

Stack vs. Queue: Exploring Abstract Data Types

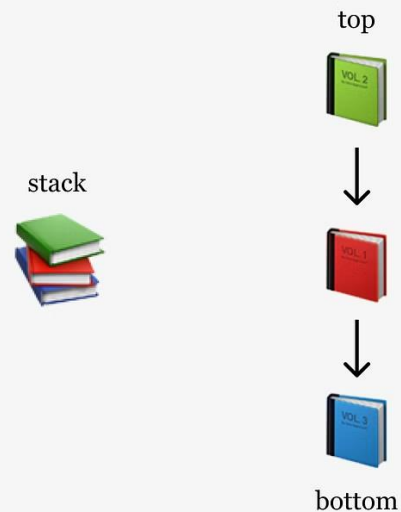


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Abstract Data Types (ADTs) are fundamental building blocks in computer science that define the basic operations and behaviors of data structures. This presentation explores the differences between two widely used ADTs: the Stack and the Queue.

Definition of Stack (LIFO)



Last-In-First-Out

A Stack is an ADT that follows the Last-In-First-Out (LIFO) principle. This means that the most recently added item is the first one to be removed.

Efficient Access

Stacks are designed for efficient access and manipulation of data at the top, making them useful for a variety of applications such as function call management and expression evaluation.

Real-world Analogy: Cafeteria Plate Stack

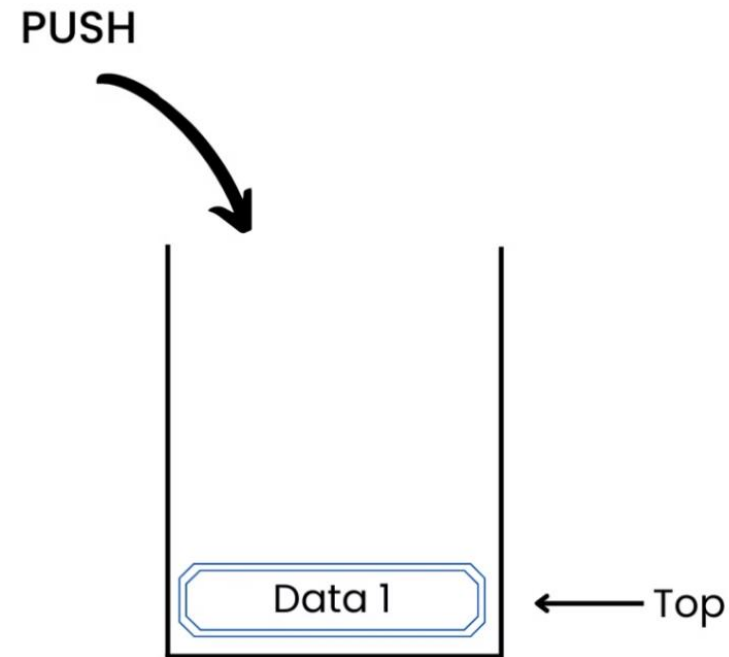
Plate Stack

Imagine a stack of plates in a cafeteria line. The last plate added to the stack is on top and is the first one taken when someone needs a plate.

LIFO Principle

This real-world example demonstrates the LIFO (Last-In-First-Out) principle of a Stack, where the most recently added item is the first one to be removed.

Stack Operations: Push



1

Adding to the Stack

The Push operation adds a new element to the top of the Stack.

2

Efficient Access

Pushing an element to the top of the Stack allows for quick and efficient access to the most recently added data.

3

LIFO Principle

The pushed element becomes the new top of the Stack, following the Last-In-First-Out principle.

Stack Operations: Pop

1

Removing from the Stack

The Pop operation removes the topmost element from the Stack.

2

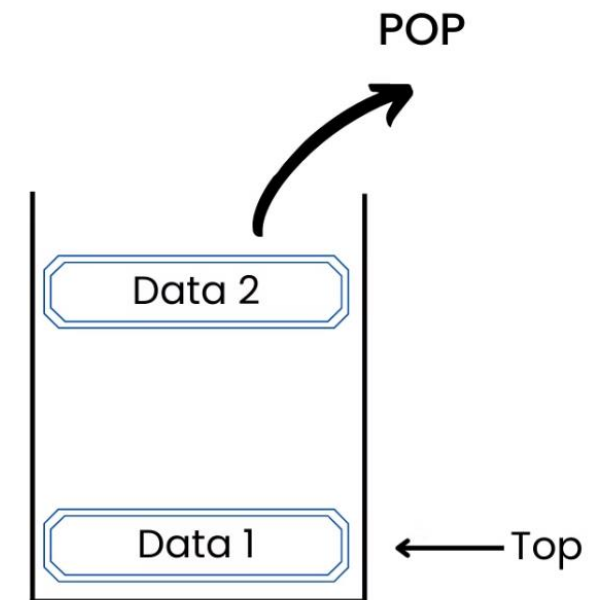
LIFO Principle

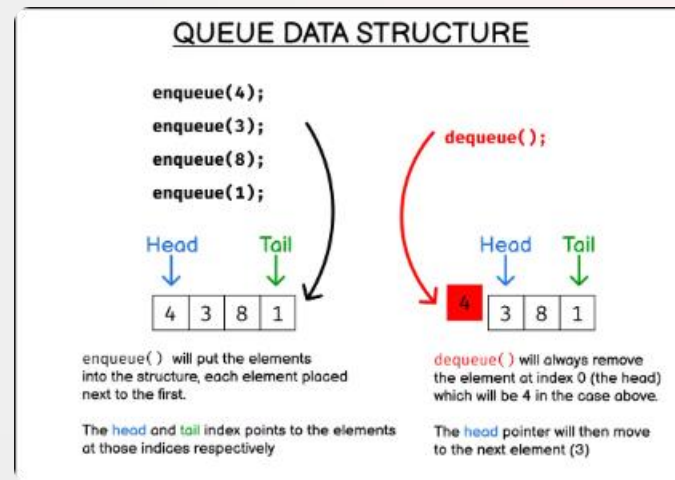
The Pop operation follows the Last-In-First-Out principle, removing the most recently added element.

3

Efficient Retrieval

Popping an element from the top of the Stack allows for quick and efficient access to the most recent data.





Definition of Queue (FIFO)

First-In-First-Out

A Queue is an ADT that follows the First-In-First-Out (FIFO) principle. This means that the first element added to the Queue is the first one to be removed.

Sequential Access

Queues are designed for sequential access, where elements are added at the rear and removed from the front, making them useful for tasks like job scheduling and event handling.

Real-world Analogy: Line at a Bank

Bank Line

Imagine a line of people waiting to be served at a bank. The first person in line is the first one to be helped, following the FIFO (First-In-First-Out) principle.

FIFO Principle

This real-world example demonstrates the FIFO (First-In-First-Out) principle of a Queue, where the first element added is the first one to be removed.

Queue Operations: Enqueue

1

Adding to the Queue

The Enqueue operation adds a new element to the rear of the Queue.

2

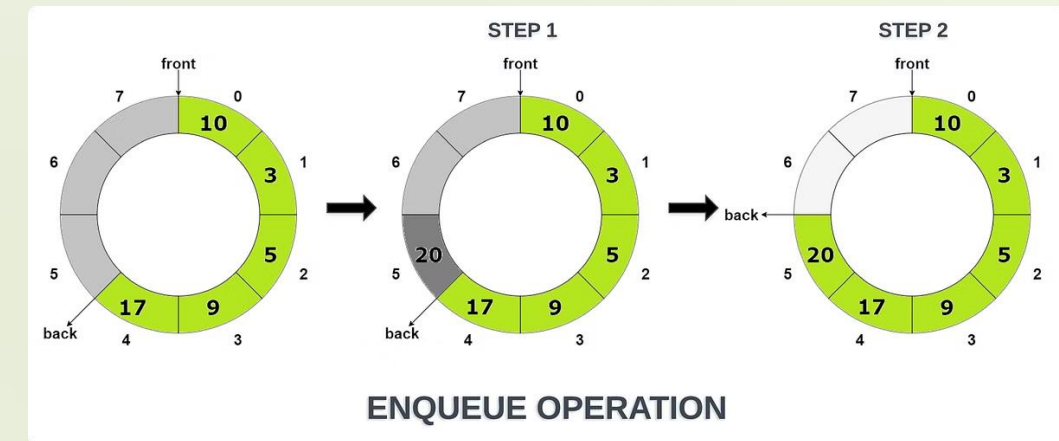
Sequential Access

Enqueueing an element at the rear of the Queue allows for sequential access, following the FIFO principle.

3

Efficient Handling

The Enqueue operation is efficient for tasks that require elements to be processed in the order they were added.



Queue Operations: Dequeue

1

Removing from the Queue

The Dequeue operation removes the element from the front of the Queue.

2

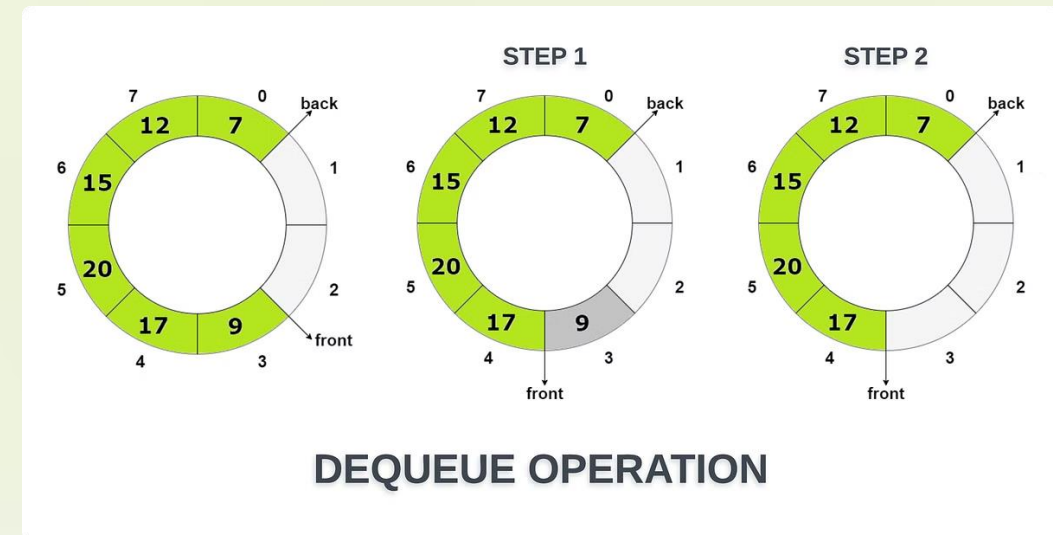
FIFO Principle

Dequeuing an element from the front of the Queue follows the First-In-First-Out principle.

3

Efficient Retrieval

The Dequeue operation allows for efficient access to the oldest data in the Queue.



Key Differences and Use Cases

Stack

Stacks are useful for tasks like expression evaluation, function call management, and backtracking algorithms, where the most recently added item needs to be accessed first.

Queue

Queues are well-suited for tasks that require sequential processing, such as job scheduling, event handling, and resource allocation, where the first added item needs to be processed first.

Differences

The key difference between Stacks and Queues is the order in which elements are accessed: Stacks follow LIFO, while Queues follow FIFO.

An abstract background on the left side of the slide, featuring a dense cluster of colorful, out-of-focus circles (bokeh) in shades of teal, yellow, pink, and blue. Streaks of light in various colors radiate from the center of the cluster, creating a sense of depth and movement.

Comparing Bubble Sort Sort and Quick Sort

We'll explore two fundamental sorting algorithms: Bubble Sort and Quick Sort. These algorithms showcase different approaches to organizing data efficiently.

Bubble Sort: An Overview



Comparison-Based

Bubble Sort compares adjacent elements and swaps them if they're in the wrong order.



Iterative

The process repeats until the entire list is sorted, with no more swaps needed.



Simplicity

Known for its straightforward implementation, making it easy to understand and code.





Definition of Bubble Sort

Comparison-Based

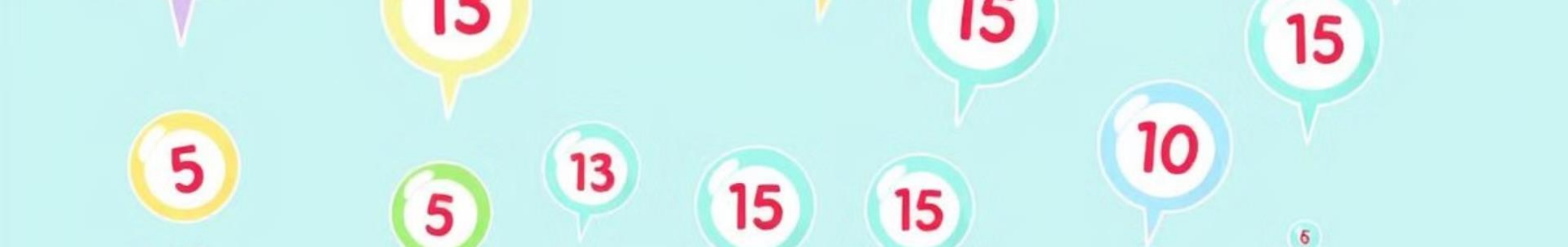
Bubble Sort repeatedly steps through the list, comparing adjacent elements and swapping them if they're in the wrong order.

In-Place Algorithm

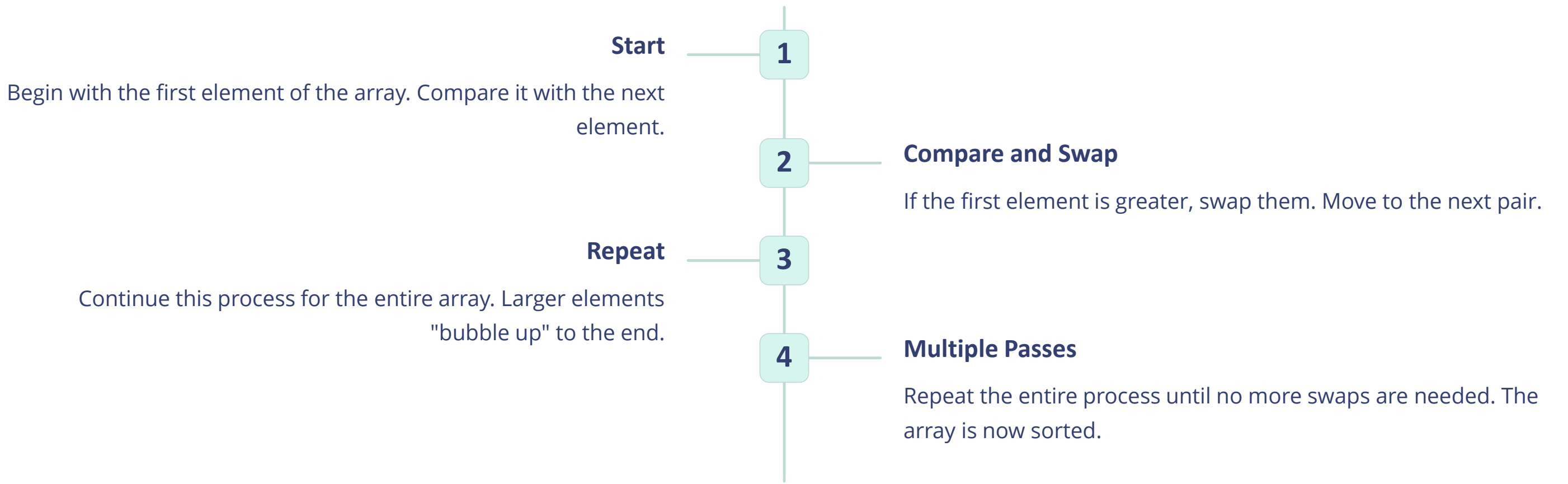
It sorts the elements within the given array without requiring additional memory space.

Stable Sort

Bubble Sort maintains the relative order of equal elements in the sorted output.



Mechanism of Bubble Sort



Advantages and Disadvantages of Bubble Sort

Advantages

- Simple to understand and implement
- Requires minimal additional memory
- Detects if the list is already sorted

Disadvantages

- Poor time complexity of $O(n^2)$
- Inefficient for large datasets
- Performs poorly compared to advanced algorithms

Quick Sort: An Overview



Divide and Conquer

Quick Sort uses a divide-and-conquer strategy to efficiently sort elements.



Pivot-Based

It selects a 'pivot' element and partitions the array around it.

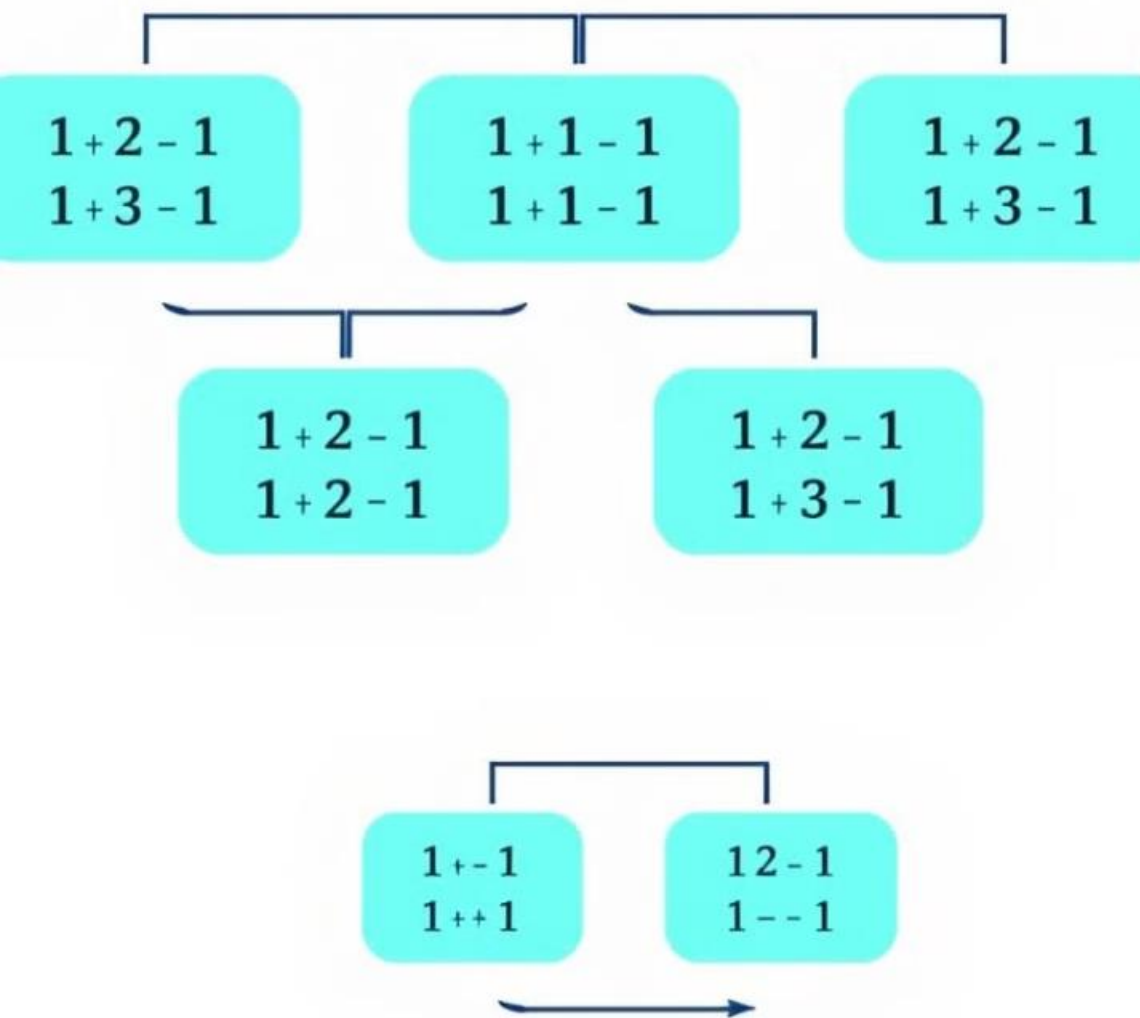


Recursive

The algorithm recursively applies the same process to smaller subarrays.



quicksort = alloc



Definition of Quick Sort

Divide-and-Conquer

Quick Sort divides the array into smaller subarrays, sorts them independently, and combines the results.

Partitioning

It uses a pivot element to partition the array into two halves.

In-Place Sorting

Quick Sort typically sorts the array in-place, minimizing additional memory usage.

Mechanism of Quick Sort

- 1

Choose Pivot

Select a pivot element from the array, often the last or a random element.
- 2

Partitioning

Rearrange the array so elements smaller than the pivot are on the left, larger on the right.
- 3

Recursive Sorting

Recursively apply Quick Sort to the subarrays on the left and right of the pivot.
- 4

Combine

The sorted subarrays are already in place, forming the final sorted array.

Jventtine a step

< *xr* >

1 3 1 2 1 3 == : 3 3, 3 1
1 3 1 2 3 3

1 4, 2, 3, 2 == = 1 3, 1 3
8 9 1 2, 3 == = 4 3, 4 8

1 1 =, 3, 3 1 = 3 5

1 1 7 1 5 3 == 5 3 8

1 3 4, 5 3 3 = 3 19

3, 16 3 = 5 28 2 8 3

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Advantages and Disadvantages of Quick Sort

Advantages

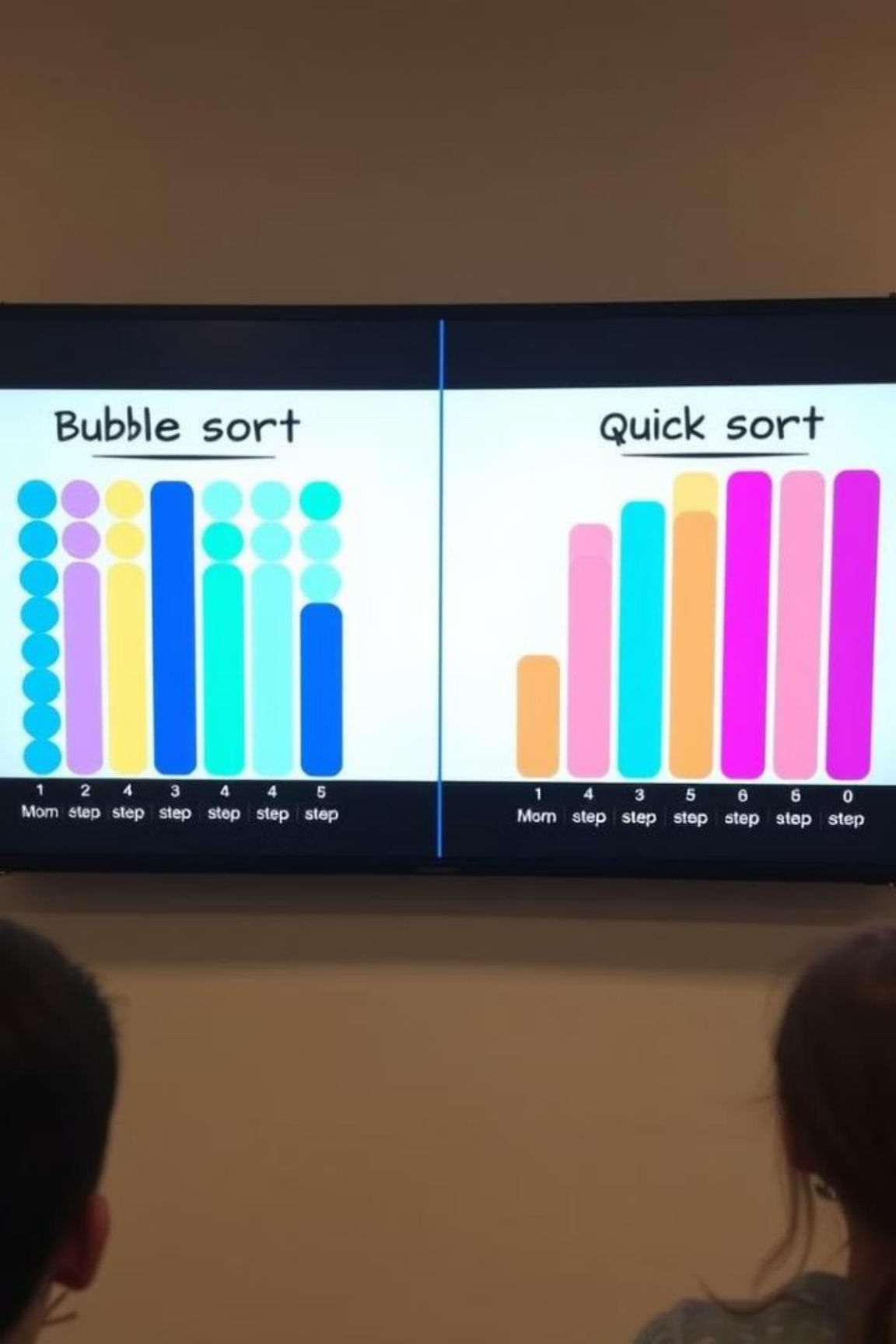
- Efficient for large datasets
- Average time complexity of $O(n \log n)$
- In-place sorting with low memory usage

Disadvantages

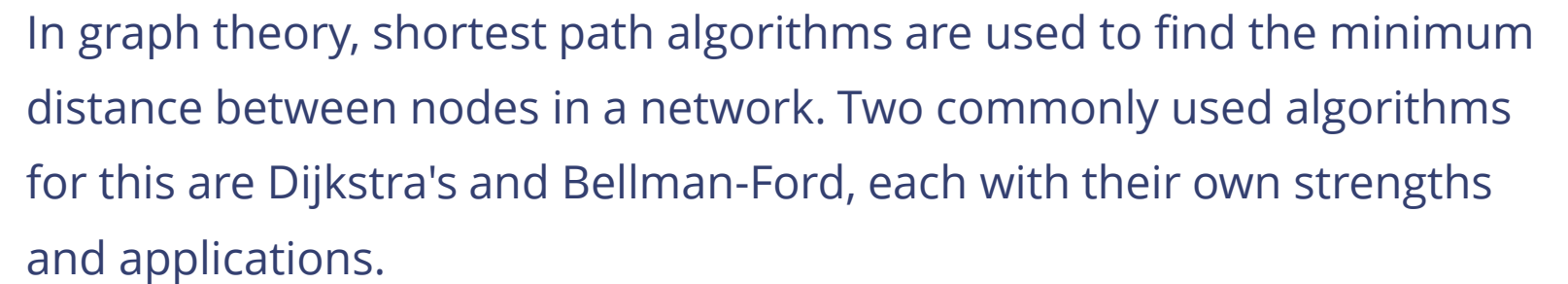
- Worst-case time complexity of $O(n^2)$
- Not stable (may change order of equal elements)
- Performance depends on pivot selection

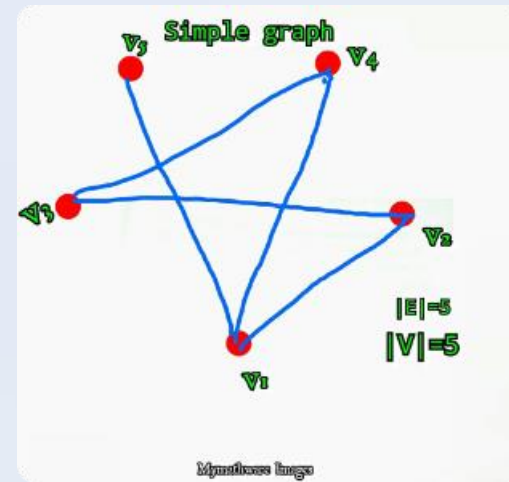
Comparison of Bubble Sort and Quick Sort

Aspect	Bubble Sort	Quick Sort
Time Complexity (Average)	$O(n^2)$	$O(n \log n)$
Space Complexity	$O(1)$	$O(\log n)$
Stability	Stable	Not Stable
Efficiency for Large Datasets	Poor	Excellent
Implementation Complexity	Simple	Moderate



In graph theory, shortest path algorithms are used to find the minimum distance between nodes in a network. Two commonly used algorithms for this are Dijkstra's and Bellman-Ford, each with their own strengths and applications.





Introduction to Shortest Path Algorithms

1 Efficient Routing

Shortest path algorithms are crucial for optimizing network traffic and reducing travel time.

2 Path Planning

These algorithms have applications in GPS navigation, logistics, and transportation planning.

3 Network Analysis

Identifying critical nodes and connections can help analyze and improve network infrastructure.

Dijkstra's Algorithm

1

Initialize

Set the source node distance to 0 and all other nodes to infinity.

2

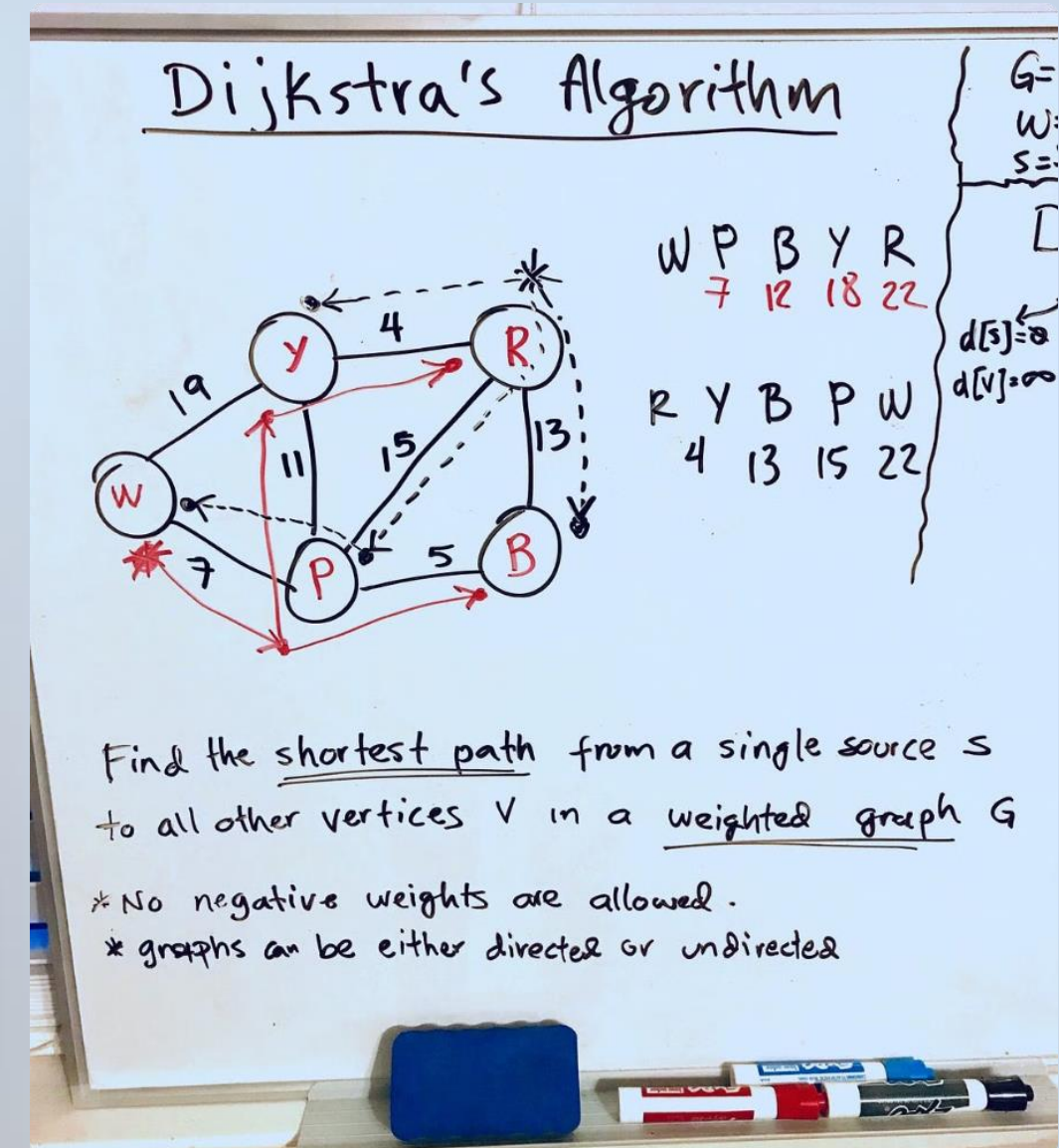
Select Minimum

Choose the unvisited node with the smallest known distance from the source.

3

Update Distances

Update the distance of all unvisited neighbors of the selected node.



Dijkstra's Algorithm: Definition

Weighted Graphs

Dijkstra's algorithm works on weighted, directed graphs without negative weights.

Single Source

It finds the shortest paths from a single source node to all other nodes.

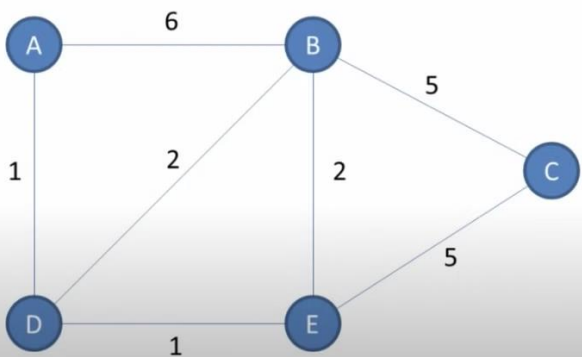
Greedy Approach

The algorithm greedily selects the node with the smallest known distance.

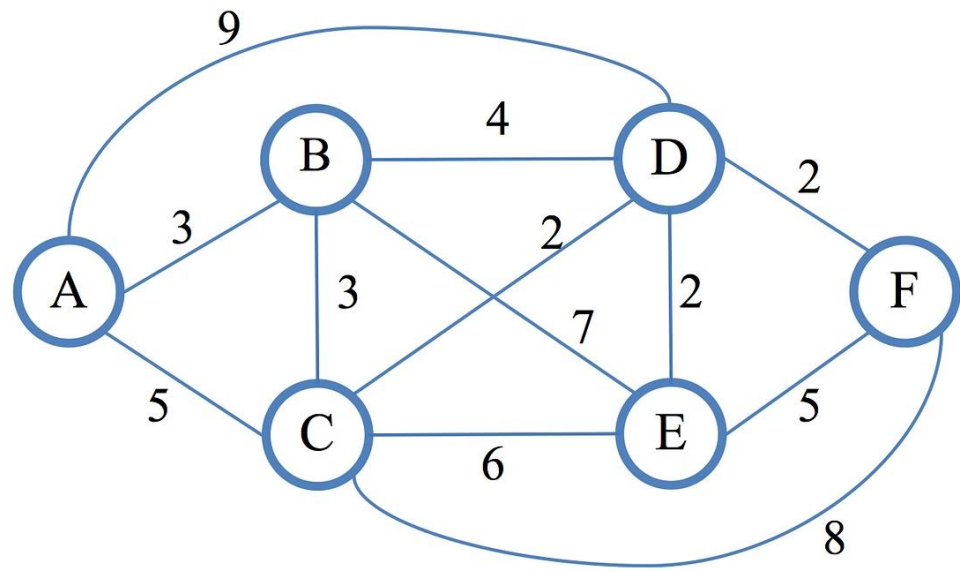
Time Complexity

With a min-heap, Dijkstra's algorithm has a time complexity of $O(E \log V)$.

Find the shortest path from vertex A to every other vertex



Vertex	Shortest distance from A	Previous vertex
A	0	
B	3	D
C	7	E
D	1	A
E	2	D



Dijkstra's Algorithm: Steps

Initialize

1

Set the source distance to 0 and all other nodes to infinity.

Select Minimum

2

Choose the unvisited node with the smallest known distance.

Update Distances

3

Update the distance of all unvisited neighbors of the selected node.

Repeat

4

Repeat the process until all nodes have been visited.

Dijkstra's Algorithm: Example

Weighted Graph

Consider a weighted, directed graph with 5 nodes and 7 edges.

Step-by-Step

Starting from node A, Dijkstra's algorithm iteratively finds the shortest paths to all other nodes.

Optimal Paths

The algorithm determines the shortest path from A to each node: A->B->D, A->C, A->D, A->E.

Bellman-Ford Algorithm

1

Initialize

Set the source node distance to 0 and all other nodes to infinity.

2

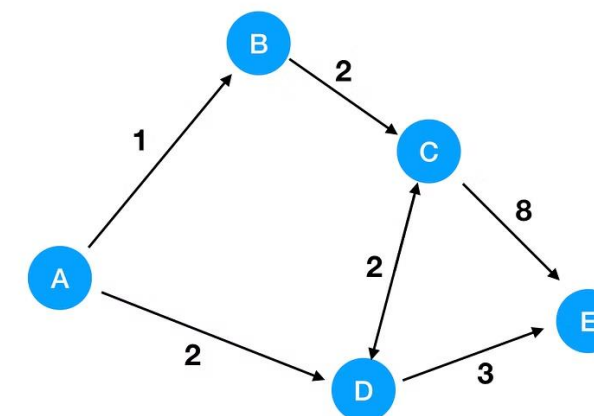
Relax Edges

Iterate through all edges, updating the distance of the destination node if a shorter path is found.

3

Check for Cycles

If the distances can be further reduced after $V-1$ iterations, there is a negative weight cycle.



node	shortest cost from A
A	0
B	1
C	3
D	2
E	5

Bellman-Ford Algorithm:

Definition

Negative Weights

Bellman-Ford can handle graphs with negative edge weights, unlike Dijkstra's algorithm.

Single Source

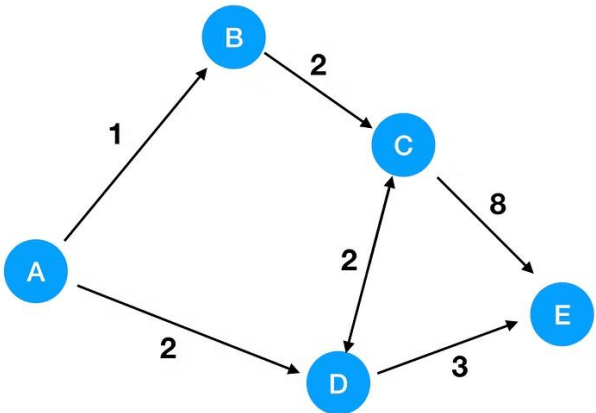
It finds the shortest paths from a single source node to all other nodes.

Dynamic Programming

The algorithm uses a dynamic programming approach to iteratively relax the edges.

Time Complexity

Bellman-Ford has a time complexity of $O(VE)$, making it slower than Dijkstra's for dense graphs.



node	shortest cost from A
A	0
B	1
C	3
D	2
E	5

Bellman-Ford Algorithm: Steps

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4

Initialize

Set the source distance to 0 and all other nodes to infinity.

Relax Edges

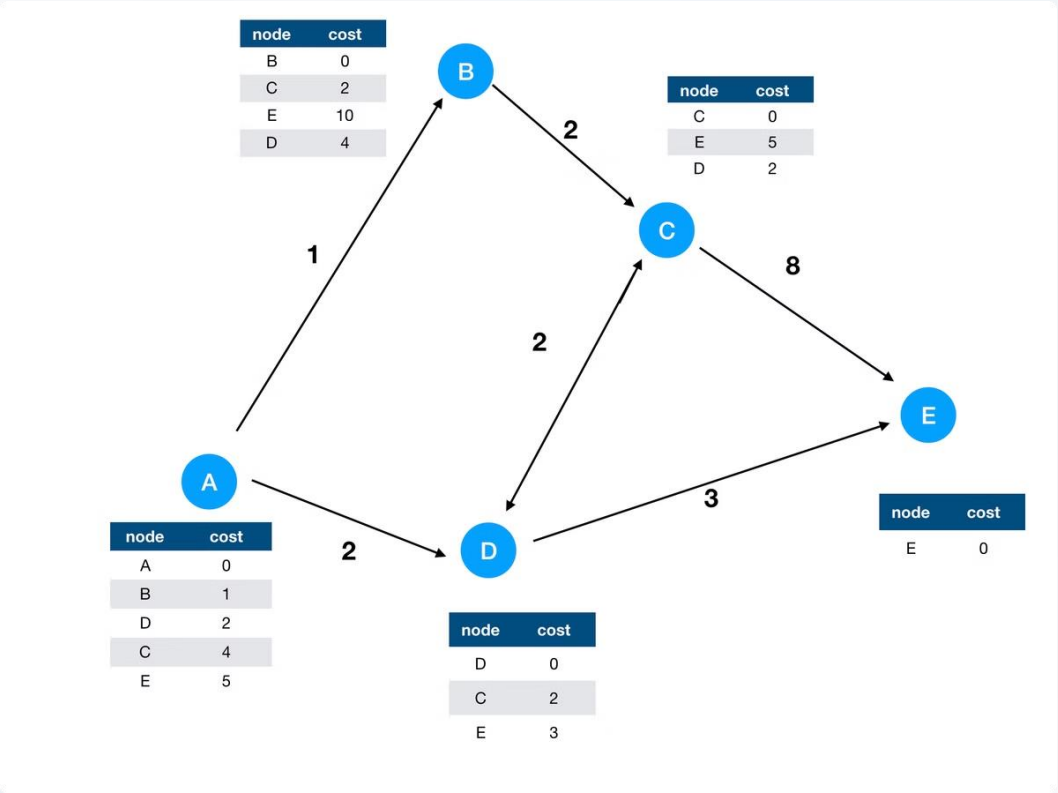
Iterate through all edges, updating the destination node distance if a shorter path is found.

Check for Cycles

If the distances can be further reduced after V-1 iterations, there is a negative weight cycle.

Output

The final distances represent the shortest paths from the source to all other nodes.



Comparison of Dijkstra and Bellman-Ford

Dijkstra's Algorithm

Efficient for dense graphs, but cannot handle negative weights.

Bellman-Ford Algorithm

Can handle negative weights, but slower for dense graphs.

Applications

Dijkstra is commonly used in GPS navigation, while Bellman-Ford is useful for routing with negative costs.