### Week 12: Complexity and Performance

POP77001 Computer Programming for Social Scientists

Tom Paskhalis

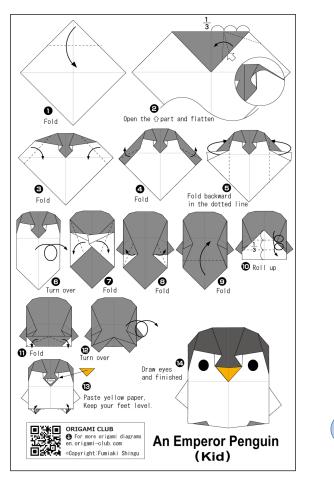
28 November 2022

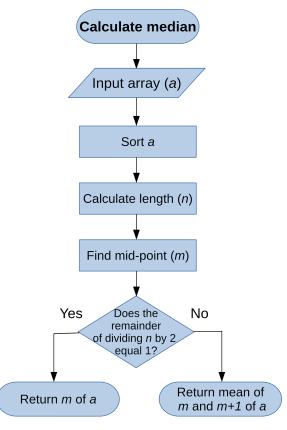
Module website: tinyurl.com/POP77001

#### Overview

- Algorithms
- Computational complexity
- Big-O notation
- Code optimisation
- Benchmarking

## Algorithms





Source: Origami Club

### Algorithm

- Finite list of well-defined instructions that take input and produce output.
- Consists of a sequence of simple steps that start from input, follow some control flow and have a stopping rule.

### Complexity

- Conceptual complexity
  - Structural sophistication of a program
- Computational complexity
  - Resources (time/space) required to finish a program
- Often there is some trade-off between the two
- Reducing computational complexity results in increased conceptual complexity

How long does a program take to run?

### How long does a program take to run?

```
In [2]: # Linear search using exhaustive enumeration
linear_search <- function(v, x) {
    n <- length(v)
    for (i in seq_len(n)) {
        if (v[i] == x) {
            return(TRUE)
        }
     }
     return(FALSE)
}</pre>
```

```
In [3]: # Best case (running time is independent of the length of vector)
    system.time(linear_search(1:1e6, 1))

    user system elapsed
    0.003    0.000    0.002
```

0.015 0.000

0.016

```
In [3]: # Best case (running time is independent of the length of vector)
    system.time(linear_search(1:1e6, 1))

    user system elapsed
    0.003   0.000   0.002

In [4]: # Average case (middle element for vector of length 1M)
    system.time(linear_search(1:1e6, 5e5))

    user system elapsed
```

```
In [3]: # Best case (running time is independent of the length of vector)
        system.time(linear_search(1:1e6, 1))
           user system elapsed
          0.003 0.000 0.002
In [4]: # Average case (middle element for vector of length 1M)
        system.time(linear_search(1:1e6, 5e5))
           user system elapsed
          0.015 0.000
                          0.016
In [5]: # Worst case (last element for vector of length 1M)
        system.time(linear search(1:1e6, 1e6))
           user system elapsed
                   0.00
           0.03
                           0.03
```

```
In [3]: # Best case (running time is independent of the length of vector)
        system.time(linear_search(1:1e6, 1))
           user system elapsed
          0.003 0.000 0.002
In [4]: # Average case (middle element for vector of length 1M)
        system.time(linear_search(1:1e6, 5e5))
           user system elapsed
          0.015
                  0.000
                          0.016
In [5]: # Worst case (last element for vector of length 1M)
        system.time(linear search(1:1e6, 1e6))
           user system elapsed
           0.03
                   0.00
                           0.03
In [6]:
       # Even worse case (last element for vector of length 1B)
        system.time(linear search(1:1e9, 1e9))
           user system elapsed
         31.747 0.063 31.883
```

## Limitations of benchmarking

- Depends on many factors:
  - Computer hardware
  - Input size
  - Programming language used
- Which of the benchmarking cases is the most useful?

#### Worst-case scenario

Anything that can go wrong will go wrong.

Edward Murphy

- In **defensive design** it is often helpful to think about the worst-case scenario.
- This sets an **upper bound** on the execution time of a program.
- However, this still depends on the input size.

## Number of steps

• A useful heuristic is the number of steps that a program takes.

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- 4n + 4
- If length of input vector v is 1000 (n=1000),
- This function will execute roughly 4004 steps.

### Calculating number of steps

- Consider the previous example: 4n + 2.
- ullet As n grows larger, these extra 2 steps can be ignored.
- Multiplicative constants can certainly make a difference within implementation.
- $\bullet$  But across several algorithms the difference between 2n and 4n is usually negligible.

# Alternative algorithms

#### Alternative algorithms

```
In [8]: # Binary search for sorted sequences
         binary_search <- function(v, x) {</pre>
           low <- 1
           high <- length(v)</pre>
           while (low <= high) {</pre>
             # Calculate mid-point (similar to median)
             m <- (low + high) %/% 2
             if (v[m] < x) {
               low <- m + 1
             } else if (v[m] > x) {
               high <- m - 1
             } else {
               return (TRUE)
           return(FALSE)
```

```
In [9]: system.time(linear_search(1:1e6, 1e6))

user system elapsed
0.034 0.000 0.035
```

```
In [9]:
        system.time(linear_search(1:1e6, 1e6))
                  system elapsed
            user
           0.034 0.000
                           0.035
In [10]:
         system.time(binary_search(1:1e6, 1e6))
                 system elapsed
            user
           0.005
                 0.000
                           0.005
In [11]:
         system.time(1e6 %in% 1:1e6)
            user system elapsed
                 0.004
                           0.004
           0.000
```

## Comparing algorithms (n steps)

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```
In [12]:
linear_search <- function(v, x) {
    n <- length(v)
    for (i in seq_len(n)) {
        if (v[i] == x) {
            print(paste0("Number of iterations: ", as.character(i)))
            return(i) # return(TRUE)
        }
    }
    return(i) # return(FALSE)
}</pre>
```

### Comparing algorithms (n steps)

```
In [12]: linear_search <- function(v, x) {</pre>
            n <- length(v)</pre>
            for (i in seq len(n)) {
              if (v[i] == x) {
                print(paste0("Number of iterations: ", as.character(i)))
                return(i) # return(TRUE)
            return(i) # return(FALSE)
In [13]:
          binary_search <- function(v, x) {</pre>
            low <- 1
            high <- length(v)
            iters <- 1
            while (low <= high) {
              m <- (low + high) %/% 2
              if (v[m] < x) {
                low \leftarrow m + 1
              } else if (v[m] > x) {
                high <- m - 1
              } else {
                print(paste0("Number of iterations: ", as.character(iters)))
                return(iters) # return(TRUE)
```

```
iters <- iters + 1
}
return(iters) # return(FALSE)
}</pre>
```

## Comparing algorithms (n steps) continued

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```
In [14]: ls_le3 <- linear_search(1:le3, le3)
ls_le6 <- linear_search(1:le6, le6)

[1] "Number of iterations: 1000"
[1] "Number of iterations: 1000000"</pre>
```

### Comparing algorithms (n steps) continued

```
In [14]: ls_le3 <- linear_search(1:le3, le3)
ls_le6 <- linear_search(1:le6, le6)

[1] "Number of iterations: 1000"
[1] "Number of iterations: 1000000"

In [15]: bs_le3 <- binary_search(1:le3, le3)
bs_le6 <- binary_search(1:le6, le6)

[1] "Number of iterations: 10"
[1] "Number of iterations: 20"</pre>
```

#### Big-O notation

- Performance on small inputs and in best-case scenarios is usually of limited interest.
- What matters is the worst-case performance on progressively larger inputs.
- In other words, **upper bound** (or **order of growth**).
- Big O (**O**rder of growth) is an asymptotic notation for describing such growth.
- ullet For example, in case of linear search O(n) (running time increases linearly in the size of input).
- The most important question is the growth rate of the largest term.
- All constants can be ignored.

## Important computational complexity cases

Big-O notation	Running time
O(1)	constant
$O(\log n)$	logarithmic
O(n)	linear
$O(n \log n)$	log-linear
$O(n^c)$	polynomial
$O(c^n)$	exponential
O(n!)	factorial

# Constant complexity: O(1)

 Running time of a program is bounded by a value, which is independent of the input size

```
In [16]: get_len <- function(v) {
    # Internally, length just returns the 'length' attribute of an R ok
    n <- length(v)
    return(n)
}</pre>
```

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In [16]: get_len <- function(v) {
    # Internally, length just returns the 'length' attribute of an R ok
    n <- length(v)
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}

In [17]: system.time(get_len(1:1e3))

user system elapsed
    0     0     0</pre>
```

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        get len <- function(v) {</pre>
              # Internally, length just returns the 'length' attribute of an R ol
              n <- length(v)</pre>
              return(n)
In [17]:
         system.time(get len(1:1e3))
                    system elapsed
             user
                 0
                         0
In [18]:
         system.time(get len(1:1e6))
             user system elapsed
            0.001 0.000
                             0.001
```

```
In [16]:
        get len <- function(v) {</pre>
              # Internally, length just returns the 'length' attribute of an R ol
              n <- length(v)</pre>
              return(n)
In [17]:
        system.time(get len(1:1e3))
                   system elapsed
             user
                0
                         0
In [18]:
         system.time(get len(1:1e6))
             user system elapsed
            0.001 0.000
                             0.001
In [19]:
         system.time(get len(1:1e9))
                  system elapsed
             user
```

# Logarithmic complexity: $O(\log n)$

- ullet E.g. for binary search  $O(\log(n))$  (running time increases as a logarithm of the input size)
- Base of logarithm is irrelevant as it can be easily re-arranged  $\log_2(n) = \log_2(10) imes \log_{10}(n)$  and constants are ignored
- ullet For base 2 we can say that each time the size of input doubles, the algorithm performs one additional step

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- For base 2 we can say that each time the size of input doubles, the algorithm performs one additional step

```
In [20]: bs_10 <- binary_search(1:10, 10)
    bs_20 <- binary_search(1:20, 20)
    bs_100 <- binary_search(1:100, 100)
    bs_200 <- binary_search(1:200, 200)
    bs_1000 <- binary_search(1:1000, 1000)

[1] "Number of iterations: 4"
    [1] "Number of iterations: 5"
    [1] "Number of iterations: 7"
    [1] "Number of iterations: 8"
    [1] "Number of iterations: 10"</pre>
```

# Linear complexity: O(n)

- For linear search O((n)) (running time increases as a linear function of the input size)
- ullet Generally, iteration over all elements of a sequence would be in O(n)
- But it doesn't have to be a loop (e.g. recursive factorial implementation)

### Linear complexity: O(n)

- For linear search O((n)) (running time increases as a linear function of the input size)
- Generally, iteration over all elements of a sequence would be in O(n)
- But it doesn't have to be a loop (e.g. recursive factorial implementation)

```
In [21]: ls_10 <- linear_search(1:10, 10)
ls_20 <- linear_search(1:20, 20)
ls_100 <- linear_search(1:200, 200)
ls_200 <- linear_search(1:200, 200)
ls_1000 <- linear_search(1:1000, 1000)</pre>
[1] "Number of iterations: 10"
[1] "Number of iterations: 20"
[1] "Number of iterations: 200"
[1] "Number of iterations: 200"
[1] "Number of iterations: 1000"
```

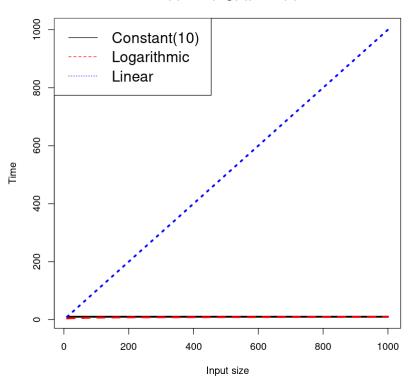
Graphic comparison of time complexity: O(1),  $O(\log n)$ , O(n)

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```
In [22]: x <- c(10, 20, 100, 200, 1000)
    constant_complexity <- rep(10, length(x))
    log_complexity <- c(bs_10, bs_20, bs_100, bs_200, bs_1000)
    linear_complexity <- c(ls_10, ls_20, ls_100, ls_200, ls_1000)</pre>
```

# Graphic comparison of time complexity: O(1), $O(\log n)$ , O(n)

#### O(1) vs O(log(n)) vs O(n)



# Log-Linear complexity: $O(n \log n)$

- More complicated complexity case
- Involves a product of 2 terms
- Important complexity case as many practical problems are solved in log-linear time
- Many sorting algorithms (e.g. merge sort, timsort, built-in sorted() in Python)

# Polynomial complexity: $O(n^c)$

- Most common case is quadratic complexity:  $O(n^2)$
- Nested loops typically result in polynomial complexity

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```
In [24]:
         # Check whether one vector is contained within another vector
          is_subset <- function(v1, v2) {</pre>
            n <- length(v1)</pre>
            m <- length(v2)</pre>
            iters <- 1
            for (i in seq_len(n)) {
              matched <- FALSE
              for (j in seq len(m)) {
                iters <- iters + 1
                if (v1[i] == v2[i]) {
                  matched <- TRUE
                  break
              if (isTRUE(matched)) {
                print(paste0("Number of iterations: ", as.character(iters)))
                return(iters) # return(TRUE)
            print(paste0("Number of iterations: ", as.character(iters)))
            return(iters) # return(FALSE)
```

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                if (v1[i] == v2[i]) {
                  matched <- TRUE
                  break
              if (isTRUE(matched)) {
                print(paste0("Number of iterations: ", as.character(iters)))
                return(iters) # return(TRUE)
            print(paste0("Number of iterations: ", as.character(iters)))
            return(iters) # return(FALSE)
```

```
In [25]: # For simplicity of analysis let's assume that
    # lengths of 2 input vectors are about the same
    is_10 <- is_subset(11:21, 1:10)
    is_20 <- is_subset(21:41, 1:20)
    is_100 <- is_subset(101:201, 1:100)
    is_200 <- is_subset(201:401, 1:200)
    is_1000 <- is_subset(1001:2001, 1:1000)</pre>
```

```
[1] "Number of iterations: 111"
[1] "Number of iterations: 421"
[1] "Number of iterations: 10101"
[1] "Number of iterations: 40201"
[1] "Number of iterations: 1001001"
```

Graphic comparison: O(n),  $O(n \log n)$ ,  $O(n^2)$ 

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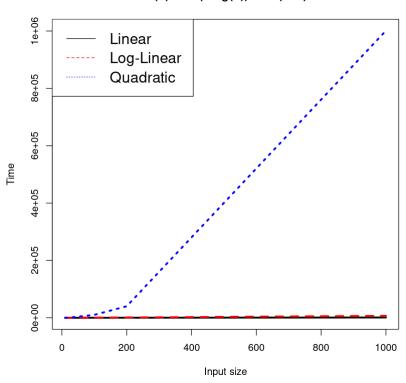
```
In [26]: log_linear_complexity <- x * log(x)
quadratic_complexity <- c(is_10, is_20, is_100, is_200, is_1000)</pre>
```

# Graphic comparison: O(n), $O(n \log n)$ , $O(n^2)$

```
In [26]: log_linear_complexity <- x * log(x)
   quadratic_complexity <- c(is_10, is_20, is_100, is_200, is_1000)

In [27]: plot(x, quadratic_complexity, type = "n", main = "0(n) vs 0(nlog(n)) vs lines(x, linear_complexity, type = "l", col = "black", lty = 1, lwd = 3 lines(x, log_linear_complexity, type = "l", col = "red", lty = 2, lwd = lines(x, quadratic_complexity, type = "l", col = "blue", lty = 3, lwd = legend("topleft", legend = c("Linear", "Log-Linear", "Quadratic"), col = c("black", "red", "blue"), lty = 1:3, cex = 1.5)</pre>
```

#### O(n) vs O(nlog(n)) vs O(n^2)



# Exponential and factorial complexity: $O(c^n)$ and O(n!)

- Many real-life problems have exponential or factorial solutions
- E.g. travelling salesman problem (given the list of points and distances, what is the shortest path through all of them)
- However, the general solutions with such complexity are usually impractical
- For these problems either approximate solutions can be used
- Or a problem is solved for specific cases

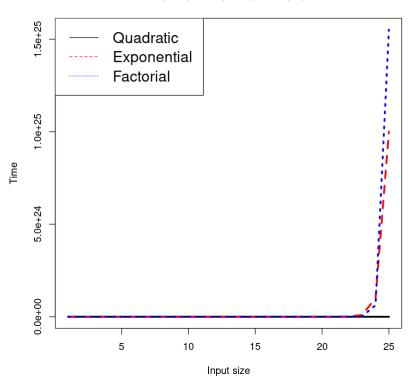
Graphic comparison:  $O(n^2)$ ,  $O(10^n)$ , O(n!)

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```
In [28]: x <- 1:25
    quadratic_complexity <- x ^ 2
    exponential_complexity <- 10 ^ x
    factorial_complexity <- factorial(x)</pre>
```

# Graphic comparison: $O(n^2)$ , $O(10^n)$ , O(n!)

#### O(n^2) vs O(10^n) vs O(n!)



### Time complexity in practice

- Check for loops, recursion.
- Think about function calls, what is the complexity of underlying implementations?
- The presented complexity cases are not exhaustive and are often 'idealised' cases.
- Complexity can take any form (e.g. one of sort ( ) methods in R is  $O(n^{4/3})$ ).
- Running time can be a function of more than one input (e.g. is\_subset() function above).
- Big-O ignores constants (multiplicative and additive), but they matter within implementation.
- There is a tradeoff between conceptual and computational complexity (more efficient solutions are often harder to read and debug).

### Code optimisation tradeoff

HOW LONG CAN YOU WORK ON MAKING A ROUTINE TASK MORE EFFICIENT BEFORE YOU'RE SPENDING MORE TIME THAN YOU SAVE? (ACROSS FIVE YEARS)

		HOW OFTEN YOU DO THE TASK					
		50/ <sub>DAY</sub>	5/DAY	DAILY	MEEKLY	MONTHLY	YEARLY
	1 SECOND	1 DAY	2 Hours	30 MINUTES	4 MINUTES	1 MINUTE	5 SECONDS
	5 SECONDS	5 DAYS	12 HOURS	2 HOUR5	21 MINUTES	5 MINUTES	25 SECONDS
;	30 SECONDS	4 WEEKS	3 DAYS	12 HOURS	2 HOURS	30 MINUTES	2 MINUTES
HOW MUCH	1 MINUTE	8 WEEKS	6 DAYS	1 DAY	4 HOURS	1 HOUR	5 MINUTES
TIME YOU	5 MINUTES	9 MONTHS	4 WEEKS	6 DAYS	21 Hours	5 HOURS	25 MINUTES
SHAVE OFF	30 MINUTES		6 MONTHS	5 WEEKS	5 DAYS	1 DAY	2 HOURS
	1 HOUR		IO MONTHS	2 MONTHS	IO DAYS	2 DAYS	5 Hours
	6 HOURS				2 MONTHS	2 WEEKS	1 DAY
	1 DAY					8 WEEKS	5 DAYS
		<u> </u>			_		

Source: xkcd

### Benchmarking and profiling in R

- Built-in function system.time() provides basic benchmarking functionality
- One problem is it runs each code snippet once, which can be sensitive to other factors
- Check microbenchmark for more advanced features (e.g. averaging over many runs)
- Profiling allows more granular instruction-specific timing
- RStudio has a built-in profiling functionality (through profvis package)

Extra: Profiling code with RStudio IDE

### Code optimisation in R

- Find the biggest bottlenecks (parts of code that take most time to evaluate)
- Look for existing solutions to your problem (including built-in R functions)
- Avoid unnecessary copying
- Vectorise your code (more below)
- Parallelise your code
- Do not start optimising prematurely

### Vectorised operations in R

- Many operations in R are vectorized
- They take vectors as input and produce vectors as output
- This is not just convenient, but often speeds up your code
- It eliminates extra function calls by relying on built-in routines
- Many base R functions are implemented in fast compiled C/Fortran code

```
In [30]: # 1M can also be written as 1e6 in scientific notation (see above)
    # We draw a random sample of 1M elements from a uniform distribution
    # With min = 0 and max = 1
    x <- runif(1000000)
    y <- runif(1000000)
    # And a vector for storing the results
    z <- vector("double", length = 1000000)</pre>
```

0.003 0.001 0.003

```
In [30]: # 1M can also be written as 1e6 in scientific notation (see above)
# We draw a random sample of 1M elements from a uniform distribution
# With min = 0 and max = 1
x <- runif(10000000)
y <- runif(10000000)
# And a vector for storing the results
z <- vector("double", length = 10000000)</pre>
In [31]: # Using built-in vectorized summation with `+` operator
system.time(z <- x + y)

user system elapsed</pre>
```

```
In [30]: # 1M can also be written as 1e6 in scientific notation (see above)
         # We draw a random sample of 1M elements from a uniform distribution
         # With min = 0 and max = 1
         x < - runif(1000000)
         y < - runif(1000000)
         # And a vector for storing the results
         z <- vector("double", length = 1000000)</pre>
In [31]: # Using built-in vectorized summation with `+` operator
         system.time(z <- x + y)
             user system elapsed
            0.003 0.001 0.003
In [32]: # Using an excplicit loop for summing up individual elements
         system.time(for (i in seq along(x)) z[i] \leftarrow x[i] + y[i])
             user system elapsed
            0.052 0.000 0.053
```

#### Vectorised functions in R

- All core arithmetic operators are vectorized (+, -, \*, ^, /, %/%, %%)
- Relational operators ( == , != , > , >= , < , <= )</li>
- Matrix/data.frame summaries (rowSums(), colSums(), rowMeans(),
   colMeans())
- Some functionals (particularly, lapply())
- Some other functions for common operations (e.g. ifelse() , which() , cumsum())

#### Next

- Tutorial: Benchmarking, analysis of function complexity and performance
- Final project: Due at 12:00 on Monday, 19th December (submission on Blackboard)

### The End

