

Lecture 12: Low-diameter decompositions and HSTs

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12.1 Metric Embeddings

Definition 12.1. A **metric space** $(X, d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+)$ is a set X with a distance function d , where for all $u, v \in X$:

1. $d(u, u) = 0$
2. $d(u, v) = d(v, u)$
3. $d(u, v) + d(v, w) \geq d(u, w)$ (a.k.a. **Triangle Inequality**)

Often when we want a distance metric on n points (e.g. shortest-path metric on a graph), we want some way to approximate them via embeddings (e.g. shortest-path on a tree, which may be easier to compute). Approximations via metric embeddings are most useful in approximation algorithms and online algorithms.

However, there are cases where a metric embedding is impossible, e.g. if we have a metric embedding from a graph G to a tree, $(X, d) \rightarrow (T, d_T)$, then if G has a cycle anywhere, then it's impossible to satisfy $d_T(x, y) = d(x, y)$ everywhere. In fact, cycles of length n will incur $\Theta(n)$ distortion!

12.2 Randomized/Probabilistic Tree Embeddings

To remedy such drastic distortion, we can “cut edges” to get rid of cycles, motivating randomized algorithms that have low distortion on average.

Definition 12.2. Given a metric (X, d) over graph $G = (V, E)$, a **(randomized) α -low-stretch spanning tree** of stretch α is a probability distribution D over spanning trees of G , where for all $u, v \in X$:

1. $d_G(u, v) \leq d_T(u, v)$ for all trees $T \sim D$
2. $\mathbb{E}_{T \sim D} [d_T(u, v)] \leq \alpha d_G(u, v)$

How good is this spanning tree approximation?

Theorem 12.3. For any metric space (X, d) , there exists an α -low-stretch spanning tree distribution D , where $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}(\log |X|) = \mathcal{O}(\log N)$.

The proof involves introducing low-diameter decompositions (LDDs), which partition a metric space into clusters of low diameter, and then using an LDD recursively to construct a low-stretch hierarchical tree decomposition.

12.2.1 Low-diameter Decompositions

Definition 12.4. The **diameter** of a set X under some metric d is the maximum distance between any 2 points in X , or $\max_{x \in X} |x_i - x_j|_d$.

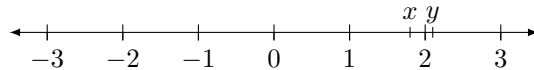
Definition 12.5. A β -low-diameter decomposition scheme is a randomized algorithm with inputs:

- stretch parameter β
- a metric space (X, d)
- bound $\Delta > 0$ on set diameter

that outputs a partition P of X as $P = \bigcup_{i=1}^t X_i$ such that

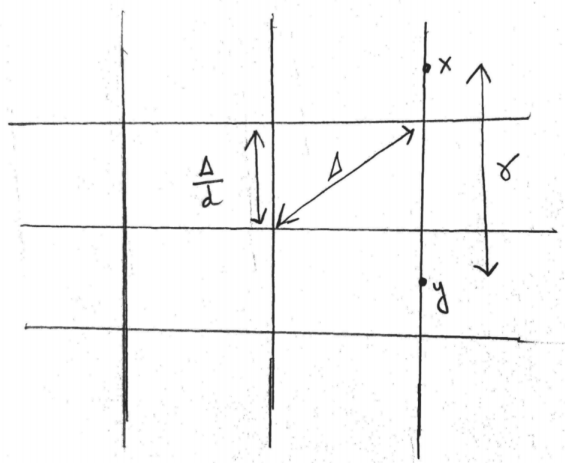
- for all $i \in [t]$, $\text{diameter}(X_i) \leq \Delta$
- for all $x, y \in X, x \neq y$, $\Pr[P(x) \neq P(y)] \leq \beta \cdot \frac{d(x, y)}{\Delta}$

Example 12.6. Consider $(X, d) = (\mathbb{R}, |\cdot|)$, $\Delta = 1$, β unspecified. If we mark the number line at integer values, we can see we satisfy the first definition, but run into an issue when x and y are close together but are in different clusters:

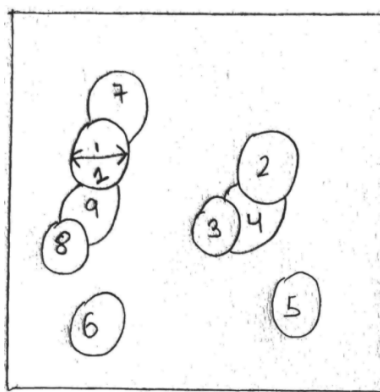


Specifically, to remedy situations where $|x - y| < \Delta$ but $\Pr[P(x) \neq P(y)]$, we can apply a random shift to the marks: choose a shift $R \in [0, \Delta]$ uniformly at random, and mark the line at intervals of $k\Delta + R$ for $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then we can see that $\Pr[P(x) \neq P(y)] = \frac{|x-y|}{\Delta} = |x - y|$, proportional to the distance between them.

Example 12.7. Consider $(X, d) = (\mathbb{R}^d, \|\cdot\|_1)$, Δ the length of the largest diagonal of a d -length hypercube, and β unspecified. Then if we cut our space into hypercubes of side length Δ/d , we see that $\Pr[P(x) \neq P(y)] = \frac{r}{\Delta/d} = \frac{dr}{\Delta}$, so ultimately the separation probability of 2 points doesn't exceed the distance between them.



Example 12.8. Consider the embedding $\ell_2 = (\mathbb{R}^2, \|\cdot\|_2)$, $\Delta = 1$, where we tile randomly. This means we randomly pick some x_1 , assign all the points within Δ of it to its partition, pick some other unpartitioned point x_2 , and continue this way until all points have been tiled.



Analysis: for any $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^2$, $\|x - y\|_2 = \varepsilon$, we have that $\Pr[P(x) \neq P(y)] = \frac{[B(x, 1) \Delta B(y, 1)]}{[B(x, 1) \cup B(y, 1)]}$, where $A \Delta B$ is the **symmetric difference** between sets A, B , and $[A]$ represents the area/volume of A .

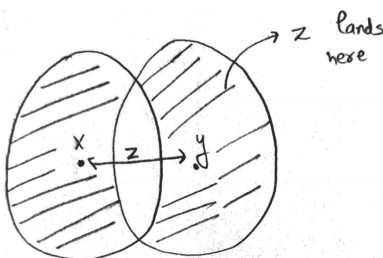


Figure 12.5: geometric explanation of symmetric difference formula

To see this, without loss of generality, let x be assigned a partition first. From the diagram above, note that for a point z to be in x 's partition but not y 's, $\|x - z\| \leq 1$ by definition of z , but $P(x) \neq P(y)$ means $\|y - z\| > 1$. Repeating the same logic for when y is partitioned first, this means that z falls in the shaded region above. Geometrically, the denominator $|B(x, 1) \cup B(y, 1)|$ is proportional to the surface area of B .

But we can do even better! If we randomize both the radius and our tiling order, we have an algorithm that satisfies both the low radius and low cutting property:

Inputs: metric (X, d) , stretch β , bound $\Delta > 0$ as above

Output: partition $P = \bigcup_{i=1}^t X_i$ such that

- for all $i \in [t]$, $\text{diameter}(X_i) \leq \Delta$
- for all $x, y \in X, x \neq y$, $\Pr[P(x) \neq P(y)] \leq \beta \cdot \frac{d(x, y)}{\Delta}$

Algorithm:

1. Pick a random radius $R \in [\Delta/4, \Delta/2]$
2. Pick a random permutation π of $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$
3. In the order given by $\pi(x_1), \pi(x_2), \dots, \pi(x_n)$, iteratively tile X with balls such that $\pi(x_1)$ is partitioned into $B(\pi(x_1), R)$, and for all points $\pi(x_i)$ afterward, we have that x_i is part of

$$P := \left\{ B(\pi(x_i), R) \setminus \bigcup_{j < i} B(\pi(x_j), R) \mid i \in [n] \right\}$$

Theorem 12.9. Suppose $d(x, y) = r \leq \Delta/8$. Then $\Pr[P(x) \neq P(y)] \geq \exp(-\frac{8r}{\Delta} \log \frac{|B(x, \Delta)|}{|B(x, \Delta/8)|})$.

Proof. Recall that $R \in [\Delta/4, \Delta/2]$, and $r \leq \Delta/8$. First, the diagram below inspires the geometric observation:

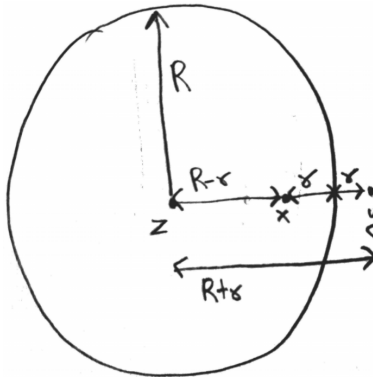


Figure 12.5: conditioning on R , we need the center to be within $R - r$ of x to be in the right partition.

$$\begin{aligned}
\Pr[P(x) \neq P(y)] &\geq P(d(x, z) < R - r) \\
&\geq \frac{|B(x, R - r)|}{|B(x, R + r)|} \\
&= \frac{\text{volume}(\text{intersection})}{\text{volume}(\text{union})}
\end{aligned}$$

By convexity of $\exp(x)$, we have that $\mathbb{E}[\exp(z)] \geq \exp \mathbb{E}[z]$.

We also know from the definitions of R and r that $\begin{cases} R + r < \Delta/2 + \Delta/8 < \Delta \\ R - r \geq \Delta/4 - \Delta/8 \geq \Delta/8 \end{cases}$, so

$$\begin{aligned}
\Pr[P(x) \neq P(y)] &= \Pr[B(x, r) \subseteq P(x)] \geq \mathbb{E} \left[\frac{|B(x, R - r)|}{|B(x, R + r)|} \right] \\
&= \mathbb{E} \left[\exp \left(-\log \frac{|B(x, R + r)|}{|B(x, R - r)|} \right) \right] \\
&\geq \exp \left(\mathbb{E} \left[-\log \frac{|B(x, R + r)|}{|B(x, R - r)|} \right] \right) \\
&\geq \exp \left(\frac{-8r}{\Delta} \log \frac{|B(x, \Delta)|}{|B(x, \Delta/8)|} \right),
\end{aligned}$$

where the last inequality comes from integrating

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E} \left[\log \frac{|B(x, R + r)|}{|B(x, R - r)|} \right] &= \frac{4}{\Delta} \int_{\Delta/4}^{\Delta/2} \log \frac{|B(x, R + r)|}{|B(x, R - r)|} dR \\
&\leq \frac{8r}{\Delta} \log \frac{|B(x, \Delta/2 + r)|}{|B(x, \Delta/4 - r)|} \\
&\leq \frac{8r}{\Delta} \log \frac{|B(x, \Delta)|}{|B(x, \Delta/8)|}
\end{aligned}$$

□

We can now use this algorithm recursively to construct a hierarchical tree decomposition: given a metric (X, d) , where X has diameter d , we use LDD to decompose it into clusters with diameter $\Delta \leq d/2$. Then we recursively build a tree for each cluster, and combine them into 1 tree.

12.2.2 Hierarchical Spanning Tree Decomposition

For this LST (low-stretch tree) algorithm we have as input: metric space (X, d) , where $\text{diameter}(X) \leq 8^\delta$, where the output is a low-stretch *hierarchical* spanning tree with low distortion.

Algorithm:

1. Use LDD decomposition on X with $\Delta = 8^{\delta-1}$ to get a partition $P = \bigcup_{i=1}^t X_i$ of X .

2. For $j \in [t]$, define X_j as a metric restricted to the points in X_j , and recursively run this algorithm on the smaller $(X_j, \delta - 1)$.
3. Add edges of length 8^δ from the root of this tree T_1 to the roots of T_2, \dots, T_t .

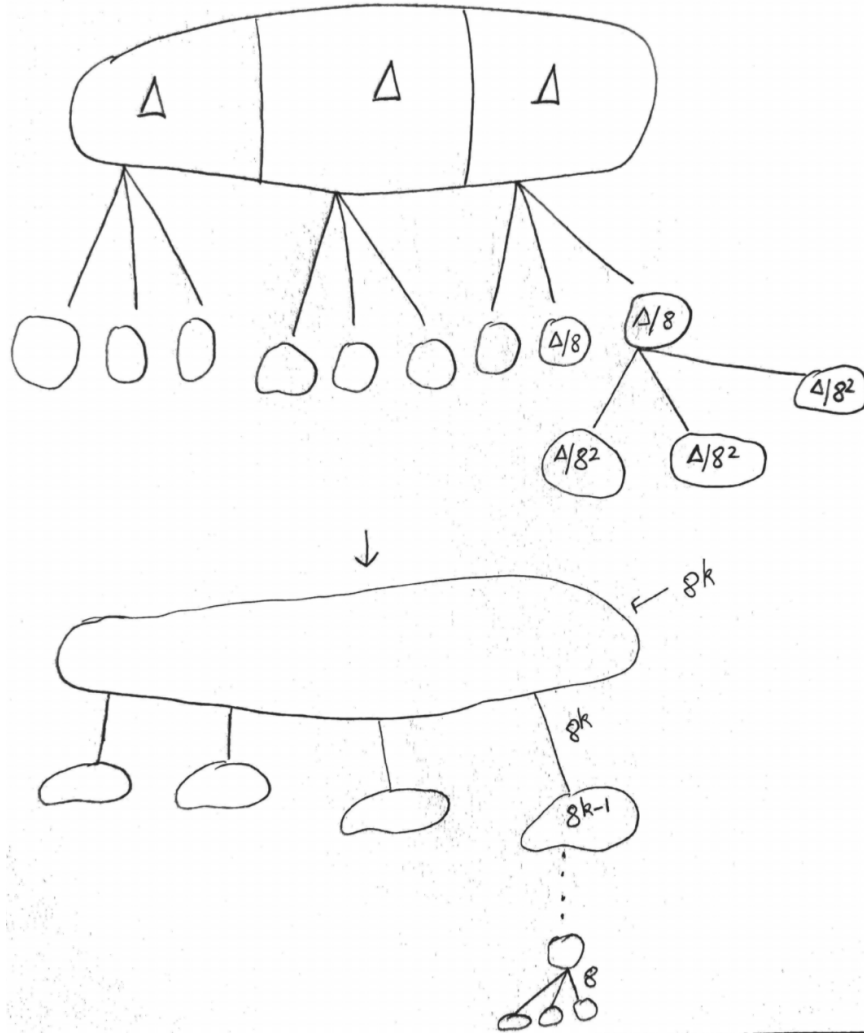


Figure 12.5: construction of our tree using the LDD decomposition, where at the highest level, we partition X into sets that each have a diameter of Δ . The root has weight 8^k , and at each level below it, the edge has weight 8^k and connects to a node with weight 8^{k-1} , and the diameter also decreases by a factor of 8.

How good is this spanning tree approximation? We can use the corollaries proved so far to prove our original theorem.

Theorem 12.10. *For any metric space (X, d) , there exists an α -low-stretch spanning tree distribution D , where $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}(\log |X|) = \mathcal{O}(\log N)$.*

Proof. First, consider 2 vertices $x, y \in X$, where $8^{j-1} \leq d(x, y) \leq 8^j$. They must have been separated in the tree sometime during the algorithm, so let's call the *least common ancestor* of x and y $lca(x, y)$. Because $d(x, y) \leq 8^j$, $lca(x, y)$ must have height at least j . Call this height h , and note that $h \geq j$.

Then traversing the path in the low-stretch spanning tree from x to y , we have that $d_T(x, y) \geq 8^h + 8^{h-1} + \dots + 8^2 + 8^1 \geq 8^j \geq d(x, y)$.

We now use our previous corollary (with $\Delta = 8^t$) to compute

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[d_T(x, y)] &\leq 8^j + \sum_{k=j+1}^{\infty} 8^k \Pr[P_k(x) \neq P_k(y)] \\ &\leq 8^j + \sum_{k=j+1}^{\infty} 8^k \frac{8d(x, y)}{8^t} \log \frac{|B(x, 8^t)|}{|B(x, 8^{t-1})|} \\ &\leq 8^j + d(x, y) \sum_{k=j+1}^{\infty} 8 \log \frac{|B(x, 8^t)|}{|B(x, 8^{t-1})|} \\ &\leq 8^j + d(x, y) \log n \\ &\in \mathcal{O}(8^j \log n) \end{aligned}$$

where the last inequality comes from the summation being a telescoping sum. Defining $\delta = \mathcal{O}(\log \text{diameter}(X))$ and $\beta = \mathcal{O}(\log(n))$ completes the proof. A paper by Fakcharoenphol, Rao, and Talwar actually shows that the bound $\mathcal{O}(\log \text{diameter}(X) \log n)$ can be improved to just $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$.

One application is for buy-at-bulk network design, where the goal is to design a graph that can support many flows $x_i \rightarrow t_i$, each edge e has a capacity c_e , and we want to minimize $\sum_{e \in E} \text{cost}(c_e) \text{dist}(e)$.

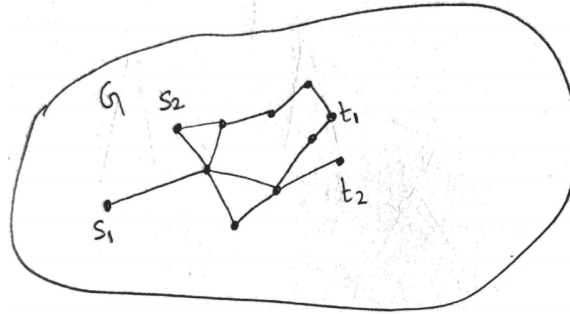


Figure 12.5: sample buy-at-bulk network graph

The solution, after noticing that the problem is easy and deterministic on trees, is to use a hierarchical tree decomposition to approximate the solution. \square