

Applied CS Concepts

1. Linux, Git or Version Control

2. SDLC and Agile

3. Big-O Notation

4. Tree and Graphs

5. Stack, Queue, Hash & Heaps

6. Sorting and Searching

7. Popular Algorithms

8. Database Concept

9. SQL

10. REST API

1. Linux

- **Open-source, Unix-like OS** is known for stability and flexibility.
- **Key Concepts:**
 - **Kernel:** Core that interacts with hardware.
 - **Shell:** Command-line interface (CLI) like Bash and Zsh.
 - **Filesystem:** Hierarchical structure starting with root (/).
 - **Permissions:** Control access (read, write, execute) for users/groups.
- **Common Commands:**
 - ls: List files.
 - cd: Change directory.
 - cp: Copy files.
 - rm: Remove files.
 - chmod: Change file permissions.
 - ps: View active processes.

2. Git (Version Control)

- **Distributed Version Control System** used to track code changes.
- **Key Concepts:**
 - **Repository:** Stores project files and history.
 - **Commit:** Snapshot of changes with a unique ID.
 - **Branch:** Parallel line of development.
 - **Merge:** Combine changes from branches.
 - **Clone:** Copy of a remote repo.
 - **Pull/Push:** Fetch or send changes to/from remote repo.
- **Basic Git Commands:**
 - git init: Initialize a repo.
 - git clone <url>: Clone remote repo.
 - git add <file>: Stage file for commit.

- `git commit -m "message"`: Commit changes.
- `git push`: Push commits to remote repo.
- `git pull`: Fetch and merge remote changes.
- `git branch`: Manage branches.
- `git merge <branch>`: Merge branches.

1. SDLC (Software Development Life Cycle)

- **Phases**: Steps followed to develop software from concept to deployment.
 - **Requirements Gathering**: Understand client needs.
 - **System Design**: Plan architecture and technology stack.
 - **Implementation (Coding)**: Actual development of the system.
 - **Testing**: Ensure software works as expected.
 - **Deployment**: Release the software to production.
 - **Maintenance**: Update and fix issues post-deployment.
- **Models**:
 - **Waterfall**: Linear, sequential approach.
 - **Iterative**: Repeated cycles (or iterations) for incremental development.
 - **V-Model**: Verification and validation at each stage.
 - **Spiral**: Focuses on risk analysis at every phase.

2. Agile Methodology

- **Iterative and Incremental Approach** for software development.
- **Key Principles**:
 - **Customer collaboration**: Continuous involvement from stakeholders.
 - **Responding to change**: Flexibility to adapt to changing requirements.
 - **Working software**: Deliver functioning software frequently.
 - **Individuals and interactions**: Focus on motivated, self-organizing teams.
- **Agile Frameworks**:
 - **Scrum**: Iterative, time-boxed sprints (2-4 weeks).
 - **Kanban**: Continuous flow and visual task management.
 - **Extreme Programming (XP)**: Emphasizes technical excellence and continuous feedback.
- **Benefits**:
 - **Faster Delivery**: Frequent releases.
 - **Flexibility**: Easy to adapt to changes.
 - **Customer Satisfaction**: Continuous feedback from clients.

Big-O Notation:

Big-O notation describes the efficiency of an algorithm, focusing on how time or space grows with input size.

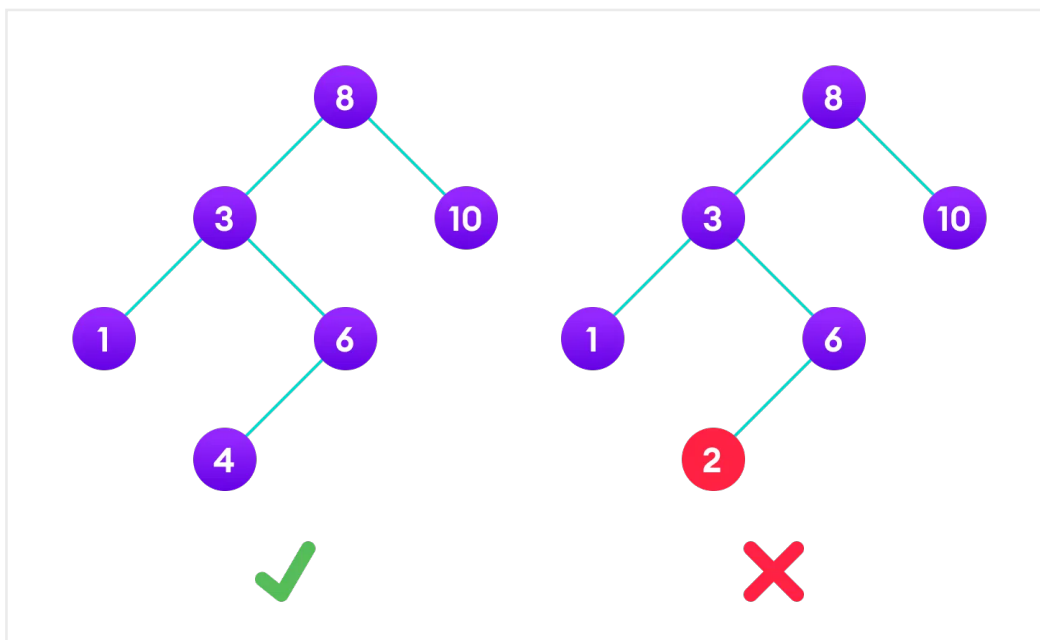
- **$O(1)$** : Constant time. Takes the same time regardless of input size.
- **$O(n)$** : Linear time. Time grows directly with input size.
- **$O(n^2)$** : Quadratic time. Time grows exponentially with input size (e.g., nested loops).
- **$O(\log n)$** : Logarithmic time. Time grows slower as input increases (e.g., binary search).
- **$O(n \log n)$** : Linearithmic time. Found in efficient sorting algorithms.

Asymptotic Notation:

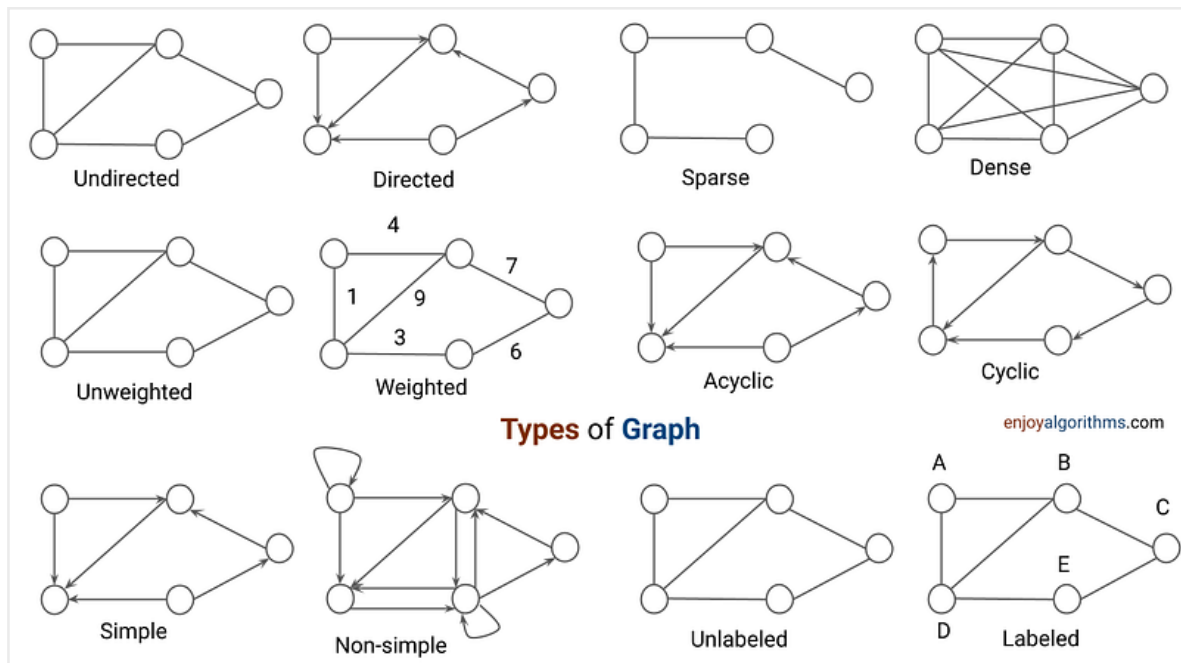
- **Big-O (O)**: Worst-case upper bound (e.g., $O(n^2)$).
- **Big- Ω (Ω)**: Best-case lower bound (e.g., $\Omega(n)$).
- **Big- Θ (Θ)**: Exact bound, both upper and lower (e.g., $\Theta(n \log n)$).

Trees:

- A tree is a hierarchical structure with nodes and edges, where each node has one parent (except the root) and zero or more children.
- **Binary Tree**: Each node has at most two children.
- **Binary Search Tree (BST)**: Left child is smaller, right child is larger than the parent node.



Graphs:

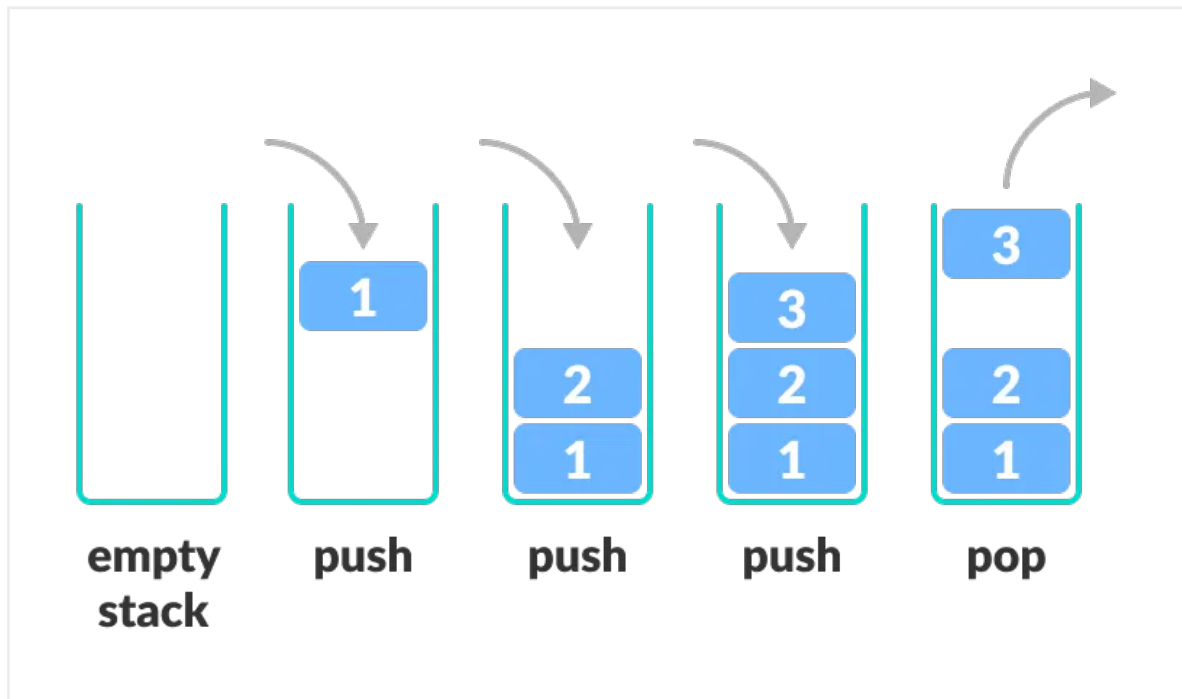


- A graph is a collection of nodes (vertices) and edges (connections between nodes).
- **Directed Graph (Digraph):** Edges have a direction (e.g., $A \rightarrow B$).
- **Undirected Graph:** Edges have no direction (e.g., $A - B$).
- **Weighted Graph:** Edges have weights (values).

Key Operations:

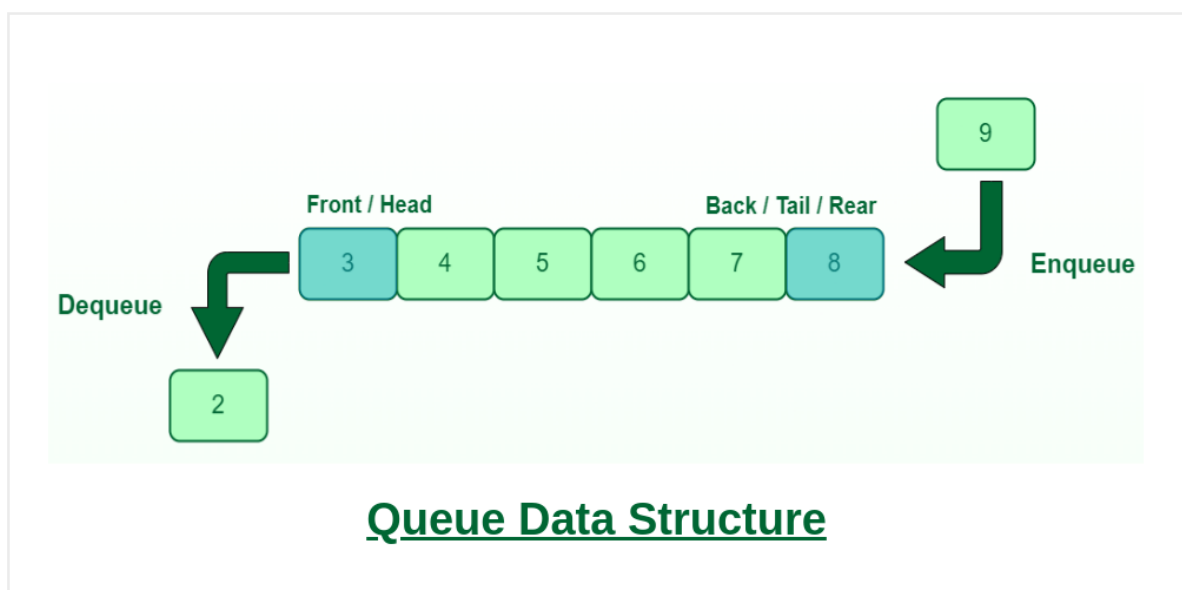
- **Traversal:** Visiting all nodes (e.g., DFS, BFS).
- **Shortest Path:** Finding the shortest route (e.g., Dijkstra's algorithm).

Stack



- **Definition:** A linear data structure that follows the **LIFO** (Last In, First Out) principle.
- **Operations:**
 - **Push:** Add an element to the top.
 - **Pop:** Remove the top element.
 - **Peek/Top:** View the top element without removing it.
- **Use Cases:** Undo operations in text editors, function calls in recursion, parsing expressions.

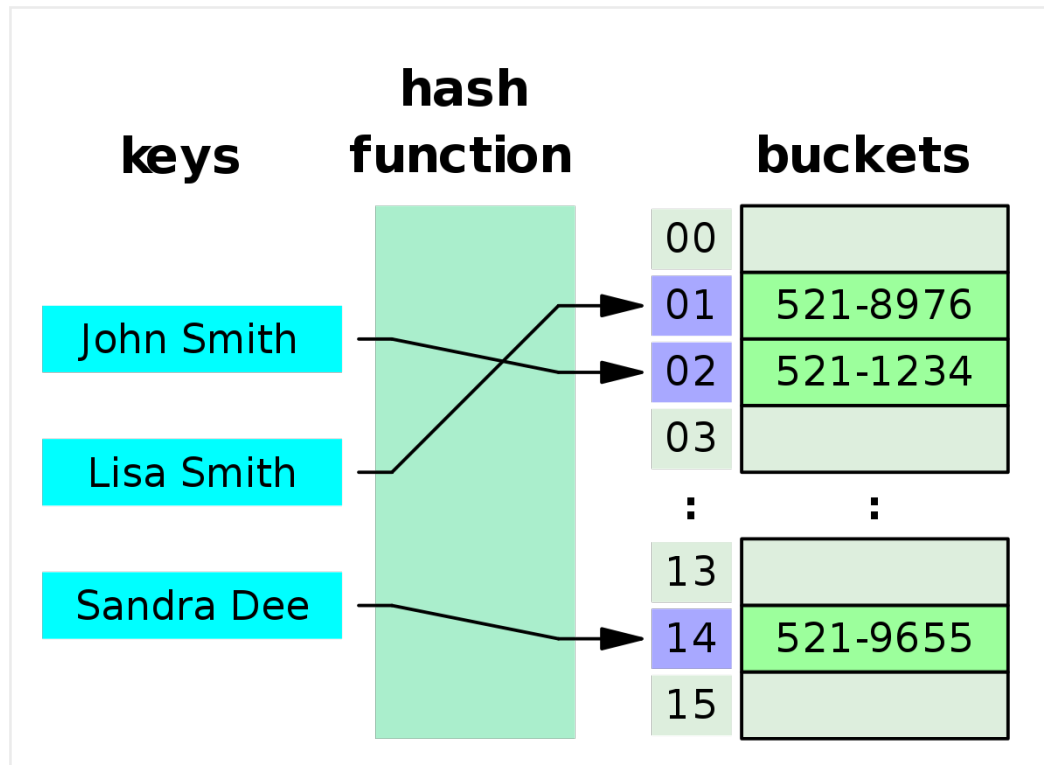
Queue



- **Definition:** A linear data structure that follows the **FIFO** (First In, First Out) principle.
- **Operations:**

- **Enqueue:** Add an element to the back.
- **Dequeue:** Remove the element from the front.
- **Peek/Front:** View the front element without removing it.
- **Use Cases:** Task scheduling, handling requests in servers, BFS in graphs.

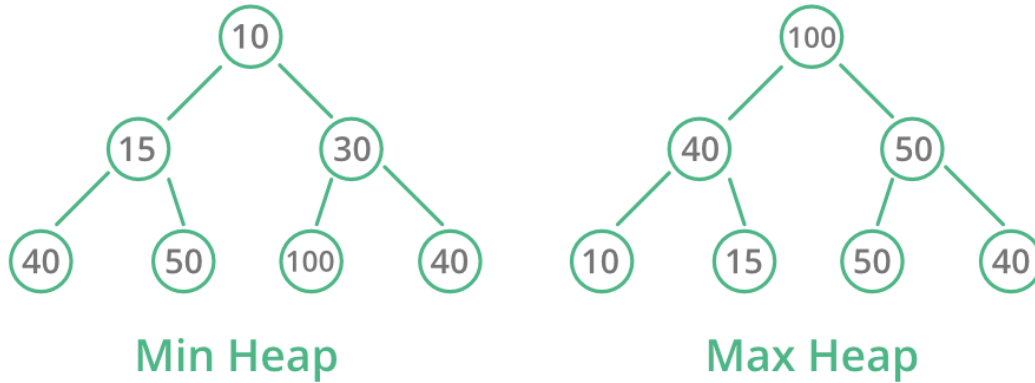
Hash Table (Hash Map)



- **Definition:** A data structure that stores key-value pairs and uses a hash function to compute the index where the value is stored.
- **Operations:**
 - **Insert:** Add key-value pair.
 - **Search:** Retrieve value by key.
 - **Delete:** Remove key-value pair.
- **Use Cases:** Database indexing, caching, fast lookups.

Heap

Heap Data Structure



GG

- **Definition:** A special tree-based data structure that satisfies the **heap property**:
 - **Max Heap:** Parent nodes have greater values than their children.
 - **Min Heap:** Parent nodes have smaller values than their children.
- **Operations:**
 - **Insert:** Add an element and maintain heap property.
 - **Extract Max/Min:** Remove the root (largest or smallest).
 - **Heapify:** Rearrange the tree to maintain the heap property.
- **Use Cases:** Priority queues, heapsort algorithm, scheduling tasks based on priority.

Time Complexity:

- **Stack & Queue:**
 - Push/Pop/Enqueue/Dequeue: $O(1)$
- **Hash Table:**
 - Insert/Search/Delete: $O(1)$ on average, $O(n)$ in the worst case due to collisions.
- **Heap:**
 - Insert/Extract Min/Max: $O(\log n)$

Sorting Algorithms (arrange data in order)

Algorithm	Time Complexity	Key Feature
Bubble Sort	$O(n^2)$	Repeatedly swaps adjacent elements.

Selection Sort	$O(n^2)$	Selects min/max each pass.
Insertion Sort	$O(n^2)$	Builds sorted array one item at a time.
Merge Sort	$O(n \log n)$	Divide and conquer (stable).
Quick Sort	$O(n \log n)$ avg, $O(n^2)$ worst	Fast, but not stable.
Heap Sort	$O(n \log n)$	Uses a heap to sort.

Searching Algorithms (find data)

Algorithm	Time Complexity	Key Feature
Linear Search	$O(n)$	Check each element one by one.
Binary Search	$O(\log n)$	Works only on sorted data; divide and search.

✓ **Efficient sorting** helps improve search speed.

🔍 **Binary Search** is preferred after sorting.

Sure! Here's a **detailed explanation of Sorting and Searching algorithms**, including how they work, their time complexities, and when to use them:

Sorting Algorithms

Sorting arranges data in a specific order (ascending or descending). It's essential for efficient searching and organizing data.

1. Bubble Sort

- **How it works:** Repeatedly steps through the list, compares adjacent elements, and swaps them if they are in the wrong order.
- **Example:** $[4, 2, 1] \rightarrow [2, 4, 1] \rightarrow [2, 1, 4] \rightarrow [1, 2, 4]$
- **Time Complexity:**
 - Best: $O(n)$ (already sorted)
 - Worst: $O(n^2)$
- **Use Case:** Rare in practice; good for educational purposes.

2. Selection Sort

- **How it works:** Repeatedly finds the minimum (or maximum) element from unsorted part and puts it at the beginning.
- **Example:** $[3, 1, 2] \rightarrow [1, 3, 2] \rightarrow [1, 2, 3]$
- **Time Complexity:** $O(n^2)$ for all cases.
- **Use Case:** Simple and easy to implement, but inefficient.

3. Insertion Sort

- **How it works:** Builds the final sorted array one item at a time by inserting each element into its correct position.
- **Example:** $[3, 1, 2] \rightarrow [1, 3, 2] \rightarrow [1, 2, 3]$
- **Time Complexity:**
 - Best: $O(n)$
 - Worst: $O(n^2)$
- **Use Case:** Efficient for small datasets or nearly sorted data.

4. Merge Sort

- **How it works:** Divide the array into halves, sort each half recursively, and merge them.
- **Example:** $[5, 3, 1, 2] \rightarrow [5, 3], [1, 2] \rightarrow [3, 5], [1, 2] \rightarrow [1, 2, 3, 5]$
- **Time Complexity:** $O(n \log n)$ in all cases.
- **Use Case:** Stable sort, used in external sorting (large files).

5. Quick Sort

- **How it works:** Selects a "pivot", partitions array into two parts (less than and greater than pivot), then sorts them recursively.
- **Example:** $[4, 2, 5, 1] \rightarrow \text{pivot } 2 \rightarrow [1], 2, [4, 5] \rightarrow [1, 2, 4, 5]$
- **Time Complexity:**
 - Best/Average: $O(n \log n)$
 - Worst: $O(n^2)$ (when pivot is poorly chosen)
- **Use Case:** Very fast in practice; widely used in libraries.

6. Heap Sort

- **How it works:** Builds a max-heap, repeatedly removes the largest element, and rebuilds the heap.
- **Time Complexity:** $O(n \log n)$
- **Use Case:** No additional memory needed (in-place); good for real-time systems.

Searching Algorithms

Used to find the location or presence of an element in a data structure.

1. Linear Search

- **How it works:** Checks each element one by one.
- **Example:** Search 5 in $[2, 3, 5, 7] \rightarrow$ compares 2, 3, then finds 5.
- **Time Complexity:** $O(n)$
- **Use Case:** Unsorted or small arrays.

2. Binary Search

- **How it works:** Repeatedly divides a sorted array in half and compares the middle element.

- **Example:** Search 7 in [1, 3, 5, 7, 9] → check 5 → then right → finds 7.
- **Time Complexity:** $O(\log n)$
- **Use Case:** Large sorted arrays.

Summary Table

Algorithm	Best Case	Average	Worst	Stable	In-Place
Bubble Sort	$O(n)$	$O(n^2)$	$O(n^2)$	Yes	Yes
Selection Sort	$O(n^2)$	$O(n^2)$	$O(n^2)$	No	Yes
Insertion Sort	$O(n)$	$O(n^2)$	$O(n^2)$	Yes	Yes
Merge Sort	$O(n \log n)$	$O(n \log n)$	$O(n \log n)$	Yes	No
Quick Sort	$O(n \log n)$	$O(n \log n)$	$O(n^2)$	No	Yes
Heap Sort	$O(n \log n)$	$O(n \log n)$	$O(n \log n)$	No	Yes
Linear Search	$O(1)$	$O(n)$	$O(n)$	-	-
Binary Search	$O(1)$	$O(\log n)$	$O(\log n)$	-	-



1. What is a Database?

A **database** is an organized collection of data that allows easy access, management, and updating.



2. DBMS (Database Management System)

Software that manages databases.

Examples: MySQL, PostgreSQL, MongoDB.



3. RDBMS (Relational DBMS)

Stores data in **tables** with rows and columns.

Uses **SQL** to interact with data.

Examples: MySQL, PostgreSQL, Oracle DB.



4. Table Components

- **Row** = Record
- **Column** = Field
- **Primary Key** = Unique identifier for rows
- **Foreign Key** = Links one table to another

✓ 5. ACID Properties

Ensures reliable database transactions:

- **Atomicity** – All or nothing
- **Consistency** – Data stays valid
- **Isolation** – Transactions don't interfere
- **Durability** – Data survives failures

📐 6. Normalization

Process to reduce redundancy and improve data integrity.

🔍 7. SQL (Structured Query Language)

Used to:

- **SELECT** data
- **INSERT** new rows
- **UPDATE** existing records
- **DELETE** rows
- **JOIN** multiple tables

📊 8. Indexing

Speeds up search queries on large datasets.

🔄 9. Transactions

Group of SQL operations executed together. Should follow ACID rules.

📦 10. NoSQL Databases

Non-relational, used for unstructured or semi-structured data.

Types: Document (MongoDB), Key-Value, Column, Graph.

✓ 5. ACID Properties

These ensure **reliable and safe** transactions in databases.

◆ 1. Atomicity – All or Nothing

If one part of the transaction fails, the whole transaction fails.

Example:

Transferring ₹100 from A to B:

- Deduct ₹100 from A
- Add ₹100 to B

If the second step fails, the first one rolls back — no money is lost or created.

◆ 2. Consistency – Valid Data Only

Data must follow rules before and after the transaction.

Example:

A bank rule: an account can't go below ₹0.

If A has ₹100, a transaction withdrawing ₹150 will fail — keeping the data valid.

◆ 3. Isolation – No Interference

Multiple transactions can happen together without messing up each other.

Example:

Two users book the **last movie ticket** at the same time.

Isolation ensures **only one booking goes through**, avoiding double booking.

◆ 4. Durability – Survives Failures

Once committed, data stays even after crashes.

Example:

If a message is sent and committed to the DB, it won't disappear even if the server crashes right after.

✓ SQL (Structured Query Language)

A standard language used to **store, retrieve, and manipulate data** in relational databases like MySQL, PostgreSQL, and SQLite.

◆ Basic SQL Operations (CRUD)

Create – INSERT new records

Read – SELECT data

Update – UPDATE existing records

Delete – DELETE records

◆ Common SQL Commands

- SELECT * FROM users; → Get all data from the users table
- INSERT INTO users (name, age) VALUES ('Alex', 25); → Add a new user
- UPDATE users SET age = 26 WHERE name = 'Alex'; → Change Alex's age
- DELETE FROM users WHERE age < 18; → Remove users under 18
- WHERE, ORDER BY, GROUP BY, JOIN, LIMIT → Filters, sorts, and connects tables

◆ Example Query with ACID

BEGIN TRANSACTION;

UPDATE accounts SET balance = balance - 100 WHERE name = 'Alice';

UPDATE accounts SET balance = balance + 100 WHERE name = 'Bob';

COMMIT;

- Ensures **Atomicity** – both updates happen or none
- **Consistency** – rules like $\text{balance} \geq 0$ are maintained
- **Isolation** – runs safely with other transactions
- **Durability** – after COMMIT, changes persist



10. REST API (Representational State Transfer)

A **REST API** allows communication between client and server over **HTTP** using standard operations.

◆ Key Concepts

- **Client:** The app that makes requests (e.g., browser or mobile app)
- **Server:** The system that handles the request and returns data
- **Resource:** Any object/data (like user, product) identified by a **URL**
- **Stateless:** Each request is independent – server doesn't remember previous ones

◆ HTTP Methods (CRUD)

Method	Action	Example
GET	Read data	GET /users
POST	Create data	POST /users
PUT	Update data	PUT /users/1
DELETE	Delete data	DELETE /users/1

◆ JSON Format

Data is sent and received in **JSON** (JavaScript Object Notation):

```
json
{
  "name": "Alice",
  "age": 25
}
```

◆ Example

Request:

```
http
GET /products/123
```

Response:

```
json
{
  "id": 123,
  "name": "Laptop",
  "price": 999.99
}
```

REST APIs are widely used in **web apps**, **mobile apps**, and **microservices** due to their simplicity and scalability.

