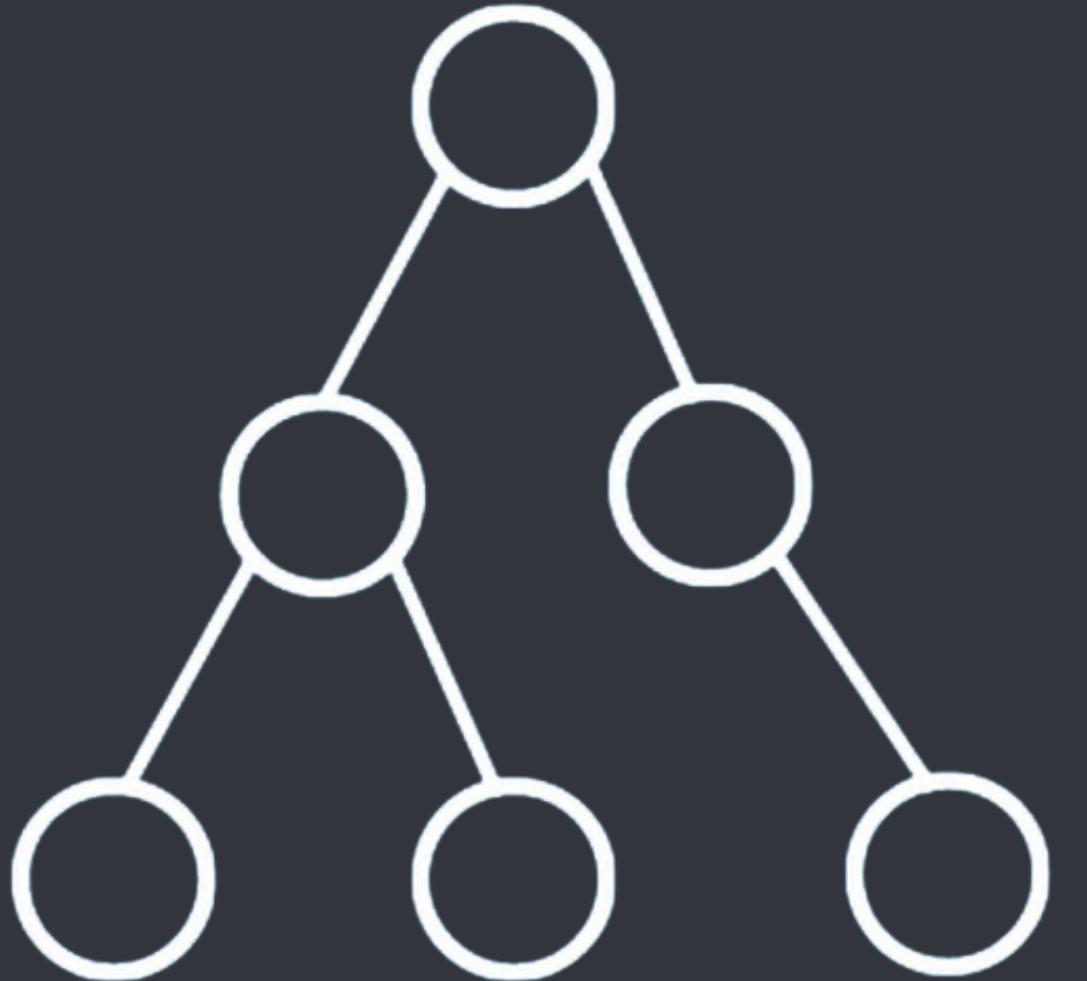


ADVANCED C WORKSHOP

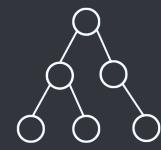
Day 2 and 3
Data Structures and Algorithms



Part 1

What are Data Structure
and Algorithms?

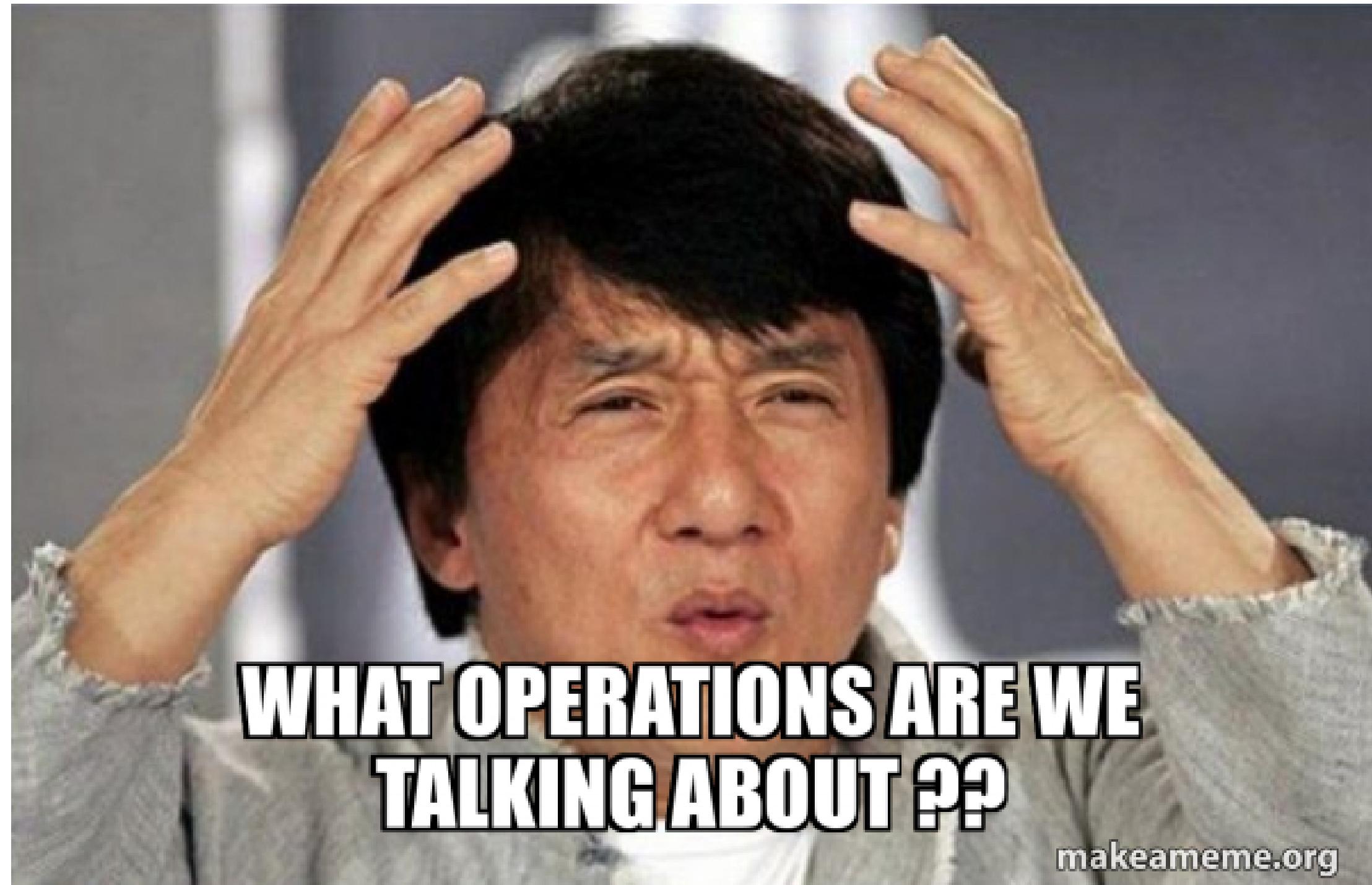




Data Structure



A data structure is a way of organizing, storing, and managing data so that operations can be done efficiently.





Operations

- Insertion
- Deletion
- Traversal
- Searching
- Sorting
- Accessing



Types of Data Structures



1. Linear data structure
2. Non-linear data structure



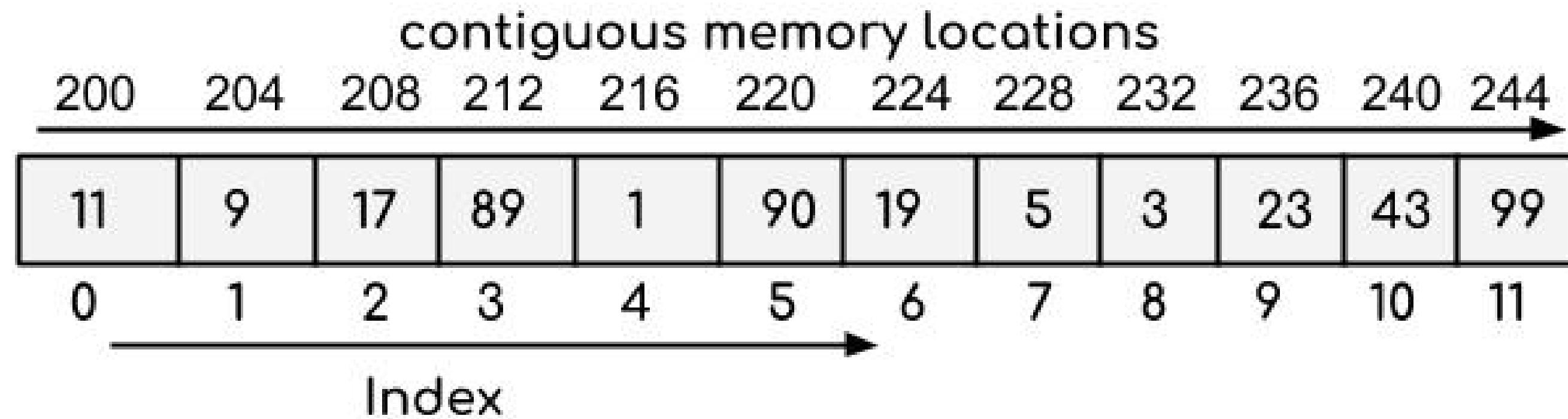
Linear Data Structure



- data elements are *arranged sequentially or linearly where each and every element is attached to its previous and next adjacent element*
- Array, linked list, stack, queue
- Elements are accessed *in a sequential order but it is not compulsory to store all elements sequentially.*



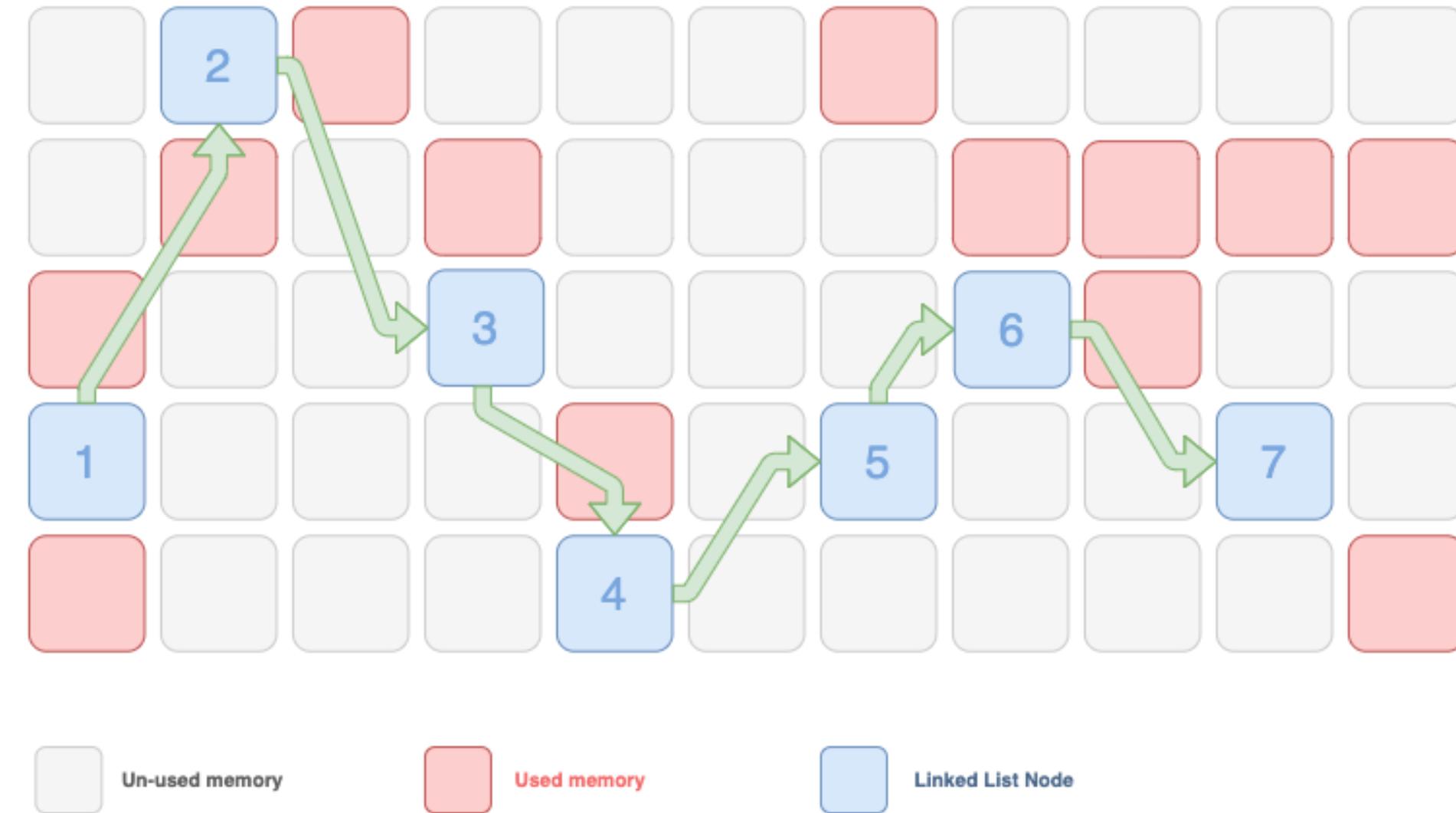
Linear Data Structure



Array



Linear Data Structure



Linked list



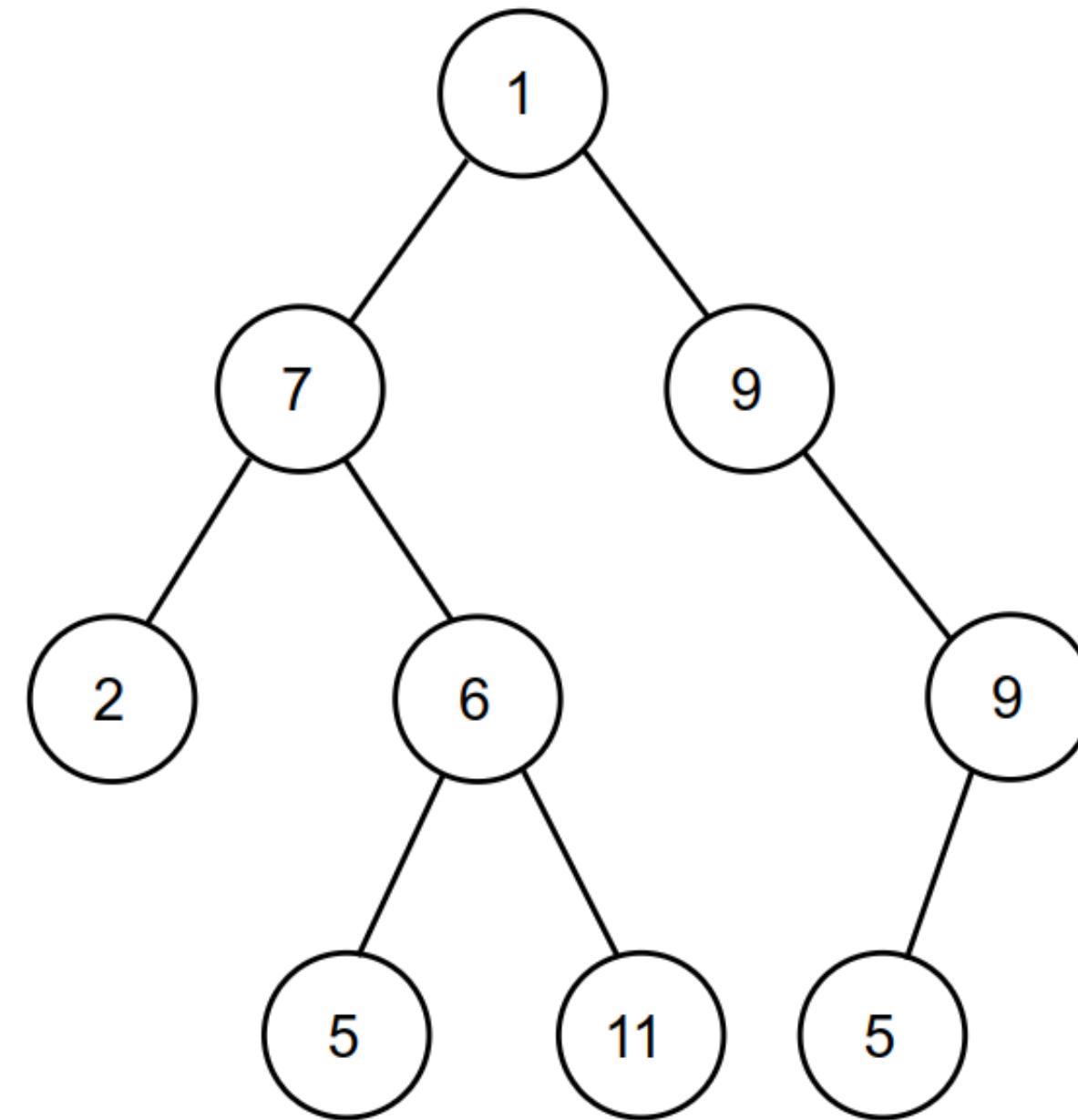
Non-linear Data Structure



- data elements are *not* arranged sequentially or linearly
- Elements of this data structure are *stored/accessed in a non-linear order.*
- trees and graphs



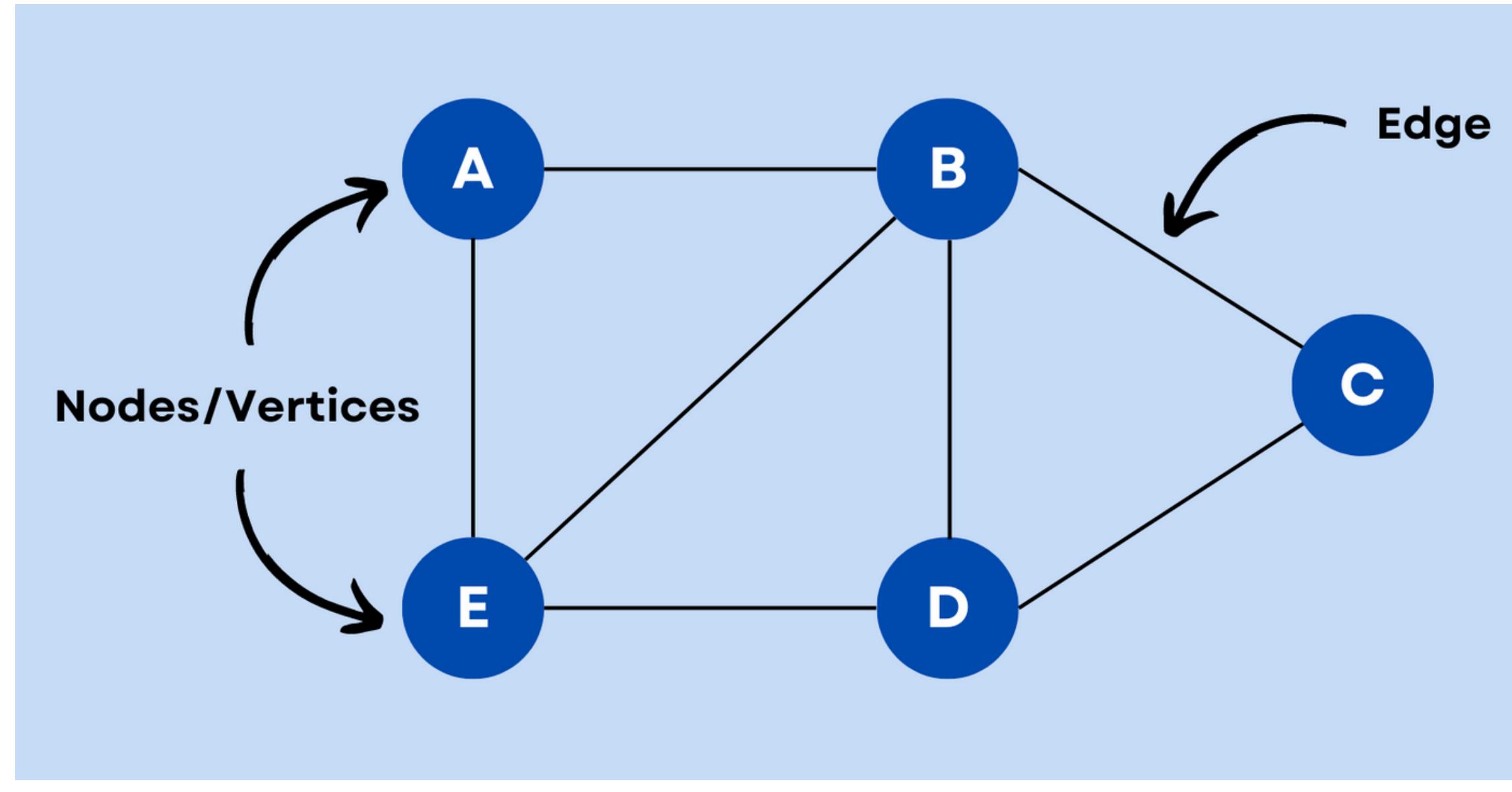
Non-linear Data Structure



Tree



Non-linear Data Structure



Graph



Two Pillars of data structures



1. How to build one
2. How to use one



Algorithm

An algorithm is the step-by-step unambiguous instructions to solve a given problem.



Three Pillars of programming



1. Readability
2. Memory (Space)
3. Speed (Time)

Time and Space Complexities!



Rate of Growth



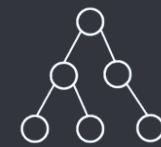
The rate at which the running time increases as a function of input is called rate of growth.



Types of asymptotic notations



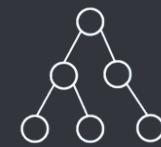
1. Big-O -> aka worst case analysis
2. Big-Omega (Ω) -> best case analysis
3. Big-Theta (Θ) -> average case analysis



What is worst case?



- Defines the input for which the algorithm takes a long time (slowest time to complete).
- Input is the one for which the algorithm runs the slowest.



4 simple rules to determine Big O



1. Find the worst case
2. Use different terms for multiple inputs
(arguments of the function)
3. Remove the constants
4. Drop non dominants (keep only the worst case)



Example

```
// Loop through the array
for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
    if (nums[i] == 5) {
        // Print a message when 5 is found
        printf("Number 5 is found at index %d.\n", i);
        break; // Exit the loop once 5 is found
    }
}
```



Example

```
function printArrayPairs(arrayA, arrayB)
    for elementA in arrayA
        for elementB in arrayB
            print(elementA, elementB)
        end for
    end for
end function
```



Example

```
// First loop with time complexity O(3n^2)
for (int i = 0; i < 3 * n; i++) {
    for (int j = 0; j < n; j++) {
        // Some constant-time operation
    }
}

// Second loop with time complexity O(2n)
for (int k = 0; k < 2 * n; k++) {
    // Some constant-time operation
}

// Third loop with time complexity O(5)
for (int l = 0; l < 5; l++) {
    // Some constant-time operation
}

// Total time complexity:
// O(3n^2) + O(2n) + O(5) = O(3n^2 + 2n + 5) = O(n^2)
```

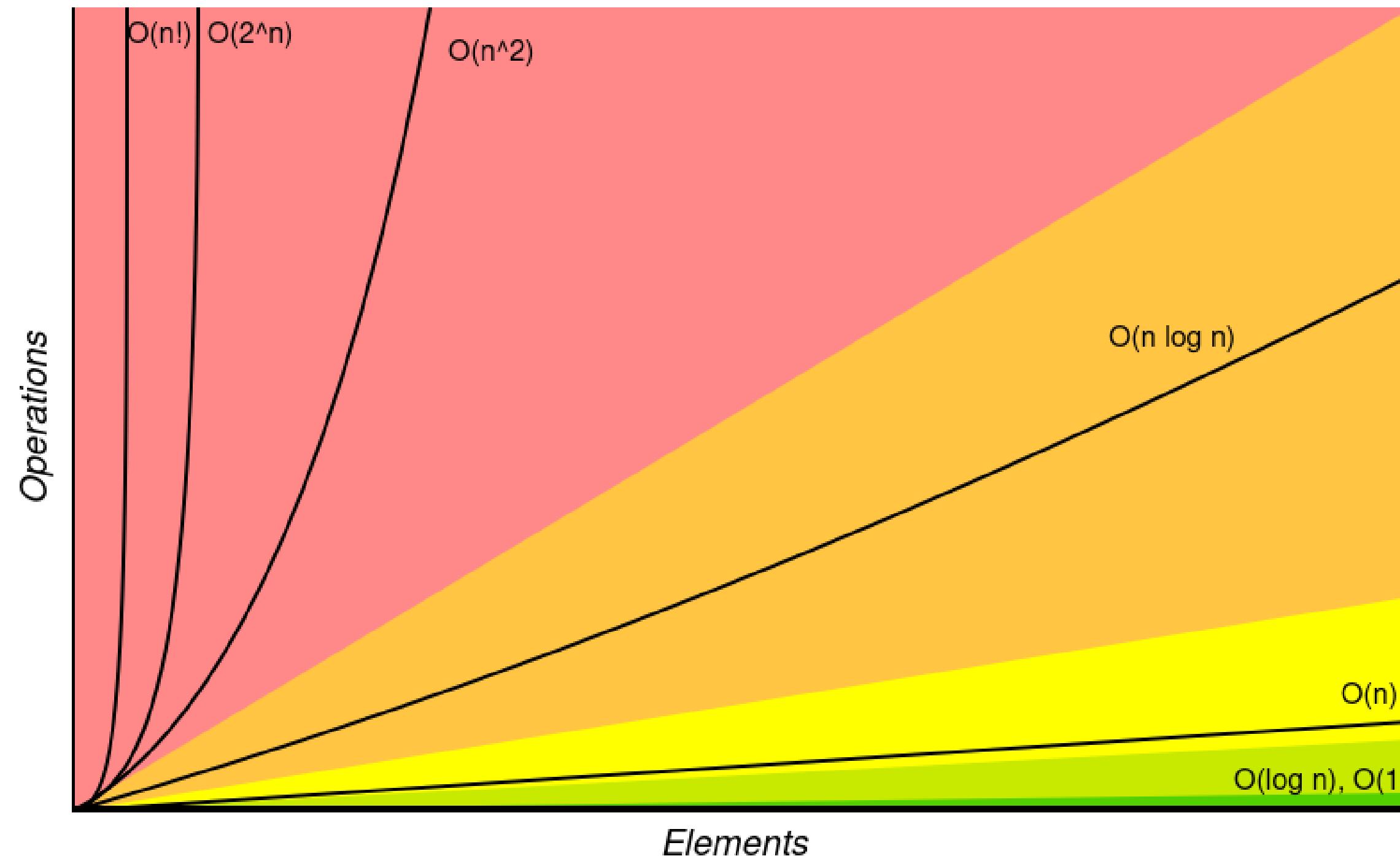


Some common time complexities

Time Complexity	Name	Example
$O(1)$	Constant	Accessing an element in an array by index
$O(n)$	Linear	Iterating through elements in an array
$O(\log n)$	Logarithmic	Binary search in a sorted array
$O(n \log n)$	Linearithmic	Merge sort or quicksort
$O(n^2)$	Quadratic	Iterating through $n \times n$ 2D array
$O(2^n)$	Exponential	The Tower of Hanoi problem



Comparison





Exercise

What is the time complexity
for the following?

```
for (int i = 1; i <= n; ++i)  
{  
    |     i *= 2;  
}  
|
```



Exercise Solution

For $n = 8$, it takes 3 iterations

Loop	i	i (for next iteration)
1	1	$2 * 1 + 1 = 3$
2	3	$2 * 3 + 1 = 7$
3	7	$2 * 7 + 1 = 15 (> 8)$



Exercise Solution

For $n = 16$, it takes 4 iterations

Loop	i	i (for next iteration)
1	1	$2 * 1 + 1 = 3$
2	3	$2 * 3 + 1 = 7$
3	7	$2 * 7 + 1 = 15$
4	15	$2 * 15 + 1 = 31 (> 16)$



Exercise Solution



Let for any variable $n \geq 1$, $n = 2^k$
where k is the number of operations taken (iterations)

Taking log on both sides,

$$\log(n) = \log(2^k)$$

$$\log(n) = k \log 2 = k \rightarrow k = \log_2(n)$$

\therefore Time complexity = $O(\log n)$

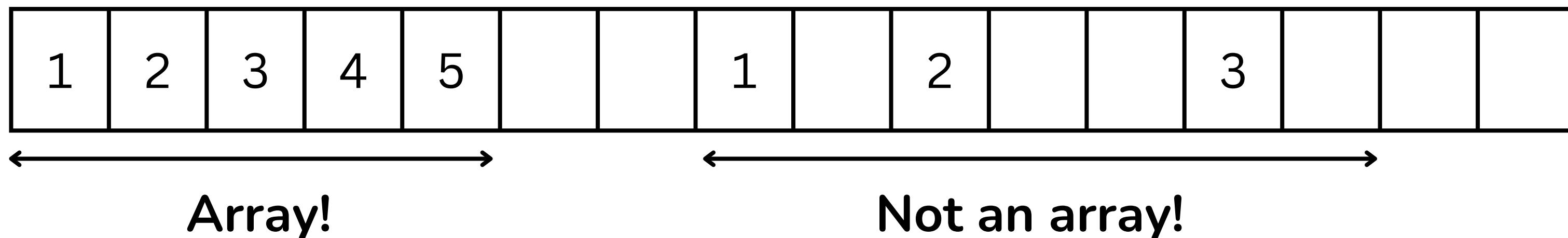
Some useful data structures!

Arrays



Arrays

Arrays are basically a bunch of **similar data** stored together that are **contiguous in memory**.





Arrays

Notable features:

- $O(1)$ element access
- Locality of reference
- $O(n)$ insertion and deletion
- $O(n)$ search in an unsorted array



Arrays: Access

How do you access the i -th element of an array?



Arrays: Access

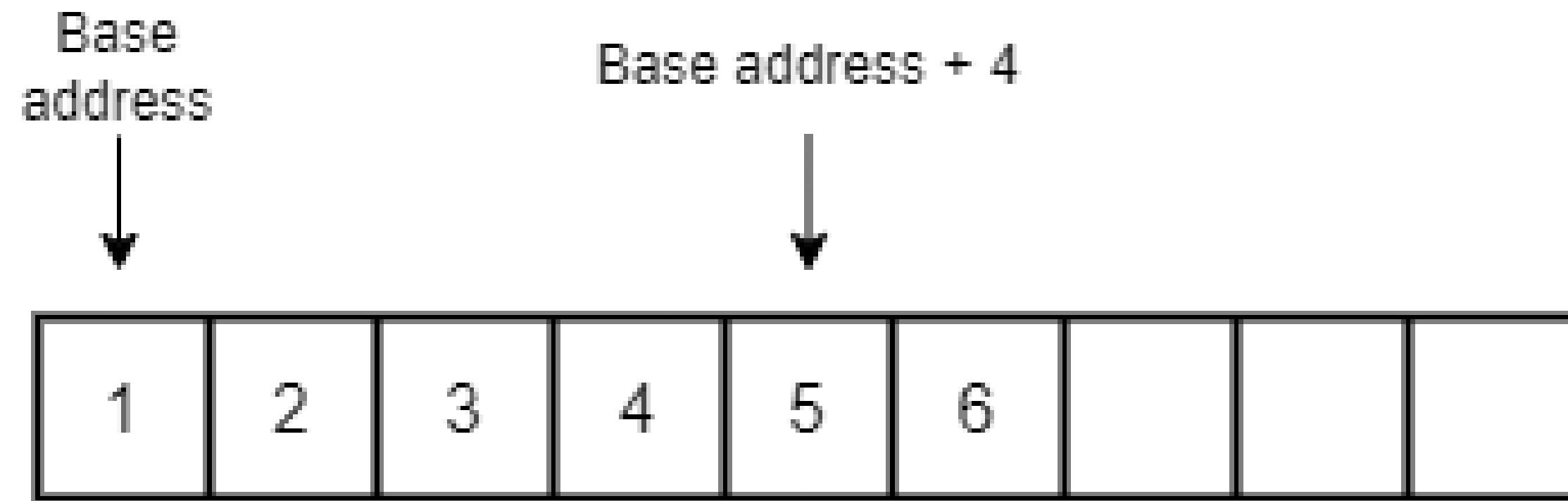
array[i] right?

but what actually goes on behind this?



Arrays: Access

- Elements are accessed using simple pointer arithmetic regardless of number of elements


$$\text{array}[i] = *(\text{base address} + i)$$



Arrays: Access

So,
array[i] and **i[array]**
boil down to the same expression
***(array + i)**

meaning..



Arrays: Access

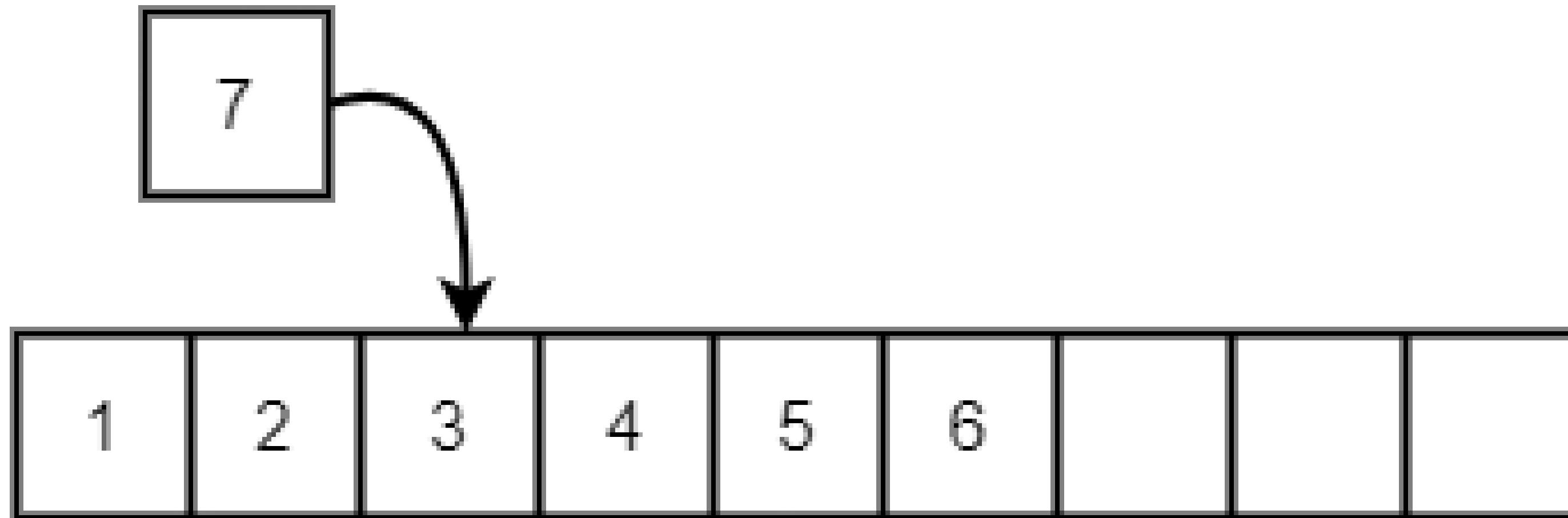
This is completely valid!

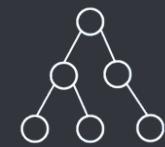
```
int arr[] = {1,2,3,4,5};  
printf("%d", 0[arr]);
```



Arrays: Insertion

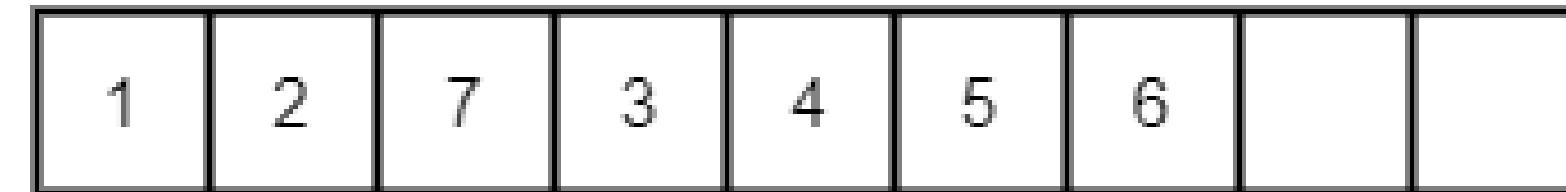
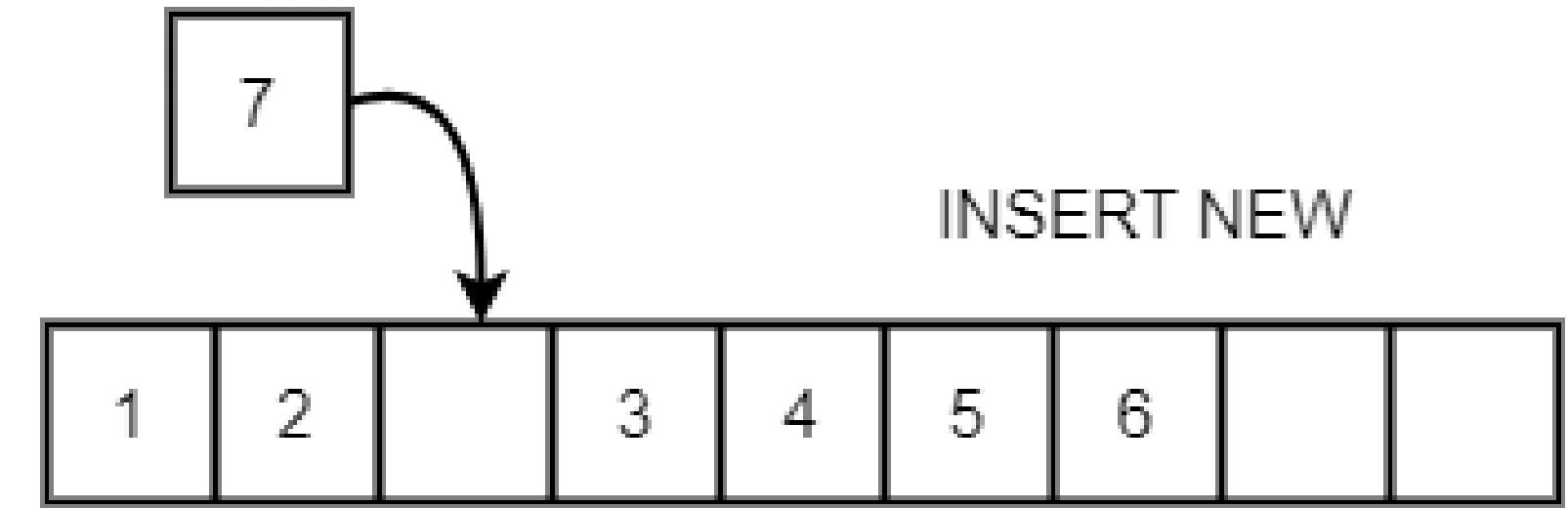
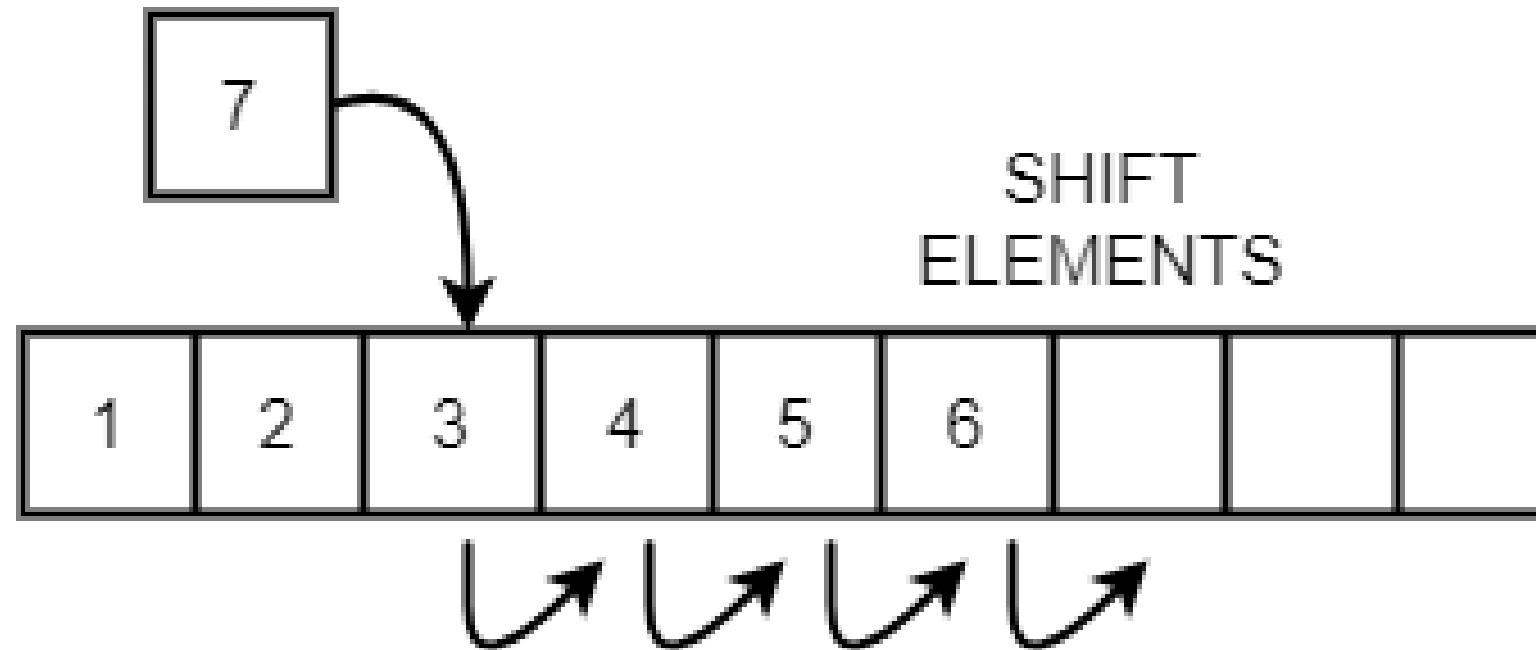
How would you insert a new element in an array?





Arrays: Insertion

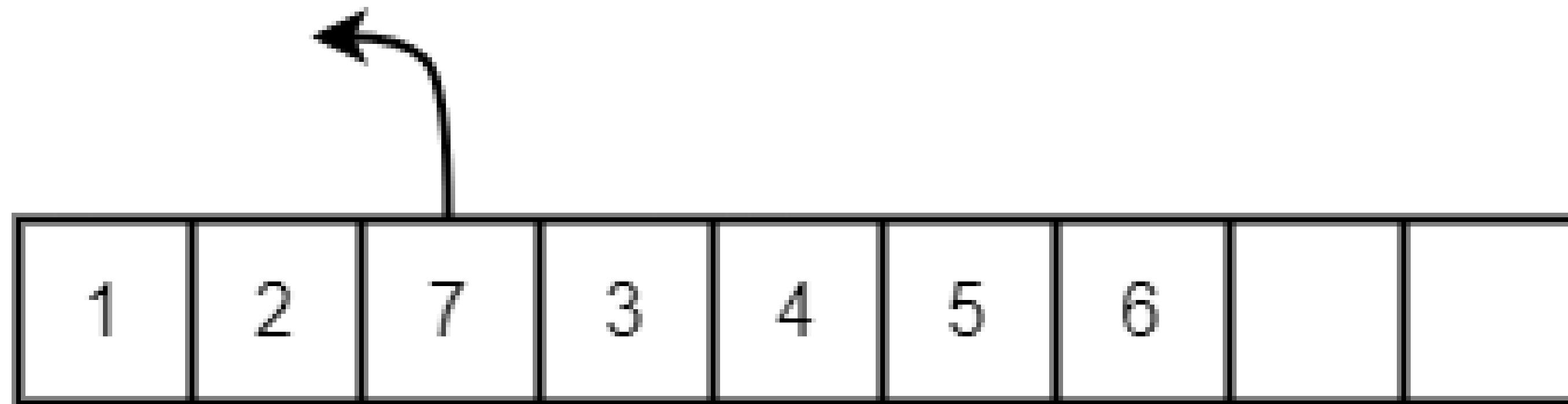
- Requires shifting of elements





Arrays: Deletion

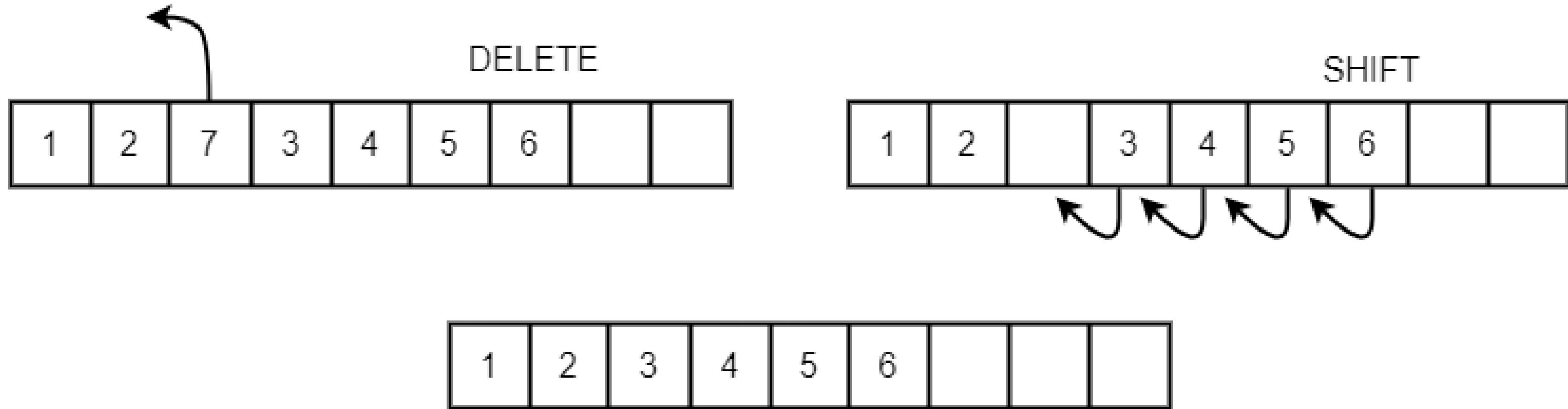
How would you delete an element from an array?





Arrays: Deletion

- Requires shifting of elements





Arrays

Pros:

- simple, fast, cache friendly

Cons:

- not very suitable for a lot of insertions and deletions

Linked lists



Linked lists

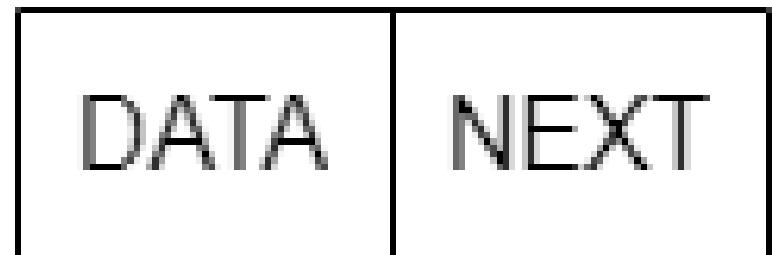
Linked lists are basically a bunch of **similar data** stored as individual chunks called **nodes** which are **linked** to adjacent nodes



Linked lists

A node consists of..

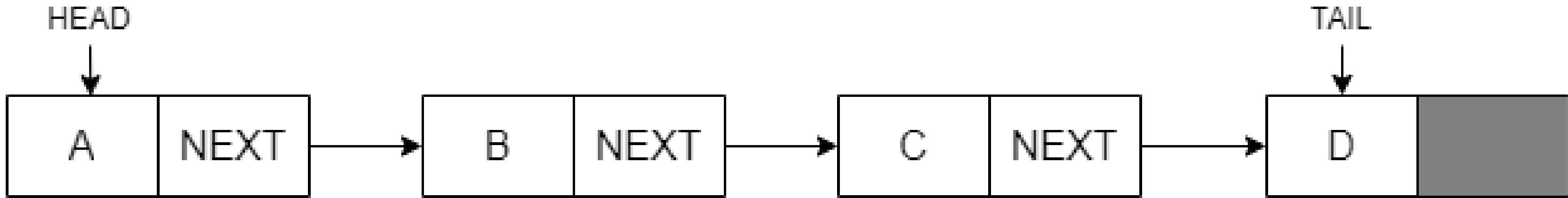
- data
- links (pointers to the next/previous node in the list)



```
struct Node{  
    int data;  
    struct Node *next;  
};
```



Linked lists



Linked list is basically a bunch of **linked nodes** that represent a list



Linked lists

Notable features:

- **HEAD:** Points to **start element** of list
- **TAIL:** Points to **last element** of list
- $O(n)$ element access/list traversal
- $O(1)$ insertion and deletion



Linked lists: Traversal



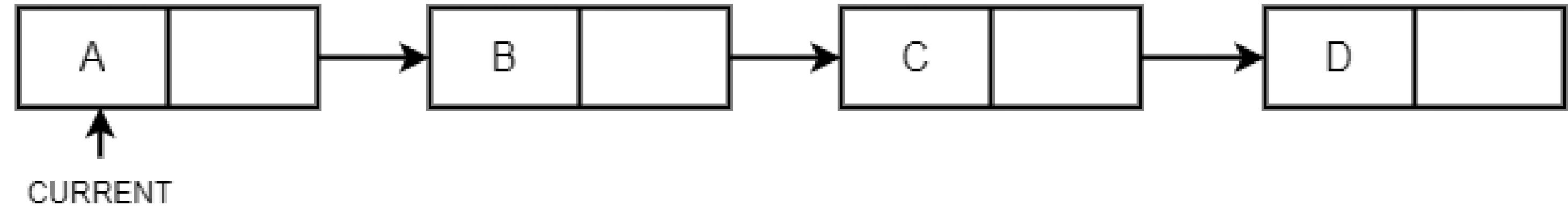
- Access requires moving through the list **one node at a time**
- To access the i -th element, travel to next node i times

$\text{list}[i]$ = node after traversing the list i times

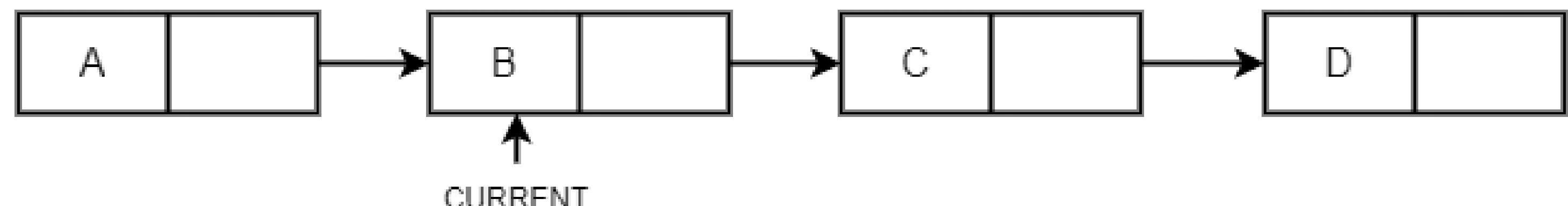


Linked lists

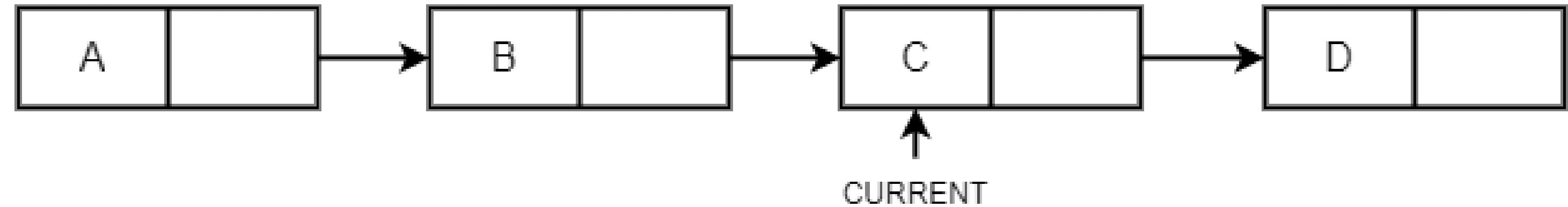
list[0]



list[1]



list[2]





Linked lists

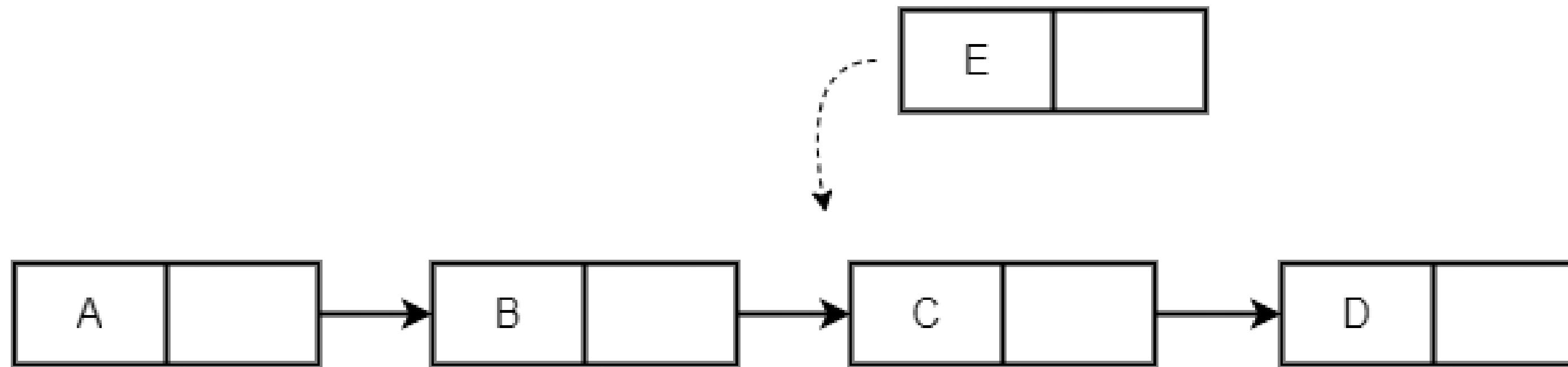
```
// loop until current becomes NULL, ie, end of the list
while (current){
    printf("%d, ", current->data);

    // go to the next node
    current = current->next;
}
```



Linked lists: Insertion

Insertion in a linked list?





Linked lists: Insertion



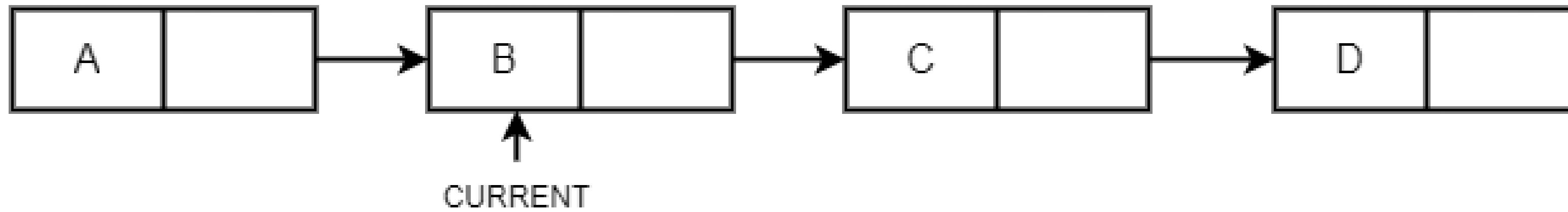
Insertion in a linked list?

- Traverse to required position
- Update new node to point to next node in the list
- Update current node to point to new node

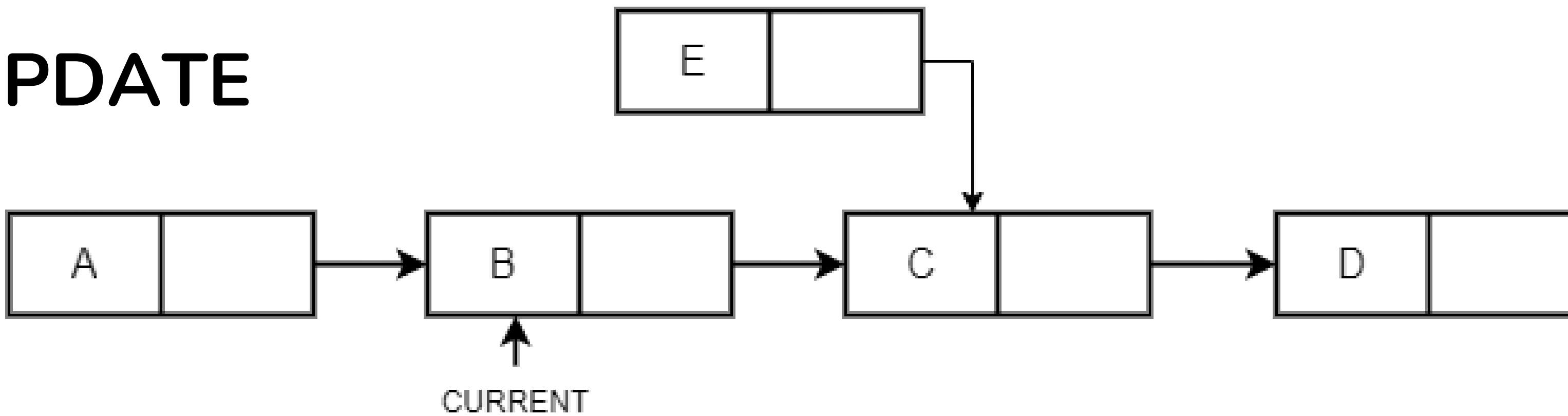


Linked lists: Insertion

TRAVERSE



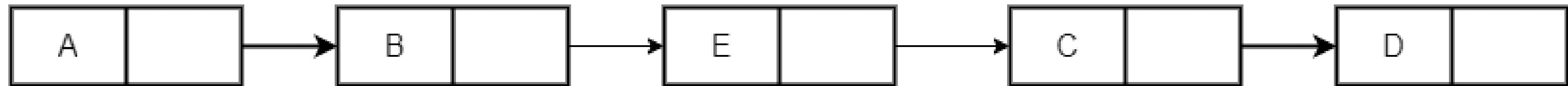
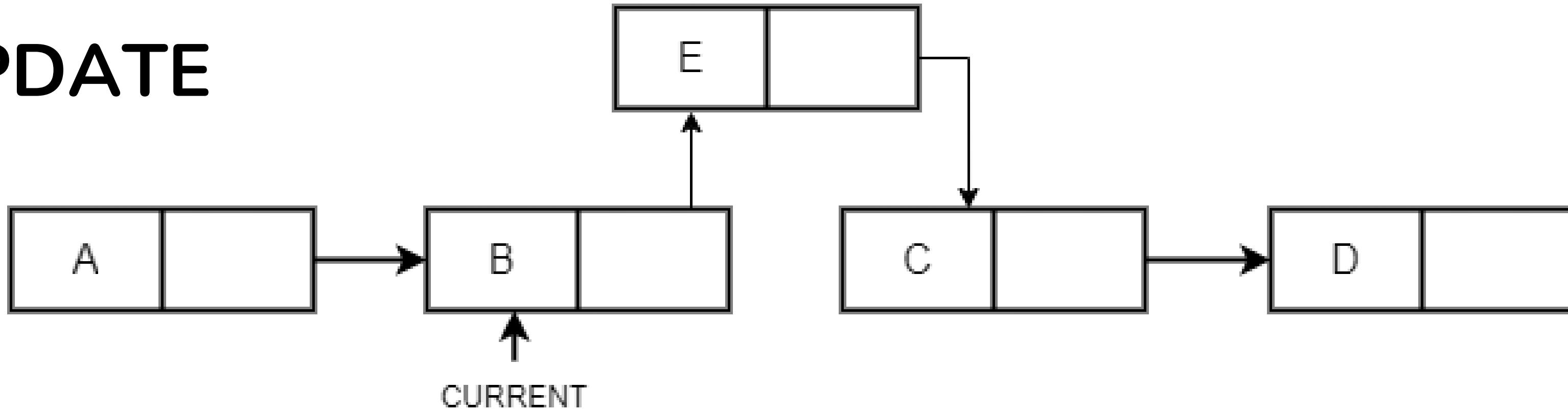
UPDATE

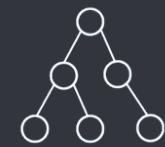




Linked lists: Insertion

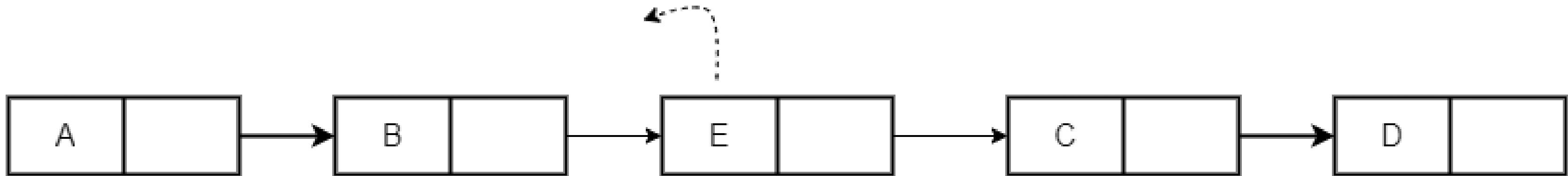
UPDATE





Linked lists: Deletion

Deleting a node from a linked list?





Deleting a node from a linked list?

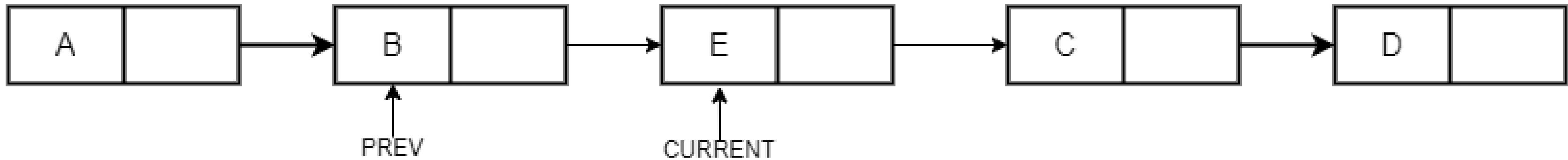
- Traverse to required position
- Update **prev** node to point to **next** node in the list
- Delete node



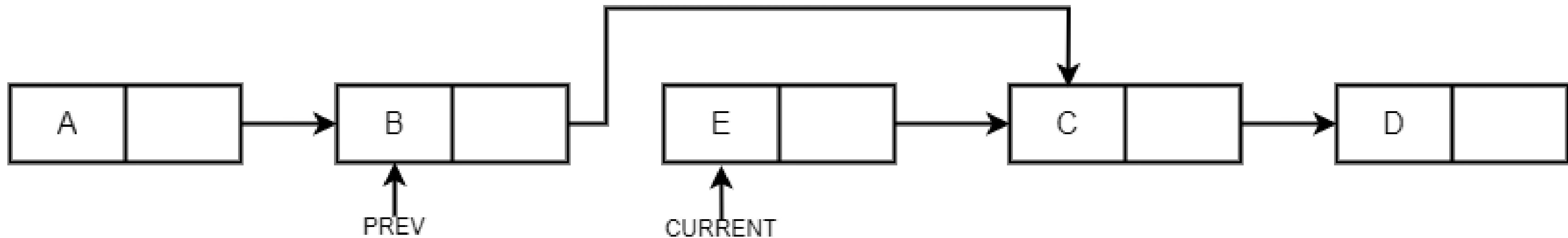
Linked lists: Deletion



TRAVERSE



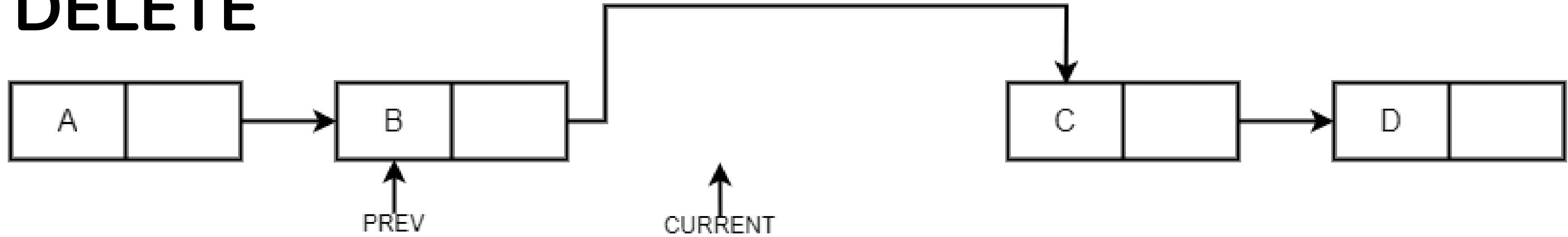
UPDATE





Linked lists: Insertion

DELETE





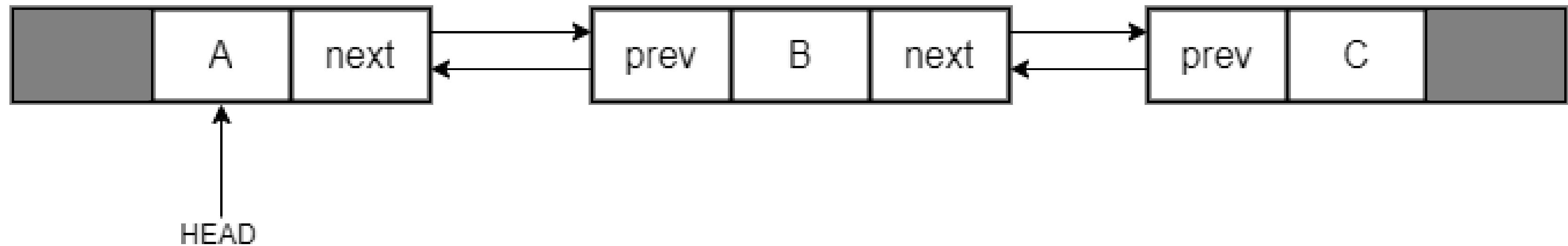
Doubly linked lists

- node also contains a **pointer** to previous node
- list can be traversed both **forwards** and **backwards**





Linked lists

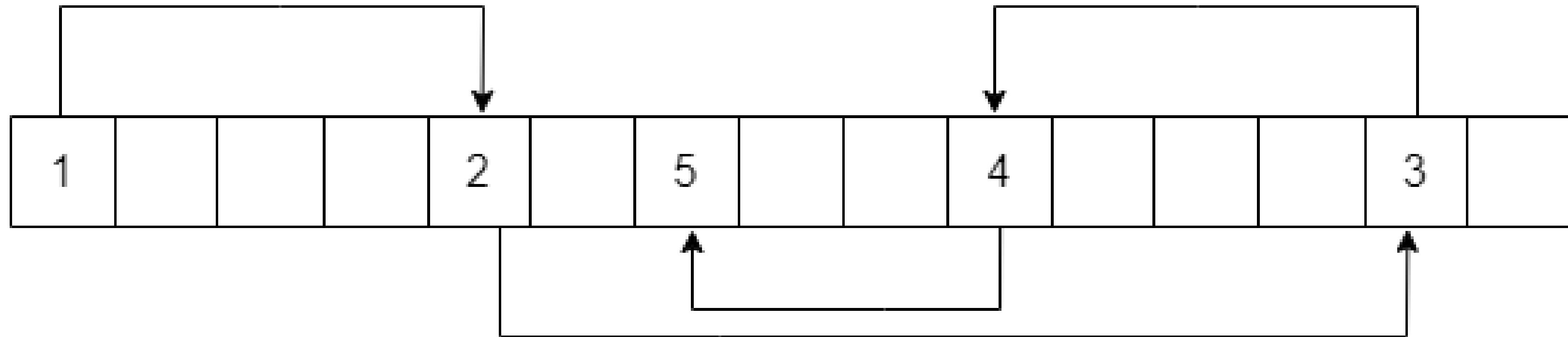




Linked lists

Why linked lists?

- **Flexibility for dynamic allocations (nodes can be anywhere in memory)**





Linked lists



- **Insertions and deletions don't require shifting or reallocations**
 - only selected nodes need to be updated
 - can be used efficiently with free list allocators



Linked lists

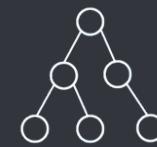


Cons:

- cache misses
- chances of losing the pointer to a node, making it inaccessible

Stack

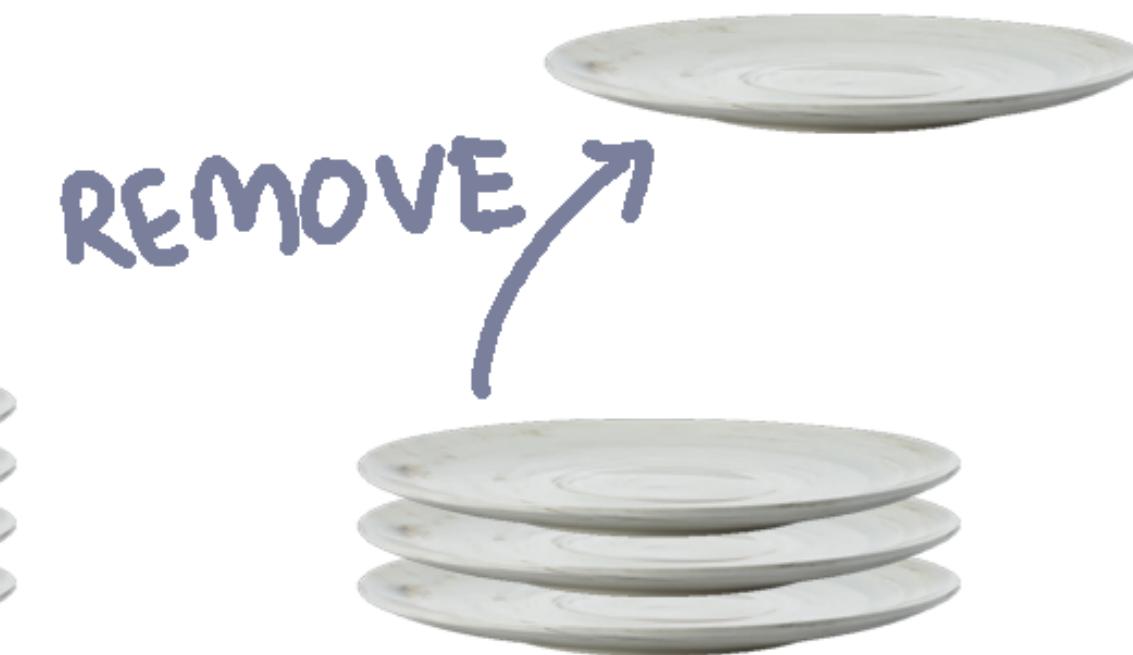




Stack

Stacks are a data structure that store and manipulate data in the **Last In First Out (LIFO) order**.

Basically, imagine a stack of books/plates





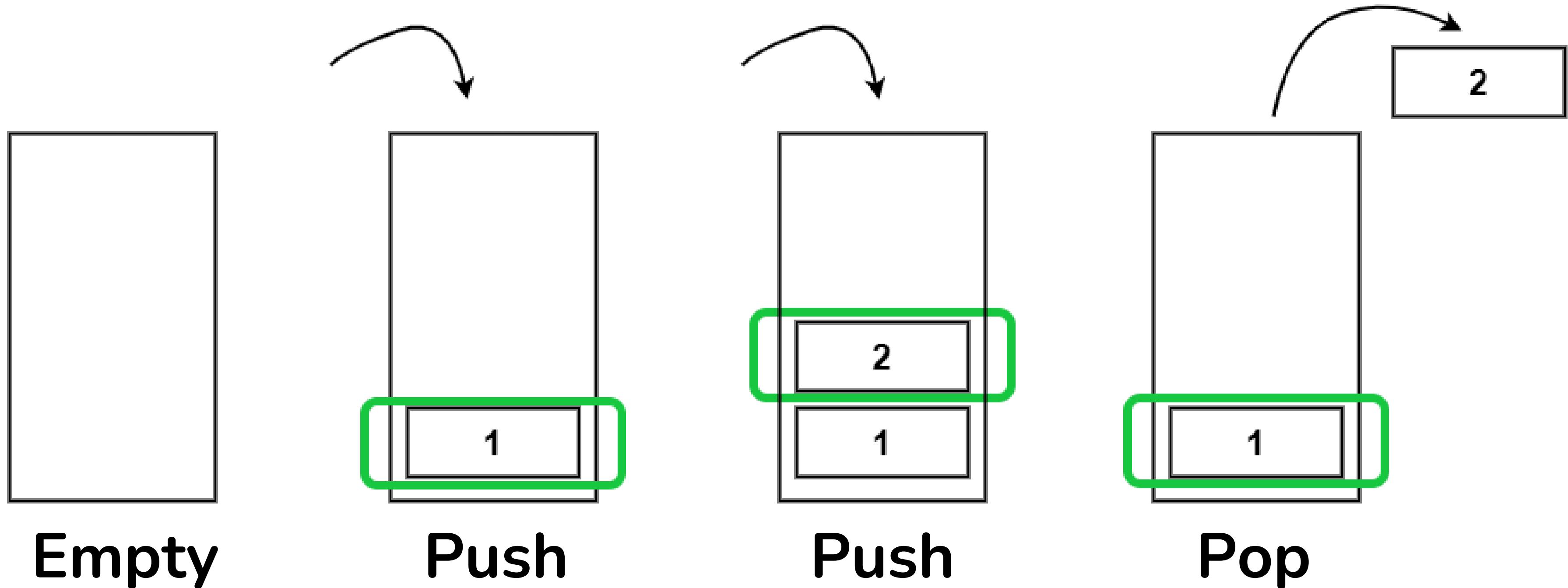
Stack

Features of stack:

- **TOP:** Keeps track of the top of the stack
- **PUSH(val):** Add *val* on top of the stack
- **POP():** Removes the top element
- **O(1)** insert (**PUSH**) and delete (**POP**)



Stack





Stack

Both **PUSH** and **POP** need only two operations

- insert at the top/remove from the top
- update the top of stack

Hence, both operations are **O(1)**



Stack

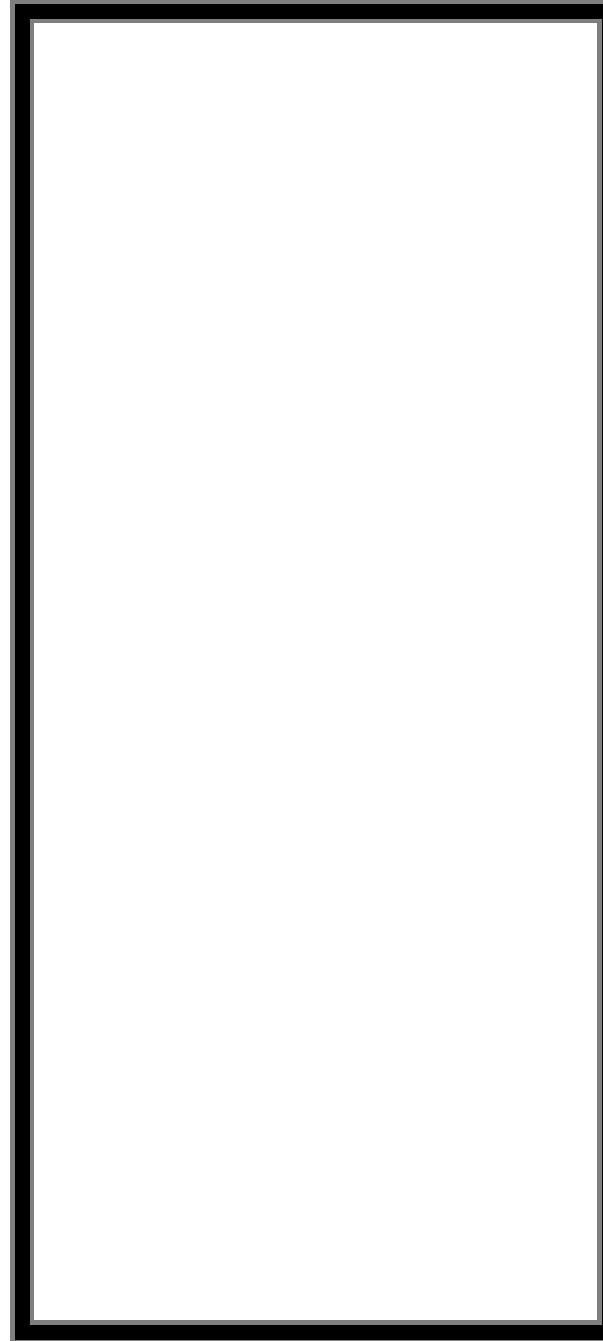
Uses:

- Undo-Redo!
- DMs list on social media
- Call stacks

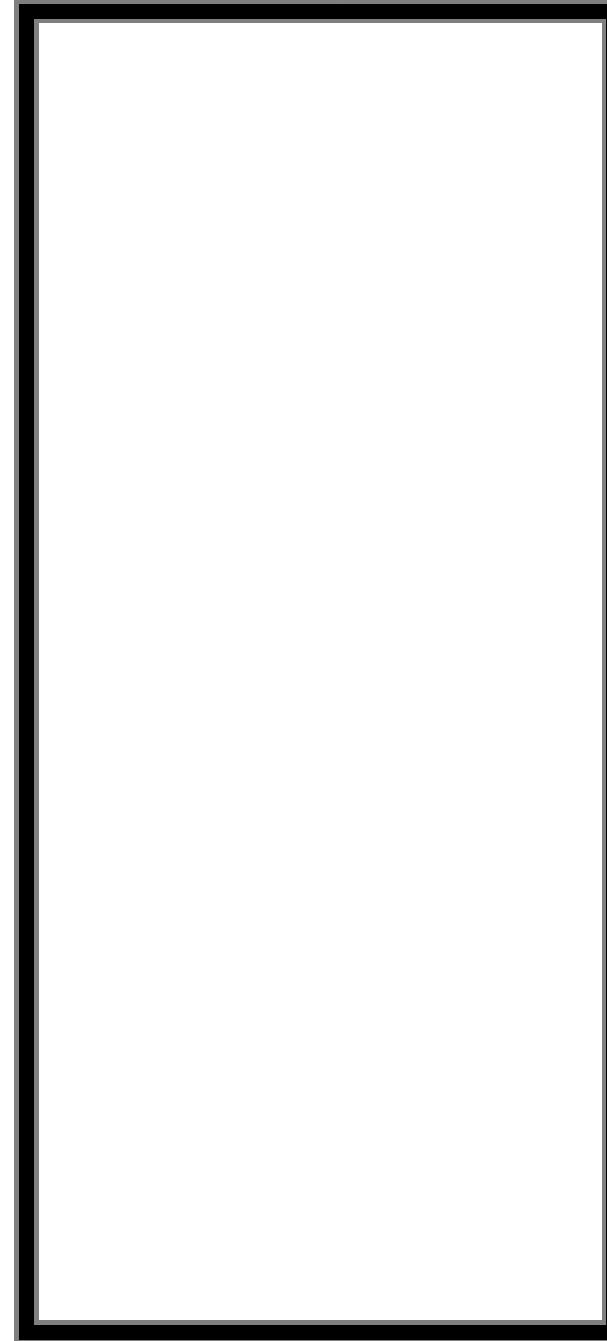
and many more!



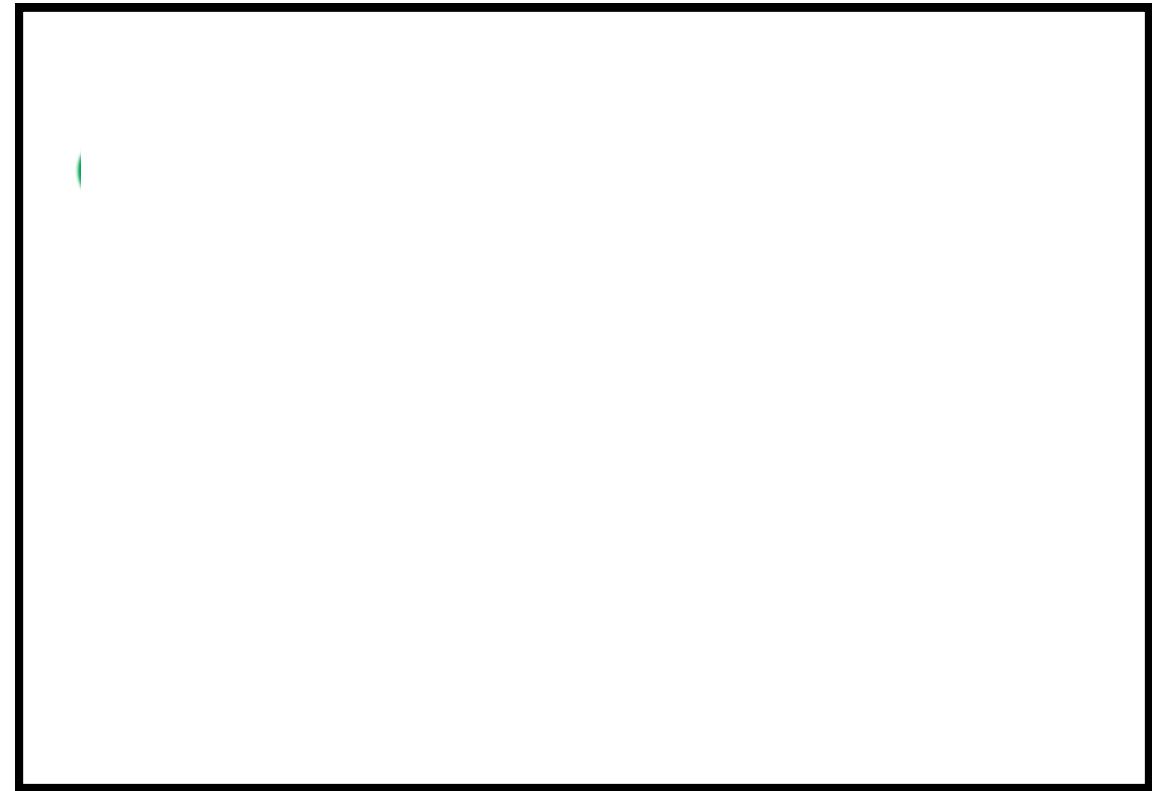
Stack: Undo-Redo



UNDO

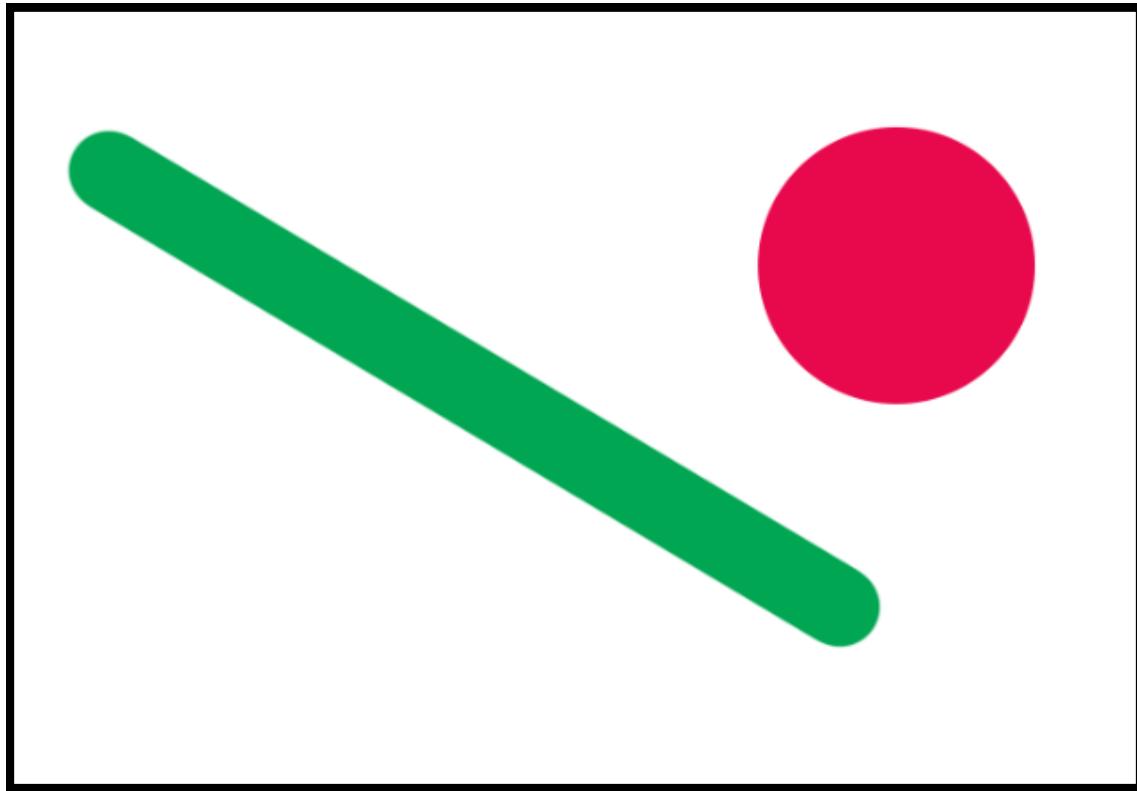
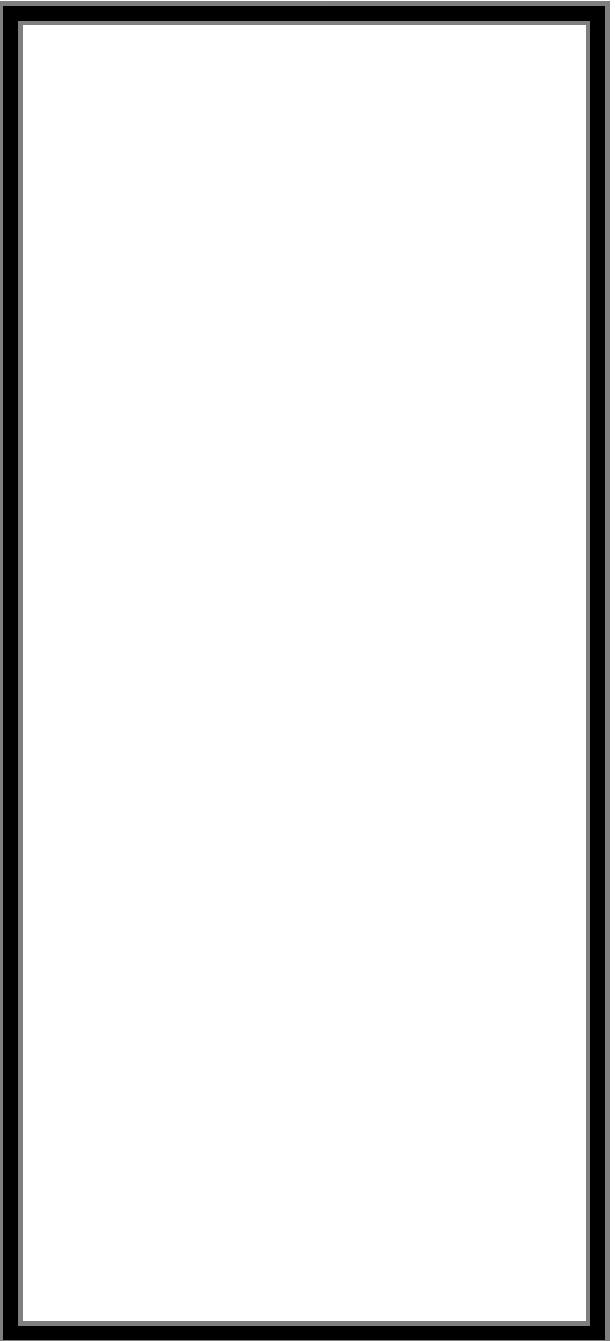
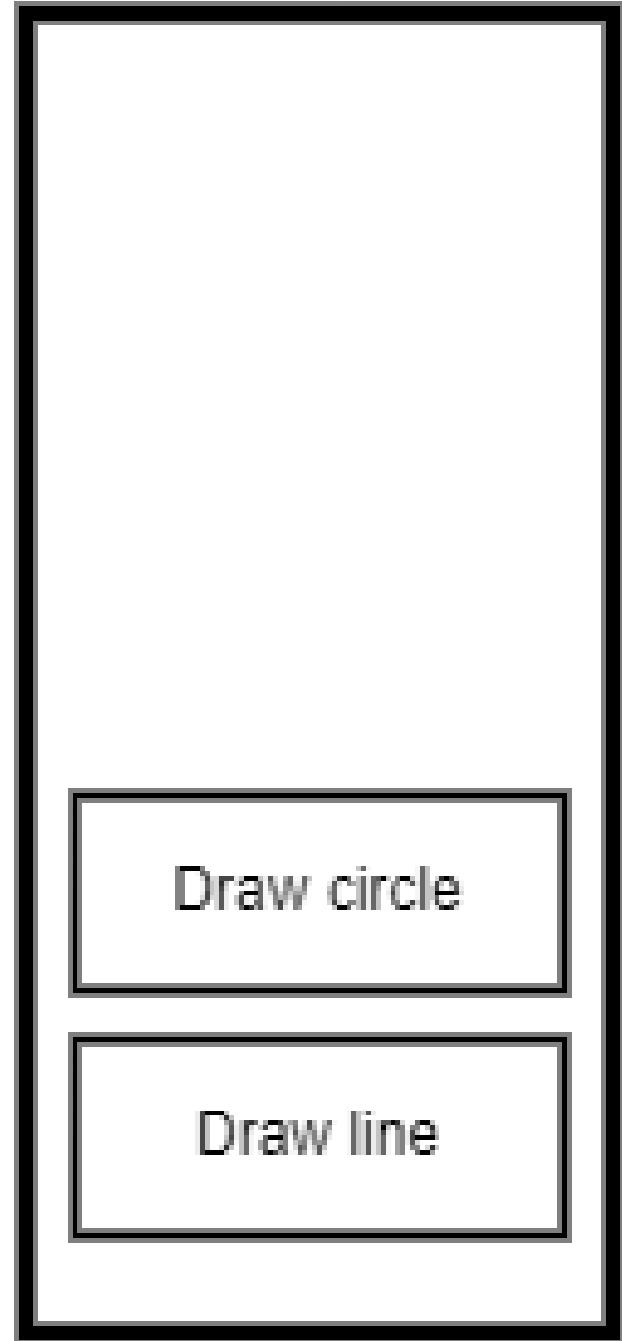


REDO





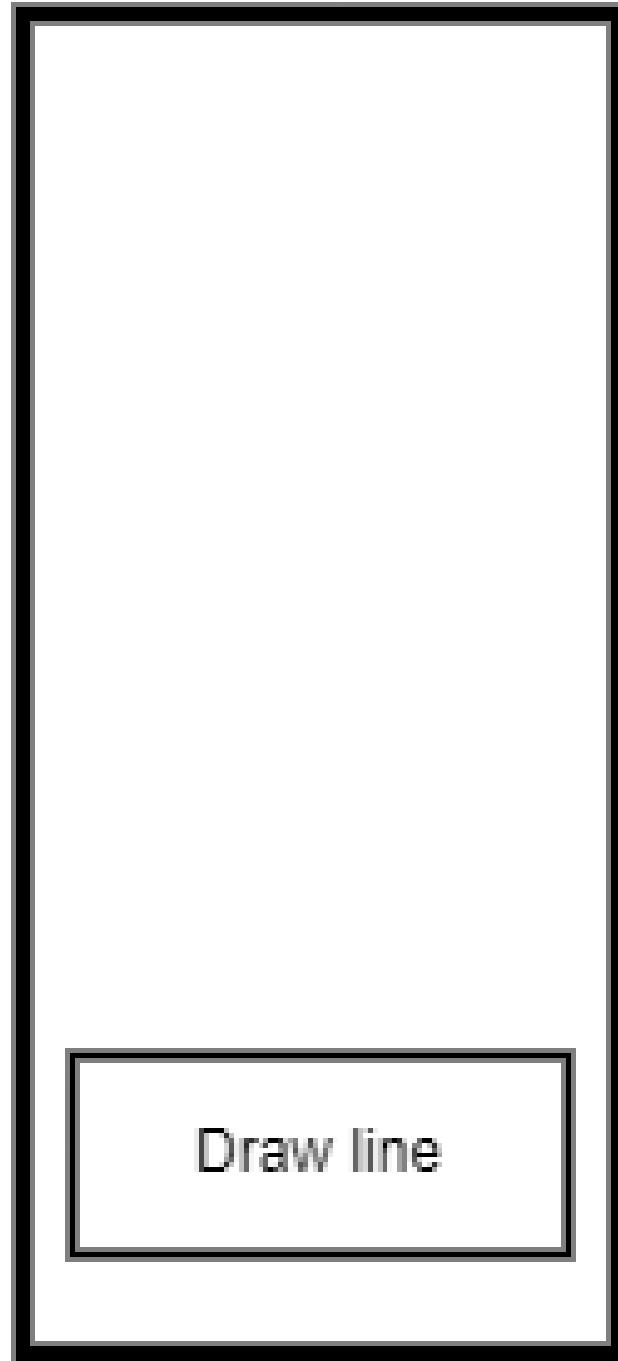
Stack: Undo-Redo



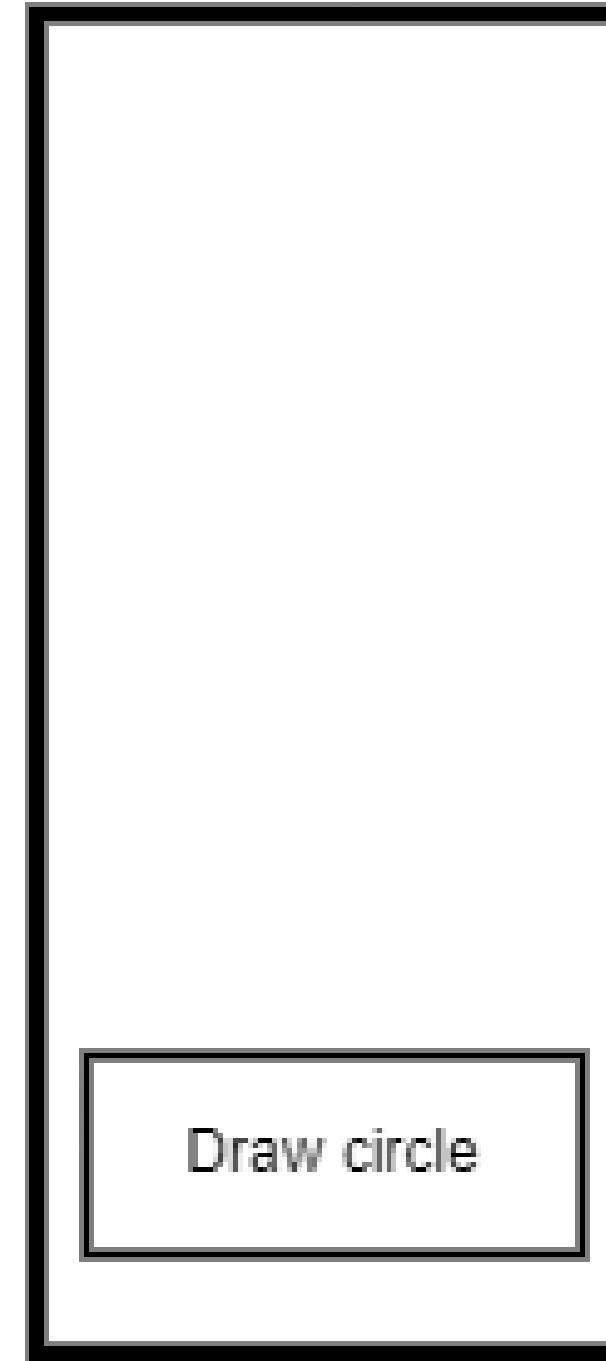
**Push all actions
into UNDO stack**



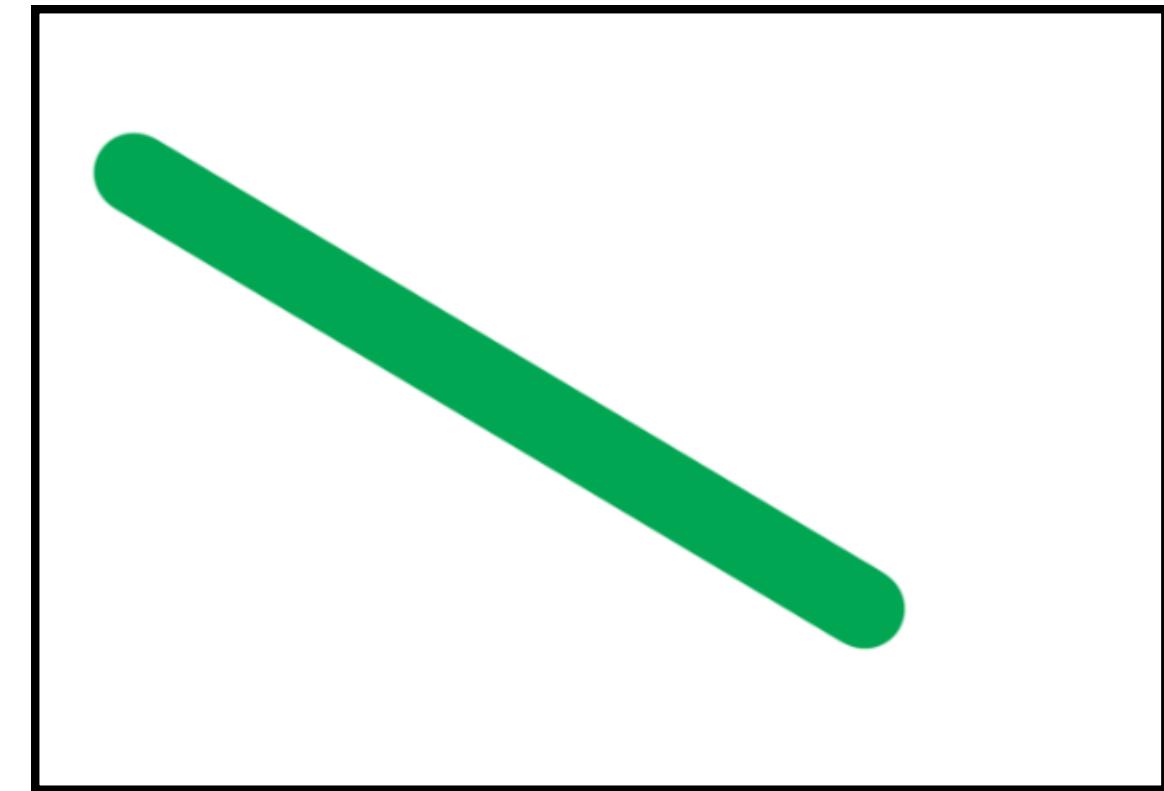
Stack: Undo-Redo



UNDO



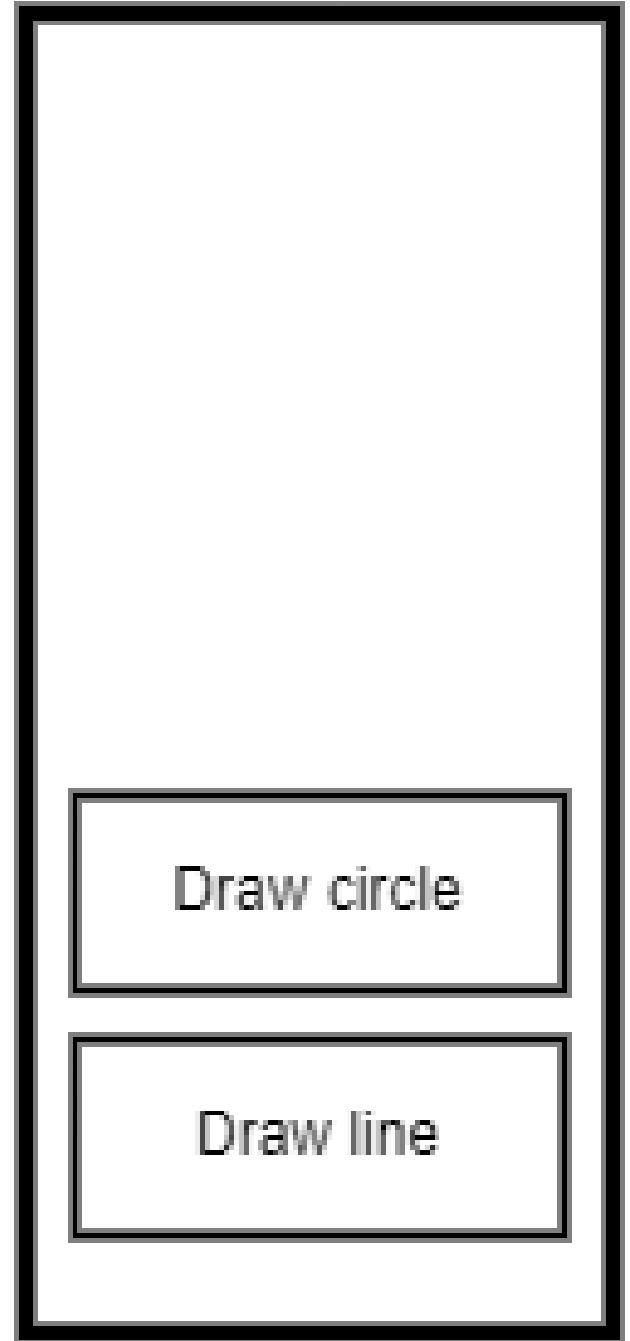
REDO



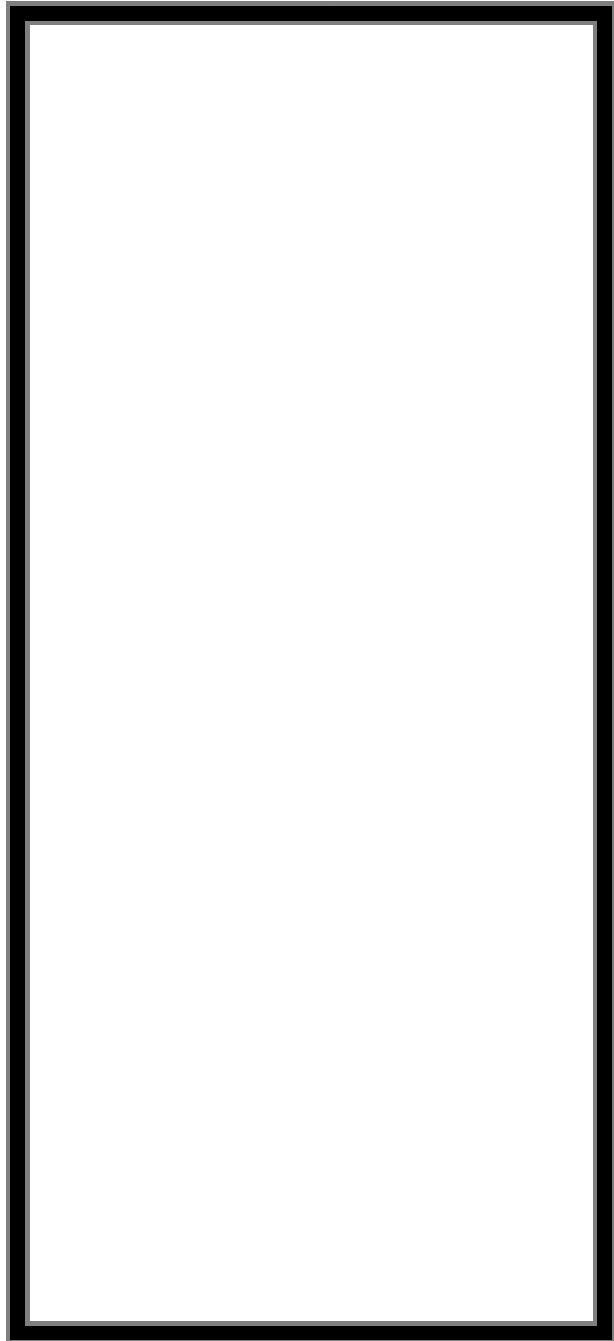
**On undo, pop
from UNDO and
push to REDO**



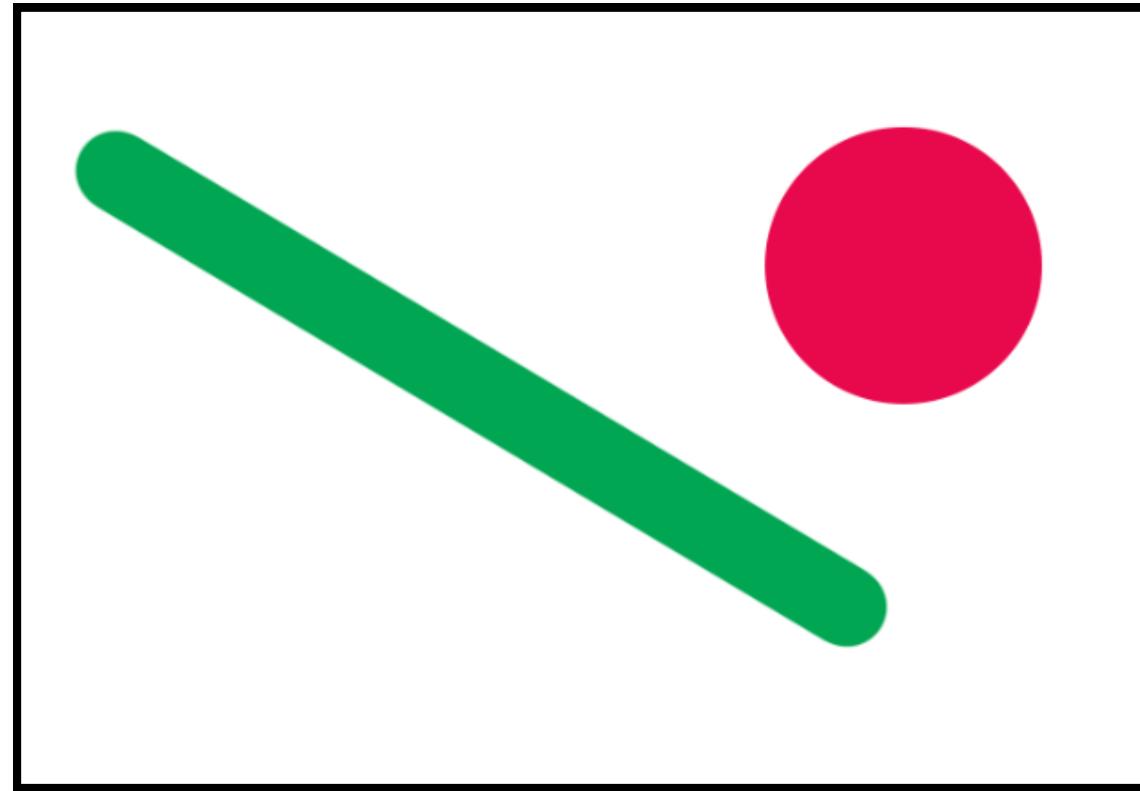
Stack: Undo-Redo



UNDO



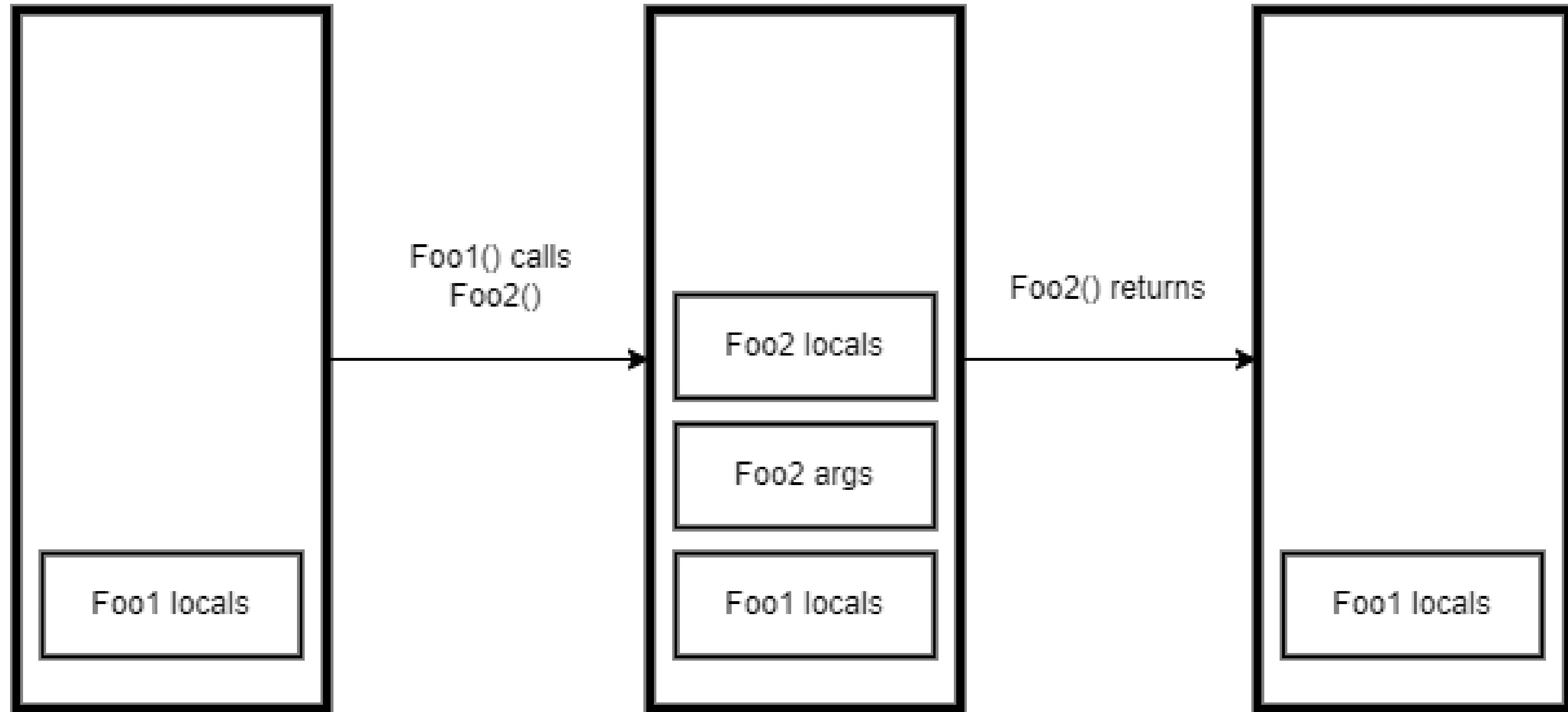
REDO



**On redo, pop
from REDO and
push to UNDO**



Stack: Call stack



Queues



Queue

Queues are a data structure that store and manipulate data in the **First In First Out (FIFO) order**.

Basically, imagine a queue of people (no nepotism)





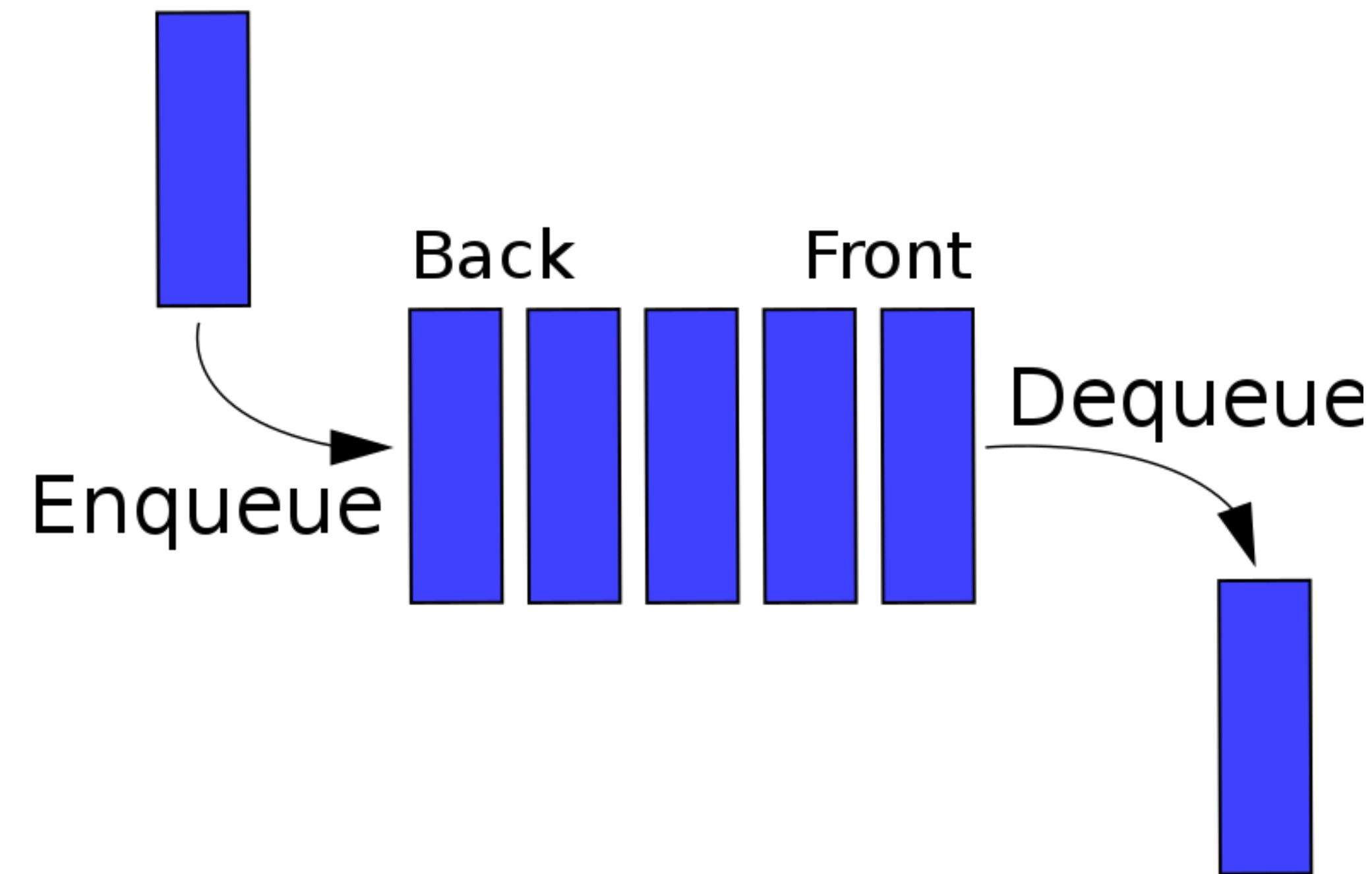
Queue

Features of queue:

- **FRONT:** Keeps track of the first added value
- **BACK:** Keeps track of last added value
- **ENQUEUE(val):** Add *val* at the back of queue
- **DEQUEUE():** Removes the front element
- O(1) insert (**ENQUEUE**) and delete (**DEQUEUE**)

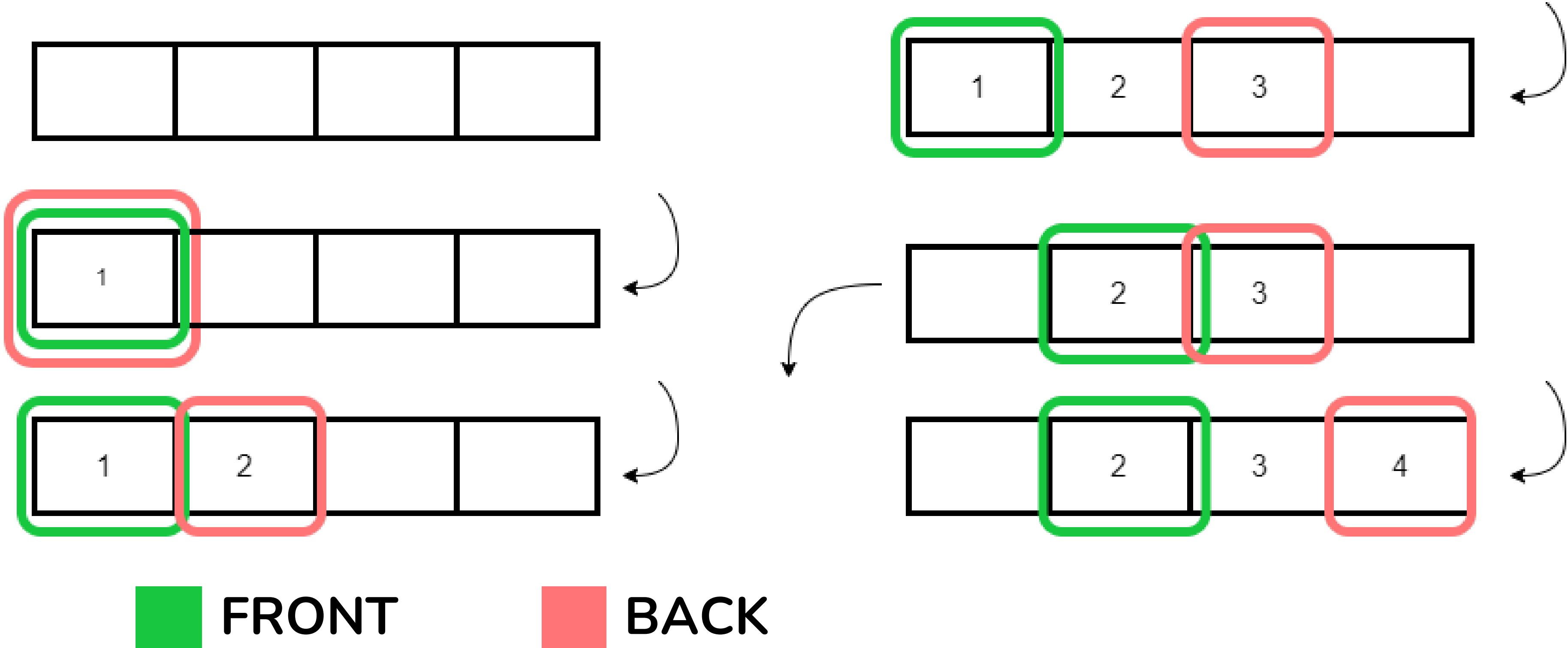


Queue





Queue





Queue

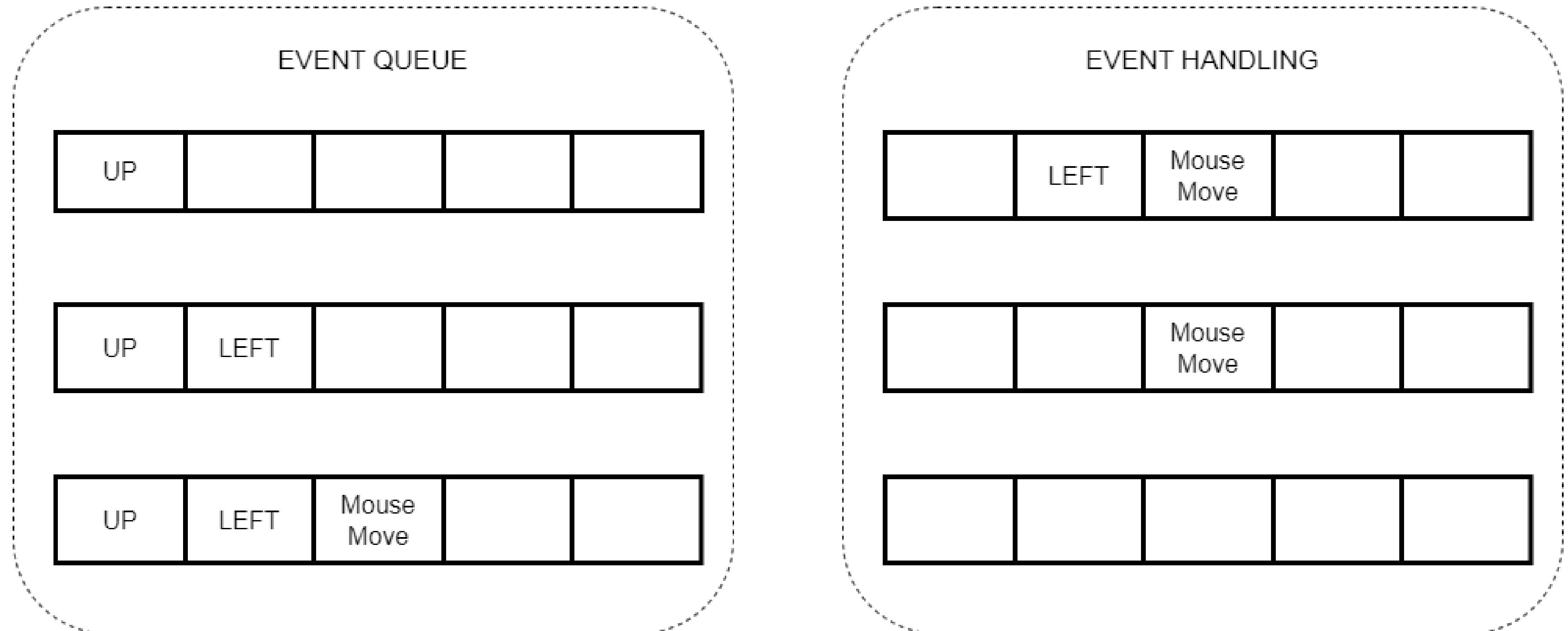
Uses:

- Event handling in applications
- Resource and process management in operating systems
- Handling client requests to servers

and many more!



Queue: Event Handling



Implementation: Stacks and Queues



Implementation



You can use either an array or a linked list to represent a stack/queue.

- **Array:** Generally **static** implementation
- **Linked list:** **Dynamic** implementation

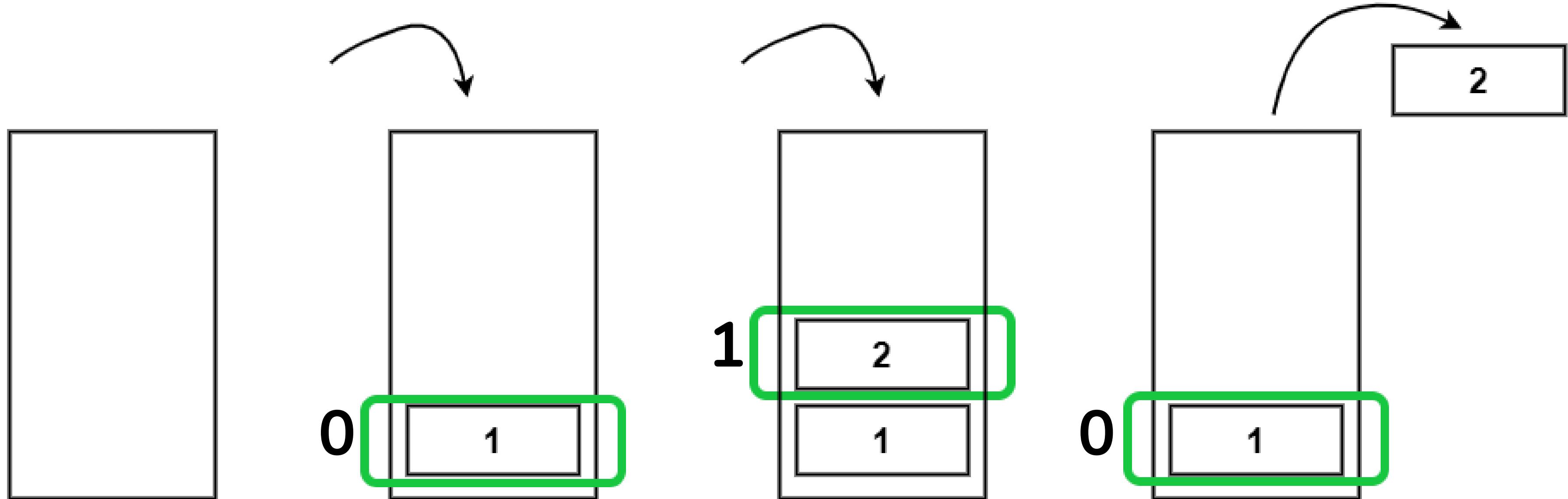


Array implementation

- static stack/queue (**fixed size**)
- **simpler**
- can be used for **smaller number of data** or when the max number is known
- **overflow when completely full**



Implementation



TOP represents the index of top element



Implementation



PUSH: Increase TOP by one before pushing

POP: Decrease TOP by one after popping



Linked list implementation

- dynamic stack/queue (**variable size**)
- **a bit more complex**
- used when **number of data is unknown**
- doesn't overflow since **new nodes can be added almost indefinitely**



Implementation



An array implementation is given with the resources.
A linked list implementation is left as an exercise.

Any questions?



Thank you!



Part 2.. continued

Sorting!





Sorting



ordering elements in
ascending or descending manner



Sorting examples

Ascending manner

Before sorting

3	0	1	3	2	1
---	---	---	---	---	---

After sorting

0	1	1	2	3	3
---	---	---	---	---	---

Descending manner

Before sorting

3	0	1	3	2	1
---	---	---	---	---	---

After sorting

3	3	2	1	1	0
---	---	---	---	---	---



Sorting examples

Sort based on the first letter

Before sorting

mango	peach	apple	pineapple
-------	-------	-------	-----------

After sorting

apple	mango	peach	pineapple
-------	-------	-------	-----------



In-place sort

- An in-place sorting algorithm is one that operates directly on the given input array without requiring additional memory.
- $O(1)$ auxiliary space complexity



Stable sort

- If a sorting algorithm is stable then it will retain the original order of the data after sorting is completed.
- If there are duplicates of data then the duplicate piece of data that was on the left will remain on the left and the right will remain to the right after sorting is done.



Stable sort

Sort based on the first letter

Before sorting

mango	peach	apple	pineapple
-------	-------	-------	-----------

After sorting

Two red arrows are drawn: one from the word 'peach' in the 'Before sorting' row to the word 'mango' in the 'After sorting' row; another from the word 'pineapple' in the 'Before sorting' row to the word 'pineapple' in the 'After sorting' row.

apple	mango	peach	pineapple
-------	-------	-------	-----------



Stable sort



31

23

27

31

57

A case in point:
Merge sort

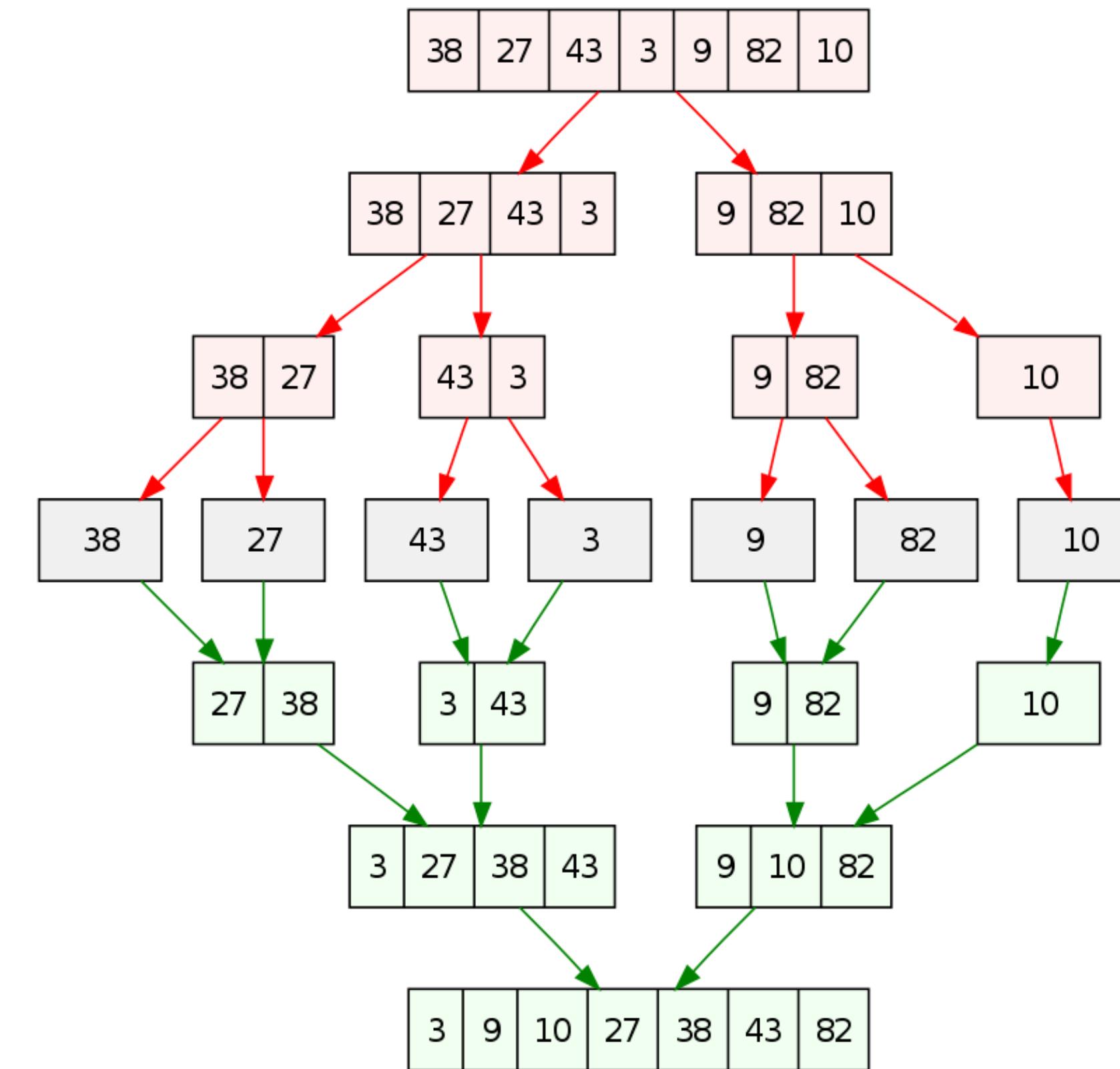


Algorithm

1. Divide the unsorted list into n sublists, each containing one element (a list of one element is considered sorted).
2. Repeatedly merge sublists to produce new sorted sublists until there is only one sublist remaining.
This will be the sorted list.



Visualize Merge Sort





Implementation

Calling sort on the list

```
int main()
{
    int arr[] = {38, 27, 43, 3, 9, 82, 10};
    int size = sizeof(arr) / sizeof(arr[0]);

    merge_sort(arr, 0, size - 1);

    printf("\nSorted array: ");
    for (int i = 0; i < size; i++)
    {
        printf("%d ", arr[i]);
    }

    return 0;
}
```



Implementation

Dividing Recursively

```
void merge_sort(int arr[], int left, int right)
{
    if (left < right)
    {
        int mid = left + (right - left) / 2;

        // Sort first and second halves
        merge_sort(arr, left, mid);
        merge_sort(arr, mid + 1, right);

        // Merge the sorted halves
        merge(arr, left, mid, right);
    }
}
```



Implementation



Merge

```
void merge(int arr[], int left, int mid, int right)
{
    // Find sizes of two subarrays to be merged
    int n1 = mid - left + 1;
    int n2 = right - mid;

    // Create temporary arrays
    int left_arr[n1];
    int right_arr[n2];

    // Copy data to temporary arrays left_arr[] and right_arr[]
    for (int i = 0; i < n1; i++)
    {
        left_arr[i] = arr[left + i];
    }

    for (int j = 0; j < n2; j++)
    {
        right_arr[j] = arr[mid + 1 + j];
    }
```



Implementation

```
// Merge the temporary arrays back into arr[left..right]
int i = 0, j = 0, k = left;
while (i < n1 && j < n2)
{
    if (left_arr[i] <= right_arr[j])
    {
        arr[k] = left_arr[i++];
    }
    else
    {
        arr[k] = right_arr[j++];
    }

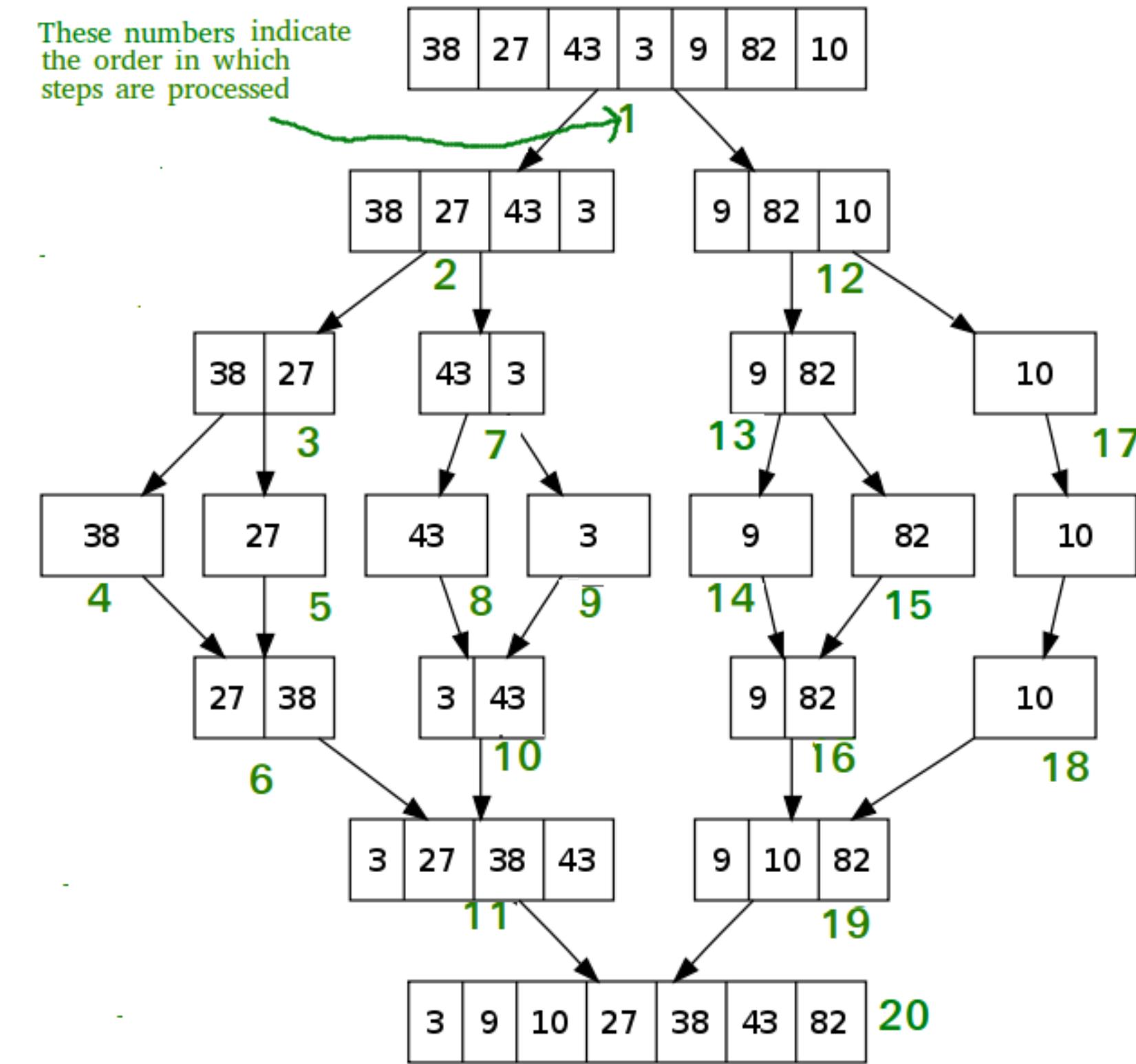
    k++;
}

// Copy the remaining elements of left_arr[], if there are any
while (i < n1)
{
    arr[k++] = left_arr[i++];
}

// Copy the remaining elements of right_arr[], if there are any
while (j < n2)
{
    arr[k++] = right_arr[j++];
}
```



Visualize Merge Sort





Properties

- Divide-and-conquer algorithm
- Stable sort
- Time complexity $O(n \log n)$ for worst, average, and best case.
- Space complexity $O(n)$ so *not* in-place sorting algorithm
- Best algorithm to sort linked list

Searching



Searching



So you need to find a specific value from a whole bunch of data.

How do you go about it?



Searching

For example, you have bunch of data of people

Name	Ram	Shyam	Hari	Sita	Keanu	Old
Age	30	25	45	23	23	123
Address	KTM	KTM	PKR	PTN	BKT	PKR

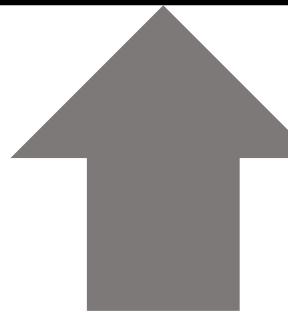
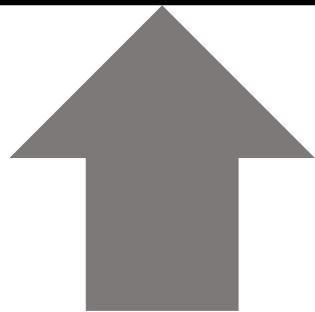
and you want to find the people who live in **Pokhara**



Searching

Look through all the data **sequentially** and find out, right?

Name	Ram	Shyam	Hari	Sita	Keanu	Old
Age	30	25	45	23	23	123
Address	KTM	KTM	PKR	PTN	BKT	PKR





Linear search

Well, that does work!
This is called **linear search!**



Linear search

However, is it a good way for searching in general?

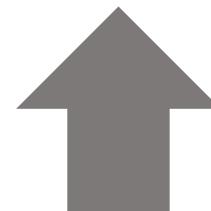
What is its time complexity?



Linear Search

The algorithm has to go through **n elements** of the array in the worst case.

1	6	7	8	3	5	9	0	12
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----



For example, searching for 12.



Linear Search



So, if you said linear time complexity
 $O(n)$
you're correct!



Linear Search

So, what if there is a **HUGE** amount of data?
Like thousands or even more?

Name													
Age													
Address													



Linear Search

Then searching through the whole data sequentially
isn't the best idea for performance.

It will get the job done, but it isn't efficient at all.

A better option:
Binary Search





Binary Search



Well, if you have a **sorted array**,
then there is a better option.

Binary search



Binary Search



Binary search is essentially what you do when you look for a word in a dictionary.



Binary Search



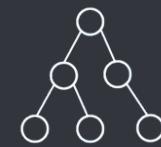


Binary Search

A ————— Z

At first you don't know where
“S” is.

You only know that it is between the start “A” and
end “Z”



Binary Search



You go to a random page between A and Z,
say J.



Binary Search



You compare S with J, and conclude that
S comes after J.

So you can effectively rule out the region A-J.



Binary Search



Now you go to a page between J and Z,
say T.



Binary Search



Comparing **S** with **T**, we see that **S comes before T**.
So, you can safely rule out **T-Z**.



Binary Search



Repeating this a few more times, we effectively get to S in a short amount of steps.



Binary Search



Chosen page R



Binary Search



**S comes after R
Possible range R-T**



Binary Search



Chosen page S.
Done!



Binary Search

It is apparent that this is way more efficient than having to check each page sequentially to find S.

Binary search is just this, except that you choose the mid point of the current possible range on each step.



Binary Search

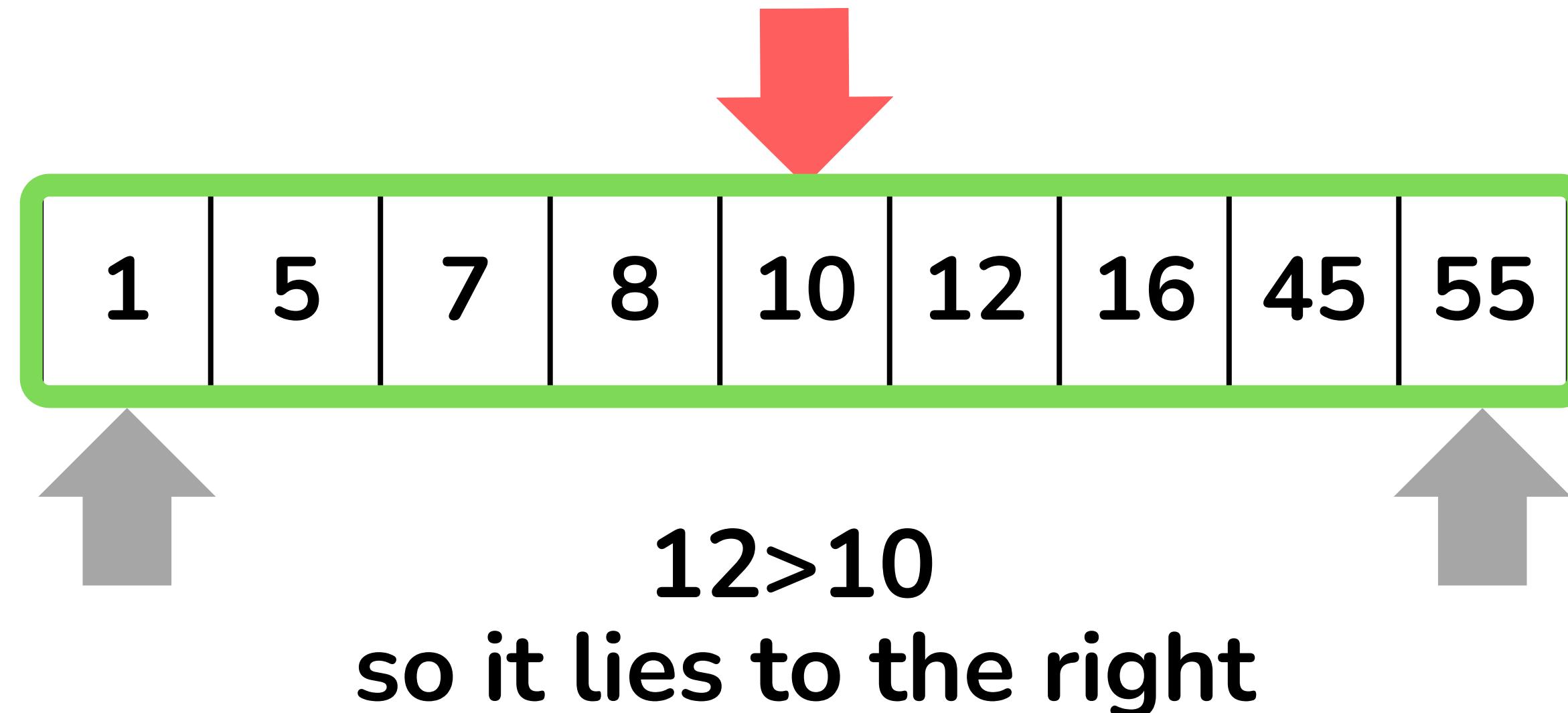
Lets take an example:
search for 12 in this sorted array.

1	5	7	8	10	12	16	45	55
---	---	---	---	----	----	----	----	----



Binary Search

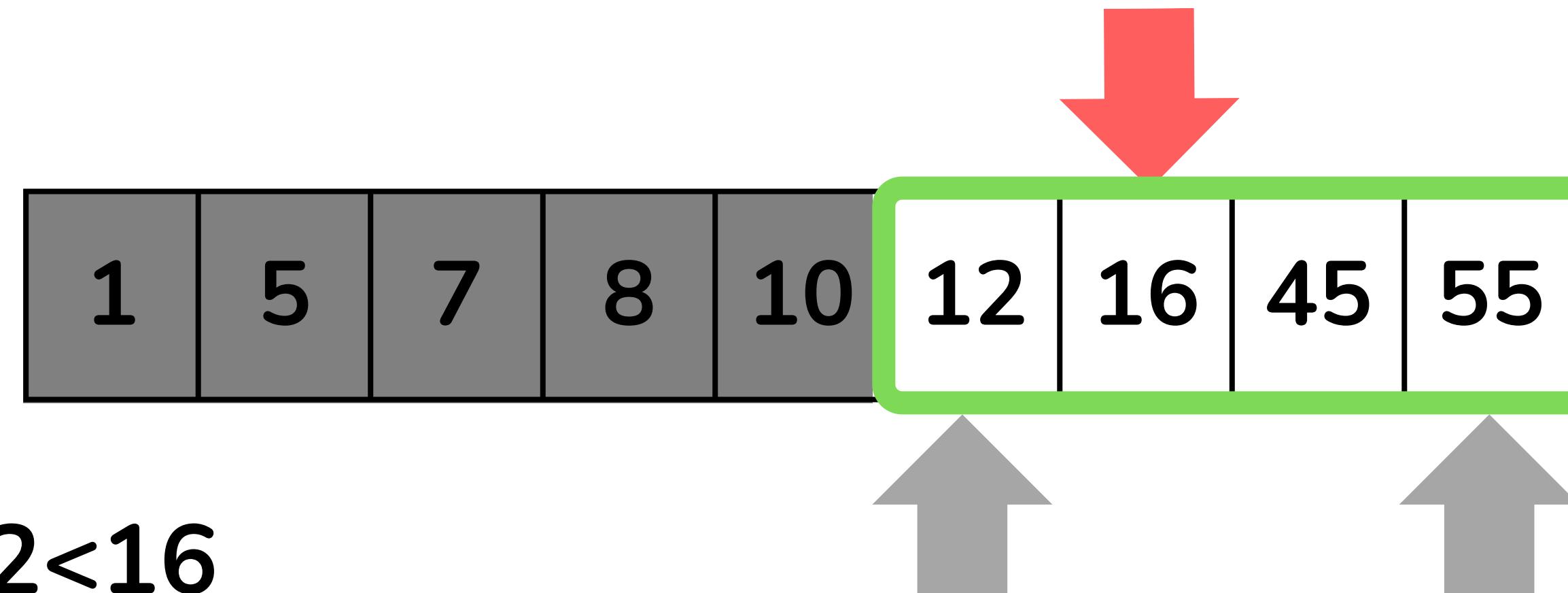
$$\text{Mid index} = (0+8)/2 = 4$$





Binary Search

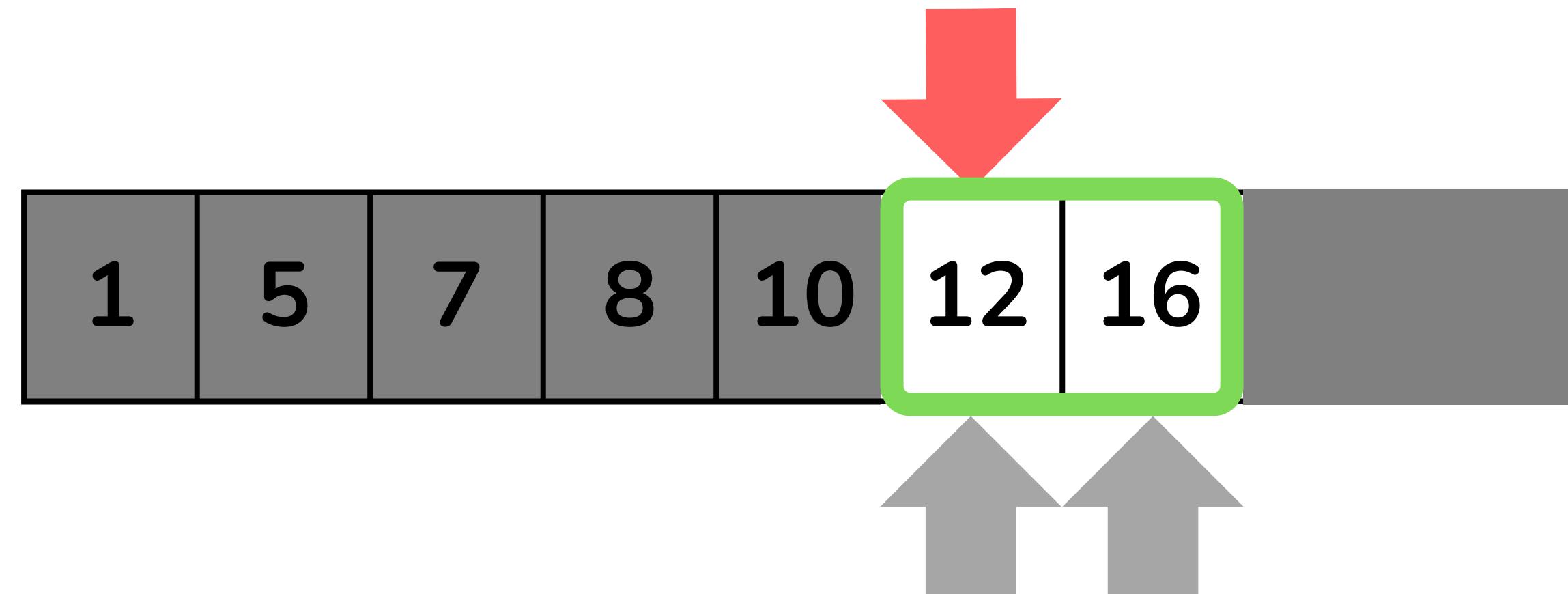
Mid index = $(5+8)/2 = 6.5 \rightarrow 6$





Binary Search

Mid index = $(5+6)/2 = 5.5 \rightarrow 5$



$12=12$
Done!



Binary Search



Essentially, you're halving the possible range each step!

So, the search in an n-element array goes until

$$\frac{n}{2^x} = 1$$

So, $x = \log_2 n$ is the number of steps required.



Binary Search



Hence, the **time complexity** of binary search is
 $O(\log n)$



Binary Search

```
int binarySearch(int arr[], int low, int high, int target) {  
    while (low < high) {  
        int mid = low + (high - low) / 2;  
  
        // Check if the target is present at the middle  
        if (arr[mid] == target)  
            return mid;  
  
        // If the target is greater, ignore the left half  
        else if (arr[mid] < target)  
            low = mid + 1;  
  
        // If the target is smaller, ignore the right half  
        else  
            high = mid;  
    }  
    return -1;  
}
```



Binary Search





Hashtables



Now, binary search is good for sorted arrays,
but all arrays aren't sorted!

Enter.. HASHTABLES!



Hashtables



Hashtables are a data structure that map a value (called the **key**)
to
an index in an array where the data is stored (called the **value**).



Hashtables

Keys and values

“PKR”: “Ram”

10: 10

key value

key value

Different key and value

Same key and value



Hash function

Hash tables use a **hash function** to convert a key into a **unique number/hash** which is used as an index in the hash table.

A hash function, in essence, converts the bytes of the key, to a unique number.



Hash functions

An example,
the **adler32** hash
function.

Don't worry! You
don't need to
understand this.

```
const uint32_t MOD_ADLER = 65521;

uint32_t adler32(unsigned char *data, size_t len)
{
    uint32_t a = 1, b = 0;
    size_t index;

    for (index = 0; index < len; ++index)
    {
        a = (a + data[index]) % MOD_ADLER;
        b = (b + a) % MOD_ADLER;
    }

    return (b << 16) | a;
}
```



Hash functions



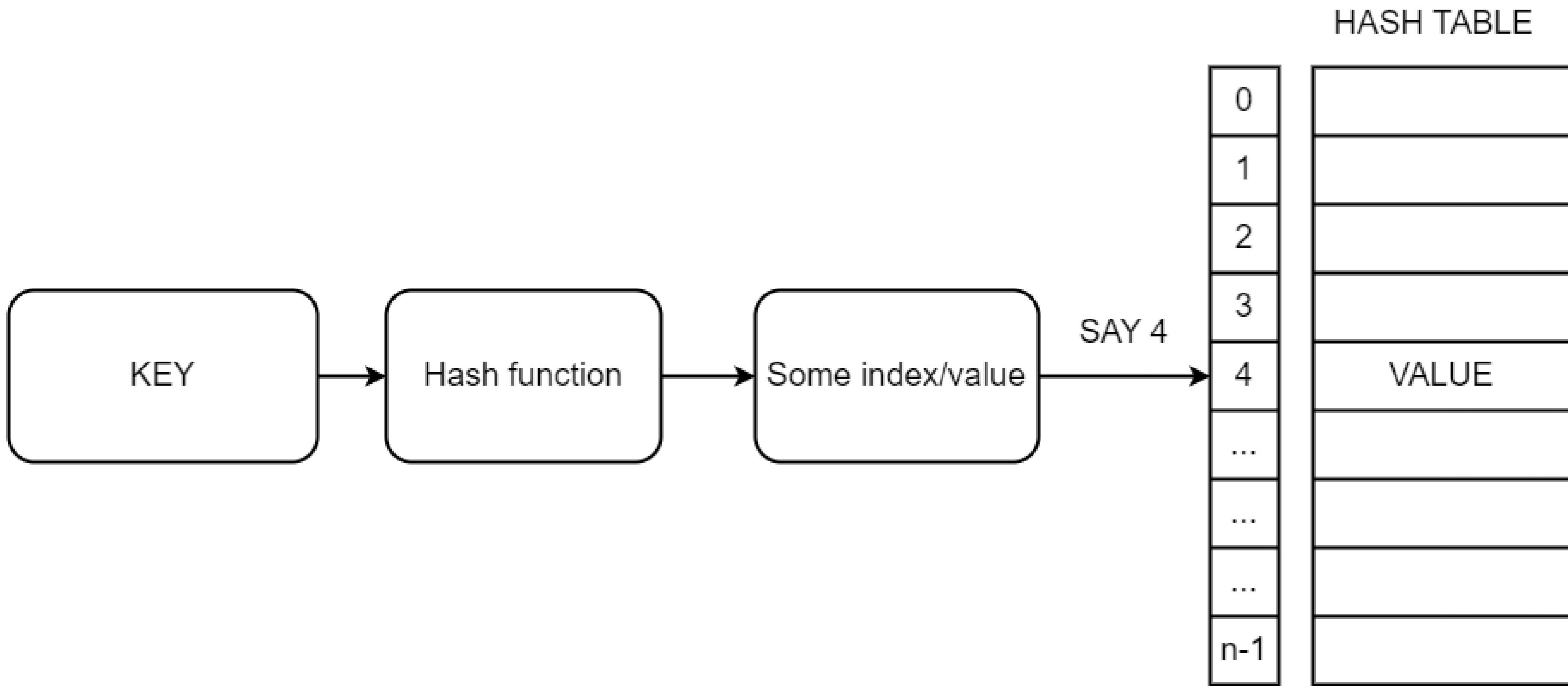
Hashtables are usually **fixed length arrays**, meaning that the **generated index** needs to be **within the array bounds**.

So, **modulo division** is widely used with a prime number fixed size.

actual index = hash value % hash table size



Hashtables





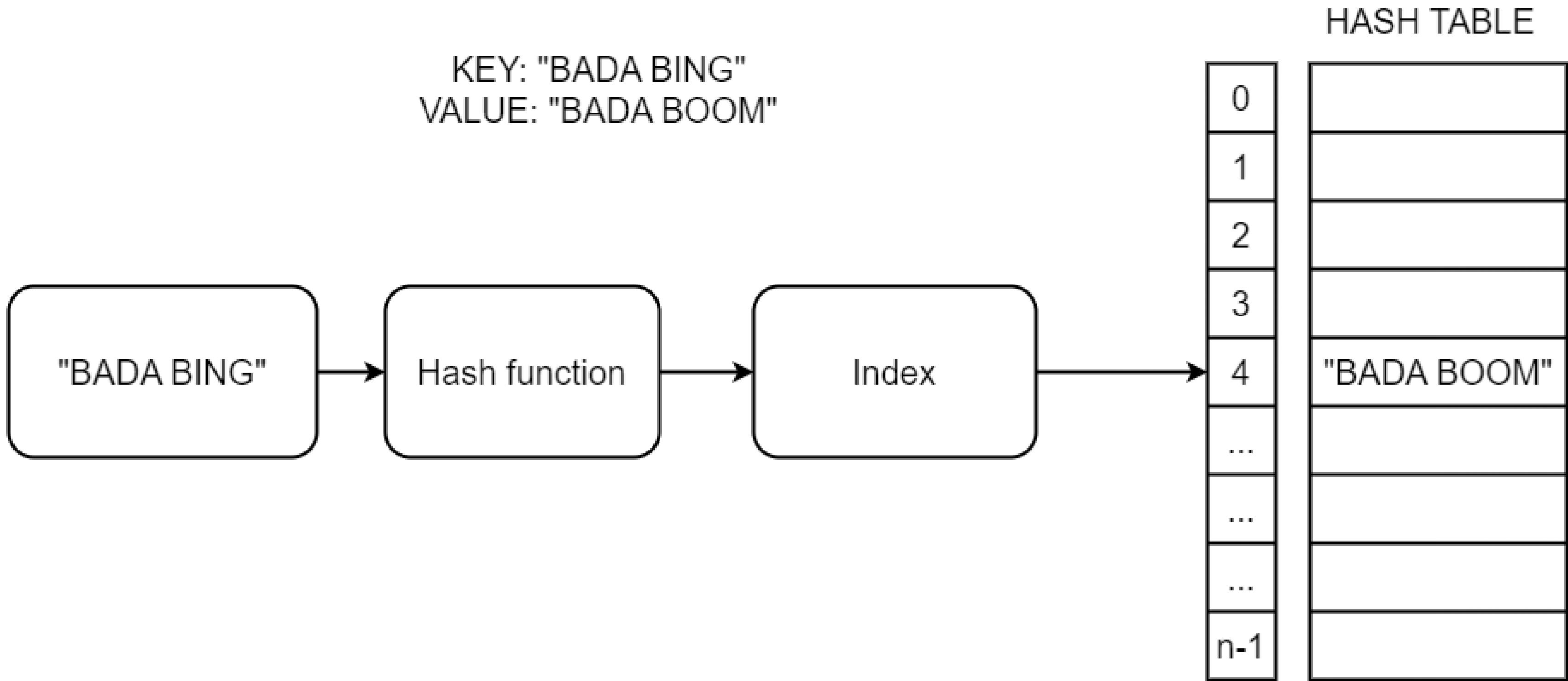
Hashtables

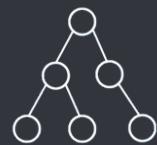


Say you want to add the key value pair
(“Bada Bing”, “Bada Boom”)



Hashtables





Hashtables

After adding some more keys-values,

- **(bim bim, bam bam)**
- **(hello, world)**

HASH TABLE

0	
1	
2	"BAM BAM"
3	
4	"BADA BOOM"
...	"WORLD"
...	
...	
n-1	



Hashtables



Now, if you want to search for the value corresponding to the key “Bada Bing” it is very simple!

Just throw the key through the hash function again!



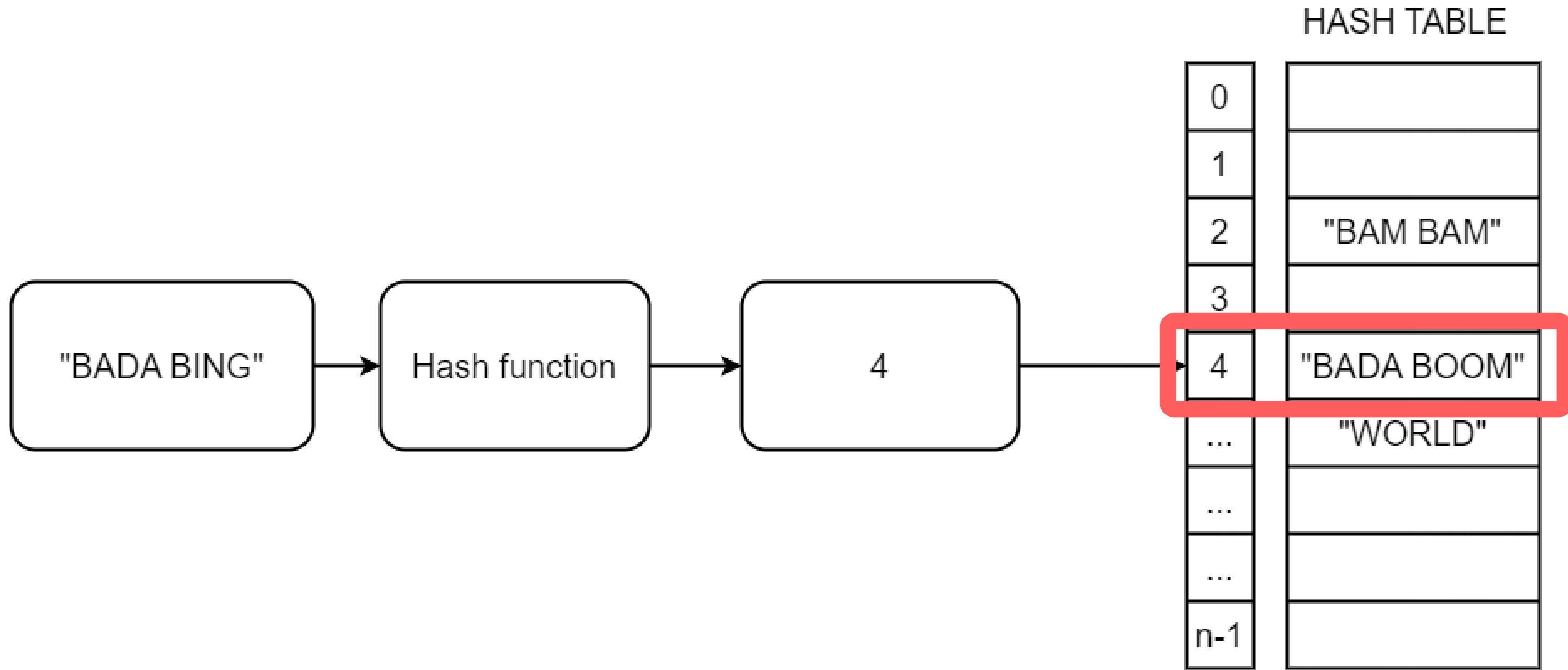
Hashtables



It gives the index which was calculated when inserting the value!



Hashtables





Hashtables



You get the exact index of the required value
when using the hash function!

This allows for constant time $O(1)$ searches!



Hashtables



But wait, what if there are more than one value for a given key?

That, my frendo, is called a **collision**.



Hashtables



For example, consider the example from earlier

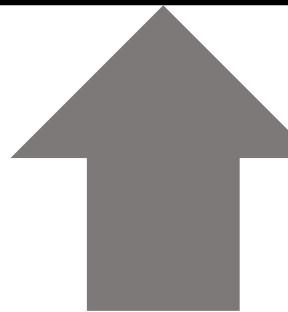
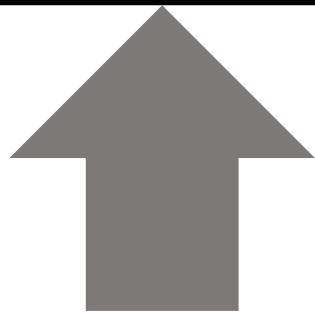
- (PKR, Hari)
- (PKR, Old)

Both pairs have the **same key**, but **different values**, meaning they get mapped to the **same index** by the hash function.



Hashtables

Name	Ram	Shyam	Hari	Sita	Keanu	Old
Age	30	25	45	23	23	123
Address	KTM	KTM	PKR	PTN	BKT	PKR





Hashtables

So, how do we store these values?

One answer is **chaining**

There are two types of chaining:
Open and **closed**



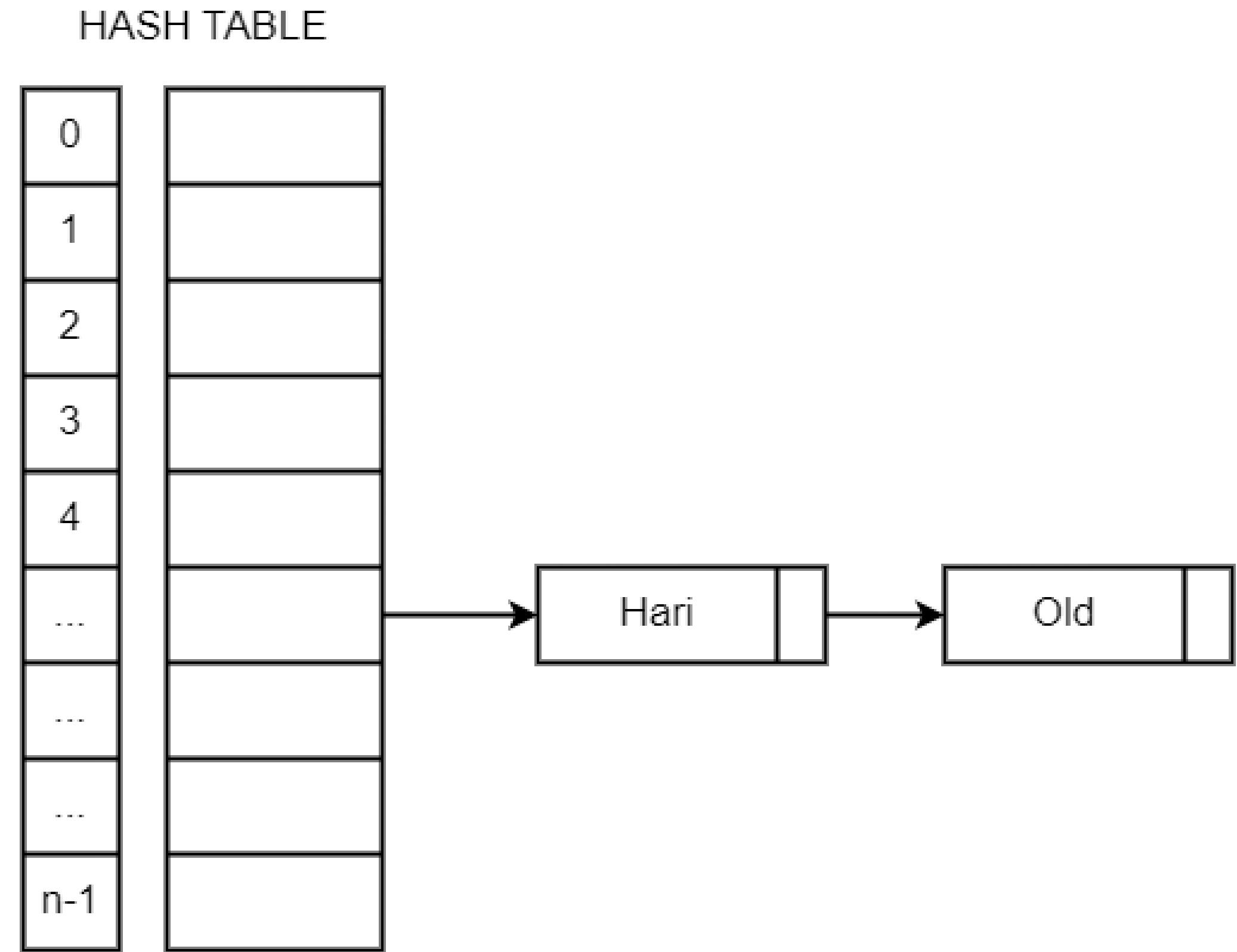
Open chaining

- the hashtable stores a **linked list of values** in each array index **instead of a single value**
- each collision adds a node to the list
- allows for quick search since linear search is done for only the nodes in a list



Hashtables

Then for the example, the values would be stored as





Closed chaining

- the new value is **stored at a different index** in the same table, by manipulating the hashed index
- Examples include linear probing, quadratic probing, rehashing, etc.



Hashtables

First, (PKR, Hari) is added

HASH TABLE





Hashtables

Then, there is a collision on
adding (PKR, Old)
due to same key

So, the index is
**manipulated until a new
available index is found**





Hashtables

In **linear probing**, the index right after the hashed value is checked.

$$\text{new} = \text{old} + i$$

$i = \text{number of manipulations}$



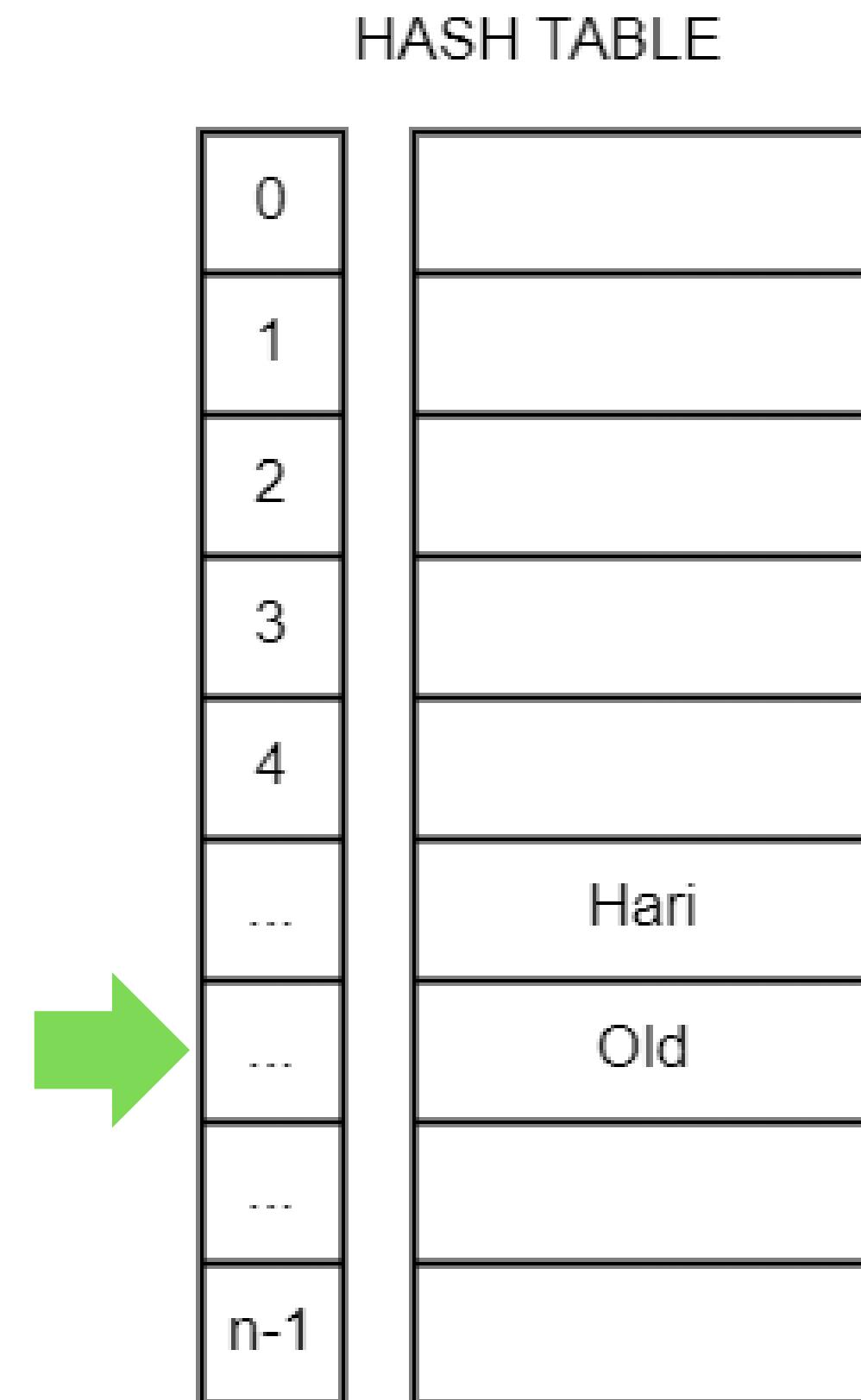


Hashtables

In quadratic probing, the next index is given by

$$\text{new} = \text{old} + i^2$$

$i = \text{number of manipulations}$





Hashtables

For interactive visualization, there are some websites listed in the resources.

Any questions?



Thank you!





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