

Searching in Java

Searching means **finding a required element** from a collection of data (array, list, tree, etc.).

There are mainly **two categories** of searching in Java:

1. Linear Search (Sequential Search)

Concept

It checks elements **one-by-one** from start to end until the key is found.

When to use?

- Array is **unsorted**
- Data is **small**
- Simple implementation is needed

Time Complexity

- Best: **O(1)**
- Worst: **O(n)**

Java Code

```
public class LinearSearch {  
    public static int linearSearch(int[] arr, int key) {  
        for (int i = 0; i < arr.length; i++) {  
            if (arr[i] == key)  
                return i;  
        }  
        return -1; // not found  
    }  
  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        int[] nums = {10, 20, 30, 40, 50};  
        int res = linearSearch(nums, 30);  
        System.out.println("Element found at index: " + res);  
    }  
}
```

Binary Search

Concept

Binary Search works on **sorted arrays only**.
It repeatedly divides the array into **two halves**.

Steps

1. Find mid

2. If $\text{key} == \text{mid}$ → return index
3. If $\text{key} < \text{mid}$ → search in left half
4. Else → search in right half

Time Complexity

- Best: **O(1)**
- Worst: **O(log n)**

Java Code (Iterative Binary Search)

```
public class BinarySearch {
    public static int binarySearch(int[] arr, int key) {
        int low = 0, high = arr.length - 1;

        while (low <= high) {
            int mid = (low + high) / 2;

            if (arr[mid] == key)
                return mid;
            else if (key < arr[mid])
                high = mid - 1;
            else
                low = mid + 1;
        }
        return -1;
    }

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        int[] nums = {10, 20, 30, 40, 50};
        int pos = binarySearch(nums, 40);
        System.out.println("Found at index: " + pos);
    }
}
```

Sorting in Java

Sorting means arranging data in a **specific order**, usually **ascending or descending**.

Example:

Unsorted → {5, 2, 9, 1, 6}

Sorted → {1, 2, 5, 6, 9}

Sorting improves searching, data processing, and optimizes algorithms.

Types of Sorting Algorithms

Sorting algorithms are mainly divided into **two categories**:

Simple Sorting Algorithms (Basic, Easy)

A) Bubble Sort

- Repeatedly compare **adjacent elements**
- Swap if wrong order
- Largest element “bubbles up” to end

Time Complexity:

Best – O(n)

Worst – O(n^2)

Java Code

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

B) Selection Sort

- Select **minimum element** from unsorted part
- Put it at correct position

Time Complexity: Worst – O(n^2)

Code

```
public class SelectionSort {
    public static void selectionSort(int[] arr) {
        for (int i = 0; i < arr.length - 1; i++) {
            int min = i;
            for (int j = i + 1; j < arr.length; j++) {
                if (arr[j] < arr[min])
                    min = j;
            }
            int temp = arr[min];
            arr[min] = arr[i];
            arr[i] = temp;
        }
    }
}
```

C) Insertion Sort

- Insert each element into its **correct place** in sorted part

Time Complexity:

Best: O(n)

Worst: O(n^2)

Code

```
public class InsertionSort {
    public static void insertionSort(int[] arr) {
        for (int i = 1; i < arr.length; 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;
        }
    }
}
```

Efficient Sorting Algorithms (Fast, Used in real world)

A) Merge Sort (Divide & Conquer)

- Divide array into two halves
- Sort each half
- Merge them

Time Complexity: O($n \log n$)

Stable sorting

Code

```
public class MergeSort {

    public static void mergeSort(int[] arr, int left, int right) {
        if (left < right) {
            int mid = (left + right) / 2;
            mergeSort(arr, left, mid);
            mergeSort(arr, mid + 1, right);
            merge(arr, left, mid, right);
        }
    }

    static void merge(int[] arr, int left, int mid, int right) {
        int n1 = mid - left + 1;
        int n2 = right - mid;

        int[] L = new int[n1];
        int[] R = new int[n2];

        for (int i = 0; i < n1; i++)
            L[i] = arr[left + i];
        for (int i = 0; i < n2; i++)
            R[i] = arr[mid + 1 + i];
    }
}
```

```

int i = 0, j = 0, k = left;

while (i < n1 && j < n2) {
    if (L[i] <= R[j])
        arr[k++] = L[i++];
    else
        arr[k++] = R[j++];
}

while (i < n1)
    arr[k++] = L[i++];
while (j < n2)
    arr[k++] = R[j++];
}
}

```

B) Quick Sort

- Pick a pivot
- Place pivot in correct position
- Elements smaller → left
- Elements larger → right

Time Complexity:

Best/Average → $O(n \log n)$

Worst → $O(n^2)$

Code

```

public class QuickSort {

    public static void quickSort(int[] arr, int low, int high) {
        if (low < high) {
            int p = partition(arr, low, high);
            quickSort(arr, low, p - 1);
            quickSort(arr, p + 1, high);
        }
    }

    static int partition(int[] arr, int low, int high) {
        int pivot = arr[high];
        int i = low - 1;

        for (int j = low; j < high; j++) {
            if (arr[j] < pivot) {
                i++;
                int temp = arr[i]; arr[i] = arr[j]; arr[j] = temp;
            }
        }
        int temp = arr[i + 1];
        arr[i + 1] = arr[high];
        arr[high] = temp;

        return i + 1;
    }
}

```

C) Heap Sort

- Build Max Heap
- Swap root with last element
- Heapify remaining array

Time Complexity: $O(n \log n)$

Code (short)

```
public class HeapSort {  
  
    public void sort(int[] arr) {  
        int n = arr.length;  
  
        for (int i = n/2 - 1; i >= 0; i--)  
            heapify(arr, n, i);  
  
        for (int i = n - 1; i > 0; i--) {  
            int temp = arr[0]; arr[0] = arr[i]; arr[i] = temp;  
            heapify(arr, i, 0);  
        }  
    }  
  
    void heapify(int[] arr, int n, int i) {  
        int largest = i;  
        int l = 2*i + 1;  
        int r = 2*i + 2;  
  
        if (l < n && arr[l] > arr[largest])  
            largest = l;  
  
        if (r < n && arr[r] > arr[largest])  
            largest = r;  
  
        if (largest != i) {  
            int temp = arr[i]; arr[i] = arr[largest]; arr[largest] = temp;  
            heapify(arr, n, largest);  
        }  
    }  
}
```

Sorting Comparison Table

Sorting	Best	Worst	Stable	Use Case
Bubble	$O(n)$	$O(n^2)$	✓	Very small data
Selection	$O(n^2)$	$O(n^2)$	✗	When swaps should be minimized
Insertion	$O(n)$	$O(n^2)$	✓	Nearly sorted data
Merge	$O(n \log n)$	$O(n \log n)$	✓	Large data, stable need
Quick	$O(n \log n)$	$O(n^2)$	✗	Most used, fast
Heap	$O(n \log n)$	$O(n \log n)$	✗	Priority queues

Built-in Sorting in Java

Java has powerful built-in methods:

Arrays.sort() (Dual-Pivot QuickSort)

```
Arrays.sort(arr);
```

Collections.sort() (Merge Sort)

```
Collections.sort(list);
```

Introduction to Graph

A **Graph** is a non-linear data structure that consists of:

- **Vertices (nodes)**
- **Edges (connections between nodes)**

A Graph is written as:

$$G = (V, E)$$

Where **V** = vertices, **E** = edges

Real-life examples:

- Social networks (Facebook friend suggestions)
- Road networks (Google Maps)
- Web page links
- Electricity / water network

Basic Terms of Graph

Term	Meaning
Vertex (Node)	A point in graph
Edge	Link between two vertices
Adjacent Nodes	Nodes directly connected by an edge
Degree	Number of edges attached to a node
Path	Sequence of edges connecting two nodes
Cycle	Path that starts and ends at same node
Connected Graph	Every vertex is reachable
Component	Sub-graph that is connected

Types of Graph

1. Directed Graph (Digraph)

Edges have a direction → A → B

2. Undirected Graph

Edges have no direction → A — B

3. Weighted Graph

Each edge has a cost/weight

4. Unweighted Graph

Edges have no weight

5. Cyclic Graph

Graph contains at least one cycle

6. Acyclic Graph

No cycle exists

Example: **Tree**

7. Connected Graph

All nodes can be reached

8. Disconnected Graph

Some nodes are not reachable

9. Complete Graph

Every vertex is connected to every other vertex

Graph Representation in Java

1. Adjacency Matrix

2D array of size **V × V**

matrix[u][v] = 1 if edge exists

2. Adjacency List (MOST USED in coding)

Each vertex stores a list of connected nodes

Implemented using:

- ArrayList
- LinkedList

BFS (Breadth First Search)

BFS meaning:

- Traversal **level-wise**
- Uses **Queue**
- Good for **shortest path in unweighted graph**

BFS Steps:

1. Start from source node
2. Visit all neighbors
3. Use queue to store next nodes
4. Mark visited nodes

DFS (Depth First Search)

DFS meaning:

- Traversal goes **deep first**
- Uses **Stack or Recursion**
- Good for detecting **cycles, connected components**

DFS Steps:

1. Start from source
2. Visit a neighbor
3. Continue deeper
4. Backtrack when no more neighbors

Java Code – Graph (Adjacency List)

Graph Implementation in Java

```
import java.util.*;

class Graph {
    private int V; // number of vertices
    private ArrayList<ArrayList<Integer>> adj; // adjacency list

    Graph(int V) {
        this.V = V;
        adj = new ArrayList<>();

        for (int i = 0; i < V; i++) {
            adj.add(new ArrayList<>());
        }
    }

    // Add edge (undirected)
    void addEdge(int u, int v) {
```

```

        adj.get(u).add(v);
        adj.get(v).add(u);
    }

    // Print graph
    void printGraph() {
        for (int i = 0; i < V; i++) {
            System.out.print(i + " -> ");
            for (int node : adj.get(i)) {
                System.out.print(node + " ");
            }
            System.out.println();
        }
    }
}

```

BFS Traversal – Java Code

```

void bfs(int start) {
    boolean visited[] = new boolean[V];
    Queue<Integer> q = new LinkedList<>();

    visited[start] = true;
    q.add(start);

    while (!q.isEmpty()) {
        int node = q.poll();
        System.out.print(node + " ");

        for (int neigh : adj.get(node)) {
            if (!visited[neigh]) {
                visited[neigh] = true;
                q.add(neigh);
            }
        }
    }
}

```

DFS Traversal – Java Code (Recursive)

```

void dfsUtil(int node, boolean[] visited) {
    visited[node] = true;
    System.out.print(node + " ");

    for (int neigh : adj.get(node)) {
        if (!visited[neigh]) {
            dfsUtil(neigh, visited);
        }
    }
}

void dfs(int start) {
    boolean visited[] = new boolean[V];
    dfsUtil(start, visited);
}

```

Most Used Graph Methods (For Exams / Placements)

Method	Use
addEdge(u, v)	Add edge to graph
bfs(start)	Level-wise traversal
dfs(start)	Depth-first traversal
printGraph()	Print adjacency list
isVisited[]	Track visited nodes
Queue	Used in BFS
Stack / Recursion	Used in DFS
adj.get(u)	Gives neighbors of u

Full Graph Example

```
public class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Graph g = new Graph(5);

        g.addEdge(0, 1);
        g.addEdge(0, 2);
        g.addEdge(1, 3);
        g.addEdge(2, 4);

        System.out.println("Graph:");
        g.printGraph();

        System.out.println("\nBFS from 0:");
        g.bfs(0);

        System.out.println("\nDFS from 0:");
        g.dfs(0);
    }
}
```

Output Example

```
Graph:
0 -> 1 2
1 -> 0 3
2 -> 0 4
3 -> 1
4 -> 2
```

```
BFS from 0:
0 1 2 3 4
```

```
DFS from 0:
0 1 3 2 4
```

What is a Cycle in a Graph?

A **cycle** occurs when:

A node can be reached again through a path of edges.

Example:

```
1 - 2
|   |
4 - 3
```

Here, $1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 4 \rightarrow 1$ forms a **cycle**.

Cycle Detection in Undirected Graph

In an undirected graph, a cycle exists if:

We reach a **visited node that is NOT the parent** of the current node.

Why track parent?

Because in undirected graphs, edges go both ways.

Example: $1 — 2$

From 1 you go to 2, and 2 goes back to 1 \rightarrow this is NOT a cycle.

So we skip the **parent**.

Approach 1: DFS for Undirected Graph

Condition for cycle:

If

```
visited[neigh] == true AND neigh != parent
```

\rightarrow Cycle exists.

Java Code (DFS – Undirected)

```
// Method to check cycle using DFS in an Undirected Graph
boolean dfsCycle(int node, int parent, boolean[] visited,
                  ArrayList<ArrayList<Integer>> adj) {

    visited[node] = true;

    for (int neigh : adj.get(node)) {
        if (!visited[neigh]) {
            if (dfsCycle(neigh, node, visited, adj))
                return true;
        }
        // If visited and not parent => cycle
        else if (neigh != parent) {
            return true;
        }
    }
    return false;
}

// Main function to check all components
boolean isCycleUndirected(int V, ArrayList<ArrayList<Integer>> adj) {
```

```

boolean[] visited = new boolean[V];

for (int i = 0; i < V; i++) {
    if (!visited[i]) {
        if (dfsCycle(i, -1, visited, adj)) {
            return true;
        }
    }
}
return false;
}

```

Cycle Detection in Directed Graph

In a directed graph, cycles are more strict:

You detect a cycle when you visit a node that is **already in the current DFS path**.

So we maintain two arrays:

Array	Meaning
visited[]	Node already visited in any DFS
recStack[] (recursion stack)	Node currently in active path

Condition for cycle:

If

```
recStack[neigh] == true
```

→ Cycle exists.

Java Code (DFS – Directed Graph)

```

// DFS for Directed Graph cycle detection
boolean dfsDirected(int node, boolean[] visited, boolean[] recStack,
                     ArrayList<ArrayList<Integer>> adj) {

    visited[node] = true;
    recStack[node] = true; // mark node in current path

    for (int neigh : adj.get(node)) {
        if (!visited[neigh]) {
            if (dfsDirected(neigh, visited, recStack, adj))
                return true;
        } else if (recStack[neigh]) { // node already in current path
            return true; // cycle found
        }
    }

    recStack[node] = false; // remove from current path
    return false;
}

```

```

// Check for all components
boolean isCycleDirected(int V, ArrayList<ArrayList<Integer>> adj) {
    boolean[] visited = new boolean[V];
    boolean[] recStack = new boolean[V];

    for (int i = 0; i < V; i++) {
        if (!visited[i]) {
            if (dfsDirected(i, visited, recStack, adj)) {
                return true;
            }
        }
    }
    return false;
}

```

Summary Table (Best for Exams)

Graph Type	Method	Condition for Cycle
Undirected Graph	DFS	If <code>visited[neigh] == true AND neigh != parent</code>
Directed Graph	DFS with recursion stack	If <code>recStack[neigh] == true</code>

5. Most Used Methods for Cycle Detection

Method	Usage
<code>dfsCycle()</code>	DFS for undirected graph
<code>isCycleUndirected()</code>	Check all components
<code>dfsDirected()</code>	DFS with recursion stack
<code>isCycleDirected()</code>	Detect cycle in directed graph
<code>recStack[]</code>	Tracks active recursion path
<code>visited[]</code>	Marks visited nodes
<code>adj.get(u)</code>	Access neighbors

6. Small Example Graphs (For Understanding)

Undirected (has cycle)

```

0 - 1
|   |
3 - 2

```

Directed (has cycle)

```

0 → 1 → 2
↑           |
|-----|

```

Minimum Spanning Tree (MST) – Prim's & Kruskal's Algorithm

What is MST?

A **Minimum Spanning Tree (MST)** of a connected, undirected, weighted graph is:

- A tree (no cycles)
- Covers all vertices
- With **minimum total weight**

Example usage:

- Network design (cables, roads)
- Cluster analysis
- Electrical wiring optimization

2. Requirements for MST

1. Graph must be **Connected**
2. Graph must be **Undirected**
3. Graph must be **Weighted**

Prim's Algorithm

Prim's algorithm builds MST **like Dijkstra**, but instead of shortest path, it picks the **minimum weight edge** that connects a new vertex to the MST.

Prim's Algorithm Features:

- Works for **dense** graphs.
- Uses **Priority Queue (Min-Heap)**.
- Starts from **any one vertex**.
- Always picks **cheapest available edge**.

Steps of Prim's Algorithm

1. Choose any starting vertex.
2. Mark it visited.
3. Use a Min-Heap to pick next lowest weight edge.
4. Add new vertex to MST.
5. Repeat until all vertices are included.

Prim's Java Code (Using PriorityQueue)

```
import java.util.*;  
  
class Pair {
```

```

        int vertex, weight;
        Pair(int v, int w) {
            vertex = v;
            weight = w;
        }
    }

    class Prims {
        static int primsMST(int V, ArrayList<ArrayList<Pair>> adj) {

            boolean[] visited = new boolean[V];
            PriorityQueue<Pair> pq = new PriorityQueue<>(
                (a, b) -> a.weight - b.weight
            );

            pq.add(new Pair(0, 0)); // start from node 0
            int mstCost = 0;

            while (!pq.isEmpty()) {
                Pair p = pq.poll();
                int node = p.vertex;
                int wt = p.weight;

                if (visited[node]) continue;

                visited[node] = true;
                mstCost += wt;

                for (Pair neigh : adj.get(node)) {
                    if (!visited[neigh.vertex]) {
                        pq.add(new Pair(neigh.vertex, neigh.weight));
                    }
                }
            }

            return mstCost;
        }
    }
}

```

Kruskal's Algorithm

Kruskal's algorithm builds MST by adding the **smallest edges first**, and avoids forming **cycles** using **Disjoint Set (Union-Find)**.

Kruskal's Features:

- Works well on **sparse** graphs.
- Sorts all edges by increasing weight.
- Adds edges if they don't form a cycle.
- Uses **Union-Find** to check cycles.

Steps of Kruskal's Algorithm

1. Sort all edges by weight.
2. Initialize Disjoint Set for vertices.
3. For each edge (u, v):

- o If u and v belong to **different sets**, add edge to MST.
 - o Union the two sets.
4. Continue until MST has **V-1 edges**.

Disjoint Set (Union-Find)

Used for cycle detection in Kruskal's.

Main Methods:

Method	Use
findParent(x)	Finds leader of a set
union(u, v)	Combines two sets
rank[] or size[]	Helps balance tree height

Java Code for Kruskal's Algorithm

Step 1: Edge Class

```
class Edge implements Comparable<Edge> {
    int src, dest, weight;

    Edge(int s, int d, int w) {
        src = s;
        dest = d;
        weight = w;
    }

    public int compareTo(Edge e) {
        return this.weight - e.weight;
    }
}
```

Step 2: Disjoint Set (Union-Find)

```
class DisjointSet {
    int[] parent, rank;

    DisjointSet(int n) {
        parent = new int[n];
        rank = new int[n];
        for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
            parent[i] = i;
            rank[i] = 0;
        }
    }

    int findParent(int node) {
        if (parent[node] == node)
            return node;
        return parent[node] = findParent(parent[node]); // path compression
    }

    void union(int u, int v) {
```

```

        u = findParent(u);
        v = findParent(v);

        if (rank[u] < rank[v])
            parent[u] = v;
        else if (rank[u] > rank[v])
            parent[v] = u;
        else {
            parent[v] = u;
            rank[u]++;
        }
    }
}

```

Step 3: Kruskal Implementation

```

import java.util.*;

class Kruskal {
    static int kruskalMST(int V, ArrayList<Edge> edges) {

        Collections.sort(edges); // sort by weight
        DisjointSet ds = new DisjointSet(V);

        int mstCost = 0;
        ArrayList<Edge> mstEdges = new ArrayList<>();

        for (Edge e : edges) {

            int u = e.src;
            int v = e.dest;

            if (ds.findParent(u) != ds.findParent(v)) {
                mstCost += e.weight;
                mstEdges.add(e);
                ds.union(u, v);
            }
        }

        return mstCost;
    }
}

```

Prim's vs Kruskal's (Important Table)

Feature	Prim's	Kruskal's
Works On	Dense graphs	Sparse graphs
Approach	Grow tree from one vertex	Add smallest edges first
Data Structure	PriorityQueue	Union-Find
Graph Type	Connected	Can work with disconnected components
Detect Cycle	Not needed	Union-Find detects
Sorting	Not required	Required (sort edges)

MST Output Example

For a sample graph:

Edges:
0-1 (4)
0-2 (5)
1-2 (1)
1-3 (2)
2-3 (3)

SHORTEST PATH ALGORITHMS: DIJKSTRA & BELLMAN–FORD

Shortest Path Problem

Given a weighted graph, find the minimum distance from a **source vertex** to **all other vertices**.

Two major algorithms:

Algorithm	Handles Negative Weight?	Complexity
Dijkstra	No negative edges	$O(E \log V)$
Bellman–Ford	Yes negative edges (but no negative cycle)	$O(V \times E)$

Dijkstra's Algorithm

Dijkstra finds **shortest path in a weighted graph without negative edges**.

Key Ideas

- Works for **positive weight edges only**.
- Uses **Min-Heap (PriorityQueue)**.
- Greedy: always picks the next **minimum distance node**.
- Similar to Prim's, but compares **distance** instead of **weight**.

Dijkstra Steps (Easy Explanation)

1. Set all distances = ∞
2. Distance of source = 0
3. Use PQ to pick node with **minimum distance**
4. Relax all edges:
 5. if ($dist[u] + weight < dist[v]$)
 6. update $dist[v]$
7. Repeat until PQ is empty.

Java Code (Dijkstra using PriorityQueue)

```
import java.util.*;  
  
class Pair {
```

```

        int node, dist;
        Pair(int n, int d) {
            node = n;
            dist = d;
        }
    }

    class Dijkstra {

        int[] dijkstra(int V, ArrayList<ArrayList<Pair>> adj, int src) {
            int[] dist = new int[V];
            Arrays.fill(dist, Integer.MAX_VALUE);

            PriorityQueue<Pair> pq = new PriorityQueue<>(
                (a, b) -> a.dist - b.dist
            );

            dist[src] = 0;
            pq.add(new Pair(src, 0));

            while (!pq.isEmpty()) {
                Pair p = pq.poll();
                int node = p.node;
                int d = p.dist;

                for (Pair neigh : adj.get(node)) {
                    int next = neigh.node;
                    int wt = neigh.dist;

                    if (d + wt < dist[next]) {
                        dist[next] = d + wt;
                        pq.add(new Pair(next, dist[next]));
                    }
                }
            }

            return dist;
        }
    }
}

```

Example (Dijkstra Execution)

Graph:

```

0 →1 (4)
0 →2 (1)
2 →1 (2)
1 →3 (1)
2 →3 (5)

```

Shortest path from 0:

```

0 to 0 = 0
0 to 2 = 1
0 to 1 = 3
0 to 3 = 4

```

Advantages & Limitations

Pros:

- Fastest for non-negative graphs
- Very efficient with PQ

Cons:

- Cannot handle **negative weights**
- Fails when negative cycle exists

Bellman–Ford Algorithm

Bellman–Ford is used when the graph has **negative weights**.

Important Points

- Works for **negative edges**
- Detects **negative weight cycles**
- Slower than Dijkstra: $O(V \times E)$

Bellman–Ford Logic

Repeat $(V - 1)$ times:

```
for every edge (u → v):  
    if (dist[u] + weight < dist[v]):  
        update dist[v]
```

Reason:

A shortest path can have at most **V–1 edges** in a graph of V nodes.

After $V-1$ relaxations:

To detect negative cycle:

Do one more iteration:

```
if any dist[u] + wt < dist[v] → Negative Cycle
```

Java Code (Bellman–Ford)

```
import java.util.*;  
  
class Edge {  
    int src, dest, weight;  
    Edge(int s, int d, int w) {  
        src = s;  
        dest = d;  
        weight = w;  
    }  
}
```

```

class BellmanFord {

    int[] bellmanFord(int V, ArrayList<Edge> edges, int src) {

        int[] dist = new int[V];
        Arrays.fill(dist, Integer.MAX_VALUE);
        dist[src] = 0;

        // Relax edges V-1 times
        for (int i = 1; i < V; i++) {
            for (Edge e : edges) {
                int u = e.src;
                int v = e.dest;
                int wt = e.weight;

                if (dist[u] != Integer.MAX_VALUE && dist[u] + wt < dist[v])
                {
                    dist[v] = dist[u] + wt;
                }
            }
        }

        // Check for negative cycle
        for (Edge e : edges) {
            if (dist[e.src] != Integer.MAX_VALUE &&
                dist[e.src] + e.weight < dist[e.dest]) {
                System.out.println("Graph contains Negative Weight
Cycle!");
                return null;
            }
        }

        return dist;
    }
}

```

Example (Bellman–Ford Execution)

Graph:

```

0 → 1 (1)
1 → 2 (-1)
2 → 3 (-1)
3 → 1 (2)

```

Shortest path from 0:

```

0 to 1 = 1
0 to 2 = 0
0 to 3 = -1

```

If a negative cycle exists, algorithm will detect it.

Comparison Table

Feature	Dijkstra	Bellman–Ford
Handles Negative Weights	No	Yes
Detect Negative Cycle	No	Yes
Complexity	$O(E \log V)$	$O(V \times E)$
Data Structure	PriorityQueue	Simple loops
Type	Greedy	Dynamic Programming
Usage	Maps, routing	Currency conversion fraud detection

Bellman–Ford

- Loop $V-1$ times
- Iterate all edges
- Negative cycle check
- Works with **Edge list** instead of adjacency list