

# DATA STRUCTURES

## Module I

### Introduction to Data Structures and Arrays

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# Module I:

## Introduction to Data Structures and Arrays

Data structures are fundamental to computer science and programming. They are specialized ways of organizing, managing, and storing data in a computer so that it can be accessed and modified efficiently. The choice of the right data structure can significantly impact the performance and efficiency of an algorithm or program. Think of it like organizing your books: you could pile them randomly (disorganized data), or you could arrange them alphabetically by author (a data structure) so you can quickly find a specific book.

### 1. Introduction to Data Structures, Types, and Applications

#### i. What are Data Structures?

At its core, a **data structure** is a particular way of arranging data in a computer's memory or storage. This organization isn't arbitrary; it's designed to facilitate specific operations, such as searching, sorting, insertion, deletion, and traversal, in an efficient manner. The goal is to minimize the time complexity (how long an operation takes) and space complexity (how much memory an operation uses) of algorithms.

Consider a simple example: storing a list of phone numbers.

- If you store them randomly, finding a specific person's number would require scanning through the entire list.
- If you store them in a sorted array (a type of data structure), you could use a binary search to find a number much faster.

The interplay between data structures and algorithms is crucial. Data structures are the "bricks" and "steel" that hold your data, while algorithms are the "blueprints" and "construction workers" that manipulate that data. A well-designed data structure can make complex algorithms simple and efficient, while a poor choice can lead to sluggish and unwieldy software.

#### ii. Why are Data Structures Important?

1. **Efficiency:** They enable efficient storage and retrieval of data. For large datasets, the difference between an efficient and inefficient data structure can be the difference between seconds and hours (or even days) of computation time.
2. **Problem Solving:** Understanding various data structures provides a toolkit for solving complex computational problems. Each data structure is optimized for certain types of operations.

3. **Scalability:** As data grows, well-chosen data structures ensure that your applications remain performant.
4. **Foundation of Algorithms:** Many algorithms are designed to work with specific data structures. Learning data structures helps in understanding how these algorithms function.
5. **Optimized Resource Usage:** Beyond time, data structures also help manage memory usage, which is critical in resource-constrained environments.

### iii. Abstract Data Types (ADTs)

Before diving into specific data structures, it's important to understand **Abstract Data Types (ADTs)**. An ADT is a logical description of *what* a data structure does, without specifying *how* it's implemented. It defines a set of operations and the behavior of those operations, leaving the implementation details to concrete data structures.

Think of an ADT as an interface in programming: it defines a contract. For example, a "List" can be an ADT. Its operations might include:

- add(element)
- remove(element)
- get(index)
- size()
- isEmpty()

How these operations are actually performed (e.g., using an array or a linked list) is an implementation detail that falls under specific data structures.

Common ADTs include:

- **List:** A sequence of elements.
- **Stack:** A LIFO (Last-In, First-Out) collection.
- **Queue:** A FIFO (First-In, First-Out) collection.
- **Map/Dictionary/Associative Array:** Stores key-value pairs.
- **Set:** A collection of unique elements.
- **Graph:** A collection of nodes (vertices) and edges.
- **Tree:** A hierarchical collection of nodes.

### iv. Types of Data Structures

Data structures can broadly be classified into two categories:

1. **Linear Data Structures:** Elements are arranged sequentially, and each element has a predecessor and a successor (except for the first and last elements).
  - **Arrays:** A collection of elements of the same data type stored at contiguous memory locations.

- **Linked Lists:** A sequence of elements, where each element (node) contains data and a reference (link) to the next element.
  - **Stacks:** A LIFO structure supporting push (add) and pop (remove) operations from one end (top).
  - **Queues:** A FIFO structure supporting enqueue (add) at the rear and dequeue (remove) from the front.
2. **Non-linear Data Structures:** Elements are not arranged sequentially. Instead, they form a hierarchy or a network.
- **Trees:** Hierarchical structures where elements are organized in parent-child relationships. Examples: Binary Trees, Binary Search Trees, AVL Trees, Red-Black Trees.
  - **Graphs:** Collections of nodes (vertices) and edges (connections between nodes). Used to model networks, social connections, etc.
  - **Hash Tables (or Hash Maps):** Implement an associative array ADT. They store data in key-value pairs and use a hash function to compute an index into an array of buckets or slots, where the values are stored.
  - **Heaps:** A specialized tree-based data structure that satisfies the heap property (e.g., in a max-heap, the parent node is always greater than or equal to its children).

## v. Applications of Data Structures

Data structures are ubiquitous in computing. Here are just a few examples of their real-world applications:

- **Operating Systems:** Process scheduling (queues), memory management (linked lists, trees).
- **Databases:** Indexing (B-trees, hash tables), query optimization.
- **Compilers:** Symbol tables (hash tables), syntax trees.
- **Artificial Intelligence/Machine Learning:** Decision trees, graph algorithms for pathfinding, neural network architectures.
- **Computer Graphics:** Quadrees/Octrees for spatial indexing, mesh representations (graphs).
- **Networking:** Routing tables (hash tables, tries), network topology (graphs).
- **Web Browsers:** History tracking (stacks), caching (hash tables), rendering (DOM trees).
- **Social Networks:** Representing user connections (graphs), feed algorithms.
- **Search Engines:** Indexing web pages (hash tables, inverted indices), ranking algorithms.
- **GPS Navigation:** Finding shortest paths (graphs, e.g., Dijkstra's algorithm).
- **Gaming:** Pathfinding (graphs), game state management.

Understanding these fundamental concepts is the first step towards becoming a proficient programmer and problem-solver. The choice of data structure isn't arbitrary; it's a critical design decision that shapes your software's performance and scalability.

## 2. Arrays,

Arrays are one of the most fundamental and widely used data structures. They provide a simple yet powerful way to store collections of data.

### i. What is an Array?

An **array** is a collection of items of the *same data type* stored at *contiguous memory locations*. This contiguity is key to their efficiency. Because elements are stored next to each other in memory, you can access any element directly by its index. This direct access is known as **random access**.

- **Homogeneous Elements:** All elements in an array must be of the same type (e.g., all integers, all strings, all floating-point numbers). This allows the system to calculate memory offsets predictably.
- **Indexed Access:** Each element in an array is assigned a unique integer index, starting from 0. The first element is at index 0, the second at index 1, and so on.
- **Fixed or Dynamic Size:** Arrays can be either static (fixed size at creation) or dynamic (resizable).

### ii. Static Arrays (Fixed-Size Arrays)

A **static array** is an array whose size (number of elements) is fixed at the time of its creation (declaration) and cannot be changed during the program's execution.

- **Characteristics:**
  - **Compile-Time or Runtime Size (Fixed):** The size of a static array is determined either at compile time (e.g., `int arr[10]`; in C++) or when the array is initialized, and this size remains constant throughout its lifetime.
  - **Contiguous Memory Allocation:** Memory for static arrays is allocated contiguously on the **stack** (for local variables) or in the **data segment** (for global/static variables) at compile time or program startup.
  - **Direct Access (O(1)):** Accessing an element by its index is extremely fast, taking constant time (O(1)), because the memory address of any element can be directly calculated:  $\text{address\_of\_element} = \text{base\_address} + (\text{index} * \text{size\_of\_element})$ .
- **Advantages:**
  - **Fast Access:** O(1) access time makes them highly efficient for retrieval.
  - **Memory Efficiency:** No overhead for managing size changes or pointers.
  - **Simplicity:** Easy to understand and implement.
- **Disadvantages:**
  - **Fixed Size:** The biggest limitation. If you need to store more elements than the declared size, you'll get an overflow error or need to create a new, larger array and

copy all elements over, which is inefficient. If you allocate too much space, it leads to wasted memory.

- **Insertion/Deletion is Costly:** Inserting an element in the middle requires shifting all subsequent elements. Deleting an element also requires shifting. Both are  $O(N)$  operations in the worst case, where  $N$  is the number of elements.
- **Declaration Examples:**
  - C/C++: `int numbers[5];`
  - Java: `int[] numbers = new int[5];`
  - Python (using array module for static-like behavior): `import array; arr = array.array('i', [0]*5)` (though Python lists are dynamic by default).

### iii. Dynamic Arrays (Resizable Arrays or ArrayLists)

A **dynamic array** is a data structure that can grow or shrink in size as elements are added or removed, overcoming the fixed-size limitation of static arrays. Despite being called "dynamic," they still store elements contiguously in memory. They achieve their resizable nature by reallocating memory when needed.

- **How they work:**
  - When you create a dynamic array, it typically allocates an initial capacity (e.g., 10 elements).
  - As you add elements, if the array reaches its capacity, it performs the following steps:
    1. Allocates a new, larger block of contiguous memory (often double the current capacity).
    2. Copies all existing elements from the old memory location to the new, larger location.
    3. Deallocates the old memory block.
  - Similarly, when elements are removed and the array becomes significantly empty, it might shrink its capacity to save space.
- **Characteristics:**
  - **Resizable:** Can grow or shrink at runtime.
  - **Contiguous Memory (Conceptual):** Despite reallocation, elements are always stored contiguously in the current underlying memory block.
  - **Amortized  $O(1)$  Access:** Accessing elements by index is still  $O(1)$ .
  - **Amortized  $O(1)$  Insertion/Deletion at End:** Adding or removing an element at the end is usually  $O(1)$  on average (amortized cost), because reallocations happen infrequently.
  - **$O(N)$  Insertion/Deletion in Middle:** Inserting or deleting elements in the middle still requires shifting, making it  $O(N)$ .

- **Advantages:**
  - **Flexibility:** No need to pre-determine the exact size. Efficiently handles varying data sizes.
  - **Maintains  $O(1)$  Access:** Keeps the fast random access benefit of static arrays.
- **Disadvantages:**
  - **Reallocation Overhead:** Copying elements during reallocation can be an  $O(N)$  operation in the worst case (when a resize happens). This is why the average (amortized) cost is used.
  - **Memory Overhead:** Often allocates more memory than immediately needed to reduce the frequency of reallocations, leading to some wasted space.
- **Common Implementations:**
  - Java: ArrayList
  - C++: std::vector
  - Python: list (Python lists are highly optimized dynamic arrays)

#### iv. 1D Array Operations

A 1D array (one-dimensional array) is the simplest form, representing a linear list of elements.

- **Declaration/Initialization:**
  - C++: `int numbers[5];` or `int numbers[] = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5};`
  - Java: `int[] numbers = new int[5];` or `int[] numbers = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5};`
  - Python: `numbers = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]`
- **Basic Operations:**
  - **Accessing Elements (Traversal):**
    - Retrieving the value at a specific index.
    - Time Complexity:  $O(1)$  (constant time)
    - Example (getting the third element, index 2):

```
value = array[2];
```

- Looping through all elements:

```
for (int i = 0; i < array.length; i++) {
    print(array[i]);
}
```

- **Updating Elements:**
  - Modifying the value at a specific index.
  - Time Complexity:  $O(1)$  (constant time)
  - Example (changing element at index 1 to 10):



array[1] = 10;

- **Insertion (at a specific index):**

- Adding a new element at a given position. This involves shifting existing elements to make space.
- Time Complexity:  $O(N)$  in the worst case (inserting at index 0 requires shifting all  $N$  elements).
- Steps:
  1. Shift elements from the insertion point to the end, one position to the right.
  2. Place the new element at the insertion point.
- Example (insert 7 at index 2 in [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]):
  1. Original: [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
  2. Shift 5, 4, 3: [1, 2, \_, 3, 4, 5]
  3. Insert 7: [1, 2, 7, 3, 4, 5]

- **Deletion (at a specific index):**

- Removing an element at a given position. This involves shifting subsequent elements to fill the gap.
- Time Complexity:  $O(N)$  in the worst case (deleting at index 0 requires shifting all  $N-1$  elements).
- Steps:
  1. Shift elements from the deletion point + 1 to the end, one position to the left.
  2. (Optional) Reduce the effective size of the array.
- Example (delete element at index 2 from [1, 2, 7, 3, 4, 5]):
  1. Original: [1, 2, 7, 3, 4, 5]
  2. Shift 3, 4, 5: [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \_]
  3. Result: [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]

- **Searching:**

- **Linear Search:** Iterate through each element from start to end until the target element is found.
  1. Time Complexity:  $O(N)$  in worst case (element not found or at the end).
- **Binary Search (requires sorted array):** Repeatedly divides the search interval in half.
  1. Time Complexity:  $O(\log N)$  (logarithmic time). Highly efficient for large, sorted arrays.

## v. 2D Array Operations (Matrices)

A 2D array (two-dimensional array) is essentially an array of arrays, often used to represent tables or matrices. Each element is accessed using two indices: one for the row and one for the column.

- **Declaration/Initialization:**

- C++: `int matrix[3][4];` or `int matrix[2][3] = {{1,2,3}, {4,5,6}};`
- Java: `int[][] matrix = new int[3][4];` or `int[][] matrix = {{1,2,3}, {4,5,6}};`
- Python: `matrix = [[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6]]` (list of lists)

- **Conceptual Representation:**

(0,0) (0,1) (0,2) (0,3)

(1,0) (1,1) (1,2) (1,3)

(2,0) (2,1) (2,2) (2,3)

Where (row\_index, col\_index) refers to an element.

- **Basic Operations:**

- **Accessing Elements:**

- Retrieving the value at a specific row and column.
    - Time Complexity:  $O(1)$
    - Example (getting element at row 1, col 2):

```
value = matrix[1][2];
```

- Looping through all elements (nested loops):

```
for (int i = 0; i < numRows; i++) {  
    for (int j = 0; j < numCols; j++) {  
        print(matrix[i][j]);  
    }  
}
```

- **Updating Elements:**

- Modifying the value at a specific row and column.
    - Time Complexity:  $O(1)$
    - Example:

```
matrix[0][0] = 99;
```

- **Insertion/Deletion (Row/Column):**

- Inserting or deleting an entire row or column is an  $O(M \times N)$  operation (where  $M$  is rows,  $N$  is columns) as it typically involves creating a new array and copying elements, or shifting large blocks of data.
    - Inserting/deleting individual elements within a 2D array often still involves shifting operations similar to 1D arrays, but the complexity depends on how elements are defined. If it's a fixed-size 2D array, it's typically just updating an element. If it's a dynamic structure (like a list of lists in Python where rows can

be dynamic), then row/column operations are more feasible but still costly for large arrays.

- **Matrix Operations (Specific to 2D Arrays):**

- **Matrix Addition/Subtraction:** Element-wise operation, requires matrices of the same dimensions.  $O(M \times N)$ .
- **Matrix Multiplication:** More complex,  $(M \times K)$  matrix multiplied by  $(K \times N)$  matrix results in  $(M \times N)$  matrix. Time complexity is typically  $O(M \times K \times N)$ .
- **Transpose:** Swapping rows and columns.  $O(M \times N)$ .

## vi. Memory Layout of 2D Arrays

In memory, even 2D arrays are stored linearly. There are two common ways:

- **Row-Major Order:** All elements of the first row are stored sequentially, followed by all elements of the second row, and so on. This is the most common order (used by C++, Java, Python).
  - Address of `matrix[i][j]` = `base_address + (i * num_cols + j) * size_of_element`
- **Column-Major Order:** All elements of the first column are stored sequentially, followed by all elements of the second column, etc. (used by Fortran, MATLAB).
  - Address of `matrix[i][j]` = `base_address + (j * num_rows + i) * size_of_element`

Understanding this memory layout helps optimize operations that involve iterating over rows or columns, as accessing elements sequentially in memory is generally faster due to CPU caching.

Arrays, both static and dynamic, form the bedrock for many other data structures and algorithms due to their simple, direct access to elements. While their  $O(N)$  insertion/deletion cost in the middle makes them less ideal for frequent modifications, their  $O(1)$  random access is invaluable for lookup-intensive tasks and as underlying implementations for more complex data structures.



