The Independent Set Problem Is FPT for Even-Hole-Free Graphs

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- Abstract -

The class of even-hole-free graphs is very similar to the class of perfect graphs, and was indeed a cornerstone in the tools leading to the proof of the Strong Perfect Graph Theorem. However, the complexity of computing a maximum independent set (MIS) is a long-standing open question in even-hole-free graphs. From the hardness point of view, MIS is W[1]-hard in the class of graphs without induced 4-cycle (when parameterized by the solution size). Halfway of these, we show in this paper that MIS is FPT when parameterized by the solution size in the class of even-hole-free graphs. The main idea is to apply twice the well-known technique of augmenting graphs to extend some initial independent set.

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1 Introduction

Given a (finite, simple, undirected) graph G=(V,E) we say that a subset of vertices $I\subseteq V$ is independent if every two vertices in I are non-adjacent. The maximum independent set problem is the problem of finding an independent set of maximum cardinality in a given graph G. This problem is NP-hard even for planar graphs of degree at most three [5], unit disk graphs [3], and C_4 -free graphs [1]. , To see that the independent set problem is NP-hard in the class of C_4 -free graphs, one can use the following observation by Poljak [10]. Namely, $\alpha(G') = \alpha(G) + 1$ where the graph G' is obtained from G by replacing a single edge with a P_4 (i.e., subdividing it twice). By replacing every edge with a P_4 we obtain a graph that has girth at least nine, and thus MIS is NP-hard for C_4 -free graphs. Similarly, MIS is NP-hard for the class of graphs with girth at least l, where $l \in \mathbb{N}$ is fixed.

On the contrary, when the input is restricted to some particular class of graphs the problem can be solved efficiently. Examples of such classes are bipartite graphs [8], chordal

graphs [6] and claw-free graphs [9, 11]. The maximum independent set problem is also polynomially solvable when the input is restricted to the class of perfect graphs using the ellipsoid method [7], but it remains an open question to find a combinatorial algorithm in this case. In fact, we do not even have a combinatorial FPT algorithm for the maximum independent set problem on perfect graphs.

Closely related to the class of perfect graphs is the class of even-hole-free graphs. The class of even-hole-free graphs was introduced as a class structurally similar to the class of Berge graphs. We say that a graph is Berge if and only if it is odd-hole-free and odd-antihole-free, i.e., $\{C_5, C_7, \overline{C_7}, C_9, \overline{C_9}, \dots\}$ -free². The similarity follows from the fact that by forbidding C_4 , we also forbid all antiholes on at least 6 vertices. Hence, an even-hole-free graph does not contain an antihole on at least 6 vertices, i.e., it is $\{C_4, C_6, \overline{C_6}, \overline{C_7}, C_8, \overline{C_8}, \dots\}$ -free. It should be noted that techniques obtained in the study of even-hole-free graphs were successfully used in the proof of the Strong Perfect Graph Theorem. A decomposition theorem, an algorithm for the maximum weighted clique problem and several other polynomial algorithms for classical problems in subclasses of even-hole-free graphs can be found in survey [12].

We denote by $\alpha(G)$ the maximum cardinality of an independent set in a graph G. In this paper we consider a parameterized version of the problem, that is we consider the following decision problem.

INDEPENDENT SET:

Input: A graph G.

Parameter: k.

Output: True if $\alpha(G) \ge k$ and false otherwise.

We say that a problem is fixed parameter tractable (FPT) parameterized by the solution size k, if there is an algorithm running in time $O(f(k)n^c)$ for some function f and some constant c. More generally, a problem is fixed parameter tractable with respect to the parameter k (e.g. solution size, tree-width, ...) if for any instance of size n, it can be solved in time $O(f(k)n^c)$ for some fixed c. Usually, we consider whether a problem is FPT if the problem is already known to be NP-hard. In that case, the function f is not in any way bounded by a polynomial. In other words, for fixed parameter tractable problems, the difficulty is not in the input size, but rather in the size of the solution (parameter). In general, the INDEPENDENT SET problem is not fixed-parameter tractable (parameterized by the size of solution) unless W[1]=FPT or informally, we believe that there is no FPT algorithm for the problem [4]. Recently, it has been shown that MIS is W[1]-hard for C_4 -free graphs [2]. Even stronger, the same paper proves that MIS is W[1]-hard in any family of graphs defined by finitely many forbidden induced holes.

While the exact complexity of the maximum independent set problem is still open for the class of even-hole-free graphs, we present a step forward by showing that there is an FPT algorithm for the problem.

Main idea

Our algorithm is based on the augmentation technique. More precisely, in order to compute a solution of size k + 1, we compute disjoint solutions of size k. The main property we use is that the union of two independent sets in an even-hole-free graph induces a forest. The

 $^{^{1}}$ The term combinatorial algorithm is used for an algorithm that does not rely on the ellipsoid method.

² Berge graphs are exactly perfect graphs by the Strong Perfect Graph Theorem.

key-point of our algorithm is that if W, X are disjoint solutions of size k, and Y is some (unknown) solution of size k+1, then the two trees induced by $X \cup Y$ and $W \cup Y$ are very constrained. This leads to a reduction to the chordal graph case, where MIS is tractable by dynamic programming.

Preliminaries

We consider finite, simple and undirected graphs. For a graph G = (V, E) we write $uv \in E$ for an edge $\{u,v\} \in E(G)$, in this case u and v are adjacent. For a vertex $v \in V(G)$ we denote by $N_G(v) = \{u \in V : uv \in E\}$ the neighborhood of v and for $W \subseteq V$, we define $N_G(W) = \bigcup_{w \in W} N_G(w) \setminus W$. We drop the subscript when it is clear from the context. Let $S \subseteq V$. We say that S is complete to W if every vertex in S is adjacent to every vertex in W. The induced subgraph G[W] is defined as the graph $H = (W, E \cap {W \choose 2})$ where ${W \choose 2}$ is the set of all unordered pairs in W. For a set A we denote by A^2 the set of all ordered pairs with elements in A. The graph $G[V \setminus W]$ is denoted $G \setminus W$ and when $W = \{w\}$ we write $G \setminus W$. A subset of vertices is called a clique if all the vertices are pairwise adjacent. A chordless cycle on at least four vertices is called a hole. A hole is even (resp. odd) if it contains an even (resp. odd) number of vertices. A path is a graph obtained by deleting one vertex of a chordless cycle. A path with endvertices u,v is called a u,v-path. Given a path Z and two of its vertices v,u we denote by vZu the smallest subpath of Z containing v and u. An in-arborescence is an orientation of a tree in which every vertex apart one (the root) has outdegree one.

2 Reduction steps and augmenting graphs

Our main goal is to show that the following problem is FPT.

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INDEPENDENT SET IN EVEN-HOLE-FREE GRAPHS (ISEHF):

Input: An even-hole-free graph G.

Parameter: k.
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Output: An independent set of size k if $\alpha(G) \geq k$ and false otherwise.

We define a simpler version of the ISEHF problem where we know more about the structure of G. Later, we show that it suffices to find an FPT algorithm for the simpler version.

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Transversal Independent Set in Even-Hole-Free Graphs (TISEHF):

Input: An even-hole-free graph G and a partition of V(G) into cliques X_1, \ldots, X_k.

Parameter: k.

Output: An independent set of size k if \alpha(G) \geq k and false otherwise.
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Note that in TISEHF, an independent set of size k must intersect every clique on exactly one vertex, i.e., it must traverse all cliques.

▶ Lemma 1. The ISEHF problem is FPT if and only if the TISEHF problem is FPT.

Proof. Note that the only if implication is obvious, so we assume that we already have an FPT algorithm \mathcal{A} for TISEHF, and provide one for ISEHF. We claim that it suffices to exhibit an algorithm \mathcal{B} running in time $g(k)n^c$ which takes as input the pair (G,k) and either outputs an independent set of size k or a cover of V(G) by $2^{k-1} - 1$ cliques. Indeed, one

then just has to apply algorithm \mathcal{A} to every possible choice of k disjoint cliques induced by the $2^{k-1}-1$ cliques which are output by \mathcal{B} . We describe \mathcal{B} inductively on k: If k=2, then G is either a clique, or contains two non-adjacent vertices x,y. When k>2, we compute two non-adjacent vertices x,y (or return the clique G). We now apply \mathcal{B} to the graph induced by the set X of non-neighbors of x: we either get an independent set of size k-1 (in which case we are done by adding x) or cover X by $2^{k-2}-1$ cliques. We apply similarly \mathcal{B} to the set Y of non-neighbors of y. Note that $X \cup Y$ covers all vertices of G except the common neighbors N of x and y. Since G is C_4 -free, N is a clique, and therefore we have constructed a cover of V(G) by $2(2^{k-2}-1)+1$ cliques.

We turn to our main result. In the rest of this section we further reduce the problem to a graph together with two particular trees. Section 3 defines the notion of bi-trees and shows how two trees interact under certain conditions. Then, in Section 4, we prove that bi-trees arising from even-hole-free graphs satisfy these conditions and conclude the algorithm.

▶ Theorem 2. The TISEHF problem is FPT.

Proof. We assume that we have already shown that there is an algorithm \mathcal{A} which solves TISEHF(G,j) in time $O(f(j)n^3)$ for every $j \leq k$. Our goal is to extend this by showing that f(k+1) exists. Our input is a partition of G into cliques $X_1, \ldots, X_k, X_{k+1}$ (which we call parts) and we aim to either find an independent set intersecting all parts or show that none exists. In what follows, we assume that an independent set $Y = \{y_1, \ldots, y_k, y_{k+1}\}$ intersecting all parts exists, and whenever a future argument will end up with a contradiction, this will always be a contradiction to the existence of Y, and thus our output will implicitly be FALSE.

The first step is to apply \mathcal{A} to X_1,\ldots,X_k to compute an independent set $W=\{w_1,\ldots,w_k\}$. If it happens that $W\cap Y\neq\emptyset$, we guess which w_i belongs to Y and run \mathcal{A} on the k remaining parts in which we have deleted all neighbors of w_i . This costs k calls to TISEHF(G,k) which is in our budget. So we may assume that W is disjoint from Y, and even stronger that no vertex of W belongs to an independent set of size k+1, since one of the previous k calls would have detected it. Moreover, since there is no even hole, $W\cup Y$ induces a forest T_1 . Note that no vertex of W is isolated in T_1 since the parts are cliques. Note also that T_1 cannot have a leaf w_i in W, since w_i would belong to an independent set of size k+1 by exchanging it with y_i . Thus every vertex of W has degree at least two in T_1 . Since the number of edges of T_1 is at most 2k, we have that every vertex of W has degree 2 and T_1 is a tree.

As there is only h(k) possible choices for the structure of T_1 , we call h(k) branches of computations for each of these choices of T_1 . This means that in each call, we only keep the vertices of the parts X_i which corresponds to the possible neighborhoods of vertices of W. For instance, in the call corresponding to a tree T_1 in which w_1 is adjacent to y_1 and y_2 , we delete all neighbors of w_1 in parts X_3, \ldots, X_{k+1} and delete all non-neighbors of w_1 in X_2 (no further cleaning is needed in X_1 since it is a clique). Therefore, we assume that every vertex of W is complete to exactly two parts (including its own) and non-adjacent to others. Moreover, we define a white tree on vertex set $\{1, \ldots, k+1\}$ by having an edge between i and j if there exists a vertex w of W which is complete to X_i and X_j . We will refer to this vertex w as $w_{i,j}$. In what follows, we do not consider anymore that the vertices of W belong to the parts X_j and rather see them as external vertices of our problem. Thus, since we are free to rename the parts, we can assume that k+1 is a leaf of the white tree.

This is the crucial point of the algorithm, we have obtained a more structured input, but unfortunately we could not directly take advantage of it to conclude the main theorem.

Instead, we apply again algorithm \mathcal{A} to X_1,\ldots,X_k to compute a second independent set $X=\{x_1,\ldots,x_k\}$ (if such an X does not exist, we thus return FALSE as Y cannot exist). As done previously, we may assume that X is disjoint from Y, the tree T_2 spanned by $X\cup Y$ can also be guessed, and the degrees of vertices of X in T_2 is two (see Figure 1, down-left). We now interpret T_2 in a slightly different way: we root T_2 at y_{k+1} and orient all the edges toward the root. By doing so, every edge $\{x_i,y_i\}$ gives the arc y_ix_i while the unique neighbor $y_{r(i)}$ of x_i , which is different from y_i , gives the arc $x_iy_{r(i)}$. We now further clean the parts X_j as follows: for every x_i , we delete all neighbors of x_i in X_j for $j\neq i, r(i)$, and we delete all non-neighbors of x_i in $X_{r(i)}$. We now have two trees which endow our parts: the white tree and the red in-arborescence defined on vertex set $\{1,\ldots,k+1\}$ by the arc set $\{ir(i):i=1,\ldots,k\}$. Our tool is now ready: the correlation between these two trees will provide an $O(k \cdot n^3)$ time algorithm to compute Y, or show that Y does not exist. We now turn to a special section devoted to bi-trees, i.e., trees defined on the same set of vertices under some structural constraints.

3 Bi-trees

Let V be a set of vertices. A *bi-tree* is a triple T=(V,A,E) where $E\subseteq\binom{V}{2}$ is a set of edges such that (V,E) is a tree and $A\subseteq V^2$ is a set of arcs such that (V,A) is an in-arborescence. For convenience, we view edges of (V,E) as white edges, and arcs of (V,A) as red arcs.

A separation of a bi-tree is a triple (v, X, Y) such that:

- V is partitioned into nonempty sets $\{v\}$, X and Y,
- \blacksquare no white edge has an end in X and an end in Y, and
- \blacksquare no red arc has an end in X and an end in Y.

When the sets X and Y are clear from the context, we will simply say that v is a separation. Note that if (v, X, Y) is a separation of a bi-tree (V, E, A), then $(X \cup \{v\}, A \cap (X \cup \{v\})^2, E \cap \binom{X \cup \{v\}}{2})$ is the bi-tree induced by $T \setminus Y$. Observe that if the root is not in X, then $T \setminus Y$ is rooted at v.

Let T = (V, A, E) be a bi-tree and a, b, v be three distinct vertices of V. Let P_{ab} be a white path from a to b, of length one or two. Let P_{av} be a directed red path, from a to v, of length at least one. Let P_{bv} be a directed red path, from b to v, of length at least one. We suppose that the three paths are internally vertex disjoint (meaning that if a vertex is in at least two of the paths, then it must be a, b or v). Three such paths are said to form an obstruction directed to v.

Let T = (V, A, E) be a bi-tree and a, b, c, d be four distinct vertices of V. Let P_{ab} be a white path from a to b, P_{bc} be a red path which is directed from b to c or from c to b, P_{cd} be a white path from c to d and P_{da} be a red path which is directed from d to a or from a to d. Suppose that at least one of P_{ab} , P_{cd} has length exactly one and that the four paths are internally vertex disjoint. Four such paths are said to form an alternating obstruction.

A bi-path is a bi-tree T=(V,A,E) on at least two vertices with an ordering v_1,\ldots,v_n of V and an integer t such that:

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A = \{v_1 v_2, \dots, v_{n-1} v_n\},\
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- $v_1v_n \in E$
- $1 \le t \le n-1$,
- if $t \geq 2$, then $\{v_1v_2, \ldots, v_1v_t\} \subseteq E$, and
- \bullet if $t \leq n-2$, then $\{v_{t+1}v_n, \ldots, v_{n-1}v_n\} \subseteq E$.

▶ **Lemma 3.** A bi-tree T = (V, A, E) on at least two vertices, with no separation, no directed obstruction and no alternating obstruction is a bi-path.

Proof. Case 1: (V, A) contains some vertex with in-degree at least 2.

We choose such a vertex v as close as possible to the root r of (V,A). Since (V,A) is an in-arborescence, $(V,A) \setminus v$ has at least $m \geq 2$ in-components A_1, \ldots, A_m and possibly one out-component B. By the choice of v, every vertex of B has in-degree exactly 1. Therefore $(B \cup \{v\}, A \cap (B \cup \{v\})^2)$ is a directed red path from v to r, that we call Z. We now state and prove two claims.

 \triangleright Claim 4. For any $1 \le i < j \le m$, there is no white edge with one end in A_i and one end in A_j .

 \triangleleft

Proof. Indeed, such an edge would yield an obstruction directed to v.

 \triangleright Claim 5. For every $1 \le i \le m$, there exists a white edge with one end in A_i and one end in B (so, in particular, B exists).

Proof. For otherwise, Claim 4 implies that $(v, A_i, V \setminus (A_i \cup \{v\}))$ is a separation.

Let P = v, ..., z be the shortest white path such that $z \in B$ where all internal vertices of P are in $A_1 \cup \cdots \cup A_m$ (P has possibly length 1). By Claim 4, P contains vertices from at most one component, say possibly A_2 , among $A_1, ..., A_m$. By Claim 5, there exists a vertex $x \in A_1$ with a white neighbor w in B. Let Q be the directed red path from x to v.

If w is an internal vertex of vZz then the edge xw, the directed path wZz, the path P, and the directed path Q form an alternating obstruction. If w is a vertex of zZr different from z, then the edge xw, the directed path zZw, the path P, and the directed path Q form an alternating obstruction. If follows that w=z.

If P has length greater than 1, then in particular z has a white neighbor y in A_2 . Now, the white path xzy and the in-components A_1 and A_2 yield an obstruction directed to v. So, P has length 1. Consider, by Claim 5, a vertex y' in A_2 with a neighbor in B. The previous argument, with A_1 and A_2 interchanged, shows that y' is adjacent to z (just as we proved that x is adjacent to z). Again, the white path xzy' and the red in-components A_1 and A_2 yield an obstruction directed to v.

Case 2: Every vertex in (V, A) has in-degree at most 1.

Since (V, A) is an in-arborescence, it follows that (V, A) is a directed path. Hence, there exists an ordering v_1, \ldots, v_n of the vertices of T such that $A = \{v_1 v_2, \ldots, v_{n-1} v_n\}$.

Suppose that there exists a white edge v_iv_j with 1 < i < j < n. Then there exists a white edge $v_{i'}v_k$ between $\{v_1,\ldots,v_{i-1}\}$ and $\{v_{i+1},\ldots,v_n\}$ for otherwise $(v_i,\{v_1,\ldots,v_{i-1}\},\{v_{i+1},\ldots,v_n\})$ is a separation. If k < j there is an alternating obstruction, and also if k > j. It follows that k = j. We proved that there exists a white edge $v_{i'}v_j$, with i' < i. By a symmetric argument, we can prove that there exists j' > j and a white edge $v_iv_{j'}$. Now, the white edges v_iv_j , $v_iv_{j'}$ and the red paths $v_{i'}\ldots v_i$ and $v_j\ldots v_{j'}$ form an alternating obstruction.

Thus there is no white edge v_iv_j with 1 < i < j < n. Hence, every white edge is incident to v_1 or to v_n . If there exist two white edges v_1v_j and v_iv_n with 1 < i < j < n, there is an alternating obstruction, again a contradiction. Hence, if we define t as the greatest integer in $\{2, \ldots, n-1\}$ such that v_1 is adjacent to v_t in (V, E) (with t = 1 if v_1 has no white neighbor among v_2, \ldots, v_{n-1}), we have that v_n has no white neighbor among $\{v_2, \ldots, v_{t-1}\}$. Since every vertex has a white neighbor, it follows that v_1 is white-complete (complete in (V, E))

to $\{v_2, \ldots, v_t\}$ (when $t \geq 2$). For the same reason, v_n is white-complete to $\{v_{t+1}, \ldots, v_{n-1}\}$ (when $t \leq n-2$).

If t > 1 and $v_t v_n$ is a white edge, then $(v_t, \{v_1, \ldots, v_{t-1}\}, \{v_{t+1}, \ldots, v_n\})$ is a separation. So, if t > 1 then $v_1 v_n$ is a white edge, and also if t = 1.

Given two bi-trees T_1, T_2 and a vertex v of T_1 , we denote by (T_1, v, T_2) the bi-tree obtained by gluing T_2 at v on T_1 , i.e., by identifying the root of T_2 with v. A bi-spider is a bi-tree which is obtained by iteratively gluing bi-paths at the root vertex (see Figure 1, right; a bi-spider is induced by the set $\{1, 3, 4, 7, 5\}$). Alternatively, a bi-spider is a bi-tree with no directed obstruction and no alternating obstruction, which is either a bi-path or has only the root as a separation vertex.

Let T be a bi-tree with no directed obstruction and no alternating obstruction. Note that the previous lemma asserts that T can be obtained by iteratively gluing bi-paths. Indeed, a separation v which is chosen as far as possible from the root must isolate a bi-path.

Consider a vertex v of a bi-tree T. Since T can be obtained by iteratively gluing bi-paths, if v is not a separation then it is a vertex in T which is not used in gluing. Thus, the following property holds for T: every vertex v which is not the root is either a separation vertex, a leaf of the white tree, or a leaf of the red in-arborescence. We use it to obtain the following result:

- ▶ Corollary 6. A bi-tree T = (V, A, E) on at least two vertices, with no directed obstruction and no alternating obstruction is either a bi-spider, or admits a separation (v, X, Y) such that
- (a) $T \setminus Y$ is a bi-spider,
- (b) v is either a leaf of the red in-arborescence induced by $T \setminus X$ or a leaf of the white tree induced by $T \setminus X$.
- **Proof.** If T = (V, A, E) is not a bi-spider, it has a separation (v, X, Y) distinct from the root, and we assume that among all choices, v is chosen as far as possible from the root r of the red in-arborescence. W.l.o.g., we assume that Y contains r. Then $T \setminus Y$ is a bi-tree rooted at v which can only admit v as a separation. Hence, $T \setminus Y$ is a bi-spider. Assume moreover that Y is chosen minimum by inclusion for this property (equivalently, $T \setminus Y$ is a maximum bi-spider rooted at v). We claim that v is not a separation in bi-tree $T \setminus X$. If v is a separation in $T \setminus X$ isolating a bi-path, then we have a contradiction to the minimality of Y. If v is a separation not isolating a bi-path, then we have a contradiction to the choice of v. Hence, $T \setminus X$ is a bi-tree in which v is not a separation. Since v is not the root either, it follows that v is a white leaf or a red leaf in $T \setminus X$.
- ▶ Note 7. A separation isolating a bi-spider with the properties (a) and (b) can be found efficiently. In particular, we find a separation (v, X, Y) isolating a path and then take the maximal (inclusion-wise) set X such that $T \setminus Y$ is still a bi-spider.

4 The end of the proof

We now resume our proof of Theorem 2 as follows. Lemma 8 shows that the bi-trees arising from even-hole-free graphs do not have the obstructions. Hence, we can use the results from Section 3 where we proved that a bi-tree is either a bi-spider or has a separation isolating a bi-spider. Lemma 9 gives an algorithm for the problem when the underlying bi-tree is a bi-spider. When the bi-tree is obtained by gluing bi-spiders, Lemma 13 proves that combining the partial solutions for each of the bi-spiders produces a valid solution.

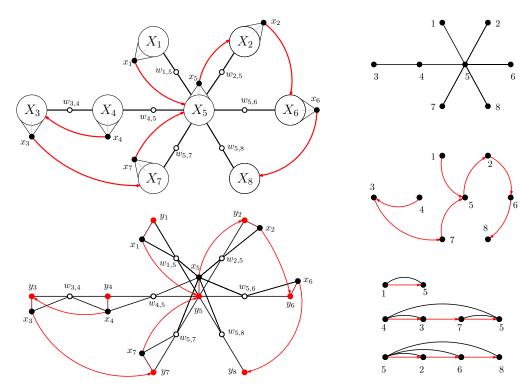


Figure 1 Up-left: Graph G. Down-left: Set of y_i 's. Up-right: White tree. Middle-right: Red in-arborescence. Down-right: Decomposition of bi-tree into bi-paths.

Let us recall the hypothesis of Theorem 2 (see Figure 1):

- 1. The set of vertices of G is partitioned into k+1 cliques X_1, \ldots, X_{k+1} and an additional set W consisting of k vertices $w_{a_1b_1}, \ldots, w_{a_kb_k}$.
- 2. Every $w_{a_ib_i}$ is completely joined to the two parts X_{a_i} and X_{b_i} and has no neighbor in the other parts.
- 3. The set of pairs $E = \{\{a_i, b_i\} : i = 1, ..., k\}$, seen as edges on the vertex set $V = \{1, ..., k+1\}$, forms a white tree in which k+1 is a leaf.
- **4.** Every X_i , with $1 \le i \le k$ contains a particular vertex x_i .
- **5.** The set $\{x_1, \ldots, x_k\}$ is an independent set.
- **6.** For every vertex x_i , there is some $r(i) \neq i$ such that x_i is completely joined to $X_{r(i)} \setminus x_{r(i)}$ (which is just $X_{r(i)}$ when r(i) = k + 1).
- 7. The vertex x_i is non-adjacent to every vertex of X_j , when $j \neq i$ or $j \neq r(i)$.
- **8.** The set of ordered pairs $A = \{(i, r(i)) : i = 1, ..., k\}$, seen as arcs on the vertex set $V = \{1, ..., k+1\}$, forms a red in-arborescence rooted at k+1.

We then have a bi-tree T=(V,E,A) on the vertex set $V=\{1,\ldots,k+1\}$. Furthermore, we want to decide if every part X_i , with $1 \le i \le k+1$ contains a particular vertex y_i distinct from x_i and such that the set of these y_i 's forms an independent set.

▶ **Lemma 8.** If G has no even holes and a set Y exists, then T = (V, E, A) has no directed obstruction and no alternating obstruction.

Proof. Let us assume that we have a directed obstruction, i.e., we have three distinct vertices a, b, v of V, a white path P_{ab} from a to b of length one or two, a directed red path P_{av} of the form $a = a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_r = v$, and a directed red path P_{bv} of the form $b = b_0, b_1, \ldots, b_s = v$.

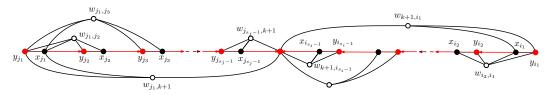


Figure 2 An example for Lemma 9.

Our goal is to exhibit an even hole in G. The path P_{ab} is either ab or acb and corresponds in G to the path P_1 which is either x_a, w_{ab}, x_b or $x_a, w_{ac}, y_c, w_{cb}, x_b$. The path corresponding to P_{av} is $P_2 = x_{a_0}, y_{a_1}, x_{a_1}, \ldots, y_{a_r}$ and the path corresponding to P_{bv} is $P_3 = x_{b_0}, y_{b_1}, x_{b_1}, \ldots, y_{b_s}$. Note that $C = P_1 \cup P_2 \cup P_3$ is an even length cycle. Moreover, since each x_i in C is complete to only one class X_i apart from its own, there is no chord in C, a contradiction.

Let us assume that we have an alternating obstruction on four distinct vertices a, b, c, d of V. Two cases arise depending of the direction of the two red paths. When their directions are the same, we have a white path P_{ab} from a to b, a red path P_{bc} directed from b to c, a white path P_{cd} from c to d, and a red path P_{ad} directed from a to d. By definition of alternating obstruction the four paths are internally vertex disjoint. Assuming that P_{ab} is of the form $a = a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_r = b$, we consider in G the corresponding path $P_1 = x_{a_0}, w_{a_0a_1}, y_{a_1}, w_{a_1a_2}, y_{a_2}, w_{a_2a_3}, \ldots, x_{a_r}$. Assuming that P_{bc} is of the form $b = b_0, b_1, \ldots, b_s = c$, we consider in G the corresponding path $P_2 = x_{b_0}, y_{b_1}, x_{b_1}, \ldots, y_{b_s}$. Assuming that P_{ad} is of the form $a = d_0, d_1, \ldots, d_u = d$, we consider in G the corresponding path $P_3 = x_{d_0}, y_{d_1}, x_{d_1}, \ldots, y_{d_u}$. Finally, if P_{cd} is of the form $c = c_0, c_1, \ldots, c_v = d$, we consider in G the corresponding path $P_4 = y_{c_0}, w_{c_0c_1}, y_{c_1}, w_{c_1c_2}, y_{c_2}, \ldots, y_{c_v}$.

When the red paths are in the opposite direction; we have a white path P_{ab} from a to b, a red path P_{bc} directed from b to c, a white path P_{cd} from c to d and a red path P_{da} directed from d to a. Again, the four paths are internally vertex disjoint. Assuming that P_{ab} is of the form $a=a_0,a_1,\ldots,a_r=b$, we consider in G the corresponding path $P_1=y_{a_0},w_{a_0a_1},y_{a_1},w_{a_1a_2},y_{a_2},w_{a_2a_3},\ldots,x_{a_r}$. Assuming that P_{bc} is of the form $b=b_0,b_1,\ldots,b_s=c$, we consider in G the corresponding path $P_2=x_{b_0},y_{b_1},x_{b_1},\ldots,y_{b_s}$. Assuming that P_{da} is of the form $d=d_0,d_1,\ldots,d_u=a$, we consider in G the corresponding path $P_3=x_{d_0},y_{d_1},x_{d_1},\ldots,y_{d_u}$. Finally, if P_{cd} is of the form $c=c_0,c_1,\ldots,c_v=d$, we consider in G the corresponding path $P_4=y_{c_0},w_{c_0c_1},y_{c_1},w_{c_1c_2},y_{c_2},\ldots,x_{c_v}$.

Note that both P_1, P_4 are even length paths, and P_2, P_3 are odd length. Consequently $C = P_1 \cup P_2 \cup P_3 \cup P_4$ is an even length cycle. Moreover, no chord can arise so C is an even hole, a contradiction.

By Corollary 6, the bi-tree T=(V,E,A) is either a bi-spider, or has a separation i isolating a bi-spider. We first conclude in the case of bi-spiders.

▶ **Lemma 9.** If T is a bi-spider then there is an $O(n^3)$ time algorithm which computes Y or shows that Y does not exist.

Proof. Recall that a bi-spider is a graph obtained by iteratively gluing bi-paths at the root vertex. Denote with T_1, \ldots, T_l the bi-paths glued at the root vertex k+1 to obtain T. Moreover, assume that the in-arborescence T_j is a directed path $j_1, \ldots, j_{s_j} = k+1$ for $1 \leq j \leq l$. Since each T_j is a bi-path, there is a vertex $w_{j_1,j_{s_j}}$ and for some value $t_j \in \{2,\ldots,s_j\}$ (if any) we have the vertices $\{w_{j_1,j_2},\ldots,w_{j_1,j_{t_j}}\}$ and $\{w_{j_{t_j+1},j_{s_j}},\ldots,w_{j_{s_j-1},j_{s_j}}\}$ (see Figure 2).

We decide if Y exists in two phases. First, for every $1 \leq j \leq l$ we find the set Y_{j_1} of all vertices y_{j_1} which are contained in an independent set of size t_j intersecting $X_{j_1}, \ldots, X_{j_{t_j}}$. (Intuitively, Y_{j_1} is the of vertices which can be extended to an independent set traversing $X_{j_1}, \ldots, X_{j_{t_j}}$, i.e., all the parts that have a common white neighbor with y_{j_1} except X_{k+1} .) Clearly, if Y_{j_1} is empty for some j then the set Y does not exist.

Secondly, we find the set Y_{k+1} of vertices y_{k+1} which are contained in an independent set of size $k - \sum_{j=1}^{l} t_j$ intersecting Y_{j_1} and $X_{j_{t_j+1}}, \ldots X_{j_{s_j-1}}$ for all $1 \leq j \leq l$. (Intuitively, Y_{k+1} is the set of vertices which can be extended to an independent set traversing all the parts that have a common white neighbor with y_{k+1} .) Again, if Y_{k+1} is empty then the set Y does not exists.

We first assume that we have the sets Y_{j_1} 's and Y_{k+1} and show how to conclude the lemma in this case. Later, we show that the sets are easy to find. Let $y_{k+1} \in Y_{k+1}$ and let $J = \{y_{k+1}\} \cup_{j=1}^l \{y_{j_1}\} \cup_{j=1}^l \{y_{j_{t_j+1}}, \ldots, y_{j_{s_j-1}}\}$ be an independent set of size $k - \sum_{j=1}^l t_j$ intersecting all Y_{j_1} and $X_{j_{t_j+1}}, \ldots X_{j_{s_j-1}}$. For each $1 \leq j \leq l$, denote with $I_j = \{y_{j_1}, \ldots, y_{j_{t_j}}\}$ an independent set which contains y_{j_1} and intersects $X_{j_1}, \ldots, X_{j_{t_j}}$. Observe that the set $Y = J \cup_{i=1}^l I_j$ intersects each part of the graph. It suffices to prove the following claim.

 \triangleright Claim 10. $J \cup_{i=1}^{l} I_i$ is also an independent set.

Proof. For the sake of contradiction suppose otherwise. We consider two cases. Either there is an edge with one end in J and the other end in I_j for some j, or there is an edge with ends in I_j and I_i for some $1 \le i < j \le l$. Let us deal with them respectively.

The mentioned edge is of the form $y_{j_p}y_{i_q}$ where $p \leq t_j$ and $t_i < q$ (possibly j = i) by definition of I_j and J. Choose smallest such p. Observe that $p \neq 1$ since y_{j_1} is a vertex of both J and I_j . If $i_q \neq k+1$ then

$$y_{j_p}, x_{j_{p-1}}, \dots, y_{j_2}, x_{j_1}, w_{j_1, j_{s_j}} (= w_{j_1, k+1}), y_{k+1}, w_{k+1, i_q} (= w_{i_{s_i}, i_q}), y_{i_q}$$

is a cycle of even length. Moreover, the cycle is induced by the choice of p and since $\{y_{j_2}, \ldots, y_{j_p}\}$ is an independent set, a contradiction. An analogous situation arises if $i_q = k+1$.

Now, we deal with the second case where there is an edge $y_{j_p}y_{i_q}$ where $p \leq t_j$, $q \leq t_i$ and $j \neq i$. Choose largest such q. It might happen that p = 1 or q = 1, but not both since $y_{j_1}, y_{i_1} \in J$. Without loss of generality, $p \neq 1$. Then

$$y_{j_p}, x_{j_{p-1}}, \dots, y_{j_2}, x_{j_1}, w_{j_1, j_{s_i}} (= w_{j_1, k+1}), y_{k+1}, x_{i_{s_i-1}}, y_{i_{s_i-1}}, \dots, x_{i_q}, y_{i_q}$$

is an even cycle. By the previous case there is no edge between y_{k+1} and $I_j \cup I_i$ Moreover, by the choice of q, we deduce that the even cycle is induced, a contradiction.

It remains to show how to find the sets Y_{j_1} 's and Y_{k+1} . For the rest of the proof we only use the white tree. Observe that it suffices to prove the following (by setting $p = j_1$ for all j and then p = k + 1).

 \triangleright Claim 11. Let $y_p \in X_p$ and let G' be the graph induced by X_i such that pi is an edge in the bi-tree T. Remove neighbors of y_p in G'. Then G' is chordal.

Proof. For a contradiction, assume that H is an odd hole in G'. Each part of G' is a clique and, thus, contains at most two vertices of H. Therefore, there exist an induced path on three vertices y_a, y_b, y_c of H, with y_a, y_b, y_c in different parts X_a, X_b, X_c . By construction there are vertices $w_{p,a}, w_{p,b}$ and $w_{p,c}$. Then $y_p, w_{p,a}, y_a, y_b, y_c, w_{p,c}$ induces an even hole in G, a contradiction. Since G is even-hole-free so is G'. Hence G' is hole-free.

Now, for each j, we can check if y_{j_1} is in Y_{j_1} by finding a maximum independent set in $G' = G[\cup_{i=2}^{t_j} X_i] \setminus N(y_{j_1})$. The latter can be done in $O(n^2)$ since G' is chordal [6]. Then, we can check if y_{k+1} is in Y_{k+1} by finding a maximum independent set in $G' = G[\cup_j \{Y_{j_1} \cup_{i=t_j+1}^{s_j-1} X_i\}] \setminus N(y_{k+1})$. This can be done in $O(n^2)$ since G' is chordal. The overall running time follows since each part is used exactly once in some G'.

In fact, the previous algorithm gives a stronger result:

▶ Corollary 12. When T is a bi-spider, there is an $O(n^3)$ time algorithm which computes all vertices y_{k+1} which belong to an independent set of size k+1.

We now deal with the case when i is a separation isolating a bi-spider. By Corollary 6 bi-tree T admits a separation (i, B, C) isolating a bi-spider $T \setminus C$ such that i is either a red leaf or a white leaf in $T \setminus B$. Recall that the vertex k+1 is a leaf of the white tree, hence, as a separation, i is not equal to k+1. In particular, the vertex x_i exists. Moreover, since $T \setminus C$ is a bi-spider it follows that $k+1 \in C$. As before, assuming the set Y exists, we obtain the following lemma.

▶ **Lemma 13.** There is no edge from some y_j with $j \in B \setminus i$ to some vertex $u \in X_s$ with $s \in C$.

Proof. We denote by r the root of T. As argued above $r \in C$ (r = k + 1). For the sake of contradiction suppose that there is an an edge $y_j u$.

Let us consider bi-spider $T \setminus C$. There is a red path $j = j_0, \ldots, j_a = i$ in (V, A) which can be turned into an induced path $P_0 = y_{j_0}, x_{j_0}, y_{j_1}, x_{j_1}, \ldots, y_{j_a}, x_{j_a}$ in G from y_j to x_i with odd length. There is also a white path $j = b_0, \ldots, b_d = i$ in (V, E) which can be turned into an induced path $P_1 = y_{b_0}, w_{b_0b_1}, y_{b_1}, w_{b_1b_2}, \ldots, x_{b_d}$ in G from y_j to x_i with even length. Now, in order to conclude the lemma it suffices to find a u, x_i path P such that $P.P_0$ and $P.P_1$ induce cycles. Then, since P_0 and P_1 are of different parity a contradiction arises. In the rest of the proof we show how to find P.

First, observe that since $T \setminus C$ contains a white subtree, u is non-adjacent to y_i or to any y_q where $q \in B$ and $q \neq j$ since it would yield an even hole (there is an even path between any two different vertices y_p, y_q). Hence, u is adjacent to y_j and non-adjacent to all other vertices in P_0 and P_1 .

By Corollary 6, i is either a red leaf or a white leaf in $T \setminus B$. We consider two cases.

Case 1: i is a red leaf. Then there is a (an undirected) red path $i=i_0,\ldots,i_s=s$ in $T\setminus B$, which can be turned into an induced path $P=x_{i_0},y_{i_1},x_{i_1},\ldots,x_{i_{s-1},u}$ in G from x_i to u. By construction, this path is induced. Moreover, since i is a red leaf in $T\setminus B$ it follows that $y_{i_1}\neq y_i$. Therefore, both $P.P_0$ and $P.P_1$ induce cycles, i.e., there is no chord with one end in P and the other in P_0 or P_1 .

Note that the same argument holds whenever the red path $i = i_0, \ldots, i_s = s$ does not contain y_i . Hence, the only remaining case is when i is on the red directed path from s to r in $T \setminus B$. Denote with Q the directed red sr path in $T \setminus B$.

Case 2: i is a white leaf and $i \in Q$. Let Q' = iQr be subpath of Q starting at i and ending at r. Since i is not a separation of $T \setminus B$, there exists a white path $s = s_0, \ldots, s_t$ connecting s and Q'. Moreover, the path does not contain i. We choose the shortest such s, Q' path. This path can be turned into an induced path $P_2 = u, w_{s_0, s_1}, y_{s_1}, \ldots, w_{s_{t-1}, s_t}, y_{s_t}$ in G with endpoints u and y_{s_t} . By the above $y_i \notin P_2$ and also no vertex $w_{i, i}$ is used in P_2 .

Consider the directed path iQs_t (= $iQ's_t$). Denote it as $i = i_0, i_1, \ldots, i_l = s_t$. It can be turned into an induced path $P_3 = x_{i_0}, y_{i_1}, \ldots, y_{i_l}$ in G with endpoints x_i and y_{s_t} . Then $P_2.P_3$

is a u, x_i path in G. The concatenation $P_2.P_3$ might not be an induced path, but we can shorten it to obtain an induced ux_i path P in G. Now, it can be checked that $P.P_0$ and $P.P_1$ induce cycles since P does not use y_i or any of the vertices $w_{i...}$.

We are now ready to show that there is an $O(k \cdot n^3)$ time algorithm which computes Y when T = (V, E, A) is a bi-tree. If T is a bi-spider, we are done by Lemma 9. Otherwise, by Corollary 6, there is a separation (i, B, C) which isolates a bi-spider $T \setminus C$. By Lemma 13, one can delete all vertices $y_j \in X_j$ for $j \in B \setminus i$ with a neighbor $u \in X_k$ for $k \notin B$, and this reduction is sound since no candidate y_j can have such an edge. Now, by Corollary 12, one can compute in $O(n^3)$ time the set $X_i' \subseteq X_i$ of vertices, each of which extends, in the bi-spider $T \setminus C$, to an independent set of size |B|. From the bi-spider $T \setminus C$, we only keep these vertices X_i' . Observe that the number of parts has now decreased by at least one. We repeat this process until we either construct X_{k+1}' or conclude that this set is empty. If $X_{k+1}' \neq \emptyset$, then we can reconstruct the set Y. The total time is $O(k \cdot n^3)$.

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