



University  
of Glasgow | School of  
Computing Science

Honours Individual Project Dissertation

# VISUALISING STEINER MINIMAL TREES

**Pieter van Tuijl**  
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# Abstract

The Steiner minimal tree (SMT) problem is a fundamental network optimization problem that has applications in road networks, circuit design, and telecommunications. Despite its theoretical importance and practical applications, there is a lack of visualisation tools since the problem's exponential nature has historically limited the feasibility and practicality of visualisation tools. This project aimed to develop a fast, accessible, and user-friendly web interface for computing and visualizing Euclidian and rectilinear Steiner minimal trees and comparing them with minimum spanning trees. The application leverages WebAssembly to run the GeoSteiner algorithm directly in the browser at near-native speeds, while providing an intuitive interface for graph creation, manipulation, and analysis. The visualisation tool can compute and visualize trees for graphs of up to 200 terminals in under a second, and enables real-time observation of how the Steiner ratio changes as graphs are modified. This work represents the first successful open-source compilation of the GeoSteiner implementation to WebAssembly and the first publicly available visualisation tool for the Steiner minimal tree problem, making the GeoSteiner algorithm more accessible across different programming languages and platforms, and providing researchers with a tool to explore the Steiner minimal tree problem and its properties, such as the Steiner ratio.

The web application is available at <https://steinertree.com> and the source code is available at <https://github.com/pietert2000/visual-steiner>.

# Acknowledgements

I want to thank my supervisor, Dr Yiannis Giannakopoulos, for his infectious enthusiasm and support throughout this project, often going well beyond what could be reasonably expected. This work would not have been possible without the synergy between his expertise and my passion for the project.

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# 1 | Introduction

## 1.1 Designing minimal networks

### 1.1.1 Minimum spanning tree vs Steiner minimal tree

Imagine you are an engineer tasked with designing a network of roads connecting a set of cities. At most two roads may meet in a city and all cities must be connected with the least amount of total distance. This is a classic problem in graph theory, and the solution is known as the minimum spanning tree (abbreviated as MST). There exists well-established and fast algorithms for finding the MST of a set of points.

Now, imagine that a new constraint is added to the problem. Junctions (where three or more roads meet) are allowed, provided that they are built outside the cities. You are allowed to use as many such junctions as needed, as long as the total distance of the road network is minimal. The solution to this problem is known as the Steiner minimal tree (abbreviated as SMT) (Melzak 1961). In a nutshell, the Steiner minimal tree achieves a total length that is  $\leq$  than the length of the MST, by adding extra points called Steiner points. It is worth noting that besides roads and telecommunication networks, the Steiner problem has applications in other fields, such as wire routing on printed circuit boards.

### 1.1.2 Steiner minimal tree problem is NP-hard

Though the constraint or the description of the SMT problem is easy to state and understand, it is hard to find the optimal solution. Since the late 1960s, effort has been put into finding an efficient algorithm for computing the SMT, but in contrast to the MST problem, no polynomial time algorithm has been found so far. The fastest and best known algorithm for the SMT problem runs in exponential time (Winter and Zachariasen 1997).

### 1.1.3 Lack of great visualisation tools

Historically, the exponential nature of the SMT problem has imposed serious limits on the instance sizes that can be solved on an average computer, thus limiting the practicality and usefulness of visualisation tools for this problem.

Still, the SMT problem serves as a good example of the power of Moore's Law. The exponential growth in the processing power of computers over the last decades has been followed by similar increases in the size of instances that can be solved in a reasonable amount of time, despite the exponential nature of the problem (Juhl et al. 2018). However, the available tools for visualising the SMT are still limited in functionality, not easily accessible, and often lack an intuitive, user-friendly interface. This project aims to fill that gap.

## 1.2 Project aims and requirements

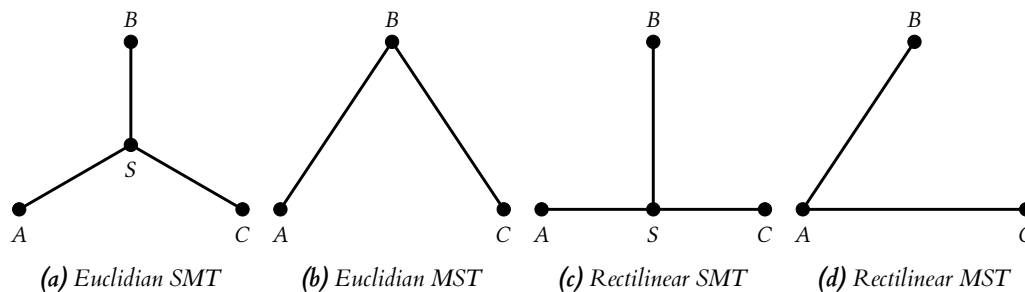
This section provides a summary of the project's aims and requirements. Please refer to section 3 for a detailed discussion of the requirements.



**Aims** The aim of this project is to develop a fast, accessible, and user-friendly interface that allows anyone to compute and visualise the Steiner minimal tree solution for arbitrary instance sizes and optionally compare it with the minimum spanning tree solution.

**Requirements** Specifically, the application shall take a set of points as input, which can be generated randomly, or imported using a range of established file formats, and provide the user with the ability to visualise, compare, and analyse the SMT and MST solutions. Furthermore, the application should dynamically update the solutions when the user modifies the graph by adding, moving, or removing points. Lastly, the application will provide the user with different export options using both visual (e.g. .png, .jpg) and text-based formats (e.g. .gexf).

It is important to note that the Steiner tree and minimum spanning tree problems are defined for many different metric spaces, but in this project we will only consider the Euclidian and rectilinear (also known as the Manhattan or taxicab distance) variants. The interface will provide the user with the option to toggle between the two variants. Figure 1.1 shows the difference between the two variants for a 3-point example instance.



**Figure 1.1:** Comparison of the Euclidian and rectilinear MST and SMT solutions for a 3-point problem instance

Access the end product here

<https://steinertree.com>

### 1.3 Our contributions

### 1.4 Dissertation outline

This dissertation presents the development of a web-based visualisation tool for the rectilinear and Euclidian variants of the Steiner minimal tree and minimum spanning tree problems. It is structured as follows:

- **Chapter 2:** aims to equip the reader with all the required background information related to the Steiner tree problem in order to understand the problem and the purpose of the visualisation tool. First, the historical development is discussed, followed by the formal definitions of the Euclidian and rectilinear Steiner minimal tree problems and their properties, including the Steiner ratio. Next, exact algorithms for the Euclidian variant are discussed, such as Melzak's algorithm and the GeoSteiner algorithm, with the latter also being the fastest known exact algorithm for the Steiner minimal tree problem and the basis of the implementation of the visualisation tool. The chapter will end with an overview of existing visualisation tools for the Steiner tree problem and discuss their features and limitations.

- **Chapter 3:** expands the initial project aims into focused requirements, making distinction between the core requirements and the additional features. It provides the foundation for the design decisions made during the implementation.
- **Chapter 4:** gives an overview of the software design and implementation of the visualisation tool. It explains and justifies the design choices, such as the technology stack, the architecture of the application, and the chosen canvas library. This is followed by a section on the implementation of the algorithms, where focus is given to the GeoSteiner algorithm and how it was integrated into the application. Next, it mentions constraints around the state management of the graph, and how it was overcome. Various optimisations are discussed to for further improvements in the responsiveness of the application during the loading of large instances. The chapter finishes with a discussion on software quality and design aspects that were considered, so as to promote the extensibility and maintainability of the application.
- **Chapter 5:** demonstrates the visualisation tool and showcases the product features alongside a discussion on how they address the requirements as set out in chapter 3.
- **Chapter 6:** provides an analysis of the end product. The feasibility of the application is discussed and demonstrated and a comparison is made between the end product and the existing visualisation tools as listed in chapter 2. The chapter ends with a brief discussion on the potential implications of the end product and its use in other applications and research.
- **Chapter 7:** summarises the problem and the main contributions of the project. Future work is suggested for further improvements and extensions to the application.

**Note on the figures** All the graph figures in this dissertation were created by the author using Tikz.

## 2 | Background

### 2.1 Historical context

The Euclidean Steiner problem has a long history, with roots in the 17th century. The following section will provide a summary of the history as expertly given by Brazil et al. (2014).

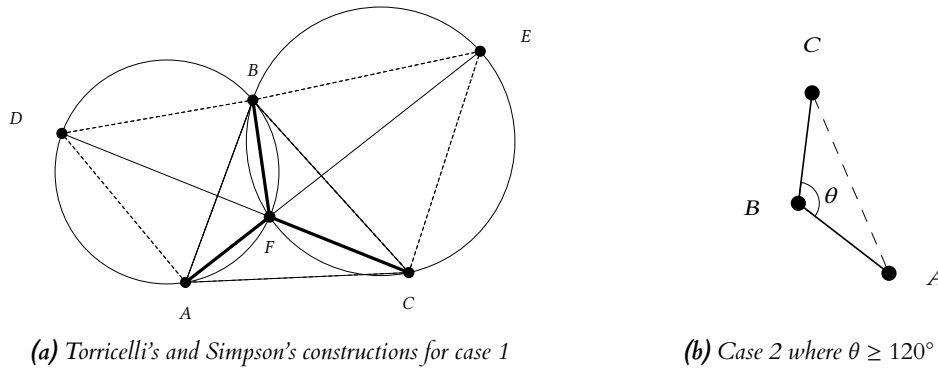
#### 2.1.1 Fermat-Torricelli (3-point) problem

In 1643, Fermat posed the problem of given three points, finding a fourth point such that when connecting the three points to the fourth point, the sum of the distances is minimal. This problem has two cases:

- All the interior angles of the triangle formed by the three points are  $\leq 120^\circ$
- One of the interior angles is  $\geq 120^\circ$

For the first case, Torricelli proposed the following construction. Given  $\triangle ABC$ , first draw the equilateral triangles  $\triangle ABD$  and  $\triangle BCE$ . Then, for each of these equilateral triangles, draw the circumcircle. The position where the two circles intersect is the point where the sum of the distances is minimal, the so-called *Torricelli point* (point  $F$  in Figure 2.1a). To borrow some terminology from Winter and Zachariasen (1997), we will call the 3rd point for each of the equilateral triangles an *equilateral point* denoted as  $e_{XY}$  where  $X$  and  $Y$  are the base points from which the equilateral triangle is constructed. So, in figure 2.1a,  $e_{AB} = D$  and  $e_{BC} = E$ .

For the second case, Cavalieri proved that the optimal position of the 4th point is just the point with the obtuse angle. (point  $B$  in Figure 2.1b)



**Figure 2.1:** Solutions to the two cases of Fermat's 3-point problem. 2.1a shows two Simpson lines,  $EA$  and  $DC$ , intersecting at the Torricelli point  $F$ .

### 2.1.2 Simpson lines

In 1750, Simpson discovered an alternative construction for the first case, where a straight line is drawn from each of the equilateral points to the opposite vertex. The intersection of these lines coincides with the Torricelli point. These "Simpson lines" are demonstrated in Figure 2.1a. Later, in 1834 Heinen proved that a Simpson line has the same length as the sum of the distances to the Torricelli point.

### 2.1.3 Generalising to $n$ points

The Fermat-Torricelli problem was later generalised to an  $n$ -point problem by Gergonne in 1811. Furthermore, Gergonne was also among the first to consider the case where more than one extra point is allowed. He further discovered that there can exist multiple local minimal solutions for the same set of points, and that all have to be constructed in order to find the global minimum. Lastly, he came up with an iterative, though incomplete, algorithm for finding a local minimum, given a full topology. We will further illustrate and discuss these concepts in 2.4.

Another contribution to the problem was made by Gauss in a letter to Schumacher in 1836. He considered the 4-point problem, and noted that using just one extra point does not result in a minimal tree (compare 2.2a with 2.2b) as in the case of the 3-point problem. He went on to illustrate the problem with the example of connecting German cities by railroad with minimal total length.

I have on occasion considered the rail- road connection between Harburg, Bremen, Hannover and Braunschweig, and I myself have thought that this problem would be an excellent prize problem for our students

The last sentence of the quote proved correct, because two attempts were later made by Bopp in 1879 and Hoffman in 1890 to come up with a solution. Bopp considered all full topologies and used the constructions developed by Gergonne and Simpson to find the Full Steiner Tree (FST) for each full topology (if it exists). Importantly, he generalised the problem to the  $n$ -point Steiner tree problem and enumerated properties of the Steiner trees, which were later rediscovered and proven by Gilbert and Pollak (1968).

### 2.1.4 20th-century contributions

Then, in 1934, two Czech mathematicians, Jarník and Kössler, proved several important properties of the Steiner tree, such as the degree property and the angle property (See 2.2.2). The latter two properties are still valid even if the problem is extended to higher dimensions.

**Street network problem** Choquet compares the Steiner tree problem to a network of cities connected by roads where there are no junctions available between the roads except outside the cities. (Another variant is the case where junctions are allowed inside the cities, which is the minimum spanning tree problem). A similar illustration was later used by Courant and Robbins (1941) in their influential book *What is Mathematics?*, in which they called the generalised Fermat-Torricelli problem the "street network problem". Interestingly, they incorrectly attributed the original Fermat-Torricelli problem to Jakob Steiner. As a consequence, the generalised Fermat-Torricelli problem (i.e. the street network problem) has since been known as the Steiner tree problem in the literature despite the fact that it is unclear whether Steiner ever considered this generalisation.

**Gilbert and Pollak's seminal paper** Finally, Gilbert and Pollak (1968) provided a comprehensive survey of the Steiner tree problem, and derived many of its properties that have since been the basis for much of the modern literature on the topic. (more on this in 2.2.2)

**Surging popularity in the sixties** From the sixties onwards, the Steiner tree problem has seen a surge in popularity, partly due to the development of formal algorithms for the related minimum spanning tree problem and partly due to the rise of real practical applications, such as minimum-length telephone networks and efficient routing in chips. The latter application was presciently predicted by Hanan (1966) in his paper on the rectilinear variant of the Steiner tree problem.

In this section we have discussed the historical context of the Steiner tree problem and how it has evolved over the centuries. The following section will deal with the formal definitions of the Euclidian and rectilinear Steiner minimal tree problems and lists some of their properties.

## 2.2 Euclidian Steiner Minimal Tree

### 2.2.1 Formal definition

The Euclidian Steiner minimal tree problem is concerned with finding the shortest tree that contains a set of vertices in the Euclidian plane.

More formally:

- Let  $N$  be a finite set of  $n$  points in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  (Euclidean plane)
- Let  $V$  be the set that contains all points in  $N$ . ( $V \supseteq N$ )
- Let  $S = V \setminus N$  be the set of additional points called *Steiner points* where  $|S| \geq 0$
- Let  $T = (V, E)$  be a tree that connects all points in  $V$  with exactly  $E = |V| - 1$  edges

Then, the Euclidian Steiner minimal tree problem seeks to find  $T$  such that  $\sum_{e \in E} |e|$  is minimised, where  $|e|$  is the Euclidean length of edge  $e \in E$  (Brazil et al. 2014).

### 2.2.2 Properties

Euclidian Steiner trees have specific properties, which are enumerated in the comprehensive paper by Gilbert and Pollak (1968). We list the ones important for our discussion below and refer the reader to the mentioned paper for other properties.

1. Angle property: every pair of lines meets at  $\theta \geq 120^\circ$ .
2. Degree property: every Steiner point has exactly 3 incident edges.
3. A Steiner tree with  $n$  terminals has at most  $s \leq n - 2$  Steiner points. Since a tree has  $n - 1$  edges, a Steiner tree with  $n$  terminals has at most  $2n - 3$  edges.
4. At most one relatively minimal tree exists for a given topology.
5. A Steiner minimal tree is a union of Full Steiner Trees (FSTs). And every non-full Steiner tree can be decomposed into a union of FSTs (see 2.2.2 for a definition of FSTs).

Next, we clarify the following terms, used across the literature and first defined by Gilbert and Pollak (1968):

- A topology is defined as the adjacency matrix which only specifies the connections between points (i.e. how points are interconnected). 2.2d displays three different topologies for the same set of points, where 2.2b and 2.2c share the same topology.
- A full topology has  $n - 2$  Steiner points. A Full Steiner Tree (FST) is the relatively minimal tree for a full topology, where the terminals are leaves and the Steiner points are internal nodes with degree 3.
- A relatively minimal tree (RMT) is the minimal tree for a given topology. All figures in 2.2 are RMTs except for 2.2b. A relatively minimal tree is obtained when small perturbations (displacements) of the Steiner points no longer result in a smaller tree.

- A Steiner tree (ST) is always a RMT, but the converse does not hold. For instance, 2.2a is a RMT but the angle  $\angle S_1 A_1 A_2 = \theta < 120^\circ$  and therefore does not satisfy the angle property.
- A Steiner minimal tree (SMT) is a Steiner tree and is minimal for all its vertices (i.e. terminals + Steiner points). In other words, the SMT is the minimal tree across all possible topologies for a given set of points. See Figure 2.2d for an example.

Given a topology, its Steiner tree (if it exists) can be seen as a local minimum. Only by enumerating all possible topologies and their corresponding Steiner trees can the global minimum (i.e. the SMT) be found. This concept forms the basis of the algorithms we will discuss in the algorithms section.

### 2.2.3 Steiner ratio

An ESMT without Steiner points is equivalent to the Euclidian minimum spanning tree (EMST). Formally, the EMST is defined as the network that connects a set of points  $N$ , such that the sum of the edge weights is minimal, where the edge weights are the Euclidean distances between the points.

SMTs are shorter or at worst equal in length to MSTs. The ratio between the length of the SMT and the MST has received much attention in the literature. Gilbert and Pollak (1968) famously conjectured that the lowest possible ratio is  $\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \approx 0.866025\dots$  for any set of points.

$$\text{Steiner ratio} = \frac{L_{ESMT}}{L_{EMST}} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$$

Du and Hwang (1992) submitted a proof for this conjecture which was later shown to contain a flaw which invalidated the proof (Innami et al. 2010). Hence, the Steiner ratio conjecture remains open to this day. Nevertheless, attempts have been made to find proofs where  $n$  is bounded. For example, Kirszenblat (2014) came up with a proof for the case where  $n \leq 8$ .

## 2.3 Rectilinear Steiner Minimal Tree

### 2.3.1 Formal definition

The Rectilinear Steiner Minimal Tree (RSMT) problem is similar to the ESMT problem in that by allowing extra Steiner points, it seeks to find the minimal tree for a given set of points, except that the rectilinear distance, also known as the Manhattan distance, is used. The rectilinear distance between two points  $p_1 = (x_1, y_1)$  and  $p_2 = (x_2, y_2)$  is defined as

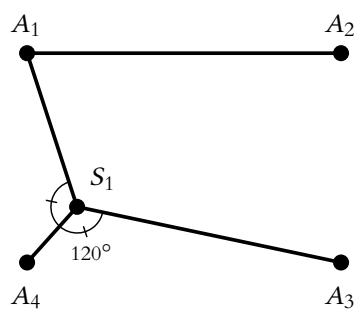
$$|x_1 - x_2| + |y_1 - y_2|.$$

### 2.3.2 Properties

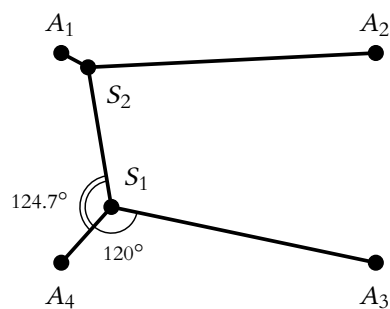
Marcus Brazil (2015) provides a list of properties of rectilinear Steiner trees including:

- Degree property: every Steiner point  $s$  has exactly 3 or 4 incident edges. A Steiner point of degree 3 is called a *T-point*, whilst a Steiner point of degree 4 is called a *cross*.
- Every edge has at most 1 horizontal and 1 vertical segment. An edge with exactly 1 horizontal and 1 vertical component is called a *bent edge* whilst an edge with only 1 horizontal component or 1 vertical component is called a *straight edge*.
- If  $s$  is a T-point, at most one of its incident edges is a bent edge. If  $s$  is a cross, then all of its incident edges are straight edges.

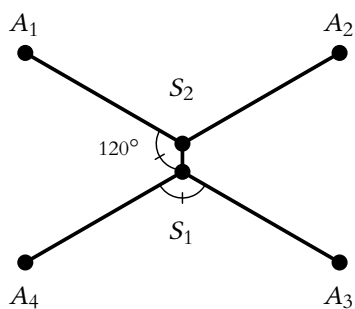
Some properties apply to both the ESMT and RSMT, such as the max number of Steiner points and edges in a Steiner tree (property 3).



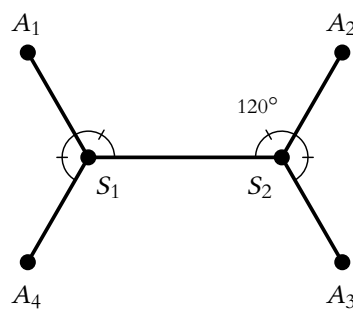
(a) Relatively minimal tree for its topology



(b) Splitting at  $A_1$  to add a Steiner point



(c) Steiner tree obtained from 2.2b by perturbing  $S_2$  until tree length is minimal for its topology



(d) Steiner minimal tree for all its vertices

**Figure 2.2:** Figures above illustrate how adding and perturbing Steiner points results in increasingly smaller trees. The sub figures a...d are ordered in descending order of tree length. It further shows how the minimal tree for a given topology is not necessarily a Steiner tree, and that a Steiner tree, though minimal for its topology, is not necessarily minimal for all its vertices. b, c, and d are examples of full topologies since they have  $n - 2$  Steiner points.

### 2.3.3 Steiner ratio

As before, a RSMT without Steiner points is equivalent to a rectilinear minimum spanning tree (RMST). The definition of the RMST is similar to the definition of the ESMT in 2.2.3 except that the rectilinear metric is used.

The Steiner ratio in the rectilinear case is the smallest ratio between the length of the RSMT and the RMST. It has been proven to be exactly  $2/3$  Marcus Brazil (2015).

$$\text{Steiner ratio} = \frac{L_{RSMT}}{L_{RMST}} = \frac{2}{3}$$

In other words, the rectilinear minimum spanning tree is at most 1.5 times the length of the rectilinear Steiner minimal tree.

## 2.4 Steiner tree algorithms

The Steiner tree problem is easy to understand but hard to solve (Marcus Brazil 2015). Garey et al. (1977) proved that the Euclidian and Rectilinear variants of the Steiner tree problem are NP-hard. This means that there exist no polynomial-time exact algorithms for these problems (unless  $P = NP$ ). Although approximation schemes can be used to find near-optimal solutions in a reasonable amount of time, in this project, we have chosen to use exact algorithms in order to demonstrate, that despite the theoretical hardness of the problem, the actual performance in practise is suprisingly good on modern hardware.

This section will discuss two well-known exact algorithms for the Steiner tree problem:

- The Melzak algorithm Melzak (1961) which is largely based on the iterative algorithm by Gergonne (Brazil et al. 2014) (see 2.1.3). This algorithm is essentially a brute-force approach and is therefore not practical for large instances.
- The GeoSteiner algorithm developed by Winter and Zachariasen (1997). This algorithm incorporates many ideas from the Melzak algorithm, but it is much faster and efficient due to utilising the geometric properties of Steiner trees for pruning the search space, efficient data structures, and other clever optimisations. In fact, this algorithm has been the fastest exact algorithm for decades.

**Note:** The software implementation of this project uses the GeoSteiner algorithm, but the actual implementation is not discussed until section 4.

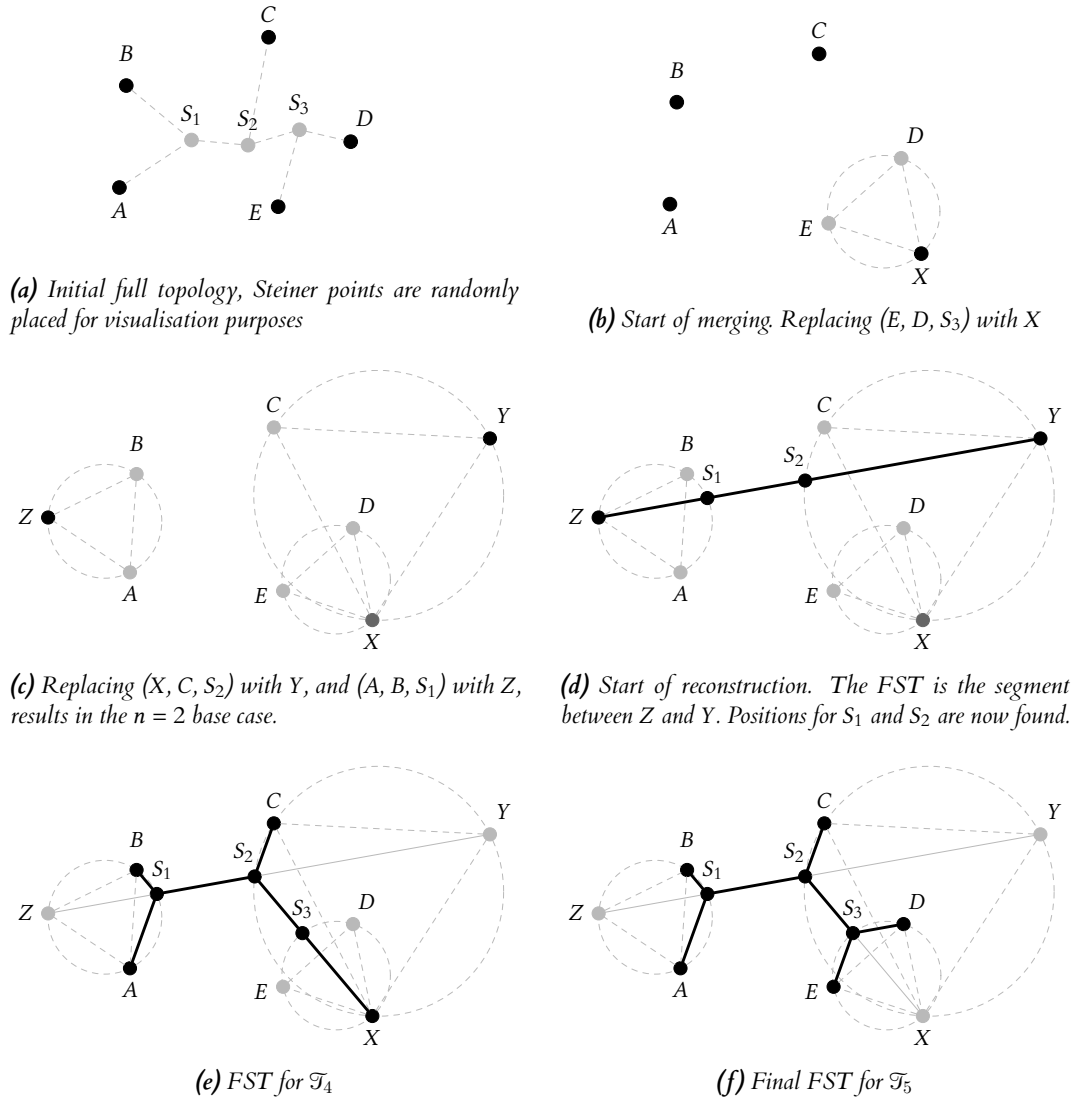
**Why Melzak's algorithm is discussed** Melzak's algorithm helps to understand the Steiner tree problem, its properties, and its exponential complexity. Its ideas also form the building blocks of the GeoSteiner algorithm and understanding it is a good starting point for understanding how GeoSteiner works. Moreover, it has been found that literature is sparse on clear visualisations of the algorithm for instances with  $n > 3$ . One contribution of this project is to provide a practical illustrated example of the mechanics of the algorithm for an instance with  $n = 5$  (see figure 2.3).

### 2.4.1 The Melzak algorithm

The Melzak algorithm takes a full topology as input and finds the Full Steiner Tree (FST) if it exists. As stated in 2.2.2, an FST is defined as a Steiner tree with  $n$  terminals and  $n - 2$  Steiner points, where terminals are leafs (degree 1) and Steiner points are internal nodes (degree 3).

**Formal definition** Before illustrating the algorithm with a practical example, we use the following definition from (Marcus Brazil 2015): Let  $\mathcal{T}_n$  be a full topology with  $n$  points and  $n - 2$  Steiner points. Let  $S_i$  be a Steiner point in  $\mathcal{T}_n$  which is adjacent (connected by an edge) to  $A$





**Figure 2.3:** The Melzak algorithm to find the FST for a full topology  $\mathcal{T}_5$  (with  $n = 5$ )

and  $B$ .  $\overline{AB}$  shall denote the segment between  $A$  and  $B$ . Let  $X$  be the 3rd (equilateral) point of the equilateral triangle  $\triangle ABX$ .

Assume that  $S_i$  is positioned on the opposite side of  $\overline{AB}$  to  $X$  and that it lies on the arc  $\widehat{AB}$  (Steiner arc) of the circumcircle of the equilateral triangle  $\triangle ABX$ , subtended by  $\overline{AB}$ . The Simpson segment starts at  $X$  and passes through  $S_i$  to some other point  $v$ . By definition, the length of the Simpson segment between  $X$  and  $S_i$  is  $|S_iA| + |S_iB|$ . Hence,  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $S_i$  can be replaced by  $X$  with a direct line segment to  $v$ , without increasing the tree length. This process of *merging* is repeated until the base case,  $\mathcal{T}_2$ , is reached.

Next, the FST can be *reconstructed* by backtracking the merging steps. Suppose the FST of  $\mathcal{T}_{n-1}$  is defined. This means that the location of  $v$  also will be known. There exists an FST for  $\mathcal{T}_n \iff$  there exists an FST for  $\mathcal{T}_{n-1}$  and the Simpson segment between  $v$  and  $X$  intersects the Steiner

arc  $\widehat{AB}$ .  $S_i$  is positioned at this point of intersection and the FST is constructed by deleting the Simpson segment and adding the edges  $AS_i$ ,  $BS_i$ , and  $VS_i$ .

**Illustrating with an example** The algorithm is visualised in figure 2.3. Figure 2.3a shows an instance of the full topology  $\mathcal{T}_5$  (with  $n = 5$ ). Please note that the Steiner points are randomly (and incorrectly) positioned, in order to visualise all the connections (topologies only encode connections, not positions).

First,  $E$ ,  $D$  and  $S_3$  are replaced by  $X$  which reduces the topology by 1 terminal and 1 Steiner point (figure 2.3b). It is not yet possible to draw a Simpson segment between  $X$  and  $S_2$  since the location of  $S_2$  is unknown. In the next iteration,  $C$ ,  $X$  and  $S_2$  are replaced by  $Y$  which reduces the topology to size  $n = 3$ . As the location of  $S_1$  is also yet unknown,  $A$ ,  $B$  and  $S_1$  are replaced by  $Z$ , which reduces the topology to the base case (figure 2.3c).

The FST is subsequently built up by backtracking the merging steps. By drawing a Simpson segment  $\overline{ZY}$ , the location of  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are found (figure 2.3d), after which  $\overline{ZY}$  is deleted and the edges  $AS_1$ ,  $BS_1$ ,  $S_1S_2$ ,  $CS_2$ , with the Simpson segment  $\overline{XS_2}$  are added (figure 2.3e). Subsequently, the position of  $S_3$  is the intersection between  $\overline{XS_2}$  and the Steiner arc  $\widehat{ED}$ . Finally,  $\overline{XS_2}$  is deleted and the edges  $S_2S_4$ ,  $ES_3$ , and  $DS_3$  are added (figure 2.3f).

### 2.4.2 Complexity analysis for Melzak's algorithm

In figure 2.3, we have chosen specific sides for the equilateral points  $X = e_{DE}$ ,  $Y = e_{CX}$ , and  $Z = e_{AB}$ . The original Melzak algorithm, however, accounts for the fact that each equilateral point  $e_{xy}$  can be placed on either side of the segment  $\overline{xy}$ . Hence, the algorithm has a worst-case complexity of  $O(2^n)$ . An improved,  $O(n)$  version of the algorithm was proposed by Hwang (1986), which picks the correct side for each equilateral point  $e_{xy}$  in constant time.

In the example in figure 2.3, the final FST happens to also be the SMT. However, this is not always the case. From property 5 (see 2.2.2), it is known that the SMT is a union of FSTs, hence the SMT must be determined by enumerating all possible full topologies, applying the Melzak algorithm to each, and taking the union of the resulting FSTs such that the length of the resulting tree is minimal. Winter and Zachariasen (1997) state that the total number of full topologies for a set of  $n$  terminals is given by

$$F^*(n) = \sum_{k=2}^n \binom{n}{k} \frac{(2k-4)!}{2^{k-2}(k-2)!}$$

In short, it counts all full topologies for all subsets of  $n$  terminals. For completeness, a derivation of this formula is given in appendix A.

It is clear that  $F^*(n)$  grows rapidly with  $n$ . Due to the factorial in the numerator, it can be said to grow *super-exponentially* in  $k$  (i.e. faster than  $2^k$ ). To give an idea of the scale of  $F^*(n)$ ,  $F^*(5) = 50$ ,  $F^*(10) = 3,986,175$ , and  $F^*(20) = 3.93 \times 10^{20}$ .

Even though the fast GeoSteiner algorithm is not super-exponential, it is still exponential in the number of FSTs as we will see in the next section. This gives an indication that the exponentiality is not merely due to Melzak's algorithm, but inherent in the Steiner problem itself (Hwang and Richards 1992).

### 2.4.3 The GeoSteiner algorithm

The GeoSteiner algorithm has been the fastest algorithm for computing the exact Steiner minimal tree for multiple decades. It consists of the same two steps as the brute-force algorithm above.

1. Enumerate all FSTs (i.e. *FST generation*)

2. Find the subset of FSTs that form the SMT (i.e. *concatenation*).

However, instead of enumerating all possible full topologies for all subsets of  $n$  terminals, it only enumerates the equilateral points that are used in the construction of the FSTs (Winter and Zachariasen 1997). Equilateral points are often repeated across different full topologies of subsets, so this avoids large redundancies. Secondly, using clever *pruning tests*, many equilateral points are discarded at an early stage of the generation stage, further reducing the number of FSTs that need to be considered in the end. The reader is referred to Winter and Zachariasen (1997) for more details on these pruning tests. As a result of these two factors, the number of FSTs generated in the first stage is merely linear in  $n$ . It has been empirically shown that on average, the number of generated FSTs is  $2.5n$  with only  $0.6n$  left after pruning (Juhl et al. 2018).

The process itself of generating and pruning is quadratic in  $n$ , but the last stage of concatenation is a major bottleneck. During concatenation, the algorithm has to check every possible subset of FSTs to see which one has the minimal length, which has exponential complexity in the number of FSTs. Hence, it is critical that as few FSTs as possible are generated in the first stage.

The discussion on the GeoSteiner algorithm above has so far assumed the Euclidian version of the problem. It is noteworthy, however, that the algorithm has been extended to the rectilinear case as well (Salowe and Warme 1995). It has been found for the rectilinear case that the generation phase is fast, but the concatenation phase is much slower compared to the Euclidian variant ((Juhl et al. 2018)).

## 2.5 Existing visualisation tools

The previous section discussed the foundational ideas from Melzak’s algorithm and the features of the GeoSteiner algorithm. The following section will move on from the theoretical discussion and focus on the existing visualisation tools that were found during the research phase.

### 2.5.1 Steiner-Tree-Visualisation (STV)

STV is a Python-based GUI tool developed by Keydrain (2015). It provides a simple interface for visualising Euclidian MSTs and SMTs, displaying their lengths and allowing for direct comparison. However, the tool is limited by a few factors.

- First, a brute-force approximation algorithm is used to find the SMT, and despite the  $O(n^4 \log(n))$  complexity, the tool completely freezes for instances larger than 40 nodes.
- Additionally, the GUI is not flexible enough. For example, you cannot overlay the MST and SMT simultaneously and the canvas does not support zooming or resizing. It is also not possible to import a graph from an external file or export the results.
- Lastly, the tool only runs on Python 2.x and would require code patching to run in modern, Python 3.x environments.

### 2.5.2 ESteiner-3D (E3D)

E3D is another Python-based tool developed by Abd (2024). It is a program that can be used to find the Euclidian SMT of a graph and supports 2D and 3D graphs. However, use of the software is limited by the fact that no graphical nor command-line interface is provided. It also does not support the simultaneous visualisation of MSTs and SMTs and the visualisation of the Steiner ratio.

### 2.5.3 Steiner-Tree (ST)

ST is a Javascript-based tool developed by Dawkey (2019). It is a web page that can be used to find the Rectilinear SMT of a graph. Although the tool has a nice interface and uses an interactive

canvas, it does not support visualisation of the MST or SMT in the Euclidian plane. And even for the rectilinear case, it is only possible to place the nodes on grid lines instead of anywhere on the canvas. Importing coordinates from an external file is not possible and neither can the visualisation results be exported. Further, no visualisation of the Steiner ratio is provided and despite being a web app, it is not deployed publicly.

Overall, we have found that the existing tools are limited by a lack of smooth, user-friendly interfaces, visualisation options, flexible import/export capabilities, and platform independence.

## 3 | Requirements

The visualisation requirements given in this section are an expansion of the project aims laid out in the introduction. This section is important because:

- all design decisions and implementation choices discussed in the following chapters derive from these requirements.
- it demonstrates how the shortcomings of existing tools (as highlighted in section 2.5) are addressed and forms the basis for evaluation of the end product.

As earlier stated in the introduction, the project's aim was to develop a fast, accessible, user-friendly interface for visualising Steiner minimal trees and some of their properties. To satisfy this aim, the software must have the following **essential requirements**:

- E1 The software must feature a well-designed, clean, and intuitive user interface.
- E2 The software must support visualisation of the Steiner minimal tree (SMT) and the minimum spanning tree (MST), specifically the Euclidian and rectilinear variants.
- E3 Include a canvas for graph visualisation that supports zooming and panning, and can render large graphs.
- E4 The computation of the SMT and MST must be fast and snappy for instances of up to 200 nodes ( $< 1$  second).
- E5 The user can create a graph instance of any size, by importing from an external file, drawing on the canvas, or by generating a random instance.
- E6 The user can add, move, or remove nodes of an existing graph instance by direct manipulation of the canvas.
- E7 If the user updates a graph instance after the SMT and MST have been computed, both trees must be dynamically recalculated and reflected on the canvas.
- E8 The SMT and MST can be directly compared in terms of length (Steiner ratio) and tree structure.
- E9 The software must be deployed as a web app in order to be accessible and platform-independent.

In addition, the following **desirable requirements** have been identified:

- D1 The user can customise the appearance of the visualisation, such as the node size, edge thickness, and colors.
- D2 The results are exportable in useful formats, such as image (PNG, JPG) or text-based formats (GEXF).
- D3 The user can toggle the display of algorithm outputs.
- D4 The software must be modular and extensible, allowing for straightforward integration of other graph algorithms.

## 4 | Software design and implementation

This section serves as a guide to the implementation of the software.

- First, justification is given for the selected tech stack and design choices.
- Then, the application's big-picture architecture is discussed along with the codebase's structure.
- After that, the implementation of core features is discussed, with a focus on the integration with the GeoSteiner algorithms library.
- Lastly, aspects of the software design, such as modularity, type-safety, separation of concerns, extensibility, and immutability, are highlighted.

### 4.1 Technologies / Design choices

#### 4.1.1 Web vs native

The first implementation decision was to build a web app instead of a native app (see requirement E9 in section 3). Browsers are ubiquitous nowadays and provide a cross-platform way to run and distribute applications. Updates can easily be deployed without the need for users to install them manually. Further, differences between browser vendors have become less pronounced due to the development of standards and the rise of frameworks that abstract away the jarring differences.

#### 4.1.2 Tech stack

The web app is built using **Typescript**<sup>1</sup> (TS) as the main programming language, which is a statically-typed superset of Javascript (JS) that compiles to JS (Bierman et al. 2014). Type-safety makes the application more robust and easier to reason about. In addition, Typescript has a great developer experience (e.g. for refactoring and code completion). Empirical evidence suggests that it is effective at detecting bugs and improving code maintainability (Gao et al. 2017).

**React**<sup>2</sup> has been used for the core UI logic. React is a popular library for building interactive frontends and has a large ecosystem of component libraries. React code is declarative (i.e. you only define what the UI should look like, not how to achieve it) and therefore easier to reason about and maintain.

Other dependencies include:

- **Shadcn/ui**<sup>3</sup>: a React component library that provides a set of accessible components, such as buttons, inputs, dropdowns, color-pickers, etc.
- **Sigma.js**<sup>4</sup>: a popular canvas library for visualising graphs.
- **Graphology**<sup>5</sup>: a library that provides a graph data model, which is required by Sigma.js.

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<sup>1</sup><https://www.typescriptlang.org/>

<sup>2</sup><https://react.dev/>

<sup>3</sup><https://ui.shadcn.com/>

<sup>4</sup><https://sigmajs.org/>

<sup>5</sup><https://graphology.github.io/>

Library	Supported features							Quality metrics			
	TypeScript support	React support	Interactive	Large graphs	Dynamic updates	Customizable	Flexible data model	Comprehensive docs	Maintained	Size (kB)	Github stars
Vivagraph	✗	✗	✗	✗	✓	✓	✓	✗	✗	58.6	3.8k
Cytoscape.js	✗	✓	✓	✗	✓	✓	✗	✓	✓	406.5	10.3k
Sigma.js	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗	✓	89.2	11.5k

**Table 4.1:** Comparison of some popular Javascript graph rendering/drawing libraries.

### 4.1.3 Graph drawing library

As specified above, the app uses the open source library Sigma.js for graph drawing with Graphology as its graph data model. Table 4.1 shows how Sigma.js compares to other popular Javascript graph drawing libraries. Sigma.js was chosen because it ticked most of the boxes in terms of required features and quality metrics. Sigma.js is one of the most performant graph drawing libraries<sup>6</sup> because it uses WebGL instead of SVG or the HTML 2D Canvas for rendering. Besides, it makes use of a separate, lightweight and flexible data model (Graphology) for storing and manipulating graph data, which helps with keeping the views separate from the data manipulation logic. Lastly, it satisfies the essential requirement of supporting direct interaction with the graph through the canvas (see E6 in section 3) by exposing user-interaction events, such as the clicking or dragging of nodes.

### 4.1.4 WebAssembly + Emscripten

As this project uses the GeoSteiner C library for the computation of the Steiner minimal tree, it is necessary to use WebAssembly in order to run the algorithm in the browser. The browser cannot natively execute C code, but WebAssembly provides a way to run languages, other than JS, directly in the browser at near-native performance.

**WebAssembly** WebAssembly<sup>7</sup> (WASM) is a binary instruction format for a stack-based virtual machine that can be executed in the browser. It is designed to be a portable target for the compilation of languages, such as C and C++, into a compact binary format. Due to its compact format, executing WASM code is much faster than executing optimised JS code (Nyaga 2025). WASM is supported by most browsers, with the exception of Internet Explorer and Opera Mini<sup>8</sup>.

**Emscripten** Emscripten<sup>9</sup> is a compiler toolchain that can compile C and C++ code to WASM. It consists of a designated compiler frontend (emcc) and LLVM backend optimised for the generation of WASM binaries. The output from the Emscripten compiler is a .wasm file (module) and a .js file containing "glue code". This code serves as an interface between the WASM binary and the Javascript environment (Selvatici 2018). The frontend only needs to load the glue code, which in turn loads and instantiates the WASM module.

<sup>6</sup>[https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JGN9dejWjAk&ab\\_channel=DominikMaszczyk](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JGN9dejWjAk&ab_channel=DominikMaszczyk)

<sup>7</sup><https://webassembly.org/>

<sup>8</sup><https://caniuse.com/wasm>

<sup>9</sup><https://emscripten.org/>

**Communication between JS and WASM** In order for JS to call functions in the WASM module, the WASM module must explicitly export these functions (by default no functions from a compiled C/C++ library are exported). Moreover, it is not possible to pass complex data structures to a WASM function or return such data from it since WASM only supports 4 basic data types (i.e. 32/64 bit ints and floats). Instead, the shared contiguous memory space between JS and WASM can be used to pass pointers to memory locations that contain the data. The glue code provides special "views" of the same memory space. For instance, it can be viewed as an array of 64-bit floats or an array of 8-bit unsigned chars depending on the type of data that needs to be accessed or written. This avoids the need to manually handle different offsets and strides.

## 4.2 Software architecture

The application is developed as a client-only application, with no need for a backend API. Figure 4.1 shows the various high-level components of the application. The top-layer (i.e. the frontend) is divided into three main parts:

- The views part, which handles user interaction (controls) and the visual appearance
- The algorithms part, which handles the computation of the Minimum Spanning Tree (MST) and Steiner Minimal Tree (SMT) algorithms.
- The graph datastructure as a global state, which can be read and updated by the views and algorithms. The state containing the graph instance is immutable (see section 4.6.1).

Through the relevant UI controls, the user can modify the graph instance, either directly, by adding a new graph or by editing the existing one, or indirectly, by triggering the computation of an algorithm. In the latter case, the algorithm's output is merged with the existing graph datastructure. This is important because it keeps the graph instance immutable (see section 4.6.1). Updates to the graph datastructure are reflected in the the canvas component.

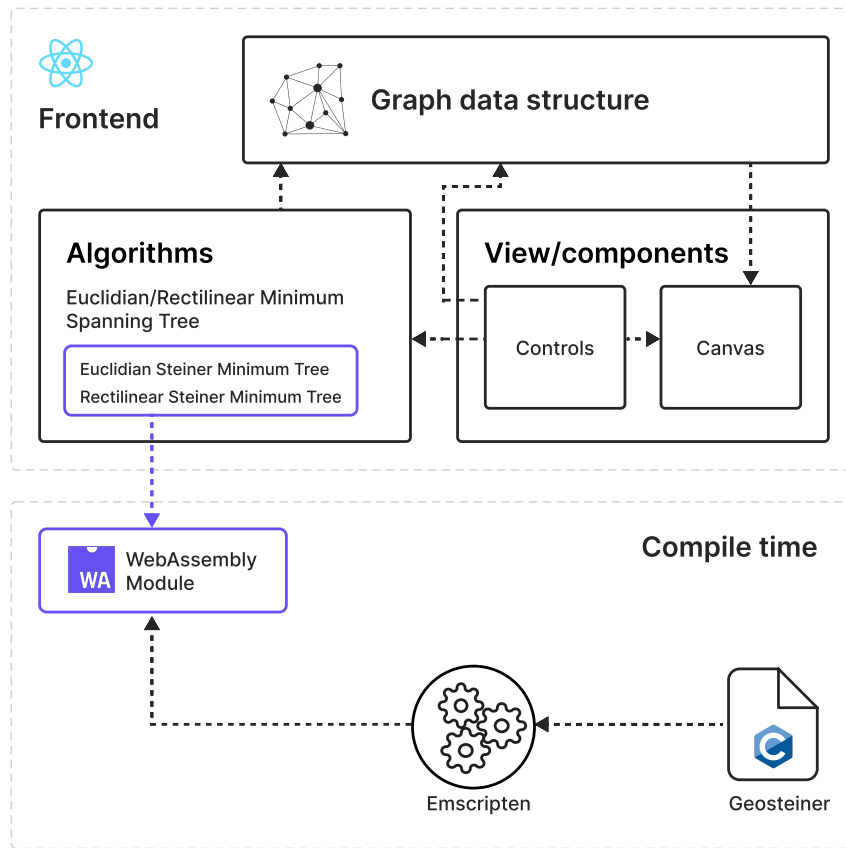
The lower layer contains the WebAssembly module that is compiled with Emscripten from the GeoSteiner C library. The WebAssembly module is dynamically imported by the frontend during runtime.

See appendix B for the organisation and code distribution of the codebase.

## 4.3 Algorithm implementations

This section briefly discusses which algorithms were implemented and how they were integrated into the application.



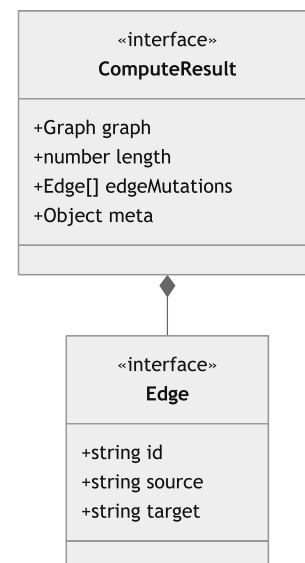


**Figure 4.1:** Architecture of the web application. It consists of the frontend (top layer) and the WebAssembly module (bottom layer) compiled with Emscripten from the GeoSteiner C library. The WASM module is loaded by the frontend at runtime. The flow of data and control is indicated by the arrows.

Each algorithm is implemented as an isolated, pure function that takes an undirected graph as input and returns a computation. Figure 4.2 specifies the interface of the computational output. Each algorithm returns a tree and its length. The list of edge mutations keeps track of all the edges that were added to the tree in order of insertion. Some algorithms, such as the ESMT and the RSMT also pass additional metadata, such as the list of Steiner node identifiers. By coding to an interface as opposed to a concrete implementation, algorithm implementations can be swapped out and new algorithms can be added easily.

The output from the algorithm is used to update the global graph datastructure by a *merge* operation. This is done by adding all the tree edges and nodes into the existing graph. If an edge or node already exists, its attributes are updated to indicate that it is part of the algorithm-generated tree. By keeping track of which edges/nodes are generated by which algorithm, we can toggle the visibility of each tree separately whilst still using the same graph instance (see section 4.5).

**Figure 4.2:** Interface of the algorithm computational output.



The following algorithms have been used:

- Prim's  $O(n^2)$  algorithm for Euclidean and Rectilinear Minimum Spanning Trees (using (Skiena 2008, pp. 194–195))
- The GeoSteiner algorithms for Euclidean and Rectilinear Steiner Minimal Trees.

Since Steiner minimal trees are the focus of this project, the details of Prim's algorithm are not discussed here. Section 4.4 discusses the integration of the GeoSteiner library in more detail.

## 4.4 GeoSteiner integration

This section is dedicated to explaining how the GeoSteiner library was integrated within the web application. This section is crucial, because to the author's knowledge, this integration is the first of its kind and it is expected to open doors for new levels of interest in the field of Steiner minimal trees. Due to WASM's portable format, it will now be possible to leverage the GeoSteiner algorithms in any language with WASM support, including Python<sup>10</sup>, Java<sup>11</sup>, server-side Javascript runtimes like Node.js<sup>12</sup>, and many more. Please refer to section 6 for more discussion on implications.

**Outline** This section consists of two parts:

- The first part will explain how the GeoSteiner library was modified and compiled into a WASM module using Emscripten.
- The second part will discuss the integration of the WASM module and the calling code in the frontend.

### 4.4.1 Compiling GeoSteiner to WASM

The GeoSteiner library consists of the main algorithm implementation and an optimised version of the linear solver, `lp_solve v2.3`<sup>13</sup>, that is used during the FST concatenation stage. In order to compile any library to WASM, it is necessary to also compile all its dependencies to WASM.

First, it was verified that the GeoSteiner library and the solver dependency would be portable to WASM using the portability guidelines in Emscripten (2025). Despite satisfying all requirements, several problems were encountered during the first compilation attempts.

**Floating point control register (fpcr) settings** Depending on the processor architecture, GeoSteiner uses different floating point control register settings. The two settings common across all architectures, however, were found to be:

- The rounding mode is set to "round to nearest"
- Floating-point exceptions for overflow, divide-by-zero, and invalid operations are trapped.

The rounding mode for the WASM virtual machine is set to "round to nearest" by default, so no special rounding mode settings were needed. However, floating point traps are not implemented in WASM (WebAssembly 2025). The GeoSteiner code relies on floating-point traps because most systems will generate and propagate NaNs during floating-point exceptions, which may compromise the numerical stability of the algorithm. At present, this feature is only supported on x86 and ARM64 architectures (Warme et al. 2022). Due to this limitation, the GeoSteiner code was modified to not rely on floating-point traps. This was achieved by using preprocessor directives for conditionally applying the floating-point traps. **TODO: Add a link to the modified code here.**

<sup>10</sup><https://github.com/wasmerio/wasmer-python>

<sup>11</sup><https://github.com/wasmerio/wasmer-java>

<sup>12</sup><https://nodejs.org/>

<sup>13</sup><https://sourceforge.net/projects/lpsolve/files/lpsolve/2.3/>

**Makefile modifications** The Geosteiner library ships with an autogenerated Makefile. The following changes were made to ensure compatibility with the Emscripten toolchain.

- A flag was set to create a static library instead of a dynamic, according to Emscripten’s recommendation for the best performance<sup>14</sup>.
- The build process was modified to use the *emcc* compiler frontend instead of the default GCC compiler.
- The normal compilation process depends on a locally installed version of the GNU libtool<sup>15</sup>. Libtool uses the *ar* and *ranlib* utilities for creating static libraries. Emscripten provides a custom version of these tools that is compatible with WASM, called *emar* and *emranlib* respectively. Unfortunately, it is not possible to use environment variables to set custom paths for the *ar* and *ranlib* utilities used by libtool. Therefore, direct changes to the local libtool installation had to be made.

With these changes, a WASM-compatible `libgeosteiner.a` static library archive file was created and used for the compilation of the WASM module.

**GeoSteiner facade** As mentioned in section 4.1.4, WASM-defined functions that are to be called from JS must be explicitly exported, which is done by adding their names to the `EXPORTED_FUNCTIONS` *emcc* compile flag. Since the complexity of interacting with the WASM module grows with the number of exported functions, it was decided to only export a **simplified API**, using the *facade*<sup>16</sup> design pattern. This facade handles all the underlying GeoSteiner-specific logic that is required for the computation of Steiner minimal trees but irrelevant for the frontend. The facade’s interface is shown in listing 4.1.

```
void calc_esmt(int n, double *terms, double *length, int *nsps, double *sps, int
               *nedges, int *edges);

void calc_rsmt(int n, double *terms, double *length, int *nsps, double *sps, int
               *nedges, int *edges);
```

*Listing 4.1: Wrapper functions for the Geosteiner library*

The facade functions make heavy use of pointers because arrays are non-primitive data types which cannot be directly passed to WASM functions. Instead, JS and WASM share a special, contiguous memory space that can be used to share complex data types such as arrays (see section 4.1.4). Data can be passed to the WASM module by allocating memory in the memory space and passing a pointer to the memory location to the WASM module. Due to this explicit memory management, ‘malloc’ and ‘free’ are also required to be exported besides the facade functions.

<sup>14</sup><https://emscripten.org/docs/compiling/Dynamic-Linking.html>

<sup>15</sup><https://www.gnu.org/software/libtool/>

<sup>16</sup>[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Facade\\_pattern](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Facade_pattern)

#### 4.4.2 Integrating the GeoSteiner WASM module with the frontend

The output from the WASM compilation process is a .wasm file and a .js file containing "glue code" (see section 4.1.4). The .js file is loaded like any other Javascript file, which completely hides the loading and setup process of the WASM module. It is worth noting that the Javascript environment is not aware of any functions that are defined in the WASM module. Therefore, the glue code provides a special *cwrap* function to make them available and callable from the Javascript environment. The *cwrap* function takes the name of the function to wrap, the return type, and the argument types.

As noted before, explicit memory management is needed for the passing and returning of non-primitive data. From the properties of the Steiner minimum tree (section 2.2.2 and 2.3.2) it is known that the maximum number of Steiner points is  $n-2$  and the maximum number of edges is  $2n-3$ . Using these constraints, memory is allocated for the Steiner points and edges and their pointers are passed to the facade functions.

### 4.5 Graph State Management

Besides the GeoSteiner integration, another core feature is how the graph state is managed. As mentioned in section 4.2 and justified in section 4.6.1, the graph instance is immutable, but its internal state is mutable. As each algorithm outputs a tree as a new graph instance, its nodes and edges must somehow be merged with the existing graph instance without losing track which nodes and edges belong to which algorithm. This section will describe the merging process and the optimisations that were used to make it efficient.

#### 4.5.1 Encoding multiple trees in one graph instance

The graph's internal state is a undirected graph, which is represented as a map of nodes and edges, mapped by their identifier (key). Each node and edge has a set of attributes that describe its properties. The main attributes are:

- *algorithm* -> *string*[]: list of algorithms for which the node or edge was part of the output tree.
- *isSteiner* -> *boolean*: indicates if the node is a Steiner node.

At most one edge can exist between any two nodes in an undirected graph. Edges can be queried for by their key or by the keys of the two nodes they connect.

The graph's internal state can be mutated through the following user interactions:

1. Adding, moving, or removing nodes (creating a new graph in the UI corresponds to removing all previous nodes and adding the new ones)
2. Triggering an algorithm's computation

1 is trivial. 2 is more complex and requires *merging* the algorithm's output tree (denoted as *source*) with the existing graph instance (denoted as *target*). The following cases must be considered:

- The *source* has an edge that already exists in the *target*. In this case, the edge attributes of the *source* are merged with the ones of the *target*. Specifically, the *algorithm* attribute is updated to include the algorithm that generated the source tree and the original key of the *target* edge is replaced with the *source* edge's key.
- The *source* has an edge that does not exist in the *target*. In this case, the edge is added to the *target* and its *algorithm* attribute is updated to include the algorithm that generated the source tree.
- The *source* has a node that already exists in the *target*. In this case, the *source* node's attributes are updated in a similar manner as case 1.
- The *source* has a node that does not exist in the *target*. In this case, the node is added to the *target* similar to case 2.

By keeping track which edges/nodes are part of which algorithm output tree, the visibility of each tree can be toggled separately in the UI while using the same graph instance (see requirements E8 and D3 in section 3).

#### 4.5.2 Optimisations

This section discusses several graph-state-related optimisations to improve the responsiveness of the application as per requirements E3 and E4 in section 3.

**Optimising canvas renders** It was observed that the initial implementation of the merging process described above was a major bottleneck. Our investigation revealed that this was due to how updates to the graph's internal state were handled. For each operation, such as updating node or edge attributes, graphology will trigger an event, which will cause a rerender of the entire graph on the canvas. This makes sense, except in the case of quick successive operations in loops. In the latter case, the browser will freeze due to the number of renders. An issue was raised in the Sigma.js GitHub repository<sup>17</sup>.

In the mean time, a workaround was developed that prevents events from being triggered for updates to node and edge attributes. Events will still get triggered for adding or removing nodes and edges in batches, but at least no more freezes were noticed.

**Edge optimisation** Another optimisation was eliminate unnecessary edges from the graph instance. The input to the MST algorithm is a complete graph with  $\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$  edges. Hence, the global graph instance was initially maintained as an complete graph by explicitly adding edges between all nodes. These edges were hidden from the user by setting a visibility attribute. For graphs of more than 300 nodes, however, rendering started to slow down significantly. It was discovered that the number of edges and their attributes were the culprit. Attributes, such as edge color and thickness, were duplicated across large numbers of edges. Moreover, the render function would still iterate over all edges, including the hidden ones.

<sup>17</sup><https://github.com/jacomyal/sigma.js/issues/1046>

To address this, redundant edge attributes were removed and the global graph instance was modified to only store the edges that are visible to the user at a given time. Consequently, the MST algorithm was modified to take sparse graphs as input and compute edge weights on the fly.

## 4.6 Software design aspects

This section discusses how best practises were applied to the software design of the application. Aspects such as immutability, separation of concerns, modularity, type safety, and extensibility will be discussed.

### 4.6.1 Immutability of the graph instance

As stated before in section 4.2, the state that contains the graph instance is immutable. In other words, the graph instance itself can be modified by adding or removing nodes and edges, but not the state that contains the graph instance (e.g. by creating a new graph instance). Even though this is generally not recommended in React (React.dev 2024), it is a constraint that arises from using Sigma.js with React (react sigma 2024). Yet, for our scenario, this approach has the following benefits:

- Sigma.js handles its own synchronisation of the view and the state instead of relying on the React framework. Consequently, only the canvas and not the whole application is rerendered when the graph's internal state changes. This is a major benefit as rerendering the canvas is significantly less expensive than rerendering the DOM.
- It guarantees that all parts of the application will always have a consistent view of the graph instance's internal state (since the reference of the graph instance is never changed). In React especially, inconsistent state due to batch updates can be a major source of bugs for applications with complex user interactions.

The only drawback is that components (other than the canvas) that depend on the graph's internal state are not automatically rerendered when the graph state changes. As a workaround, a publish/subscribe design pattern<sup>18</sup> has been implemented for the components that need to react to changes in the graph internal state.

### 4.6.2 Separation of concerns

To keep the application's code maintainable, readable, and testable, the code has been structured using well-defined boundaries. For example, there exists a clear separation between algorithm implementations, control logic, and the presentation logic (i.e. UI components). This makes it straightforward to test each part in isolation as well as to change implementations later on if needed. On

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<sup>18</sup>[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Publish-subscribe\\_pattern](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Publish-subscribe_pattern)

top of that, we make use of a React pattern, called "hook"s, which provides a way to separate UI and control logic. Hooks are written as normal functions that can be used to abstract and potentially reuse state-related logic across components. They can be "hooked" to a component to provide it with some defined state and functionality.

### 4.6.3 Modularity

The code for this project makes extensive use of modules. Each module is essentially a file that contains related functions, variables, and other resources. Modularity is further facilitated by the use of React, which is a component-based framework. Each React component can be viewed as a lego block that can be combined with other components to build a progressively complex system.

### 4.6.4 Type safety

The application is written in TypeScript for compile-time type safety. TypeScript facilitates the use of interfaces to define the structure of the data that is passed around the codebase. This makes it easier to reason about the code and see what is going on in a given part of the codebase. The reader is referred to section 4.1.2 for a more extensive discussion on TypeScript.

### 4.6.5 Extensibility

We are very well aware that the application has the potential to be extended with new algorithms and features, even becoming a general purpose tool for visualising and analysing graphs. From the beginning, the application therefore has been designed with extensibility in mind. An example is given in section 4.3 of how the application uses generic interfaces to abstract the algorithm implementations. Moreover, by using technologies such as WebAssembly, it is now also possible to extend the application with new algorithms in languages other than JavaScript. C, C++, and Rust are a few example of languages that can be compiled to WebAssembly.

## 4.7 Licensing

All software dependencies, except for the GeoSteiner library, are licensed with *permissive* open-source licenses, such as MIT, ISC, Apache 2, and BSD. These are non-restrictive licenses that only require attribution. In our case, this is satisfied by the use of a so-called *package.json* file, which specifies the location and version of each dependency. However, the GeoSteiner library is not distributed with a typical open-source license (CC BY-NC 4.0), neither is it available in package managers or a public repository such as GitHub. Instead, it can be downloaded from the website as a zip file. The license<sup>19</sup> states that technical modifications are allowed as long as the authors are attributed, indication of modification is

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<sup>19</sup><http://www.geosteiner.com/LICENSE>

provided, and a link to GeoSteiner's license is included. Section 2(a)(4) of the license also states that technical modifications do not constitute adapted material, which would require the use of a similar license if the modified version were to be distributed.

Attribution for the GeoSteiner library has been added both to the project's Github repository<sup>20</sup> and to the web application<sup>21</sup>.

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<sup>20</sup><https://github.com/pietert2000/visual-steiner>

<sup>21</sup><https://steinertree.com>

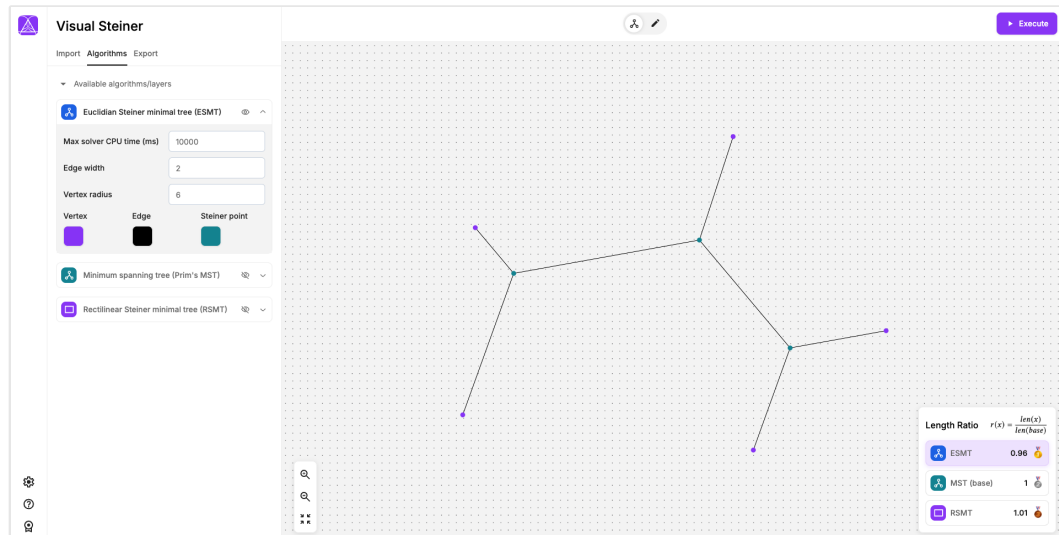


## 5 | Visualisation and product features

The core problem solved by the application<sup>1</sup> is visualising Steiner minimal trees and minimum spanning trees together. In this section, a high-level overview of the application's design is given, followed by a discussion of the design and interaction details of specific features, such as:

- Creating and editing graphs: this will discuss how graphs can be created by the user and how existing graphs can be edited directly in the canvas.
- Algorithmic visualisation: this will discuss how algorithmic results are visualised and how the user can customise these visualisations.
- Exporting results: this will discuss how the results can be exported from the application for use in other applications.

### 5.1 High-level design



*Figure 5.1: High-level design of the application.*

Figure 5.1 shows the application's design. It features a visual separation between the canvas and the controls (i.e. the sidebar), according to the architecture shown in figure 4.1. The canvas takes up the majority of the screen width since it is

<sup>1</sup><https://steinertree.com>

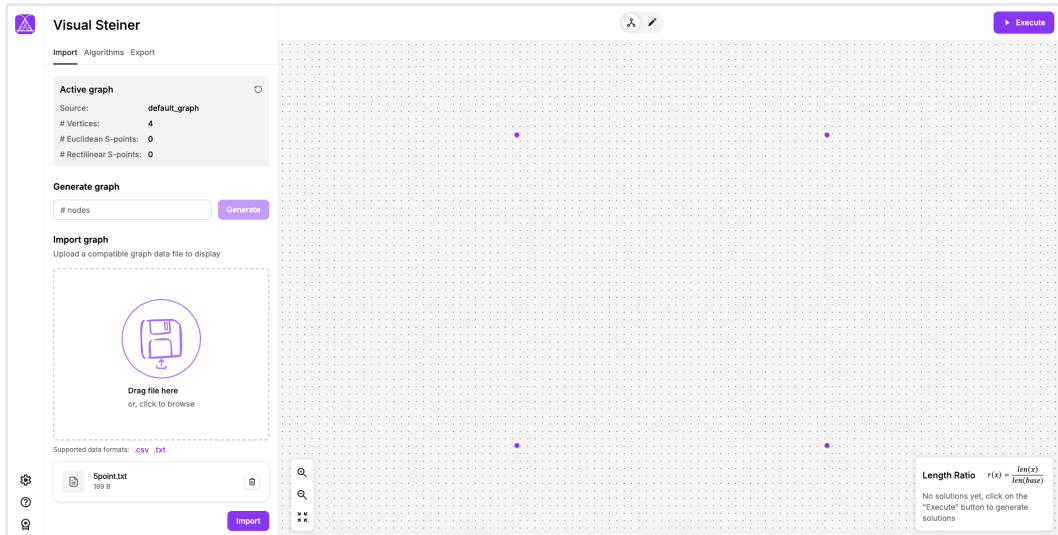
expected that most of the user's attention and time will be spent there. The "controls" on the left are partitioned into three sections:

- **Import:** This section displays information about the currently active graph and allows to the user to create a new graph, either by importing from a file or by generating a random graph with a specified number of terminals (see section 5.2).
- **Algorithms:** This section contains visualisation customisation options for output of the algorithms (see section ??).
- **Export:** This section allows the user to export the currently active graph instance for use in other applications. (see section 5.4)

As per requirement E1 (see section 3), focus is given to a clean and intuitive design. This is achieved by using a consistent constrastive color schema, incorporating white space, and using familiar icons to indicate the purpose of the controls. For example, the two buttons in the center-top of figure 5.1 indicate two "modes" of the canvas. As the right button has a pencil icon, which is commonly used for editing or drawing actions, it is clear that the other button must be for the "non-editing" mode.

Care has also been taken to ensure that the primary action is always visible and obvious to the user. For instance, the primary action in figure 5.1 is the *Execute* button on the top right. Clicking it will recompute the SMT and MST of the currently active graph and lead to the results being displayed on the canvas.

## 5.2 Creating and editing graphs



*Figure 5.2: Creating a graph instance by importing from a file or generating a random graph.*

As per requirements E5 and E6 (see section 3), flexibility is given to the user to create or edit graphs at any time in the same view. At the top of the import tab

section in the sidebar (figure 5.2), the currently active graph instance is displayed. The application comes with a default 4-point example graph selected by default.

### 5.2.1 Creating/importing graphs

Graphs can be created by importing from a file or by generating a random graph with a specified number of terminals. File formats, such as CSV and TXT, containing a list of 2D coordinates are supported. The user can also download an example file to get familiar with the format. Again, care has been taken to make sure the primary action is visible and obvious. In the example in figure 5.2, the *Import* button is highlighted as a file has been uploaded and is ready to be imported.

### 5.2.2 Editing graphs

The user can edit the active graph by toggling the *Edit* button in the header above the canvas, which will make the graph in the canvas editable. As all supported algorithms take a undirected, complete graph as input, there was no need for supporting edge drawing, so the available edit actions have been limited to adding, moving, and removing nodes.

## 5.3 Algorithmic visualisation

Being able to compare the trees of the MST and SMT algorithms is among the application's main features as per requirement E8 (see section 3). Hence, "layering" was naturally a core design aspect for the visualisation of the algorithmic results. Different layers can be toggled on and off independently and each layer can be customised with its own set of options (requirements D1 and D3 in 3).

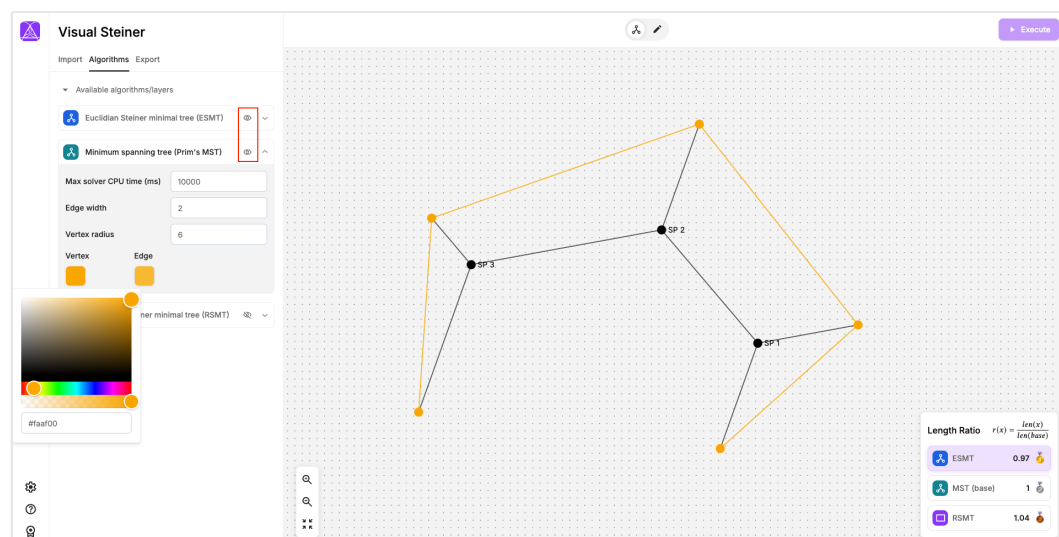


Figure 5.3: Algorithmic visualisation customisation options showcasing the "layering" approach.

### 5.3.1 Layering

Figure 5.3 shows an example of the algorithmic visualisation customisation options. Both the MST and SMT trees are visible but their styles can be customised independently. The yellow edges are the MST edges and the black edges belong to the SMT.

Sometimes, edges or nodes of the two trees overlap. In this case, the hierarchical order of the algorithm layers is used to determine which styles take precedence. In figure 5.3, the SMT layer is above the MST layer. The terminals are therefore painted with the color set in the SMT layer (in this case the color is the same for both layers).

### 5.3.2 Visualising the Steiner ratio

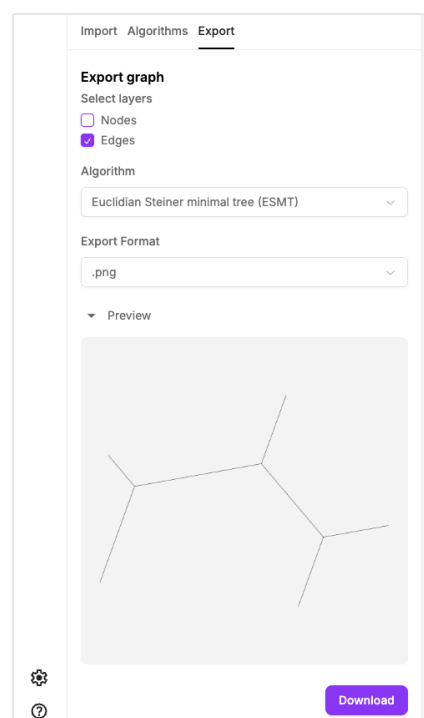
As a reminder, the Steiner Ratio is defined as the smallest ratio of the length of the Steiner minimal tree to the length of the minimum spanning tree. A canvas widget has been added (see bottom left of figure 5.3) to visualise the Steiner ratio of the currently active graph instance. This feature is useful to get an intuition (or potentially find counter-examples though this is unlikely) for the Steiner ratio conjecture given by Gilbert and Pollak (1968). By dynamically updating the tree and Steiner ratio when the user edits the graph, the user can quickly see how the Steiner ratio changes as the tree changes.

## 5.4 Exporting results

The application's usefulness is further enhanced by the ability to export the active graph instance for use in other applications. The export view, shown in figure 5.4, allows the user to export the currently active graph to either an image, like PNG or JPG, or text format, like GEXF<sup>2</sup>.

The image-based exports are useful for embedding the visualisation in other documents, while the text-based exports are useful for using the graph in other applications. GEXF has been the export format of choice due to its popularity and support for a wide range of applications.

When exporting to an image, it is possible to choose between the customised style set by the user or the default style which is inspired by how trees are typically visualised in literature. Further, each algorithm's output tree can be exported separately with the option to render only the edges or nodes or both.



<sup>2</sup><https://gexf.net/>

## 6 | Analysis of the results

As earlier stated in the introduction, the project’s aim was to develop a fast, accessible, user-friendly interface for visualising Steiner minimal trees and some of their properties. So far, only the design and implementation of the product have been discussed (see sections 4 and 5), but in this section, the product result is evaluated for its feasibility, how it compares to existing tools, and its potential implications.

### 6.1 Product feasibility

Requirements E4 and E9 (section 3) stated that product should be deployed as a web application and that it should be able to compute the Steiner minimal tree and minimum spanning tree of a graph in under 1 second for up to 200 terminals, in order to be easily accessible and fast. To meet these constraints, instead of building a native app, or using the standard client-server architecture, the product was designed as a client-only web application that runs the highly optimised, yet computationally expensive, GeoSteiner algorithm at near-native speeds directly in the client’s browser using WebAssembly. This section will demonstrate the feasibility of these design choices.

#### 6.1.1 Performance

By testing the product<sup>1</sup> with multiple random graphs of 200 terminals, it was found that the app was consistently able to compute and render the Steiner minimal tree and minimum spanning tree of a graph in under a second, meeting the initial design constraints. Naturally, exact timing will vary depending on the used hardware, but the constraint should be interpreted as a rough guideline, rather than a strict limit, and hence, no quantitative results are included here. Instead, the reader is encouraged to test the product for themselves. Moreover, it is expected that most use cases will be with graphs much smaller than 200 terminals (see section 6.3). Hence, for most use cases, the product will perform well even on less capable hardware.

The suprisingly fast performance of the GeoSteiner algorithms has also enabled dynamic tree recomputation when the user edits the graph, meeting the requirement E7 (section 3). This feature is only usable and responsive as long as the

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<sup>1</sup><https://steinertree.com>

computation happens fast enough, since long feedback loops will make the UI feel laggy.

### 6.1.2 Ease of access

By being a web application, the product is easily accessible from any device with a modern web browser, and no special tools, installations, or configurations are required. It is worth mentioning that the product’s UI has not been optimised for mobile screen sizes, as it is expected that most use cases will be on larger screens, such as laptops and desktops.

## 6.2 Comparison with existing tools

The previous section demonstrated the feasibility of our approach to meeting the performance and accessibility requirements. This section will discuss how the product compares to existing tools.

Section 2.5 listed existing tools and concluded that they lacked a smooth and user-friendly interface, visualisation options, flexible import/export capabilities, and platform independence. A summary of the comparison of features between our product and the existing tools is given in table 6.1. For a full discussion on the product requirements and features, the reader is referred to sections 3 and 5.

Req.	Feature	STV <sup>2</sup>	E3D <sup>3</sup>	ST <sup>4</sup>	Our product
E1	Well-designed, clean, and intuitive interface	✗	✗	✓	✓
E2	Support for the euclidean and rectilinear SMT and MST	✓	✗	✗	✓
E3	Canvas with large graph, zoom, and pan support	✗	✗	✗	✓
E4	Computation of 200 nodes < 1 sec	✗	✗	✗	✓
E5	Support for flexible graph creation options, including random generation and external files	✗	✗	✗	✓
E6	Graph can be manipulated on the canvas	✓	✗	✓	✓
E7	Dynamic tree updates	✓	✗	✓	✓
E8	Support for comparison of MST/SMT tree structure and length (Steiner Ratio)	✓(partial)	✗	✗	✓
E9	Deployed as public webapp	✗	✗	✗	✓
D1	Visualisation can be customised	✗	✗	✗	✓
D2	Export	✗	✗	✗	✓
D3	Toggeability of algorithms	✓(partial)	✗	✗	✓
D4	Modular and extensible software architecture	✗	–	✗	✓

**Table 6.1:** Feature comparison between the existing tools and the end product. See the requirements section 3 for more details.

## 6.3 Implications

In this section, the implications of the end result will be discussed. As shown in figure 4.1, the application is split into two main components, the GeoSteiner WASM module and the UI. Each of these components have their own set of implications which will be discussed in the following sections.

### 6.3.1 Wider use of the GeoSteiner WASM module

As mentioned in section 4.4, the GeoSteiner WASM module is a portable byte code representation of the GeoSteiner algorithms library implemented in C. Due to WASM's portability and highly efficient byte code organisation, it is now feasible to use the GeoSteiner algorithm in any language that supports WASM. In other words, integrating with the GeoSteiner algorithms just became a lot easier. This opens the door for usage of the GeoSteiner algorithms in other applications, such as network analysis libraries<sup>5</sup>. These libraries often rely on approximate algorithms as it is hard to implement an efficient version of an exact Steiner tree algorithm.

Moreover, as the GeoSteiner WASM module is entirely independent of the UI, it could be used in other (open source) graph visualisation tools, such as GeoGebra<sup>6</sup>.

### 6.3.2 Using the visualisation tool in research

The visualisation tool may also have several uses in research. First, its features will be useful for gaining a better intuition for the Steiner tree and its properties. For instance, our implementation can smoothly recompute the Steiner minimal tree in response to user input, such as adding, moving, or removing points. This enables the user to observe how the Steiner ratio changes as a function of the configuration of the terminals. It also opens up the possibility to verify potential counter-examples to the (Euclidean) Steiner ratio conjecture in real time.

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<sup>2</sup><https://github.com/Keydrain/Steiner-Tree-Visualisation>

<sup>3</sup><https://github.com/Kallel-Abd/ESteiner-3D>

<sup>4</sup><https://github.com/Dawkey/Steiner-Tree>

<sup>5</sup><https://networkx.org>

<sup>6</sup><https://www.geogebra.org/geometry>

## 7 | Conclusion

### 7.1 Summary of the problem

The Steiner minimal tree (SMT) problem and the minimum spanning tree (MST) problem belong to the class of network optimisation problems. The SMT problem is similar to the MST problem, but allows for the addition of Steiner points to further reduce the tree length. Despite being simple to state the SMT problem is NP-hard. Consequently, its associated exponential complexity has limited the feasibility and practicality of visualisation tools, in contrast to the MST problem which has efficient algorithms and plenty visualisation options. This lack has also limited the ability of researchers and students to build an intuition for the problem, particularly in investigating the Steiner ratio (still an open problem in the Euclidean but not in the rectilinear case), which is the smallest ratio of the length of the Steiner minimal tree to the length of the minimum spanning tree.

### 7.2 Summary of contributions

This dissertation presented the development of a web-based visualisation tool for the Euclidean and rectilinear variants of the Steiner minimal tree and minimum spanning tree, leveraging the fastest known algorithm for the SMT problem, GeoSteiner, and exploiting state-of-the-art techniques for optimal performance. The end result is a publicly available client-only web app<sup>1</sup> that can be run on any device with a modern web browser.

The **key contributions** of this work include:

- The first successful (open source) compilation of the GeoSteiner implementation to WebAssembly. With this, the GeoSteiner algorithm is now easily accessible to any programming language that supports WASM.
- The first publicly available online visualisation tool for the Steiner minimal tree and minimum spanning tree.
- A fast and interactive interface that allows the user to compute and visualise the Steiner minimal tree and minimum spanning tree of any graph instance and compare them in terms of structure and length. Despite the theoretical exponential complexity of the SMT problem, the tool is able to compute and display the results for graphs with up to 200 terminals in sub-second times.

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<sup>1</sup><https://steinertree.com>



- A dynamic tree-updating feature that enables the user to observe how the Steiner ratio changes in real time as the graph is edited.

The abstraction of the GeoSteiner implementation to a WebAssembly module makes integration into new programming languages and applications straightforward. This opens new possibilities and could lead to wider adoption of exact algorithms in place of approximations in open source network analysis libraries and other geometric computing or visualisation tools. Moreover, researchers could use the visualisation tool to explore the Steiner tree and its properties in a new and interactive way. In particular, the dynamic tree-updating feature has dramatically reduced the feedback loop for investigating potential counter-examples to the Steiner ratio conjecture.

## 7.3 Future work

This section discusses some potential future work for the GeoSteiner WASM module and the visualisation tool.

### 7.3.1 GeoSteiner WASM module

The GeoSteiner WASM module could be extracted into a separate package and distributed as a standalone library in the JavaScript ecosystem through NPM. This would make it easier to integrate it into other web-based application, such as GeoGebra. Additionally, different language bindings could be created for the GeoSteiner WASM module, and distributed as separate packages in the package manager of choice for each programming language.

### 7.3.2 Visualisation tool

The visualisation tool has the potential to be extended with new graph algorithms, and could serve as a general purpose tool for visualising and analysing graphs. In addition, several optimisations could be applied to even further improve the performance of the tool. For example, the computation of the algorithms could be moved to another WebWorker thread to avoid blocking the browser's main thread. The UI itself could also benefit from improvements, such as adding a responsive design for mobile devices, and canvas support for bent-edges which is especially relevant for the visualiation of the rectilinear Steiner minimal tree.

## A | Melzak algorithm complexity derivation

**TODO:** State where we got this from, why we included the derivation and what are our contributions

The derivation of the formula for the number of full topologies  $F^*(n)$  based on Property 7 in Gilbert and Pollak (1968) is given below.

Let  $f(s)$  be the number of full topologies for the case of  $s$  Steiner points. Let  $F(n, s)$  be the number of (non-full) topologies for the case of  $n$  terminals and  $s$  Steiner points.  $F(n, s)$  can be written in terms of  $f(s)$  as follows.

If we assume that Steiner points are unlabelled, there are  $\binom{n}{s+2}$  ways to choose the terminals from which the full topology will be constructed. For each chosen set of terminals, there are  $f(s)$  possible full topologies. Hence, there are a total of  $\binom{n}{s+2}f(s)$  possible full topologies.

There are still  $n - (s + 2)$  points left, though, which can be added to the currently full topology to make it non-full. A tree has  $n - 1$  edges, hence the current full topology has  $((s + 2) + s) - 1 = 2s + 1$  edges. The leftover points can be added by splitting existing edges into two, resulting in the net addition of 1 edge.

For the first leftover point, we have  $2s + 1$  possible edges to split, for the second  $2s + 2$ , and so on. This is repeated until the last leftover point is added, at which point our topology has  $n + s - 1$  edges. This can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} F(n, s) &= \binom{n}{s+2} f(s) (2s + 1)(2s + 2) \cdots (n + s - 2) \\ &= \binom{n}{s+2} f(s) \frac{(n + s - 2)!}{(2s)!} \end{aligned}$$

The formula for  $f(s)$  can be defined recursively as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} f(0) &= 1 \\ f(s + 1) &= (2s + 1)f(s) \end{aligned}$$

In other words, when all  $f(s)$  full topologies are found, adding one more Steiner point by the same edge-splitting technique to each of the  $f(s)$  topologies, results in  $(2s + 1)f(s)$  new topologies. This recurrence relation can be solved by using the double-factorial form for an odd integer  $n = 2k - 1$ , with  $k \geq 0$  (Wikipedia contributors 2025).

$$(2k - 1)!! = \frac{(2k)!}{2^k k!}$$

Rewriting  $f(s)$  in terms of the double-factorial, we get

$$f(s) = \frac{(2s)!}{2^s(s)!}$$

Finally,

$$\begin{aligned} F(n, s) &= \binom{n}{s+2} \frac{(2s)!}{2^s(s)!} \frac{(n+s-2)!}{(2s)!} \\ &= \binom{n}{s+2} \frac{(n+s-2)!}{2^s(s)!} \end{aligned}$$

In the case of the Melzak algorithm, only full topologies are considered. We therefore let  $n = k$  and  $s = k - 2$ , and rewrite  $F(n, s)$  to  $F(n)$ .

$$F(n) = \binom{n}{k} \frac{(2k-4)!}{2^{k-2}(k-2)!}$$

Since the full topologies are considered for all subsets of  $n$  terminals, starting from 2 terminals as the minimum, we arrive at the original expression.

$$F^*(n) = \sum_{k=2}^n \binom{n}{k} \frac{(2k-4)!}{2^{k-2}(k-2)!}$$

## B | Codebase structure

Asset	Type	Description	LOC
src/components/*	React	Collection of reusable React components based on Shadcn/UI.	1030
src/features/*	React	Features are independent modules that have a specific scope and their own set of components, hooks, types, and tests. Features include the canvas, and the sidebar.	2210
src/hooks/*	React	Collection of global custom function hooks for functionality such as pub-sub, debouncing, sorted lists, etc.	68
src/providers/*	React	Collection of scoped state management providers	231
index.html, src/main.tsx, src/App.tsx	React	Entry point for the web application.	53
src/lib/*	Typescript	Contains all business logic for the application, such as algorithms, data structures, utilities, input parsers, etc.	585
geosteiner/*	C	Contains a copy of the open source GeoSteiner library with some modifications for compatibility with WASM.	n/a
wasm/*	WASM	Contains the setup for compiling the GeoSteiner library into a WASM module and the simplified GeoSteiner API for the calling code.	79
**/tests/*	Typescript	Integration/unit tests across the codebase.	301
public/*	Static assets	Static assets such as images, icons, examples, and the WASM module.	N/A

**Table B.1:** Repository structure and distribution of code. Only the important folders are listed. The LOC values are accurate as of 28/03/2025.

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