

# Scientific Computation Project 1

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## Part 1

### 1.

The strategy *part1* uses is a hybrid sorting algorithm, where initially the elements of the list are sorted using an insertion sort for an index  $i \leq istar$ . Then, a variation of the insertion using a binary search to replace the reverse linear search determines where to insert the subsequent elements with an index  $i > istar$ .

Considering the number of comparisons, the worst-case scenario for an insertion sort of length  $n$  is when the list is sorted in reverse, and by lecture slides, this has an  $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$  time complexity. Hence for  $i \leq istar$ , the worst-case computational cost is  $\mathcal{O}(istar^2)$ .

For the case where  $i > istar$ , a binary search is performed on the elements up to  $i$  to determine its location in the sorted list of size  $i$ . The worst-case scenario for a binary search of size  $i$  has a time complexity of  $\mathcal{O}(\log(i))$  as seen by lecture slides. This search is performed on  $i$  from  $istar + 1$  up to  $N - 1$ , so the overall complexity is  $\log(istar + 1) + \log(istar + 2) \dots + \log(N - 1)$ . Hence the worst-case computational cost of this part of the algorithm is  $\mathcal{O}(N \log(N))$ .

Combining both parts of the sorting algorithm means the worst-case computational cost for the comparisons in the algorithm overall is  $\mathcal{O}(istar^2 + N \log(N))$ , and choosing  $istar = N - 1$  would lead to the worst-case computational cost of  $\mathcal{O}(N^2)$ . By this conclusion, setting  $istar = 0$  would minimise the computational cost to  $\mathcal{O}(N \log(N))$  for the worst-case input i.e. when the list is sorted in reverse (as this is also a worst-case scenario for binary search).

For  $i \leq istar$ , the best-case scenario would be a list sorted in ascending order, and the complexity would be  $\mathcal{O}(istar)$ . For the remaining  $i$  up to  $N - 1$ , the best-case scenario would require a specifically designed list where every subsequent element only required one comparison to find its correct index at the halfway point using the binary search, hence the complexity would be  $\mathcal{O}(N)$ . So overall, the best-case computational cost for the comparisons would be  $\mathcal{O}(istar + N)$ .

Now considering the swaps in the algorithm, we assume that performing a slice assignment is proportional to the size of the slice. Assuming the worst case for each iteration of the algorithm, assigning a slice of size  $i$  would have a complexity of  $\mathcal{O}(i)$ , so overall, the worst-case computational cost would be  $\mathcal{O}(N^2)$  regardless of  $istar$ .

### 2.

In all four plots, we see a clear positive trend between time and  $N$ . For this section, we use the words ‘ascending’ and ‘non-decreasing’ interchangeably, as well as ‘descending’ and ‘non-increasing’. We test the algorithm for three different cases, a list in ascending order, a list in descending order, and a list sampled from random integers between 0 and  $2N$  inclusive.

In the first plot, we plot time against  $N$  for different choices of  $istar$  when sorting a list in descending order. We observe the lower the  $istar$  the faster the wall time. This is expected as the binary search part of the algorithm is faster than the reverse linear search for the worst-case scenario. For  $istar = N - 1$ , we can also see the timings resemble a quadratic trend, which supports our conclusion of the  $\mathcal{O}(N^2)$  complexity.

In the second plot, we plot time against  $N$  for different choices of  $istar$  when sorting a list in ascending order. We observe the greater the  $istar$  the faster the wall time. This is expected as for a list in ascending order, the reverse linear search part of the algorithm has a complexity of  $\mathcal{O}(1)$  compared to the slower complexity of the binary search  $\mathcal{O}(\log(N))$ .

In the third plot, we observe that for  $istar = 0$  (entirely using a binary search modified insertion sort), plotting time against  $N \log N$  exhibits an almost linear relationship for a random list. We also observe

that a sorted list in ascending order is faster than a random list and a list in descending order. This is possibly due to the swapping part of the algorithm, as for a list in ascending order, this assignment is of  $\mathcal{O}(1)$  complexity.

In the fourth plot, we observe that for  $istar = N - 1$  (entirely using a classic insertion sort), plotting time against  $N^2$  exhibits an almost linear positive relationship for a list in descending order and a random list. This supports our calculation of a  $\mathcal{O}(N^2)$  worst-case time complexity. We also observe that an ascending list is significantly faster than a random list, which is faster than a descending list.

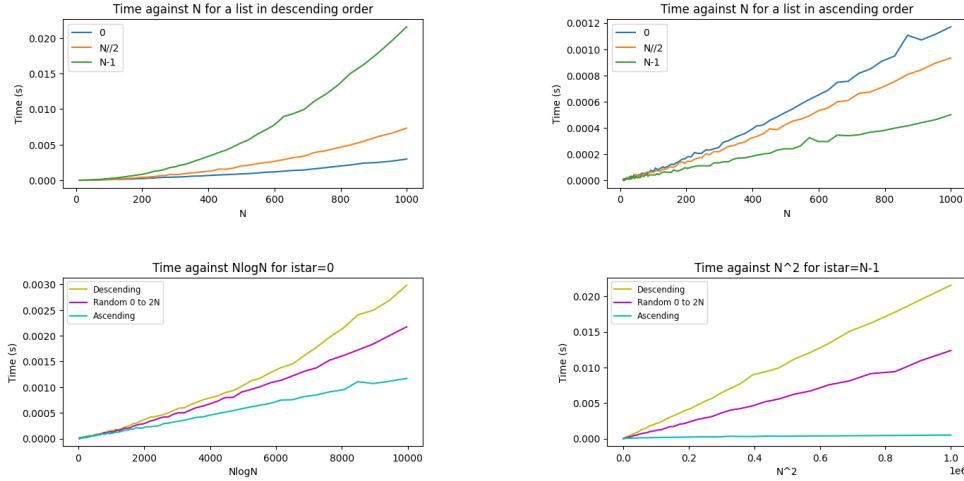


Figure 1: Plots for Part 1 Q2.

## Part 2

### 2.

For *part2*, the strategy I used was the Rabin Karp algorithm to compare each length- $m$  sub-string in  $T$  to each length- $m$  sub-string in  $S$ . I implemented the *char2base4* and *heval* functions from lecture slides to calculate the two initial base hashes for the first length- $m$  sub-string of  $S$  and of  $T$  and perform a comparison between them. I then implemented the first Rabin Karp algorithm to calculate a hash using a rolling hash function for every length- $m$  sub-string of  $T$ . Each hash is stored as the key in a dictionary, with the value being a list of indexes indicating the locations of each hash in  $T$ . I also compare each hash to the base hash of  $S$ .

With everything initialised, I implemented the second Rabin Karp algorithm. Using a rolling hash function, a hash is calculated for every length- $m$  sub-string of  $S$ , and then checked against the  $T$  hash dictionary. If found, every index in the dictionary value is then checked with a character comparison and the  $S$  index is added to  $L$  if there's a match. The character comparison is to protect against hash collisions.

The use of a dictionary over a list to store the hashes for  $T$  is to make the hash-matching process more efficient. The cost of a dictionary lookup is  $\mathcal{O}(1)$ , compared to iterating through a list of hashes for  $T$  which has a cost of  $\mathcal{O}(l)$ .

In the worst-case scenario, there are many hash collisions i.e. the dictionary has few unique keys with long lists of indexes. Looping through each sub-string of  $S$  has a complexity of  $\mathcal{O}(n)$ , looping through each  $T$  hash dictionary list of indexes would have a complexity of  $\mathcal{O}(l)$ , and we assume the complexity of a character comparison is  $\mathcal{O}(m)$ , hence my algorithm would have computational cost of  $\mathcal{O}(lmn)$ . This would be equivalent to the naive case of double looping through every length- $m$  sub-string of  $S$  and  $T$  and performing a character-by-character check. However, this case is unlikely for large  $l$ ,  $m$ , and  $n$ , and by choosing a large prime, fewer hash collisions will occur (at the expense of memory usage).

In the best-case scenario, there would be no hash matches, so the lists in the  $T$  hash dictionary and character comparisons would not have to occur, and my algorithm would have a computational cost of  $\mathcal{O}(l + n)$  for simply calculating each hash value.