## **STACK**

"In the world of computing and programming, we have a concept called 'stacks.' Imagine a stack as a pile of stones or bricks. The key idea with a stack is that the last stone or brick placed on the pile is the first one that will be removed. This idea is known as 'Last-In, First-Out' or 'LIFO.'
Basic Operations:
In this stack world, we have three fundamental actions:
1. Push: This is like adding a stone to the top of the stack.
2. Pop: It's like taking the top stone off the stack.
3. Top: Imagine peeking at the top stone without removing it.
Properties and Characteristics:
1. LIFO Principle: The stones in the stack follow this rule - the last stone I put on top will be the first one I'll take off.
2. Linear Structure: Stacks are like arranging stones or bricks in a line. You add one after the other, just like in a line of people.
3. Size and Flexibility: Stacks can be like a fixed-size shelf, or they can be like an expandable bag that can grow as we add more things.
4. Operations are Quick: Push, pop, and peek are pretty fast, like picking up a stone from the top of the pile.
5. Use a Pointer: Stacks often use a special pointer, like an arrow, to show where the top stone is. When we add a stone, we move the arrow up, and when we remove a stone, we move it down.

**Applications:** 

Now, let's talk about how we use these stack ideas:
1. Function Calls:It's like keeping track of the steps we follow when building something. We put a new step on top, and when we're done, we take it off.
2. Expression Evaluation: Think of it as solving math problems. We rearrange numbers and operators to calculate the result.
3. Undo/Redo: Imagine drawing or writing on paper. We can go back and forth in time by stacking actions on top of each other.
4. Backtracking: In adventures, we explore paths. If we hit a dead end, we go back and try another way, like climbing a tree and climbing down when we don't find anything.
5. Memory Management: This is like having a special box for storing things. We put things inside and take them out when we're done.
6. Language Rules: In learning new languages, we follow rules. Stacks help us understand and follow the rules correctly.
7. Browser History: It's like keeping a record of the places we've visited. We can see where we've been and go back to those places.
So, in the world of computing, stacks are like arranging stones or bricks, following the rule of 'Last-In, First-Out.' They help us organize and manage many tasks efficiently.".
Implementation:

```
#include <stdio.h>
#define MAX_SIZE 10

// Define the stack data structure
struct Stack {
    int data[MAX_SIZE];
    int top; // Index of the top element
};

// Initialize the stack
void initStack(struct Stack* stack) {
    stack->top = -1;
}

// Check if the stack is empty
int isEmpty(struct Stack* stack) {
    return stack->top == -1;
}

// Check if the stack is full
int isFull(struct Stack* stack) {
    return stack->top == MAX_SIZE - 1;
}

// Push an element onto the stack
void push(struct Stack* stack, int value) {
    if (isFull(stack)) {
        printf("Stack is full. Cannot push %d.\n", value);
    } else {
        stack->data[++stack->top] = value;
        printf("Pushed %d onto the stack.\n", value);
}
```

```
if (isFull(stack)) {
    printf("Stack is full. Cannot push %d.\n", value);
} else {
    stack->data[++stack->top] = value;
    printf("Pushed %d onto the stack.\n", value);
}

// Pop an element from the stack
int pop(struct Stack* stack) {
    if (isEmpty(stack)) {
        printf("Stack is empty. Cannot pop.\n");
        return -1; // Return a sentinel value
    } else {
        int value = stack->data[stack->top--];
        printf("Popped %d from the stack.\n", value);
        return value;
    }
}

int main() {
    struct Stack myStack;
    initStack(AmyStack);
    push(&myStack, 10);
    push(&myStack, 30);
    pop(&myStack);
    pop(&myStack);
    pop(&myStack);
    return 0;
}
```

# **Queue**

A queue is a fundamental data structure in computer science that follows the First-In, First-Out (FIFO) principle, meaning that the first element added to the queue is the first one to be removed.
Basic Operations:
A queue typically supports the following basic operations:
1. Enqueue (Push): Add an element to the back of the queue.
2. Dequeue (Pop): Remove the front element from the queue.
3. Front (Peek): Retrieve the front element without removing it.
Properties and Characteristics:
1. FIFO Principle: In a queue, elements are processed in the order they were added.
2. Linear Data Structure: Queues are typically implemented as linear data structures, just like stacks.
3. Fixed Size or Dynamic: Similar to stacks, queues can be implemented with a fixed size or dynamically resized.
4. Operations are $O(1)$ : Enqueue, dequeue, and front operations typically have a constant time complexity of $O(1)$ .
Applications:
Queues have many real-world applications, including:

1. \*\*Task Scheduling:\*\* Operating systems use queues for scheduling tasks and processes.

- 2. \*\*Print Job Management:\*\* Printers use queues to manage print jobs in the order they are received.
- 3. \*\*Breadth-First Search:\*\* Queues are used in graph algorithms like breadth-first search.
- 4. \*\*Request Processing:\*\* Web servers and services use queues to process incoming requests in a fair manner.

\*\*Implementations:\*\*

Queues can be implemented in various ways:

- 1. \*\*Array-Based Queue:\*\* An array is used to store elements, and two pointers (front and back) are maintained to manage the queue.
- 2. \*\*Linked List-Based Queue:\*\* A linked list can be used to implement a queue, providing dynamic sizing but with slightly more overhead.

#### **Implemention**

```
#include <stdool.h>
#include <stdool.h>
#fefine MAX_SIZE 100

// Define the queue data structure

funt data[MAX_SIZE];
int front; // Index of the front element
int rear; // Index of the rear element
int size; // Number of elements in the queue

// Initialize the queue

// Initialize the queue

void initQueue(struct Queue* queue) {
 queue->Front = 0;
 queue->Front = 0;
 queue->size = 0;
}

// Check if the queue is empty

bool isEmpty(struct Queue* queue) {
 return queue->size = 0;
}

// Check if the queue is full
bool isFull(struct Queue* queue) {
 return queue->size = MAX_SIZE;
}
```

```
// Front operation to get the front element without dequeuing

int front(struct Queue* queue) {

if (isEmpty(queue)) {

printf("Queue is empty. Cannot get the front element.\n");

return -1; // Return a sentinel value

} else {

return queue->data[queue->front];

}

int main() {

struct Queue myQueue;

initQueue(&myQueue, 10);

enqueue(&myQueue, 30);

enqueue(&myQueue, 30);

printf("Front element: %d\n", front(&myQueue));

dequeue(&myQueue);

dequeue(&myQueue);

return 0;

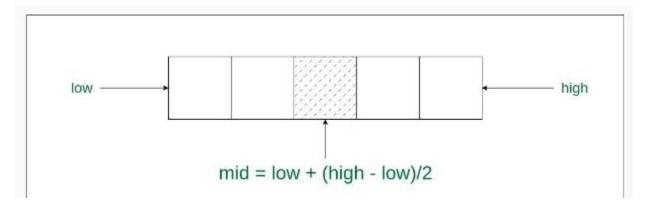
return 0;
```

#### Binary search

Binary search is a widely used searching algorithm in computer science. It is an efficient way to find a specific element within a sorted collection of data.

\*\*Basic Idea:\*\*

Binary search is based on the principle of divide and conquer. It repeatedly divides the search interval in half and compares the middle element with the target value, eliminating half of the remaining elements each time until it finds the desired element or determines that it doesn't exist in the data set.



\*\*Prerequisites:\*\*

1. \*\*Sorted Data: \*\* Binary search requires that the data set is already sorted, either in ascending or descending order. This is a critical prerequisite for the algorithm to work correctly.

\*\*Algorithm:\*\*

Binary search is typically implemented using a recursive or iterative approach. Here, I'll provide the iterative version:

- 1. Initialize two pointers, `left` and `right`, to the start and end of the sorted data set, respectively.
- 2. While `left` is less than or equal to `right`, do the following:
  - a. Calculate the middle index:  $\operatorname{mid} = (\operatorname{left} + \operatorname{right}) / 2$ .
  - b. Compare the middle element with the target value:
    - If the middle element is equal to the target, you've found the element. Return its index.

    - If the middle element is greater than the target, set `right` to `mid 1` (search the left half).
- 3. If the `left` pointer is greater than the `right` pointer, the target element is not in the data set. Return a "not found" indicator, such as -1.

```
**Time Complexity:**
```

The time complexity of binary search is  $O(\log n)$ , which makes it significantly faster than linear search (O(n)) for large data sets.

```
**Applications:**
```

Binary search is used in various applications, such as:

- 1. Searching in sorted arrays or lists.
- 2. Database indexing.
- 3. Spell-checking and autocomplete features in text editors and search engines.

```
**Variations:**
```

#### There are variations of binary search, such as:

- 1. \*\*Lower Bound Binary Search: \*\* Finds the lowest element greater than or equal to the target.
- 2. \*\*Upper Bound Binary Search:\*\* Finds the highest element less than or equal to the target.

#### **Implementation**

Bubble sort
Bubble Sort is a simple sorting algorithm that repeatedly steps through a list, compares adjacent elements, and swaps them if they are in the wrong order. Here's everything you need to know about Bubble Sort:
**Basic Idea:**
Bubble Sort gets its name from the way smaller or larger elements "bubble" to the top of the list as the algorithm iterates through the data. The algorithm continues to swap elements until the entire list is sorted.
**Algorithm:**
1. Start at the beginning of the list.
2. Compare the first two elements. If the first element is greater than the second, swap them.

3. Move to the next pair of elements (second and third) and repeat the comparison and swap if necessary.
4. Continue this process until the end of the list. This completes one pass.
5. Repeat the above steps for the entire list, performing multiple passes until no more swaps are needed. If no swaps occur during a pass, the list is considered sorted.
**Time Complexity:**
Bubble Sort is not an efficient sorting algorithm and has a worst-case and average time complexity of $O(n^2)$ , where "n" is the number of elements in the list. This makes it impractical for sorting large lists.
**Variants:**
- **Optimized Bubble Sort:** To improve efficiency, an optimized version of Bubble Sort can be used, which keeps track of whether any swaps were made during a pass. If no swaps are made during a pass, the algorithm can stop, as the list is already sorted.

\*\*Applications:\*\*

Bubble Sort is not commonly used in practice for sorting large data sets due to its inefficiency. More efficient sorting algorithms like QuickSort, MergeSort, or even the built-in sorting functions of programming languages are preferred. However, Bubble Sort is sometimes used for educational purposes to teach the concept of sorting algorithms and as a simple sorting method for small data sets.

#### Linked list

A linked list is a fundamental data structure in computer science that consists of a sequence of elements, each containing a reference (or link) to the next element in the sequence. Linked lists are used to represent and manipulate collections of data, allowing dynamic allocation of memory and efficient insertions and deletions. Here's everything you need to know about linked lists:

\*\*Types of Linked Lists:\*\*

- 1. \*\*Singly Linked List: \*\* Each element (node) points to the next element in the list, forming a unidirectional chain. It's the simplest type of linked list.
- 2. \*\*Doubly Linked List:\*\* Each element points to both the next and the previous elements, allowing traversal in both directions.
- 3. \*\*Circular Linked List:\*\* A variation of singly or doubly linked lists in which the last element points back to the first element, forming a closed loop.

\*\*Basic Operations:\*\*

Linked lists support several fundamental operations:

- 1. \*\*Insertion:\*\* Adding a new element to the list.
- 2. \*\*Deletion:\*\* Removing an element from the list.
- 3. \*\*Traversal:\*\* Moving through the list to access or modify elements.
- 4. \*\*Search:\*\* Finding an element with a specific value.
- 5. \*\*Access: \*\* Retrieving the data of a specific element, usually by its position or key.
- \*\*Advantages:\*\*
- Dynamic memory allocation: Linked lists can grow or shrink in size at runtime, allowing efficient memory use.
- Insertions and deletions: Adding or removing elements from a linked list is usually more efficient than with arrays.
- No predefined size: Linked lists can expand or shrink as needed, avoiding issues related to fixed-size arrays.
- \*\*Disadvantages:\*\*
- Inefficient access: Accessing an element by index or position requires traversing the list from the beginning, which can be slower compared to array access.

- Extra memory usage: Linked lists use additional memory for the link or pointer associated with each element.
- Complexity: Implementing and managing linked lists can be more complex than arrays.

```
**Applications:**
```

Linked lists are used in various applications, including:

- 1. \*\*Implementation of Other Data Structures:\*\* Linked lists are used as building blocks for more complex data structures, like stacks, queues, and hash tables.
- 2. \*\*Dynamic Data Structures:\*\* Data structures that need to adapt to changing data sizes, such as dynamic arrays, memory management systems, and text editors.
- 3. \*\*Algorithms:\*\* Some algorithms, like certain graph traversal algorithms, are naturally expressed using linked data structures.

```
// Delete the first occurrence of a node with the given data
void delete(struct LinkedList* list, int data) {
    struct Node* current = list->head;
    struct Node* previous = NULL;
    while (current! = NULL && current->data! = data) {
        previous = current;
        current = current->next;
    }
    if (current == NULL) {
            // Element not found
            return;
    }
    if (previous == NULL) {
            // Element is at the head of the list
            list->head = current->next;
    } else {
            previous->next = current->next;
    }
    free(current);
    list->size--;
}
```

```
// Search for an element with the given data and return true if found, false otherwise
int search(struct LinkedList* list, int data) {
    struct Node* current = list->head;
    while (current != NULL) {
        if (current->data == data) {
            return 1; // Element found
        }
        current = current->next;
    }
    return 0; // Element not found
}

// Display the elements in the linked list
void display(struct LinkedList* list) {
        struct Node* current = list->head;
        printf("Linked List: ");
        while (current! = NULL) {
            printf("%d -> ", current->data);
            current = current->next;
        }
        printf("NULL\n");
}
```

\*\*Variations and Enhancements:\*\*

There are various enhancements and variations of linked lists, such as skip lists, self-adjusting lists, and more. These data structures offer improved performance for specific use cases and often involve more complex algorithms for insertion, deletion, and searching.

A dynamic array, also known as a resizable array, is a data structure that allows you to efficiently resize an array as needed during runtime. Unlike a traditional (static) array, a dynamic array's size can change as elements are added or removed. Here's everything you need to know about dynamic arrays:
**Basic Characteristics:**
1. **Dynamic Sizing:** Dynamic arrays can grow or shrink in size as elements are added or removed. This flexibility makes them a powerful data structure for managing collections of data.

$ 2. **Random\ Access: **\ Similar\ to\ traditional\ arrays,\ dynamic\ arrays\ provide\ O(1)\ time\ complexity\ for\ random\ access\ to\ elements\ based\ on\ their\ index. $
**Common Implementations:**
1. **C++ Vector:** In C++, the `std::vector` is a dynamic array implementation provided by the Standard Template Library (STL).
2. **Java ArrayList:** In Java, the `ArrayList` is a dynamic array implementation available in the Java Collections Framework.
**Key Operations:**
1. **Append (Add):** Add an element to the end of the dynamic array. If the array is full, it may need to be resized.
2. **Remove (Delete):** Remove an element from the dynamic array. This may involve shifting elements to fill the gap.
3. **Access (Read/Write):** Access elements by their index, allowing both reading and writing of values.
4. **Resize:** When the dynamic array becomes full, it must be resized to accommodate more elements. This often involves creating a new, larger array, copying existing elements, and deallocating the old array.
**Time Complexity:**
- **Append (Average Case):** O(1)
- **Append (Worst Case, due to resizing):** O(n)
- **Remove (Average Case):** O(n)
- **Access (by Index):** O(1)

**Advantages:**
1. **Dynamic Sizing:** Allows for efficient resizing, which avoids wasted memory and simplifies programming.
2. **Random Access:** Provides fast access to elements by index, just like traditional arrays.
3. **Flexible:** Suitable for various applications, from simple lists to complex data structures like stacks and queues.
**Disadvantages:**
1. **Insertion/Deletion in the Middle:** If you need to insert or delete elements in the middle, this operation can be time-consuming, as it may require shifting many elements.
2. **Memory Overhead:** Dynamic arrays may have some memory overhead due to allocated but unused memory.
3. **Resizing:** Resizing a dynamic array can be an expensive operation, potentially leading to performance issues.
**Applications:**
Dynamic arrays are widely used in various applications, including:
1. **Collection Data Structures:** Lists, stacks, queues, and other data structures are often implemented using dynamic arrays.
2. **Database Management:** Dynamic arrays can be used to manage database records efficiently.
3. **String Manipulation:** Dynamic arrays are used for string manipulation and buffer management in many programming languages.

### An ex of using dynamic array