

Design Specification for Data Structures

Operations, Implementations, and Performance Analysis



Introduction to Data Structures

A data structure is a particular way of organizing and storing data in a computer so that it can be accessed and modified efficiently.

Data structures form the foundation of efficient algorithms and play a critical role in programming. They help in managing large amounts of data and ensure optimal performance in real-world applications.

Operations include inserting, deleting, traversing, searching, and sorting. Common implementations include arrays, linked lists, stacks, queues, trees, and graphs.



Identifying Data Structures

Arrays: A collection of elements, each identified by an index or key.

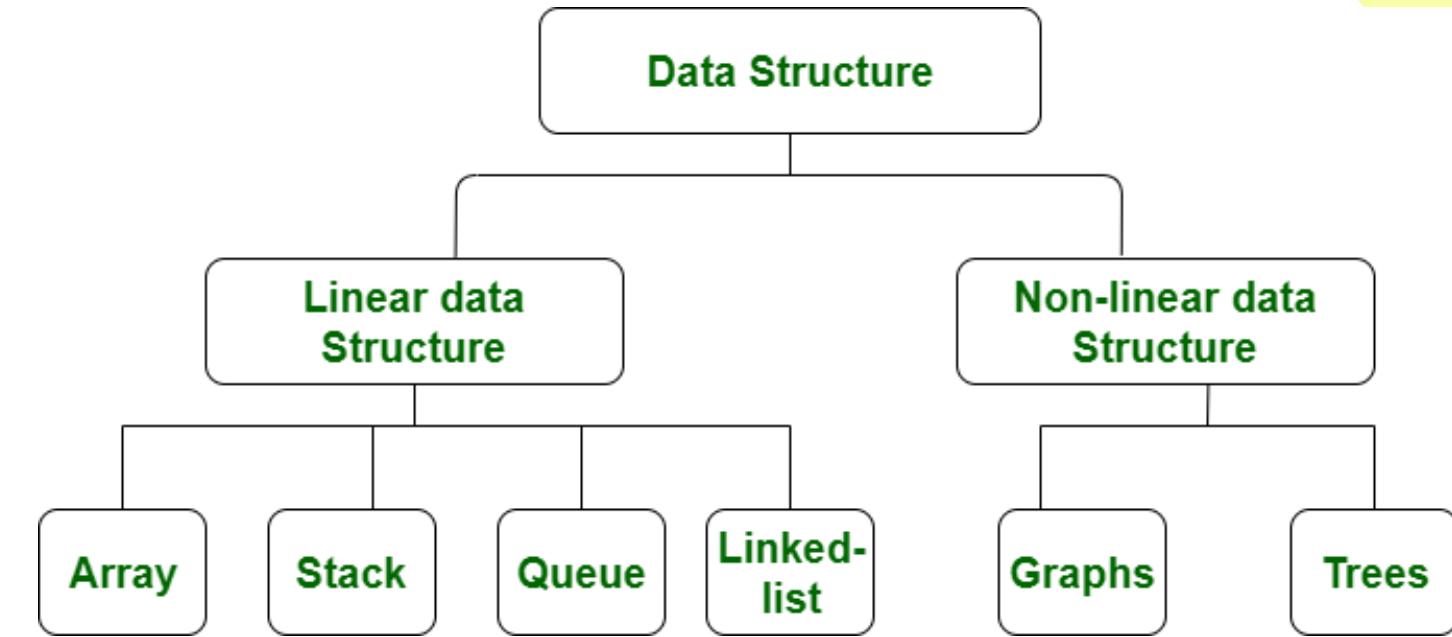
Linked Lists: A sequence of nodes where each node contains data and a reference to the next node.

Stacks: A collection of elements that follows the Last In, First Out (LIFO) principle.

Queues: A collection of elements that follows the First In, First Out (FIFO) principle.

Trees: A hierarchical data structure with a root node and children, resembling a tree.

Graphs: A collection of nodes (or vertices) connected by edges, representing relationships between elements.



Operations on Data Structures



Define operations:

- Insert: Add a new element to the data structure.
- Delete: Remove an existing element.
- Search: Find an element within the structure.
- Update: Modify the value of an existing element.
- Traversing: visiting each element of the data structure in order to perform some specific operation like searching or sorting.

Importance of operations in data manipulation:

- Efficient data manipulation is critical for performance.
- Understanding these operations is key for optimizing algorithms.

Input Parameters for Operations

Define valid input parameters for each operation

- Insert: data (element to be added), position (optional, for specific index)
- Delete: position (index of the element to be removed)
- Search: key (element to find)

```
import java.util.ArrayList;

class MyList {
    private ArrayList<Integer> items;

    public MyList() {
        items = new ArrayList<>();
    }

    public void insert(int data, Integer position) {
        if (position != null) {
            items.add(position, data);
        } else {
            items.add(data);
        }
    }

    public void delete(int position) {
        if (position >= 0 && position < items.size()) {
            items.remove(position);
        }
    }

    public boolean search(int key) {
        return items.contains(key);
    }
}
```

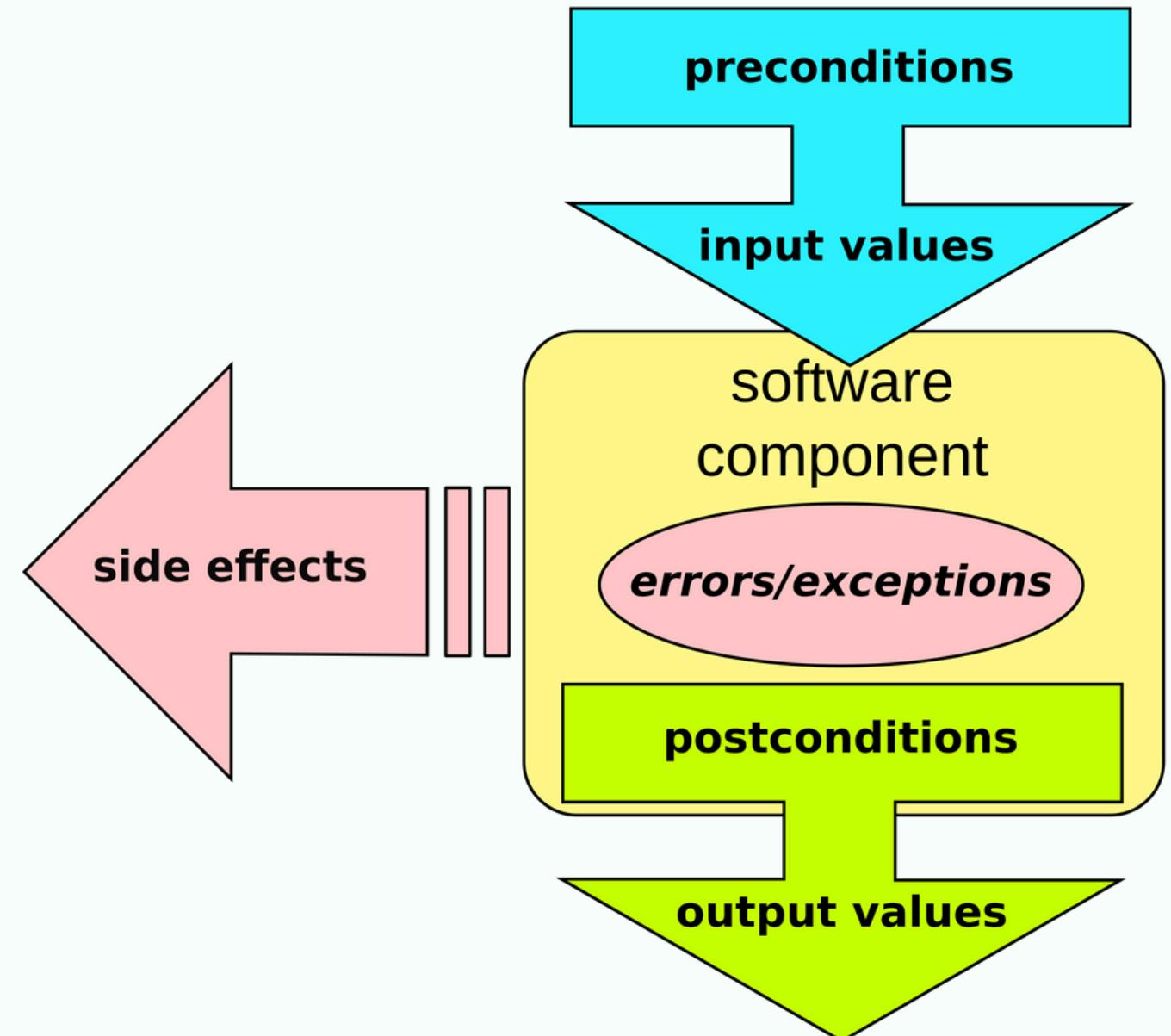
Pre- and Post-conditions

Pre-conditions

- Conditions that must be true before an operation is executed.
- Ensure data structure is in a valid state.
- Example: For an insert operation, the position must be within the bounds of the data structure.

Post-conditions

- Conditions that must be true after the operation has been executed.
- Ensure data structure remains valid and consistent.
- Example: After an insert operation, the size of the data structure should increase by one.



Time Complexity of Operations

Understanding Time Complexity

- A measure of the amount of time an algorithm takes to complete as a function of the length of the input.
- Often expressed using Big-O notation, which describes the upper limit of the running time.
- Understanding time complexity helps in choosing the right algorithm for efficiency and performance.

Common Time Complexities

- $O(1)$: Constant time – the operation takes the same amount of time regardless of input size.

Example: Accessing an element in an array by index.

- $O(n)$: Linear time – the time taken grows linearly with the input size.

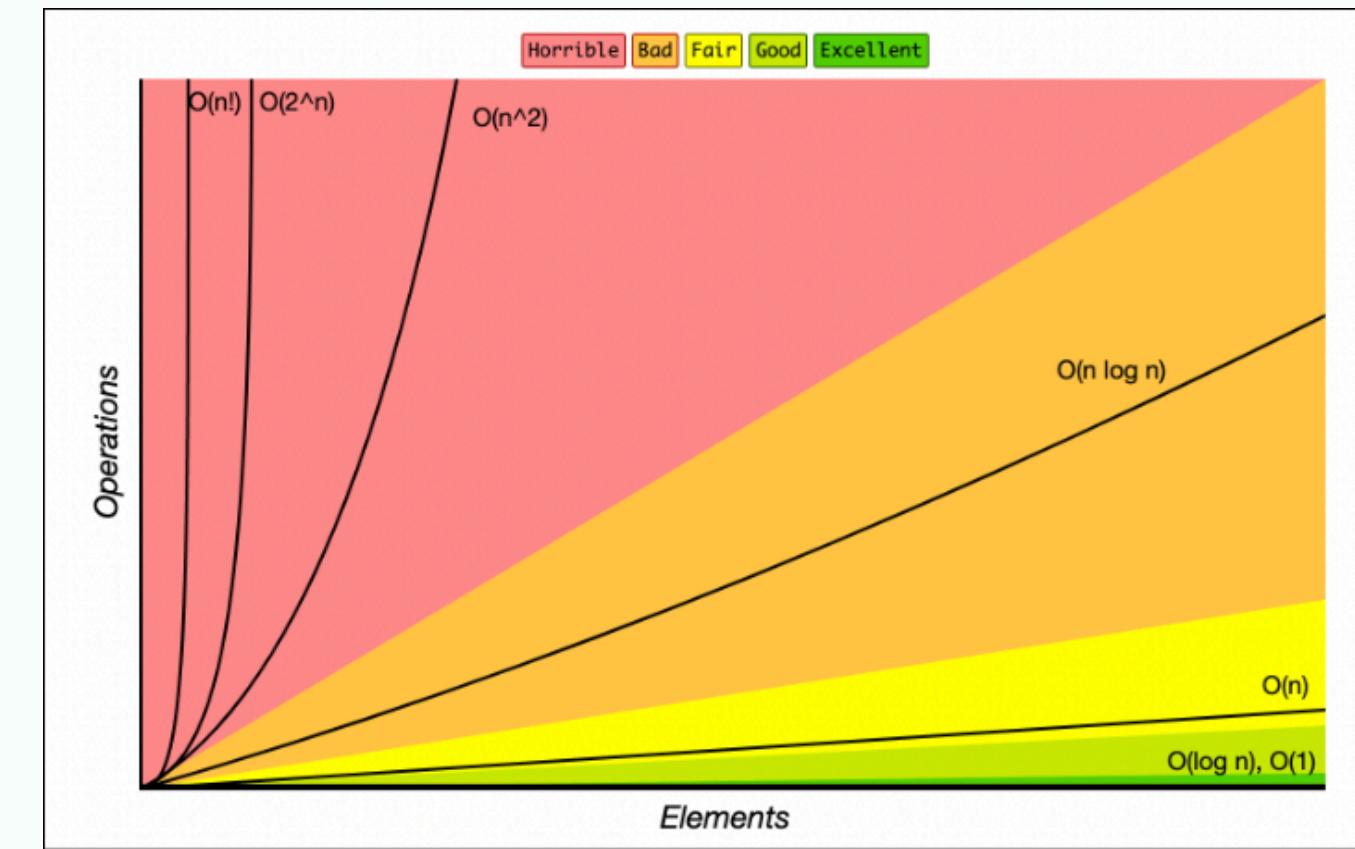
Example: Searching for an element in an unsorted list.

- $O(\log n)$: Logarithmic time – time grows logarithmically as the input size increases.

Example: Binary search in a sorted array.

- $O(n^2)$: Quadratic time – the time taken grows quadratically with the input size.

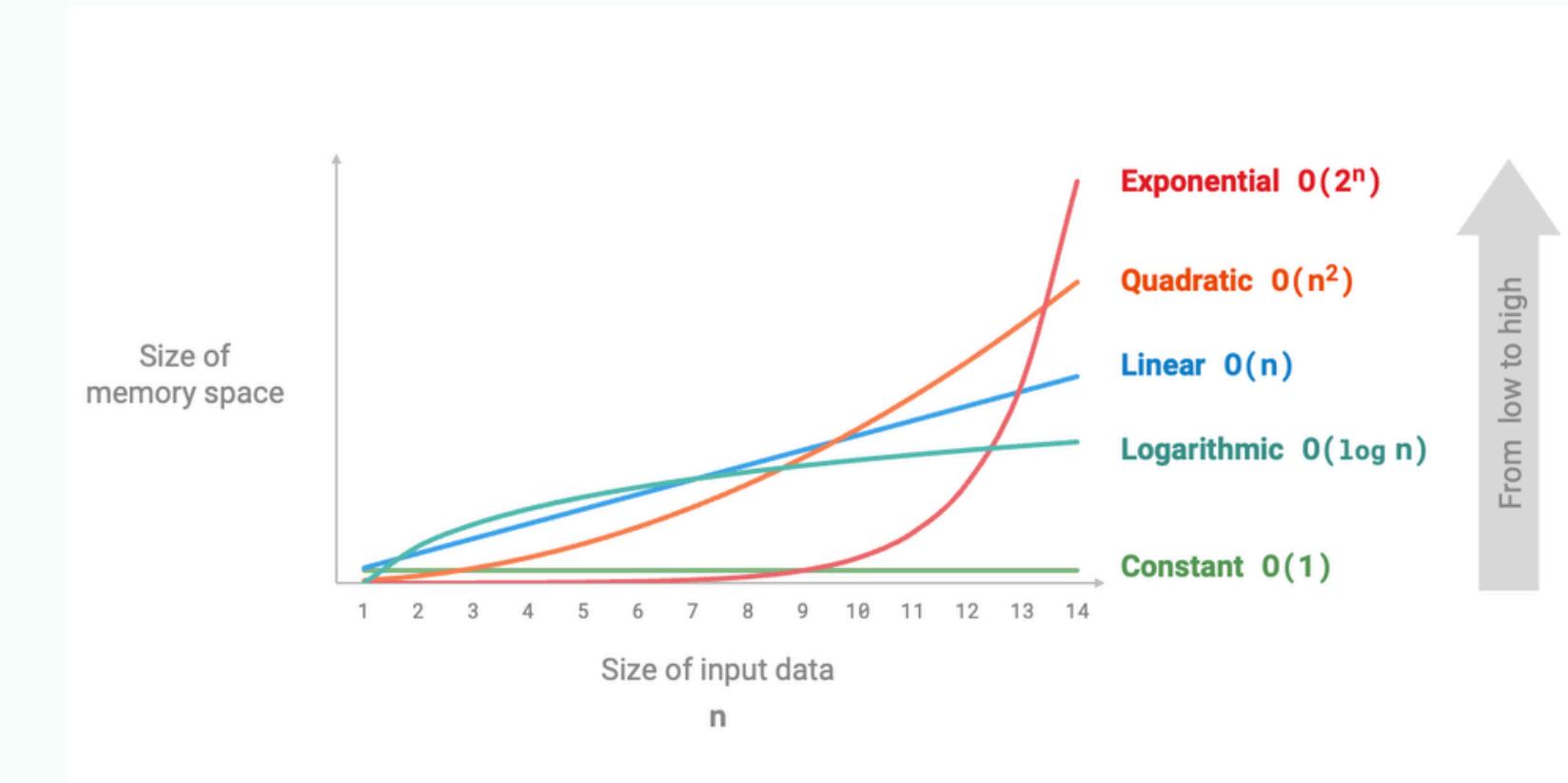
Example: Bubble sort or selection sort on an array.



Space Complexity of Operations

Understanding Space Complexity:

- A measure of the amount of working storage an algorithm needs.
- Expressed using Big-O notation, it helps determine the efficiency of memory usage.
- Understanding space complexity is crucial for memory management, especially in environments with limited resources.



Common Space Complexities

- $O(1)$: Constant space – the algorithm uses a fixed amount of space regardless of input size.
Example: A program that swaps two numbers uses a fixed amount of space for variables, regardless of how large the numbers are.
- $O(n)$: Linear space – the space required grows linearly with the input size.
Example: Storing a list of names in an array. If you have 100 names, you need space for 100 entries.
- $O(n^2)$: Quadratic space – space grows quadratically with the input size.
Example: Using a 2D array (matrix) to store data where each element depends on two input variables, such as a tic-tac-toe board where you need space for 9 squares, or more generally for graph representations.

Memory Stack

Definition of Memory Stack

- A data structure that stores information in a Last-In-First-Out (LIFO) order.
- The last item added to the stack is the first one to be removed.

Characteristics of Memory Stack

Push Operation

- Adds an item to the top of the stack.

Example: Adding a new function call to the stack during execution.

- Commonly used in managing function calls and recursion.
- Facilitates backtracking algorithms, such as depth-first search.

```
import java.util.ArrayList;

public class Stack {
    private ArrayList<Integer> stack = new ArrayList<>();

    // Push operation
    public void push(int item) {
        stack.add(item);
        System.out.println("Pushed " + item + " onto the stack.");
    }

    // Example usage
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Stack myStack = new Stack();
        myStack.push(10); // Pushing 10 onto the stack
        myStack.push(20); // Pushing 20 onto the stack
    }
}
```

Memory Stack

Pop Operation

- Removes the item from the top of the stack.

Example: The return of a function call, removing it from the stack.

Peek Operation

- Allows viewing the item on top of the stack without removing it.

Example: Checking the last function called before making a decision.

Importance of Stack

- Essential for maintaining the state of function calls.
- Helps manage local variables and execution flow in programming languages.

```
public int pop() {  
    if (stack.isEmpty()) {  
        System.out.println("Stack is empty!");  
        return -1; // Indicate stack is empty  
    }  
    return stack.remove(stack.size() - 1); // Remove and return the top item  
}  
  
public int peek() {  
    if (stack.isEmpty()) {  
        System.out.println("Stack is empty!");  
        return -1; // Indicate stack is empty  
    }  
    return stack.get(stack.size() - 1); // Return the last item without removing it  
}  
  
// Example usage  
public static void main(String[] args) {  
    Stack myStack = new Stack();  
    myStack.push(10);  
    myStack.push(20);  
    System.out.println("Top item is: " + myStack.peek()); // Show the top item  
    System.out.println("Popped item is: " + myStack.pop()); // Remove the top item  
    System.out.println("New top item is: " + myStack.peek()); // Show the new top item  
}
```

Importance of Memory Stack

Memory Management

- Efficient allocation and deallocation of memory for function calls.
- Automatic handling of local variables and parameters as functions are called and returned.

Control Flow

- Maintains the order of function execution, ensuring that each function returns to the correct point in the code.
- Supports recursion by managing multiple function invocations seamlessly.

Error Handling

- Facilitates the implementation of exception handling mechanisms.
- Helps track the execution path leading to an error, allowing for proper debugging and error recovery.

Performance Optimization

- Reduces overhead associated with dynamic memory allocation, leading to faster execution.
- Stack allocations are generally faster than heap allocations, improving overall performance.

Function Call Implementation Using Stack

Understanding Function Calls

- Each function call creates a new frame on the call stack.
- The stack keeps track of function parameters, local variables, and the return address.

Function Call Mechanism

- Push Frame: When a function is called, a new frame is pushed onto the stack.
- Pop Frame: When the function returns, its frame is popped off the stack.

Example: Demonstrating a recursive function (e.g., calculating factorial) to show how the stack manages multiple calls.

```
public class Factorial {  
    public static int factorial(int n) {  
        if (n == 0) {  
            return 1; // Base case  
        } else {  
            return n * factorial(n - 1); // Recursive call  
        }  
    }  
  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        int number = 5;  
        System.out.println("Factorial of " + number + " is: " + factorial(number));  
    }  
}
```

Stack Frames

What are Stack Frames?

A stack frame is a data structure that contains information about a function call.

Each frame stores

- Function parameters
- Local variables
- Return address (where to continue execution after the function call)

```
public class StackFrames {  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        firstFunction(5);  
    }  
  
    public static void firstFunction(int x) {  
        secondFunction(x + 1);  
    }  
  
    public static void secondFunction(int y) {  
        System.out.println("Value is: " + y);  
    }  
}
```

Structure of a Stack Frame

- Frame Pointer (FP): Points to the base of the stack frame.
- Return Address: The address to return to after the function call.
- Local Variables: Variables declared within the function.
- Function Parameters: Inputs to the function.

Example: Demonstrating stack frames during multiple function calls.

Introduction to FIFO Queue

Definition of FIFO Queue

- A data structure that operates on a First-In-First-Out (FIFO) basis.
- The first element added to the queue is the first one to be removed.

Basic Operations

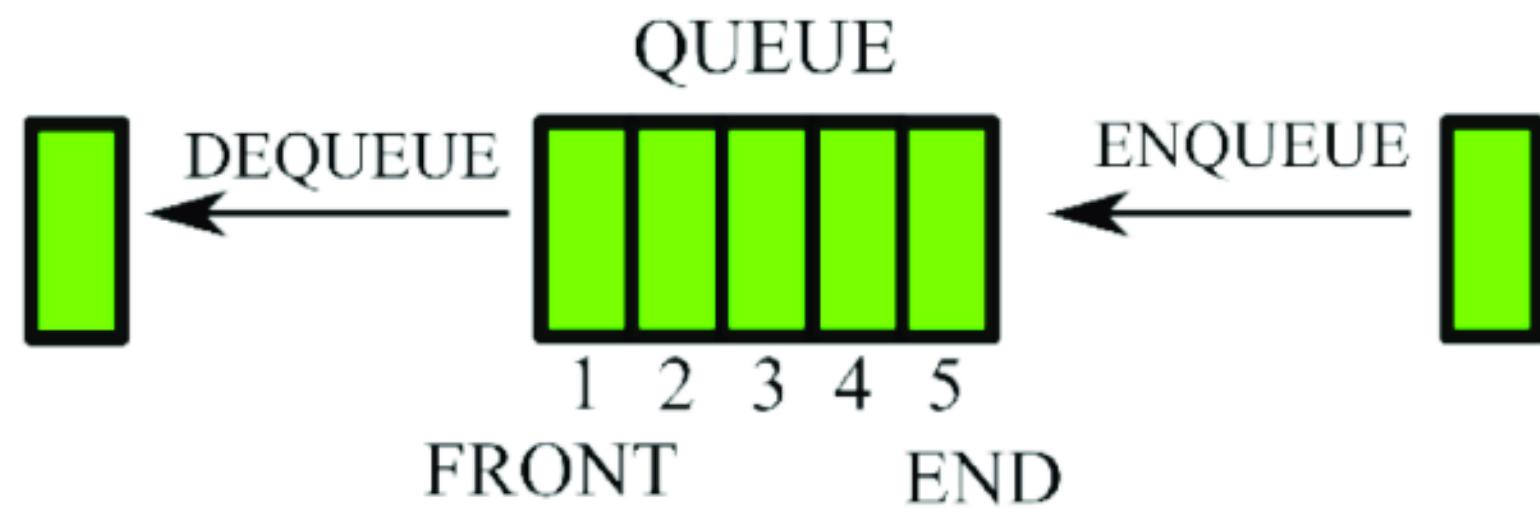
- Enqueue: Adds an item to the back of the queue.
- Dequeue: Removes the item from the front of the queue.
- Peek/Front: Returns the item at the front of the queue without removing it.

Characteristics of FIFO Queue

- Maintains the order of elements as they were added.
- Useful for scenarios where order matters, such as scheduling, buffering, and processing tasks.

Real-World Examples

- Line of customers at a ticket counter.
- Print job management in printers, where the first job sent to the printer is the first to be printed.



Defining the Structure of FIFO Queue

Basic Structure of FIFO Queue

- Typically implemented using arrays or linked lists.
- Contains two pointers:
 - + Front: Points to the first element in the queue (the one to be dequeued).
 - + Rear: Points to the last element in the queue (the one to be enqueueued).

Array-Based Implementation

- Fixed size; requires resizing if maximum capacity is reached.
- Circular implementation can be used to optimize space.

Linked List Implementation

- Dynamic size; grows and shrinks as needed.
- Each node contains data and a pointer to the next node.

Key Operations

- Enqueue Operation: Add an element at the rear.
- Dequeue Operation: Remove an element from the front.
- Peek Operation: View the front element without removing it.



Array-Based Implementation of FIFO Queue

Overview of Array-Based FIFO Queue

- Uses a fixed-size array to store queue elements.
- Simple and efficient for small, predictable queue sizes.

Key Components

- Array: Holds the elements of the queue.
- Front Pointer: Index of the first element to be dequeued.
- Rear Pointer: Index of the last element added to the queue.
- Size Variable: Tracks the current number of elements in the queue.

Circular Queue Concept

To optimize space, a circular approach can be implemented:

- Rear and front pointers wrap around to the beginning of the array when the end is reached.
- This prevents wasted space in the array.

Array-Based Implementation of FIFO Queue

Key Operations

- Enqueue Operation: Check if the queue is full; if not, add the element at the rear and increment the rear pointer.
- Dequeue Operation: Check if the queue is empty; if not, remove the element from the front and increment the front pointer.
- Peek Operation: Return the element at the front without removing it.

```
public class ArrayQueue {  
    private int[] queue;  
    private int front, rear, size;  
    private int capacity;  
  
    public ArrayQueue(int capacity) {  
        this.capacity = capacity;  
        queue = new int[this.capacity];  
        front = this.size = 0; // front is initialized to 0  
        rear = capacity - 1; // rear is initialized to capacity - 1  
    }  
  
    // Enqueue operation  
    public void enqueue(int item) {  
        if (size == capacity) {  
            System.out.println("Queue is full!");  
            return;  
        }  
        rear = (rear + 1) % capacity; // Circular increment  
        queue[rear] = item;  
        size++;  
        System.out.println("Enqueued: " + item);  
    }  
    public int dequeue() {  
        if (size == 0) {  
            System.out.println("Queue is empty!");  
            return -1; // Indicate empty queue  
        }  
        int item = queue[front];  
        front = (front + 1) % capacity; // Circular increment  
        size--;  
        System.out.println("Dequeued: " + item);  
        return item;  
    }  
  
    // Peek operation  
    public int peek() {  
        if (size == 0) {  
            System.out.println("Queue is empty!");  
            return -1; // Indicate empty queue  
        }  
        return queue[front];  
    }  
  
    // Main method for testing  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        ArrayQueue queue = new ArrayQueue(5);  
        queue.enqueue(10);  
        queue.enqueue(20);  
        System.out.println("Front element is: " + queue.peek());  
        queue.dequeue();  
        System.out.println("Front element after dequeue is: " + queue.peek());  
    }  
}
```

Linked List-Based Implementation of FIFO Queue

Overview of Linked List-Based FIFO Queue

- A dynamic data structure that grows and shrinks as needed.
- Consists of nodes, each containing data and a reference to the next node.

Advantages:

- Dynamic size: Can grow as needed without wasting space.
- No need for resizing as in array-based implementations.

Key Components:

- Node Structure:

Data: The value stored in the node.

Next Pointer: Points to the next node in the queue.

- Front Pointer: Points to the first node (the one to be dequeued).
- Rear Pointer: Points to the last node (the one to be enqueued).

Key Operations:

- Enqueue Operation:

Create a new node for the new element.

Update the next pointer of the current rear node.

Update the rear pointer to the new node.

- Dequeue Operation: Check if the queue is empty; if not, remove the front node and update the front pointer.
- Peek Operation: Return the data of the front node without removing it.

Linked List-Based Implementation of FIFO Queue

```
class Node {  
    int data;  
    Node next;  
  
    public Node(int data) {  
        this.data = data;  
        this.next = null;  
    }  
}  
  
public class LinkedListQueue {  
    private Node front, rear;  
    private int size;  
  
    public LinkedListQueue() {  
        this.front = this.rear = null;  
        this.size = 0;  
    }  
  
    // Enqueue operation  
    public void enqueue(int item) {  
        Node newNode = new Node(item);  
        if (rear == null) {  
            front = rear = newNode; // If the queue is empty  
            size++;  
            return;  
        }  
        rear.next = newNode; // Link new node at the end  
        rear = newNode; // Move the rear pointer to the new node  
        size++;  
        System.out.println("Enqueued: " + item);  
    }  
}
```

```
public int dequeue() {  
    if (front == null) {  
        System.out.println("Queue is empty!");  
        return -1; // Indicate empty queue  
    }  
    int item = front.data;  
    front = front.next; // Move front pointer to the next node  
    if (front == null) {  
        rear = null; // If the queue is now empty  
    }  
    size--;  
    System.out.println("Dequeued: " + item);  
    return item;  
}  
  
// Peek operation  
public int peek() {  
    if (front == null) {  
        System.out.println("Queue is empty!");  
        return -1; // Indicate empty queue  
    }  
    return front.data;  
}  
  
// Main method for testing  
public static void main(String[] args) {  
    LinkedListQueue queue = new LinkedListQueue();  
    queue.enqueue(10);  
    queue.enqueue(20);  
    System.out.println("Front element is: " + queue.peek());  
    queue.dequeue();  
    System.out.println("Front element after dequeue is: " + queue.peek());  
}
```

The code provided demonstrates a simple implementation of a linked list-based FIFO queue. This approach has the advantage of dynamic sizing, meaning it can grow as needed without wasting space.

Comparing Sorting Algorithms

Introduction to Sorting Algorithms: Sorting algorithms are used to rearrange elements in a list or array in a specific order (ascending or descending).

Common Sorting Algorithms

Bubble Sort

- Simple comparison-based algorithm.
- Repeatedly steps through the list, compares adjacent elements, and swaps them if they are in the wrong order.
- Time Complexity: $O(n^2)$ (worst case).

Selection Sort

- Divides the input list into two parts: a sorted and an unsorted region.
- Repeatedly selects the smallest (or largest) element from the unsorted region and moves it to the sorted region.
- Time Complexity: $O(n^2)$ (worst case).

Insertion Sort

- Builds the final sorted array one item at a time.
- Efficient for small data sets and mostly sorted lists.
- Time Complexity: $O(n^2)$ (worst case).

Sorting algo	Best	Average	Worst
Bubble	$O(n)$	$O(n^2)$	$O(n^2)$
Selection	$O(n^2)$	$O(n^2)$	$O(n^2)$
Insertion	$O(n)$	$O(n^2)$	$O(n^2)$
Merge	$O(n \log n)$	$O(n \log n)$	$O(n \log n)$
Quick	$O(n \log n)$	$O(n \log n)$	$O(n^2)$
Heap	$O(n \log n)$	$O(n \log n)$	$O(n \log n)$
Counting	$O(n + k)$	$O(n + k)$	$O(n + k)$
Radix	$O(nk)$	$O(nk)$	$O(nk)$

Stability of Sorting Algorithms

What is Stability in Sorting Algorithms?

- A sorting algorithm is considered stable if it preserves the relative order of records with equal keys (values).
- Stability is important when the original order of equal elements carries significance.

Stable vs. Unstable Sorting Algorithms:

Stable Algorithms:

- Maintain the relative order of equal elements.

Examples:

- Merge Sort: Maintains order by merging equal elements in the order they appear.
- Insertion Sort: Inserts elements while preserving their original order.
- Bubble Sort: Swaps adjacent elements without disrupting equal elements' order.

Unstable Algorithms:

- May change the order of equal elements.

Examples:

- Quick Sort: Depending on pivot selection, equal elements' order may change.
- Selection Sort: Can disrupt the order of equal elements during selection.

Importance of Stability

In applications where the data contains multiple fields and sorting is done based on one of the fields, stability ensures that the order of the other fields remains unchanged.

Examples include

Sorting a list of employees by department and then by name.

Sorting multi-key records in databases.

Comparison Table of Sorting Algorithms

The comparison table summarizes the characteristics of various sorting algorithms based on different criteria.

Algorithm	Average Case	Worst Case	Memory	Stable	Method
Bubble Sort	n^2	n^2	1	yes	Exchanging
Insertion sort	n^2	n^2	1	yes	Insertion
Shell sort	-	$n \log^2 n$	1	No	Insertion
Merge sort	$n \log n$	$n \log n$	n	yes	merging
Heapsort	$n \log n$	$n \log n$	1	No	selection
Quicksort	$n \log n$	n^2	$\log n$	Depends	Partitioning

Understanding these attributes helps in selecting the appropriate sorting algorithm based on specific needs and scenarios.

Performance Comparison of Sorting Algorithms

Purpose of Performance Comparison:

To evaluate the efficiency of different sorting algorithms under various conditions and input sizes.

Key Metrics for Comparison:

Execution Time: Time taken to sort datasets of varying sizes.

Memory Usage: Amount of memory consumed during sorting.

Scalability: How well the algorithm performs as the input size increases.

	100	1,000	10,000	100,000	1,000,000
Bubble Sort	0.040 ms	0.017 ms	0.057 ms	0.022 ms	0.012 ms
Insertion Sort	0.003 ms	0.004 ms	0.005 ms	0.004 ms	0.024 ms
Merge Sort	0.012 ms	0.23 ms	2.16 ms	20.35 ms	230.38 ms
Heap Sort	0.020 ms	0.33 ms	3.82 ms	42.83 ms	473.36 ms
Quick Sort	0.12 ms	3.73 ms	295.01 ms	29937.61 ms	-

Understanding performance metrics is crucial for selecting the right sorting algorithm based on the specific requirements of the application.

Concrete Example of Sorting Algorithms

Bubble Sort:

Unsorted Array: [34, 7, 23, 32, 5, 62]

Result: [5, 7, 23, 32, 34, 62]

```
public static void bubbleSort(int[] arr) {  
    int n = arr.length;  
    for (int i = 0; i < n - 1; i++) {  
        for (int j = 0; j < n - i - 1; j++) {  
            if (arr[j] > arr[j + 1]) {  
                // Swap arr[j] and arr[j+1]  
                int temp = arr[j];  
                arr[j] = arr[j + 1];  
                arr[j + 1] = temp;  
            }  
        }  
    }  
}
```

Concrete Example of Sorting Algorithms

Selection Sort

Unsorted Array: [34, 7, 23, 32, 5, 62]

Result: [5, 7, 23, 32, 34, 62]

```
public static void selectionSort(int[] arr) {  
    int n = arr.length;  
    for (int i = 0; i < n - 1; i++) {  
        int minIdx = i;  
        for (int j = i + 1; j < n; j++) {  
            if (arr[j] < arr[minIdx]) {  
                minIdx = j;  
            }  
        }  
        // Swap arr[minIdx] and arr[i]  
        int temp = arr[minIdx];  
        arr[minIdx] = arr[i];  
        arr[i] = temp;  
    }  
}
```

Concrete Example of Sorting Algorithms

Insertion Sort

Unsorted Array: [34, 7, 23, 32, 5, 62]

Result: [5, 7, 23, 32, 34, 62]

```
public static void insertionSort(int[] arr) {  
    int n = arr.length;  
    for (int i = 1; i < n; i++) {  
        int key = arr[i];  
        int j = i - 1;  
        while (j >= 0 && arr[j] > key) {  
            arr[j + 1] = arr[j];  
            j--;  
        }  
        arr[j + 1] = key;  
    }  
}
```

Introduction to Shortest Path Algorithms

Shortest Path Algorithms are crucial for finding the most efficient route between nodes in various applications, including navigation, network routing, and urban planning.

Real-World Applications:

- GPS Navigation Systems
- Network Routing Protocols (e.g., OSPF, BGP)
- Robotics and Pathfinding
- Game Development (AI pathfinding)

Graph Representation:

- Nodes (Vertices): Points in the graph (e.g., cities, routers)
- Edges: Connections between nodes (e.g., roads, links)
- Weights: Cost associated with traversing an edge (e.g., distance, time)

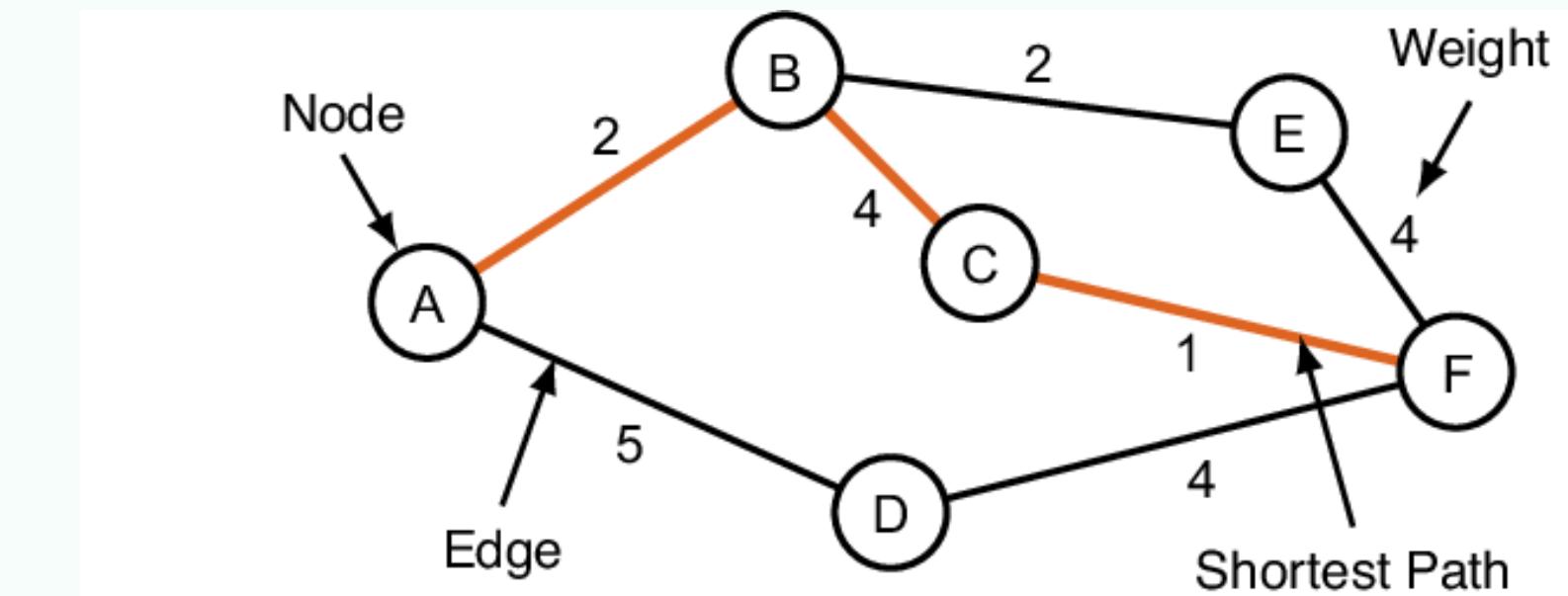
Common Shortest Path Algorithms:

Dijkstra's Algorithm:

- Suitable for graphs with non-negative weights.
- Utilizes a priority queue to explore the shortest path efficiently.

Bellman-Ford Algorithm:

- Capable of handling graphs with negative weights.
- More computationally intensive than Dijkstra's but can detect negative cycles.

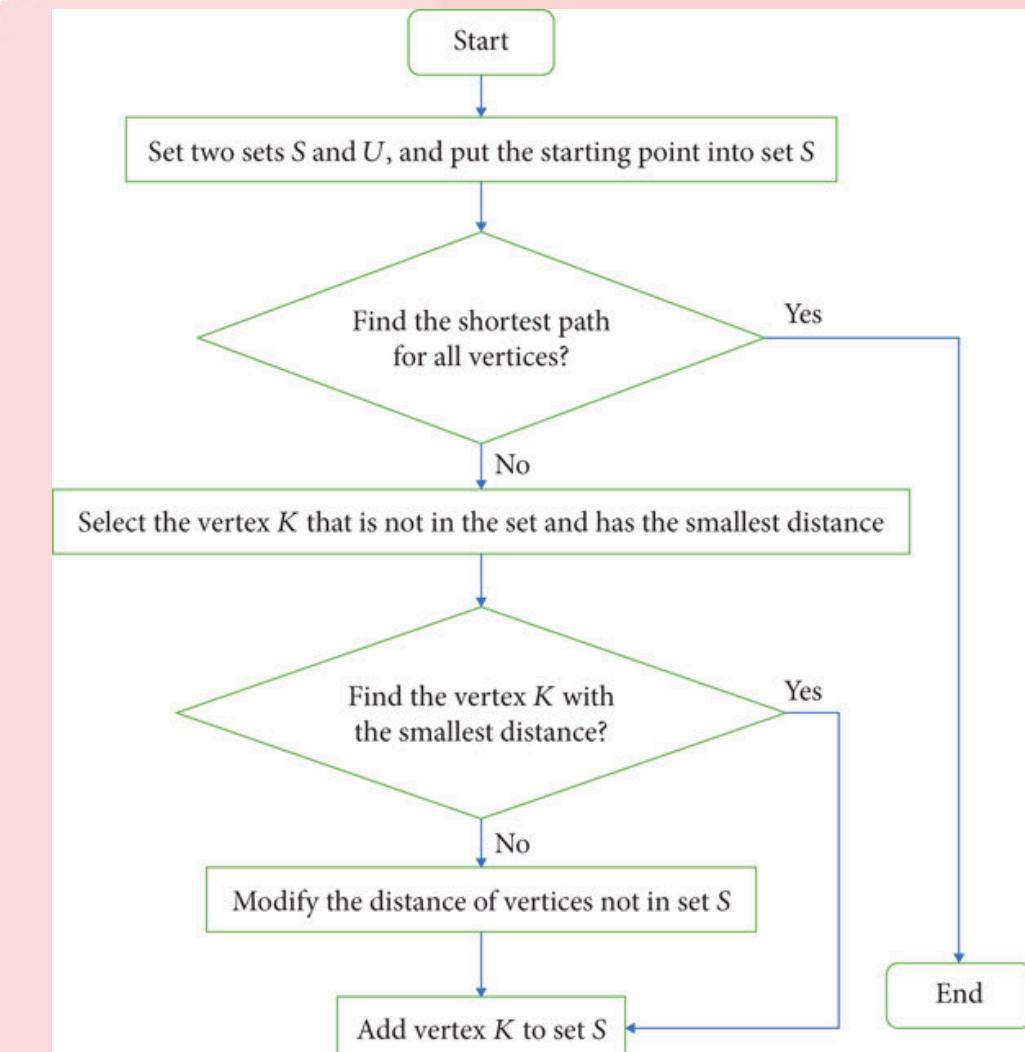


Dijkstra's Algorithm

Dijkstra's Algorithm is a popular shortest path algorithm used for finding the shortest path from a source node to all other nodes in a weighted graph with non-negative weights.

Key Features:

- Greedy Approach: Always selects the node with the smallest known distance.
- Non-Negative Weights: Assumes that all edges have non-negative weights.
- Optimal Solution: Guarantees the shortest path to each vertex from the source.



Dijkstra's Algorithm

How It Works:

1. Initialization:

- Set the distance to the source node as 0 and all other nodes to infinity.
- Create a priority queue to hold nodes based on their current shortest distance.

2. Processing Nodes:

While the priority queue is not empty:

- Extract the node with the smallest distance.
- For each neighbor of the extracted node:
 - Calculate the distance through the current node.
 - If this distance is less than the known distance, update it and add the neighbor to the priority queue.

3. Completion:

- Once all nodes have been processed, the shortest distances from the source to each node are finalized.

Time Complexity:

$O((V + E) \log V)$ using a priority queue, where V is the number of vertices and E is the number of edges.

Example:

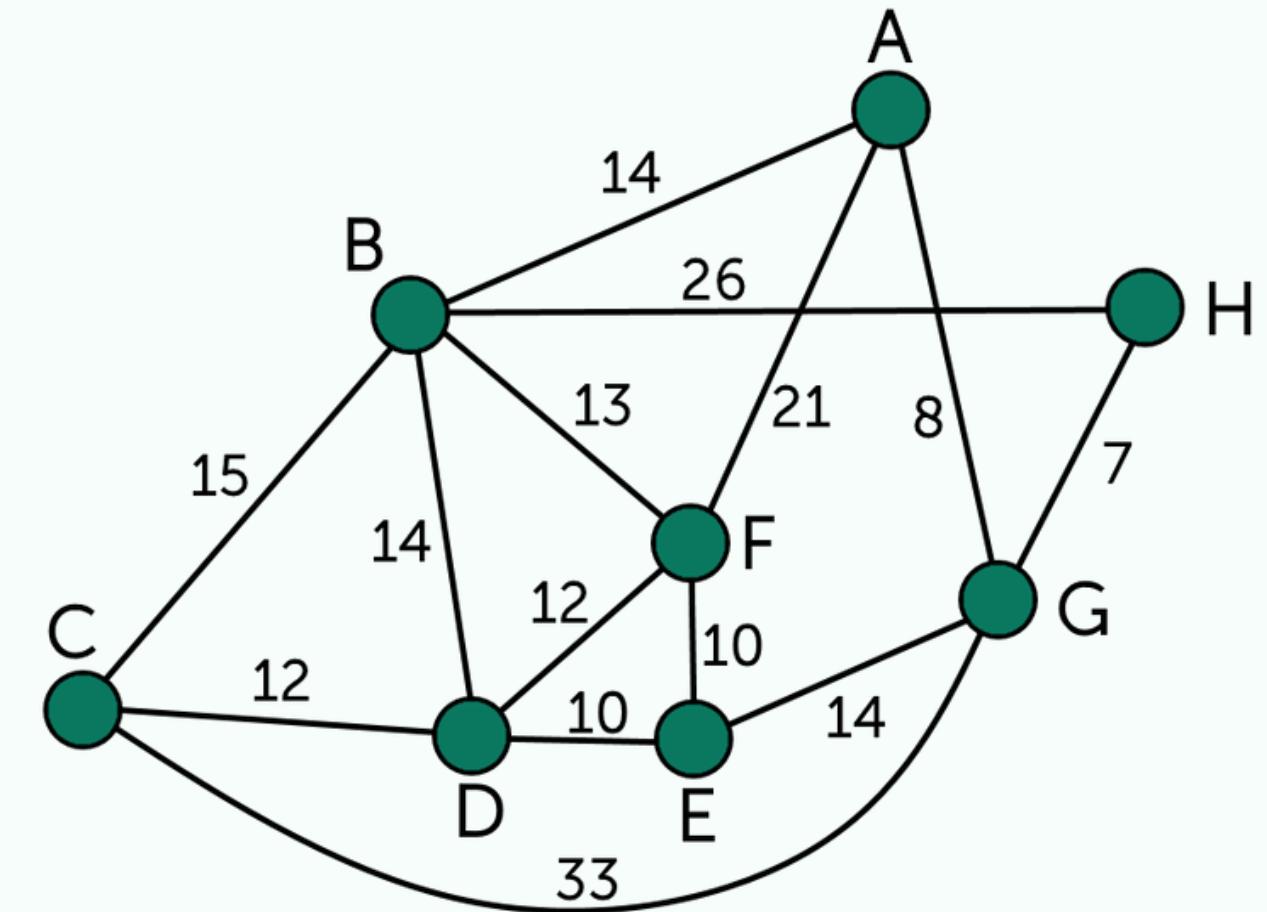
A simple graph with weights demonstrating how Dijkstra's Algorithm finds the shortest path.

Prim-Jarnik Algorithm

The Prim-Jarnik Algorithm is a greedy algorithm used for finding the Minimum Spanning Tree (MST) of a weighted, undirected graph.

Key Features:

- Greedy Approach: Builds the MST by adding the smallest edge that connects a vertex in the MST to a vertex outside the MST.
- No Cycles: Ensures that the resulting tree does not contain cycles.
- Connected Graphs: Works on connected graphs with non-negative edge weights.



Prim-Jarnik Algorithm

How It Works:

1. Initialization:

- Start with a selected vertex (arbitrary) and mark it as part of the MST.
- Initialize a priority queue to hold edges based on their weights.

2. Building the MST:

While there are vertices not in the MST:

- Extract the minimum weight edge from the priority queue.
- If the edge connects a vertex in the MST to a vertex outside, add it to the MST and mark the new vertex as part of the MST.
- Add all edges from the new vertex to the priority queue.

3. Completion:

- The algorithm continues until all vertices are included in the MST.

Time Complexity:

$O(E \log V)$ using a priority queue, where V is the number of vertices and E is the number of edges.

Example:

A simple graph with weights demonstrating how Prim-Jarnik Algorithm constructs the MST.

Performance Analysis of Shortest Path Algorithms

Performance analysis of shortest path algorithms involves evaluating their efficiency, speed, and suitability for various applications.

Graph Characteristics:

- Density: Number of edges relative to vertices.
- Edge Weights: Non-negative vs. negative weights.
- Graph Structure: Directed vs. undirected graphs.

Algorithm Complexity:

- Time Complexity: How the runtime of the algorithm increases with the size of the input.
- Space Complexity: Amount of memory required by the algorithm.

Dijkstra's Algorithm:

- Best suited for graphs with non-negative weights.
- Time Complexity: $O((V + E) \log V)$ using a priority queue.
- Space Complexity: $O(V)$.

Conclusion

Shortest Path Algorithms are essential tools in computer science and various applications, such as network routing, GPS navigation, and urban planning.

Dijkstra's Algorithm and Prim-Jarnik Algorithm are two fundamental algorithms that provide efficient solutions for graph-related problems.

The choice of algorithm depends on the specific requirements of the problem, including graph characteristics and desired outcomes.

Understanding the performance and limitations of these algorithms allows for better decision-making in practical applications.

Dijkstra's Algorithm: Best for finding the shortest path in graphs with non-negative weights; optimal for real-time applications.

Prim-Jarnik Algorithm: Effective for constructing Minimum Spanning Trees in connected, weighted graphs; useful in networking and infrastructure optimization.



The background features a central cluster of overlapping ovals in various colors: purple, blue, pink, and yellow. These are surrounded by a grid of diagonal stripes in light green, yellow, orange, and red. The overall pattern is organic and dynamic, creating a sense of depth and movement.

THANK YOU