

(Q.1)

Definition of Complexity - Complexity of an algorithm refers to a measure of amount of resources it consumes when solving a problem. Resources can be time or space. Complexity helps in evaluating the efficiency of an algorithm.

Types of Complexities -

(1) Time Complexity - Measures the time taken by an algorithm to run as a function of input size n .

(2) Space Complexity - Measures the amount of memory used by an algorithm during execution.

(Q.2)

Types of Recursion

Direct Recursion \rightarrow function calls itself directly.

Indirect Recursion \rightarrow function calls another function which eventually calls the first function.

Tail Recursion \rightarrow Recursive call is the last statement in the function.

Non-tail recursion \rightarrow Recursive call is not the last statement; more operations follow after recursion.

(Q.3)

Index Formula for a 2D array (Row)

Rows stand one after another in memory.

$$\text{Address } A[i][j] = B(A) + ((i \times n) + j) \times m$$

where

$B(A)$ = Base address

i = row index (0-based)

j = column — (→)

n = number of columns

m = size of each element in memory.

- Explanation → *
- * Each row has n elements
 - * To reach row i , skip (ixn) elements
 - * Then move j elements into the row.

4) Search Techniques

Searching is the process of finding the location or presence of a specific element in a data structure like an array or list.

Types → (1) Linear Search

- * Checks each element one by one until the desired element is found.
- * Works on both sorted & unsorted arrays
- * T.C = $O(n)$

(2) Binary Search

- * Works only on sorted arrays
- * Divides the array into halves and repeatedly checks the middle element.
- * T.C = $O(\log n)$

⇒ Binary Search Algorithm

- (1) Find the middle element of the array.
- (2) If middle element = target → element found.
- (3) If target < middle → search in left half.
- (4) If target > middle → search in right half.
- (5) Repeat steps 1-4 until the element is found or the subarray size becomes 0.

(Q.5) Quick Sort Algorithm

- (1) Choose a pivot element from the array
- (2) Partition the array into 2 subarrays:
 - * Elements less than pivot.
 - * — greater than —

- (3) Recursively apply quick sort to the subarray
- Combine the results.

T.C \Rightarrow Best/Avg case : $O(n \log n)$
 Worst case : $O(n^2)$

Real-life Example →

Quick sort is used in database systems to sort large datasets efficiently e.g. sorting a list of students by marks before generating a rank list.

(Q.6) Iterative Algo for Fibonacci series.

- (1) Input n
- (2) Initialize $a=0, b=1$
- (3) if $n=0$, return a ,
- (4) if $n=1$, return b

- (5) for $i = 2$ to n :
- (6) $\text{fib} = a + b$;
- (7) $a = b$;
- (8) $b = \text{fib}$

(9) Return b as the n^{th} fibonacci number.

Explanation -

Starts from the first two fibonacci numbers (0 & 1)

Iteratively calculates the next number by adding the previous two.

Avoids recursion, so it is faster & uses less memory than recursive methods.

(Q.7) Circular Linked List (CLL)

- * Last node points back to the first node, forming a circle.

- * Unlike a singly linked list, there is no NULL at the end.

Applications -

- * Efficient for repeatedly traversing the list

- * Used in buffered queues and round-robin scheduling.

- * Useful in systems that require cyclic traversal, like multiplayer games or operating system process scheduling.

Deletion in CLL :-

- (1) Input - Head pointers of CLL, key to delete

- (2) If the list is empty, return NULL

- (3) If the node to delete is the only node:

- * Set Head = NULL ; return Head.

- (4) If deleting the head node :

- ★ Traverse to last node
- ★ Set last node's next to head's next
- ★ Update head to head's next
- ★ Free the deleted node.

(b)

(5) If deleting other nodes

- ★ Traverse the list to find the node with k.
- ★ keeping track of previous node
- ★ Set previous.next = current.next

(6) Free the current node

(7) Return the updated head

Explanation

Maintains circular nature after deletion

Works for head node, middle node, & single-node list.

Q. 9

(8) (a) Recursive Approach

Function calls itself to solve a smaller problem

Each Recursive call uses system call stack memory
Can lead to stack overflow for large inputs

Higher memory consumption, because each call stores local variables, return address, etc.

Easier implementation

Slower for deep recursion due to call overhead

Iterative Approach

Uses loops to repeat operations without function calling itself

Uses constant stack space. No risk of stack overflow for loops.

Lower, only variables in current iteration are stored.

May require more costly extra variables to minimize recursion.

Faster, no extra call overhead.

(b) Recursive program to compute Factorial

class Factorial {

 static int factorial (int n) {

 if (n==0 || n==1) {

 return 1;

 }

 return n * factorial(n-1); }

 public static void main (String [] args) {

 int num = 5;

 System.out.println ("Factorial:" + factorial (num));

 }

(Q.9) Linked Lists for Polynomial Representation

Application

- * Polynomials can have variable numbers of terms, so dynamic memory allocation is helpful.
- * Linked Lists allow storing each term as a node containing :— coefficient, exponent, pointer to next node.

⇒ Advantages —

- Flexible size, no need to allocate a fixed array.
- Easy insertion or deletion of terms.
- Efficient for sparse polynomials

Node Structure Example:-

class PolyNode {

 int coeff;

 int exp;

 PolyNode next;

 PolyNode (int c, int e) {

 coeff = c;

 exp = e;

 next = null;

(16) Addition of Two Polynomials Using LL.

Date _____
Page No. _____

- * Traverse both polynomial lists simultaneously.
- * Compare exponents:
 - If exponents are equal → add coefficients.
 - If 1 exponent is larger → copy that term to result.
- * Continue until both lists are fully traversed.

Algorithm

Initialize result linked list as NULL

Traverse both polynomials (p_1 & p_2);

If $p_1.\text{exp} > p_2.\text{exp}$, add p_1 terms to result, move p_1 forward.

If $p_2.\text{exp} == p_1.\text{exp}$, sum coefficients, add to result, move both forward.

Append remaining terms of p_1 or p_2 if any.

Return the result list.

⇒ Explanations:-

- * Each node represents a polynomial terms.
- * Traversal ensures sorted exponents are handled correctly.
- * Result is a new Linked list representing the sum.

⇒ Applications in real life :-

- * Symbolic mathematics programs
- * Computer algebra systems.
- * Any system dealing with dynamic or sparse polynomial operations.

97

Date			
Page No.			

class Polynomial Add {

```
static PolyNode addPoly (PolyNode p1, PolyNode p2) {
```

```
PolyNode result = null, tail = null;
```

```
while (p1 != null && p2 != null) {
```

```
PolyNode temp;
```

```
if (p1.exp > p2.exp) {
```

```
temp = new PolyNode (p1.coeff, p1.exp);
```

```
p1 = p1.next;
```

```
} else if (p2.exp > p1.exp) {
```

```
temp = new PolyNode (p2.coeff, p2.exp);
```

```
p2 = p2.next;
```

```
} else {
```

```
temp = new PolyNode (p1.coeff + p2.coeff,  
p1.exp);
```

```
p1 = p1.next;
```

```
p2 = p2.next; }
```

```
if (result == null) {
```

```
result = tail = temp;
```

```
} else {
```

```
tail.next = temp;
```

```
tail = temp;
```

```
}
```

```
while (p1 != null) {
```

```
PolyNode temp = new PolyNode (p1.coeff, p1.exp);
```

```
tail.next = temp;
```

```
tail = temp;
```

```
p1 = p1.next;
```

```
} while (p2 != null) {
```

```
PolyNode temp = new PolyNode (p2.coeff, p2.exp);
```

```
tail.next = temp;
```

```

tail = temp;
p2 = p2.next;
> return result;
>
static void printPoly (PolyNode head) {
    while (head != null) {
        SOP (head.coeff + "x^" + head.exp);
        if (head.next != null)
            SOP ("+");
        head = head.next;
    }
    SOPL ();
}

```

```

public static void main (String [] args) {
    PolyNode p1 = new PolyNode (5, 2);
    p1.next = new PolyNode (7, 1);
    PolyNode p2 = new PolyNode (5, 1);
    p2.next = new PolyNode (5, 0);
    PolyNode sum = addPoly (p1, p2);
    printPoly (sum);
}

```

>

OR

Case Study → Merge Sort Algorithm

- 1) Input : Array A [0...n-1]
- 2) Output : Sorted array A [0...n-1]

- 3) if array has 1 or 0 elements, return
- 4) Divide the array into two halves
 - left = A [0...mid]
 - right = A [mid+1...n-1]

- 5) Recursively call mergeSort (left) and mergeSort (right)

(99)

- a) Merge the two sorted halves using a merge function
- b) Compare elements from left and right.
- c) Pick the smaller element and put it into the result array.
- d) Continue until all elements are merged

→ Java Code:

class MergeSort {

```
static void MS (int arr[], int l, int m, int r) {
    int n1 = m - l + 1;
    int n2 = r - m;
    int L[] = new int [n1];
    int R[] = new int [n2];
    for (int i=0; i<n1; i++) L[i] = arr[l+i];
    for (int j=0; j<n2; j++) R[j] = arr[m+1+j];
    int i=0, j=0, k=l;
    while (i < n1 && j < n2) {
        if (L[i] <= R[j]) arr[k++] = L[i++];
        else arr[k++] = R[j++];
    }
    while (i < n1) arr[k++] = L[i++];
    while (j < n2) arr[k++] = R[j++];
}
```

static void merge (int arr[], int l, int r) {

if (l < r) {

int m = l + (r - l) / 2;

merge (arr, l, m);

merge (arr, m+1, r);

merge (arr, l, m, r);

public static void main (String [] args) {
 int arr[] = {12, 11, 13, 5, 6, 7};

merge (arr, 0, arr.length - 1);

for (int num : arr) System.out.print (num + " ");

50

Date _____
Page No. _____

- Significance in Large Dataset sorting.
- * Consistent $O(n \log n)$ complexity which is reliable for large data.
 - * Stable and predictable performance.
 - * Can be adapted for external sorting when data does not fit in memory.
 - * Excellent for parallel processing because subarrays can be sorted independently.