Abstract
Finding important nodes in a graph and measuring their importance is a fundamental problem in the analysis of social networks, transportation networks, biological systems, etc. Among the most popular such metrics of importance are graph centrality, betweenness centrality (BC), and reach centrality (RC). These measures are also very related to classic notions like diameter and radius. Roditty and Vassilevska Williams [STOC’13] showed that no algorithm can compute a $(3/2 - \delta)$-approximation of the diameter in sparse and unweighted graphs faster than $n^{2-o(1)}$ time unless the widely believed strong exponential time hypothesis (SETH) is false. Abboud et al. [SODA’15] and [SODA’16] further analyzed these problems under the recent and very active line of research on hardness in $\mathcal{P}$. They showed that in sparse and unweighted graphs (weighted for BC) none of these problems can be solved faster than $n^{2-o(1)}$ unless some popular conjecture is false. Furthermore they ruled out a $(2 - \delta)$-approximation for RC, a $(3/2 - \delta)$-approximation for Radius and a $(5/3 - \delta)$-approximation for computing all eccentricities of a graph for any $\delta > 0$.
In this paper we extend these results to the case of unweighted graphs with constant maximum degree. Through new graph constructions we are able to obtain the same approximation and time bounds as for sparse graphs even in unweighted graphs with maximum degree 3. Specifically we show that no $(3/2 - \delta)$ approximation of Radius or Diameter, $(2-\delta)$-approximation of RC, $(5/3 - \delta)$-approximation of all eccentricities or exact algorithm for BC exists in time $n^{2-o(1)}$ for such graphs and any $\delta > 0$. For BC, this strengthens the result of Abboud et al. [SODA’16] by showing a hardness result for unweighted graphs. Our results follow in the footsteps of Abboud et al. [SODA’16] and Abboud and Dahlgaard [FOCS’16] by showing conditional lower bounds for restricted but realistic graph classes.

1 Introduction
Measuring the importance of specific nodes in a graph is a fundamental problem in the analysis of social networks, transportation networks, biological systems, etc. Several notions of importance have been proposed in the literature. Among the most popular such notions are several centrality measures such as graph centrality [19], betweenness centrality (BC) [16], closeness centrality [27], and reach centrality [18]. All these centrality measures are closely related to the shortest paths of the graph. As an example, the graph centrality of a node is the inverse of its maximum distance to any other node in the graph. These measures are extensively studied in both the theoretical and practical communities with some papers having thousands of citations [10] [16] [20] [24]. Fully

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understanding the complexity of computing these measures is thus a very important problem in the field of graph analysis. In this paper we follow a recent and very active line of research on showing hardness or conditional lower bounds (CLBs) for problems in $\mathbf{P}$ focusing on the above mentioned centrality measures in graphs with constant degrees.

Given an undirected and unweighted graph $G = (V,E)$ with $n$ nodes and $m$ edges we let $d_G(u,v)$ denote the distance between nodes $u,v \in V$. We omit the subscript $G$, when it is clear from the context. Let $\sigma_{s,t}(u)$ denote the number of distinct shortest paths between $s$ and $t$ and let $\sigma_{s,t}(u)$ denote the number of such paths passing through $u$. In this paper we consider several centrality and importance measures of graphs. We summarize the definitions of these below in Table 1. We note that all of these definitions also make sense for weighted graphs, but we concentrate on unweighted graphs in this paper, as they are more difficult to show hardness results for in general (see e.g. [2]). We note that the maximum Graph Centrality is exactly the inverse of the Radius. All of these measures except BC can be computed by simply running an algorithm for the classical all pairs shortest paths (APSP) problem in $\tilde{O}(n^\omega)$ or $\tilde{O}(mn)$ time, where $\omega$ is the matrix-multiplication exponent. For BC we can use Brandes’s algorithm [10] to compute the betweenness centrality of all nodes in $O(mn + n^2 \log{n})$ time.

### 1.1 Hardness in P

A recent and very active line of work concerns itself with showing hardness results for problems in $\mathbf{P}$ based on the assumption of several popular conjectures. For the measures in Table 1 several results are known. Perhaps the most well-studied of the problems from a theoretical perspective is diameter. Roditty and Vassilevska Williams [26] showed that no algorithm can solve the diameter problem in sparse graphs in time $O(n^{2-\varepsilon})$ for any $\varepsilon > 0$ unless the widely believed Strong Exponential Time Hypothesis (SETH) [23] is false. In fact they showed that no algorithm can even compute a $3/2 - \delta$ approximation in this time for any $\delta > 0$. We say that a number $x$ is an $\alpha$-approximation of a number $y$ if $y \leq x \leq \alpha y$. In some cases we will also allow the algorithm to provide an under-approximation. Abboud et al. [5] showed similar results for the problem of computing the radius, median, and all eccentricities in sparse graphs. They showed that unless SETH is false no algorithm can compute a $5/3 - \delta$ approximation of all eccentricities in time $O(n^{2-\varepsilon})$ for any $\varepsilon, \delta > 0$ in sparse graphs. Based on the similar Hitting Set (HS) Conjecture they also showed hardness results for the radius and median problems. For radius, they showed that no algorithm can compute a $3/2 - \delta$ approximation in time $O(n^{2-\varepsilon})$ for any $\varepsilon, \delta > 0$.

For the centrality measures of Table 1 Abboud et al. [3] showed that radius, median, and

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1We note that Brandes’s and other popular algorithms for computing BC neglects the complexity of keeping the counters of the number of shortest paths. If taking this into account the worst-case running time grows by a factor of $\Theta(n \log{n})$. 

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### Table 1: Definitions of different centrality and importance measures.

| Name                                      | Definition                                                                                                                                 |
|-------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| The Eccentricity (of $u$)                 | $\epsilon(u) := \max_{v \in V} d(u,v)$                                                                                                     |
| The Diameter                               | $D := \max_{v \in V} \epsilon(u)$                                                                                                        |
| The Reach Centrality (RC) (of $u$)        | $RC(u) := \max_{s \in V \setminus \{u\}} \min_{d(s,t) = d(s,u) + d(u,t)} (\min(d(s,u), d(u,t)))$                                       |
| The Betweenness Centrality (BC) (of $u$)  | $BC(u) := \sum_{s \in V \setminus \{u\}} \frac{\sigma_{s,t}(u)}{\sigma_{s,t}}$                                                             |
| The Graph Centrality (GC) (of $u$)        | $GC(u) := \max_{v \in V} d(u,v)$                                                                                                        |
betweenness centrality are all equivalent to the classic APSP problem under subcubic reductions. Similarly, they showed that RC is equivalent to the diameter problem under subcubic reductions. For betweenness centrality they showed that computing an $\alpha$-approximation for any $\alpha > 0$ is equivalent to APSP under subcubic reductions and that no algorithm can compute such an approximation for any node in time $O(n^{2-\varepsilon})$ in sparse graphs unless SETH is false. Finally they show that computing reach centrality is equivalent to diameter under subcubic reductions and that computing a $2 - \delta$-approximation of RC in sparse and unweighted graphs cannot be done in $O(n^{2-\varepsilon})$ time unless SETH is false. An important note about all these reductions except for RC in sparse graphs is that they only hold for weighted graphs.

The known hardness results for the measures in Table 1 are summarized below in Table 2.

| Problem              | Bound             | Approximation     | Graph family          | Source |
|----------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-----------------------|--------|
| Diameter             | $n^{2-o(1)}$      | 3/2 - $\delta$-approx | Sparse, unweighted    | 26     |
| Radius               | $n^{2-o(1)}$      | 3/2 - $\delta$-approx | Sparse, unweighted    | 5      |
| Radius               | $n^{3-o(1)}$      | Exact             | Dense, weighted       | 3      |
| Eccentricities       | $n^{2-o(1)}$      | 5/3 - $\delta$    | Sparse, unweighted    | 5      |
| Reach Centrality     | $n^{2-o(1)}$      | 2 - $\delta$      | Sparse, unweighted    | 5      |
| Reach Centrality     | $n^{2-o(1)}$      | Any finite        | Sparse, weighted      | 3      |
| Betweenness Centrality | $n^{2-o(1)}$  | Any finite        | Sparse, weighted      | 3      |
| Betweenness Centrality | $n^{3-o(1)}$  | Exact             | Dense, weighted       | 3      |

Table 2: Known hardness results for the measures of Table 1. The hardness results are based on different conjectures. We refer to the discussion above for the specific details.

In this paper we will follow this active line of research on hardness in $\text{P}$, basing hardness on the two following popular conjectures.

**Conjecture 1** (Orthogonal Vectors Conjecture). Let $A, B \subseteq \{0, 1\}^d$ be two sets of $n$ boolean vectors of dimension $d = \omega(\log n)$. Then there exists no algorithm that can determine whether there is an orthogonal pair $a \in A$, $b \in B$ in time $O(n^{2-\varepsilon})$ for any $\varepsilon > 0$.

The OV conjectures is implied by SETH [28] and has been used in several papers as an intermediate step for showing SETH-hardness.

**Conjecture 2** (Hitting Set Conjecture). Let $A, B \subseteq \{0, 1\}^d$ be two sets of $n$ boolean vectors of dimension $d = \omega(\log n)$. Then there exists no algorithm that can determine whether there is an $a \in A$ that is not orthogonal to any $b \in B$ in time $O(n^{2-\varepsilon})$ for any $\varepsilon > 0$.

We say that a vector $a \in A$ that is not orthogonal to any $b \in B$ is a hitting set, as it “hits” each vector of $B$. The HS conjecture was introduced by Abboud et al. [5] as an analog to the OV conjecture. One reason for introducing this conjecture is that Carmosino et al. [12] give evidence that problems such as radius and median cannot be shown to have SETH-hardness due to the nature of the quantifiers in this problem.

### 1.2 Hardness for graphs with constant max degree

An important direction for future research on fine-grained complexity of polynomial time problems, as noted by Abboud et al. [5] and Abboud and Dahlgaard in [2] is to understand the complexity of fundamental problems in restricted, but realistic classes of graphs. Such results for graphs of bounded treewidth was shown by Abboud et al. [5] and for planar graphs by Abboud and Dahlgaard [2]. The result of [2] even holds for planar graphs with constant maximum degree.
Following up on this work, we concentrate on showing hardness for problems in graphs with constant maximum degree (bounded degree graphs). This family of graphs has received attention in several communities and in some cases exhibits better algorithms and data structures than graphs with unbounded degrees. This includes approximation of NP hard problems [22, 9, 21], labeling schemes [17], property testing [17] and graph spanners [15]. Furthermore, ruling out fast algorithms for graphs with constant maximum degree also rules out approaches based on bounded arboricity or degeneracy. Such approaches have previously been used to significantly speed up algorithms for e.g. subgraph finding (see e.g. [336, 342, 354]. See also [421] which improved on [75] by showing a structural lemma for graphs with low degree).

Extending the results of conditional lower bounds from [3, 5, 26] to bounded degree graphs thus seems like a natural step in developing the theory of hardness in \textit{P}.

1.3 Our results

In this paper we present tight hardness results for all of the measures of Table 1 in graphs with constant maximum degree. More precisely we show the following theorems.

**Theorem 1.** No algorithm can compute a \((3/2 - \delta)\)-approximation of the diameter of an unweighted constant degree graph in time \(O(n^{2-\varepsilon})\) for any \(\varepsilon, \delta > 0\) unless Conjecture 1 is false.

**Theorem 2.** No algorithm can compute a \((3/2 - \delta)\)-approximation of the radius of an unweighted constant degree graph in time \(O(n^{2-\varepsilon})\) for any \(\varepsilon, \delta > 0\) unless Conjecture 2 is false.

**Theorem 3.** No algorithm can compute a \((5/3 - \delta)\)-approximation of all eccentricities in an unweighted constant degree graph in time \(O(n^{2-\varepsilon})\) for any \(\varepsilon, \delta > 0\) unless Conjecture 3 is false.

**Theorem 4.** No algorithm can compute a \((2 - \delta)\)-approximation of the reach centrality of any node in an unweighted constant degree graph in time \(O(n^{2-\varepsilon})\) for any \(\varepsilon, \delta > 0\) unless Conjecture 4 is false.

**Theorem 5.** No algorithm can compute the betweenness centrality of any node in an unweighted constant degree graph in time \(O(n^{2-\varepsilon})\) for any \(\varepsilon > 0\) unless Conjecture 5 is false.

All of our results above match the corresponding hardness results for sparse graphs, extending them to graphs with constant maximum degree. Furthermore, our hardness result for betweenness centrality improves on the result of [3] in general graphs by ruling out truly subquadratic algorithms in unweighted graphs. As mentioned all of these problems can be solved in \(\tilde{O}(n^2)\) or even \(O(n^2)\) time in unweighted graphs with constant max degree, thus all of our results are tight. Furthermore, a more efficient \(O(m\sqrt{n})\) algorithm exists for 3/2-approximating the diameter of a graph [25, 13] and for 5/3-approximating all eccentricities of the graph [13]. Thus, our approximation guarantees are also optimal for these kinds of problems. We note that our reductions in general produces CLBs for graphs with maximum degree 4, however a simple splitting of nodes of degree 4 improves this to a maximum degree of 3.

1.4 Challenges and techniques

Many of the previous results in Table 2 work for sparse graphs, and it is often assumed that such reductions translate directly to bounded degree graphs. A common technique in obtaining such reductions from sparse graphs to constant degree graphs (see e.g. [8]) is to split each vertex and insert edges of weight zero. However, for the results of this paper we seek CLBs for \textit{unweighted} graphs, and thus introducing edges of weight 0 is not an option. In [11] a near-linear lower

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2If we assume unique or even polynomial number of shortest paths for BC.
bound is given for computing a \((3/2 - \delta)\)-approximation of diameter in the CONGEST model even in sparse networks. They also present a reduction to bounded-degree graphs, however this reduction does not preserve the approximation ratio of the lower bound and only excludes exact computation in bounded degree graphs. This problem seems inherent in reductions from sparse graphs to graphs with bounded maximum degree. The most common reductions replace nodes of degree \(x\) by a balanced binary tree with \(x\) leaves, and each such leaf then has an edge to the binary trees of the corresponding neighbours. By reducing in this way two nodes in the new graph corresponding to the same node in the original graph may have \(\Omega(p \log n)\) distance, while two nodes corresponding to different original nodes may have distance 1. Such an imbalance can be addressed by replacing edges between trees by sufficiently long paths. However, this may lead to worse approximation guarantees for problems like diameter, since the longest distance in the graph may now involve a node “in the middle” of such a path, which corresponds to an original edge rather than an original node. As an example, applying this method to the diameter reduction of Roditty and Vassilevska Williams [26] would only rule out a \((6/5 - \delta)\)-approximation and not the original factor of \(3/2 - \delta\). In the reductions in this paper we therefore introduce reductions which are based on similar ideas as [26, 5, 3], but are carefully tailored to graphs with constant degree in order to obtain the same approximation guarantees. Furthermore, when reducing to betweenness centrality we introduce many new nodes which we have to sum over. We avoid this complicated counting argument by creating several related graphs and look at the change in betweenness centrality to complete the reduction.

2 Hardness of eccentricity-related problems

In this section we will prove Theorems 1, 2, and 3. Our reductions are inspired by standard techniques as used in [26, 5, 14, 11] and many others. These reductions all use the OV-graph described below as a basis and add different shortcuts and nodes based on the problem at hand. In the case of constant degree graphs we have to be careful with the way we define deroutes, as we seek to get the same approximation guarantees as in the sparse case (see Table 2). A natural approach is to simply take the graph from eg. [26] and replace each node by a binary tree and each edge by a sufficiently long path (say length \(x\)). In [26] they create a graph where the diameter is either \(3\) or \(2\), and by doing this reduction we get a graph, where we would hope that the diameter is either \((3 + o(1))x\) or \((2 + o(1))x\). However, since the edges are replaced by paths we instead end up with either \((3 + o(1))x\) or \((2 + o(1))x\) giving a much worse bound on the approximation. Below we show how to circumvent this bound by extending the OV-graph more carefully.

We will now define a general graph construction, the OV-graph, for reductions based on Conjecture 1 which has been used in several papers previously [4, 5, 11, 8, 28].

Given an instance \(A, B \subseteq \{0, 1\}^d\) of the OV problem, we construct the OV-graph as follows:

- For each vector \(a \in A\) and \(b \in B\) create a node. We will overload the notation and use \(a\) and \(b\) to refer to both the vector and node when this is clear from the context.
- Create a set \(C\) of \(d\) nodes denoted \(c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_d\).
- For each node \(a\) create an edge \((a, c_i)\) if \(a[i] = 1\) for each \(1 \leq i \leq d\). Do the same for each node \(b\).

The following observation is key in all reductions using this graph.

**Observation 1.** \(A\) pair \(a \in A, b \in B\) is orthogonal if and only if \(d(a, b) > 2\).
For reductions based on Conjecture 2 we will also use the $OV$-graph, but since we are looking for an $a \in A$ that is not orthogonal to any $b \in B$, we will instead try to determine whether $d(a, b) = 2$ for all $b \in B$.

We note, that we will assume that each node $a$ and $b$ has an edge to at least one $c_i$. Otherwise this would be the all zeroes vector, and we can easily answer the $OV$ problem.

2.1 Diameter in constant degree graphs

We are now ready to prove Theorem 1. Our reduction to diameter in constant degree graphs uses the $OV$-graph with the following modifications:

- For each node $u \in A \cup B$ insert a balanced binary tree with $d$ leaves rooted at $u$. Denote the trees vector trees and the root vertices $a_r$ and $b_r$ respectively.
- For each node $c \in C$ insert two balanced binary trees with $n$ leaves, both rooted at $c$. One for handling edges to $A$, and one for $B$. Denote the tree for handling edges to $A$ and $B$ respectively the $c_A$-tree and the $c_B$-tree.
- For each edge $(a, c)$ of the $OV$-graph, insert a path of length $p$ (to be fixed later) from a leaf in the tree rooted at $a_r$, to a leaf in the $c_A$-tree. Do the same for edges $(b, c)$. We assign paths to leaves in such a way that each leaf has degree at most 2 in the final graph.
- Create a balanced binary tree with $n$ leaves and connect each leaf to a node $a_r$ with a path of length $p$, such that each $a_r$ is connected to a distinct leaf. Do the same for the nodes $b_r$.
- Call these trees the $A$-shortcut tree and $B$-shortcut tree respectively.
- At each root $a_r$ and $b_r$ of a vector tree, add a path of length $p$ and denote the end of each path by $a_p$.

We call this the $OV_{dia}$-graph. Figure 1 contains an example $OV_{dia}$-graph for reference. It is easy to verify that this graph has maximum degree 4 with only the nodes $a_r$, $b_r$, and $c_i$ having this degree. We make the following claims about distances in the $OV_{dia}$-graph, the proofs can be found in appendix A.1.

Claim 1. For two vectors $a \in A$, $b \in B$ that are not orthogonal, $d(a_p, b_p) \leq 4p + 2\lg n + 2\lg d$.

Claim 2. For two vectors $a \in A$, $b \in B$ that are orthogonal, $d(a_p, b_p) \geq 6p$.

Claim 3. For two nodes $u$ and $v$ in vector trees of $A$, $d(u, v) \leq 2p + 2\lg n + 2\lg d$. Symetrically for $B$.

Claim 4. For a node $u$ in some $c_A$ or $c_B$ tree, $\epsilon(u) \leq 4p + 4\lg n + 2\lg c$.

Claim 5. For a node $u$ in the $A$-(or $B$-)shortcut tree, $\epsilon(u) \leq 4p + 4\lg n + 2\lg c$.

The following lemma now follows directly from Claims 1 through 5 above and by picking $p = \omega(\log n)$ sufficiently large.

Lemma 1. The $OV_{dia}$-graph has diameter $(6 + o(1))p$ if an orthogonal pair exists, and $(4 + o(1))p$ if no orthogonal pair exists.

Using this Lemma we can now prove Theorem 1. Assume that there exists an algorithm with running time $O(n^{2-\varepsilon})$ for computing a $(3/2 - \delta)$-approximation of the diameter of a constant degree graph for some $\varepsilon, \delta > 0$. We then create the $OV_{dia}$-graph for an instance of the OV problem, and run our algorithm. If no orthogonal pair exists the algorithm will return at most $(6 - \delta' + o(1))p \leq 6p$ for some fixed $\delta' > 0$ and we can thus correctly decide whether an orthogonal vector pair exists. Since the graph has $\tilde{O}(n)$ nodes and edges and can be constructed in $\tilde{O}(n)$ time, this implies a $O(n^{2-\varepsilon})$ algorithm for the OV problem contradicting Conjecture 1.
2.2 Radius in constant degree graphs

In order to prove Theorem 2 we will use a similar approach as in the previous section, however we will be reducing from the HS problem of Conjecture 2. We will use the following graph, $OV_{rad}$:

Take two copies of the $OV_{dia}$-graph defined in the previous section, $G_1$ and $G_2$ and glue the graphs together in the nodes nodes $a_p$, such that $G_2$ is a “mirrored” $G_1$ along the nodes $a_p$. This is illustrated in figure 2 below. Note that the minimum eccentricity must be in a node $a_p$ since all paths from a node $u \in G_1$ to $v \in G_2$ must pass through a node $a_p$.

We now set $p = \omega(\log n)$ sufficiently large and get the following lemma:

**Lemma 2.** A node $a_p$ in $OV_{rad}$ has $\epsilon(a_p) = (4 + o(1))p$ if $a$ is a hitting set and $\epsilon(a_p) = (6 + o(1))p$ if $a$ is not a hitting set.

**Proof.** Since $G_2$ is a copy of $G_1$ it is enough to examine the eccentricities of $a_p$ in $G_1$. Assume that $a$ forms a hitting set (that is $a$ is not orthogonal to any $b \in B$). We then have from Claim 4 that $\epsilon(a_p) = 4p + O(\log n)$.

Assume that $a$ does not form a hitting set, since there then exists a $b \in B$ which is orthogonal to $a$, we have from Claim 2 that $\epsilon(a_p) \geq 6p$. 

Now Theorem 2 follows from the above lemma in the same way that Theorem 1 followed from the discussion in the previous section.
2.3 Computing all eccentricities
For Theorem 3 we consider the graph from the proof of Theorem 1. From the discussion in Section 2.1 we see that some node \( a_r \) must have \( \epsilon(a_r) = (5 + o(1))p \) if there exists an orthogonal vector pair and that all nodes \( a_r \) have \( \epsilon(a_r) = (3 + o(1))p \) if no such pair exists. Thus, it follows that if an algorithm can compute a \((5/3 - \delta)\) approximation of all eccentricities in \( O(n^{2 - \epsilon}) \) time for any \( \epsilon, \delta > 0 \) we have a contradiction to Conjecture 1.

3 Hardness of centrality problems
In this section we present Theorems 4 and 5.

3.1 Reach centrality
For reach centrality we will employ a slightly modified version of the diameter graph from Section 2.1. The goal will be to distinguish between a RC of \((3 + o(1))p\) and \((\frac{3}{2} + o(1))p\), thus ruling out a \((2 - \delta)\)-approximation for any \( \delta > 0 \).

Consider the \( OV_{dia} \) graph constructed in the proof of Theorem 1. We create a slightly modified graph, where the roots of the \( A \) and \( B \)-shortcut trees are connected by a path of length \( 2(p - \log n) \). We denote the middle node of this path by \( u \). We will now consider the lengths of shortest paths passing through \( u \). This is illustrated below in Figure 3.

Claim 6. Assume that no two vectors \( a \in A \) and \( b \in B \), from which the modified \( OV_{dia} \) graph was created, are orthogonal. Then \( RC(u) = (\frac{3}{2} + o(1))p \).

Proof. First note, that the distance from \( u \) to any node in one of the shortcut tree is at most \( p \), thus for \( RC(u) \) to be \((\frac{3}{2} + \delta)p\) there must exist nodes \( v, w \) with shortest path going through \( u \), which are at distance at least \((\frac{1}{2} + \delta)p\) from the shortcut trees. Consider some node \( v \) one the path from some \( a_r \) to the \( A \)-shortcut tree at distance \((\frac{1}{2} - \delta)p\) from \( a_r \) and some node \( w \) on the path from some \( b_r \) to the \( B \)-shortcut tree at distance \((\frac{1}{2} - \delta)p\) from \( b_r \). Since we assumed that no two vectors of the OV problem are orthogonal, it follows that \( d(v, w) = (3 - 2\delta)p + o(p) \) by going through some node \( c_t \) and the shortest path from \( v \) to \( w \) thus cannot pass through \( u \). It is easy to see that any candidate shortest path for \( RC(u) \) has to pass through such a pair of nodes \( v, w \) the claim follows. \( \Box \)
If we now assume that there exists a pair of vectors $a \in A$ and $b \in B$ that are orthogonal, we know that $d(a_p, b_p) = (6 + o(1))p$. We will consider going from $a_p$ to $b_p$ and show that $RC(u) = (3 + o(1))p$.

**Claim 7.** Assume that there exists $a \in A$ and $b \in B$ that are orthogonal. Then $RC(u) = (3 + o(1))p$.

**Proof.** We consider the path from $a_p$ to $b_p$ going through $u$. This path has length $2(p + p + \log n + p - \log n) = 6p$. Observe also that any other path between $a_p$ and $b_p$ has length at least $6p$ by the proof of Theorem 1, thus this is a shortest path from $a_p$ to $b_p$ passing through $u$, and it follows that $RC(u)$ is at least $3p$. It is not hard to see that this is also an upper bound on $RC(u)$.

It now follows that any algorithm that can compute a $(2 - \delta)$-approximation of $RC(u)$ in bounded degree graphs can distinguish between the two cases. Thus any algorithm that can do this in time $O(n^{2-\varepsilon})$ for any $\varepsilon > 0$ is a contradiction to Conjecture 1.

### 3.2 Betweenness centrality

We will start by showing Theorem 4 for sparse graphs instead of constant degree graphs, and then change the construction to work also in this case. We will base our reduction on the $OV$-graph and modify it as follows:

- Add two nodes $x$ and $y$, and an edge $(x, y)$.
- Add an edge $(a, x)$ for each $a \in A$, and edge $(b, y)$ for each $b \in B$.
- Create two copies $G_1$ and $G_2$ of this graph. Denote node $x \in G_1$ by $x_1$ and $x \in G_2$ by $x_2$. 

![Figure 3: The modified $OV_{dia}$-graph for reach centrality](image)
• Delete all nodes from $B$ in $G_1$

Having created the graphs $G_1$ and $G_2$ we now query the betweenness centrality of $x_1$ in $G_1$ and of $x_2$ in $G_2$. By comparing the two values we will be able to determine the answer to the OV problem instance.

Lemma 3. $BC(x_2) > BC(x_1)$ if and only if there is an orthogonal pair $a \in A, b \in B$.

Proof. If $BC(x_2) > BC(x_1)$ it must be the case that some shortest path $P$ with a node $b \in B$ as an endpoint goes through $x_2$, since these are the only paths not counted in $BC(x_1)$. The other endpoint of $P$ cannot be $y$ or any node $c \in C$ as these are at distance 1 from $b$. $P$ must therefore have an endpoint in $a \in A$ and since $P$ passes through $x$ it must be of length 3. It now follows that $a$ and $b$ form an orthogonal vector pair. If no such pair $a$ and $b$ exists, all such paths $P$ have length 2 and do not pass through $x_2$. □

We are now ready to prove the full version of Theorem 5. As for general unweighted graphs, our reduction for betweenness centrality in constant degree graphs, starts with the $OV$-graph, and modifies it as follows:

• As in the $OV_{dia}$-graph, add vector trees at each node $v \in A \cup B$ and tree-pairs $c_A, c_B$ for each $c \in C$. Connect these exactly as in the $OV_{dia}$-graph.

• Insert a node $x$ and make it the root of a balanced binary tree with $n$ leaves. Connect each leaf of this $x$-tree to a root node $a_r$ in a vector-tree $a \in A$ with a path of length $p$.

• Insert a node $y$ and a $y$-tree connected to nodes in $B$ exactly as the $x$-tree is with $A$.

• Insert a path of length $p$ between $x$ and $y$.

• Denote this graph by $G_1$ and create a copy $G_2$. Denote node $x \in G_1$ by $x_1$ and $x \in G_2$ by $x_2$.

• In $G_2$ create a node $b'$ for each $b \in B$ and add the edge $(b_r, b')$ for each such $b'$.

This construction is illustrated in Figure 4.

We first examine some distances in $G_1$ which will be useful.

Observation 2. $d(a_r, b_r) = 2p + 2 \log n + 2 \log d$ when $a$ and $b$ are not orthogonal

Observation 3. $d(a_r, b_r') = 3p + 2 \log n$ when $a$ and $b$ are orthogonal.

Using these observations we can prove the following lemma.

Lemma 4. $BC(x_2) > BC(x_1) + n^2 \cdot (\frac{1}{2}p + \log d) + n \cdot (2n - 2)$ if and only if there is an orthogonal pair $a \in A, b \in B$.

Proof. We will examine the contribution to $BC(x_2)$ of each inserted node $b'$.

Consider a vector $b \in B$ and a vector $a \in A$ that are not orthogonal. The shortest path from $b'$ to $a_r$ has length $2p + 2 \log n + 2 \log d$ and does not go through $x_2$. However on the path between $a_r$ and $x_2$ there are a number of nodes $v$ for which the shortest path between $b'$ and $v$ goes through $x_2$. Since $d(b', x_2) = 2p + \log n$ and $d(x_2, a_r) = p + \log n$ we get that there are $\frac{p}{2} + \log n + \log d$ such nodes $v$.

If a vector $b \in B$ is not orthogonal to any $a \in A$ the node $b'$ will then contribute $\frac{p}{2} + \log n + \log d$ to $BC(x_2)$ for each $a$ for a total of $n(\frac{p}{2} + \log n + \log d)$ for each such vector $b$. Thus if there is no orthogonal pair the total contribution to $BC(x_2)$ from nodes $b'$ will be $n^2(\frac{p}{2} + \log n + \log d)$. 

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However, by doing this we have overcounted the contribution of $b'$ and each node of the $x$-tree. Thus the actual contribution becomes $n^2 \cdot \left(\frac{n}{2} + \log d\right) + n \cdot (2n - 2)$ as the tree has $2n - 2$ nodes if we exclude the root $x_2$.

If a vector $b \in B$ is orthogonal to an $a \in A$ the shortest path from $b'$ to $a_r$ will go through $x_2$ and likewise for all nodes $v$ on the path from $x_2$ to $a_r$ for a total contribution of at least $p \cdot \log n$ to $BC(x_2)$

Observe that w.l.o.g. all the shortest paths considered above and thus each contribute 1 to the BC of $x_2$.

Theorem 5 now follows directly from the above lemma using the same approach as in Section 2.1.

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A Omitted proofs

A.1 proofs of claims about the OV_{dia} graph

Proof of claim 1

Proof. Any path from $a_p$ to $b_p$ must go through both of the length $p$ paths starting at the two nodes. Since $a$ and $b$ are not orthogonal, there exists a node $c$ such that there is an path of length $p$ from the vector tree at $a$ to $c_A$ and likewise from $b$’s vector tree to $c_B$, taking this path adds the height of the vector trees, the height of $c_A$ and $c_B$ and $2p$ to the total path, giving $d(a_p, b_p) \leq 4p + 2 \lg n + 2 \lg d$.

Proof of claim 2

Proof. The distance between $a_p$ and $b_p$ must be greater when the two corresponding vectors are orthogonal, as they do not have direct paths to any node $c$. The shortest path between the two must then go through some other vector trees, w.l.o.g. assume that $a'$ and $b'$ are not orthogonal, and $a'$ is the closest such vector tree to $a_r$, either in the shortcut tree or through some $c_A$-tree. The distance between $a_r$ and $b_r$ through the shortcut tree is at least $2p$, and thus adds $2p$ to the distance from claim 1. To see that this is the shortest distance, note that this is the shortest possible path using the shortcut trees to get from $a$ to $a'$, and any path going through a clause would use $> 2p$ edges to get to $a'$.

Proof of claim 3
Proof. For any two nodes $u$ in the vector tree of a vector $a$ and $v$ in the vector tree of $a'$ the path through the $a_r$, $a'_r$ and the shortcut tree is at most $2p + 2 \lg d + 2 \lg n$. 

Proof of claim 4

Proof. We consider two cases: either a node $a_p$ is the furthest from $u$ (symmetric for $b_p$), or a node $v$ in some $c'_A$ or $c'_B$ is the furthest from $u$.

For the first case any such node can be reached by traversing trees $c_A$ and $c_B$, a path of length $p$ to a vector tree rooted at $a'_r$ (possibly $a = a'$ in which case the path is shorter.), a "shortcut" of $2p + 2 \lg n$ edges through the shortcut tree to $a_r$, and $p$ edges from $a_r$ to $a_p$. For a total of $4p + 4 \lg n + \lg d$

For the second case consider the following path from $u$ to $v$, let $a$ be a vector for which there is a length $p$ path from $a$'s vector tree to $c_A$, similarly let $a'$ be such a vector for $c'_A$, the path from $u$, to $v$ through $a_r$ the shortcut tree and $a'_r$ must then have length at most $4p + 6 \lg n + 2 \lg d$ since $\lg n$ is both the height of the shortcut tree and the trees $c_A$ and $c_B$. 

\hfill \Box