

1.2-2.) Insertion sort runs in $8n^2$ steps, while merge sort runs in $64n\lg(n)$ steps.

Simplifying the inequality in order for insertion sort to beat merge sort:

- $8n^2 < 64n\lg(n)$
- $n^2 < 8n\lg(n)$
- $n < 8\lg(n)$
- $2^n < n^8$

Plotting both equations it is clear the inequality is only true after $n = 2$ and until $n = 43$, therefore insertion sort beats merge sort at input sizes $2 \leq n \leq 43$.

1.2-3.) One algorithm takes $100n^2$ steps while another takes 2^n steps for a given n inputs.

Simplifying the inequality in order for the first algorithm to run faster:

- $100n^2 < 2^n$

Plotting both equations it is clear the inequality is true after $n = 14$, therefore $n = 15$ is the smallest value of inputs that the first algorithm will run faster, so $n \geq 15$.

1-1.) Largest size n of a problem an algorithm can solve taking $f(n)$ microseconds for each function:

	1 second	1 minute	1 hour	1 day	1 month	1 year	1 century
$\lg(n)$	$2^{(10^6)}$	$2^{(6 \cdot 10^7)}$	$2^{(3.6 \cdot 10^9)}$	$2^{(8.6 \cdot 10^{10})}$	$2^{(2.62 \cdot 10^{12})}$	$2^{(3.15 \cdot 10^{13})}$	$2^{(3.15 \cdot 10^{15})}$
\sqrt{n}	10^{12}	$36 \cdot 10^{14}$	$12.96 \cdot 10^{18}$	$74.65 \cdot 10^{20}$	$6.86 \cdot 10^{24}$	$9.92 \cdot 10^{26}$	$9.92 \cdot 10^{30}$
n	10^6	$6 \cdot 10^7$	$3.6 \cdot 10^9$	$8.64 \cdot 10^{10}$	$2.62 \cdot 10^{12}$	$3.15 \cdot 10^{13}$	$3.15 \cdot 10^{15}$
$n\lg(n)$	$6.27 \cdot 10^4$	$2.8 \cdot 10^6$	$1.33 \cdot 10^8$	$2.75 \cdot 10^9$	$7.62 \cdot 10^{10}$	$7.97 \cdot 10^{11}$	$6.85 \cdot 10^{13}$
n^2	10^3	$7.75 \cdot 10^3$	$6 \cdot 10^4$	$2.94 \cdot 10^5$	$1.61 \cdot 10^6$	$5.61 \cdot 10^6$	$5.61 \cdot 10^7$
n^3	10^2	$3.91 \cdot 10^2$	$1.53 \cdot 10^3$	$4.42 \cdot 10^3$	$1.38 \cdot 10^4$	$3.16 \cdot 10^4$	$1.47 \cdot 10^5$
2^n	19	25	31	36	41	45	51
$n!$	9	11	12	13	15	16	17

2.1-1.) Illustrating Insertion-Sort on the array:

{31, 41, 59, 26, 41, 58}

{31, 41, 59, 26, 41, 58}

{31, 41, 59, 26, 41, 58}

{26, ~~31~~, ~~41~~, ~~59~~, 41, 58}

{26, 31, 41, 41, ~~59~~, 58}

{26, 31, 41, 41, 58, ~~59~~}

2.1-2.) Loop Invariant of Sum-Array:

Initialization: Prior to the first iteration of the loop, sum correctly starts as 0 because no elements of A have been added.

Maintenance: Sum is only changed by adding the element A[i] indexed at the current loop iteration to itself. Therefore sum will include elements A[1 : i-1] prior to the current loop iteration, and the element added during the iteration will ensure sum includes elements A[1 : i] before the next iteration.

Termination: The loop terminates after $i = n$, and there are no more elements in A to add to the sum. Therefore the procedure returns the sum of every element in A[1 : n].

2.1-4.) Pseudocode for linear search, proving the algorithm is correct with a loop invariant:

linear search(A, n, x)

Index = NIL

For $i = 1$ to n

 If $A[i] = x$

 Index = i // x found!

 Return index

Return index // no x found

Initialization: Prior to the first iteration of the loop, none of the elements in array A have been searched, so the index starts as NIL because x has not been found.

Maintenance: Every iteration of the for loop will act as the next index to search in A. Before the current iteration, index is still NIL because x has not been found in the elements A[1 : i-1]. After the current iteration, if A[i] is not x, then the index will remain NIL before the next iteration. However if A[i] is x, then the index is stored and the loop terminates.

Termination: The loop terminates if during any iteration A[i] is x, or after the iteration $i = n$ because an index for x was not found. The algorithm is correct because both cases of termination give us the desired output, either an index for x in array A, or NIL indicating x is not in array A.

2.2-2.) Pseudocode for selection sort, and the loop invariant maintained:

Selection Sort(A, n)

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For i = 1 to (n-1)
    Key = A[i] // element to be exchanged
    Small = key
    Index = i
    For j = (i+1) to n
        If A[j] < small
            Small = A[j]
            Index = j
    A[i] = small
    A[Index] = key
```

Initialization: Prior to the first iteration of the loop, when $i = 1$, the subarray $A[1 : i-1]$ contains no elements and is thus sorted.

Maintenance: Before the current iteration, $A[1 : i-1]$ elements are in sorted order. First the value at $A[i]$ and its index is stored along with it being the smallest element this iteration has searched. Then the nested for loop will search every element after $A[i]$, and store the smallest and its index. Swapping $A[i]$ with the smallest element (potentially even itself if nothing was found) ensures that $A[1 : i]$ is sorted before the next iteration.

Termination: The loop only terminates after $i = n-1$, demonstrating elements $A[1 : n-1]$ are sorted and smaller than $A[n]$. Therefore $A[1 : n]$ is in sorted order without needing to iterate all n elements.

Worst Case Runtime: $\Theta(n^2)$. The best case runtime is not any better, given the first for loop always iterates n times, and the second for loop $n-i$ times. There would be less calls to the lines in the if-statement, however this does not affect the order of growth.

2.2-3.) The average case of linear search will need to check half of n elements, while the worst case will search all n elements. Given the average case is still n elements with a coefficient of $\frac{1}{2}$, the order of growth for both the average and worst case is $\Theta(n)$.

2.3-4.) Mathematical induction to prove the recurrence relation:

Assume for some positive integer $k \geq 1$, $T(n) = n \lg(n)$ for all $n = 2^k$. The base case $T(2) = 2$ can be represented as $T(2) = 2 \lg(2) = 2$, demonstrating the statement holds for $k = 1$.

By substituting $n = 2^{k+1}$ into the recurrence relation $T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n$: $T(2^{k+1}) = 2T(2^k) + 2^{k+1}$.

The inductive hypothesis states $T(2^k) = 2^k \lg(2^k) = 2^k k$, substituted above makes $T(2^{k+1}) = 2(2^k k) + 2^{k+1} = 2^{k+1} k + 2^{k+1} = 2^{k+1} (k+1)$. Rewriting $(k+1)$ as $\lg(2^{k+1})$ demonstrates

$T(2^{k+1}) = 2^{k+1} \lg(2^{k+1})$ matches the form $T(n) = n \lg(n)$. Therefore $T(n) = n \lg(n)$ for all $n = 2^k$, $k \geq 1$

2.3-7.) If insertion sort used binary search instead of linear search, the binary search would only produce a worst case runtime of $\Theta(\lg(n))$ all n iterations of the for loop, rather than linear search causing $\Theta(n)$ for all n iterations. This would improve insertion sort's worst case runtime to $\Theta(n\lg(n))$.

2.3-8.) Pseudocode of FindSum, looks for two elements in S that exactly sum to x :

FindSum(S, x)

Mergesort(S)

Left = 1

Right = length(S)

While left < right

Sum = $S[\text{left}] + S[\text{right}]$

If sum == x

Return true

Elif sum < x

Left += 1

Else

Right -= 1

Return false

FindSum will return true if any two elements sum to x , or false otherwise. The worst case runtime of merge sort is $\Theta(n\lg(n))$, and the while loops performs in linear time $\Theta(n)$, making FindSum's worst case runtime $\Theta(n\lg(n))$.

2-1a.) Time complexity of linear search on n/k sublists each length k :

Each sublist of length k would take $\Theta(k^2)$ worst case runtime during the linear search, with n/k sublists to sort, the total runtime is $\Theta(k^2 * n/k) = \Theta(nk)$.

2-1b.) Time complexity of merging n/k sublists:

The merge can be demonstrated as a tree with $\lg(n/k)$ levels each with n elements to compare, resulting in $\Theta(n\lg(n/k))$.

2-1c.) Largest value of k as a function of n to match merge sorts runtime:

Due to the nk term in the modified algorithms runtime $\Theta(nk + n\lg(n/k))$, any value greater than $k = \lg(n)$ would result in a runtime greater than $\Theta(n\lg(n))$. When $k = \lg(n)$ the term $n\lg(n/k) = n\lg(n/\lg(n))$ which asymptotically grows smaller than $n\lg(n)$ and is not considered in the Θ . Therefore $k = \lg(n)$ results in the same runtime as standard merge sort.

2-1d.) In practice, k should be a value smaller than $\lg(n)$ in order to improve the runtime of standard merge sort.

2-3a.) The Horner procedure has a running time of $\Theta(n)$ from the for loop iterating n times.

2-3b.) Naive polynomial-evaluation computing each term from scratch:

Naive-Horner(A, n, x)

$P = 0$

 For $k = 0$ to n

$\text{Exp} = 1$

 For $i = 1$ to k //calculating k th exponential term

$\text{Exp} = \text{exp} * x$

$P = p + A[k] * \text{exp}$

This method of implementation requires a runtime of $\Theta(n^2)$ due to the nested for loop required to compute the x^k term.

2-3c.) Loop invariant of horner procedure, termination resulting in $p = \sum_{k=0}^n A[k] * x^k$:

Initialization: Since the summation has not added any terms, $p = 0$.

Maintenance: Before the i th iteration $p = \sum_{k=0}^{n-(i+1)} A[k+i+1] * x^k$, and by the end of the iteration $p = \sum_{k=0}^{n-i} A[k+i] * x^k$.

Termination: The loop terminates after $i = 0$, in which $p = \sum_{k=0}^{n-i} A[k+i] * x^k = \sum_{k=0}^n A[k] * x^k$.