2\log_2 n$ .

It is also easy to see that, given a chordal graph G with n vertices and m edges, a hierarchical-tree  $\mathcal{H}(G)$  as well as a tree t-spanner T of G with  $t \leq 2\log_2 n$  can be constructed in  $O(m\log n)$  total time since there are at most  $O(\log n)$  levels in  $\mathcal{H}(G)$  and one needs to do at most O(m) operations per level.

Thus, we have the following result for the class of chordal graphs.

**Theorem 1** Any connected chordal graph G with n vertices and m edges admits a tree  $(2\lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor)$ -spanner constructible in  $O(m \log n)$  time.

### 4 Tree Spanners of Generalized Chordal Graphs

It is known that the class of chordal graphs can be characterized in terms of existence of so-called *clique-trees*. Let C(G) denote the family of maximal (by inclusion) cliques of a graph G. A *clique-tree* CT(G) of G has the maximal cliques of G as its nodes, and for every vertex v of G, the maximal cliques containing v form a subtree of CT(G).

**Theorem 2** [12, 30, 43] A graph is chordal if and only if it has a clique-tree.



In their work on graph minors [41], Robertson and Seymour introduced the notion of tree-decomposition which generalizes the notion of clique-tree. A *tree-decomposition* of a graph G is a tree  $\mathcal{T}(G)$  whose nodes, called *bags*, are subsets of V(G) such that:

- (1)  $\bigcup_{X \in V(\mathcal{T}(G))} X = V(G)$ ,
- (2) for each edge  $vw \in E(G)$ , there is a bag  $X \in V(\mathcal{T}(G))$  such that  $v, w \in X$ , and
- (3) for each  $v \in V(G)$  the set of bags  $\{X : X \in V(\mathcal{T}(G)), v \in X\}$  forms a subtree  $\mathcal{T}_v(G)$  of  $\mathcal{T}(G)$ .

Tree-decompositions were used in defining at least two graph parameters. The *tree-width* of a graph G is defined as minimum of  $\max_{X\in V(\mathcal{T}(G))}|X|-1$  over all tree-decompositions  $\mathcal{T}(G)$  of G and is denoted by  $\operatorname{tw}(G)$  [41]. The *length* of a tree-decomposition  $\mathcal{T}(G)$  of a graph G is  $\max_{X\in V(\mathcal{T}(G))}\max_{u,v\in X}d_G(u,v)$ , and the *tree-length* of G, denoted by  $\operatorname{tl}(G)$ , is the minimum of the length, over all tree-decompositions of G [22]. These two graph parameters are not related to each other. For instance, cliques (or, generally, all chordal graphs) have unbounded tree-width and tree-length 1, whereas cycles have tree-width 2 and unbounded tree-length.

For the purpose of this paper, we introduce yet another graph parameter based on the notion of tree-decomposition. It is very similar to the notion of tree-length but is more appropriate for our discussions, and moreover it will lead to a better constant in our approximation ratio presented in Sect. 5.1 for the TREE t-SPANNER problem on general graphs.

Evidently, for any graph G,  $1 \le \mathsf{tb}(G) \le \mathsf{tl}(G) \le 2\mathsf{tb}(G)$  holds. Hence, if one parameter is bounded by a constant for a graph G then the other parameter is bounded for G as well.

In what follows, we will show that any graph G with tree-breadth  $\mathsf{tb}(G) \leq \rho$  admits a tree  $(2\rho \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor)$ -spanner, thus generalizing the result for chordal graphs of Sect. 3 (if G is chordal then  $\mathsf{tl}(G) = \mathsf{tb}(G) = 1$ ). It is interesting to note that the TREE t-SPANNER problem is NP-complete for graphs of bounded tree-breadth (even for chordal graphs for every fixed t > 3; see [9]), while it is polynomial time solvable for all graphs of bounded tree-width (see [40]).

First we present a balanced separator result.

**Lemma 4** Every graph G with n vertices, m edges and with tree-breadth at most  $\rho$  contains a vertex v such that if the vertices of disk  $D_{\rho}(v, G)$  are deleted from G, every connected component in the graph induced by any remaining vertices is of size at most n/2.



*Proof* The proof of this lemma follows from *acyclic hypergraph* theory. First we review some necessary definitions and an important result characterizing acyclic hypergraphs. Recall that a *hypergraph* H is a pair  $H = (V, \mathcal{E})$  where V is a set of vertices and  $\mathcal{E}$  is a set of non-empty subsets of V called *hyperedges*. For these and other hypergraph notions see [7].

Let  $H = (V, \mathcal{E})$  be a *hypergraph* with the vertex set V and the *hyperedge* set  $\mathcal{E}$ . For every vertex  $v \in V$ , let  $\mathcal{E}(v) = \{e \in \mathcal{E} : v \in e\}$ . The 2-section graph 2SEC(H) of a hypergraph H has V as its vertex set and two distinct vertices are adjacent in 2SEC(H) if and only if they are contained in a common hyperedge of H. A hypergraph H is called *conformal* if every clique of 2SEC(H) is contained in a hyperedge  $e \in \mathcal{E}$ , and a hypergraph H is called *acyclic* if there is a tree T with node set  $\mathcal{E}$  such that for all vertices  $v \in V$ ,  $\mathcal{E}(v)$  induces a subtree  $T_v$  of T. It is a well-known fact (see, e.g., [3, 6, 7]) that a hypergraph H is acyclic if and only if H is conformal and H is a chordal graph.

Let now G be a graph with  $\operatorname{tb}(G) = \rho$  and  $\mathcal{T}(G)$  be its tree-decomposition of breadth  $\rho$ . Evidently, property (3) in the definition of tree-decomposition can be restated as follows: the hypergraph  $H = (V(G), \{X : X \in V(\mathcal{T}(G))\})$  is an acyclic hypergraph. Since each edge of G is contained in at least one bag of  $\mathcal{T}(G)$ , the 2-section graph  $G^* := 2SEC(H)$  of G is a chordal supergraph of the graph G (each edge of G is an edge of G, but G may have some extra edges between non-adjacent vertices of G contained in a common bag of G (as G is a balanced clique-separator G is G in the chordal graph G contained in a bag of G in the equation G is a vertex G in the contained in a bag of G in the equation G in the equation G is a supergraph of G in the equation G in the equation G is a supergraph of G in the equation of the vertices of G from G is a supergraph of G in the equation of the equation of the equation of G is a supergraph of G in the equation of G in

We do not need to know a tree-decomposition  $\mathcal{T}(G)$  of breadth  $\rho$  to find such a balanced disk-separator  $D_{\rho}(v,G)$  of G. For a given graph G and an integer  $\rho$ , checking whether G has a tree-decomposition of breadth  $\rho$  could be a hard problem. For example, while graphs with tree-length 1 (as they are exactly the chordal graphs) can be recognized in linear time, the problem of determining whether a given graph has tree-length at most  $\lambda$  is NP-complete for every fixed  $\lambda > 1$  (see [36]).

Instead, we can use the following result.

**Proposition 3** For an arbitrary graph G with n vertices and m edges a balanced disk-separator  $D_r(v, G)$  with minimum r can be found in O(nm) time.

*Proof* We need to show that for each vertex v of G a balanced disk-separator  $D_r(v,G)$  with minimum r can be found in O(m) time. Then we can iterate over all vertices of G and find a vertex  $v^*$  whose  $D_r(v^*,G)$  has the smallest radius r.

Construct a layering  $L_0, L_1, \ldots, L_q$  of G with respect to v, where  $L_i = \{u \in V : d_G(v, u) = i\}, i \in \{0, 1, 2, \ldots, q\}$  and  $q := \max_{x \in V} d_G(v, x)$ . Let  $G_i^1, \ldots, G_i^{l_i}$  be the



connected components of the graph  $G[V \setminus D_{i-1}(v,G)]$ ,  $i \in \{1,2,\ldots,q\}$ . Let also  $n_i^j := |V(G_i^j)|, i \in \{1,2,\ldots,q\}$  and  $j \in \{1,2,\ldots,l_i\}$ . We need to find the smallest r such that all  $n_{r+1}^j$ ,  $j \in \{1,2,\ldots,l_{r+1}\}$  are less than or equal to n/2 (hence, for some  $j \in \{1,2,\ldots,l_r\}$ ,  $n_r^j$  is larger than n/2). All we need is to iteratively compute values  $n_i^j$  starting with i=q and ending with i=r. For this we can use the following simple procedure (which needs to work on a copy of the original graph G since the input graph gets modified during the procedure).

```
Initially, \operatorname{mult}(x) := 1 for each vertex x of G; f* multiplicity of a vertex is set to 1 */
Compute connected components \widehat{G}_q^1, \ldots, \widehat{G}_q^{l_q} of the graph G[L_q] = G[V \setminus D_{q-1}(v, G)];
Compute the corresponding cardinalities n_q^j := |V(\widehat{G}_q^j)| = |V(G_q^j)|, \ j \in \{1, 2, \ldots, l_q\};
For i = q downto 1 do

If for all j \in \{1, 2, \ldots, l_i\}, n_i^j \leq n/2
Change G by contracting in G each component \widehat{G}_i^j to a vertex a_i^j, \ j = 1, 2, \ldots, l_i;
Define the multiplicity of a_i^j as \operatorname{mult}(a_i^j) := n_i^j;
Set \widehat{L}_{i-1} := L_{i-1} \cup \{a_i^1, \ldots, a_i^{l_i}\};
Compute the connected components \widehat{G}_{i-1}^1, \ldots, \widehat{G}_{i-1}^{l_{i-1}} of the graph G[\widehat{L}_{i-1}];
Set n_{i-1}^j := \sum_{x \in V(\widehat{G}_{i-1}^j)} \operatorname{mult}(x), \ j \in \{1, 2, \ldots, l_{i-1}\};
Else output i-1.
```

For a given vertex v of G, this procedure finds the minimum radius r such that  $D_r(v,G) = L_0 \cup L_1 \cup \cdots \cup L_r$  is a balanced disk-separator of G. Clearly, the procedure works in linear O(m) time since the construction of graphs  $G[L_q]$ ,  $G[\widehat{L}_{q-1}]$ ,  $G[\widehat{L}_{q-2}], \ldots, G[\widehat{L}_1]$ ,  $G[\widehat{L}_0]$  and their connected components costs no more than O(m) time in total (each edge of G is considered only a constant number of times).  $\square$ 

Now let G = (V, E) be an arbitrary connected n-vertex m-edge graph with a disk-separator  $D_r(v, G)$ . As in the case of chordal graphs, let  $G_1, \ldots, G_k$  be the connected components of  $G[V \setminus D_r(v, G)]$ . Denote by  $S_i := \{x \in V(G_i) : d_G(x, D_r(v, G)) = 1\}$  the neighborhood of  $D_r(v, G)$  with respect to  $G_i$ . Let also  $G_i^+$  be the graph obtained from component  $G_i$  by adding a vertex  $v_i$  (representative of  $D_r(v, G)$ ) and making it adjacent to all vertices of  $S_i$ , i.e., for a vertex  $x \in V(G_i)$ ,  $v_i x \in E(G_i^+)$  if and only if there is a vertex  $x_D \in D_r(v, G)$  with  $xx_D \in E(G)$ . Given graph G and its disk-separator  $D_r(v, G)$ , the graphs  $G_1^+, \ldots, G_k^+$  can be constructed in total time O(m). Furthermore, the total number of edges in the graphs  $G_1^+, \ldots, G_k^+$  does not exceed the number of edges in G, and the total number of vertices in those graphs does not exceed the number of vertices in  $G[V \setminus D_r(v, G)]$  plus k.

Let again  $G_{/e}$  be the graph obtained from G by contracting its edge e.

**Lemma 5** For any graph G and its edge e,  $\mathsf{tb}(G) \le \rho$  implies  $\mathsf{tb}(G_{/e}) \le \rho$ . Consequently, for any graph G with  $\mathsf{tb}(G) \le \rho$ ,  $\mathsf{tb}(G_i^+) \le \rho$  holds for each  $i = 1, \ldots, k$ .

*Proof* Let G be a graph with  $\mathsf{tb}(G) = \rho$  and  $\mathcal{T}(G)$  be its tree-decomposition of breadth  $\rho$ . Let e = xy be an arbitrary edge of G. We can obtain a tree-decomposition



 $\mathcal{T}(G_{/e})$  of graph  $G_{/e}$  by replacing in each bag  $X \in V(\mathcal{T}(G))$  vertices x and y with a new vertex x' representing them (if some bag A contained both x and y, only one copy of x' is kept). Evidently, properties (1) and (2) in the definition of tree-decomposition are fulfilled for  $\mathcal{T}(G_{/e})$ . Furthermore, the topology of the tree-decomposition did not really change. Still, for any vertex  $v \neq x'$  of  $G_{/e}$ , the bags of  $\mathcal{T}(G_{/e})$  containing v form a subtree in  $\mathcal{T}(G_{/e})$ . Since vertices x and y were adjacent in G, there was a bag A of  $\mathcal{T}(G)$  containing both those vertices. Hence, a subtree of  $\mathcal{T}(G_{/e})$  formed by bags of  $\mathcal{T}(G_{/e})$  containing vertex x' is nothing else but the union of two subtrees (one for x and one for y) of  $\mathcal{T}(G)$  sharing at least one common bag A. Also, contracting an edge can only reduce the distances in a graph. Hence, still, for each bag B of  $\mathcal{T}(G_{/e})$ , there must exists a corresponding vertex b in  $G_{/e}$  with  $B \subseteq D_{\rho}(b, G_{/e})$ .

We can get  $G_i^+$  from G again by repeatedly contracting (in any order) edges of G that are not incident to vertices of  $G_i$ .

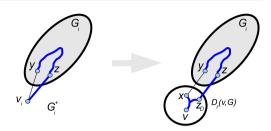
As in Sect. 3, let  $T_i$   $(i=1,\ldots,k)$  be a spanning tree of  $G_i^+$  such that for any edge  $xy \in E(G_i^+)$ ,  $d_{T_i}(x,y) \le \alpha$  holds, where  $\alpha$  is some positive integer independent of i. For the disk  $D_r(v,G)$  of G, construct a shortest path tree  $SPT_D$  rooted at vertex v (and spanning all and only the vertices of the disk). We can form a spanning tree T of G from trees  $T_1,\ldots,T_k$  and  $SPT_D$  in the following way. For each  $i=1,\ldots,k$ , rename vertex  $v_i$  in  $T_i$  to v. Glue trees  $T_1,\ldots,T_k$  together at vertex v obtaining a tree T' (consult with Fig. 3). Substitute vertex v in T' by the tree  $SPT_D$ . For each former edge xv of T', create an edge  $xx_D$  in T where  $x_D$  is a vertex of  $D_r(v,G)$  adjacent to x in G. We can show that for any edge  $xy \in E(G)$ ,  $d_T(x,y) \le \alpha + 2r$  holds. Evidently, the tree T of G can be constructed from trees  $T_1,\ldots,T_k$  and  $SPT_D$  in O(m) time.

**Lemma 6** Let G be an arbitrary graph with a disk-separator  $D_r(v, G)$  and  $G_1^+, \ldots, G_k^+$  be the graphs obtained from G as described above. Let also  $T_i$   $(i \in \{1, \ldots, k\})$  be a spanning tree of the graph  $G_i^+$ , and T be a spanning tree of G constructed from  $T_1, \ldots, T_k$  and a shortest path tree  $SPT_D$  of the disk  $D_r(v, G)$  as described above. Assume also that there is a positive integer G such that, for each G i in the first G and every edge G in the first G and G in the first G in the first G in the first G is a positive integer G and G is a positive integer G and G in the first G in the first G in the first G is a positive integer G and G in the first G is a positive integer G and G in the first G is a positive integer G and G in the first G in the first G is a positive integer G and G is a positive integer G and G is a positive integer G in the first G in the first G is a positive integer G in the first G in the first G is a positive integer G in the first G in the first G is a positive integer G in the first G in the first G in the first G is a positive integer G in the first G in the first G is a positive integer G in the first G in the first G in the first G in the first G is a positive integer G in the first G in the first G in the first G is a positive integer G in the first G in the first G in the first G is a positive integer G in the first G in the first G in the first G is a positive integer G in the first G in the first G is a positive integer G in the first G in the first G is a positive integer G in the first G in the first G in the first G is a positive integer G in the first G in the first G is a positive integer G in the first G in the first G in the first G is a positive integer G in the first G in the first G is a positive integer G in the first G in the first G in the first G in the first G in the

Proof The proof is done along the lines of the proof of Lemma 2. Consider an arbitrary edge xy of G. If both x and y belong to  $D_r(v,G)$ , then evidently  $d_T(x,y) \le 2r < \alpha + 2r$ . Assume now that xy is an edge of  $G_i$  for some  $i \in \{1, \ldots, k\}$ . Then, xy is an edge of  $G_i^+$  and therefore  $d_{T_i}(x,y) \le \alpha$ . If the path P of  $T_i$  connecting x and y does not contain vertex  $v_i$ , then  $d_T(x,y) = d_{T_i}(x,y) \le \alpha$  must hold. If  $v_i$  is between x and y in  $T_i$  (i.e.,  $v_i \in P$ ), then the distance in T between x and y is at most  $d_{T_i}(x,y) + 2r$  (the path of T between x and y is obtained from P by substituting the vertex  $v = v_i$  by a path of tree  $SPT_D$  with at most 2r edges). It remains to consider the case when  $x \in D_r(v,G)$  and  $y \in V(G_i)$  (see Fig. 4 for an illustration). By construction of  $G_i^+$ , there must exist an edge  $v_iy$  in  $G_i^+$ . We have  $d_{T_i}(v_i,y) \le \alpha$ . Let z be the neighbor of  $v_i$  in the path of  $T_i$  connecting vertices y



**Fig. 4** Illustration to the proof of Lemma 6



and  $v_i$  (y = z is possible). Evidently,  $z \in V(G_i)$ . By construction, we must have in T an edge  $zz_D$  where  $z_D$  is a vertex of  $D_r(v, G)$  adjacent to z in G. Vertices x and  $z_D$  both are in  $D_r(v, G)$  and the distance in T between them is at most 2r. Thus,  $d_T(x, y) \le d_T(z_D, y) + 2r = d_{T_i}(v_i, y) + 2r \le \alpha + 2r$ .

Now we have all necessary ingredients to apply the technique used in Sect. 3 and show that each graph G admits a tree  $(2\text{tb}(G)\lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor)$ -spanner.

Let G = (V, E) be a connected n-vertex, m-edge graph and assume that  $\operatorname{tb}(G) \leq \rho$ . Lemma 4 guarantees that G has a balanced disk-separator  $D_r(v, G)$  with  $r \leq \rho$ . Proposition 3 says that such a balanced disk-separator  $D_r(v, G)$  of G can be found in O(nm) time by an algorithm that works directly on graph G and does not require the construction of a tree-decomposition of G of breadth  $\leq \rho$ . Using this and Lemma 5, we can build as before a (rooted) hierarchical-tree  $\mathcal{H}(G)$  for G. Only now, the leaves of  $\mathcal{H}(G)$  are connected graphs with at most 9 vertices and, therefore, the depth of this tree  $\mathcal{H}(G)$  is at most  $\log_2 n - 2$ .

We note that any leaf of  $\mathcal{H}(G)$  has a tree t-spanner with  $t \leq 4\rho$ . The case when  $\rho \geq 2$  is trivial; any 9-vertex graph has a tree 8-spanner. Hence, one needs to check only that any graph G with at most 9 vertices and tree-breadth 1 admits a tree 4-spanner. One can verify this by going over all finitely many such instances. To reduce the number of different instances to consider, we note that G must have a vertex v whose closed neighborhood  $N_G[v]$  is a balanced separator of G. We can choose such a closed neighborhood balanced separator with the maximum cardinality, to ensure that  $N_G[v]$  has at least 3 vertices. Furthermore, the largest connected component C of  $G[V \setminus N_G[v]]$  has at most 4 vertices (at most 9/2). Using this and the facts that the tree-breadth of G is equal to 1 and that G either has a vertex adjacent to all other vertices of G or G is either an induced path on 4 vertices or an induced cycle on 4 vertices, one can verify that G indeed has a tree 4-spanner (see also the proof of Lemma 6). We leave remaining details to the reader.

To build a tree t-spanner T of G, we again use the hierarchical-tree  $\mathcal{H}(G)$  and a bottom-up construction. Each leaf  $(L, \operatorname{nil})$  of  $\mathcal{H}(G)$  has a tree  $(4\rho)$ -spanner. A tree t-spanner with minimum t of such a small graph L can be computed directly. Consider now an inner node  $(H, D_r(v, G))$  of  $\mathcal{H}(G)$  (where  $D_r(v, G)$  is a balanced disk-separator of H), and assume that all its children  $H_1^+, \ldots, H_l^+$  in  $\mathcal{H}(G)$  have tree  $\alpha$ -spanners  $T_1, \ldots, T_l$  for some positive integer  $\alpha$ . Then, a tree  $(\alpha + 2r)$ -spanner of H can be constructed from  $T_1, \ldots, T_l$  and a shortest path tree  $SPT_D$  of the disk  $D_r(v, G)$  as described above (see Lemma 6 and paragraph before it). Since the depth of the hierarchical-tree  $\mathcal{H}(G)$  is at most  $\log_2 n - 2$  and all leaves of  $\mathcal{H}(G)$  admit tree



 $(4\rho)$ -spanners, applying Lemma 6 repeatedly, we move from leaves to the root of  $\mathcal{H}(G)$  and get a tree t-spanner T of G with t being no more than  $2\rho\log_2 n$ . It is also easy to see that, given a graph G with n vertices and m edges, a hierarchical-tree  $\mathcal{H}(G)$  as well as a tree t-spanner T of G with  $t \leq 2\text{tb}(G)\log_2 n$  can be constructed in  $O(nm\log^2 n)$  total time. There are at most  $O(\log n)$  levels in  $\mathcal{H}(G)$ , and one needs to do at most  $O(nm\log n)$  operations per level since the total number of edges in the graphs of each level is at most m and the total number of vertices in those graphs can not exceed  $O(n\log n)$  (each of those graphs, additionally to original vertices (of G), can have at most one new vertex per each level of  $\mathcal{H}(G)$ , i.e., altogether up to  $O(\log n)$  new vertices).

Here is a summarized recursive version of our algorithm. G is an arbitrary input graph.

```
Tree_Spanner(G)
If G has at most 9 vertices
Find a tree t-spanner T of G with minimum t directly;
Output T.
Else
Find a balanced disk-separator D_r(v,G) of G with minimum r (see Proposition 3);
Find connected components G_1, \ldots, G_k of graph G[V \setminus D_r(v,G)];
Build graphs G_1^+, \ldots, G_k^+ as described before Lemma 5;
Set T_i := Tree_Spanner(G_i^+), for each i=1,\ldots,k;
Construct a shortest path tree SPT_D of G[D_r(v,G)] rooted at vertex v;
Construct a spanning tree T of G from trees G_1, \ldots, G_k^+ and G_1, \ldots, G_k^+ as described before Lemma 6;
Output G_1, \ldots, G_k^+ of G_1, \ldots, G_k^+ and G_1, \ldots, G_k^+ of G_1, \ldots, G_k^+ and G_1, \ldots, G_k^+ as described before Lemma 6;
```

Note that the algorithm does not need to know the value of  $\mathsf{tb}(G)$ , neither it needs to know any appropriate Robertson-Seymour's tree-decomposition of G. It works directly on an input graph. To indicate this, we say that the algorithm constructs an appropriate tree spanner *from scratch*.

Thus, we have the following results.

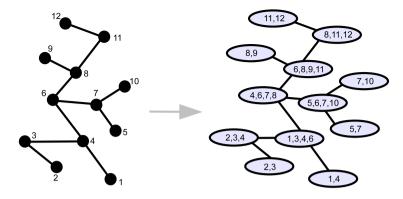
**Theorem 3** There is an algorithm that for an arbitrary connected graph G with n vertices and m edges constructs a tree  $(2\mathsf{tb}(G)\lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor)$ -spanner of G in  $O(nm\log^2 n)$  total time.

**Corollary 1** Any connected n-vertex, m-edge graph G with  $\mathsf{tb}(G) \leq \rho$  admits a tree  $(2\rho \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor)$ -spanner constructible in  $O(nm \log^2 n)$  time from scratch.

**Corollary 2** Any connected n-vertex, m-edge graph G with  $tl(G) \le \lambda$  admits a tree  $(2\lambda \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor)$ -spanner constructible in  $O(nm \log^2 n)$  time from scratch.

There is another natural generalization of chordal graphs. A graph G is called k-chordal if its largest induced cycle has length at most k. Chordal graphs are exactly 3-chordal graphs. It was shown in [29] that every k-chordal graph has tree-length at most k/2. Thus, we have one more corollary.





**Fig. 5** From tree T to tree-decomposition  $\mathcal{T}$  with t=2

**Corollary 3** Any connected n-vertex, m-edge k-chordal graph G admits a tree  $(2\lfloor k/2 \rfloor \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor)$ -spanner constructible in  $O(nm \log^2 n)$  time from scratch.

# 5 Approximating Tree *t*-Spanners of General Graphs

In this section, we show that the results obtained for tree *t*-spanners of generalized chordal graphs lead to an approximation algorithm for the TREE *t*-SPANNER problem on general (unweighted) graphs.

## 5.1 Graphs Admitting Tree t-Spanners Have Tree-Breadth at Most $\lceil t/2 \rceil$

Here, we show that every graph G admitting a tree t-spanner has tree-breadth at most  $\lceil t/2 \rceil$ . From this and Theorem 3 it will follow that there is an algorithm which produces for every n-vertex and m-edge graph G a tree  $(2\lceil t/2 \rceil \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor)$ -spanner in  $O(nm \log^2 n)$  time, whenever G admits a tree t-spanner. The algorithm does not even need to know the true value of t.

**Lemma 7** If a graph G admits a tree t-spanner then its tree-breadth is at most  $\lceil t/2 \rceil$ .

*Proof* Let T be a tree t-spanner of G. We can transform this tree T to a tree-decomposition T of G by expanding each vertex x in T to a bag X and putting all vertices of disk  $D_{\lceil t/2 \rceil}(x,T)$  into that bag (note that the disk here is considered in T; see Fig. 5 for an illustration). The edges of T and of T are identical: XY is an edge in T if and only if  $xy \in E(T)$ , where X is a bag that replaced vertex x in T and Y is a bag that replaced vertex y in T. Since  $d_G(u,v) \leq d_T(u,v)$  for every pair of vertices u and v of G, we know that every bag  $X := D_{\lceil t/2 \rceil}(x,T)$  is contained in a disk  $D_{\lceil t/2 \rceil}(x,G)$  of G. Thus, it remains to show that all three properties of tree-decomposition are fulfilled for T.

Evidently, every vertex x of G is in at least one bag of T. Consider an arbitrary edge uv of G. Since T is a tree t-spanner of G,  $d_T(u, v) \le t$  holds. Let x be a middle vertex of the path connecting vertices u and v in T. Then, both u and v belong to the



disk  $D_{\lceil t/2 \rceil}(x,T)$ , i.e., there is a bag  $X = D_{\lceil t/2 \rceil}(x,T)$  containing u and v. For a vertex  $v \in V(G)$  consider the set of all bags  $\Phi := \{X \in V(T) : v \in X = D_{\lceil t/2 \rceil}(x,T)\}$  of T containing vertex v. Let  $\Phi = \{X_i = D_{\lceil t/2 \rceil}(x_i,T) : i=1,2,\ldots,l\}$ . This set of bags  $\Phi$  induces a subtree in T since the corresponding vertices  $x_1,\ldots,x_l$  induce a subtree in T. Note that  $v \in X_i$  if and only if  $d_T(v,x_i) \leq \lceil t/2 \rceil$ .

Combining Lemma 7 with Theorem 3 we get our main result.

**Theorem 4** There is an algorithm that for an arbitrary connected graph G with n vertices and m edges constructs a tree  $(2\lceil t/2\rceil \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor)$ -spanner in  $O(nm \log^2 n)$  time, whenever G admits a tree t-spanner.

# 5.2 Improving Run-Time on Expense of Approximation Ratio

The complexity of our algorithm is dominated by the complexity of finding a balanced disk-separator  $D_r(v,G)$  of a graph G with minimum r. Proposition 3 says that for an n-vertex, m-edge graph such a balanced disk-separator can be found in O(nm) time. In this subsection, we show that a balanced disk-separator with a slightly larger radius can be found in linear O(m) time. This will immediately lead to an  $O(m \log n)$  algorithm (as in the case of chordal graphs; see Sect. 3), which produces for every graph G a tree  $(6t \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor)$ -spanner, whenever G admits a tree t-spanner.

We will need the notion of *layering partition* introduced in papers [8, 14] and recently used in a slightly more general form in both approximation algorithms for embedding graph metric into trees [4, 5, 17] as well as in some other similar contexts [15–18, 21, 22].

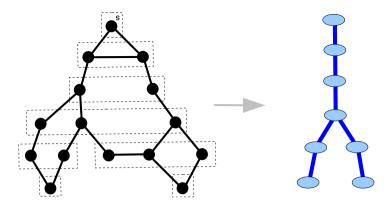
Let G=(V,E) be a connected graph with n vertices and m edges and with an arbitrarily chosen start vertex s. Consider a  $layering\ L_0, L_1, \ldots, L_q$  of G with respect to s, where  $L_i=\{u\in V: d_G(s,u)=i\},\ i\in\{0,1,2,\ldots,q\}$  and  $q:=\max_{x\in V}d_G(s,x)$ . A  $layering\ partition\ \mathcal{L}P(s)=\{L_i^1,\ldots,L_i^{p_i}:i=0,1,2,\ldots,q\}$  of G is a partition of each  $L_i$  into  $clusters\ L_i^1,\ldots,L_i^{p_i}$  such that two vertices  $u,v\in L_i$  belong to the same cluster  $L_i^j$  if and only if they can be connected by a path outside the disk  $D_{i-1}(s,G)$ . It was shown in [14] that for a given graph G such a layering partition can be found in G(m) time. Let G be a graph whose vertex set is the set of all clusters G in a layering partition G of G. Two vertices G is a layering are adjacent in G if and only if there exist G in G is a tree, called the G is a tree of G, and that G is computable in linear time in the size of G, i.e., in G in G if G is a constant G is a tree, called the G is a tree of G, and that G is computable in linear time in the size of G, i.e., in G in G

Let assign to each vertex  $L_i^j$  of  $\Gamma$  a weight  $w_i^j := |L_i^j|$ . Clearly,

$$W := \sum_{i=0,1,2,\dots,q,\ j=1,2,\dots,p_i} w_i^j$$

is equal to n. It is known that every vertex-weighted tree T with the total weight of vertices equal to W has a vertex x, called a *median* of T, such that the total weight of vertices in each subtree of  $T \setminus \{x\}$  does not exceed W/2. Furthermore, such a vertex x of T can be found in O(|V(T)|) time [32]. Let  $C = L_i^j$   $(i \in \{0, 1, 2, ..., q\},$ 





**Fig. 6** A layering partition of G and the tree  $\Gamma$  associated with this layering partition

 $j \in \{1, 2, \ldots, p_i\}$ ) be a median vertex of weighted tree  $\Gamma$ . Then, each subtree of  $\Gamma \setminus \{C\}$  has total weight of vertices not exceeding n/2. Since each edge of G is either between vertices of the same cluster or between vertices of clusters that are adjacent in  $\Gamma$ , the set C separates in G any two vertices that belong to clusters from different subtrees of  $\Gamma \setminus \{C\}$ . Consequently, C is a balanced separator of G as any connected component of  $G[V \setminus C]$  has no more than n/2 vertices. Note that, given a graph G, such a cluster C of a layering partition  $\mathcal{L}P$  of G can be found in linear time in the size of G. Thus, we have the following proposition.

**Proposition 4** For any graph G with m edges there is a cluster C of a layering partition LP of G such that C is a balanced separator of G and can be found in O(m) total time.

We show now that if graph G has tree-breadth  $\rho$  then there is a vertex v in G such that  $C \subseteq D_{3\rho}(v, G)$ .

**Lemma 8** If a graph G has tree-breadth  $\rho$  then for any cluster C of a layering partition  $\mathcal{L}P$  of G there exists a vertex  $v_C \in V(G)$  such that  $C \subseteq D_{3\rho}(v_C, G)$ .

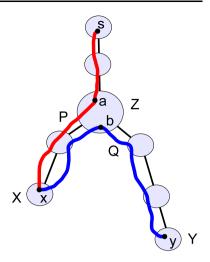
*Proof* The proof is analogous to the proof of a similar result for graphs with treelength  $\lambda$  (see [21], Lemma 5). Let  $\mathcal{T}$  be a tree-decomposition of G with breadth  $\rho$ . It is known [20] that if  $X_1X_2$  is an edge of a tree-decomposition  $\mathcal{T}$  of G, and  $\mathcal{T}_1$ ,  $\mathcal{T}_2$  are the subtrees of  $\mathcal{T}$  obtained after removing edge  $X_1X_2$  from  $\mathcal{T}$ , then  $I = X_1 \cap X_2$  separates in G vertices belonging to bags of  $\mathcal{T}_1$  but not to I from vertices belonging to bags of  $\mathcal{T}_2$  but not to I. We will need this property of a tree-decomposition below.

Assume that  $\mathcal{T}$  is rooted at a bag containing vertex s, the source of layering partition  $\mathcal{L}P$ . Let C be a cluster from layer  $L_i$  (i.e,  $C = L_i^j$  for some  $j \in \{1, 2, ..., p_i\}$ ). We have  $d_G(x, s) = i$  for every  $x \in C$ . Let Z be the nearest common ancestor of all bags of  $\mathcal{T}$  containing vertices of C. Let z be a vertex of G such that  $Z \subseteq D_{\varrho}(z, G)$ .

Consider an arbitrary vertex x of C. It is easy to see that there is a vertex  $y \in C$  and two bags X and Y of T containing vertices x and y, respectively, such that



Fig. 7 Illustration to the proof of Lemma 8



 $Z = NCA_T(X, Y)$  (i.e., Z is the nearest common ancestor of X and Y in T; see Fig. 7). Let P be a shortest path of G from s to x. Necessarily, P intersects Z. Let a be a vertex of  $P \cap Z$  closest to s in G. Since x and y both are in G, there exists a path G from G to G in G using only intermediate vertices G with G (G, G) g in G in G is at distance G in G in

Thus, any vertex x of C is at distance at most  $3\rho$  from z in G, i.e.,  $C \subseteq D_{3\rho}(z,G)$ .

Given a cluster C of a layering partition of G, although we know that a vertex  $v_C \in V(G)$  exists such that  $C \subseteq D_{3\rho}(v_C, G)$ , we do not currently know how to find  $v_C$  in O(m) time. Instead, we can consider any vertex v of C and use  $D_{6\rho}(v, G)$  as a "small radius" balanced disk-separator of G. Clearly,  $C \subseteq D_{6\rho}(v, G)$  and therefore  $D_{6\rho}(v, G)$  is a balanced disk-separator of G.

**Corollary 4** There is an algorithm that for an arbitrary connected graph G with n vertices and m edges finds a balanced disk-separator  $D_{6\rho}(v, G)$  of G in linear O(m) time, where  $\rho = \mathsf{tb}(G)$ .

As a consequence, we have the following variant of Theorem 3.

**Theorem 5** There is an algorithm that for an arbitrary connected graph G with n vertices and m edges constructs a tree  $(12\mathsf{tb}(G)\lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor)$ -spanner of G in  $O(m\log n)$  total time.

This theorem already implies that there is an algorithm that for an arbitrary connected graph G with n vertices and m edges constructs a tree  $(12\lceil t/2\rceil \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor)$ -spanner in  $O(m \log n)$  time, whenever G admits a tree t-spanner. But, if we decided to use an arbitrary vertex v of C as the center of a balanced disk-separator, we can



get a similar (even slightly better for odd ts) result using just notions of tree-length and t-powers of trees. We can prove the following result.

**Theorem 6** There is an algorithm that for an arbitrary connected graph G with n vertices and m edges constructs a tree  $(6t \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor)$ -spanner in  $O(m \log n)$  time, whenever G admits a tree t-spanner.

*Proof* First, we can show that if G = (V, E) admits a tree t-spanner, then the treelength of G is at most t. Indeed, let T be a tree t-spanner of G. The t-power  $T^t$  of T is a graph obtained from T by adding to T all new edges between vertices at distance at most t in T, i.e., for each  $x, y \in V$ ,  $xy \in E(T^t)$  if and only if  $d_T(x, y) \le t$ . Since T is a tree t-spanner of G, i.e.,  $d_T(x, y) \le t$  for every edge xy of G, G is a spanning subgraph of  $T^t$ . It is known that any power of a tree is a chordal graph (see, e.g., [11]). Consequently,  $T^t$  is chordal and has a clique-tree (see Theorem 2). This clique-tree of  $T^t$  gives a tree-decomposition of G. Each bag of that tree-decomposition forms a clique in  $T^t$  and, therefore, is a set of vertices  $S \subseteq V$  such that  $d_G(x, y) \le d_T(x, y) \le t$  for every  $x, y \in S$ . Thus,  $\mathsf{tl}(G) \le t$ .

Second, it was proven in [21] that if  $tl(G) \le t$ , then for any cluster C of a layering partition  $\mathcal{L}P$  of G and every two vertices  $x, y \in C$ ,  $d_G(x, y) \le 3t$  holds. Hence, for any vertex  $v \in C$ ,  $C \subseteq D_{3t}(v, G)$ . Moreover, given G, we can find a balanced disk-separator  $D_{3t}(v, G)$  of G in total O(m) time (see Proposition 4).

Third, it is easy to see that if  $tl(G) \le t$  then  $tl(G_{/e}) \le t$  for any edge e of G (see the proof of Lemma 5).

Consequently, these facts together with Lemma 6, plugged into our method, prove the theorem.

## 6 Concluding Remarks

In this paper, we examined the TREE *t*-SPANNER problem on chordal graphs, generalized chordal graphs and general graphs. Using a graph decomposition technique based on balanced disk-separators, we developed an algorithm which produces for any input unweighted graph a tree *t*-spanner with *t* close to minimum.

We conclude the paper with some problems for future research.

- 1. Investigate graphs with bounded tree-breadth. A better structural understanding may lead to a better approximation algorithm for the TREE t-SPANNER problem. Is  $o(\log n)$ -approximation algorithm for the TREE t-SPANNER problem achievable?
- 2. Characterize and recognize graphs with tree-breadth 1 (with tree-breadth at most  $\rho$ ).
- 3. Get faster algorithms for finding a "small radius" balanced disk-separator of a graph. Can a balanced disk-separator with minimum radius be found in o(nm) time (in O(m) time)?

**Acknowledgements** We would like to thank reviewers for many useful comments.



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