Order Notation in Practice

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What does complexity measurement mean?

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What is Order Notation?

- This notation is a way of describing how the number of operations performed by an algorithm varies by the size of the problem as the size increases
- You've probably heard of order notation before – if you have studied computer science then the next section is likely to be revision

Why do we care?

- Almost no-one* is actually interested in the complexity of an algorithm
- What we normally care about is the performance of a function

 The complexity measure of an algorithm will affect the performance of a function implementing it, but it is by no means the only factor

(*Present audience possibly excepted)

Ways to measure performance

- There are a number of different ways to measure the performance of a function
- Typical measures include:
 - Wall clock time
 - CPU clock cycles
 - Memory use
 - I/O (disk, network, etc)
 - Power consumption
 - Number of <> brackets used

Complexity measurement

- Complexity measurement is (normally) used to approximate the number of operations performed
- This is then used as a proxy for CPU clock cycles
- It ignores 'details' such as memory access costs that have become increasingly important over time
- It often is a measure of **one** operation

Introduction to Order Notation

- A classification of algorithms by how they respond to changes in size.
- Uses a big O (also called Landau's symbol, after the number theoretician Edmund Landau who invented the notation)
- We write f(x) = O(g(x)) to mean
 There exists a constant C and a value N such that |f(x)| < C|g(x)| ∀ x > N

Example of Order Notation

- If $f(x) = 2x^2 + 3x + 4$
- Then $f(x) = O(x^2)$
- If $h(x) = x^2 + 345678x + 456789$
- Then $h(x) = O(x^2)$
- Note that, in these two cases, the values of C and N are likely to be different:
 - For f we can use (3, 4)
 - For g we can use (2, 345679) or (4000, 87)

Example of Order Notation

- Note that f and h are **both** O(x²) although they're different functions.
- For the purposes of order classification, it doesn't matter what the multiplier C is nor how big the value N is.
- Note too that formally O is a "<="
 relationship. So j(x) = 16 is also O(x²)
- If f(x) = O(g(x)) and g(x) = O(f(x)) then we can write f(x) = θ(g(x))

Some common orders

 Here a some common orders, with the slower growing functions first:

- O(1) - constant

- O(log(x)) logarithmic
- O(x) linear
- $O(x^2) quadratic$
- $O(x^n) polynomial$
- $O(e^x)$ exponential

Order arithmetic

- When two functions are combined the order of the resulting function can (usually) be inferred
- When adding functions, you simply take the biggest order

- eg. O(1) + O(n) = O(n)

When multiplying functions, you multiply the orders

- eg. $O(n) * O(n) = O(n^2)$

Order arithmetic for programs

 For a function making a sequence of function calls the order of the function is the same as the highest order of the called functions

void f(int n) {
 g(n); // O(n.log(n))
 h(n); // O(n)
 }

In this example f() = O(n.log(n))

Order arithmetic for programs

 For a function using a loop the order is the product of the order of the loop count and the loop body

void f(int n) {
 int count = g(n); // count is O(log(n))
 for (int i = 0; i != count; ++i) {
 h(n); // O(n)
}

In this example too f() = O(n.log(n))

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- Many standard algorithms have a wellunderstood order. One of the best known non-trivial examples is probably quicksort which "everyone knows" is O(n.log(n)).
- Except when it isn't, of course!
 - On average it is O(n.log(n))
 - The **worst** case is $O(n^2)$
- Also, this is the computational cost, not the memory cost

- The C++ standard mandates the complexity of many algorithms.
- For example, std::sort:
 "Complexity: O(N log(N)) comparisons."
- and std::stable_sort:

"Complexity: It does at most N log²(N) comparisons; if enough extra memory is available, it is N log(N)."

and std::list::sort:

"Complexity: Approximately N log(N) comparisons"

Order for standard operations

- The C++ standard also mandates the complexity of many operations.
- For example, *container*::size: "Complexity: constant."
- and std::list::push_back:

"Complexity: Insertion of a single element into a list takes constant time and exactly one call to a constructor of T."

- Net lists complexity for some algorithms.
- For example, List<T>.Sort:

"On average, this method is an $O(n \log n)$ operation, where n is Count; in the worst case it is an $O(n \land 2)$ operation."

- Java does the same
- For example, Arrays.sort:

"This implementation is a stable, adaptive, iterative mergesort that requires far fewer than n lg(n) comparisons when the input array is partially sorted, while offering the performance of a traditional mergesort when the input array is randomly ordered..."

Order for standard operations

- However, neither Java not .Net seem to provide much detail for the cost of other operations with containers
- This makes it harder to reason about the performance impact of the choice of container and the methods used.

Let's try some experiments

 So that's the theory; what happens when we try some of these out in an actual program on real hardware?

> YMMV (different clock speeds, amount of memory, speed of memory access and cache sizes)

strlen()

 Should be simple enough: O(n) where n is the number of bytes in the string.

```
int strlen(char *s) /* source: K&R */
{
    int n;
    for(n = 0; *s != '\0'; s++)
    {
        n++;
    }
    return n;
}
```

Anyone looked inside strlen recently?

strlen() - more than you wanted to know

```
strlen:
                                     ; rax -> string
           rax,rcx
           rcx
                                     ; test if string is aligned on 64 bits
   test
           rax,7
           main loop
   xchg
           ax,ax
str misaligned:
            dl,byte ptr [rax]
                                     ; read 1 byte
    mov
           rax
    test
           dl,dl
            byte 7
   test
           al,7
           str_misaligned
    jne
                                     ; loop until aligned
main loop:
   mov
           r8,7EFEFEFEFEFEFEF
           r11,81010101010100h
   mov
           rdx,qword ptr [rax]
                                     ; read 8 bytes
   mov
           r9,r8
   mov
    add
           rax,8
            r9, rdx
    add
            rdx
   not
            rdx, r9
   xor
           rdx,r11
    and
            main loop
    je
           rdx,qword ptr [rax-8]
                                      ; found zero byte in the loop
   mov
            dl,dl
   test
    je
            byte 0
                                      ; is it byte 0?
   test
            dh,dh
            byte 1
                                      ; is it byte 1?
    je
            rdx,10h
    shr
byte_1:
           rax,[rcx+rax-7]
    lea
    ret
byte 0:
           rax,[rcx+rax-8]
    lea
    ret
```

strlen()

Naively we compare time for:

timer.start();

strlen(data1);

timer.stop();

- The call appears to take no time at all
- Gotcha: strlen() use can be optimised away if the return value is not used.
- It's important to check you're measuring what you think you're measuring!

strlen()

Set up a couple of strings:

char const data1[] = "1";

char const data2[] = "12345...67890...";

- Compare time for v1 = strlen(data1) against
 v2 = strlen(data2)
- Gotcha: strlen() of a constant string can be evaluated at compile time: O(1)
- It's important to check you're measuring what you think you're measuring!

strlen() - O(n)



Linear and consistent

strlen() - O(dear)



Discontinuous (and no longer as consistent)

strlen() - zoom in



strlen() - small n



This machine has 64K L1 + 512K L2 cache per core

strlen()

- O(n) to a very good approximation for n between cache size and available memory
- Small discontinuity around cache size
- O(n) when swapping, but the factor 'C' is much bigger (250 – 300 times bigger here)

string::find()

- Let's swap over from using strlen() to using string::find('\0')
- Exactly the same sort of operation but with a very slightly more generic algorithm
- We expect this will behave just like strlen()

string::find()



Let's start with a (deterministic) bogo sort

```
template <typename T>
void bogo_sort(T begin, T end)
{
    do
    {
      std::next_permutation(begin, end);
    } while (!std::is_sorted(begin, end));
}
```

NSFW

O(n × n!) comparisons

- Timings

 10,000 items 1.13ms
 20,000 items 2.32ms
 30,000 items 3.55ms
 40,000 items 4.72ms
- O(n) but ... how?
- I cheated and set the initial state carefully
- Be very careful about best and worst cases!

Timings (randomised collection)



- I got bored after 14 items
- It looks like we hit a 'wall' at 13/14

Timings (randomised collection)



- Same graph after 8 items
- Note: the 'wall' effect depends on scale

- std::sort
 - the best known in C++
- qsort
 - the equivalent for C
- bubble_sort
 - easy to explain and demonstrate
- stable_sort
 - retain order of equivalent items
- partial_sort
 - sort 'm' items from 'n'



- I must mention AlgoRythmics illustrating sort algorithms with Hungarian folk dance
- https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ywWBy6J5gz8
- Helps to give some idea of how the algorithm works
- Also shows the importance of the multiplier
 C in the formula



 "I'd like to go back in time and kill the inventor of bubblesort" - Andrei Alexandrescu



• Granted

- std::sort is faster than qsort
 - don't tell the C programmers
- You do pay (a little) for stability
- partial_sort is a "dark horse" do you really need the full set sorted?

- That was with *randomised* input
- A lot of real data is not randomly sorted

bubble_sort's revenge



- The complexity of std::sort is the same as std::list::sort – so what's the difference?
- Must copy the whole object in a vector
- Can just swap the pointers in a list



- So at this data size list is over twice as slow as vector to sort but uses just over half as many comparisons
- Perhaps measure sort complexity in other terms than just the number of comparisons
- However note that the items sorted in this example are quite small (wraps an int)

- The performance will depend on the size of the object being copied
- With a bigger object footprint
 - Same number of comparisons
 - Same number of pointer swaps (list)

More bytes copied (vector)

 Repeat the test with a bigger data structure (we won't display the # of comparisons)

List or Vector - 100 byte objects Time list vector Ν



 This is what we expect: the performance depends very heavily on the size of the object being copied

So, in this test on this hardware, the breakeven point comes at somewhere around 100 bytes for the object footprint

- This is bigger than I was expecting
- For comparison here is the effect on sorting the list when we change the object footprint



- This is less expected: it is about 2 3 times slower to sort a list of 1Kb objects than a list of int objects.
- The only difference is the memory access pattern: objects are further apart and so cache use is less efficient.
- But once you're further apart than a cache line (64bytes) why does more size still make a difference?

- Allocate a range of memory and access it sequentially with 'n' steps of size 'm'.
- There is an overall trend, of sorts, with some anomalies
- The specifics will vary depending on the hardware you're running on and will depend on both the size and associativity of the various caches





 While the specifics vary, the principle of locality is important

 If it is multiplicative with the algorithmic complexity it can change the complexity measure of the overall function

Suppose we need to insert data into a collection and the performance is an issue

- What might be the effect of using:
 - std::list
 - std::vector
 - std::deque
 - − std::set
 - std::multiset

- std::list "constant time insert and erase operations anywhere within the sequence"
- std::vector "linear in distance to end of vector"
- std::deque "linear in distance to nearer end"
- std::set & std::multiset "logarithmic"
- We also need the time to find the insert point

- Randomly inserting 10,000 items:
- std:list ~600ms
 - very slow cost of **finding** the insertion point in the list
- std::vector ~37ms

 Much faster than list even though we're copying each time we insert

std::deque ~310ms

Surprisingly poor – spilling between buckets

• std::set ~2.6ms our winner!

- May be worth using a helper collection if the target collection is costly to create
 - Use std::set as the helper and construct std:list on completion ~4ms
 - Use a std::map of iterators into the list so list built in right order ~4.8ms
- The helper collection will increase the overall memory use of the program

Cost of sorted inserting

- Inserting 10,000 sorted items:
- std:list ~0.88ms
 - Fast insertion (at known insert point)
- std::vector ~0.85ms (end) / 60ms (start)
 - Much faster when appending
- std::deque ~3ms

Roughly equal cost at either end; a bit slower than a vector

std::set ~2ms (between vector and deque)

What about order notation effects?

- If we use 10x as many items:
 - std:list ~600s (1000x)
 - std::vector ~3.7s (100x)
 - std::deque ~33s (100x)

- std::set ~66ms (33x)

 The find cost for list dwarfs the insert cost, which is often a hidden complexity

• Can we beat std::set ?

 Try naïve std::unordered_set() - very slightly slower at 10K (~2.8ms vs ~2.6ms) but better at 100K (~46ms vs ~66ms)

 However, in this particular case we have additional knowledge about our value set and so can use a *trivial* hash function

 Now std::unordered_set() takes ~2.3ms (10K) and ~38ms (100K)

Conclusion

- The algorithm we choose is obviously important for the overall performance of the operation (measured as elapsed time)
- As data sizes increase we eventually hit the limits of the machine; the best algorithms are those that involve least swapping
- For smaller data sizes the characteristics of the cache will have some effect on the performance

Conclusion

- While complexity measure is a good tool we must bear in mind:
- What are N (the relevant size) and C (the multiplier)?
- Have we identified the function with the dominant complexity?
- Can we re-define the problem to reduce the cost?

Making it faster

 We've seen a few examples already of making things faster.

- Compile-time evaluation of strlen() turns O(n) into O(1)
 - Can you pre-process (or cache) key values?
 - Swapping setup cost or memory use for runtime cost

Making it faster

- Don't calculate what you don't need
- We saw that, if you only need the top 'n', partial_sort is typically much faster than a full sort
- If you know something about the characteristics of the data then a more specific algorithm might perform better
 - strlen() vs find()
 - Sorting nearly sorted data
 - 'Trivial' hash function

Making it faster

- Pick the best algorithm to work with memory hardware
 - Prefer sequential access to memory
 - Smaller is better
 - Splitting compute-intensive data items from the rest can help – at a slight cost in the complexity of the program logic and in memory use

Some other references

- Scott Meyers at ACCU "CPU caches": http://www.aristeia.com/TalkNotes/ACCU2011_CPUCaches.pdf
- Ulrich Drepper "What Every Programmer Should Know About Memory": http://people.redhat.com/drepper/cpumemory.pdf
- Herb Sutter's experiments with containers: http://www.gotw.ca/gotw/054.htm
- and looking at memory use: http://www.gotw.ca/publications/mill14.htm
- Bjarne Stroustrup's vector vs list test: http://bulldozer00.com/2012/02/09/vectors-and-lists/ (esp slides 43-47)
- Baptiste Wicht's list vs vector benchmarks: http://www.baptiste-wicht.com/2012/12/cpp-benchmark-vector-list-deque/