

EC504 ALGORITHMS AND DATA STRUCTURES
FALL 2020 MONDAY & WEDNESDAY
2:30 PM - 4:15 PM

g 6 6 t

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Hw 7: Friday

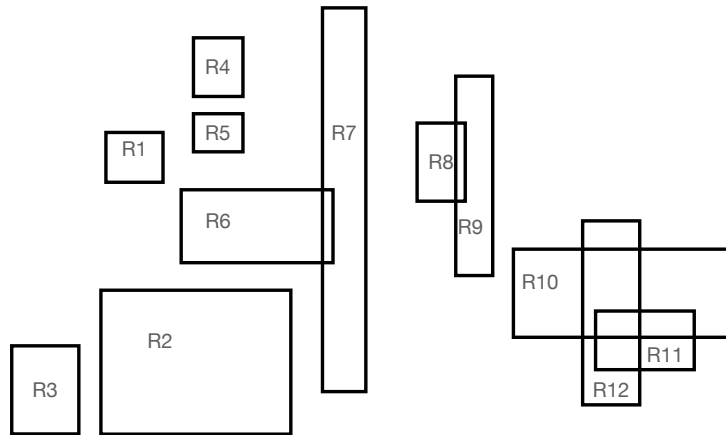
Hw 8 (+ Quiz 8): Sat. 4/17

Questions?

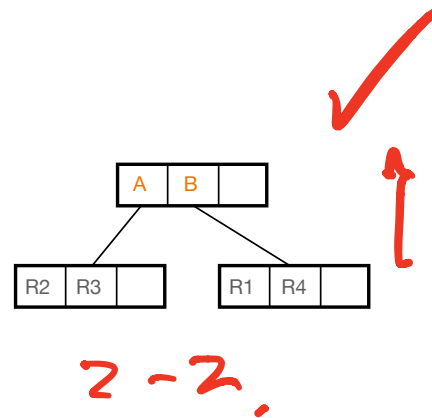
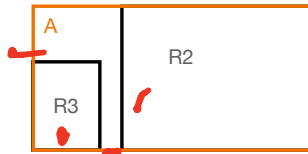
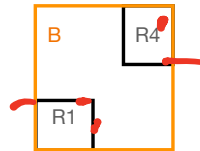
Final, V2:	5/7, 9-11 AM. ✓
Final V1:	5/6 3-5... ✓

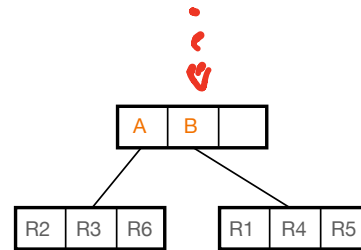
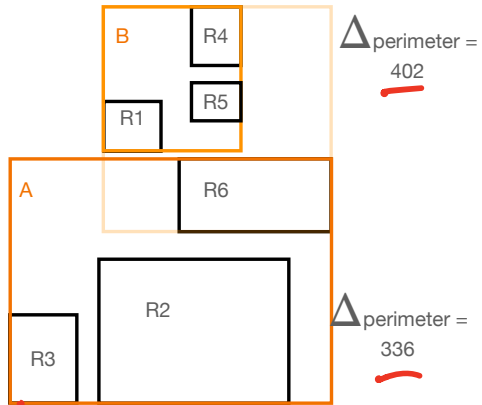
3-1 R-Tree...

R1	R2	R3
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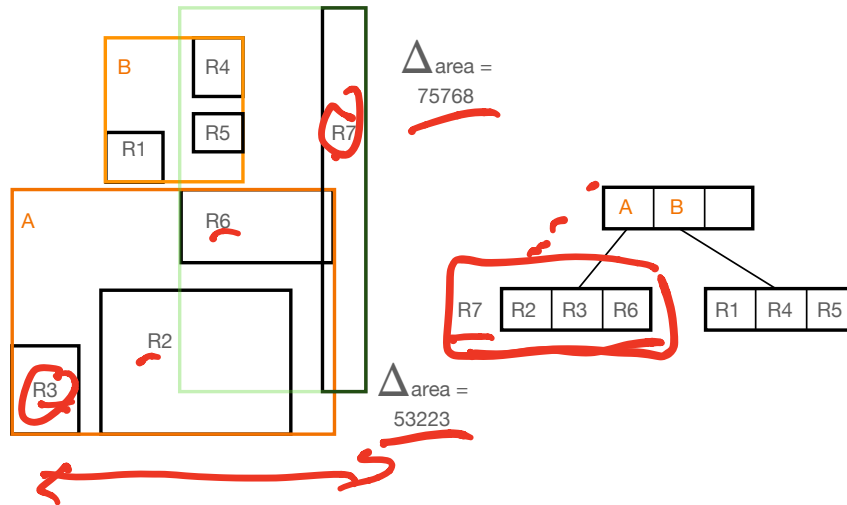


Seeds R3, R4
for split

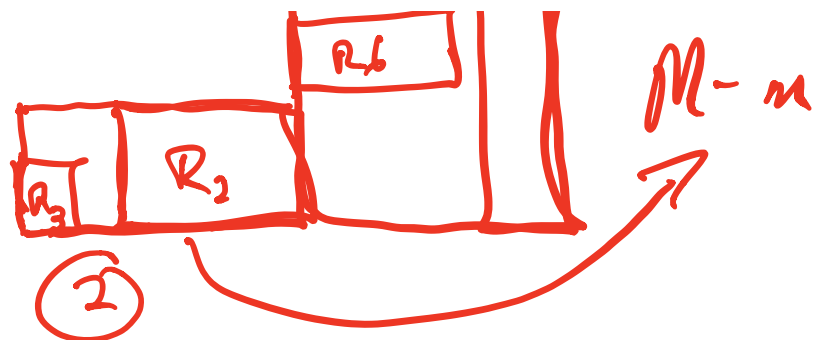


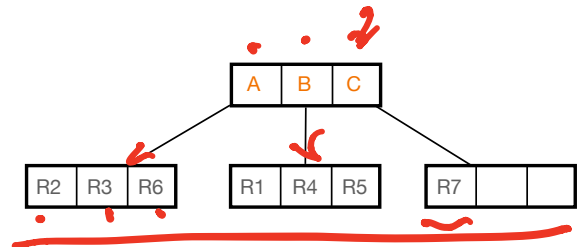
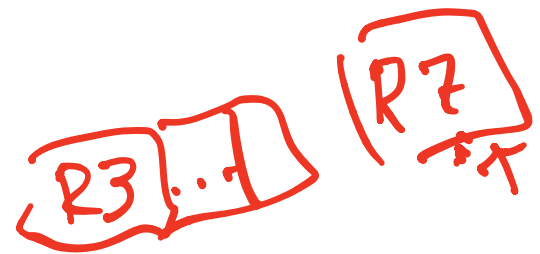
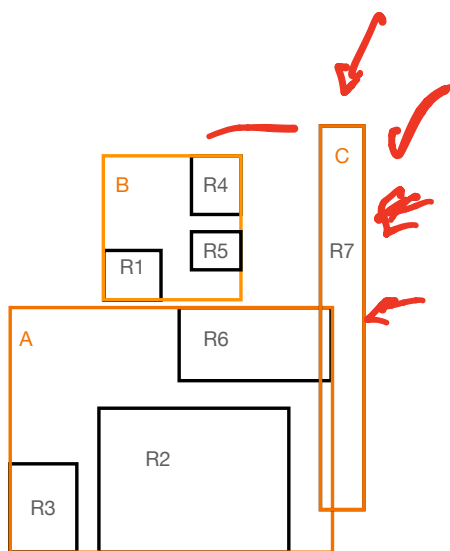


3-1

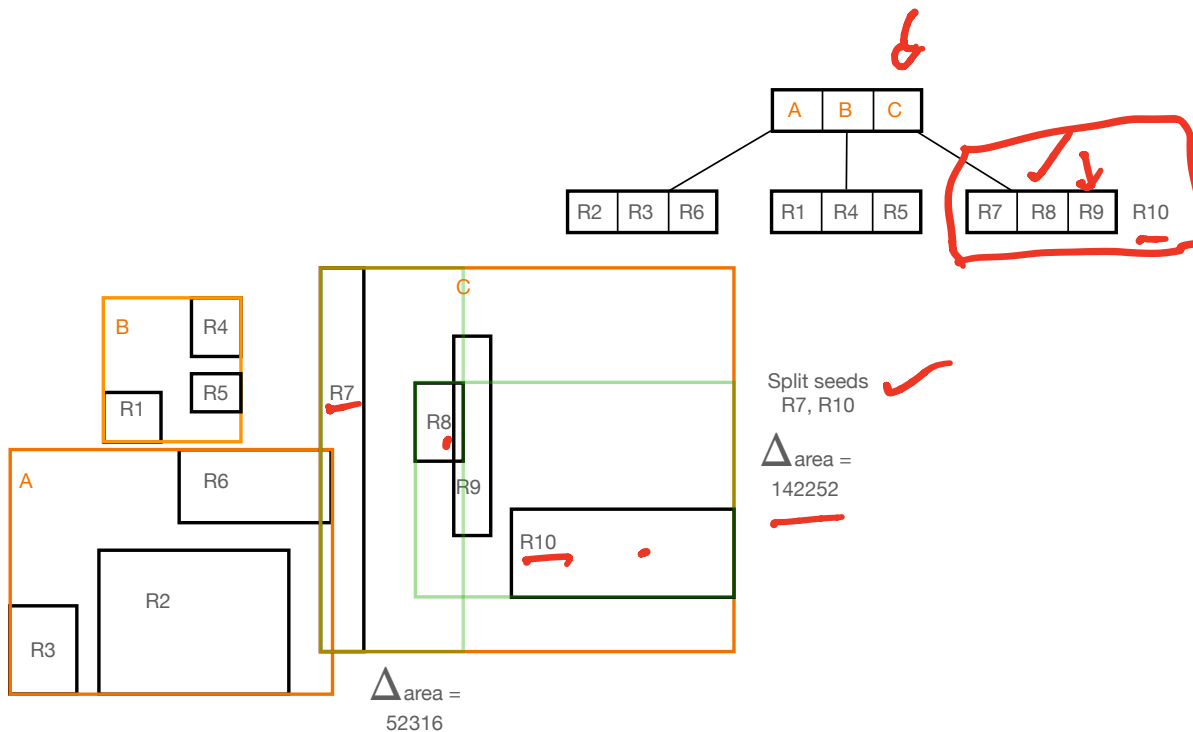


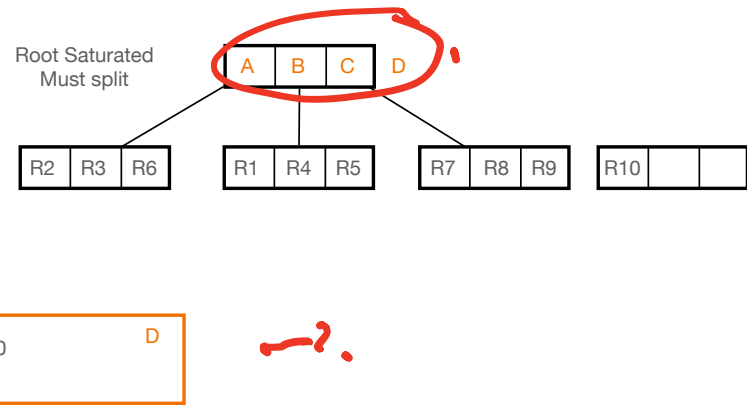
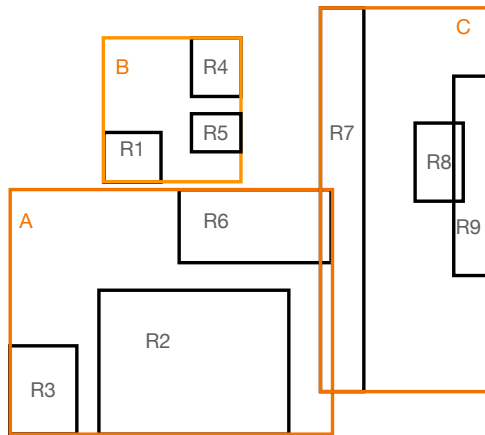
3-2 ✓

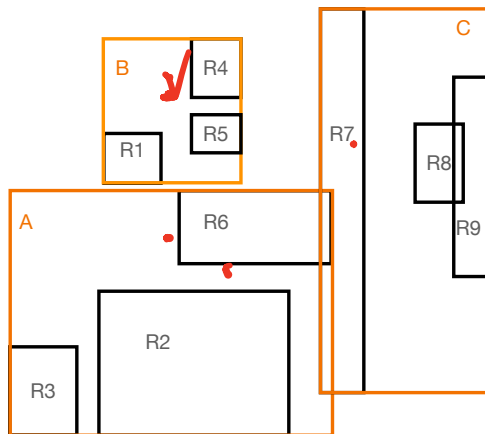




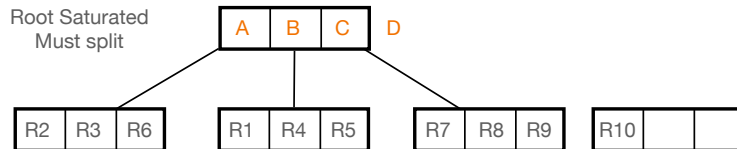
SQL \rightarrow 3rd m small R^{*}-tree ..





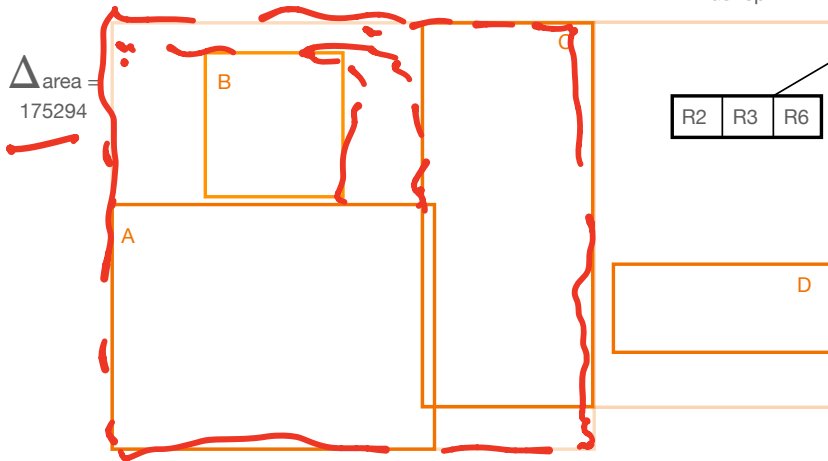


Root Saturated
Must split

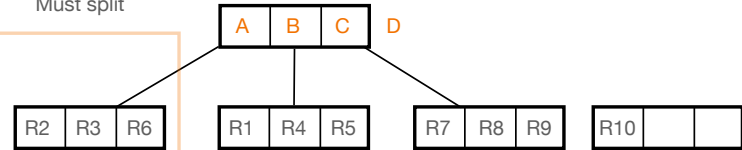


Split seeds
A D
B

$\Delta_{\text{area}} =$
175294



Root Saturated
Must split



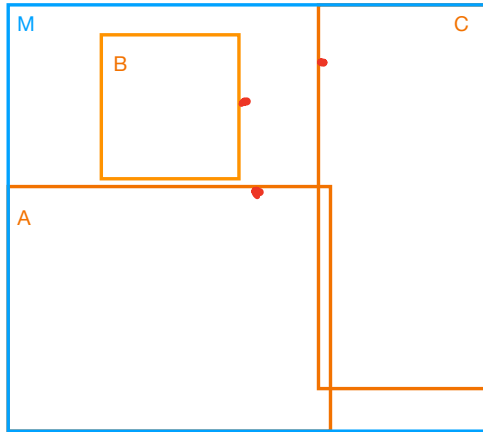
Split seeds
A, D

$\Delta_{\text{area}} =$
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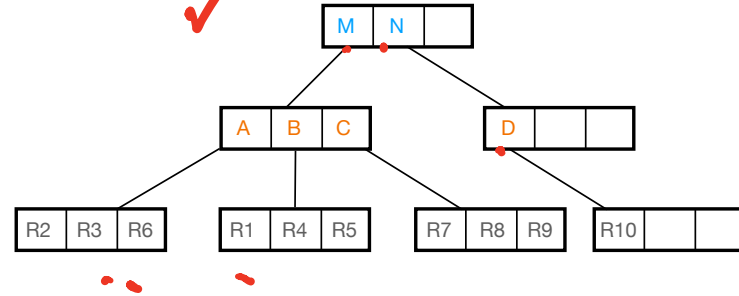
3-1

$\Delta_{\text{area}} =$
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D

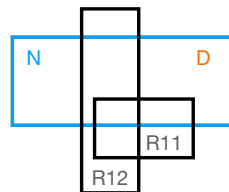
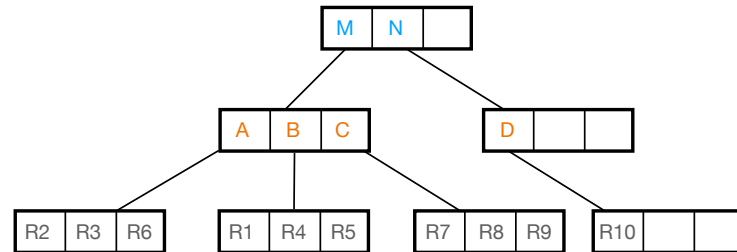
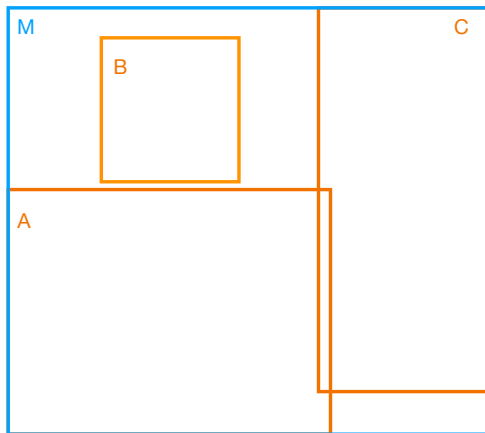


→ ...



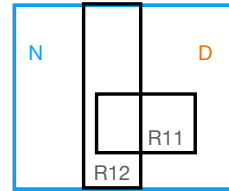
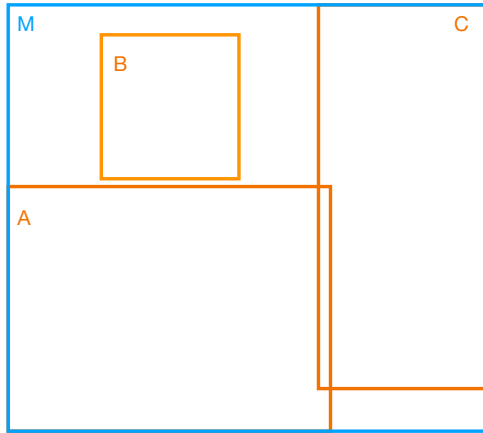
R-Trees.

$$\Delta_{\text{area}} = 175294$$

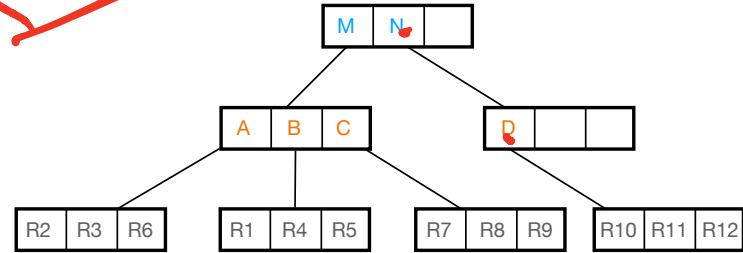


3-1

$\Delta_{\text{area}} =$
175294



✓



$N = 3 \rightarrow \text{max} \dots$

$m = 2 \rightarrow \text{min} \dots$

A Theory of Computation

- While we have introduced many problems with polynomial-time algorithms...
 - We haven't formally defined what this means
 - And not all problems enjoy fast computation
- Given a set I of problem instances, and a set S of problem solutions, an abstract problem is a binary relationship in $I \times S$. That is, a set of pairs (i, s)
 - The problem shortest path associates each instance of a graph and an origin-destination with a sequence of vertices which connect the origin and destination
- **Decision** problems have a yes or no solution. Abstract decision problem is a function which maps problem instances I into $\{\text{yes}, \text{no}\}$.
 - e.g. Is the shortest path in this graph between nodes 0 and nodes 30 have length > 10 ?

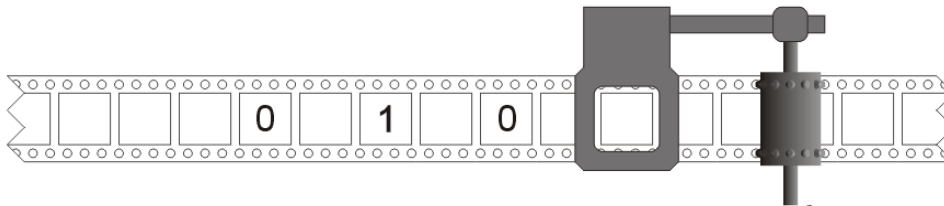
Decision Problem Instance

- If a machine is to solve an instance of a problem, the input must be specified in terms of a string of bits
 - We must encode problem instance I into a sequence of binary inputs
 - This helps understand the “size” of the problem instance
 - A concrete problem is an encoding of the set of problem instances to the set of binary strings
 - And not all problems enjoy fast computation
- An algorithm is a procedure that processes an concrete problem instance of size n and generates the correct answer
 - In what computer model?
 - Turing machine (1936) — Alan Turing (developed decoders for German coders (WW II))

Turing machine 1

The Turing machine has four components:

- An arbitrary-length tape
- **A head that can**
 - Read a symbol off the tape,
 - Write a symbol to the tape, and/or
 - Move to the next entry to the left or the right

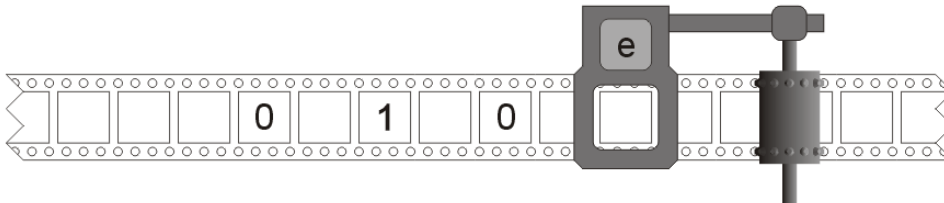


IBM Selectric ↑

Turing machine 2

The Turing machine has four components:

- An arbitrary-length tape
- A head
- **A state**
 - The state is one of a finite set of symbols Q
 - In this example, $Q = \{b, c, e, f\}$
 - The initial state of the machine is denoted $q_0 \in Q$
 - Certain states may halt the computation



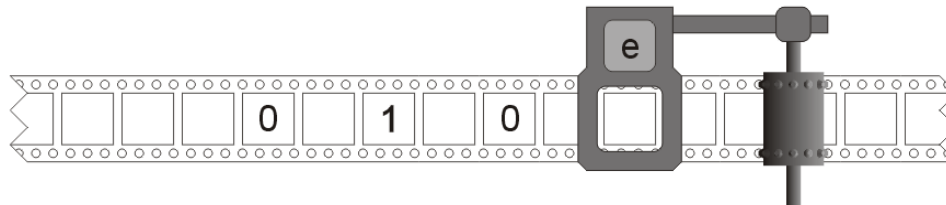
Turing machine 3

The Turing machine has four components:

- An arbitrary-length tape
- A head
- A state
- **A transition table** (this is your program!)
 - $Q \times \Gamma \rightarrow Q \times \Gamma \times \{L, R, N\}$
 - **L** moves one entry to the left
 - **R** moves one entry to the right
 - **N** indicates no shift

Current				
State	Symbol read	State	New Symbol to write	Direction
<i>b</i>	B	<i>c</i>	0	R
<i>c</i>	B	<i>e</i>	B	R
<i>e</i>	B	<i>f</i>	1	R
<i>f</i>	B	<i>b</i>	B	R

There is at most one entry in this table for each pair of current settings

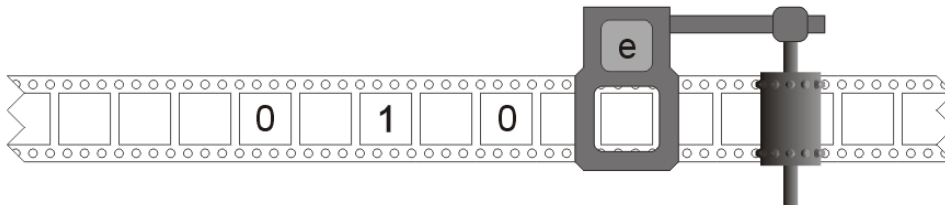


Example (Turing, '36)

A program to write 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 ...

Currently, the state is e and the symbol under the head is B

Current		Next		
State	Symbol read	State	Symbol to write	Direction
b	B	c	0	R
c	B	e	B	R
e	B	f	1	R
f	B	b	B	R

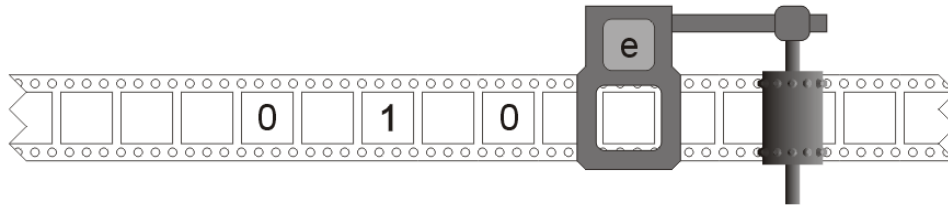


Example - 2

The transition table dictates that the machine must:

- The state is set to f
- Print symbol 1 onto the tape
- Move one entry to the right

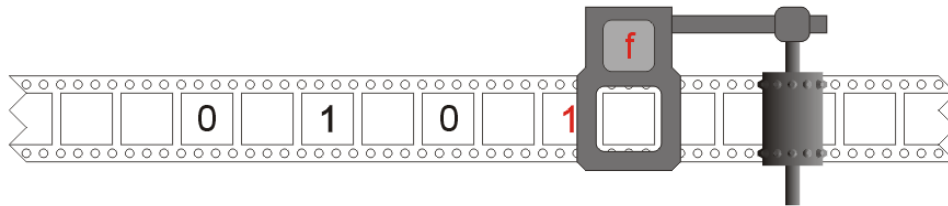
Current		Next		
State	Symbol read	State	Symbol to write	Direction
b	B	c	0	R
c	B	e	B	R
e	B	f	1	R
f	B	b	B	R



Example - 3

The state and symbol under the head have been updated

Current		Next		
State	Symbol read	State	Symbol to write	Direction
<i>b</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>c</i>	0	R
<i>c</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>B</i>	R
<i>e</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>f</i>	1	R
<i>f</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>B</i>	R

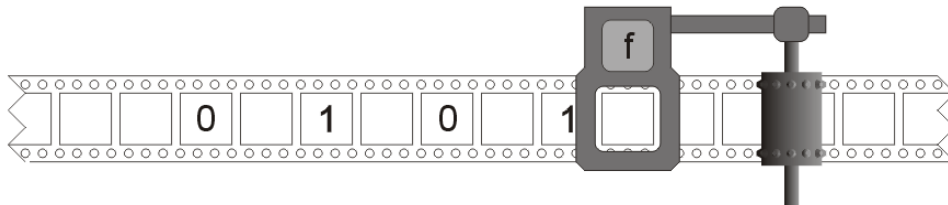


Example - 4

The state is f and the symbol under the head is the blank B :t

- The state is set to b
- A blank is printed to the tape
- Move one entry to the right

Current		Next		
State	Symbol read	State	Symbol to write	Direction
b	B	c	0	R
c	B	e	B	R
e	B	f	1	R
f	B	b	B	R

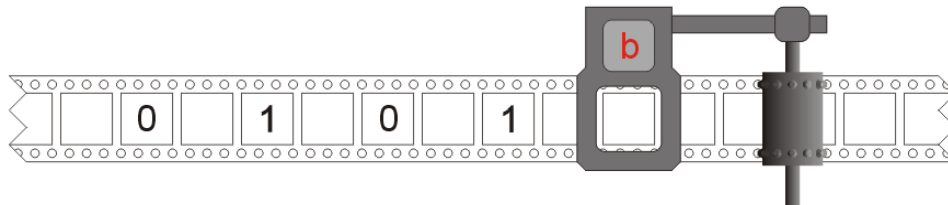


Example - 5

Again, the state is b , the symbol a blank, and therefore:

- Set the state to c
- Print the symbol 0 to the tape
- Move one entry to the right

Current		Next		
State	Symbol read	State	Symbol to write	Direction
b	B	c	0	R
c	B	e	B	R
e	B	f	1	R
f	B	b	B	R

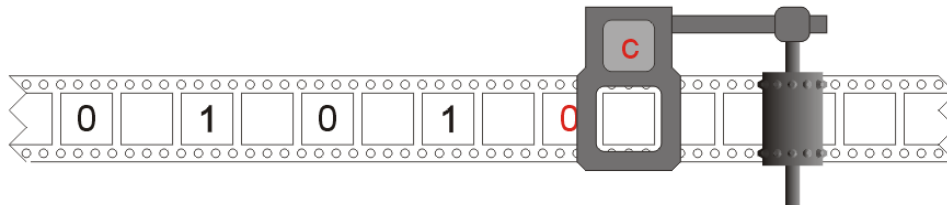


Example - 6

The result is the state c and a blank symbol is under the head:

- Set the state to e
- Write a blank to the tape
- Move one entry to the right

Current		Next		
State	Symbol read	State	Symbol to write	Direction
b	B	c	0	R
c	B	e	B	R
e	B	f	1	R
f	B	b	B	R

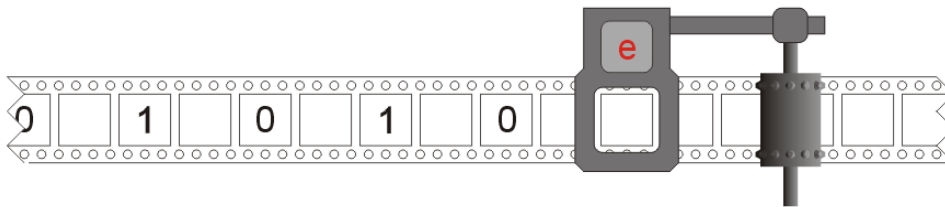


Example - 7

The result is the state e and a blank symbol **B** under the head

- This is the state we were in four steps ago
- This machine never halts...

Current		Next		
State	Symbol read	State	Symbol to write	Direction
b	B	c	0	R
c	B	e	B	R
e	B	f	1	R
f	B	b	B	R



Another Example

This Turing machine does **what?**

- Tape symbols: $\Gamma = \{B, 1\}$
- States: $Q = \{a, b, c, d, e, H\}$
- Initial state: $q_0 = a$
- Halting state: H

Note there is exactly one entry for each pair in $Q \setminus \{H\} \times \Gamma$

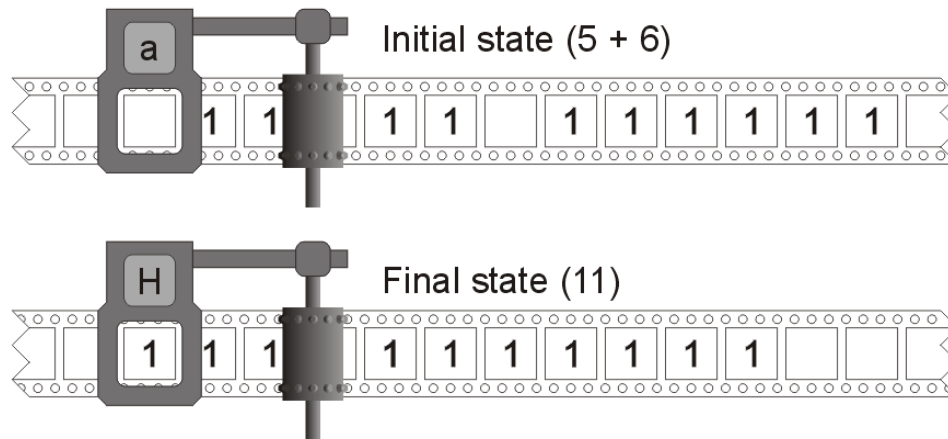
- It may not be necessary to have one for each, but you cannot have more than one transition for a given state and symbol
- **Deterministic** program

Current		Next		
State	Symbol read	State	Symbol to write	Direction
<i>a</i>	B	<i>a</i>	B	R
<i>a</i>	1	<i>b</i>	1	R
<i>b</i>	B	<i>c</i>	1	R
<i>b</i>	1	<i>b</i>	1	R
<i>c</i>	B	<i>d</i>	B	L
<i>c</i>	1	<i>b</i>	1	R
<i>d</i>	B	<i>d</i>	B	L
<i>d</i>	1	<i>e</i>	B	L
<i>e</i>	B	H	B	R
<i>e</i>	1	<i>e</i>	1	L

Example 2

After 22 steps, a group of five ones and a group of six ones are merged into a single group of eleven ones

- This represents $5 + 6 = 11$
- It is the simplest addition machine (no boolean representation of numbers)



Non-deterministic algorithms

A Turing machine is non-deterministic if the transition table can contain more than one entry per state-letter pair

- When more than one transition is possible, a non-deterministic Turing machine branches and creating a new sequence of computation for each possible transition

A non-deterministic algorithm can be implemented on a deterministic machine in one of three manners:

- Assuming execution along any branch ultimately stops, perform a depth-first traversal by choosing one of the two or more options and if one does not find a solution, continue with the next option
- Create a copy of the currently executing process and have each copy work on one of the next possible steps
 - These can be performed either on separate processors or as multiple processes or threads on a single processor
- Randomly choose one of the multiple options

Turing-Church Conjecture

Alan Turing and Alonzo Church (Turing's PhD mentor at Princeton):

- For any algorithm which can be calculated given arbitrary amounts of time and storage, there is an equivalent Turing machine for that algorithm
- Formally: a function on the natural numbers can be calculated by an effective method if and only if it is computable by a Turing machine
 - 'Effective method': each step of which is precisely predetermined and which is certain to produce the answer in a finite number of steps

A computational system is said to be *Turing complete* if it can compute every function computable on a Turing machine

- e.g., a programming language compiled into machine code and run on a process

Decision Problem Instance

- An algorithm solves a concrete problem in time $O(T(n))$ if, when provided with a problem instance of size n bits, it produces the correct answer to the question in $O(T(n))$ time
- **Polynomially solvable** problems: $T(n) = n^k$ for some $k > 0$
- Size of the input:
 - Integers represented in binary
 - Sets represented in bits related to the number of elements in the set times the number of bits per element

P and NP

- A decision problem belongs to the class **P** if there is a algorithm solving the problem with a running time on a deterministic machine that is polynomial in the input size.
- A decision problem belongs to the class **NP** (non-deterministic polynomial) if:
 - Any solution y leading to 'yes' can be encoded in polynomial space with respect to the size of the input x .
 - Checking whether a given solution leads to 'yes' can be done in polynomial time with respect to the size of x and y
 - problem is solvable in polynomial time in a non-deterministic machine
 - Can explore all possible solutions in parallel
 - Oracle selects best possible solution to check

Slightly more formal:

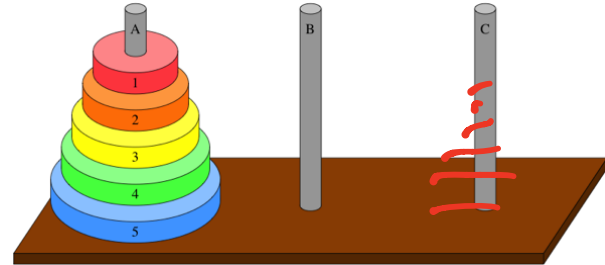
- Problem Q belongs to the class **NP**, if there exists a polynomial-time 2-argument algorithm A , such that:
 - For each instance i , i is a yes-instance to Q , if and only if, there is a polynomial-size certificate c for which $A(i,c) = \text{true}$.

Examples

- Tower of Hanoi

- Number of moves to solve is exponential in number of disks
- Can't describe solution in polynomial number of moves
- Not in NP

2^n



- Shortest path problem

- Is the length of a shortest path from a to b less than a threshold?
- Can answer in polynomial time in the size of the description of the network —> It is in **P**

- Traveling salesperson problem

- Is the length of a complete traveling salesperson tour less than a threshold?
- A tour can be described in polynomial space, and we can verify the length of the tour in polynomial time —> it is in **NP**



Non-deterministic polynomial-time algorithms

- The traveling salesman problem can be solved non-deterministically:
 - At each step, spawn a thread for each possible path
 - As you finish, compare them and determine if any of them have length less than k
 - The run time is now $\Theta(|V|)$
 - This is a brute-force search

$TSP \in \underline{NP}$



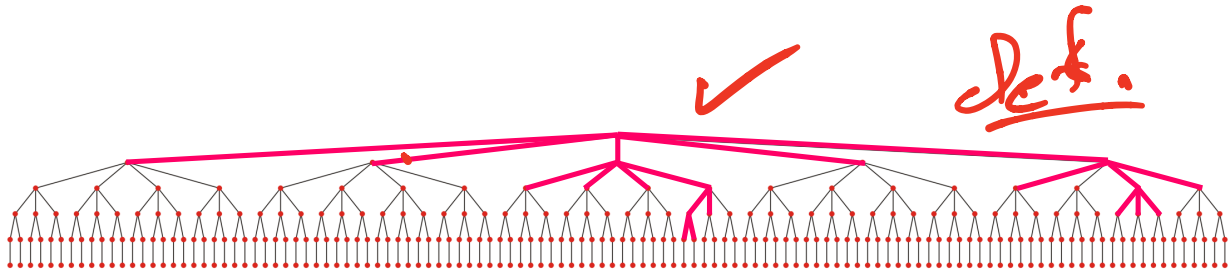
$\rightarrow 2^n$ $(n-1)!$ $n = |V|$
 $\rightarrow (n-1)^{n-1}$

Non-deterministic polynomial-time algorithms

Consider the following decision problem:

“Is there a path between vertices a and b with weight no greater than K ?”

- [Dijkstra's algorithm can answer this in polynomial time
- Dijkstra's algorithm also solves the optimization problem

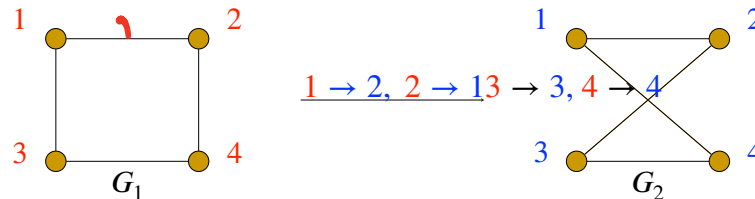


Shows: ..

Slow & Simple

Examples of NP problems

- Factoring: factor a given number n .
- Decision version: Given (n, k) , decide whether n has a factor less than k
- Factoring is in **NP**: For any candidate factor $m \leq k$, it's easy to check whether $m \mid n$. !
- Graph Isomorphism: Given two graphs G_1 and G_2 , decide whether we can permute vertices of G_1 to get G_2 .



- Easy to check: For any given permutation, easy to permute G_1 according to it and then compare to G_2 .

Reduction and completeness

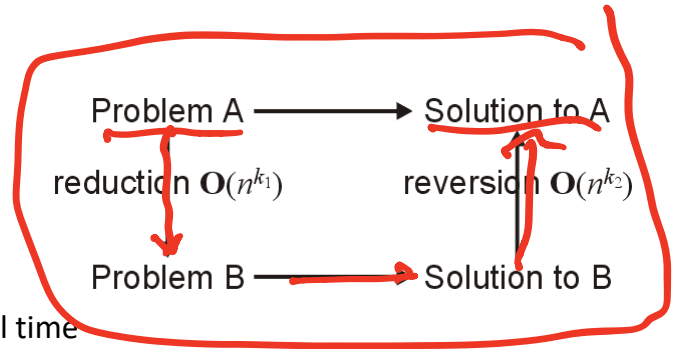
- Decision problem for language A is reducible to that for language B in time t if $\exists f: \text{Domain}(A) \rightarrow \text{Domain}(B)$ s.t. \forall input instance x for A ,
 1. $x \in A \Leftrightarrow f(x) \in B$, and
 2. one can compute $f(x)$ in time $t(|x|)$
- Thus to solve A , it is enough to solve B .
 - First compute $f(x)$
 - Run algorithm for B on $f(x)$.
 - If the algorithm outputs $f(x) \in B$, then output $x \in A$.

S to b \rightarrow (1111 to 111111)

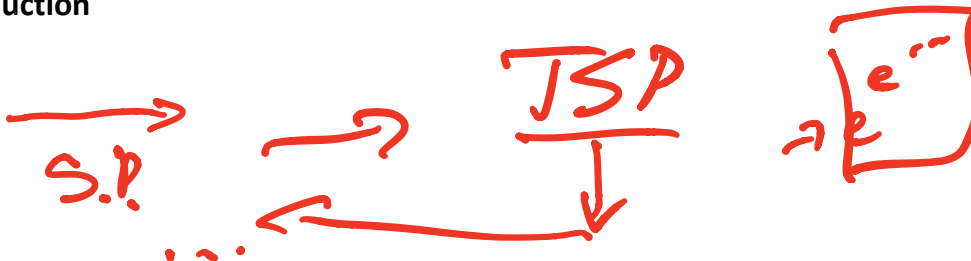
Reduction

- Reduction converts the solution of a problem to the solution of another problem

- Graphically, we may think of the following image:



- To solve Problem A, we:
 - Reduce the problem to Problem B in polynomial time
 - Solve Problem B
 - Revert the solution back into a solution for Problem A
- We want the reduction and reversion algorithms to be of polynomial complexity: **polynomial reduction**



$A \xrightarrow{\text{poly.}} B \xrightarrow{?} A^P$

Example: Polynomial reduction

- Multiply two n digit decimal numbers:
 - Reduction: convert the two numbers into binary numbers
 - Multiply the two binary numbers \rightarrow
 - Reversion: convert the solution back into a decimal number
- Both the reduction and the reversion run in $\Theta(n)$ time
- Observe: if a decision problem is reduced to a decision problem, the corresponding reversion algorithm is trivial and is in $\Theta(1)$ time \blacktriangle

Polynomial reduction

$\text{Vec for } (n)$

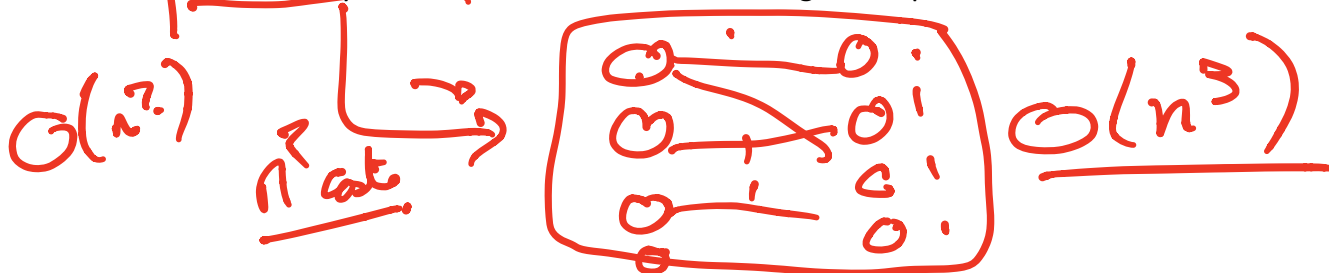
✓

- Another example: Does a list have a duplicate element?
 - Reduction: Sort the list ✓ $O(n \log n)$
 - Simpler problem: Does a sorted list have a duplicate element? $\rightarrow O(n)$
 - Reversion: Return true or false, as is
- Both the reduction and the reversion run in $\Theta(n)$ time
 - If a decision problem is reduced to a decision problem, the reversion is therefore $\Theta(1)$
 - Either the solution or its negation

Examples: Polynomial reduction

- Example: Does an n by n assignment problem have minimum cost less than K?
 - Polynomial Reduction: Reduce to the solution of n sequential shortest path problems in non-negative weight graphs with $O(2n)$ vertices
 - Reversion: Convert the decision of the successive shortest path algorithm

- * Example: Given two sequences a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n and b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n , is there a permutation $j(i)$ such that $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_{j(i)} \geq K$? ✓
- $O(n \log n)$
 $O(n^2)$
- Polynomial Reduction: sort both sequences increasing order, multiply the sorted sequences and verify product is greater than or equal to K
 - Another polynomial reduction: convert to assignment problem!



Polynomially Reducible

- **Definition:** Problem A is polynomially reducible to problem B if there exists an algorithm for solving problem A in polynomial time if we could solve arbitrary instances of problem B at unit cost

- Written as $A \leq_p B$.

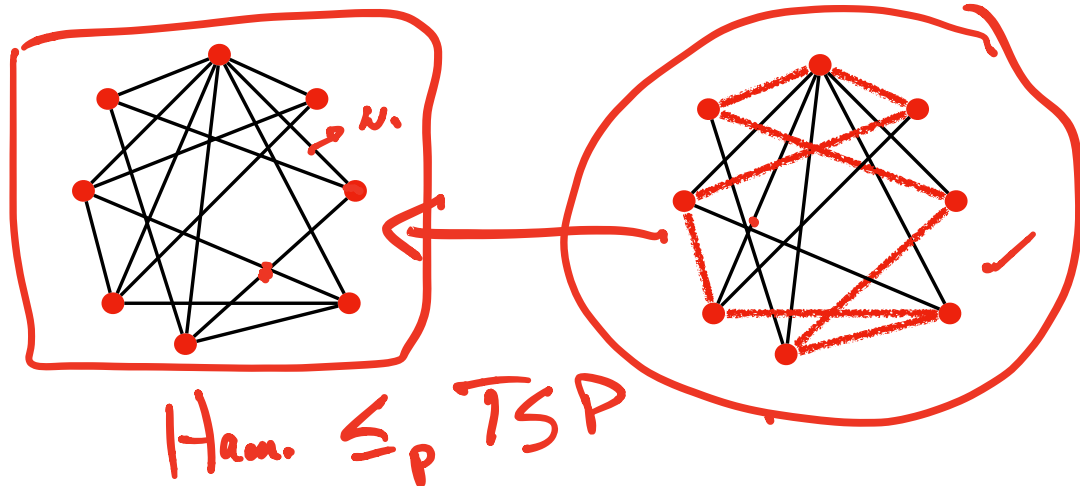
- If $A \leq_p B$, and $B \leq_p A$, then we write $A =_p B$

→ If $A \in \mathbf{P}$ and $B \leq_p A$, then $B \in \mathbf{P}$

- e.g. Shortest path problem is in \mathbf{P} . Assignment problem is polynomially reducible to shortest path problem. Then Assignment problem is in \mathbf{P} .

Polynomial Reduction

- Problem A: Traveling salesperson problem
 - Given a weighted directed graph, find a simple cycle that visits each vertex once and has total cost less than or equal to K
- Problem B: Hamiltonian cycle problem
 - Given a directed graph, does there exist a simple cycle that includes every vertex once?



Polynomial Reduction

- Claim: $\underline{B} \leq_P \underline{A}$

Proof: Let graph for B be $G(V, E)$. We are going to construct a weighted graph $G(V, E')$ with a weight function for Problem A, in polynomial time

Let E' be the dense set of edge in $V \times V$. Assign weights as follows: $w(e') = 0$
if $e' \in E$, $w(e') = 1$ if $e' \notin E$

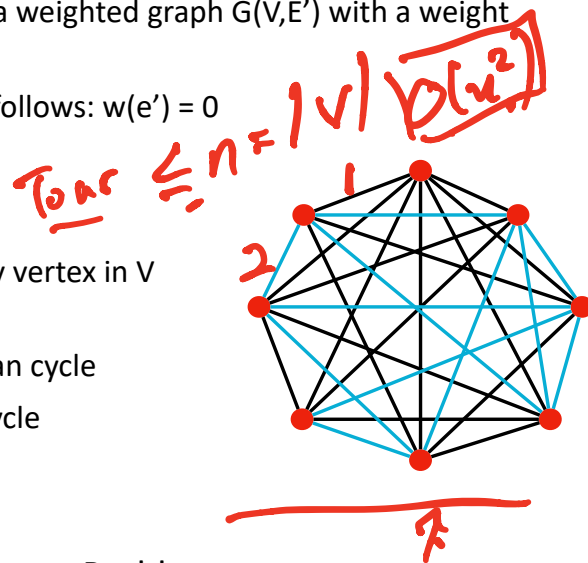
Reduction: $O(|V|^2)$ is polynomial

TSP problem: Does there exist a simple cycle that visits every vertex in V once, and has total cost less than or equal to 0

If yes, it is a cycle with all edges in E , and so it is a Hamiltonian cycle

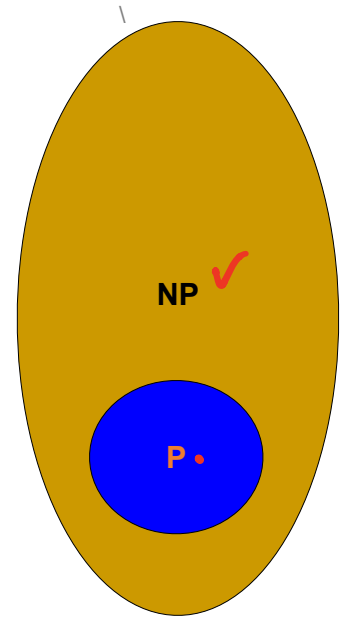
If no, no cycle exists with all edges in E , so no Hamiltonian cycle can be found

This shows Hamiltonian cycle \leq_P Traveling Salesperson Problem



NP Complete

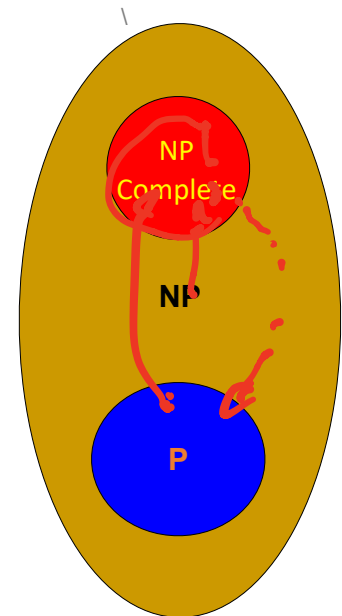
- We know class **P** is a subset of class **NP**
 - TSP is not known to be in class **P** but is in **NP**
 - It is a conjecture that **P** \neq **NP**, but it has not been proven ✓
 - We do know **P** \subset **NP**
- **Definition**: a problem **A** is NP-complete, if $A \in \mathbf{NP}$ and every problem $B \in \mathbf{NP}$ can be polynomially reduced to **A**. That is, $B \leq_P A$
- Do such problems exist? If so, **and** one of them was in class **P**, then every problem in class **NP** could be solved in polynomial time ✓



1971
197... {Steven Cook
(Leonid Levin (CS BU))

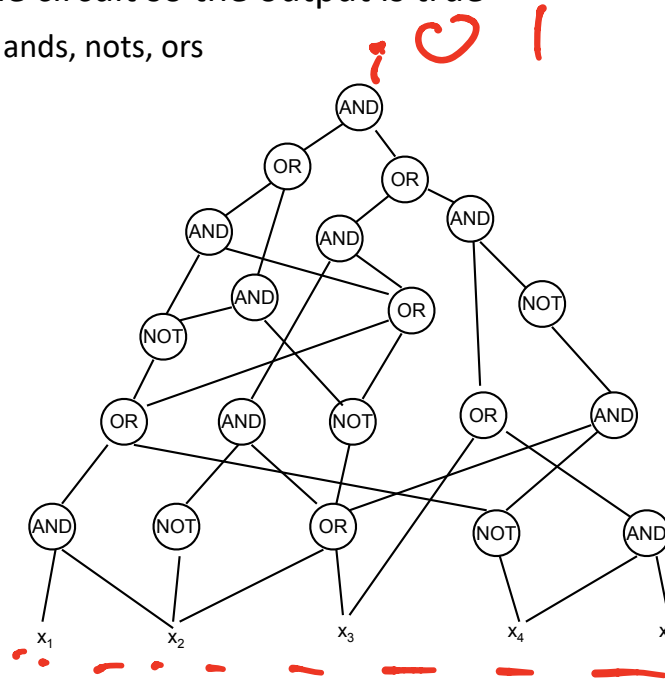
Existence of NP-complete Problems

- Steven Cook and Leonid Levin (BU) proved in parallel that there exists an **NP** complete problem
 - Levin joined BU in 1980s
- Specifically: Boolean satisfiability (SAT)
 - Given a Boolean formula, is there an assignment of True and False to its variables so that the formula evaluates to True?
 - e.g. Can we find values of p, q, r, s so formula below is true?
$$(p \vee q \vee r) \wedge (p \vee \neg q \wedge s) \wedge (\neg p) \wedge (\neg q \wedge s) \wedge (\neg s)$$
- Cook-Levin Theorem
 - If a polynomial-time deterministic algorithm can solve this problem, then polynomial-time deterministic algorithms can solve all NP problems



Equivalent Problem: Circuit SAT

- Find inputs to the circuit so the output is true
 - All the gates are ands, nots, ors



SAT and k-SAT

- SAT formula: **AND** of m clauses (Conjunctive Normal Form)
- n **variables** (taking values 0 and 1)
- a **literal**: a variable x_i or its negation \bar{x}_i
- m **clauses**, each being **OR** of some literals.
 - $(x_1 \vee x_2 \vee \bar{x}_3) \wedge (x_1 \vee \bar{x}_2 \vee x_4) \wedge (\bar{x}_4) \wedge (\bar{x}_2 \vee x_3) \wedge (\bar{x}_3)$
- **SAT Problem**: Is there an **assignment** of variables s.t. the formula evaluates to 1?
- k -SAT: same as SAT but each clause has at most k literals.
- SAT and k -SAT are in **NP**
 - Given any assignment, it's **easy to check** whether it satisfies all clauses.

$$\text{SAT} \subseteq \text{P} \quad \text{K-SAT} \quad \text{SAT} = \text{P}^{\text{K-SAT}} \\ \text{SAT} = \text{P}^{\text{3-SAT}}$$

The 1st NP-complete problem: SAT

- Consider an arbitrary problem class Y in **NP**
- Given a problem instance y , with description length n bits, there is an algorithm which is polynomial in n , $p(n)$, which can verify whether the answer to this instance y is true
 - The input description to this verification algorithm is a set of bits: Boolean variables
 - Verification algorithm manipulates Boolean variables into a yes or no decision: a Boolean output
- The algorithm can be specified as a Boolean formula in conjunctive normal form, involving $p(n)$ terms
- Finding a set of inputs to this formula that makes it true is equivalent to determining whether there original problem instance has answer true

• $Y \leq_p SAT$

$\exists SAT \iff \neg \neg SAT$

How Do We Find Other NP-Complete Problems

- Reduction! We want to find if problem Y in **NP** is NP-complete
- If $\text{SAT} \leq_P Y$, then Problem Y is NP-Complete! SAT is no easier than Y
- Note: to prove a problem A is in class **P**, we need to find a problem B in class **P** so that $A \leq_P B$
- To prove a problem A is NP-complete class **P**, find an NP-complete problem so that $B \leq_P A$
- Note the following: it is easy to show that $\text{SAT} =_P \text{3-SAT}$ using standard logic transformations

multics
OS. \rightarrow VAX

1971 \rightarrow Cook \rightarrow 21 Graph NP-complete problems

1972 \rightarrow Karp \rightarrow 21

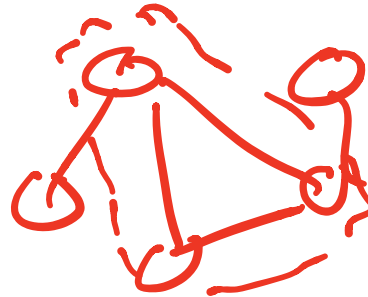
Graph NP-Complete Problems

- Karp ('72) followed Cook's proof to show 3-D SAT can be reduced to 21 different graph problems
- TSP, others
- Many others have continued to extend this to thousands of other problems
- Note: to prove a problem A is in class **P**, we need to find a problem B in class **P** so that $A \leq_P B$
- To prove a problem A is NP-complete class **P**, find an NP-complete problem so that $B \leq_P A$
- Note the following: it is easy to show that $SAT =_P 3-SAT$ using standard logic transformations

NP-complete problem 1: Clique

- **Clique**: Given a graph G and a number k , decide whether G has a clique of size $\geq k$.
 - Clique: a complete subgraph.
- Fact: Clique is **in NP**.
- Theorem: If one can solve **Clique** in polynomial time, then one can also solve **3-SAT** in polynomial time.
 - So Clique is at least as hard as 3-SAT.
- Corollary: Clique is **NP-complete**.

3-SAT \leq_p Clique



Approach: Reduction

- Given a 3-SAT formula $\phi = C_1 \wedge \dots \wedge C_k$ with conjunctions C_k , we construct a graph G s.t.
 - if ϕ is satisfiable, then G has a clique of size k .
 - if ϕ is unsatisfiable, then G has no clique of size $\geq k$.
 - Note: k is the number of clauses of ϕ .
- If you can solve the Clique problem, then you can also solve the 3-SAT problem.

Construction

- Put each **literal** appearing in the formula as a **vertex**.

- Literal: x_i and \bar{x}_i

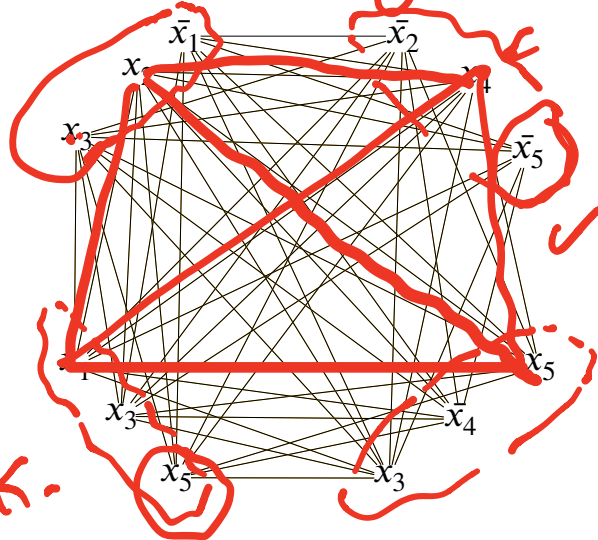
- e.g.

→ $\phi = (\bar{x}_1 \vee x_2 \vee x_3) \wedge (\bar{x}_2 \vee x_3 \vee x_5) \wedge (x_1 \vee x_3 \vee x_5) \wedge (x_3 \vee \bar{x}_4 \vee x_5)$

- Literals from the **same clause** are **not connected**
- Two literals from different clauses are **connected** if they are **not the negation** of each other

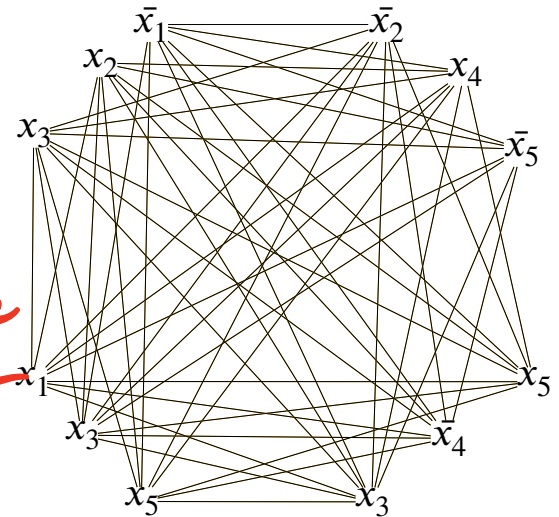
-

Clause
size k.



ϕ is satisfied $\Rightarrow G$ has a k -clique

- If ϕ is satisfied,
- then there is a satisfying assignment $x_1 \dots x_n$ s.t. each clause has at least one literal being 1.
 - E.g. $x = 00111$, then pick \bar{x}_1, x_4, x_3, x_5
- And those literals (one from each clause) are **consistent** because they all evaluate to 1
- So the subgraph with these vertices is **complete**. --- A clique of size k .

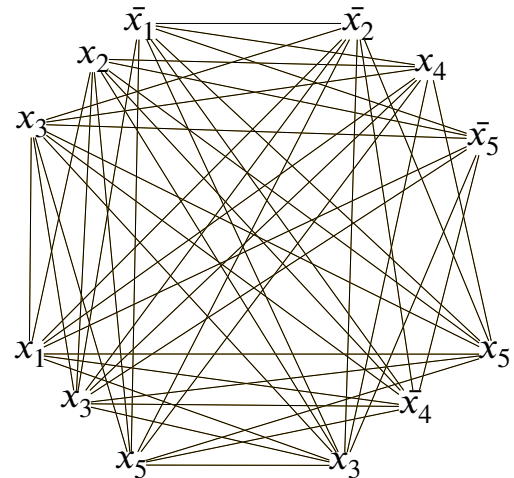


\exists -SAT \in Clique

Clique \rightarrow NP-complete

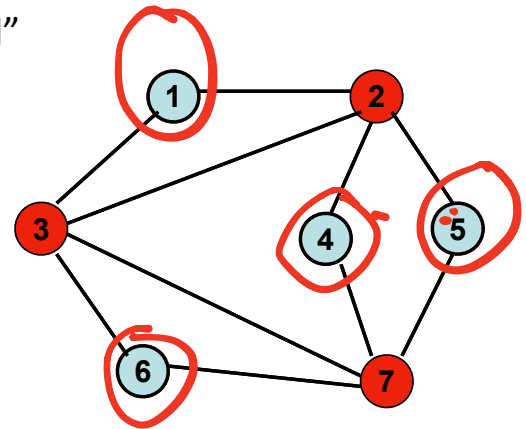
G has a k -clique $\Rightarrow \phi$ is satisfied

- If the graph has a clique of size k :
- It must be **one** vertex **from each** clause.
 - Vertices from the same clause don't connect.
- And these literals are **consistent**.
 - Otherwise they don't all connect.
- So we can pick the **assignment** by these vertices. It satisfies all clauses by satisfying at least one vertex in each clause
- Hence, it makes ϕ true



NP-complete problem 2: Vertex Cover

- **Vertex Cover**: Given a graph G and a number k , decide whether G has a **vertex cover** of size $\leq k$
 - V' is a vertex cover if all edges in G are “touched” by vertices from V'
- Vertex Cover is in NP
 - Given a candidate subset $S \subseteq V$, it is easy to check whether “ $|S| \leq k$ and S touches all edges in E ”



NP complete \leq_P Vertex Cover
....

2f

NP-complete

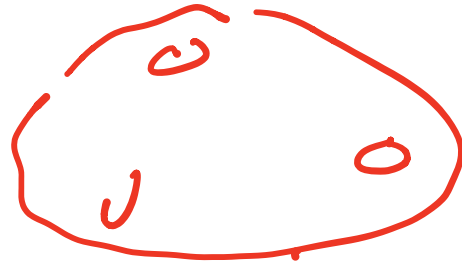
- To prove Vertex Cover is **NP-complete**, reduce Clique to Vertex Cover
- For any graph G , the complement of G is \bar{G}
 - If $G = (V, E)$, then $\bar{G} = (V, \bar{E})$
 - $\bar{E} = \{\{i, j\} : i \in V, j \in V, \{i, j\} \notin E\}$
 - Constructing \bar{G} from G is a polynomial operation
- **Theorem:** G has a k -clique \iff \bar{G} has a vertex cover of size $n - k$
 - Will show In next slide
- Given this theorem, Clique can be reduced to Vertex Cover
- So Vertex Cover is **NP**-complete

Proof of the theorem

- G has a k -clique $\iff \exists V' \subset V, |V'| = k, V'$ is a clique in G
- Independent set in \bar{G} : For any u, v in V' , $\{u, v\} \notin \bar{E}$
- V' is a clique in G $\iff V'$ is an independent set in \bar{G}
- V' is an independent set in \bar{G} $\iff V/V'$ is a vertex cover of \bar{G} ,
because every edge in \bar{E} must touch a vertex in V/V' ✓
- Let $V'' = V/V'$. Then, $|V''| = n - k$, and V'' is a vertex cover of \bar{G}

$$V = V' \cup V''$$

CLRS



Another NP-Complete Problem: Independent Set

- Independent Set: Decide whether a given graph has an independent set of size at least k
- The above argument shows that the Independent Set problem is also NP-Complete because $\text{Clique} \leq_P \text{Independent set}$

