

UNIT 2

STACK

A stack is an Abstract Data Type (ADT), commonly used in most programming languages. It is named stack as it behaves like a real-world stack, for example – a deck of cards or a pile of plates, etc.

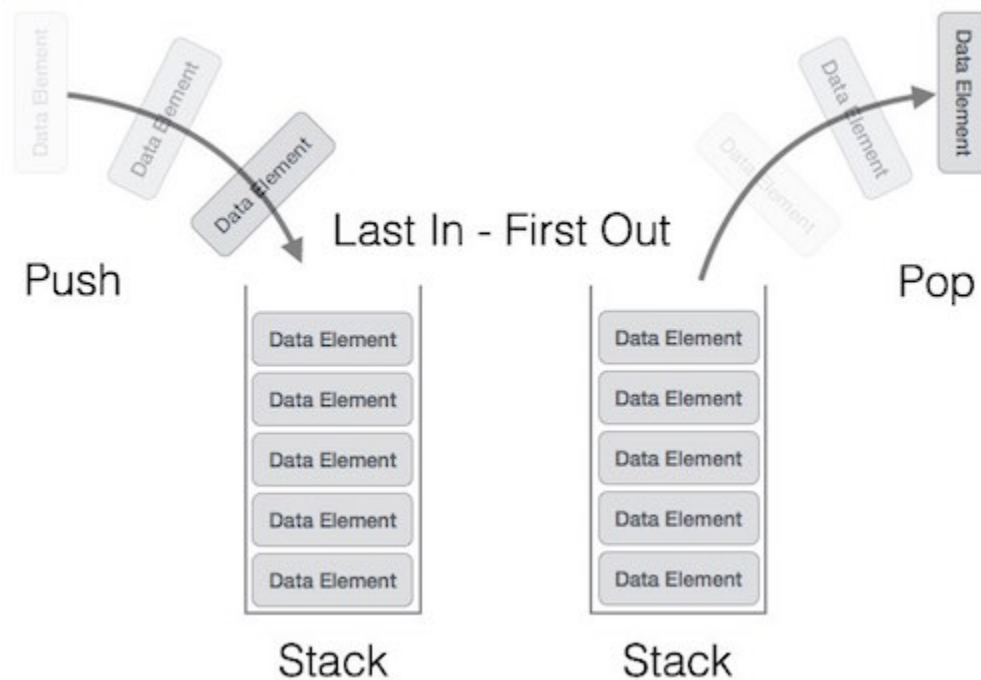


A real-world stack allows operations at one end only. For example, we can place or remove a card or plate from the top of the stack only. Likewise, Stack ADT allows all data operations at one end only. At any given time, we can only access the top element of a stack.

This feature makes it LIFO data structure. LIFO stands for Last-in-first-out. Here, the element which is placed (inserted or added) last, is accessed first. In stack terminology, insertion operation is called **PUSH** operation and removal operation is called **POP** operation.

Stack Representation

The following diagram depicts a stack and its operations –



A stack can be implemented by means of Array, Structure, Pointer, and Linked List. Stack can either be a fixed size one or it may have a sense of dynamic resizing. Here, we are going to implement stack using arrays, which makes it a fixed size stack implementation.

Basic Operations

Stack operations may involve initializing the stack, using it and then de-initializing it. Apart from these basic stuffs, a stack is used for the following two primary operations –

- **push()** – Pushing (storing) an element on the stack.
- **pop()** – Removing (accessing) an element from the stack.

When data is PUSHed onto stack.

To use a stack efficiently, we need to check the status of stack as well. For the same purpose, the following functionality is added to stacks –

- **peek()** – get the top data element of the stack, without removing it.
- **isFull()** – check if stack is full.
- **isEmpty()** – check if stack is empty.

At all times, we maintain a pointer to the last PUSHed data on the stack. As this pointer always represents the top of the stack, hence named **top**. The **top** pointer provides top value of the stack without actually removing it.

First we should learn about procedures to support stack functions –

peek()

Algorithm of peek() function –

```
begin procedure peek
    return stack[top]
end procedure
```

Implementation of peek() function in C programming language –

Example

```
int peek() {
    return stack[top];
}
```

isfull()

Algorithm of isfull() function –

```
begin procedure isfull
    if top equals to MAXSIZE
```

```
    return true
else
    return false
endif
```

end procedure

Implementation of isfull() function in C programming language –

Example

```
bool isfull() {
    if(top == MAXSIZE)
        return true;
    else
        return false;
}
```

isempty()

Algorithm of isempty() function –

```
begin procedure isempty

    if top less than 1
        return true
    else
        return false
    endif
```

end procedure

Implementation of isempty() function in C programming language is slightly different. We initialize top at -1, as the index in array starts from 0. So we check if the top is below zero or -1 to determine if the stack is empty. Here's the code –

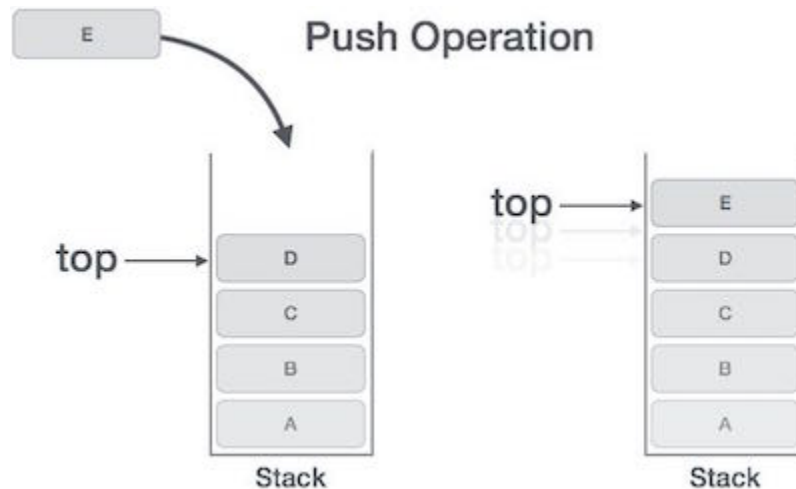
Example

```
bool isempty() {
    if(top == -1)
        return true;
    else
        return false;
}
```

Push Operation

The process of putting a new data element onto stack is known as a Push Operation. Push operation involves a series of steps –

- **Step 1** – Checks if the stack is full.
- **Step 2** – If the stack is full, produces an error and exit.
- **Step 3** – If the stack is not full, increments **top** to point next empty space.
- **Step 4** – Adds data element to the stack location, where top is pointing.
- **Step 5** – Returns success.



If the linked list is used to implement the stack, then in step 3, we need to allocate space dynamically.

Algorithm for PUSH Operation

A simple algorithm for Push operation can be derived as follows –

```
begin procedure push: stack, data
```

```
  if stack is full
```

```
    return null
```

```
  endif
```

```
  top ← top + 1
```

```
  stack[top] ← data
```

```
end procedure
```

Implementation of this algorithm in C, is very easy. See the following code –

Example

```
void push(int data) {
  if(!isFull()) {
    top = top + 1;
    stack[top] = data;
  }
}
```

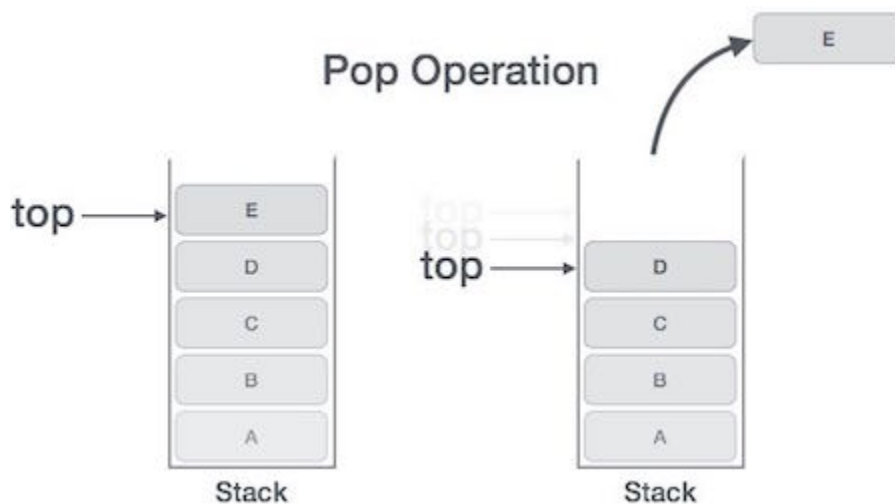
```
} else {  
    printf("Could not insert data, Stack is full.\n");  
}  
}
```

Pop Operation

Accessing the content while removing it from the stack, is known as a Pop Operation. In an array implementation of pop() operation, the data element is not actually removed, instead **top** is decremented to a lower position in the stack to point to the next value. But in linked-list implementation, pop() actually removes data element and deallocates memory space.

A Pop operation may involve the following steps –

- **Step 1** – Checks if the stack is empty.
- **Step 2** – If the stack is empty, produces an error and exit.
- **Step 3** – If the stack is not empty, accesses the data element at which **top** is pointing.
- **Step 4** – Decreases the value of top by 1.
- **Step 5** – Returns success.



Algorithm for Pop Operation

A simple algorithm for Pop operation can be derived as follows –

```
begin procedure pop: stack  
  
    if stack is empty  
        return null  
    endif  
  
    data ← stack[top]
```

```
top ← top - 1  
return data
```

```
end procedure
```

Implementation of this algorithm in C, is as follows –

Example

```
int pop(int data) {  
    if(!isempty()) {  
        data = stack[top];  
        top = top - 1;  
        return data;  
    } else {  
        printf("Could not retrieve data, Stack is empty.\n");  
    }  
}
```

Applications of Stack

The following are the applications of the stack:

- **Balancing of symbols:** Stack is used for balancing a symbol. For example, we have the following program:

```
1. int main()  
2. {  
3.     cout<<"Hello";  
4.     cout<<"javaTpoint";  
5. }
```

As we know, each program has an *opening* and *closing* braces; when the opening braces come, we push the braces in a stack, and when the closing braces appear, we pop the opening braces from the stack. Therefore, the net value comes out to be zero. If any symbol is left in the stack, it means that some syntax occurs in a program.

- **String reversal:** Stack is also used for reversing a string. For example, we want to reverse a "javaTpoint" string, so we can achieve this with the help of a stack. First, we push all the characters of the string in a stack until we reach the null character.

After pushing all the characters, we start taking out the character one by one until we reach the bottom of the stack.

- **UNDO/REDO:** It can also be used for performing UNDO/REDO operations. For example, we have an editor in which we write 'a', then 'b', and then 'c'; therefore, the text written in an editor is abc. So, there are three states, a, ab, and abc, which are stored in a stack. There would be two stacks in which one stack shows UNDO state, and the other shows REDO state. If we want to perform UNDO operation, and want to achieve 'ab' state, then we implement pop operation.
- **Recursion:** The recursion means that the function is calling itself again. To maintain the previous states, the compiler creates a system stack in which all the previous records of the function are maintained.
- **DFS(Depth First Search):** This search is implemented on a Graph, and Graph uses the stack data structure.
- **Backtracking:** Suppose we have to create a path to solve a maze problem. If we are moving in a particular path, and we realize that we come on the wrong way. In order to come at the beginning of the path to create a new path, we have to use the stack data structure.
- **Expression conversion:** Stack can also be used for expression conversion. This is one of the most important applications of stack.

There are three notations to represent an arithmetic expression:

- Infix Notation $A+B$
- Prefix Notation $+AB$
- Postfix Notation $AB+$

Rules for the conversion from infix to postfix expression

1. Print the operand as they arrive.
2. If the stack is empty or contains a left parenthesis on top, push the incoming operator on to the stack.
3. If the incoming symbol is '(', push it on to the stack.

4. If the incoming symbol is ')', pop the stack and print the operators until the left parenthesis is found.
5. If the incoming symbol has higher precedence than the top of the stack, push it on the stack.
6. If the incoming symbol has lower precedence than the top of the stack, pop and print the top of the stack. Then test the incoming operator against the new top of the stack.
7. If the incoming operator has the same precedence with the top of the stack then use the associativity rules. If the associativity is from left to right then pop and print the top of the stack then push the incoming operator. If the associativity is from right to left then push the incoming operator.
8. At the end of the expression, pop and print all the operators of the stack.

Let's understand through examples.

1. Convert Infix $A + (B * C - (D / E ^ F) * G) * H$ to Postfix

| Input expression | Stack | Postfix Expression |
|------------------|-----------|--------------------|
| A | | A |
| + | + | A |
| (| +(| A |
| B | +(| AB |
| * | +(* | AB |
| C | +(* | ABC |
| - | +(- | ABC* |
| (| +(-(| ABC* |
| D | +(-(| ABC*D |
| / | +(-(/ | ABC*D |
| E | +(-(/ | ABC*DE |
| ^ | +(-(/ ^ | ABC*DE |
| F | +(-(/ ^ | ABC*DEF |
|) | +(- | ABC*DEF^/ |
| * | +(-* | ABC*DEF^/ |
| G | +(-* | ABC*DEF^/G |
|) | + | ABC*DEF^/G*- |

| | | |
|---|----|-----------------|
| * | +* | ABC*DEF^/G*- |
| H | +* | ABC*DEF^/G*-H |
| | | ABC*DEF^/G*-H*+ |

Infix expression: $K + L - M * N + (O \wedge P) * W / U / V * T + Q$

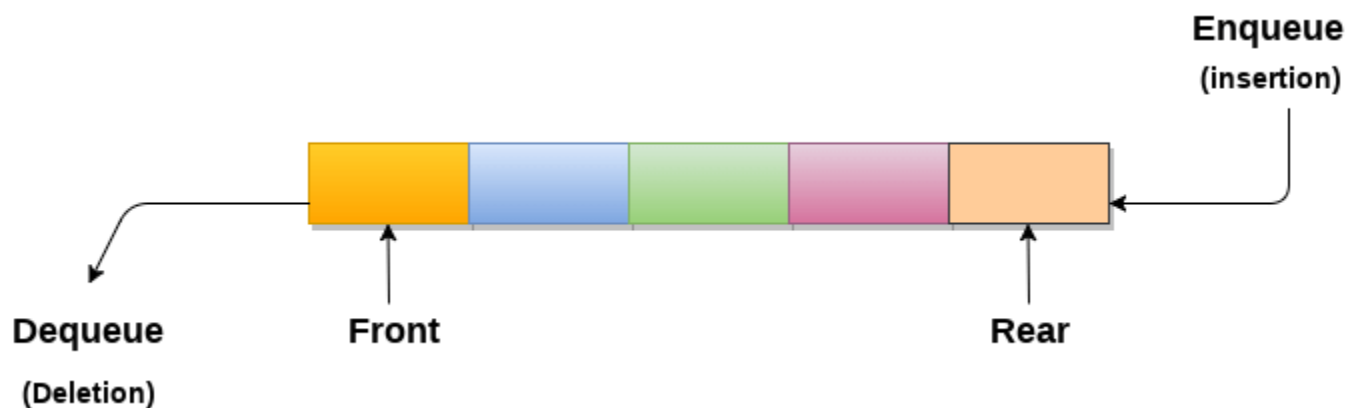
| Input Expression | Stack | Postfix Expression |
|------------------|-------|-----------------------|
| K | | K |
| + | + | |
| L | + | K L |
| - | - | K L + |
| M | - | K L + M |
| * | - * | K L + M |
| N | - * | K L + M N |
| + | + | K L + M N * - |
| (| +(| K L + M N * - |
| O | +(| K L + M N * - O |
| ^ | +(^ | K L + M N * - O |
| P | +(^ | K L + M N * - O P |
|) | + | K L + M N * - O P ^ |
| * | + * | K L + M N * - O P ^ |
| W | + * | K L + M N * - O P ^ W |

| | | |
|---|-----|---|
| / | + / | $KL + MN^* - OP^W^*$ |
| U | + / | $KL + MN^* - OP^W^*U$ |
| / | + / | $KL + MN^* - OP^W^*U/$ |
| V | + / | $KL + MN^*-OP^W^*U/V$ |
| * | + * | $KL+MN^*-OP^W^*U/V/$ |
| T | + * | $KL+MN^*-OP^W^*U/V/T$ |
| + | + | $KL+MN^*-OP^W^*U/V/T^*$ $KL+MN^*-OP^W^*U/V/T^*+$ |
| Q | + | $KL+MN^*-OP^W^*U/V/T^*Q$ |
| | | $KL+MN^*-OP^W^*U/V/T^*+Q+$ |

The final postfix expression of infix expression $(K + L - M * N + (O^P) * W / U / V * T + Q)$ is $KL+MN^*-OP^W^*U/V/T^*+Q+$.

Queue

1. A queue can be defined as an ordered list which enables insert operations to be performed at one end called **REAR** and delete operations to be performed at another end called **FRONT**.
2. Queue is referred to be as First In First Out list.
3. For example, people waiting in line for a rail ticket form a queue.



Applications of Queue

Due to the fact that queue performs actions on first in first out basis which is quite fair for the ordering of actions. There are various applications of queues discussed as below.

1. Queues are widely used as waiting lists for a single shared resource like printer, disk, CPU.
2. Queues are used in asynchronous transfer of data (where data is not being transferred at the same rate between two processes) for eg. pipes, file IO, sockets.
3. Queues are used as buffers in most of the applications like MP3 media player, CD player, etc.
4. Queue are used to maintain the play list in media players in order to add and remove the songs from the play-list.
5. Queues are used in operating systems for handling interrupts.

Complexity

| Data Structure | Time Complexity | | | | | | | | Space Complexity |
|----------------|-----------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|--------|--------|-----------|----------|------------------|
| | Average | | | | Worst | | | | Worst |
| | Access | Search | Insertion | Deletion | Access | Search | Insertion | Deletion | |
| Queue | $\theta(n)$ | $\theta(n)$ | $\theta(1)$ | $\theta(1)$ | $O(n)$ | $O(n)$ | $O(1)$ | $O(1)$ | $O(n)$ |

Types of Queue

There are four different types of queue that are listed as follows -

- Simple Queue or Linear Queue
- Circular Queue
- Priority Queue
- Double Ended Queue (or Deque)

Simple Queue or Linear Queue

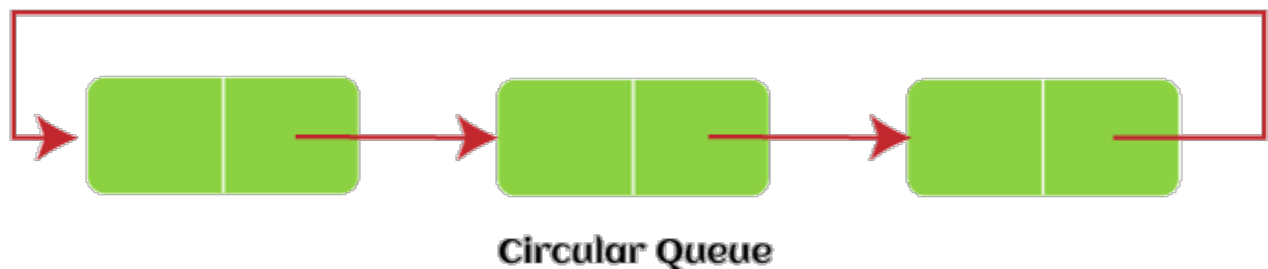
In Linear Queue, an insertion takes place from one end while the deletion occurs from another end. The end at which the insertion takes place is known as the rear end, and the end at which the deletion takes place is known as front end. It strictly follows the FIFO rule.



The major drawback of using a linear Queue is that insertion is done only from the rear end. If the first three elements are deleted from the Queue, we cannot insert more elements even though the space is available in a Linear Queue. In this case, the linear Queue shows the overflow condition as the rear is pointing to the last element of the Queue.

Circular Queue

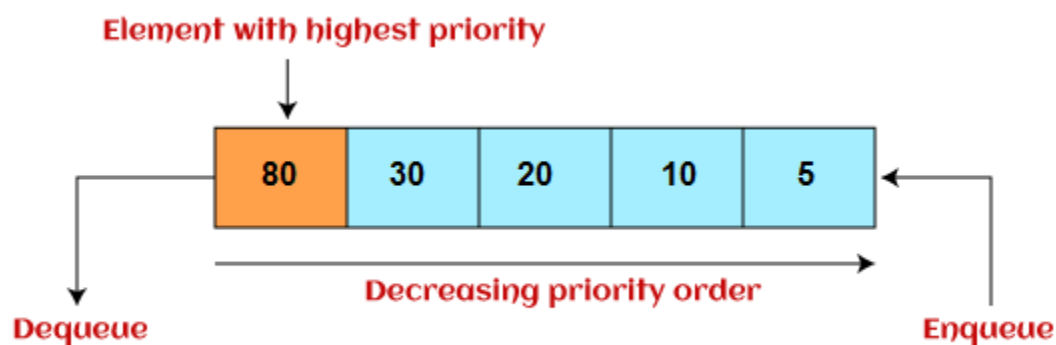
In Circular Queue, all the nodes are represented as circular. It is similar to the linear Queue except that the last element of the queue is connected to the first element. It is also known as Ring Buffer, as all the ends are connected to another end. The representation of circular queue is shown in the below image -



The drawback that occurs in a linear queue is overcome by using the circular queue. If the empty space is available in a circular queue, the new element can be added in an empty space by simply incrementing the value of rear. The main advantage of using the circular queue is better memory utilization.

Priority Queue

It is a special type of queue in which the elements are arranged based on the priority. It is a special type of queue data structure in which every element has a priority associated with it. Suppose some elements occur with the same priority, they will be arranged according to the FIFO principle. The representation of priority queue is shown in the below image -



Insertion in priority queue takes place based on the arrival, while deletion in the priority queue occurs based on the priority. Priority queue is mainly used to implement the CPU scheduling algorithms.

There are two types of priority queue that are discussed as follows -

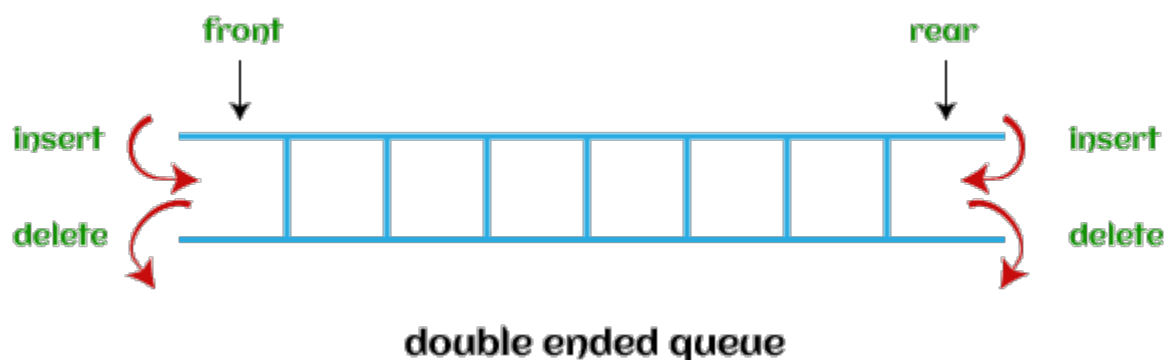
- **Ascending priority queue** - In ascending priority queue, elements can be inserted in arbitrary order, but only smallest can be deleted first. Suppose an array with elements 7, 5, and 3 in the same order, so, insertion can be done with the same sequence, but the order of deleting the elements is 3, 5, 7.
- **Descending priority queue** - In descending priority queue, elements can be inserted in arbitrary order, but only the largest element can be deleted first. Suppose an array with elements 7, 3, and 5 in the same order, so, insertion can be done with the same sequence, but the order of deleting the elements is 7, 5, 3.

Deque (or, Double Ended Queue)

In Deque or Double Ended Queue, insertion and deletion can be done from both ends of the queue either from the front or rear. It means that we can insert and delete elements from both front and rear ends of the queue. Deque can be used as a palindrome checker means that if we read the string from both ends, then the string would be the same.

Deque can be used both as stack and queue as it allows the insertion and deletion operations on both ends. Deque can be considered as stack because stack follows the LIFO (Last In First Out) principle in which insertion and deletion both can be performed only from one end. And in deque, it is possible to perform both insertion and deletion from one end, and Deque does not follow the FIFO principle.

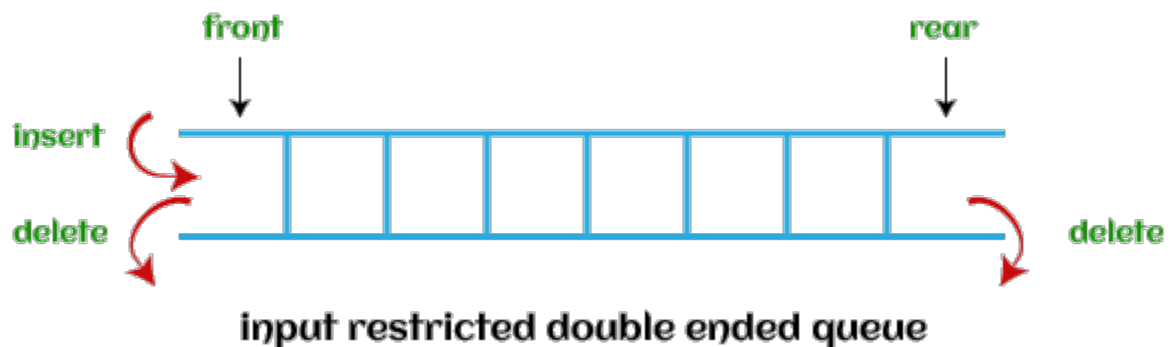
The representation of the deque is shown in the below image -



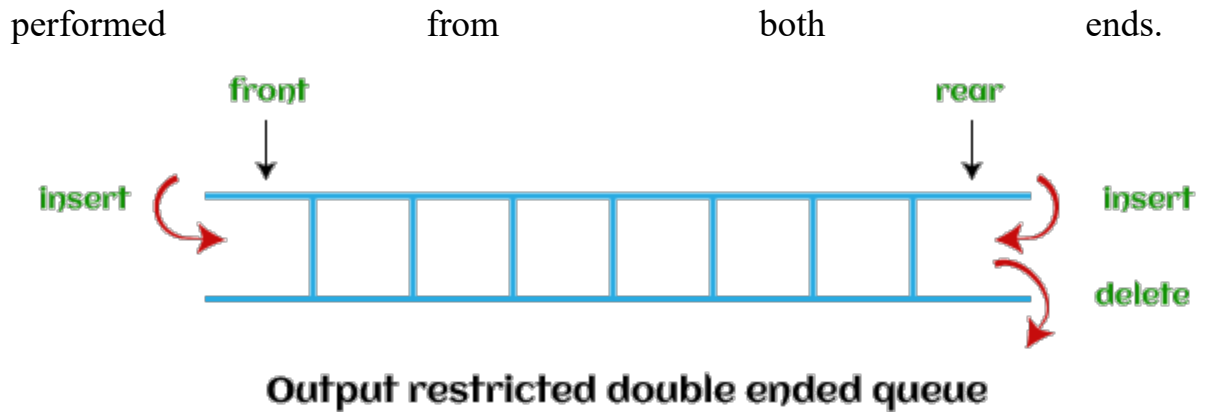
To know more about the deque, you can click the link - <https://www.javatpoint.com/ds-deque>

There are two types of deque that are discussed as follows -

- **Input restricted deque** - As the name implies, in input restricted queue, insertion operation can be performed at only one end, while deletion can be performed from both ends.



- **Output restricted deque** - As the name implies, in output restricted queue, deletion operation can be performed at only one end, while insertion can be



Now, let's see the operations performed on the queue.

Operations performed on queue

The fundamental operations that can be performed on queue are listed as follows -

- **Enqueue:** The Enqueue operation is used to insert the element at the rear end of the queue. It returns void.
- **Dequeue:** It performs the deletion from the front-end of the queue. It also returns the element which has been removed from the front-end. It returns an integer value.
- **Peek:** This is the third operation that returns the element, which is pointed by the front pointer in the queue but does not delete it.
- **Queue overflow (isfull):** It shows the overflow condition when the queue is completely full.
- **Queue underflow (isempty):** It shows the underflow condition when the Queue is empty, i.e., no elements are in the Queue.

Now, let's see the ways to implement the queue.

Ways to implement the queue

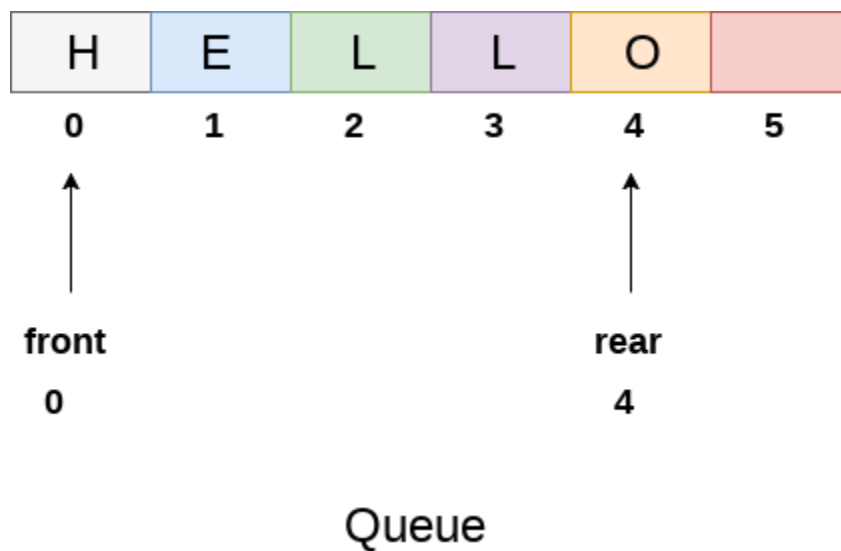
There are two ways of implementing the Queue:

- **Implementation using array:** The sequential allocation in a Queue can be implemented using an array.

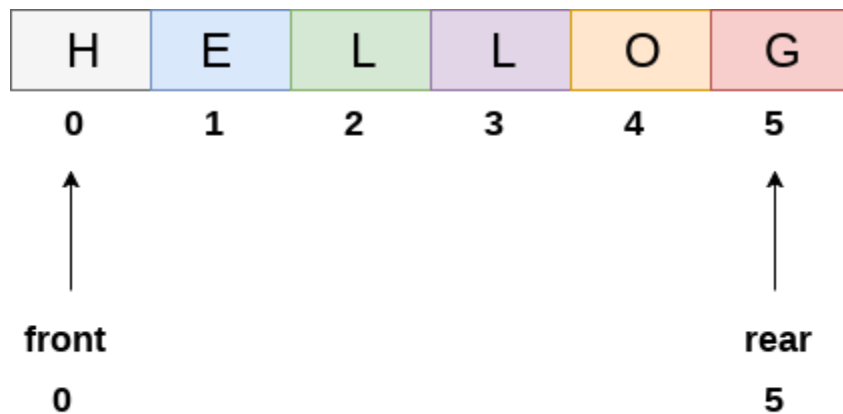
- **Implementation using Linked list:** The linked list allocation in a Queue can be implemented using a linked list.

Array representation of Queue

We can easily represent queue by using linear arrays. There are two variables i.e. front and rear, that are implemented in the case of every queue. Front and rear variables point to the position from where insertions and deletions are performed in a queue. Initially, the value of front and rear is -1 which represents an empty queue. Array representation of a queue containing 5 elements along with the respective values of front and rear, is shown in the following figure.

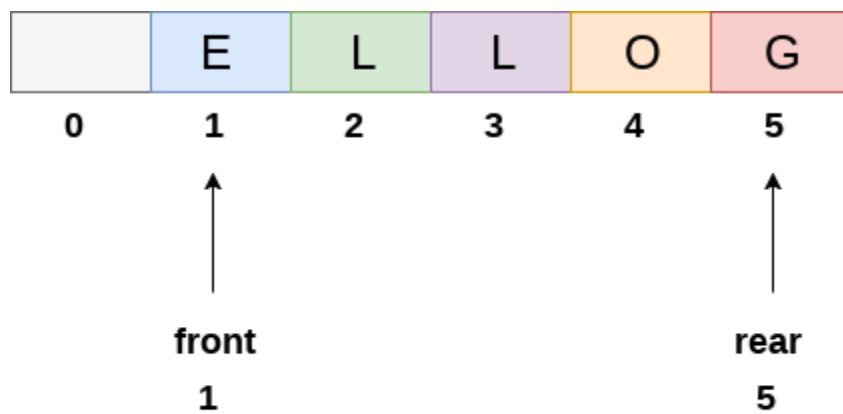


The above figure shows the queue of characters forming the English word "HELLO". Since, No deletion is performed in the queue till now, therefore the value of front remains -1 . However, the value of rear increases by one every time an insertion is performed in the queue. After inserting an element into the queue shown in the above figure, the queue will look something like following. The value of rear will become 5 while the value of front remains same.



Queue after inserting an element

After deleting an element, the value of front will increase from -1 to 0. however, the queue will look something like following.



Queue after deleting an element

Algorithm to insert any element in a queue

Check if the queue is already full by comparing rear to max - 1. if so, then return an overflow error.

If the item is to be inserted as the first element in the list, in that case set the value of front and rear to 0 and insert the element at the rear end.

Otherwise keep increasing the value of rear and insert each element one by one having rear as the index.

Algorithm

- **Step 1:** IF $REAR = MAX - 1$
Write OVERFLOW
Go to step
[END OF IF]
- **Step 2:** IF $FRONT = -1$ and $REAR = -1$
SET $FRONT = REAR = 0$
ELSE
SET $REAR = REAR + 1$
[END OF IF]
- **Step 3:** Set $QUEUE[REAR] = NUM$
- **Step 4:** EXIT

Algorithm to delete an element from the queue

If, the value of front is -1 or value of front is greater than rear , write an underflow message and exit.

Otherwise, keep increasing the value of front and return the item stored at the front end of the queue at each time.

Algorithm

- **Step 1:** IF $FRONT = -1$ or $FRONT > REAR$
Write UNDERFLOW
ELSE
SET $VAL = QUEUE[FRONT]$
SET $FRONT = FRONT + 1$
[END OF IF]
- **Step 2:** EXIT

Linked List implementation of Queue

Due to the drawbacks discussed in the previous section of this tutorial, the array implementation can not be used for the large scale applications where the queues are implemented. One of the alternative of array implementation is linked list implementation of queue.

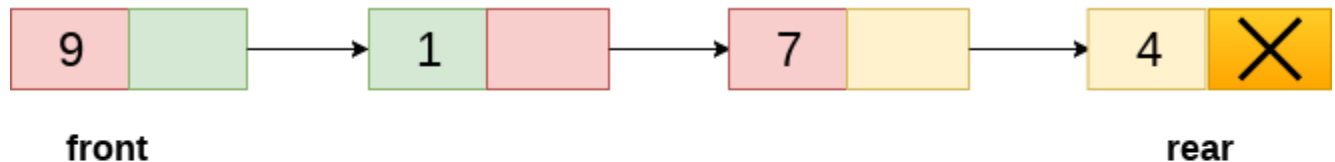
The storage requirement of linked representation of a queue with n elements is $O(n)$ while the time requirement for operations is $O(1)$.

In a linked queue, each node of the queue consists of two parts i.e. data part and the link part. Each element of the queue points to its immediate next element in the memory.

In the linked queue, there are two pointers maintained in the memory i.e. front pointer and rear pointer. The front pointer contains the address of the starting element of the queue while the rear pointer contains the address of the last element of the queue.

Insertion and deletions are performed at rear and front end respectively. If front and rear both are NULL, it indicates that the queue is empty.

The linked representation of queue is shown in the following figure.



Linked Queue

Operation on Linked Queue

There are two basic operations which can be implemented on the linked queues. The operations are Insertion and Deletion.

Insert operation

The insert operation append the queue by adding an element to the end of the queue. The new element will be the last element of the queue.

Firstly, allocate the memory for the new node ptr by using the following statement.

```
1. Ptr = (struct node *) malloc (sizeof(struct node));
```

There can be the two scenario of inserting this new node ptr into the linked queue.

In the first scenario, we insert element into an empty queue. In this case, the condition **front = NULL** becomes true. Now, the new element will be added as the only element of the queue and the next pointer of front and rear pointer both, will point to NULL.

```
1. ptr -> data = item;
2.     if(front == NULL)
3.     {
4.         front = ptr;
5.         rear = ptr;
6.         front -> next = NULL;
7.         rear -> next = NULL;
8.     }
```

In the second case, the queue contains more than one element. The condition front = NULL becomes false. In this scenario, we need to update the end pointer rear so that the next pointer of rear will point to the new node ptr. Since, this is a linked queue, hence we also need to make the rear pointer point to the newly added node **ptr**. We also need to make the next pointer of rear point to NULL.

```
1. rear -> next = ptr;
2.     rear = ptr;
3.     rear->next = NULL;
```

In this way, the element is inserted into the queue. The algorithm and the C implementation is given as follows.

Algorithm

- **Step 1:** Allocate the space for the new node PTR
- **Step 2:** SET PTR -> DATA = VAL
- **Step 3:** IF FRONT = NULL
SET FRONT = REAR = PTR
SET FRONT -> NEXT = REAR -> NEXT = NULL
ELSE

```
SET REAR -> NEXT = PTR
SET REAR = PTR
SET REAR -> NEXT = NULL
[END OF IF]
```

- **Step 4:** END

Deletion

Deletion operation removes the element that is first inserted among all the queue elements. Firstly, we need to check either the list is empty or not. The condition `front == NULL` becomes true if the list is empty, in this case, we simply write underflow on the console and make exit.

Otherwise, we will delete the element that is pointed by the pointer `front`. For this purpose, copy the node pointed by the `front` pointer into the pointer `ptr`. Now, shift the `front` pointer, point to its next node and free the node pointed by the `ptr`. This is done by using the following statements.

1. `ptr = front;`
2. `front = front -> next;`
3. `free(ptr);`

Algorithm

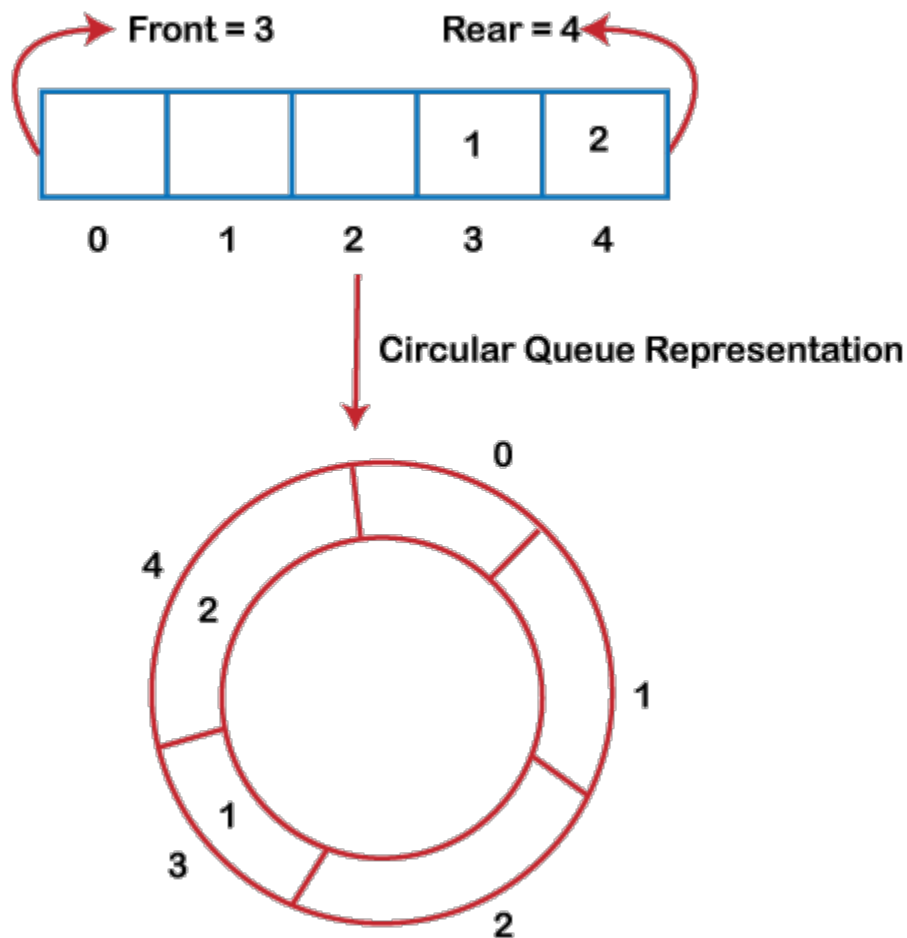
- **Step 1:** IF `FRONT = NULL`
Write " Underflow "
Go to Step 5
[END OF IF]
- **Step 2:** SET `PTR = FRONT`
- **Step 3:** SET `FRONT = FRONT -> NEXT`
- **Step 4:** FREE `PTR`
- **Step 5:** END

ircular Queue

Why was the concept of the circular queue introduced?

There was one limitation in the array implementation of [Queue](#)

. If the rear reaches to the end position of the Queue then there might be possibility that some vacant spaces are left in the beginning which cannot be utilized. So, to overcome such limitations, the concept of the circular queue was introduced.



As we can see in the above image, the rear is at the last position of the Queue and front is pointing somewhere rather than the 0th position. In the above array, there are only two elements and other three positions are empty. The rear is at the last position of the Queue; if we try to insert the element then it will show that there are no empty spaces in the Queue. There is one solution to avoid such wastage of memory space by shifting both the elements at the left and adjust the front and rear end accordingly. It is not a practically good approach because shifting all the elements will consume lots of time. The efficient approach to avoid the wastage of the memory is to use the circular queue data structure.

What is a Circular Queue?

A circular queue is similar to a linear queue as it is also based on the FIFO (First In First Out) principle except that the last position is connected to the first position in a circular queue that forms a circle. It is also known as a *Ring Buffer*.

Operations on Circular Queue

The following are the operations that can be performed on a circular queue:

- **Front:** It is used to get the front element from the Queue.
- **Rear:** It is used to get the rear element from the Queue.
- **enQueue(value):** This function is used to insert the new value in the Queue. The new element is always inserted from the rear end.
- **deQueue():** This function deletes an element from the Queue. The deletion in a Queue always takes place from the front end.

Applications of Circular Queue

The circular Queue can be used in the following scenarios:

- **Memory management:** The circular queue provides memory management. As we have already seen that in linear queue, the memory is not managed very efficiently. But in case of a circular queue, the memory is managed efficiently by placing the elements in a location which is unused.
- **CPU Scheduling:** The operating system also uses the circular queue to insert the processes and then execute them.
- **Traffic system:** In a computer-control traffic system, traffic light is one of the best examples of the circular queue. Each light of traffic light gets ON one by one after every jinterval of time. Like red light gets ON for one minute then yellow light for one minute and then green light. After green light, the red light gets ON.

Enqueue operation

The steps of enqueue operation are given below:

- First, we will check whether the Queue is full or not.

- Initially the front and rear are set to -1. When we insert the first element in a Queue, front and rear both are set to 0.
- When we insert a new element, the rear gets incremented, i.e., ***rear=rear+1***.

Scenarios for inserting an element

There are two scenarios in which queue is not full:

- **If rear != max - 1**, then rear will be incremented to **mod(maxsize)** and the new value will be inserted at the rear end of the queue.
- **If front != 0 and rear = max - 1**, it means that queue is not full, then set the value of rear to 0 and insert the new element there.

There are two cases in which the element cannot be inserted:

- When **front == 0 && rear = max-1**, which means that front is at the first position of the Queue and rear is at the last position of the Queue.
- **front == rear + 1;**

Algorithm to insert an element in a circular queue

Step 1: IF (REAR+1)%MAX = FRONT

Write " OVERFLOW "

Goto step 4

[End OF IF]

Step 2: IF FRONT = -1 and REAR = -1

SET FRONT = REAR = 0

ELSE IF REAR = MAX - 1 and FRONT != 0

SET REAR = 0

ELSE

SET REAR = (REAR + 1) % MAX

[END OF IF]

Step 3: SET QUEUE[REAR] = VAL

Step 4: EXIT

Dequeue Operation

The steps of dequeue operation are given below:

- First, we check whether the Queue is empty or not. If the queue is empty, we cannot perform the dequeue operation.
- When the element is deleted, the value of front gets decremented by 1.
- If there is only one element left which is to be deleted, then the front and rear are reset to -1.

Algorithm to delete an element from the circular queue

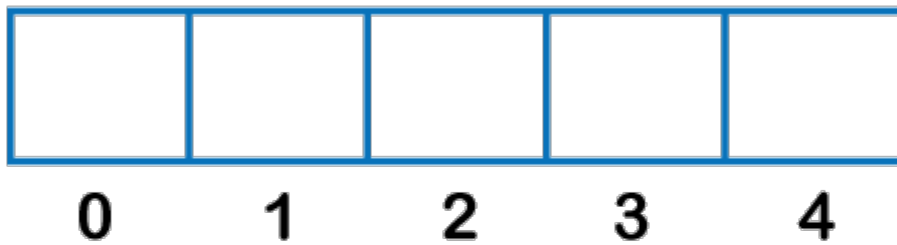
Step 1: IF FRONT = -1
 Write " UNDERFLOW "
 Goto Step 4
 [END of IF]

Step 2: SET VAL = QUEUE[FRONT]

Step 3: IF FRONT = REAR
 SET FRONT = REAR = -1
 ELSE
 IF FRONT = MAX -1
 SET FRONT = 0
 ELSE
 SET FRONT = FRONT + 1
 [END of IF]
 [END OF IF]

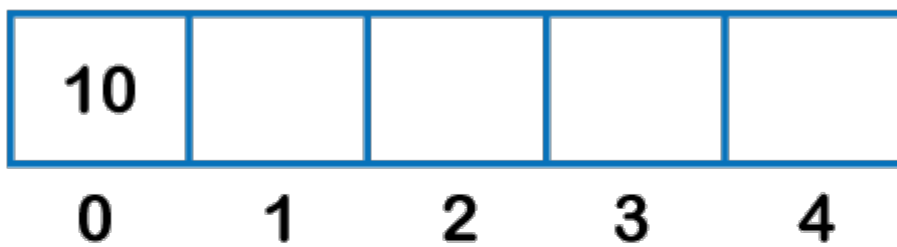
Step 4: EXIT

Let's understand the enqueue and dequeue operation through the diagrammatic representation.



Front = -1

Rear = -1



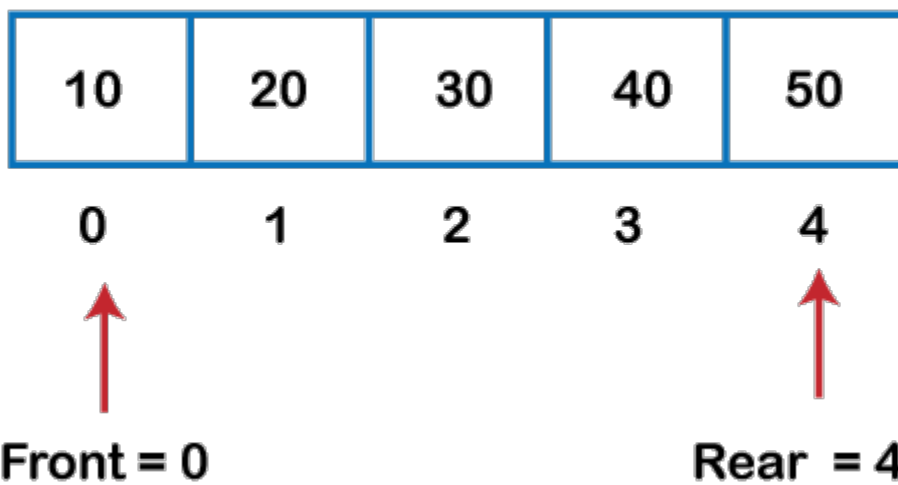
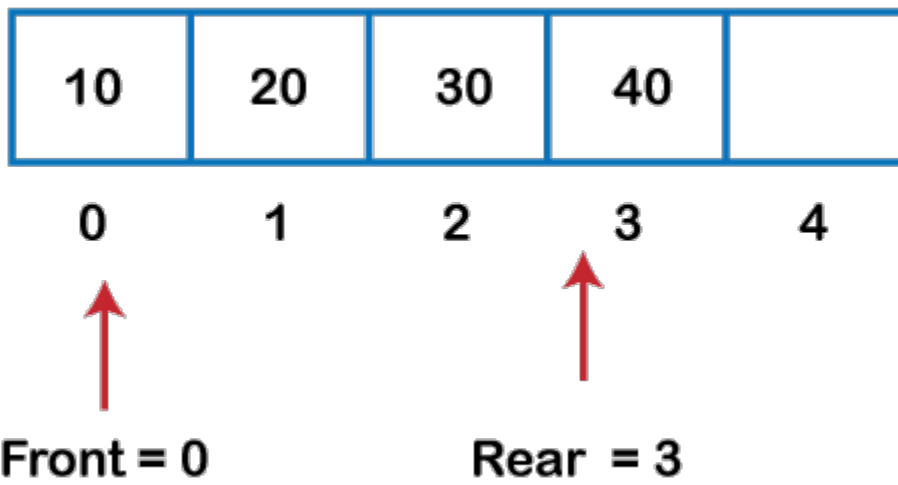
Front = 0

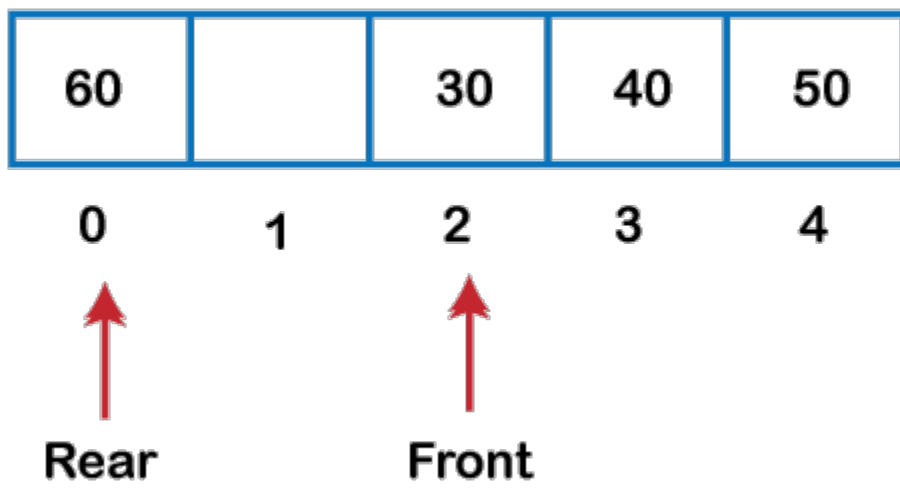
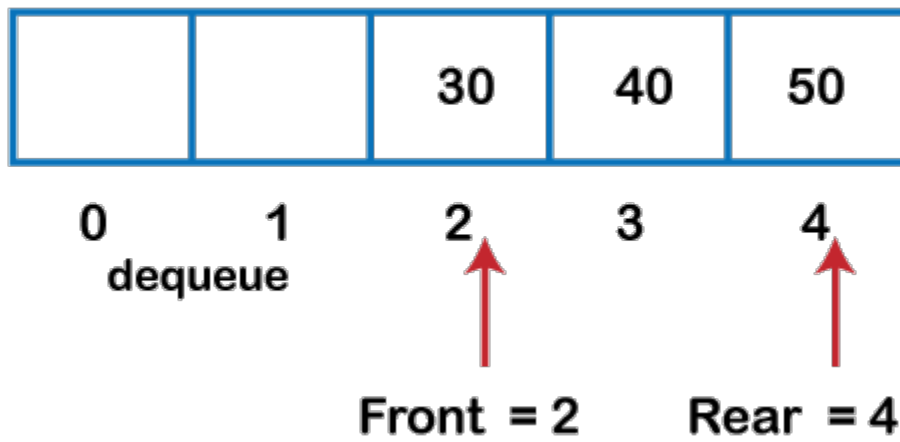
Rear = 0

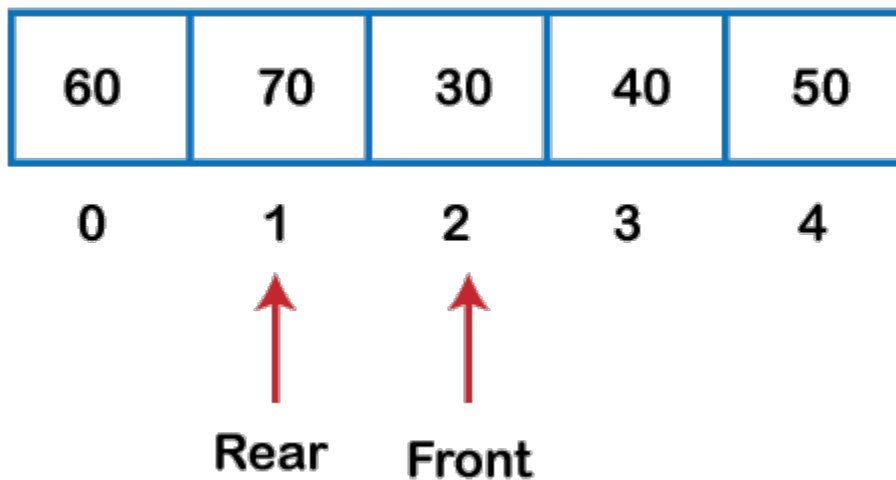


↑
Front = 0

↑
Rear = 2





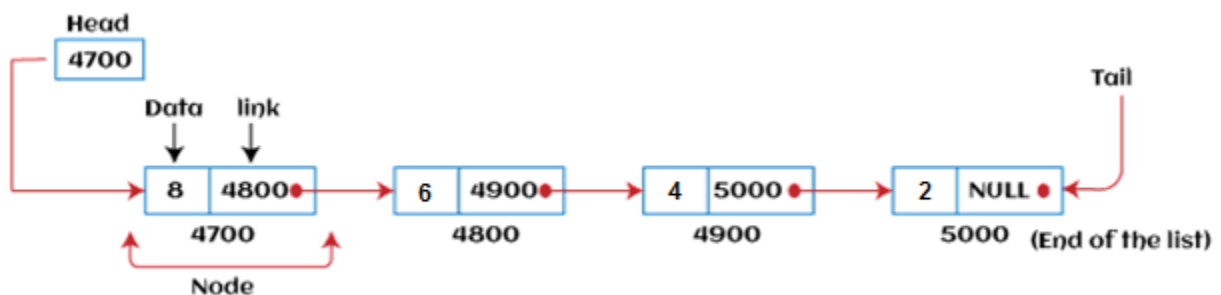


Linked list

Linked list is a linear data structure that includes a series of connected nodes. Linked list can be defined as the nodes that are randomly stored in the memory. A node in the linked list contains two parts, i.e., first is the data part and second is the address part. The last node of the list contains a pointer to the null. After array, linked list is the second most used data structure. In a linked list, every link contains a connection to another link.

Representation of a Linked list

Linked list can be represented as the connection of nodes in which each node points to the next node of the list. The representation of the linked list is shown below -



Till now, we have been using array data structure to organize the group of elements that are to be stored individually in the memory. However, Array has several advantages and disadvantages that must be known to decide the data structure that will be used throughout the program.

Now, the question arises why we should use linked list over array?

Why use linked list over array?

Linked list is a data structure that overcomes the limitations of arrays. Let's first see some of the limitations of arrays -

- The size of the array must be known in advance before using it in the program.
- Increasing the size of the array is a time taking process. It is almost impossible to expand the size of the array at run time.
- All the elements in the array need to be contiguously stored in the memory. Inserting an element in the array needs shifting of all its predecessors.

Linked list is useful because -

- It allocates the memory dynamically. All the nodes of the linked list are non-contiguously stored in the memory and linked together with the help of pointers.
- In linked list, size is no longer a problem since we do not need to define its size at the time of declaration. List grows as per the program's demand and limited to the available memory space.

How to declare a linked list?

It is simple to declare an array, as it is of single type, while the declaration of linked list is a bit more typical than array. Linked list contains two parts, and both are of different types, i.e., one is the simple variable, while another is the pointer variable. We can declare the linked list by using the user-defined data type **structure**.

The declaration of linked list is given as follows -

1. `struct node`
2. `{`
3. `int data;`
4. `struct node *next;`
5. `}`

In the above declaration, we have defined a structure named as **node** that contains two variables, one is **data** that is of integer type, and another one is **next** that is a pointer which contains the address of next node.

Types of Linked List

Before knowing about the types of a linked list, we should know what is ***linked list***. So, to know about the linked list, click on the link given below:

Types of Linked list

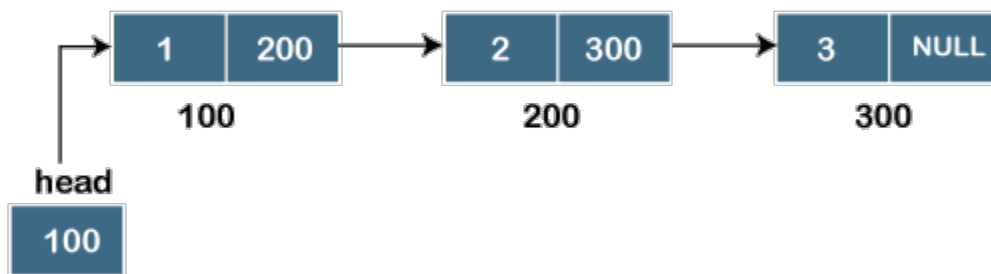
The following are the types of linked list:

- [Singly Linked list](#)
- [Doubly Linked list](#)
- [Circular Linked list](#)
- [Doubly Circular Linked list](#)

Singly Linked list

It is the commonly used linked list in programs. If we are talking about the linked list, it means it is a singly linked list. The singly linked list is a data structure that contains two parts, i.e., one is the data part, and the other one is the address part, which contains the address of the next or the successor node. The address part in a node is also known as a **pointer**.

Suppose we have three nodes, and the addresses of these three nodes are 100, 200 and 300 respectively. The representation of three nodes as a linked list is shown in the below figure:



We can observe in the above figure that there are three different nodes having address 100, 200 and 300 respectively. The first node contains the address of the next node, i.e., 200, the second node contains the address of the last node, i.e., 300, and the third node contains the NULL value

in its address part as it does not point to any node. The pointer that holds the address of the initial node is known as a *head pointer*.

The linked list, which is shown in the above diagram, is known as a singly linked list as it contains only a single link. In this list, only forward traversal is possible; we cannot traverse in the backward direction as it has only one link in the list.

Representation of the node in a singly linked list

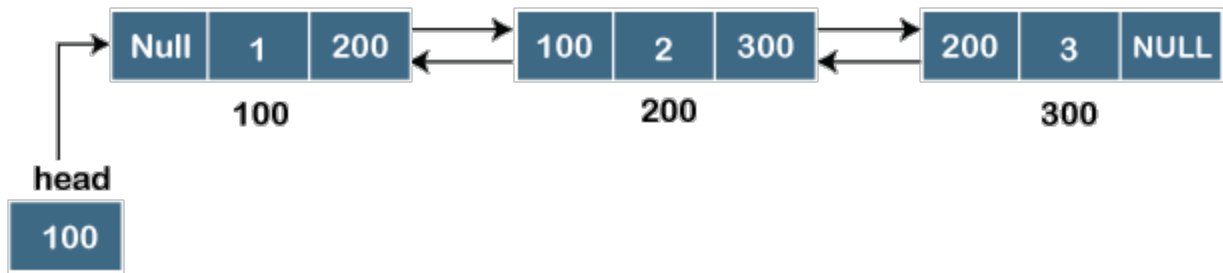
1. struct node
2. {
3. int data;
4. struct node *next;
5. }

In the above representation, we have defined a user-defined structure named a **node** containing two members, the first one is data of integer type, and the other one is the pointer (next) of the node type.

Doubly linked list

As the name suggests, the doubly linked list contains two pointers. We can define the doubly linked list as a linear data structure with three parts: the data part and the other two address part. In other words, a doubly linked list is a list that has three parts in a single node, includes one data part, a pointer to its previous node, and a pointer to the next node.

Suppose we have three nodes, and the address of these nodes are 100, 200 and 300, respectively. The representation of these nodes in a doubly-linked list is shown below:



As we can observe in the above figure, the node in a doubly-linked list has two address parts; one part stores the *address of the next* while the other part of the node stores the *previous node's address*. The initial node in the doubly linked list has the **NULL** value in the address part, which provides the address of the previous node.

Representation of the node in a doubly linked list

1. struct node
2. {
3. int data;
4. struct node *next;
5. struct node *prev;
6. }

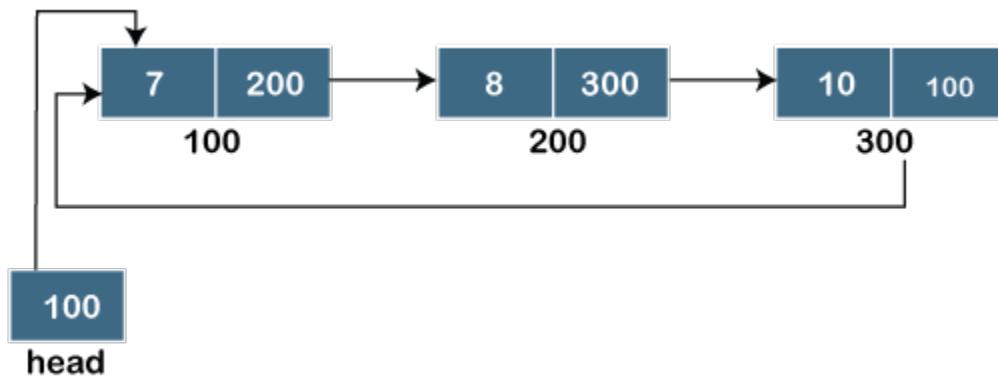
In the above representation, we have defined a user-defined structure named *a node* with three members, one is **data** of integer type, and the other two are the pointers, i.e., **next** and **prev** of the node type. The **next pointer** variable holds the address of the next node, and the **prev pointer** holds the address of the previous node. The type of both the pointers, i.e., **next** and **prev** is **struct node** as both the pointers are storing the address of the node of the *struct node* type.

Circular linked list

A circular linked list is a variation of a singly linked list. The only difference between the *singly linked list* and a *circular linked list* is that the last node does not point to any node in a singly linked list, so its link part contains a **NULL** value. On the other hand, the circular linked list is a list in which the last node connects to the first node, so the link part of the last node holds the first node's address. The circular linked list has no starting and ending node. We can traverse in any direction, i.e., either backward or forward. The diagrammatic representation of the circular linked list is shown below:

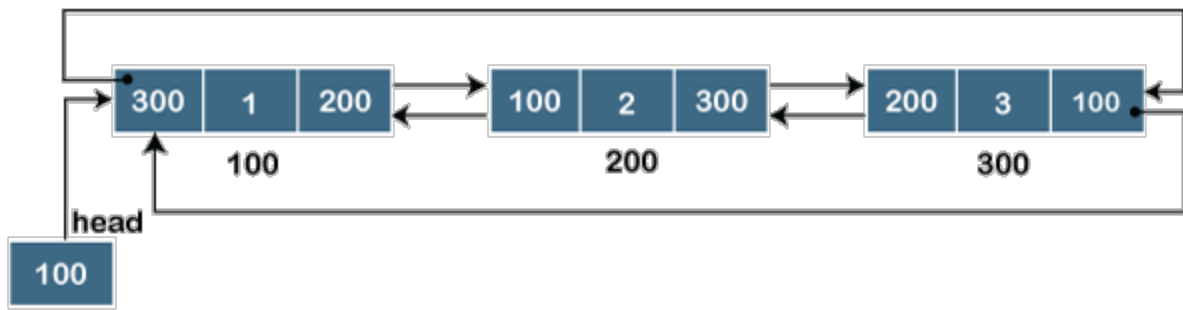
1. struct node
2. {
3. int data;
4. struct node *next;
5. }

A circular linked list is a sequence of elements in which each node has a link to the next node, and the last node is having a link to the first node. The representation of the circular linked list will be similar to the singly linked list, as shown below:



Doubly Circular linked list

The doubly circular linked list has the features of both the *circular linked list* and *doubly linked list*.



The above figure shows the representation of the doubly circular linked list in which the last node is attached to the first node and thus creates a circle. It is a doubly linked list also because each node holds the address of the previous node also. The main difference between the doubly linked list and doubly circular linked list is that the doubly circular linked list does not contain the NULL value in the previous field of the node. As the doubly circular linked contains three parts, i.e., two address parts and one data part so its representation is similar to the doubly linked list.

1. struct node
2. {
3. **int** data;
4. struct node *next;
5. struct node *prev;
6. }

Advantages of Linked list

The advantages of using the Linked list are given as follows -

- **Dynamic data structure** - The size of the linked list may vary according to the requirements. Linked list does not have a fixed size.
- **Insertion and deletion** - Unlike arrays, insertion, and deletion in linked list is easier. Array elements are stored in the consecutive location, whereas the elements in the linked list are stored at a random location. To insert or delete an element in an array, we have to shift the elements for creating the space. Whereas, in linked list, instead of shifting, we just have to update the address of the pointer of the node.

- **Memory efficient** - The size of a linked list can grow or shrink according to the requirements, so memory consumption in linked list is efficient.
- **Implementation** - We can implement both stacks and queues using linked list.

Disadvantages of Linked list

The limitations of using the Linked list are given as follows -

- **Memory usage** - In linked list, node occupies more memory than array. Each node of the linked list occupies two types of variables, i.e., one is a simple variable, and another one is the pointer variable.
- **Traversal** - Traversal is not easy in the linked list. If we have to access an element in the linked list, we cannot access it randomly, while in case of array we can randomly access it by index. For example, if we want to access the 3rd node, then we need to traverse all the nodes before it. So, the time required to access a particular node is large.
- **Reverse traversing** - Backtracking or reverse traversing is difficult in a linked list. In a doubly-linked list, it is easier but requires more memory to store the back pointer.

Applications of Linked list

The applications of the Linked list are given as follows -

- With the help of a linked list, the polynomials can be represented as well as we can perform the operations on the polynomial.
- A linked list can be used to represent the sparse matrix.
- The various operations like student's details, employee's details, or product details can be implemented using the linked list as the linked list uses the structure data type that can hold different data types.
- Using linked list, we can implement stack, queue, tree, and other various data structures.
- The graph is a collection of edges and vertices, and the graph can be represented as an adjacency matrix and adjacency list. If we want to

represent the graph as an adjacency matrix, then it can be implemented as an array. If we want to represent the graph as an adjacency list, then it can be implemented as a linked list.

- A linked list can be used to implement dynamic memory allocation. The dynamic memory allocation is the memory allocation done at the run-time.

Operations performed on Linked list

The basic operations that are supported by a list are mentioned as follows -

- **Insertion** - This operation is performed to add an element into the list.
- **Deletion** - It is performed to delete an operation from the list.
- **Display** - It is performed to display the elements of the list.
- **Search** - It is performed to search an element from the list using the given key.

Complexity of Linked list

Now, let's see the time and space complexity of the linked list for the operations search, insert, and delete.

1. Time Complexity

| Operations | Average case time complexity | Worst-case time complexity |
|------------|------------------------------|----------------------------|
| Insertion | $O(1)$ | $O(1)$ |
| Deletion | $O(1)$ | $O(1)$ |
| Search | $O(n)$ | $O(n)$ |

Where 'n' is the number of nodes in the given tree.

2. Space Complexity

| Operations | Space complexity |
|------------|------------------|
| Insertion | O(n) |
| Deletion | O(n) |
| Search | O(n) |

The space complexity of linked list is **O(n)**.

Operations on Singly Linked List

There are various operations which can be performed on singly linked list. A list of all such operations is given below.

Node Creation

1. struct node
2. {
3. **int** data;
4. struct node *next;
5. };
6. struct node *head, *ptr;
7. ptr = (struct node *)malloc(sizeof(struct node *));

Insertion

The insertion into a singly linked list can be performed at different positions. Based on the position of the new node being inserted, the insertion is categorized into the following categories.

| SN | Operation | Description |
|----|-------------------------------|--|
| 1 | <u>Insertion at beginning</u> | It involves inserting any element at the front of the list. We just need to a few link adjustments to make the new node as the head of the list. |

| | | |
|---|---------------------------------------|---|
| 2 | <u>Insertion at end of the list</u> | It involves insertion at the last of the linked list. The new node can be inserted as the only node in the list or it can be inserted as the last one. Different logics are implemented in each scenario. |
| 3 | <u>Insertion after specified node</u> | It involves insertion after the specified node of the linked list. We need to skip the desired number of nodes in order to reach the node after which the new node will be inserted. . |

Deletion and Traversing

The Deletion of a node from a singly linked list can be performed at different positions. Based on the position of the node being deleted, the operation is categorized into the following categories.

| SN | Operation | Description |
|----|--|--|
| 1 | <u>Deletion at beginning</u> | It involves deletion of a node from the beginning of the list. This is the simplest operation among all. It just need a few adjustments in the node pointers. |
| 2 | <u>Deletion at the end of the list</u> | It involves deleting the last node of the list. The list can either be empty or full. Different logic is implemented for the different scenarios. |
| 3 | <u>Deletion after specified node</u> | It involves deleting the node after the specified node in the list. we need to skip the desired number of nodes to reach the node after which the node will be deleted. This requires traversing through the list. |
| 4 | <u>Traversing</u> | In traversing, we simply visit each node of the list at least once in order to perform some specific operation on it, for example, printing data part of each node present in the list. |
| 5 | <u>Searching</u> | In searching, we match each element of the list with the given element. If the element is found on any of the location then location of that |

| | | |
|--|--|---|
| | | element is returned otherwise null is returned. . |
|--|--|---|