

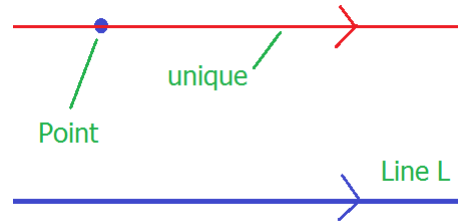
## Hyperbolic Geometry and Graphs

Yuval Shavitt

### Euclid axioms.

1. Every two **points** lie on exactly one **line**.
2. Any **line** segment with given endpoints may be continued in either direction.
3. It is possible to construct a **circle** with any **point** as its centre and with a radius of any length.
4. All **right angles** are equal.
5. Given a **line**  $L$  and a **point** not on  $L$ , there is one and only one **line** which contains the **point** and which is **parallel** to  $L$ .

It is this fifth **axiom**,  
the **Parallel Postulate**,  
that caused  
a lot of trouble.



The question was, could this be derived from the other **axioms**  
and common notions as a **theorem**?

If so, it could be removed from the **list of axioms**,  
which would then be a smaller yet still (hopefully) **complete** set.

**Euclid** himself seems to be unsure on this question.

He certainly seems to go out of his way to  
avoid using the **Parallel Postulate** in his opening **theorems**.

Many, many mathematicians attempted to prove  
the **Parallel Postulate** to be either a necessary **axiom**,  
or a **theorem**. All failed until the 19<sup>th</sup> century,  
when **Gauss**, **Lobachevsky** and **Bolyai** found a solution.



Carl Friedrich Gauss  
(1777-1855)



Nikolai Lobachevsky  
(1792-1856)

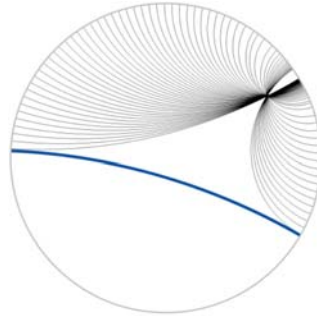


Janos Bolyai  
(1802-1860)

They had the idea of replacing the **Parallel Postulate** with another **axiom**, without removing the idea that the **axioms** should be **consistent**.

The revised fifth **axiom** looked like this:

*Given a **line** and a **point** not on that line, there are **infinitely many lines** parallel to the given **line** through the **point**.*



All the other **axioms** were the same.

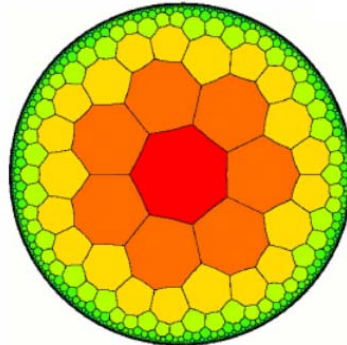
This new geometry was shown to be **consistent**, and so another geometry could stand alongside **Euclid's** as a possible way of modelling the universe.

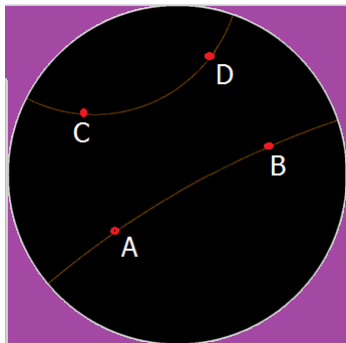
This proved **Euclid** to have been remarkably far-sighted in including his fifth **axiom** in his list. The work above shows that it cannot be derived from the others, and is thus essential.

So what does **Non-Euclidean Geometry** look like?

Well, there are a number of non-Euclidean geometries.

We will look at here **hyperbolic geometry**, as investigated by **Gauss**, **Lobachevsky** and **Bolyai**, which can be modelled simply by the following **geometry-in-a-circle**.





We are free to interpret the notions of **'point'** and **'line'** in Euclid's axioms as we wish, as long as we are consistent.

The picture shows two **(straight) 'lines'** in this geometry; these are arcs of **circles** that meet the black **circle** edge at right angles.

A **straight line** in any geometry is the shortest distance between two **points** (the geodesic).

We have an unusual idea of distance in operation here that means these circular arcs are indeed the shortest distance between the given **points**.

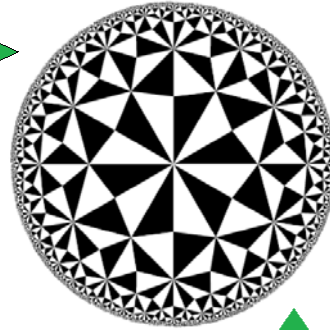
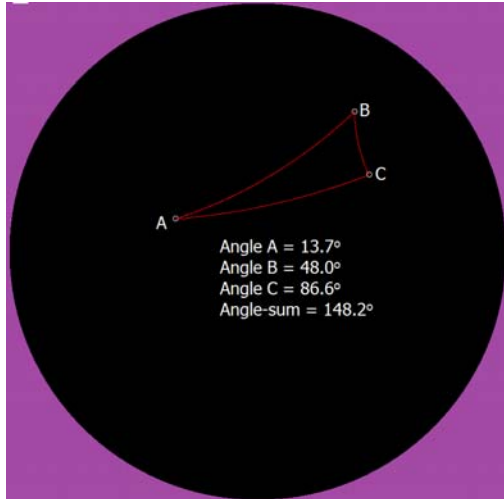
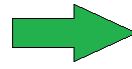
If we regard our black **circle** as the unit **circle**, centre  $O$ , in the Argand diagram, the **distance** between the points  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  is

$$d(z_1, z_2) = \tanh^{-1} \left( \left| \frac{z_2 - z_1}{1 - \bar{z}_1 z_2} \right| \right)$$

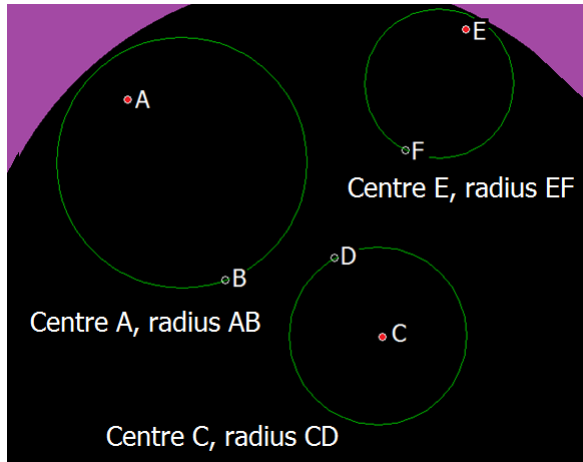
If  $z_2 = 1$  and  $z_1 = -1$ , then  $d(z_1, z_2) = \tanh^{-1}(1) = \infty$ .

The **distance function (or metric)** here is such that towards the edge of the circle, **distances** get bigger and bigger. The **distance** across the entire circle is infinite.

The area of each triangle here, for example, is the same.



What are the angles here?  $90^\circ$ ,  $45^\circ$  and  $30^\circ$ , which add to  $165^\circ$ . The angle-sum of a triangle in hyperbolic geometry is less than  $180^\circ$ .

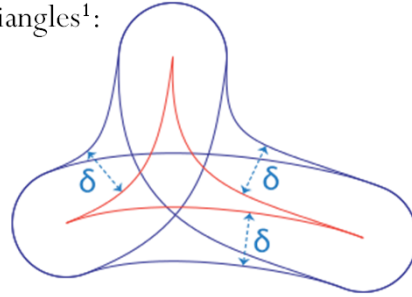


A miraculous fact: **circles** in this geometry, (even with our strange idea of distance), look exactly like **circles** in Euclidean geometry.

Their centres, however, don't: the less central that the centre of the **circle** is, the more it diverges from the Euclidean centre.

## $\delta$ -Hyperbolic Spaces

- A  $\delta$ -hyperbolic space is a geodesic metric space in which **every** geodesic triangle is  $\delta$ -thin.
- Definition by Rips – Thin Triangles<sup>1</sup>:

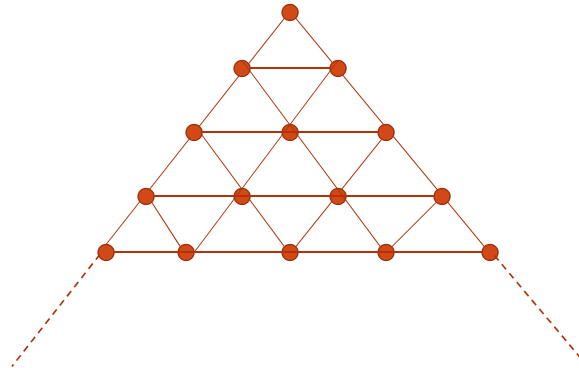


- Obviously a Euclidean metric is  $\infty$ -hyperbolic, as  $\delta$  is not bounded.

1. " $\delta$ -hyperbolic space", *Wikipedia*, [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/%CE%94-hyperbolic\\_space](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/%CE%94-hyperbolic_space).

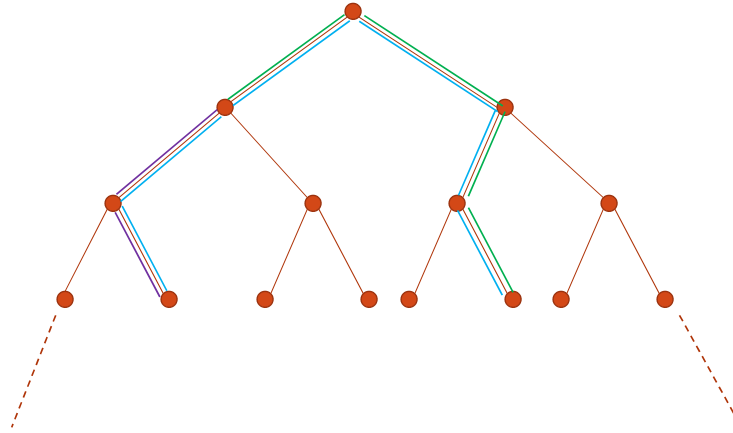
## $\delta$ -Hyperbolicity of Infinite Lattices

- Infinite lattices may be Euclidean or hyperbolic:
- For an infinite triangle lattice, the distance from the triangle's sides keeps growing & growing as the triangle is growing.



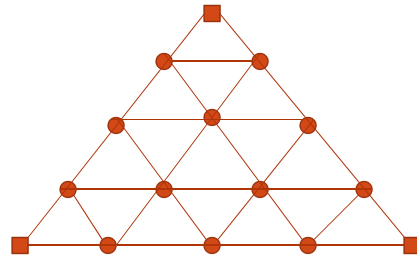
## $\delta$ -Hyperbolicity of Infinite Lattices

- On the other hand, other types of lattices may be hyperbolic, like a tree (which is 0-hyperbolic):



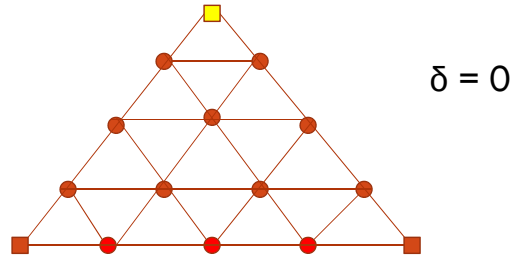
## $\delta$ -Hyperbolicity of Finite Graphs

- Finite graphs are (almost) always hyperbolic.
- Let's take a triangular lattice as an example:



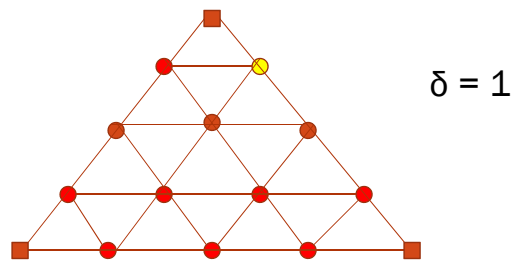
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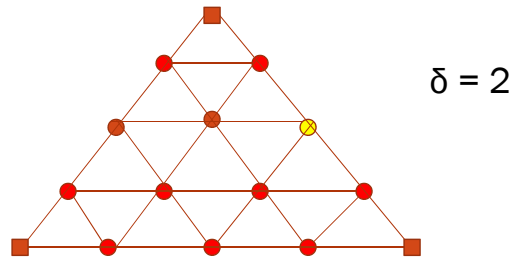
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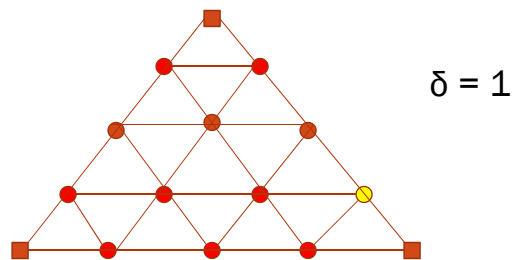
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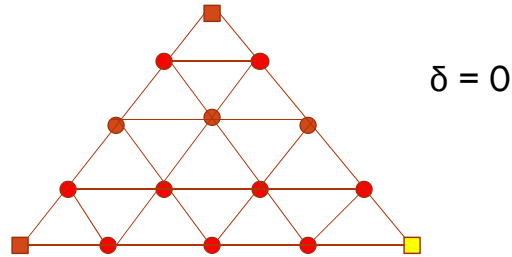
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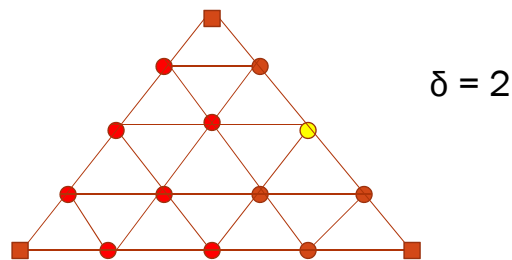
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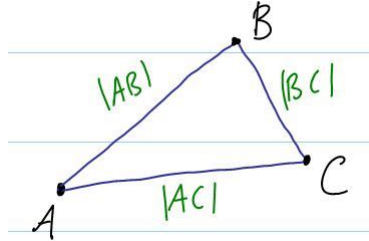
- Finite graphs are (almost) always hyperbolic.
- Let's take a triangular lattice as an example:



- Therefore in this example, the graph is 2-hyperbolic.
- In the general form, for a side of length  $l$ , the graph is  $\lfloor \frac{l}{2} \rfloor$ -hyperbolic.

## $\delta$ -Hyperbolic Spaces

- In a Euclidean space, we can represent three points A, B, C with a triangle<sup>1</sup>:

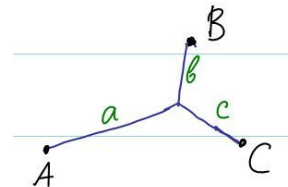


- The shortest distance from A to B is of length  $|AB|$ , and so on.

1. "Tight spans and Gromov hyperbolicity", *Calculus VII*, <http://calculus7.org/2012/11/11/tight-spans-and-gromov-hyperbolicity/>.

## $\delta$ -Hyperbolic Spaces

- There is another way to represent this<sup>1</sup>:



- This tripod representation yields 3 equations:

$$\begin{aligned} a + b &= |AB| \\ a + c &= |AC| \\ b + c &= |BC| \end{aligned}$$

- Solving this set of equations yields:

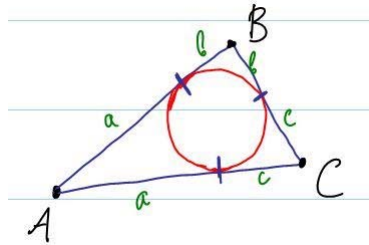
$$\begin{aligned} a &= \frac{1}{2}(|AB| + |AC| - |BC|) \\ b &= \frac{1}{2}(|AB| + |BC| - |AC|) \\ c &= \frac{1}{2}(|AC| + |BC| - |AB|) \end{aligned}$$

- We denote  $a = (B|C)_A$ , the **Gromov product** of B and C with respect to A.

1. "Tight spans and Gromov hyperbolicity", *Calculus VII*, <http://calculus7.org/2012/11/11/tight-spans-and-gromov-hyperbolicity/>.

## $\delta$ -Hyperbolic Spaces

- The geometric way to arrive to this result is by inscribing a circle in the triangle<sup>1</sup>:



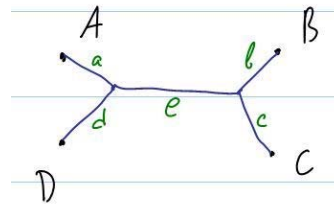
- The circle divides the sides such that we get  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$ .

1. "Tight spans and Gromov hyperbolicity", *Calculus VII*, <http://calculus7.org/2012/11/11/tight-spans-and-gromov-hyperbolicity/>.

## $\delta$ -Hyperbolic Spaces

- How may we represent 4 points this way<sup>1</sup>?

- At first we may try by analogy:

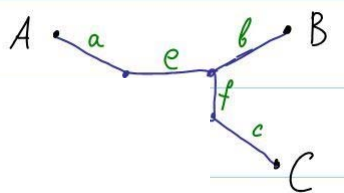


- However, this way we have only 5 degrees of freedom, while we have a set of 6 different distances.
- A solution is not guaranteed. For example:
  - Suppose  $|AB| = |BC| = |CD| = |DA| = 1$  and  $|AC| = |BD| = 2$ .
  - Both B & D must be on the midpoint between A and C.
  - However,  $|BD|$  must be 2, not 0.

1. "Tight spans and Gromov hyperbolicity", *Calculus VII*, <http://calculus7.org/2012/11/11/tight-spans-and-gromov-hyperbolicity/>.

## $\delta$ -Hyperbolic Spaces

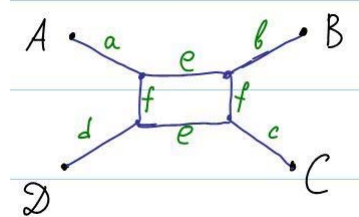
- We add another degree of freedom<sup>1</sup>:



- We can solve 6 equations with 6 variables.
- Even simpler – note that A, B, C form a tripod with side lengths of  $a+e$ ,  $b$ ,  $c+f$ .
  - This immediately yields:  $b = (A | C)_B$ .
  - Similarly,  $a = (B | C)_A$ ,  $c = (A | B)_C$ ,  $d = (A | C)_D$ .

1. "Tight spans and Gromov hyperbolicity", *Calculus VII*, <http://calculus7.org/2012/11/11/tight-spans-and-gromov-hyperbolicity/>.

## $\delta$ -Hyperbolic Spaces



- Consider the perfect matchings between the points A, B, C, D<sup>1</sup>:

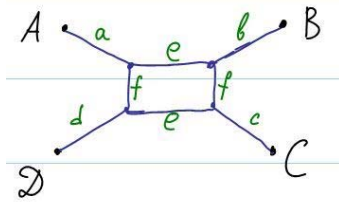
$$|AB| + |CD| = (a + b + c + d) + 2e$$

$$|AD| + |BC| = (a + b + c + d) + 2f$$

$$|AC| + |BD| = (a + b + c + d) + 2e + 2f$$

1. "Tight spans and Gromov hyperbolicity", *Calculus VII*, <http://calculus7.org/2012/11/11/tight-spans-and-gromov-hyperbolicity/>.

## $\delta$ -Hyperbolic Spaces

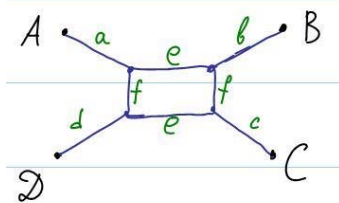


$$\begin{aligned} |AB| + |CD| &= (a + b + c + d) + 2e \\ |AD| + |BC| &= (a + b + c + d) + 2f \\ |AC| + |BD| &= (a + b + c + d) + 2e + 2f \end{aligned}$$

- $2e$  and  $2f$  are the amounts by which the longest matching exceeds the other two<sup>1</sup>.
- In particular, the rectangle collapses into an edge when the two longest matchings have the same size (as happens in a tree).

1. "Tight spans and Gromov hyperbolicity", *Calculus VII*, <http://calculus7.org/2012/11/11/tight-spans-and-gromov-hyperbolicity/>.

## $\delta$ -Hyperbolic Spaces



$$\begin{aligned} |AB| + |CD| &= (a + b + c + d) + 2e \\ |AD| + |BC| &= (a + b + c + d) + 2f \\ |AC| + |BD| &= (a + b + c + d) + 2e + 2f \end{aligned}$$

- Definition: a metric space is **Gromov hyperbolic** if for every 4 points<sup>1</sup>:  

$$\exists \delta \geq 0, \min(e, f) \leq \delta$$
- More intuitively – if the rectangle in the middle is not “too fat”.

1. "Tight spans and Gromov hyperbolicity", *Calculus VII*, <http://calculus7.org/2012/11/11/tight-spans-and-gromov-hyperbolicity/>.

## $\delta$ -Hyperbolicity of Finite Graphs

- An equivalent definition:

Given a graph  $G = (V, E)$  and 4 vertices  $v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4 \in V$ , let:

$$d_1 = d(v_1, v_2) + d(v_3, v_4)$$

$$d_2 = d(v_1, v_3) + d(v_2, v_4)$$

$$d_3 = d(v_1, v_4) + d(v_2, v_3)$$

Without loss of generality, let:

$$d_1 \geq d_2 \geq d_3$$

We define:

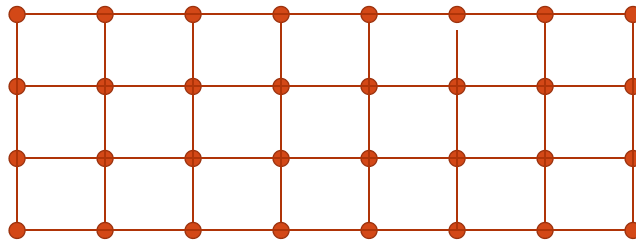
$$\delta(v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4) = \frac{d_1 - d_2}{2}$$

- The hyperbolicity of the graph is therefore defined by:

$$\delta = \max_{v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4 \in V} \delta(v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4)$$

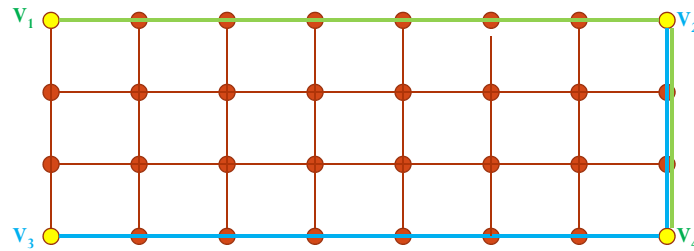
## $\delta$ -Hyperbolicity of Finite Graphs

- Example on a 4X8 grid:



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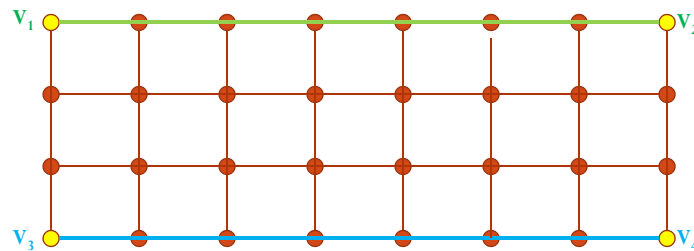
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$$d_1 = 10 + 10 = 20$$

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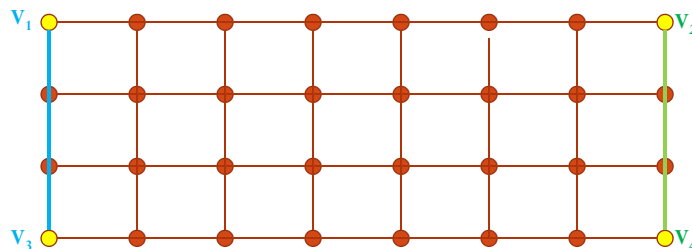
$$d_1 = 10 + 10 = 20$$

$$d_2 = 7 + 7 = 14$$



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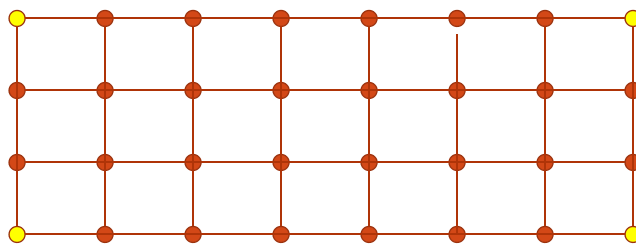
$$d_1 = 10 + 10 = 20$$

$$d_2 = 7 + 7 = 14$$

$$d_3 = 3 + 3 = 6$$

## $\delta$ -Hyperbolicity of Finite Graphs

- Example on a 4X8 grid:



$$d_1 = 10 + 10 = 20$$

$$d_2 = 7 + 7 = 14$$

$$d_3 = 3 + 3 = 6$$

$$\delta = \frac{20 - 14}{2} = 3$$

## Applications

- Estimating distances on the Internet by embedding it onto a hyperbolic space<sup>1</sup>:
  - Closest-server.
  - Building an application level multicast tree.
- Label routing<sup>2</sup>.
- Classical problems in hyperbolic space<sup>3</sup>:
  - PTAS for TSP problem when cities lie in  $H^d$ .
  - Nearest neighbor search data structure with  $O(\log n)$  query time,  $O(n^2)$  space.
- And more others!

1. Y. Shavitt and T. Tankel, "Hyperbolic Embedding of Internet Graphs for Distance Estimation and Overlay Construction", *IEEE/ACM Transactions on Networking*, 16(1):25—36, 2008.
2. D. Krioukov, F. Papadopoulos, M. Kitsak, A. Vahdat, and M. Boguna, "Hyperbolic Geometry of Complex Networks", *Physical Review E*, v.82, 036106, 2010.
3. R. Krauthgamer and J. Lee, "Algorithms on Negatively Curved Spaces", *FOCS '06 Proceedings of the 47th Annual IEEE Symposium on Foundations of Computer Science*, pp. 119-132, 2006.

## The Problem

- Brute force solution for finding a graph's  $\delta$ -Hyperbolicity includes going over  $O(n^4)$  quads of vertices.
- Not feasible for large networks.
- **How may we find  $\delta$  (or a good estimate) more efficiently?**
- This is your **home assignment**
  - You can assume  $O(E) = O(V)$