

AN ALGORITHM FOR STEINER TREES IN GRID GRAPH AND ITS APPLICATION TO HOMOTOPIC ROUTING*

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In this paper we present an algorithm for Steiner minimal trees in grid graphs with k terminals located on the boundary of the graph. The algorithm runs in $O(\min\{k^4, k^2n\})$ time, where k and n are the numbers of terminals and vertices of the graph, respectively. It can handle non-convex boundaries and is the fastest known for this case. We also consider the homotopic routing problem and apply our Steiner tree algorithm to construct minimum-length wires for multi-terminal nets.

1. Introduction

Given a set K of vertices, called *terminals*, in a graph $G(V, E)$, the Steiner problem is to find a minimum-length tree whose vertex set includes all terminals in K . The minimum-length tree is called a *Steiner minimal tree*, while vertices with degree ≥ 3 in the tree are called *Steiner vertices*. This problem has been extensively studied for many years because of its wide variety of applications, as communication networks and VLSI layout design. In general, the problem is known to be NP-complete.⁷ Dreyfus and Wagner⁵ gave a dynamic programming algorithm for the problem with time complexity $O(n3^k + n^22^k + n^3)$, where $|G|$ and $k = |K|$. By specializing this general approach, Provan¹⁵ showed that the Steiner tree problem can be solved in polynomial time if G is a planar graph and all terminals are located on the boundary of one face of G . His algorithm runs in time $O(n^2k^2)$. Erickson, Monma and Veinott⁶ reduced the complexity to $O(nk^3 + (n \log n)k^2)$.

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In this paper we consider a special case of the Steiner tree problem in (1) G is a grid graph with no holes, i.e., every finite face has exactly four vertices, and (2) all terminals are located on the boundary P of G , i.e., the boundary of the infinite face (cf. Fig. 1). A grid graph without holes is also called a *general switchbox*, which is used to formulate many VLSI routing problems.¹¹ Without loss of generality, we assume that (1) G is biconnected, i.e., P is a simple polygon (2) every boundary corner with the inner angle equal to 90° (*convex* corner) has a terminal on it. The case in which G is not biconnected can be solved by partitioning G and then solving several biconnected-graph instances. For the second assumption, non-terminal convex corners can be removed from G because they are not necessary for constructing a Steiner minimal tree. Then P has at most $2k$ corners because there are no more non-convex corners than convex corners. We allow P to be *non-convex*, i.e., it may contain two or more consecutive non-convex corners.

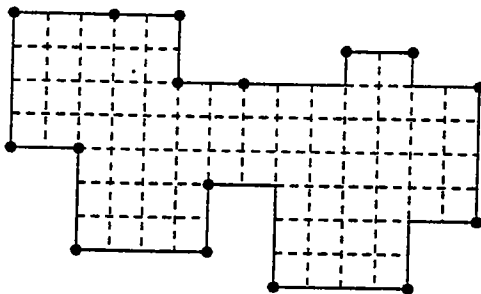


Fig. 1. An example of the Steiner tree problem in a grid graph with terminals (solid dots) on the boundary.

In the following we present an algorithm for this special case. In Sec. 3 we give a general description of the dynamic programming approach proposed by Dreier and Wagner.⁵ In Sec. 4 we introduce a restricted type of subtrees which can be constructed more efficiently. Section 5 gives more details about the complexity of the algorithm. Our algorithm runs in $O(\min\{k^4, k^2n\})$ time and $O(\min\{k^4, k^2n\})$ space. Richards and Salowe¹⁶ developed an $O(k\nu^4)$ -time algorithm, where ν is the number of the boundary sides of the graph. However, their algorithm can only handle grid graphs with convex boundaries.

In Sec. 6 we extend our result to construct a collection of Steiner minimal trees in a grid graph, which is allowed to have holes. While terminals of the Steiner trees may lie on the boundary of the graph as well as on those of the holes, the topology of each tree is given. This problem is called *homotopic routing* in VLSI layout design. The goal is to find vertex-disjoint Steiner minimal trees for the given collection of terminal sets. Homotopic routing was first introduced by Leiserson and Maley,¹² but they only dealt with problems where each terminal set has cardinality of 2. We present an efficient algorithm for terminal sets of cardinality ≥ 2 by using the Steiner tree algorithm described in Secs. 2 to 4.

2. The Dynamic Programming Algorithm

Since the graph boundary P is a simple polygon and all terminals lie on it, define an *interval* $[a, b]$ of K to be the set of terminals, including a and b , by traversing P counterclockwise from a to b . Interval $(a, b]$ or $[a, b)$ is so defined except that a or b is not included. The following lemma can be found in Ref. 15 and is essentially due to Erickson *et al.*⁶

Lemma 1: Let K be a set of terminals lying on the boundary of a plane graph G , and T a Steiner tree for K in G . The removal of any edge $e = (u, v)$ splits T into two subtrees $T(e, u)$ and $T(e, v)$ such that the terminals in each subtree form an interval of K .

Lemma 1 is used in Refs. 6 and 15 to design recursive equations for a dynamic programming algorithm. For each interval $[a, b]$ of K and vertex $v \in C(v, [a, b])$ represent the length of a Steiner minimal tree for terminal set $[a, b]$ and let $B(v, [a, b])$ represent the minimum length of a Steiner tree for the same terminal set subject to the constraint that v has degree ≥ 2 in the tree. $B(v, [a, b])$ can be computed as the sum of the lengths of two Steiner minimal trees for subintervals of $[a, b]$. That is

$$B(v, [a, b]) = \min_{a \neq x \in [a, b]} \{C(v, [a, x]) + C(v, [x, b])\}.$$

A Steiner minimal tree for $(v, [a, b])$ consists of a path from u to v (u and v identical) and a Steiner minimal tree for $(u, [a, b])$ with $\text{degree}(u) \geq 2$ or $u \in [a, b]$. Let $d(u, v)$ denote the shortest distance between u and v in G . $C(v, [a, b])$ is computed as follows.

$$C(v, [a, b]) = \min \left\{ \min_{u \in V} \{B(u, [a, b]) + d(u, v)\}, \min_{u \in [a, b]} \{C(u, [a, b] \setminus \{u\}) + d(u, v)\} \right\}$$

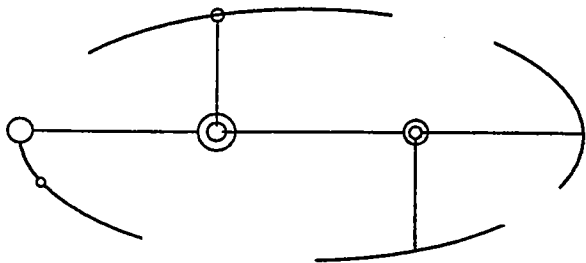


Fig. 2. Decomposition of a Steiner minimal tree. The sizes of the circles indicate the order of decomposition.

The computation of the B - and C -values proceeds in order of the cardinality of the interval $[a, b]$. The initial conditions are $C(v, \emptyset) = 0$ and $B(v, \emptyset) = 0$.

$v \in V$. At the end of the computation, the length of a Steiner minimal tree will be $C(v, K \setminus \{v\})$ for any $v \in K$. The tree itself can be recovered by retaining a record of the trees corresponding to the B - and C -values. The number of B - and C -values to be computed is of the same order as the number of possible choices of vertices $v \in V$ and intervals $I \subseteq K$, which is $O(k^2n)$. A simple-minded approach requires $O(k)$ time for computing a B -value and $O(n)$ time for a C -value, which leads to a total running time of $O((n+k)nk^2)$. In the following we introduce a restricted type of subtrees whose length can be computed more efficiently.

3. The Restricted Subtrees

First we give some necessary notions. A *line* in a graph (G or its subgraphs) is a maximal line segment, i.e., no collinear extension in the graph is possible. A line may be subject to further restrictions, e.g., a *line from a vertex* v is a maximal line segment starting at v . In rectilinear graphs, a line from a vertex can have one of four directions, coded with the numbers 1 to 4. Vertices and lines on boundary P are called *boundary* vertices and lines; all others are *interior* vertices and lines.

We define a *reduced graph* G_K of G by deleting all grid lines of G which do not contain terminals in K or boundary corners of G . The vertices in G_K are the intersection points of the grid lines in G_K . Hanan⁹ proved that a Steiner minimal tree for K in G_K is also a Steiner minimal tree for K in G . Therefore, we only need to consider the reduced graph G_K . It should be noted that the boundary P of G remains the boundary of G_K , because each boundary line contains a corner. The vertices of G_K on P are called *nodes*. There are at most $4k$ nodes altogether, and the number of vertices in G_K is $O(\min\{n, k^2\})$.

Definition 1: For any vertex $v \in V$ and interval $[a, b] \subseteq K$, a Steiner tree T is said to be a *restricted tree* or an *R-tree* if it satisfies the following two conditions.

- (i) Every line in T contains a node; every line from v also contains a node.
- (ii) For every node u with $\deg(u) \geq 2$ in T , $[a, b] \cup \{u\}$ is an interval of $K \cup \{u\}$.

An *R-tree* is called an R_i -*tree* if it contains a line from v pointing in direction i . Similarly, an R_{ij} -*tree* is an *R-tree* which contains lines from v pointing in direction i and j .

For a Steiner tree, an *interior component* is a connected component of the tree after removing all the boundary lines. Hwang¹⁰ proved that any interior component of a Steiner minimal tree can be transformed without increasing the length into one of the two types depicted in Fig. 3. For Type 1, all the Steiner vertices lie on one line and the other lines incident to the first line point alternatively in the opposite directions. For Type 2, the Steiner vertices lie on two lines, which form an *interior corner*, such that one of the lines has at most one Steiner vertex and the

Every line in T has at least one end on the boundary, and hence satisfies the first condition of the R -tree. The second condition holds trivially. For any terminal with $\text{deg}(v) = 1$, T is an R -tree for $(v, K \setminus \{v\})$.

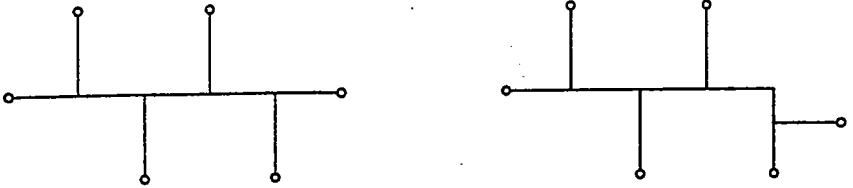


Fig. 3. The two types of interior components. The circles indicate nodes.

The following rules will be applied to break ties among the Steiner minimal trees. First, choose the Steiner minimal trees whose *node degree*, i.e., the total degree of the nodes in the tree, is maximal. Among the Steiner minimal trees with maximum node degree, choose those whose interior components only have the two types depicted in Fig. 3. We called a Steiner minimal tree satisfying the tie-breaking rules an *optimal Steiner tree*. An R -tree for an interval of K is said to be *optimal* if it is a subtree of an optimal Steiner tree for K . The length of an optimal R_i -tree or R_{ij} -tree for $(v, [a, b])$ will be denoted by $C_i(v, [a, b])$ or $B_{ij}(v, [a, b])$, respectively. In the following two lemmas we show that there is an optimal Steiner tree for which can be recursively decomposed into optimal R_i - and R_{ij} -trees for intervals of K .

Lemma 2: If there is an optimal R_i -tree for $(v, [a, b])$, then there is an optimal R -tree which is composed of a path p from v to u and an $R_{i'}$ -tree for $(u, [a, b] \setminus \{u\})$ with $u \in [a, b]$ or an $R_{i'j'}$ -tree for $(u', [a, b])$ with the line from u' to u pointing in direction i' . Path p consists of up to three interior lines and a sequence of consecutive boundary lines between the interior lines.

Proof: Let T be an optimal R_i -tree for $(v, [a, b])$. If $\text{deg}(v) \geq 2$, then it is already an R_{ij} -tree. Otherwise, let p be the path in T from v to the first vertex u with $u \in [a, b]$ or $\text{deg}(u) \geq 3$. If $u \in [a, b]$, then $T \setminus p$ obviously satisfies the conditions of the R -tree and hence is an $R_{i'}$ -tree for $(u, [a, b] \setminus \{u\})$. If $\text{deg}(u) \geq 3$, we distinguish between two cases: (1) the last segment of p is an entire line of T , (2) it is a part of an interior corner. In the first case every line in $T \setminus p$ has a node. If u lies on an interior corner, let u' be the bending point of the corner. Then $T \setminus p$ is an optimal $R_{i'j'}$ -tree for $(u', [a, b])$, and it contains a line from u through u' if $u \neq u'$. In the second case, let w be the bending point. The line between u and w in $T \setminus p$ does not contain any node. We *flip* the corner bending at w to a new corner bending at u' as depicted in Fig. 4. This operation does not change the length. It does not change the node degree either because w is not a node and T has the maximal node degree as an optimal R -tree. That means u' is not a node either. Since T is an optimal

R -tree, the resulting tree T' from T is a subtree of an optimal Steiner tree. Now $T' \setminus p$ has the same properties as the $T \setminus p$ in the first case, and hence an optimal $R_{i'j'}$ -tree for $(u', [a, b])$.

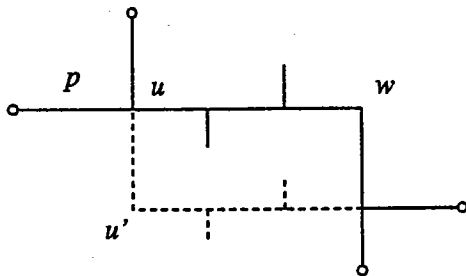


Fig. 4. Transform an optimal R -tree to another by flipping the corner.

Let u_1, \dots, u_m be the nodes on p excluding u and $p(u_1, u_m)$ the corresponding subpath of p . Further, let $P(u_1, u_m)$ be one of the two boundary parts between u_1 and u_m which does not contain terminals in $K \setminus [a, b]$. This assumption is made because $[a, b] \cup \{u_1, u_m\}$ is an interval of $K \cup \{u_1, u_m\}$ as required by the definition of the R -tree. If $P(u_1, u_m)$ contains any terminal, it belongs to T . Such a connection has to cross $p(u_1, u_m)$ because $p(u_1, u_m)$ separates the terminal from u . That contradicts the assumption that $p \setminus \{v, u\}$ does not contain Steiner vertices or terminals with $\deg(v) = 1$. That means $P(u_1, u_m)$ may only have non-convex corners. A convex corner always has a terminal. Therefore the shortest path $p(u_1, u_m)$ between u_1 and u_m is identical to $P(u_1, u_m)$. Finally, since every line in p except the one ending at u must contain a node, p can have at most three interior lines: one from u_1 , one from u_m and the third one ending at u .

Now we redefine $B(u, [a, b])$ to be the minimum length of the R_{ij} -tree for $(u', [a, b])$ which contains a line from u' to u in direction i or j . That is

$$B(u, [a, b]) = \min_{1 \leq i, j \leq 4} \left\{ \min_{u' \in \{i, j\}} \{B_{ij}(u', [a, b])\} \right\}$$

Further, $C(u, [a, b])$ is redefined to be the minimum of $C_i(u, [a, b])$ over $i \in \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$. Then we can use the right-hand side of Eq. (2) to compute $C_i(v, [a, b])$ under the constraint that the path from v to u has the property of Lemma 2 and contains segment points in direction i .

Lemma 3: An optimal R_{ij} -tree T for $(v, [a, b])$ can be split into an optimal R_i -tree for $(v, [a, x])$ and R_j -tree for $(v, [x, b])$. The separating terminal x can be determined by i, j and v .

Proof: Let $e_r = (v, u_r)$ with $1 \leq r \leq \text{deg}(v)$ be the edges in T incident to v . From v , one of these edges points in direction i and another in direction j . Lemma 1, the removal of these edges split T into $\text{deg}(v)$ subtrees $T(e_r, u_r)$ each connecting an interval of K . We can combine these intervals into two intervals I_i and I_j of K such that they are connected by two subtrees T_i and T_j containing the lines from v in directions i and j , respectively. It should be noted that v is not included in I_i or I_j . To satisfy the second condition of Definition 1 in case v is a terminal, we have to make sure that if $\text{deg}(v) \geq 2$ in any of the subtrees, say T_i , then $I_i \cup \{v\}$ is an interval of K . To see that the condition holds for any other node u with $\text{deg}(u) \geq 2$, just imagine it as a terminal and consider T_i and T_j as Steiner subtrees for $K \cup \{u\}$. Then the above argument can show that $I_i \cup \{u\}$ or $I_j \cup \{u\}$ is an interval of $K \cup \{u\}$. Every line in T_i and T_j is either a line from v or a line from u , which contains a node because T is an R -tree. That means T_i and T_j also satisfy the first condition of the R -tree. Therefore, the length of optimal R_{ij} -tree for $(v, [a, b])$ can be calculated by the following equation similar to Eq. (1).

$$B_{ij}(v, [a, b]) = \min_{a \neq x \in [a, b]} \{C_i(v, [a, x]) + C_j(v, [x, b])\}$$

Let y and z be the first nodes on the lines from v in directions i and j , respectively. Any R_{ij} -tree for $(v, [a, b])$ contains y and z . Furthermore, $[a, b] \cup \{y, z\}$ is an interval of $K \cup \{y, z\}$ by Definition 1. Therefore, there is an interval $[y, z] \subseteq K \cup \{y, z\}$ that does not contain any terminals in $K \setminus [a, b]$. The lines from v to y and z completely separate the terminals in $[y, z]$ from those in $[a, b] \setminus [y, z]$ (cf. Fig. 5). Only the terminals in $[y, z]$ determine the subtree that spans them and v . This means the separating terminal x in the minimal R_{ij} -tree for $(v, [y, z])$ can be used to split the R_{ij} -tree for any $(v, [a, b])$ as long as $[y, z] \setminus [a, b] = \emptyset$ holds.

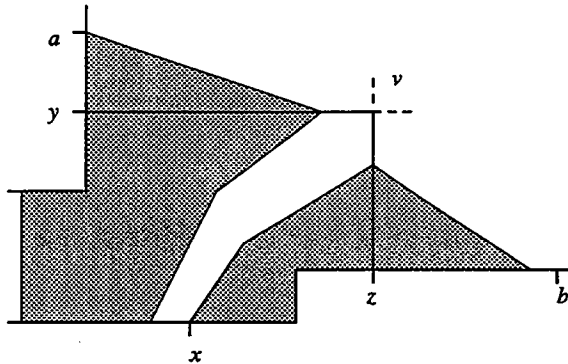


Fig. 5. An optimal R_{ij} -tree for $(v, [a, b])$ and its separating terminal.

Nodes y and z in the above lemma may or may not be terminals in K . However, $[y, z]$ is an interval of $K \cup \{y, z\}$, which is called a *special* interval for vertex v . The

are up to ten special intervals for vertex v because the two lines emanating from v can form ten different angles: four of 90° , two of 180° and four of 270° . In the computation of B - and C -values we will also consider the special intervals.

4. Computation of the B - and C -Values

The computation of $B_{ij}(v, [a, b])$ and $C_i(v, [a, b])$ is carried out in the order of the interval size. The values for the same interval $[a, b]$, but for different choices of v , are computed in one step.

For the computation of $B_{ij}(v, [a, b])$, we distinguish between two cases: (1) $[a, b]$ is a special interval of v , and (2) it is not. In the first case, we have to consider all possible terminals in $[a, b]$ to find the separating terminal x which minimizes the sum $C_i(v, [a, x]) + C_j(v, [x, b])$. It takes $O(k)$ time for every $(v, [a, b])$ in this case. Since there are $O(n)$ choices of v and each of them has $O(1)$ special intervals, the entire computation for the first case takes $O(kn)$ time. In the second case, the separating terminal x is that of the corresponding special interval. The calculation of the B_{ij} -value for a non-special interval $[a, b]$ and a vertex v is completed in $O(1)$ time. The number of vertices v is $O(\min\{k^2, n\})$, and the number of intervals $[a, b]$ is $O(k^2)$. Therefore, the time for the computation of all B_{ij} values is $O(\min\{k^4, k^2n\})$.

Following an idea proposed by Erickson *et al.*,⁶ the computation of $B(u, [a, b])$ for one interval $[a, b]$ and all vertices $u \in V_K$ can be considered as a problem of finding all single-source shortest paths. For each direction i , create a directed graph G'_K from G_K by deleting all grid edges perpendicular to direction i , giving the remaining edges direction i , and then adding a source s , from which there is an arc to each vertex $u \in V$. The cost of the arc from s to u is the minimum of $B_{ij}(u, [a, b])$ over $1 \leq j \leq 4$; the cost of any other arc in G'_K is an acyclic graph, the shortest paths from s to all u can be found in time linear to the number of edges and vertices in G_K , which is $O(\min\{k^2, n\})$. The length of the shortest path from s to u represents the minimum of $B_{ij}(u, [a, b])$ over $1 \leq j \leq 4$ and $u' \in V$ in direction i . The value $B(u, [a, b])$ can be determined by running a shortest path algorithm is performed for all four directions.

Similarly, $C_i(v, [a, b])$ can be computed from $B(u, [a, b])$ in four iterations. For each interior line or the sequence of boundary lines in the path from v to u , in each iteration four different directions are computed separately as discussed above. For the sequence of boundary lines, only boundary lines appear in G'_K . In each iteration, separate directions are considered: clockwise and counterclockwise. For each iteration, the cost of the arc from s to u is $B(u, [a, b])$; for any of the other iterations, the cost is the shortest length from s to u from the last iteration. Therefore, the total running time for C_i is $O(\min\{k^4, k^2n\})$.

Lemma 4: If all terminals are located on the boundary of a grid graph without holes, then the problem of finding a Steiner minimal tree in the graph can be solved in time $O(\min\{k^4, k^2n\})$ and space $O(\min\{k^4, k^2n\})$.

5. Homotopic Planar Routing of Multi-Terminal Nets

In this section we apply the above described Steiner tree algorithm to construct minimum-length interconnections for a collection of terminal sets in a grid graph. In this case, the grid graph may contain holes, i.e., finite faces enclosed by more than four grid edges. Terminals are located on the boundary of the graph as well as on those of the holes. The interconnection topology for each terminal set is given. This problem is called *homotopic routing*. In the homotopic planar routing interconnections for different terminal sets must be vertex-disjoint (routing on one layer). Homotopic routing can handle different types of routing areas, even areas containing holes, while other routing methods only deal with very restricted routing areas such as channels and hence require partitioning of routing areas and interconnections. Therefore, homotopic routing has found more and more applications in VLSI layout design.^{4,13}

The first algorithms for homotopic planar routing were proposed by Cole–Siegel⁴ and Leiserson–Maley.¹² Maley¹⁴ later established a general theory on homotopic planar routing. However, these algorithms can only deal with the case of 2-terminal nets. An idea of splitting each multi-terminal nets into a ring of 2-terminal nets was put forward in Ref. 12 and detailed in Ref. 8. In this section we propose a routing algorithm which constructs minimum-length solutions for multi-terminal nets by means of Steiner minimal trees. We first employ the results of Ref. 8 and Ref. 12 to divide the routing area into a set of disjoint subregions where the interconnections for individual nets are to be accommodated. We show that the underlined grid graph in each subregion is connected and contains a Steiner minimal tree for the corresponding net. The grid graph does not contain any holes and all terminals lie on its boundary. Therefore, our Steiner tree algorithm can be applied to find a minimum-length connection for each multi-terminal net.

5.1. Definitions and previous results

The problem of homotopic planar routing is given by a *sketch* $S = (M, W)$ which consists of a set M of rectilinear polygons, called *modules*, and a set W of *nets* that interconnect *terminals* on module boundaries. Modules are placed on a rectilinear grid so that module boundaries are aligned with grid edges and terminals are located on grid vertices. The grid graph $G = (V, E)$ formed by grid vertices and edges which are not covered by the modules is called the *routing graph* of the sketch. The goal is to construct a detailed routing for S , which is a set of vertex-disjoint Steiner trees for the input nets. To describe the net topology, each k -terminal net is represented by a set of k curves (called *subnets*) which form a simple ring by intersecting the k terminals (cf. Fig. 6(a)). Except for the terminals, this ring may not cross o

enclose any modules. The subnets are two-terminal nets, and have half of the original net. Any other representations (including trees) for multi-terminal nets can be transformed to a ring of two-terminal nets by slicing the centerline.

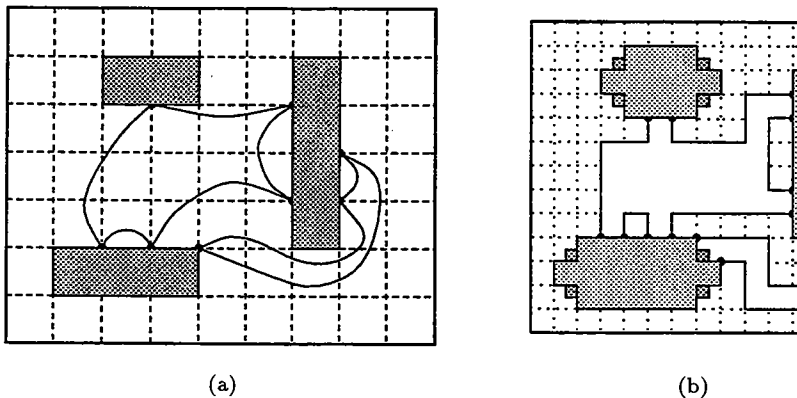


Fig. 6. (a) A sketch S that contains multi-terminal nets. (b) A detailed routing in the sketch S' . Grid edges in envelopes are omitted.

A sketch is *routable* if there is a detailed routing for it. The route is determined by a so-called cut condition. A *cut* X is an open-ended path that connects two module points and intersects no other modules. The *flow* of X is half the number of crossings of X by nets which are necessary to maintain the topology of the sketch. The *capacity* of X is the maximum of the number of horizontal and vertical grid lines which X crosses. A cut X is *saturated* if $\text{flow}(X) = \text{capacity}(X)$ and *oversaturated* if $\text{flow}(X) > \text{capacity}(X)$. It is proved in [14] that the routability is equivalent to the non-existence of oversaturated cuts. Based on the cut condition, Leiserson–Maley proposed an efficient algorithm for testing the routability. They also developed an algorithm to determine detailed routings for routable sketches. Let $|M|$ denote the number of terminals, $|W|$ the number of line segments that represent the net topology. We summarize their results in the following lemma.

Lemma 5: A sketch $S = (M, W)$ which contains two-terminal nets is routable if and only if there is no oversaturated cut. A detailed routing can be found in $O(|M||W| \log |M||W|)$ time and $O(|M||W|)$ space. The solution has the following properties:

- (i) Every net has the minimum length; and
- (ii) For every net segment, there is a saturated half cut that ends on it.

5.2. The routing algorithm for multi-terminal nets

To transform a problem instance with multi-terminal nets into one with two-terminal nets, we adopt the idea in Ref. 8. Every grid line l in the routing graph G of S is replaced by a pair of lines which is parallel to and $1/4$ unit away from the original l . At the same time, modules are stretched in all the four directions (left, right, up and down) by $1/4$ unit except for the convex corners, which are flipped to non-convex ones (cf. Fig. 6(b)). For every terminal t in G , we create two terminals 1 unit away from the origin t on the new module boundary, while a corner terminal is replaced by two terminals on the new, neighboring corners. Any k -terminal net which is represented by a ring of two-terminal nets in S , is split into k separate and intersection-free two-terminal nets. Let S' be the resulting sketch and G' its routing graph. The length of edges in G' is $1/2$ unit, while nets in S' also have half width. Therefore, S' can be considered as a sketch only containing two-terminal nets. The transformation preserves the routability: for each oversaturated cut in one sketch there is an oversaturated cut X' in the other sketch whose endpoints are next to those of X .

Now we can apply the results for two-terminal nets by Leiserson-Maley to test the routability and to find a detailed routing for S' if it is routable. In the solution the two-terminal nets which are subnets of a multi-terminal net, together with the edges on module boundaries, form a rectilinear polygon (cf. Fig. 6(b)). This polygon is called the *envelope* of the multi-terminal net. Envelopes of different multi-terminal nets are area-disjoint, i.e., the boundary segment of the envelope do not cross each other and no envelope encloses any other envelopes. This is because the routing algorithm for two-terminal nets does not change the topology of S' and it constructs vertex-disjoint paths. Each envelope encloses a subgraph of which will be used to find a Steiner tree for the corresponding net.

Lemma 6: Every envelope U encloses a connected part of G , which contains a Steiner minimal tree for the corresponding multi-terminal net.

Proof: Because U is a simple polygon, the only possibility that the enclosed part of G is not connected is that two parallel segments of U are next to each other and have different origins. According to Lemma 5, there is a saturated half cut X that crosses the both segments. It is not possible for a saturated cut to cross two segments of an envelope consecutively, while the two segments have different origins.

Let T be a Steiner minimal tree for the corresponding net. As mentioned before, T can also be considered as a ring of subnets which connect the terminals in the same order as the subnets of U does. The length of T is half of the total length of its subnets, because each edge of T is shared by two subnets. If T does not fit totally within U , then there is a subnet p of U crossing a subnet q of T . Since p and T have the same topology, there is an even number of crossings of p and q . If $n(u, v)$ ($a(u, v)$) denote the part of n (a) between two points u and v . We call $a(u, v)$

a *outer path* of T if u and v are two consecutive crossings of q by p , and outside of U in the immediate vicinity of u and v . Every outer path $q(u, v)$ can be replaced by a path of G which is $1/4$ unit away from $p(u, v)$. As T is transformed to a Steiner tree T' lying totally within U . The replacement does not increase the total length of the subnets length, because p is a short path according to Lemma 5. On the other hand, T' has the same property that every tree edge is shared by two subnets. This means the length of T' is also the total length of its subnets, and hence is not larger than that of T . Thus T' is a Steiner minimal tree lying totally within U .

Lemma 6 shows that finding minimum-length interconnections for a set of terminals can be treated as a set of separate instances of the Steiner tree problem. If the Steiner minimal tree is in a grid graph enclosed by the envelope of the net, and the terminals are located on the boundary of the graph. Since the envelope contains any modules, the grid graph does not have holes. Therefore, the algorithm described in the previous sections can be applied to Steiner minimal tree problem. It takes $O(k^2n)$ time for a k -terminal net in a grid graph with n terminals. For an input sketch $S(M, W)$, let $|K|$ denote the total number of terminals, and $|V|$ the number of the vertices in the routing graph $G = (V, E)$. Then Steiner tree algorithm can find minimum-length solutions for all the nets in $O(|K|^2|V|)$. The routing algorithm for a two-terminal net requires $O(|M||W| \log |M||V|)$ according to Lemma 5. $|M|$ is the total number of module corners and terminals, i.e., $|M| \geq |K|$, while $|W|$ can be expected to have the same order of $|V|$. The other steps can be carried out in $O(|V|)$ time.

Lemma 7: The problem of homotopic planar routing for multi-terminal net can be solved in $O(|M||W| \log |M||W| + |K|^2|V|)$. In the solution, the length of the net is minimized.

6. Conclusion

We have presented an algorithm for finding Steiner minimal trees in grid graphs. This algorithm can also handle non-convex boundaries, and is faster than previously known algorithms for this case. We also apply the algorithm to construct a collection of Steiner minimal trees for the homotopic routing problem. Our algorithm shows that any Steiner tree problem in grid graphs can be solved in polynomial time if the topology is given.

For the case that the boundary of a grid graph is convex, the algorithm of Richards and Salowe¹⁶ can be more efficient if the number of boundary sides is smaller than the number of terminals. An obvious open question is how to apply their techniques in the case of non-convex boundaries.

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