BASIC DATA STRUCTURES

Data Definition

Data Definition defines a particular data with the following characteristics.

- **Atomic** − Definition should define a single concept.
- **Traceable** − Definition should be able to be mapped to some data element.
- **Accurate** − Definition should be unambiguous.
- **Clear and Concise** − Definition should be understandable.

Data Object

Data Object represents an object having a data.

Data Type

Data type is a way to classify various types of data such as integer, string, etc. which determines the values that can be used with the corresponding type of data, the type of operations that can be performed on the corresponding type of data. There are two data types −

- Built-in Data Type
- Derived Data Type

Built-in Data Type

Those data types for which a language has built-in support are known as Built-in Data types. For example, most of the languages provide the following built-in data types.

- Integers
- Boolean (true, false)
- Floating (Decimal numbers)
- Character and Strings

Derived Data Type

Those data types which are implementation independent as they can be implemented in one or the other way are known as derived data types. These data types are normally built by the combination of primary or built-in data types and associated operations on them. For example −

- List
- Array
- Stack
- Queue

Basic Operations

The data in the data structures are processed by certain operations. The particular data structure chosen largely depends on the frequency of the operation that needs to be performed on the data structure.

- Traversing
- Searching
- Insertion
- Deletion
- Sorting
- Merging

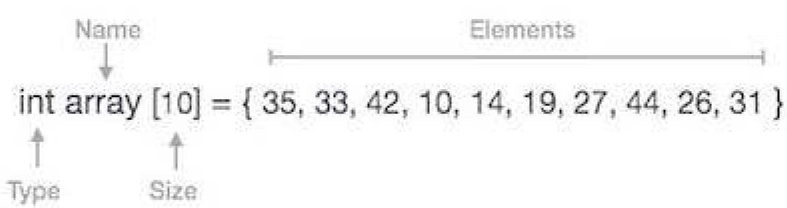
ARRAYS

Array is a container which can hold a fix number of items and these items should be of the same type. Most of the data structures make use of arrays to implement their algorithms. Following are the important terms to understand the concept of Array.

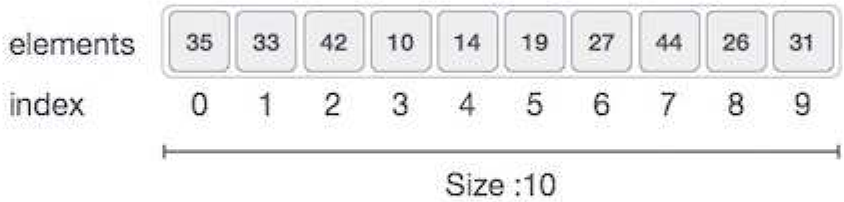
- **Element** − Each item stored in an array is called an element.
- **Index** − Each location of an element in an array has a numerical index, which is used to identify the element.

Array Representation

Arrays can be declared in various ways in different languages. For illustration, let's take C array declaration.



Arrays can be declared in various ways in different languages. For illustration, let's take C array declaration.



As per the above illustration, following are the important points to be considered.

- Index starts with 0.
- Array length is 10 which means it can store 10 elements.
- Each element can be accessed via its index. For example, we can fetch an element at index 6 as 9.

Basic Operations

Following are the basic operations supported by an array.

- **Traverse** − print all the array elements one by one.
- **Insertion** − Adds an element at the given index.
- **Deletion** − Deletes an element at the given index.
- **Search** − Searches an element using the given index or by the value.
- **Update** − Updates an element at the given index.

In C, when an array is initialized with size, then it assigns defaults values to its elements in following order.

Data Type	Default Value
bool	false
char	0
int	0
float	0.0
double	0.0f

void	
wchar_t	0

Traverse Operation

This operation is to traverse through the elements of an array.

Example

Following program traverses and prints the elements of an array:

```
#include <stdio.h>
main() {
   int LA[] = {1,3,5,7,8};
   int item = 10, k = 3, n = 5;
   int i = 0, j = n;
   printf("The original array elements are :\n");
   for(i = 0; i<n; i++) {
      printf("LA[%d] = %d \n", i, LA[i]);
   }
}
```

When we compile and execute the above program, it produces the following result −

Output

```
The original array elements are :
LA[0] = 1
LA[1] = 3
LA[2] = 5
LA[3] = 7
LA[4] = 8
```

Insertion Operation

Insert operation is to insert one or more data elements into an array. Based on the requirement, a new element can be added at the beginning, end, or any given index of array.

Here, we see a practical implementation of insertion operation, where we add data at the end of the array −

Example

Following is the implementation of the above algorithm −

Live Demo

```
#include <stdio.h>

main() {
   int LA[] = {1,3,5,7,8};
   int item = 10, k = 3, n = 5;
   int i = 0, j = n;

   printf("The original array elements are :\n");

   for(i = 0; i<n; i++) {
      printf("LA[%d] = %d \n", i, LA[i]);
   }

   n = n + 1;

   while( j >= k) {
      LA[j+1] = LA[j];
      j = j - 1;
   }

   LA[k] = item;

   printf("The array elements after insertion :\n");

   for(i = 0; i<n; i++) {
      printf("LA[%d] = %d \n", i, LA[i]);
   }
}
```

When we compile and execute the above program, it produces the following result −

Output

```
The original array elements are :
LA[0] = 1
LA[1] = 3
LA[2] = 5
LA[3] = 7
LA[4] = 8
The array elements after insertion :
LA[0] = 1
LA[1] = 3
LA[2] = 5
LA[3] = 10
LA[4] = 7
LA[5] = 8
```

For other variations of array insertion operation click here

Deletion Operation

Deletion refers to removing an existing element from the array and re-organizing all elements of an array.

Algorithm

Consider **LA** is a linear array with **N** elements and **K** is a positive integer such that **K<=N**. Following is the algorithm to delete an element available at the K^{th} position of LA.

```
1. Start
2. Set J = K
3. Repeat steps 4 and 5 while J < N
4. Set LA[J] = LA[J + 1]
5. Set J = J+1
6. Set N = N-1
7. Stop
```

Example

Following is the implementation of the above algorithm −

Live Demo

```
#include <stdio.h>

void main() {
   int LA[] = {1,3,5,7,8};
   int k = 3, n = 5;
   int i, j;

   printf("The original array elements are :\n");

   for(i = 0; i<n; i++) {
      printf("LA[%d] = %d \n", i, LA[i]);
   }

   j = k;

   while( j < n) {
      LA[j-1] = LA[j];
      j = j + 1;
   }

   n = n -1;
```

```
   printf("The array elements after deletion :\n");

   for(i = 0; i<n; i++) {
      printf("LA[%d] = %d \n", i, LA[i]);
   }
}
```

When we compile and execute the above program, it produces the following result −

Output

```
The original array elements are :
LA[0] = 1
LA[1] = 3
LA[2] = 5
LA[3] = 7
LA[4] = 8
The array elements after deletion :
LA[0] = 1
LA[1] = 3
LA[2] = 7
LA[3] = 8
```

Search Operation

You can perform a search for an array element based on its value or its index.

Algorithm

Consider **LA** is a linear array with **N** elements and **K** is a positive integer such that **K<=N**. Following is the algorithm to find an element with a value of ITEM using sequential search.

```
1. Start
2. Set J = 0
3. Repeat steps 4 and 5 while J < N
4. IF LA[J] is equal ITEM THEN GOTO STEP 6
5. Set J = J +1
6. PRINT J, ITEM
7. Stop
```

Example

Following is the implementation of the above algorithm −

Live Demo

```
#include <stdio.h>
```

```c
void main() {
   int LA[] = {1,3,5,7,8};
   int item = 5, n = 5;
   int i = 0, j = 0;

   printf("The original array elements are :\n");

   for(i = 0; i<n; i++) {
      printf("LA[%d] = %d \n", i, LA[i]);
   }

   while( j < n){
      if( LA[j] == item ) {
         break;
      }

      j = j + 1;
   }

   printf("Found element %d at position %d\n", item, j+1);
}
```

When we compile and execute the above program, it produces the following result −

Output

```
The original array elements are :
LA[0] = 1
LA[1] = 3
LA[2] = 5
LA[3] = 7
LA[4] = 8
Found element 5 at position 3
```

Update Operation

Update operation refers to updating an existing element from the array at a given index.

Algorithm

Consider **LA** is a linear array with **N** elements and **K** is a positive integer such that **K<=N**. Following is the algorithm to update an element available at the K^{th} position of LA.

```
1. Start
2. Set LA[K-1] = ITEM
3. Stop
```

Example

Following is the implementation of the above algorithm −

Live Demo

```
#include <stdio.h>

void main() {
   int LA[] = {1,3,5,7,8};
   int k = 3, n = 5, item = 10;
   int i, j;

   printf("The original array elements are :\n");

   for(i = 0; i<n; i++) {
      printf("LA[%d] = %d \n", i, LA[i]);
   }

   LA[k-1] = item;

   printf("The array elements after updation :\n");

   for(i = 0; i<n; i++) {
      printf("LA[%d] = %d \n", i, LA[i]);
   }
}
```

When we compile and execute the above program, it produces the following result −

Output

```
The original array elements are :
LA[0] = 1
LA[1] = 3
LA[2] = 5
LA[3] = 7
LA[4] = 8
The array elements after updation :
LA[0] = 1
LA[1] = 3
LA[2] = 10
LA[3] = 7
LA[4] = 8
```

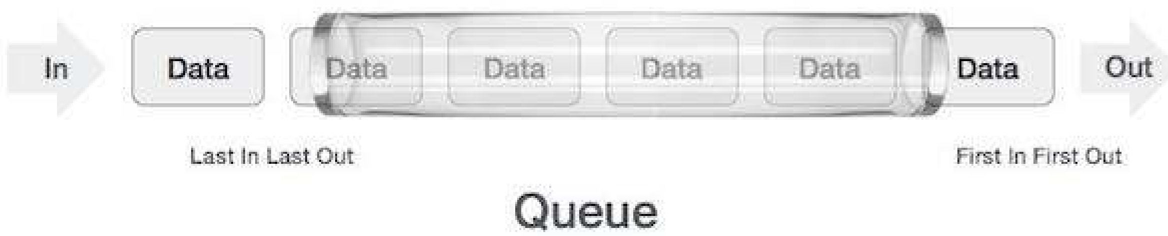
QUEUES

Queue is an abstract data structure, somewhat similar to Stacks. Unlike stacks, a queue is open at both its ends. One end is always used to insert data (enqueue) and the other is used to remove data (dequeue). Queue follows First-In-First-Out methodology, i.e., the data item stored first will be accessed first.

A real-world example of queue can be a single-lane one-way road, where the vehicle enters first, exits first. More real-world examples can be seen as queues at the ticket windows and bus-stops.

Queue Representation

As we now understand that in queue, we access both ends for different reasons. The following diagram given below tries to explain queue representation as data structure −



As in stacks, a queue can also be implemented using Arrays, Linked-lists, Pointers and Structures. For the sake of simplicity, we shall implement queues using one-dimensional array.

Basic Operations

Queue operations may involve initializing or defining the queue, utilizing it, and then completely erasing it from the memory. Here we shall try to understand the basic operations associated with queues −

- **enqueue()** − add (store) an item to the queue.
- **dequeue()** − remove (access) an item from the queue.

Few more functions are required to make the above-mentioned queue operation efficient. These are −

- **peek()** − Gets the element at the front of the queue without removing it.

- **isfull()** − Checks if the queue is full.
- **isempty()** − Checks if the queue is empty.

In queue, we always dequeue (or access) data, pointed by **front** pointer and while enqueing (or storing) data in the queue we take help of **rear** pointer.

Let's first learn about supportive functions of a queue −

peek()

This function helps to see the data at the **front** of the queue. The algorithm of peek() function is as follows −

Algorithm

```
begin procedure peek
   return queue[front]
end procedure
```

Implementation of peek() function in C programming language −

Example

```
int peek() {
   return queue[front];
}
```

isfull()

As we are using single dimension array to implement queue, we just check for the rear pointer to reach at MAXSIZE to determine that the queue is full. In case we maintain the queue in a circular linked-list, the algorithm will differ. Algorithm of isfull() function −

Algorithm

```
begin procedure isfull

   if rear equals to MAXSIZE
      return true
   else
      return false
   endif

end procedure
```

Implementation of isfull() function in C programming language −

Example

```
bool isfull() {
   if(rear == MAXSIZE - 1)
      return true;
```

```
   else
      return false;
}
```

isempty()

Algorithm of isempty() function −

Algorithm

```
begin procedure isempty

   if front is less than MIN  OR front is greater than rear
      return true
   else
      return false
   endif

end procedure
```

If the value of **front** is less than MIN or 0, it tells that the queue is not yet initialized, hence empty.

Here's the C programming code −

Example

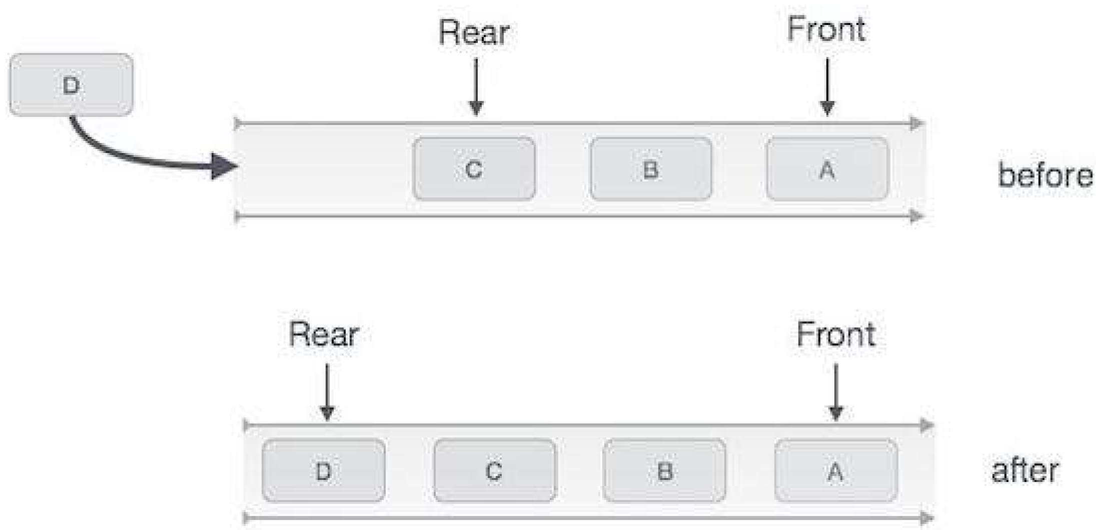
```
bool isempty() {
   if(front < 0 || front > rear)
      return true;
   else
      return false;
}
```

Enqueue Operation

Queues maintain two data pointers, **front** and **rear**. Therefore, its operations are comparatively difficult to implement than that of stacks.

The following steps should be taken to enqueue (insert) data into a queue −

- **Step 1** − Check if the queue is full.
- **Step 2** − If the queue is full, produce overflow error and exit.
- **Step 3** − If the queue is not full, increment **rear** pointer to point the next empty space.
- **Step 4** − Add data element to the queue location, where the rear is pointing.
- **Step 5** − return success.



Queue Enqueue

Sometimes, we also check to see if a queue is initialized or not, to handle any unforeseen situations.

Algorithm for enqueue operation

```
procedure enqueue(data)

   if queue is full
      return overflow
   endif

   rear ← rear + 1
   queue[rear] ← data
   return true

end procedure
```

Implementation of enqueue() in C programming language −

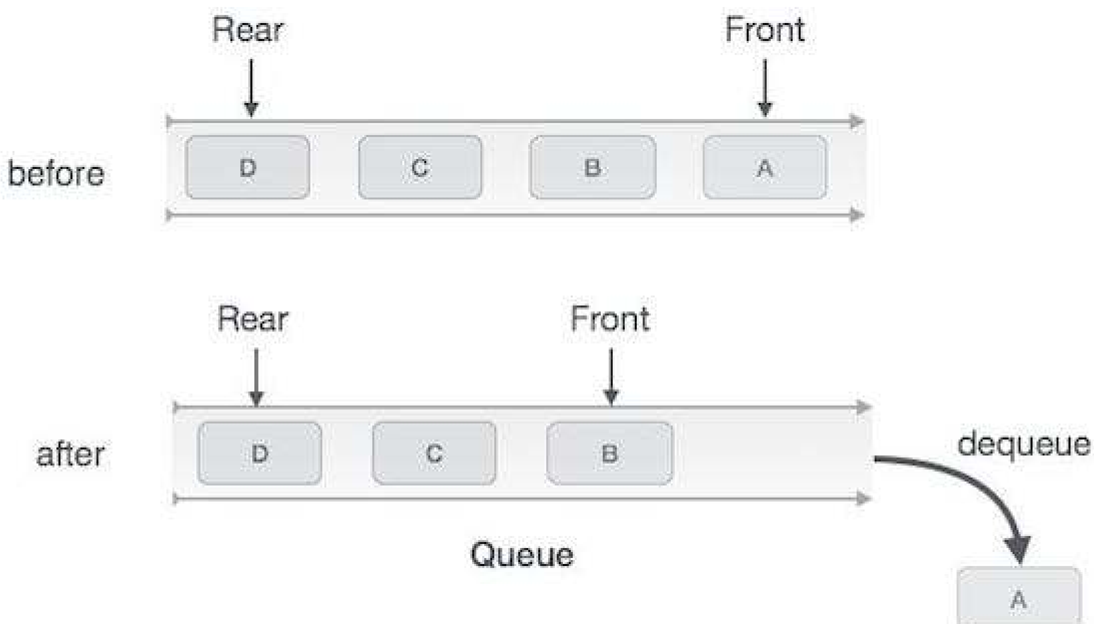
Example

```
int enqueue(int data)
   if(isfull())
      return 0;

   rear = rear + 1;
   queue[rear] = data;

   return 1;
end procedure
```

Dequeue Operation

Accessing data from the queue is a process of two tasks − access the data where **front** is pointing and remove the data after access. The following steps are taken to perform **dequeue** operation −

- **Step 1** − Check if the queue is empty.
- **Step 2** − If the queue is empty, produce underflow error and exit.
- **Step 3** − If the queue is not empty, access the data where **front** is pointing.
- **Step 4** − Increment **front** pointer to point to the next available data element.
- **Step 5** − Return success.



Queue Dequeue

Algorithm for dequeue operation

```
procedure dequeue

   if queue is empty
      return underflow
   end if

   data = queue[front]
   front ← front + 1
   return true

end procedure
```

Implementation of dequeue() in C programming language −

Example

```
int dequeue() {
   if(isempty())
      return 0;

   int data = queue[front];
   front = front + 1;

   return data;
}
```

STACKS

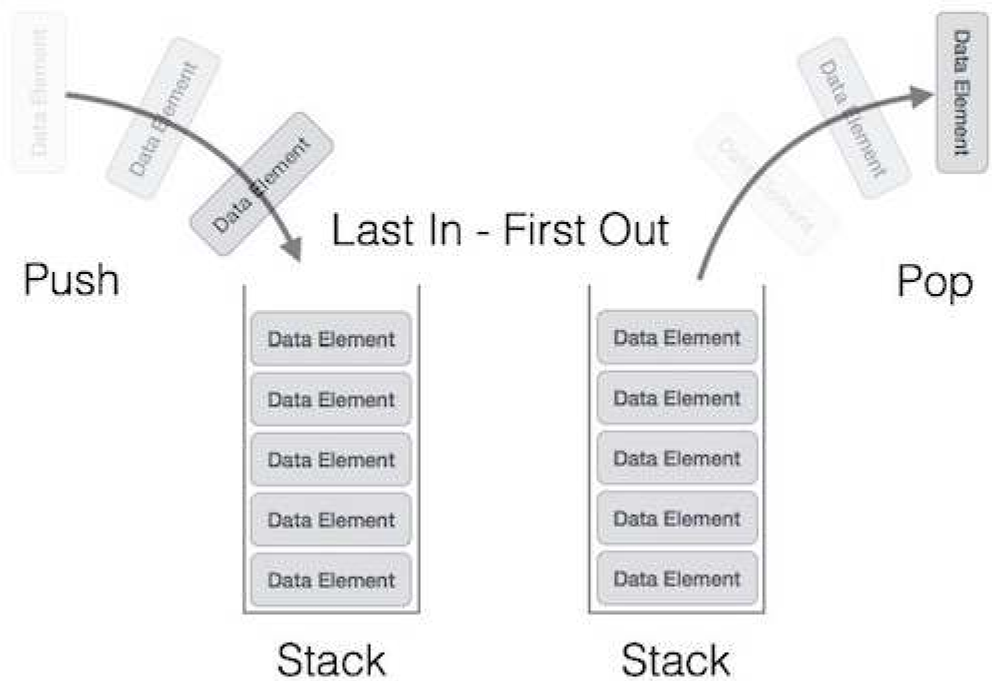
A stack is an Abstract Data Type (ADT), commonly used in most programming languages. It is named stack as it behaves like a real-world stack, for example – a deck of cards or a pile of plates, etc.

A real-world stack allows operations at one end only. For example, we can place or remove a card or plate from the top of the stack only. Likewise, Stack ADT allows all data operations at one end only. At any given time, we can only access the top element of a stack.

This feature makes it LIFO data structure. LIFO stands for Last-in-first-out. Here, the element which is placed (inserted or added) last, is accessed first. In stack terminology, insertion operation is called **PUSH** operation and removal operation is called **POP** operation.

Stack Representation

The following diagram depicts a stack and its operations −



A stack can be implemented by means of Array, Structure, Pointer, and Linked List. Stack can either be a fixed size one or it may have a sense of dynamic resizing. Here, we are going to implement stack using arrays, which makes it a fixed size stack implementation.

Basic Operations

Stack operations may involve initializing the stack, using it and then de-initializing it. Apart from these basic stuffs, a stack is used for the following two primary operations −

- **push()** − Pushing (storing) an element on the stack.
- **pop()** − Removing (accessing) an element from the stack.

When data is PUSHed onto stack.

To use a stack efficiently, we need to check the status of stack as well. For the same purpose, the following functionality is added to stacks −

- **peek()** − get the top data element of the stack, without removing it.
- **isFull()** − check if stack is full.
- **isEmpty()** − check if stack is empty.

At all times, we maintain a pointer to the last PUSHed data on the stack. As this pointer always represents the top of the stack, hence named **top**. The **top** pointer provides top value of the stack without actually removing it.

First we should learn about procedures to support stack functions −

peek()

Algorithm of peek() function −

```
begin procedure peek
   return stack[top]
end procedure
```

Implementation of peek() function in C programming language −

Example

```
int peek() {
   return stack[top];
}
```

isfull()

Algorithm of isfull() function −

```
begin procedure isfull

   if top equals to MAXSIZE
      return true
   else
      return false
   endif

end procedure
```

Implementation of isfull() function in C programming language −

Example

```
bool isfull() {
   if(top == MAXSIZE)
      return true;
   else
      return false;
}
```

isempty()

Algorithm of isempty() function −

```
begin procedure isempty

   if top less than 1
      return true
   else
      return false
```

```
   endif

end procedure
```

Implementation of isempty() function in C programming language is slightly different. We initialize top at -1, as the index in array starts from 0. So we check if the top is below zero or -1 to determine if the stack is empty. Here's the code −

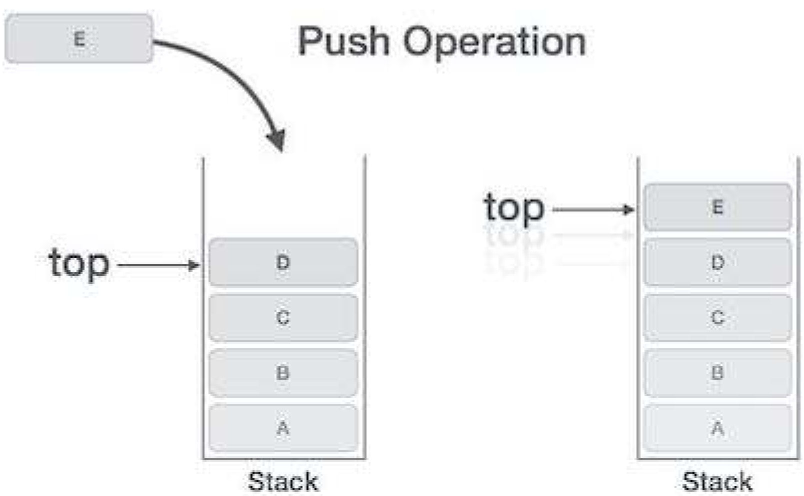
Example

```
bool isempty() {
   if(top == -1)
      return true;
   else
      return false;
}
```

Push Operation

The process of putting a new data element onto stack is known as a Push Operation. Push operation involves a series of steps −

- **Step 1** − Checks if the stack is full.
- **Step 2** − If the stack is full, produces an error and exit.
- **Step 3** − If the stack is not full, increments **top** to point next empty space.
- **Step 4** − Adds data element to the stack location, where top is pointing.
- **Step 5** − Returns success.



If the linked list is used to implement the stack, then in step 3, we need to allocate space dynamically.

Algorithm for PUSH Operation

A simple algorithm for Push operation can be derived as follows −

```
begin procedure push: stack, data

   if stack is full
      return null
   endif

   top ← top + 1
   stack[top] ← data

end procedure
```

Implementation of this algorithm in C, is very easy. See the following code −

Example

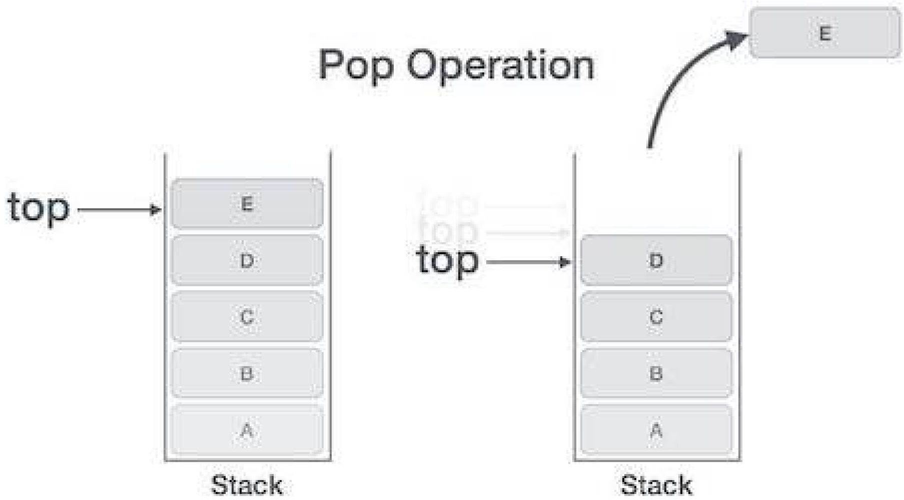
```
void push(int data) {
   if(!isFull()) {
      top = top + 1;
      stack[top] = data;
   } else {
      printf("Could not insert data, Stack is full.\n");
   }
}
```

Pop Operation

Accessing the content while removing it from the stack, is known as a Pop Operation. In an array implementation of pop() operation, the data element is not actually removed, instead **top** is decremented to a lower position in the stack to point to the next value. But in linked-list implementation, pop() actually removes data element and deallocates memory space.

A Pop operation may involve the following steps −

- **Step 1** − Checks if the stack is empty.
- **Step 2** − If the stack is empty, produces an error and exit.
- **Step 3** − If the stack is not empty, accesses the data element at which **top** is pointing.
- **Step 4** − Decreases the value of top by 1.
- **Step 5** − Returns success.



Algorithm for Pop Operation

A simple algorithm for Pop operation can be derived as follows −

```
begin procedure pop: stack

   if stack is empty
      return null
   endif

   data ← stack[top]
   top ← top - 1
   return data

end procedure
```

Implementation of this algorithm in C, is as follows −

Example

```
int pop(int data) {

   if(!isempty()) {
      data = stack[top];
      top = top - 1;
      return data;
   } else {
      printf("Could not retrieve data, Stack is empty.\n");
   }
}
```

LISTS

LINKED LISTS

A linked list is a sequence of data structures, which are connected together via links.

Linked List is a sequence of links which contains items. Each link contains a connection to another link. Linked list is the second most-used data structure after array. Following are the important terms to understand the concept of Linked List.

- **Link** − Each link of a linked list can store a data called an element.
- **Next** − Each link of a linked list contains a link to the next link called Next.
- **LinkedList** − A Linked List contains the connection link to the first link called First.

Linked List Representation

Linked list can be visualized as a chain of nodes, where every node points to the next node.

As per the above illustration, following are the important points to be considered.

- Linked List contains a link element called first.
- Each link carries a data field(s) and a link field called next.
- Each link is linked with its next link using its next link.
- Last link carries a link as null to mark the end of the list.

Types of Linked List

Following are the various types of linked list.

- **Simple Linked List** − Item navigation is forward only.
- **Doubly Linked List** − Items can be navigated forward and backward.
- **Circular Linked List** − Last item contains link of the first element as next and the first element has a link to the last element as previous.

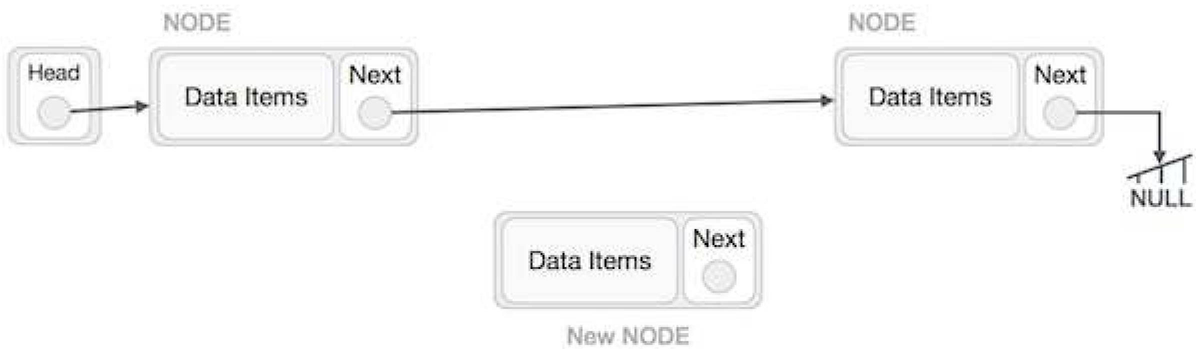
Basic Operations

Following are the basic operations supported by a list.

- **Insertion** − Adds an element at the beginning of the list.
- **Deletion** − Deletes an element at the beginning of the list.
- **Display** − Displays the complete list.
- **Search** − Searches an element using the given key.
- **Delete** − Deletes an element using the given key.

Insertion Operation

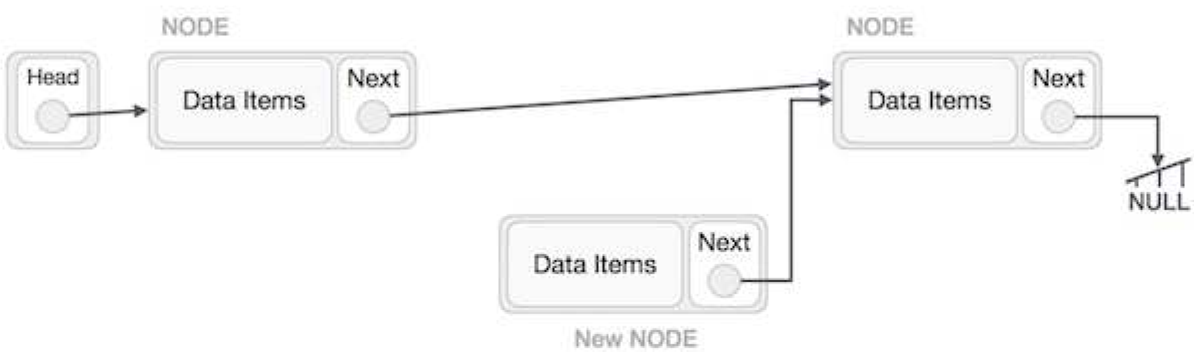
Adding a new node in linked list is a more than one step activity. We shall learn this with diagrams here. First, create a node using the same structure and find the location where it has to be inserted.



Imagine that we are inserting a node **B** (NewNode), between **A** (LeftNode) and **C** (RightNode). Then point B.next to C −

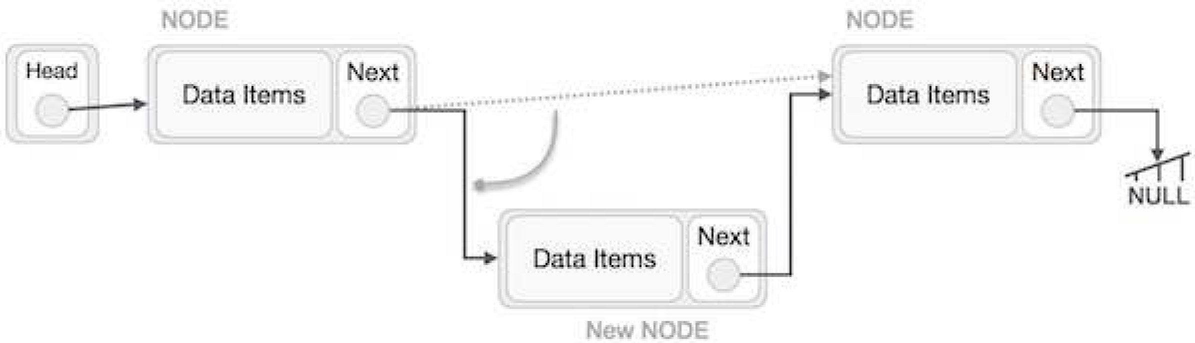
```
NewNode.next −> RightNode;
```

It should look like this −



Now, the next node at the left should point to the new node.

```
LeftNode.next −> NewNode;
```

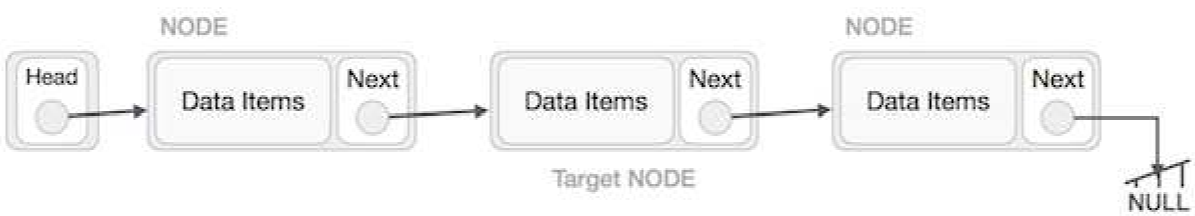


This will put the new node in the middle of the two. The new list should look like this −

Similar steps should be taken if the node is being inserted at the beginning of the list. While inserting it at the end, the second last node of the list should point to the new node and the new node will point to NULL.

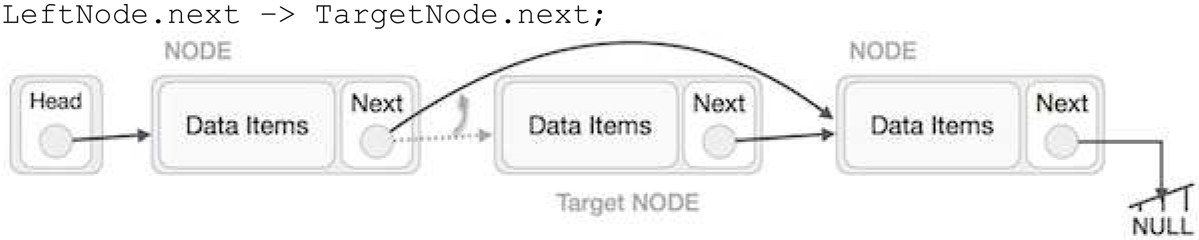
Deletion Operation

Deletion is also a more than one step process. We shall learn with pictorial representation. First, locate the target node to be removed, by using searching algorithms.



The left (previous) node of the target node now should point to the next node of the target node −

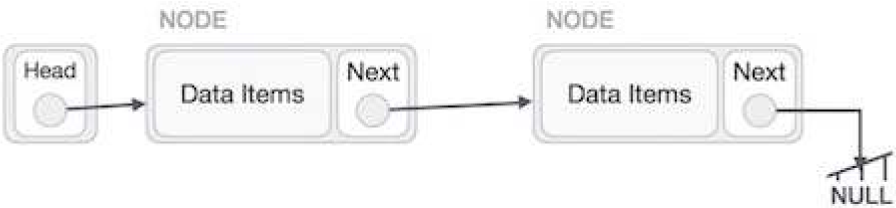
```
LeftNode.next -> TargetNode.next;
```



This will remove the link that was pointing to the target node. Now, using the following code, we will remove what the target node is pointing at.

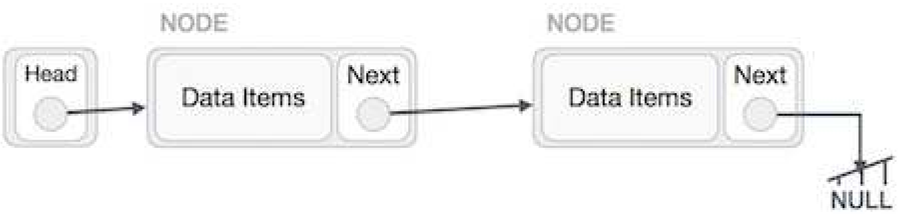
```
TargetNode.next -> NULL;
```

We need to use the deleted node. We can keep that in memory otherwise we can simply deallocate memory and wipe off the target node completely.

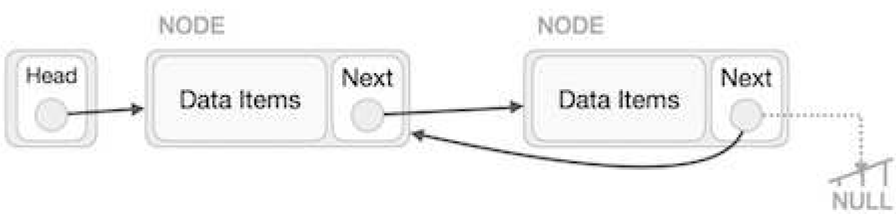


Reverse Operation

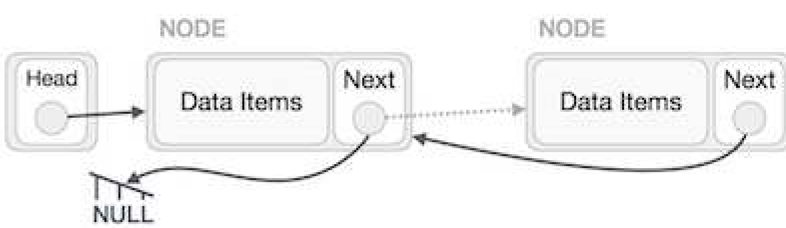
This operation is a thorough one. We need to make the last node to be pointed by the head node and reverse the whole linked list.



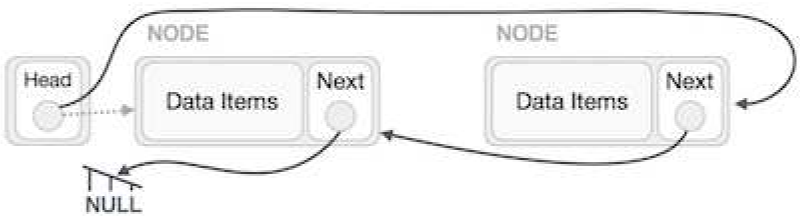
First, we traverse to the end of the list. It should be pointing to NULL. Now, we shall make it point to its previous node −



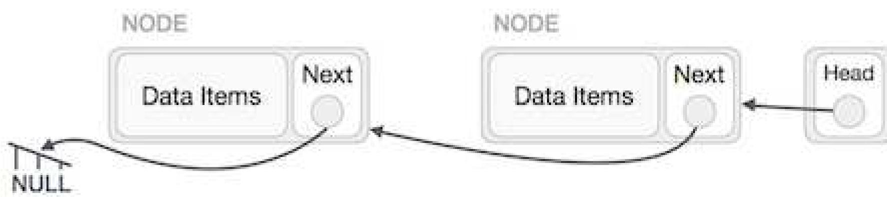
We have to make sure that the last node is not the last node. So we'll have some temp node, which looks like the head node pointing to the last node. Now, we shall make all left side nodes point to their previous nodes one by one.



Except the node (first node) pointed by the head node, all nodes should point to their predecessor, making them their new successor. The first node will point to NULL.



We'll make the head node point to the new first node by using the temp node.

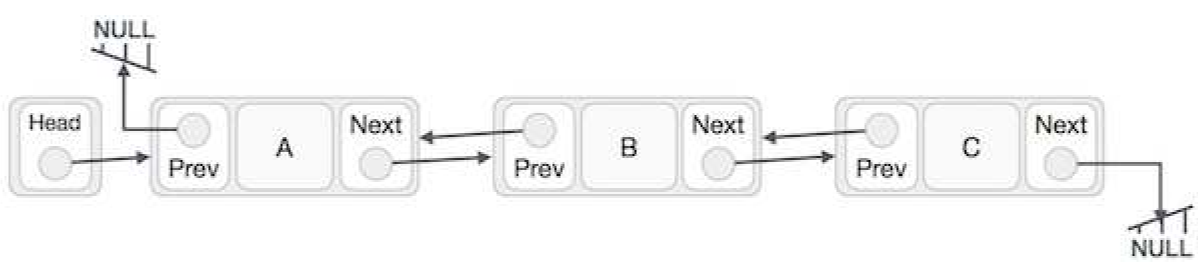


DOUBLY LINKED LISTS

Doubly Linked List is a variation of Linked list in which navigation is possible in both ways, either forward and backward easily as compared to Single Linked List. Following are the important terms to understand the concept of doubly linked list.

- **Link** − Each link of a linked list can store a data called an element.
- **Next** − Each link of a linked list contains a link to the next link called Next.
- **Prev** − Each link of a linked list contains a link to the previous link called Prev.
- **LinkedList** − A Linked List contains the connection link to the first link called First and to the last link called Last.

Doubly Linked List Representation



As per the above illustration, following are the important points to be considered.

- Doubly Linked List contains a link element called first and last.
- Each link carries a data field(s) and two link fields called next and prev.

- Each link is linked with its next link using its next link.
- Each link is linked with its previous link using its previous link.
- The last link carries a link as null to mark the end of the list.

Basic Operations

Following are the basic operations supported by a list.

- **Insertion** − Adds an element at the beginning of the list.
- **Deletion** − Deletes an element at the beginning of the list.
- **Insert Last** − Adds an element at the end of the list.
- **Delete Last** − Deletes an element from the end of the list.
- **Insert After** − Adds an element after an item of the list.
- **Delete** − Deletes an element from the list using the key.
- **Display forward** − Displays the complete list in a forward manner.
- **Display backward** − Displays the complete list in a backward manner.

Insertion Operation

Following code demonstrates the insertion operation at the beginning of a doubly linked list.

Example

```
//insert link at the first location
void insertFirst(int key, int data) {

   //create a link
   struct node *link = (struct node*) malloc(sizeof(struct node));
   link->key = key;
   link->data = data;

   if(isEmpty()) {
      //make it the last link
      last = link;
   } else {
      //update first prev link
      head->prev = link;
   }

   //point it to old first link
   link->next = head;
```

```
   //point first to new first link
   head = link;
}
```

Deletion Operation

Following code demonstrates the deletion operation at the beginning of a doubly linked list.

Example

```
//delete first item
struct node* deleteFirst() {

   //save reference to first link
   struct node *tempLink = head;

   //if only one link
   if(head->next == NULL) {
      last = NULL;
   } else {
      head->next->prev = NULL;
   }

   head = head->next;

   //return the deleted link
   return tempLink;
}
```

Insertion at the End of an Operation

Following code demonstrates the insertion operation at the last position of a doubly linked list.

Example

```
//insert link at the last location
void insertLast(int key, int data) {

   //create a link
   struct node *link = (struct node*) malloc(sizeof(struct node));
   link->key = key;
   link->data = data;
```

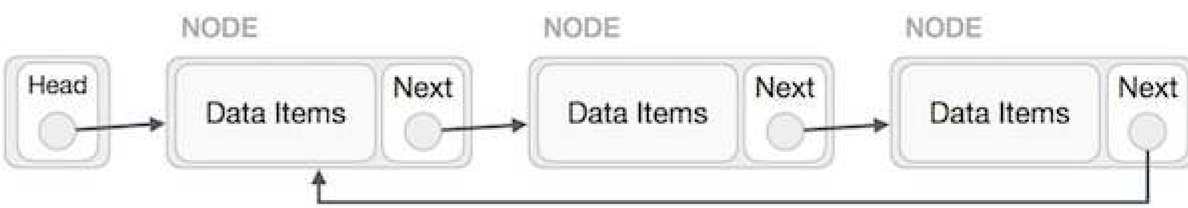
```
   if(isEmpty()) {
      //make it the last link
      last = link;
   } else {
      //make link a new last link
      last->next = link;

      //mark old last node as prev of new link
      link->prev = last;
   }

   //point last to new last node
   last = link;
}
```

CIRCULAR LINKED LISTS

Circular Linked List is a variation of Linked list in which the first element points to the last element and the last element points to the first element. Both Singly Linked List and Doubly Linked List can be made into a circular linked list.

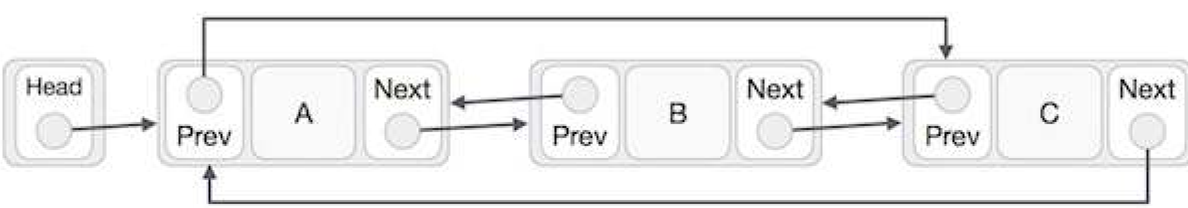
Singly Linked List as Circular

In singly linked list, the next pointer of the last node points to the first node.



Doubly Linked List as Circular

In doubly linked list, the next pointer of the last node points to the first node and the previous pointer of the first node points to the last node making the circular in both directions.



As per the above illustration, following are the important points to be considered.

- The last link's next points to the first link of the list in both cases of singly as well as doubly linked list.
- The first link's previous points to the last of the list in case of doubly linked list.

Basic Operations

Following are the important operations supported by a circular list.

- **insert** − Inserts an element at the start of the list.
- **delete** − Deletes an element from the start of the list.
- **display** − Displays the list.

Insertion Operation

Following code demonstrates the insertion operation in a circular linked list based on single linked list.

Example

```
insertFirst(data):
Begin
   create a new node
   node -> data := data
   if the list is empty, then
      head := node
      next of node = head
   else
      temp := head
      while next of temp is not head, do
      temp := next of temp
      done
      next of node := head
      next of temp := node
      head := node
   end if
End
```

Deletion Operation

Following code demonstrates the deletion operation in a circular linked list based on single linked list.

```
deleteFirst():
Begin
   if head is null, then
```

```
      it is Underflow and return
   else if next of head = head, then
      head := null
      deallocate head
   else
      ptr := head
      while next of ptr is not head, do
         ptr := next of ptr
      next of ptr = next of head
      deallocate head
      head := next of ptr
   end if
End
```

Display List Operation

Following code demonstrates the display list operation in a circular linked list.

```
display():
Begin
   if head is null, then
      Nothing to print and return
   else
      ptr := head
      while next of ptr is not head, do
         display data of ptr
         ptr := next of ptr
      display data of ptr
   end if
End
```

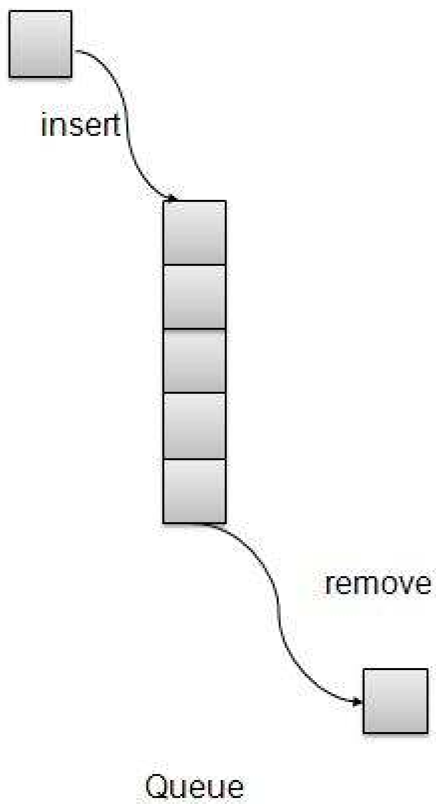
PRIORITY QUEUES

Priority Queue is more specialized data structure than Queue. Like ordinary queue, priority queue has same method but with a major difference. In Priority queue items are ordered by key value so that item with the lowest value of key is at front and item with the highest value of key is at rear or vice versa. So we're assigned priority to item based on its key value. Lower the value, higher the priority. Following are the principal methods of a Priority Queue.

Basic Operations

- **insert / enqueue** − add an item to the rear of the queue.
- **remove / dequeue** − remove an item from the front of the queue.

Priority Queue Representation

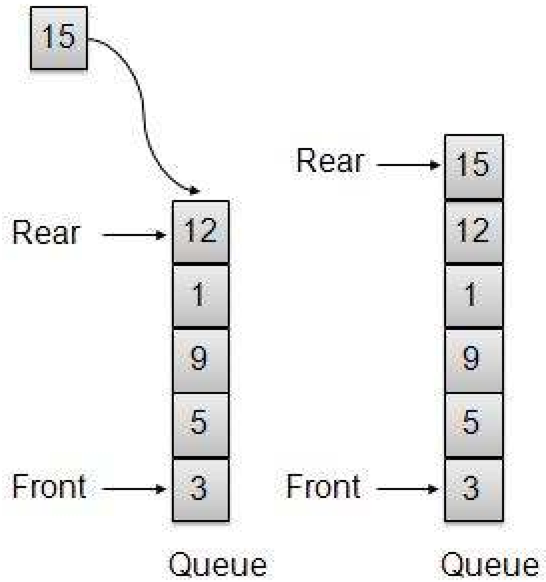


We're going to implement Queue using array in this article. There is few more operations supported by queue which are following.

- **Peek** − get the element at front of the queue.
- **isFull** − check if queue is full.
- **isEmpty** − check if queue is empty.

Insert / Enqueue Operation

Whenever an element is inserted into queue, priority queue inserts the item according to its order. Here we're assuming that data with high value has low priority.

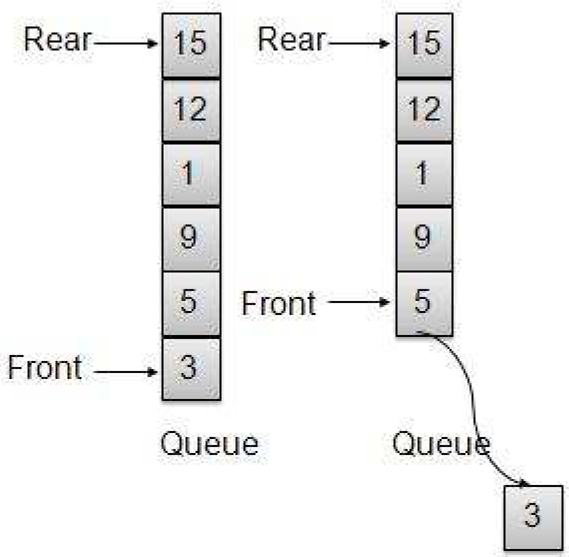


One item inserted at rear end

```
void insert(int data){
   int i = 0;

   if(!isFull()){
      // if queue is empty, insert the data

      if(itemCount == 0){
         intArray[itemCount++] = data;
      }else{
         // start from the right end of the queue
         for(i = itemCount - 1; i >= 0; i-- ){
            // if data is larger, shift existing item to right end
            if(data > intArray[i]){
               intArray[i+1] = intArray[i];
            }else{
               break;
            }
         }
         // insert the data
         intArray[i+1] = data;
         itemCount++;
      }
   }
}
```

Remove / Dequeue Operation

Whenever an element is to be removed from queue, queue get the element using item count. Once element is removed. Item count is reduced by one.



One Item removed from front

```
int removeData(){
   return intArray[--itemCount];
}
```

Demo Program

PriorityQueueDemo.c

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdbool.h>
#define MAX 6

int intArray[MAX];
int itemCount = 0;

int peek(){
   return intArray[itemCount - 1];
}

bool isEmpty(){
   return itemCount == 0;
}
```

```
bool isFull(){
   return itemCount == MAX;
}

int size(){
   return itemCount;
}

void insert(int data){
   int i = 0;

   if(!isFull()){
      // if queue is empty, insert the data
      if(itemCount == 0){
         intArray[itemCount++] = data;
      }else{
         // start from the right end of the queue

         for(i = itemCount - 1; i >= 0; i-- ){
            // if data is larger, shift existing item to right end
            if(data > intArray[i]){
               intArray[i+1] = intArray[i];
            }else{
               break;
            }
         }

         // insert the data
         intArray[i+1] = data;
         itemCount++;
      }
   }
}

int removeData(){
   return intArray[--itemCount];
}

int main() {
   /* insert 5 items */
   insert(3);
   insert(5);
   insert(9);
   insert(1);
   insert(12);

   // ------------------
   // index : 0  1 2 3 4
   // ------------------
```

```c
   // queue : 12 9 5 3 1
   insert(15);

   // ---------------------
   // index : 0  1 2 3 4  5
   // ---------------------
   // queue : 15 12 9 5 3 1

   if(isFull()){
      printf("Queue is full!\n");
   }

   // remove one item
   int num = removeData();
   printf("Element removed: %d\n",num);

   // ---------------------
   // index : 0  1  2 3 4
   // ---------------------
   // queue : 15 12 9 5 3

   // insert more items
   insert(16);

   // ----------------------
   // index :  0  1 2 3 4  5
   // ----------------------
   // queue : 16 15 12 9 5 3

   // As queue is full, elements will not be inserted.
   insert(17);
   insert(18);

   // ----------------------
   // index : 0   1  2 3 4 5
   // ----------------------
   // queue : 16 15 12 9 5 3
   printf("Element at front: %d\n",peek());

   printf("----------------------\n");
   printf("index : 5 4 3 2  1  0\n");
   printf("----------------------\n");
   printf("Queue:  ");

   while(!isEmpty()){
      int n = removeData();
      printf("%d ",n);
   }
}
```

If we compile and run the above program then it would produce following result −

```
Queue is full!
Element removed: 1
Element at front: 3
----------------------
index : 5 4 3 2 1 0
----------------------
Queue: 3 5 9 12 15 16
```

HEAPS

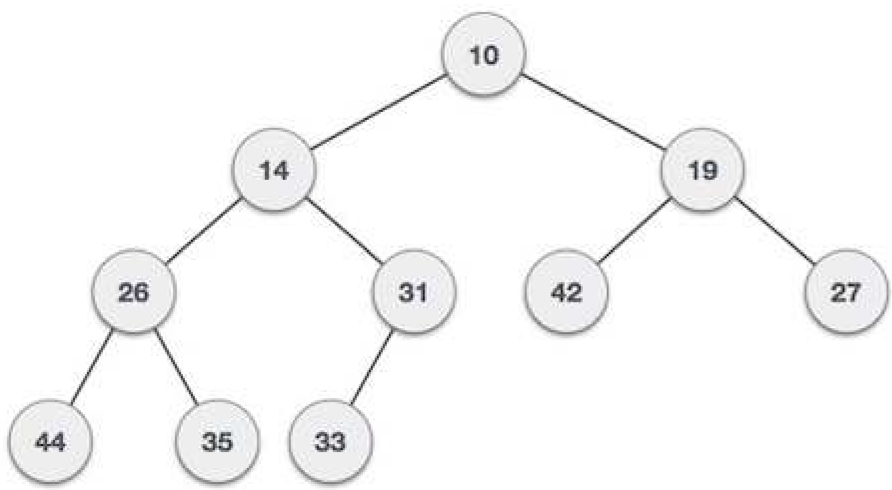
Heap is a special case of balanced binary tree data structure where the root-node key is compared with its children and arranged accordingly. If **α** has child node **β** then −

key(α) ≥ key(β)

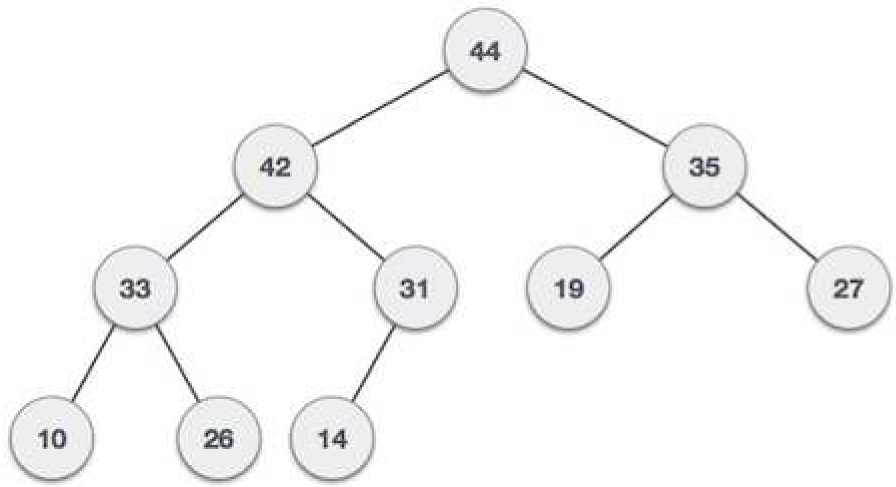
As the value of parent is greater than that of child, this property generates **Max Heap**. Based on this criteria, a heap can be of two types −

```
For Input → 35 33 42 10 14 19 27 44 26 31
```

Min-Heap − Where the value of the root node is less than or equal to either of its children.



Max-Heap − Where the value of the root node is greater than or equal to either of its children.



Both trees are constructed using the same input and order of arrival.

Max Heap Construction Algorithm

We shall use the same example to demonstrate how a Max Heap is created. The procedure to create Min Heap is similar but we go for min values instead of max values.

We are going to derive an algorithm for max heap by inserting one element at a time. At any point of time, heap must maintain its property. While insertion, we also assume that we are inserting a node in an already heapified tree.

```
Step 1 − Create a new node at the end of heap.
Step 2 − Assign new value to the node.
Step 3 − Compare the value of this child node with its parent.
Step 4 − If value of parent is less than child, then swap them.
Step 5 − Repeat step 3 & 4 until Heap property holds.
```

Note − In Min Heap construction algorithm, we expect the value of the parent node to be less than that of the child node.

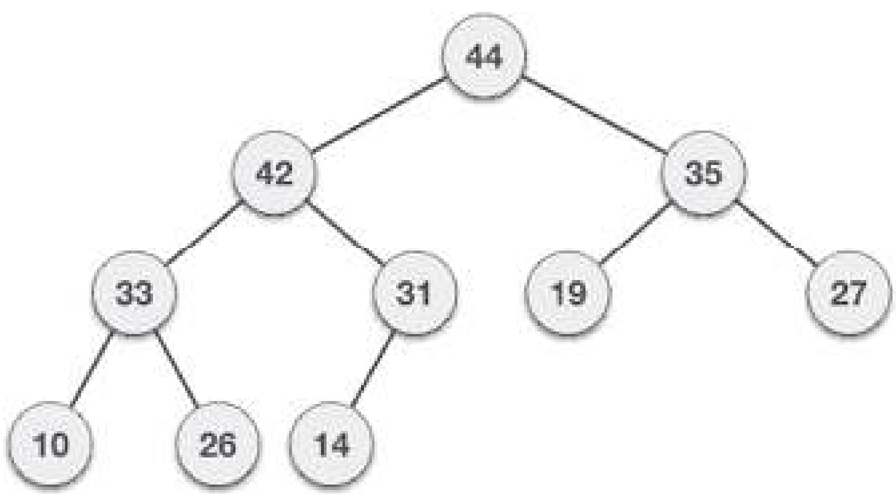
Let's understand Max Heap construction by an animated illustration. We consider the same input sample that we used earlier.

Input 35 33 42 10 14 19 27 44 26 31

Max Heap Deletion Algorithm

Let us derive an algorithm to delete from max heap. Deletion in Max (or Min) Heap always happens at the root to remove the Maximum (or minimum) value.

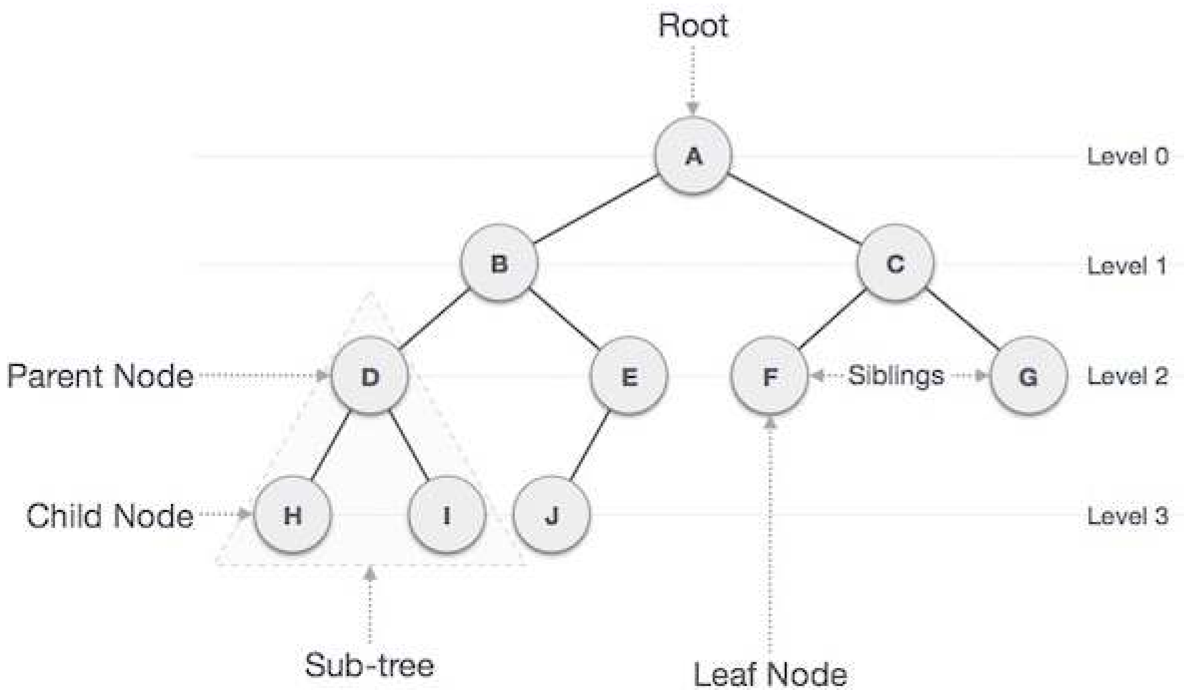
Step 1 − Remove root node.
Step 2 − Move the last element of last level to root.
Step 3 − Compare the value of this child node with its parent.
Step 4 − If value of parent is less than child, then swap them.
Step 5 − Repeat step 3 & 4 until Heap property holds.



TREES

Tree represents the nodes connected by edges. We will discuss binary tree or binary search tree specifically.

Binary Tree is a special datastructure used for data storage purposes. A binary tree has a special condition that each node can have a maximum of two children. A binary tree has the benefits of both an ordered array and a linked list as search is as quick as in a sorted array and insertion or deletion operation are as fast as in linked list.



Important Terms

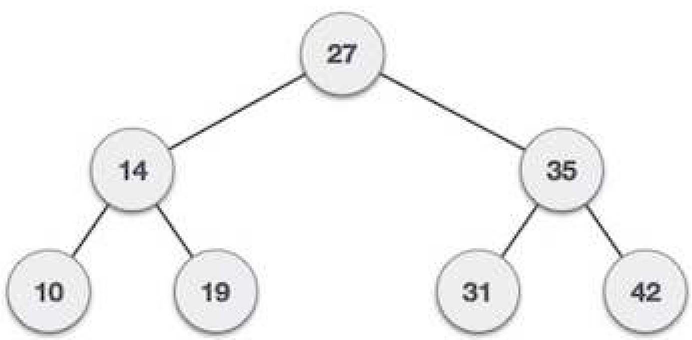
Following are the important terms with respect to tree.

- **Path** − Path refers to the sequence of nodes along the edges of a tree.
- **Root** − The node at the top of the tree is called root. There is only one root per tree and one path from the root node to any node.
- **Parent** − Any node except the root node has one edge upward to a node called parent.
- **Child** − The node below a given node connected by its edge downward is called its child node.
- **Leaf** − The node which does not have any child node is called the leaf node.
- **Subtree** − Subtree represents the descendants of a node.

- **Visiting** − Visiting refers to checking the value of a node when control is on the node.
- **Traversing** − Traversing means passing through nodes in a specific order.
- **Levels** − Level of a node represents the generation of a node. If the root node is at level 0, then its next child node is at level 1, its grandchild is at level 2, and so on.
- **keys** − Key represents a value of a node based on which a search operation is to be carried out for a node.

Binary Search Tree Representation

Binary Search tree exhibits a special behavior. A node's left child must have a value less than its parent's value and the node's right child must have a value greater than its parent value.



We're going to implement tree using node object and connecting them through references.

Tree Node

The code to write a tree node would be similar to what is given below. It has a data part and references to its left and right child nodes.

```
struct node {
   int data;
   struct node *leftChild;
   struct node *rightChild;
};
```

In a tree, all nodes share common construct.

BST Basic Operations

The basic operations that can be performed on a binary search tree data structure, are the following −

- **Insert** − Inserts an element in a tree/create a tree.
- **Search** − Searches an element in a tree.
- **Preorder Traversal** − Traverses a tree in a pre-order manner.
- **Inorder Traversal** − Traverses a tree in an in-order manner.
- **Postorder Traversal** − Traverses a tree in a post-order manner.

We shall learn creating (inserting into) a tree structure and searching a data item in a tree in this chapter. We shall learn about tree traversing methods in the coming chapter.

Insert Operation

The very first insertion creates the tree. Afterwards, whenever an element is to be inserted, first locate its proper location. Start searching from the root node, then if the data is less than the key value, search for the empty location in the left subtree and insert the data. Otherwise, search for the empty location in the right subtree and insert the data.

Algorithm

```
If root is NULL
   then create root node
return

If root exists then
   compare the data with node.data

   while until insertion position is located

      If data is greater than node.data
         goto right subtree
      else
         goto left subtree

   endwhile

   insert data

end If
```

Implementation

The implementation of insert function should look like this −

```
void insert(int data) {
   struct node *tempNode = (struct node*) malloc(sizeof(struct
node));
```

```
   struct node *current;
   struct node *parent;

   tempNode->data = data;
   tempNode->leftChild = NULL;
   tempNode->rightChild = NULL;

   //if tree is empty, create root node
   if(root == NULL) {
      root = tempNode;
   } else {
      current = root;
      parent  = NULL;

      while(1) {
         parent = current;

         //go to left of the tree
         if(data < parent->data) {
            current = current->leftChild;

            //insert to the left
            if(current == NULL) {
               parent->leftChild = tempNode;
               return;
            }
         }

         //go to right of the tree
         else {
            current = current->rightChild;

            //insert to the right
            if(current == NULL) {
               parent->rightChild = tempNode;
               return;
            }
         }
      }
   }
}
```

Search Operation

Whenever an element is to be searched, start searching from the root node, then if the data is less than the key value, search for the element in the left subtree. Otherwise, search for the element in the right subtree. Follow the same algorithm for each node.

Algorithm

```
If root.data is equal to search.data
   return root
else
   while data not found

      If data is greater than node.data
         goto right subtree
      else
         goto left subtree

      If data found
         return node
   endwhile

   return data not found

end if
```

The implementation of this algorithm should look like this.

```
struct node* search(int data) {
   struct node *current = root;
   printf("Visiting elements: ");

   while(current->data != data) {
      if(current != NULL)
      printf("%d ",current->data);

      //go to left tree

      if(current->data > data) {
         current = current->leftChild;
      }
      //else go to right tree
      else {
         current = current->rightChild;
      }

      //not found
      if(current == NULL) {
         return NULL;
      }

      return current;
   }
}
```

SORTING ALGORITHMS

Sorting refers to arranging data in a particular format. Sorting algorithm specifies the way to arrange data in a particular order. Most common orders are in numerical or lexicographical order.

The importance of sorting lies in the fact that data searching can be optimized to a very high level, if data is stored in a sorted manner. Sorting is also used to represent data in more readable formats. Following are some of the examples of sorting in real-life scenarios −

- **Telephone Directory** − The telephone directory stores the telephone numbers of people sorted by their names, so that the names can be searched easily.
- **Dictionary** − The dictionary stores words in an alphabetical order so that searching of any word becomes easy.

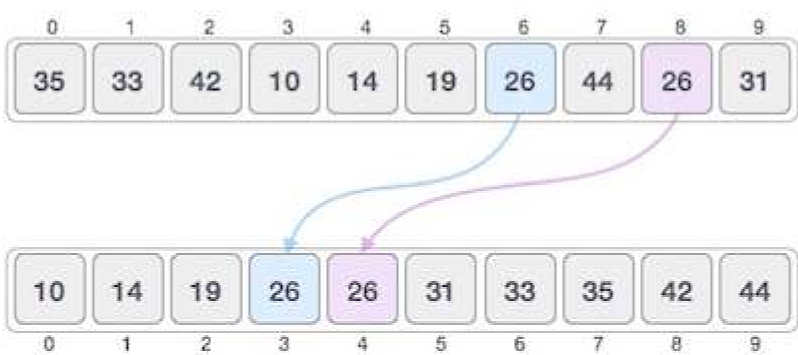
In-place Sorting and Not-in-place Sorting

Sorting algorithms may require some extra space for comparison and temporary storage of few data elements. These algorithms do not require any extra space and sorting is said to happen in-place, or for example, within the array itself. This is called **in-place sorting**. Bubble sort is an example of in-place sorting.

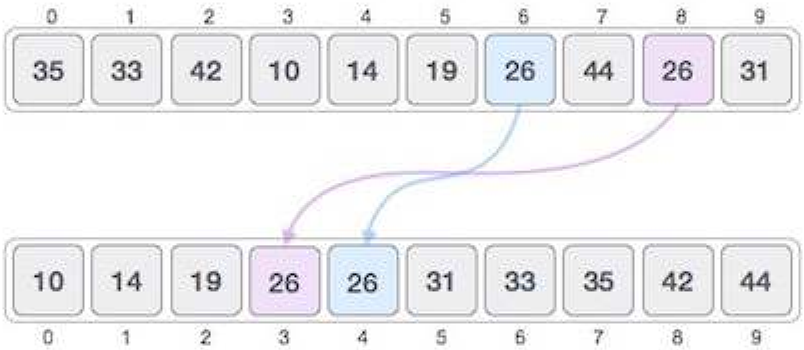
However, in some sorting algorithms, the program requires space which is more than or equal to the elements being sorted. Sorting which uses equal or more space is called **not-in-place sorting**. Merge-sort is an example of not-in-place sorting.

Stable and Not Stable Sorting

If a sorting algorithm, after sorting the contents, does not change the sequence of similar content in which they appear, it is called **stable sorting**.



If a sorting algorithm, after sorting the contents, changes the sequence of similar content in which they appear, it is called **unstable sorting**.



Stability of an algorithm matters when we wish to maintain the sequence of original elements, like in a tuple for example.

Adaptive and Non-Adaptive Sorting Algorithm

A sorting algorithm is said to be adaptive, if it takes advantage of already 'sorted' elements in the list that is to be sorted. That is, while sorting if the source list has some element already sorted, adaptive algorithms will take this into account and will try not to re-order them.

A non-adaptive algorithm is one which does not take into account the elements which are already sorted. They try to force every single element to be re-ordered to confirm their sortedness.

Important Terms

Some terms are generally coined while discussing sorting techniques, here is a brief introduction to them −

Increasing Order

A sequence of values is said to be in **increasing order**, if the successive element is greater than the previous one. For example, 1, 3, 4, 6, 8, 9 are in increasing order, as every next element is greater than the previous element.

Decreasing Order

A sequence of values is said to be in **decreasing order**, if the successive element is less than the current one. For example, 9, 8, 6, 4, 3, 1 are in decreasing order, as every next element is less than the previous element.

Non-Increasing Order

A sequence of values is said to be in **non-increasing order**, if the successive element is less than or equal to its previous element in the sequence. This order occurs when the sequence contains duplicate values. For example, 9, 8, 6, 3, 3, 1 are in non-increasing order, as every next element is less than or equal to (in case of 3) but not greater than any previous element.

Non-Decreasing Order

A sequence of values is said to be in **non-decreasing order**, if the successive element is greater than or equal to its previous element in the sequence. This order occurs when the sequence contains duplicate values. For example, 1, 3, 3, 6, 8, 9 are in non-decreasing order, as every next element is greater than or equal to (in case of 3) but not less than the previous one.

BUBBLE SORT

Bubble sort is a simple sorting algorithm. This sorting algorithm is comparison-based algorithm in which each pair of adjacent elements is compared and the elements are swapped if they are not in order. This algorithm is not suitable for large data sets as its average and worst case complexity are of $O(n^2)$ where **n** is the number of items.

How Bubble Sort Works?

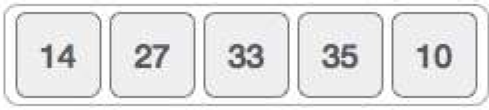
We take an unsorted array for our example. Bubble sort takes $O(n^2)$ time so we're keeping it short and precise.

Bubble sort starts with very first two elements, comparing them to check which one is greater.

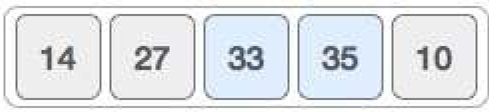
In this case, value 33 is greater than 14, so it is already in sorted locations. Next, we compare 33 with 27.

We find that 27 is smaller than 33 and these two values must be swapped.

The new array should look like this −



Next we compare 33 and 35. We find that both are in already sorted positions.



Then we move to the next two values, 35 and 10.

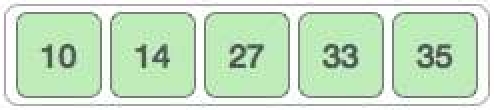
We know then that 10 is smaller 35. Hence they are not sorted.

We swap these values. We find that we have reached the end of the array. After one iteration, the array should look like this −

To be precise, we are now showing how an array should look like after each iteration. After the second iteration, it should look like this −

Notice that after each iteration, at least one value moves at the end.

And when there's no swap required, bubble sorts learns that an array is completely sorted.



Now we should look into some practical aspects of bubble sort.

Algorithm

We assume **list** is an array of **n** elements. We further assume that **swap** function swaps the values of the given array elements.

```
begin BubbleSort(list)

   for all elements of list
      if list[i] > list[i+1]
         swap(list[i], list[i+1])
      end if
   end for

   return list

end BubbleSort
```

Pseudocode

We observe in algorithm that Bubble Sort compares each pair of array element unless the whole array is completely sorted in an ascending order. This may cause a few complexity issues like what if the array needs no more swapping as all the elements are already ascending.

To ease-out the issue, we use one flag variable **swapped** which will help us see if any swap has happened or not. If no swap has occurred, i.e. the array requires no more processing to be sorted, it will come out of the loop.

Pseudocode of BubbleSort algorithm can be written as follows −

```
procedure bubbleSort( list : array of items )

   loop = list.count;

   for i = 0 to loop-1 do:
      swapped = false

      for j = 0 to loop-1 do:

         /* compare the adjacent elements */
         if list[j] > list[j+1] then
            /* swap them */
```

```
            swap( list[j], list[j+1] )
            swapped = true
         end if

      end for

      /*if no number was swapped that means
      array is sorted now, break the loop.*/

      if(not swapped) then
         break
      end if

   end for

end procedure return list
```

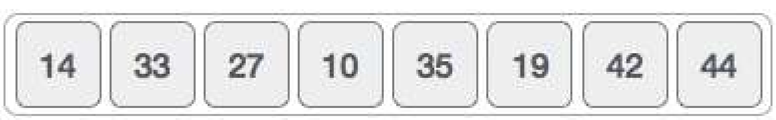
INSERTION SORT

This is an in-place comparison-based sorting algorithm. Here, a sub-list is maintained which is always sorted. For example, the lower part of an array is maintained to be sorted. An element which is to be 'insert'ed in this sorted sub-list, has to find its appropriate place and then it has to be inserted there. Hence the name, **insertion sort**.

The array is searched sequentially and unsorted items are moved and inserted into the sorted sub-list (in the same array). This algorithm is not suitable for large data sets as its average and worst case complexity are of $O(n^2)$, where **n** is the number of items.

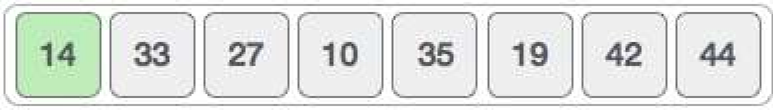
How Insertion Sort Works?

We take an unsorted array for our example.

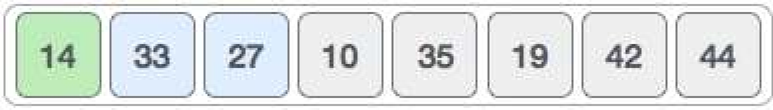


Insertion sort compares the first two elements.

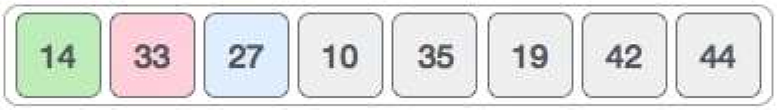
It finds that both 14 and 33 are already in ascending order. For now, 14 is in sorted sub-list.



Insertion sort moves ahead and compares 33 with 27.

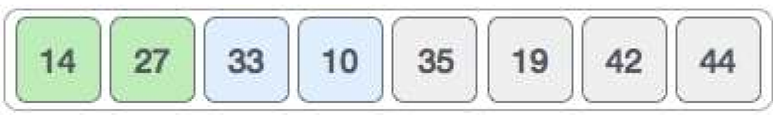


And finds that 33 is not in the correct position.



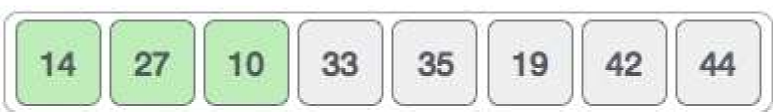
It swaps 33 with 27. It also checks with all the elements of sorted sub-list. Here we see that the sorted sub-list has only one element 14, and 27 is greater than 14. Hence, the sorted sub-list remains sorted after swapping.

By now we have 14 and 27 in the sorted sub-list. Next, it compares 33 with 10.

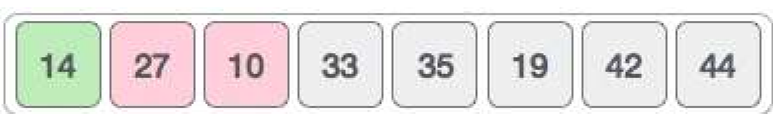


These values are not in a sorted order.

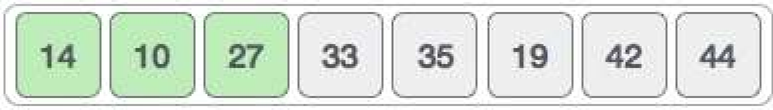
So we swap them.



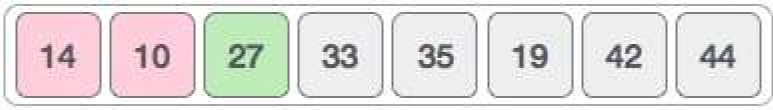
However, swapping makes 27 and 10 unsorted.



Hence, we swap them too.



Again we find 14 and 10 in an unsorted order.



We swap them again. By the end of third iteration, we have a sorted sub-list of 4 items.

This process goes on until all the unsorted values are covered in a sorted sub-list. Now we shall see some programming aspects of insertion sort.

Algorithm

Now we have a bigger picture of how this sorting technique works, so we can derive simple steps by which we can achieve insertion sort.

```
Step 1 − If it is the first element, it is already sorted. return 
1;
Step 2 − Pick next element
Step 3 − Compare with all elements in the sorted sub-list
Step 4 − Shift all the elements in the sorted sub-list that is 
greater than the 
         value to be sorted
Step 5 − Insert the value
Step 6 − Repeat until list is sorted
```

Pseudocode

```
procedure insertionSort( A : array of items )
   int holePosition
   int valueToInsert

   for i = 1 to length(A) inclusive do:

      /* select value to be inserted */
      valueToInsert = A[i]
      holePosition = i

      /*locate hole position for the element to be inserted */
```

```
      while holePosition > 0 and A[holePosition-1] > valueToInsert
do:
         A[holePosition] = A[holePosition-1]
         holePosition = holePosition -1
      end while

      /* insert the number at hole position */
      A[holePosition] = valueToInsert

   end for

end procedure
```

SELECTION SORT

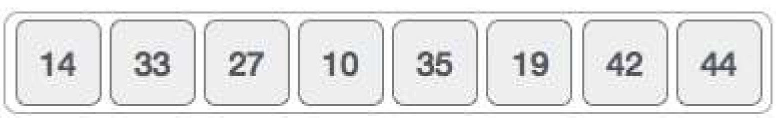
Selection sort is a simple sorting algorithm. This sorting algorithm is an in-place comparison-based algorithm in which the list is divided into two parts, the sorted part at the left end and the unsorted part at the right end. Initially, the sorted part is empty and the unsorted part is the entire list.

The smallest element is selected from the unsorted array and swapped with the leftmost element, and that element becomes a part of the sorted array. This process continues moving unsorted array boundary by one element to the right.

This algorithm is not suitable for large data sets as its average and worst case complexities are of $O(n^2)$, where **n** is the number of items.

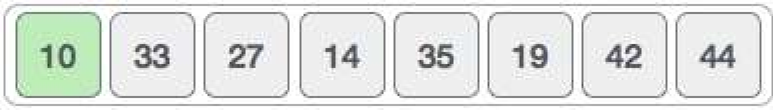
How Selection Sort Works?

Consider the following depicted array as an example.

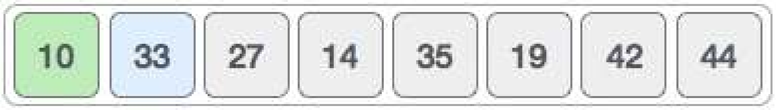


For the first position in the sorted list, the whole list is scanned sequentially. The first position where 14 is stored presently, we search the whole list and find that 10 is the lowest value.

So we replace 14 with 10. After one iteration 10, which happens to be the minimum value in the list, appears in the first position of the sorted list.

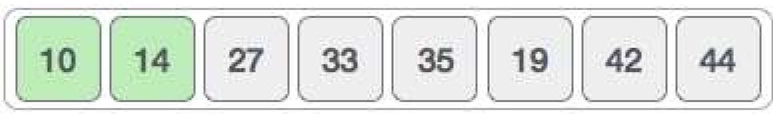


For the second position, where 33 is residing, we start scanning the rest of the list in a linear manner.



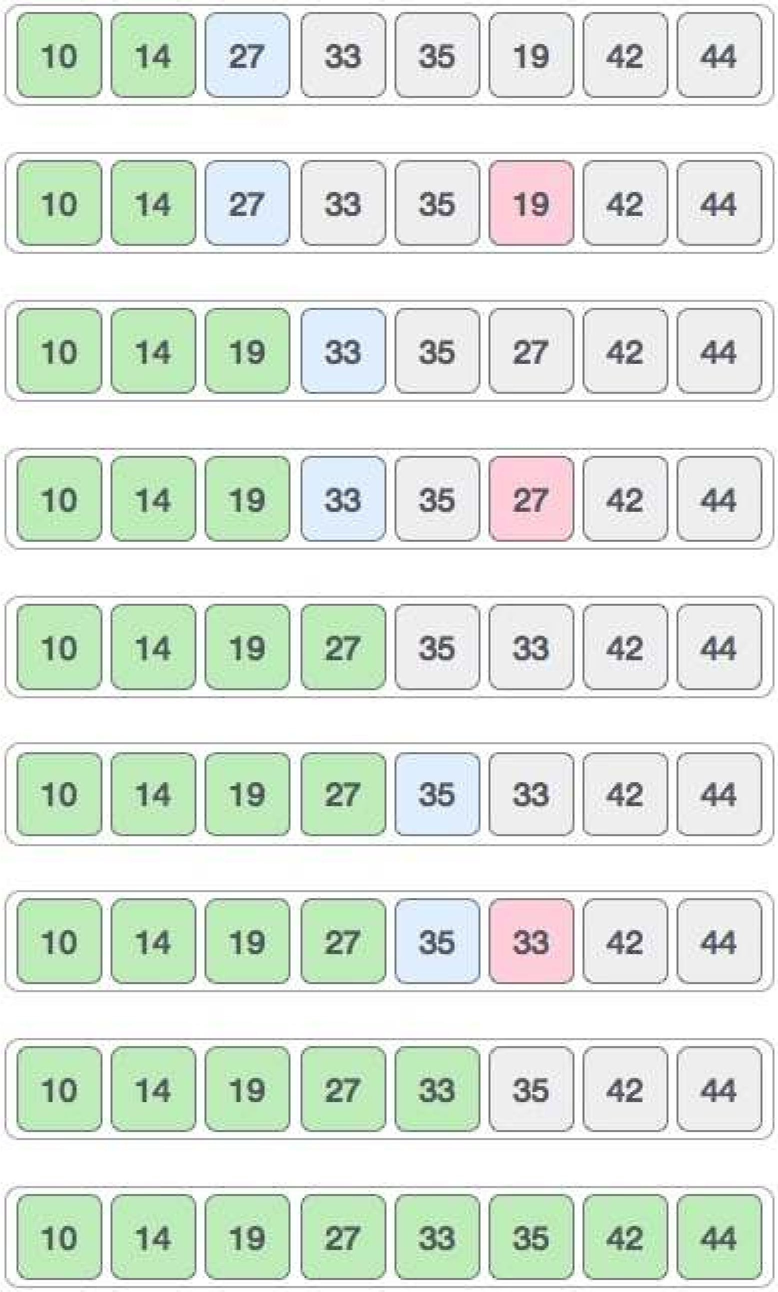
We find that 14 is the second lowest value in the list and it should appear at the second place. We swap these values.

After two iterations, two least values are positioned at the beginning in a sorted manner.



The same process is applied to the rest of the items in the array.

Following is a pictorial depiction of the entire sorting process −



Now, let us learn some programming aspects of selection sort.

Algorithm

```
Step 1 − Set MIN to location 0
Step 2 − Search the minimum element in the list
Step 3 − Swap with value at location MIN
Step 4 − Increment MIN to point to next element
Step 5 − Repeat until list is sorted
```

Pseudocode

```
procedure selection sort
   list  : array of items
   n     : size of list

   for i = 1 to n - 1
   /* set current element as minimum*/
      min = i

      /* check the element to be minimum */

      for j = i+1 to n
         if list[j] < list[min] then
            min = j;
         end if
      end for

      /* swap the minimum element with the current element*/
      if indexMin != i  then
         swap list[min] and list[i]
      end if
   end for

end procedure
```

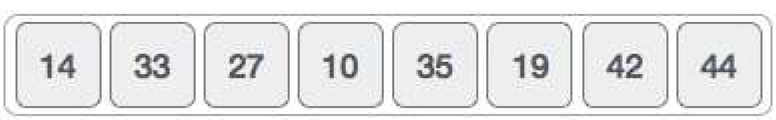
MERGE SORT

Merge sort is a sorting technique based on divide and conquer technique. With worst-case time complexity being O(n log n), it is one of the most respected algorithms.

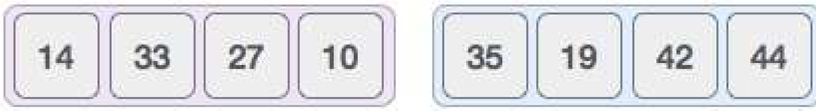
Merge sort first divides the array into equal halves and then combines them in a sorted manner.

How Merge Sort Works?

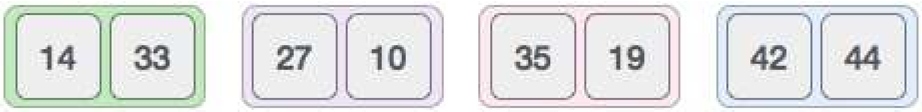
To understand merge sort, we take an unsorted array as the following −



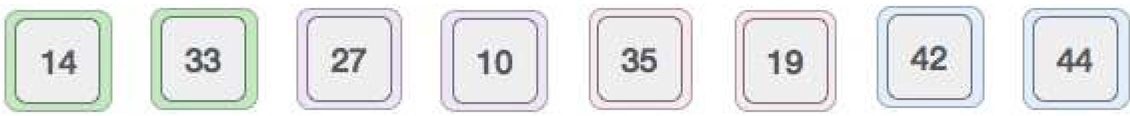
We know that merge sort first divides the whole array iteratively into equal halves unless the atomic values are achieved. We see here that an array of 8 items is divided into two arrays of size 4.



This does not change the sequence of appearance of items in the original. Now we divide these two arrays into halves.

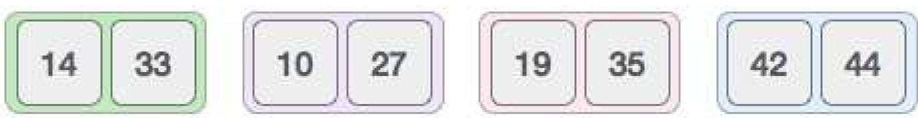


We further divide these arrays and we achieve atomic value which can no more be divided.

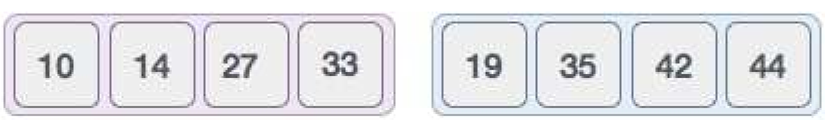


Now, we combine them in exactly the same manner as they were broken down. Please note the color codes given to these lists.

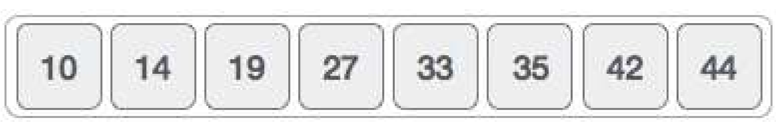
We first compare the element for each list and then combine them into another list in a sorted manner. We see that 14 and 33 are in sorted positions. We compare 27 and 10 and in the target list of 2 values we put 10 first, followed by 27. We change the order of 19 and 35 whereas 42 and 44 are placed sequentially.



In the next iteration of the combining phase, we compare lists of two data values, and merge them into a list of found data values placing all in a sorted order.



After the final merging, the list should look like this −



Now we should learn some programming aspects of merge sorting.

Algorithm

Merge sort keeps on dividing the list into equal halves until it can no more be divided. By definition, if it is only one element in the list, it is sorted. Then, merge sort combines the smaller sorted lists keeping the new list sorted too.

Step 1 − if it is only one element in the list it is already sorted, return.
Step 2 − divide the list recursively into two halves until it can no more be divided.
Step 3 − merge the smaller lists into new list in sorted order.

Pseudocode

We shall now see the pseudocodes for merge sort functions. As our algorithms point out two main functions − divide & merge.

Merge sort works with recursion and we shall see our implementation in the same way.

```
procedure mergesort( var a as array )
   if ( n == 1 ) return a

   var l1 as array = a[0] ... a[n/2]
   var l2 as array = a[n/2+1] ... a[n]

   l1 = mergesort( l1 )
   l2 = mergesort( l2 )

   return merge( l1, l2 )
end procedure

procedure merge( var a as array, var b as array )

   var c as array
   while ( a and b have elements )
      if ( a[0] > b[0] )
         add b[0] to the end of c
         remove b[0] from b
      else
         add a[0] to the end of c
         remove a[0] from a
      end if
   end while

   while ( a has elements )
      add a[0] to the end of c
      remove a[0] from a
   end while

   while ( b has elements )
      add b[0] to the end of c
      remove b[0] from b
   end while

   return c
```

```
end procedure
```

QUICK SORT

Quick sort is a highly efficient sorting algorithm and is based on partitioning of array of data into smaller arrays. A large array is partitioned into two arrays one of which holds values smaller than the specified value, say pivot, based on which the partition is made and another array holds values greater than the pivot value.

Quicksort partitions an array and then calls itself recursively twice to sort the two resulting subarrays. This algorithm is quite efficient for large-sized data sets as its average and worst-case complexity are $O(n^2)$, respectively.

Partition in Quick Sort

Following animated representation explains how to find the pivot value in an array.

The pivot value divides the list into two parts. And recursively, we find the pivot for each sub-lists until all lists contains only one element.

Quick Sort Pivot Algorithm

Based on our understanding of partitioning in quick sort, we will now try to write an algorithm for it, which is as follows.

```
Step 1 − Choose the highest index value has pivot
Step 2 − Take two variables to point left and right of the list
excluding pivot
Step 3 − left points to the low index
Step 4 − right points to the high
Step 5 − while value at left is less than pivot move right
Step 6 − while value at right is greater than pivot move left
```

```
Step 7 − if both step 5 and step 6 does not match swap left and
right
Step 8 − if left ≥ right, the point where they met is new pivot
```

Quick Sort Pivot Pseudocode

The pseudocode for the above algorithm can be derived as −

```
function partitionFunc(left, right, pivot)
   leftPointer = left
   rightPointer = right - 1

   while True do
      while A[++leftPointer] < pivot do
         //do-nothing
      end while

      while rightPointer > 0 && A[--rightPointer] > pivot do
         //do-nothing
      end while

      if leftPointer >= rightPointer
         break
      else
         swap leftPointer,rightPointer
      end if

   end while

   swap leftPointer,right
   return leftPointer

end function
```

Quick Sort Algorithm

Using pivot algorithm recursively, we end up with smaller possible partitions. Each partition is then processed for quick sort. We define recursive algorithm for quicksort as follows −

```
Step 1 − Make the right-most index value pivot
Step 2 − partition the array using pivot value
Step 3 − quicksort left partition recursively
Step 4 − quicksort right partition recursively
```

Quick Sort Pseudocode

To get more into it, let see the pseudocode for quick sort algorithm −

```
procedure quickSort(left, right)

   if right-left <= 0
      return
   else
      pivot = A[right]
      partition = partitionFunc(left, right, pivot)
      quickSort(left,partition-1)
      quickSort(partition+1,right)
   end if

end procedure
```

SEARCHING ALGORITHMS

LINEAR SEARCH

Linear search is a very simple search algorithm. In this type of search, a sequential search is made over all items one by one. Every item is checked and if a match is found then that particular item is returned, otherwise the search continues till the end of the data collection.

Algorithm

```
Linear Search ( Array A, Value x)

Step 1: Set i to 1
Step 2: if i > n then go to step 7
Step 3: if A[i] = x then go to step 6
Step 4: Set i to i + 1
```

```
Step 5: Go to Step 2
Step 6: Print Element x Found at index i and go to step 8
Step 7: Print element not found
Step 8: Exit
```

Pseudocode

```
procedure linear_search (list, value)

   for each item in the list
      if match item == value
         return the item's location
      end if
   end for

end procedure
```

BINARY SEARCH

Binary search is a fast search algorithm with run-time complexity of O(log n). This search algorithm works on the principle of divide and conquer. For this algorithm to work properly, the data collection should be in the sorted form.

Binary search looks for a particular item by comparing the middle most item of the collection. If a match occurs, then the index of item is returned. If the middle item is greater than the item, then the item is searched in the sub-array to the left of the middle item. Otherwise, the item is searched for in the sub-array to the right of the middle item. This process continues on the sub-array as well until the size of the subarray reduces to zero.

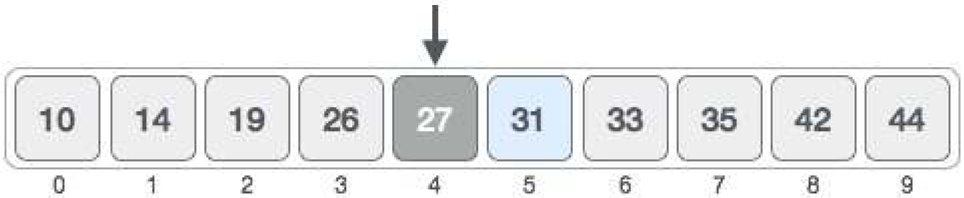
How Binary Search Works?

For a binary search to work, it is mandatory for the target array to be sorted. We shall learn the process of binary search with a pictorial example. The following is our sorted array and let us assume that we need to search the location of value 31 using binary search.

First, we shall determine half of the array by using this formula −

```
mid = low + (high - low) / 2
```

Here it is, 0 + (9 - 0) / 2 = 4 (integer value of 4.5). So, 4 is the mid of the array.



Now we compare the value stored at location 4, with the value being searched, i.e. 31. We find that the value at location 4 is 27, which is not a match. As the value is greater than 27 and we have a sorted array, so we also know that the target value must be in the upper portion of the array.

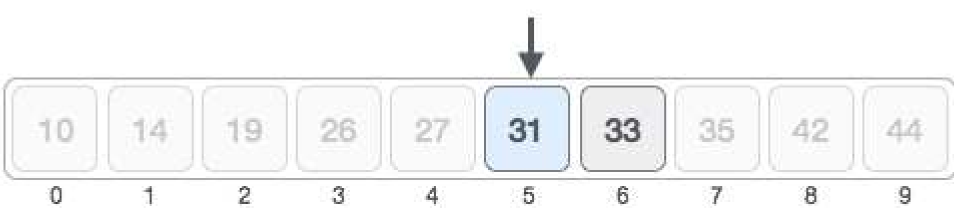
We change our low to mid + 1 and find the new mid value again.

```
low = mid + 1
mid = low + (high - low) / 2
```

Our new mid is 7 now. We compare the value stored at location 7 with our target value 31.

The value stored at location 7 is not a match, rather it is more than what we are looking for. So, the value must be in the lower part from this location.

Hence, we calculate the mid again. This time it is 5.



We compare the value stored at location 5 with our target value. We find that it is a match.

We conclude that the target value 31 is stored at location 5.

Binary search halves the searchable items and thus reduces the count of comparisons to be made to very less numbers.

Pseudocode

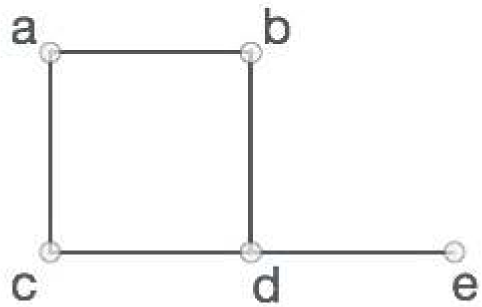
The pseudocode of binary search algorithms should look like this −

```
Procedure binary_search
   A ← sorted array
   n ← size of array
   x ← value to be searched

   Set lowerBound = 1
   Set upperBound = n

   while x not found
      if upperBound < lowerBound
         EXIT: x does not exists.

      set midPoint = lowerBound + ( upperBound - lowerBound ) / 2

      if A[midPoint] < x
         set lowerBound = midPoint + 1

      if A[midPoint] > x
         set upperBound = midPoint - 1

      if A[midPoint] = x
         EXIT: x found at location midPoint
   end while

end procedure
```

BASIC GRAPHS

A graph is a pictorial representation of a set of objects where some pairs of objects are connected by links. The interconnected objects are represented by points termed as **vertices**, and the links that connect the vertices are called **edges**.

Formally, a graph is a pair of sets **(V, E)**, where **V** is the set of vertices and **E** is the set of edges, connecting the pairs of vertices. Take a look at the following graph −



In the above graph,

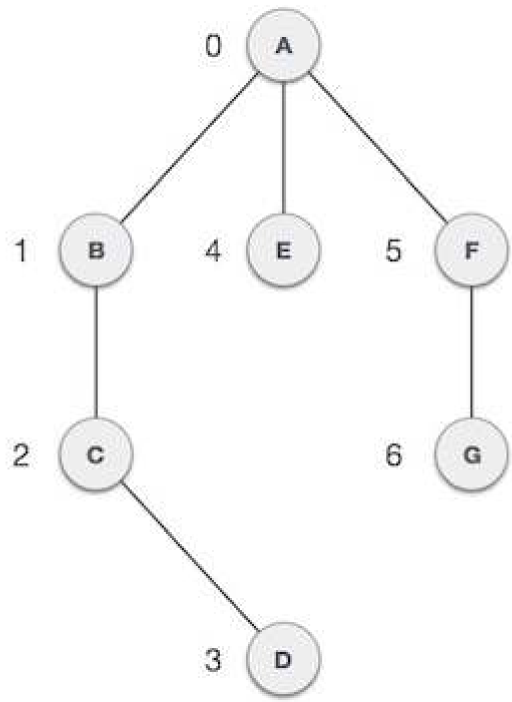
V = {a, b, c, d, e}

E = {ab, ac, bd, cd, de}

Graph Data Structure

Mathematical graphs can be represented in data structure. We can represent a graph using an array of vertices and a two-dimensional array of edges. Before we proceed further, let's familiarize ourselves with some important terms −

- **Vertex** − Each node of the graph is represented as a vertex. In the following example, the labeled circle represents vertices. Thus, A to G are vertices. We can represent them using an array as shown in the following image. Here A can be identified by index 0. B can be identified using index 1 and so on.
- **Edge** − Edge represents a path between two vertices or a line between two vertices. In the following example, the lines from A to B, B to C, and so on represents edges. We can use a two-dimensional array to represent an array as shown in the following image. Here AB can be represented as 1 at row 0, column 1, BC as 1 at row 1, column 2 and so on, keeping other combinations as 0.
- **Adjacency** − Two node or vertices are adjacent if they are connected to each other through an edge. In the following example, B is adjacent to A, C is adjacent to B, and so on.
- **Path** − Path represents a sequence of edges between the two vertices. In the following example, ABCD represents a path from A to D.



Basic Operations

Following are basic primary operations of a Graph −

- **Add Vertex** − Adds a vertex to the graph.
- **Add Edge** − Adds an edge between the two vertices of the graph.
- **Display Vertex** − Displays a vertex of the graph.