

# Java Programming

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Java 405  
Spring 2024

```
1 class Lecture3 {
2
3     "Flow Controls: Branching & Repetition"
4
5 }
6
7 // Keywords:
8 if, else, switch, case, break, default, yield, while, do, for,
9 continue
```

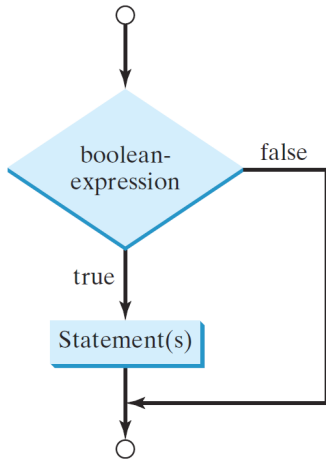
# Flow Controls

- Most of statements are executed **in sequential order**.
- Programs can handle automatically with various situations when the **branching (selection) rules** are known.
- Moreover, programs may **repeat** some actions if necessary.
- For example, recall how to find the largest number in the list?

# The if Branching Statement

```
1 ...  
2     if (/* Condition: a boolean expression */) {  
3         // Selection body: conditional statements.  
4     }  
5 ...
```

- If the condition is evaluated **true**, then the conditional statements will be executed **once**.
- If **false**, then the selection body will be ignored.
- Note that the braces can be omitted **when the body contains only single statement**.



## Example: Circle Area (Revisited)

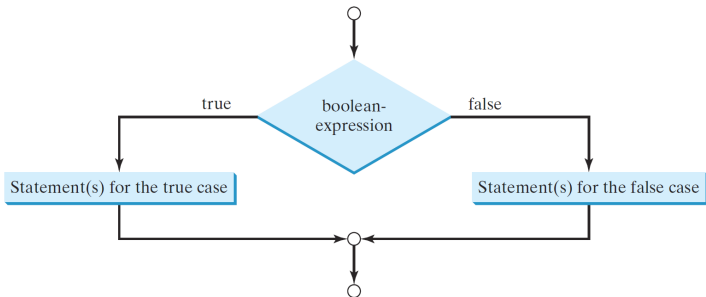
Write a program to receive a positive number as the circle radius and calculate its circle area.

```
1 ...
2     if (r > 0) {
3         double A = r * r * 3.14;
4         System.out.println(A);
5     }
6 ...
```

- What if the **false** case?

# The if-else Statement

```
1 ...  
2     if (/* Condition: a boolean expression */) {  
3         // Conditional statements for the true case.  
4     } else {  
5         // Conditional statement for the false case.  
6     }  
7 ...
```



## Example: Circle Area (Revisited)

```
1 ...
2     if (r > 0) {
3         double A = r * r * 3.14;
4         System.out.println(A);
5     } else {
6         System.out.println("Not a circle.");
7     }
8 ...
```



## Nested Conditional Statements: Example

```
1 ...
2     if (score >= 90)
3         System.out.println("A");
4     else {
5         if (score >= 80)
6             System.out.println("B");
7         else {
8             if (score >= 70)
9                 System.out.println("C");
10            else {
11                if (score >= 60)
12                    System.out.println("D");
13                else
14                    System.out.println("F");
15            }
16        }
17    }
18 ...
```

## A Preferred Alternative: Multiple Branches

```
1 ...
2     if (score >= 90)
3         System.out.println("A");
4     else if (score >= 80)
5         System.out.println("B");
6     else if (score >= 70)
7         System.out.println("C");
8     else if (score >= 60)
9         System.out.println("D");
10    else
11        System.out.println("F");
12 ...
```

- Avoid deep indentation to make your program easier to read!
- However, the order of conditions may be influential. (Why?)
- Furthermore, the runtime performance may degrade due to the order of conditions. (Why?)

## Two Common Bugs

```
1 ...
2     if (r > 0);
3         double A = r * r * 3.14;
4         System.out.println(A);
5 ...
```

- Do not attach any semicolon to the condition (in Line 2).
  - If the parenthesis is followed by the semicolon in Line 2, Line 3 becomes unconditional and will be always executed.
- Multiple conditional statements should be enclosed by braces.

## Example: Working with Uncertainty

Write a program which (1) shows a math question, say sum of two **random** integers ranging from 0 to 9, (2) asks the user to answer the question, and then (3) judges this input.

- For example, the monitor displays “2 + 5 =?”.
- If the user types 7, then the program reports “Correct.”
- Otherwise, it reports “Wrong. The answer is 7.”
- You can use **Math.random()** to generate random numbers.

## Digression: How to Generate Random Numbers?<sup>1</sup>

- **Math.random()** produces numbers between 0.0 and 1.0, exclusive.
- To generate integers ranging from 0 to 9, it is clear that

`(int) (Math.random() × 10),`

because there are 10 possible states: 0, 1, 2, ..., 9.

- In general, you could generate any integer between L and H by using

`(int) (Math.random() × (H - L + 1)) + L.` (Why?)

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<sup>1</sup>See [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pseudorandom\\_number\\_generator](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pseudorandom_number_generator)

```

1 ...
2     // (1) Generate two random integers.
3     int x = (int) (Math.random() * 10);
4     int y = (int) (Math.random() * 10);
5
6     // (2) Display the math question.
7     System.out.println(x + " + " + y + " = ?");
8
9     // (3) Ask the user to type his/her answer.
10    Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
11    int z = input.nextInt();
12    input.close();
13
14    // (4) Judge the input.
15    if (z == x + y) {
16        System.out.println("Correct.");
17    } else {
18        System.out.println("Wrong.");
19        System.out.println("It is " + (x + y) + ".");
20    }
21 ...

```

- Extend this program for all arithmetic operators (+ − × ÷).

*“Exploring the unknown requires tolerating uncertainty.”*

– Brian Greene

*“I can live with doubt, and uncertainty, and not knowing. I think it is much more interesting to live not knowing than have answers which might be wrong.”*

– Richard Feynman

# Exercise

First generate 3 random integers ranging from  $-50$  to  $50$ , inclusive. Then find the largest value of these integers.

- Recall the first algorithm example in our class.



```
1 ...
2     int x = (int) (Math.random() * 101) - 50;
3     int y = (int) (Math.random() * 101) - 50;
4     int z = (int) (Math.random() * 101) - 50;
5
6     int max = x;
7     if (y > max) max = y;
8     if (z > max) max = z;
9     System.out.println("MAX = " + max);
10 ...
```

- However, this program is limited by the number of data.
- To develop a **reusable** solution, we need **arrays** and **loops**.

# The switch-case-break-default Statement

```
1 ...
2     switch (target) {
3         case v1:
4             // Conditional statements.
5             break; // Leaving (jump to Line 16).
6         case v2:
7             .
8             .
9             .
10        case vk:
11            // Conditional statements.
12            break; // Leaving (jump to Line 16).
13        default:
14            // Default statements.
15    }
16 ...
```

- The variable *target* must be a value of **char**, **byte**, **short**, **int**, or **String** type.
- The type of  $v_1, \dots, v_k$  must be identical to *target*.
- A **break** statement should be necessary to leave the construct; otherwise, there will be a fall-through behavior.
- The **default** case is used to perform default actions when none of cases matches *target*.
  - Like the **else** statements.

# Example

```
1 ...
2     String symbol = "XS";
3
4     int size;
5     switch (symbol) {
6         case "L":
7             size = 10;
8             break;
9         case "M":
10            size = 5;
11            break;
12        case "XS":
13        case "S": // "XS" and "S" share the same action.
14            size = 1;
15            break;
16        default:
17            size = 0;
18    }
19
20    System.out.println(size); // Output 1.
21 ...
```

## New Syntax (1/3): No More Breaks<sup>2</sup>

```
1 ...
2     String symbol = "XS";
3
4     int size;
5     switch (symbol) {
6         case "L"           -> size = 10;
7         case "M"           -> size = 5;
8         case "S", "XS"    -> size = 1;
9         default            -> size = 0;
10    }
11
12    System.out.println(size); // Output 1.
13 ...
```

---

<sup>2</sup>Since JDK12.

## New Syntax (2/3): Switch Expressions

```
1 ...
2     String symbol = "XS";
3
4     int size = switch (symbol) {
5         case "L"         -> 10;
6         case "M"         -> 5;
7         case "S", "XS"  -> 1;
8         default          -> 0;
9     };
10
11     System.out.println(size); // Output 1.
12 ...
```

- Like all expressions, switch expressions evaluate to a single value and can be used in statements, say Line 4.

## New Syntax (3/3): yield

```
1 ...
2     String symbol = "XS";
3
4     int size = switch (symbol) {
5         case "L":
6             yield 10;
7         case "M":
8             yield 5;
9         case "S", "XS":
10            yield 1;
11        default:
12            yield 0;
13    };
14
15    System.out.println(size); // Output 1.
16 ...
```

## Conditional Operator: Example

```
1 ...
2     if (num1 > num2)
3         max = num1;
4     else
5         max = num2;
6
7     // The above statement is equivalent to the following:
8     max = num1 > num2 ? num1 : num2;
9 ...
```

- If  $\text{num1} > \text{num2}$ , then execute `max = num1`; otherwise, `max = num2`.



*“We must all face the choice between what is **right** and what is **easy**.”*

– Prof. Albus Dumbledore,  
*Harry Potter and the Goblet of Fire*, J.K. Rowling

*“To be or not to be, that is the question.”*

– Prince Hamlet, *Hamlet*, William Shakespeare

## Essence of Loops<sup>3</sup>

A loop is used to **repeat** statements.

- For example, output “Hello, Java.” for 100 times.

```
1 ...  
2     System.out.println("Hello, Java.");  
3     System.out.println("Hello, Java.");  
4     .  
5     . // Copy and paste for 97 times.  
6     .  
7     System.out.println("Hello, Java.");  
8 ...
```

<sup>3</sup>Try [Celebrating 50 Years of Kids Coding](#).

```
1 ...  
2     int cnt = 0;  
3     while (cnt < 100) {  
4         System.out.println("Hello, Java.");  
5         cnt++;  
6     }  
7 ...
```

- This is a toy example to show the power of loops.
- In practice, any routine which repeats couples of times, so called patterns, can be done by wrapping them into a loop.

## 成也迴圈，敗也迴圈

- Loops provide substantial computational power.
- Loops bring an **efficient** way of programming.
- However, loops could consume a lot of time.<sup>4</sup>

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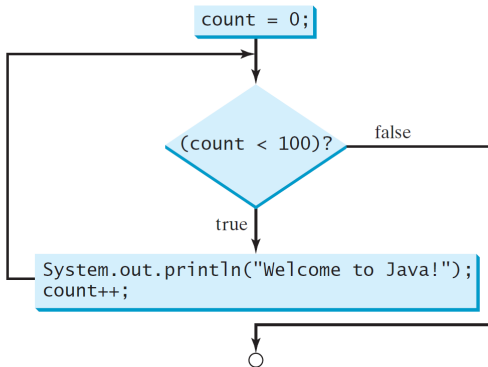
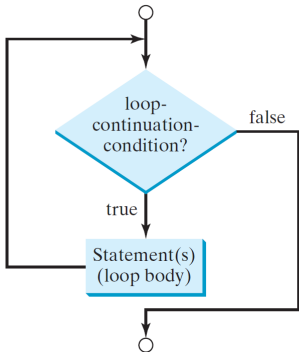
<sup>4</sup>You may check any algorithm textbook or course, say [Algorithms Lab](#).

# The while Loops

A **while** loop executes some statements repeatedly until the condition is **false**.

```
1 ...  
2     while (/* Condition: a boolean expression */) {  
3         // Loop body.  
4     }  
5 ...
```

- If the condition is evaluated **true**, execute the loop body once and re-check the condition.
- The loop no longer continues when the condition is evaluated **false**.



## Example: Summation

Write a program to sum up all integers from 1 to 100.

- In math,

$$\text{sum} = 1 + 2 + \cdots + 100.$$

- One may doubt why not  $(1 + 100) \times 100/2$ ?
- The above formula is applicable to only arithmetic series!
- We don't assume the data being an arithmetic series. (Why?)
- To get a general solution, we **decompose** this summation into several statements, shown in the next page.

```
1 ...
2     int sum = 0;
3     sum = sum + 1;
4     sum = sum + 2;
5     .
6     .
7     .
8     sum = sum + 100;
9 ...
```

- As you can see, there exist many similar statements and we proceed to wrap them by using a **while** loop!



```
1 ...
2     int sum = 0;
3     int i = 1;
4     while (i <= 100) {
5         sum = sum + i;
6         ++i;
7     }
8 ...
```

- Make sure that the loop terminates properly and outputs the correct result.
- In practice, the number of iterations often depends on the data size or the input parameter. (Why?)

# Lurked Bugs: Malfunctioned Loops

- It is easy to make an **infinite loop**: always **true**.

```
1 ...  
2     while (true);  
3 ...
```

- The common issues of writing loops are as follows:
  - loops never start;
  - loops never stop;
  - loops do not finish the expected iterations.

## Example: Working with Uncertainty (Revisited)

Based on the previous program, allow the user to re-enter answers repeatedly until correct.

```
1 ...
2     ...
3
4     while (z != x + y) {
5         System.out.println("Try again?");
6         z = input.nextInt();
7     }
8     System.out.println("Correct.");
9
10    ...
11 ...
```

# Loop Design Strategy

- Identify the statements that need to be repeated.
- Wrap those statements by a loop.
- Set a proper **continuation** condition.

# Indefinite Loops

Indefinite loops are the loops with **unknown number of iterations**.

- It is also called the **sentinel-controlled loops**, whose sentinel value is used to determine whether to execute the loop body.
- For example, the operating systems and the GUI apps.

## Example: Cashier

Write a program to (1) sum over positive integers from consecutive inputs until the first non-positive integer occurs and (2) output the total value.

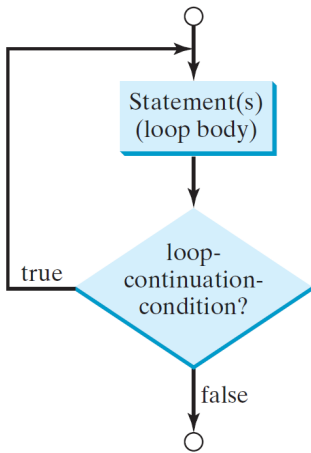
```
1 ...
2     int total = 0, price = 0;
3     Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
4
5     System.out.println("Enter price?");
6     price = input.nextInt();
7     while (price > 0) {
8         total += price;
9         System.out.println("Enter price?");
10        price = input.nextInt();
11    }
12
13    System.out.println("TOTAL = " + total);
14    input.close();
15 ...
```

## The do-while Loops

A **do-while** loop is similar to a **while** loop except that it **first** executes the loop body **and then** checks the loop condition.

```
1 ...  
2     do {  
3         // Loop body.  
4     } while (/* Condition: a boolean expression */);  
5 ...
```

- Do not miss a semicolon at the end of **do-while** loops.
- The **do-while** loops are also called the **posttest** loops, in contrast to the **while** loops, which are the **pretest** loops.





## Example: Cashier (Revisited)

Write a program which sums over positive integers from consecutive inputs and then outputs the sum when the input is nonpositive.

```
1 ...
2     int total = 0, price = 0;
3     Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
4
5     do {
6         total += price;
7         System.out.println("Enter price?");
8         price = input.nextInt();
9     } while (price > 0);
10
11     System.out.println("TOTAL = " + total);
12     input.close();
13 ...
```

## The for Loops

A **for** loop uses an integer counter to control how many times the body is executed.

```
1 ...
2     for (initial-action; condition; increment) {
3         // Loop body.
4     }
5 ...
```

- *initial-action*: declare and initialize a counter.
- *condition*: check if the loop continues.
- *increment*: how the counter changes after each iteration.

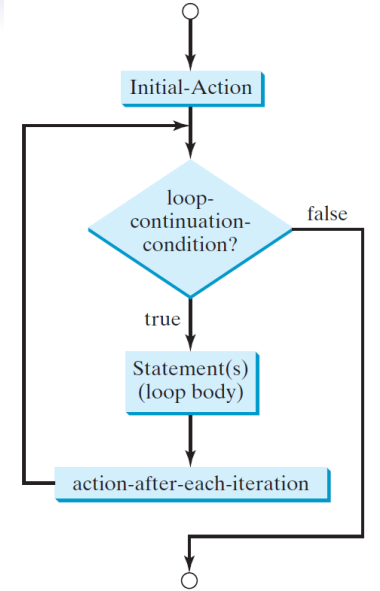
## Example: Summation (Revisited)

Write a program to sum up the integers from 1 to 100.

```
1 ...
2     int sum = 0;
3     int i = 1;
4     while (i <= 100) {
5         sum = sum + i;
6         ++i;
7     }
8 ...
```

```
1 ...
2     int sum = 0;
3     for (int i = 1; i <= 100; ++i)
4         sum = sum + i;
5 ...
```

- Note that the initial action `int i = 1` is executed only once.
- Make sure that you are clear with the execution flow of loops!



## Example: Even Numbers

Show all even integers from 1 to 100.

```
1 ...
2     for (int i = 1; i <= 100; i++) { // Good?
3         if (i % 2 == 0)
4             System.out.println(i);
5     }
6 ...
```

```
1 ...
2     for (int i = 2; i <= 100; i += 2) { // Which is better?
3         System.out.println(i);
4     }
5 ...
```

## Exercises

- Calculate the factorial of nonnegative integer  $N$ .<sup>5</sup>
  - For example,  $10! = 3628800$ .
- Calculate  $x^n$  with **double** value  $x$  and integer  $n$ .
  - For example,  $2.0^{10} = 1024.0$ .
- Calculate the following summation

$$p = 4 \times \sum_{i=0}^{10000} \frac{(-1)^i}{2i+1}.$$

- The result is around 3.14.
- Note that  $p \rightarrow \pi$  as  $N \rightarrow \infty$ .

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<sup>5</sup>See <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Factorial>.

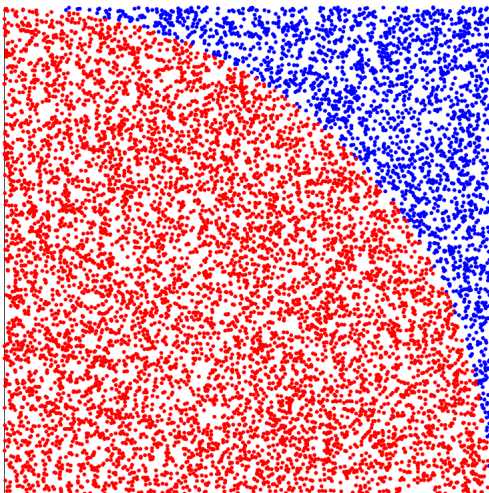
## Numerical Example: Monte Carlo Simulation<sup>6</sup>

- Write a program to estimate  $\pi$ .
- Let  $N$  be the total number of points and  $M$  be the number of points falling in a quarter circle, illustrated in the next page.
- The algorithm states as follows:
  - For each round, draw a point by invoking **Math.random()** twice and check if the point falls in the quarter circle.
  - If so, then do `M++`; otherwise, ignore it.
  - Repeat the previous two steps for  $N$  rounds.
- Hence we can calculate the estimate

$$\hat{\pi} = 4 \times \frac{M}{N}.$$

---

<sup>6</sup>See [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Monte\\_Carlo\\_method](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Monte_Carlo_method).





```

1 ...
2     int N = 100000;
3     int M = 0;
4
5     for (int i = 1; i <= N; i++) {
6
7         double x = Math.random();
8         double y = Math.random();
9
10        if (x * x + y * y < 1) M++;
11
12    }
13
14    System.out.println("pi ~ " + 4.0 * M / N);
15    // Why 4.0 but not 4?
16 ...

```

- Note that  $\hat{\pi} \rightarrow \pi$  as  $N \rightarrow \infty$  by **the law of large numbers (LLN)**.<sup>7</sup>
- This algorithm is one example of **Monte Carlo simulation**.<sup>8</sup>

<sup>7</sup>See [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Law\\_of\\_large\\_numbers](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Law_of_large_numbers).

<sup>8</sup>See [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Monte\\_Carlo\\_method](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Monte_Carlo_method). 

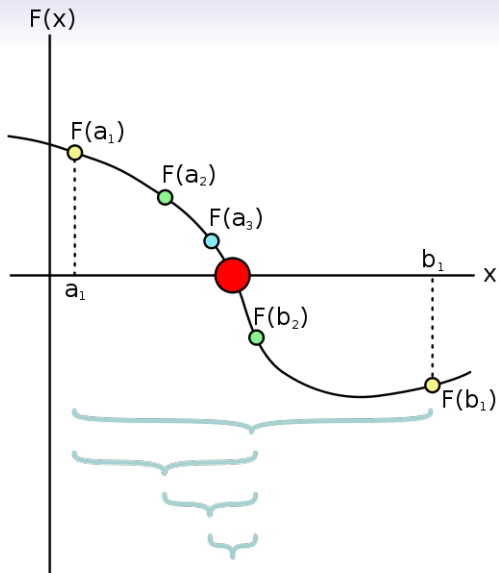
## Numerical Example: Root Finding

- Consider to find the root for the polynomial  $x^3 - x - 2$ .
- Choose  $a = 1$  and  $b = 2$  as **initial guess**.<sup>9</sup>
- By the **bisection method**<sup>10</sup>, divide the search interval into two sub-intervals, and decide which sub-interval is the next search interval.
- The algorithm will stop to output the approximate root when it meets the preset **error tolerance**, say  $\varepsilon = 10^{-9}$ . (Why?)
- This strikes a balance **between efficiency and accuracy**.

---

<sup>9</sup>For most of numerical algorithms, say Newton's method, we need an initial guess to start the root-finding procedure. Even more, the result is severely sensitive to an initial guess.

<sup>10</sup>It is also called the **binary search**. See [Bisection Method](#). 



[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bisection\\_method#/media/File:Bisection\\_method.svg](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bisection_method#/media/File:Bisection_method.svg)

```
1 ...
2     double a = 1, b = 2, c = 0, eps = 1e-9;
3
4     while (b - a > eps) {
5
6         c = (a + b) / 2; // Find the middle point.
7
8         double fa = a * a * a - a - 2;
9         double fc = c * c * c - c - 2;
10
11        if (fa * fc < 0) {
12            b = c;
13        } else {
14            a = c;
15        }
16
17    }
18
19    System.out.println("Root = " + c);
20    double residual = c * c * c - c - 2;
21    System.out.println("Residual = " + residual);
22 ...
```

## Jump Statements: Example

The statement `break` and `continue` are often used to provide additional controls in repetition structures.

```
1 for (int i = 1; i <= 5; ++i) {
2
3     if (i == 3) {
4         break;
5         // Early termination.
6     }
7
8     System.out.println(i);
9 }
10 // Output: 1 2
```

```
1 for (int i = 1; i <= 5; ++i) {
2
3     if (i == 3) {
4         continue;
5         // Skip this round.
6     }
7
8     System.out.println(i);
9 }
10 // Output: 1 2 4 5
```

## Example: Primality Test<sup>11</sup>

Write a program to check if the input integer is a prime number.

- Let  $x$  be any integer larger than 2.
- Then  $x$  is a **prime number** if  $x$  has **no** positive divisors other than 1 and itself.
- It is straightforward to divide  $x$  by all integers from 2 to  $x - 1$ .
- To speed up, divide  $x$  by only integers smaller than  $\sqrt{x}$  instead of  $x$ . (Why?)

<sup>11</sup>See [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Primality\\_test](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Primality_test).

```
1 ...
2     Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
3     System.out.println("Enter x > 2?");
4     int x = input.nextInt();
5     boolean isPrime = true;
6     input.close();
7
8     for (int y = 2; y <= Math.sqrt(x); y++) {
9         if (x % y == 0) {
10             isPrime = false;
11             break;
12         }
13     }
14
15     if (isPrime) {
16         System.out.println("Prime");
17     } else {
18         System.out.println("Composite");
19     }
20 ...
```

## Example: Cashier (Revisited)

```
1 ...
2     while (true) {
3
4         System.out.println("Enter price?");
5         price = input.nextInt();
6         if (price <= 0) break; // Stop criteria.
7         total += price;
8
9     }
10    System.out.println("Total = " + total);
11 ...
```



# Remarks

- The **while** loops are equivalent to the **for** loops.
- You can always rewrite the **for** loops by the **while** loops, and versa.
- In practice, you could use a **for** loop when the number of repetitions is known.
- Otherwise, a **while** loop is preferred.

## One More Example: Compounding

Write a program to determine the holding years for an investment doubling its value.

- Let *balance* be the current amount, *goal* be the goal of this investment, and *r* be the annual interest rate (%).
- The compounding formula is represented in recursive form:

$$\textit{balance} = \textit{balance} \times (1 + r / 100.0).$$

- Output the holding years with the final balance.

```
1 ...
2     int r = 18; // In percentage.
3     int balance = 100;
4     int goal = 200;
5
6     int years = 0;
7     while (balance < goal) {
8         balance *= (1 + r / 100.0);
9         years++;
10    }
11
12    System.out.println("Holding years = " + years);
13    System.out.println("Balance = " + balance);
14 ...
```

- If the interests are paid monthly, how many months you may hold to reach the goal?

```
1 ...
2     int years = 0; // Should be declared here; scope issue.
3     for (; balance < goal; years++) {
4         balance *= (1 + r / 100.0);
5     }
6 ...
```

```
1 ...
2     int years = 1; // Why?
3     for (; ; years++) {
4         balance *= (1 + r / 100.0);
5         if (balance >= goal) break;
6     }
7 ...
```

- Leaving the condition blank assumes **true**.

## Nested Loops: Example

Write a program to print the  $9 \times 9$  multiplication table.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18
3	6	9	12	15	18	21	24	27
4	8	12	16	20	24	28	32	36
5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	45
6	12	18	24	30	36	42	48	54
7	14	21	28	35	42	49	56	63
8	16	24	32	40	48	56	64	72
9	18	27	36	45	54	63	72	81

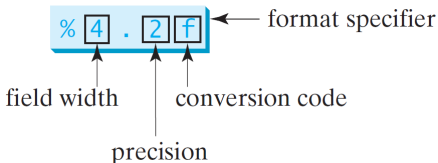
```
1 ...
2     public static void main(String[] args) {
3
4         for (int i = 1; i <= 9; ++i) {
5
6             // In row i, output each i * j.
7             for (int j = 1; j <= 9; ++j) {
8                 System.out.printf("%3d", i * j);
9             }
10            System.out.println();
11
12        }
13
14    }
15 ...
```

- For each  $i$ , the inner loop goes from  $j = 1$  to  $j = 9$ .
- As an analog,  $i$  acts like the hour hand of the clock, while  $j$  acts like the minute hand of the clock.

## Digression: Output Format

- Use **System.out.printf()** to display **formatted** outputs.
- For example,

```
1 ...  
2     System.out.printf("Pi = %4.2f", 3.1415926);  
3     // Output 3.14.  
4 ...
```



- Without specifying the width, only 6 digits after the decimal point are displayed.

Format specifier	Corresponding type	Example
%b	boolean	true, false
%c	char	a
%d	int	123
%f	float, double	3.141592
%e	float, double	6.626070e-34
%s	String	NTU

- By default, the output is **right** justified.
- If a value requires more spaces than the specified width, then the width is automatically increased.
- You may try various parameters such as the plus sign (+), the minus sign (-), and 0 in the middle of format specifiers.
  - Say %+8.2f, %-8.2f, and %08.2f.



## Formatted Output with Multiple Items

```
int count = 5;  
double amount = 45.56;  
System.out.printf("count is %d and amount is %f", count, amount);
```



display

count is 5 and amount is 45.560000

- All items must match the format specifiers **in order**, **in number**, and **in exact type**.

# Exercise: Triangles

```
*  
* *  
* * *  
* * * *  
* * * * *
```

Case (a)

```
* * * * *  
* * * *  
* * *  
* *  
*
```

Case (b)

```
          *  
        * *  
      * * *  
    * * * *  
  * * * * *
```

Case (c)

```
* * * * *  
  * * * *  
    * * *  
      * *  
        *
```

Case (d)

```
1 ...
2
3 // Case (a)
4 for (int i = 1; i <= 5; i++) {
5     for (int j = 1; j <= i; j++) {
6         System.out.printf("*");
7     }
8     System.out.println();
9 }
10
11 // Case (b)
12 // Your work here.
13
14 // Case (c)
15 // Your work here.
16
17 // Case (d)
18 // Your work here.
19
20 ...
```

# Analysis of Algorithms

- A problem may be solved by various algorithms.
- We compare these algorithms by measuring their **efficiency**.
- Adopting a theoretical approach, we identify the **growth rate** of running time in function of **input size  $n$** .
- This introduces the notion of **time complexity**.<sup>12</sup>
- Let's analyze the following two examples.

---

<sup>12</sup>See [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Time\\_complexity](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Time_complexity). Similar to time complexity, we later turn to the notion of **space complexity**.

## Example 1: SUM

```
1 ...
2     int sum = 0, i = 1; // Assign          -> 2.
3     while (i <= n) {    // Compare         -> n + 1.
4         sum = sum + i;  // Add and assign  -> 2n.
5         ++i;           // Increase by 1  -> n.
6     }
7 ...
```

- Let  $n$  be any nonnegative number.
- Then count the number of all runtime operations.
- Note that we ignore declarations in the calculation. (Why?)
- In this case, the total number of operations is  $4n + 3$ .

## Example 2: TRIANGLE

```
*  
* *  
* * *  
* * * *  
* * * * *  
:  
:
```

```
1 ...  
2     for (int i = 1; i <= n; i++) {  
3         for (int j = 1; j <= i; j++)  
4             System.out.printf("*");  
5         System.out.println();  
6     }  
7 ...
```

- We estimate the time cost by counting the total number of asterisks:

$$1 + 2 + \dots + n = \frac{(1 + n) \times n}{2}.$$

## Big O Notation<sup>13</sup>

- Let  $f(n)$  be the time cost of your algorithm, and  $g(n)$  be some simple function.
- We define

$$f(n) = O(g(n)) \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

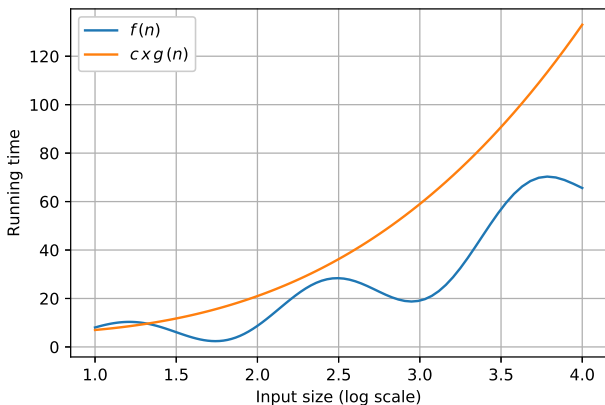
provided that there is a constant  $c > 0$  and some  $n_0$  such that

$$f(n) \leq c \times g(n), \quad \forall n \geq n_0.$$

- No clue? See the illustration shown in the next page.

---

<sup>13</sup>See [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Big\\_O\\_notation](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Big_O_notation). You can also check the other 4 symbols ( $o$ ,  $\Theta$ ,  $\Omega$ , and  $\omega$ ) in any algorithm textbook.



- Clearly,  $g(n)$  is the **asymptotic upper bound** of  $f(n)$ .<sup>14</sup>
- In other words, Big  $O$  implies the **worst** case of the algorithm.
- We then classify the algorithms in Big  $O$  sense.

<sup>14</sup>See [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Big\\_O\\_notation#Infinite\\_asymptotics](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Big_O_notation#Infinite_asymptotics).



## Discussions (1/4)

- Assume that the algorithm takes  $8n^2 - 3n + 4$  steps.
- When  $n$  becomes large enough, the leading term dominates the whole behavior of the polynomial.
- So we simply focus on the leading term.
- It is easy to find a constant, say  $c = 9$ , so that  $9n^2 \geq 8n^2$  holds.
- We then conclude that

$$8n^2 - 3n + 4 = O(n^2).$$

- It could say that the algorithm runs in  $O(n^2)$  time.

## Discussions (2/4)

- It is clear that SUM runs in  $O(n)$  time and TRIANGLE runs in  $O(n^2)$  time. (Why?)
- As a thumb rule,  $k$ -level loops run in  $O(n^k)$  time.
- Determine the time complexity for the loop shown below.

```
1 ...
2     for (int i = 1; i <= n; i++) {
3         for (int j = 1; j <= i; j++) {
4             for (int k = 1; k <= 5; k++) {
5                 // Loop body.
6             }
7         }
8     }
9     // This algorithm runs in O( ? ) time.
10 ...
```

## Discussions (3/4): Which Will You Choose?

Benchmark

Size	$O(n)$	$O(n^2)$	$O(n^3)$
1	$c_1$	$c_2$	$c_3$
10	$10c_1$	$100c_2$	$1000c_3$
100	$100c_1$	$10000c_2$	$1000000c_3$

- In theory, the smaller the order, the faster the algorithm.

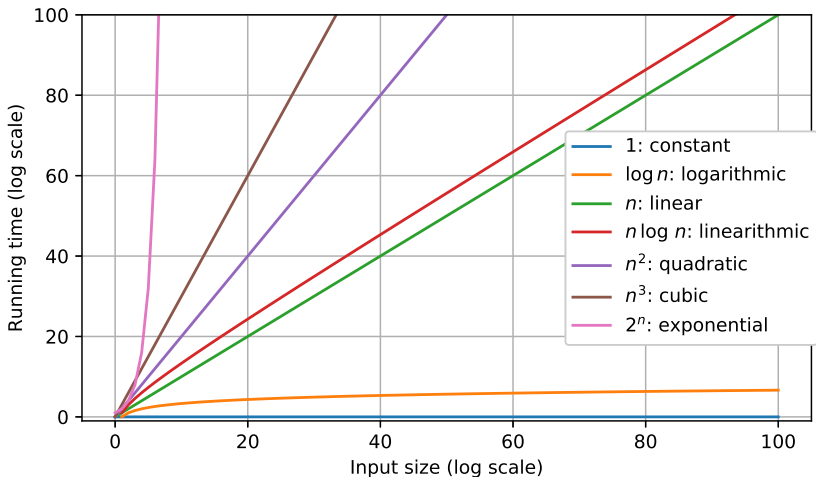
## Discussions (4/4)

- It is worth to note that

$$8n^2 - 3n + 4 \neq O(n), \text{ and } 8n^2 - 3n + 4 = O(n^3). \text{ (Why?)}$$

- We would say that  $8n^2 - 3n + 4 = O(n^2)$  for complexity analysis. (Why?)

# Orders of Growth Rates



## Big O Table

Growth order	Description	Example
$O(1)$	independent of $n$	$x = y + z$
$O(\log n)$	divide in half	binary search
$O(n)$	one loop	find maximum
$O(n \log n)$	divide and conquer	merge sort
$O(n^2)$	double loop	check all pairs
$O(n^3)$	triple loop	check all triples
$O(2^n)$	exhaustive search	check all subsets

# Constant-Time Algorithms

- Basic instructions (e.g.  $+$ ) run in  $O(1)$  time. (Why?)
- Some algorithms indeed run in  $O(1)$  time, for example, the arithmetic formulas. (Why?)
- However, there is no free lunch. (Why?)
- We should strike a balance by making a trade-off between **generality** and **efficiency**.
  - To reuse the program, it must be a general solution whose assumption should be little and weak.
  - To speed up the program, it could be optimized for the desire cases (so making assumptions).

- In addition, a program without writing explicit loops may not run in  $O(1)$  time.
- For example, calling **Arrays.sort()** still takes more than  $O(1)$  time to finish the sorting task.
- All in all, the time complexity is about the effort spent on the task but not how many time you sacrifice.



# Exponential-Time Algorithms & Computability

- We, in fact, are overwhelmed by lots of **intractable** problems.
  - For example, the travelling salesman problem (TSP).<sup>15</sup>
  - Playing game well is hard.<sup>16</sup>
- Even worse, Turing (1936) proved the first undecidable (unsolvable) problem, called the **halting problem**.<sup>17</sup>
- You can find any textbook for **theory of computation** or **computational complexity** for further details.

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<sup>15</sup>See [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Travelling\\_salesman\\_problem](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Travelling_salesman_problem).

<sup>16</sup>See [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Game\\_complexity](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Game_complexity). Check out [AlphaGo](#).

<sup>17</sup>See [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Halting\\_problem](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Halting_problem)



# Logarithmic-Time Algorithms

- We have met one of logarithmic-time algorithms. (Which?)
- In conclusion, the log-time algorithms run much faster than the linear-time algorithms.
- However, the log-time algorithms require one assumption: **ordered sequence**.
- You will learn this kind of algorithms in any course about algorithms and data structures.

## Outstanding Theoretical Problem<sup>19</sup>

$$\mathbb{P} \stackrel{?}{=} \text{NP}$$

- In layman's term,  $\mathbb{P}$  is the problem set of “being solved and verified in polynomial time.”
- $\text{NP}$  is the problem set of “being verified in polynomial time but **perhaps being solved in exponential time.**”
  - For example, id verification is easier than hacking an account.
- One could say that  $\mathbb{P}$  is easier than  $\text{NP}$ .
- $\mathbb{P} \stackrel{?}{=} \text{NP}$  asks if  $\text{NP}$  is solved by  $\mathbb{P}$ .
- It is still an open issue and also one of the Millennium Prize Problems.<sup>18</sup>

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<sup>18</sup>See [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Millennium\\_Prize\\_Problems](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Millennium_Prize_Problems).

<sup>19</sup>See [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/P\\_versus\\_NP\\_problem](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/P_versus_NP_problem) 