

## Motivation

- Computers do store, retrieve, and process a large amount of data.
- If the data is stored in well organized way on storage media and in computer's memory, it can be accessed quickly for processing and the user is provided fast response.

## What / Why is Data Structure?

- Data Structure is a way of collecting and organizing data in such a way that we can perform operations on these data in a effective way. In simple language, Data Structure are structures programmed to store ordered data, so that various operations can be performed on it easily.

## Data Structure, Algorithm, Function.

- A data structure should be seen as a logical concept that must address two fundamental concerns.
  - 1) How the data will be stored?
  - 2) What operations will be performed on it?
- Data Structure is a scheme for data organization.
- The functional definition of a data structure should be independent of its implementation.
- The functional definition of a data structure is known as ADT (Abstract Data Type), which is independent of implementation.

→ The implementation part is left to the developers who decide which technology better suits to their project needs.

Eg: a stack ADT is a structure which supports operation such as push() and pop().

→ A stack can be implemented in a number of ways, like using array or linked list.

→ Along with data structures, in real life, problem solving is done with the help of few Algorithms.

→ An algorithm is a step-by-step process to solve a problem.

→ finiteness: The algorithm must always terminate after a finite number of steps.

→ definiteness: Each step must be precisely defined.

→ input: An algorithm has zero or more inputs, taken from a specified set of objects.

→ output: An algorithm has one or more outputs, which have a specified relation to the inputs.

→ effectiveness: It's operations must be basic enough

to be able to be done exactly in a finite length of time, for example,

with somebody using pencil and paper

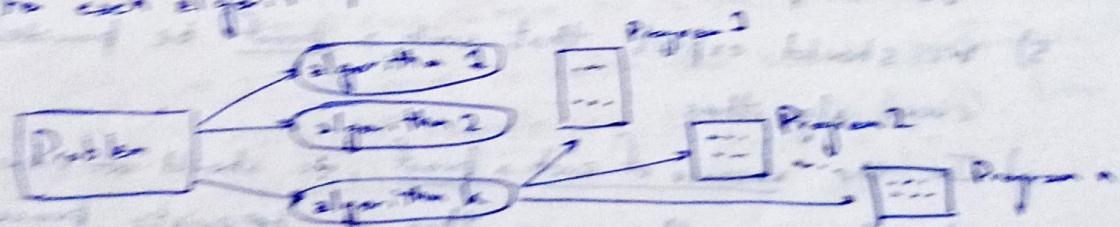
to start a for loop without any errors.

→ In programming, algorithms are implemented in form of methods or functions or routines.

- To get a problem solved we not only want algorithm but also an efficient algorithm
- one criterion of efficiency is time taken by the algorithm, another could be memory it takes at runtime.
- we can have more than one algorithm for the same problem
- The best algorithm is the one which has a fine balance between time taken and memory consumption.
- Sadly, Best never exists 😞
- The people give more priority to the time taken by the algorithm rather than the memory it consumes

### Problems vs Algorithm vs Programs

- For each problem or class of problems there may be different algorithms
- For each algorithm, there may be different implementations (programs)



### Expressing algorithms

- Natural Language - usually verbose and ambiguous
- Flow Charts avoids most (if not all) issues of ambiguity
- Pseudo-Codes also avoids most issues of ambiguity; uses symbols common elements in programming languages no particular agreement on symbols
- Programming Languages lead to precise expression low level details that are not necessary for a high level understanding

## Testing Correctness

- How do we know whether an algorithm is actually correct?
- 1) The logical analysis of the problem we performed in order to design the algorithm should give us confidence that we have identified a valid procedure for finding a solution.
  - 2) We can test the algorithm by choosing different sets of input values and checking to see if the resulting does, in fact, work.
  - 3) But, no matter how much testing we do, unless there are only a finite number of possible input values for the algorithm, testing can never prove that the algorithm produces correct results in all cases.
  - 4) We can attempt to construct a formal, mathematical proof that, if the algorithm is given valid input values then the results obtained from the algorithm must be a solution to the problem.
  - 5) We should expect that such a proof be provided for every algorithms.
  - 6) In the absence of such a proof, we should view the algorithm as nothing more than a heuristic procedure, which may or may not yield the expected results.

## Classification of Data Structures

- Data structures can be broadly classified in two categories
- Linear Data Structure: Arrays, linked lists, stack and queue
  - Hierarchical Data Structure: trees, graphs and heaps.
- Every Data Structure has its own strengths and weaknesses
- Every data structure specially suits to specific problem depending upon the operations performed and the data organization.

## Arrays

- Arrays are by far the most common data structure used to store data.
- Arrays are generally statically implemented data structure by some programming languages.
- The size of this data structure must be known at compile time and cannot be altered at run time.
- Although, few programming languages implement arrays as objects and give the programmer a way to alter the size of them at run time.

### → Disadvantages

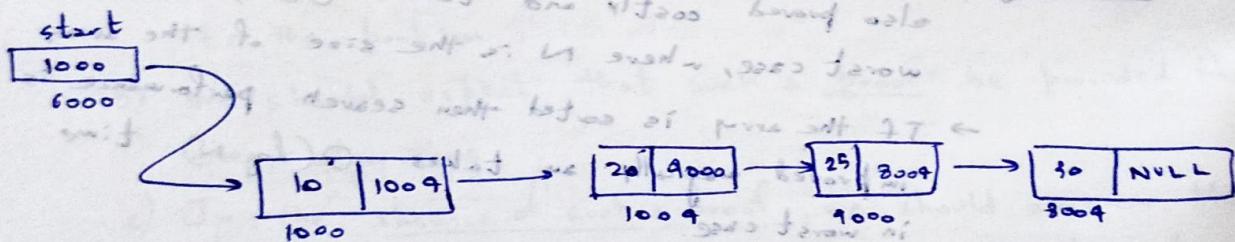
- Inserting an item to an array is an in-place operation.
- Deleting an item to an array is an in-place operation.
- The time taken by insert operation depends on how big the array is, and at which position the item is being inserted.

### → Advantages

- Searching → If the array is unsorted the search operation is also proved costly and takes  $O(N)$  time in worst case, where  $N$  is the size of the array.
- If the array is sorted then search performance is improved magically and takes  $O(\log N)$  time in worst case.

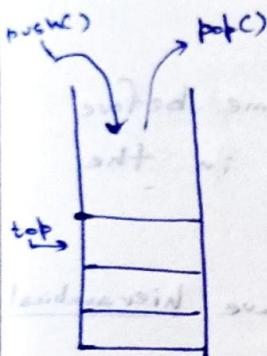
## Linked List

- Linked List data structure provides better memory management than arrays.
- Linked List is allocated memory at runtime, so there is no waste of memory.
- Advantages
  - Linked List is proved to be a useful data structure when the no. of elements to be stored is not known ahead of time.
- Disadvantages
  - Performance wise linked list is slower than array because there is not direct access to linked list elements.
  - There are many flavours of linked list: linear, circular, doubly and doubly circular.



## Stack

- Stack is a last-in-first-out strategy data structure.
- The element stored in last will be removed first.
- Stack has specific but very useful applications;
- Solving recursion → recursive calls are placed onto a stack, and removed from there once they are processed.



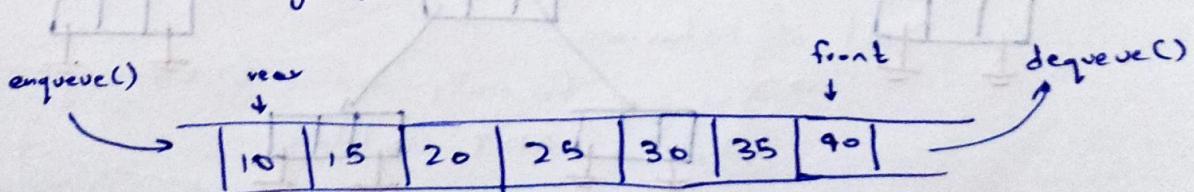
- Evaluating Post-Fix expressions
- Solving Tower of Hanoi
- Backtracking
- Depth-First Search
- Converting a decimal number into a binary number.

## Queue

- Queue is a first-in-first-out data structure.
- The element that is added to the queue data structure first, will be removed from the queue first.
- Dequeue, priority queue, and circular queue are the variants of queue data structure.

- Queue has following application uses:

- Access to shared resources (Eg printer)
- Multi programming (ready queue)
- Message queue



## Trees

→ Tree is a hierarchical data structure.

→ The very top element of a tree is called the root of the tree.

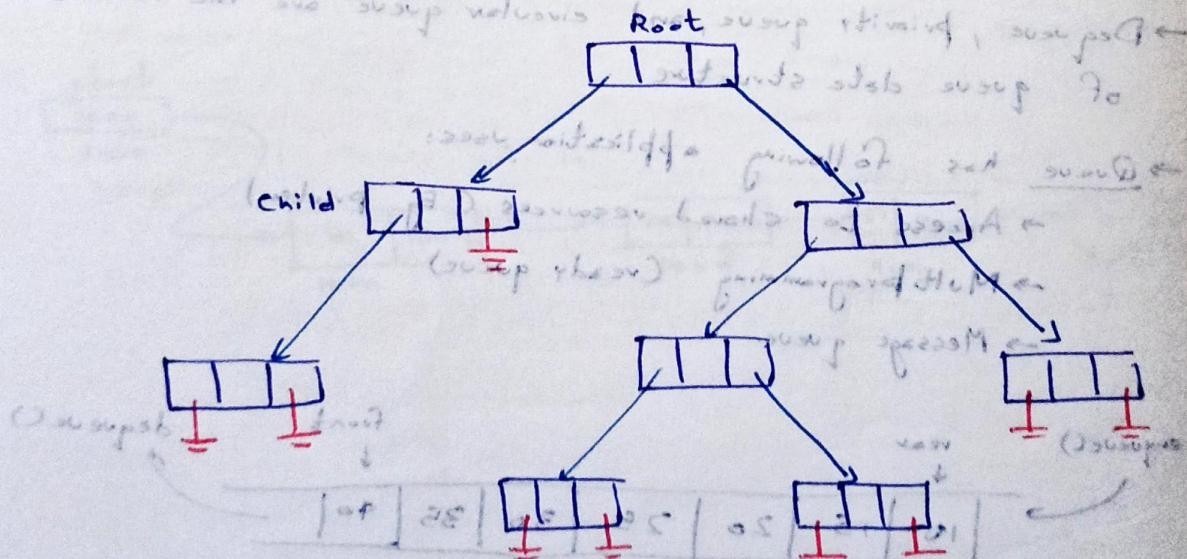
→ Except the root element, every element in a tree has a parent, and zero or more children.

→ All the elements in the left sub-tree come before the root in sorting order, and all those in the right sub-tree comes after the root.

→ Tree is most useful data structure when you have hierarchical information to store.

Eg. Directory structure of a file system.

→ Some variants of tree data structure are Red-Black tree, threaded Binary Tree, AVL tree, etc.



## Heap

→ Heap is a Binary Tree that stores a collection of keys by satisfying Heap Property.

→ Heap Property:

→ There are two flavors of heap data structure (Max Heap and Min Heap)

→ For max heap, each node should be greater than or equal to each of its children.

→ For min heap, each node should be less than or equal to each of its children.

→ Heap data structure are usually used to implement priority queue.

## Hash Table

→ Hash Table is a data structure that stores data in form of key-element pairs.

→ A key is a non-null value which is mapped to an element.

→ The element is accessed on the basis of the key associated with it.

→ Hash Table is a useful data structure for implementing dictionary (TAA) & it is treated as a

(is put after prior, e.g.) methods allow us to add elements to TAA as follows:

putting O(1) is a constant time as there is no need to search or update the existing elements in TAA as they are stored in a hash table.

so if we want to store a new element in TAA then we have to search for it in TAA.

Time complexity of search is O(n) where n is the number of elements in TAA.

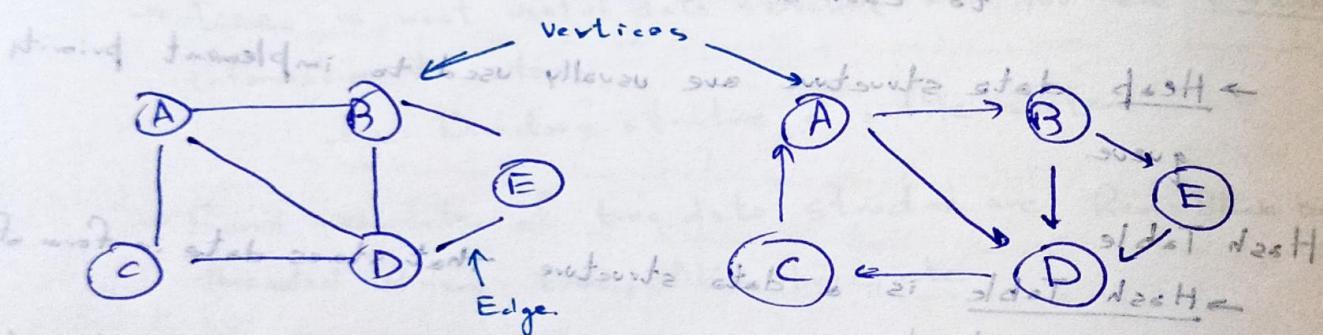
Graph ~~is a collection of nodes connected by edges~~

→ Graph is a networked data structure that connects a collection of nodes called vertices, by connections, called edges.

→ An edge can be seen as a path or communication link between two nodes.

→ edges can be either directed or undirected.

→ In a directed path, you can move in one direction only, while in an undirected path, the movement is possible in both directions.



a) Undirected graph

b) Directed Graph

## Abstract Data Types and Data Structures

→ Often, these terms are used as synonyms, but it's better to think of them this way:

→ An abstract Data Type (ADT) represents a particular set of behaviors.

→ You can formally define (i.e., using maths logic) what an ADT is / does.

→ Eg. a stack is a list implements a LIFO policy  
• on addition / deletion.

→ A data structure is more concrete. Typically, it is a technique or strategy for implement ADT

Eg.: using Linked List or Array to implement stack

→ Going one level lower, we get into particulars of programming languages and libraries

Eg. use `java.lang.Vector` or `java.Util.Stack` or a C library from STL

→ Some common ADT's that all trained programmers know about:

→ Stack, queue, priority queue, dictionary, sequence, set

→ Some common data structures used to implement ADT's:

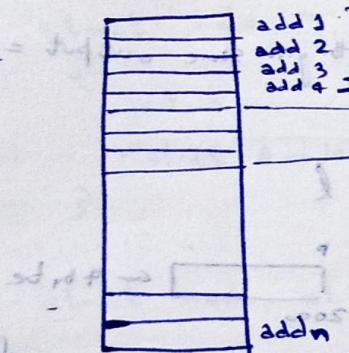
→ array, linked lists, hash table (open, closed, circular hash)

→ trees (binary search tree, heaps, AVL trees, 2-3 trees, tries, red/black tree, B-tree)

## Pointers in C

### Memory

### Structure



word add 1

word add 2

word add 3

word add 4

add 0

Two types of memory: Byte Addressable: each byte has got one address  
Word Addressable: each word has got one address

word = 4 byte

## Parts of Executable Program

→ address is unsigned integer.

hence size is always 4 bytes

Eg. `int * p;`

`float * q;`

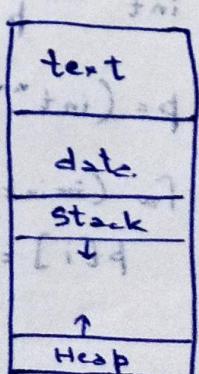
both have 4 bytes

code →

global variables

local variables

dynamic allocated variable



Pointers in C

int a;  
int \*p;  
 $p = \& a;$

\* → value  
& → address

printf ("%d", \*p)

Eg: int a = 20;

int \*p;  
int \*\*q; → pointer of a pointer.

$p = \& a;$

$q = \& p;$

printf ("%d\n", \*p); → both gives same output = 20

printf ("%d\n", \*\*q);

Dynamic Array using malloc and calloc.

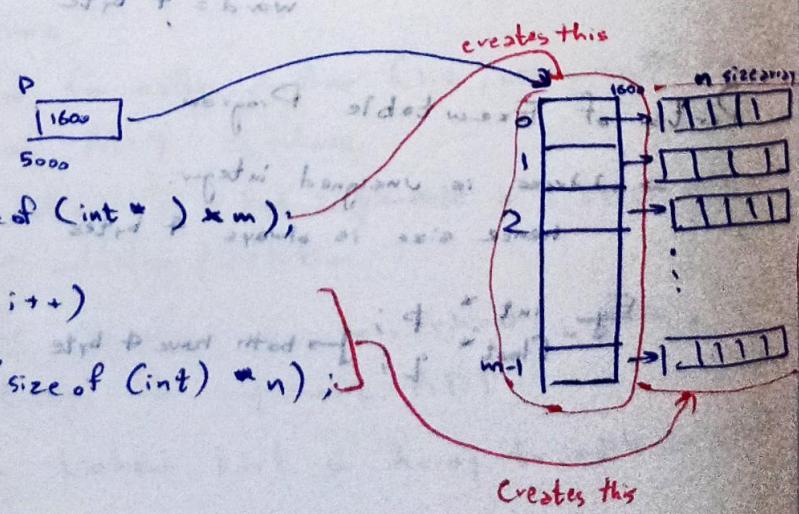
Eg: int \*p;

$p = (int*) malloc (sizeof(int) * 10);$  → creates array of 10 integers (40 bytes)  
(returns void pointer)  
(typecast to int\*)  
here p is in stack as it's local  
but malloc memory is from heap

2D array dynamic ( $m \times n$ )

int \*\*p;

$p = (int**) malloc (sizeof(int*) * m);$   
for (int i=0; i < m; i++)  
 $p[i] = (int*) malloc (sizeof(int) * n);$



## Arithmetic Operation on Pointers

→ pointers can be incremented or decremented.

Eg: int \*p;

$p++$ ; → goes to next element

Eg:

int \*p;

$p = \&a[0]$ ; or  $p = a$ ;

$p++$ ; → p points to  $a[1]$

$p--$ ; → p points to  $a[0]$

0	1	2	
1000	1009	1008	

↓  
p

↓  
p+1

↓  
p+2

↓  
p+3

↓  
p+4

↓  
p+5

↓  
p+6

↓  
p+7

↓  
p+8

↓  
p+9

Eg: struct node { size of node = 8 bytes };

{

int a;

struct node \* point;

}

$s = 8 - p$

struct node a[10]; →

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1000	1009	1008	1007	1006	1005	1004	1003	1002	1001

struct node \* p; → size 4 byte

$p = a$ ; → p points to  $a[0]$

$p++$ ; → p points to  $a[1]$

Eg: int \*p; (let p point to 1000)

$p = p + 2$ ; (p now points to 1008)

↓  
not treated as 2 but as  $2 * \text{size of (int)}$

$p = p - 1$ ; (p now points to 1009)

Q) Can we add two pointers? out of 10 marks

Eg: `int *p;`  
`int *q;`

is prog  $\Rightarrow$  possible. formula given at page no. 1 + q

$\rightarrow$  Similarly  $p + q$ ,  $p/q$  is not possible. (a) + b; (a/b)

$\rightarrow$  But  $p - q$  is possible. (a = b)  $\Rightarrow$  (a - b) = 0

Eg: `int a[10]` (1)a at start [ ] a | ++

`int *p, *q;` (0)a at start of a | - q

$p = \&a[0];$  a | 1000 → start point  
 $q = &a[2];$  q | 1002 → start point

~~int p, q;~~ start point  
$$\boxed{q - p = 2}$$
 start point

Function calls (0)a start point

Eg: `void swap(int a, int b);` call by value, change here does not affect actual

parameter. a start point

$\{$  start point

$temp = a;$

$a = b;$

$b = temp;$

(1)a at start of a | ++

void main() (0)a at start of a | - q

(0)a at start of a | - q

$a = 2;$

$b = 5;$

↓  
This will not work

`swap(a, b);` This will not work

(0)a at start of a | - q

Call by Pointers or Address

void swap (int \*a, int \*b) as this is pointers, changes here affects

{ int temp; actual parameters } value for

temp = \*a; temp holds value of a

\*a = \*b; copying the value of b to a

\*b = temp; and value of a is now reflected in b

→ and value of a is now reflected in b

→ value for

Eg in the function call swap (&p, &q) {P} some vars

I) 5 2 (actual parameter) (new b)

II) Function used: 5 2 b: "function b"

III) End result: 2 5 man of "swap"

→ relationship.

Structure variables are local to each student. as = Mar + of =

struct Student {

int roll;

char name[20]; (20 bytes)

} student

void main()

{ struct Student s1; 1001 name. life time

struct Student s2; not necessarily continuous with s1 (P) is true

} (S) is false

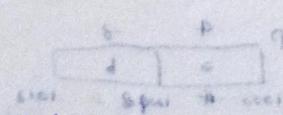
Linked List Eg

struct node

{ int data; → 4 byte.

struct node \* next; → pointer (address) → 4 byte

};



\* of life time

of S is P

Eg: struct node

```
{  
    int data;  
    struct node next;  
}
```

- This is not defined yet
- Compiler can't calculate its size
- If we do sizeof(node) → loop will form
- Hence Compiler will give error

## Structure Pointer

Eg: struct student

```
{  
    int rollno;  
    char name[4];  
}
```

void main() { } (assuming local)

{ struct student \* p; } (I)

printf ("%d", p->rollno); (II)  
printf ("%s", p->name); (III)

}

Eg: \* p = 20

→ not possible independently as p doesn't have allocated memory  
→ we have to use malloc() or calloc() to allocate memory  
→ uses heap for storing memory

Eg: char \* s;

strcpy (s, "hellow world") → will have to allocate memory or else will give segmentation fault.

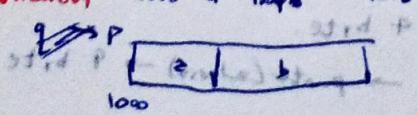
Eg: struct st1

```
{  
    int a; (4)  
    float b; (8)  
}
```

struct st1 p, \* q;

→ uses stack to store memory

q = &p



↑ tail memory

↓ free space

↑ tail memory

↓ free space

Eg typedef

Type def

typedef existing-type new-name;

Eg typedef int \*intvar;

→ now int a; and intVar(a) are same  
→ now int \*a; and intVar \*a; are same.

Eg struct student

{

3 st;

~ global object of st defined of type student

Eg do typedef int\* intptr;

→ now intptr is same as int\*

void pointers

Eg void main()

void \* p;  
int \* p;  
float \* q;

→ void pointer is type compatible with any other pointer  
→ void pointers are called generic pointers

p = q → will give error as p and q are of different type

r = p → this is called

→ Void pointers can't be dereferenced

Eg int \* p;  
int a;  
void \* q;

p = &a;  
printf("%d", \*p); → OK

q = p  
printf("%d", \*q); → not OK → as q has no type.

printf("%d", \*(int\*q)); → OK, as (int\*)q is of type int

Eg. void main()

```

int a = 10;
float b = 12.5;
void *ptr;
ptr = &a;
printf ("%d", a);
ptr = &b;
printf ("%f", b);

```

Pointer to functions → declaration of pointer to function

~~Eg~~ void (\*pf) (int);  
↓  
return type      ↳ parameters of a function

Eg: void \* pf (int) → this returns void \*, and is different

~~Eg:~~ void ~~set~~<sup>test</sup> (int a)  
{  
 if ((a % 2 == 0))  
 printf ("even");

else printf ("odd");

void (\*pf)(int); *function pointer to function having argument int*  
pf = test  $\rightarrow$  assignment of pf to test  
pf(10)  $\rightarrow$  pf will be called.

1st \* tri - b7  
1st tri  
1st \* block

$\text{NO} \leftarrow , (4^{\circ}, "bx") + \text{inv}$

$$x_0 = \left( x^*, x^* \right)_{\text{true}}$$

Then  $\phi(t_0) = p^{(t_0)} \circ \psi_0 \circ \pi((p^{(t_0)})^* \circ h^*)^{-1} \circ \phi$

Eg: int sum (int a, int b) { /\* "sum" \*/ function from file  
{  
 return a+b;  
}

3. ~~(functions, how to use) (subproc)~~ for  
void (\*pf) (int)

pf = sum; → not possible as pf take one int, but sum take  
2.

abc (int, int) 2 → (obj of function) type  
abc (abc) 2 → (obj of function) type

int (\*pf) (int, int)

~~(functions, how to use) (subproc)~~  
abc pf = sum → now OK  
abc (sum, (a)) → (functions, variables, objects, class names) type

Eg: int mult (int a, int b)

return a \* b;

→ pointing to function

\* abc = mult; → Possible as (types are matching)  
(\* int \*) ? type

abc = sum;

(pf) (10, 5); → give 15

abc = mult → (functions, variables, objects, class names) type

(abc)(10, 5); → give 50

Useable example → sort function only applied on fundamental data type.  
→ function pointer can be used here to sort user defined data.

type (using the same sort function): sort and

Q-Sort ← looking for more help

Eg: void qsort (void \*base, size\_t ~~num~~ items, size\_t size,  
compare) → can be used to compare anything  
between them

Eg: int comp\_int (const void \*a, const void \*b) {

& return [\*(int \*)a] - [\*(int \*)b]; }

\* qsort :

qsort (arr, 100, 4, comp); // sort values of arr using  
// compare to sorted (arr, 100, 4, compare);

~~int comp-struct ( void\* a, void\* b )  
 return [ ((Struct\*)a) - ((Struct\*)b) ]~~

int (compare) (~~const void\*~~, const void\*)

(fn) (~~void\*~~) ~~void~~

comp = comp-struct

qsort ( ~~int~~ int a[10] ) = { 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 0, 13 };

int size = sizeof(a) / sizeof(\*a[0]);

~~qsort (a, size, compare);~~

(fn, size) (~~void\*~~) ~~fn~~

qsort ( (void\*)a, size, sizeof(\*a[0]), compare );

(fn, size) ~~fn~~

~~printf~~

for (int i=0; i<10; ++i)

printf ("%d\n",

## Arrays

→ finite, set ordered set of homogeneous elements.

has definite elements or

same data type  $\rightarrow$  (a, ai) (~~void~~)

size of elements  $\rightarrow$  group

then ~~size~~

stable structure  $\rightarrow$  fixed size and  $\rightarrow$  set has definite ordering  $\rightarrow$  stable

→ two types:  $\rightarrow$  base type  $\rightarrow$  type of element (data type)

i) Base Type  $\rightarrow$  type of element (data type)

ii) Index Type  $\rightarrow$  index of an array  $\rightarrow$  Integer  $\rightarrow$  0 index  $\rightarrow$  C++ ~~int~~  $\rightarrow$  Matlab  $\rightarrow$  1 index  $\rightarrow$  Matlab

Size / Length =  $\frac{a_2 - a_1}{2} + 2$   $\rightarrow$  number of elements  $\rightarrow$  size

upper bound lower bound

C / C++ :  $a[i] \rightarrow$  (a[i])  $\rightarrow$  [a[i]]  $\rightarrow$  index position

? index position

Three things to consider specify arrays, pointer & strings

i) name of array

ii) Data type

iii) index

int a[10];