

### 6.1-3

Let  $i$  denote the index of the element at the root of a subtree of a heap. Then its left child is  $A[2i]$  and its right child is  $A[2i + 1]$ , if available. Recall that the definition of the max-heap property is: For every node  $i$  other than root,  $A[\text{Parent}(i)] \geq A[i]$  where  $\text{Parent}(i) = \lfloor i/2 \rfloor$ . Therefore,

For the left child  $2i$ ,  $A[\text{Parent}(2i)] = A[\lfloor 2i/2 \rfloor] = A[i] \geq A[2i]$

For the right child  $2i+1$ ,  $A[\text{Parent}(2i+1)] = A[\lfloor (2i+1)/2 \rfloor] = A[\lfloor i+1/2 \rfloor] = A[i] \geq A[2i + 1]$

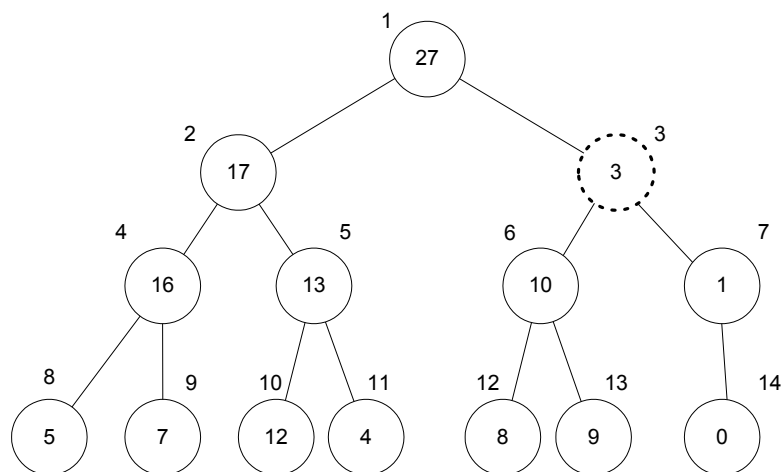
Since  $i$  is arbitrary, the largest element in a subtree of a heap is at the root of the subtree.

### 6.2-1

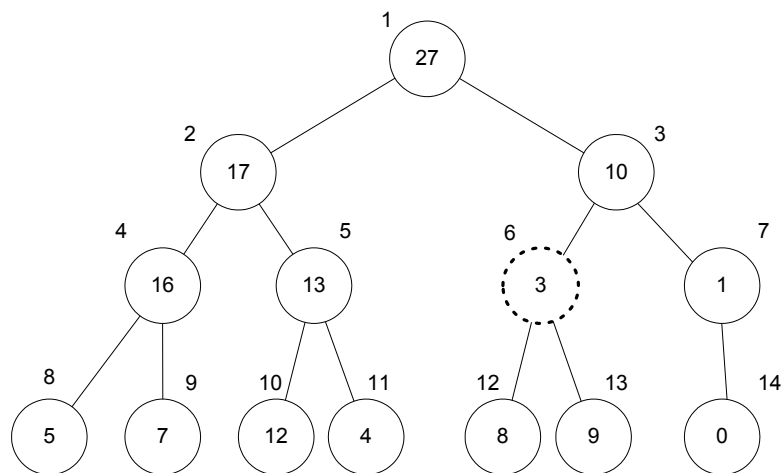
The array index begins at 1:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
27	17	3	16	13	10	1	5	7	12	4	8	9	0

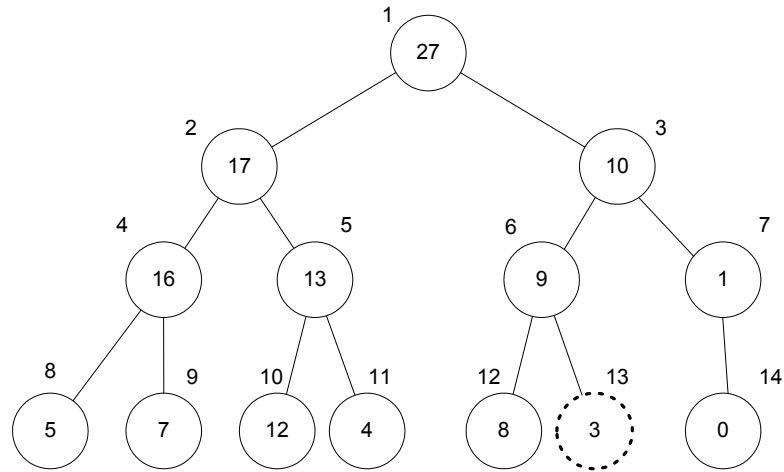
1)



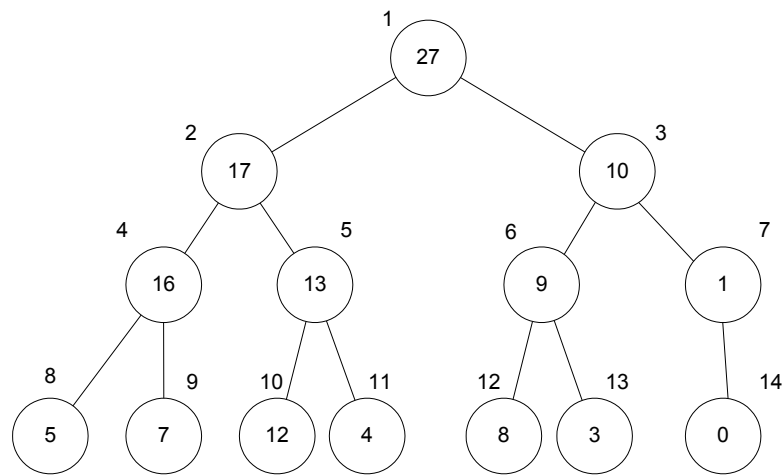
2)



3)



4)



### 6.3-2

Notice that the conversion of an array into a heap is in a bottom-up manner. When processing node  $i$ , we want the subtrees of node  $i$  already be heaps. In the other words, we want the node processing order to guarantee that the subtrees rooted at children of a node  $i$  are heaps before HEAPIFY is executed at that node. Because the elements at the bottom have larger index number than their parents', we want the loop index  $i$  in line 2 of BUILD-MAX\_HEAP to decrease to 1.

[We may not obtain a heap if the process starts from the root to the bottom. Try apply the algorithm on  $\langle 4, 1, 3, 8, 6 \rangle$ ].

## 7.1-1

[This solution is done using the algorithm from the lecture, which also appears in the first edition of the textbook. It now appears as Q7-1 on page 159.]

pivot = A[1]=13

1)

$i$	$x$											$j$
	13	19	9	5	12	8	7	4	11	2	6	21

2)

	$x, i$										$j$	
	13	19	9	5	12	8	7	4	11	2	6	21

(swap  $i, j$ )

3)

	$i$										$x, j$	
	6	19	9	5	12	8	7	4	11	2	13	21

4)

		$i$							$j$		$x$	
	6	19	9	5	12	8	7	4	11	2	13	21

(swap  $i, j$ )

5)

		$i$							$j$		$x$	
	6	2	9	5	12	8	7	4	11	19	13	21

6)

								$j$	$i$		$x$	
	6	2	9	5	12	8	7	4	11	19	13	21

Return 9 (index begins at 1)

## 7.2-4

The performance of quicksort is at best  $\Theta(n \lg n)$ . However, the performance of insertion-sort is at best  $\Theta(n)$ . Now consider the algorithm of insertion-sort on page 24 of the textbook. For an almost-sorted input, the while-loop will be executed a few times more than in the best case. Since the extra steps are still constant, the performance of insertion-sort is still  $\Theta(n)$ . Indeed, using the analysis similar to the one on page 24,  $T(n) = c_1 * n + c_2 * (n-1) + c_4 * (n-1) + c_5 * (n-1+k_1) + c_6 * k_2 + c_7 * k_2 + c_8 * (n-1) = \Theta(n)$ , where  $k_1, k_2$  are some extra steps.

On the other hand, no matter if the input is already sorted or not, the best-case of quicksort is  $\Theta(n \lg n)$ . Thus, when the input is almost-sorted, insertion-sort beats quicksort.

## 8.3-3

Base case:

Let  $d=1$ . We only sort on the least significant digit. Obviously, the radix sort works on the least sig. digit.

Hypothesis:

Radix sort works on numbers with arbitrary digits, using an intermediate stable-sort.

We need to assume that radix sort uses a stable sort to sort array  $A$  on digit  $i$  so the intermediate sort is stable. Assume also that, for  $d = k$ , the least  $k$ -th sig. digits of the numbers are sorted properly.

Inductive case:

For  $d = k + 1$ , use a stable sort to sort array  $A$  on digit  $k+1$ . Since the least  $k$ -th digits are sorted properly by a stable sort (by assumption), after a stable sort is used on digit  $k+1$ , the order of the least  $k$ -th digits is preserved. Thus, the least  $k+1$  th digits of  $n$  numbers are in order.

*[Not all numbers in array need to have the same number  $d$ . The empty digit can be filled with '0']*

By induction, radix sort works.

## 8.6

c)

Suppose there are  $2n$  elements:  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_{2n}$  such that  $a_1 \leq a_2 \leq \dots \leq a_{2n}$ . Moreover, we have two sorted arrays  $A1$  and  $A2$ , where  $a_i$  in  $A1$  and  $a_{i+1}$  in  $A2$ . Assume that  $a_i$  will not be compared with  $a_{i+1}$ . Then,

Case 1:  $a_i$  is compared with an element  $a \neq a_{i+1}$  in  $A2$ . However,  $a$  must be less than  $a_{i+1}$  because  $a_i$  and  $a_{i+1}$  are consecutive. Thus, all such elements in  $A2$  will be merged, and  $a_i$  will finally be compared with  $a_{i+1}$ .

Case 2:  $a_{i+1}$  is compared with an element  $b \neq a_i$  in  $A1$ . However,  $b$  must be less than  $a_i$  because  $a_i$  and  $a_{i+1}$  are consecutive. Thus, all such elements in  $A1$  will be merged, and  $a_{i+1}$  will finally be compared with  $a_i$ .

By contradiction, if two elements are consecutive in the sorted order and from opposite lists, then they must be compared.

d)

Suppose there are  $2n$  elements:  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_{2n}$  such that  $a_1 \leq a_2 \leq a_3 \leq \dots \leq a_{2n}$ . The first sorted list  $A1 = \langle a_1, a_3, \dots, a_{2n-1} \rangle$  and the second  $A2 = \langle a_2, a_4, \dots, a_{2n} \rangle$ . By part c, we must have  $a_1 \leq a_2 \leq a_3 \leq \dots \leq a_{2n}$  where  $\leq$  denotes comparison. Therefore, there are  $2n-1$  comparisons for  $n$  elements in each list.