A Near-Linear Time Approximation Scheme for Geometric Transportation with Arbitrary Supplies and Spread

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Abstract

The geometric transportation problem takes as input a set of points $P$ in $d$-dimensional Euclidean space and a supply function $\mu : P \to \mathbb{R}$. The goal is to find a transportation map, a non-negative assignment $\tau : P \times P \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ to pairs of points, so the total assignment leaving each point is equal to its supply, i.e., $\sum_{r \in P} \tau(q,r) = \sum_{p \in P} \tau(p,q) = \mu(q)$ for all points $q \in P$. The goal is to minimize the weighted sum of Euclidean distances for the pairs, $\sum_{(p,q) \in P \times P} \tau(p,q) \cdot ||q-p||^2$.

We describe the first algorithm for this problem that returns, with high probability, a $(1 + \varepsilon)$-approximation to the optimal transportation map in $O(n \text{poly}(1/\varepsilon) \text{polylog } n)$ time. In contrast to the previous best algorithms for this problem, our near-linear running time bound is independent of the spread of $P$ and the magnitude of its real-valued supplies.

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1 Introduction

We consider the geometric transportation problem in $d$-dimensional Euclidean space for any constant $d$. In this problem, we are given a set $P \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ of $n$ points. Each point is assigned a real supply $\mu : P \to \mathbb{R}$ where $\sum_{p \in P} \mu(p) = 0$. A transportation map is a non-negative assignment $\tau : P \times P \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ to pairs of points such that for all $q \in P$ we have $\sum_{r \in P} \tau(q,r) = \sum_{p \in P} \tau(p,q) = \mu(q)$. The cost of the transportation map is the weighted sum of Euclidean distances across all pairs, i.e. $\sum_{(p,q) \in P \times P} \tau(p,q) \cdot ||q-p||^2$. Our goal is to find a transportation map of minimum cost, and we denote this minimum cost as $\text{Cost}(P, \mu)$.

One may imagine the points with positive supply as piles of earth and those with negative supplies as holes in the ground. A transportation map describes how to transfer the earth to the holes without overfilling any hole, and its cost is the total number of “earth-miles” used to do the transfer. Consequently, $\text{Cost}(P, \mu)$ is often referred to as the earth mover’s distance, although it can also be called the 1-Wasserstein distance between measures over the positively and negatively supplied points. The continuous version of the problem is

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sometimes called the optimal transport or Monge-Kantorovich problem, and it has been studied extensively by various mathematics communities [22]. The discrete version we study here has applications in shape matching, image retrieval, and graphics [5,7–9,16,21].

Computing an optimal transportation map is easily done in polynomial time by reduction to the uncapacitated minimum cost flow problem in a complete bipartite graph between points with positive supply and those with negative supply. The graph has as many as \(\Omega(n^2)\) edges, so this approach takes \(O(n^3 \text{polylog } n)\) time using a combinatorial minimum cost flow algorithm of Orlin [15]. Assuming integral supplies with absolute values summing to \(U\), we can use an algorithm of Lee and Sidford [14] instead to reduce the running time to \(O(n^{2.5} \text{polylog } (n, U))\). Taking advantage of the geometry inherent in the problem, Agarwal et al. [1] describe how to implement Orlin’s algorithm for arbitrary supplies to find the optimal transportation map in \(O(n^2 \text{polylog } n)\) time, but only for \(d = 2\).

We can significantly reduce these running times by accepting a small loss in optimality. Many results along this line focus on estimating just the earth mover’s distance without actually computing the associated transportation map. Indyk [11] describes an \(O(n \text{polylog } n)\) time algorithm that estimates the earth mover’s distance within a constant factor assuming unit supplies. Andoni et al. [3] describe an \(O(n^{1+o(1)})\) time algorithm for arbitrary supplies that estimates the cost within a \(1 + \varepsilon\) factor (the dependency on \(\varepsilon\) is hiding in the \(o(1))\). As pointed out by Khesin, Nikolov, and Paramonov [12], a \(1 + \varepsilon\) factor estimation of the distance is possible in \(O(n^{1+o(1)}\varepsilon^{-O(d)})\) time (without the \(o(1)\) hiding dependencies on \(\varepsilon\)) by running an approximation algorithm for minimum cost flow by Sherman [19] on a sparse Euclidean spanner over the input points. However, it is not clear how to extract a nearly optimal transportation map using the spanner’s flow.

Finding an actual transportation map may be more difficult. Sharathkumar and Agarwal [17] describe a \((1 + \varepsilon)\)-approximation algorithm for the integral supply case (i.e., an algorithm returning a map of cost at most \((1 + \varepsilon) \cdot \text{Cost}(P, \mu)\) in \(O(n\sqrt{U} \text{polylog } (U, \varepsilon, n))\) time. Agarwal et al. [1] describe a randomized algorithm with expected \(O(\log^2(1/\varepsilon))\)-approximation ratio running in \(O(n^{1+\varepsilon})\) expected time for the arbitrary supply case and a deterministic \(O(n^{3/2} \varepsilon^{-d} \text{polylog } (U, n))\) time \((1+\varepsilon)\)-approximation algorithm for the bounded integral supply case. Lahn et al. [13] describe a \(O(n(C\delta)^2 \text{polylog } (U, n)) (C = \max_{p \in P} |\mu(p)|)\) time algorithm computing a map of cost at most \(\text{Cost}(P, \mu) + \delta U\). In last year’s SoCG proceedings, Khesin et al. [12] described a randomized \((1 + \varepsilon)\)-approximation algorithm for the arbitrary supply case running in \(O(n\varepsilon^{-O(d)} \log^{O(d)} (S\text{f}(P)) \log(n))\) time, where \(S\text{f}(P)\) is the spread of the point set \(P\). The spread (also called aspect ratio) of \(P\) is the ratio of the diameter of \(P\) to the smallest pairwise distance between points in \(P\). As Khesin et al. point out, one can reduce an instance with unbounded spread but bounded integral supplies to the case of bounded spread to get a \((1 + \varepsilon)\)-approximation running in \(O(n\varepsilon^{-O(d)} \log^{O(d)} (U) \log^2(n))\) time, generalizing a near-linear time \((1 + \varepsilon)\)-approximation algorithm by Sharathkumar and Agarwal [18] for the unit supply case. The unit supply case is sometimes referred to as the geometric bipartite matching problem. Agarwal and Sharathkumar [2] also describe a deterministic \((1/\varepsilon)\)-approximation algorithm for geometric bipartite matching that runs in \(O(n^{1+\varepsilon} \log n)\) time.

Despite these successes, prior work still does not include a near-linear time \((1 + \varepsilon)\)-approximation algorithm for the general case of arbitrary spread and real valued supplies. Often, an algorithm designed for bounded spread cases can be extended to work with cases of

\[1\] Khesin et al. [12] and Agarwal et al. [1] present geometric transportation with integer supplies, but their unbounded supply algorithms work without modification when presented with real valued supplies.
arbitrary spread. For example, one might substitute in compressed quadtrees [10, Chapter 2] in places where the bounded spread algorithm uses standard (uncompressed) quadtrees. This straightforward approach does not appear to work for the geometric transportation problem, however. As detailed below, Khesin et al. [12] use a quadtree to build a sparse graph as part of a reduction to the minimum cost flow problem. Both their running time and approximation analysis rely heavily on the tree having low depth when the spread is bounded. Unfortunately, a compressed quadtree is only guaranteed to have small size; the depth can still be linear in the number of leaves. One may also try the strategy of separating out groups of points \( P' \) that are much closer to each other than to the rest of the point set \( P \), routing as much supply as possible within \( P' \), and then satisfying what remains of the supplies in \( P' \) by treating \( P' \) as a single point. In fact, the result described below does employ a variant of this strategy (see Section 2.3). However, the simplified instances of the problem one gets using this strategy still yield compressed quadtrees of very high depth.

### 1.1 Our results and approach

We describe a randomized \((1 + \varepsilon)\)-approximation algorithm for the geometric transportation problem that runs in near-linear time irrespective of the spread of \( P \) or the supplies of its points. Our specific result is spelled out in the following theorem. We say an event occurs with high probability if it occurs with probability at least \( 1 - 1/n^c \) for some constant \( c \).

**Theorem 1.1.** There exists a randomized algorithm that, given a set of \( n \) points \( P \in \mathbb{R}^d \) and a supply function \( \mu : P \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \), runs in time \( O(n \varepsilon^{-O(d)} \log^{O(d)} n) \) and with high probability returns a transportation map with cost at most \((1 + \varepsilon) \cdot \text{Cost}(P, \mu)\).

At a high level, our algorithm follows the approach laid out by Khesin et al. [12] for the bounded spread case. However, removing the running time’s dependency on the spread introduces fundamental and technical issues to nearly every step in their approach.

Let \( \varepsilon_0 \) be a function of \( \varepsilon \) and \( P \) to be specified later. Taking a cue from prior work on geometric transportation and its specializations [3, 18], Khesin et al.’s algorithm begins by building a random sparse graph over \( O(n \varepsilon_0^{-O(d)} \log \text{Sp}(P)) \) vertices including the points in \( P \). In expectation, the shortest path distance between any pair of points in \( P \) is maintained up to an \( O(\varepsilon_0 \log \text{Sp}(P)) \) factor, so computing a transportation map is done by setting \( \varepsilon_0 \) to \( O(\varepsilon/(\log \text{Sp}(P))) \) and running a minimum cost flow algorithm on the sparse graph.

The graph is constructed by first building a randomly shifted quadtree over \( P \). The quadtree is constructed by surrounding \( P \) with an axis-aligned box called a cell, partitioning it into \( 2^d \) equal sized child cells, and recursively building a quadtree in each child cell; the whole tree has depth \( \log \text{Sp}(P) \). After building the quadtree, they add \( \varepsilon_0^d \) Steiner vertices within each cell along with a carefully selected set of edges. While other methods are known for constructing such a sparse graph even without Steiner vertices [6], the hierarchical structure of Khesin et al.’s construction is necessary for extracting the transportation map after a minimum cost flow is computed. Observe that not only is the quadtree’s size dependent on \( \text{Sp}(P) \), but so is the number of Steiner vertices added to each cell.

As suggested earlier, the natural approach for reducing the quadtree’s size is to remove subtrees containing no members of \( P \) and to compress the tree by replacing each maximal path of cells with exactly one non-empty child each with a single link to the lowest cell in the path. This approach does result in a quadtree of size \( O(n) \), but its depth could also be as large as \( \Omega(n) \). This large depth introduces many issues, the worst of which is that we can only claim shortest path distances to be maintained up to an \( O(\varepsilon_0 n) \) factor. We cannot afford to set \( \varepsilon_0 \) to \( \varepsilon/n \), because the sparse graph would have \( O(n^d) \) vertices!
The solution to avoiding such a large increase in expected distances is to use the idea of moats around the points as done in the almost-linear time constant factor approximation algorithm of Agarwal et al. [1]. In short, we modify the quadtree construction so that, with high probability, all points are sufficiently far away from the boundary of every quadtree cell they appear in. Assuming this condition holds, there are only a limited number of quadtree “levels” at which a pair of points can be separated, and we use this fact to show distances increase by only an $O(\varepsilon_0 \log n)$ factor in expectation. It turns out modifying the quadtree construction correctly is a surprisingly subtle task. Guaranteeing the moats are avoided potentially requires us to perform independent random shifts at several places throughout the quadtree. However, we need to be selective with where the independent shifts occur so that we can successfully analyze the expected distances between points in the sparse graph.

The second stage of Khesin et al.’s [12] algorithm solves the minimum cost flow problem in the sparse graph using a framework of Sherman [19]. First, they encode the minimum cost flow problem as finding a flow vector $f$ of minimum cost subject to linear constraints $Af = b$ where $A$ is the vertex-edge incidence matrix and $b$ is a supply vector (not necessarily equal to $\mu$). Sherman’s framework involves repeatedly finding flows $f$ of approximately optimal cost that approximately satisfy such constraints. Each iteration of this algorithm requires an application of $A$ and $A^T$ to a pair of vectors, and the number of iterations needed in this approach is polynomial in the condition number of $A$. Unfortunately, $A$ may not be well-conditioned, so Khesin et al. describe a preconditioner matrix $B$ such that $BA$ has low condition number and is still sparse. They proceed to use Sherman’s framework under the equivalent constraints $BAf = Bb$.

One interpretation of Khesin et al.’s [12] preconditioner is that it describes a way to charge each Steiner vertex an amount based on the supply of “descendent” vertices below it so that the sum of charges bound the cost of an optimal flow from below. Consequently, both the number of non-zero entries in each column of $B$ and the condition number of $B$ are proportional to the quadtree’s depth.

The high depth of our quadtree again appears to cause issues. However, our use of moats implies additional structure to the sparse graph that we can take advantage of. Our preconditioner $B$ is based on essentially the same charging scheme as Khesin et al., but thanks to the moats, we prove the condition number remains proportional to $O(\varepsilon_0^{-1} \log(n/\varepsilon_0))$ instead of the quadtree depth. This charging scheme still results in a precondition $B$ that is not sparse, so a naive implementation of Sherman’s [19] framework may take quadratic time per iteration. To address this issue, we describe a pair of algorithms based on the hierarchical structure of the graph that let us apply both $BA$ and its transpose in only linear time.

The final stage of the algorithm is the extraction of an approximately minimum cost transportation map from an approximately minimum cost flow in the sparse graph. Khesin et al.’s [12]’s original procedure modifies the graph’s flow by iteratively reassigning flow to travel directly from input points to each of their many ancestor Steiner vertices or vice versa. We use binary search tree based data structures in a novel way to do flow reassignments in bulk, allowing us to extract the transportation map in time near-linear in the graph size.

Our result relies on a computation model where powers of 2, base 2 logarithms, floors, and the first non-zero bit of arbitrary real numbers can be computed in constant (or at least polylogarithmic) time. These are standard operations when working with quadtrees (see Bern et al. [4] and Har-Peled [10, Chapter 2]) and are only used so we may quickly compute the location of points within arbitrary grids. In particular, we perform only additions and multiplications when working with values derived from distances and supplies. Our results (and those of Khesin et al. [12]) can be extended to work with any $L_p$ metric instead of just
Euclidean distance. The rest of the paper proceeds as follows. We describe our sparse graph construction and describe the reduction to minimum cost flow in Section 2. We describe our preconditioner and its use Section 3. Finally, we describe how to extract the approximately optimal transportation map from a flow on the sparse graph in Section 4.

2 Reduction to minimum cost flow in a sparse graph

In this section, we present a way to build a sparse graph $G^* = (V^*, E^*)$ based on $P$ and reduce the transportation problem to finding a minimum cost flow in this sparse graph. Similar to the one presented by Khesin et al. [12], our sparse graph $G^*$ is based on a randomly shifted quadtree whose cells have been subdivided into smaller subcells. However, the quadtree we use is compressed under certain conditions to guarantee the number of nodes in it is nearly linear in $n$. Also, we independently shift certain subtrees to guarantee a low expected distortion for point-to-point distances.

2.1 Construction of the sparse graph

Given a point set $P \in \mathbb{R}^d$ of size $n$, we say two disjoint subsets $A$ and $B$ of $P$ are $s$-well separated for some $s > 0$ if $A$ and $B$ can be enclosed within two Euclidean balls of radius $r$ such that the distance between these two balls are at least $sr$. For any constant $s$, we can compute a collection of $O(n)$ distinct pairs of subsets of $P$ called an $s$-well separated pair decomposition (s-WSPD) of $P$ such that, every pair of subsets in this collection is $s$-well separated and every pair of points in $P \times P$ is separated in some unique pair of subsets in this s-WSPD [6]. The time to compute the s-WSPD is $O(n \log n)$.

Our sparse graph construction begins by computing a 2-WSPD for $P$ containing $\ell = O(n)$ s-well separated pairs. Let $Z = \langle z_1, z_2, \ldots, z_\ell \rangle$ be a sequence of distances sorted in decreasing order so that the $i$th well separated pair $(A, B)$ contains two points $p \in A, q \in B$ such that $z_i = ||q - p||_2$. By definition, the distance between any pair of points separated by the $i$th pair $(A, B)$ is in $[\frac{3}{4}, 3z_i]$. To avoid having to handle boundary conditions later, we append $z_{\ell+1} = 0$ to the end of this sequence. Also, we compute a sub-sequence $Z'$ of sufficiently far apart distances where $Z'$ includes all $z_i, 1 \leq i \leq \ell$ such that $z_i > \frac{18 \sqrt{\pi}^4}{\varepsilon_0} z_{i+1}$.

We now build a variant of the compressed quadtree on $P$ we call a conditionally-compressed quadtree. Let $T^*$ denote this tree. Let $\Box_P$ be the minimum bounding square of $P$. We fix an $\varepsilon_0 = O(\varepsilon / \log n)$ such that $1/\varepsilon_0$ is a power of 2. Suppose the side length of $\Box_P$ is $\Delta^*$. Let $\Box$ be a square of side length $3\Delta^*$ such that $\Box_P$ and $\Box$ are concentric. We shift $\Box$ by a vector chosen uniformly at random from $[0, \Delta^*)^d$. See Figure 1, left.

Each node of $T^*$ is a square cell in $\mathbb{R}^d$. Set $\Box$ to be the root of $T^*$, and let $z$ be the first element in $Z'$. We recursively process each cell $C$ as follows. Suppose $C$ has side length $\Delta$ and the subset of $P$ in $C$ is $P'$. Let $\Delta_{P'}$ be the side length of the minimum bounding square $\Box_{P'}$ of $P'$.

1) If $|P'| = 1$, then $C$ is a leaf node.

2) If $|P'| > 1$ and $\Delta_{P'} < \frac{\varepsilon_0}{3\sqrt{d}}$, we find the minimum bounding square $\Box_{P'}$ of $P'$. Let $\Delta_{P'}$ be the side length of $\Box_{P'}$. We recursively build a conditionally-compressed quadtree over $P'$ with an independently shifted root square $\Box'$ with side length $3\Delta_{P'}$ that is concentric to $\Box_{P'}$ before the shift. We connect the root of this sub-quadtree to $T^*$ as a child of $C$. We update the value of $z$ for this recursive construction to largest $z' \in Z'$ such that $z' \leq 3\sqrt{d} \Delta_{P'}$. This value can be found via binary search over $Z'$.
3) If $|P'| > 1$ and $\Delta' \geq \frac{\varepsilon_0 n}{\Delta d}$, we do the following. Let $x$ be the largest integer such that the grid with cell side length $\Delta \cdot 2^{-x}$ aligned with $C$ contains $P'$ within a single cell $C'$. Let $\Delta'$ be the side length of $C'$.
   a) If $\Delta' < \frac{\varepsilon_0 n}{\Delta}$, we connect $C'$ as the sole child of $C$.
   b) Otherwise, we evenly divide $C$ into $2^d$ squares in $\mathbb{R}^d$ each of side length $\frac{\Delta}{2}$, and make each square that contains at least one point of $P'$ a child cell of $C$.

Conditionally-compressed quadtree $T^*$ can be constructed efficiently using standard techniques. See Appendix C for details.

Lemma 2.1. Let $m$ be an upper bound on the number of nodes in $T^*$. Conditionally-compressed quadtree $T^*$ can be constructed in $O(m + n \log n)$ time.

We define two types of sub-quadtrees of $T^*$. A singly-shifted sub-quadtree is a sub-quadtree consisting of a cell $C$ that either is the root of $T^*$ or is randomly shifted independently of its parent along with a maximal set of descendent cells of $C$ that were not shifted independently of $C$ (i.e., Rule 2 was never applied to create descendent cells of $C$ in the sub-quadtree). A simple sub-quadtree is a sub-quadtree consisting of a cell $C$ that either is the root of $T^*$, is randomly shifted independently of its parent, or is added as the sole child of its parent via Rule 3a along with a maximal set of descendent cells of $C$ created by neither Rule 2 nor Rule 3a. Observe every singly-shifted sub-quadtree consists of one or more complete simple sub-quadtrees.

For every cell $C$ in $T^*$, we perform a secondary subdivision on $C$. Let $\Delta_C$ denote the side length of $C$. We divide $C$ into $\varepsilon_0^d$ square sub-regions with equal side length $\varepsilon_0 \Delta_C$. If a sub-region of $C$ contains a point $p \in P$, we say it is a subcell $\tilde{C}$ of $C$ and we use $C^+$ to denote the set of subcells of $C$. Again, see Figure 1.

Utilizing an idea of Agarwal et al. [1], we define the moat of size $h$ around a point $p$ as an axis-parallel square of side length $h$ around $p$. Consider a randomly shifted grid with cells of side length $\Delta$. The probability of any of the grid lines hitting a moat of size $\frac{2\Delta}{\pi^2}$ around any point $p \in P$ is at most $\frac{2\Delta}{\pi^2} \cdot n \cdot \frac{d}{\Delta} = O(\frac{1}{\pi^2})$. 
Lemma 2.2. With probability at least $1 - O((1/n) \log(n/\varepsilon_0))$, the conditionally-compressed quadtree $T^*$ has the following properties:

1. The total number of cells is $O(n \log(n/\varepsilon_0))$.
2. Suppose cell $C$ with side length $\Delta_C$ contains $p \in P$ and let $\bar{C}$ be the subcell of $C$ that contains $p$. Then, $p$ is at least $\frac{\varepsilon_0}{\sqrt{n}}$ distance away from any side of $C$ and is at least $\frac{\varepsilon_0}{\sqrt{n}}$ distance away from any side of $\bar{C}$. In other words, the moats of $p$ with respect to the uniform grids containing $C$ and $\bar{C}$ as cells do not touch the grid lines.
3. Let $T'$ be any singly-shifted sub-quadtree of $T^*$ constructed with a distance parameter $\varepsilon_0$. Every leaf cell of $T'$ contains at most one point from any pair $p, q \in P$ where $\|q - p\|_2 \geq \frac{1}{2}$, and no leaf cell of $T'$ contains exactly one point from any pair $p, q \in P$ where $\|q - p\|_2 < \frac{1}{2}$.
4. Let $T'$ be any simple sub-quadtree of $T^*$, and let $C'$ be a child cell of some leaf cell $C$ of $T'$. Cell $C'$ lies entirely within a subcell of $C$.

In the proof of Lemma 2.2, we observe from Rule 2 in $T^*$’s construction that every cell of the root singly-shifted sub-quadtree $T_0$ comes from a set of $O(n \log(n/\varepsilon_0))$ grids. Therefore, we can do a union bound over the probability that any one of these grids causes a violation of Property 2. The remaining properties concerning cells of $T_0$ and the simple sub-quadtrees hanging immediately from its leaves either follow immediately from construction or as a consequence of Property 2. The sub-quadtrees making up the remainder of $T^*$ use their own independent random shifts, so we can proceed with the proof inductively and take a union over the failure probabilities of the sub-quadtrees. See Appendix C for details.

We assume from here on that the properties described above do hold, but $T^*$ is still randomly constructed conditional on those properties. We now build the sparse graph $G^*$ based on the decomposition.

For every cell $C$, we add a net point $v$ at the center of every subcell of $C$, and use $N_C$ to denote the net point of a subcell $\bar{C}$. We add $O(\varepsilon_0^{-2d})$ edges to build a clique among net points of subcells in $C^*$. Furthermore, if $C$ has a parent cell $C^\circ$, for each $\bar{C} \in C^+$, there exists a $\bar{C}^\circ \in C^\circ$ such that $\bar{C}$ is totally contained in $\bar{C}^\circ$, because $1/\varepsilon_0$ is power of 2. We add an edge connecting $N_{\bar{C}^\circ}$ with $N_{\bar{C}}$. We say $\bar{C}^\circ$ is the parent subcell of $\bar{C}$ and $N_{\bar{C}^\circ}$ is the parent net point of $N_{\bar{C}}$. Children subcells and children net points are defined analogously. Edges are weighted by the Euclidean distance of their endpoints. Let $\bar{C}(p)$ denote the smallest subcell containing $p$. As a last step, for every point $p \in P$, we add an edge connecting $p$ to $N_{\bar{C}(p)}$.

Let $V^*$ be the union of $P$ and the set of all net points we just added, and let $E^*$ be the set of edges we added above. In short, $V^* = \cup_{C \in T} \{N_C : \bar{C} \in C^+\} \cup P$ and $E^* = \cup_{C \in T^*} \{\{u, v \in \{N_{\bar{C}} : \bar{C} \in C^+, u \neq v\} \cup \{N_{\bar{C}}, N_{\bar{C}^\circ}, \bar{C} \in C^+\}\cup \{p, N_{\bar{C}(p)}, p \in P\}\}$. The sparse graph upon which we solve minimum cost flow is denoted $G^* = (V^*, E^*)$.

Lemma 2.3. The expected distance between any pair $p, q \in P$ in $G^*$ is at most $(1 + O(\varepsilon_0 \log n))\|p - q\|_2$.

Proof. Let $\text{dist}_{G^*}(p, q)$ be the distance between $p$ and $q$ in $G^*$. Points $p$ and $q$ must be connected through the net points of some cell containing both of them. Let $C(p, q)$ be the lowest common ancestor cell of $p$ and $q$. Let $N_{C(p,q)}(p)$ and $N_{C(p,q)}(q)$ be the net points of subcells of $C(p, q)$ that contains $p$ and $q$, respectively. Then $\text{dist}_{G^*}(p, q) = \text{dist}_{G^*}(p, N_{C(p,q)}(p)) + \text{dist}_{G^*}(N_{C(p,q)}(p), N_{C(p,q)}(q)) + \text{dist}_{G^*}(q, N_{C(p,q)}(q))$. Value $\text{dist}_{G^*}(p, N_{C(p,q)}(p))$ is the distance from $N_{C(p,q)}(p)$ to $p$ through its descendant net points. The upper bound of it is $\sum_{i \geq 1} 2^{-i} \sqrt{d_{\varepsilon_0} \Delta_{C(p,q)}} \leq \sqrt{d_{\varepsilon_0} \Delta_{C(p,q)}}$, because subcell side lengths at least halve every level down in $T^*$. Similarly, $\text{dist}_{G^*}(q, N_{C(p,q)}(q)) \leq \sqrt{d_{\varepsilon_0} \Delta_{C(p,q)}}$. By the triangle inequality, $\text{dist}_{G^*}(N_{C(p,q)}(p), N_{C(p,q)}(q)) \leq \|p - q\|_2 + \|p - N_{C(p,q)}(p)\|_2 + \|q - N_{C(p,q)}(q)\|_2 \leq \|p - q\|_2 + \sqrt{d_{\varepsilon_0} \Delta_{C(p,q)}}$. Then we have $\text{dist}_{G^*}(p, q) \leq \|p - q\|_2 + 3\sqrt{d_{\varepsilon_0} \Delta_{C(p,q)}}$. 

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We define the extra cost to be $\Phi_{p,q} = \text{dist}_{G^*}(p,q) - ||p-q||_2$. Then $\Phi_{p,q} \leq 3\sqrt{d}e_0\Delta_C(p,q)$, and the expectation of the extra cost $E(\Phi_{p,q}) \leq E(3\sqrt{d}e_0\Delta_C(p,q)) \leq 3\sqrt{d}e_0E(\Delta_C(p,q))$.

Assuming the properties from Lemma 2.2, we may infer that the subset of $P$ defining the singly-shifted sub-quadtree containing $C(p,q)$ is determined only by $P$ itself. In particular, the set of possible shifts of the sub-quadtree’s root that don’t result in clipping any moats by its cells are all equally likely. Let $T$ be this singly-shifted sub-quadtree. Let $\Delta^*$ be the side length of the root cell of $T$ and let $\lambda = ||p-q||_2$. From Property 2 of Lemma 2.2, $\Delta_C(p,q) \leq n^4\lambda$, because the grid of side length $\frac{\lambda}{n^4}$ cannot separate $p$ and $q$ without clipping a moat. Also, $\Delta_C(p,q) \geq \frac{\lambda}{n^4}$ so that $p$ and $q$ can fit in the same cell. Let $x = \arg\max_i \{2^{-i}\Delta^*: 2^{-i}\Delta^* \leq n^4\lambda, i \in \mathbb{N}\}$ and $y = \arg\min_i \{2^{-i}\Delta^*: 2^{-i}\Delta^* \geq \frac{\lambda}{\sqrt{n}}, i \in \mathbb{N}\}$. Possible values of $\Delta_C(p,q)$ are in $\{2^{-i}\Delta^*: x \leq i \leq y, i \in \mathbb{N}\}$. We see $p$ and $q$ are separated by a grid with side length $\Delta$ containing cells of $T$ with probability at most

$$d \cdot \frac{\Delta^* \cdot \lambda}{(1-O((1/n) \log(n/e_0))) \Delta^*} = O\left(\frac{\lambda}{\Delta}\right).$$

Let $e_i$ be the event that $p$ and $q$ are separated by the grid of size $2^{-i}\Delta^*$, we have

$$E(\Delta_C(p,q)) = \sum_{x \leq i \leq y} \mathbb{P}[e_i \cap e_{i+1}] \cdot 2^{-i}\Delta^* \leq \sum_{x \leq i \leq y} \mathbb{P}[e_{i+1}] \cdot 2^{-i}\Delta^* \leq \sum_{x \leq i \leq y} O\left(\frac{\lambda}{2^{-i-1}\Delta^*} \cdot 2^{-i}\Delta^*\right) \leq O(\log n) \cdot \lambda$$

We conclude

$$E(\text{dist}_{G^*}(p,q)) = ||p-q||_2 + E(\Phi_{p,q}) \leq ||p-q||_2 + 3\sqrt{d}e_0E(\Delta_C(p,q)) \leq (1 + O(\epsilon_0 \log n)) \cdot ||p-q||_2. \quad \Box$$

### 2.2 Reduction to minimum cost flow

Having built our sparse graph, we now reduce to a minimum cost flow problem in $G^*$. We model the minimum cost flow problem as follows to simplify later discussions.

Let $G = (V,E)$ be an arbitrary undirected graph with $V \in \mathbb{R}^d$. Let $\tilde{E}$ be the set of edges in $E$ oriented arbitrarily. We call $f \in \mathbb{R}^{\tilde{E}}$ a flow vector or more simply, a flow. Let $A$ be a $|V| \times |\tilde{E}|$ vertex-edge incidence matrix where $\forall(u, (v,w)) \in \tilde{E}$, $A_{u,(v,w)} = 1$ if $u = v$, $A_{u,(v,w)} = -1$ if $u = w$, and $A_{u,(v,w)} = 0$ otherwise. Given $f$, we define the divergence of a vertex $v$ as $(Af)_v = \sum_{(v,w)} f_{(v,w)} - \sum_{(w,v)} f_{(w,v)}$. For simplicity of exposition, we may sometimes refer to $f_{(v,u)}$ even though $(u,v) \in \tilde{E}$. In such cases, it is assumed $f_{(v,u)} = -f_{(u,v)}$.

Let $|| \cdot ||_{\tilde{E}}$ be a norm on $\mathbb{R}^{\tilde{E}}$ such that $||f||_{\tilde{E}} = \sum_{(v,u) \in \tilde{E}} |f_{(v,u)}| \cdot ||v-u||_2$. Let $b \in \mathbb{R}^V$ denote a set of diversions for all $v \in V$. We define an instance of uncapacitated minimum cost flow as the pair $(G, b)$. We seek a flow vector $f$ minimizing $||f||_{\tilde{E}}$ subject to $Af = b$.

In particular, set $b^* \in \mathbb{R}^V$ such that $b^* = \mu(p)$, $\forall p \in P$ and $b^* = 0, \forall v \in V \setminus P$. Ultimately, we will find an approximate solution to the instance $(G^*, b^*)$. Let $\text{Cost}(G^*, b^*) := ||f^*||_{\tilde{E}}$ for some optimal solution $f^*$ of this instance. From construction of $G^*$ and Lemma 2.3, $\text{Cost}(P, \mu) \leq \text{Cost}(G^*, b^*)$ and $E(\text{Cost}(G^*, b^*)) \leq (1 + O(\epsilon_0 \log n))\text{Cost}(P, \mu)$. In particular, $E(\text{Cost}(G^*, b^*)) - \text{Cost}(P, \mu) \leq O(\epsilon_0 \log n)\text{Cost}(P, \mu)$. We can guarantee that bound holds with high probability by doubling the constant in the big-Oh and taking the best result from $O(\log n)$ runs of our algorithm.
2.3 Decomposition into simpler subproblems

In the sequel, we apply Sherman’s generalized preconditioning framework \[12,19\] to find an approximate solution to the minimum cost flow instance \((G^*, b^*)\). For technical reasons, however, we cannot afford to run the framework on the entire sparse graph \(G^*\) at once. In Appendix A, we describe a reduction from minimum cost flow instance \((G^*, b^*)\) to several simpler minimum cost flow instances each on the induced subgraph of the net points of one simple sub-quadtree. The reduction is based on the observation that each simple sub-quadtree subgraph has very small diameter compared to the cost of moving one unit of flow to its one parent net point and back down again to its cousin sub-quadtrees. Therefore, any reasonable method of moving the sub-quadtree’s net divergence to the parent net point is sufficient for an approximately optimal solution. We must emphasize that simple sub-quadtrees may still have linear depth, so we still need to apply our own techniques to make Sherman’s framework run within the desired time bounds.

3 Approximating the minimum cost flow

Let \(G = (V, E)\) be an induced subgraph of sparse graph \(G^*\) where \(V\) is the subset of net points for one simple sub-quadtree \(T\) as defined above. Let \(m = |E|\), and let \(A\) be the vertex-edge incidence matrix for \(G\). We now describe the ingredients we need to provide to efficiently approximate the minimum cost flow problem in \(G\) using Sherman’s generalized preconditioning framework \[12,19\]. We then provide those ingredients one-by-one to achieve a near-linear time \((1 + O(\varepsilon))\)-approximate solution for the minimum cost flow instance.

3.1 The preconditioning framework

Consider an instance of the minimum cost flow problem in \(G\) with an arbitrary divergence vector \(\tilde{b} \in \mathbb{R}^V\), and let \(f^*_\tilde{b} := \arg\min_{f \in \mathbb{R}^E, Af = \tilde{b}} ||f||_E\). A flow vector \(f \in \mathbb{R}^E\) is an \((\alpha, \beta)\) solution to the problem if

\[
\begin{align*}
||f||_E & \leq \alpha ||f^*_\tilde{b}||_E \\
||Af - \tilde{b}||_1 & \leq \beta ||A|| ||f^*_\tilde{b}||_E
\end{align*}
\]

where \(||A||\) is the norm of the linear map represented by \(A\). An algorithm yielding an \((\alpha, \beta)\)-solution is called an \((\alpha, \beta)\)-solver.

By arguments in \[12\], we seek a preconditioner \(B \in \mathbb{R}^{V \times V}\) of full column rank such that, for any \(\tilde{b} \in \mathbb{R}^V\) with \(\sum_{v \in V} \tilde{b}_v = 0\), it satisfies

\[
||B\tilde{b}||_1 \leq \min\{||f||_E : f \in \mathbb{R}^E, Af = \tilde{b}\} \leq \kappa ||B\tilde{b}||_1
\]

for some sufficiently small function \(\kappa\) of \(n, \varepsilon, \text{ and } d\).

Let \(M\) be the time it takes to multiply \(BA\) and \((BA)^T\) by a vector. Then there exists a \((1 + \varepsilon, \beta)\)-solver for any \(\varepsilon, \beta > 0\) for this problem with running time bounded by \(O(\kappa^2(|V| + |E| + M) \log |E|(\varepsilon^{-2} + \log \beta^{-1})}\) \[19\]. Moreover, if a feasible flow \(f \in \mathbb{R}^E\) with cost \(||f||_E \leq \kappa B\tilde{b}\) can be found in time \(K\), there is a \((\kappa, 0)\)-solver with running time \(K\). By setting \(\beta = \varepsilon \kappa^{-2}\) \[12\], the composition of these two solvers is a \((1 + 2\varepsilon, 0)\)-solver with running time bounded by

\[
O(\kappa^2(|V| + |E| + M) \log |E|(\varepsilon^{-2} + \log \kappa) + K).
\]
3.2 Preconditioning the minimum cost flow

We present a way to construct such a preconditioner $B$ similar to the one of Khesin et al. [12] that guarantees $\kappa$ in (1) is sufficiently small for our performance objective. Our algorithm does not compute $B$ directly, because $B$ is not sparse. However, the time for individual applications of $BA$ or $(BA)^T$ is $O(|V|+|E|)$.

Let $\tilde{C}$ denote the set of all subcells defining the net points of $G$. For any subcell $\tilde{C} \in \tilde{C}$, let $N_{\tilde{C}}$ denote its net point and let $\Delta_{\tilde{C}}$ denote its side length.

Let $B$ be a matrix indexed by $(u,v) \in V \times V$ such that, for every net point $\nu$ in $V$ where $\nu$ is the net point of some subcell $\tilde{C}$, we set $B_{\nu,v} = \frac{\Delta_{\tilde{C}}}{\Lambda}$ for all descendant net points $v$ of $\nu$, where $\Lambda = 22 \log(\frac{\rho}{\rho_0})^2$. $B_{\nu,v} = 0$ for all other $v$. Matrix $B$ has full column rank, because each column specifies exactly which ancestor net points each vertex has in $G$.

Now, fix any $\hat{b} \in \mathbb{R}^V$ such that $\sum_{\nu \in V} \hat{b}_{\nu} = 0$. Observe,

$$||B\hat{b}||_1 = \sum_{\tilde{C} \in \tilde{C}} \frac{\Delta_{\tilde{C}}}{\Lambda} \sum_{\nu \in \tilde{C}} \hat{b}_{\nu}. \tag{2}$$

\textbf{Lemma 3.1.} We have $||B\hat{b}||_1 \leq \min\{||f||_E : f \in \mathbb{R}^E, Af = \hat{b}\}$.

Lemma 3.1 is analogous to Claim 14 of Khesin et al. [12]. Their proof can be interpreted as charging each of the summands in $\Lambda \cdot ||B\hat{b}||_1$ to the cost of the optimal flow where they overcharge by a factor equal to the depth of their tree. For our proof, we consider a path decomposition of the flow and charge to the cost of the flow one path at a time. Cell sides do not intersect moats of points in $P$, so only $O(\log(n/\varepsilon_0))$ charges made to a single path flow are comparable to its cost. The remaining charges are negligible. See Appendix C for details.

\textbf{Lemma 3.2.} We have $\min\{||f||_E : f \in \mathbb{R}^E, Af = \hat{b}\} \leq \kappa ||B\hat{b}||_1$ for some $\kappa = O(\varepsilon_0^{-1} \log(n/\varepsilon_0)^2)$. Moreover, a flow vector $f$ satisfying $Af = \hat{b}$ of cost at most $\kappa ||B\hat{b}||_1$ can be computed in $O(m)$ time.

The proof of Lemma 3.2 describes a similar greedy algorithm as the one used to prove Claim 15 of Khesin et al. [12]. See Appendix C for details.

\textbf{Lemma 3.3.} Applications of $BA$ and $(BA)^T$ to arbitrary vectors $f \in \mathbb{R}^E$ and $\hat{b} \in \mathbb{R}^V$, respectively, can be done in $O(m)$ time.

\textbf{Proof.} Both applications can be performed using dynamic programming algorithms.

\textbf{Computing $BAf$}

Let $A' = Af$. Recall, $\forall v \in V$, $A'_v$ is the divergence of $v$ given flow $f$. Matrix $A$ has $m$ non-zero entries, so $A'$ can be computed in $O(m)$ time.

We compute $BAf$ by computing $BA'$. Let $\nu$ be any net point of $G$, and let $\tilde{C}$ be its subcell. From the definition of $B$, we have $(BA')_{\nu} = \frac{\Delta_{\tilde{C}}}{\Lambda} \sum_{v \in \tilde{C}} A'_v$. Now, let $\tilde{C}^+$ be the (possibly empty) set of all child subcells of $\tilde{C}$ with net points in $G$. We have $\sum_{v \in \tilde{C}} A'_v = A'_v + \sum_{C \in \tilde{C}^+} \sum_{v \in C} A'_v$. Thus, we can use dynamic programming to compute $BA'$ in $O(m)$ time. Each entry is filled in during a postorder traversal of the quadtree cells.

\footnote{We use $\log$ to denote the logarithm with base 2.}
Computing \((BA)^T \tilde{b}\)

Recall, \((BA)^T = A^T B^T\). Let \(b' = B^T \tilde{b}\). We begin by computing \(b'\). Let \(\mathcal{C}\) be any subcell with a net point in \(G\), and let \(\nu = N_{\mathcal{C}}\). Let \(\mathcal{C}'\) be the set of all ancestor subcells of \(\mathcal{C}\) with net points in \(G\) including \(\mathcal{C}\). We have \(b'_\nu = \sum_{\mathcal{C}' \in \mathcal{C}'} \Delta E_{\mathcal{C}'} \tilde{b}_{N_{\mathcal{C}'}} = \Delta E_{\mathcal{C}} \tilde{b}_{N_{\mathcal{C}}} + b'_{N_{\mathcal{C}}}\). Therefore, we can use dynamic programming to compute \(b'\) in \(O(m)\) time. Each entry is filled in during a preorder traversal of the quadtree cells. Finally, \(A^T\) has \(m\) non-zero entries, so \(A^T B^T \tilde{b} = A^T b'\) can be computed in \(O(m)\) time as well.

We have shown there exists a \((1 + 2\varepsilon, 0)\)-solver for the minimum cost flow problem on \(G\). Plugging in all the pieces, we get a running time bounded by

\[
O(m\varepsilon_0^{-2} \log^3 (n/\varepsilon_0)(\varepsilon^{-2} + \log (n/\varepsilon_0))).
\]

Recall, \(\varepsilon_0 = O(\varepsilon/ \log n)\). We run the preconditioning framework algorithm in each graph \(G\) induced by a simple sub-quadtree’s net points as described in Section 2.3. The final running time to compute a flow in \(G^*\) of cost at most \((1+\varepsilon)\text{Cost}(P, \mu)\) is

\[
O(n\varepsilon^{-O(d)} \log^{O(d)} n).
\]

4 Recovering a transportation map from the minimum cost flow

We now describe how to recover a transportation map of \(P\) using the approximately minimum cost flow \(\hat{f} \in \hat{E}\) we computed for \(G^*\). Unlike \(\hat{f}\), the transportation map \(\tau\) contains only weighted pairs of points in \(P\). We will implicitly maintain a flow \(f\) of cost at most \(||\hat{f}||_G\), that will eventually describe our transportation map. Abusing notation, we extend the definition of \(f_{(u,v)}\) to include any pair of vertices in \(G^*\). Value \(f_{(u,v)}\) is initially 0 for all \(uv \notin E^*\). We follow the strategy of Khesin et al. [12] of iteratively rerouting flow going through each net point \(\nu\) to instead go directly between vertices receiving from or sending flow to \(\nu\), eventually resulting in no flow going through any net point. Nearly every pair containing a point \(p \in P\) and an ancestor net point may at some moment carry flow during this procedure. Because quadtree \(T^*\) has such high depth, we must take additional care.

To quickly maintain these flow assignments with points in \(P\), we store two data structures \(pt(\nu)\) and \(nt(\nu)\) for each net point \(\nu \in V^* \setminus P\). We call these data structures the prefix split trees of \(\nu\). The prefix split tree is stored as an ordered binary tree data structure where each node has a weight. We let \(w(x)\) denote the total weight of nodes in \(x\). These trees support the standard operations of insertion and deletion. They support changing the weight of a single node. They support the Merge\((S, S')\) operation which takes two trees \(S\) and \(S'\) and combines them into one tree with all members of \(S\) appearing in order before \(S'\). Finally, they support the PrefixSplit\((S, t)\) operation defined as follows. Given a target value \(t\) and a prefix split tree \(S\), PrefixSplit finds a maximal prefix of \(S\)'s nodes in order where the sum of node weights in the subset is less than or equal to \(t\). If the sum is less than \(t\), it splits the next node \(x\) into two nodes \(x_1\) and \(x_2\) where \(w(x_1) + w(x_2) = w(x)\). The split makes sure adding \(x_1\) to the maximal prefix subset makes the sum weight of the subset exactly equal to \(t\). The operation then splits off all members of this subset, including \(x_1\) if a node \(x\) was split, into their own tree \(S'\) and returns it, leaving \(S\) with only the remaining nodes. We emphasize that the order of nodes within the data structure is important for defining PrefixSplit, but the nodes are not “sorted” in any meaningful sense; in particular, any two trees can be merged as defined above. All those operations can be done in amortized \(O(\log m)\) time, where \(m\) is the number of nodes in the tree, by applying simple modifications to the splay tree data structure of Sleator and Tarjan [20]. We provide details on how to implement a prefix split tree in Appendix B.
In our setting, every node in \( pt(v) \) and \( nt(v) \) represents a point \( p \in P \). Thanks to our use of the \( \text{PrefixSplit} \) procedure, some points may be represented multiple times in a single tree. We use \( pt(v)[p] \) to denote the set nodes representing \( p \) in \( pt(v) \), and define \( nt(v)[p] \) similarly. Our algorithm implicitly maintains the invariant that for all net points \( v \) and points \( p \in P \), \( \sum_{x \in pt(v)[p]} w(x) - \sum_{y \in nt(v)[p]} w(y) = f(v,p) \). We proceed with Algorithm 1.

\textbf{Algorithm 1} Recovering a transportation map from an approximately minimum cost flow in \( G^* \).

\[
\begin{align*}
&\text{\underline{Initialize data structures.}} \\
&\text{For all net points } v \in V^* \setminus P \text{ and } p \in P \text{ where } f(p,v) > 0 \\
&\quad \delta \leftarrow \min \{ f(p,v), f(v,w) \} \\
&\quad f(u,w) \leftarrow f(u,w) + \delta \\
&\quad f(u,v) \leftarrow f(u,v) - \delta \\
&\quad f(v,w) \leftarrow f(v,w) - \delta \\
&\text{\underline{Cancel flow to/from other net points.}} \\
&\text{While } \exists u, w \in N_C \cup N_C' : f(v,w) > 0 > f(u,v) \\
&\quad \delta \leftarrow \min \{ f(p,v), f(u,v) \} \\
&\quad pt' \leftarrow \text{PrefixSplit}(pt(v), f(u,v)) \\
&\quad \text{MERGE}(pt', pt(u)) \\
&\text{While } \exists w \in N_C \cup N_C' : f(v,w) > 0 \\
&\quad \text{\underline{Implicitly reduce } } f(p,v) \text{ and increase } f(u,v) \text{ for several } p \in P \\
&\quad nt' \leftarrow \text{PrefixSplit}(nt(v), f(v,w)) \\
&\quad \text{MERGE}(nt', nt(w)) \\
&\text{\underline{Now, all flow to/from } v \text{ involves points } p \in P.} \\
&\text{While } pt(v) \text{ and } nt(v) \text{ are not empty} \\
&\quad \delta \leftarrow \min \{ w(x), w(y) \} \\
&\quad f(p,q) \leftarrow f(p,q) + \delta \\
&\quad w(x) \leftarrow w(x) - \delta; \text{ if } w(x) = 0, \text{ delete } x \text{ from } nt(v) \\
&\quad w(y) \leftarrow w(y) - \delta; \text{ if } w(y) = 0, \text{ delete } y \text{ from } pt(v) \\
&\text{For all } (p,q) \in P \times P \text{ where } f(p,q) > 0 \\
&\quad \tau(p,q) \leftarrow f(p,q) \\
\end{align*}
\]

\textbf{Lemma 4.1.} Our algorithm results in a transportation map of cost at most \( A \| f \|_{E^*} \), and it can be implemented to run in \( O(n|\varepsilon|^2 \log^2(n/\varepsilon_0)) \) time.

As in Khesin et al. [12], we prove Lemma 4.1 by arguing that we remove all flow passing through each net point encountered during our postorder traversal of \( T^* \). Each change in the flow reduces its cost, and the number of changes involving two or more net points is nearly bounded by the size of \( T^* \). To account for the time spend moving flow to or from points \( p \in P \) in the forth while loop, we charge such operations to the moving of flow directly between net points. See Appendix C for details.
References


A Near-Linear Time Approximation Scheme for Geometric Transportation

A Decomposing minimum cost flow into simpler subproblems

Here, we reduce finding an approximately optimal flow for minimum cost flow instance \((G^*, b^*)\) to finding \(O(n)\) approximately optimal flows, each within an induced subgraph defined by the net points within a single simple sub-quadtree.

Recall, for each point \(p \in P\), \(\tilde{C}(p)\) denotes the smallest subcell containing \(p\), and \(N_C\) denotes the net point of subcell \(C\). Let \(f\) be the flow such that \(f(p, N_{\tilde{C}(p)}) = b_p^*\) for all \(p \in P\). Let \(G' = (V', E')\) and \(A'\) be the restriction of \(G^*\) and its vertex-edge incidence matrix \(A\) after removing all vertices \(p \in P\). Let \(b'\) be the restriction of \(b - Af\) to vertices of \(G'\). Every vertex \(p \in P\) of \(G^*\) has exactly one incident edge, so an optimal solution to our original minimum cost flow instance consists of \(f\) along with an optimal solution to the instance defined on \(A'\) and \(b'\). From here one, we focus on finding an approximately minimum cost flow in \(G'\).

Suppose there are multiple simple sub-quadtree. Let \(G_0 = (V_0, E_0)\) be the subgraph induced by the \(m\) net point vertices of a single simple sub-quadtree with no descendental sub-quadtrees. Let \(C\) be the root cell of the simple sub-quadtree for \(G_0\), let \(u\) be a net point for an arbitrary subcell of \(C\), and let \(v\) be the parent net point of \(u\) in \(G'\). In \(O(m)\) time, we compute \(B = \sum_{u \in V_0} b'_w\), the total divergence of vertices within \(G_0\). We then let \(f'\) be the flow in \(G'\) that is 0 everywhere except for \(f_{(u, v)} := B\). Finally, let \(b'' = b' - Af'\).

Notice that at least \(B\) units of flow in \(G_0\) needs to leave or enter \(C\) by edge at least the side length of \((C)\). Given \(\Delta(C) \leq O(1/n^2)\Delta_C\), we can lazily assign the flow between net points of \(C\) and \(v\) with increasing the cost by at most \(2\sqrt{\Delta(C)}B \leq O(1/n^2)\Delta_C B\). This suggests the following lemma.

Lemma A.1. There exists a flow \(f''\) in \(G'\) such that \(f''_{(u, x)} = 0\) for all \(w \in V_0, x \notin V_0; Af'' = b''\); and \(\|f'' + f'\|_{\tilde{E}} \leq (1 + O(1/n^2)) \cdot \text{Cost}(G', b')\).

Proof. Let \(\tilde{C}\) be the subcell for which \(v\) is a net point. Let \(\Delta_{\tilde{C}}\) be the side length of \(\tilde{C}\). By construction of \(G'\), at least \(B\) units of flow must travel to or from vertex \(v\) from \(G_0\) at a cost of \(\Delta_{\tilde{C}}\). Specifically, \(G_0\) is totally inside \(\tilde{C}\), \(v\) is the only vertex in \(\tilde{C}\) incident to some edge crossing the side of \(\tilde{C}\), and the nearest vertex \(x \notin V_0\) is at least \(\Delta_{\tilde{C}}\) far from \(v\). So \(\text{Cost}(G', b') \geq \Delta_{\tilde{C}} B\).

Suppose \(f^*\) is a flow in \(G'\) with cost \(\text{Cost}(G', b')\). Let \(N_C\) be the set of net points of subcells of \(C\). We may assume there is no pair \(y, z \in N_C\) such that \(f(y, v) > 0\) and \(f(z, v) > 0\), because we could send the flow directly between \(y\) and \(z\) more cheaply. We create flow \(f''\) as follows starting with \(f'' = f^*\). While there exists some vertex \(u' \in N_C \setminus \{u\}\) with \(f''_{(u', v)} \neq 0\),
We have \( \Phi(\text{weight of all the descendants of } x \text{ with the node itself}) \). Moreover, every node \( y \) keeps another value \( W(y) \) as well, because \( \Phi(Y) \) is side length of \( C \), because \( \Delta_C \leq O(1/n^2) \).

We have \( ||f''||_G \leq (1 + O(1/n^2)) \cdot \text{Cost}(G', b') \). Finally, let \( f'' = f'' - f' \).

The above lemma implies we can use the following strategy for approximating a minimum cost flow in \( G' \): Let \( b_0 \) be the restriction of \( b'' \) to \( V_0 \). We find a flow in \( G_0 \) with divergences \( b_0 \) of cost at most \( (1 + O(\varepsilon)) \cdot \text{Cost}(G_0, b_0) \) using the algorithm described in the next section. Then, we recursively apply our algorithm on \( G'' = (V'', E'') \), the induced subgraph over \( V'' = V' \setminus V_0 \). The depth of recursion is \( O(n) \), so the total cost from combining our separately computed flows is \( (1 + O(\varepsilon))(1 + O(1/n)) \cdot \text{Cost}(G', b') = (1 + O(\varepsilon)) \cdot \text{Cost}(G', b') \).

### B Prefix split trees

We implement our prefix split trees by modifying the splay tree data structure of Sleator and Tarjan [20]. Let \( S \) be a prefix split tree. We store the weight \( w(x) \) of each node \( x \) directly with the node itself. Moreover, every node \( x \) keeps another value \( W(x) \) equal to the sum weight of all the descendants of \( x \) including \( x \) itself.

A splay of a node \( x \) in \( S \) is a sequence of double rotations (possibly followed by a standard single rotation) that move \( x \) to the root of \( S \). Only those nodes on the path from the root to \( x \) have their children pointers updated by a splay. We can update \( W(y) \) for every such node \( y \) with only a constant factor overhead in the time to perform a splay. Let \( s(x) \) denote the number of descendants of \( x \) in its prefix split tree, and let \( r(x) = \lfloor \log s(x) \rfloor \). Let \( \Phi(S) = \sum_{x \in S} r(x) \). The amortized time for an operation on \( S \) can be defined as the real time spent on the operation plus the net change to \( \Phi(S) \) after the operation. The amortized time for a splay in an \( n \)-node tree is \( O(\log m) \) [20].

Recall, the order of nodes within a tree is largely irrelevant outside the definition of the \texttt{PrefixSplit} operation. To insert a node \( x \) in \( S \), we add \( x \) as the child of an arbitrary leaf of \( S \) and splay \( x \) to the root. The number of operations in the splay dominates, so the amortized cost of insertion is \( O(\log m) \). To delete a node \( x \), we splay \( x \) to the root and delete it, resulting in two disconnected subtrees \( S_1 \) and \( S_2 \). We then perform a \texttt{Merge}(\( S_1, S_2 \)) in \( O(\log m) \) amortized time as described below, so the whole deletion has amortized cost \( O(\log m) \). To update the weight of a node \( x \), we splay \( x \) to the root and update \( w(x) \) and \( W(x) \) in constant time each. The splay once again dominates, so the total amortized cost is \( O(\log m) \).

The operation \texttt{Merge}(\( S_1, S_2 \)) is implemented as follows. Let \( x \) be the rightmost leaf of \( S_1 \). We splay \( x \) to the root so it has exactly one child. We then make the root of \( S_2 \) the other child of \( x \). Let \( m \) be the total number of nodes in \( S_1 \) and \( S_2 \). Adding \( S_2 \) as a child increases \( \Phi(S_1) + \Phi(S_2) \) by \( O(\log m) \), so the amortized time for the \texttt{Merge} is \( O(\log m) \).

Finally, we discuss the implementation of \texttt{PrefixSplit}(\( S, t \)). We assume \( t > 0 \). We use the values \( W(\cdot) \) to find the prefix of nodes desired. Let \( y \) be the next node in order after the prefix. We splay \( y \) to the root of \( S \). Let \( x \) be the left child of \( y \) (if it exists). Suppose \( W(x) < t \). We delete \( y \), creating two trees \( S_1 \) and \( S_2 \) where \( S_1 \) contains the nodes in the prefix. We create a new node \( y_1 \) of weight \( t - W(y) \) and make the root of \( S_1 \) its child so that \( y_1 \) is the new root. We create a node \( y_2 \) of weight \( W(y) - w(y_1) \) and make the root of \( S_2 \) its child. Now, suppose instead \( W(x) = t \). In this case, we simply remove the edge between \( x \) and \( y \) to create a subtree \( S_1 \) with \( x \) as its root. Let \( S_2 \) be the remainder of \( S \). Whether or not \( W(x) = t \), we return \( S_1 \) and set \( S = S_2 \). The amortized time for the \texttt{PrefixSplit} is the amortized time for a single splay and a constant number of edge changes, implying the \texttt{PrefixSplit} takes \( O(\log m) \) amortized time total.
C Omitted Proofs

Proof of Lemma 2.1. Suppose we are processing a cell $C$ containing point subset $P'$. Following standard practice [6], we assume access to $d$ doubly-linked lists containing the points of $P'$. The points in each list are sorted by distinct choices of one of their $d$ coordinates.

We now describe how to process $C$. We determine if $|P'| = 1$ in constant time. If so, we stop processing $C$ and discard its data structures. Otherwise, we use the lists to determine $\Delta_{P'}$ and $\square_{P'}$ in $O(1)$ time. If $\Delta_{P'} < \frac{\sqrt{c_0}}{3\sqrt{d}}$, we follow Rule 2 by doing the search for the new value of $z$ in $O(\log n)$ time. We pass along the lists for $C$ to the recursive quadtree construction.

Suppose $\Delta_{P'} \geq \frac{\sqrt{c_0}}{3\sqrt{d}}$. We can compute $C'$ and $\Delta'$ as defined in Rule 3 in constant time by building a standard compressed quadtree over the $2d$ extreme points of $P'$ in each dimension that respects the grid containing $C$ and examining its root [10, Chapter 2]. If $\Delta' < \frac{\Delta c_0}{n^2}$, we simply recurse with the same lists as described above.

Suppose all other tests fail and Rule 3b applies. We compute the point subsets and their lists going into each child cell by splitting $P'$ one dimension at a time. For each dimension, for each subset of points we already know go into different cells, we search the relevant linked list for that dimension from both ends simultaneously, so we know where to split the list in time proportional to the number of points in the less populated side of the split. In time proportional to the number of points going to the less populated side of the split, we also perform individual deletions and insertions to make the $d - 1$ new linked lists for the points on the less populated side. We pass along the lists we construct when computing subtrees for each child of $C$.

We spend $O(\log n)$ time per node in addition to the time spent searching, inserting, and deleting points from lists when applying Rule 3b. However, every time a point moves to a new data structure, the number of points in its cell drops by a factor of at least 2. We spend $O(m + n \log n) = O(m \log n)$ time total implementing Rule 3b.

Proof of Lemma 2.2. The condition to trigger Rule 3a guarantees every path of descendent cells with one child each has length $O(\log(n/\varepsilon_0))$. We immediately get Property 1.

Let $T_0$ be the singly-shifted sub-quadtree containing the root cell of $T^*$. By construction of $Z^*$, the smallest cells of $T_0$ lie $O(n \log (n/\varepsilon_0))$ (uncompressed) quadtree levels down. Therefore, at most $O(n \log (n/\varepsilon_0))$ shifted grids in $\mathbb{R}^d$ determine the boundaries of $T_0$’s (sub)cells. We see Property 2 is violated for at least one cell in $T_0$ with probability at most $c \cdot \frac{\Delta c_0}{n^2} \cdot \log \frac{n}{\varepsilon_0}$ for some constant $c$.

Assume from here on that Property 2 holds for all cells in $T_0$. The first part of Property 3 is guaranteed for $T_0$ by construction. Similarly, Property 4 is guaranteed for any simple sub-quadtree within $T_0$ by construction. Finally, let $p, q \in P$ be any pair of points where $||q - p|| < \frac{\sqrt{c_0}}{6\sqrt{dn^3}}$. By definition of $z$, we have $||q - p|| \leq 3 \cdot \frac{\sqrt{c_0}}{18\sqrt{dn^3}} = \frac{\sqrt{c_0}}{6\sqrt{dn}}$. Both points are distance at least $\frac{\sqrt{c_0}}{6\sqrt{dn^3}}$ from the side of any subcell, so they are not separated by any subcell of $T_0$, implying the second part of Property 3. Finally, Property 3 holds for all pairs of points, including the ones defining the bounding boxes for simple sub-quadtrees whose roots are children of leaves in $T_0$. The points are far enough away from the subcell boundaries that even the random shift of these simple sub-quadtrees will keep them inside their subcells. Property 4 holds for simple sub-quadtrees whose roots are the children of leaves in $T_0$.

Now, let $\{T_1, T_2, \ldots \}$ denote the distinct sub-quadtrees, each consisting of a child of a leaf in $T_0$ and all of the child’s descendants in $T^*$. For each $T_i$, let $n_i$ be the number of points over which $T_i$ is built. We have $n_1 \leq n - 1$ and $\sum_i n_i \leq n$. We may inductively assume Properties
Proof of Lemma 3.1. Let \( f^*_k := \arg\min_{f \in \mathbb{R}} \| f \|_{\tilde{E}} \). We arbitrarily decompose \( f^*_k \) into a set of flows \( F = \{ f^1, f^2, \ldots \} \) with the following properties: 1) each flow follows a simple path between two vertices \( u \) and \( v \); 2) for each flow \( f^i \in F \) and edge \((u, v) \in \tilde{E}\) either \( f^i(u, v) = 0 \) or its sign is equal to the sum of \( f^i(u, v) \); 3) for each flow \( f^i \in F \) and vertex \( v \), either \( (Af^i)_v = 0 \) or its sign is equal to \( \hat{b}_v \); and 4) for each edge \((u, v) \in \tilde{E}\), we have \( f^i_u = \sum_{f \in F} f^i(u, v) \). The existence of such a decomposition is a standard part of network flow theory and one can be computed in a simple greedy manner (however, our algorithm does not actually need to compute one).

From construction, we have \( \sum_{f \in F} \| f^i \|_{\tilde{E}} = \| f^*_k \|_{\tilde{E}} \). We describe a greedy algorithm based on one by Khesin et al. \[12\] to iteratively construct a feasible flow \( f \) satisfying \( Af = \hat{b} \) with a cost \( \| f \|_{\tilde{E}} \leq kB\hat{b} \) in \( O(m) \) time. At any point during \( f \)'s construction, we say the surplus of vertex \( u \in V \) is \( \pi(u, f) = (Af)_u - \hat{b}_u \), the difference between the current and desired divergences of \( u \).

1. For every cell \( C \) in a postorder traversal of \( G \)'s simple sub-quadtree, for every subcell \( \tilde{C} \) of \( C \), we do the following. Let \( \nu = N_{\tilde{C}} \). We choose any two child net points \( v, w \) of \( \nu \) such that \( \pi(v, f) > 0 > \pi(w, f) \). We then add \( \min\{|\pi(v, f)|, |\pi(w, f)|\} \) to \( f_{(w, v)} \). In doing so, we make the surplus of at least one child net point of \( v \) equal to 0, and we decrease the absolute values of surpluses of both \( v \) and \( w \). Therefore, after at most a number of steps equal to the number of child net points of \( \nu \), either all child net points have non-negative \( \nu \)
surplus or all child net points have non-positive surplus. Finally, for each vertex \( v \) among child net points with non-zero surplus, we set \( f_{(v,u)} = \pi(v, f) \). Afterward, every child net point of \( v \) has surplus 0. In other words, the unbalance among those child net points is collected into \( v \). Each net point \( v \) has at most \( 2^d \) child net points. Therefore, the total running time for this step is \( O(m) \).

2. After performing step 1), all net points with parents have a surplus of 0. We pick up any two net points \( u, v \) of subcells of \( T \)’s root cell with two different surplus signs as described in step 2 and add \( \min\{|\pi(u, f)|, |\pi(v, f)|\} \) to \( f_{(v,u)} \). After \( O(\epsilon_0^{-d}) = O(m) \) steps, all points \( v \in V \) will have surplus 0, and \( f \) is a feasible flow satisfying \( Af = b \).

We now analyze \( ||f||_{\tilde{B}} \). Consider a subcell \( \tilde{C} \) of some cell \( C \) with net point \( \nu \). Flow does not leave or enter \( \tilde{C} \) until we move flow between \( \nu \) and either another net point in \( C \) or \( \nu \)’s parent net point. Therefore, \( \pi(\nu, f) = -\sum_{v \in \tilde{C}} \tilde{b}_v \) immediately after moving flow from \( \nu \)’s children to \( \nu \) in step 1) above. All subsequent steps moving flow to or from \( \nu \) involve an edge of length at most \( \epsilon_0^{-1} \sqrt{d\Delta_{\tilde{C}}} \) and only serve to reduce \( |\pi(\nu, f)| \).

Summing over all subcells, we get

\[
||f||_{\tilde{B}} \leq \sum_{\tilde{C} \subseteq C} \epsilon_0^{-1} \sqrt{d\Delta_{\tilde{C}}} \sum_{v \in \tilde{C}} \tilde{b}_v \leq \epsilon_0^{-1} \sqrt{d\Delta} ||B\tilde{b}||_1.
\]

Therefore, \( ||f||_{\tilde{B}} \leq ||f||_{\tilde{G}} \leq \kappa||B\tilde{b}||_1 \), where \( \kappa = O(\epsilon_0^{-1} \log (n/\epsilon_0)) \).

**Proof of Lemma 4.1.** As stated, our algorithm implicitly maintains a flow \( f \) such that for all net points \( \nu \) and points \( p \in P \), \( \sum_{x \in p(\nu) \setminus p(\nu)} w(x) - \sum_{x \in n(\nu) \setminus p(\nu)} w(x) = f_{(\nu,p)} \). One can easily verify that after every iteration of any of the while loops, the divergences among all vertices in \( G^* \) remain the same. Further, after processing any net point \( v \) in the inner loop, there are no other vertices \( u \) in \( V^* \) such that \( f_{(u,v)} \neq 0 \). Observe the algorithm never changes the flow coming into or out of a net point \( v \) unless \( f_{(u,v)} \neq 0 \) for some vertex \( u \). Therefore, after \( v \) is processed, it never has flow going into or out of it again (Khesin et al. [12] refer to this property as \( v \) having uniform flow parity). Because we eventually process every net point in \( G^* \), we eventually end up with a flow \( f \) such that \( f_{(p,q)} \neq 0 \) only if \( p, q \in P \). We immediately see \( \tau \) is a transportation map.

To analyze the cost of \( \tau \), observe that after every iteration of a while loop, we replace some \( \delta \) units of flow passing through \( v \), possibly between multiple sources and one destination or vice versa, with \( \delta \) units going directly from the source(s) to the destination(s). By the triangle inequality, this new way to route flow is cheaper, so the final flow \( f \), and subsequently \( \tau \) has smaller cost than \( \tilde{f} \).

To implement our algorithm quickly, we only explicitly store new flow values whenever we have a line \( \text{"} f_{(u,w)} \leftarrow \_ \text{"} \) for some pair of vertices \( (u, w) \). Observe that every time we finish processing a cell, every one of its net points is also processed. By the above discussion, flow no longer passes through those net points. Therefore, as we process the net points for a cell \( C \), we never send flow from a net point \( v \in N_C \) to a net point outside \( N_C \cup N_C' \). Every time we change flow going through another net point while processing a net point \( v \), we decrease the number net points \( u \) such that \( f_{(u,v)} \neq 0 \) by one. There are \( O(n\epsilon_0^{-d} \log (n/\epsilon_0)) \) net points, and \( O(\epsilon_0^{-d}) \) other net points in each \( N_C \cup N_C' \), so the number of iterations total in the first three while loops is \( O(n\epsilon_0^{-2d} \log (n/\epsilon_0)) \). Finally, observe that we only do PrefixSplit operations during these while loops, implying we create a total of \( O(n\epsilon_0^{-2d} \log (n/\epsilon_0)) \) nodes throughout all prefix split trees. Every iteration of the fourth while loop results in deleting a node from at least one of \( nt(v) \) or \( pt(v) \), so the number of iterations of this while loop is \( O(n\epsilon_0^{-2d} \log (n/\epsilon_0)) \) as well. Finally, every while loop iteration consists of a constant number of operations in addition to a constant number of prefix split tree operations, each of which can be done in \( O(\log (n/\epsilon_0)) \) amortized time.