

Java Programming

Zheng-Liang Lu

Department of Computer Science & Information Engineering
National Taiwan University

Java 407
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```
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
```

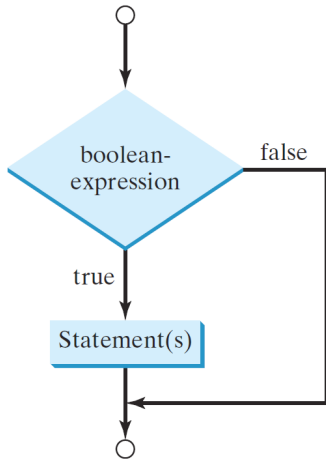
Flow Controls

- 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)

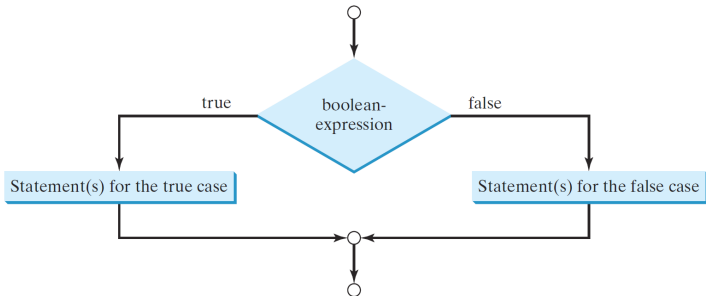
Write a program to receive a positive number as the circle radius and calculate its circle area.

```
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?¹

- **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?)

¹See 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 Breaks²

```
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 ...
```

²Since 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 Loops³

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 ...
```

³Try [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.⁴

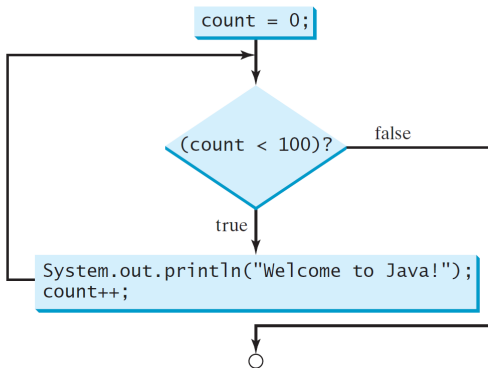
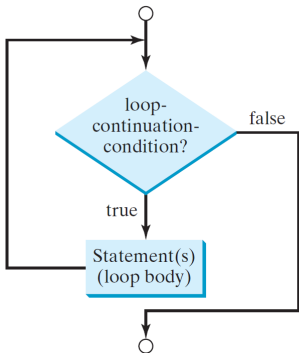
⁴You may check any algorithm textbook or course, say [Algorithms Lab](#).

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.

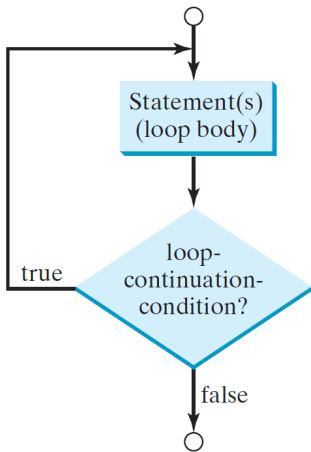
```
1 ...
2     int total = 0, price = 0;
3     Scanner input = new Scanner(System.in);
4
5     System.out.println("Enter price?");
6     price = input.nextInt();
7     while (price > 0) {
8         total += price;
9         System.out.println("Enter price?");
10        price = input.nextInt();
11  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

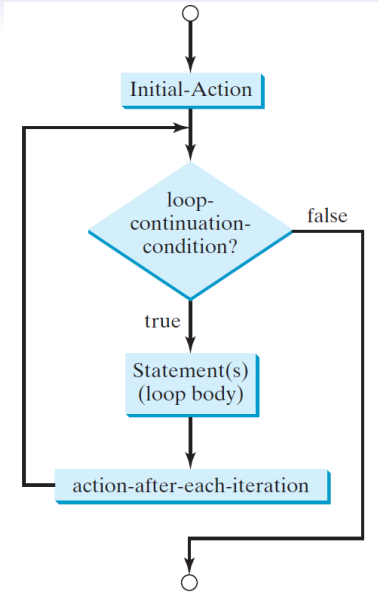
Example: Summation (Revisited)

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 .⁵
 - 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 $N \rightarrow \infty$.

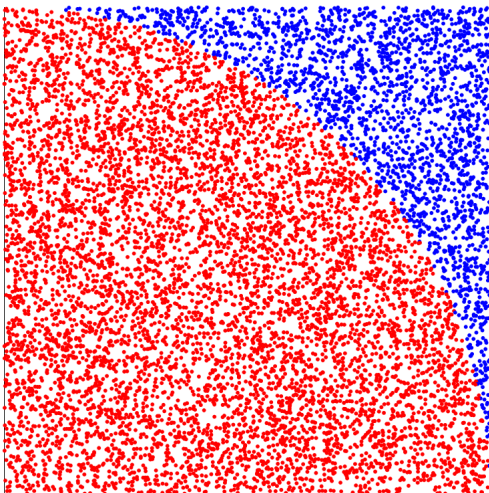
⁵See <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Factorial>.

Numerical Example: Monte Carlo Simulation⁶

- Write a program to estimate π .
- 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

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

⁶See 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)**.⁷
- This algorithm is one example of **Monte Carlo simulation**.⁸

⁷See https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Law_of_large_numbers.

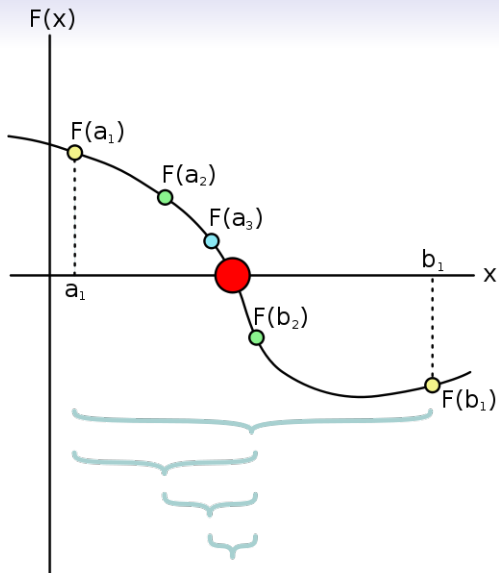
⁸See https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Monte_Carlo_method.

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**.⁹
- By the **bisection method**¹⁰, 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**.

⁹For 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.

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



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 Test¹¹

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?)

¹¹See 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 9×9 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 |

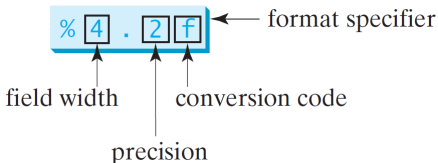
```
1 ...
2     public static void main(String[] args) {
3
4         for (int i = 1; i <= 9; ++i) {
5
6             // In row i, output each i * j.
7             for (int j = 1; j <= 9; ++j) {
8                 System.out.printf("%3d", i * j);
9             }
10            System.out.println();
11
12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

¹²See 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 Notation¹³

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

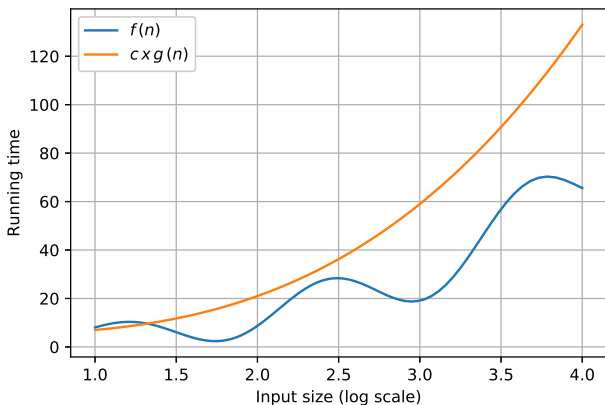
$$f(n) = O(g(n)) \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

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.

¹³See https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Big_O_notation. You can also check the other 4 symbols (o , Θ , Ω , and ω) in any algorithm textbook.



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

¹⁴See 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.

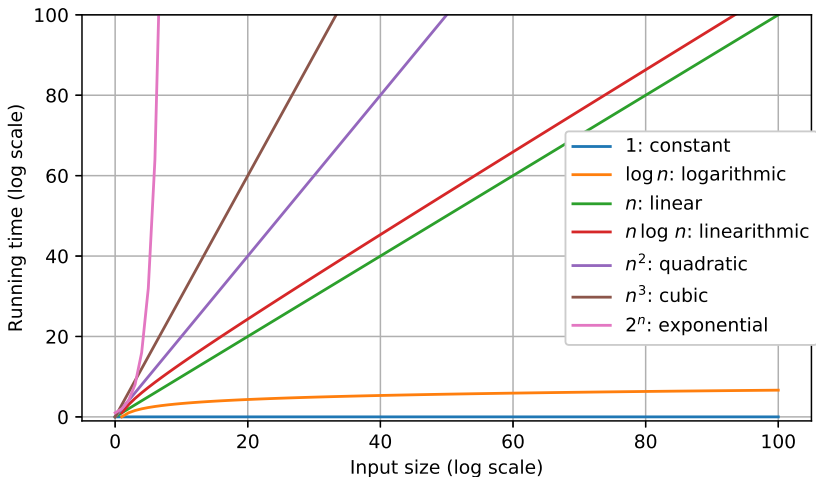
Discussions (4/4)

- 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).¹⁵
 - Playing game well is hard.¹⁶
- Even worse, Turing (1936) proved the first undecidable (unsolvable) problem, called the **halting problem**.¹⁷
- You can find any textbook for **theory of computation** or **computational complexity** for further details.

¹⁵See https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Travelling_salesman_problem.

¹⁶See https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Game_complexity. Check out [AlphaGo](#).

¹⁷See 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 Problem¹⁹

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

- In layman's term, \mathbb{P} is the problem set of “being solved and verified in polynomial time.”
- 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 NP .
- $\mathbb{P} \stackrel{?}{=} \text{NP}$ asks if NP is solved by \mathbb{P} .
- It is still an open issue and also one of the Millennium Prize Problems.¹⁸

¹⁸See https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Millennium_Prize_Problems.

¹⁹See https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/P_versus_NP_problem