

Note: This example document is provided for illustrative purposes. The solutions below are not guaranteed to be correct or relevant.

Problem 1

An assembly language program implements the following loop:

```
1  int A[51];
2  int i = 1;
3  while(i <= 50) {
4      A[i] = i;
5      i++;
6  }
```

The array of integers A is stored at memory location $x + 200$, where x is the address of the memory location where the assembly program is loaded.

Write the assembly program using the assembly language introduced in class.

x + 0	LOAD	R1, \$200	; $A = (\text{program location}) + 200$
x + 4	LOAD	R2, =1	; $i = 1$
x + 8	LOOP:	STORE R2, @R1	; $*A = i$
x + 12	ADD	R1, =4	; $A++$
x + 16	INC	R2	; $i++$
x + 20	BLEQ	R2, =50, LOOP	; <i>Ensure $i \leq 50$</i>
x + 24	HALT		

Problem 1.11

Direct memory access is used for high-speed IO devices in order to avoid increasing the CPU's execution load.

1. How does the CPU interface with the device to coordinate the transfer?
 2. How does the CPU know when the memory operations are complete?
 3. The CPU is allowed to execute other programs while the DMA controller is transferring data. Does this process interfere with the execution of user programs? If so, describe what forms of interference are caused.
1. The CPU sets up “buffers, pointers, and counters for the IO device” and then ignores the transaction entirely; because DMA transfers don't involve the CPU at all, they're especially efficient because they don't saturate the CPU bus.
 2. The device controller sends a CPU interrupt when each block of data finishes transferring.
 3. A DMA transfer only interferes with user programs as much as any other IO operation might, i.e. the program may not be able to complete other meaningful work before the transfer finishes. From the user's perspective, a DMA transfer is indistinguishable from any other type of IO operation.

Additionally, a DMA takes a lock on RAM; while a DMA transfer is in progress, no other processes may access RAM, which can be extremely limiting.

Problem 2

In the following, use either a direct proof for the statements (by giving values for c and n_0 in the definition of big-O notation) or cite the rules given in the lecture notes.

1. $\max(f(n), g(n))$ is $O(f(n) + g(n))$. Assume that $f(n)$ and $g(n)$ are non-negative for $n > 0$
2. If $d(n)$ is $O(f(n))$ and $e(n)$ is $O(g(n))$, then the product $d(n) \cdot e(n)$ is $O(f(n) \cdot g(n))$
3. $(n + 1)^5$ is $O(n^5)$
4. n^2 is $\Omega(n \log n)$
5. $2n^4 - 3n^2 + 32n\sqrt{n} - 5n + 60$ is $\Theta(n^4)$
6. $5n\sqrt{n} \cdot \log n$ is $O(n^2)$

“Rule n ” should be taken to refer to the n th rule on page 3 of the 5th lecture notes, and “ a is faster-growing than b ” is written as “ $O(a) > O(b)$ ”.

1. Given that big-O notation describes asymptotic growth, only the fastest-growing term matters — therefore, given some a and b that are functions of n , $O(a) > O(b) \implies O(a + b) = O(a)$.

$\max(a, b)$ is defined to be the greater of a and b , so $\max(a, b) \geq a$ and $\max(a, b) \geq b$. If $O(a) > O(b)$, $O(\max(a, b)) = O(a)$ (and vice-versa).

Given these facts, if $O(f(n)) > O(g(n))$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \max(f(n), g(n)) = f(n)$. Alternatively, if $O(f(n)) < O(g(n))$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \max(f(n), g(n)) = g(n)$. More briefly, $O(\max(f(n), g(n))) = O(f(n))$ or $O(g(n))$.

And finally, because $O(a) > O(b) \implies O(a + b) = O(a)$ and $O(a) < O(b) \implies O(a + b) = O(b)$, we may note that $O(a + b)$ simplifies to the faster-growing of $O(a)$ and $O(b)$. The mathematical operation for “the greater of two terms” is $\max(a, b)$, so $\max(f(n), g(n)) = O(f(n) + g(n))$.

2. This is true as stated in rule 3, although it’s very similar to how $O(a) > O(b) \implies O(a + b) = O(a)$ — in the asymptotic case, the smaller factor becomes irrelevant.
3. Given that $(n + 1)^5 = n^5 + 5n^4 + 10n^3 + 10n^2 + 5n + 1$ and as rule 5 states, only the highest degree of a polynomial matters (because $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=0}^{i=k} a_i n^i = a_k n^k$), $(n + 1)^5 = O(n^5)$.
4. $c = 1, n_0 = 1$
5. $c_1 = 1, c_2 = 3, n_0 = 4$
6. $c = 2, n_0 = 1$

Problem 3

What do the following two algorithms do? Analyze its worst-case running time and express it using big-O notation.

```
1 Foo(a, n)
2   Input:  two integers, a and n
3   Output: a^n
4   k ← 0
5   b ← 1
6   while k < n do
7       k ← k + 1
8       b ← b * a
9   return b

1 Bar(a, n)
2   Input:  two integers, a and n
3   Output: a^n
4   k ← n
5   b ← 1
6   c ← a
7   while k > 0 do
8       if k mod 2 = 0 then
9           k ← k/2
10          c ← c * c
11       else
12          k ← k - 1
13          b ← b * c
14   return b
```

$\text{Foo}(a, n)$ computes a^n , and will run in $O(n)$ time always.

$\text{Bar}(a, n)$ also computes a^n , and runs in $O(\log n)$ time — this is referred to as exponentiation by squaring.

Problem 5.4

Consider the following set of processes, with the length of the CPU burst given in milliseconds:

Process	Burst time	Priority
P_1	10	3
P_2	1	1
P_3	2	3
P_4	1	4
P_5	5	2

The processes are assumed to have arrived in the order P_1, P_2, P_3, P_4, P_5 , all at time 0.

1. Draw four Gantt charts that illustrate the execution of these processes using the following scheduling algorithms: FCFS, SJF, nonpreemptive priority (a smaller priority number implies a higher priority), and RR (quantum = 1).
2. What is the turnaround time of each process for each of these scheduling algorithms?
3. What is the waiting time of each process for each of the scheduling algorithms?
4. Which of the algorithms results in the minimum average waiting time (over all processes)?

1. SJF

Average wait = 3.2.

Process	Turnaround	Waiting
P_1	19	9
P_2	1	0
P_3	4	2
P_4	2	1
P_5	9	4

