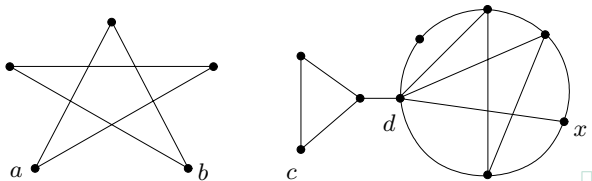


### 3 Distances in Graphs

While the previous lecture studied mainly bare graph connectivity, now we are going to investigate how “long” a connection could be.

This naturally leads to the concept of graph distance, which has two variants: a simple one only measures by the number of edges, while the weighted one has a “length” for each edge.



#### Brief outline of this lecture

- Distance in a graph, basic properties.
- Graph metrics, and a dynamic computation of it (Floyd–Warshall).
- Dijkstra’s algorithm for the shortest weighted distance in a graph.

## 3.1 Graph distance

Recall that a walk of length  $n$  in a graph  $G$  is an alternating sequence of vertices and edges  $v_0, e_1, v_1, e_2, v_2, \dots, e_n, v_n$  such that each  $e_i$  has edns  $v_{i-1}, v_i$ .

**Definition 3.1.** **Distance**  $d_G(u, v)$  between two vertices  $u, v$  of a graph  $G$  is defined as the length of the **shortest walk** between  $u$  and  $v$  in  $G$ .

If there is now walk between  $u, v$ , then we declare  $d_G(u, v) = \infty$ .  $\square$

Informally and naturally, the distance between  $u, v$  equals *the least possible number of edges* traversed from  $u$  to  $v$ . Specially  $d_G(u, u) = 0$ .

Recall, moreover, that the shortest walk is always a path – Theorem 2.2.

**Fact:** The distance in an **undirected** graph is symmetric, i.e.  $d_G(u, v) = d_G(v, u)$ .  $\square$

**Lemma 3.2.** *The graph distance satisfies the **triangle inequality**:*

$$\forall u, v, w \in V(G) : d_G(u, v) + d_G(v, w) \geq d_G(u, w).$$

**Proof.** Easily; starting with a walk of length  $d_G(u, v)$  from  $u$  to  $v$ , and appending a walk of length  $d_G(v, w)$  from  $v$  to  $w$ , results in a walk of length  $d_G(u, v) + d_G(v, w)$  from  $u$  to  $w$ . This is an upper bound on the real distance from  $u$  to  $w$ .  $\square$

## How to find the distance

**Theorem 3.3.** *Let  $u, v, w$  be vertices of a connected graph  $G$  such that  $d_G(u, v) < d_G(u, w)$ . Then the breadth-first search algorithm on  $G$ , starting from  $u$ , finds the vertex  $v$  before  $w$ .  $\square$*

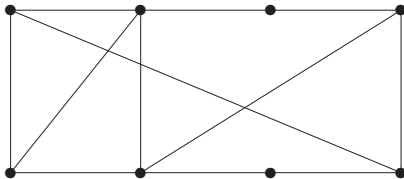
**Proof.** We apply induction on the distance  $d_G(u, v)$ : If  $d_G(u, v) = 0$ , i.e.  $u = v$ , then it is trivial that  $v$  is found first. So let  $d_G(u, v) = d > 0$  and  $v'$  be a neighbour of  $v$  closer to  $u$ , which means  $d_G(u, v') = d - 1$ . Analogously choose  $w'$  a neighbour of  $w$  closer to  $u$ . Then

$$d_G(u, w') \geq d_G(u, w) - 1 > d_G(u, v) - 1 = d_G(u, v'),$$

and so  $v'$  has been found before  $w'$  by the inductive assumption. Hence  $v'$  has been stored into  $U$  before  $w'$ , and (cf. FIFO) neighbours of  $v'$  are found before neighbours of  $w'$ .  $\square$

**Corollary 3.4.** *Breadth-first search algorithm on  $G$  correctly determines graph distances from the starting vertex.*

## Other related terms



**Definition.** Let  $G$  be a graph. We define, with respect to  $G$ , the following notions:

- The **eccentricity** of a vertex  $\text{exc}(v)$  is the largest distance from  $v$  to another vertex;  $\text{exc}(v) = \max_{x \in V(G)} d_G(v, x)$ .  $\square$
- The **diameter**  $\text{diam}(G)$  of  $G$  is the largest eccentricity over its vertices, and the **radius**  $\text{rad}(G)$  of  $G$  is the smallest eccentricity over its vertices.  $\square$
- The **center** of  $G$  is the subset  $U \subseteq V(G)$  of vertices such that their eccentricity equals  $\text{rad}(G)$ .

## 3.2 Computing all-pairs distances

**Definition:** The *metrics* of a graph is the collection of distances between all pairs of its vertices. In other words, the metrics is a matrix  $d[,]$  such that  $d[i, j]$  is the distance from  $i$  to  $j$ . □

### Method 3.5. Dynamic programming for all-pair distances

- Initially, let  $d[i, j]$  be 1 (alt. the **edge length of  $\{i, j\}$** ), or  $\infty$  if  $i, j$  are not adjacent. □
- After every step  $t \geq 0$  let  $d[i, j]$  be the shortest length of a path between  $i, j$  such that its internal vertices are from  $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, t - 1\}$ . □
- Moving from step  $t$  to  $t + 1$ , we update all the distances as:
  - Either  $d[i, j]$  from the previous step is still optimal (the vertex  $t$  does not help to obtain a shorter path),
  - or there is a shorter path through the vertex  $t$ , which is of length  $d[i, t] + d[t, j]$ . □

**Theorem 3.6.** *Method 3.5 correctly computes the distance  $d[i, j]$  between each vertex pair  $i, j$ .*

**Remark:** In a practical implementation we may use, say,  $\text{MAX\_INT}/2$  in place of  $\infty$ .

### Algorithm 3.7. Floyd–Warshall algorithm (cf. 3.5)

```
input < the adjacency matrix  $G[] []$  of an  $N$ -vertex graph,  
      such that the vertices of  $G$  are indexed as  $0 \dots N-1$ ,  
      and  $G[i,j]=1$  if  $i,j$  adjacent and  $G[i,j]=0$  otherwise;  
  
for (i=0; i<N; i++) for (j=0; j<N; j++)  
    d[i,j] = (i==j?0: (G[i,j]? 1: MAX_INT/2));  
for (t=0; t<N; t++) {  
    for (i=0; i<N; i++) for (j=0; j<N; j++)  
        d[i,j] = min(d[i,j], d[i,t]+d[t,j]);  
}  
return 'The distance matrix d[] []'; □
```

Notice that this Algorithm 3.7 is extremely simple and relatively fast—it runs about  $N^3$  steps to get the whole distance matrix.

Its only problem is that **all-pairs** distances must be computed at the same time, even if we need to know just one distance...

### 3.3 Weighted distance in graphs

**Definition 3.8.** A **weighted graph** is a graph  $G$  together with a weighting  $w$  of the edges by real numbers  $w : E(G) \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  (edge lengths in this case). A **positively weighted graph**  $G, w$  is such that  $w(e) > 0$  for all edges  $e$ .

The edge weights  $w(e)$  are sometimes called also **edge costs**.  $\square$

**Definition:** Consider a positively weighted graph  $G, w$ . The length of the weighted walk  $S = v_0, e_1, v_1, e_2, v_2, \dots, e_n, v_n$  in  $G$  is the sum

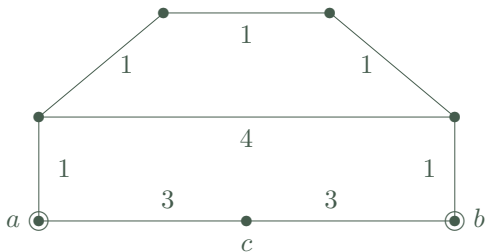
$$d_G^w(S) = w(e_1) + w(e_2) + \dots + w(e_n).$$

The **weighted distance** in  $G, w$  between a vertex pair  $u, v$  is

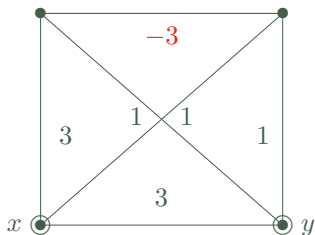
$$d_G^w(u, v) = \min\{d_G^w(S) : S \text{ is a walk between } u, v\} . \square$$

Analogously to Section 3.1 we have:

**Lemma 3.9.** *The weighted distance in a positively weighted graph satisfies the **triangle inequality**.*



The distances between  $a-c$  and between  $b-c$  are 3. What about the  $a-b$  distance?  Is it 6?  No, the distance from  $a$  to  $b$  in the graph is 5 (traverse the upper v.).



And what is the  $x-y$  distance now? Say, 3 or 1?  No, it is  $-\infty$ . We have got a very **good reason to forbid negative edges!**



## 3.4 Computing the shortest paths

This section with the more specific problem of finding the shortest distance between one pair of terminals in a graph. This very frequent problem is usually solved using Dijkstra's or  $A^*$  algorithms.

**Remark:** The coming Dijkstra's algorithm is, on one hand, slightly more involved than Algorithm 3.7, but it is significantly faster in the computation of single shortest distance, on the other hand. □

### Dijkstra's algorithm

- Is a variant of graph searching (related to BFS), in which every discovered vertex carries a *variable keeping its temporary distance*—the length of the shortest so far discovered walk reaching this vertex from the starting vertex. □
- We always pick from the depository the vertex with the **shortest** temporary distance. This is because no shorter walk may reach this vertex (assuming **nonnegative** edge lengths). □
- At the end of processing, the temporary distances become final shortest distances from the starting vertex (cf. Theorem 3.12).

### Algorithm 3.10. Computing the single-source shortest paths (Dijkstra)

*Finding the shortest path(s) from  $u$  to  $v$ , or from  $u$  to all other vertices.*

input  $\langle$  N-vertex graph given by adjacencies  $\text{neib}[] []$  and corr. lengths  $\text{len}[] []$ ,  
where  $\text{neib}[i][0], \dots, \text{neib}[i][\text{dg}[i]-1]$  are the neighbours of a  
degree- $\text{dg}[i]$  vertex  $i$ , and the length from  $i$  to  $\text{neib}[i][k]$  is  $\text{len}[i][k] > 0$ ;  
input  $\langle u, v$ , where  $u$  is the starting vertex and  $v$  the destination;  $\square$

*// state[i] records the vertex processing state, dist[i] is the temporary distance*

```
for (i=0; i<=N; i++) { dist[i] = MAX_INT; state[i] = 0; }
```

```
dist[u] = 0;  $\square$ 
```

```
while (state[v]==0) {
```

```
    for (i=0, j=N; i<N; i++)
```

```
        if (state[i]==0 && dist[i]<dist[j]) j = i;
```

```
    // picking the nearest unprocessed vertex j, and processing it...
```

```
    if (dist[j]==MAX_INT) return 'No path';
```

```
    state[j] = 1;  $\square$ 
```

```
    for (k=0; k<dg[j]; k++)
```

```
        if (dist[j]+len[j][k]<dist[neib[j][k]]) {
```

```
            incm[neib[j][k]] = j;
```

```
            dist[neib[j][k]] = dist[j]+len[j][k];
```

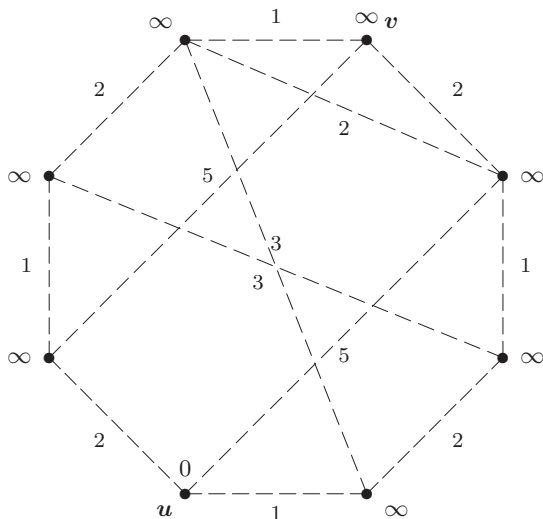
```
        }
```

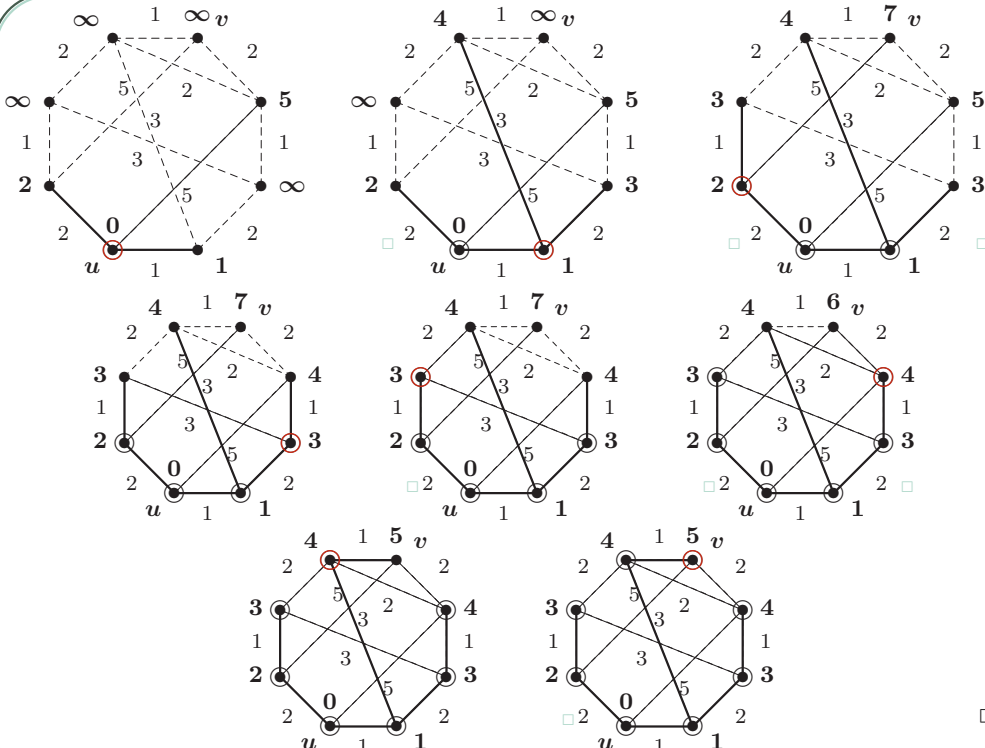
```
    }
```

```
return 'A u-v path of length dist[v], stored in incm[] reversely';
```

**Remark:** Notice that Algorithm 3.10 works as-is also in **directed graphs**.

**Example 3.11.** An illustration run of Dijkstra's Algorithm 3.10 from  $u$  to  $v$  in the following graph.





**Fact:** The number of steps performed by Algorithm 3.10 to find the shortest path from  $u$  to  $v$  is **about**  $N^2$  when  $N$  is the number of vertices (not so good...). □

On the other hand, with a better implementation of the depository, one can achieve on sparse graphs runtime **almost linear** in the number of edges. □

**Theorem 3.12.** *Every iteration of Algorithm 3.10 (since just after finishing the first `while()` loop) maintains an invariant that*

- $\text{dist}[i]$  is the length of a shortest path from  $u$  to  $i$  using only those internal vertices  $x$  of  $\text{state}[x]=1$  (finished). □

**Proof:** Briefly using *mathematical induction*:

- In the first iteration, the **first vertex**  $j=u$  is picked and processed, and its neighbours receive the correct straight distances (edge lengths). □
- In every next iteration, the picked vertex  $j$  is the nearest one to the starting vertex  $u$ . Assuming **nonnegative costs**  $\text{del}[\ ][\ ]$ , this certifies that no shorter walk from  $u$  to  $j$  may exist in the graph. □

On the other hand, any improved path from  $u$  to an unfinished vertex  $i$  passing through  $j$  has  $ij$  as the last edge (since the distance of  $j$  is not smaller than of the other finished vertices). Hence  $\text{dist}[i]$  is updated correctly in the algorithm. □

In some situations, there is a better alternative to ordinary Dijkstra's algorithm — the *Algorithm A\** which uses a suitable *potential function* to direct the search “towards the destination”. Whenever we have a good “sense of direction” (e.g. in a topo-map navigation),  $A^*$  can perform much better!

### Algorithmus $A^*$

- It re-implements Dijkstra with suitably **modified edge costs**. ◻
- Let  $p_v(x)$  be a potential function giving an arbitrary **lower bound** on the distance from  $x$  to the destination  $v$ . E.g., in a map navigation,  $p_v(x)$  may be the Euclidean distance from  $x$  to  $v$ . ◻
- Each directed(!) edge  $xy$  of the weighted graph  $G, w$  gets a new cost

$$w'(xy) = w(xy) + p_v(y) - p_v(x).$$

The potential  $p_v$  is *admissible* when all  $w'(xy) \geq 0$ , i.e.  $w(xy) \geq p_v(x) - p_v(y)$ .

The above Euclidean potential is always admissible. ◻

- The modified length of any  $u$ - $v$  walk  $S$  then is  $d_G^{w'}(S) = d_G^w(S) + p_v(v) - p_v(u)$ , which is a constant difference from  $d_G^w(S)$ ! Hence some  $S$  is optimal for the weighting  $w$  iff  $S$  is optimal for  $w'$ .

Here the Euclidean potential “strongly prefers” edges in the dest. direction.