S.No.							
1	**Algorithm**	**Program**					
	Design time	Implementation time					
	Domain knowledge	Programmer					
	Any language even English and Maths	Programming language					
	Hardware and software independent	Hardware and operating system dependent					
	Analyze an algorithm	Testing of programs					
2	**Priori Analysis**	**Posterior Testing**					
	Algorithm	Program					
	Independent of language	Language dependent					
	Hardware independent	Hardware dependent					
	Time and space function	watch time and bytes					
3	**Characteristics of algorithm**						
	Zero or more inputs						
	Must generate atleast one output						
	Definiteness						
	Finiteness						
	Effectiveness						
4	**How to analyze an algorithm**						
	Time						
	Space						
	Network consumtion : Data transfer amount						
	Power consumption						
	CPU registers						
5	**Frequency Count Method**	Used for time snalysis of an algorithm					
	Assign 1 unit of time for each statement						
	For any repitition, calculate the frequency of repetition						
	for(i = 0; i < n; i++) --> condition is checked for n+1 times	2n + 2 units of time ~ n+1 as we see condition i < n only for now					
	any statement within the loop will execute for n times						

	Space complexity depends upon number and kind of variables used						
6	**Algorithm : sum(A, n)**						
	Single for loop -						
	Time complexity: O(N)						
	Space complexity: O(N)						
7	**Algorithm : Add(A, B, n)**	Sum of two square matrices of dimesions nXn					
	Two nested for loops -						
	Time complexity: O(N^2)						
	Outer for loop executes for N+1 times						
	Inner for loop xecutes for N *(N+1) times						
	Any statement within inner for loop executes for (N + 1) * (N + 1) times						
	Space complexity: O(N^2)						
8	**Algorithm : Multiply(A, B, n)**						
	Three nested for loops -						
	Time complexity: O(N^3)						
	Space complexity: O(N^2)						
9	**Different algorithm conditions**						
	For loops						
	for(i = n; i > 0; i--)	n+1 times					
	for(i = 0; i < n; i = i + 2)	n/2 times					
	2 nested for loops where both i and j range from 0 to n	n^2 times					
	2 nested for loops where j ranges from 0 to i	when i = 0; j loop repeats 0 times; when i = 1; j loop repeates 1 times; and so on...total number of repetitions: 0 + 1+ 2+3+4....+n = O(n^2)					
	p = 0; for(i = 1; p<= n; i++){ p = p + i; }	p = k(k+1)/2 --> assuming that the loop exits when p is greater than n --> k(k+1) / 2 > n	~ k^2 > n --> O(root(n))				
	for(i = 1; i < n; i = i *2)	will execute for 2^k times	O(logn)				
		Assume i >= n ; i = 2^k >= n					
		k = logn with base 2					

	for(i = n; i >= 1; i = i/2)	i					
		n					
		n/2					
		n/2^2					
		n/2^3					
		.....					
		n/2^k					
		Assume i < 1 => n / 2^k < 1	~ O(logn) with base 2				
	for(i = 0; i * i < n; i++)	i*i < n					
		i*i > -n					
		i^2 = n --> i = root(n)	~O(root(n))				
	for(i = 0; i < n; i++) {.....}for(j = 0; j < n ; j++){....}	O(n)					
	p = 0; for(i = 1; i < n; i*2){.....} for(j = 1; j < p; j*2){.....}	log n times for upper loop; lop p times for lower loop	~ O(log (logn))				
	for(i = 0; i < n; i++) {.....for(j = 0; j < n ; j*2){....}}	Outer loop repeats n times; inner loop repeats logn times	~O(nlogn)				
	for(i = 1; i < n; i = i*3)		~O(logn) with base 3				
	While loops						
	while vs. do while	do while will execute for minimum one time					
	for and while are almost similar	do while will execute as long as the condition is true; for loop will execute until the condition is false					
	a = 1;						
	while(a < b){ ..... a = a *2;}	1, 2, 2^2, 2^3.....2^k repetitions	~O(logb) with base 2				
		assume a > b; 2^k > b ==> k = logb with base 2					
	i = n; while(i > 1) {....i = i/2;}		~O(logn) with base 2				
	i = 1; k = 1; while(k <n){....k = k + i; i++;}						
	i	k					
	1	1					
	2	1 + 1					
	3	2 + 2					
	4	2 + 2 + 3					

	5	2 + 2 + 3 + 4					
	.....						
	m	m(m + 1) /2					
	Assume, k >= n	m(m + 1)/ 2 >= n	~O(root(n))				
	while(m != n) { if(m > n) m = m - n; else n = n - m;}		~O(n)				
10	**Types of time functions**						
	O(1) --- constant						
	O(logn) --- logarithmic						
	O(n) --- linear						
	O(n^2) --- quadratic						
	O(n^3) --- cubic						
	O(2^n) --- exponential						
11	**Order of complexity**						
	1 < logn < root(n) < n < nlogn < n^2 < n^3 <.....< 2^n < 3^n .....< n^n						
12	**Asymptotic Notations**						
	Representation of time omplexity in simple form which is understandable						
	Big O Notation - works as an upper bound	The function f(n) = O(g(n)) iff for all positive constants c and n_0, such that f(n) <= c * g (n) for all n >= n_0; here, f(n) = O(n)	e.g. 2n + 3 <= 10n; All those functions in time order complexity above n become upper bound; below n become lower bound and n is the average bound				

	Big Omega Notation - works as a lower bound	The function f(n) = Omega(g(n)) iff for all positive constants c and n_0, such that f(n) >= c * g(n) for all n >= n_0; here, f(n) = Omega(n)	e.g. 2n + 3 >= 1n				
	Theta Notation - works as an average bound	The function f(n) = theta(g(n)) iff for all positive constants c1, c2 and n0 such that c1 * g(n) <= f(n) <= c2 * g(n)	e.g. f(n) 2n + 3; 1n <= 2n + 3 <= 5n				
	Most useful is theta notation, then why do we need the other two?	In case we are not able to get the average bound, then we point to its upper or lower bound					
	13 **Examples for asymptotic notations**						
a	**f(n) = 2n^2 + 3n + 4**						
	2n^2 + 3n + 4 <= 2n^2 + 3n^2 + 4n^2 i.e. 9n^2	O(n^2)					
	2n^2 + 3n + 4 >= 1n^2	Omega(n^2)					
	1n^2 <= 2n^2 + 3n + 4 <= 9n^2	Theta(n^2)					
b	**f(n) = n^2logn + n**						
	n^2logn <= n^2logn + n <= 10n^2logn	O(n^2logn)					
		Omega(n^2logn)					
		Theta(n^2logn)					
c	**f(n) = n!**						
	1 <= 1*2*3*4....*n-1*n <= n*n*n*n*.....*n	O(n^n)					
		Omega(1)					
		Cannot find theta for n!					
d	**f(n) = logn!**						
	1 <= log(1*2*3.....*n) <= log(n*n*n*n....*n)	O(logn^n)					
		Omega(1)					
		Cannot find theta for logn!					
	14 **Properties of Asymptotic notations**						
	General properties -						
	if f(n) is O(g(n)) then a*f(n) is O(g(n))						
	e.g. f(n) = 2n^2 + 5 is O(n^2), then 7f(n) i.e. 14n^2 + 35 is also O(n^2)	This would be true for both Omega and theta n as well					

	Reflexive property -						
	If f(n) is given then f(n) is O(f(n))						
	e.g. f(n) = n^2 then O(n^2)	A function is an upper bound of itself					
		Similarly, a function is a lower bound of itself					
	Transitive property -						
	If f(n) isO(g(n)) and g(n) is O(h(n)) then f(n) is O(h(n))						
	e.g. f(n) = n; g(n) = n^2 and h(n) = n^3	True for all notations					
	n is O(n^2) and n^2 is O(n^3) then n is O(n^3)						
	Symmetric property -						
	If f(n) is theta(g(n)) then g(n) is theta(f(n))	True for only theta(n)					
	e.g. f(n) = n^2 g(n) = n^2 ; f(n) = theta(n^2) and g(n) = theta (n^2)						
	Transpose symmetric -	True for BigO and Omega notations					
	if f(n) = O(g(n)) then g(n) is Omega(f(n))						
	e.g. f(n) = n and g(n) is n^2 then n is O(n^2) and n^2 is Omega(n)						
	If f(n) = O(g(n)) and f(n) = Omega(g(n)) then g(n) <= f(n) <= g (n) therefore f(n) = theta(g(n))						
	If f(n) = O(g(n)) and d(n) = O(e(n)) then f(n) + d(n) = O(max(g (n), e(n))						
	e.g. f(n) = n = O(n) , d(n) = n^2 = O(n^2) then f(n) + d(n) = n + n^2 = O(n^2)						
	If f(n) = O(g(n)) and d(n) = O(e(n)) then f(n) * d(n) = O(g(n) * e (n))						
15	**Comparison of functions**						
	First method is substituting values for n and comparing						
	Second method is applying log on both sides						
		Properties of log -					
	Example -	logab = loga + logb					
	f(n) n^2logn; g(n) = n(logn)^10	loga/b = loga - logb					
	Apply log	loga^b = bloga					

	log(n^2log(n)); log(n(logn)^10)	a^(log_cb) = b^(log_ca)					
	log(n^2) + loglogn; logn + loglog^10	a^b = n then b = log_an					
	2logn + loglogn ; logn + 10loglogn						
	here; 2logn is greater than logn and logn is a bigger term than loglogn						
	so, first term is greater than the second one						
	f(n) = 3n^(rootn) ; g(n) = 2^(rootn log_2(n))						
	Applying log						
	3n(rootn) ; (n^rootn)log_2(2)						
	3n(rootn) ; nrootn						
	first term is greater than the second one value wise but asymptatically they are equal						
	f(n) = n^(logn); g(n) = 2^(rootn)						
	apply log,						
	log(n^logn); log(2^rootn)						
	logn*logn ; rootn (log_2(2))						
	log^2n ; rootn						
	canot judge, so apply log again						
	2loglogn; 1/2logn						
	loglogn is smaller than logn						
	thus, second term is greater						
	f(n) = 2^(logn); g(n) = n^(rootn)						
	logn*log_2(2) ; rootn*logn						
	logn ; rootn*logn						
	second term is greater						
	f(n) = 2n; g(n) is 3n						
	both are equal asymptotically						
	f(n) = 2^n; g(n) = 2^(2n)						
	applying log						
	log(2^n); log(2^2n)						
	n; 2n	after applying log, do not cut coefficients					

	second function is greater						
16	**Best, worst and average case analysis**						
	Example -						
a	**Linear search**						
	A = {8, 6, 12, 5, 9, 7, 4, 3, 16, 18} key = 7						
	In linear search, it will start checking for the given key from left hand side						
	total in 6 comparisons, we would get our key						
	Best case - key element is present at first index						
	Best case time - 1 i.e. B(n) = O(1); Omega(1); Theta(1)						
	Worst case - key element is present at the last index						
	Worst case time - n i.e. W(n) = O(n); Omega(n); Theta(n)						
	Average case = all possible case time / no. of cases						
	average case analysis is very difficult for most of the cases						
	Here, average case time = 1 +2 + 3.... + n/2 = n(n+1)/2n = n+1/2						
	A(n) = n+1/2						
b	**Binary search tree**						
	height = logn						
	time taken for a particular key is logn						
	Best case - element present in the root						
	Best case time - k i.e. B(n) = O(1); Omega(!); Theta(1)						
	Worst case - searching for a leaf element - depends upon the height of the tree						
	Worst case time - logn i.e. O(logn)						
	min w(n) = logn; max w(n) = n						
17	**Disjoint sets**						
	No common numbers between two sets - intersection is zero						
	Operations - find, union						
	Find - search or check membership						
	Union - Add an edge						
	Krisgal algorithm: If you take an edge and both the vertices belong to the same set, then there is a cycle in the graph						

	Weighted union is used while adding edges and detectig cycle						
	Collapsing find - process of directly linking node to a direct parent of a set is called collapsing find - reduces the time to find						
18	**Divide and conquer - Strategy 1**						
	Strategy - an apprach for solving a problem						
	If a problem cannot be solved, divide it into sub-problems and find a solution for each sub problem, combine the solutions. *One point to note is that each sub problem should be similar to the original problem only.*						
	Recursive in nature						
	Should have one method to combine the solutions of each sub problem						
19	**Problems under Divide and Conquer**						
	Binary search						
	Finding maximum and minimum						
	MergeSort						
	QuickSort						
	Strassen's matrix multiplication						
20	**Recurrence relation 1: T(n) = T(n-1) + 1**						
	void test(int n)						
	{						
	if(n > 0){						
	printf("%d",n);						
	test(n-1)						
	}						
	}						
	test(3)						
	3. test(2)						
	2. test(1)						
	1 test(0)						

	each print statement takes constant time 1 and there are n+ 1 calls made to the function. we can ignore the last call when it is not printing						
	f(n) = n + 1 calls ; O(n)						
	T(n) = T(n-1) + 1; if we ignore if condition						
	Let us solve this relation;						
	if we know T(n-1) , we can get T(n)						
	T(n-1) = T(n-2) + 1						
	T(n) = [T(n-2) + 1] + 1						
	T(n) = T(n-3) + 3						
	....continue for k times						
	T(n) = T(n-k) + k						
	We would stop after k substitutions; now we need to find k						
	Assume n - k = 0; therefore n = k						
	T(n) = T(n-n) + n						
	T(n) = T(0) + n						
	T(n) = n + 1 i.e. theta(n)						
21	**Recurrence relation 2: T(n) = T(n-1) + n (decreasing function)**						
	void test(int n)	T(n)					
	{						
	if(n > 0)	1					
	{						
	for(i = 0; i <n; i++)	n+1					
	{						
	printf("%d", n);	n					
	}						
	test(n-1);	T(n-1)					
	}						
	}						
		T(n) = T(n-1) + 2n + 2 i.e. theta(n)					
	we can also write T(n) = T(n-1) + n for n > 0						
	T(n) = 1 for n = 0						
	T(n)	n time					
	n T(n-1)	n-1 time					
	n-1. T(n-2)	n - 2 time					

	n-2 T(n-3)	n - 3 time					
	.....						
	T(2)						
	2 T(1)	2 units of ti me					
	1 T(0)	1 unit of time					
	for T(0) it does nothing	0 unit of time					
	time taken -						
		0 + 1 + 2 +.....+ n-1 + n					
	theta(n^2)	***T(n) = n(n + 1)/2***					
	T(n) = T(n-1) + n						
	T(n-1) = T(n-2) + n-1						
	thus, T(n) = T(n-2) + (n-1) + n	**remember, don't add the terms					
	T(n) = T(n-3) +(n-2) + (n-1) + n						
	T(n) = T(n-k) + (n-(k-1)) + (n-(k-2))....+(n-1) + n	if we continue for k times					
	assume n - k = 0; n = k						
	Thus, T(n) = T(n-n) + (n - n + 1) + (n - n + 2)..... +(n-1) + n						
	T(n) = T(0) + n(n+1)/2						
	T(n) = 1 + n(n+1)/2	***theta(n^2)*** ; this extra 1 is owing to the calls					
22	**Recurrence relation 3: T(n) = T(n-1) + logn**						
	void test(int n)	T(n)					
	{						
	if(n>0)						
	{						
	for(i = 1; i <n; i = i*2)						
	{						
	printf("%d", i);	log n times					
	}						
	test(n-1);	T(n-1)					
	}						
	}						
	T(n) = T(n-1) + logn for n > 0						
	T(n) = 1 for n = 0						
	Solve using tree method,						

	T(n)						
	logn T(n-1)						
	log(n-1) T(n-2)						
	log(n-2) T(n-3)						
	.....						
	log2 T(!)						
	log 1 T(0)						
	logn + log(n-1) + ...+ log2 + log1						
	log[n(n-1)(n-2)....2.1] = log(n!)	there is no tight bound for this function but there is an upper bound for it					
	O(nlogn)						
	Solving using induction method.						
	T(n) = T(n-1) + logn						
	T(n) = T(n-2) + log(n-1) + log(n)						
	T(n) = T(n-3) + log(n-2) + log(n-1) + logn						
	.....						
	T(n) = T(n-k) + logn + log(n-1) +....log1						
	Asume n-k = 0						
	T(n) = T(0) + logn!						
	T(n) = 1 + logn!						
	O(nlogn)						
23	***How to get the direct answer for a recurrence relation?***						
	T(n) = T(n-1) + 1	O(n)					
	T(n) = T(n-1) + n	O(n^2)					
	T(n) = T(n-1) + logn	O(nlogn)					
	T(n) = T(n-1) + n^2	O(n^3)					
	T(n) = T(n-2) + 1	O(n/2) ~ O(n)					
	T(n) = T(n-100) + n	O(n^2)					
	T(n) = 2T(n-1) + 1	???					
24	**Recurrence relation 4: T(n) = 2T(n-1) + 1**						
	Test(int n)	T(n)					
	{						

	if(n > 0)	1					
	{						
	printf("%d", n);	1					
	test(n-1);	T(n-1)					
	test(n-1);	T(n-1)					
	}						
	}						
		T(n) = 2T(n-1) + 1					
	T(n) = 2T(n-1) + 1 for n> 0						
	T(n) = 1 for n = 0						
	Solve using recursion tree method						
	1 T(n-1) T(n-1)		2				
	1 T(n-2) T(n-2)	1 T(n-2) T(n-2)	4				
	1 T(n-3) T(n-3) 1 T(n-3) T(n-3)	1 T(n-3) T(n-3) 1 T(n-3) T(n-3)	8				
	.....						
	T(0). T(0)		2^k				
	1 + 2 + 2^2 .....+2^k = 2^(k+1) - 1						
	as, a + ar + ar^2.....ar^k = a(r^(k+1) - 1)/(r -1)						
	Assume n - k = 0						
	thus, 2^(n+1) - 1	***O(2^n)***					
	Back substitution method						
	T(n) = 2T(n-1) + 1						
	T(n) = 4T(n-2) + 2 + 1						
	T(n) = 8T(n-3) + 4 + 2 + 1						
	.....						
	T(n) = 2^kT(n - k) + 2^(k-1) + 2^(k).....2^3 + 2^2 + 1						
	Assume n - k = 0						
	n = k						
	T(n) = 2^nT(0) + 1 + 2 + 2^2.... + 2^n-1						
	T(n) = 2^n + 2^n - 1 i.e. 2^(n+1) - 1						

25	**Master theorem for decreasing function**						
	T(n) = T(n-1) + 1	O(n)					
	T(n) = T(n-1) + n	O(n^2)					
	T(n) = T(n-1) + logn	O(nlogn)					
	T(n) = 2T(n-1) + 1	O(2^n)					
	T(n) = 3T(n-1) + 1	O(3^n)					
	T(n) = 2T(n-1) + n	O(n2^n)					
	T(n) = 2T(n-2) + 1	O(2^n/2)					
	T(n) = aT(n-b) + f(n)						
	a > 0, b > 0 and f(n) = O(n^k) where k >= 0						
	if a = 1, O(n^k+1) or O(n*f(n))						
	if a > 1, O(n^k * a^n/b)						
	if(a < 1) O(n^k) or O(f(n))						
26	**Dividing functions**						
	test(int n)	T(n)					
	{						
	if(n > 1)						
	{						
	printf("%d", n);	1					
	test(n/2)	T(n/2)					
	}						
	}						
	T(n) = T(n/2) + 1 for n > 1						
	T(n) = 1 for n = 1						
	T(n)						
	1 T(n/2)						
	1 T(n/2^2)						
	1 T(n/2^3)						
	.....continue for k times						
	1 T(n/2^k)						

	assume , n/2^k = 1						
	thus, we have taken k steps overall						
	since, n/2^k = 1 => k = logn with base 2	***O(logn)***					
	Solving by substitution method						
	T(n) = T(n/2) + 1						
	T(n) = T(n/2^2) + 2						
	T(n) = T(n/2^3) + 3						
	....						
	T(n) = T(n/2^k) + k						
	assume n/2^k = 1						
	thus, k = logn with base 2						
	T(n) = T(1) + logn						
	O(logn)						
27	**Recurrence relation: T(n) = T(n/2) + n**						
	T(n) = T(n/2) + n for n > 1						
	T(n) = 1 for n=1						
	T(n)						
	T(n/2) n						
	T(n/2^2) n/2						
	T(n/2^3) n/2^2						
	.....						
	T(n/2^k). n/2^(k-1)						
	T(n) = n + n/2 + n/2^2 + n/2^3..... + n/2^k						
	T(n) = n[1 + 1/2 + 1/2^2 + 1/2^3 +.....1/2^k]						
	T(n) = n*1 = n						
	O(n)						
	Using substitution method						
	T(n) = T(n/2) + n						
	.....						
	T(n) = T(n/2^2) + n/2 + n						
	.....						

	T(n) = T(n/2^3) + n/2^2 + n/2 + n						
	.....						
	T(n) = T(n/2^k) + n/2^k-1 ....+n/2^2 + n/2 + n						
	Assume n /2^k = 1						
	k = logn with base 2						
	T(n) = T(1) + n[1/2^k-1.....+1/2^2....+1]						
	T(n) = 1 + 2n ~ O(n)						
28	**Recurrence Relation: T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n**						
	void test(int n)	T(n)					
	{						
	if(n > 1)						
	{						
	for(int i = 0; i <n ; i++)						
	{						
	stmt	n					
	}						
	test(n/2);	T(n/2)					
	test(n/2);	T(n/2)					
	T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n for n > 1						
	T(n) = 1 for n = 1						
	Solve using recursion tree method,						
	T(n)						
	T(n/2). T(n/2) n	n					
	T(n/2^2) T(n/2^2) T(n/2^2) T(n/2^2) n/2	n					
	T(n/2^3). T(n/2^3). T(n/2^3). T(n/2^3). T(n/2^3). T (n/2^3). T(n/2^3). T(n/2^3).	n					
	.....	n					
	T(n/2^k).....						
		n					
	assume n / 2^k = 1						
	k = logn with base 2						
	T(n) = nk ~ O(nlogn)						

	Using backsubstitution method;						
	T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n						
	T(n/2) = 2T(n/2^2) + n/2						
	T(n) = 2[2T(n/2^2) + n/2] + n						
	T(n) = 2^2T(n/2^2) + n +n						
	T(n) = 2^3T(n/2^3) + 3n						
	....continue for k times						
	T(n) = 2^kT(n/2^k) + kn						
	Asume T(n/2^k) = T(1)						
	k = logn with base 2						
	Thus, T(n) = n +nlogn ~O(nlogn)						
29	**Masters Theorem for dividing functions**						
	T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n)	loga with b					
	a>=1; b > 1; f(n) = theta(n^k* log^pn)	k					
	case 1: if loga with base b > k then theta(n^(loga with base b))						
	case 2: if loga with base b = k then						
	if p > -1 theta(n^klog^(p+1)n)						
	if p = -1 theta(n^kloglogn))						
	if p < -1 then theta(n^k)						
	case 3: if loga with base b < k						
	then, if p >= 0, theta(n^klog^pn)						
	if p < 0 , theta(n^k)						
	T(n) = 2T(n/2) + 1						
	a = 2						
	b = 2						
	f(n) = theta(n^(0) * log n ^ 0)						
	k = 0; p = 0						
	here, loga with base b > k						
	theta(n^1) where loga with base b is 1						
	T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n						
	log a with base b = 2						

	k = 1						
	p = 0						
	this is an example of case 1						
	theta(n^2)						
	T(n) = 8T(n/2) + n						
	log8 with base 2 = 3 > k = 1						
	theta(n^3)						
	T(n) = 9T(n/3) + 1						
	loga with base b = 2 > k						
	theta(n^2)						
	T(n) = 9T(n/3) + n^2						
	loga with base b = 2 = k	case 2					
	theta(n^2)						
	T(n) = 8T(n/2) + n						
	theta(n^3)						
	T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n						
	loga with base b = k = 1; p = 0						
	case 2						
	theta(nlogn)						
	T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^2						
	theta(n^2logn)						
	T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^2logn						
	theta(n^2logn^2)						
	T(n) = 8T(n/2) + n^3						
	theta(n^3logn)						
	T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n/logn						
	log a with base b = k = 1						

	p = -1						
	theta(nloglogn)						
	T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n/logn^2						
	p = -2						
	theta(n)						
	T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n^2						
	loga with base b < k						
	theta(n^2)						
	T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n^2						
	theta(n^2logn)						
	T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n^3						
	loga with base b < k						
	theta(n^3)						
30	T(n) = 2T(n/2) + 1						
	loga with base b = 1						
	k = 0						
	loga with base b > k						
	theta(n^1)						
	T(n) = 4T(n/2) + 1						
	loga with base b = 2						
	k = 0						
	theta(n^2)						
	T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n						
	loga with base b = 2						
	k = 1						
	theta(n^2)						
	T(n) = 8T(n/2) + n^2						
	loga with base b = 3						

	k = 2						
	theta(n^3)						
	T(n) = 16T(n/2) + n^2						
	loga with base b = 4						
	k = 2						
	theta(n^4)						
	T(n) = T(n/2) + n						
	log a with base b = 0						
	k = 1						
	theta(n)						
	T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n^2						
	loga with base b = 1						
	k = 2						
	theta(n^2)						
	T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n^2logn						
	loga with base b = 1						
	k = 2						
	theta(n^2logn)						
	T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^3log^2n						
	loga with base b = 2						
	k = 3						
	theta(n^3log^2n)						
	T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n^2 / logn						
	log a with base b = 1						
	k = 2						
	theta(n^2)						
	T(n) = T(n/2) + 1						
	log a with base b = 0						
	k = 0						

	theta(logn)						
	T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n						
	log a with base b = 1						
	k = 1						
	p = 0						
	theta(nlogn)						
	T(n) = 2T(n/2) + nlogn						
	log a with base b = 1						
	k = 1						
	p = 1						
	theta(nlog^2n)						
	T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^2						
	log a with base b = 2						
	k = 2; p = 0						
	theta(n^2logn)						
	T(n) = 4T(n/2) + (nlogn)^2						
	log a with base b = 2						
	k = 2, p = 2						
	theta(n^2 log^3n)						
	T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n/logn						
	log a with base b = 1						
	k = 1; p = -1						
	theta(nloglogn)						
	T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n/log^2n						
	log a with base b = 1						
	k = 1; p = -2						
	theta(n)						
31	**Root function Recurrence relation**						
	T(n) = T(root(n) + 1) for n>2						

	T(n) = 1 for n = 2						
	T(n) = T(root(n)) + 1						
	T(n) = T(n^(1/2)) + 1 .....equation 1						
	using substitution						
	T(n) = T(n^(1/2^2)) + 2.....equation 2						
	T(n) = T(n^(1/2^3)) +3.....equation 3						
	T(n) = T(n^(1/2^k)) + k.....equation 4						
	assume, n = 2^m						
	T(2^m) = T(2^(m/2^k)) + k						
	assume T(2^(m/2^k)) = T(2)						
	thus, m/2^k = 1						
	m = 2^k						
	k = log m with base 2						
	substituting value of n						
	m = logn with base 2						
	therefore, k = loglogn with base 2						
	theta(loglogn with base 2)						
32	**Binary Search Iterative Method**						
	To perform binary search, the prerequisite is that the list must be in sorted order	A = {3, 6, 8, 12, 14, 17, 25, 29, 31, 36, 42, 47, 53, 55, 62}					
	we need two index pointers, one is low at the starting point and the other is high at the end point	l = 1, h = 15 (lowest and highest index); mid = 8					
	mid = low + high / 2 and we take the floor value	key value = 42; A[mid] = 29 --> key > A [mid]					
	the key value is on the right hand side as key value is greater than A[mid]						
	we will change low to mid + 1	l = 9, h = 15; mid = 9 + 15 / 2 = 12					
		A[mid] = 47 > key					
	we will change high to mid - 1 as key < A[mid]						
		h = 11, l = 9, mid = 10; A[mid] = 36					
		A[mid] < key					
	we will change low to mid + 1	l = 11; h = 11; mid = 11; A[mid] = 42					
	we can return the index as we have found the key value	A[mid] = key					

	therefore, binary search looks faster than linear search. It just took 4 comparisons						
	int BinSearch(A, n, key)						
	{						
	l = 1, h = n						
	mid = l + h / 2 - take floor value						
	while(l <= h){						
	if(key == A[mid])						
	{ return index i.e.element is found}						
	else if(key < A[mid])						
	{h= mid-1;}						
	else {						
	l = mid + 1;}						
	}						
	return 0;						
	}						
	Time taken for binary search = logn						
	min time: O(1)						
	max time: O(logn)						
	avg time = add time for each element and divide by number of elements						
33	**Binarysearch Recursive method**						
	Alogirthm RBinarySearch(l,h,key)	T(n)					
	{						
	if(l==h)	1					
	{						
	if(A[low]== key)						
	{						
	return l;						
	}						
	else						
	{						
	return 0;						

	}						
	else						
	{						
	mid = l + h / 2 //taking floor value	1					
	if(key == A[mid])	1					
	{return mid;}						
	if(key < A[mid])	1					
	{						
	return RBinarySearch(l, mid - 1, key)	T(n/2)					
	}						
	else						
	{						
	return RBinarySearch(mid+1, h, key)	T(n/2)					
	}						
	}						
		T(n) = 1; n =1					
		T(n) = T(n/2) + 1 for n > 1					
		theta(logn)					
34	**Heaps**						
a	**Representation of a binary tree using an array**						
	T {A, B, C, D, E, F, G}						
	if a node is at index i;						
	its left child is at node 2*i						
	its right child is at node 2*i + 1						
	its parent is at node i/2						
	if there are missing nodes, we leave a blank in its place in the array						
b	**Full binary tree**						
	In its hieght, it has maximum number of nodes and if we wish to add a node, height would increase						
	Max no. of nodes = 2^h - 1						
c	**Complete binary tree**						
	there is no missing element from first element to the last element in array representation of the binary tree						

	Every full binary tree is also a complete binary tree						
	A complete binary tree is a full binary tree until height h - 1						
	Height of a complete binary tree would be minimum i.e. logn						
d	**Heap**						
	Heap is a complete binary tree						
	Max Heap: every node has value greater than all its descendants {50, 30, 20, 15, 10, 8, 16}						
	Min Heap: every node has value smaller or equal to than all its descendants {10, 30, 20, 35, 40, 32, 25}						
35	**Insert operation in a max heap**						
	Insert 60 in the above given max heap						
	this value should be inserted in the last free space in the array						
	i.e. left child of the left most leaf node						
	Then, adjust the elements to make it as a heap						
	So, compare and move 60 up the levels and in the array check at i/2 indices where initially i would be the last empty index where 60 was inserted						
	Time taken would be equal to the number of swaps						
	this depends upon the height of the tree i.e. logn, hence O (logn)						
	minimum time is of no swaps O(1); max would be O(logn)						
36	**Delete operation in a max heap**						
	From the heap, we need to remove the root / top most element only						
	The last element in the complete binary tree would come in its place						
	Adjust the elements to maintain heap order						
	From the root towards the leaf, adjust						
	Compare the children (2i and 2i +1) and whichever child is greater than compare with the parent						
	Time taken depends upon the height; max could be O(logn)						
	Whenever you delete from max heap, you get the next max element and in case of min heap, it would be the next min element						
37	**HeapSort**						

	For a given set of numbers, create a heap						
	Delete all the elements from the heap						
	Total N elements we have inserted; each element we assume is moved up to the root; so time taken O(NlogN)						
	Then we delete the elements						
	Store deleted elements in the array in free space in the end						
	Deletion also takes O(NlogN) time						
	Thus, heapsort takes O(NlogN)						
38	**Heapify**						
	The process of creating heap but direction is opposite than creating a heap						
	O(N)						
39	**Priority Queue**						
	elements will have priority and they would be inserted and deleted as per the priority order						
	For min heap, smaller the no. higher the priority						
	For max heap, greater the no. higher the priority						
	O(logN) for insertion and/or deletion						
40	**TwoWay MergeSort - Iterative method**	Algorithm Merge(A, B, m, n)					
	merging two sorted lists to get a sorted result	{i = 1, j = 1, k = 1;					
	A = {2, 8, 15, 18} i	while(i <= m && j<=n){					
	B = { 5, 9, 12, 17} j	if(A[i] < B[j])					
	Compare A(i) with B(j) to get C(k) and move to next location	{					
	m + n elements are obtained , thus theta(m + n)	C[k++] = A[i++];					
		}					
		else {					
		C[k++] = B[j++];					
		}					
		for(; i <=m; i++){					
		C[k++]=A[i];					
		}					
		for(;j<= n;j++){					
		C[k++] = B[j];					
		}					

		}					
41	**Merging more than two lists**						
	M-way merging						
	A = {4, 6, 12}						
	B = {3, 5, 9}						
	C = {8, 10, 16}						
	D = {2, 4, 18}						
	One way is that we merge A and B; C and D and then finally merge the two resulting lists --> so we perform merge three times here						
	Another way is that we first merge A and B; then we merge resulting list with C ; and the resulting list with D						
	Two-way mergesort is an iterative process whereas mergeSort is a recursive process						
	A = {9, 3, 7, 5, 6, 4, 8, 2} - given an array and we have to sort them using 2-way mergesort						
Ist pass	We would consider each element as a sorted list and merge	merged n elements in this pass					
	First select two lists 3 and 9; then merge them - 3, 9						
	Similarly, we select two lists 7 and 5 , merge them - 5 and 7						
	Another lists we get are {4, 6} and {2, 8}						
	Now, we have 4 lists with two elements each						
2nd pass	When we merged we kept the resulting 4 lists in another array B; B = {{3, 9}, {5, 7}, {4, 6}, {2, 8}}	merged n elements in this pass					
	We merge two lists each						
3rd pass	C = {{3, 5, 7, 9}, {2, 4, 6, 8}}	merged n elements in this pass					
	we merge the above two lists to get a single sorted list						
	D = {2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9}						
	log(no of elements) = no. of passes						
	Time complexity: O(n(logn))						
42	**MergeSort**						
	A = {9, 3, 7, 5, 6, 4, 8, 2}	Algorithm MergeSort(l, h){	T(n)				
	If there is a single element, we can consider it as a base or small problem {Divide and conquer}						
		if(l < h){					

		mid = (l + h) / 2;	1				
		MergeSort(l, mid);	T(n/2)				
		MergeSort(mid + 1, h);	T(n/2)				
		Merge(l, mid, h);	n				
		}	T(n) = 2T (n/2) + n for n > 1				
		}	T(n) = 1 for n = 1				
	time complexity: theta(nlogn)		using master's theorem, a = 2, b = 2, k = 1				
	merging is done in post order traversal		loga with base b = 1 = k				
			thus, it is case 2				
			theta(nlogn)				
43	**Pros of MergeSort**	**Cons of MergeSort**					
	works great for Large size lists	Extra space (not inplace sort)					
	suitable for Linked List	no small problem					
	supports external sorting	recursive and uses a stack (need n + logn space) i.e. space complexity: O(n + logn) where n is the extra space and logn is the stack space					
	stable: the order of duplicates is maintained						
		insertion sort (O(n^2))					
		mergesort O(nlogn)					
		for small problems, n <= 15; insertionsort works better --> use insertion sort					
43	**QuickSort**						
	students arranging themselves in increasing order of heights						
	10 80 90 60 30 20						
	5 6 3 4 2 1 **9**						
	4 6 7 **10** 16 12 13 14						
	A = {10, 16, 8, 12, 15, 6, 3, 9, 5, INFINITY}	partition(l, h){					
	select first element as a pivot	pivot = A[l];					

	pivot = 10	i = l; j = h;					
	we need to find the sorted position for 10	while(i<j){do					
	i starting form pivot and j starting from infinity	{					
	i would check for elements greater than 10; j would heck for elements smaller than pivot	i++;					
	we are using the partitioning procedure	} while(A[i]<= pivot);					
	increment i until next vlue is greater than 10 and decrement j until next value is smaller than pivot; stop and swap	do					
	{10, 5, 8, 9, 3, 6, 15, 12, 16}	{					
	send pivot element at j position	j--;					
	now, we can sort the two lists around the partitioning position by performing quicksort recursively	}while(A[j] > pivot);					
		if(i<j){					
	QuickSort(l, h)	swap(A[i], A[j]);					
	{	}					
	if(l < h)	swap(A[l], A[j]);					
	{	return j;					
	j = partition(l, h);	}					
	QuickSort(l, j);						
	QuickSort(j+ 1, h);						
	}						
	}						
44	**QuickSort Analysis**						
	suppose it is partitioning in the middle of 1 and 15th index						
	then, two partitions: [1, 7] ; [9, 15]						
	further partitions: [1, 3]; [5, 7]; [9, 11]; [13, 15]						
	at each level , n elements are being handled						
	and there are logn levels						
	thus time complexity for best case: O(nlogn)						
	median : middle element of a sorted list						
	best case of quicksort is that the partitioning occurs exactly at the middle						
	worstcase: if we have an already sorted list						
	time complexity for worstcase: O(n^2)						
	to handle this, try taking middle element as a pivot						

	2. select random element as a pivot						
45	**Strassen's matrix multiplication**						
	A = [a11 a12						
	a21. a22]						
	B = [b11 b12						
	b21 b22]						
	Cij = Summing up Aik*Bkj						
	for(i = 0; i < n ; i++){						
	for(j = 0; i < n ; j++){						
	C[i,j]= 0;						
	for(k=0;k<n;k++){						
	C[i,j] += A[i, k]*B[k, i];						
	}						
	}						
	}						
	C11 = a11*b11 + a12*b21						
	C21 = a11*b12 + a12*b22	A = [a11]					
	C21 = a21*b11 + a22*b21	B = [b11]					
	c22 = a21*b12 + a22*b22	C = [a11*b11]					
	for [2*2] matrix, we would use above formula	for [1*1] matrix, use above formula					
	we assume that the matrix has dimensions of power of 2	Algorithm MM(A, B, n)					
		{					
		if(n <= 2					
	8 times the function is calling itself	{					
	T(n) = 8T(n/2) + n^2 for n > 1	C = 4 formula stated above;					
	a = 8, b = 2, log a with base b = 3	}					
	k = 2	else					
	it is case 1 of master's theorem	{					
	theta(n^3)	mid = n/2					
		MM(A11, B11, n/2) + MM(A12, B21, n/2);					
		MM(A11, B12, n/2) + MM(A12, B22, n/2);					
		MM(A21, B11, n/2) + MM(A22, B21, n/2);					
		MM(A22, B22, n/2) + MM(A21, B12, n/2);					

		}					
		}					
	Strassen's approach -						
	has given 4 different formulas with 7 multiplications	P = (A11 + A22)(B11 + B22)					
	C11 = A11*B11 + A12*B21	Q = (A21 + A22) B11					
	C21 = A11*B12 + A12*B22	R = A11(B12 - B22)					
	C21 = A21*B11 + A22*B21	S = A22(B21 - B11)					
	C22 = A21*B12 + A22*B22	T = (A11 + A12)B22					
		U = (A21 - A11)(B11 + B12)					
		V = (A12 - A22)(B21 + B22)					
		C11 = P + S - T + V					
		C12 = R + T					
		C13 = Q + S					
		C22 = P + R- Q + U					
		T(n) = 7T(n/2) + n^2 for n > 2					
		T(n) = 1 for n<= 2					
		using master's theorm,					
		O(n^(log7 with base 2)) = O(n^2.81)					
	Strategies used for solving optimization problems - Greedy Method, Dymanic programming, branch and bound						
46	**Greedy method**						
	Design wich we can adopt to solve similar problems		Greedy method says that each problem should be solved in stages - each stage we give an input, check if the solution is feasible then we pick it up and move to next stage				

	Solving optimization problems		Algorithm Greedy(a, n) a = {a1, a2, a3, a4, a5} ; n = 5				
	Optimization problem: Problems which require either minimum or maximum result		{				
	Suppose we have a problem P where we need to travel from source A to destination B, we can have several solutions such as walking on foot, travel by an airplane, ride on a bike, travel by a bus, drive on a car, go by a train and so on..... Now, we notice that we also have some constraints. The solutions that satisfy the conditions given in a problem are called **feasible solutions**	Minimum cost journey - "**Minimization problem**"; then feasible solutions giving minimum cost are called **optimal solutions**. ***There can be many feasible solutions but only one optimal solution***	for i = 1 to n do {x = select(a):				
	Example: selecting a car to purchase	Example: Hire a person for your company	if feasible(x) then				
	Method 1: Looking at all the models available in the city	Method 2: Conduct an assessment center to filter people at each stage and get the best person	{				
	Method 2: Checking for the features of the cars and filtering and selecting based on your preferences - greedy method	So, the person may not be the best but the approach is greedy here as we are using our criteria and constraints to choose the best person	solution = solution + x;				
47	**Knapsack problem**		}				
	n = 7; m = 15	Bag capacity is 15 kgs and we have been given 7 objects. we have to fill this bag with these objects. Profit is the gain we get by transferring this object. Problem is a container loading problem. Problem is filling the container with the objects as the capacity of container is limited	}				
Objects	{0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 }	Optimization and maximization problem	}				
Profits	{P 10 5. 15 7 6 18 3 }	Constraints : Bag weight limit					
Weights	{W 2 3 5 7 1 4 1 }						
Profit by weight	{P/W 5 1.3 3 1 6 4.5 3}						
0<=x<= 1	Objects are divisible i.e. we can take just half kg of object 1 and may be 2 kgs of object 2 and so on						
x	()						
	x1 x2 x3 x4 x5 x6 x7						
Method 1	Take the thing that have maximum profit						

Method 2	Take things with smaller weight so that you can put in more things						
Method 3	Take things that have highest profit by weight						
	Let's use method 3						
	First, I include object 5 that has maximum profit by weight. Then I check remaining weight I can put in. We can still put in 14 kgs. Then we select all the quantity of object 1. Remaining weight limit 12 kgs. Add all of object 6. Remaining weight limit 8 kgs. Add all of object 3. Remaining weight limit 3 kgs. Add all of object 7. Remaining weight limit is 2 kgs. Add 2/3 of object 2 as we have only 2 kgs limit remaining.						
x	(1 2/3 1 0 1 1 1)						
	Calculate total profit and verify weight						
	Total weight = 1*2 + 2/3*3 + 1*5 + 0*7 + 1*1 + 1*4 + 1*1 = 15	//Multiplying x elements by Weight w for each object					
	Total profits = 1*10 + 2/3*5 +1*15 + 1*6 + 1*18 + 1*3 = 54.6	//Multiplying x elements by Profit P for each object					
48	**0/1 Knapsack problem**						
	Objects are indivisble and fractions are not allowed i.e. either you include the whole thing or you do not include it at all						
49	**Job sequencing with deadlines**	n = 5 (tasks)					
Jobs	J1 J2 J3 J4 J5						
Profits	20 15 10 5 1						
Deadlines	2 2 1 3 3						
	Assume that there is a machine, on which each job has to be processed and each job takes 1 unit of time (hour) for completion						
	Set of the jobs which can be completed within their deadlines such that profit is maximized	Constraints: deadlines must be met					
deadlines	0---------1----------2----------3	maximum 3 slots / jobs					
time slots	9am------10am-----11am-----12am						
Jobs chosen	J2 J1 J4						
Profits	15 + 20 + 5 = 40						
Sequence	J1 --> J2 ---> J4 || J2 --> J1 --> J4						

Job consider	Slot assign	Solution	Profit
J1	[1,2]	J1	20
J2	[0,1][1,2]	J1J2	20 + 15
J3	[0,1][1,2]	J1J2	20 + 15
J4	[0,1][1,2][2,3]	J1J2J4	20 + 15 + 5
J5	[0,1][1,2][2,3]	J1J2J4	20 + 15 + 5
50	**Job sequencing with deadlines another example**	n = 7 (jobs)	
Jobs	J1 J2 J3 J4 J5 J6 J7		
Profits	35 30 25 20 15 12 5		
Deadlines	3 4 4 2 3 1 2		
deadlines	0.....1.....2.....3.....4	4 SLOTS AVAILABLE	
Jobs chosen	J4 J3 J1 J2		
Profits	20 25 35 30	110	
51	**Optimal Merge Patern**		
	A = {3, 8, 12, 20}		
	B = {5, 9, 11, 16}		
	C = {3, 5, 8, 9, 11, 12, 16 20}	How merging works for two sorted lists ; time = theta(m + n)	
	what happens if we have 4 lists?		
List	A B C D		
Sizes	6 5 2 3		
Choice 1	We can merge at a time two lists - first A and B; the merge it with C and finally with D. total cost= 11 + 13 + 16 = 40		
Choice 2	Merge A anb; C and D that gives cost 11 and 5 respectively. Merge resulting two lists which will cost 16. Total cost would be 11 + 5 + 16 = 32		
Choice 3	Merge Cand D, resulting list is merged with B and then finally with A; total cost = 5 + 10 + 16 = 31		
optimal method	Always merge two small sized lists , then combined time would be reduced		

Example:							
List	x1 x2 x3 x4 x5						
Sizes	20 30 10 5 30						
Increasing order of sizes	5 10 20 30 30						
Lists	x4 x3 x1 x2 x5						
	First x4 and x3 are merged, cost = 15; then result is merged with x1; cost = 35; x2 and x5 are merged with cost = 60; the two resulting lists are merged with cost = 95						
Total cost	15 + 35 + 60 + 95 = 205						
	3*5 + 3*10 + 2*20 + 2*30 + 2*30 = 205	//multiplying distance of each node and size of each node					
52	**Huffman Coding**						
	Compression technique used to reduce the size of data or message						
Message	BCCABBDDAECCBBAEDDCC						
	Length = 20						
	it has to be sent using ASCII codes (8- bit)						
	A 65 01000001	Size = 8*20 = 160 bits					
	B 66 01000010						
	C 67						
	D 68						
	E 69						
	Can we use our own codes instead of ASCII codes?						
	Fixed size method						
Character	A B C D E						
Count	3 5 6 4 2	Total count = 20					
Code	000 001 010 011 100						
message	BCCABBDDAECCBBAEDDCC						
bit code	001010....	size = 20*3 = 60 bits					
		5*8 = 40 bits for ASCII code translations					
		5*3 = 15 bits --> our assigned codes					

		40 + 15 = 55 bits					
		message: 60 bits					
		chart: 55 bits					
		total message size: 115 bits					
		so, the message size reduced from 160 bits to 115 bits					
		thus, 40% reduction in size with fixed sized code					
	Huffman coding - variable sized code	element that appears more / often should have a smaller sized code					
character	A B C D E						
count	3 5 6 4 2						
code							
	first, arrange the letters with increasing count / frequency						
character	E A D B C						
count	2 3 4 5 6						
code	000 001 01 10 11	Merge two smaller ones, we get 5, then combine with D, we get 9. Combine B and C , we get 11. Finally, combine two resulting lists , we get 20.					
bit count	6 9 8 10 12	On left side paths, mark as 0 and on right side mark as 1					
total bits for message	45 bits	Bit count for message can also be obtained from the tree, by counting number of edges for a letter and multiplying by the number of occurences for that letter in the message i.e. summation of distance and frequency of a letter					
ASCII codes for chart	5*8 = 40 bits						
assigned codes	12 bits						
total bits for tree/table	52 bits						
Size of total msg	52 + 45 = **97 bits**						
Message transferred	00111110110111100101100011111010001010000110	A tree or a table would be needed along with it					
Decoding	BCCD...						

53	**Minimum Cost Spanning Tree**						
	G = (V, E)						
	V = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6}	|V| = n = 6					
	E= {(1,2), (2,3), (3,4), (4,5), (5, 6), (6,1)}	|V| - 1 = 5 edges					
	the tree should not have a cycle						
	S is a subset of G, WHERE IN S = (V', E')	V' = V; |E'| = |V| - 1					
	Number of edges in graph = 6 out of whch I have to select 5 edges for spanning tree - thus i can select in **6C5 ways**	Suppose we have 7 edges, out of which the seventh edge (3,5) divides the graph into two cycles of less tha 6 vertices, then we can select 5 edges for spanning tree in **7C5 - 2 ways**					
General formula	|E|C(|V|-1) - no. of cycles						
	Now, if we have a weighted graph, I wish to know the number of possible spanning tree						
	Vertices = 4						
	Edges = 3						
	cost = 14						
	similarly , depending upon the edges we select, cost may vary each time						
	Can I found the minimum cost spanning tree?						
Method 1	Try all possible spanning trees and get the minimum cost spanning tree						
Method 2	Prim's algorithm (Greedy method)						
Method 3	Kriskal's algorithm (Greedy method)						
Method 2:	**Prim's algorithm**						
	Select the minimum cost edge from the graph first	(6,1) ; w = 10					
	Then, following this select minimum cost edge but make sure it is connected to previously chosen vertices	(5, 6); w = 25					
		(5, 4); w = 22					
		(4, 3); w = 12					
		(3, 2); w = 16					
		(2, 7); w = 14					
	Now, if we add costs of all the chosen edges, total cost = 99						

	For non connected graphs we cannot find the minimum cost spanning tree or spanning tree						
Method 3	**Kruskal's method**						
	Always select smallest cost edge						
	(1,6); w = 10						
	(3, 4); w = 12						
	(2, 7); w = 14						
	(2, 3); w = 16						
	(4, 5); w = 22						
	(5, 6); w = 25						
	total cost = 99						
	vertices count : |V|	To get a minimum cost edge each time, min heap can be used					
	edges count: |V| - 1	theta(nlogn)					
	theta(|V||E|)						
	theta(n.e) = theta(n^2)						
	for non-connected graphs, spanning tree cannot be found						
	Kruskal algo may give spanning tree for those non connected componr=ents but bot for the graph as a whole						
	if in a certain graph, certain edges' weights are missing, then use the given weights of remaining edges to guess the weight						
54	**Dijkstra algorithm**						
	Single source shortest path to all the vertices						
	find the shortest path to a vertex annd update it to other vertices. this updation is called relaxation						
	Relaxation						
	if(d[u] +c(u,v) < d[v]){ d[v] = d[u] + c(u,v)}						
	no of vertices = |V|						
	at most no. of vertices relaxing = |V|						

	worst case time of Dijkstra algorithm: theta(n*n)						
	Example - starting vertex is 1						
selected vertex	2 3 4 5 6						
4	50 45 **10** infinity infinity						
5	50 45 **10** **25** infinity						
2	45 45 **10** **25** infinity						
3	45 45 **10** **25** infinity						
6	45 45 **10** **25** infinity						
	Another example - starting vertex is 1						
selected vertex	{2, 3, 4}						
2	{3, infinity, 5}						
4	{3, infinity, 5}						
3	{3, 7, 5}						
	{3, 7, 5}						
	Another example - starting vertex is 1						
selected vertex	{2, 3, 4}						
2	{3, infinity, 5}						
4	{3, infinity, 5}						
3	{3, 7, 5}						
	{-3, 7, 5}						
	Dijkstra algorithm might work or might not work in case of en edge having negative weightage						
55	**Dynamic programming**						
	Dynamic programming vs greedy method						

	In Greedy method, we try to follow a predefined procedure that gives us the best / optimal result. The procedure is already known for optimization. But, in dynamic programming, we try to get all the solutions and then decide the best solution. Mostly dynamic programming questions are solved using recursive procedures. They follow a prnciple of optimality. In greedy method, decision is taken just once and followed through whereas in dynamic programming, decision is taken at each step						
	Example:						
	Fibonacci series						
	fib(n) = 0 if n = 0	T(n) = 2T(n-1) + 1{Approximating T(n-2) ~ T (n-1) here}					
	fib(n) = 1 if n = 1	Time taken would be O(2^n) by using Master's theorem					
	fib(n) = fib(n-2) + fib(n-1) if n > 1	Why can't we reduce the function calls to reduce the time taken?					
		For this, we would take a global array and initially fill it with -1					
	int fib(n) {	F = {-1,-1,-1,-1,-1}					
	if(n<= 1){	Then, as the function calls f(1), mark it as 1					
	return n;}	Then f(0) is marked as 1					
	return fib(n-2) + fib(n-1);	Then use the stored result to get the rest.					
	}	Finally, F would get updated as we solve: F = {0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5}					
		Total 6 calls are made then i.e. n+1 calls i.e. O(n)					
		This is called result of memorization					
	From the above example, we can see reduction in number of calls from O(2^n) to O(n) using memorization. It follows top down approach. The same problem can be solved using tabular method (iterative process) as shown below:						
	int fib(int n) {						
	if(n <= 1) {						
	return n;}						
	F[0] = 0; F[1] = 1;						
	for(int i = 2; i <= n; i++){						
	F[i] = F[i-2] + F[i - 1];						
	}						
	return F[n];						
	}						

	F= {0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5}						
	This is a bottom - up approach i.e. starting from F[0] and moving to F[n]						
56	**Multistage Graph**						
	A multistage graph is a directed weighted graph. The vertices are divided into stages such that the edges are connecting vertices from one stage to next stage only. First stage and last stage will have only one vertex to represent start and end point. This is usually used to represent resource allocation.						
	The objective of the problem is that I have to select a path which gives me minimum cost.	//it is a minimization or optimization problem					
	Dymanic programming works on principle of optimality. Principle of optimality says that a problem can be solved in a squence of decisions.						
	From first stage I have to select one optimal vertex that leads to minimum cost and I have to take this decision at each stage. Thus, I can apply dynamic programming here.						
V	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12						
Cost	16 7 9 18 15 7 5 7 4 2 5 0	cost(5, 12) = 0 ; here 5 is the stage and 12 is the vertex					
d	2/3 7 6 8 8 10 10 10 12 12 12 12	cost(4, 9) = 4					
		cost(4, 10) = 2					
	Formula for multistage graph:	cost(4, 11) = 5					
	cost(lth stage, jth vertex no.) = cost(i, j) = min{C(j, l) + cost(i+1, l)}	cost(3, 6) = min{ C(6, 9) + cost(4, 9) , C(6, 10) + cost(4, 10)} = min{6 + 4, 5 + 2} = 7					
		Similarly, cost(3, 7) = min{8, 5} = 5					
	Now, we will solve it by going in forward direction and taking decisions based on above data;	cost(3, 8) = min{7, 11} = 7					
	d(1,1) = 2	Similarly, cost(2, 2) = min{C(2, 6) + cost(3, 6), C(2, 7) + cost(3, 7), C(2, 8) + cost(3, 8)} = min{11, 7, 8} = 7					
	d(2,2) = 7	cost(2, 3) = min{9, 12} = 9					
	d(3, 7) = 10	cost(2, 4) = min{18} = 18					
	d(4, 10) = 12	cost(2, 5) = min{16, 15} = 15					
	Path: 2---> 7---> 10----> 12	cost(1,1) = min{16, 16, 21, 17} = 16					
	d(1, 1) = 3						
	d(2, 3) = 6						
	d(3, 6) = 10						
	d(4, 10) = 12						
	Path: 3---> 6---> 10----> 12						

So, we have two paths with same cost.

57 **Multistage Graph (Program)**

Cost adjacency Matrix

	0	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	2	1	3	0	0	0	0
2	0	0	0	0	0	2	3	0	0
3	0	0	0	0	0	6	7	0	0
4	0	0	0	0	0	6	8	9	0
5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6
6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4
7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5
8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

	0	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**
cost	--	9	7	11	12	6	4	5	0
d	--	2	6	6	5	8	8	8	--
path	--	1	2	6	8				

Path is calculated using the following formula: p[i] d[p[i-1]] ; p [2] = d[p[2-1]] = d[1] = 2

time complexity: O(n^2)

```
main(){
int stages = 4, min;
int n = 8;
int cost[9], d[9], path[9];
int c[9][9] = {{0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0},
{0,0,2,1,3,0,0,0,0}, {0,0,0,0,0,2,3,0,0}, ......}
cost[n] = 0;
for(int i = n-1; i >=1; i--){
min = 32767;
for(int k = i + 1; k <= n; k++){
if(C[i][k] != 0 && C[i][k] +C[k] < min){
min = C[i][k] +C[k] ;
d[i] = k;
}
}
cost[i] = min;
}
p[1] = 1; p[stages] = n;
for(i = 2; i < stages; i++){
p[i] = p[d[i-1]];
```

58 **All Pairs Shortest Path**

If I use Dijkstra algorithm on each vertex to find the shortest path of all, the time complexity would be O(n^3).

A0 =	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
1	0	3	INF	7
2	8	0	2	INF
3	5	INF	0	1
4	2	INF	INF	0

Considering vertex 1 as intermediate vertex

A0[2,3] A0[2,1] + A0[1,3]

A1 = **1** **2** **3** **4**

2 < 8 + INF

1	0 3 INF 7							
2	8 0 2 15	A0[2,4] A0[2,1] + A0[1,4]						
3	5 8 0 1	INF > 8 + 7 = 15						
4	2 8 INF 0							
		A0[3,2] A0[3,1] + A0[1,2]						
	Considering vertex 2 as intermediate vertex	INF > 5 + 3 = 8						
A2 =	**1 2 3 4**							
1	0 3 5 7	A[1,3] A[1,2] + A[2,3]						
2	8 0 2 15	INF < 3 + 2 = 5						
3	5 8 0 1							
4	2 5 7 0	for(k = 1; k <= n; k++){						
		for(i = 1; i <= n; i++){						
	Considering vertex 3 as intermediate matrix	for(j= 1; j <= n; j++){						
A3 =	**1 2 3 4**	A[i,j] = min(A[i,j], A[i,k] + A[k,j])						
1	0 3 5 6	}						
2	7 0 2 3	}						
3	5 8 0 1	}						
4	2 5 7 0							
	Considering vertex 4 as intermediate matrix							
A4 =	**1 2 3 4**							
1	0 3 5 6							
2	5 0 2 3							
3	3 6 0 1							
4	2 5 7 0							
	Formula used to make the above matrices:							
	A[i,j] = min{A[i,j], A[i,k] + A[k, j]}							
	time complexity = O(n^3)							
59	**Matrix chain multiplication**							
	A1 . A2 . A3 . A4							
	(5X4) (4X6) (6X2) (2X7)							

For generating a single matrix C after single multiplication of 2 matrices of order (5X4) and (5X3) , we would need to do 60 multiplications

((A1.A2).A3).A4

or (A1.A2).(A3.A4)

or ....there could be several ways

then, how to choose theright way?

T(n) = 2nCn/n+1 trees are possible

thus, with 3 nodes ; T(3) = 5

Using tabular approach (bottom up apprach),

m	1	2	3	4
1	0	120	88	158
2	-	0	48	104
3	-	-	0	84
4	-	-	-	0

s	1	2	3	4
1	-	1	1	3
2	-	-	2	3
3	-	-	-	3
4	-	-	-	-

in m[1,1] i.e. A1 , nothing is multiplied, hence it can be taken as zero

m[1,2] = A1. A2

(5X4) (4X6)

Total cost of multiplication = 5 *4* 6 = 120

m[1,3] = A1.A2.A3

Two possibilities: A1.(A2.A3) or (A1.A2).A3

(5X4) (4X6) (6X2)

for A1.(A2.A3) --> m[1,1] + m[2,3] + (5*4*2)

for (A1.A2). A3 --> m[1,2] + m[3,3] + (5*6*2)

0 + 48 + 40

120 + 0 + 60

88

180

Similarly, m[2,4]

formula:

m[i,j] = m[i,k] + m[k+1, j] + di-1 * dk * dj

we are generating n(n -1)/2 elements

time complexity = O(n^3)

A2.(A3.A4) (A2.A3).A4

(4X6) (6X2)(2X7) (4X6) (6X2)(2X7)

for A2.(A3.A4) --> m[2,2] + m[3,4] + (4*6*7)

for (A2.A3). A4 --> m[2,3] + m[4,4] + (4*2*7)

0 + 84 + 168

48 + 0 + 56

252

104

m[1,4]

		min{m[1,1] + m[2,4] + (5*4*7), m[1,2] + m [3,4] + (5*6*7), m[1,3] + m[4,4] + (5*2*7)}					
		min{0+104+140, 120 + 84+210, 88+70}					
		min{244, 414, 158}					
60	**Matrix chain multiplication - A few pointers**						
	Condition of the multiplication: The number of columns in the first matrix involved in the multiplication must be equal to the number of rows in the second matrix						
A=	a11 a12 a13	2X3 dimension					
	a21 a22 a23						
B=	b11 b12	3X2 dimension					
	b21 b22						
	b31 b32						
A*B =	a11*b11 + a12*b21 + a13*b31 a11*b12 + a12*b22 + a13*b32	12 multiplications (2*3*2)					
	a21*b11 + a22*b21 + a23*b31 a21*b12 + a22*b22 + a31*b32	2X2 dimensions of the resultant matrix					
	A1 X A2 X A3 {Multiplication of more than two matrices}						
	2X3 3X4 4X2						
	d0 d1. d1 d2 d2 d3						
	Same answer by the two following methods (Associative property)						
	Method 1: (A1 X A2) X A3	**Method 2:** A1 X (A2 X A3)					
	2X3 3X4 i.e (2*3*4) = 24 multiplications for A1 X A2	2X3 3X4 4X2					
	Now, (A1 X A2) X A3 would require (2*4*2) = 16 multiplications	A2 X A3 requires (3*4*2) = 24 multiplications					
	Thus, altogether 40 multiplications are required	A1 X (A2 X A3) requires (2*3*2) = 12 multiplications					
		Altogether, 36 multiplications are needed here.					
	Now, dynamic programming asks us to find all the possible methods for matrix multiplication and check which one costs the minimum --> thsi implies that for 10 matrices, there would be numerous methods and we would have to check for all before proceeding with any one of them. Thus, we need a formula to check all that						
	We need to find C[1,3]						
	Method 1: (A1 X A2) X A3	**Method 2:** A1 X (A2 X A3)					
	C[1,2] = 24; C[3,3] = 0	C[1,1] = 0; C[2,3] = 24					

	C[1,2] + C[3,3] + d0*d2*d3 = 40	C[1,1] + C[2,3] + d0*d1*d3 = 36					
	C[i,j] = C[i, k] + C[k+1, j] + di-1 * dk * dj						
	After generalization,						
	C[i,j] = min { C[i,k] + C[k+1,j] + di-1 * dk * dj}						
	where i<=k<j						
	A1 X A2 X A3 X A4						
	d0 d1 d1 d2 d2 d3 d3 d4						
	Check which method works the best for the above matrix chain multiplication	2n C n / n + 1 multiplications are possible where n = no. of matrices - 1					
	1. A1 (A2 (A3A4))	Modified formula: 2(n-1) C (n-1) / n					
	2. A1 ((A2A3)A4)	Now, for n = 4, 2*3C3 / 4 = 6*5*4/3*2*1 / 4 = 5					
	3. (A1A2)(A3A4)	n = 5, 14 multiplications					
	4. (A1(A2A3))A4						
	5. ((A1A2)A3)A4						
	Applying the formula:						
4-1 = 3 values	C[1,4] = min { k = 1; C[1,1] + C[2,4] + d0*d1*d4,						
	k = 2; C[1,2] + C[3,4] + d0*d2*d4,						
	k = 3; C[1,3] + C[4,4] + d0*d3*d4}						
	1<= k < 4						
	1. A1 (A2A3A4)						
	2. (A1 A2) (A3 A4)						
	3. (A1A2A3) A4						
	here, C[1,1] = 0; C[4,4] = 0						
4-2 = 2 values	C[2,4] = min{k = 2; C[2,2] + C[3,4] + d1*d2*d4						
	k = 3; C[2,3] + C[4,4] + d1*d3*d4}						
	2<=k<4						

4-3 = 1 value	C[3,4] = C[3,3] + C[4,4] + d2*d3*d4							
	A1 X A2 X A3 X A4							
	3X2 2X4 4X2 2X5							
	d0 d1 d1 d2 d2 d3 d3 d4							
	As we notice that there is a repetition of the values needed , such as C[3,4] or C[4,4], there is unneccessary calculation, we are repeating, thus we should use a table (4X4)							
C table	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	C[1,2] = min{k=1; C[1,1] + C[2,2] + d0*d1*d2			
1	0	24	28	58	Thus, C[1,2] = 3*2*4 = 24			
2	-	0	16	36	C[2,3] = min{k = 2; C[2,2] + C[3,3] + d1*d2*d3			
3	-	-	0	40	Thus, C[2,3] = 2*4*2 = 16			
4	-	-	-	0	C[3,4] = d2*d3*d4 = 4*2*5 = 40			
					C[1,3] = min{k=1; C[1,1] + C[2,3] + d0*d1*d3			
k table	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	k = 2; C[1,2] + C[3,3] + d0*d2*d3}			
1	-	1	1	3	C[1,3] = min{16 + 3*2*2, 24 + 3*4*2}			
2	-	-	2	3	C[1,3] = min{28, 48] = 28			
3	-	-	-	3				
4	-	-	-	-	C[2,4] = min{C[2,2] + C[3,4] + d1*d2*d4,			
					C[2,3] + C[4,4] + d1*d3*d4}			
	The result shows that we need to do minimum of 58 multiplications to get the result of A1 X A2 X A3 X A4				C[2,4] = min{40 + 2*4*5 , 16 + 2*2*5}			
	The k table will give the paranthesization				C[2,4] = min{80, 36} = 36			
	((A1) (A2 A3))(A4)							
	How much time it has taken ? 1+2+3+4 = 4(5) /2 i.e. n(n+1)/2 ~ n^2				C[1,4] = min{k = 1; C[1,1] + C[2, 4] + d0*d1*d4,			
	we also tried n posisble values of k to compute this value, thus time taken is n^2 * n i.e. O(n^3)				k = 2; C[1,2] + C[3,4] + d0*d2*d4,			
					k=3; C[1,3] + C[4,4] + d0*d3*d4}			
					C[1,4] = min{36 + 3*2*5, 24 + 40 + 3*4*5, 28 + 3*2*5}			
					C[1,4] = min{66, 124, 58} = 58			
61	**Matrix chain multiplication Program**							
	A1 X A2 X A3 XA4				main{			
	5X4 4X6 6X2 2X7				int n = 5;			

		int P[] = {5, 4, 6, 2, 7};					
	P = { 5,4,6,2,7}	int m[5][5] = {0};					
		int s[5][5] = {0};					
		int j, min, q;					
		for(int d = 1; d < n -1; d++)					
		{					
		for(int i = 1; i < n - d; i++)					
		{					
		j = i + d;					
		min = 32767;					
		for(int k = 1; k < = j - 1; k++)					
		{					
		q = m[i][k] + m[k + 1][j] + P[i - 1] * P[k] * P[j];					
		if(q < min)					
		{					
		min = q;					
		s[i][j] = k;					
		}					
		}					
		m[i][j] = min;					
		}					
		}					
		cout << m[1][n -1];					
		}					
62	**Single source shortest path (Bellman Ford Algorithm)**	Example of Bellman Ford algorithm:					
	For doing this, we already have Dijkstra algorithm but it may not eork correctly if we have negative weights, thus we need some other method that works with negative weights	edges --> (3,2)(4,3)(1,4)(1,2)					
	Bellman Ford algorithm says that we should relax the edges N-1 times where the number of vertices is equal to N	mark source vertex 1 as 0 and rest all as infinity					
	|V| = N = 7	there are 4 vertices, so we should relax allt the edges for 3 times					
	So, we should relax them for |V| - 1 times	First iteration:					
	so, we would cover all possible paths even the longest path	for (3,2) --> infinity - 10 is infinity only, so no change					

	Relaxation means between a pair of vertices u and v if there is an edge, then check if:	for (4,3) --> infinity + 3 s infinity only, so no change					
	if(d[u] + C(u,v) < d[v]){	for (1,4), 0 +5 < infinity , thus vertex 4 is updated to 5					
	d[v] = d[u] + C(u,v)}	for (1,2) 0 + 4 < infinity, thus vertex 2 is updated to 4					
	edgeList --> (1,2)(1,3)(1,4)(2,5)(3,2)(3,5)(4,3)(4,6)(5,7)(6,7)	Second iteration:					
	Now, I have to relax these edges for |V| - 1 i.e. 6 times	for (3,2), vertex 2 is already 4, which is less than d[u] + C(u,v) in this case					
	Initially, mark the distance for source vertex as 0 and for the rest of the vertices as infinity	for (4,3) vertex 3 is updated to 5+3 = 8					
	Now, let's relax edge (1,2)	for (1,4)--> no change					
	here, d[u] = 0; d[v] = infinity; C(u,v) = 6	for(1,2) --> no change					
	0 + 6 < infinity ; thus d[v] = 6	Third iteration					
	for vertex 2, distance is 6;	for(3,2), 8 - 10 = -2 < d[v] which is 4 right now; thus updated for vertex 2 as -2					
	similarly, relaxing (1,3); thus its distance is updated to 5 from infinity	for the rest of the edges there won't be any change					
	in similar way, (1,4) is relaxed, following that the distance of vertex 4 is updated to 5 from infinity	results obtained :					
	Now, relaxing (2,5); d[u] = 6 ; C(u,v) = -1; d[v] = infinity	vertex 1 --> 0					
	the distance (2,5) is updated to 6 - 1 = 5	vertex 2 --> -2					
	similarly, relaxing (3,2) ; d[u] = 5, C(u,v) = -2, d[v] = 6	vertex 3 --> 8					
	5 - 2 = 3 < 6 thus, d[v] is updated here to 3 i.e. at vertex 2 , distance is updated to 3	vertex 4 --> 5					
	Now, relaxing (3,5), d[u] = 5 , C(u,v) = 1, d[v] = 5 here d[u] + C(u,v) is not smaller than d[v] hence the distance of vertex 5 is not modified	Now, if I relax one more time extra, there's no change					
	Moving to (4,3), relaxing it --> d[u] = 5, C(u,v) = -2; d[v] = 5, d [u] + C(u,v) = 3 < d[v] hence distance of vertex 3 is updated to 3	**Drawback of Bellman Ford algorithm:**					
	following this (4,6) is relaxed again and checked, d[u] = 5, C (u,v) = -1; thus distance of vertex 6 is updated to 5-1 = 4	let us an edge(2,4) in the above example					
	Now, relaxing (5,7), d[u] = 5; C(u,v) = 3; d[v] = infinity	we see even after N-1 iterations, there is one vertex changing, we note that there's a problem					
	thus, d[v] is updated to 8 for edge (5,7)	the reason is that there is a cycle of edges where total weight of edges is negative i.e. 5 + 3+ (-10) = -2 , thus graph cannot be solved					
	moving to (6,7), d[u] = 4, C(u,v) = 3; d[v] = 8	hence, for a negative weighted cycle , the bellman ford algorithm fails					

	d[v] is updated to 7 here for edge (6,7)						
	let us continue second time;						
	there won't be any change in (1,2), (1,3), (1,4)						
	when we check for (2,5); d[u] = 3 C(u,v) = -1 d[v] = 5; d[v] for edge (2,5) is updated to 2						
	similarly, for edge (3,2), the value is change to 3 - 2 = 1; earlier it was 3						
	(4,3) and (4,6), there's no change						
	for (5,7) d[u] has changed from 5 to 2; thus d[v] changes to 2 + 3 = 5						
	for (6,7) there won't be any change						
	let us continue third time;						
	there won't be any change in (1,2), (1,3), (1,4),						
	when we check for (2,5); d[u] = 1 C(u,v) = -1 d[v] = 2; d[v] for edge (2,5) is updated to 0						
	for (3,2) there own't be any change						
	for (3,5) again thee won't be any change						
	for (4,3), (4,6) --> no change						
	for (5,7) d[v] gets updated to 0 + 3 = 3						
	for (6,7) --> no change						
	let us check for fourth time,						
	we notice for all edges --> no change						
	results obtained:						
	vertex 1 --> 0						
	vertex 2 --> 1						
	vertex 3 --> 3						
	vertex 4 --> 5						
	vertex 5 --> 0						
	vertex 6 --> 4						
	vertex 7 --> 3						
	so, finally these are the shortest paths						
	time complexity: O(|E|(|V| - 1)) ~ O(|V||E|) ~ O(N^2)						
	If it is a complete graph, that is between every two vertex there is an edge, then number of edges is N(N - 1) / 2						
	i.e. |E| = N(N - 1) /2						
	then time complexity = O(|E||V|) O(N((N -1)/2)(N - 1)) ~ O (N^3)						

63 **0/1 Knapsack Problem**

m = 8; n = 4 where m is the capacity of the bag

P = {1, 2, 5, 6}

w = (2, 3, 4, 5}

Have to give a solution of what all should be included to maximize profit

x can be either 0 or 1; we cannot take fraction of an object

x would be like {1, 0,1....}

sum of profits is maximized i.e. max{sum($P_i x_i$)}

sum($w_i x_i$) <= m

2^4 solutions possible i.e. n^4 solutions

let us use tabulation method

as the capacity is 8 so we would take 0-8 columns and 0-5 rows

V			0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
P	W	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	2	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2	3	2	0	0	1	2	2	3	3	3	3
5	4	3	0	0	1	2	5	5	6	7	7
6	5	4	0	0	1	2	5	6	6	7	8

V[i,w] = max{V[i-1, w], V[i -1, w-w[i]]+ P[i]}

V[4,1] = max{V[3,1] , V[3, 1 - 5] + 6} = max{V[3,1], V[3,-4] + 6}

V[3,-4] is an undefined location; thus, V[4,1] is equal to V[3,1]

FROM THE ABOVE FORMULA WE DEDUCE THAT UPTO 5TH WEIGHT, WE WOULD BE GETTING A NEGATIVE NUMBER

so, we fill these values as it is from previous row until column 4

for 5th column, V[4,5] = max{V[3,5], V[3,0] + 6} = max{5, 0 + 6} = 6

V[4,6] = max{V[3,6] , V[3, 1] + 6} = max{6, 6} --> so take 6 only

V[4,7] = max{V[3,7], V[3,2] + 6} = max{7,7} = 7

V[4,8] = max{V[3,8], V[3,3] +6} = max{7, 2 + 6} = max{7,8} = 8

	Now, we need to write down x1, x2, x3 and x4 values						
	let us come with maximum profit i.e. 8 which we got only by including 4th object						
	thus x4 = 1; remaining profit = 8 - 6 = 2						
	now, check for object 3, if there is a value 2; check if the value 2 is there in for object 2 as well at the same place, if yes, then object 3 was not taken i.e. x3 = 0; if the same 2 is there for object 1 then x2 = 0 else x2 = 1						
	here, x3 = 0						
	x2 = 1						
	x1 = 0 as the remainng profit is 0						
	x = {0 1 0 1} for maximizing the profit						
	let us use sets method						
	we will prepare sets of P and w						
	s0 = {(0,0)}						
	s0(1) = {(1,2)} here, we added first object to elements of set s0						
	s1 = {(0,0),(1,2)} merged the above two sets to get s1						
	s1(1) = {(2,3), (3,5)} , added second object to elements of s1						
	s2 = {(0,0),(1,2)(2,3),(3,5)} merged the above two sets to get s2						
	s2(1) = {(5,4),(6,6),(7,7),(8,9)}						
	s3 = {(0,0),(1,2),(2,3),(3,5),(5,4),(6,6),(7,7)} removed (8,9) as it exceeded the permitted limit						
	in the above set, we notice that as profit increases , weight increases, but at (5,4) profit has increased from (3,5) whereas weight has decreased						
	thus, we discard (3,5) with lesser profit {dominance rule}						
	so, s3 = {(0,0),(1,2),(2,3),(5,4),(6,6),(7,7)}						
	now, considering the fourth object,						
	s3(1) = {(6,5),(7,7),(8,8)(11,9),(12,11)(13,12)}						
	s4 = {(0,0),(1,2),(2,3),(5,4),(6,6), (7,7), (8,8)} merged above two sets and removed elements using dominance rule and those exceeding the weight limits						
	time taken is almost (2^n)						
	maximum order is (8,8)						
	(8,8) belongs to s4						

	check whether it belongs to s3 ---> it does not, hence object 4 is included						
	now (8,8) - (6,5) = (2,3)						
	(2,3) --> check if it belongs to s3 --> yes, check whether it belongs to s2 -> yes, thus object 3 is not included --> now, check if it belongs to s1 --> no, that means object 2 is included and object 1 is not						
	2-2, 3-3 = (0,0)						
	(0,0) belongs to set 1 and set 0 as well therefore object 1 is not included						
	x = {0 1 0 1}						
64	**0/1 Knapsack Dynamic Programming**						
		main()					
	P = {0, 1, 2, 5, 6}	{					
	wt = {0, 2, 3, 4, 5}	int P[5] = {0, 1, 2, 5, 6}					
		int wt[5] = {0, 2, 3, 4, 5}					
	n = 4, m = 8	int m = 8, n = 4;					
		int k[5][9];					
	i = n ; j = m;						
	while(i > 0 && j > 0) {	for(int i = 0; i <= n; i++)					
	if(k[i][j] == k[i-1][j])	{					
	{	for(int w = 0; w <= m; w++)					
	cout << i << "=0" << endl; i--;	{					
	}	if(i==0 || w == 0)					
	else {	{					
	cout << i << "=1" << endl; i--; j = j - wt[i];	k[i][w] = 0;					
	}	} else if (wt[i] <= w)					
	}	{					
		k[i][w] = max{P[i] + k [i-1][w - wt[i]], k[i-1]w};					
		}					
		else					
		{					
		k[i][w] = k[i-1][w];					
		}					
		}					
		cout<<k[n][w];					

		}					
65	**Optimal Binary Search Tree**						
	keys --> 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70						
	time taken for searching a particular key in a BST is logn where n is the number of nodes and logn is the minimum height of the tree						
	if the target key is not in the tree, the search would be unsuccessful						
	2n C n / n + 1 binary searches are possible for n keys						
	cost is dependent upon number of comparisons needed						
	A balanced binary search tree would require the minimum number of comparisons						
	In an optimal binary search tree problem, in addition to the number of comparisons we also consider the frequency of search of those keys						
	1 2 3 4	C[0,2]					
keys	10 20 30 40	10 20					
frequency	4 2 6 3	4 2					
	j						
	0 1 2 3 4						
i 0	0 4 8_1 20_3 26_3	l = j - i = 0					
1	0 0 2 10_3 16_3	0 - 0 = 0					
2	0 0 0 6 12_3	1 - 1 = 0					
3	0 0 0 0 3	2 - 2 = 0					
4	0 0 0 0 0	3 - 3 = 0					
		4 - 4 = 0					
	w(0,4) = sum(f(i)) where 0<=i <= 4	set up cost for all diagonala values as 0;					
	calculating For first case, C[0,2] = C[0,0] + C[1,2] + w[0,2]	l = j - i = 1					
	C[0,2] = 0 + 2 + 6	C[0,1] i.e. considering only key 1					
	C[0,2] = 8	cost is 4					
	Similarly, calculating cost C[0,2] in the second case = C[0,1] + C[2,2] + w[0,2]	similarly, C[1,2] i.e. considering only second key					
	here, C[0,2] = 4 + 0 + 6 = 10	cost is 2					
		Similarly, C[2,3] = 6 and C[3,4] = 3					

	C[1,3] (CASE 1 when 20 is the root and 30 is it's right node) = 2*1 + 6* 2 = 14	Now, l = j - i = 2 i.e. we would consider 2 keys at a time					
	C[1,3] (CASE 2 when 30 is the root and 20 is its left node) = 6*1 + 2*2 = 10	i.e C[0,2] , C[1,3] and C[2,4]					
		C[0,2]: key 10 and 20 with frequency 4 and 2 respectively					
	C[2,4] (CASE 1 when 30 is the root and 40 is its right node) = 6*1 + 3*2 = 12	Two possibilities: 10 in the root and 20 it's right node OR 20 in the root and 10 it's left node					
	C[2,4] (CASE 2 when 40 is the root and 30 is on the left) = 3*1 + 6*2 = 15	for first case: Cost = 4*1 + 2*2 = 8					
		for second case: Cost = 2*1 + 4*2 = 10					
	l = j - i = 3	minimum cost is 8 and the root is 1					
	C[0,3] , C[1,4] for C[0,3], w[0,3] = 12						
	For C[0,3] , (CASE 1 : 10 as a root and 20 it's right node, 30 is the right node of 20) = C[0,0] + C[1,3] + w[0,3] = 0 + 10 + 12 = 22						
	(CASE 2, 10 as a root and 30 it's right node, 20 is the left node of 30)						
	(CASE 3 when 20 is the root, 10 it's left child and 30 it's right child) = C[0,1] + C[2,3] + 12 = 4 + 6 + 12 = 22						
	(CASE 4 when 30 is the root, 20 is the left child and 10 is its left child) = C[0,2] + C[3,3] + 12 = 8 + 0 + 12 = 20						
	(CASE 5 when 30 is the root, 10 is its left child and 20 is the right child of 10)						
	C[1,4] ; w[1,4] = 11						
	C[1,4] = min{C[1,1] + C[2,4] + 11; C[1,2] + C[3,4] + 11; C[1,3] + C[4,4] + 11}						
	C[1,4] = min{0 + 12 + 11; 2 + 3 + 11; 10 + 0 + 11} = min{23, 16, 21} = 16						
	l = j - i = 4 = 4 - 0 ; w[0,4] = 15						
	C[0,4] = min{ C[0,0] + C[1,4] + 15; C[0,1] + C[2,4] + 15; C[0,2] + C[3,4] + 15; C[0,3] + C[4,4] + 15} = min { 0 + 16 + 15; 4 + 12 + 15; 8 + 3 + 15; 20 + 0 + 15} = min{31, 31, 26, 35} = 26						

	root[0,4] = 3						
	then left child is root[0,2] and right child is root[3,4]						
	root[0,2] is 1 and root[3,4] is 4; root[3,4] is further subdivided into root[3,3] and root[4,4]						
	root[0,2] is further divided into root[0,0] and root[1,2]						
	root[1,2] is the second key and its further divided into root[1,1] and root[2,2]						
	C[i,j] = min{ C[i,k-1] + C[k,j]} + w(i,j) where i<k<= j						
66	**Optimal Binary Search Tree Successful And Unsuccessful Probability**						
	Unsuccessful nodes can be represented by dummy nodes						
	If there are n keys, there ould be n+1 square dummy nodes						
	Successful search probability represents probability of getting a given key in the lot whereas unsuccessul search probability represents a range of values of the key						
	cost [0,n] = P_i * level(a_i) + Q_i * (level(e_i) - 1)						
	this cost value is calculated over 1<= i < = n for successful searches (Pi) and 0<= i <= n for unsuccesful searches (Qi)						
	the above cost is minimized for optimal binary search tree						
	Is it possible that we find out the best tree without calculating the cost of all the trees						
	Let's use dynamic programming to find out the minimum cost arrangement without actually computing cost for each binary search tree possible						
	C[i,j] = min{ C[i,k-1] + C[k,j]} + w(i,j) where i<k<= j						
	Let us consider it for just three nodes						
	i.e. C[0,3] = min{C[0,0] + C[1,3] + w[0,3], C[0,1] + C[2,3] + w [0,3], C[0,2] + C[3,3] + w[0,3] } where 0<k<=3						
	C[0,0] = C[3,3] = 0						
	C[1,3] = min{C[1,1] + C[2,3] , C[1,2] + C[3,3]} + w[1,3] where 1 < k <= 3						

	Here, C[1,1] = C[3,3] = 0							
	Values we need, C[0,0], C[1,1], C[2,2], C[3,3], C[0,1], C[1,2], C[2,3], C[0,2], C[1,3], C[0,3]							
	i,j							
j - i = 0	C[0,0] C[1,1] C[2,2] C[3,3]	w[0,2] = q0 + p1 + q1 + p2 + q2						
j - i = 1	C[0,1] C[1,2] C[2,3]	w[0,3] = q0 + p1 + q1 + p2 + q2 + p3 + q3						
j - i = 2	C[0,2] C[1,3]	thus, w[0,3] = w[0,2] + p3 + q3						
j - i = 3	C[0,3]	$w[i, j] = w[i, j-1] + p_j + q_j$						
	we basically need to find the cost, weight and the root at each stage							
	0 1 2 3 4	**j -->**	**0**		**1**		**2**		**3**		**4**
keys	10 20 30 40	j - i = 0	w_{00} = q0 = 2 C_{00} = 0 r_{00} = 0		w_{11} = q1 = 3 C_{11} = 0 r_{11} = 0		w_{22} = q2 = 1 C_{22} = 0 r_{22} = 0		w_{33} = q3 = 1 C_{33} = 0 r_{33} = 0		w_{44} = q4 = 1 C_{44} = 0 r_{44} = 0
p_i	3 3 1 1	j - i = 1	w_{01} = w[0,0] + p1 + q1 = 8 C_{01}= 8 r_{01} = 1		w_{12} = 7 C_{12} = 7 r_{12} = 2		w_{23}= 3 C_{23} = 3 r_{23} = 3		w_{34}= 3 C_{34} = 3 r_{34} = 4		
q_i	2 3 1 1 1	j - i = 2	w_{02} = 12 C_{02}= 19 r_{02} = 1		w_{12} = 9 C_{12} = 12 r_{12} = 2		w_{24}= 5 C_{24} = 8 r_{24} = 3				
		j - i = 3	w_{03}= 14 C_{03} = 25 r_{03} = 2		w_{14} = 11 C_{14} = 19 r_{14} = 2						
		j - i = 4	w_{04}= 16 C_{04} = 32 r_{04} = 2								
	Finally , the tree looks like the below tree:							
	r[0,4] = 20							
r[0,1] = 10		r[2,4] = 30						
		r[3,4] = 40						
67	**Travelling Salesman Problem Using Dynamic Programming**							
	A directed weighted graph is given and every edge is having weight							
	we have to start from some vertex and travel all the vertices and return back to the starting vertex and the cost of travelling should be minimum							

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**				
1	0	10	15	20				
2	5	0	9	10				
3	6	13	0	12				
4	8	8	9	0				
	g(i,s) = min { Cik + g(k, s - {k})} where k belongs to s							
	g(1, {2,3,4}) = min{ C1k + g(k, {2,3,4} - {k})} where k belongs to {2,3,4}		Now, this is a recursive formula for which result can be obtained by generating recursive tree					
	vertex 1							
here, costs can be taken from given table	vertex 2 g(1,2) = min{ C12 + g(2, {3,4})} ; C12 = 10		vertex 3 g(1,3) = min{C13 + g(3, {2,4})}; C13 = 15		vertex 4 g (1,4) = C14 + g(4, {2,3})}; C14 = 20			
	vertex 3 C23 + g(3, {4}) || vertex 4 C24 + g(4, {3}); C23 = 9, C24 = 10		vertex 2 C32 + g(2, {4}) || vertex 4 C34 + g(4, {2}); C32 = 13 , C34 = 12		vertex 2 C42 + g(2, {3}) || vertex 3 C43 + g(3, {2}); C42 = 8, C43 = 9			
	g(3,{4}) = C34 + g(4, phi i.e. nothing) ; g(4, {3}) = C43 + g(3, phi); C34 = 12, C43 = 9; g(4, phi) ~ g(4,1) = 8; similarly, g(3, phi) = 6		g(2, {4}) = C24 + g(4, phi) ; g(4,{2}) = C42 + g(2, phi); C24 = 10, C42 = 8, g(4, phi) = 8, g(2, phi) = 5		g(2,{3}) = C23 + g(3, phi) ; g(3, {2}) = C32 + g(2, phi); C23 = 9, C32 = 13; g(3, phi) = 6, g(2, phi) = 5			
	we use tabular method to solve these from bottom to top actually,							
	g(2,phi) = 5							
	g(3, phi) = 6							
	g(4, phi) = 8							
	g(2,{3}) = 15							
	g(2,{4}) = 18							
	g(3,{2}) = 18							
	g(3,{4}) = 20							
	g(4,{2}) = 13							

	g(4,{3}) = 15							
	g(2, {3,4}) = minimum of the options = 25							
	g(3, {2,4}) = 25							
	g(4, {2,3}) = 23							
	g(1, {2,3,4}) = 35							
68	**Reliability Design Problem**							
	we have to set up a system							
	system consists of certain devices							
	Reliability here means what is the probability of a device working perfectly / good				Example:			
DEVICES	D1	D2	D3	D4	Di	Ci	ri	ui
COST	C1	C2	C3	C4	D1	30	0.9	2
RELIABILITY	r1	r2	r3	r4	D2	15	0.8	3
	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	D3	20	0.5	3
					C = 105			
	Reliability of the entire system = product of individual reliability of the devices = 0.9^4 = 0.6561 i.e. 35% chance that the system might experience a failure				At least one copy of each device must be taken, so C1 + C2 + C3 = 30 + 15 + 20 = 65			
	In case of failure, system is designed to have parallel copies of devices as a back up				Remaining amount = C - sum(Ci) = 105 - 65 = 40			
	here, r1 = 0.9				if I spend the entire remaining amount on D1, I would be able to purchase 1 D1 device			
	1 - r1 = 1 - 0.9 = 0.1				**ui = [C - sum(Ci) / Ci] + 1 copies of any device Di**			
	(1 - r1) ^3 = 0.1^3 = 0.001				for D2, 40/15 = 2 + 1 = 3 copies			
	probability that three copies are working perfectly = 1 - (1 - r1) ^3 = 0.999				for D3, 40/20 = 2 + 1 = 3 copies			
	Reliability has improved by using a parallel system				Solving this is similar to the set method of 0/1 knapsack problem, let's delve deeper			
	How many devices should I buy within the given cost such that the system's reliability is maximized				(R,C)			
					s0 = {(1,0)}			
					consider D1, $s1^1$ = {(0.9, 30)}			
					if we take 2 copies of the firstd evice D1 , $s1^2$ = {(1(1-0.9)^2)} = 1 - 0.1^2 = 0.99			
					thus, $s1^2$ = {(0.99, 60)}			

		s1 = {(0.9, 30), (0.99, 60)}					
		consider D2 one copy, $s2_1$ = {(0.72,45), (0.792, 75)}					
		Taking 2 copies of D2, $s2_2$ = 1 - (1 - r2) ^2 = 1 - (1 - 0.8)^2 = 1 - 0.04 = 0.96					
		{(0.864, 60), (0.9504, 90)}					
		in the last case, remaining cost = 105 - 90 = 15 ; we cannot purchase D3 as its cost is 20 which is more than our remaining amount; so we would discard that set option as. it is unfeasible					
		consider 3 copies of D2, reliability = 1 - (1 - r2)^3 = 1 - (1 - 0.8)^3 = 1 - 0.008 = 0.992					
		$s2_3$ = {(0.8928, 75), (...., 105)} --> second case is discarded as it is unfeasible					
		s2 = {(0.72,45), (0.792, 75), (0.864, 60), (0.8928, 75)}					
		in s2, the third case has cost decreased but reliability is increased, thus we would use domimance rule to remove / discard the third case					
		Now, consider one copy of D3, $s3_1$ = {(0.36,65), (0.432, 80), (0.4464, 95)}					
		r3 = 0.5 ; 1- (!-r3)^2 = 1- 0.25 = 0.75					
		$s3_2$ = {(0.54, 85), (0.648, 100)} the third case has cost exceeding 105 thus it has been discarded					
		Consider three copies; 1 - (1 - r3) ^3 = 0.875					
		$s3_3$ = {(0.63, 105)}					
		s3 = {(0.36,65), (0.432, 80), (0.4464, 95), (0.54, 85), (0.648, 100), (0.63, 105)}					
		Using dominance rule, s3 = {(0.36,65), (0.432, 80), (0.54, 85), (0.648, 100)}					
		Maximum reliability = 0.648 and the cost would be 100					
		for getting the number of copies of devices, go backward from 0.648, 100 ordered pair					
		which shows 1 copy of D1, 2 copies of D2, 2 copies of D3					
69	**Longest Common Subsequence (LCS)**						
	What is LCS?						

	LCS Using Recursion						
	LCS Using Memoization (to save time as recursion is time consuming)						
	LCS Using Dynamic Programming						
	String 1: a b c d e f g h i j	String1: a b d a c e					
	String 2: e c d g i	String 2: b a b c e					
	c d g i is the longest subsequence	b a c e and a b c e are the longest subsequences					
	LCS Using recursion						
A	b d \0	int LCS(i,j)					
		{					
B	a b c d \0	if (A[i] == '\0' || B[j] == '\0')					
		return 0;					
		else if (A[i] == B[j])					
		return 1 + LCS(i + 1, j + 1);					
		else					
		return max(LCS(i+1, j), LCS(i, j+1);					
		}					
	Recursion tree for the above example -						
	A[0] , B[0] : b, a : 2						
Call1	A[1], B[0] : d, a : 1	A[0], B[1]: b, b : 2					
Call2	A[2], B[0] : \0 , a || A[1], B[1] : d, b : 1	1 + A[1], B[2] : 1 + d, c					
Call3	0 || A[2], B[1] : \0, b || A[1], B[2] : d, c : 1	1 + A[2], B[2] || 1+ A[1], B[3]					
Call 4	0 || 0 || A[2], B[2] : \0, c || A[1], B[3] : d, d : 1	1 + \0 || 1 + 1					
	0 || 0 || 0 || 1 + A[2], B[4] : 1 + \0 : 1						
	The purpose of the above problem was to depict that there is an issue of overlapping. But, there is no reason for repeat recalls if we can store the answer of previous stage. Thus, we use memoization						
	LCS using memoization						
	a b c d \0						

		0	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**			
b	**0**	2	2	-	-	-			
d	**1**	1	1	1	1	-			
\0	**2**	0	0	0	-	0			

Memoization can reduce the number of function calls : O(m X n) where m and n are the counts in String 1 and 2 respectively

LCS using dynamic programming

DP would follow bottom up approach and fill out the table top to bottom whereas in the previous approach we were following top down approach and filling the table in bottom up manner

A : b d

B : a b c d

```
if(A[i] == B[j])
{
LCS[i,j] = 1 + LCS[i - 1, j - 1];
} else
{
LCS[i,j] = max(LCS(i - 1, j], LCS[i, j - 1])
}
```

			a	**b**	**c**	**d**
		0	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
	0	0	0	0	0	0
b	**1**	0	0	1	1	1
d	**2**	0	0	1	1	2

if we trace our way back from 2 (d,d) above then we see that we go backwards diagonally to 1 (b,c) , then horizontally to 1 (b, b) and then diagonally back to 0 (0,a); thus there are two times we moved diagonally back i.e. b d is the LCS

str 1 s t o n e

str 2 l o n g e s t

			l	**o**	**n**	**g**	**e**	**s**	**t**
		0	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
0	**0**	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
s	**1**	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
t	**2**	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2
o	**3**	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	2
n	**4**	0	0	1	2	2	2	2	2

e	**5**	0 0 1 2 2 3 3 3						
LCS		Take the elements which came from a diagonal - o n e						
	70	**Graph Traversals - BFS and DFS**						
		Visiting a vertex						
		Exploration of a vertex - visiting all of the adjacent vertices						
		BFS: 1, 2, 4, 5, 3, 6, 7						
		DFS: 1, 2, 3, 6, 7, 4, 5						
		BFS: 1 4 2 3 5 8 7 10 9 6						
Queue:	**Q**	1 4 2 3 5 8 7 10 9 6						
		Breadth first search spanning tree -						
		1						
		4 2						
		3 5 8 7						
		10 9						
		6						
		DFS: 1 4 3 10 9 2 8 7 5 6						
		Stack:	***Depth first search spanning tree***					
		O(n) where n is the number of vertices	1					
		5	4					
		7	3					
		8	10 9 2					
		2	8					
		4	7					
		1	5					
			6					
	71	**Articulation point**						
		Biconnected components						
		In a graph, if there is a vertex whose removal would segregate the graph into distinct components, then that vertex is called the articulation ppoint						
		To tackle articulation point, we need to extend an edge from vertex in one component to another						

	How to find an articulation point in a graph?	Algorithm:					
	DFS: 1 2 3 4 5 6	Conduct depth first search and find depth first search spanning tree					
	d: 1 6 3 2 4 5	Mention the discovery times for each vertex					
	L: 1 1 1 1 3 3	We need to find the lowest discovery number to find any vertex by taking a back edge					
	u, v: parent, child then the lowest number of v i.e. L[v] >= d[u] then u is an articulaion point. This condition is true for all except the root.	Find out articulation point					
	The above algorithm is true for v = 5 and u = 3; hence 3 is the articulation point						
	If root has more than one child, then root is also an articulation point						
72	**Backtracking**						
	Brute force approach						
	When you have multiple solutions and you want to get all those solutions , then you use backtracking						
	Example: B1B2G1 (Three students) in 3 chairs	All possible arrangements 3! ways					
	State space tree						
	B1 (in chair 1)						
	B2 (in chair 2)						
	G1 (in chair 3)						
	for another arrangement, take out B2 and G1; then G1 can sit in chair 2 and B2 in chair 3						
	Now, no more solutions with B1 in chair 1; then take out B1 as well; put B2 in chair 1						
	B1 in chair 2 and G1 in chair 3; B1 in chair 3 and G1 in chair 2						
	Again, no more solutions with B2 in chair 1, so take B2 out and put G1 in chair 1						
	B1 in chair 2 and B2 in chair 3; B2 in chair 2 and B1 in chair 3						
	thus, altogether 6 solutions	Now, in backtracking problems, usually we have certain constraints and we select solutions that work for them; for instance, G1 cannot sit in any middle positions					
		Then, possible solutions are: B1B2G1; B2B1G1; G1B1B2; G1B2B1					
		The rest of the **nodes are killed** when we applied the **bounding function**					

	Same brute force approach is used by **branch and bound strategy**; both strategies also generate state space tree as well...but ***back tracking follows depth first search*** whereas ***branch and bound follows breadth first search*** approach						
	Branch and bound state space tree is generated level-wise						
73	**N-Queens Problem**						
	A chess board is given (4X4) for the case of simplicity even though a standard chess board is 8X8. We are given 4 queens Q1Q2Q3Q4				Queen's moves can be diagonal or horizontal or vertical; we need to place the 4 queens such that they are not under attack i.e. they are not in the same row, column or diagonal		
	1 **2** **3** **4**				We have more than one solution and we want all possible solutions		
1	....				I can place them in 16C4 ways. But, A queen cannot be kept anywhere on the board but first queen in Row 1; second in row 2 and so on.. We can avoid keeping more than one queen in single column		
2	....						
3	....						
4	....						
	State space tree first without taking care of diagonal attacks						
	Q1 in column1 --> Q2 in column2 --> Q3 in column 3 --> Q4 in column 4						
	Now, move back and move Q3 in column 4 and Q4 in column 3						
	Now, move back and move Q2 in column 3 --> Q3 in column 2 --> Q4 in column 4						
	Again , move back and move Q3 in column 4 and Q4 in column 2						
	Now, move back and move Q2 in column 2 --> 2 possibilities Q3 in column 2 and Q4 in column 3; Q3 in column 3 and Q4 in column 2						
	Now, roll back completely, move Q1 in column 2 and we get similar to above set of solutions						
	Thus, total possible cells we are checking: 1 + 4 + 4*3 + 4*3*2 + 4*3*2*! nodes when we have avoided same rows and same columns but we are allowing diaagonals				65 nodes		

	1 + Summation(Product(N - j)) where j ranges from 0 to i and i ranges from 0 to 3; here N is 4 ; for 8X8 board, N would be 8						
	Now, let us solve this with bounding function i.e. condition - not same row, same column , same diagonal						
	State space tree						
	Q1 in column 1 --> Q2 in column 2 --> under attack --> kill the node						
	Q1 in column 1 --> Q2 in column 3 --> Q3 in column 2 --> under attack --> kill the node						
	Q1 in column 1 --> Q2 in column 3 --> Q3 in column 4 --> under attack --> kill the node						
	Q1 in column 1 --> Q2 in column 4 --> Q3 in column 2 --> Q4 in column 3 --> under attack --> kill the node						
	Q1 in column 1 --> Q2 in column 4 --> Q3 in column 3 --> Q4 in column 2 --> under attack --> kill the node						
	Q1 in column 2 --> Q2 in column 1 --> under attack --> kill the node						
	Q1 in column 2 --> Q2 in column 3 --> under attack --> kill the node						
	Q1 in column 2 --> Q2 in column 4 --> Q3 in column 1 --> Q4 in column 3	solution 1					
	Q1 in column 3 --> Q2 in column 1 --> Q3 in column 4 --> Q4 in column 2	solution 2 (mirror image of solution 1)					
74	**Sum of subsets problem**						
	w[1:6] = {5, 10, 12, 13, 15, 18}	Six weights are given; we have to take a subset such that their sum is 30					
	n = 6; m = 30	Total is 73 here for given weights					
	x = ...						
	1 2 3 4 5 6	Each xi value can be 0/1					
	State space tree						
	Either first weight is included || Or first weight is not included						
	Either second weight is included || Or second weight is not included						
	Either third weight is included || Or second third is not included						
	...so, we get 7 levels --> 2^6 paths i.e. 2^n paths	thus, it is time consuming but we try to kill the nodes if they do not satisfy the bounding function					
	0, 73						

	5, 68 (first weight is included)						
	15, 58 (second weight is included)						
	27, 46 (third weight is included)						
	if I include fourth weight --> 40, 33 --> exceeds the bounding condition --> kill this node	Summation($w_i x_{i\ i=1\ to\ k}$) + w_{k+1} <= m					
	Try without including 4th object, 27, 33						
	Try including 5th object --> 43, 18 --> kill this node						
	Try without 5th object --> 27, 18						
	Now, try including 6th object --> 45, 0 --> exceeding --> kill the node						
	Try without 6th object --> 27, 0 --> meaningless --> not enough weights	Summation($w_i x_{i\ i=1\ to\ k}$) + $w_{i\ i=k+1\ to\ n}$ > m					
	Try excluding object 3; 15, 46						
	Try including 4th object --> 28, 33						
	Try including 5th object --> 43, 18 --> exceeding --> kill the node						
	Try without 5th object and include 6th object --> 44, 0 --> kill the node						
	Try excluding objct 4 as well : 15, 33						
	Try including 5th object : 30, 18	Solution 1: Object 1, 2 and 5					
	Several other possible solutions by following depth first search in this backtracking problem						
75	**Graph coloring problem**						
	A graph is given and some colors are given. We need to color the vertices of the graph such that no two neighboring vertices are of the same color						
	So, let us start from vertex 1 (Red color)	we have 5 vertices and three colors: R, G, B					
	vertex 2 (neighbors 1 and 3) : G color						
	vertex 3 (neighbors 2, 4 and 5) : R color						
	vertex 4 (neighbors 3 and 5) : G color						
	vertex 5 (neighbors 4, 1, 2 and 3): B color						
	1 2 3 4 5						
	R G R G B	m Coloring Decision Problem (can the graph be colored or not) or Chromatic color problem					

	G R G R B	m Coloring Optimization Problem (minimum how many colors are needed)					
	if we had just two colors, it can not be colored						
	we just want to know if the graph can be colored by the given number of colors						
	4 vertices: 1,2 , 3, 4						
	3 colrs: RGB						
	State space tree						
	vertex 1 can be R , G , or B						
	following that vertex 2 can be R, G, B and so on	Right now, we are not applying adjacency condition					
		Total number of nodes generated: 1 + 3 + 3*3 + 3*3*3 + 3*3*3*3 = 1 + 3 + 9 + 27 + 81 = 3^5 - 1 / 3 - 1					
		Total time spent is 3^n+1 i.e. C^n+1					
	Now, let us consider adjacency condition						
	vertex 1: R color						
	vertex 2 (neighbors 1 and 3): G color						
	vertex 3 (neighbors 2 and 4): R color						
	vertex 4 (neighbors 1 and 3): G or B color						
	R G R G || R G R B						
	R G B G						
	R B R B || R B R G						
	R B G B						
	I have a map with different regions. We need to color the map such that the adjacent areas are not of the same color. Minimum number of times the sheet needs to be passed through a printer						
	For each region of a map, we mention it as a vertex and we would draw an edge for neighboring regions						
	Then, we can solve the m-coloring problem in the graph and implement those colors for the map						
76	**Hamiltonian cycle**						
	If a graph is given , we have to start from any one vertex and travel through all the vertices and reach back to the starting vertex --> this forms a cycle --> we need to check if there is a hamiltonian cycle possible --> find all possibilities						

Graph given may be directed or non-directed but it must be connected

It's an exponential time taking problem

If the order of the vertices is the same, even though the starting vertex varies , it is still considered the same hamiltonian cycle

If there is an ***articulation point*** (junction point) in a graph, then hamiltonian cycle is not possible in the graph

If there is a ***pendant vertex*** in a graph, then hamiltonian cycle is not possible in the graph

Adjacency matrix for the graph:

G	1	2	3	4	5
1	0	1	1	0	1
2	1	0	1	1	1
3	1	1	0	1	0
4	0	1	1	0	1
5	1	1	0	1	0

Array to determine if the cycle has been found:

x	.....	.....	....	.....	.....
	1	2	3	4	5

Initially all these values are zero;

we do not want repetitions, so we fix the starting vertex; let us take it as 1

x	1	0	0	0	0

State space tree:

vertex 1

try to put 1 in vertex 2; but 1 is already at vertex 1; so put 2 at vertex 2 --> check if there is an edge from 1 to 2 --> adjacency matrix shows that there is an edge

x	1	2	0	0	0

For next position i.e. vertex 3 , try putting 1 or 2 but they are already there so use 3 ; check if there is an edge between 2 and 3 --> yes, there is

x	1	2	3	0	0

Similarly, check if vertex 4 is connected to vertex 3 by an edge --> yes

x	1	2	3	4	0

Now, 4 is connected with 5 with an edge

Algorithm

```
{
   do
      {
         NextVertex(k);
         if(x[k] == 0)
                        {
                          return;
                        }
          if(k == n)
                       {
                        print(x[1:n]);
                        } else
                        {
                         Hamiltonian(k+1)
                         }
         } while(true);
}
```

Algorithm NextVertex(k)

```
{
   do
      {
         x[k] = (x[k] + 1)mod(n+1);
```

x	**1 2 3 4 5**	if(x[k] == 0) return;					
	Now, from 5 to 1 there is an edge, hence a cycle is formed and first solution is obtained	if(G[x[k - 1], x[k]] not equals 0){					
	we can check for cycle again by using vertices in another order	for j = 1 to k - 1 do if (x[j] == x[k]) break;					
x	**1 2 5 4 3**	if(j == k)					
	all possibilities: 4!	if(k < n or (k == n) && G[x[n], x[1]] not equals zero					
	for n vertices graph , (n - 1)!, thus time complexity is O (n^n)	return;					
		} while(true);					
		}					
77	**Branch and bound strategy**						
	Useful for solving optimization problem(just minimization problem)						
	Example: Job sequencing						
	Jobs: { J1, J2, J3, J4}						
	P = {10, 5, 8, 3}						
	d = {1, 2, 1, 2}						
	Methods of prepresenting solutions:						
	S1: {J1, J4} ; Variable sized solution or subset method						
	S2: {1, 0, 0, 1} : Fixed sized solution						
	State space tree						
	J1 is considered; J2 is considered; J3 is considered; J4 is considered	Breadth first search unlike backtracking					
	Following this if J1 --> J2, J3 or J4 can be taken	J1 --> J2 --> J3 --> J4 || J1 ---> J2 --> J4					
	J2 --> J3 and J4 are considered; J1 has been discarded						
	J3 --> J4 ; J1 and J2 are discarded						
	Another method: while constructing the state space tree, place the nodes in a stack						
	Now, pop out first node and expand the fifth node						
	But, 5th node is the last node and there is no expansion possible, thus pop out second last node and expand the 4th node						

	Further expansion is not possible as the fifth node has already been placed						
	similar manner, J3 and J4 are popped and placed as child of J2						
	If we use queue --> FIFO Branch and bound						
	If we use stack --> LIFO Branch and Bound						
	Now, let us look at Least cost branch and bound method						
	we will start with vertex 1 and compute cost at each node						
	1, Cost = infinity						
	J1, cost: 25						
	J2, cost = 12						
	J3, cost 19						
	J4, cost = 30						
	let us explore the node with the minimum cost i.e. J2						
78	**Job sequencing with deadline problem**						
	Maximization problem to maximize profit but branch and bound can only solve minimization problems, thus we have converted profits to penalty and problem now becomes to minimize the overall penalty						
Jobs	1 2 3 4						
Penalty	5 10 6 3						
Deadline	1 3 2 1						
Time taken for completion	1 2 1 1						
	By generating a state space tree:	each node will be specified by upper bound (sum of all the penalties for the jobs that have not been included till now); cost (sum of penalties of jobs included till now)					
	1: U = INFINITY, COST: 0						
	2: J1 is included; cost: 0, u: 19						
	3: J2 is included and we are not doing J1: u: 14, cost = 5						

	4: J3 is included and we are not doing J1 and J2: cost = 15; u: 14	here, cost has increased from the previous node whereas the upper value remains the same, thus we kill this node					
	5: J4 is included and we are not doing J1, J2 and J3; COST = 21 (HIGHER THAN THE PREVIOUS NODE, THUS KILL THIS NODE)						
	Now, let's move to the next level in the state space tree						
	Let us include J1 and further three scenarios: J2 is included; J3 is included; J4 is included						
	6: J2 is included, cost = 0; u = 9						
	7: J3 is included, cost = 10 (2nd job is not included); u = 9 --> kill this node						
	8: J4 is included whereas J2 and J3 are excluded ; cost = 16 --> kill this node						
	for J2 , 2 possibilities: J3 is included; J4 is included						
	9: J1 is not included, J2 is included, J3 is included: cost = 5; u = 8						
	10: J1 is not included, J2 is included, J3 is not included, J4 is included: cost = 11; u = 8 --> kill this node						
	11: J1is included --> J2 is included --> J3 is included						
	but, if we complete J1 and J2, 3 hours are used and there is no time left for J3 --> this job cannot be done; similarly J4 cannot be done						
	12: J1 is not included, J2 is included, J3 is included, J4 is included; cost = 5; u = 5; but they cannot be done this manner based on the time and deadlines						
	Thus, optimum cost we got is 5 and penalty is 8: doing J2 and J3						
79	**0/1 Knapsack problem**						
Profit	10 10 12 18						
Weight	2 4 6 9						
	m = 15; n = 4						
	Maximize profit when you can fill the bag with complete weight or not take it at all						

	Branch and bound can solve only minimization problems, so to convert this maximization problem to a minimization one, we would convert positive profits to negative ones and then minimize them overall						
	We will use LC Branch and bound (always exploring that node whose cost is minimum)						
	u = summation(Pixi) <= m						
	C = summation(Pixi) with fraction						
	We would generate a state space tree but we need to decide what kind of solution we want - a subset or a fixed-sized solution of 0's and 1's. So, here we are seeking a fixed sized solution						
	Let us generate state space tree						
	upper = infinity						
	C = 10 + 10 + 12						
	2 + 4 + 6 i.e total comes out to 12						
	we can include 3 more kgs						
	thus, C = 10 + 10 + 12 + 18/9 * 3 = -38						
	u = -32						
u	-32						
C	-38						
	Now, I am including the first object then we get the same solution, u = -32, v = -38; but if we exclude object 1, then						
	C = 10 + 12 + 18/9 * 5 = -32; upper = -22						
	4 + 6 + 5 kgs						
	Now, this cost is not greater than the previous upper, so no need to kill this node						
	we will follow least cost branch and bound; and go ahead with the least cost branch which is including object 1 as the cost is -38						
	it can be further explored, if we include object 2 after including object 1 or not						
	if we include object 2, then the cost and upper bound remain the same as nothing has been excluded						
	on the other hand, if we exclude object 2, the new cost and upper bound value in this scenario is as follows:						
	u = -22						

	C = 10 + 12 + 18/9 * 7 = -36						
	2 + 6 + 7						
	Now, the cost is not greater than u = -32, thus we would not kill it						
	Now, least cost is -38 when we include both objects 1 nd 2 , so we would explore that path more						
	if Object 3 is included, cost remains the same i.e. C = -38, u = -32						
	if Object 3 is excluded, cost is as follows:						
	C = 10 + 10 + 18 = -38						
	2 + 4 + 9						
	u = - 38						
	here, we got the smaller upperbound, so upper bound gets updated to -38						
	also look at the cost of alive nodes, and kill those nodes whose Cost is greater than -38						
	Now, if we take further the scenario that all objects are included, it is not feasible as weight exceeds the bag limit						
	so, we would explore the scenario when object 3 is exluded while the rest are included						
	C = -38; u = -38						
	and if we consider not including 4th object, then C = -20; tthis cost is greater than -38 so kill the node						
	thus, answer is x{1, 1, 0, 1}						
	maximum profit is 38 and weight is 15						
80	**Travelling salesperson branch and bound**						
	A weighted graph is given and we need to find the shortest tour such that it travels through all the vertices and returns back to the starting vertex						
	Now, if we make the state space tree for a 4-vertex graph and we start with vertex 1, then the first level would be three choices - vertex 2, 3 or 4; It will further have 2 choices each on each path , for example - vertex 1 - vertex 2 - then can take vertex 3 or 4 further it will take the remaining vertex	Now, in this case, we are using depth first serach which is normally used in back tracking problems where we wish to find all possible solutions. then we can discard or replace solutions that have the least tour cost / weight					
	We would use level order for applying branch and bound	but, this problem if solved by back tracking , it is time consuming					
	For every node , we would find the cost, if cost is greater than the upper bound set, then that node is killed						

Let us solve an example:

	1	2	3	4	5
1	INF	20	30	10	11
2	15	INF	16	4	2
3	3	5	INF	2	4
4	19	6	18	INF	3
5	16	4	7	16	INF

Now, we would first reduce this matrix by writing the minimum row values and subtracting the minimum values from all the values

	1	2	3	4	5	
1	INF	10	20	0	1	10
2	13	INF	14	2	0	2
3	1	3	INF	0	2	2
4	16	3	15	INF	0	3
5	12	0	3	12	INF	4
						Total cost of reduction = 21

Now, write the minimum value of each column and reduce them

	1	2	3	4	5	
1	INF	10	17	0	1	
2	12	INF	11	2	0	
3	0	3	INF	0	2	
4	15	3	12	INF	0	
5	11	0	0	12	INF	
	1	0	3	0	0	Total cost of reduction = 25

Now, minimum cost of tour would be at least 25 (i.e. cost of reduction) but to find it corectly, we would implement a state space tree

from vertex 1 --> we cen go to vertex 2, or 3, or 4 or 5

Cost of first matrix would be 25; upper = infinity

for every node we would find the cost and will update it only once we reach the leaf node rather than updating it each time

Now, vertex 1 --> vertex 2, make the first row and second column as infinity

	1	2	3	4	5

1	INF	INF	INF	INF	INF				
2	12	INF	11	2	0				
3	0	INF	INF	0	2				
4	15	INF	12	INF	0				
5	11	INF	0	12	INF				
	we note that it is still a reduced matrix, then the cost is C(1,2) + cost of reduction, r + rCap								
	10 + 25 + 0 = 35								
	Now, let's calculate the cost for vertex 1 --> vertex 3								
	Make first row as infinity, third column as infinity, make path 3 to 1 also as infinity								
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**				
1	INF	INF	INF	INF	INF	Checking row and column minimums and subtracting if some row or column has non-zero minimum			
2	12	INF	INF	2	0				
3	INF	3	INF	0	2				
4	15	3	INF	INF	0				
5	11	0	INF	12	INF				
	11	0	inf	0	0	Cost of further reduction: 11			
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**				
1	INF	INF	INF	INF	INF				
2	1	INF	INF	2	0				
3	INF	3	INF	0	2	Net cost : C(1,3) + r + rCap = 17 + 25 + 11 = 53			
4	4	3	INF	INF	0				
5	0	0	INF	12	INF				
	similarly, we calculated the cost of the remaining two vertices								
	vertex 1 --> 4, cost = 25								
	vertex 1 --> 5, cost = 31								
	Now, if we consider FIFO branch and bound, then we would consider vertex 1 --> 2, if we consider LC branch and bound, then we would consider vertex 1 --> 4								
	from vertex 4 --> can further go to vertex 2, 3 or 5								
	we will use this matrix that was obtained from vertex 1 --> 4								

	1	2	3	4	5						
1	INF	INF	INF	INF	INF						
2	12	INF	11	INF	0						
3	0	3	INF	INF	2						
4	INF	3	12	INF	0						
5	11	0	0	INF	INF						
	now, vertex 4 --> 2; set row 4 and column 2 as infinity, also set 1,2 as infinity as we cannot go back from 2 to vertex 1										
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**						
1	INF	INF	INF	INF	INF						
2	12	INF	11	INF	0	0					
3	0	INF	INF	INF	2	0					
4	INF	INF	INF	INF	INF						
5	11	INF	0	INF	INF	0					
	it is already reduced , thus cost = (4,2) + C(4) + rCap = 3 + 25 + 0 = 28										
	For other two vertices, cost is C = 50 (vertex 1 --> 4 --> 3) and C = 36 (vertex 1 --> 4 --> 5)										
	Select the minimum cost one --> vertex 1 --> 4 --> 2										
	Now, remaining vertices are 3 and 5										
	for vertex 3, make second row and third column infinity										
	also, make 3,1 as infinity										
	then, we make it a reduced matrix										
	Cost = C(2,3) + C(2) + rCap = 11 + 28 + 13 = 52										
	Now, cost for vertex 1 --> 4 --> 2 --> 5; C is 28										
	considering minimum cost one, i.e. vertex 5 , vertex 1 --> 4 --> 2 --> 5										
	the last one remaining is vertex 3 only										
	Cost comes out to be 28										
	thus, shortest dist. route : vertex 1 --> 4 --> 2 --> 5 --> 3										
81	**NP -Hard and NP-Complete**										
	Polynomial time					**Exponential time**					

	Linear search - n	0/1 Knapsack - 2^n					
	Binary search - logn	Travelling salesperson - 2^n					
	Insertion sort - n^2	Sum of subsets - 2^n					
	Merge sort - nlogn	Graph coloring - 2^n					
	Matrix multiplication - n^3	Hamiltonian cycle - 2^n					
	We want faster methods to solve these problems.						
	Frameworks made for doing research on exponential time problems						
	Those frameworks are NP-Hard and NP-Complete						
	When you are unable to solve exponential time problems, you at least try to show similarities between the problems, such that if one is solved, the other can also be solved	Either solve it, or atleast relate it					
	When you are unable to write polynomial time deterministic algorithms for exponential time problems, then you should go about writing polynomial time non-deterministic algorithms						
	Deterministic algorithm means that each and every statement has been written by us and we know how it works						
	In a non deterministic algorithm also, most of the statements might be deterministic , just some statements we might not be sure or aware of, we can leave them blank and fill it when we get hold of those problems	This helps in preserving the work done until now for future researchers who might be able to fill in the gaps					
	How to write non-deterministic algorithms?						
	Example:						
	Algorithm NSearch(A, n, key)	here, choice(), success(), failure() are all the ways / statements we use in non-deterministic algorithms					
	j = choice();	we assume that these are taking O(1) time					
	if(key == A[j])	Initially, we do not know the time taken and they are non-deterministic ...once in future, we get to know them, then it is filled in by deterministic statements					
	{	Entire algorithm takes O(1) time - fastest					
	write(j);	How the choice() is working we do not know, once we get to know about it, it becomes a technique / deterministic					
	success();						
	}						
	write(0);						
	failure();						

	P is the set of those deterministic algorithms which take polynomial time	**NP** is the set of those non-deterministic algorithms which might take polynomial time					
	P is shown as a subset of NP as they were once unknown in the past and have been found with time.'						
	Cook's theorem tries to prove that P is a subset of NP						
	CNF - Satisfiability: To find the relationship b/w exponential time taking problems						
	x: {x1, x2, x3}						
	CNF propositional calculus formula; CNF = (x1 v x2 v x3) A (x1 complement v x2 complement v x3 complement)						
	Satisfiability problem is to find out for which values of xi the above formula is true.						
	x1 x2 x3						
	0 0 0						
	0 0 1						
	0 1 0						
	0 1 1						
	1 0 0						
	1 0 1						
	1 1 0						
	1 1 1						
	I should try all the above values for the CNF and it takes (2^n) or exponential time						
	If we make a state space tree, the path from the root to the leaf of the tree gives us the solution						
	Also, to understand how to find the relationships between these exponential time problems, we take a 0/1 knapsack problem						
	P = {10, 8, 12} w - { 5, 4, 3} m = 8						
	Profit should be maximized and capacity of the bag should not be exceeded						
	x1, x2, x3 can take 2^3 values as shown above						
	Thus, satisfiability has also been added to exponential time problems and if you solve the state space tree in poynomial time, then use it to find solution for CNF						
	Satisfiability is the base problem						
	NP - Hard problem (Satisfiability)						

	We take some instance of satisfiability and from that we convert it into 0/1 knapsack problem. We can say that if either one is solved and it can be used to solve the other in polynomial time. This shows that they are related to each other..						
	If satisfiability is reducing to 0/1 knapsack problem, then o/1 knapsack problem is also knapsack problem						
	Reduction has a transitive property						
	Satisfiability --> L1, then L1 --> L2						
	For satisfiability , we have non-deterministic polynomial time algorithm. Then that problem is also called NP- Complete.						
	Satisfiability --> L ; for any of these problems, if this problem is reduced by Satisfiability, then if we are able to write non-deterministic algorithm, then L also becomes NP-Complete						
	L -- we need to show that this is directly or indirectly related to satisfiability --> it becomes part of NP Hard class, if we also write a non-deterministic algorithm --> it becomes part of NP - Complete						
	Satisfiability is the subset of NP -Hard and if satisfiability is used to reduce Graph coloring or 0/1 knapsack then they also become NP Hard						
	Intersection of NP Hard and non-deterministic algorithm problems is NP complete						
	P is a subset of NP (non-deterministic algorithms) and this P keeps on expanding as the research yields results with time						
	If we are able to prove that P = NP, then it can be proved that whatever non-deterministic we are working on today, it will become deterministic in fture						
	Cook's algorithm: satisfyability lies in P ie it becomes deterministic, if and only if P = NP						
82	**NP-Hard Graph Problem & Clique decision making problem (CDP)**						
	Complete graph - for every vertex, there is an edge connecting to all the other vertices						
	|V| = n , then number of edges |E| = n (n - 1) / 2						
	What is a clique? Sub graph of a graph which is actually a complete graph is called a clique						
	A problem which requires answer yes or no is a decision problem						

	What is the maximum clique size in the graph? -- optimization problem						
	If a decision problem is an NP Hard problem , then the optimization problem is also an NP Hard problem, but we first need to prove that clique decision problem is an NP Hard problem.						
	Select a known LP Hard problem and from that relate and prove the other problem LP Hard problem.						
	We should take example I1 of problem L1 and I2 of problem L2 , such that if I2 can be solved in polynomial time, then I1 can also be solved in polynomial time						
	And, vice versa should also be true. The conversion from L1 to L2 can also be done in polynomial time.						
	CDP problem (L2) -- want to show as NP Hard problem	Satisfiability problem (L1) -- known as NP Hard problem					
	We have to prove that satisfiability reduces to CDP						
	For this we have to take an example of satisfiability i.e. a conjective normal form formula	From that formula we should prepare a graph having some clique					
	I will take a satisfiability example formula with three variables x1, x2 and x3						
	F = (x1 V x2) A (x1 bar V x2 bar) A (x1 V x3)						
	There are basically three clauses C1, C2 and C3						
	F = ACi where i takes values from 1 to k						
	Take the formula and make a graph out of it						
	G V = { <a, i> | a belongs to Ci}						
	How to connect edges?						
	Rule 1: Do not connect vertices from the same clause						
	Rule 2: You cannot connect a clause with its negation i.e. x1, i cannot be connected to x1 bar, i						
	E = {(<a, i>, <b, j>)| i not equals to j and b not equals to a bar}						
	We note that there is a clique of 2 vertices as well as 3 vertices.						
	Hence, it is proved that if you take a satisfiability formula with k distinct clauses, then a k-clique sized graph is formed using it.						
	Now, make the vertices of the clique as true	x1 x2 x3					
	Now, C1, C2 and C3 all three are 1 and thus the formula F is also 1 i.e. true	0 1 1					
	this proves that a satisfyability formula results in a clique decision problem, thus as we know a satisfyability formula / problem is an NP Hard problem, hence clique decision making is also an NP Hard problem						

	To further prove it NP Complete, we need to write a non-deterministic polynomial time algorithm						
83	**Knuth - Morris - Pratt (KMP) algorithm**						
	Used for pattern matching						
String	a b c d e f g h						
Pattern	d e f						
	Several such algorithms exist, we need to see a basic algorithm Naive and find its drawback and see how KMP algorithm handles those drawbacks						
	Write the pattern directly below the string letters. Compare the pattern with the first letters. If it does not match, then shift the entire pattern by one letter						
	If there is a match, then no need to shift, check the next letter in both pattern and string nd do the same for all the letters in the pattern						
	Now, we note that in case of mismatch, j shifts back to index 0 and i shifts back to index 1; this is a waste of time as i had already moved ahead						
	We want to avoid this backtracking / shifting of i in basic Naive algorithm						
	Now, let us look at the worst drawback of basic Naive algorithm						
	suppose we have a string: a a a a a a a b and a pattern: a a a b						
	here, a a a is repeating , we are checking again and again, moving back and checking it						
	this basic Naive algorithm is not checking the pattern and just blindly comparing. thsu, time complexity is O(mn)						
	Terminology of KMP algorithm: here, **pattern: abcdabc**						
prefix	a, ab, abc, abcd						
suffix	c, bc, abc, dabc						
	Now, compare and see if there is a prefix matching with a suffix						
	abc is one such prefix and suffix						
	Basically, we wish to check beginning part of the pattern is again appearing anywhere else in the pattern or not						
	In KMP algorithm ,for a pattern , we generate a Pi table (that is for longest prefix)						
	that pi is also called as longest prefix which is same as some suffix	LPS is also another name					

P1	a b c d a b e a b f						
	0 0 0 0 1 2 0 1 2 0						
P2	a b c d e a b f a b c						
	0 0 0 0 0 1 2 0 1 2 3						
P3	a a b c a d a a b e						
	0 1 0 0 1 0 1 2 0 0						
P4	a a a a b a a c d						
	0 1 2 3 0 1 2 0 0						
	KMP algorithm working:						
String	a b c a b c a b c a b a b a b d						
	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15						
Pattern	a b a b d						
	First of all we will prepare a pi table for the pattern						
Indices: 0	1 2 3 4 5						
Pattern	a b a b d						
	0 0 1 2 0						
	Now, we would begin taking i = 1 in the string and j = 0 in the pattern						
	Compare letter at index i in the string with letter at index j+1 in the pattern						
	If the letters match, then move j as well as i						
	If there is a mismatch, then move j tot he correcsponding index mentioned in the pi table; for example for letter b in the pattern, corresponding index is 2						
	If j+1 has a mismatch again with i, then again move j to corresponding index						
	If size of string is n and that of pattern is m; O(m + n) as we have moved through string and pattern just once						
84	**Rabin-Karp algorithm**						
Text	a a a a a b						
Pattern	a a b						
	Pattern matching algorithm						
	we basically do not wish to compare and match each letter; instead somehow compare a single value - may be a numerical value						

	we know each alphabet has ASCII code, eg. a - 97						
	we can take those codes and compare						
	right now, for the case of simplicity we will take single digit codes						
	a - 1 e - 5 i - 9						
	b - 2 f - 6 j - 10						
	c - 3 g - 7						
	d - 4 h - 8						
	...and so on						
Pattern	a a b						
	1 + 1 + 2 = 4 --> hashcode						
	and the function for obtaining hashcode is called hash function, h(p)						
Text	a a a a a b						
	Now, here n = 6						
	compare function for first three letter: 1 + 1 + 1 = 3 which is not matching the hashcode of our pattern, so no need to compare the letters						
	then, slide to the next set of three alphabets: 1 + 1 + 1 = 3						
	Again this is not matching, so slide this and match again						
	This sliding is called as rolling hash function						
	the code for last three letters is 4. Once you get a match , then confirm the letters inthe matching pattern and string component						
	Another example:						
Text:	a b c d a b c e						
Pattern:	b c e ; hashcode = 2 + 3 + 5 = 10						
	Average time of Rabin-Karp algorithm: O(n - m + 1)						
	Drawback:						
Text (n = 11)	c c a c c a a e d b a						
Pattern (n = 3)	d b a						
	hashcode : 4 + 2 + 1 = 7						
	the code for first three letters is 3 + 3 + 1 = 7 but letters do not match						

	again, the code for next three letters is a match but do no match actually.						
	Drawback is that there are many subsets (whose hashcode matches with the pattern) - spurious hits but the letters do not actually match						
	maximum time may be O(mn) in such situations						
Text (n = 11)	c c a c c a a e d b a						
Pattern (n = 3)	d b a						
	4X10^2 + 2X10 + 1X10^0 = 421						
	i.e. P[1]*10^(m - 1) + P[2]*10^(m - 2) + P[3]*10^(m - 3)						
	here, 10 is the base value as we have taken 10 alphabets						
	If we consider all the alphabets, then i should take 26 as the base value						
	If I consider, lower case. upper case etc. then total ASCII codes are 127						
Text	c c a c c a a e d b a						
	3X10^2 + 3X10 + 1X10^0 = 331 for first three letters in the text						
	thus, we do not get spurious hit now						
	Rolling hash function: to find the hashcode for enxt three alphabets: we will take hashcode for last two letters as it is (multiply it by 10), remove the hashcode of first one and add that of next letter						
	[(3X10^2 + 3X10 + 1X10^0) - 3X10^2]X 10 + 3X10^0						
	Thus, hashcode for next three alphabets: (331 - 300) * 10 + 3 = 313						
	basically we are using rolling function to compute hashcode for each set of 3 letter						
	It is given that we should use rolling function and take base powers, Rabin Finger Print function						
	Time complexity: O(n - m + 1) and worst case is O(nm)						
	Now, when we are taking the powers of the base, we might get a very large value and when we have written a program for this one, then id really depends on the datatype e.g. interger has 4 ; if it exceeds the limit, then the number can overflow.						
	To tackle the issue of overflowing , we can do mod of the hashcode by 2^31 if it is a 32-bit datatype as one bit is a sign bit. If it says that it is only positive bit datatype then we can do mod by 2^32						
	It depends on the language and datatype we are selecting						

	But, once we apply mod, there is a chance of spurious hits again						
	Again the algorithm might go towards worst case time of O (mn)						
85	**AVL Trees - Insertion and rotation**						
	Binary search tree						
	For any node, the elements on the left side are smaller than the node element and the elements on the right of the node are greater than the node element						
	Time taken for search in a BST depends on the height of the BST. Height of the BST can be anywhere between logN and N. So, the minimum time complexity: O(logN)						
	Example of a BST with height logN: keys - 30, 40, 10, 50, 20, 5, 35	Example of a BST with height N: keys - 50, 40, 35, 30, 20, 10, 5					
	For 3 keys, 3! ordered trees are possible i.e. 6 trees						
	Drawback of a BST: for a given set of keys, minimum height tree can also be formed and a maximum height tree can also be obtained						
	To get the desired kind of BST (smaller height), we use rotations. This is the idea of AVL trees.						
	Rotations are done only on three nodes at a time.						
	AVL Trees: Height balanced BST.	Balance factor: height of left subtree - height of right subtree					
	bf = hl - hr = {-1, 0, 1} i.e. |bf| = |hl - hr| <= 1						
	Example tree: 30, 20 bf = 1						
	Insert a node 10 in the tree; bf = 2 --> imbalanced tree						
	since, it became imbalanced when a node has been inserted on the left hand side, we would do a left to right rotationn here						
	New order after rotation: 10, 20, 30						
	This rotation is called as LL rotation.						
	Now, initial tree: 30, 10						
	Insert 20						
	bf = 2 for node 30 and it is imbalanced , it became imbalanced when I inserted on left and then right, so it is LR-imbalanced						
	it would have two step rotation, first we will rotate around 10: 30, 20, 10. Next we will rotate around 30.						
	So, it is a single rotation but done in two steps. (LR rotation)						

	Next example, keys: 10, 20, 30 . RR imbalance tree - It will have RR rotation (single step)						
	Another example: 10, 30, 20. RL imbalance tree - two step rotation						
	LR rotation: ABC --> First step of rotation around B --> ACB --> second step of rotation around A: BCA	***LL Rotation***: The rotation takes place around the root : A. Then B becomes the root with C as its left child and A as its right child. The previous right child of B i.e. Br becomes the left child of A					
	This entire rotation can also be done in 1 step: Move the last right node to the root and then the previous root node becomes its right child: In ABC, C moves to the root, and A becomes its right child --> BCA						
	Here, after rotation, left subtree of C i.e. Cl will become right subtree of B and right subtree, Cr will become left subtree of A						
	How AVL trees are created?						
	keys - 40, 20, 10, 25, 30, 22, 50						
	Step 1: 40 becomes the root						
	Step 2: 20 becomes its left child. The tree is still balanced.						
	Step 3: 10 becomes the left child of 20. The bf is 2 - imbalanced. LL rotation will perform. 20 becomes the root. 10 is its left child. 40 is its right child						
	Step 4: Insert 25 as the left child of 40						
	Step 5: Insert 30 as the right child of 25. The bf = -2. LR rotations. Showing it in one step. 30 takes the place of 40 as the right child of 20. 25 becomes its left child and 40 becomes its right child.						
	Step 6: Insert 22 as the left child of 25. The root node becomes imbalanced. (-2). Insetion has been done RLL. Considering only the three nodes from that imbalanced node. So, we would do RL rotation here. 25 takes the place of root with 20 as its left child and 30 as its right child. 10 becomes the left child of 20 and 40 becomes the right child of 30. The left subtree of 25 i.e. 22 becomes the right child of 20 as it would stay in the left side of 25 now as well.						
	Step 7: 50 is inserted on the right side of 40. All nodes are balanced except 30 (bf = -2). It had RR insertion. so we would do RR rotation around 30. 40 becomes the right child of 25. 30 becomes the left child of 40.						
	Now, we see it becomes a perfectly balanced BST i.e. AVL tree.						

	Don't let any node have balance factor greater than 2 or lesser than -2. If it is imbalanced, perform a rotation then and there.						
	Atmost height of the AVL tree can be 1.44logn. Time complexity for AVL tree: O(logn)						
	Similar to AVL tree, we also have a balanced BST kind which is Red black tree. Now, AVL tree might have several rotations during insertion to keep it balanced. To reduce this count of rotations, we use Red black tree. Red black tree does not have that much strict rules as that of AVL tree.						
86	**B Trees and B+ Trees. How are they useful in Databases?**						
	Disk Structure						
	How data is stored on disk?						
	What is indexing?						
	What is Multilevel indexing?						
	M-Way search trees						
	B-Trees						
	Insertion and deletion in B-Trees						
	B+ trees						
	Disk structure - Logical circles called tracks. Disk comprises of sectors. The intersection points of tracks and sectors are called as blocks. Any location on the disk can be addressed by block address: (track no. , sector no.)						
	Typically, blocks are 512 bytes.						
	when the disk is read, it is always done in the form of blocks.						
	The beginning addres sof that block can be 0 and last can be 511 byte. Then any address in between can be obtained by offset.						
	To reach a particular byte on a disk, we need to know track no., sector no. and offset						
	By spinning the sectors are changed and by moving head, tracks are changed.						
	Data cannot be directly processed in the disk. It has to be brought in the main memory, processed and then taken. Organizing the data inside the main memory that is directly used by a program is data structure. Organizing the data on the disk such that it is efficiently utilized - DBMS						
	How data is stored on disk?						

	Example:						
	Employee data						
	eid --- 10						
	name --- 50						
	dept --- 10						
	section --- 8						
	add --- 50						
	total size = 128						
	This means each row is 128 bytes.						
	No. of records per block = 512 / 128 = 4 records						
	For 100 records, 25 blocks are required.						
	When we perform a particular search operation, the time fo search depends upon the number of blocks that need to be searched						
	For efficient search, we would store the eid and record pointer in index.						
	We will store index also in a block in a disk						
	Now, we know that eid is 10 bytes and each record pointer takes 6 ytes. Thus each entry in index takes 16 bytes. Now, number of index items in a block = 512/ 16 = 32						
	Now, for 100 entries, 100/32 blocks are needs ie around 4						
	Thus, for checking an entry, maximum 5 blocks need to be looked at (4 indexing blocks and 1 the entry item block)						
	Multilevel Indexing						
	Now, when there were 100 employee recors (i.e. 100 rows), we needed 4 blocks for indexing. Now, if we have 1000 records, then we need 40 blocks.						
	Then searching in the index itself is a task. At that time, we realize the need of an index above this index of records.						
	So, a higher level index would hold the index pointer for each block. 1 Index pointer for first block, then 33 pointer for second block and so on.						
	This kind of index is a sparse index i.e. it won't have an entry for each record, instead it would have a record / pointer for each block.						
	High level index can be stored in 2 blocks.						
	Total blocks utilised = 42 for indexing						
	Self-managed multi-level indices						

	M-Way search trees						
	In a BST, smaller values are arranged on left side and greater values are assigned on right side						
	In a BST, we can have just 1 key and 2 children.						
	Now, can we have a tree that has more than 1 key and more than 2 children						
	In such a tree, keys can be arranged in an increasing order. Such-trees are called as M-Way search trees						
	Each node can have maximum 3 children and has 2 keys. Such a tree would be called as 3-way search tree.						
	Thus, an M-Way search tree would have at most M children and M-1 keys						
	If an M-Way search tree is a 4-way search tree then it's node structure would look as follows:						
	.... k1 .... k2 .... k3 .... The blanks here are pointers to 4 children nodes						
	Can we use this M-Way search tree for multi-level idnexing?						
	.... k1 .... k2 .... k3 .... The blanks here are record pointers and pointers to children nodes						
	Problem with M-Way search tree -						
	example: 10-way search tree						
	keys to be inserted: 10, 20, 30						
	10 is inserted. We can insert 8 more keys						
	Now, when 20 is inserted, it inserts as a new node instead of getting added to the previous node where there is space for 8 more keys.						
	This is the problem for M-Way search tree as there is no control during insertion.						
	For M -keys basically the height would be M and it would be time consumign, similar to linear search. There must be some rules or guidelines for creating M-way search trees, This paves way for B-Trees						
	B-Trees						
	Every node, you must fill atleast half. If the degree is M, then M/2 children must be there						
	Root can have minimum two children.						
	All leaf nodes must be at same level.						
	The creationn process is bottom up.						

	Example: m = 4						
	keys: 10, 20, 40, 50						
	First key inserted: 10						
	It can have 2 children and one record point						
	20 and 40 are inserted						
	There is no space now. Split the node and create a new node.						
	One key 40 moves to the root and it has children nodes: 10, 20 as one ode; 50 as another node						
	60 is inserted, then 70 is inserted. Both along with 50. Now, 80 needs to be inserted but there is no space.						
	so, we again split the node. 70 goes with 40 in the root. 50 and 60 remain in this node and 80 is inserted in a new node						
	Now, if we wish to insert 30. 30 will take place with 10 and 20 in the node.						
	Suppose we wish to insert 35 now. There is no place with 10, 20 and 30. so we split the node but there is no space after this node, so we put the new node before it.						
	10 and 20 are in the new node. 35 in the next node. 30 moves to the root node						
	Now, insert 5. Then 5, 10, 20 becomes a node. If we now insert 15. We would need the node to split. 5 and 10 move to the new node now. 15 goes to the root node. but the root node can hold only 3 keys: and there were already 3 keys - 30, 40, 70. so, to isert 15, we would need to split the root node and make a new root node over this level.						
	so, 15 and 30 in one node. 70 is the another node. 40 becomes the root node						
	How it is useful for databases?						
	Now, we know that each node has both child pointers and record pointers. These record pointers point to the database.						
	What is a B+ tree?						
	In a B+ tree , we will not have a record pointer from every node but only from the elaf node						
	so, what about the keys in other nodes. There would be a copy of each key value in the leaf node and the record pointers.						
	This lower leaf level becomes exactly like a dense index in a multilevel indexing.						

	All keys are present in the leaf nodes and in non-leaf nodes their duplicates might be present.						
	Leaf nodes as they are at the same level, tey will form a linked list. Then this becomes a dense index.						
	The next level is a sparse index.						
87	**Asymptotic Notations Simplified**						
	1 Constant						
	logn Logarithmic						
	n Linear						
	n^2 Quadratic						
	n^3 Cubic						
	2^n Exponential						
	Algorithm Add(a, b)	**Algorithm Sum(A, n)**					
	{	{					
	return a + b	s= 0;.....1					
	}	for i = 1 to n do.....n + 1					
	f(n) = 1 here; constant time complexity as the statement will execute for 1 time	{					
		s = s + A[i];.....n					
		}					
		return s;.....1					
		}					
		f(n) = 2n + 3					
	Algorithm MatAdd(A, B, C)						
	{						
	for i = 1 to n do	n + 1					
	{						
	for j = 1 to n do	n(n + 1)					
	{						
	C[i][j] = A[i][j] + B[i][j];	n^2					
	}						
	}						
	}	**f(n) = 2n^2 + 2n + 1**					

	Algorithm MatMul(A, B , C)						
	{						
	for i = 1 to n do	n + 1					
	{						
	for j = 1 to n do	n(n+1)					
	{						
	C[i][j] = 0;	n^2					
	for k = 1 to n do	n^2(n+1)					
	{						
	C[i][j] += A[i][k]*B[k][j];	n^3					
	}						
	}						
	}						
	}	**f(n) = 2n^3 + 3n^2 + 2n + 1**					
	Algorithm BinSearch(A, x, n)						
	{						
	i = 1;	1					
	j = n;	1					
	while(i <= j)	logn					
	{						
	mid = i + j / 2;	logn					
	if(x < A[mid])	logn					
	{						
	j = mid - 1;						
	}						
	else if (x > A[mid])						
	{						
	i = mid + 1;						
	}						
	else {						
	return mid;						
	}						
	}						
	}	**f(n) = 3logn + 2**					

	Algorithm Test(n)	T(n)					
	{						
	if(n > 0){						
	print(n);	1					
	Test(n - 1);	T(n - 1)					
	Test(n - 1);	T(n - 1)					
	}						
	}	T(n) = 2T(n - 1) + 1					
		f(n) = 2^n					
	1 < logn < n < nlogn < n^2 < n^3 <.....< 2^n < 3^n <....<n^n						
	Lower bound --> 1.....n^2						
	Upper bound --> n^2 ..... n^n						
	Tight bound --> n^2						
	Now, f(n) = 2n^2 +3n + 1						
	Upper bound	Lower bound					
	f(n) = O(n^2)	f(n) = Omega(n^2)					
	f(n) = O(n^3)	f(n) = Omega(n)					
	f(n) = O(2^n)	f(n) = Omega(logn)					
	f(n) = O(n^2) and f(n) = Omega(n^2), then f(n) = theta(n^2)						
	f(n) = O(g(n)) iff there exists a positive constant c and n0 such that f(n) <= c*g(n) for all values of n >= n0	Formal way of defining Asymptotic notations					
	f(n) = 2n^2 + 3n + 1						
	2n^2 +. 3n^2 + n^2 = 6n^2						
	f(n) = 2n^2 + 3n + 1 <= 6n^2 for n > some positive value n0						
	c = 6; g(n) = n^2						
	f(n) = O(g(n))						
	f(n) = omega(g(n)) for positive constants c nd n0						
	f(n) >= c * g(n) for n >= n0						

	f(n) = 2n^2 + 3n +1;						
	2n^2 + 3n + 1 >= n^2 for n>= some constant						
	g(n) = n^2 ; c = 1						
	f(n) = Omega(g(n))						
	here, f(n) = O(n^2) ; f(n) = omega(n^2) ; thus f(n) = theta(n^2)						
	Example:						
	f(n) = n!						
	f(n) = n * n- 1 * n - 2 * n - 3 ..... 2 * 1						
	n^n						
	n! <= n ^n for n >= 1						
	f(n) = O(n^n)						
	f(n) = n! = 1*1....1						
	n1 >= 1 for n >= 1						
	f(n) = omega(1)						
	Here, there is no theta for n! i.e. n! does not have a tight bound						
88	**Hashing Technique**						
	Linear search - elements can be in any order and time complexity is O(n)						
	Binary search - elements need to be in sorted order and time complexity is O(logn)						
	Hashing -						
	keys : 8, 3, 13, 6, 4, 10						
A	.. .. .. 3 4 .. 6 .. 8 .. 10 .. .. 13						
	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15						
	most of the spaces are vacant --> to improve the model, we design the mathematical model of hashing using functions						
	key space ; h(x) = x (hash function mapping key space to hash table)						
	Same complexity and problem of extra space usage						
	Two kinds of functions: one - one function and many - one function						

we should modify the function h(x) to utilize the space in hash table efficiently

new hash function h(x) = x % size where size = 10

there can be collisions here

for avoiding collisions, we can use the following methods:

1. Open hashing

Chaining

2. Closed hashing

Open addressing

1. Linear probing

2. Quadratic probing

1. Chaining

h(x) = x% size where size = 10

we will not store the key at the location in hash table, instead we will add a chain at that particular location (Linked List) and store the value in it

if there is a collision, we will insert the key element at the same index in a new node in the chain at the particular space in hash table

when we wish to search a particular key in the hashtable , then we need to search the entire chain / LinkedList at that particular location in hashtable. So, the search complexity would not be O(1) but it would still be better than O(logn)

2. Linear Probing

h(x) = x%size where size = 10

in this method, we simply find the next free space and store the collision element in that free space

h(x)' = [h(x) + f(i)]%size

f(i) = i where i = 0, 1, 2.....

h'(13) = [h(13) + f(0)]%10 = 3

h'(13) = [h(13) + f(1)] %10 = 4

	When I have to search for any value, we shoul duse the original h(x) function and start looking for the element at consecutive locations. then, the time complexity of search would be more than O(1) but less than O(logn). Search is continued until the element is found or an empty space is reached						
	The problem with linear probing is that it causes clustering at particular space						
	for this we use ***quadratic probing*** where we h'(x) = [h(x) + f (i)] % size where f(i) = i^2 and i takes value 0, 1, 2.....and so on						
	h'(13) for i = 1 ; h'(13) = 4						
	h'(23) for i = 2; h'(23) = 7						
89	**Shortest Path Algorithms**						
	Dijkstra and Bellman-Ford algorithms						
	Dijkstra algorithm						
	Find the shortest path from one vertex to all the vertices. If the direct path does not exist, then that direct edge path is infinity. In that case we search for indirect path time						
	Relaxation:						
	if(d[u] + c(u,v) < d[v])						
	{						
	d[v] = d[u] + c(u, v)						
	}						
	Time complexity: |v|^2 = n^2						
	By using red black tree, time complexity is O(nlogn)						
	If there are negative edges in the graph, then what will Dijkstra algorithm do?						
	Once a vertex is selected and the shortest path has been found, then it should not be selected again but with a negative edge it may or may not work well						
	Bellman Algorithm						
	Go on relaxing for some no. of times, such that you once get the shortest path						
	Works well with the negative edges						

	Initally mark all the distances as infinity except the starting point for which distance should be zero.						
	Go on relaxing them one by one.						
	Time complexity: edges *(|v| - 1) = approx. n^2						
	If there is a complete graph, then no. of edges is n(n - 1) / 2, then time complexity would be e*n = n^3						
	If there are 4 vertices, then you relax each of them 3 times, and you would get the perfect shortest path.						
	In case of the graph forming a cycle with negative cost, and there is a negative edge, then Bellman Ford fails to work on that graph.						
	Bellman ford can detect if there is a negative cycle but it cannot solve it.						