

Lecture 20: Embeddings into Trees and L1 Embeddings

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1 Recap

Recall from last time, that we are studying the *sparsest cut* problem. We are given:

- A graph $G = (V, E)$ with positive edge weights c_e for each $e \in E$.
- A set of pairs of vertices $(s_1, t_1), \dots, (s_k, t_k)$ with associated demands D_i between them.

We wish to output a cut S that minimizes *sparsity*:

$$\Phi(S) = \frac{c(E(S, \bar{S}))}{D(S, \bar{S})}$$

where $c(E(S, \bar{S}))$ is the sum of the weights of the edges that cross the cut, and $D(S, \bar{S})$ is the sum of the demands of the pairs (s_i, t_i) that are separated by the cut.

We recall that optimizing over the set of cuts is equivalent to optimizing over ℓ_1 metrics, and is NP-hard. Instead, we may optimize over the set of all metrics. In this lecture, we bound the gap introduced by this relaxation by showing how these metrics embed into ℓ_1 with low distortion.

From last time, we have a theorem of Bourgain:

Theorem 1.1 (Bourgain 85 [1]). *Any n point metric d admits an α -distortion embedding into ℓ_p for any $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ with $\alpha = O(\log n)$.*

This embedding is into 2^n dimensions, however! Fortunately, Linial, London, and Rabinovich [3] proved that it is possible to get such an embedding into online $O(\log^2 n)$ dimensions.

In this lecture, we will show a somewhat weaker result: We will achieve an $\alpha = O(\log n)$ embedding into ℓ_1 using $\text{poly}(n, d_{\max}/d_{\min})$ dimensions, where d_{\max} is the maximum distance between any two points according to metric d , and d_{\min} is the minimum distance. We note that d_{\max}/d_{\min} could potentially be exponentially large – but we won't worry about this detail.

2 What is an Embedding?

Definition 2.1. An exact embedding of a metric space (V, d) into ℓ_1 is a mapping $f : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ such that for all $x, y \in V$, $d(x, y) = \|f(x) - f(y)\|_1$,

In the following examples, we will consider graphs, and the corresponding shortest-path metric on vertices, and consider the embedding of these metrics into ℓ_1 .

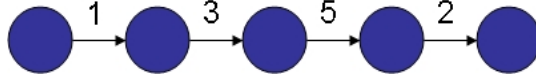


Figure 1: In this example, the line graph would be embedded as: $\{0, 1, 4, 9, 11\}$

2.1 Examples

2.2 A Line

Consider a line graph $G = (V, E)$ with vertices $V = \{1, \dots, n\}$ and edges $E = \{(1, 2), (2, 3), \dots, (n-1, n)\}$. This is easily embedded exactly into ℓ_1 over \mathbb{R}^1 . The embedding may be defined recursively: $f(1) = 0$, $f(i) = f(i-1) + d_G(i-1, 1)$.

2.3 A Tree

Consider a tree $T = (V, E)$ on n vertices. This can be embedded exactly into ℓ_1 over \mathbb{R}^{n-1} , which can be seen by induction. As the base case, when $|V| = 2$, T is a line graph, which we have seen can be embedded into ℓ_1 over \mathbb{R}^1 . Given a tree $T_k = (V_k, E_k)$ with k vertices, we may remove a leaf v^* and the corresponding edge (u^*, v^*) to obtain the tree $T_{k-1} = (V_{k-1}, E_{k-1})$, and inductively embed this into ℓ_1 , using the embedding $f : V_{k-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{k-2}$. Let $g : V_k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{k-1}$ be defined as follows: For every $v \in V_{k-1}$, let $g(v) = (f(v), 0)$. Let $f(v^*) = (f(u^*), d_{T_k}(v^*, u^*))$. Clearly, the ℓ_1 distances between any two vertices in V_{k-1} have not changed in this new embedding (since we have simply added a 0 in the new coordinate of all such vertices). Finally, the ℓ_1 distance between any vertex $v \in V_{k-1}$ and v^* is $d(v, u^*) = d(u^*, v^*) = d(v, v^*)$, since there is a unique path between any pair of vertices in a tree.

Given two trees $T = (V, E)$, $T' = (V, E')$ over the same vertex set, we may define a new metric $d(u, v) = d_T(u, v) + d_{T'}(u, v)$ (Recall that metrics form a vector space). The new metric d also has an exact embedding into ℓ_1 . To see this, let $f : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$ be an exact embedding of d_T , and $f' : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$ be an exact embedding of $d_{T'}$. The metric $d()$ has the embedding $g : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2d}$ defined by $g(u) = f(u).f'(u)$, the concatenation of f and f' . Since ℓ_1 distance is additive, we therefore have $\|g(u) - g(v)\|_1 = \|f(u) - f(v)\|_1 + \|f'(u) - f'(v)\|_1 = d_T(u, v) + d_{T'}(u, v)$ as desired.

Similarly, it is easily seen that the metric $\alpha d_T(u, v)$ for all $\alpha > 0$ exactly imbeds into ℓ_1 : given an embedding of d_T , we may simply scale all coordinates by α .

Combining these two facts, we have the following observation:

Proposition 2.2. *For any set of trees T_1, \dots, T_n over the same vertex set, and for all constants $c_1, \dots, c_n \geq 0$, the metric*

$$d(u, v) = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i d_{T_i}(u, v)$$

embeds exactly into ℓ_1 .

3 The Embedding Result

We will write \mathcal{D} to denote a probability distribution on the set of spanning trees on a fixed vertex set V . Going forward, we will concern ourselves with the metric d defined by this distribution:

$$\hat{d}(u, v) = \mathbf{E}_{T \sim \mathcal{D}}[d_T(u, v)]$$

Proposition 3.1. \hat{d} embeds exactly into ℓ_1 .

Proof. This follows directly from proposition 2.2 and the linearity of expectation. Simply set $c_i = \Pr_{\mathcal{D}}[T_i]$. \square

Because we embed sums of two metrics as the concatenations of the embedding of each metric, \hat{d} will embed into a space of dimension proportional to the size of the support of \mathcal{D} . Therefore, in designing such embeddings, we would like \mathcal{D} to have small support. We will prove the following theorem using tree embeddings, due to Fakcheroenphol, Rao, and Talwar: [2]

Theorem 3.2. *Given any metric d on V , there exists a distribution \mathcal{D} over spanning trees of V such that for all $u, v \in V$:*

$$d(u, v) \leq \mathbf{E}_{T \sim \mathcal{D}}[d_T(u, v)] \leq O(\log n) \cdot d(u, v)$$

Actually, we will prove something slightly stronger. For all $u, v \in V$:

1. $\mathbf{E}_{T \sim \mathcal{D}}[d_T(u, v)] \leq O(\log n)d(u, v)$, and
2. For all $T \in \text{Support}(\mathcal{D})$, $d_T(u, v) \geq d(u, v)$.

To prove this theorem, we will use the low diameter decomposition covered in a previous lecture. As a reminder:

Theorem 3.3 (Low diameter decomposition). *Given a metric (V, d) , and a parameter r , we can construct a random partition of $V = C_1 \uplus \dots \uplus C_t$ such that the following two properties hold:*

1. (Low diameter) For all $u, v \in C_i$, $d(u, v) \leq r$.
2. (Low cut probability):

$$\Pr[x, y \text{ separated by the partition}] \leq \frac{4d(x, y)}{r} \log \left(\frac{|B(x, 2r)|}{|B(x, r/4)|} \right)$$

where $B(x, r)$ denotes the ball around point x of radius r .

We construct the embedding \hat{d} with the following recursive algorithm, which takes as input a pair (U, i) where $U \subseteq V$ is a set of vertices of diameter at most i , and returns a rooted tree (T, r) .

TreeEmbed(U, i):

1. Apply the low-diameter decomposition to (U, d) with the parameter $r \rightarrow 2^{i-1}$ to get the partition C_1, \dots, C_t .
2. Recurse: Let $(T_j, r_j) \leftarrow \text{TreeEmbed}(C_j, i - 1)$. As a base case, when C_i is a single point, simply return that point.
3. For every tree T_j with $j > 1$, add the edge (r_1, r_j) with weight 2^i . This is a new tree which we denote T .
4. Return the tree/root pair (T, r_1) .

Recall that since the low diameter decomposition is randomized, this algorithm defines a distribution over trees, as desired.

We rescale so that for all $u, v \in V$, $d(u, v) \geq 1$ and $d(u, v) \leq \delta = 2^\delta$. We may therefore draw from the distribution defining \hat{d} by calling $\text{TreeEmbed}(V, \delta)$.

Claim 3.4 (Claim 1). *For all $u, v \in V$, $\hat{d}(u, v) \geq d$.*

Proof. Fix x and y , and let i be such that $d(x, y) \in (2^{i-1}, 2^i)$. Consider the invocation of $\text{TreeEmbed}(U, i)$ such that $x \in U$. First, we examine the case in which $y \in U$. By the definition of the low diameter decomposition, since $d(x, y) > 2^i$, x and y will fall into separate parts of the partition, and so we will have $\hat{d}(x, y) \geq 2^i$, the length of the edge placed between partition subtrees. In the case in which $y \notin U$, then it must be that x and y have been separated at a higher level of the recursion, i' , and so are separated by a higher subtree edge. Therefore, $\hat{d}(x, y) \geq 2^{i'} > 2^i$. \square

Claim 3.5. *For all $x, y \in V$:*

$$\hat{d}(x, y) \leq d(x, y) \cdot O(\log n)$$

Proof. We begin the proof with two easy subclaims Suppose $(T, r) \leftarrow \text{TreeEmbed}(U, i)$:

1. Claim 1: $d_T(r, x) \leq 2^{i+1}$ for all $x \in U$. This holds because x is in some partition with diameter at most 2^i by definition of the low diameter decomposition, and is possibly separated from the root r by an intertree edge of weight 2^i .
2. Claim 2: If $x, y \in U$, then $d_T(x, y) \leq 2 \cdot 2^{i+1}$. This is immediate from the previous claim, since each x and y is at distance at most 2^{i+1} from r , and distances are symmetric.

We now have from the definition:

$$\begin{aligned}
\hat{d}(x, y) &\leq \sum_{i=\delta}^0 \Pr[(x, y) \text{ separated at level } i] \cdot 4 \cdot 2^i \\
&\leq \sum_{i=\delta}^0 \frac{d(x, y)}{2^{i-1}} \cdot \log \left(\frac{|B(x, 2^i)|}{|B(x, 2^{i-3})|} \right) \cdot 2^i \cdot 4 \\
&= 8d(x, y) \sum_{i=0}^{\delta} (\log(|B(x, 2^i)|) - \log(|B(x, 2^{i-3})|)) \\
&= 8d(x, y) (\log(|B(x, 2^\delta)|) + \log(|B(x, 2^{\delta-1})|) + \log(|B(x, 2^{\delta-2})|)) \\
&\leq 24d(x, y) \log n
\end{aligned}$$

where the first inequality follows from our subclaims, the second follows from the definition of the low diameter decomposition, and the last equality follows from observing that we have a telescoping sum. \square

We note that we have defined a distribution \mathcal{D} with a huge support, but with a bit more work, it is possible to show that a distribution over $O(n \log n)$ trees suffices.

4 Concluding Remarks

Recall that in order to solve sparsest cut, we really wished to solve for:

$$\Phi^* = \min_{\mu \in \ell_1} \frac{C \cdot \mu}{D \cdot \mu}$$

the minimization over ℓ_1 metrics (we *really* want the minimal cut metric, but we showed this was equivalent to the minimum ℓ_1 metric). However, solving this problem is NP hard, and so we solved instead for:

$$\lambda^* = \min_{d \text{ a metric}} \frac{C \cdot d}{D \cdot d}$$

the minimization over all metrics, which can be expressed as a linear program. In this lecture, we showed that this creates at worst a $\log n$ gap (and in fact, this is tight).

Can we do better by minimizing over something else? How about ℓ_2 metrics? Unfortunately, the set of ℓ_2 metrics is not convex, and so we can't minimize over it efficiently. How about ℓ_2^2 , the space of squared ℓ_2 metrics? This set is convex, but unfortunately gives an even worse gap ($\approx n$). In fact, these aren't even metrics – they don't satisfy the triangle inequality.

How about, then, $\mathcal{C} = \ell_2^2 \cap$ metrics?. It is possible to optimize over \mathcal{C} with an SDP, and indeed, this gives the best known factor approximation, of $\sqrt{\log n} \cdot (\log \log n)$.

References

- [1] J. Bourgain. On lipschitz embedding of finite metric spaces in Hilbert space. *Israel Journal of Mathematics*, 52(1):46–52, 1985.
- [2] J. Fakcharoenphol, S. Rao, and K. Talwar. A tight bound on approximating arbitrary metrics by tree metrics. *Journal of Computer and System Sciences*, 69(3):485–497, 2004.
- [3] N. Linial, E. London, and Y. Rabinovich. The geometry of graphs and some of its algorithmic applications. *Combinatorica*, 15(2):215–245, 1995.