CS/ECE-374-B: Algorithms and Models of Computation, Spring 2024 Midterm exam 3 – April 25, 2024

- You can do hard things! Grades do matter, but not as much as you may think, but then life is uncertain anyway, so what.
- **Don't cheat.** The consequence for cheating is far greater than the reward. Just try your best and you'll be fine.
- **Please read the entire exam before writing anything.** There are 6 problems and most have multiple parts.
- This is a closed-book exam. At the end of the exam, you'll find a multi-page cheat sheet. *Do not tear out the cheat sheet!* No outside material is allowed on this exam.
- You should write your answers legibly and in the space given for the question. Overly verbose answers will be penalized.
- Scratch paper is available on the back of the exam. *Do not tear out the scratch paper*! It messes with the auto-scanner.
- You have 75 minutes (1.25 hours) for the exam. Manage your time well. Do not spend too much time on questions you do not understand and focus on answering as much as you can!
- Make sure you use the time well to think, be precise, and show as much work as possible.

Name:	

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Problem 1 [10 points]

For each of the following statements, answer if it is True or False. Use the table at the bottom to mark you choices.

- i. Dijkstra's algorithm works well on graphs with negative edge weights provided there is no negative length cycle.
- ii. A problem can either be NP-Complete or NP-Hard but not both.
- iii. If P = NP then every NP-Complete problem can be solved in polynomial time.
- iv. Graph 2-Coloring can be decided in linear time.
- v. The set of all programs is larger than the set of all languages.
- vi. Every undecidable language is also unrecognizable.
- vii. If language L is undecidable then either L or \overline{L} is unrecognizable.
- viii. If using an Oracle for problem X, one can obtain a decider for the $Halt_{TM}$ then X is decidable.
- ix. If a barber shaves everyone who doesn't shave themselves then the barber shaves themselves.
- x. If a graph is 3-colorable then it has 3 independent sets.

Table 1.					
Your choice					

Problem 2 [10 points]

Given a directed graph G = (V, E) with non-negative edge lengths $l(e), e \in E$ and a node $s \in V$, describe an algorithm to find the length of a shortest cycle containing the node s.

Problem 3 [10 points]

Formally prove or disprove the following statement. *There is no program that always stops and solves the halting problem.*

Problem 4 [20 points]

The 4-Set-Packing problem is defined as follows.

- Inputs: A collection of *m* sets $S = \{S_1, S_2, \dots, S_m\}$ such that $|S_i| = 4 \quad \forall i \in \{1, \dots, m\}$ and an integer *k*.
- Output: True if there exists a disjoint subcollection L ⊆ S of size k. False otherwise.
 Note: Disjoint subcollection means no individual element belongs to two different sets in it.

The 3-Dimensional-Matching problem is defined as follows.

- Inputs: Three disjoint sets *X*, *Y* and *Z* of *n* elements each, and a set of triplets $T \subseteq X \times Y \times Z$.
- Output: True if there exist disjoint triplets from T whose union is $X \cup Y \cup Z$. False otherwise.

Given 3-Dimensional Matching is NP-Complete, show that 4-Set-Packing is NP-Complete.

Problem 5 [14 points]

a. A quasi-satisfying assignment (quasiSAT) for a 3CNF boolean formula ϕ is an assignment of truth values to the variables such that at most one clause in ϕ does not contain a True literal. Prove that it is NP-Complete to determine whether a given 3CNF boolean formula has a quasi-satisfying assignment or not.

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b. Show that the Hamiltonian Cycle problem for **undirected** graphs is NP-Complete. Note: You may use that Hamiltonian Cycle problem for directed graphs is NP-Complete.

Problem 6 [10 points]

Identify the errors in the following proofs.

a. Define the following problems.

- DFA-Accepts Inputs: A DFA D and a string w. Output: True if $w \in L(D)$. False otherwise.
- NFA-Accepts Inputs: A NFA N and a string w. Output: True if $w \in L(N)$. False otherwise.

Note the following.

- DFA-Accepts is in P as there is a single execution path for w on D.
- Its highly unlikely that NFA-Accepts is in P. Intuitively, there are exponentially many ways to simulate w on N that makes NFA-Accepts NP-Hard.

Construct a solver for NFA-Accepts as follows.

Step 1. Convert the given NFA into an equivalent DFA.

Step 2. Now use the poly-time solver for DFA-Accepts to solve NFA-Accepts.

This implies NFA-Accepts which is NP-Hard has a poly-time solver implying P = NP. [Did we just solve the millennium problem!?]

b. Refer to the cheat sheet for the definition of the Independent Set decision problem. Consider the following decider for this problem.

DecideIndependantSet(G = (V, E), k):

For each $S \subseteq V$ such that |S| = k:

 $\texttt{bool} \gets \texttt{True}$

For every pair of two vertices (u, v) from the set *S*:

If there is an edge between *u* and *v*:

bool ← False

If bool == True:

return True

Else:

return False

The runtime of the above algorithm is $T(n) = O((n^k)k^2)$. This implies Independent Set which is NP-Hard has a poly-time solver implying P = NP. [Did we just solve the millennium problem again!?]

Problem 7 [6 points]

Prove or disprove that the Halting problem is NP-Hard.

Problem 8 [20 points]

For definitions of $A_{TM},\, {\tt Halt}_{TM},\, {\tt HaltB}_{TM}$ refer to the cheat sheet.

a. Using undecidability of $A_{TM},$ show that \mathtt{HaltB}_{TM} is undecidable.

b. Using undecidability of $\mathtt{Halt}_{\mathtt{TM}},$ show that the following language is undecidable.

 $\operatorname{Reg}_{\mathsf{TM}} = \{ \langle M \rangle | M \text{ is a TM and } L(M) \text{ is regular.} \}$

This page is for additional scratch work!

ECE 374 B Algorithms: Cheatsheet

1 Recursion

Simple recursion · Reduction: solve one problem using the solution to another. • Recursion: a special case of reduction - reduce problem to a smaller instance of itself (self-reduction). **Definitions** – Problem instance of size n is reduced to one or more instances of size n-1 or less. - For termination, problem instances of small size are solved by some other method as base cases Arguably the most famous example of recursion. The goal is to move n disks one at a time from the first peg to the last peg Hanoi (n, src, dest, tmp): if (n > 0) then Tower of Hano Hanoi (n - 1, src, tmp, dest)Move disk n from src to dest Hanoi (n - 1, tmp, dest, src)

Recurrences

Suppose you have a recurrence of the form T(n) = rT(n/c) + f(n).

The *master theorem* gives a good asymptotic estimate of the recurrence. If the work at each level is:

 $\begin{array}{ll} \text{Decreasing: } rf(n/c) = \kappa f(n) \text{ where } \kappa < 1 & T(n) = O(f(n)) \\ \text{Equal: } & rf(n/c) = f(n) & T(n) = O(f(n) \cdot \log_c n) \\ \text{Increasing: } & rf(n/c) = Kf(n) \text{ where } K > 1 & T(n) = O(n^{\log_c r}) \end{array}$

Some useful identities:

- Sum of integers: $\sum_{k=1}^{n} k = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$
- Geometric series closed-form formula: $\sum_{k=0}^{n} ar^{k} = \frac{1-r^{n+1}}{1-r}$
- Logarithmic identities: $\log(ab) = \log a + \log b, \log(a/b) = \log a \log b, a^{\log_c b} = b^{\log_c a} (a, b, c > 1).$

Backtracking

Backtracking is the algorithm paradigm involving guessing the solution to a single step in some multi-step process and recursing backwards if it doesn't lead to a solution. For instance, consider the longest increasing subsequence (LIS) problem. You can either check all possible subsequences:

```
algLISNaive(A[1..n]):

maxmax = 0

for each subsequence B of A do

if B is increasing and |B| > \max then

max = |B|

return max
```

On the other hand, we don't need to generate every subsequence; we only need to generate the subsequences that are increasing:

```
 \begin{array}{l} \textbf{LIS\_smaller}(A[1..n], x):\\ \textbf{if }n=0 \textbf{ then return }0\\ max=\textbf{LIS\_smaller}(A[1..n-1], x)\\ \textbf{if }A[n] < x \textbf{ then}\\ max= max \{max, 1+\textbf{LIS\_smaller}(A[1..(n-1)], A[n])\}\\ \textbf{return }max \end{array}
```

Divide and conquer

Divide and conquer is an algorithm paradigm involving the decomposition of a problem into the same subproblem, solving them separately and combining their results to get a solution for the original problem. Algorithm | Buntime | Space

Sorting algo-	Mergesort	$O(n \log n)$	$O(n \log n)$ O(n) (if optimized)
rithms	Quicksort	$O(n^2)$ $O(n\log n)$ if using MoM	O(n)

We can divide and conquer multiplication like so:

 $bc = 10^{n} b_{L} c_{L} + 10^{n/2} (b_{L} c_{R} + b_{R} c_{L}) + b_{R} c_{R}.$

We can rewrite the equation as:

 $bc = b(x)c(x) = (b_L x + b_R)(c_L x + c_R) = (b_L c_L)x^2 + ((b_L + b_R)(c_L + c_R) - b_L c_L - b_R c_R)x + b_R c_R,$

Its running time is $O(n^{\log_2 3}) = O(n^{1.585})$

Linear time selection

The median of medians (MoM) algorithms give a element that is larger than $\frac{3}{10}$'s and smaller than $\frac{7}{10}$'s of the array elements. This is used in the linear time selection algorithm to find element of rank k.

```
\begin{array}{l} \textbf{Median-of-medians} \ (A, \ i):\\ \text{sublists} \ = \ [A[jj+5] \ \textbf{for} \ j \leftarrow 0, 5, \ldots, \text{len}(A)]\\ \text{medians} \ = \ [\textbf{sorted} \ (\text{sublist})[\textbf{len} \ (\text{sublist})/2]\\ \textbf{for} \ \text{sublist} \in \ \text{sublists}] \end{array}
```

// Base case if len (A) \leq 5 return sorted (a)[i]

```
// Find median of medians
if len (medians) \leq 5
pivot = sorted (medians)[len (medians)/2]
else
```

pivot = Median-of-medians (medians, len/2)

// Partitioning step low = [j for $j \in A$ if j < pivot] high = [j for $j \in A$ if j > pivot]

```
k = len (low)
if i < k
```

```
return Median-of-medians (low, i)
else if i > k
return Median-of-medians (low, i-k-1)
else
return pivot
```

Karatsuba's algorithm

Dynamic programming

Dynamic programming (DP) is the algorithm paradigm involving the computation of a recursive backtracking algorithm iteratively to avoid the recomputation of any particular subproblem.

Longest increasing subsequence
The longest increasing subsequence in a unordered
sequence, where the sequence is assumed to be given as an
array. The recurrence can be written as:

$$\mathcal{L}S(i,j) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i = 0 \\ LLS(i-1,j) & \text{if } A[i] \ge A[j] \\ max \begin{cases} LLS(i-1,j) & \text{if } A[i] \ge A[j] \\ max \begin{cases} LLS(i-1,j) & \text{if } A[i] \ge A[j] \\ 1 + LLS(i-1,i) & \text{else} \end{cases}$$
The edit distance problem asks how many edits we need to
make to a sequence for it to become another one. The recurrence is given as:

$$\mathsf{Opt}(i,j) = \mathsf{min} \begin{cases} \alpha_{x_iy_j} + \mathsf{Opt}(i-1,j-1), \\ \delta + \mathsf{Opt}(i,-1,j), \\ \delta + \mathsf{Opt}(i,j-1) & \text{otherwise}(A[1..n]); \\ \beta + \mathsf{Opt}(i,j-1) & \text{otherwise}(A[1..n]); \\ A[n+1] = \infty \\ \texttt{for } i + 0 \text{ to } n \\ \texttt{for } i + 0 \text{ to } n & \text{otherwise}(A[1], m]) \\ \texttt{for } i + 0 \text{ to } n & \text{otherwise}(A[1], m]); \\ A[n+1] = \infty \\ \texttt{for } j + i \text{ to } n - 1 \text{ do} \\ \texttt{for } j + i \text{ to } n - 1 \text{ do} \\ \texttt{for } j + i \text{ to } n - 1 \text{ do} \\ \texttt{for } j + i \text{ to } n - 1 \text{ do} \\ \texttt{for } j + LIS[i,j] = \text{max} \{ LIS[i-1,j], \\ LIS[i,j] = \max \{ LIS[i-1,j], \\ n + LIS[i,n,n+1] \\ \texttt{return } LIS[n,n+1] \\ \texttt{funce}(LIS[i,n,n+1]) \\ \texttt{for } LIS[i,n,n+1] \\ \texttt{for } LIS[i,n,n+1] \\ \texttt{for } LIS[i,n,n+1] \\ \texttt{for } LIS[i,n] = \max \{ LIS[i-1,j], \\ n + LIS[i,n] \\ \texttt{for } LIS[i,n] = \max \{ LIS[i-1,j], \\ n + LIS[i,n] \\ \texttt{for } LIS[i,n] \\$$

2 Graph algorithms

Graph basics

A graph is defined by a tuple G = (V, E) and we typically define n = |V| and m = |E|. We define (u, v) as the edge from u to v. Graphs can be represented as **adjacency lists**, or **adjacency matrices** though the former is more commonly used.

• path: sequence of distinct vertices v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k such that $v_i v_{i+1} \in E$ for $1 \le i \le k-1$. The length of the path is k-1 (the number of edges in the path). Note: a single vertex u is a path of length 0.

• cycle: sequence of distinct vertices v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k such that $(v_i, v_{i+1}) \in E$ for $1 \le i \le k-1$ and $(v_k, v_1) \in E$. A single vertex is not a cycle according to this definition.

Caveat: Sometimes people use the term cycle to also allow vertices to be repeated; we will use the term tour.

• A vertex u is *connected* to v if there is a path from u to v.

• The connected component of u, con(u), is the set of all vertices connected to u.

• A vertex u can reach v if there is a path from u to v. Alternatively v can be reached from u. Let rch(u) be the set of all vertices reachable from u.

Directed acyclic graphs

Directed acyclic graphs (dags) have an intrinsic ordering of the vertices that enables dynamic programming algorithms to be used on them. A *topological ordering* of a dag G = (V, E) is an ordering \prec on V such that if $(u, v) \in E$ then $u \prec v$.

 $\begin{array}{l} \textbf{Kahn}(G(V,E),u):\\ \text{toposort}\leftarrow\text{empty list}\\ \textbf{for }v\in V:\\ \text{in}(v)\leftarrow |\{u\mid u\rightarrow v\in E\}|\\ \textbf{while }v\in V \text{ that has in}(v)=0:\\ \text{Add }v \text{ to end of toposort}\\ \text{Remove }v \text{ from }V\\ \textbf{for }v \text{ in }u\rightarrow v\in E:\\ \text{ in}(v)\leftarrow \text{in}(v)-1\\ \textbf{return toposort} \end{array}$

Running time: O(n+m)

- · A dag may have multiple topological sorts.
- A topological sort can be computed by DFS, in particular by listing the vertices in decreasing post-visit order.

DFS and BFS

Pseudocode: Explore (DFS/BFS)

$$\begin{split} & \textbf{Explore}(G,u); \\ & \textbf{for} \ i \leftarrow 1 \ \text{to} \ n; \\ & \text{Visited}[i] \leftarrow \text{False} \\ & \text{Add} \ u \ \text{to} \ \text{ToExplore} \ \text{and} \ \text{to} \ S \\ & \text{Visited}[u] \leftarrow \text{True} \\ & \text{Make tree} \ T \ \text{with root as} \ u \\ & \textbf{while} \ \text{B} \ \text{is non-empty} \ \textbf{do} \\ & \text{Remove node} \ x \ \text{from B} \\ & \textbf{for} \ \text{each} \ \text{edge} \ (x, y) \ \text{in} \ Adj(x) \ \textbf{do} \\ & \text{if Visited}[y] = \text{False} \\ & \text{Visited}[y] \leftarrow \text{True} \\ & \text{Add} \ y \ \text{to} \ B, S, T \ (\text{with} \ x \ \text{as parent}) \end{split}$$

Note:

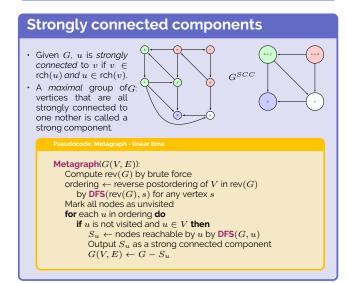
Pre/post

bering

- If B is a queue, Explore becomes BFS.
- If B is a stack, *Explore* becomes DFS.

Pre and post numbering aids in analyzing the graph structure. By looking at the numbering we can tell if a edge (u, v) is a: • Forward edge: pre(u) < pre(v) < post(v) < post(u)

Backward edge: pre(v) < pre(u) < post(u) < post(v)
Cross edge: pre(u) < post(u) < pre(v) < post(v)



Shortest paths

Dijkstra's algorithm:

Find minimum distance from vertex s to **all** other vertices in graphs *without* negative weight edges.

 $\begin{array}{l} \mbox{for } v \in V \ \mbox{do} \\ d(v) \leftarrow \infty \\ X \leftarrow \varnothing \\ d(s,s) \leftarrow 0 \\ \mbox{for } i \leftarrow 1 \ \mbox{to } n \ \mbox{do} \\ v \leftarrow \arg\min_{u \in V - X} d(u) \\ X = X \cup \{v\} \\ \mbox{for } u \ \mbox{in } {\rm Adj}(v) \ \mbox{do} \\ d(u) \leftarrow \min \{(d(u), \ d(v) + \ell(v, u))\} \\ \mbox{return } d \end{array}$

Running time: $O(m+n\log n)$ (if using a Fibonacci heap as the priority queue)

Bellman-Ford algorithm:

Find minimum distance from vertex s to **all** other vertices in graphs without negative cycles. It is a DP algorithm with the following recurrence:

```
d(v,k) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } v = s \text{ and } k = 0\\ \infty & \text{if } v \neq s \text{ and } k = 0\\ \min \left\{ \min_{uv \in E} \left\{ d(u,k-1) + \ell(u,v) \right\} \\ d(v,k-1) & \text{else} \end{cases}
```

Base cases: d(s, 0) = 0 and $d(v, 0) = \infty$ for all $v \neq s$.

```
for each v \in V do

d(v) \leftarrow \infty

d(s) \leftarrow 0
```

 $\begin{array}{l} \text{for } k \leftarrow 1 \text{ to } n-1 \text{ do} \\ \text{for each } v \in V \text{ do} \\ \text{for each edge } (u,v) \in \text{in}(v) \text{ do} \\ d(v) \leftarrow \min\{d(v), d(u) + \ell(u,v)\} \end{array}$

return d

Running time: O(nm)

Floyd-Warshall algorithm:

Find minimum distance from *every* vertex to *every* vertex in a graph *without* negative cycles. It is a DP algorithm with the following recurrence:

$$d(i, j, k) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i = j \\ \infty & \text{if } (i, j) \notin E \text{ and } k = 0 \\ \min \begin{cases} d(i, j, k - 1) \\ d(i, k, k - 1) + d(k, j, k - 1) \end{cases} \text{ else} \end{cases}$$

Then d(i, j, n - 1) will give the shortest-path distance from i to j.

```
 \begin{split} & \textbf{Metagraph}(G(V, E)): \\ & \textbf{for } i \in V \ \textbf{do} \\ & \textbf{for } j \in V \ \textbf{do} \\ & d(i, j, 0) \leftarrow \ell(i, j) \\ & (* \ \ell(i, j) \leftarrow \infty \ \textbf{if } (i, j) \notin E, \ 0 \ \textbf{if } i = j \ \textbf{*}) \\ & \textbf{for } k \leftarrow 0 \ \textbf{to } n - 1 \ \textbf{do} \\ & \textbf{for } i \in V \ \textbf{do} \\ & \textbf{for } i \in V \ \textbf{do} \\ & d(i, j, k) \leftarrow \min \begin{cases} d(i, j, k - 1), \\ d(i, k, k - 1) + d(k, j, k - 1) \end{cases} \\ & \textbf{for } v \in V \ \textbf{do} \\ & \textbf{if } d(i, i, n - 1) < 0 \ \textbf{then} \\ & \textbf{return } d(\cdot, \cdot, n - 1) \end{split}
```

Running time: $\Theta(n^3)$

ECE 374 B Reductions, P/NP, and Decidability: Cheatsheet

