

# Ghi chú của một coder

Vũ Anh

Tháng 02 năm 2018

# Mục lục

Mục lục	6
1 Lời nói đầu	7
I Lập trình	9
2 Lập trình là gì?	10
2.1 Các vấn đề lập trình	10
2.1.1 Nhập môn	10
2.2 Introduction	10
2.3 Syntax	11
2.4 Cấu trúc dữ liệu	11
2.5 Lập trình hướng đối tượng	11
2.5.1 Bài tập	11
2.6 Networking	11
2.6.1 Bài tập	12
2.7 GUI - Giao diện	12
2.8 Game	12
2.9 Cơ sở dữ liệu	12
2.9.1 Thử thách	12
2.10 How to ask a question	12
2.11 Các nguyên tắc lập trình	12
2.12 Các mô hình lập trình	13
2.13 Testing	14
2.14 Logging	16
2.15 Lập trình hàm	18
2.16 Lập trình song song	18
2.17 IDE - Môi trường phát triển tích hợp	19
3 Python	20
3.1 Khóa học 1: Nhập môn Python	20
3.1.1 Mục tiêu của khóa học	20
3.1.2 Đối tượng học viên	20
3.2 Giới thiệu	20
3.3 Cài đặt	21
3.3.1 Trên Windows	21
3.3.2 Trên CentOS	21

3.4	Biến - Hộp nhỏ	22
3.5	123s - Số trong Python	22
3.5.1	Print, print	22
3.5.2	Conditional	22
3.5.3	Loop	22
3.5.4	While Loop	23
3.5.5	For Loop	23
3.6	Cấu trúc dữ liệu	25
3.6.1	Number	25
3.6.2	Collection	25
3.6.3	String	27
3.6.4	Datetime	28
3.6.5	Object	29
3.7	Lập trình hướng đối tượng	29
3.7.1	Classes and Objects	29
3.7.2	self	30
3.7.3	Abstract Classes	32
3.7.4	Design Patterns	34
3.8	File System & IO	35
3.8.1	JSON	35
3.8.2	XML	36
3.9	Khóa học 2: Python Ứng dụng	38
3.9.1	Mục tiêu của khoá học	38
3.9.2	Đối tượng học viên	38
3.10	Yield and Generators	38
3.10.1	Metaclasses	42
3.11	Hệ điều hành	46
3.11.1	File Operations	46
3.11.2	CLI	46
3.12	Cơ sở dữ liệu (chưa xây dựng)	46
3.13	Giao diện (chưa xây dựng)	46
3.14	Lập trình mạng	46
3.15	Lập trình song song	46
3.16	Event Based Programming	51
3.17	Web Development	52
3.18	Khóa học 3: Phát triển phần mềm với Python	54
3.18.1	Mục tiêu của khóa học	54
3.18.2	Đối tượng học viên	54
3.19	Logging	54
3.20	Configuration	55
3.21	Command Line	55
3.22	Testing	55
3.23	IDE & Debugging	56
3.23.1	Pycharm Pycharm	58
3.24	Package Manager	58
3.24.1	py2exe	58
3.24.2	Quản lý gói với Anaconda	59
3.25	Environment	60
3.25.1	Create	61
3.25.2	Clone	61

3.25.3	List	61
3.25.4	Remove	62
3.25.5	Share	62
3.26	Module	62
3.27	Production	64
3.28	Test với python	64
3.29	Xây dựng docs với readthedocs và sphinx	65
<b>4</b>	<b>C++</b>	<b>69</b>
4.1	Get Started	69
4.2	Basic Syntax	70
4.3	Cấu trúc dữ liệu	70
4.4	Lập trình hướng đối tượng	72
4.5	Cơ sở dữ liệu	72
4.6	Testing	73
4.7	IDE Debugging	74
<b>5</b>	<b>Javascript</b>	<b>75</b>
5.1	Installation	75
5.2	IDE	75
5.3	Basic Syntax	75
5.4	Data Structure	77
5.4.1	Number	77
5.4.2	String	78
5.4.3	Collection	80
5.4.4	Datetime	80
5.4.5	Boolean	80
5.4.6	Object	80
5.5	OOP	80
5.6	Networking	82
5.7	Logging	82
5.8	Documentation	82
5.9	Error Handling	83
5.10	Testing	85
5.11	Package Manager	85
5.12	Build Tool	86
5.13	Make Module	86
<b>6</b>	<b>Java</b>	<b>87</b>
6.1	Get Started	87
6.2	Basic Syntax	87
6.3	Data Structure	92
6.4	OOP	92
6.4.1	Classes	92
6.4.2	Encapsulation	96
6.4.3	Inheritance	96
6.4.4	Polymorphism	98
6.4.5	Abstraction	100
6.5	File System IO	102
6.6	Error Handling	106

6.7	Logging	111
6.8	IDE	112
6.9	Package Manager	112
6.10	Build Tool	113
6.11	Production	113
<b>7</b>	<b>PHP</b>	<b>114</b>
7.1	Tương tác với cơ sở dữ liệu	114
7.2	Cài đặt debug trong PHPStorm với Windows	114
7.3	Cấu hình remote debug trong docker container	115
<b>8</b>	<b>R</b>	<b>116</b>
8.1	R Courses	116
8.2	Everything you need to know about R	117
<b>9</b>	<b>Scala</b>	<b>119</b>
9.1	Installation	119
9.2	IDE	119
9.3	Basic Syntax	119
<b>10</b>	<b>NodeJS</b>	<b>121</b>
10.1	Get Started	121
10.2	Basic Syntax	122
10.3	File System IO	122
10.4	Package Manager	127
10.5	Command Line	128
<b>11</b>	<b>Octave</b>	<b>130</b>
11.1	Matrix	130
<b>12</b>	<b>Toolbox</b>	<b>132</b>
12.1	Vim	133
12.2	Virtual Box	135
12.3	VMWare	136
<b>II</b>	<b>Toán</b>	<b>139</b>
<b>13</b>	<b>Xác suất</b>	<b>140</b>
13.1	Probability Distributions	140
13.1.1	Event Spaces	140
13.1.2	Probability Distributions	141
13.2	Basic Concepts in Probability	142
13.2.1	Conditional Probability	142
13.3	Chain Rule and Bayes Rule	142
13.4	Random Variables and Joint Distributions	143
13.4.1	Motivation	143
13.4.2	What Is a Random Variable?	144
13.5	Independence and Conditional Independence	146
13.6	Querying a Distribution	148
13.6.1	5.1 Probability Queries	148

13.6.2	5.2 MAP Queries	148
13.6.3	5.3 Marginal MAP Queries	149
13.7	Continuous Spaces	149
13.8	Kì vọng và phương sai	151
13.8.1	Kì vọng	151
13.8.2	Phương sai	152
13.9	Các hàm phân phối thông dụng	153
13.9.1	Biến rời rạc	153
13.9.2	Biến ngẫu nhiên Bernoulli	154
13.9.3	Phân phối Bernoulli	154
13.9.4	Phân phối Binomial	155
13.9.5	Phân phối Poisson	155
13.9.6	Phân phối Geometric	155
13.9.7	Phân phối Negative Binomial	155
13.9.8	Phân phối Hyper Geometric	155
13.9.9	Biến liên tục	155
13.9.10	Phân phối đều	155
<b>14</b>	<b>Thống kê</b>	<b>157</b>
14.1	Các vấn đề thống kê	157
14.2	Ước lượng bằng thống kê	157
14.2.1	Phương pháp hợp lý cực đại	157
14.2.2	Phương pháp moment	158
14.2.3	Phương pháp hậu nghiệm cực đại	158
14.3	unbiased estimation	159
14.4	Kiểm định các giả thuyết	159
14.5	Tài liệu tham khảo	159
<b>III</b>	<b>Khoa học máy tính</b>	<b>160</b>
<b>15</b>	<b>Data Structure and Algorithm</b>	<b>161</b>
15.1	Introduction	161
15.1.1	Greedy Algorithm	162
15.1.2	Divide and Conquer	163
15.1.3	Dynamic Programming	163
15.1.4	7 Steps to Solve Algorithm Problems	164
15.2	Data Structures	167
15.2.1	Array	167
15.2.2	Linked List	170
15.2.3	Stack and Queue	171
15.2.4	Tree	174
15.2.5	Binary Search Tree	176
15.3	Heaps	177
15.4	Sort	177
15.4.1	Introduction	177
15.4.2	Bubble Sort	179
15.4.3	Insertion Sort	180
15.4.4	Selection Sort	181
15.4.5	Merge Sort	181

15.4.6	Shell Sort	182
15.4.7	Quick Sort	183
15.5	Search	184
15.5.1	Linear Search	184
15.5.2	Binary Search	185
15.5.3	Interpolation Search	186
15.5.4	Hash Table	187
15.6	Graph	188
15.6.1	Graph Data Structure	188
15.6.2	Depth First Traversal	189
15.6.3	Breadth First Traversal	189
15.7	String	190
15.7.1	Tries	193
15.7.2	Suffix Array and suffix tree	196
15.7.3	Knuth-Morris-Pratt Algorithm	197
<b>16</b>	<b>Object Oriented Programming</b>	<b>202</b>
16.1	OOP	202
16.2	UML	206
16.3	SOLID	208
16.4	Design Patterns	209
<b>17</b>	<b>Database</b>	<b>212</b>
17.1	Introduction	212
17.2	SQL	214
17.3	MySQL	214
17.4	Redis	215
17.5	MongoDB	215
<b>18</b>	<b>Hệ điều hành</b>	<b>217</b>
<b>19</b>	<b>Ubuntu</b>	<b>219</b>
<b>20</b>	<b>Networking</b>	<b>221</b>
<b>21</b>	<b>UX - UI</b>	<b>223</b>
<b>22</b>	<b>Service-Oriented Architecture</b>	<b>224</b>
<b>23</b>	<b>License</b>	<b>226</b>
<b>24</b>	<b>Semantic Web</b>	<b>227</b>
24.1	Web 3.0	227
24.2	RDF	227
24.3	SPARQL	227
<b>IV</b>	<b>Khoa học dữ liệu</b>	<b>229</b>
<b>25</b>	<b>Học sâu</b>	<b>230</b>
25.1	Deep Feedforward Networks	230

25.2 Tài liệu Deep Learning . . . . .	232
25.3 Các layer trong deep learning . . . . .	232
25.3.1 Sparse Layers . . . . .	232
25.3.2 Convolution Layers . . . . .	232
25.4 Recurrent Neural Networks . . . . .	233
25.4.1 What are RNNs? . . . . .	233
25.4.2 What can RNNs do? . . . . .	234
25.4.3 Training RNNs . . . . .	235
<b>26 Xử lý ngôn ngữ tự nhiên</b>	<b>237</b>
26.1 Introduction to Natural Language Processing . . . . .	237
26.2 Natural Language Processing Tasks . . . . .	238
26.3 Natural Language Processing Applications . . . . .	240
26.4 Spelling Correction . . . . .	240
26.5 Word Vectors . . . . .	241
26.6 Conditional Random Fields in Name Entity Recognition . . . . .	242
26.7 Entity Linking . . . . .	243
26.8 Chatbot . . . . .	244
26.8.1 3 loại chatbot . . . . .	244
26.8.2 Các câu hỏi mà chatbot cần chuẩn bị . . . . .	245
26.8.3 Ý tưởng chatbot . . . . .	245
26.8.4 Một số chatbot . . . . .	246
<b>V Linh tinh</b>	<b>248</b>
<b>27 Nghiên cứu</b>	<b>249</b>
27.1 Các công cụ . . . . .	249
27.1.1 Google Scholar & Semantic Scholar . . . . .	249
27.1.2 Mendeley . . . . .	249
27.1.3 Hội nghị và tạp chí . . . . .	249
27.1.4 Câu chuyện của Scihub . . . . .	250
27.2 Làm sao để nghiên cứu tốt . . . . .	250
27.3 Sách giáo khoa . . . . .	250
27.4 Lược lật . . . . .	251
<b>28 Trở thành giảng viên</b>	<b>252</b>
28.1 Dạy và Học . . . . .	252
28.1.1 Khác biệt giữa dạy online và offline . . . . .	252
28.1.2 Làm sao để giảm tỷ lệ bỏ học trực tuyến? . . . . .	252
28.1.3 Flip Learning . . . . .	253
28.2 Sai lầm cố hữu của giảng viên . . . . .	253
28.3 Bước 1: Xây dựng khung giáo trình . . . . .	254
28.3.1 Xác định mục tiêu của khóa học . . . . .	254
28.3.2 Xác định đối tượng của khóa học . . . . .	255
28.3.3 Thời lượng khóa học . . . . .	255
28.3.4 Khung giáo trình . . . . .	255
28.4 Bước 2: Xây dựng nội dung từng module . . . . .	256
28.4.1 Thiết kế cấu trúc từng module . . . . .	256
28.4.2 Thiết kế bài tập lập trình . . . . .	256



28.5	Bước 3: Xây dựng một bài giảng pro	256
28.5.1	Thiết kế để học trực tuyến	257
28.5.2	Tính logic cấu trúc bài giảng	257
28.5.3	Tạo slide	257
28.5.4	Viết kịch bản nói	258
28.5.5	Đặt câu hỏi cho học viên	258
28.6	Bước 4.1: Quay video	259
28.6.1	Chú ý khi quay video	259
28.6.2	Các lỗi giảng viên thường mắc phải khi làm video	259
28.6.3	Đồ nghề tạo giáo trình trực tuyến	259
28.6.4	Kinh nghiệm khi quay video	260
28.6.5	Nén video chuẩn H.264	260
28.6.6	Upload video và tạo bài giảng	261
28.7	Bước 4.2: Thất bại khi thực hành	261
28.8	Bước 5: Học viên mất căn bản - Trả lời hỏi đáp	261
28.9	Marketing	261
28.9.1	Chia sẻ bài học trên Facebook	262
28.9.2	Sử dụng Photoshop	262
<b>29</b>	<b>Nghề lập trình</b>	<b>263</b>
<b>30</b>	<b>Latex</b>	<b>264</b>
<b>31</b>	<b>Chào hàng</b>	<b>266</b>
<b>32</b>	<b>Phát triển phần mềm</b>	<b>267</b>
<b>33</b>	<b>Phương pháp làm việc</b>	<b>268</b>
<b>34</b>	<b>Làm sao để thành công?</b>	<b>270</b>
<b>35</b>	<b>Đặt tên email</b>	<b>271</b>
<b>36</b>	<b>Agile</b>	<b>272</b>
36.1	Introduction	272
36.2	Team	273
36.3	Artifacts	275
36.4	Meetings	275
<b>37</b>	<b>Docker</b>	<b>279</b>
37.1	Get Started	279
37.2	Dev	281
37.3	Dockerfile	281
37.4	Container	282
37.5	Compose	283
37.6	Swarm	284
37.7	UCP	285
37.8	Labs	285
37.9	GUI	286

<i>MỤC LỤC</i>	9
----------------	---

<b>38 Lean</b>	<b>288</b>
38.1 Lean Canvas . . . . .	288
38.2 Workflow . . . . .	288
38.3 Validated Learning . . . . .	289

<b>Tài liệu</b>	<b>290</b>
-----------------	------------

<b>Chỉ mục</b>	<b>291</b>
----------------	------------

<b>Ghi chú</b>	<b>292</b>
----------------	------------

# Chương 1

## Lời nói đầu

Đọc quyển Deep Learning quá xá hay luôn. Rồi lại đọc SLP 2. Thấy sao các thánh viết hay và chuẩn thể (đấy là lý do các thánh được gọi là ... các thánh chẳng =))

Tính đến thời điểm này đã được 2 năm 10 tháng rồi. Quay lại với latex. Thỏa mãn được điều kiện của mình là một tool offline. Mình thích xuất ra pdf (có gì đọc lại hoặc tra cứu cũng dễ).

Hi vọng gắn bó với thằng này được lâu.

**Chào từ hồi magizbox.wordpress.com, cái này tồn tại được 77 ngày (hơn 2 tháng) (từ 01/11/2017 đến 17/01/2018)**

Chào Khách,

Mình là Vũ Anh. Tính đến thời điểm viết bài này thì đã lập trình được 7 năm (lập trình từ hồi năm 2010). Mình thích viết lách, bằng chứng là đã thay đổi host 2 lần datayo.wordpress.com, magizbox.com. Thành tựu ổn nhất hiện tại chỉ có một project <a href="https://github.com/magizbox/underthesea">underthesea</a>, xếp loại tạm được.

Blog này chứa những ghi chép loạn cào cào của mình về mọi thứ. Đúng với phong cách "vô tổ chức" của mình. Chắc chắn nó sẽ không hữu ích lắm với bạn. Tuy nhiên, cảm ơn bạn đã ghé qua.

Nếu Khách quan tâm, thì mình chỉ post bài xầm vào thứ 7 thôi nhé. Những ngày còn lại chỉ post bài nghiêm túc thôi. (bài này quá xầm nhưng được post vào thứ 5 nhé)

<strong>Làm sao để thực hiện blog này</strong> <ul> <li>Viết mark-down và latex hỗ trợ bởi wordpress</li> <li>Server cho phép lưu ảnh động <a href="https://giphy.com/">giphy</a></li> <li>Vấn đề lưu trữ ảnh: sử dụng tính năng live upload của github.com</li> </ul>

Bỏ cái này vì quá chậm. Không hỗ trợ tốt latex (công thức toán và reference). Mình vẫn thích một công cụ offline hơn.

**Chào từ hồi magizbox.com, cái này tồn tại được 488 ngày (1 năm 4 tháng. wow) (từ 01/07/2016 đến 01/11/2017)**

Text will  
come here

Hello World,  
 My name is Vu Anh. I'm a developer working at a startup in Hanoi, Vietnam. Coding and writing is fun, so I make this site to share my gists about computer science, data science, and more. It helps me keep my hobby and save information in case I forget. I wish it will be useful for you too.  
 PS: I always looking for collaboration. Feel free to contact me via email brother.rain.1024[at]gmail.com  
 Magizbox Stories  
 Oct 2, 2016: Wow. It's 524th day of my journey. I added some notes in README.md, index.html, changed structure of website. Today I feel like at begin day when I start writing at datayo.wordpress.com blog. In this pass, there are times when I want to make a professional website like tutorialpoints but it doesn't work that way. Because in my heart, I don't want it, I don't to make a professional website. I just love coding, writing and sharing my hobby with people around the world. So today I come back to starting point, I will keep my writing schedule, make some fun stuffs each week.  
 In July 2016, I turn to use HTML and mkdocs, and opensource magizbox.  
 In March 2015, I start writing blog with wordpress.

Bỏ cái này vì thời gian build quá lằng nhằng. Quản lý dependencies các kiểu rất lâu. Muốn có một cái gì đó giúp viết thật nhanh và đơn giản.

**Chào từ hồi datayo.wordpress.com, cái này tồn tại được 489 ngày (1 năm 4 tháng) (từ 01/03/2015 đến 01/07/2016)**

I'm a junior data scientist, working as a researcher in big data team at a company in Vietnam. I love listening music when I'm writing code because it's make me coding better. I love reading books before sleeping because it take me sleep easier and discover the world with data mining via beautiful language R.

I write this blog because I want to share my hobbies with everybody. I hope you will enjoy it. Feel free to contact me via twitter

@rain1024oremailbrother.rain.1024@gmail.com(I will answer all emails for sure)

In case you find one of my posts could be better, don't hesitate to drop me a line in comment. I'm very appreciated and I will try my best to make it better and better.

Bỏ cái này. Bỏ wordpress. Vì muốn một site interactive hơn.

# **Phần I**

## **Lập trình**

## Chương 2

# Lập trình là gì?

### 2.1 Các vấn đề lập trình

Các vấn đề lập trình với từng ngôn ngữ

#### 2.1.1 Nhập môn

code/

1. introduction
2. syntax
3. data structure
4. oop
5. networking
6. os
7. parallel
8. event based
9. error handling
10. logging
11. configuration
12. documentation
13. test
14. ui
15. web
16. database
17. ide
18. package manager
19. build tool
20. make module
21. production (docker)

### 2.2 Introduction

Installation (environment, IDE)

Hello world

Courses  
Resources

## 2.3 Syntax

variables and expressions  
conditional  
loops and Iteration  
functions  
define, use  
parameters  
scope of variables  
anonymous functions  
callbacks  
self-invoking functions, inner functions  
functions that return functions, functions that redefined themselves  
closures  
naming convention  
comment convention

## 2.4 Cấu trúc dữ liệu

Number  
String  
Collection  
DateTime  
Boolean  
Object

## 2.5 Lập trình hướng đối tượng

Classes Objects  
Inheritance  
Encapsulation  
Abstraction  
Polymorphism  
For OOP Example: see Python: OOP

### 2.5.1 Bài tập

Quản lý tài khoản ngân hàng

## 2.6 Networking

REST (example with chat app sender, receiver, message)

### 2.6.1 Bài tập

Guess My Number Game

## 2.7 GUI - Giao diện

Quản lý hot girl

Quản lý truyện tranh

Create Analog Clock

Chương trình lịch âm dương

Chương trình học từ tiếng Anh

## 2.8 Game

- Create Pong Game
- Create flappy bird
- Create Bouncing Game

## 2.9 Cơ sở dữ liệu

### 2.9.1 Thử thách

### 2.10 How to ask a question

Focus on questions about an actual problem you have faced. Include details about what you have tried and exactly what you are trying to do.

Ask about...

Specific programming problems

Software algorithms

Coding techniques

Software development tools

Not all questions work well in our format. Avoid questions that are primarily opinion-based, or that are likely to generate discussion rather than answers.

Don't ask about...

Questions you haven't tried to find an answer for (show your work!)

Product or service recommendations or comparisons

Requests for lists of things, polls, opinions, discussions, etc.

Anything not directly related to writing computer programs

### 2.11 Các nguyên tắc lập trình

Generic

KISS (Keep It Simple Stupid)

YAGNI

Do The Simplest Thing That Could Possibly Work

Keep Things DRY



Code For The Maintainer  
 Avoid Premature Optimization  
 Inter-Module/Class  
 Minimise Coupling  
 Law of Demeter  
 Composition Over Inheritance  
 Orthogonality  
 Module/Class  
 Maximise Cohesion  
 Liskov Substitution Principle  
 Open/Closed Principle  
 Single Responsibility Principle  
 Hide Implementation Details  
 Curly's Law  
 Software Quality Laws  
 First Law of Software Quality

## 2.12 Các mô hình lập trình

Main paradigm approaches 1

### 1. Imperative

Description:

Computation as statements that directly change a program state (datafields)

Main Characteristics:

Direct assignments, common data structures, global variables

Critics: Edsger W. Dijkstra, Michael A. Jackson

Examples: Assembly, C, C++, Java, PHP, Python

### 2. Structured

Description:

A style of imperative programming with more logical program structure

Main Characteristics:

Structograms, indentation, either no, or limited use of, goto statements

Examples: C, C++, Java, Python

### 3. Procedural

Description:

Derived from structured programming, based on the concept of modular programming or the procedure call

Main Characteristics:

Local variables, sequence, selection, iteration, and modularization

Examples: C, C++, Lisp, PHP, Python

### 4. Functional

Description:

Treats computation as the evaluation of mathematical functions avoiding state and mutable data

Main Characteristics:

Lambda calculus, compositionality, formula, recursion, referential transparency, no side effects

Examples: Clojure, Coffeescript, Elixir, Erlang, F, Haskell, Lisp, Python, Scala, SequenceL, SML

## 5. Event-driven including time driven

Description:

Program flow is determined mainly by events, such as mouse clicks or interrupts including timer

Main Characteristics:

Main loop, event handlers, asynchronous processes

Examples: Javascript, ActionScript, Visual Basic

## 6. Object-oriented

Description:

Treats datafields as objects manipulated through pre-defined methods only

Main Characteristics:

Objects, methods, message passing, information hiding, data abstraction, encapsulation, polymorphism, inheritance, serialization-marshalling

Examples: Common Lisp, C++, C, Eiffel, Java, PHP, Python, Ruby, Scala

## 7. Declarative

Description:

Defines computation logic without defining its detailed control flow

Main Characteristics:

4GLs, spreadsheets, report program generators

Examples: SQL, regular expressions, CSS, Prolog

## 8. Automata-based programming

Description:

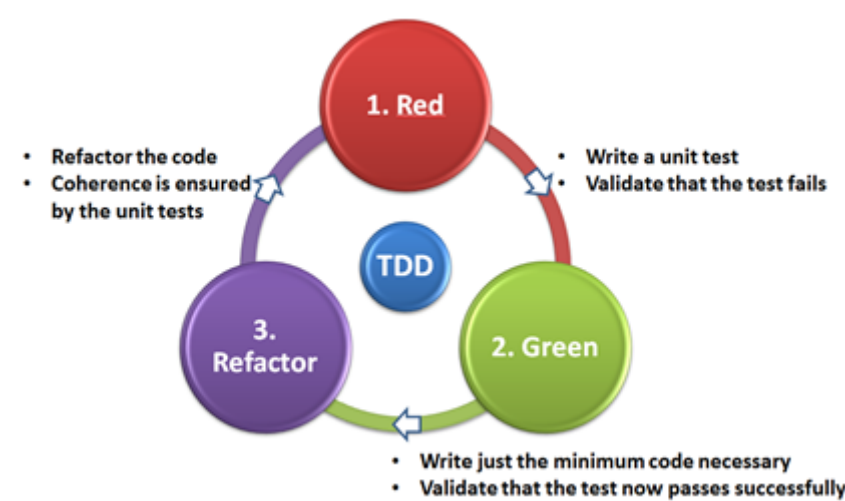
Treats programs as a model of a finite state machine or any other formal automata

Main Characteristics:

State enumeration, control variable, state changes, isomorphism, state transition table

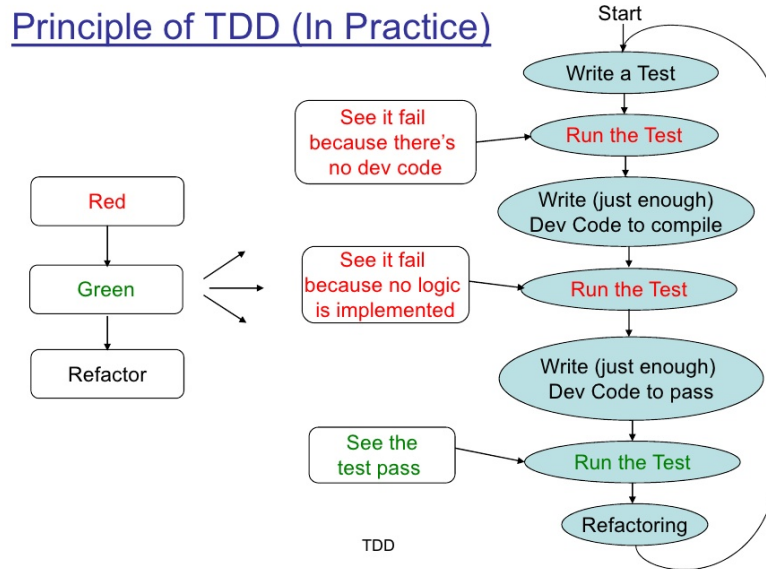
Examples: AsmL

## 2.13 Testing



1. Definition 1 2

Test-driven development (TDD) is a software development process that relies on the repetition of a very short development cycle:



Step 1: First the developer writes an (initially failing) automated test case that defines a desired improvement or new function,  
 Step 2: Then produces the minimum amount of code to pass that test,  
 Step 3: Finally refactors the new code to acceptable standards.  
 Kent Beck, who is credited with having developed or 'rediscovered' the technique, stated in 2003 that TDD encourages simple designs and inspires confidence.

## 2. Principles 2

Kent Beck defines

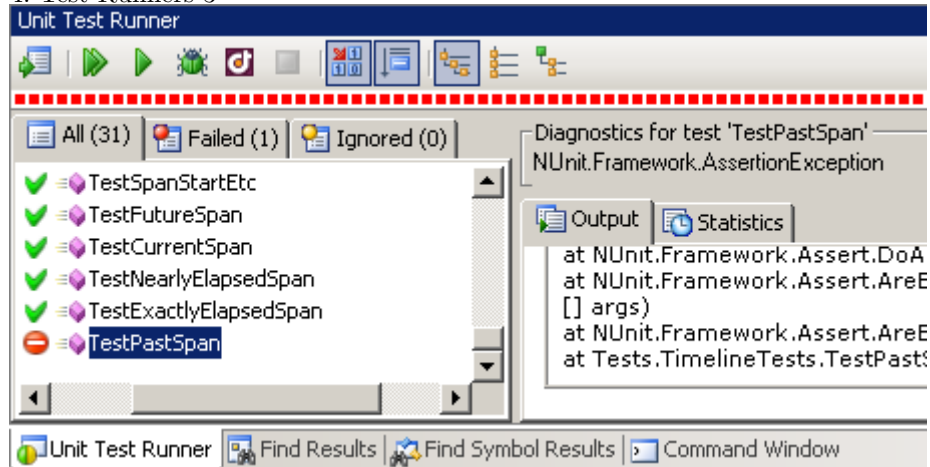
Never with a single line of code unless you have a failing automated test. Eliminate duplication Red: (Automated test fail) Green (Automated test pass because dev code has been written) Refactor (Eliminate duplication, Clean the code)

## 3. Assertions Assert Framework

Numeric	Array	String	Exception
12, 34.5	[1, 2, 3] [4, 5, 6]	"hello" "world"	IOException TypeErrorException
areEqual	areEqual	areEqual	assertRaises
greaterThan	contains	startsWith	expected=Exception
lessThan	hasLength	endsWith	fail

Assert that the expected results have occurred. [code lang="java"] @Test public void test() assertEquals(2, 1 + 1); [/code]

## 4. Test Runners 3



When testing a large real-world web app there may be tens or hundreds of test cases, and we certainly don't want to run each one manually. In such a scenario we need to use a test runner to find and execute the tests for us, and in this article we'll explore just that.

A test runner provides the a good basis for a real testing framework. A test runner is designed to run tests, tag tests with attributes (annotations), and provide reporting and other features.

In general you break your tests up into 3 standard sections; `setUp()`, tests, and `tearDown()`, typical for a test runner setup.

The `setUp()` and `tearDown()` methods are run automatically for every test, and contain respectively:

The setup steps you need to take before running the test, such as unlocking the screen and killing open apps. The cooldown steps you need to run after the test, such as closing the Marionette session.

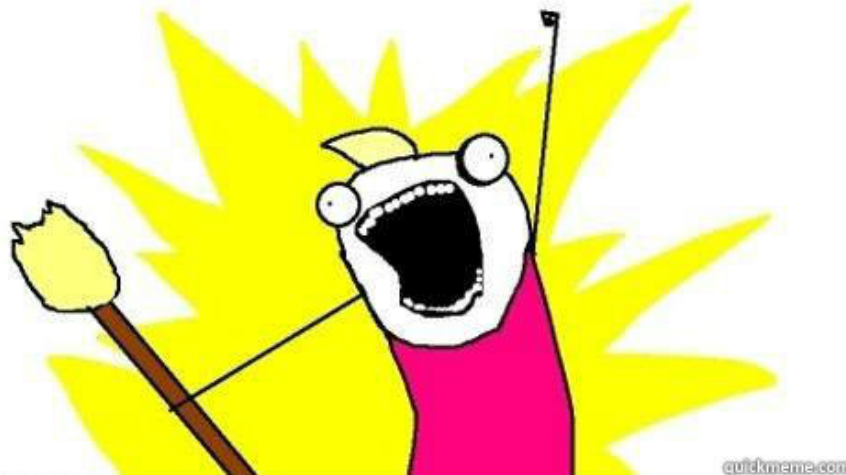
## 5. Test Frameworks

Language Test Frameworks C++/VisualStudio C++: Test Web Service rest-assured Web UI SeleniumHQ

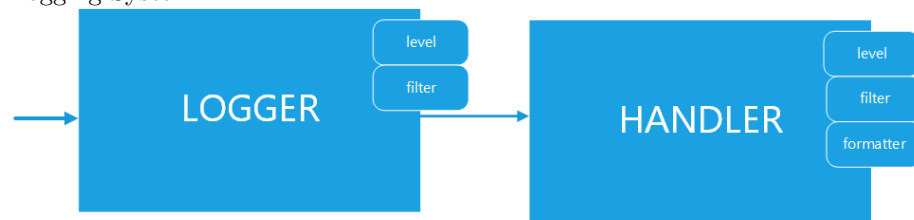
## 2.14 Logging

Logging is the process of recording application actions and state to a secondary interface.

# LOG ALL THE THINGS



Logging System



## Levels

**Level** When it's used **DEBUG** Detailed information, typically of interest only when diagnosing problems. **INFO** Confirmation that things are working as expected. **WARNING** An indication that something unexpected happened, or indicative of some problem in the near future (e.g. 'disk space low'). The software is still working as expected.

## ERROR

Due to a more serious problem, the software has not been able to perform some function. **CRITICAL** A serious error, indicating that the program itself may be unable to continue running. **Best Practices** 2 4 5 Logging should always be considered when handling an exception but should never take the place of a real handler. Keep all logging code in your production code. Have an ability to enable more/less detailed logging in production, preferably per subsystem and without restarting your program. Make logs easy to parse by grep and by eye. Stick to several common fields at the beginning of each line. Identify time, severity, and subsystem in every line. Clearly formulate the message. Make every log message easy to map to its source code line. If an error happens, try to collect and log as much information as possible. It may take long but it's OK because normal processing has failed anyway. Not having to wait when the same condition happens in production with a debugger attached is priceless.

## 2.15 Lập trình hàm

Functional Without mutable variables, assignment, conditional

Advantages 1 Most functional languages provide a nice, protected environment, somewhat like JavaLanguage. It's good to be able to catch exceptions instead of having CoreDumps in stability-critical applications. FP encourages safe ways of programming. I've never seen an OffByOne mistake in a functional program, for example... I've seen one. Adding two lengths to get an index but one of them was zero-indexed. Easy to discover though. – AnonymousDonor Functional programs tend to be much more terse than their ImperativeLanguage counterparts. Often this leads to enhanced programmer productivity. FP encourages quick prototyping. As such, I think it is the best software design paradigm for ExtremeProgrammers... but what do I know. FP is modular in the dimension of functionality, where ObjectOrientedProgramming is modular in the dimension of different components. Generic routines (also provided by CeePlusPlus) with easy syntax. ParametricPolymorphism The ability to have your cake and eat it. Imagine you have a complex OO system processing messages - every component might make state changes depending on the message and then forward the message to some objects it has links to. Wouldn't it be just too cool to be able to easily roll back every change if some object deep in the call hierarchy decided the message is flawed? How about having a history of different states? Many housekeeping tasks made for you: deconstructing data structures (PatternMatching), storing variable bindings (LexicalScope with closures), strong typing (TypeInference), \* GarbageCollection, storage allocation, whether to use boxed (pointer-to-value) or unboxed (value directly) representation... Safe multithreading! Immutable data structures are not subject to data race conditions, and consequently don't have to be protected by locks. If you are always allocating new objects, rather than destructively manipulating existing ones, the locking can be hidden in the allocation and GarbageCollection system.

## 2.16 Lập trình song song

Paralell/Concurrency Programming 1. Callback Pattern 2 Callback functions are derived from a programming paradigm known as functional programming. At a fundamental level, functional programming specifies the use of functions as arguments. Functional programming was—and still is, though to a much lesser extent today—seen as an esoteric technique of specially trained, master programmers.

Fortunately, the techniques of functional programming have been elucidated so that mere mortals like you and me can understand and use them with ease. One of the chief techniques in functional programming happens to be callback functions. As you will read shortly, implementing callback functions is as easy as passing regular variables as arguments. This technique is so simple that I wonder why it is mostly covered in advanced JavaScript topics.

```
[code lang="javascript"] function getN() return 10;
var n = getN();
function getAsyncN(callback) setTimeout(function() callback(10); , 1000);
function afterGetAsyncN(result) var n = 10; console.log(n);
getAsyncN(afterGetAsyncN); [/code]
```

2. Promise Pattern 1 3 What is a promise? The core idea behind promises is that a promise represents the result of an asynchronous operation.

A promise is in one of three different states:

pending - The initial state of a promise. fulfilled - The state of a promise representing a successful operation. rejected - The state of a promise representing a failed operation. Once a promise is fulfilled or rejected, it is immutable (i.e. it can never change again).

```
function aPromise(message){
  return new Promise(function( fulfill , reject ){
    if (message == "success"){
      fulfill ("it is a success Promise");
    } if (message == "fail"){
      reject ("it is a fail Promise");
    }
  });
}
```

Usage:

```
aPromise("success").then(function(successMessage){
  console.log(successMessage) }, function(failMessage){
  // it is a success Promise
  console.log(failMessage)
})
```

```
aPromise("fail").then(function(successMessage){
  console.log(successMessage) }, function(failMessage){
  console.log(failMessage)
}) // it is a fail Promise
```

## 2.17 IDE - Môi trường phát triển tích hợp

An integrated development environment (IDE) is a software application that provides comprehensive facilities to computer programmers for software development. An IDE normally consists of a source code editor, build automation tools and a debugger. Most modern IDEs have intelligent code completion.

1. Navigation

Word Navigation Line Navigation File Navigation

2. Editing

Auto Complete Code Complete Multicursor Template (Snippets)

3. Formatting

Debugging Custom Rendering for Object

## Chương 3

# Python

Hướng dẫn online tại <http://magizbox.com/training/python/site/>

01/11/2017  
Thích python  
vì nó quá đơn  
giản (và quá  
đẹp).

### 3.1 Khóa học 1: Nhập môn Python

#### 3.1.1 Mục tiêu của khóa học

##### Ưu điểm của khóa học

- Dành cho người mới bắt đầu, chưa từng học lập trình hoặc cho những ai muốn ôn lại kiến thức căn bản về lập trình python.
- Dễ học, dễ thực hành, ví dụ trực quan thú vị, không yêu cầu cao về máy móc hay phần mềm đi kèm.
- Ví dụ mẫu nhiều, trực quan, thú vị.

Kết thúc khóa học bạn sẽ học được gì?

- Xây dựng 5 dự án đơn giản với Python 3

Với những kiến thức bạn có thể làm gì?

- Lập trình viên Python tại các công ty phần mềm

#### 3.1.2 Đối tượng học viên

- Những bạn chưa từng lập trình
- Những bạn đã có kinh nghiệm lập trình nhưng chưa lập trình python

### 3.2 Giới thiệu

**Python** is a general-purpose interpreted, interactive, object-oriented, and high-level programming language. It was created by Guido van Rossum during 1985-1990. Like Perl, Python source code is also available under the GNU General



Public License (GPL). This tutorial gives enough understanding on Python programming language.

**Python is Interpreted:** Python is processed at runtime by the interpreter. You do not need to compile your program before executing it. This is similar to PERL and PHP.

**Python is Interactive:** You can actually sit at a Python prompt and interact with the interpreter directly to write your programs.

**Python is Object-Oriented:** Python supports Object-Oriented style or technique of programming that encapsulates code within objects.

**Python is Beginner Friendly:** Python is a great language for the beginner-level programmers and supports the development of a wide range of applications from simple text processing to WWW browsers to games.

#### Sách

[Tập hợp các sách python](#)

#### Khoá học

[Tập hợp các khóa học python](#)

#### Tham khảo

[Top 10 Python Libraries Of 2015](#)

## 3.3 Cài đặt

### 3.3.1 Trên Windows

#### Anaconda 4.3.0

Anaconda is BSD licensed which gives you permission to use Anaconda commercially and for redistribution.

1. Download the installer
2. Optional: Verify data integrity with MD5 or SHA-256
3. Double-click the .exe file to install Anaconda and follow the instructions on the screen

Python 3.6 version 64-BIT INSTALLER Python 2.7 version 64-BIT INSTALLER

Step 2. Discover the Map

<https://docs.python.org/2/library/index.html>

### 3.3.2 Trên CentOS

Developer tools

The Development tools will allow you to build and compile software from source code. Tools for building RPMs are also included, as well as source code management tools like Git, SVN, and CVS.

```
yum groupinstall "Development tools"
yum install zlib-devel
yum install bzip2-devel
yum install openssl-devel
yum install ncurses-devel
yum install sqlite-devel
```

Python Anaconda Anaconda is BSD licensed which gives you permission to use Anaconda commercially and for redistribution.

```

cd /opt
wget --no-check-certificate https://www.python.org/ftp/python/2.7.6/
    ↪ Python-2.7.6.tar.xz
tar xf Python-2.7.6.tar.xz
cd Python-2.7.6
./configure --prefix=/usr/local
make && make altinstall
## link
ln -s /usr/local/bin/python2.7 /usr/local/bin/python
# final check
which python
python -V
# install Anaconda
cd ~/Downloads
wget https://repo.continuum.io/archive/Anaconda-2.3.0-Linux-x86_64.sh
bash ~/Downloads/Anaconda-2.3.0-Linux-x86_64.sh

```

### 3.4 Biến - Hộp nhỏ

### 3.5 123s - Số trong Python

#### 3.5.1 Print, print

```
print "Hello World"
```

#### 3.5.2 Conditional

```

if you_smart:
    print "learn python"
else:
    print "go away"

```

#### 3.5.3 Loop

In general, statements are executed sequentially: The first statement in a function is executed first, followed by the second, and so on. There may be a situation when you need to execute a block of code several number of times.

Programming languages provide various control structures that allow for more complicated execution paths. A loop statement allows us to execute a statement or group of statements multiple times. The following diagram illustrates a loop statement

Python programming language provides following types of loops to handle looping requirements.

**while loop** Repeats a statement or group of statements while a given condition is TRUE. It tests the condition before executing the loop body. **for loop** Executes

a sequence of statements multiple times and abbreviates the code that manages the loop variable. nested loops You can use one or more loop inside any another while, for or do..while loop.

### 3.5.4 While Loop

A while loop statement in Python programming language repeatedly executes a target statement as long as a given condition is true.

Syntax

The syntax of a while loop in Python programming language is

```
while expression:
    statement(s)
```

Example

```
count = 0
while count < 9:
    print 'The count is:', count
    count += 1
print "Good bye!"
```

### 3.5.5 For Loop

It has the ability to iterate over the items of any sequence, such as a list or a string.

Syntax

```
for iterating_var in sequence:
    statements(s)
```

If a sequence contains an expression list, it is evaluated first. Then, the first item in the sequence is assigned to the iterating variable *iterating\_var*. Next, the statements block is executed. Each iteration

Example

```
for i in range(10):
    print "hello", i

for letter in 'Python':
    print 'Current letter :', letter

fruits = ['banana', 'apple', 'mango']
for fruit in fruits:
    print 'Current fruit :', fruit

print "Good bye!"
```

Yield and Generator

Yield is a keyword that is used like return, except the function will return a generator.

```
def createGenerator():
    yield 1
    yield 2
    yield 3
mygenerator = createGenerator() # create a generator
print(mygenerator) # mygenerator is an object!
# <generator object createGenerator at 0xb7555c34>
for i in mygenerator:
    print(i)
# 1
# 2
# 3
```

Visit [Yield and Generator explained](#) for more information

Functions

Variable-length arguments

```
def functionname([formal_args,] *var_args_tuple ):
    "function_docstring"
    function_suite
    return [expression]
```

Example

```
#!/usr/bin/python

# Function definition is here
def printinfo( arg1, *vartuple ):
    "This prints a variable passed arguments"
    print "Output is: "
    print arg1
    for var in vartuple:
        print var
    return;

# Now you can call printinfo function
printinfo( 10 )
printinfo( 70, 60, 50 )
```

Coding Convention Code layout Indentation: 4 spaces

Suggest Readings

"Python Functions". [www.tutorialspoint.com](http://www.tutorialspoint.com) "Python Loops". [www.tutorialspoint.com](http://www.tutorialspoint.com)

"What does the “yield” keyword do?". [stackoverflow.com](http://stackoverflow.com) "Improve Your Python:

‘yield’ and Generators Explained". [jeffknupp.com](http://jeffknupp.com)

**Vấn đề với mảng**

Random Sampling <sup>1</sup> - sinh ra một mảng ngẫu nhiên trong khoảng (0, 1), mảng ngẫu nhiên số nguyên trong khoảng (x, y), mảng ngẫu nhiên là permutation của

<sup>1</sup> tham khảo [pytorch](<http://pytorch.org/docs/master/torch.html?highlight=randntorch.randn>), [numpy](<https://docs.scipy.org/doc/numpy-1.13.0/reference/routines.random.html>)

số từ 1 đến n

## 3.6 Cấu trúc dữ liệu

### 3.6.1 Number

Basic Operation

```
1
1.2
1 + 2
abs(-5)
```

### 3.6.2 Collection

In this post I will cover 4 most popular data types in python list, tuple, set, dictionary

**List** The most basic data structure in Python is the sequence. Each element of a sequence is assigned a number - its position or index. The first index is zero, the second index is one, and so forth.

The list is a most versatile datatype available in Python which can be written as a list of comma-separated values (items) between square brackets. Important thing about a list is that items in a list need not be of the same type.

Usage

A list keeps order, dict and set don't: when you care about order, therefore, you must use list (if your choice of containers is limited to these three, of course)

Most Popular Operations

```
Create a list a = ["a", "b", 3] Access values in list a[1] Updated List a[0] =
5 Delete list elements del a[1] Reverse a list a[::-1] Itertools [a + b for (a, b)
in itertools.product(x, y)] Select random elements in list random.choice(x) ran-
dom.sample(x, 3) Create a list a = [1, 2, 3] [1, 2, 3] Access values in list list1
= ['physics', 'chemistry', 1997, 2000] list2 = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 ]
print list1[0] physics
print list2[1:5] [2, 3, 4, 5] Updated lists list = ['physics', 'chemistry', 1997, 2000]
print list[2] 1997
list[2] = 2001 print list[2] 2001 Delete list elements list1 = ['physics', 'chemistry',
1997, 2000];
print list1 ['physics', 'chemistry', 1997, 2000]
del list1[2]
print list1 ['physics', 'chemistry', 2000] Reverse a list [1, 3, 2][::-1] [2, 3, 1]
Itertools import itertools
x = [1, 2, 3] y = [2, 4, 5]
[a + b for (a, b) in itertools.product(x, y)] [3, 5, 6, 4, 6, 7, 5, 7, 8] Select random
elements in list import random
x = [13, 23, 14, 52, 6, 23]
random.choice(x) 52
random.sample(x, 3) [23, 14, 52] Tuples A tuple is a sequence of immutable
Python objects. Tuples are sequences, just like lists. The differences between
```

tuples and lists are, the tuples cannot be changed unlike lists and tuples use parentheses, whereas lists use square brackets.

Usage

Tuples have structure, lists have order. Tuples being immutable there is also a semantic distinction that should guide their usage. Tuples are heterogeneous data structures (i.e., their entries have different meanings), while lists are homogeneous sequences.

**Most Popular Operations**

Create a tuple `t = ("a", 1, 2)` Accessing Values in Tuples `t[0]`, `t[1:]` Updating Tuples Not allowed Create a tuple `tup1 = ('physics', 'chemistry', 1997, 2000)`;

`tup2 = (1, 2, 3, 4, 5)`; `tup3 = "a", "b", "c", "d"`; `tup4 = ()` `tup5 = (50, )`

Accessing Values in Tuples `!usr/bin/python`

`tup1 = ('physics', 'chemistry', 1997, 2000)`; `tup2 = (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7)`;

`tup1[0]` physics

`tup2[1:5]` [2, 3, 4, 5] Updating Tuples Tuples are immutable which means you cannot update or change the values of tuple elements. You are able to take portions of existing tuples to create new tuples as the following example demonstrates

`tup1 = (12, 34.56)`; `tup2 = ('abc', 'xyz')`;

Following action is not valid for tuples `tup1[0] = 100`;

So let's create a new tuple as follows `tup3 = tup1 + tup2`; print `tup3` Set Sets are lists with no duplicate entries.

The sets module provides classes for constructing and manipulating unordered collections of unique elements. Common uses include membership testing, removing duplicates from a sequence, and computing standard math operations on sets such as intersection, union, difference, and symmetric difference.

Usage

set forbids duplicates, list does not: also a crucial distinction. **Most Popular Operations**

Create a set `x = set(["Postcard", "Radio", "Telegram"])` Add elements to

a set `x.add("Mobile")` Remove elements to a set `x.remove("Radio")` Subset

`y.issubset(x)` Intersection `x.intersection(y)` Difference between two sets `x.difference(y)`

Create a set `x = set(["Postcard", "Radio", "Telegram"])` `x = set(['Postcard',`

`'Telegram', 'Radio'])` Add elements to a set `x = set(["Postcard", "Radio",`

`"Telegram"])` `x.add("Mobile")` `x = set(['Postcard', 'Telegram', 'Mobile', 'Ra-`

`dio'])` Remove elements to a set `x = set(["Postcard", "Radio", "Telegram"])`

`x.remove("Radio")` `x = set(['Postcard', 'Telegram'])` Subset `x = set(["a", "b", "c", "d"])`

`y = set(["c", "d"])` `y.issubset(x)` True Intersection `x = set(["a", "b", "c", "d"])`

`y = set(["c", "d"])` `x.intersection(y)` `set(['c', 'd'])` Difference between two sets

`x = set(["Postcard", "Radio", "Telegram"])` `y = set(["Radio", "Television"])`

`x.difference(y)` `set(['Postcard', 'Telegram'])` Dictionary Each key is separated

from its value by a colon (:), the items are separated by commas, and the whole thing is enclosed in curly braces. An empty dictionary without any items is written with just two curly braces, like this: `.`

Keys are unique within a dictionary while values may not be. The values of a dictionary can be of any type, but the keys must be of an immutable data type such as strings, numbers, or tuples.

Usage

dict associates with each key a value, while list and set just contain values: very different use cases, obviously. **Most Popular Operations**

Create a dictionary d = {"a": 1, "b": 2, "c": 3} Update dictionary d["a"] = 4  
 Delete dictionary elements del d["a"] Create a dictionary dict = {'Name': 'Zara',  
 'Age': 7, 'Class': 'First'}  
 print "dict['Name']:", dict['Name'] print "dict['Age']:", dict['Age'] Update dic-  
 tionary dict = {'Name': 'Zara', 'Age': 7, 'Class': 'First'}  
 dict['Age'] = 8; update existing entry dict['School'] = "DPS School"; Add new  
 entry  
 print "dict['Age']:", dict['Age'] print "dict['School']:", dict['School'] Delete dic-  
 tionary elements dict = {'Name': 'Zara', 'Age': 7, 'Class': 'First'}  
 del dict['Name']; remove entry with key 'Name' dict.clear(); remove all entries  
 in dict del dict ; delete entire dictionary  
 print "dict['Age']:", dict['Age'] print "dict['School']:", dict['School'] Related  
 Readings Python Lists, tutorialspoint.com Python Dictionary, tutorialspoint.com  
 Python Dictionary Methods, guru99 In Python, when to use a Dictionary, List  
 or Set?, stackoverflow What's the difference between lists and tuples?, stack-  
 overflow

### 3.6.3 String

Format '0, 1, 2'.format('a', 'b', 'c') 'a, b, c' Regular Expressions The aim of this  
 chapter of our Python tutorial is to present a detailed led and descriptive intro-  
 duction into regular expressions. This introduction will explain the theoretical  
 aspects of regular expressions and will show you how to use them in Python  
 scripts.

Regular Expressions are used in programming languages to filter texts or textstrings.

It's possible to check, if a text or a string matches a regular expression.

There is an aspect of regular expressions which shouldn't go unmentioned: The  
 syntax of regular expressions is the same for all programming and script lan-  
 guages, e.g. Python, Perl, Java, SED, AWK and even X.

Functions match function This function attempts to match RE pattern to string  
 with optional flags.

re.match(pattern, string, flags=0) Example

```
import re
```

```
line = "Cats are smarter than dogs"
```

```
matched_object = re.match(r'(.*)are(.*).*', line, re.M|re.I)
```

```
if matched_object : print"matched_object.group() : ", matched_object.group()print"matched_object.group(1) : "
```

```
matched_object.group(1)print"matched_object.group(2) : ", matched_object.group(2)else :
```

```
print"Nomatch!!"Whenthecodeisexecuted, itproducesfollowingresults
```

```
matched_object.group() : Catsaresmarterthandogsmatched_object.group(1) : Catsmatched_object.group(2) :
```

```
smartersearchfunctionThisfunctionsearchesforfirstoccurrenceofREpatternwithinstirngwithoptional f
```

```
re.search(pattern, string, flags=0) Example
```

```
!/usr/bin/python import re
```

```
line = "Cats are smarter than dogs"
```

```
search_object = re.search(r'dogs', line, re.M|re.I)if search_object : print"search -
```

```
- > search_object.group() : ", search_object.group()else : print" Nothingfound!!"Whenthecodeisexecuted, itp
```

```
search -> search_object.group() : dogssubfunctionThismethodreplacesallocalcurrencesoftheREpatterninstrin
```

```
re.sub(pattern, repl, string, max=0) Example
```

```
!/usr/bin/python import re
```

```
phone = "2004-959-559 This is Phone Number"
```

Delete Python-style comments `num = re.sub(r'.*', '', phone) print "Phone Num : ", num`

Remove anything other than digits `num = re.sub(r'', '', phone) print "Phone Num : ", num` When the code is executed, it produces following results

Phone Num : 2004-959-559 Phone Num : 2004959559 Tokens Cheatsheet Character Classes . any character except newline /go.gle/ google goggle gogle word, digit, whitespace // AaYyz09 ?! // 012345 aZ? // 0123456789 abcd? / \$not word, digit, whitespace // abcded 1234 ?> // abc 12345 ?< . /\$/ abc 123? < . [abc] any

of a, b or c /analy[sz]e/ analyse analyze analyxe [^bc]nota, borc/analy[sz]e/analyseanalyzeanalyxe[a-g]characterbetweenag/[2-4]/demo1demo2demo3demo4demo5QuantifiersAlternationa\* a+a?0ormore, 1ormore, 0or1/go\*gle/goglegoglegooglegoolehgle/go+gle/gglegoglegooglegoolehgle

start / end of the string /<sup>a</sup>bc/ abc /<sup>a</sup>bc/abcabc/abc/ abc abc word, not-word boundary // This island is beautiful. // cat certificate Escaped characters .

escaped special characters // username@example.com 300.000 USD // abc@/

/ abc@ tab, linefeed, carriage return // abc def /ab/ ab // abc@00A9 unicode escaped © /00A9/ Copyright©2017 - All rights reserved Groups and Lockaround

(abc) capture group /(demo|example)[0-9]/ demo1example4demo backreference to group 1 /(abc|def)=/ abc=abc def=defabc=def (? :abc) non-capturing group

/(?:abc)3/ abcabcabc abcabc (?:=abc) positive lookahead /t(?:=s)/ ttssstttss (?!abc) negative lookahead /t(?:!s)/ ttssstttss (?<=abc) positive lookbehind

/(?<=foo)bar/ foobar fuubar (?<!abc) negative lookbehind /(?!foo)bar/ foobar fuubar Related Readings

Online regex tester and debugger: PHP, PCRE, Python, Golang and JavaScript, regex101.com RegExr: Learn, Build, Test RegEx, regexr.com

### 3.6.4 Datetime

Print current time

```
from datetime import datetime
datetime.now().strftime(' %Y-%m-%d %H:%M:%S')
```

Get current time

```
import datetime
datetime.datetime.now() datetime(2009, 1, 6, 15, 8, 24, 78915)
```

Unixtime

```
import time
int(time.time()) Measure time elapsed
```

```
import time
```

```
start = time.time() print("hello") end = time.time() print(end - start) Moment
```

Dealing with dates in Python shouldn't have to suck.

Installation

```
pip install moment Usage
```

```
import moment
from datetime import datetime
```

```
Create a moment from a string moment.date("12-18-2012")
```

```
Create a moment with a specified strftime format moment.date("12-18-2012",
"
```

```
Moment uses the awesome dateparser library behind the scenes moment.date("2012-
12-18")
```

```
Create a moment with words in it moment.date("December 18, 2012")
```

```
Create a moment that would normally be pretty hard to do moment.date("2
weeks ago")
```

```
Create a future moment that would otherwise be really difficult moment.date("2
weeks from now")
```



Create a moment from the current datetime `moment.now()`  
 The moment can also be UTC-based `moment.utcnow()`  
 Create a moment with the UTC time zone `moment.utc("2012-12-18")`  
 Create a moment from a Unix timestamp `moment.unix(1355875153626)`  
 Create a moment from a Unix UTC timestamp `moment.unix(1355875153626, utc=True)`  
 Return a datetime instance `moment.date(2012, 12, 18).date`  
 We can do the same thing with the UTC method `moment.utc(2012, 12, 18).date`  
 Create and format a moment using Moment.js semantics `moment.now().format("YYYY-MM-DD")`  
 Create and format a moment with strftime semantics `moment.date(2012, 12, 18).strftime("12/18/2012")`  
 Update your moment's time zone `moment.date(datetime(2012, 12, 18)).locale("US/Central").date`  
 Alter the moment's UTC time zone to a different time zone `moment.utcnow().timezone("US/Eastern").date`  
 Set and update your moment's time zone. For instance, I'm on the west coast, but want NYC's current time. `moment.now().locale("US/Pacific").timezone("US/Eastern")`  
 In order to manipulate time zones, a locale must always be set or you must be using UTC. `moment.utcnow().timezone("US/Eastern").date`  
 You can also clone a moment, so the original stays unaltered `now = moment.utcnow().timezone("US/Pacific") future = now.clone().add(weeks=2)`  
 Related Readings How to get current time in Python, [stackoverflow](http://stackoverflow.com/questions/11196442/how-to-get-current-time-in-python) Does Python's `time.time()` return the local or UTC timestamp?, [stackoverflow](http://stackoverflow.com/questions/11196442/how-to-get-current-time-in-python) Measure time elapsed in Python?, [stackoverflow](http://stackoverflow.com/questions/11196442/how-to-get-current-time-in-python) momnet, <https://github.com/zachwill/moment>

### 3.6.5 Object

Convert dict to object Elegant way to convert a normal Python dict with some nested dicts to an object

```
class Struct: def init(self,**entries):self.dict.update(entries)Then,youcanuse
> args = 'a': 1, 'b': 2 > s = Struct(**args) > s < main.Structinstance at 0x01D6A738>> s.a1>s.b2RelatedReadings
stackoverflow, Convert Python dict to object?
```

## 3.7 Lập trình hướng đối tượng

Object Oriented Programming Python has been an object-oriented language since it existed. Because of this, creating and using classes and objects are downright easy. This chapter helps you become an expert in using Python's object-oriented programming support.

If you do not have any previous experience with object-oriented (OO) programming, you may want to consult an introductory course on it or at least a tutorial of some sort so that you have a grasp of the basic concepts.

### 3.7.1 Classes and Objects

Classes can be thought of as blueprints for creating objects. When I define a `BankAccount` class using the `class` keyword, I haven't actually created a bank account. Instead, what I've created is a sort of instruction manual for constructing "bank account" objects. Let's look at the following example code:

```

class BankAccount:
    id = None
    balance = 0

    def __init__(self, id, balance=0):
        self.id = id
        self.balance = balance

    def __get_balance(self):
        return self.balance

    def withdraw(self, amount):
        self.balance = self.balance - amount

    def deposit(self, amount):
        self.balance = self.balance + amount

john = BankAccount(1, 1000.0)
john.withdraw(100.0)

```

The class `BankAccount` line does not create a new bank account. That is, just because we've defined a `BankAccount` doesn't mean we've created one; we've merely outlined the blueprint to create a `BankAccount` object. To do so, we call the class's *init* method with the proper number of arguments (minus self, which we'll get to in a moment). So, to use the "blueprint" that we created by defining the class `BankAccount` (which is used to create `BankAccount` objects), we call the class name almost as if it were a function: `john = BankAccount(1, 1000.0)`. This line simply says "use the `BankAccount` blueprint to create me a new object, which I'll refer to as `john`".

The `john` object, known as an instance, is the realized version of the `BankAccount` class. Before we called `BankAccount()`, no `BankAccount` object existed. We can, of course, create as many `BankAccount` objects as we'd like. There is still, however, only one `BankAccount` class, regardless of how many instances of the class we create.

### 3.7.2 self

So what's with that `self` parameter to all of the `BankAccount` methods? What is it? Why, it's the instance, of course! Put another way, a method like `withdraw` defines the instructions for withdrawing money from some abstract customer's account. Calling `john.withdraw(100)` puts those instructions to use on the `john` instance.

So when we say `def withdraw(self, amount):`, we're saying, "here's how you withdraw money from a `BankAccount` object (which we'll call `self`) and a dollar figure (which we'll call `amount`). `self` is the instance of the `BankAccount` that `withdraw` is being called on. That's not me making analogies, either. `john.withdraw(100.0)` is just shorthand for `BankAccount.withdraw(john, 100.0)`, which is perfectly valid (if not often seen) code.

Constructors: *init*

self may make sense for other methods, but what about `__init__`? When we call `__init__`, we're in the process of creating an object, so how can the

This is why when we call `__init__`, we initialize objects by saying things like `self.id = id`. Remember, since `self` is the instance, this is equivalent to saying

Be careful what you `__init__`

After `__init__` is finished, the caller can rightly assume that the object is ready to use. That is, after `john = BankAccount(1, 1000.0)`, we can start making deposits.

Inheritance While Object-oriented Programming is useful as a modeling tool, it truly gains power when the concept of inheritance is introduced. Inheritance is the process by which a "child" class derives the data and behavior of a "parent" class. An example will definitely help us here.

Imagine we run a car dealership. We sell all types of vehicles, from motorcycles to trucks. We set ourselves apart from the competition by our prices. Specifically, how we determine the price of a vehicle on our lot: \$5,000 x number of wheels a vehicle has. We love buying back our vehicles as well. We offer a flat rate - 10% of the miles driven on the vehicle. For trucks, that rate is \$10,000. For cars, \$8,000. For motorcycles, \$4,000.

If we wanted to create a sales system for our dealership using Object-oriented techniques, how would we do so? What would the objects be? We might have a Sale class, a Customer class, an Inventory class, and so forth, but we'd almost certainly have a Car, Truck, and Motorcycle class.

What would these classes look like? Using what we've learned, here's a possible implementation of the Car class:

```
class Car(object):
    def __init__(self, wheels, miles, make, model, year, sold_on):
        self.wheels = wheels
        self.miles = miles
        self.make = make
        self.model = model
        self.year = year
        self.sold_on = sold_on

    def sale_price(self):
        if self.sold_on is not None:
            return 0.0 # Already sold
        return 5000.0 * self.wheels

    def purchase_price(self):
        if self.sold_on is None:
            return 0.0 # Not yet sold
        return 8000 - (.10 * self.miles)
```

OK, that looks pretty reasonable. Of course, we would likely have a number of other methods on the class, but I've shown two of particular interest to us: `sale_price` and `purchase_price`. We'll see why these are important in a bit.

Now that we've got the Car class, perhaps we should create a Truck class? Let's follow the same pattern we did for car:

```
class Truck(object):
    def __init__(self, wheels, miles, make, model, year, sold_on):
        self.wheels = wheels
        self.miles = miles
        self.make = make
```

```

        self.model = model
        self.year = year
        self.sold_on = sold_on

    def sale_price(self):
        if self.sold_on is not None:
            return 0.0 # Already sold
        return 5000.0 * self.wheels

    def purchase_price(self):
        if self.sold_on is None:
            return 0.0 # Not yet sold
        return 10000 - (.10 * self.miles)

```

Wow. That's almost identical to the car class. One of the most important rules of programming (in general, not just when dealing with objects) is "DRY" or "Don't Repeat Yourself. We've definitely repeated ourselves here. In fact, the Car and Truck classes differ only by a single character (aside from comments). So what gives? Where did we go wrong? Our main problem is that we raced straight to the concrete: Car and Truck are real things, tangible objects that make intuitive sense as classes. However, they share so much data and functionality in common that it seems there must be an abstraction we can introduce here. Indeed there is: the notion of Vehicle.

### 3.7.3 Abstract Classes

A Vehicle is not a real-world object. Rather, it is a concept that some real-world objects (like cars, trucks, and motorcycles) embody. We would like to use the fact that each of these objects can be considered a vehicle to remove repeated code. We can do that by creating a Vehicle class:

```

class Vehicle(object):
    base_sale_price = 0

    def __init__(self, wheels, miles, make, model, year, sold_on):
        self.wheels = wheels
        self.miles = miles
        self.make = make
        self.model = model
        self.year = year
        self.sold_on = sold_on

    def sale_price(self):
        if self.sold_on is not None:
            return 0.0 # Already sold
        return 5000.0 * self.wheels

    def purchase_price(self):
        if self.sold_on is None:
            return 0.0 # Not yet sold

```

```
return self.base_sale_price - (.10 * self.miles)
```

Now we can make the Car and Truck class inherit from the Vehicle class by replacing object in the line class Car(object). The class in parenthesis is the class that is inherited from (object essentially means "no inheritance". We'll discuss exactly why we write that in a bit).

We can now define Car and Truck in a very straightforward way:

```
class Car(Vehicle):

    def __init__(self, wheels, miles, make, model, year, sold_on):
        self.wheels = wheels
        self.miles = miles
        self.make = make
        self.model = model
        self.year = year
        self.sold_on = sold_on
        self.base_sale_price = 8000

class Truck(Vehicle):

    def __init__(self, wheels, miles, make, model, year, sold_on):
        self.wheels = wheels
        self.miles = miles
        self.make = make
        self.model = model
        self.year = year
        self.sold_on = sold_on
        self.base_sale_price = 10000
```

Object Convert dict to object

```
class Struct:
    def __init__(self, **entries):
        self.__dict__.update(entries)
```

Then, you can use

```
> args = {'a': 1, 'b': 2}
> s = Struct(**args)
> s
< __main__.Struct instance at 0x01D6A738 >
> s.a
1
> s.b
2
```

Suggested Readings Improve Your Python: Python Classes and Object Oriented Programming [stackoverflow](#), Convert Python dict to object? Why are Python's 'private' methods not actually private?

### 3.7.4 Design Patterns

Design Patterns Singleton Non-thread-safe Paul Manta's implementation of singletons

```
@Singleton
class Foo:
    def __init__(self):
        print 'Foo created'

f = Foo() # Error, this isn't how you get the instance of a singleton

f = Foo.Instance() # Good. Being explicit is in line with the Python
    ↪ Zen
g = Foo.Instance() # Returns already created instance

print f is g # True

class Singleton:
    """
    A non-thread-safe helper class to ease implementing singletons.
    This should be used as a decorator -- not a metaclass -- to the
    class that should be a singleton.

    The decorated class can define one `__init__` function that
    takes only the `self` argument. Also, the decorated class cannot be
    inherited from. Other than that, there are no restrictions that
    ↪ apply
    to the decorated class.

    To get the singleton instance, use the `Instance` method. Trying
    to use `__call__` will result in a `TypeError` being raised.

    """

    def __init__(self, decorated):
        self._decorated = decorated

    def Instance(self):
        """
        Returns the singleton instance. Upon its first call, it creates
        ↪ a
        new instance of the decorated class and calls its `__init__`
        ↪ method.
        On all subsequent calls, the already created instance is
        ↪ returned.

        """
        try:
            return self._instance
        except AttributeError:
```

```

        self._instance = self._decorated()
        return self._instance

    def __call__(self):
        raise TypeError('Singletons must be accessed through `Instance`')

    def __instancecheck__(self, inst):
        return isinstance(inst, self._decorated)

```

Thread safe

wereidiver's implementation of singletons. A thread safe implementation of singleton pattern in Python. Based on tornado.ioloop.IOLoop.instance() approach.

import threading

Based on tornado.ioloop.IOLoop.instance() approach. See <https://github.com/facebook/tornado>

```
class SingletonMixin(object):
    _singleton_lock = threading.Lock()
    _singleton_instance = None
```

```
@classmethod
def instance(cls):
    if not cls._singleton_instance:
        with cls._singleton_lock:
            if not cls._singleton_instance:
                cls._singleton_instance = cls()
```

```
class A(SingletonMixin):
    pass
```

```
class B(SingletonMixin):
    pass
```

```
if __name__ == '__main__':
    a = A.instance()
    a2 = A.instance()
    b = B.instance()
    b2 = B.instance()
```

```
assert a is a2
assert b is b2
assert a is not b
```

```
print('a: %s' % a)
print('b: %s' % b)
Suggested Readings
Is there a simple, elegant way to define singletons?
```

## 3.8 File System & IO

### 3.8.1 JSON

Write json file with pretty format and unicode

```

import json
import io

data = {
    "menu": {
        "header": "Sample Menu",
        "items": [
            {"id": "Open"},
            {"id": "OpenNew", "label": "Open New"},
            None,
            {"id": "Help"},
            {"id": "About", "label": "About Adobe CVG Viewer..."}
        ]
    }
}

with io.open("sample_json.json", "w", encoding="utf8") as f:
    content = json.dumps(data, indent=4, sort_keys=True, ensure_ascii=False)
    f.write(unicode(content))

```

**Output**

```
{
  "menu": {
    "header": "Sample Menu",
    "items": [
      {
        "id": "Open"
      },
      {
        "id": "OpenNew",
        "label": "Open New"
      },
      null,
      {
        "id": "Help"
      },
      {
        "id": "About",
        "label": "About Adobe CVG Viewer..."
      }
    ]
  }
}
```

**Read json file**

```
import json
from pprint import pprint

with open('sample_json.json') as data_file:
    data = json.load(data_file)

pprint(data)
```

**Output**

```
{u'menu': {u'header': u'Sample Menu',
            u'items': [{u'id': u'Open'},
                       {u'id': u'OpenNew', u'label': u'Open New'},
                       None,
                       {u'id': u'Help'},
                       {u'id': u'About',
                        u'label': u'About Adobe CVG Viewer...'}]}}
```

**Related Reading**

Parsing values from a JSON file in Python, [stackoverflow](#) How do I write JSON data to a file in Python?, [stackoverflow](#)

**3.8.2 XML**

Write xml file with lxml package



```

import lxml.etree as ET
# root declaration
root = ET.Element('catalog')
# insert comment
comment = ET.Comment(' this is a xml sample file ')
root.insert(1, comment)
# book element
book = ET.SubElement(root, 'book', id="bk001")
# book data
author = ET.SubElement(book, 'author')
author.text = "Gambardella, Matthew"
title = ET.SubElement(book, 'title')
title.text = "XML Developer's Guide"
# write xml to file
tree = ET.ElementTree(root)
tree.write("sample_book.xml", pretty_print=True, xml_declaration=
    ↪ True, encoding='utf-8')

```

**Output**

```

<?xml version='1.0' encoding='UTF-8'?>
<catalog>
  <!-- this is a xml sample file -->
  <book id="bk001">
    <author>Gambardella, Matthew</author>
    <title>XML Developer's Guide</title>
  </book>
</catalog>

```

Read xml file with lxml package

```

from lxml import etree as ET

tree = ET.parse("sample_book.xml")
root = tree.getroot()
book = root.find('book')
print "Book Information"
print "ID      :", book.attrib["id"]
print "Author :", book.find('author').text
print "Title  :", book.find('title').text

```

**Output**

```

Book Information
ID      : bk001
Author : Gambardella, Matthew
Title  : XML Developer's Guide

```

## 3.9 Khóa học 2: Python Ứng dụng

### 3.9.1 Mục tiêu của khoá học

Tìm hiểu các vấn đề lập trình Python nâng cao qua các ví dụ thực tế, sinh động

### 3.9.2 Đối tượng học viên

- Là sinh viên năm 2, năm 3
- Đang học các môn Lập trình song song, phát triển Web

## 3.10 Yield and Generators

**Coroutines and Subroutines** When we call a normal Python function, execution starts at function's first line and continues until a return statement, exception, or the end of the function (which is seen as an implicit return None) is encountered. Once a function returns control to its caller, that's it. Any work done by the function and stored in local variables is lost. A new call to the function creates everything from scratch.

This is all very standard when discussing functions (more generally referred to as subroutines) in computer programming. There are times, though, when it's beneficial to have the ability to create a "function" which, instead of simply returning a single value, is able to yield a series of values. To do so, such a function would need to be able to "save its work," so to speak.

I said, "yield a series of values" because our hypothetical function doesn't "return" in the normal sense. return implies that the function is returning control of execution to the point where the function was called. "Yield," however, implies that the transfer of control is temporary and voluntary, and our function expects to regain it in the future.

In Python, "functions" with these capabilities are called generators, and they're incredibly useful. generators (and the yield statement) were initially introduced to give programmers a more straightforward way to write code responsible for producing a series of values. Previously, creating something like a random number generator required a class or module that both generated values and kept track of state between calls. With the introduction of generators, this became much simpler.

To better understand the problem generators solve, let's take a look at an example. Throughout the example, keep in mind the core problem being solved: generating a series of values.

Note: Outside of Python, all but the simplest generators would be referred to as coroutines. I'll use the latter term later in the post. The important thing to remember is, in Python, everything described here as a coroutine is still a generator. Python formally defines the term generator; coroutine is used in discussion but has no formal definition in the language.

Example: Fun With Prime Numbers Suppose our boss asks us to write a function that takes a list of ints and returns some Iterable containing the elements which are prime1 numbers.

Remember, an Iterable is just an object capable of returning its members one at a time.

"Simple," we say, and we write the following:

```
def get_primes(input_list):
    result_list = list()
    for element in input_list:
        if is_prime(element):
            result_list.append()

    return result_list
```

or better yet...

```
def get_primes(input_list):
    return (element for element in input_list if is_prime(element))

# not germane to the example, but here's a possible implementation of
# is_prime...

def is_prime(number):
    if number > 1:
        if number == 2:
            return True
        if number % 2 == 0:
            return False
        for current in range(3, int(math.sqrt(number) + 1), 2):
            if number % current == 0:
                return False
        return True
    return False
```

Either `get_primes` implementation above fulfills the requirements, so we tell our boss we're done. She reports our function is not dealing with infinite sequences well, not quite exactly. A few days later, our boss comes back and tells us she's run into a small problem: she wants to use our `get_primes` function on a very large list of numbers. In fact, the list is so large that merely creating it would consume too much memory. Once we think about this new requirement, it becomes clear that it requires more than a simple change to `get_primes`. Clearly, we can't return a list of all the prime numbers from start to infinity (or even a very large number). Before we give up, let's determine the core obstacle preventing us from writing a function that satisfies our boss's new requirements. Thinking about it, we arrive at the following: functions only get one chance to return results, and thus must return all results at once. It seems pointless to make such an obvious statement; "functions just work that way," we think. The real value lies in asking, "but what if they didn't?"

Imagine what we could do if `get_primes` could simply return the next value instead of all the values at once. It would be a great improvement. Unfortunately, this doesn't seem possible. Even if we had a magical function that allowed us to iterate from  $n$  to infinity, we'd get stuck after returning the first value:

```
def get_primes(start):
    for element in magical_infinite_range(start):
        if is_prime(element):
            return element
    # Imagine get_primes is called like so:
def solve_number_10():
    She * is * working on Project Euler 10, I know it!
    total = 2
    for next_prime in get_primes(3):
        if next_prime < 2000000:
            total += next_prime
        else:
```

*print(total) return* Clearly, in *get<sub>p</sub>primes*, we would immediately hit the case where *number =*

*3* and return at line 4. Instead of return, we need a way to generate a value and, when asked for the next one, pick up

Functions, though, can't do this. When they return, they're done for good. Even if we could guarantee a function would be called again, we have no way of saying, "OK, now, instead of starting at the first line like we normally do, start up where we left off at line 4." Functions have a single entry point: the first line.

Enter the Generator This sort of problem is so common that a new construct was added to Python to solve it: the generator. A generator "generates" values. Creating generators was made as straightforward as possible through the concept of generator functions, introduced simultaneously.

A generator function is defined like a normal function, but whenever it needs to generate a value, it does so with the *yield* keyword rather than *return*. If the body of a *def* contains *yield*, the function automatically becomes a generator function (even if it also contains a *return* statement). There's nothing else we need to do to create one.

generator functions create generator iterators. That's the last time you'll see the term generator iterator, though, since they're almost always referred to as "generators". Just remember that a generator is a special type of iterator. To be considered an iterator, generators must define a few methods, one of which is *next()*. To get the next value from a generator, we use the same built-in function as for iterators: *next()*.

This point bears repeating: to get the next value from a generator, we use the same built-in function as for iterators: *next()*.

(*next()* takes care of calling the generator's *next()* method). Since a generator is a type of iterator, it can be used in a *for* loop.

So whenever *next()* is called on a generator, the generator is responsible for passing back a value to whomever called *next()*. It does so by calling *yield* along with the value to be passed back (e.g. *yield 7*). The easiest way to remember what *yield* does is to think of it as *return* (plus a little magic) for generator functions.\*\*

Again, this bears repeating: *yield* is just *return* (plus a little magic) for generator functions.

Here's a simple generator function:

```
>>> def simple_generator_function(): >>> yield 1 >>> yield 2 >>> yield 3
And here are two simple ways to use it
>>> for value in simple_generator_function(): >>> print(value) 1 2 3
>>> our_generator = simple_generator_function() >>> next(our_generator) 1 >>> next(our_generator) 2 >>>
next(our_generator) 3
Magic? What's the magic part? Glad you asked! When a generator function calls yield, the "
```

Let's rewrite *get<sub>p</sub>primes* as a generator function. Notice that we no longer need the magical *infinite\_range* function.

```
def get_p_primes(number): while True: if is_prime(number): yield number
number += 1
If a generator function calls return or reaches the end of its definition, a StopIteration exception is raised. This sig-
```

```
loop is presenting get_p_primes. If it weren't, the first time next() was called we would check if the number is prime and
>>> our_generator = simple_generator_function() >>> for value in our_generator: >>>
print(value)
```

```
>>> our_generator has been exhausted... >>> print(next(our_generator))
Traceback (most recent call last):
```

```
File "<ipython - input - 13 - 7e48a609051a>", line 1, in <module>
```

```
next(our_generator) StopIteration
```

>>> however, we can always create a new generator >>> by calling the generator function again...

```
>>> new_generator = simple_generator_function() >>> print(next(new_generator)) perfectly valid 1
Thus, the
```

Visualizing the flow Let's go back to the code that was calling `getpprimes` :  
`solvennumber10`.

```
def solvennumber10() : She * is * working on Project Euler 10, I knew it! total =  
2 for nextpprime in getpprimes(3) : if nextpprime < 2000000 : total += nextpprime else :
```

`print(total)` *return It's helpful to visualize how the first few elements are created when we call `getpprimes` in `solvennumber10`.*  
 We enter the while loop on line 3 The if condition holds (3 is prime) We yield

the value 3 and control to `solvennumber10`. Then, back in `solvennumber10` :

The value 3 is passed back to the for loop The for loop assigns next<sub>p</sub>prime to this value next<sub>p</sub>prime is added to total

```
def getpprimes(number) : while True : if ispprime(number) : yield number number +=
```

1 <<<<<<<<<< Most importantly, number still has the same value it did when we called `yield` (i.e. 3). Remember

Moar Power In PEP 342, support was added for passing values into generators.  
 PEP 342 gave generators the power to yield a value (as before), receive a value,

or both yield a value and receive a (possibly different) value in a single statement.  
 To illustrate how values are sent to a generator, let's return to our prime number

example. This time, instead of simply printing every prime number greater than  
 number, we'll find the smallest prime number greater than successive powers of  
 a number (i.e. for 10, we want the smallest prime greater than 10, then 100,

then 1000, etc.). We start in the same way as `getpprimes` :

```
def printsuccessivepprimes(iterations, base = 10) : like normal functions, a generator function can be assigned to  
primeggenerator = getpprimes(base) missing code... for power in range(iterations) :  
missing code...
```

```
def getpprimes(number) : while True : if ispprime(number) : ...what goes here? Then the next line of getpprimes takes a  
yield foo means, "yield foo and, when a value is sent to me, set the return value to that value." You can "send" values to a generator
```

```
def getpprimes(number) : while True : if ispprime(number) : number = yield number number +=
```

1 In this way, we can set number to a different value each time the generator yields. We can now fill in the missing code

```
def printsuccessivepprimes(iterations, base = 10) : primeggenerator = getpprimes(base) primeggenerator.send(  
print(primeggenerator.send(base**power))) Two things to note here : First, we're printing the result of generator
```

Second, notice the `primeggenerator.send(None)` line. When you're using `send` to "start" a generator (that is, execute

Round-up In the second half of this series, we'll discuss the various ways in  
 which generators have been enhanced and the power they gained as a result.  
`yield` has become one of the most powerful keywords in Python. Now that we've  
 built a solid understanding of how `yield` works, we have the knowledge necessary  
 to understand some of the more "mind-bending" things that `yield` can be used  
 for.

Believe it or not, we've barely scratched the surface of the power of `yield`. For  
 example, while `send` does work as described above, it's almost never used when  
 generating simple sequences like our example. Below, I've pasted a small demon-  
 stration of one common way `send` is used. I'll not say any more about it as  
 figuring out how and why it works will be a good warm-up for part two.

```
import random

def get_data():
    """Return 3 random integers between 0 and 9"""
    return random.sample(range(10), 3)

def consume():
    """Displays a running average across lists of integers sent to it"""
    running_sum = 0
    data_items_seen = 0
```

```

while True:
    data = yield
    data_items_seen += len(data)
    running_sum += sum(data)
    print('The running average is {}'.format(running_sum / float(
        ↪ data_items_seen)))

def produce(consumer):
    """Produces a set of values and forwards them to the pre-defined
    ↪ consumer
    function"""
    while True:
        data = get_data()
        print('Produced {}'.format(data))
        consumer.send(data)
        yield

if __name__ == '__main__':
    consumer = consume()
    consumer.send(None)
    producer = produce(consumer)

    for _ in range(10):
        print('Producing...')
        next(producer)

```

Remember... There are a few key ideas I hope you take away from this discussion: generators are used to generate a series of values `yield` is like the return of generator functions The only other thing `yield` does is save the "state" of a generator function A generator is just a special type of iterator Like iterators, we can get the next value from a generator using `next()` for gets values by calling `next()` implicitly

### 3.10.1 Metaclasses

Metaclasses Python, Classes, and Objects Most readers are aware that Python is an object-oriented language. By object-oriented, we mean that Python can define classes, which bundle data and functionality into one entity. For example, we may create a class `IntContainer` which stores an integer and allows certain operations to be performed:

```

class IntContainer(object):
    def __init__(self, i):
        self.i = int(i)

    def add_one(self):
        self.i += 1
ic = IntContainer(2)
ic.add_one()
print(ic.i)

```

## 3

This is a bit of a silly example, but shows the fundamental nature of classes: their ability to bundle data and operations into a single object, which leads to cleaner, more manageable, and more adaptable code. Additionally, classes can inherit properties from parents and add or specialize attributes and methods. This object-oriented approach to programming can be very intuitive and powerful. What many do not realize, though, is that quite literally everything in the Python language is an object.

For example, integers are simply instances of the built-in int type:

`print type(1) <type 'int'>` To emphasize that the int type really is an object, let's derive from it and specialize the `add` method (which is the machinery underneath the `+` operator): (Note: We'll use the super syntax to call methods from the parent class: if you're unfamiliar with this, take a look at this [StackOverflow question](#)).

```
class MyInt(int):
    def __add__(self, other):
        print "specializing addition"
        return super(MyInt, self).__add__(other)

i = MyInt(2)
print(i + 2)
specializing addition
4
```

Using the `+` operator on our derived type goes through our `add` method, as expected. We see that int really is an object that can be subclassed. Down the Rabbit Hole: Classes as Objects We said above that everything in python is an object: it turns out that this is true of classes themselves. Let's look at an example.

We'll start by defining a class that does nothing

`class DoNothing(object):` pass If we instantiate this, we can use the type operator to see the type of object that it is:

```
d = DoNothing()
type(d)
main.DoNothing
We see that our variable is an instance of the class main.DoNothing.
```

We can do this similarly for built-in types:

`L = [1, 2, 3]` `type(L)` list A list is, as you may expect, an object of type list.

But let's take this a step further: what is the type of DoNothing itself?

`type(DoNothing)` type The type of DoNothing is type. This tells us that the class DoNothing is itself an object, and that object is of type type.

It turns out that this is the same for built-in datatypes:

`type(tuple)`, `type(list)`, `type(int)`, `type(float)` (type, type, type, type) What this shows is that in Python, classes are objects, and they are objects of type type. type is a metaclass: a class which instantiates classes. All new-style classes in Python are instances of the type metaclass, including type itself:

`type(type)` type Yes, you read that correctly: the type of type is type. In other words, type is an instance of itself. This sort of circularity cannot (to my knowledge) be duplicated in pure Python, and the behavior is created through a bit of a hack at the implementation level of Python.

Metaprogramming: Creating Classes on the Fly Now that we've stepped back and considered the fact that classes in Python are simply objects like everything else, we can think about what is known as metaprogramming. You're probably

used to creating functions which return objects. We can think of these functions as an object factory: they take some arguments, create an object, and return it. Here is a simple example of a function which creates an int object:

```
def int_factory(s) : i = int(s) return i
i = int_factory('100') print(i) 100
```

*This is overly-simplistic, but any function you write in the course of a normal program takes some arguments, does some operations, and creates and returns an object. With the above discussion in mind, though, -this is a meta function :*

```
def class_factory(object) : pass return Foo
F = class_factory() f = F() print(type(f)) <class 'main.Foo'>
```

*Just as the function int\_factory constructs and returns an instance of int, the function class\_factory constructs and returns an instance of Foo.*

But the above construction is a bit awkward: especially if we were going to do some more complicated logic when constructing Foo, it would be nice to avoid all the nested indentations and define the class in a more dynamic way. We can accomplish this by instantiating Foo from type directly:

```
def class_factory() : return type('Foo', (), )
F = class_factory() f = F() print(type(f)) <class 'main.Foo'>
```

*In fact, the construct*

`class MyClass(object):` pass is identical to the construct

`MyClass = type('MyClass', (), )` `MyClass` is an instance of type `type`, and that can be seen explicitly in the second version of the definition. A potential confusion arises from the more common use of `type` as a function to determine the type of an object, but you should strive to separate these two uses of the keyword in your mind: here `type` is a class (more precisely, a metaclass), and `MyClass` is an instance of `type`.

The arguments to the `type` constructor are: `type(name, bases, dct)` - `name` is a string giving the name of the class to be constructed - `bases` is a tuple giving the parent classes of the class to be constructed - `dct` is a dictionary of the attributes and methods of the class to be constructed

So, for example, the following two pieces of code have identical results:

```
class Foo(object): i = 4
class Bar(Foo): def get_i(self) : return self.i
b = Bar() print(b.get_i()) 4
```

*Foo = type('Foo', (), dict(i = 4))*  
`Bar = type('Bar', (Foo,), dict(get_i = lambda self : self.i))`  
`b = Bar() print(b.get_i()) 4`  
*This perhaps seems a bit over-complicated in the case of this contrived example, but it is the - fly.*

**Making Things Interesting: Custom Metaclasses** Now things get really fun. Just as we can inherit from and extend a class we've created, we can also inherit from and extend the `type` metaclass, and create custom behavior in our metaclass.

**Example 1: Modifying Attributes** Let's use a simple example where we want to create an API in which the user can create a set of interfaces which contain a file object. Each interface should have a unique string ID, and contain an open file object. The user could then write specialized methods to accomplish certain tasks. There are certainly good ways to do this without delving into metaclasses, but such a simple example will (hopefully) elucidate what's going on.

First we'll create our interface meta class, deriving from `type`:

```
class InterfaceMeta(type):
    def new(cls, name, parents, dct):
        create a class if it's not specified if class_id not in dct:
            dct['class_id'] = name.lower()
        open the specified file for writing if 'file' in dct:
            filename = dct['file']
            dct['file'] = open(filename, 'w')
        we need to call type.new to complete the initialization
        return super(InterfaceMeta, cls).new(cls, name, parents, dct)
```

*Notice that we've modified the new method of the metaclass.*



Now we'll use our InterfaceMeta class to construct and instantiate an Interface object:

```
Interface = InterfaceMeta('Interface', (), dict(file='tmp.txt'))
print(Interface.class_id) print(Interface.file) interface < open file 'tmp.txt', mode 'w' at 0x21b8810 >
This behaves as we'd expect: the class_id class variable is created, and the file class variable is replaced with an open
class Interface(object): metaclass=InterfaceMeta file='tmp.txt'
print(Interface.class_id) print(Interface.file) interface < open file 'tmp.txt', mode 'w' at 0x21b8ae0 >
by defining the metaclass attribute of the class, we've told the class that it should be constructed using InterfaceMeta rather than using type. To make
type(Interface) main.InterfaceMeta Furthermore, any class derived from Interface will now be constructed using the same metaclass:
class UserInterface(Interface): file = 'foo.txt'
print(UserInterface.file) print(UserInterface.class_id) < open file 'foo.txt', mode 'w' at 0x21b8c00 >
user interface This simple example shows how metaclasses can be used to create powerful and flexible APIs for programs.
```

Example 2: Registering Subclasses Another possible use of a metaclass is to automatically register all subclasses derived from a given base class. For example, you may have a basic interface to a database and wish for the user to be able to define their own interfaces, which are automatically stored in a master registry. You might proceed this way:

```
class DBInterfaceMeta(type): we use init, rather than new here because we want to modify attributes of the class *after* they have been created
super(DBInterfaceMeta, cls).init(name, bases, dct) Our metaclass simply adds a registry dictionary if it's not already present, and adds the new
class DBInterface(object): metaclass=DBInterfaceMeta
print(DBInterface.registry) Now let's create some subclasses, and double-check
that they're added to the registry:
class FirstInterface(DBInterface): pass
class SecondInterface(DBInterface): pass
class SecondInterfaceModified(SecondInterface): pass
print(DBInterface.registry) 'firstinterface': <class 'main.FirstInterface'>, 'secondinterface': <class 'main.SecondInterface'>, 'secondinterfacemodified': <class 'main.SecondInterfaceModified'>
```

Conclusion: When Should You Use Metaclasses? I've gone through some examples of what metaclasses are, and some ideas about how they might be used to create very powerful and flexible APIs. Although metaclasses are in the background of everything you do in Python, the average coder rarely has to think about them.

But the question remains: when should you think about using custom metaclasses in your project? It's a complicated question, but there's a quotation floating around the web that addresses it quite succinctly:

Metaclasses are deeper magic than 99% of users should ever worry about. If you wonder whether you need them, you don't (the people who actually need them know with certainty that they need them, and don't need an explanation about why).

Tim Peters

In a way, this is a very unsatisfying answer: it's a bit reminiscent of the wistful and clichéd explanation of the border between attraction and love: "well, you just... know!"

But I think Tim is right: in general, I've found that most tasks in Python that can be accomplished through use of custom metaclasses can also be accomplished more cleanly and with more clarity by other means. As programmers, we should always be careful to avoid being clever for the sake of cleverness alone, though it is admittedly an ever-present temptation.

I personally spent six years doing science with Python, writing code nearly on a daily basis, before I found a problem for which metaclasses were the natural solution. And it turns out Tim was right: I just knew.

## 3.11 Hệ điều hành

### 3.11.1 File Operations

Copy folder

```
import shutil
shutil.copyfile("src", "dst")
```

### 3.11.2 CLI

shutil - High-level file operations

## 3.12 Cơ sở dữ liệu (chưa xây dựng)

## 3.13 Giao diện (chưa xây dựng)

## 3.14 Lập trình mạng

REST JSON 1 2 GET

```
import requests
url = "http://localhost:8080/messages"
response = requests.get(url)
data = response.json()
```

POST

```
import requests
import json

url = "http://localhost:8080/messages"
data = {'sender': 'Alice', 'receiver': 'Bob', 'message': 'Hello!'}
headers = {
    'Content-type': 'application/json',
    'Accept': 'application/json'
}
r = requests.post(url, data=json.dumps(data), headers=headers)
```

## 3.15 Lập trình song song

Running several threads is similar to running several different programs concurrently, but with the following benefits

Multiple threads within a process share the same data space with the main thread and can therefore share information or communicate with each other more easily than if they were separate processes. Threads sometimes called light-weight processes and they do not require much memory overhead; they are cheaper than processes. A thread has a beginning, an execution sequence, and a conclusion. It has an instruction pointer that keeps track of where within its context it is currently running.

It can be pre-empted (interrupted)

It can temporarily be put on hold (also known as sleeping) while other threads are running - this is called yielding. Starting a New Thread To spawn another thread, you need to call following method available in thread module:

`thread.start_new_thread(function, args[, kwargs])` This method call enables a fast and efficient way to create new threads.

The method call returns immediately and the child thread starts and calls function with the passed list of args. When function returns, the thread terminates. Here, args is a tuple of arguments; use an empty tuple to call function without passing any arguments. kwargs is an optional dictionary of keyword arguments. Example

```
#!/usr/bin/python

import thread
import time

# Define a function for the thread
def print_time( threadName, delay):
    count = 0
    while count < 5:
        time.sleep(delay)
        count += 1
        print "%s: %s" % ( threadName, time.ctime(time.time()) )

# Create two threads as follows
try:
    thread.start_new_thread( print_time, ("Thread-1", 2, ) )
    thread.start_new_thread( print_time, ("Thread-2", 4, ) )
except:
    print "Error: unable to start thread"

while 1:
    pass
```

When the above code is executed, it produces the following result

```
Thread-1: Thu Jan 22 15:42:17 2009
Thread-1: Thu Jan 22 15:42:19 2009
Thread-2: Thu Jan 22 15:42:19 2009
Thread-1: Thu Jan 22 15:42:21 2009
Thread-2: Thu Jan 22 15:42:23 2009
Thread-1: Thu Jan 22 15:42:23 2009
Thread-1: Thu Jan 22 15:42:25 2009
Thread-2: Thu Jan 22 15:42:27 2009
```

```
Thread-2: Thu Jan 22 15:42:31 2009
Thread-2: Thu Jan 22 15:42:35 2009
```

Although it is very effective for low-level threading, but the thread module is very limited compared to the newer threading module.

### The Threading Module

The newer threading module included with Python 2.4 provides much more powerful, high-level support for threads than the thread module discussed in the previous section.

The threading module exposes all the methods of the thread module and provides some additional methods:

`threading.activeCount()`: Returns the number of thread objects that are active.  
`threading.currentThread()`: Returns the number of thread objects in the caller's thread control.  
`threading.enumerate()`: Returns a list of all thread objects that are currently active. In addition to the methods, the threading module has the Thread class that implements threading. The methods provided by the Thread class are as follows:

`run()`: The `run()` method is the entry point for a thread.  
`start()`: The `start()` method starts a thread by calling the `run` method.  
`join([time])`: The `join()` waits for threads to terminate.  
`isAlive()`: The `isAlive()` method checks whether a thread is still executing.  
`getName()`: The `getName()` method returns the name of a thread.  
`setName()`: The `setName()` method sets the name of a thread.

### Creating Thread Using Threading Module

To implement a new thread using the threading module, you have to do the following

Define a new subclass of the Thread class. Override the `init(self [,args])` method to add additional arguments. Then, override the `run(self [,args])` method to implement what the thread should do when started. Once you have created the new Thread subclass, you can create an instance of it and then start a new thread by invoking the `start()`, which in turn calls `run()` method.

Example

```
#!/usr/bin/python

import threading
import time

exitFlag = 0

class myThread (threading.Thread):
    def __init__(self, threadID, name, counter):
        threading.Thread.__init__(self)
        self.threadID = threadID
        self.name = name
        self.counter = counter
    def run(self):
        print "Starting " + self.name
        print_time(self.name, self.counter, 5)
        print "Exiting " + self.name
```

```

def print_time(threadName, delay, counter):
    while counter:
        if exitFlag:
            threadName.exit()
        time.sleep(delay)
        print "%s: %s" % (threadName, time.ctime(time.time()))
        counter -= 1

# Create new threads
thread1 = myThread(1, "Thread-1", 1)
thread2 = myThread(2, "Thread-2", 2)

# Start new Threads
thread1.start()
thread2.start()

print "Exiting Main Thread"

```

When the above code is executed, it produces the following result

```

Starting Thread-1
Starting Thread-2
Exiting Main Thread
Thread-1: Thu Mar 21 09:10:03 2013
Thread-1: Thu Mar 21 09:10:04 2013
Thread-2: Thu Mar 21 09:10:04 2013
Thread-1: Thu Mar 21 09:10:05 2013
Thread-1: Thu Mar 21 09:10:06 2013
Thread-2: Thu Mar 21 09:10:06 2013
Thread-1: Thu Mar 21 09:10:07 2013
Exiting Thread-1
Thread-2: Thu Mar 21 09:10:08 2013
Thread-2: Thu Mar 21 09:10:10 2013
Thread-2: Thu Mar 21 09:10:12 2013
Exiting Thread-2

```

### Synchronizing Threads

The threading module provided with Python includes a simple-to-implement locking mechanism that allows you to synchronize threads. A new lock is created by calling the `Lock()` method, which returns the new lock.

The `acquire(blocking)` method of the new lock object is used to force threads to run synchronously. The optional blocking parameter enables you to control whether the thread waits to acquire the lock.

If blocking is set to 0, the thread returns immediately with a 0 value if the lock cannot be acquired and with a 1 if the lock was acquired. If blocking is set to 1, the thread blocks and wait for the lock to be released.

The `release()` method of the new lock object is used to release the lock when it is no longer required.

Example

```
#!/usr/bin/python
```

```

import threading
import time

class myThread (threading.Thread):
    def __init__(self, threadID, name, counter):
        threading.Thread.__init__(self)
        self.threadID = threadID
        self.name = name
        self.counter = counter
    def run(self):
        print "Starting " + self.name
        # Get lock to synchronize threads
        threadLock.acquire()
        print_time(self.name, self.counter, 3)
        # Free lock to release next thread
        threadLock.release()

def print_time(threadName, delay, counter):
    while counter:
        time.sleep(delay)
        print "%s: %s" % (threadName, time.ctime(time.time()))
        counter -= 1

threadLock = threading.Lock()
threads = []

# Create new threads
thread1 = myThread(1, "Thread-1", 1)
thread2 = myThread(2, "Thread-2", 2)

# Start new Threads
thread1.start()
thread2.start()

# Add threads to thread list
threads.append(thread1)
threads.append(thread2)

# Wait for all threads to complete
for t in threads:
    t.join()
print "Exiting Main Thread"

```

When the above code is executed, it produces the following result

```

Starting Thread-1
Starting Thread-2
Starting Thread-3
Thread-1 processing One
Thread-2 processing Two

```

```
Thread-3 processing Three
Thread-1 processing Four
Thread-2 processing Five
Exiting Thread-3
Exiting Thread-1
Exiting Thread-2
Exiting Main Thread
```

Related Readings "Python Multithreaded Programming". [www.tutorialspoint.com](http://www.tutorialspoint.com). N.p., 2016. Web. 13 Dec. 2016. "An Introduction To Python Concurrency". [dabeaz.com](http://dabeaz.com). N.p., 2016. Web. 14 Dec. 2016.

### 3.16 Event Based Programming

Introduction: pydispatcher 1 2

PyDispatcher provides the Python programmer with a multiple-producer-multiple-consumer signal-registration and routing infrastructure for use in multiple contexts. The mechanism of PyDispatcher started life as a highly rated recipe in the Python Cookbook. The project aims to include various enhancements to the recipe developed during use in various applications. It is primarily maintained by Mike Fletcher. A derivative of the project provides the Django web framework's "signal" system.

Used by Django community

Usage 1 To set up a function to receive signals: `from pydispatch import dispatcher`

`SIGNAL = 'my-first-signal'`

```
def handle_event(sender): """Simple event handler""" print 'Signal was sent by', sender
dispatcher.connect(handle_event, signal = SIGNAL, sender = dispatcher.Any)
```

The use of the Any object allows the handler to listen for messages from any Sender or to listen to Any message being sent. To send messages: `first_sender = object()` `second_sender =`

```
def main(): dispatcher.send(signal=SIGNAL, sender=first_sender) dispatcher.send(signal =
SIGNAL, sender = second_sender)
```

Which causes the following to be printed:

```
Signal was sent by <object object at 0x196a090> Signal was sent by
Messaging
Conda link Docker link Github - pubSubService Github - pubSubClient Pypi
link
```

Python Publish - Subscribe Pattern Implementation:

Step by Step to run PubSub: Step 1: Pull pubsub image from docker hub  
run it: `docker pull hunguyen/pubsub:latest` `docker run -d -p 8000:8000 hunguyen/pubsub`  
Step 2: To run client first install pyconfiguration from conda  
`conda install -c rain1024 pyconfiguration`  
Step 3: Install pubSubClient package  
from conda `conda install -c hunguyen pubsubclient`  
Step 4: Create config.json  
file "PUBLISH\_SUBSCRIBE\_SERVICE" : "http://api.service.com" Step5 :

```
Run pubsubclient create and register or sync a publisher
publisher = Publisher('P1') create a new topic
topic = Topic('A') create an event
topic_event = Event(topic) publisher publishes an event
publisher.publish(topic_event)
subscriber = Subscriber('S1') subscriber subscribes to a topic
subscriber.subscribe(topic) subscriber gets all new events by time
subscriber.get_events(pydispatcher)
```

stackoverflow, Recommended Python publish/subscribe/dispatch module?

### 3.17 Web Development

Django 1 Django is a high-level Python Web framework that encourages rapid development and clean, pragmatic design. Built by experienced developers, it takes care of much of the hassle of Web development, so you can focus on writing your app without needing to reinvent the wheel. It's free and open source.

Project Folder Structure

```
project_folder/your_project_name/your_project_name/static/models.pyserializers.pysettings.pyurls.pyviews.py
InstalldependenciespipinstalldjangoinstalldjangoframeworkpipinstallmarkdownMarkdownsupport
filterFilteringsupportpipinstalldjango-cors-headersCORSSupportStep2 :
```

```
Createprojectdjango-adminstartprojectyour_project_nameStep3 : Configapps3Add'your_project_name','res
INSTALLED_APPS = (...'your_project_name''rest_framework',)Step4 : Model, View, Route6Step4.1 :
```

```
CreatemodelandserializerYoucangotoDjango : Modelfieldreferencepageformorefields.
```

Step 4.1.1: Create Task class in your\_project\_name/models.py file from django.db import models

```
class Task(models.Model): content = models.CharField(max_length = 30)status =
models.CharField(max_length = 30)Step4.1.2 : CreateTaskSerializerclassinyour_project_name/serializers
```

```
class TaskSerializer(serializers.HyperlinkedModelSerializer): class Meta: model
= Task fields = ('id', 'content', 'status') Step 4.1.3: Create table in database 4
```

python manage.py syncdb With django 1.9

python manage.py makemigrations your\_project\_namepythonmanage.py migrateStep4.2 :

```
CreateTaskViewSetclassinyour_project_name/views.pyfilefromyour_project_name.modelsimportTaskfrom
class TaskViewSet(viewsets.ModelViewSet): queryset = Task.objects.all() serializer_class =
```

```
TaskSerializerStep4.3 : Configroute5Changeyour_project_name/urls.pyfile
from django.conf.urls import include, url from django.contrib import admin
```

```
from rest_frameworkimportroutersfromyour_project_name.viewsimportTaskViewSet
```

```
router = routers.DefaultRouter() router.register(r'api/tasks', TaskViewSet) ad-
min.autodiscover()
```

```
urlpatterns = [ url(r'^admin/', include(admin.site.urls)), url(r'', include(router.urls)), url(r'^api-
auth/', include('rest_framework.urls', namespace = 'rest_framework'))]Step5 :
```

```
RunServerpythonmanage.py runserverStep6.UseAPIStep6.1 : Createanewtaskcurl-
i -XPOST -H"Content-Type : application/json"http : //localhost :
```

```
8000/api/tasks-d"content" : "a", "status" : "INIT"'Step6.2 : Listalltaskscurlhttp :
```

```
//localhost : 8000/api/tasksStep6.3 : Getdetailoftask1curlhttp : //localhost :
```

```
8000/api/tasks/1Step6.4 : Deletetask1curl-i-XDELETEhttp : //localhost :
```

```
8000/api/tasks/1Step7 : CORSKnownError : No'Access-Control-Allow-
```

```
Origin'headerisresentontherequestedresource.Origin'null'isthereforenotallowedaccess.
```

Step 7.1: Install corsheader app Add module corsheaders to your\_project\_name/settings.py

```
INSTALLED_APPS = (...'corsheaders', ...)Step7.2AddmiddlewareclassesAddmiddlewareclassessetoyour_proj
MIDDLEWARE_CLASSES = (...'corsheaders.middleware.CorsMiddleware','django.middleware.common
```

AllowAll

Add this line to your\_project\_name/settings.py

```
CORS_ORIGIN_ALLOW_ALL : TrueStep8 : httpsYoucanusehttps : //github.com/tedddiuba/django-
sslserver
```

```
Unicode REST_FRAMEWORK = 'DEFAULT_RENDERER_CLASSES' : ('rest_framework.renderers.JSON
PagingAddthismodulesettingtoyour_project_name/settings.py
```

```
REST_FRAMEWORK = 'DEFAULT_PAGINATION_CLASS' : 'rest_framework.pagination.LimitOfset
API:
```

```
GET <>/?limit=<limit>offset=<offset>
```

Step 10: Search by field in import this to your viewsets.py

```
from rest_frameworkimportfilters
```



add this to your viewsets class

```
filter_backends = (filters.SearchFilter,) search_fields = ('< field >', '< field >')
```

One-to-Many Relationship 7 from django.db import models

```
class User(models.Model): name = models.TextField()
```

```
def str(self): return "-" . format(str(self.id), self.name)
```

```
class Task(models.Model): name = models.TextField() assign = models.ForeignKey(User,
```

```
on_delete = models.CASCADE) Starting with Mysql Add this database setting to your project name / settings.py
```

```
DATABASES = 'default': 'ENGINE': 'django.db.backends.mysql', 'NAME':
```

```
'[DB_NAME]', 'USER': '[DB_USER]', 'PASSWORD': '[PASSWORD]', 'HOST':
```

```
'[HOST]', 'Oran IP Address that your DB is hosted on' 'PORT': '3306',
```

Install this module to your virtual environment

conda install mysql-python if you are using virtual environment

pip install mysql-python if you using are root environment

Custom View 8 from rest\_framework import mixins

```
class CreateModelMixin(object): """ Create a model instance. """ def cre-
```

```
ate(self, request, *args, **kwargs): event = request.data try: event['time'] =
```

```
int(time.time()) except Exception, e: print 'Set Time Error' serializer = self.get_serializer(data =
```

```
request.data) serializer.is_valid(raise_exception = True) self.perform_create(serializer) headers =
```

```
self.get_success_headers(serializer.data) return Response(serializer.data, status =
```

```
status.HTTP_201_CREATED, headers = headers)
```

```
def perform_create(self, serializer): serializer.save()
```

```
def get_success_headers(self, data): try: return 'Location': data[api_settings.URL_FIELD_NAME] except (TypeError,
```

```
return
```

```
class YourViewSet(CreateModelMixin, mixins.RetrieveModelMixin, mixins.UpdateModelMixin,
```

```
mixins.DestroyModelMixin, mixins.ListModelMixin, GenericViewSet): queryset
```

```
= YourModel.objects.all() serializer_class = YourModelSerializer Logging settings Here is an example, put this
```

```
LOGGING = 'version': 1, 'disable_existing_loggers': False, 'formatters':
```

```
'verbose': 'format' :', 'simple': 'format' :', 'filters': 'special' : '()' : 'project.logging.SpecialFilter', 'foo'
```

```
'console' : 'level' : 'INFO', 'filters': ['require_debug_true'], 'class' : 'logging.StreamHandler', 'formatter' :
```

```
'django' : 'handlers' : ['console'], 'propagate' : True, 'django.request' : 'handlers' : ['mail_admins'], 'level' :
```

Python: Build Python API Client package Step 1: Write document on Swagger

Editor1 Step 2: Genenrate Client -> Python -> save python-client.zip Step 3:

Extract zip Step 4: Open project in Pycharm rename project directory, project

name, swagger\_client package Step 5 : 2mkdir conda cd conda git clone https : // github.com / hunguyen1702 / conda

rf.git README.md Step 6 : Edit meta.yaml file in your package folder 6.1 Follow instruction in side meta.yaml

```
build : -python - setuptools run : -python with : requirements : build :
```

```
-python - setuptools - six - certifi - python - dateutil run : -python -
```

```
six - certifi - python - dateutil Step 7 : cd .. conda build your package Step 8 :
```

```
mkdir channel cd channel conda convert - platform all / anaconda / conda - bld / linux -
```

```
64 / your_package_0.1.0 - py270.tar.bz2 Step 9 : Create virtual - env name : your_env name dependencies :
```

```
- certifi = 2016.2.28 = py270 - openssl = 1.0.2h = 0 - pip = 8.1.2 =
```

```
py270 - python = 2.7.11 = 0 - python - dateutil = 2.5.3 = py270 - readline =
```

```
6.2 = 2 - setuptools = 20.7.0 = py270 - six = 1.10.0 = py270 - tk = 8.5.18 =
```

```
0 - wheel = 0.29.0 = py270 - zlib = 1.2.8 = 0 - pip : - urllib3 == 1.15.1 Step 10 :
```

Install : conda install - use - locally your package Django

Writing your first Django app, part 1

Django REST framework: Installation

Django: Migrations

Building a Simple REST API for Mobile Applications

Django: Models

How to show object details in Django Rest Framework browsable API?

*rest\_framework : mixins*

## 3.18 Khóa học 3: Phát triển phần mềm với Python

### 3.18.1 Mục tiêu của khóa học

### 3.18.2 Đối tượng học viên

- Đã lập trình Python được 1-2 năm
- Muốn phát triển phần mềm mã nguồn mở

## 3.19 Logging

levels, attributes references

The logging library takes a modular approach and offers several categories of components: loggers, handlers, filters, and formatters.

Loggers expose the interface that application code directly uses. Handlers send the log records (created by loggers) to the appropriate destination. Filters provide a finer grained facility for determining which log records to output. Formatters specify the layout of log records in the final output. Step 0: Project structure

```
code/
    main.py
    config
        logging.conf
    logs
        app.log
```

Step 1: Create file logging.conf

```
[loggers] keys=root
```

```
[handlers] keys=consoleHandler,fileHandler
```

```
[formatters] keys=formatter
```

```
[logger_root] level = DEBUG handlers = consoleHandler, fileHandler
```

```
[handler_consoleHandler] class = StreamHandler level = DEBUG formatter =
formatterargs = (sys.stdout,)
```

```
[handler_fileHandler] class = FileHandler level = DEBUG formatter = formatterargs =
('logs/app.log', 'a')
```

```
[formatter_formatter] format = datefmt = Step2 : Load config and create logger
```

In main.py

```
import logging.config
```

```
load logging config logging.config.fileConfig('config/logging.conf')
```

Step 3: In your application code

```
logging.getLogger().debug('debug message') logging.getLogger().info('info mes-
sage') logging.getLogger().warn('warn message') logging.getLogger().error('error
message') logging.getLogger().critical('critical message')
```

More Resources

Introduction to Logging Quick and simple usage of python log Python: Logging module

Python: Logging cookbook

Python: Logging guide

## 3.20 Configuration

pyconfiguration

Installation `conda install -c rain1024 pyconfiguration` Usage Step 1: Create `config.json` file

"SERVICE\_URL" : "http://api.service.com" Step2 : Add the code to `main.py` file  
 from pyconfiguration import Configuration Configuration.load('config.json') print Configuration.SERVICE\_URL

> `http://api.service.com` References: What's the best practice using a settings file 1

What's the best practice using a settings file in Python?

## 3.21 Command Line

Command Line Arguments There are the following modules in the standard library:

The `getopt` module is similar to GNU `getopt`. The `optparse` module offers object-oriented command line option parsing. Here is an example that uses the latter from the docs:

```
from optparse import OptionParser
parser = OptionParser()
parser.add_option("-f", "--file", dest="filename", help="write report to FILE", metavar="FILE")
parser.add_option("-q", "--quiet", action="store_false", dest="verbose", default=True, help="don't print status messages to stdout")
(options, args) = parser.parse_args()
```

`optparse.supports(among other things)` : Multiple options in any order. Short and long options. Default values. Generation of a usage help message. Suggest Reading Command Line Arguments In Python

## 3.22 Testing

Testing your code is very important.

Getting used to writing testing code and running this code in parallel is now considered a good habit. Used wisely, this method helps you define more precisely your code's intent and have a more decoupled architecture.

unittest `unittest` is the batteries-included test module in the Python standard library. Its API will be familiar to anyone who has used any of the JUnit/PHPUnit/CppUnit series of tools.

The Basics Creating test cases is accomplished by subclassing `unittest.TestCase`.  
 import `unittest`

```
def fun(x): return x + 1
```

```
class MyTest(unittest.TestCase):
    def test(self):
        self.assertEqual(fun(3), 4)
```

Skipping tests `unittest` supports skipping individual test methods and even whole classes of tests. In addition, it supports marking a test as an "expected failure,"

a test that is broken and will fail, but shouldn't be counted as a failure on a .code TestResult.

Skipping a test is simply a matter of using the skip() decorator or one of its conditional variants.

```
import sys import unittest
```

```
class MyTestCase(unittest.TestCase):
```

```
@unittest.skip("demonstrating skipping") def test_nothing(self): self.fail("shouldn't happen")
```

```
@unittest.skipIf(mylib.__version__ < (1,3), "not supported in this library version") def test_format(self): Tests that work for only a certain version of
```

```
@unittest.skipUnless(sys.platform.startswith("win"), "requires Windows") def
```

```
test_windows_support(self): windowsspecific testing code pass Tox tox aims to automate and standardize testing
```

Tox is a generic virtualenv management and test command line tool you can use for:

checking your package installs correctly with different Python versions and interpreters running your tests in each of the environments, configuring your test tool of choice acting as a frontend to Continuous Integration servers, greatly reducing boilerplate and merging CI and shell-based testing. Installation

You can install tox with pip using the following command

```
> pip install tox
```

Setup default environment in Windows with conda

```
> conda create -p C:\python27 python=2.7
```

```
> conda create -p C:\python34 python=3.4
```

Related Readings Testing Your Code, The Hitchhiker's Guide to Python unittest Unit testing framework, docs.python.org Is it possible to use tox with conda-based Python installations?, stackoverflow

### 3.23 IDE & Debugging

Today, I write some notes about my favorite Python IDE - PyCharm. I believe it's a good one for developing python, which supports git, vim, etc. This list below contains my favorite features.

Pycharm Features Intelligent Editor Navigation Graphical Debugger Refactorings Code Inspections Version Control Integration Scientific Tools Intelligent Editor PyCharm provides smart code completion, code inspections, on-the-fly error highlighting and quick-fixes, along with automated code refactorings and rich navigation capabilities.

Syntax Highlighting

Read your code easier with customizable colors for Python code and Django templates. Choose from several predefined color themes.

Auto-Indentation and code formatting

Automatic indents are inserted on new line. Indent verification and code reformatting are compliant with project code-style settings.

Configurable code styles

Select a predefined coding style to apply to your code style configuration for various supported languages.

Code completion

Code completion for keywords, classes, variables, etc. as you type or via Ctrl+Space.

Editor suggestions are context-aware and offer the most appropriate options.

Keyboard shortcuts: Tab, Alt+Enter

Code selection and comments

Select a block of code and expand it to an expression, to a line, to a logical block of code, and so on with shortcuts. Single keystroke to comment/uncomment the current line or selection.

Code formatter

Code formatter with code style configuration and other features help you write neat code that's easy to support. PyCharm contains built-in PEP-8 for Python and other standards compliant code formatting for supported languages.

Code snippets and templates

Save time using advanced customizable and parametrized live code templates and snippets.

Keyboard shortcuts check.if ENTER

if check: *type\_somethingCode folding*

Code folding, auto-insertion of braces, brackets quotes, matching brace/bracket highlighting, etc.

On-the-fly error highlighting

Errors are shown as you type. The integrated spell-checker verifies your identifiers and comments for misspellings.

Multiple carets and selections

With multiple carets, you can edit several locations in your file at the same time.

Keyboard shortcuts: SHIFT + F6

Code analysis

Numerous code inspections verify Python code as you type and also allow inspecting the whole project for possible errors or code smells.

Quick-fixes

Quick-fixes for most inspections make it easy to fix or improve the code instantly.

Alt+Enter shows appropriate options for each inspection.

Keyboard shortcuts: F2

Duplicated code detector

Smart duplicated code detector analyzes your code and searches for copy/pasted code. You'll be presented with a list of candidates for refactoring and with the help of refactorings it's easy to keep your code dry.

Configurable language injections

Natively edit non-Python code embedded into string literals, with code completion, error-highlighting, and other coding assistance features.

Code auto generation

Code auto-generation from usage with quick-fixes; docstrings and the code matching verification, plus autoupdate on refactoring. Automatic generation of a docstring stub (reStructuredText, Epytext, Google, and NumPy).

Intention actions

Intention actions help you apply automated changes to code that is correct, to improve it or to make your coding routine easier.

Searching

Keyboard shortcuts: Double Shift (search everywhere)

Navigation Shortcuts

Keyboard shortcuts: ALT + SHIFT + UP/DOWN (move line up and down)

Graphical Debugger PyCharm provides extensive options for debugging your Python/Django and JavaScript code:

Set breakpoints right inside the editor and define hit conditions Inspect context-relevant local variables and user-defined watches, including arrays and complex objects, and edit values on the fly Set up remote debugging using remote interpreters Evaluate an expression in runtime and collect run-time type statistics for better autocompletion and code inspections Attach to a running process Debug Django templates

Inline Debugger

With an inline debugger, all live debugging data are shown directly in the editor, with variable values integrated into the editor's look-and-feel. Variable values can be viewed in the source code, right next to their usages.

Step into My Code

Use Step into My Code to stay focused on your code: the debugger will only step through your code bypassing any library sources.

Multi-process debugging

PyCharm can debug applications that spawn multiple Python processes, such as Django applications that don't run in `--no-reload` mode, or applications using many other Web frameworks that use a similar approach to code auto-reloading.

Run/Debug configurations

Every script/test or debugger execution creates a special 'Run/Debug Configuration' that can be edited and used later. Run/Debug Configurations can be shared with project settings for use by the whole team.

Workspace Custom Scheme Go to File - Settings... then Editor - Colors Fonts

Now you can change your scheme, I like Darcula

[https://confluence.jetbrains.com/download/attachments/51945983/appearance3.png?version=1modificationDate=1519459830000&\\_af=1](https://confluence.jetbrains.com/download/attachments/51945983/appearance3.png?version=1modificationDate=1519459830000&_af=1)

IPython Support PyCharm supports usage of IPython magic commands.

<http://i.stack.imgur.com/aTEW2.png>

Vim Support You can configure PyCharm to work as a Vim editor

[https://confluence.jetbrains.com/download/attachments/51946537/vim4.png?version=1modificationDate=1519465370000&\\_af=1](https://confluence.jetbrains.com/download/attachments/51946537/vim4.png?version=1modificationDate=1519465370000&_af=1)

Keyboard Shortcuts: Ctrl+Shift+V (paste)

### 3.23.1 Pycharm Pycharm

Hôm nay tự nhiên lại gặp lỗi không tự nhận unittest, không resolve được package import bởi relative path. Vù không tự nhận unittest sửa bằng cách xóa file .idea là xong. Còn vù không resolve được package import bởi relative path thì vẫn chịu rồi. Nhìn code cứ đở lờm khó chịu thật.

01/2018: Pycharm là trình duyệt ưa thích của mình trong suốt 3 năm vừa rồi.

## 3.24 Package Manager

### 3.24.1 py2exe

py2exe is a Python Distutils extension which converts Python scripts into executable Windows programs, able to run without requiring a Python installation.

Installation

```
# py2exe
conda install -c https://conda.anaconda.org/clinicalgraphics cg-py2exe
Build 1
python setup.py py2exe
# build PyQT
python setup.py py2exe --includes sip
```

**Known Issues**

Error: Microsoft Visual C++ 10.0 is required (Unable to find vcvarsall.bat)  
(link)

How to fix

Step 1: Install Visual Studio 2015

Step 2:

```
set VS100COMNTOOLS=%VS140COMNTOOLS%
```

**3.24.2 Quản lý gói với Anaconda**

Cài đặt package tại một branch của một project trên github

```
> pip install git+https://github.com/tangentlabs/django-oscar-paypal.  
↪ git@issue/34/oscar-0.6#egg=django-oscar-paypal
```

Trích xuất danh sách package

```
> pip freeze > requirements.txt
```

**Chạy ipython trong environment anaconda**

Chạy dòng lệnh này

```
conda install nb_conda
source activate my_env
python -m IPython kernelspec install-self --user
ipython notebook
```

**Interactive programming với ipython**

Trích xuất ipython ra slide (không hiểu sao default ‘-to slides’ không work nữa, lại phải thêm tham số ‘-reveal-prefix’<sup>2</sup>

```
jupyter nbconvert "file.ipynb"  
--to slides  
--reveal-prefix "https://cdnjs.cloudflare.com/ajax/libs/reveal.js  
↪ /3.1.0"
```

**\*\*Tham khảo thêm\*\***

\* <https://stackoverflow.com/questions/37085665/in-which-conda-environment-is-jupyter-executing> \* <https://github.com/jupyter/notebook/issues/541issuecomment-146387578> \* <https://stackoverflow.com/a/20101940/772391>

<sup>2</sup><https://github.com/jupyter/nbconvert/issues/91issuecomment-283736634>

### 3.25 Environment

Similar to pip, conda is an open source package and environment management system <sup>1</sup>. Anaconda is a data science platform that comes with a lot of packages. It uses conda at the core. Unlike Anaconda, Miniconda doesn't come with any installed packages by default. Note that for miniconda, everytime you open up a terminal, conda won't automatically be available. Run the command below to use conda within miniconda.

Conda Let's first start by checking if conda is installed.

```
> conda --version
```

```
conda 4.2.12
```

To see the full documentation for any **command**, type the **command**  
 ↪ followed by **--help**. For example, to learn about the conda update  
 ↪ **command**:

```
> conda update --help
```

Once it has been confirmed that conda has been installed, we will now  
 ↪ make sure that it is up to date.

```
> conda update conda
```

Using Anaconda Cloud api site <https://api.anaconda.org>

Fetching package metadata: ....

.Solving package specifications : .....

Package plan for installation in environment //anaconda:

The following packages will be downloaded:

package	build	
conda-env-2.6.0	0	601 B
ruamel_yaml-0.11.14	py27_0	184 KB
conda-4.2.12	py27_0	376 KB
Total:		560 KB

The following NEW packages will be INSTALLED:

```
ruamel_yaml: 0.11.14-py27_0
```

The following packages will be UPDATED:

```
conda:      4.0.7-py27_0 --> 4.2.12-py27_0
conda-env:  2.4.5-py27_0 --> 2.6.0-0
python:     2.7.11-0 --> 2.7.12-1
sqlite :    3.9.2-0 --> 3.13.0-0
```



```

Proceed ([y]/n)? y

Fetching packages ...
conda-env-2.6. 100% |#
  ↳ #####| Time:
  ↳ 0:00:00 360.78 kB/s
ruamel_yaml-0. 100% |#
  ↳ #####| Time:
  ↳ 0:00:00 5.53 MB/s
conda-4.2.12-p 100% |#
  ↳ #####| Time:
  ↳ 0:00:00 5.84 MB/s
Extracting packages ...
[ COMPLETE ] |#
  ↳ #####|
  ↳ 100%
Unlinking packages ...
[ COMPLETE ] |#
  ↳ #####|
  ↳ 100%
Linking packages ...
[ COMPLETE ] |#
  ↳ #####|
  ↳ 100%
Environments

```

### 3.25.1 Create

In order to manage environments, we need to create at least two so you can move or switch between them. To create a new environment, use the conda create command, followed by any name you wish to call it:

```

# create new environment
conda create -n <your_environment> python=2.7.11

```

### 3.25.2 Clone

Make an exact copy of an environment by creating a clone of it. Here we will clone snowflakes to create an exact copy named flowers:

```

conda create --name flowers --clone snowflakes

```

### 3.25.3 List

List all environments

Now you can use conda to see which environments you have installed so far. Use the conda environment info command to find out

```
> conda info -e

conda environments:
snowflakes      /home/username/miniconda/envs/snowflakes
bunnies         /home/username/miniconda/envs/bunnies
```

Verify current environment

Which environment are you using right now - snowflakes or bunnies? To find out, type the command:

```
conda info --envs
```

### 3.25.4 Remove

If you didn't really want an environment named flowers, just remove it as follows:

```
conda remove --name flowers --all
```

### 3.25.5 Share

You may want to share your environment with another person, for example, so they can re-create a test that you have done. To allow them to quickly reproduce your environment, with all of its packages and versions, you can give them a copy of your environment.yml file.

Export the environment file

To enable another person to create an exact copy of your environment, you will export the active environment file.

```
conda env export > environment.yml
```

Use environment from file

Create a copy of another developer's environment from their environment.yml file:

```
conda env create -f environment.yml
# remove environment
conda remove -n <your_environment> --all
```

## 3.26 Module

Create Public Module conda, pypi, github

Step 0/4: Check your package name Go to [https://pypi.python.org/pypi/your\\_package\\_name\\_to\\_see\\_your\\_package\\_name](https://pypi.python.org/pypi/your_package_name_to_see_your_package_name)

Step 1/4: Make your module 1 1.1 pip install cookiecutter

1.2 cookiecutter <https://github.com/audreyr/cookiecutter-pypackage.git>

1.3 Fill all necessary information

full\_name[AudreyRoyGreenfeld] : email[aroy@alum.mit.edu] : github\_username[audreyr] :

project\_name[PythonBoilerplate] : project\_slug[] : project\_short\_description :

release\_date[] : pypi\_username[] : year[2016] : version[0.1.0] : use\_pypi\_deployment\_with\_travis[y] :

It will create a directory

```

|- LICENSE |- README.md |- TODO.md |- docs | |- conf.py | |- generated | |-
index.rst | |- installation.rst | |- modules.rst | |- quickstart.rst | |- sandman.rst |
requirements.txt |- your_package | |- init.py | |- your_package.py | |- test | |- models.py | |- test_your_package.py | |- setup.py Step 2/4: G
2. Create a .pypirc configuration file in HOME directory
[distutils] index-servers = pypi
[pypi] repository=https://pypi.python.org/pypi username=your_username password =
your_password 3. Change your MANIFEST.in
recursive-include project_folder * 4. Upload your package to PyPI
python setup.py register -r pypi python setup.py sdist upload -r pypi Step 4/4:
Conda 2 1. Install conda tools
conda install conda-build conda install anaconda-client 2. Build a simple package
with conda skeleton pypi
cd your_package_folder mkdir conda_skeleton pypi your_package This creates a directory named your_package
|- your_package | |- bld.bat | |- meta.yaml | |- build.sh 3. Build your package
conda build your_package
convert to all platform conda convert -f -platform all C:-bld-64_package -0.1.1 -
py270.tar.bz2 4. Upload package to Anaconda
anaconda login anaconda upload linux-32/your_package.tar.bz2 anaconda upload linux-
64/your_package.tar.bz2 anaconda upload win-32/your_package.tar.bz2 anaconda upload win-
64/your_package.tar.bz2 Create Private Module Step 1: Make your module 1.1 pip install cookiecutter
1.2 cookiecutter https://github.com/audreyr/cookiecutter-pypackage.git
1.3 Fill all necessary information
full_name[AudreyRoyGreenfeld] : email[aroy@alum.mit.edu] : github_username[audreyr] :
project_name[PythonBoilerplate] : project_slug[] : project_short_description :
release_date[] : pypi_username[] : year[2016] : version[0.1.0] : use_pypi_deployment_with_travis[y] :
Step 2: Build your module Change your MANIFEST.in
recursive-include project_folder * Build your module with setup.py
cd your_project_folder
build local python setup.py build > It will create a new folder in > PYTHON_HOME/Lib/sites-
packages/your_project_name - 0.1.0 - py2.7.egg
build distribution python setup.py sdist > It will create a zip file in PROJECT_FOLDER/dist Step 3 :
Usage your module In the same machine
import your_project_name In other machine
Python: Build Install Local Package with Conda Here is a step by step tutorial
about building a local module package install it from a custom channel 1
Step 1: Make a setup folder for your package with cookiecutter on terminal:
mkdir build cd build pip install cookiecutter cookiecutter https://github.com/audreyr/cookiecutter-
pypackage.git
Fill all necessary information
full_name[AudreyRoyGreenfeld] : email[aroy@alum.mit.edu] : github_username[audreyr] :
project_name[PythonBoilerplate] : project_slug[] : project_short_description :
release_date[] : pypi_username[] : year[2016] : version[0.1.0] : use_pypi_deployment_with_travis[y] :
It will create a directory
|- LICENSE |- README.md |- TODO.md |- docs | |- conf.py | |- generated | |-
index.rst | |- installation.rst | |- modules.rst | |- quickstart.rst | |- sandman.rst |
requirements.txt |- your_package | |- init.py | |- your_package.py | |- test | |- models.py | |- test_your_package.py | |- setup.py Copy your
Add this line to MANIFEST.in
recursive-include project_folder * Step 2: Build conda package mkdir conda_channel git clone https://
github.com/hunguyen1702/condaBuildLocalTemplate.git mv condaBuildLocalTemplate/your_package_name

```

```

r f.git README.md Edit the file meta.yaml with the instruction inside it
cd .. conda build your_package_name
Step 1: Create custom channel and install from local package
Create a channel directory
cd channel
Convert your_package you've built to all platform
conda convert -platform all /anaconda/conda-bld/linux-64/your_package_0.1.0-
py27_0.tar.bz2 and this will create :
channel/ linux-64/ package-1.0-0.tar.bz2 linux-32/ package-1.0-0.tar.bz2 osx-
64/ package-1.0-0.tar.bz2 win-64/ package-1.0-0.tar.bz2 win-32/ package-1.0-
0.tar.bz2
Register your package to your new channel
cd .. conda index channel/linux-64 channel/osx-64 channel/win-64
Verify your new channel
conda search -c file://path/to/channel/ --override-channels
If you see your_package's appearance, so it's worked
After that if you want to install that package from local, run this command:
conda install --use-local your_package
and when you want to create environment with local package from file, you just
have export environment to .yaml file and add this channels section before the
dependencies section:
channels: - file://path/to/your/channel/

```

### 3.27 Production

```

Production with docker Base Image: magizbox/conda2.7/
Docker Folder
your_app/appconfig/main.py Docker file run.sh Docker file
FROM magizbox/conda2.7:4.0
ADD ./app /app ADD ./run.sh /run.sh
RUN conda env create -f environment.yml run.sh
source activate your_environment
cd /app
python main.py
Compose
service: build: ./service-app command: 'bash run.sh'
Note: an other python conda with lower version (such as 3.5), will occur error when install requests
package
python 3.4 hay 3.5
Có lẽ 3.5 là lựa chọn tốt hơn (phải có của tensorflow, pytorch, hỗ trợ mock)
Quản lý môi trường phát triển với conda
Chạy lệnh 'remove' để xóa một môi trường

```

```
conda remove --name flowers --all
```

### 3.28 Test với python

#### Sử dụng những loại test nào?

Hiện tại mình đang viết unittest với default class của python là unittest. Thực ra toàn sử dụng 'assertEqual' là chính!

Ngoài ra mình cũng đang sử dụng tox để chạy test trên nhiều phiên bản python (python 2.7, 3.5). Điều hay của tox là mình có thể thiết kế toàn bộ cài đặt project và các dependencies package trong file 'tox.ini'

#### Chạy test trên nhiều phiên bản python với tox

Pycharm hỗ trợ debug tox (quá tuyệt!), chỉ với thao tác đơn giản là nhấn chuột phải vào file tox.ini của project.

### 3.29 Xây dựng docs với readthedocs và sphinx

**20/12/2017:** Tự nhiên hôm nay tất cả các class có khai báo kế thừa ở project languageflow không thể index được. Vãi thật. Làm thẳng đê không biết đâu mà build model.

Thử build lại chục lần, thay đổi file conf.py và package\_reference.rst chán chê không được. Giả thiết đầu tiên là do hai nguyên nhân (1) docstring ghi sai, (2) nội dung trong package\_reference.rst bị sai. Sửa chán chê cũng vẫn thế, thử checkout các commit của git. Không hoạt động!

Mất khoảng vài tiếng mới để ý thẳng readthedocs có phần log cho từng build một. Lần mò vào build gần nhất và build (mình nhớ là) thành công cách đây 2 ngày

Log build gần nhất

```
Running Sphinx v1.6.5
making output directory...
loading translations [en]... done
loading intersphinx inventory from https://docs.python.org/objects.inv
  ↳ ...
intersphinx inventory has moved: https://docs.python.org/objects.inv ->
  ↳ https://docs.python.org/2/objects.inv
loading intersphinx inventory from http://docs.scipy.org/doc/numpy/
  ↳ objects.inv...
intersphinx inventory has moved: http://docs.scipy.org/doc/numpy/
  ↳ objects.inv -> https://docs.scipy.org/doc/numpy/objects.inv
building [mo]: targets for 0 po files that are out of date
building [readthedocsdirhtml]: targets for 8 source files that are out
  ↳ of date
updating environment: 8 added, 0 changed, 0 removed
reading sources ... [ 12%] authors
reading sources ... [ 25%] contributing
reading sources ... [ 37%] history
reading sources ... [ 50%] index
reading sources ... [ 62%] installation
reading sources ... [ 75%] package_reference
reading sources ... [ 87%] readme
reading sources ... [100%] usage

looking for now-outdated files ... none found
pickling environment... done
checking consistency ... done
preparing documents... done
writing output... [ 12%] authors
writing output... [ 25%] contributing
writing output... [ 37%] history
writing output... [ 50%] index
writing output... [ 62%] installation
```

```
writing output... [ 75%] package_reference
writing output... [ 87%] readme
writing output... [100%] usage
```

Log build hồi trước

```
Running Sphinx v1.5.6
making output directory...
loading translations [en]... done
loading intersphinx inventory from https://docs.python.org/objects.inv
  ↳ ...
intersphinx inventory has moved: https://docs.python.org/objects.inv ->
  ↳ https://docs.python.org/2/objects.inv
loading intersphinx inventory from http://docs.scipy.org/doc/numpy/
  ↳ objects.inv...
intersphinx inventory has moved: http://docs.scipy.org/doc/numpy/
  ↳ objects.inv -> https://docs.scipy.org/doc/numpy/objects.inv
building [mo]: targets for 0 po files that are out of date
building [readthedocs]: targets for 8 source files that are out of date
updating environment: 8 added, 0 changed, 0 removed
reading sources... [ 12%] authors
reading sources... [ 25%] contributing
reading sources... [ 37%] history
reading sources... [ 50%] index
reading sources... [ 62%] installation
reading sources... [ 75%] package_reference
reading sources... [ 87%] readme
reading sources... [100%] usage

/home/docs/checkouts/readthedocs.org/user_builds/languageflow/
  ↳ checkouts/develop/languageflow/transformer/count.py:docstring
  ↳ of languageflow.transformer.count.CountVectorizer:106:
  ↳ WARNING: Definition list ends without a blank line; unexpected
  ↳ unindent.
/home/docs/checkouts/readthedocs.org/user_builds/languageflow/
  ↳ checkouts/develop/languageflow/transformer/tfidf.py:docstring of
  ↳ languageflow.transformer.tfidf.TfidfVectorizer:113: WARNING:
  ↳ Definition list ends without a blank line; unexpected unindent.
../README.rst:7: WARNING: nonlocal image URI found: https://img.
  ↳ shields.io/badge/latest-1.1.6-brightgreen.svg
looking for now-outdated files ... none found
pickling environment... done
checking consistency... done
preparing documents... done
writing output... [ 12%] authors
writing output... [ 25%] contributing
writing output... [ 37%] history
writing output... [ 50%] index
writing output... [ 62%] installation
writing output... [ 75%] package_reference
writing output... [ 87%] readme
```

```
writing output... [100%] usage
```

Đập vào mắt là sự khác biệt giữa documentation type  
Lỗi

```
building [readthedocsdirhtml]: targets for 8 source files that are out  
  ↳ of date
```

Chạy

```
building [readthedocs]: targets for 8 source files that are out of date
```

Hí ha hí hửng. Chắc trong cơn bất loạn sửa lại settings đây mà. Sửa lại nó trong phần Settings (Admin gt; Settings gt; Documentation type)  


Khi chạy nó đã cho ra log đúng

```
building [readthedocsdirhtml]: targets for 8 source files that are out  
  ↳ of date
```

Nhưng vẫn lỗi. Vãi!!! Sau khoảng 20 phút tiếp tục bắn loạn, chữ bởi readthedocs các kiểu. Thì để ý dòng này

Lỗi

```
Running Sphinx v1.6.5
```

Chạy

```
Running Sphinx v1.5.6
```

Ngay dòng đầu tiên mà không để ý, ngu thật. Aha, Hóa ra là thằng readthedocs nó tự động update phiên bản sphinx lên 1.6.5. Mình là mình chúa ghét thay đổi phiên bản (code đã mệt rồi, lại còn phải tương thích với nhiều phiên bản nữa thì ần c\*\* à). Đầu tiên search với Pycharm thấy dòng này trong ‘conf.py’

```
# If your documentation needs a minimal Sphinx version, state it here.  
# needs_sphinx = '1.0'
```

Đổi thành

```
# If your documentation needs a minimal Sphinx version, state it here.  
needs_sphinx = '1.5.6'
```

Vẫn vậy (holy sh\*t). Thử sâu một tạo (thực sự là rất nhiều tạo). Thấy cái này trong trang Settings



Ờ há. Thằng đàn này cho phép trở đường dẫn tới một file trong project để cấu hình dependency. Haha. Tạo thêm một file ‘requirements’ trong thư mục ‘docs’ với nội dung

```
sphinx==1.5.6
```

Sau đó cấu hình nó trên giao diện web của readthedocs



Build thử. Build thử thôi. Cảm giác đúng lắm rồi đấy. Và... nó chạy. Ahihi



### **Kinh nghiệm**

\* Khi không biết làm gì, hãy làm 3 việc. Đọc LOG. Phân tích LOG. Và cố gắng để LOG thay đổi theo ý mình.

PS: Trong quá trình này, cũng không thêm build thẳng PDF với Epub nữa. Tiết kiệm được bao nhiêu thời gian.



# Chương 4

## C++

C++ is a general-purpose programming language. It has imperative, object-oriented and generic programming features, while also providing facilities for low-level memory manipulation. It was designed with a bias toward system programming and embedded, resource-constrained and large systems, with performance, efficiency and flexibility of use as its design highlights. C++ has also been found useful in many other contexts, with key strengths being software infrastructure and resource-constrained applications, including desktop applications, servers (e.g. e-commerce, web search or SQL servers), and performance-critical applications (e.g. telephone switches or space probes). C++ is a compiled language, with implementations of it available on many platforms and provided by various organizations, including the Free Software Foundation (FSF's GCC), LLVM, Microsoft, Intel and IBM.

View online <http://magizbox.com/training/cpp/site/>

### 4.1 Get Started

What do I need to start with CLion? In general to develop in C/C++ with CLion you need:

CMake, 2.8.11+ (Check JetBrains guide for updates) GCC/G++/Clang (Linux) or MinGW 3. or MinGW—w64 3.-4. or Cygwin 1.7.32 (minimum required) up to 2.0. (Windows) Downloading and Installing CMake Downloading and installing CMake is pretty simple, just go to the website, download and install by following the recommended guide there or the on Desktop Wizard.

Download and install file `cmake-3.9.0-win64-x65.msi` > cmake Usage

`cmake [options] <path-to-source> cmake [options] <path-to-existing-build>`

Specify a source directory to (re-)generate a build system for it in the current working directory. Specify an existing build directory to re-generate its build system.

Run '`cmake -help`' for more information. Downloading and Getting Cygwin Cygwin is a large collection of GNU and Open Source tools which provide functionality similar to a Linux distribution on Windows

Download file `setup-x86_64.exe` from the website <https://cygwin.com/install.html>

Install `setup-x86_64.exe` file

This is the root directory where Cygwin will be located, usually the recommended C: works

Choose where to install LOCAL DOWNLOAD PACKAGES: This is not the same as root directory, but rather where packages (ie. extra C libraries and tools) you download using Cygwin will be located

Follow the recommended instructions until you get to packages screen:

Once you get to the packages screen, this is where you customize what libraries or tools you will install. From here on I followed the above guide but here's the gist:

From this window, choose the Cygwin applications to install. For our purposes, you will select certain GNU C/C++ packages.

Click the + sign next to the Devel category to expand it.

You will see a long list of possible packages that can be downloaded. Scroll the list to see more packages.

Pick each of the following packages by clicking its corresponding "Skip" marker.

gcc-core: C compiler subpackage gcc-g++: C++ subpackage libgcc1: C runtime library gdb: The GNU Debugger make: The GNU version of the 'make' utility libmpfr4 : A library for multiple-precision floating-point arithmetic with exact rounding Download and install CLion Download file CLion-2017.2.exe from website <https://www.jetbrains.com/clion/download/section=windows>

Config environment File > Settings... > Build, Execution, Deployment

Choose Cygwin home: C:64 Choose CMake executable: Bundled CMake 3.8.2

Run your first C++ program with CLion

## 4.2 Basic Syntax

C/C++ Hello World include <iostream> using namespace std;

```
int main() cout << "hello world";
Convention Naming variable n ame i k e t h i s c l a s s a m e b e r n ame i k e t h i s k C
//GargantuanTableIterator *iter = table->NewIterator(); //for(iter->
Seek("foo"); iter->done(); iter->Next())//process(iter->key(), iter->value()); ///delete iter; cl
Used" *" here for concatenation operator. //TODO(Zeke) change this to user relations.
```

## 4.3 Cấu trúc dữ liệu

Data Structure Number C++ offer the programmer a rich assortment of built-in as well as user defined data types. Following table lists down seven basic C++ data types:

Boolean - bool Character - char Integer - int Floating point - float Double floating point - double Valueless - void Wide character - wchar\_t *Several of the basic types can be modified using one or more of the keywords: signed, unsigned, short, long*

Following is the example, which will produce correct size of various data types on your computer.

include <iostream> using namespace std;

```
int main() cout << "Size of char : " << sizeof(char) << endl; cout << "Size of int
: " << sizeof(int) << endl; cout << "Size of short int : " << sizeof(short int) << endl;
cout << "Size of long int : " << sizeof(long int) << endl; cout << "Size of float : " <<
sizeof(float) << endl; cout << "Size of double : " << sizeof(double) << endl; cout <<
"Size of wchar_t : " << sizeof(wchar_t) << endl; return 0;
StringStringBasic
```

```

include <iostream> include <string> using namespace std ;
// assign a string string s1 = "www.java2s.com"; cout << s1;
// input a string string s2; cin >> s2;
// concatenate two strings string s_c = s1 + s2;
// compare strings s1 == s2; Collection Pointer A pointer is a variable whose
value is the address of another variable. Like any variable or constant, you must
declare a pointer before you can work with it.
The general form of a pointer variable declaration is:
type *variable_name; //example int *ip; //pointertoaninteger double *dp; //pointertoadouble float *
fp; //pointertoafloat char *ch; //pointertocharacter Pointer Lab
include <iostream> using namespace std;
/* * Look at these lines */ int* a; a = new int[3]; a[0] = 10; a[1] = 2; cout <<
"Address of pointer a: a = " << a << endl; cout << "Value of pointer a: a = " << a
<< endl << endl; cout << "Address of a[0]: a[0] = " << a[0] << endl; cout << "Value of
a[0]: a[0] = " << a[0] << endl; cout << "Value of a[0]: *a = " << *a << endl << endl;
cout << "Address of a[1]: a[1] = " << a[1] << endl; cout << "Value of a[1]: a[1] = "
<< a[1] << endl; cout << "Value of a[1]: *(a+1)= " << *(a+1) << endl << endl; cout <<
"Address of a[2]: a[2] = " << a[2] << endl; cout << "Value of a[2]: a[2] = " << a[2] <<
endl; cout << "Value of a[2]: *(a+2)= " << *(a+2) << endl << endl; Result:
Address of pointer a: a = 008FF770 Value of pointer a: a = 00C66ED0
Address of a[0]: a[0] = 00C66ED0 Value of a[0]: a[0] = 10 Value of a[0]: *a = 10
Address of a[1]: a[1] = 00C66ED4 Value of a[1]: a[1] = 2 Value of a[1]: *(a+1)=
2
Address of a[2]: a[2] = 00C66ED8 Value of a[2]: a[2] = -842150451 Value of a[2]:
*(a+2)= -842150451 Stack, Queue, Linked List, Array, Deque, List, Map, Set
Datetime The C++ standard library does not provide a proper date type. C++
inherits the structs and functions for date and time manipulation from C. To
access date and time related functions and structures, you would need to include
header file in your C++ program.
There are four time-related types: clock_t, time_t, size_t, and tm. The types clock_t, size_t and time_t are capable of representing
The structure type tm holds the date and time in the form of a C structure
having the following elements:
struct tm int tm_sec; //seconds of minutes from 0 to 61 in tm_min; //minutes of hour from 0 to 59 in tm_hour; //hours
Consider you want to retrieve the current system date and time, either as a local
time or as a Coordinated Universal Time (UTC). Following is the example to
achieve the same:
include <iostream> include <ctime>
using namespace std;
int main() // current date/time based on current system time_t now = time(0);
// convert now to string form char* dt = ctime(now);
cout << "The local date and time is: " << dt << endl;
// convert now to tm struct for UTC tm *gmtm = gmtime(now); dt = asc-
time(gmtm); cout << "The UTC date and time is:" << dt << endl; When the above
code is compiled and executed, it produces the following result:
The local date and time is: Sat Jan 8 20:07:41 2011
The UTC date and time is: Sun Jan 9 03:07:41 2011

```

## 4.4 Lập trình hướng đối tượng

Object Oriented Programming Classes and Objects include `<iostream>` using namespace std;

```

class Pacman
private: int x; int y; public: Pacman(int x, int y); void show(); ;
Pacman::Pacman(int x, int y) this->x = x; this->y = y;
void Pacman::show() std::cout << "(" << this->x << ", " << this->y << ")";
int main() // your code goes here Pacman p = Pacman(2, 3); p.show(); return 0;
Template Function Template
include <iostream> include <string>
using namespace std;
template <typename T>
T Max(T a, T b) return a < b ? b : a;
int main()
int i = 39; int j = 20; cout << Max(i, j) << endl;
double f1 = 13.5; double f2 = 20.7; cout << Max(f1, f2) << endl;
string s1 = "Hello"; string s2 = "World"; cout << Max(s1, s2) << endl;
double n1 = 20.3; float n2 = 20.4; // it will show an error // Error: no instance
of function template "Max" matches the argument list // arguments types are:
(double, float) cout << Max(n1, n2) << endl; return 0;

```

## 4.5 Cơ sở dữ liệu

Database Sqlite with Visual Studio 2013 Step 1: Create new project 1.1 Create a new C++ Win32 Console application.

Step 2: Download Sqlite DLL

2.1. Download the native SQLite DLL from: <http://sqlite.org/sqlite-dll-win32-x86-3070400.zip> 2.2. Unzip the DLL and DEF files and place the contents in your project's source folder (an easy way to find this is to right click on the tab and click the "Open Containing Folder" menu item.

Step 3: Build LIB file

3.1. Open a "Developer Command Prompt" and navigate to your source folder. (If you can't find this tool, follow this post in stackoverflow Where is Developer Command Prompt for VS2013? to create it) 3.2. Create an import library using the following command line: LIB /DEF:sqlite3.def

Step 4: Add Dependencies

4.1. Add the library (i.e. sqlite3.lib) to your Project Properties -> Configuration Properties -> Linker -> Input -> Additional Dependencies. 4.2. Download <http://sqlite.org/sqlite-amalgamation-3070400.zip> 4.3. Unzip the sqlite3.h header file and place into your source directory. 4.4. Include the the sqlite3.h header file in your source code. 4.5. You will need to include the sqlite3.dll in the same directory as your program (or in a System Folder).

Step 5: Run test code

```

include "stdafx.h" include <ios> include <iostream> include "sqlite3.h"
using namespace std;

```

```

int _tmain(int argc, _TCHAR* argv[]) { int rc; char *error;

```

```

// Open Database cout << "Opening MyDb.db ..." << endl; sqlite3 *db; rc =
sqlite3_open("MyDb.db", &db); if(rc) cerr << "Error opening SQLite3 database : " << sqlite3_errmsg(db) << endl;

```

```
// Execute SQL cout << "Creating MyTable ..." << endl; const char *sqlCreateTable = "CREATE TABLE MyTable (id INTEGER PRIMARY KEY, value STRING);"; rc = sqlite3_exec(db, sqlCreateTable, NULL, NULL, error); if(rc) cerr << "Error executing SQL";
// Execute SQL cout << "Inserting a value into MyTable ..." << endl; const char *sqlInsert = "INSERT INTO MyTable VALUES(NULL, 'A Value');"; rc = sqlite3_exec(db, sqlInsert, NULL, NULL, error); if(rc) cerr << "Error executing SQLite3 statement : " << endl;
// Display MyTable cout << "Retrieving values in MyTable ..." << endl; const char *sqlSelect = "SELECT * FROM MyTable;"; char **results = NULL; int rows, columns; sqlite3_get_table(db, sqlSelect, results, rows, columns, error); if(rc) cerr << "Error executing SQLite3 statement : " << endl;
// Display Cell Value cout.width(12); cout.setf(ios::left); cout << results[cellPosition] << " ";
// End Line cout << endl;
// Display Separator For Header if (0 == rowCtr) for (int colCtr = 0; colCtr < columns; ++colCtr) cout.width(12); cout.setf(ios::left); cout << " "; cout << endl; sqlite3_free_table(results);
// Close Database cout << "Closing MyDb.db ..." << endl; sqlite3_close(db); cout << "Closed MyDb.db" << endl << endl;
// Wait For User To Close Program cout << "Please press any key to exit the program ..." << endl; cin.get();
return 0;
```

## 4.6 Testing

Create Unit Test in Visual Studio 2013 Step 1. Create TDDLab Solution 1.1 Open Visual Studio 2013

1.2 File -> New Project... ->

Click Visual C++ -> Win32

Choose Win32 Console Application

Fill to Name input text: TDDLab

Click OK -> Next

1.3 In project settings, remove options:

Precompiled Header Security Development Lifecycle(SQL) check 1.4 Click Finish

Step 2. Create Counter Class 2.1 Right-click TDDLab -> Add -> Class...

2.2 Choose Visual C++ -> C++ Class -> Add

2.3 Fill in Class name box Counter -> Finish

2.4 In Counter.h file, add this below function

int add(int a, int b); 2.5 In Counter.cpp, add this below function

int Counter::add(int a, int b) return a+b; Your Counter class should look like this

Step 3. Create TDDLabTest Project 3.1 Right-click Solution 'TDDLab' -> Add -> New Project...

3.2 Choose Visual C++ -> Test

3.3 Choose Native Unit Test Project

3.4 Fill to Name input text: TDDLabTest

Step 4. Write unit test 4.1 In unittest1.cpp, add header of Counter class

include "../TDDLab/Counter.h" 4.2 In TEST\_METHOD function

Counter counter; Assert::AreEqual(2, counter.add(1, 1)); 4.3 Click TEST in

menu bar -> Run -> 'All Test (Ctrl + R, A)

Step 5. Fix error LNK 2019: unresolved external symbol 5.1 Change Configuration Type of TDDLab project  
Right click TDDLab project -> Properties General -> Configuration Type -> Static library (.lib) -> OK 5.2 Add Reference to TDDLabTest project  
Right click TDDLabTest solution -> Properties -> Common Properties -> Add New Reference Choose TDDLab -> OK -> OK Step 6. Run Tests Click TEST in menu bar -> Run -> 'All Test (Ctrl + R, A)  
Test should be passed.

## 4.7 IDE Debugging

Visual Studio 2013 Install Extension

VsVim

googletest guide

Folder Structure with VS 2013

solution README.md |project1 | file011.txt | file012.txt | |project2 |

file011.txt | file012.txt | Auto Format

Ctrl + K, Ctrl + D Git in Visual Studio

<https://git-scm.com/book/en/v2/Git-in-Other-Environments-Git-in-Visual-Studio>

Online IDE codechef ide

## Chương 5

# Javascript

View online <http://magizbox.com/training/java/site/>

What is Javascript? JavaScript is a high-level, dynamic, untyped, and interpreted programming language. It has been standardized in the ECMAScript language specification. Alongside HTML and CSS, it is one of the three core technologies of World Wide Web content production; the majority of websites employ it and it is supported by all modern Web browsers without plugins. JavaScript is prototype-based with first-class functions, making it a multi-paradigm language, supporting object-oriented, imperative, and functional programming styles. It has an API for working with text, arrays, dates and regular expressions, but does not include any I/O, such as networking, storage, or graphics facilities, relying for these upon the host environment in which it is embedded.

### 5.1 Installation

Google Chrome Pycharm

### 5.2 IDE

Google Chrome Developer Tools

The Chrome Developer Tools (DevTools for short), are a set of web authoring and debugging tools built into Google Chrome. The DevTools provide web developers deep access into the internals of the browser and their web application. Use the DevTools to efficiently track down layout issues, set JavaScript breakpoints, and get insights for code optimization.

### 5.3 Basic Syntax

1. Code Formatting Indent with 2 spaces

```
// Object initializer. var inset = top: 10, right: 20, bottom: 15, left: 12 ;  
// Array initializer. this.rows=["Slartibartfast" < fjordmaster@magrathea.com >  
, "ZaphodBeeblebrox" < theprez@universe.gov >, "FordPrefect" < ford@theguide.com >
```

```

,' "ArthurDent" <has.no.tea@gmail.com>', ' "MarvintheParanoidAndroid" <
marv@googlemail.com>', the.mice@magrathea.com'];
// Used in a method call. goog.dom.createDom(goog.dom.TagName.DIV, id:
'foo', className: 'some-css-class', style: 'display:none', 'Hello, world!');
2. Naming functionNamesLikeThis variableNamesLikeThis ClassNamesLikeThis Enum-
NamesLikeThis methodNamesLikeThis CONSTANT_VALUES_LIKE_THISfoo.namespaceNamesLikeThis.
3.1 Class Comment /** * Class making something fun and easy. * @param
string arg1 An argument that makes this more interesting. * @param Ar-
ray.<number> arg2 List of numbers to be processed. * @constructor * @extends
goog.Disposable */ project.MyClass = function(arg1, arg2) // ... ; goog.inherits(project.MyClass,
goog.Disposable);
3.2 Method Comment /** * Operates on an instance of My-
Class and returns something. * @param project.MyClass obj Instance of My-
Class which leads to a long * comment that needs to be wrapped to two lines. *
@return boolean Whether something occurred. */ function PR_someMethod(obj) // ...
4.Expression and Statement
22 "this is an expression" (5 > 6) ? false : true
Statements The Simplest kind of
statement is an expression with a semi colon
!false; 5 + 6;
5. Loop and iteration while var number = 0; while (number <= 12)
console.log(number); number = number + 2; do..while do var yourName =
prompt("Who are you?"); while (!yourName); console.log(yourName); for
for (var i = 0; i < 10; i++) console.log(i);
6. Function
6.1 Defining a Function var
square = function(x) return x * x; ; square(5);
6.2 Scope Scope is the area where
contains all variable or function are living. Scope has some rules: Child Scope can
access all variable and function in parent Scope. (E.g: Local Scope can access
Global Scope) function saveName(firstName) var temp = "temp"; function
capitalizeName() temp = temp + " here"; return firstName.toUpperCase(); var
capitalized = capitalizeName(); return capitalized; alert(saveName("Robert"));
But parent Scope can access variable and function inside children scope (E.g:
Global Scope cannot access to local Scope) function talkDirty () var saying =
"Oh, you little VB lover, you"; return alert(saying); alert(saying); // -> Error
6.3 Call Stack The storage where computer stores context is called CALL STACK.
// CALL STACK function greet(who) console.log("Hello " + who); ask("How
are you?"); console.log("I'm fine"); ;
function ask(question) console.log("well, " + question); ;
greet("Harry"); console.log("Bye"); Out of Call Stack
function chicken() return egg();
function egg() return chicken(); console.log(chicken() + " came first");
6.4. Optional Argument We can pass too many or too few arguments to the function
without any SyntaxError. If we pass too much arguments, the extra ones
are ignored If we pass to few arguments, the missing ones get value undefined
function power(base, exponent) if (exponent == undefined) exponent = 2;
var result = 1; for (var count = 0; count < exponent; count++) result = result
* base; return result; console.log(power(4)); console.log(power(4,3)); upside:
flexible downside: hard to control the error
6.5 Closure Look at this example:
function sayHello(name) var text = 'Hello' + name; var say = function() con-
sole.log(text); return say; var say2 = sayHello("ahaha"); say2(); if in C pro-
gram, does say2() work? The answer is nope! Because in C program, when a
function returns, the Stack-frame will be destroyed, and all the local variable
such as text will be undefined. So, when say2() is called, there is no text anymore,
and the error, will be shown! But, in JavaScript, This code works!! Because, it

```



provides for us an Object called Closure! Closure is borned when we define a function in another function, it keep all the live local variable. So, when say2() is called, the closure will give all the value of local variable outside it, and text will be identity.!

```
var globalVariable = 10; function func() var name = "xxx"; function getName() return name; function speak() var sound = "alo"; function scream() console.log(globalVariable); console.log(name); return "aaaaaaaaa!"; function talk() var voice = getName() + " speak " + sound; console.log(voice); return voice; scream(); talk(); speak(); func();
```

6.6. Recursion Recursion is function can call itself, as long as it is not overflow

```
function power(base, exponent) if (exponent == 0) return 1; else return base * power(base, exponent - 1); console.log(power(2,3));
```

```
function FindSolution(target) function Find(start, history) if (start == target) return history; else if (start > target) return null; else return Find(start + 5, "(" + history + " + 5 ") || Find(start * 3, "(" + history + " * 3)"); return Find(1, "1"); console.log(FindSolution(25));
```

6.7. Arguments object The arguments object contains all parameters you pass to a function.

```
function argumentCounter() console.log("you gave me", arguments.length, "argument."); argumentCounter("Straw man", "Tautology", "Ad hominem");
```

6.8. Higher-Order Function Filter array var ancestry = JSON.parse(ANCESTRY\_FILE); console.log(ancestry.length);

```
function filter(array, test) var passed = []; for (var i = 0; i < array.length; i++) if (test(array[i])) passed.push(array[i]); return passed; console.log(filter(ancestry, function(person) return person.born > 1900 person.born < 1925; ));
```

TRANSFORMING WITH A MAP function map(array, transform) var mapped = []; for (var i = 0; i < array.length; i++) mapped.push(transform(array[i])); return mapped;

```
var overNinety = ancestry.filter(function(person) return person.died - person.born > 90; ); console.log(map(overNinety, function(person) return person.name; ));
```

REDUCE function reduce(array, combine, start) var current = start; for (var i = 0; i < array.length; i++) current = combine(current, array[i]); return current; console.log(reduce([1, 2, 3, 4], function(a, b) return a + b; , 0)); Problem: using map and reduce, transform [1,2,3,4] to [1,2],[3,4]

```
var a = [1, 2, 3, 4] a = .map(a, function(i) if (i) return [[i]] else return [[i], []]); a = .reduce(a, function(x, y) return [x[0].concat(y[0]), x[1].concat(y[1])])
```

BINDING FUNCTION var theSet = ["Carel Haverbeke", "Maria van Brussel", "Donald Duck"]; function isInSet(set, person) return set.indexOf(person.name) > -1;

```
console.log(ancestry.filter(function(person) return isInSet(theSet, person); ));
```

```
console.log(ancestry.filter(isInSet.bind(null, theSet)));
```

What's the cleanest way to write a multiline string in JavaScript? [duplicate]

Google JavaScript Style Guide

## 5.4 Data Structure

### 5.4.1 Number

Some example of number: 10, 1.234, 1.99e9, NaN, Infinity, -Infinity

```
console.log(2.99e9); console.log(0 /0); console.log(1 /0); console.log(-1 /0); Automatic Conversion
console.log(8 * null); // -> 0 console.log("5" - 1); // -> 4 console.log("5" + 1);
//-> 51 console.log(false == 0) //-> true
```

### 5.4.2 String

sprintf In index.html

```
<script src="cdnjs.cloudflare.com/ajax/libs/sprintf/1.0.3/sprintf.js"/>
```

In script.js

```
// arguments sprintf(" hello sprintf
// object var user = { name: "Dolly" } sprintf("Hello Hello Dolly
// array of object var users = [ { name: "Dolly", name: "Molly" } ] sprintf("Hello
Hello Dolly and Molly Multiline String str = " line 1 line 2 line 3"; Regular
Expression in JavaScript This lab is based on Chapter9: EloquentJavaScript
Creating a regular expression There are 2 ways:
var re1 = new RegExp("abc"); var re2 = /abc/ there are some special characters
such as question mark, or plus sign. If you want to use them, you have to use
backslash. Like this:
var eighteen = /eighteen/; var question = /question/; Testing for match Regular
Express has a number of method. Simplest is test
console.log(/abc/.test("abcd")); console.log(/abc/.test("abxde")); Matching a
set of character []: Put a set of characters between 2 square bracket
console.log(/[0123456789]/.test("1245")); console.log(/[0-9]/.test("1")); console.log(/[0-9]/.test("acd")); console.log(/[0-9]/.test("aaascacas1")); There are some special
character: Any digit character (Like [0-9])
var datetime = /...:/; console.log(datetime.test("16-06-2016 14:09")); console.log(dateTime.test("30-
jan-2003 15:20")); An alphanumeric character ("word character")
var word = /\w/; console.log(word.test("@@")); Any whitespace character (space,
tab, newline, and similar)
var space = /\s/; console.log(space.test("1. abd")); console.log(space.test("1.
abd")); console.log(space.test("1.abd")); A character that is not a digit
var notDigit = /\D/; console.log(notDigit.test("ww")); console.log(notDigit.test("1a"));
console.log(notDigit.test("1124")); A nonalphanumeric character
var nonAlphanumericChar = /\W/; console.log(nonAlphanumericChar.test("abc12231"));
console.log(nonAlphanumericChar.test("!@§A nonwhitespace character
var nonWhiteSpace = /\S/; console.log(nonWhiteSpace.test("abc123")); con-
sole.log(nonWhiteSpace.test("1. abcd")); console.log(nonWhiteSpace.test(" "));
"." Any character except for newline
var anything = /.*/; console.log(anything.test("abc.")); console.log(anything.test("acbacd."));
console.log(anything.test("acba")); "U sing caret character to match any except the ones
var notBinary = /[01]/; console.log(notBinary.test("01101011100")); console.log(notBinary.test("010210100
" Match one or more" * " Match zero or more
console.log(/+/.test(1234)); console.log(/+/.test());
console.log(/*./test(1234)); console.log(/*./test()) "?" Question mark test a
character exist or not is still ok
var ball = /bal?l/; console.log(ball.test("ball")); console.log(ball.test("bal"));
a,b the character before exist from a to b times. Check datetime:
```

```

var datetime = /1,2-1,2-4 1,2:1,2/; console.log(datetime.test("20-12-2015 14:09"));
var checkTimes = /waz3,5up/; console.log(checkTimes.test("wazzzzzup")); console.log(checkTimes.test("wazup"));
Grouping Subexpressions () using parentheses to make whole group like one character
var cartoonCrying = /boo+(hoo+)+/i; //i to match all Capitalize or normal text
console.log(cartoonCrying.test("Boohooooohooohoo")); console.log(cartoonCrying.test("boohooooohooOOO"));
Matches and group Test is a simplest method, and it only return true or false.
exec (execute) is another method in regex. It returns null if no match, and object if match.
var match = /+/.exec("one two 100"); console.log(match); console.log(match.input);
console.log(match.index); if in the expression has a group subexpression, then it will return the text contain this subexpress, and the text match this subexpress:
var quotedText = /'([']*)'/; console.log(quotedText.exec("she said 'hello'")); and if the subexpression appear on more times, then it
console.log(/bad(ly)?/.exec("bad")); console.log(/()+/.exec("123")); The date type create new Date(). return the current time
var date = new Date(); console.log(new Date(2009, 11, 9)); console.log(new Date(2009, 11, 9, 23, 59, 61)); <!--Timestamp--> console.log(new Date(2009, 11, 9, 23, 59, 61).getTime()); console.log(new Date(1260378001000)); <!--getFullYear, getMonth,...--> var date = new Date(); console.log(date.getFullYear()); console.log(date.getMonth()); console.log(date.getDate()); console.log(date.getHours()); console.log(date.getMinutes()); console.log(date.getSeconds()); Word and string boundaries console.log(/cat/.test("concatenate")); console.log(/cat/.test("con123cat-129e0enate")); console.log(/./.test("concatenate")); console.log(/./.test("con123cat-129e0enate")); Choice pattern Only one in the list between the "|" match
var animalCount = /_+ (pig|cow|chicken)s?/; console.log(animalCount.test("15 pigs")); console.log(animalCount.test("15 pigchickens")); Replace Replace will find the first match and replace. if we want to replace all matches, using "g" behind the expression
console.log("papa".replace("p", "m")); console.log("Borobudur".replace(/[ou]/, "a")); console.log("Borobudur".replace(/[ou]/g, "a")); Replace can refer back to the matched, and using them
console.log("Le, Khanh, Hung, Bach".replace(/([ ]+), ([ ]+)/g, "12")); Greed function stripComments(code) return code.replace(/.*[ ]*/g, ""); console.log(stripComments("1 + * 2 * / 3")); // 1 + 3 console.log(stripComments("x = 10; // ten!")); // x = 10; console.log(stripComments("1/*a*/+/*b*/1")); // 1 1 Search method Search method return the first index if not found
console.log(" word".search(/§/)); // → 2 console.log(" ".search(/§/)); // → -1
The last index property In the regular expression has a property lastIndex. And when this Regex do some method, it will start from the lastIndex. And after doing something, the lastIndex will update to the behind the index of the match exec.
var pattern = /y/g; pattern.lastIndex = 3; //lastIndex update to 3 var match = pattern.exec("xyzzxy"); //lastIndex update to 5 console.log(pattern.lastIndex); match = pattern.exec("xyzzxyxxx"); //Not match any "y" from index 5 console.log(match.index); console.log(pattern.lastIndex); Looping Over the Line Applying the hepoloris of lastIndex, we can using while to do something like this:
var input = "A string with 3 numbers in it... 42 and 88."; var number = /(\d+)/g;

```

```
var match; while (match = number.exec(input)) console.log("Found", match[1],
"at", match.index);
```

### 5.4.3 Collection

Some useful methods with array push and pop var a = [1,2,3,4]; console.log(a.pop(), a); console.log(a.push(3), a); shift and unshift console.log(a.shift(), a); console.log(a.unshift(1), a); indexOf and lastIndexOf var b = [1,2,3,4,2,3,1]; console.log(b.indexOf(1)); console.log(b.lastIndexOf(1)); slice console.log([0,1,2,3,4].slice(2,4)); console.log([0,1,2,3,4].slice(2)); concat var a = [1,2,3]; var b = [4,5,6]; a.concat(b); console.log(a);

### 5.4.4 Datetime

Current Time moment().format('MMMM Do YYYY, h:mm:ss a'); Moment.js

### 5.4.5 Boolean

Boolean has only 2 values: true and false

```
console.log("Abc" < "Abcd") // -> true console.log("abc" < "Abcd") // ->
false console.log("123" == "123") // -> true console.log(NaN == NaN) // ->
false what is the different?
console.log("5" == 5); console.log("5" === 5);
```

### 5.4.6 Object

Object Define an object var object = {number: 10, string: "string", array: [1,2,3], object: {a: 1, b: 2}}; Add new property to object object.newProperty = "value"; object['key'] = 'value'; delete property delete object.newProperty; Window object (global object) The Global scope is stored in an object which called window function test() var local = 10; console.log("local" in window); console.log(window.local); test(); var global = 10; console.log("global" in window); console.log(window.global);

## 5.5 OOP

1. Classes and Objects Constructor function Ball(position) this.position = position; this.display = function() console.log(this.position[0], " ", this.position[1]);

```
ball = new Ball([2, 3]); ball.display(); 2. Inheritance Person = function (name,
birthday, job) this.name = name; this.birthday = birthday; this.job = job; ;
Person.prototype.display = function () console.log(this.name, ""); console.log(this.birthday,
""); console.log(this.job, ""); ;
```

```
Politician = function (name, birthday) Person.call(this, name, birthday, "Politi-
cian"); ; Politician.prototype = Object.create(Person.prototype); Politician.prototype.constructor
= Politician;
```

```
var person1 = new Person("Barack Obama", "04/08/1961", "Politician"); var
person2 = new Politician("David Cameron", "09/10/1966"); person1.display();
person2.display();
```

Object-Oriented Programming var rabbit = {}; rabbit.speak = function(line) console.log("The rabbit says:" + line + ""); ; rabbit.speak("I'm alive");

```

function speak(line) console.log("The " + this.type + " rabbit says '" + line +
    "'");
var whiteRabbit = type: "white", speak: speak; var fatRabbit = type: "fat",
    speak: speak; whiteRabbit.speak("Oh my ears and whiskers, " + "how late it's
    getting!"); fatRabbit.speak("I could sure use a carrot right now");
// Prototype // Prototype is another object that is used as a fallback source of
    properties // When object request a property that it does not have, its prototype
    will be searched for the property var empty = ; console.log(empty.toString);
    console.log(empty.toString);
// Get prototype of an object 2 ways: console.log(Object.getPrototypeOf() ==
    Object.prototype); console.log(Object.getPrototypeOf(Object.prototype));
// Using Object.create to create an object with an specific prototype var pro-
    toRabbit = speak: function(line) console.log("The " + this.type + " rabbit
    says '" + line + "'"); ;
var killerRabbit = Object.create(protoRabbit); killerRabbit.type = "Killer";
    killerRabbit.speak("Skreeee!");
// Constructor function Rabbit(type) this.type = type; var killerRabbit = new
    Rabbit("Killer"); var blackRabbit = new Rabbit("black"); console.log(blackRabbit.type);
// using prototype to add a new method Rabbit.prototype.speak = function(line)
    console.log("The " + this.type + " rabbit says '" + line + "'"); ; blackRab-
    bit.speak("Doom...");
// OVERRIDING DERIVED PROPERTIES Rabbit.prototype.teeth = "small";
    console.log(killerRabbit.teeth);
    killerRabbit.teeth = "Long, sharp, and bloody"; console.log(killerRabbit.teeth);
    console.log(blackRabbit.teeth); console.log(Rabbit.prototype.teeth);
// PROTOTYPE INTERFERENCE // A prototype can be used at any time to
    add methods, properties // to all objects based on it Rabbit.prototype.dance =
    function () console.log("The " + this.type + " rabbit dances a jig"); ; killerRab-
    bit.dance(); // but there is a problem: var map = ; function storePhi(event, phi)
    map[event] = phi;
    storePhi("pizza", 0.069); storePhi("touched tree", -0.081); console.log(map);
    Object.prototype.nonsense = "hi"; for (var name in map) console.log(name);
    console.log("nonsense" in map); console.log("toString" in map); delete Ob-
    ject.prototype.nonsense; // we can use Object.defineProperty to solve it Ob-
    ject.defineProperty(Object.prototype, "hiddenNonsense",  enumerable: false,
    value: "hi" );
    for (var name in map) console.log(name); console.log(map.hiddenNonsense); //
    but there still has a problem console.log("toString" in map); console.log(map.hasOwnProperty("toString"));
// PROTOTYPE-LESS OBJECTS // if we only want to create an fresh
    object, without prototype then we tranform null to create var map = Ob-
    ject.create(null); map["pizza"] = 0.09; console.log("toString" in map); con-
    sole.log("pizza" in map);
// POLYMORPHISM // laying out a table: example for polymorphism function
    rowHeights(rows) return rows.map(function(row) return row.reduce(function(max,
    cell) return Math.max(max, cell.minHeight()); , 0); );
    function colWidths(rows) return rows[0].map(function(i) return rows.reduce(function(max, row) return Ma
    function drawTable(rows) var heights = rowHeights(rows); var widths = col-
    Widths(rows);
    function drawLine(blocks, lineNo) return blocks.map(function(block) return
    block[lineNo]; ).join(" ");

```

```

function drawRow(row, rowNum) var blocks = row.map(function(cell, colNum)
return cell.draw(widths[colNum], heights[rowNum]); ); return blocks[0].map(function(,lineNo)returndrawLin
return rows.map(drawRow).join("");
function repeat(string, times) var result = ""; for (var i = 0; i < times; i++)
result += string; return result;
function TextCell(text) this.text = text.split(""); TextCell.prototype.minWidth
= function() return this.text.reduce(function(width, line) return Math.max(width,
line.length); , 0); ; TextCell.prototype.minHeight = function() return this.text.length;
TextCell.prototype.minHeight = function() return this.text.length; TextCell.prototype.minHeight
= function() return this.text.length; TextCell.prototype.draw = function(width,
height) var result = []; for (var i = 0; i < height; i++) var line = this.text[i] ||
""; result.push(line + repeat(" ", width - line.length)); return result;
var rows = []; for (var i = 0; i < 5; i++) var row = []; for (var j = 0; j < 5; j++)
if ((i + j) % 2 == 0) row.push(new TextCell("1234")); else row.push(new TextCell("5"));
rows.push(row); console.log(drawTable(rows));
// // GETTERS AND SETTERS // var pile = // elements: ["eggshell", "or-
ange peel", "worm"], // get height() // return this.elements.length; // , // set
height(value) // console.log("Ignoring attempt to set high to ", value); // // ;
// console.log(pile.height); // pile.height = 100; // console.log(pile.height);
[1]: Introduction to Object-Oriented JavaScript [2]: How to call parent construc-
tor?

```

## 5.6 Networking

```
POST .ajax(type : "POST", url : "http://service.com/items", data : JSON.stringify("name" : "newitem"
```

## 5.7 Logging

Javascript Logging Having a fancy JavaScript debugger is great, but sometimes the fastest way to find bugs is just to dump as much information to the console as you can.

```
console.log console.assert console.error
```

## 5.8 Documentation

Components jsdoc (with docdash template)

JSDoc is an API documentation generator for JavaScript, similar to JavaDoc or PHPDoc. You add documentation comments directly to your source code, right along side the code itself. The JSDoc Tool will scan your source code, and generate a complete HTML documentation website for you.

gulp, PyCharm

Usage Step 1. Install gulp-jsdoc npm install --save-dev gulp gulp-jsdoc docdash

Step 2. Create documentation task Create documentation task in gulpfile.js file

```
var template = "path": "./node_modules/docdash";
```

```
gulp.task('docs', function() return gulp.src("./src/*.js") .pipe(jsdoc('./docs', tem-
plate)); );
```

Step 3. Refresh Gulp tasks In pycharm, click to refresh button in gulp

window.

Step 4. Add comment to your code Add comment to your code, You can see an example: should.js

```
/** * Simple utility function for a bit more easier should assertion * extension
 * @param Function f So called plugin function. It should accept * 2 arguments:
 * 'should' function and 'Assertion' constructor * @memberOf should * @returns
 * Function Returns 'should' function * @static * @example ** should.use(function(should,
 * Assertion) * Assertion.add('asset', function() * this.params = operator:
 * 'to be asset' ; * * this.obj.should.have.property('id').which.is.a.Number(); *
 * this.obj.should.have.property('path'); * ) * ) */ should.use = function(f) f(should,
 * should.Assertion); return this; ;
```

Types: boolean, string, number, Array (see more)

Step 5. Run docs task In pycharm, click to docs task in gulp window.

## 5.9 Error Handling

In javascript bugs may be displayed is NaN or underfined and program still run but after that, the wrong value can cause some mistake when we use it So, finding bugs and fix them is the quiet hard work in javascript But we can do, and this job is called debugging

STRICT MODE This is the way to find errors that javascript ignores. Example is using an undefined variable. if we dont use strick mode, then everything will be ok, but if using, the error will be shown

```
function SpotProblem() // "use strict"; for (counter = 0; counter < 10; counter++)
console.log("Good!"); SpotProblem(); console.log(counter); strick mode can
find error when using this in local, but it is still in global. Example: When we
forget to declare the key word "new" when create an new Object
```

```
"use strict"; function Person(name) this.name = name; var john = Person("John");
console.log(name); And there are another cases, that trick mode is not allowed:
```

Delete an object is not allowed

```
"use strict"; var x = 3.14; delete x;
```

```
"use strict"; var obj = {v1: 3, v2: 4}; delete obj;
```

```
"use strict"; var func = function(); delete func; Duplicate parameter is not
allowed
```

```
"use strict"; var func = function(a1, a1) console.log(a1); Reserve Word is not
allowed to name variable
```

```
"use strict"; var arguments = 5; var eval = 6; console.log(arguments); console.log(eval); TESTING Testing makes sure that the program working well,
and if there are any changes, testing will automatic show us the error, thus, we
know where need to fix
```

```
function Vector(x, y) this.x = x; this.y = y; Vector.prototype.plus = function(other) return new Vector(this.x + other.x, this.y + other.y);
```

```
function TestVector() var p1 = new Vector(10, 20); var p2 = new Vector(-10,
5); var p3 = p1.plus(p2);
```

```
if (p1.x !== 10) return "fail: x property"; if (p1.y !== 20) return "fail: y prop-
erty"; if (p2.x !== -10) return "fail: negative x property"; if (p2.y !== 5) return
"fail: y property"; if (p3.x !== 0) return "fail: x property from plus"; if (p3.y
!== 25) return "fail: y property from plus"; return "Vector is Oke"; TestVec-
tor(); DEBUGGING when the testing is fail, we have to debug to find the bugs.
```

The first we should guess the bug. And then we put break point in the line, we

assume it make bug If that is the exactly bug we want to find, then we fix it, and write more test for this case In this example code below, the function convert the number in the decima to another. we run and see the result is wrong, so we guess that the error may be caused by the result variable, then we put break point in the line contains result variable.

```
function ConvertNumber(n, base) var result = "", sign = ""; if (n < 0) sign = "-"; n = -n; do result = String(n n /= base; //-> n = Math.floor(n / base); while (n > 0); return sign + result; console.log(ConvertNumber(13, 10)); console.log(ConvertNumber(14, 2));
```

ERROR PROPAGATION Sometime our code is working well with normal input. But with special one, they can cause error. So, we have to consider all situation can make Flaws, and handling them. This example code below has an if..else to handle the wrong input if user types not a number in the prompt input

```
function promptNumber(question) var result = Number(prompt(question, "")); if (isNaN(result)) return null; else return result; console.log(promptNumber("How many trees do you see?"));
```

EXCEPTION In the Error Propagation, we can control the errors if we know them. But what will happen if we don't know the error? For solving this problem, javascript provides for us an try...catch.. to control error we dont know or not sure

```
try throw new Error("Invalid defination"); catch (error) console.log(error); function promptDirection(question) var result = prompt(question, ""); if (result.toLowerCase() == "left") return "L"; if (result.toLowerCase() == "right") return "R"; throw new Error("Invalid direction: " + result); function look() if (promptDirection("Which way?") == "L") return "a house"; else return "two angry bears"; try console.log("you see", look()); catch (error) console.log("Something went wrong: " + error);
```

CLEAN UP AFTER EXCEPTIONS We have a block of code below:

```
var context = null; function withContext(newContext, body) var oldContext = context; context = newContext; var result = body(); context = oldContext; return result; withContext("new", function() var a = b/0; return a; );
```

What would happend with context? It cannot be excute the last line code, because in withContext function, it will throw off the stack by an exception. So javascript provides a try...finally...

```
var context = null; function withContext(newContext, body) var oldContext = context; context = newContext; try return body(); finally context = oldContext; withContext("new", function() var a = b/0; return a; );
```

SELECTIVE CATCHING There are some errors cannot handle by environment. So, if we let the error go through, it can cause broken program. For examnples, the Error() in environment cannot catch the infinitive loop in the try block, if we dont catch this problem, the programm will crash soon

```
for (;) try var dir = promptDirection("Where?"); console.log("You chose ", dir); break; catch (e) console.log("Not a valid direction. Try again.");
```

The loop will break out if the promptDirection() can excute. But it doesn't. Because it is not defined before, so the environment catch it and go through the catch to show error The circle again and again will make the program crash. So we will create a special Exception.

```
function InputError(message) this.message = message; this.stack = (new Error()).stack; InputError.prototype = Object.create(Error.prototype); InputError.prototype.name = "InputError";
```

Error: has an property is stack. it contains



all exception, which environment can catch. Then, we have the `promptDirection` function to return the result if Enter valid format, or an exception if invalid function `promptDirection(question)` var `result = prompt(question, "");` if (`result.toLowerCase() == "left"`) return "L"; if (`result.toLowerCase() == "right"`) return "R"; throw new `InputError("Invalid direction: " + result);` Finally, we can catch all exception we want

```
for (;;) try var dir = promptDirection("Where?"); console.log("You choose ",
dir); break; catch(e) if (e instanceof InputError) console.log("Not a valid di-
rection. Try again. "); else throw e;
ASSERTIONS function Assertion-
Failed(message) this.message = message; AssertionFailed.prototype = Ob-
ject.create(Error.prototype);
function assert(test, message) if (!test) throw new AssertionFailed(message);
function lastElement(array) assert(array.length > 0, "empty array in lastEle-
ment"); return array[array.length - 1];
```

## 5.10 Testing

Mocha Mocha is a feature-rich JavaScript test framework running on Node.js and the browser, making asynchronous testing simple and fun. Mocha tests run serially, allowing for flexible and accurate reporting, while mapping uncaught exceptions to the correct test cases.

Installation `bower install -D mocha chai` Usage Step 1. Make index.html

```
<!DOCTYPE html> <html> <head> <meta charset="utf-8"> <title>Tests</title>
<link rel="stylesheet" media="all" href="mocha.css"> </head> <body> <div
id="mocha"></div> <script src="mocha.js"></script> <script src="chai.js"></script>
<script src="functions.js"></script> <script>mocha.setup('bdd'); chai.should();</script>
<script src="tests.js"></script> <script>mocha.run();</script> </body>
</html>
```

Step 2. Edit functions.js

```
function sum(a, b) return a + b;
```

```
function asynchronusSum(a, b) return new Promise(function(fulfill, reject) ful-
fill(a + b); );
```

Step 3. Edit tests.js

```
describe('Calculator', function() this.timeout(5000); describe('sum()', function()
it('should return sum of two number', function() sum(2, 3).should.equal(5) );
);
```

```
describe('asynchronusSum()', function() it('should return sum of two number',
function(done) asynchronusSum(2, 3).then(function(output) output.should.equal(5);
done(); ) ); );
```

## 5.11 Package Manager

Bower A package manager for the web

Web sites are made of lots of things — frameworks, libraries, assets, utilities, and rainbows. Bower manages all these things for you.

Bower works by fetching and installing packages from all over, taking care of hunting, finding, downloading, and saving the stuff you're looking for. Bower keeps track of these packages in a manifest file, `bower.json`. How you use packages is up to you. Bower provides hooks to facilitate using packages in your tools and workflows.

Bower is optimized for the front-end. Bower uses a flat dependency tree, requiring only one version for each package, reducing page load to a minimum.

<http://bower.io/>

```
[code] bower install jquery underscore moment sprintf -S [/code]
```

HTML <bower based>

```
<script src= ". /bower_components/jquery/dist/jquery.js" >< /script >< scriptsrc =
```

```
"./bower_components/moment/moment.js" >< /script >< scriptsrc = ". /bower_components/underscore/u
```

```
/script >< scriptsrc = ". /bower_components/sprintf/src/sprintf.js" ><
```

```
/script > HTML < cdnbased >
```

```
<script src="//cdnjs.cloudflare.com/ajax/libs/jquery/3.0.0-beta1/jquery.js"></script>
```

```
<script src="//cdnjs.cloudflare.com/ajax/libs/underscore.js/1.8.3/underscore.js"></script>
```

```
<script src="//cdnjs.cloudflare.com/ajax/libs/sprintf/1.0.3/sprintf.js"></script>
```

## 5.12 Build Tool

Gulp

Automate and enhance your workflow

Here's some of the sweet stuff you try out with this repo.

Compile CoffeeScript (with source maps!) Compile Handlebars Templates Com-

pile SASS with Compass LiveReload require non-CommonJS code, with depen-

dencies Set up module aliases Run a static Node server (with logging) Pop

open your app in a Browser Report Errors through Notification Center Image

processing Installation npm install -S gulp gulp-concat Usage Watch

```
var gulp = require('gulp'); var concat = require('gulp-concat'); var uglify =
require('gulp-uglify'); var jsdoc = require("gulp-jsdoc");
```

```
var third_parties = ["bower_components/jquery/dist/jquery.js", "bower_components/bootstrap/dist/js/boot
```

```
var modules = [ "modules/your_script.js"];
```

```
gulp.watch(third_parties, ['js_thirdparty']); gulp.watch(modules, ['js_modules']);
```

```
gulp.task('js_thirdparty', function() return gulp.src(third_parties).pipe(concat('third_party.uglify.js')).pipe(u
```

```
gulp.task('js_modules', function() return gulp.src(modules).pipe(concat('modules.uglify.js'))//.pipe(uglify
```

```
gulp.task('documentation', function () return gulp .src("./modules/*/*.js")
```

```
.pipe(jsdoc('./documentation'))); );
```

```
gulp.task('default', ['js_thirdparty', 'js_modules']); http : //gulpjs.com/
```

Deprecated grunt

## 5.13 Make Module

Make Module sample modules: underscore, momentjs

Folder Structure |- docs |- test |- src | - your\_module.js | - .gitignore | - bower.json

## Chương 6

# Java

01/11/2017: Java đơn giản là gay nhé. Không chơi. Viết java chỉ viết thế này thôi. Không viết hơn. Thề!

View online <http://magizbox.com/training/java/site/>

Java is a general-purpose computer programming language that is concurrent, class-based, object-oriented, and specifically designed to have as few implementation dependencies as possible. It is intended to let application developers "write once, run anywhere" (WORA), meaning that compiled Java code can run on all platforms that support Java without the need for recompilation. Java applications are typically compiled to bytecode that can run on any Java virtual machine (JVM) regardless of computer architecture. As of 2016, Java is one of the most popular programming languages in use, particularly for client-server web applications, with a reported 9 million developers. Java was originally developed by James Gosling at Sun Microsystems (which has since been acquired by Oracle Corporation) and released in 1995 as a core component of Sun Microsystems' Java platform. The language derives much of its syntax from C and C++, but it has fewer low-level facilities than either of them.

### 6.1 Get Started

Installation Ubuntu Step 1. Download sdk

<http://www.oracle.com/technetwork/java/javase/downloads/jdk7-downloads-1880260.html>

Step 2. Create folder jvm

sudo mkdir /usr/lib/jvm/ Step 3. cd to folder downloads jdk and run command

```
sudo mv jdk1.7.0_x /usr/lib/jvm/jdk1.7.0_x Run install java sudo update-alternatives --install /usr/bin/java java /usr/lib/jvm/jdk1.7.0_x/jre/bin/java 0 Add path jdk : /usr/lib/jvm/jdk1.7.0_x
```

```
su - nano /etc/environment
```

### 6.2 Basic Syntax

Variable Types Although Java is object oriented, not all types are objects. It is built on top of basic variable types called primitives.

Here is a list of all primitives in Java:

byte (number, 1 byte) short (number, 2 bytes) int (number, 4 bytes) long (number, 8 bytes) float (float number, 4 bytes) double (float number, 8 bytes) char (a character, 2 bytes) boolean (true or false, 1 byte) Java is a strong typed language, which means variables need to be defined before we use them. Numbers To declare and assign a number use the following syntax:

int myNumber; myNumber = 5; Or you can combine them:

int myNumber = 5; To define a double floating point number, use the following syntax:

double d = 4.5; d = 3.0; If you want to use float, you will have to cast:

float f = (float) 4.5; Or, You can use this:

float f = 4.5f (f is a shorter way of casting float) Characters and Strings In Java, a character is it's own type and it's not simply a number, so it's not common to put an ascii value in it, there is a special syntax for chars:

char c = 'g'; String is not a primitive. It's a real type, but Java has special treatment for String.

Here are some ways to use a string:

// Create a string with a constructor String s1 = new String("Who let the dogs out?"); // Just using "" creates a string, so no need to write it the previous way. String s2 = "Who who who who!"; // Java defined the operator + on strings to concatenate: String s3 = s1 + s2; There is no operator overloading in Java! The operator + is only defined for strings, you will never see it with other objects, only primitives.

You can also concat string to primitives:

int num = 5; String s = "I have " + num + " cookies"; //Be sure not to use "" with primitives. boolean Every comparison operator in java will return the type boolean that not like other languages can only accept two special values: true or false.

boolean b = false; b = true;

boolean toBe = false; b = toBe || !toBe; if (b) System.out.println(toBe);

int children = 0; b = children; // Will not work if (children) // Will not work

// Will not work Operators Java provides a rich set of operators to manipulate variables. We can divide all the Java operators into the following groups:

Arithmetic Operators Relational Operators Bitwise Operators Logical Operators Assignment Operators Misc Operators The Arithmetic Operators Arithmetic operators are used in mathematical expressions in the same way that they are used in algebra.

The following table lists the arithmetic operators:

Operator	Description	Example
+	(Addition) Adds values on either side of the operator	10 + 20 -> 30
-	(Subtraction) Subtracts right hand operand from left hand operand	10 - 20 -> -10
*	(Multiplication) Multiplies values on either side of the operator	10 * 20 -> 200
/	(Division) Divides left hand operand by right hand operand	20 / 10 -> 2
++	(Increment) Increases the value of operand by 1	a = 20

a++ -> 21

- (Decrement) Decreases the value of operand by 1 a = 20

a- -> 19

The Relational Operators There are following relational operators supported by Java language

== (equal to) Checks if the values of two operands are equal or not, if yes then condition becomes true.

Example: (A == B) is not true. 2 != (not equal to) Checks if the values of two operands are equal or not, if values are not equal then condition becomes true. Example: (A != B) is true.

3 > (greater than) Checks if the value of left operand is greater than the value of right operand, if yes then condition becomes true.

Example: (A > B) is not true. 4 < (less than) Checks if the value of left operand is less than the value of right operand, if yes then condition becomes true.

Example: (A < B) is true. 5 >= (greater than or equal to) Checks if the value of left operand is greater than or equal to the value of right operand, if yes then condition becomes true.

Example (A >= B) is not true. 6 <= (less than or equal to) Checks if the value of left operand is less than or equal to the value of right operand, if yes then condition becomes true.

example(A <= B) is true.

The Bitwise Operators Java defines several bitwise operators, which can be applied to the integer types, long, int, short, char, and byte.

Bitwise operator works on bits and performs bit-by-bit operation. Assume if a = 60; and b = 13; now in binary format they will be as follows:

a = 0011 1100

b = 0000 1101

ab = 0000 1100

a|b = 0011 1101

a^b = 00110001

a = 1100 0011

The following table lists the bitwise operators:

Assume integer variable A holds 60 and variable B holds 13 then:

(bitwise and) Binary AND Operator copies a bit to the result if it exists in both operands.

Example: (A & B) will give 12 which is 0000 1100 2 | (bitwise or) Binary OR Operator copies a bit if it exists in either operand.

Example: (A | B) will give 61 which is 0011 1101 3 (bitwise XOR) Binary XOR Operator copies the bit if it is set in either operand.

Example: (A ^ B) will give 49 which is 00110001 4 (bitwise complement) Binary Ones Complement Operator is unary.

Example: (~ A) will give -61 which is 1100 0011 in 2's complement form due to a signed binary number. 5 « (left shift) Binary Left Shift Operator. The left

operands value is moved left by the number of bits specified by the right operand

Example: A « 2 will give 240 which is 1111 0000 6 » (right shift) Binary Right Shift Operator. The left operands value is moved right by the number of bits specified by the right operand.

Example: A » 2 will give 15 which is 1111 7 »> (zero fill right shift) Shift right zero fill operator. The left operands value is moved right by the number of bits specified by the right operand and shifted values are filled up with zeros.

Example: A »>2 will give 15 which is 0000 1111

The Logical Operators The following table lists the logical operators:

Assume Boolean variables A holds true and variable B holds false, then:

(logical and) Called Logical AND operator. If both the operands are non-zero, then the condition becomes true.

Example (A & B) is false. 2 || (logical or) Called Logical OR Operator. If any of the two operands are non-zero, then the condition becomes true.

Example (A || B) is true. 3 ! (logical not) Called Logical NOT Operator. Use to reverses the logical state of its operand. If a condition is true then Logical NOT operator will make false.

Example !(A & B) is true.

The Assignment Operators There are following assignment operators supported by Java language:

Show Examples

SR.NO Operator and Description 1 = Simple assignment operator, Assigns values from right side operands to left side operand.

Example: C = A + B will assign value of A + B into C 2 += Add AND assignment operator, It adds right operand to the left operand and assign the result to left operand.

Example: C += A is equivalent to C = C + A 3 -= Subtract AND assignment operator, It subtracts right operand from the left operand and assign the result to left operand.

Example: C -= A is equivalent to C = C - A 4 \*= Multiply AND assignment operator, It multiplies right operand with the left operand and assign the result to left operand.

Example: C \*= A is equivalent to C = C \* A 5 /= Divide AND assignment operator, It divides left operand with the right operand and assign the result to left operand

Example: C /= A is equivalent to C = C / A 6

Example: C

Example: C <<= 2 is same as C = C << 2 8 >>= Right shift AND assignment operator

Example: C >= 2 is same as C = C >> 2 9 = Bitwise AND assignment operator.

Example: C ^= 2 is same as C = C ^ 2 10 = *bitwise exclusive OR and assignment operator.*

Example: C |= 2 is same as C = C | 2 11 = *bitwise inclusive OR and assignment operator.*

Example: C &= 2 is same as C = C & 2

Miscellaneous Operators There are few other operators supported by Java Language.

Conditional Operator ( ? : ) Conditional operator is also known as the ternary operator. This operator consists of three operands and is used to evaluate Boolean expressions. The goal of the operator is to decide which value should be assigned to the variable. The operator is written as:

variable x = (expression) ? value if true : value if false Following is the example:

```
public class Test
```

```
public static void main(String args[]) { int a, b; a = 10; b = (a == 1) ? 20: 30;
```

```
System.out.println( "Value of b is : " + b );
```

```
b = (a == 10) ? 20: 30; System.out.println( "Value of b is : " + b ); }
```

This would produce the following result ?

Value of b is : 30 Value of b is : 20 Precedence of Operators Operator precedence determines the grouping of terms in an expression. This affects how an expression is evaluated. Certain operators have higher precedence than others; for example, the multiplication operator has higher precedence than the addition operator:

For example, x = 7 + 3 \* 2; here x is assigned 13, not 20 because operator \* has higher precedence than +, so it first gets multiplied with 3\*2 and then adds into 7.

Here, operators with the highest precedence appear at the top of the table, those with the lowest appear at the bottom. Within an expression, higher precedence operators will be evaluated first.

Category Operator Associativity Postfix `() [] .` (dot operator) Left to right Unary `++ -- !` Right to left Multiplicative `*` /

Conditional Java uses boolean variables to evaluate conditions. The boolean values true and false are returned when an expression is compared or evaluated. For example:

```
int a = 4; boolean b = a == 4;
```

if (b) System.out.println("It's true!"); Of course we don't normally assign a conditional expression to a boolean, we just use the short version:

```
int a = 4;
```

if (a == 4) System.out.println("Ohhh! So a is 4!"); Boolean operators There aren't that many operators to use in conditional statements and most of them are pretty strait forward:

```
int a = 4; int b = 5; boolean result; result = a < b; // true result = a > b; // false
result = a <= 4 // a smaller or equal to 4 - true result = b >= 6 // b bigger or equal to 6 - false
result = a == b // a equal to b - false result = a != b // a is not equal to b - true
result = a > b || a < b // Logical or - true result = 3 < a & a < 6 // Logical and - true
result = !result // Logical not - false if - else and between
```

The if, else statement in java is pretty simple. if (a == b) // a and b are equal, let's do something cool And we can also add an else statement after an if, to do something if the condition is not true

```
if (a == b) // We already know this part else // a and b are not equal... :/
The if - else statements doesn't have to be in several lines with , if can be used in one line, or without the , for a single line statment.
```

```
if (a == b) System.out.println("Another line Wow!"); else System.out.println("Double rainbow!");
```

Although this method might be useful for making your code shorter by using fewer lines, we strongly recommend for beginners not to use this short version of statements and always use the full version with . This goes to every statement that can be shorted to a single line (for, while, etc).

The ugly side of if There is a another way to write a one line if - else statement by using the operator `?:` :

```
int a = 4; int result = a == 4 ? 1 : 8;
```

```
// result will be 1 // This is equivalent to int result;
```

```
if (a == 4) result = 1; else result = 8;
```

Again, we strongly recommend for beginners not to use this version of if.

`==` and equals The operator `==` works a bit different on objects than on primitives. When we are using objects and want to check if they are equal, the operator `==` will say if they are the same, if you want to check if they are logically equal, you should use the equals method on the object. For example:

```
String a = new String("Wow"); String b = new String("Wow"); String sameA = a;
```

```
boolean r1 = a == b; // This is false, since a and b are not the same object
boolean r2 = a.equals(b); // This is true, since a and b are logically equals
boolean r3 = a == sameA; // This is true, since a and sameA are really the same object
```

## 6.3 Data Structure

Data Structure Number, String Convert number to string

String.valueOf(1000) Make a random

// create a random number from 0 to 99 (new Random()).nextInt(100) Collection Arrays Arrays in Java are also objects. They need to be declared and then created. In order to declare a variable that will hold an array of integers, we use the following syntax:

int[] arr; Notice there is no size, since we didn't create the array yet.

arr = new int[10]; This will create a new array with the size of 10. We can check the size by printing the array's length:

System.out.println(arr.length); We can access the array and set values:

arr[0] = 4; arr[1] = arr[0] + 5; Java arrays are 0 based, which means the first element in an array is accessed at index 0 (e.g: arr[0], which accesses the first element). Also, as an example, an array of size 5 will only go up to index 4 due to it being 0 based.

int[] arr = new int[5] //accesses and sets the first element arr[0] = 4; We can also create an array with values in the same line:

int[] arr = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5}; Don't try to print the array without a loop, it will print something nasty like [I@f7e6a96.

Set

import java.util.HashSet; import java.util.Set;

public class HelloWorld

public static void main(String []args) Set<Dog> dogs = new HashSet<Dog>(); Dog dog1 = new Dog("a", 1); Dog dog2 = new Dog("a", 2); Dog dog3 = new Dog("a", 1); Dog dog4 = new Dog("b", 1); dogs.add( dog1); dogs.add( dog2); dogs.add( dog3); dogs.add( dog4); System.out.println(dogs.size());

// 3 public class Dog public String name; public int age; public int value; public Dog(String name, int age) this.name = name; this.age = age; value = (this.name + String.valueOf(this.age)).hashCode();

@Override public int hashCode() return value;

@Override public boolean equals(Object obj) return (obj instanceof Dog ((Dog) obj).value == this.value); List List<String> places = Arrays.asList("Buenos Aires", "Córdoba", "La Plata"); Datetime Calendar c = Calendar.getInstance(); Suggest Readings Initialization of an ArrayList in one line How to convert from int to String?

## 6.4 OOP

### 6.4.1 Classes

Java is an Object-Oriented Language. As a language that has the Object-Oriented feature, Java supports the following fundamental concepts

Classes and Objects Encapsulation Inheritance Polymorphism Abstraction Instance Method Message Parsing In this chapter, we will look into the concepts - Classes and Objects.

Object Objects have states and behaviors. Example: A dog has states - color, name, breed as well as behaviors - wagging the tail, barking, eating. An object is an instance of a class. Class A class can be defined as a template/blueprint



that describes the behavior/state that the object of its type support. Objects Let us now look deep into what are objects. If we consider the real-world, we can find many objects around us, cars, dogs, humans, etc. All these objects have a state and a behavior.

If we consider a dog, then its state is - name, breed, color, and the behavior is - barking, wagging the tail, running.

If you compare the software object with a real-world object, they have very similar characteristics.

Software objects also have a state and a behavior. A software object's state is stored in fields and behavior is shown via methods.

So in software development, methods operate on the internal state of an object and the object-to-object communication is done via methods.

Classes A class is a blueprint from which individual objects are created.

Following is a sample of a class.

Example

```
public class Dog {
    String breed; int age; String color;
    void barking()
    void hungry()
    void sleeping()
}
```

A class can contain any of the following variable types.

**Local variables** Variables defined inside methods, constructors or blocks are called local variables. The variable will be declared and initialized within the method and the variable will be destroyed when the method has completed.

**Instance variables** Instance variables are variables within a class but outside any method. These variables are initialized when the class is instantiated. Instance variables can be accessed from inside any method, constructor or blocks of that particular class. **Class variables** Class variables are variables declared within a class, outside any method, with the static keyword. A class can have any number of methods to access the value of various kinds of methods. In the above example, barking(), hungry() and sleeping() are methods.

Following are some of the important topics that need to be discussed when looking into classes of the Java Language.

**Constructors** When discussing about classes, one of the most important sub topic would be constructors. Every class has a constructor. If we do not explicitly write a constructor for a class, the Java compiler builds a default constructor for that class.

Each time a new object is created, at least one constructor will be invoked. The main rule of constructors is that they should have the same name as the class.

A class can have more than one constructor.

Following is an example of a constructor

Example

```
public class Puppy {
    public Puppy()
    public Puppy(String name) // This constructor has one parameter, name.
}
```

Java also supports Singleton Classes where you would be able to create only one instance of a class.

**Note** We have two different types of constructors. We are going to discuss constructors in detail in the subsequent chapters.

**Creating an Object** As mentioned previously, a class provides the blueprints for objects. So basically, an object is created from a class. In Java, the new keyword is used to create new objects.

There are three steps when creating an object from a class

**Declaration** A variable declaration with a variable name with an object type. **Instantiation** The 'new' keyword is used to create the object. **Initialization** The 'new' keyword is followed by a call to a constructor. This call initializes the new object. Following is an example of creating an object

**Example**

```
public class Puppy {
    public Puppy(String name) // This constructor has one
        parameter, name. System.out.println("Passed Name is : " + name );
    public static void main(String []args) // Following statement would create an
        object myPuppy
        Puppy myPuppy = new Puppy( "tommy" );
    // If we compile and run the above program, then it will produce the following result
    Passed Name is :tommy
    Accessing Instance Variables and Methods
    Instance variables and methods are accessed via created objects. To access an instance
    variable, following is the fully qualified path
    /* First create an object */ ObjectReference = new Constructor();
    /* Now call a variable as follows */ ObjectReference.variableName;
    /* Now you can call a class method as follows */ ObjectReference.MethodName();
}
```

**Example**

This example explains how to access instance variables and methods of a class.

```
public class Puppy {
    int puppyAge;
    public Puppy(String name) // This constructor has one parameter, name. Sys-
        tem.out.println("Name chosen is : " + name );
    public void setAge( int age ) { puppyAge = age; }
    public int getAge( ) { System.out.println("Puppy's age is : " + puppyAge ); return
        puppyAge; }
    public static void main(String []args) {
        /* Object creation */
        Puppy myPuppy = new Puppy( "tommy" );
        /* Call class method to set puppy's age */
        myPuppy.setAge( 2 );
        /* Call another class method to get puppy's age */
        myPuppy.getAge( );
        /* You can access instance variable as follows as well */
        System.out.println("Variable Value : " + myPuppy.puppyAge );
        // If we compile and run the above program, then it will produce the following result
    }
}
```

**Output**

Name chosen is :tommy  
Puppy's age is :2  
Variable Value :2  
Source File Declaration Rules As the last part of this section, let's now look into the source file declaration rules. These rules are essential when declaring classes, import statements and package statements in a source file.

There can be only one public class per source file. A source file can have multiple non-public classes. The public class name should be the name of the source file as well which should be appended by .java at the end. For example: the class name is public class Employee then the source file should be as Employee.java. If the class is defined inside a package, then the package statement should be the first statement in the source file. If import statements are present, then they must be written between the package statement and the class declaration. If there are no package statements, then the import statement should be the first line in the source file. Import and package statements will imply to all the classes present in the source file. It is not possible to declare different import and/or package statements to different classes in the source file. Classes have several access levels and there are different types of classes; abstract classes, final classes, etc. We will be explaining about all these in the access modifiers chapter.

Apart from the above mentioned types of classes, Java also has some special classes called Inner classes and Anonymous classes.

**Java Package** In simple words, it is a way of categorizing the classes and interfaces. When developing applications in Java, hundreds of classes and interfaces will be written, therefore categorizing these classes is a must as well as makes life much easier.

**Import Statements** In Java if a fully qualified name, which includes the package and the class name is given, then the compiler can easily locate the source code or classes. Import statement is a way of giving the proper location for the compiler to find that particular class.

For example, the following line would ask the compiler to load all the classes available in directory `java\installation\java\io`

`import java.io.*;` A Simple Case Study For our case study, we will be creating two classes. They are `Employee` and `EmployeeTest`.

First open notepad and add the following code. Remember this is the `Employee` class and the class is a public class. Now, save this source file with the name `Employee.java`.

The `Employee` class has four instance variables - name, age, designation and salary. The class has one explicitly defined constructor, which takes a parameter. Example

```
import java.io.*; public class Employee
String name; int age; String designation; double salary;
// This is the constructor of the class Employee public Employee(String name)
this.name = name;
// Assign the age of the Employee to the variable age. public void empAge(int
empAge) age = empAge;
/* Assign the designation to the variable designation.*/ public void empDesignation(String empDesig) designation = empDesig;
/* Assign the salary to the variable salary.*/ public void empSalary(double empSalary) salary = empSalary;
/* Print the Employee details */ public void printEmployee() System.out.println("Name:" +
name ); System.out.println("Age:" + age ); System.out.println("Designation:"
+ designation ); System.out.println("Salary:" + salary); As mentioned previously in this tutorial, processing starts from the main method. Therefore, in order for us to run this Employee class there should be a main method and objects should be created. We will be creating a separate class for these tasks. Following is the EmployeeTest class, which creates two instances of the class Employee and invokes the methods for each object to assign values for each variable.
```

Save the following code in `EmployeeTest.java` file.

```
import java.io.*; public class EmployeeTest
public static void main(String args[]) /* Create two objects using constructor
*/ Employee empOne = new Employee("James Smith"); Employee empTwo =
new Employee("Mary Anne");
// Invoking methods for each object created empOne.empAge(26); empOne.empDesignation("Senior
Software Engineer"); empOne.empSalary(1000); empOne.printEmployee();
empTwo.empAge(21); empTwo.empDesignation("Software Engineer"); empTwo.empSalary(500);
empTwo.printEmployee(); Now, compile both the classes and then run EmployeeTest to see the result as follows
```

Output

*C:javacEmployee.javaC : javacEmployeeTest.javaC : javaEmployeeTestName :  
JamesSmithAge : 26Designation : SeniorSoftwareEngineerSalary : 1000.0Name :  
MaryAnneAge : 21Designation : SoftwareEngineerSalary : 500.0*

### 6.4.2 Encapsulation

Encapsulation is one of the four fundamental OOP concepts. The other three are inheritance, polymorphism, and abstraction.

Encapsulation in Java is a mechanism of wrapping the data (variables) and code acting on the data (methods) together as a single unit. In encapsulation, the variables of a class will be hidden from other classes, and can be accessed only through the methods of their current class. Therefore, it is also known as data hiding.

**Implementation** To achieve encapsulation in Java

Declare the variables of a class as private. Provide public setter and getter methods to modify and view the variables values. Example Following is an example that demonstrates how to achieve Encapsulation in Java

```
/* File name : EncapTest.java */ public class EncapTest private String name;
private String idNum; private int age;
public int getAge() return age;
public String getName() return name;
public String getIdNum() return idNum;
public void setAge( int newAge) age = newAge;
public void setName(String newName) name = newName;
public void setIdNum( String newId) idNum = newId; The public setXXX()
and getXXX() methods are the access points of the instance variables of the En-
capTest class. Normally, these methods are referred as getters and setters. There-
fore, any class that wants to access the variables should access them through
these getters and setters.
```

The variables of the EncapTest class can be accessed using the following pro-gram

```
/* File name : RunEncap.java */ public class RunEncap
public static void main(String args[]) EncapTest encap = new EncapTest();
encap.setName("James"); encap.setAge(20); encap.setIdNum("12343ms");
System.out.print("Name : " + encap.getName() + " Age : " + encap.getAge());
This will produce the following result
```

Name : James Age : 20 Benefits The fields of a class can be made read-only or write-only. A class can have total control over what is stored in its fields. The users of a class do not know how the class stores its data. A class can change the data type of a field and users of the class do not need to change any of their code. Related Readings "Java Inheritance". [www.tutorialspoint.com](http://www.tutorialspoint.com). N.p., 2016. Web. 10 Dec. 2016.

### 6.4.3 Inheritance

In the preceding lessons, you have seen inheritance mentioned several times. In the Java language, classes can be derived from other classes, thereby inheriting fields and methods from those classes.

The idea of inheritance is simple but powerful: When you want to create a new class and there is already a class that includes some of the code that you want,

you can derive your new class from the existing class. In doing this, you can reuse the fields and methods of the existing class without having to write (and debug!) them yourself.

A subclass inherits all the members (fields, methods, and nested classes) from its superclass. Constructors are not members, so they are not inherited by subclasses, but the constructor of the superclass can be invoked from the subclass. **Class Hierarchy** The Object class, defined in the java.lang package, defines and implements behavior common to all classes—including the ones that you write. In the Java platform, many classes derive directly from Object, other classes derive from some of those classes, and so on, forming a hierarchy of classes.

At the top of the hierarchy, Object is the most general of all classes. Classes near the bottom of the hierarchy provide more specialized behavior.

**An Example** Here is the sample code for a possible implementation of a Bicycle class that was presented in the Classes and Objects lesson:

```
public class Bicycle
// the Bicycle class has three fields public int cadence; public int gear; public
int speed;
// the Bicycle class has one constructor public Bicycle(int startCadence, int
startSpeed, int startGear) gear = startGear; cadence = startCadence; speed =
startSpeed;
// the Bicycle class has four methods public void setCadence(int newValue)
cadence = newValue;
public void setGear(int newValue) gear = newValue;
public void applyBrake(int decrement) speed -= decrement;
public void speedUp(int increment) speed += increment;
```

A class declaration for a MountainBike class that is a subclass of Bicycle might look like this:

```
public class MountainBike extends Bicycle
// the MountainBike subclass adds one field public int seatHeight;
// the MountainBike subclass has one constructor public MountainBike(int
startHeight, int startCadence, int startSpeed, int startGear) super(startCadence,
startSpeed, startGear); seatHeight = startHeight;
// the MountainBike subclass adds one method public void setHeight(int new-
Value) seatHeight = newValue; MountainBike inherits all the fields and meth-
ods of Bicycle and adds the field seatHeight and a method to set it. Except for
the constructor, it is as if you had written a new MountainBike class entirely
from scratch, with four fields and five methods. However, you didn't have to do
all the work. This would be especially valuable if the methods in the Bicycle
class were complex and had taken substantial time to debug.
```

**What You Can Do in a Subclass** A subclass inherits all of the public and protected members of its parent, no matter what package the subclass is in. If the subclass is in the same package as its parent, it also inherits the package-private members of the parent. You can use the inherited members as is, replace them, hide them, or supplement them with new members:

The inherited fields can be used directly, just like any other fields. You can declare a field in the subclass with the same name as the one in the superclass, thus hiding it (not \* recommended). You can declare new fields in the subclass that are not in the superclass. The inherited methods can be used directly as they are. You can write a new instance method in the subclass that has the same signature as the one in the superclass, thus overriding it. You can write

a new static method in the subclass that has the same signature as the one in the superclass, thus hiding it. You can declare new methods in the subclass that are not in the superclass. You can write a subclass constructor that invokes the constructor of the superclass, either implicitly or by using the keyword `super`. The following sections in this lesson will expand on these topics.

**Private Members in a Superclass** A subclass does not inherit the private members of its parent class. However, if the superclass has public or protected methods for accessing its private fields, these can also be used by the subclass.

A nested class has access to all the private members of its enclosing class—both fields and methods. Therefore, a public or protected nested class inherited by a subclass has indirect access to all of the private members of the superclass.

**Casting Objects** We have seen that an object is of the data type of the class from which it was instantiated. For example, if we write

```
public MountainBike myBike = new MountainBike();
```

then `myBike` is of type `MountainBike`.

`MountainBike` is descended from `Bicycle` and `Object`. Therefore, a `MountainBike` is a `Bicycle` and is also an `Object`, and it can be used wherever `Bicycle` or `Object` objects are called for.

The reverse is not necessarily true: a `Bicycle` may be a `MountainBike`, but it isn't necessarily. Similarly, an `Object` may be a `Bicycle` or a `MountainBike`, but it isn't necessarily.

Casting shows the use of an object of one type in place of another type, among the objects permitted by inheritance and implementations. For example, if we write

```
Object obj = new MountainBike();
```

then `obj` is both an `Object` and a `MountainBike` (until such time as `obj` is assigned another object that is not a `MountainBike`). This is called implicit casting.

If, on the other hand, we write

```
MountainBike myBike = obj;
```

we would get a compile-time error because `obj` is not known to the compiler to be a `MountainBike`. However, we can tell the compiler that we promise to assign a `MountainBike` to `obj` by explicit casting: `MountainBike myBike = (MountainBike)obj;` This cast inserts a runtime check that `obj` is assigned a `MountainBike` so that the compiler can safely assume that `obj` is a `MountainBike`. If `obj` is not a `MountainBike` at runtime, an exception will be thrown.

**Related Readings** "Inheritance". docs.oracle.com. N.p., 2016. Web. 8 Dec. 2016.  
"Java Inheritance". www.tutorialspoint.com. N.p., 2016. Web. 8 Dec. 2016.  
Friesen, Jeff. "Java 101: Inheritance In Java, Part 1". JavaWorld. N.p., 2016. Web. 8 Dec. 2016.

#### 6.4.4 Polymorphism

Polymorphism is the ability of an object to take on many forms. The most common use of polymorphism in OOP occurs when a parent class reference is used to refer to a child class object.

Any Java object that can pass more than one IS-A test is considered to be polymorphic. In Java, all Java objects are polymorphic since any object will pass the IS-A test for their own type and for the class `Object`.

It is important to know that the only possible way to access an object is through a reference variable. A reference variable can be of only one type. Once declared,

the type of a reference variable cannot be changed.

The reference variable can be reassigned to other objects provided that it is not declared final. The type of the reference variable would determine the methods that it can invoke on the object.

A reference variable can refer to any object of its declared type or any subtype of its declared type. A reference variable can be declared as a class or interface type.

Example Let us look at an example.

public interface Vegetarian public class Animal public class Deer extends Animal implements Vegetarian Now, the Deer class is considered to be polymorphic since this has multiple inheritance. Following are true for the above examples

A Deer IS-A Animal A Deer IS-A Vegetarian A Deer IS-A Deer A Deer IS-A Object When we apply the reference variable facts to a Deer object reference, the following declarations are legal

Deer d = new Deer(); Animal a = d; Vegetarian v = d; Object o = d; All the reference variables d, a, v, o refer to the same Deer object in the heap.

Virtual Methods In this section, I will show you how the behavior of overridden methods in Java allows you to take advantage of polymorphism when designing your classes.

We already have discussed method overriding, where a child class can override a method in its parent. An overridden method is essentially hidden in the parent class, and is not invoked unless the child class uses the super keyword within the overriding method.

```
/* File name : Employee.java */ public class Employee private String name;
private String address; private int number;
public Employee(String name, String address, int number) System.out.println("Constructing
an Employee"); this.name = name; this.address = address; this.number = num-
ber;
public void mailCheck() System.out.println("Mailing a check to " + this.name
+ " " + this.address);
public String toString() return name + " " + address + " " + number;
public String getName() return name;
public String getAddress() return address;
public void setAddress(String newAddress) address = newAddress;
public int getNumber() return number; Now suppose we extend Employee
class as follows
```

```
/* File name : Salary.java */ public class Salary extends Employee private
double salary; // Annual salary
public Salary(String name, String address, int number, double salary) su-
per(name, address, number); setSalary(salary);
public void mailCheck() System.out.println("Within mailCheck of Salary class
"); System.out.println("Mailing check to " + getName() + " with salary " +
salary);
public double getSalary() return salary;
public void setSalary(double newSalary) if(newSalary >= 0.0) salary = newSalary;
```

public double computePay() System.out.println("Computing salary pay for " + getName()); return salary/52; Now, you study the following program carefully and try to determine its output

```
/* File name : VirtualDemo.java */ public class VirtualDemo
```

```
public static void main(String [] args) {
    Salary s = new Salary("Mohd Mohtashim", "Ambehta, UP", 3, 3600.00);
    Employee e = new Employee("John Adams", "Boston, MA", 2, 2400.00);
    System.out.println("Call mailCheck using Salary reference -");
    s.mailCheck();
    System.out.println("Call mailCheck using Employee reference-");
    e.mailCheck();
}
```

This will produce the following result

Constructing an Employee Constructing an Employee

Call mailCheck using Salary reference – Within mailCheck of Salary class Mailing check to Mohd Mohtashim with salary 3600.0

Call mailCheck using Employee reference– Within mailCheck of Salary class Mailing check to John Adams with salary 2400.0 Here, we instantiate two Salary objects. One using a Salary reference s, and the other using an Employee reference e.

While invoking s.mailCheck(), the compiler sees mailCheck() in the Salary class at compile time, and the JVM invokes mailCheck() in the Salary class at run time.

mailCheck() on e is quite different because e is an Employee reference. When the compiler sees e.mailCheck(), the compiler sees the mailCheck() method in the Employee class.

Here, at compile time, the compiler used mailCheck() in Employee to validate this statement. At run time, however, the JVM invokes mailCheck() in the Salary class.

This behavior is referred to as virtual method invocation, and these methods are referred to as virtual methods. An overridden method is invoked at run time, no matter what data type the reference is that was used in the source code at compile time.

Related Readings "Java Polymorphism". [www.tutorialspoint.com](http://www.tutorialspoint.com). N.p., 2016. Web. 10 Dec. 2016.

### 6.4.5 Abstraction

As per dictionary, abstraction is the quality of dealing with ideas rather than events. For example, when you consider the case of e-mail, complex details such as what happens as soon as you send an e-mail, the protocol your e-mail server uses are hidden from the user. Therefore, to send an e-mail you just need to type the content, mention the address of the receiver, and click send.

Likewise in Object-oriented programming, abstraction is a process of hiding the implementation details from the user, only the functionality will be provided to the user. In other words, the user will have the information on what the object does instead of how it does it.

In Java, abstraction is achieved using Abstract classes and interfaces.

**Abstract Class** A class which contains the abstract keyword in its declaration is known as abstract class.

Abstract classes may or may not contain abstract methods, i.e., methods without body ( public void get(); ) But, if a class has at least one abstract method, then the class must be declared abstract. If a class is declared abstract, it cannot be instantiated. To use an abstract class, you have to inherit it from another class, provide implementations to the abstract methods in it. If you inherit an abstract class, you have to provide implementations to all the abstract methods in it. Example



This section provides you an example of the abstract class. To create an abstract class, just use the abstract keyword before the class keyword, in the class declaration.

```
/* File name : Employee.java */ public abstract class Employee private String
name; private String address; private int number;
public Employee(String name, String address, int number) System.out.println("Constructing
an Employee"); this.name = name; this.address = address; this.number = num-
ber;
public double computePay() System.out.println("Inside Employee computePay");
return 0.0;
public void mailCheck() System.out.println("Mailing a check to " + this.name
+ " " + this.address);
public String toString() return name + " " + address + " " + number;
public String getName() return name;
public String getAddress() return address;
public void setAddress(String newAddress) address = newAddress;
public int getNumber() return number; You can observe that except abstract
methods the Employee class is same as normal class in Java. The class is now
abstract, but it still has three fields, seven methods, and one constructor.
```

Now you can try to instantiate the Employee class in the following way

```
/* File name : AbstractDemo.java */ public class AbstractDemo
public static void main(String [] args) /* Following is not allowed and would
raise error */ Employee e = new Employee("George W.", "Houston, TX", 43);
System.out.println("Call mailCheck using Employee reference-"); e.mailCheck();
```

When you compile the above class, it gives you the following error

```
Employee.java:46: Employee is abstract; cannot be instantiated Employee e =
new Employee("George W.", "Houston, TX", 43); 1errorInheritingtheAbstractClassWecaninherittheproper
```

```
/* File name : Salary.java */ public class Salary extends Employee private
double salary; // Annual salary
public Salary(String name, String address, int number, double salary) su-
per(name, address, number); setSalary(salary);
public void mailCheck() System.out.println("Within mailCheck of Salary class
"); System.out.println("Mailing check to " + getName() + " with salary " +
salary);
public double getSalary() return salary;
public void setSalary(double newSalary) if(newSalary >= 0.0) salary = newSalary;
```

```
public double computePay() System.out.println("Computing salary pay for "
+ getName()); return salary/52; Here, you cannot instantiate the Employee
class, but you can instantiate the Salary Class, and using this instance you can
access all the three fields and seven methods of Employee class as shown below.
```

```
/* File name : AbstractDemo.java */ public class AbstractDemo
public static void main(String [] args) Salary s = new Salary("Mohd Mo-
htashim", "Ambehta, UP", 3, 3600.00); Employee e = new Salary("John Adams",
"Boston, MA", 2, 2400.00); System.out.println("Call mailCheck using Salary
reference -"); s.mailCheck(); System.out.println("mailCheck using Employee
reference-"); e.mailCheck(); This produces the following result
```

```
Constructing an Employee Constructing an Employee Call mailCheck using
Salary reference - Within mailCheck of Salary class Mailing check to Mohd
Mohtashim with salary 3600.0
```

Call mailCheck using Employee reference– Within mailCheck of Salary class  
 Mailing check to John Adams with salary 2400.0  
 Abstract Methods If you want a class to contain a particular method but you want the actual implementation of that method to be determined by child classes, you can declare the method in the parent class as an abstract.

abstract keyword is used to declare the method as abstract. You have to place the abstract keyword before the method name in the method declaration. An abstract method contains a method signature, but no method body. Instead of curly braces, an abstract method will have a semicolon (;) at the end. Following is an example of the abstract method.

```
public abstract class Employee {
    private String name;
    private String address;
    private int number;
    public abstract double computePay(); // Remainder of class definition
} // Declaring a method as abstract has two consequences
```

The class containing it must be declared as abstract. Any class inheriting the current class must either override the abstract method or declare itself as abstract. Note Eventually, a descendant class has to implement the abstract method; otherwise, you would have a hierarchy of abstract classes that cannot be instantiated.

Suppose Salary class inherits the Employee class, then it should implement the computePay() method as shown below

```
/* File name : Salary.java */
public class Salary extends Employee {
    private double salary; // Annual salary
    public double computePay() {
        System.out.println("Computing salary pay for " +
            getName());
        return salary/52; // Remainder of class definition
    }
} // Related Readings "Java Abstraction". www.tutorialspoint.com. N.p., 2016. Web. 10 Dec. 2016.
```

## 6.5 File System IO

The java.io package contains nearly every class you might ever need to perform input and output (I/O) in Java. All these streams represent an input source and an output destination. The stream in the java.io package supports many data such as primitives, object, localized characters, etc.

Stream A stream can be defined as a sequence of data. There are two kinds of Streams

InputStream The InputStream is used to read data from a source. OutputStream The OutputStream is used for writing data to a destination.

Java provides strong but flexible support for I/O related to files and networks but this tutorial covers very basic functionality related to streams and I/O. We will see the most commonly used examples one by one

Byte Streams Java byte streams are used to perform input and output of 8-bit bytes. Though there are many classes related to byte streams but the most frequently used classes are, FileInputStream and FileOutputStream. Following is an example which makes use of these two classes to copy an input file into an output file

Example

```
import java.io.*;
public class CopyFile
```

```
public static void main(String args[]) throws IOException {
    FileInputStream in = null;
    FileOutputStream out = null;
    try {
        in = new FileInputStream("input.txt");
        out = new FileOutputStream("output.txt");
        int c;
        while ((c = in.read()) != -1) {
            out.write(c);
        }
        finally {
            if (in != null) {
                in.close();
            }
            if (out != null) {
                out.close();
            }
        }
    }
    // Now let's have a file input.txt with the following content
}
```

This is test for copy file. As a next step, compile the above program and execute it, which will result in creating output.txt file with the same content as we have in input.txt. So let's put the above code in CopyFile.java file and do the following

*javac CopyFile.java*

**CopyFile** Character Streams Java Byte streams are used to perform input and output of 8-bit bytes, whereas Java Character streams are used to perform input and output for 16-bit unicode. Though there are many classes related to character streams but the most frequently used classes are, **FileReader** and **FileWriter**. Though internally **FileReader** uses **FileInputStream** and **FileWriter** uses **FileOutputStream** but here the major difference is that **FileReader** reads two bytes at a time and **FileWriter** writes two bytes at a time. We can re-write the above example, which makes the use of these two classes to copy an input file (having unicode characters) into an output file

Example

```
import java.io.*;
public class CopyFile {
    public static void main(String args[]) throws IOException {
        FileReader in = null;
        FileWriter out = null;
        try {
            in = new FileReader("input.txt");
            out = new FileWriter("output.txt");
            int c;
            while ((c = in.read()) != -1) {
                out.write(c);
            }
            finally {
                if (in != null) {
                    in.close();
                }
                if (out != null) {
                    out.close();
                }
            }
        }
        // Now let's have a file input.txt with the following content
    }
}
```

This is test for copy file. As a next step, compile the above program and execute it, which will result in creating output.txt file with the same content as we have in input.txt. So let's put the above code in CopyFile.java file and do the following

*javac CopyFile.java*

**CopyFile** Standard Streams All the programming languages provide support for standard I/O where the user's program can take input from a keyboard and then produce an output on the computer screen. If you are aware of C or C++ programming languages, then you must be aware of three standard devices **STDIN**, **STDOUT** and **STDERR**. Similarly, Java provides the following three standard streams

**Standard Input** This is used to feed the data to user's program and usually a keyboard is used as standard input stream and represented as **System.in**. **Standard Output** This is used to output the data produced by the user's program and usually a computer screen is used for standard output stream and represented as **System.out**. **Standard Error** This is used to output the error data produced by the user's program and usually a computer screen is used for standard error stream and represented as **System.err**. Following is a simple program, which creates **InputStreamReader** to read standard input stream until the user types a "q"

Example

```
import java.io.*;
public class ReadConsole {
    public static void main(String args[]) throws IOException {
        InputStreamReader cin = null;
        try {
            cin = new InputStreamReader(System.in);
            System.out.println("Enter characters, 'q' to quit.");
            char c;
            do {
                c = (char) cin.read();
                System.out.print(c);
            } while (c != 'q');
        }
    }
}
```

while(c != 'q'); finally if (cin != null) cin.close(); Let's keep the above code in ReadConsole.java file and try to compile and execute it as shown in the following program. This program continues to read and output the same character until we press 'q'

*javacReadConsole.java* java ReadConsole Enter characters, 'q' to quit. 1 1 e e q q Reading and Writing Files As described earlier, a stream can be defined as a sequence of data. The InputStream is used to read data from a source and the OutputStream is used for writing data to a destination.

Here is a hierarchy of classes to deal with Input and Output streams.

The two important streams are FileInputStream and FileOutputStream, which would be discussed in this tutorial.

**FileInputStream** This stream is used for reading data from the files. Objects can be created using the keyword new and there are several types of constructors available.

Following constructor takes a file name as a string to create an input stream object to read the file

InputStream f = new FileInputStream("C:/java/hello"); Following constructor takes a file object to create an input stream object to read the file. First we create a file object using File() method as follows

File f = new File("C:/java/hello"); InputStream f = new FileInputStream(f);

Once you have InputStream object in hand, then there is a list of helper methods which can be used to read to stream or to do other operations on the stream.

**Method** Description 1 public void close() throws IOException

This method closes the file output stream. Releases any system resources associated with the file. Throws an IOException.

2 protected void finalize()throws IOException

This method cleans up the connection to the file. Ensures that the close method of this file output stream is called when there are no more references to this stream. Throws an IOException.

3 public int read(int r)throws IOException

This method reads the specified byte of data from the InputStream. Returns an int. Returns the next byte of data and -1 will be returned if it's the end of the file.

4 public int read(byte[] r) throws IOException

This method reads r.length bytes from the input stream into an array. Returns the total number of bytes read. If it is the end of the file, -1 will be returned.

5 public int available() throws IOException

Gives the number of bytes that can be read from this file input stream. Returns an int.

There are other important input streams available, for more detail you can refer to the following links

ByteArrayInputStream DataInputStream FileOutputStream FileOutputStream is used to create a file and write data into it. The stream would create a file, if it doesn't already exist, before opening it for output.

Here are two constructors which can be used to create a FileOutputStream object.

Following constructor takes a file name as a string to create an input stream object to write the file

`OutputStream f = new FileOutputStream("C:/java/hello")` Following constructor takes a file object to create an output stream object to write the file. First, we create a file object using `File()` method as follows  
`File f = new File("C:/java/hello"); OutputStream f = new FileOutputStream(f);`  
 Once you have `OutputStream` object in hand, then there is a list of helper methods, which can be used to write to stream or to do other operations on the stream.

Method Description 1 `public void close()` throws `IOException`

This method closes the file output stream. Releases any system resources associated with the file. Throws an `IOException`.

2 protected void `finalize()` throws `IOException`

This method cleans up the connection to the file. Ensures that the close method of this file output stream is called when there are no more references to this stream. Throws an `IOException`.

3 `public void write(int w)` throws `IOException`

This methods writes the specified byte to the output stream.

4 `public void write(byte[] w)`

Writes `w.length` bytes from the mentioned byte array to the `OutputStream`.

There are other important output streams available, for more detail you can refer to the following links

`ByteArrayOutputStream` `DataOutputStream` Example

Following is the example to demonstrate `InputStream` and `OutputStream`

```
import java.io.*; public class FileStreamTest
```

```
public static void main(String args[])
```

```
try byte bWrite [] = {11,21,3,40,5}; OutputStream os = new FileOutputStream("test.txt");
```

```
for(int x = 0; x < bWrite.length ; x++) os.write( bWrite[x] ); // writes the bytes os.close();
```

```
InputStream is = new FileInputStream("test.txt"); int size = is.available();
```

```
for(int i = 0; i < size; i++) System.out.print((char)is.read() + " "); is.close();
```

```
catch(IOException e) System.out.print("Exception");
```

The above code would create file `test.txt` and would write given numbers in binary format. Same would be the output on the stdout screen.

**File Navigation and I/O** There are several other classes that we would be going through to get to know the basics of File Navigation and I/O.

**File Class** **FileReader Class** **FileWriter Class** **Directories in Java** A directory is a File which can contain a list of other files and directories. You use File object to create directories, to list down files available in a directory. For complete detail, check a list of all the methods which you can call on File object and what are related to directories.

**Creating Directories** There are two useful File utility methods, which can be used to create directories

The `mkdir( )` method creates a directory, returning true on success and false on failure. Failure indicates that the path specified in the File object already exists, or that the directory cannot be created because the entire path does not exist yet.

The `mkdirs()` method creates both a directory and all the parents of the directory.

Following example creates `"/tmp/user/java/bin"` directory

Example

```
import java.io.File; public class CreateDir
```

```
public static void main(String args[]) String dirname = "/tmp/user/java/bin";
File d = new File(dirname);
// Create directory now. d.mkdirs(); Compile and execute the above code to
create "/tmp/user/java/bin".
```

Note Java automatically takes care of path separators on UNIX and Windows as per conventions. If you use a forward slash (/) on a Windows version of Java, the path will still resolve correctly.

Listing Directories You can use `list()` method provided by File object to list down all the files and directories available in a directory as follows

Example

```
import java.io.File; public class ReadDir
public static void main(String[] args) File file = null; String[] paths;
try // create new file object file = new File("/tmp");
// array of files and directory paths = file.list();
// for each name in the path array for(String path:paths) // prints filename
and directory name System.out.println(path); catch(Exception e) // if any
error occurs e.printStackTrace(); This will produce the following result based
on the directories and files available in your /tmp directory
test1.txt test2.txt ReadDir.java ReadDir.class Related Readings "Java Files
And I/O". www.tutorialspoint.com. N.p., 2016. Web. 15 Dec. 2016.
```

## 6.6 Error Handling

An exception (or exceptional event) is a problem that arises during the execution of a program. When an Exception occurs the normal flow of the program is disrupted and the program/Application terminates abnormally, which is not recommended, therefore, these exceptions are to be handled.

An exception can occur for many different reasons. Following are some scenarios where an exception occurs.

A user has entered an invalid data. A file that needs to be opened cannot be found. A network connection has been lost in the middle of communications or the JVM has run out of memory. Some of these exceptions are caused by user error, others by programmer error, and others by physical resources that have failed in some manner.

Based on these, we have three categories of Exceptions. You need to understand them to know how exception handling works in Java.

Type of exceptions Checked Exception

A checked exception is an exception that occurs at the compile time, these are also called as compile time exceptions. These exceptions cannot simply be ignored at the time of compilation, the programmer should take care of (handle) these exceptions.

For example, if you use `FileReader` class in your program to read data from a file, if the file specified in its constructor doesn't exist, then a `FileNotFoundException` occurs, and the compiler prompts the programmer to handle the exception.

```
import java.io.File;
import java.io.FileReader;

public class FileNotFoundException_Demo {
```

```

public static void main(String args[]) {
    File file = new File("E://file.txt");
    FileReader fr = new FileReader(file);
}

```

If you try to compile the above program, you will get the following exceptions.

*C:\javacFileNotFoundDemo.java:8: error: unreported exception FileNotFoundException; must be caught or declared to be thrown*

Unchecked exceptions

An unchecked exception is an exception that occurs at the time of execution. These are also called as Runtime Exceptions. These include programming bugs, such as logic errors or improper use of an API. Runtime exceptions are ignored at the time of compilation.

For example, if you have declared an array of size 5 in your program, and trying to call the 6th element of the array then an `ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException` occurs.

```

public class UncheckedDemo

```

```

public static void main(String args[]) {
    int num[] = {1, 2, 3, 4};
    System.out.println(num[5]);
}

```

If you compile and execute the above program, you will get the following exception.

*Exception in thread "main" java.lang.ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException: 5 at UncheckedDemo.main(UncheckedDemo.java:8)*

These are not exceptions at all, but problems that arise beyond the control of the user or the programmer. Errors are typically ignored in your code because you can rarely do anything about an error. For example, if a stack overflow occurs, an error will arise. They are also ignored at the time of compilation.

**Exception Hierarchy** All exception classes are subtypes of the `java.lang.Exception` class. The exception class is a subclass of the `Throwable` class. Other than the exception class there is another subclass called `Error` which is derived from the `Throwable` class.

Errors are abnormal conditions that happen in case of severe failures, these are not handled by the Java programs. Errors are generated to indicate errors generated by the runtime environment. Example: JVM is out of memory. Normally, programs cannot recover from errors.

The `Exception` class has two main subclasses: `IOException` class and `RuntimeException` Class.

Following is a list of most common checked and unchecked Java's Built-in Exceptions

**Exceptions Methods** Following is the list of important methods available in the `Throwable` class.

- 1 `public String getMessage()` Returns a detailed message about the exception that has occurred. This message is initialized in the `Throwable` constructor.
- 2 `public Throwable getCause()` Returns the cause of the exception as represented by a `Throwable` object.
- 3 `public String toString()` Returns the name of the class concatenated with the result of `getMessage()`.
- 4 `public void printStackTrace()` Prints the result of `toString()` along with the stack trace to `System.err`, the error output stream.
- 5 `public StackTraceElement[] getStackTrace()` Returns an array containing each element on the stack trace. The element at index 0 represents

the top of the call stack, and the last element in the array represents the method at the bottom of the call stack.

**6 public Throwable fillInStackTrace()** Fills the stack trace of this Throwable object with the current stack trace, adding to any previous information in the stack trace.

**Catching Exceptions** A method catches an exception using a combination of the try and catch keywords. A try/catch block is placed around the code that might generate an exception. Code within a try/catch block is referred to as protected code, and the syntax for using try/catch looks like the following

**Syntax**

```
try // Protected code catch(ExceptionName e1) // Catch block
```

The code which is prone to exceptions is placed in the try block. When an exception occurs, that exception occurred is handled by catch block associated with it. Every try block should be immediately followed either by a catch block or finally block.

A catch statement involves declaring the type of exception you are trying to catch. If an exception occurs in protected code, the catch block (or blocks) that follows the try is checked. If the type of exception that occurred is listed in a catch block, the exception is passed to the catch block much as an argument is passed into a method parameter.

**Example**

The following is an array declared with 2 elements. Then the code tries to access the 3rd element of the array which throws an exception.

```
// File Name : ExcepTest.java import java.io.*;
public class ExcepTest
public static void main(String args[]) try int a[] = new int[2]; System.out.println("Access
element three : " + a[3]); catch(ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException e) Sys-
tem.out.println("Exception thrown : " + e); System.out.println("Out of the
block");
```

This will produce the following result

Exception thrown :java.lang.ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException: 3 Out of the block

**Multiple Catch Blocks** A try block can be followed by multiple catch blocks. The syntax for multiple catch blocks looks like the following

```
try // Protected code catch(ExceptionType1 e1) // Catch block catch(ExceptionType2
e2) // Catch block catch(ExceptionType3 e3) // Catch block
```

The previous statements demonstrate three catch blocks, but you can have any number of them after a single try. If an exception occurs in the protected code, the exception is thrown to the first catch block in the list. If the data type of the exception thrown matches ExceptionType1, it gets caught there. If not, the exception passes down to the second catch statement. This continues until the exception either is caught or falls through all catches, in which case the current method stops execution and the exception is thrown down to the previous method on the call stack.

**Example**

Here is code segment showing how to use multiple try/catch statements.

```
try file = new FileInputStream(fileName); x = (byte) file.read(); catch(IOException
i) i.printStackTrace(); return -1; catch(FileNotFoundException f) // Not valid!
f.printStackTrace(); return -1;
```

**Catching Multiple Type of Exceptions** Since Java 7, you can handle more than one exception using a single catch block, this feature simplifies the code. Here is how you would do it

```
catch (IOException|FileNotFoundException ex) logger.log(ex); throw ex;
```

**The Throws/Throw Keywords** If a method does not handle a checked exception, the



method must declare it using the throws keyword. The throws keyword appears at the end of a method's signature.

You can throw an exception, either a newly instantiated one or an exception that you just caught, by using the throw keyword.

Try to understand the difference between throws and throw keywords, throws is used to postpone the handling of a checked exception and throw is used to invoke an exception explicitly.

The following method declares that it throws a RemoteException

```
import java.io.*; public class className
public void deposit(double amount) throws RemoteException // Method im-
plementation throw new RemoteException(); // Remainder of class definition
A method can declare that it throws more than one exception, in which case
the exceptions are declared in a list separated by commas. For example, the
following method declares that it throws a RemoteException and an Insuffi-
```

```
cientFundsException
import java.io.*; public class className
```

```
public void withdraw(double amount) throws RemoteException, Insufficient-
FundsException // Method implementation // Remainder of class definition
The Finally Block The finally block follows a try block or a catch block. A finally
block of code always executes, irrespective of occurrence of an Exception.
```

Using a finally block allows you to run any cleanup-type statements that you want to execute, no matter what happens in the protected code.

A finally block appears at the end of the catch blocks and has the following syntax

Syntax

```
try // Protected code catch(ExceptionType1 e1) // Catch block catch(ExceptionType2
e2) // Catch block catch(ExceptionType3 e3) // Catch block finally // The
finally block always executes.
```

Example

```
public class ExceptTest
public static void main(String args[]) int a[] = new int[2]; try System.out.println("Access
element three :" + a[3]); catch(ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException e) Sys-
tem.out.println("Exception thrown :" + e); finally a[0] = 6; System.out.println("First
element value: " + a[0]); System.out.println("The finally statement is exe-
cuted"); This will produce the following result
```

```
Exception thrown :java.lang.ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException: 3 First ele-
ment value: 6 The finally statement is executed Note the following
```

A catch clause cannot exist without a try statement. It is not compulsory to have finally clauses whenever a try/catch block is present. The try block cannot be present without either catch clause or finally clause. Any code cannot be present in between the try, catch, finally blocks. The try-with-resources Generally, when we use any resources like streams, connections, etc. we have to close them explicitly using finally block. In the following program, we are reading data from a file using FileReader and we are closing it using finally block.

```
import java.io.File; import java.io.FileReader; import java.io.IOException;
public class ReadDataDemo
```

```
public static void main(String args[]) FileReader fr = null; try File file = new
File("file.txt"); fr = new FileReader(file); char [] a = new char[50]; fr.read(a);
// reads the content to the array for(char c : a) System.out.print(c); // prints
the characters one by one catch(IOException e) e.printStackTrace(); finally try
```

`fr.close(); catch(IOException ex) ex.printStackTrace();` try-with-resources, also referred as automatic resource management, is a new exception handling mechanism that was introduced in Java 7, which automatically closes the resources used within the try catch block.

To use this statement, you simply need to declare the required resources within the parenthesis, and the created resource will be closed automatically at the end of the block. Following is the syntax of try-with-resources statement.

Syntax

```
try(FileReader fr = new FileReader("file path")) // use the resource catch()
// body of catch Following is the program that reads the data in a file using
try-with-resources statement.
```

Example

```
import java.io.FileReader; import java.io.IOException;
public class Try_withDemo
public static void main(String args[]) try(FileReader fr = new FileReader("E://file.txt"))
char [] a = new char[50]; fr.read(a); // reads the content to the array for(char c
: a) System.out.print(c); // prints the characters one by one catch(IOException
e) e.printStackTrace(); Following points are to be kept in mind while working
with try-with-resources statement.
```

To use a class with try-with-resources statement it should implement Auto-Closeable interface and the `close()` method of it gets invoked automatically at runtime. You can declare more than one class in try-with-resources statement. While you declare multiple classes in the try block of try-with-resources statement these classes are closed in reverse order. Except the declaration of resources within the parenthesis everything is the same as normal try/catch block of a try block. The resource declared in try gets instantiated just before the start of the try-block. The resource declared at the try block is implicitly declared as final. User-defined Exceptions You can create your own exceptions in Java. Keep the following points in mind when writing your own exception classes

All exceptions must be a child of Throwable. If you want to write a checked exception that is automatically enforced by the Handle or Declare Rule, you need to extend the Exception class. If you want to write a runtime exception, you need to extend the RuntimeException class. We can define our own Exception class as below

class MyException extends Exception You just need to extend the predefined Exception class to create your own Exception. These are considered to be checked exceptions. The following InsufficientFundsException class is a user-defined exception that extends the Exception class, making it a checked exception. An exception class is like any other class, containing useful fields and methods.

Example

```
// File Name InsufficientFundsException.java import java.io.*;
public class InsufficientFundsException extends Exception private double amount;
public InsufficientFundsException(double amount) this.amount = amount;
public double getAmount() return amount; To demonstrate using our user-
defined exception, the following CheckingAccount class contains a withdraw()
method that throws an InsufficientFundsException.
// File Name CheckingAccount.java import java.io.*;
public class CheckingAccount private double balance; private int number;
public CheckingAccount(int number) this.number = number;
```

```

public void deposit(double amount) balance += amount;
public void withdraw(double amount) throws InsufficientFundsException if(amount
<= balance) balance -= amount; else double needs = amount - balance; throw
new InsufficientFundsException(needs);
public double getBalance() return balance;
public int getNumber() return number;

```

The following BankDemo program demonstrates invoking the deposit() and withdraw() methods of CheckingAccount.

```

// File Name BankDemo.java
public class BankDemo
{
    public static void main(String [] args)
    {
        CheckingAccount c = new CheckingAccount(101);
        System.out.println("Depositing 500...");
        c.deposit(500.00);
        try
        {
            System.out.println("100...");
            c.withdraw(100.00);
            System.out.println("600...");
            c.withdraw(600.00);
        }
        catch (InsufficientFundsException e)
        {
            System.out.println("Sorry, but you are short " + e.getAmount());
            e.printStackTrace();
        }
    }
}

```

Compile all the above three files and run BankDemo.

Output

Depositing 500...

Withdrawing 100...

Withdrawing 600...*Sorry, but you are short 200.0* InsufficientFundsException at  
CheckingAccount.withdraw(CheckingAccount.java:25) at BankDemo.main(BankDemo.java:13)

Common Exceptions In Java, it is possible to define two categories of Exceptions and Errors.

JVM Exceptions These are exceptions/errors that are exclusively or logically thrown by the JVM. Examples: NullPointerException, ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException, ClassCastException. Programmatic Exceptions These exceptions are thrown explicitly by the application or the API programmers. Examples: IllegalArgumentException, IllegalStateException. Suggested Readings "Java Exceptions". 2016. www.Tutorialspoint.Com. [https://www.tutorialspoint.com/java/java\\_exceptions.htm](https://www.tutorialspoint.com/java/java_exceptions.htm).

## 6.7 Logging

Log4j log4j is a reliable, fast and flexible logging framework (APIs) written in Java, which is distributed under the Apache Software License. log4j is a popular logging package written in Java. log4j has been ported to the C, C++, C, Perl, Python, Ruby, and Eiffel languages.

log4j is highly configurable through external configuration files at runtime. It views the logging process in terms of levels of priorities and offers mechanisms to direct logging information to a great variety of destinations, such as a database, file, console, UNIX Syslog, etc.

log4j has three main components:

loggers: Responsible for capturing logging information. appenders: Responsible for publishing logging information to various preferred destinations. layouts: Responsible for formatting logging information in different styles. log4j features It is thread-safe. It is optimized for speed. It is based on a named logger hierarchy. It supports multiple output appenders per logger. It supports internationalization. It is not restricted to a predefined set of facilities. Logging behavior can be set at runtime using a configuration file. It is designed to handle Java Exceptions from the start. It uses multiple levels, namely ALL, TRACE, DEBUG, INFO, WARN, ERROR and FATAL. The format of the log output can be easily changed by extending the Layout class. The target of the log output

as well as the writing strategy can be altered by implementations of the Appender interface. It is fail-stop. However, although it certainly strives to ensure delivery, log4j does not guarantee that each log statement will be delivered to its destination. Example Step 1: Add log4j dependency to your build.gradle file compile group: 'log4j', name: 'log4j', version: '1.2.17' Step 2: Add log configuration in main/resources/log4j.properties

Set root logger level to DEBUG and its only appender to A1. log4j.rootLogger=DEBUG, A1

A1 is set to be a ConsoleAppender. log4j.appender.A1=org.apache.log4j.ConsoleAppender

A1 uses PatternLayout. log4j.appender.A1.layout=org.apache.log4j.PatternLayout

log4j.appender.A1.layout.ConversionPattern=

Print only messages of level WARN or above in the package com.foo. log4j.logger.com.foo=WARN

Here is another configuration file that uses multiple appenders:

log4j.rootLogger=debug, stdout, R

log4j.appender.stdout=org.apache.log4j.ConsoleAppender log4j.appender.stdout.layout=org.apache.log4j.Pat

tern to output the caller's file name and line number. log4j.appender.stdout.layout.ConversionPattern=

log4j.appender.R=org.apache.log4j.RollingFileAppender log4j.appender.R.File=example.log

log4j.appender.R.MaxFileSize=100KB Keep one backup file log4j.appender.R.MaxBackupIndex=1

log4j.appender.R.layout=org.apache.log4j.PatternLayout log4j.appender.R.layout.ConversionPattern=Step

3: Sample log4j program

package logging;

import org.apache.log4j.Logger;

public class LoggingDemo { public static void main(String[] args) { final Log-

ger logger = Logger.getLogger(LoggingDemo.class); logger.debug("debug state-

ment"); logger.info("info statement"); logger.error("error statement"); Output

DEBUG [main] (LoggingDemo.java:10) - debug statement INFO [main] (Log-

gingDemo.java:11) - info statement ERROR [main] (LoggingDemo.java:12) - er-

ror statement Suggested Readings "Log4j Tutorial". 2016. www.tutorialspoint.com.

<http://www.tutorialspoint.com/log4j/>. "Java Logging". 2016. tutorials.jenkov.com.

<http://tutorials.jenkov.com/java-logging/index.html>.

## 6.8 IDE

Java: IDE IntelliJ 1. Project Manager 2. Search Replace 3. Navigation 4.

Formatting 5. Debugging 6. Build Release 7. Git Integration 1. Project

Manager 1.1 Create New Project

1.2 Import Maven Project

<https://www.jetbrains.com/help/idea/2016.1/importing-project-from-maven-model.html>

2. Search Replace Global Search Shift Shift 3. Navigation Next/Previous Error

F2 / Shift + F2 4. Formatting Auto Format Ctrl + Alt + L

## 6.9 Package Manager

Java: Package Manager Gradle

Create your first project with gradle Step 1: Create new project folder

mkdir gradle\_sampleStep2 : Make folder structure

gradle init -type java-library Step 3: Import to IntelliJ

Open IntelliJ, click File > New... > Project From Existing Sources... Plugins

Application plugin Usages

1. Using the application plugin

Add this line in build.gradle

apply plugin: 'application' 2. Configure the application main class

mainClassName = "org.gradle.sample.Main"

## 6.10 Build Tool

Java: Build Tool Apache Ant

Apache Ant is a Java library and command-line tool whose mission is to drive processes described in build files as targets and extension points dependent upon each other. The main known usage of Ant is the build of Java applications. Ant supplies a number of built-in tasks allowing to compile, assemble, test and run Java applications. Ant can also be used effectively to build non Java applications, for instance C or C++ applications. More generally, Ant can be used to pilot any type of process which can be described in terms of targets and tasks. 1

Install Ant Download and extract Apache Ant 1.9.6

wget http://mirrors.viethosting.vn/apache//ant/binaries/apache-ant-1.9.6-bin.tar.gz

tar -xzf apache-ant-1.9.6-bin.tar.gz Set path to ant folder

Build Ant through proxy Requirement: 1.9.5+

Add the following lines into build.xml

```
<target name="ivy-init" depends="ivy-proxy, ivy-probe-antlib, ivy-init-antlib"
description="-> initialise Ivy settings"> <ivy:settings file="ivy.dir/ivysettings.xml" / ><
/target >< targetname = "ivy-proxy" description = "--> ProxyIvysettings" ><
propertyname = "proxy.host" value = "proxy.com" / >< propertyname =
"proxy.port" value = "8080" / >< propertyname = "proxy.user" value =
"user" / >< propertyname = "proxy.password" value = "password" / ><
setproxyproxyhost = "proxy.host" proxyport="proxy.port" proxyuser = "proxy.user"
proxypassword="proxy.password" / >< /target > ApacheAnt
```

## 6.11 Production

Java: Production (Docker) Production with java

Base Image: [java]/java

Docker Folder

your-app/ app bin your\_app.shlibDockerfilerun.shDockerfile

FROM java:7

COPY run.sh run.sh run.sh

cd /app/bin chmod u+x your\_app.sh./your\_app.shCompose

service: build: ./your\_appcommand : 'bashrun.sh'

## Chương 7

# PHP

PHP là ngôn ngữ lập trình web dominate tất cả các anh tài khác mà (chắc là) chỉ dụi đi khi mô hình REST xuất hiện. Nhớ lần đầu gặp bạn Laravel mà cảm giác cuộc đời sang trang.

Cuối tuần này lại phải xem làm sao cài được xdebug vào PHPStorm cho thằng em tập tành lập trình. Haizzz

### 7.1 Tương tác với cơ sở dữ liệu

Liệt kê danh sách các bản ghi trong bảng groups

```
$sql = "SELECT * FROM `groups`";  
$groups = mysqli_query($conn, $sql);
```

Xóa một bản ghi trong bảng groups

```
$sql = "DELETE FROM `groups` WHERE id = `5`";  
mysqli_query($conn, $sql);
```

### 7.2 Cài đặt debug trong PHPStorm với Windows

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=mEJ21RB0F14>

(1) XAMPP

- Download XAMPP (cho PHP 7.1.x - do XDebug chưa chính thức hỗ trợ 7.2.0) <https://www.apachefriends.org/xampp-files/7.1.12/xampp-win32-7.1.12-0-VC14-installer.exe> - Install XAMPP xampp-win32-7.1.12-0-VC14-installer.exe
- Truy cập vào địa chỉ <http://localhost/dashboard/phpinfo.php> để kiểm tra cài đặt đã thành công chưa

(2) Tải và cài đặt PHPStorm

- Download PHPStorm <https://download-cf.jetbrains.com/webide/PhpStorm-2017.3.2.exe> - Install PHPStorm

(3) Tạo một web project trong PHPStorm - Chọn interpreter trỏ đến PHP trong xampp

(4) Viết một chương trình add.php

```
““php a = 2;b = 3; c =a + b;  
echo c;““
```

Click vào ‘add.php’, chọn Debug, PHPStorm sẽ báo chưa cài XDebug

(5) Cài đặt XDebug theo hướng dẫn tại <https://gist.github.com/odan/1abe76d373a9cbb15bed>

Click vào add.php, chọn Debug

(6) Cài đặt XDebug với PHPStorm Marklets Vào trang <https://www.jetbrains.com/phpstorm/marklets/>

Trong phần Zend Debugger - chọn cổng 9000 - IP: 127.0.0.1 Nhấn nút Generate Bookmark các link `“Start debugger“`, `“Stop debugger“` lên trình duyệt

(7) Debug PHP từ trình duyệt

\* Vào trang <http://localhost/untitled/add.php> \* Click vào bookmark Start debugger \* Trong PHPStorm, nhấn vào biểu tượng `“Start Listening for PHP Debug Connections“` \* Đặt breakpoint tại dòng thứ 5 \* Refresh lại trang <http://localhost/untitled/add.php>, lúc này, breakpoint sẽ dừng ở dòng 5

### 7.3 Cấu hình remote debug trong docker container

Kiểm tra xdebug đã chạy chính xác

```
tcpdump -i any port 9000
```

Chú ý: Chẳng hiểu tại sao tcpflow lại không nghe được package. Hic. Mất nguyên buổi sáng.

## Chương 8

# R

View online <http://magizbox.com/training/r/site/>

R is a programming language and software environment for statistical computing and graphics supported by the R Foundation for Statistical Computing. The R language is widely used among statisticians and data miners for developing statistical software and data analysis. Polls, surveys of data miners, and studies of scholarly literature databases show that R's popularity has increased substantially in recent years.

R is a GNU package. The source code for the R software environment is written primarily in C, Fortran, and R. R is freely available under the GNU General Public License, and pre-compiled binary versions are provided for various operating systems. While R has a command line interface, there are several graphical front-ends available. [

R was created by Ross Ihaka and Robert Gentleman at the University of Auckland, New Zealand, and is currently developed by the R Development Core Team, of which Chambers is a member. R is named partly after the first names of the first two R authors and partly as a play on the name of S. The project was conceived in 1992, with an initial version released in 1995 and a stable beta version in 2000.

### 8.1 R Courses

I'm going to give a course about R, but it's take a lot of time to finish. I will give at least one lesson a week. You can track it here

(next) Data visualization with R Everything you need to know about R Read and Write Data Importing data from JSON into R Manipulate Data Manipulate String and Datetime Actually, beside my works, there are a lot of excellent and free courses in the internet for you

Beginner

tryr from codeschool

tryr is a course for beginners created by codeschool. This course contains R Syntax, Vectors, Matrices, Summary Statistics, Factors, Data Frames and Working With Real-World Data sections.

Introduction to R from datacamp



This course created by datacamp - a "online learning platform that focuses on building the best learning experience for Data Science in specific". Here is the introduction about this course quoted from authors "In this introduction to R, you will master the basics of this beautiful open source language such as factors, lists and data frames. With the knowledge gained in this course, you will be ready to undertake your first very own data analysis." It contains 6 chapters: Intro to basics, Vectors, Matrices, Factors, Data frames and Lists. Intermediate and Advanced

R Programming of Johns Hopkins University in coursera Learn how to program in R and how to use R for effective data analysis. This is the second course in the Johns Hopkins Data Science Specialization. It's a 4-weeks course, contains: Overview of R, R data types and objects, reading and writing data (week 1), Control structures, functions, scoping rules, dates and times (week 2), Loop functions, debugging tools (week 3) and Simulation, code profiling (week 4)

An Introduction to Statistical Learning with Applications in R of two experts Trevor Hastie and Rob Tibshirani from Standfor Universtity

This course was introduced by Kevin Markham in r-blogger in september 2014. "I found it to be an excellent course in statistical learning (also known as "machine learning"), largely due to the high quality of both the textbook and the video lectures. And as an R user, it was extremely helpful that they included R code to demonstrate most of the techniques described in the book." In this course you will learn about Statistical Learning, Linear Regression, Classification, Resampling Methods, Linear Model Selection and Regularization, Moving Beyond Linearity, Tree-Based Methods, Support Vector Machines and Unsupervised Learning

Cheatsheet – Python R codes for common Machine Learning Algorithms

## 8.2 Everything you need to know about R

In this post I maintain all useful references for someone want to write nice R code.

Google's R Style Guide at google R is a high-level programming language used primarily for statistical computing and graphics. The goal of the R Programming Style Guide is to make our R code easier to read, share, and verify. The rules below were designed in collaboration with the entire R user community at Google.

Installing R packages at r-bloggers <https://www.r-bloggers.com/installing-r-packages/>

This is a short post giving steps on how to actually install R packages.

Managing your projects in a reproducible fashion at nicercode <https://nicercode.github.io/blog/2013-04-05-projects/>

Managing your projects in a reproducible fashion doesn't just make your science reproducible, it makes your life easier.

Creating R Packages <http://cran.r-project.org/doc/contrib/Leisch-CreatingPackages.pdf>

This tutorial gives a practical introduction to creating R packages. We discuss how object oriented programming and S formulas can be used to give R code the usual look and feel, how to start a package from a collection of R functions, and how to test the code once the package has been created. As running example we

use functions for standard linear regression analysis which are developed from scratch

How to write trycatch in R <http://stackoverflow.com/questions/12193779/how-to-write-trycatch-in-r>

Welcome to the R world

Debugging with RStudio <https://support.rstudio.com/hc/en-us/articles/200713843-Debugging-with-RStudio>

RStudio includes a visual debugger that can help you understand code and find bugs.

Optimising code <http://adv-r.had.co.nz/Profiling.html>performance-profiling

Optimising code to make it run faster is an iterative process:

Find the biggest bottleneck (the slowest part of your code). Try to eliminate it (you may not succeed but that's ok). Repeat until your code is "fast enough."

This sounds easy, but it's not.

## Chương 9

# Scala

View online <http://magizbox.com/training/scala/site/>

Scala is a programming language for general software applications. Scala has full support for functional programming and a very strong static type system. This allows programs written in Scala to be very concise and thus smaller in size than other general-purpose programming languages. Many of Scala's design decisions were inspired by criticism of the shortcomings of Java.

### 9.1 Installation

Windows Step 1. Download scala from <http://www.scala-lang.org/downloads>

Step 2. Run installer

Step 3. Verify

Open terminal and check which version of scala

*scala - version*

Scala code runner version 2.11.5 – Copyright 2002-2013, LAMP/EPFL

### 9.2 IDE

I use IntelliJ IDEA 2016.2 as scala IDE

IntelliJ IDEA Installation Guide Online IDE You can use tryscala as an online IDE

<http://www.tryscala.com/>

### 9.3 Basic Syntax

Print print > println("Hello, Scala!");

Hello, Scala! Conditional if Statement

if statement consists of a Boolean expression followed by one or more statements.

var x = 10; if( x < 20 ) println("This is if statement"); if-else Statement

var x = 30 if( x < 20 ) println("This is if statement"); else println("This is else statement"); if-else if-else Statement

var x = 30; if( x == 10 ) println("Value of X is 10"); else if( x == 20 ) println("Value of X is 20"); else if( x == 30 ) println("Value of X is 30");

else println("This is else statement"); Coding Convention 1 Keep It Simple

Don't pack too much in one expression /\* \* It's amazing what you can get done in a single statement \* But that does not mean you have to do it. \*/

```
jp.getRawClasspath.filter(_.getEntryKind == IClasspathEntry.CPE_SOURCE).iterator.flatMap(entry =>
  flatten(ResourcesPlugin.getWorkspace.getRoot.findMember(entry.getPath))) Refactor There's a lot of val
jp.getRawClasspath.filter(_.getEntryKind == IClasspathEntry.CPE_SOURCE) def workspaceRoot =
  ResourcesPlugin.getWorkspace.getRoot def filesOfEntry(entry : Set[File]) =
  flatten(workspaceRoot.findMember(entry.getPath).sources.iterator.flatMap(filesOfEntryPreferFunction))
```

use vals, not vars use recursions or combinators, not loops use immutable collections concentrate on transformations, not CRUD When to deviate from the default - sometimes, mutable gives better performance. - sometimes (but not that often!) it adds convenience

But don't diabolize local state Why does mutable state lead to complexity?

It interacts with different program parts in ways that are hard to track.

=> Local state is less harmful than global state.

"Var" Shortcuts var interfaces = parseClassHeader()... if (isAnnotation) interfaces += ClassFileAnnotation Refactor

```
val parsedIfaces = parseClassHeader() val interfaces = if (isAnnotation) parsedIfaces + ClassFileAnnotation else parsedIfaces Martin Odersky - Scala with Style
```

## Chương 10

# NodeJS

View online <http://magizbox.com/training/nodejs/site/>

Node.js is an open-source, cross-platform JavaScript runtime environment for developing a diverse variety of tools and applications. Although Node.js is not a JavaScript framework, many of its basic modules are written in JavaScript, and developers can write new modules in JavaScript. The runtime environment interprets JavaScript using Google's V8 JavaScript engine. Node.js has an event-driven architecture capable of asynchronous I/O. These design choices aim to optimize throughput and scalability in Web applications with many input/output operations, as well as for real-time Web applications (e.g., real-time communication programs and browser games). Node.js was originally written in 2009 by Ryan Dahl. The initial release supported only Linux. Its development and maintenance was led by Dahl and later sponsored by Joyent.

### 10.1 Get Started

**Installation Windows** In this section I will show you how to Install Node.js® and NPM on Windows

**Prerequisites** Node isn't a program that you simply launch like Word or Photoshop: you won't find it pinned to the taskbar or in your list of Apps. To use Node you must type command-line instructions, so you need to be comfortable with (or at least know how to start) a command-line tool like the Windows Command Prompt, PowerShell, Cygwin, or the Git shell (which is installed along with Github for Windows).

**Installation Overview** Installing Node and NPM is pretty straightforward using the installer package available from the Node.js® web site.

**Installation Steps** 1. Download the Windows installer from the Nodes.js® web site.

2. Run the installer (the .msi file you downloaded in the previous step.)

3. Follow the prompts in the installer (Accept the license agreement, click the NEXT button a bunch of times and accept the default installation settings).

4. Restart your computer. You won't be able to run Node.js® until you restart your computer.

**Ubuntu** In this section I will show you how to Install Node.js® and NPM on Ubuntu

update os sudo apt-get update install node with apt-get sudo apt-get install nodejs install npm with apt-get sudo apt-get install npm Test Make sure you have Node and NPM installed by running simple commands to see what version of each is installed and to run a simple test program:

```
> node -v v6.9.5
```

```
> npm -v 3.10.10 Suggested Readings How To Install Node.js on an Ubuntu 14.04 server How to Install Node.js® and NPM on Windows
```

## 10.2 Basic Syntax

```
Print console.log("Hello World"); Conditional if(you_smart)console.log("learnnodejs");elseconsole.log("goaway")
0; count < 10; count++)console.log(count);Functionfunctionprint_info(arg1, arg2)console.log(arg1); console.log(arg2);
```

## 10.3 File System IO

File System IO Node implements File I/O using simple wrappers around standard POSIX functions. The Node File System (fs) module can be imported using the following syntax

```
var fs = require("fs") Synchronous vs Asynchronous Every method in the fs module has synchronous as well as asynchronous forms. Asynchronous methods take the last parameter as the completion function callback and the first parameter of the callback function as error. It is better to use an asynchronous method instead of a synchronous method, as the former never blocks a program during its execution, whereas the second one does.
```

Example

Create a text file named input.txt with the following content

Tutorials Point is giving self learning content to teach the world in simple and easy way!!!! Let us create a js file named main.js with the following code

```
var fs = require("fs");
// Asynchronous read fs.readFile('input.txt', function (err, data) if (err) return console.error(err); console.log("Asynchronous read: " + data.toString()); );
// Synchronous read var data = fs.readFileSync('input.txt'); console.log("Synchronous read: " + data.toString());
console.log("Program Ended"); Now run the main.js to see the result
nodemain.jsVerifytheOutput.
```

Synchronous read: Tutorials Point is giving self learning content to teach the world in simple and easy way!!!!

Program Ended Asynchronous read: Tutorials Point is giving self learning content to teach the world in simple and easy way!!!! The following sections in this chapter provide a set of good examples on major File I/O methods. Open a File Syntax

Following is the syntax of the method to open a file in asynchronous mode

```
fs.open(path, flags[, mode], callback) Parameters
```

Here is the description of the parameters used

path This is the string having file name including path. flags Flags indicate the behavior of the file to be opened. All possible values have been mentioned below. mode It sets the file mode (permission and sticky bits), but only if the

file was created. It defaults to 0666, readable and writeable. callback This is the callback function which gets two arguments (err, fd). Flags

Flags for read/write operations are

r - Open file for reading. An exception occurs if the file does not exist. r+ - Open file for reading and writing. An exception occurs if the file does not exist. rs - Open file for reading in synchronous mode. rs+ - Open file for reading and writing, asking the OS to open it synchronously. See notes for 'rs' about using this with caution. w - Open file for writing. The file is created (if it does not exist) or truncated (if it exists). wx - Like 'w' but fails if the path exists. w+ - Open file for reading and writing. The file is created (if it does not exist) or truncated (if it exists). wx+ - Like 'w+' but fails if path exists. a - Open file for appending. The file is created if it does not exist. ax - Like 'a' but fails if the path exists. a+ - Open file for reading and appending. The file is created if it does not exist. ax+ - Like 'a+' but fails if the the path exists. Example

Let us create a js file named main.js having the following code to open a file input.txt for reading and writing.

```
var fs = require("fs");
// Asynchronous - Opening File console.log("Going to open file!"); fs.open('input.txt',
'r+', function(err, fd) { if (err) return console.error(err); console.log("File
opened successfully!"); }); Now run the main.js to see the result
nodemain.jsVerifytheOutput.
```

Going to open file! File opened successfully! Get File Information Syntax

Following is the syntax of the method to get the information about a file

fs.stat(path, callback) Parameters

Here is the description of the parameters used

path This is the string having file name including path. callback This is the callback function which gets two arguments (err, stats) where stats is an object of fs.Stats type which is printed below in the example. Apart from the important attributes which are printed below in the example, there are several useful methods available in fs.Stats class which can be used to check file type. These methods are given in the following table.

Method Description

stats.isFile() - Returns true if file type of a simple file. stats.isDirectory() - Returns true if file type of a directory. stats.isBlockDevice() - Returns true if file type of a block device. stats.isCharacterDevice() - Returns true if file type of a character device. stats.isSymbolicLink() - Returns true if file type of a symbolic link. stats.isFIFO() - Returns true if file type of a FIFO. stats.isSocket() - Returns true if file type of a socket. Example

Let us create a js file named main.js with the following code

```
var fs = require("fs");
console.log("Going to get file info!"); fs.stat('input.txt', function (err, stats)
if (err) return console.error(err); console.log(stats); console.log("Got file info
successfully!");
// Check file type console.log("isFile ? " + stats.isFile()); console.log("isDirectory
? " + stats.isDirectory()); ); Now run the main.js to see the result
nodemain.jsVerifytheOutput.
```

Going to get file info! dev: 1792, mode: 33188, nlink: 1, uid: 48, gid: 48, rdev: 0, blksize: 4096, ino: 4318127, size: 97, blocks: 8, atime: Sun Mar 22 2015 13:40:00 GMT-0500 (CDT), mtime: Sun Mar 22 2015 13:40:57 GMT-0500 (CDT), ctime:

Sun Mar 22 2015 13:40:57 GMT-0500 (CDT) Got file info successfully! isFile ? true isDirectory ? false Writing a File Syntax

Following is the syntax of one of the methods to write into a file

`fs.writeFile(filename, data[, options], callback)` This method will over-write the file if the file already exists. If you want to write into an existing file then you should use another method available.

Parameters

Here is the description of the parameters used

`path` This is the string having the file name including path. `data` This is the String or Buffer to be written into the file. `options` The third parameter is an object which will hold encoding, mode, flag. By default. encoding is utf8, mode is octal value 0666. and flag is 'w' `callback` This is the callback function which gets a single parameter `err` that returns an error in case of any writing error.

Example

Let us create a js file named `main.js` having the following code

```
var fs = require("fs");
console.log("Going to write into existing file"); fs.writeFile('input.txt', 'Simply
Easy Learning!', function(err) { if (err) return console.error(err);
console.log("Data written successfully!"); console.log("Let's read newly writ-
ten data"); fs.readFile('input.txt', function (err, data) { if (err) return con-
sole.error(err); console.log("Asynchronous read: " + data.toString()); }); }); Now
run the main.js to see the result
```

*nodemain.jsVerifytheOutput.*

Going to write into existing file Data written successfully! Let's read newly written data Asynchronous read: Simply Easy Learning! Reading a File Syntax

Following is the syntax of one of the methods to read from a file

`fs.read(fd, buffer, offset, length, position, callback)` This method will use file descriptor to read the file. If you want to read the file directly using the file name, then you should use another method available.

Parameters

Here is the description of the parameters used

`fd` This is the file descriptor returned by `fs.open()`. `buffer` This is the buffer that the data will be written to. `offset` This is the offset in the buffer to start writing at. `length` This is an integer specifying the number of bytes to read. `position` This is an integer specifying where to begin reading from in the file. \* If position is null, data will be read from the current file position. `callback` This is the callback function which gets the three arguments, (`err`, `bytesRead`, `buffer`). Example

Let us create a js file named `main.js` with the following code

```
var fs = require("fs"); var buf = new Buffer(1024);
console.log("Going to open an existing file"); fs.open('input.txt', 'r+', func-
tion(err, fd) { if (err) return console.error(err); console.log("File opened success-
fully!"); console.log("Going to read the file"); fs.read(fd, buf, 0, buf.length, 0,
function(err, bytes) { if (err) console.log(err); console.log(bytes + " bytes read");
// Print only read bytes to avoid junk. if(bytes > 0) console.log(buf.slice(0,
bytes).toString()); }); }); Now run the main.js to see the result
```

*nodemain.jsVerifytheOutput.*

Going to open an existing file File opened successfully! Going to read the file 97 bytes read Tutorials Point is giving self learning content to teach the world in simple and easy way!!!! Closing a File Syntax



Following is the syntax to close an opened file

`fs.close(fd, callback)` Parameters

Here is the description of the parameters used

`fd` This is the file descriptor returned by file `fs.open()` method. `callback` This is the callback function. No arguments other than a possible exception are given to the completion callback. Example Let us create a js file named `main.js` having the following code

```
var fs = require("fs"); var buf = new Buffer(1024);
console.log("Going to open an existing file"); fs.open('input.txt', 'r+', function(err, fd) { if (err) return console.error(err); console.log("File opened successfully!"); console.log("Going to read the file");
fs.read(fd, buf, 0, buf.length, 0, function(err, bytes) { if (err) console.log(err);
// Print only read bytes to avoid junk. if (bytes > 0) console.log(buf.slice(0, bytes).toString());
// Close the opened file. fs.close(fd, function(err) { if (err) console.log(err); console.log("File closed successfully."); }); }); }); Now run the main.js to see the result
nodemain.jsVerifytheOutput.
```

Going to open an existing file File opened successfully! Going to read the file  
Tutorials Point is giving self learning content to teach the world in simple and easy way!!!!

File closed successfully. Truncate a File Syntax

Following is the syntax of the method to truncate an opened file

`fs.ftruncate(fd, len, callback)` Parameters

Here is the description of the parameters used

`fd` This is the file descriptor returned by `fs.open()`. `len` This is the length of the file after which the file will be truncated. `callback` This is the callback function. No arguments other than a possible exception are given to the completion callback. Example

Let us create a js file named `main.js` having the following code

```
var fs = require("fs"); var buf = new Buffer(1024);
console.log("Going to open an existing file"); fs.open('input.txt', 'r+', function(err, fd) { if (err) return console.error(err); console.log("File opened successfully!"); console.log("Going to truncate the file after 10 bytes");
// Truncate the opened file. fs.ftruncate(fd, 10, function(err) { if (err) console.log(err); console.log("File truncated successfully."); console.log("Going to read the same file");
fs.read(fd, buf, 0, buf.length, 0, function(err, bytes) { if (err) console.log(err);
// Print only read bytes to avoid junk. if (bytes > 0) console.log(buf.slice(0, bytes).toString());
// Close the opened file. fs.close(fd, function(err) { if (err) console.log(err); console.log("File closed successfully."); }); }); }); Now run the main.js to see the result
nodemain.jsVerifytheOutput.
```

Going to open an existing file File opened successfully! Going to truncate the file after 10 bytes File truncated successfully. Going to read the same file  
Tutorials File closed successfully. Delete a File Syntax Following is the syntax of the method to delete a file

`fs.unlink(path, callback)` Parameters

Here is the description of the parameters used

path This is the file name including path. callback This is the callback function No arguments other than a possible exception are given to the completion callback. Example

Let us create a js file named main.js having the following code

```
var fs = require("fs");
console.log("Going to delete an existing file"); fs.unlink('input.txt', function(err)
if (err) return console.error(err); console.log("File deleted successfully!"); );
Now run the main.js to see the result
```

*nodemain.jsVerifytheOutput.*

Going to delete an existing file File deleted successfully! Create a Directory Syntax

Following is the syntax of the method to create a directory

fs.mkdir(path[, mode], callback) Parameters

Here is the description of the parameters used

path This is the directory name including path. mode This is the directory permission to be set. Defaults to 0777. callback This is the callback function No arguments other than a possible exception are given to the completion callback. Example

Let us create a js file named main.js having the following code

```
var fs = require("fs");
console.log("Going to create directory /tmp/test"); fs.mkdir('/tmp/test',function(err)
if (err) return console.error(err); console.log("Directory created successfully!");
); Now run the main.js to see the result
```

*nodemain.jsVerifytheOutput.*

Going to create directory /tmp/test Directory created successfully! Read a Directory Syntax

Following is the syntax of the method to read a directory

fs.readdir(path, callback) Parameters

Here is the description of the parameters used

path This is the directory name including path. callback This is the callback function which gets two arguments (err, files) where files is an array of the names of the files in the directory excluding '.' and '..'. Example

Let us create a js file named main.js having the following code

```
var fs = require("fs");
console.log("Going to read directory /tmp"); fs.readdir("/tmp/",function(err,
files) if (err) return console.error(err); files.forEach( function (file) console.log(
file ); ); ); Now run the main.js to see the result
```

*nodemain.jsVerifytheOutput.*

Going to read directory /tmp ccmzx99o.out ccyCSbkF.out employee.ser hspferdata<sub>a</sub>pachetesttest.txtRemoved

Following is the syntax of the method to remove a directory

fs.rmdir(path, callback) Parameters

Here is the description of the parameters used

path This is the directory name including path. callback This is the callback function No arguments other than a possible exception are given to the completion callback. Example

Let us create a js file named main.js having the following code

```
var fs = require("fs");
console.log("Going to delete directory /tmp/test"); fs.rmdir("/tmp/test",function(err)
if (err) return console.error(err); console.log("Going to read directory /tmp");
```

```
fs.readdir("/tmp/",function(err, files) if (err) return console.error(err); files.forEach(
function (file) console.log( file ); ); ); ); Now run the main.js to see the result
nodemain.jsVerifytheOutput.
```

Going to read directory /tmp ccmzx99o.out ccyCSbkF.out employee.ser hsuperfdata<sub>a</sub>pachetest.txt

## 10.4 Package Manager

Package Manager: NPM Node Package Manager (NPM) provides two main functionalities

Online repositories for node.js packages/modules which are searchable on search.nodejs.org

Command line utility to install Node.js packages, do version management and dependency management of Node.js packages. NPM comes bundled with Node.js installables after v0.6.3 version. To verify the same, open console and type the following command and see the result

```
npm--version2.7.1IfyouarerunninganoldversionofNPMthenitisquiteeasytoupdateittothelatestversion.
sudonpminstallnpm-g/usr/bin/npm->/usr/lib/node_modules/npm/bin/npm-
cli.jsnpm@2.7.1/usr/lib/node_modules/npmInstallingModulesThereisasimplesyntaxtoinstallanyNode.js
npminstall<ModuleName>Forexample,followingisthecommandtoinstallafamousNode.jswebframeu
npminstallexpressNowyoucanusethismoduleinyourjsfilesasfollowing
```

var express = require('express'); Global vs Local Installation By default, NPM installs any dependency in the local mode. Here local mode refers to the package

installation in node<sub>m</sub>odulesdirectorylyinginthe folderwhereNodeapplicationispresent.Locallydeployedpacke

ls-ltotal0drwxr-xr-x3rootroot20Mar1702:23node<sub>m</sub>odulesAlternatively,youcanusenpmlscommandtolis

Globally installed packages/dependencies are stored in system directory. Such

dependencies can be used in CLI (Command Line Interface) function of any

node.js but cannot be imported using require() in Node application directly.

Now let's try installing the express module using global installation.

```
npminstallexpress-gThiswillproduceasimilarresultbutthemodulewillbeinstalledglobally.Here,thefirstlin
express@4.12.2/usr/lib/node_modules/expressmerge-descriptors@1.0.0utils-
merge@1.0.0cookie-signature@1.0.6methods@1.1.1fresh@0.2.4cookie@0.1.2escape-
html@1.0.1range-parser@1.0.2content-type@1.0.1finalhandler@0.3.3vary@1.0.0parseurl@1.3.0content-
disposition@0.5.0path-to-regexp@0.1.3depd@1.0.0qs@2.3.3on-finished@2.2.0(ee-
first@1.1.0)etag@1.5.1(crc@3.2.1)debug@2.1.3(ms@0.7.0)proxy-addr@1.0.7(forwarded@0.1.0,ipaddr.js@0
static@1.9.2(send@0.12.2)accepts@1.2.5(negotiator@0.5.1,mime-types@2.0.10)type-
is@1.6.1(media-typer@0.3.0,mime-types@2.0.10)Youcanusethefollowingcommandtocheckallthemodules
npmls-gUsingpackage.jsonpackage.jsonispresentintherootdirectoryofanyNodeapplication/moduleandis
"name": "express", "description": "Fast, unopinionated, minimalist web frame-
work", "version": "4.11.2", "author":
```

```
"name": "TJ Holowaychuk", "email": "tj@vision-media.ca",
```

```
"contributors": [ "name": "Aaron Heckmann", "email": "aaron.heckmann+github@gmail.com"
```

```
,
```

```
"name": "Ciaran Jessup", "email": "ciaranj@gmail.com",
```

```
"name": "Douglas Christopher Wilson", "email": "doug@somethingdoug.com"
```

```
,
```

```
"name": "Guillermo Rauch", "email": "rauchg@gmail.com",
```

```
"name": "Jonathan Ong", "email": "me@jongleberry.com",
```

```
"name": "Roman Shtylman", "email": "shtylman+expressjs@gmail.com",
```

```
"name": "Young Jae Sim", "email": "hanul@hanul.me" ], "license": "MIT",
```

```
"repository": "type": "git", "url": "https://github.com/strongloop/express",
```

```

"homepage": "https://expressjs.com/", "keywords": [ "express", "framework",
"sinatra", "web", "rest", "restful", "router", "app", "api" ], "dependencies":
"accepts": " 1.2.3", "content-disposition": "0.5.0", "cookie-signature": "1.0.5",
"debug": " 2.1.1", "depd": " 1.0.0", "escape-html": "1.0.1", "etag": " 1.5.1",
"finalhandler": "0.3.3", "fresh": "0.2.4", "media-typer": "0.3.0", "methods":
" 1.1.1", "on-finished": " 2.2.0", "parseurl": " 1.3.0", "path-to-regexp": "0.1.3",
"proxy-addr": " 1.0.6", "qs": "2.3.3", "range-parser": " 1.0.2", "send": "0.11.1",
"serve-static": " 1.8.1", "type-is": " 1.5.6", "vary": " 1.0.0", "cookie": "0.1.2",
"merge-descriptors": "0.0.2", "utils-merge": "1.0.0", "devDependencies": "af-
ter": "0.8.1", "ejs": "2.1.4", "istanbul": "0.3.5", "marked": "0.3.3", "mocha":
" 2.1.0", "should": " 4.6.2", "supertest": " 0.15.0", "hjs": " 0.0.6", "body-
parser": " 1.11.0", "connect-redis": " 2.2.0", "cookie-parser": " 1.3.3", "express-
session": " 1.10.2", "jade": " 1.9.1", "method-override": " 2.3.1", "morgan":
" 1.5.1", "multiparty": " 4.1.1", "vhost": " 3.0.0", "engines": "node": ">=
0.10.0", "files": [ "LICENSE", "History.md", "Readme.md", "index.js", "lib/"
], "scripts": "test": "mocha --require test/support/env --reporter spec --bail --
check-leaks test/ test/acceptance/", "test-cov": "istanbul cover node_modules/mocha/bin/mocha --
--require test/support/env --reporter dot --check-leak test/test/acceptance/", "test-
tap": "mocha --require test/support/env --reporter tap --check-leak test/test/acceptance/", "test-
travis": "istanbul cover node_modules/mocha/bin/mocha --report lcovonly --
--require test/support/env --reporter spec --check-leak test/test/acceptance/", "gitHead":
"63ab25579bda70b4927a179b580a9c580b6c7ada", "bugs": "url": "https://github.com/strongloop/express/
express@4.11.2", "shasum": "8df3d5a9ac848585f00a0777601823faecd3b148", "from":
express@*, "npmVersion": "1.4.28", "npmUser": "name": "dougwilson", "email": "doug@somethingd
[name": "tjholowaychuk", "email": "tj@vision-media.ca", "name": "jongleberry", "email": "jonatho
shasum": "8df3d5a9ac848585f00a0777601823faecd3b148", "tarball": "https://registry.npmjs.org/expr
, "resolved": "https://registry.npmjs.org/express/-/express-4.11.2.tgz", "readme":
"ERROR: No README data found!" Attributes of Package.json name name of the package version version of
npmuninstall express Once NPM uninstall the package, you can verify it by looking at the content of /node_modu
npm ls Updating a Module Update package.json and change the version of the dependency to be updated and run the j
npm update express Search a Module Search a package name using NPM.
npm search express Create a Module Creating a module requires package.json to be generated. Let's generate pack
npm init

```

This utility will walk you through creating a package.json file. It only covers the most common items, and tries to guess sane defaults.

See 'npm help json' for definitive documentation on these fields and exactly what they do.

Use 'npm install <pkg> --save' afterwards to install a package and save it as a dependency in the package.json file.

Press *C* at any time to quit. *name* : (webmaster) You will need to provide all the required information about your module mentioned in package.json file to understand the meaning of various information demanded. Once package.json is created, press *y* to continue. *version* : 1.0.0 *description* : *npm add user* Username : mcmohd Password : Email : (this is public) mcmohd@gmail.com It is time now to publish the module. *npm publish* If everything is fine with your module, then it will be published in the repository and will be accessible to the public.

## 10.5 Command Line

Pass command line arguments The arguments are stored in process.argv

Here are the node docs on handling command line args:

process.argv is an array containing the command line arguments. The first element will be 'node', the second element will be the name of the JavaScript file. The next elements will be any additional command line arguments.

```
// print process.argv process.argv.forEach(function (val, index, array) console.log(index + ': ' + val); );
```

 This will generate:

```
nodeprocess-2.jsone two = threefour0 : node1 : /Users/mjr/work/node/process-2.js2 : one3 : two = three4 : four
```

# Chương 11

## Octave

View online <http://magizbox.com/training/octave/site/>

GNU Octave is software featuring a high-level programming language, primarily intended for numerical computations. Octave helps in solving linear and nonlinear problems numerically, and for performing other numerical experiments using a language that is mostly compatible with MATLAB. It may also be used as a batch-oriented language. Since it is part of the GNU Project, it is free software under the terms of the GNU General Public License.

Known Issues Plot window not responding

### 11.1 Matrix

Creating Matrix  $A = [1, 1, 2; 3, 5, 8; 13, 21, 32]$   $A = 1 \ 1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 5 \ 8 \ 13 \ 21 \ 32$

Creating an 1D column vector  $a = [1; 2; 3]$   $a = 1 \ 2 \ 3$

Creating an 1D row vector  $b = [1 \ 2 \ 3]$   $b = 1 \ 2 \ 3$

Creating a random  $m \times n$  matrix  $\text{rand}(3, 2)$   $\text{ans} = 0.13567 \ 0.51230 \ 0.67646$   
 $0.19012 \ 0.76147 \ 0.89694$

Creating a zero  $m \times n$  matrix  $\text{zeros}(3, 2)$   $\text{ans} = 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0$

Creating an  $m \times n$  matrix of ones  $\text{ones}(3, 2)$   $\text{ans} = 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1$

Creating an identity matrix  $\text{eye}(3)$  Diagonal Matrix  $1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1$

Creating a diagonal matrix  $a = [1 \ 2 \ 3]$   $\text{diag}(a)$  Diagonal Matrix  $1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 2 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0$   
 $3$  Accessing Matrix Elements Getting the dimension of a matrix  $A = [1 \ 2 \ 3; 4$   
 $5 \ 6]$   $\text{size}(A)$   $\text{ans} = 2 \ 3$

Selecting rows  $A = [1 \ 2 \ 3; 4 \ 5 \ 6; 7 \ 8 \ 9]$   $A(1, :)$   $\text{ans} = 1 \ 2 \ 3$   $A(1:2, :)$   $\text{ans} = 1 \ 2$   
 $3 \ 4 \ 5 \ 6$

Selecting columns  $A = [1 \ 2 \ 3; 4 \ 5 \ 6; 7 \ 8 \ 9]$   $A(:, 1)$   $\text{ans} = 1 \ 4 \ 7$   $A(:, 1:2)$   $\text{ans} =$   
 $1 \ 2 \ 4 \ 5 \ 7 \ 8$

Extracting rows and columns by criteria  $A = [1 \ 2 \ 3; 4 \ 5 \ 9; 7 \ 8 \ 9]$   $A(A(:, 3) ==$   
 $9, :)$   $\text{ans} = 4 \ 5 \ 9 \ 7 \ 8 \ 9$

Accessing elements  $A = [1 \ 2 \ 3; 4 \ 5 \ 6; 7 \ 8 \ 9]$   $A(1, 1)$   $\text{ans} = 1$   $A(2, 3)$   $\text{ans} =$   
 $6$  Manipulating Shape and Dimensions Converting a matrix into a row vector  
(by column)  $A = [1 \ 2 \ 3; 4 \ 5 \ 6; 7 \ 8 \ 9]$   $A = 1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 4 \ 5 \ 6 \ 7 \ 8 \ 9$   $A(:)$   $\text{ans} = 1 \ 4 \ 7 \ 2 \ 5$   
 $8 \ 3 \ 6 \ 9$

Converting row to column vectors  $b = [1 \ 2 \ 3]$   $b = 1 \ 2 \ 3$   $b'$   $\text{ans} = 1 \ 2 \ 3$

Reshaping Matrices  $A = [1\ 2\ 3\ 4; 5\ 6\ 7\ 8; 9\ 10\ 11\ 12]$   $A = 1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 5\ 6\ 7\ 8\ 9\ 10\ 11\ 12$  `reshape(A,4,3)`  $ans = 1\ 6\ 11\ 5\ 10\ 4\ 9\ 3\ 8\ 2\ 7\ 12$

Concatenating matrices  $A = [1\ 2\ 3; 4\ 5\ 6]$   $A = 1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 5\ 6$   $B = [7\ 8\ 9; 10\ 11\ 12]$   $B = 7\ 8\ 9\ 10\ 11\ 12$   $C = [A; B]$   $C = 1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 5\ 6\ 7\ 8\ 9\ 10\ 11\ 12$

Stacking vectors and matrices  $a = [1\ 2\ 3]$   $a = 1\ 2\ 3$   $b = [4\ 5\ 6]$   $b = 4\ 5\ 6$   $c = [a' b']$   $c = 1\ 4\ 2\ 5\ 3\ 6$  Basic Operations Matrix-scalar operations  $A = [1\ 2\ 3; 4\ 5\ 6; 7\ 8\ 9]$   $A = 1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 5\ 6\ 7\ 8\ 9$   $A * 2$   $ans = 2\ 4\ 6\ 8\ 10\ 12\ 14\ 16\ 18$   $A + 2$   $ans = 3\ 4\ 5\ 6\ 7\ 8\ 9\ 10\ 11$   $A - 2$   $ans = -1\ 0\ 1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 5\ 6\ 7$   $A / 2$   $ans = 0.50000\ 1.00000\ 1.50000\ 2.00000\ 2.50000\ 3.00000\ 3.50000\ 4.00000\ 4.50000$

Matrix-matrix multiplication  $A = [1\ 2\ 3; 4\ 5\ 6; 7\ 8\ 9]$   $A = 1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 5\ 6\ 7\ 8\ 9$   $A * A$   $ans = 30\ 36\ 42\ 66\ 81\ 96\ 102\ 126\ 150$

Matrix-vector multiplication  $A = [1\ 2\ 3; 4\ 5\ 6; 7\ 8\ 9]$   $A = 1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 5\ 6\ 7\ 8\ 9$   $b = [1; 2; 3]$   $b = 1\ 2\ 3$   $A * b$   $ans = 14\ 32\ 50$

Element-wise matrix-matrix operations  $A = [1\ 2\ 3; 4\ 5\ 6; 7\ 8\ 9]$   $A = 1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 5\ 6\ 7\ 8\ 9$   $A .* A$   $ans = 1\ 4\ 9\ 16\ 25\ 36\ 49\ 64\ 81$   $A .+ A$   $ans = 2\ 4\ 6\ 8\ 10\ 12\ 14\ 16\ 18$   $A .- A$   $ans = 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0$   $A ./ A$   $ans = 1\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 1$

Matrix elements to power n  $A = [1\ 2\ 3; 4\ 5\ 6; 7\ 8\ 9]$   $A = 1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 5\ 6\ 7\ 8\ 9$   $A.^2$   $ans = 149162536496481$

Matrix to power n  $A = [1\ 2\ 3; 4\ 5\ 6; 7\ 8\ 9]$   $A = 1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 5\ 6\ 7\ 8\ 9$   $A.^2$   $ans = 303642668196102126150$

Matrix transpose  $A = [1\ 2\ 3; 4\ 5\ 6; 7\ 8\ 9]$   $A = 1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 5\ 6\ 7\ 8\ 9$   $A'$   $ans = 1\ 4\ 7\ 2\ 5\ 8\ 3\ 6\ 9$

Determinant of a matrix  $A = [6\ 1\ 1; 4\ -2\ 5; 2\ 8\ 7]$   $A = 6\ 1\ 1\ 4\ -2\ 5\ 2\ 8\ 7$   $\det(A)$   $ans = -306$

Inverse of a matrix  $A = [4\ 7; 2\ 6]$   $A = 4\ 7\ 2\ 6$   $\text{inv}(A)$   $ans = 0.60000\ -0.70000\ -0.20000\ 0.40000$  Advanced Operations Calculating the covariance matrix of 3 random variables  $x1 = [4.0000\ 4.2000\ 3.9000\ 4.3000\ 4.1000]'$   $x1 = 4.0000\ 4.2000\ 3.9000\ 4.3000\ 4.1000$   $x2 = [2.0000\ 2.1000\ 2.0000\ 2.1000\ 2.2000]'$   $x2 = 2.0000\ 2.1000\ 2.0000\ 2.1000\ 2.2000$   $x3 = [0.60000\ 0.59000\ 0.58000\ 0.62000\ 0.63000]'$   $x3 = 0.60000\ 0.59000\ 0.58000\ 0.62000\ 0.63000$   $\text{cov}( [x1,x2,x3] )$   $ans = 2.5000e-002\ 7.5000e-003\ 1.7500e-003\ 7.5000e-003\ 7.0000e-003\ 1.3500e-003\ 1.7500e-003\ 1.3500e-003\ 4.3000e-004$

Calculating eigenvectors and eigenvalues  $A = [3\ 1; 1\ 3]$   $A = 3\ 1\ 1\ 3$   $[eig\_vec, eig\_val] = \text{eig}(A)$   $eig\_vec = -0.707110.707110.707110.70711$   $eig\_val = \text{DiagonalMatrix}2004$

Generating a Gaussian dataset `pkg load statistics`  $\text{mean} = [0\ 0]$   $\text{mean} = 0\ 0$   $\text{cov} = [2\ 0; 0\ 2]$   $\text{cov} = 2\ 0\ 0\ 2$  `mvnrnd(mean,cov,5)`  $ans = -0.7442485\ -0.0099190\ -1.7695915\ 0.0418147\ -0.8780206\ 0.6145333\ 0.5145315\ -0.9834832\ -1.4736628\ 0.4570979$

## Chương 12

# Toolbox

View online <http://magizbox.com/training/toolbox/site/>

Toolbox by MG The Toolbox contains all the little tools you never know where to find.

Text Editor Vim : Vim is a clone of Bill Joy's vi text editor program for Unix. It was written by Bram Moolenaar based on source for a port of the Stevie editor to the Amiga and first released publicly in 1991. Vim is designed for use both from a command-line interface and as a standalone application in a graphical user interface. Vim is free and open source software and is released under a license that includes some charityware clauses, encouraging users who enjoy the software to consider donating to children in Uganda. The license is compatible with the GNU General Public License. Although it was originally released for the Amiga, Vim has since been developed to be cross-platform, supporting many other platforms. In 2006, it was voted the most popular editor amongst Linux Journal readers; in 2015 the Stack Overflow developer survey found it to be the third most popular text editor; and in 2016 the Stack Overflow developer survey found it to be the fourth most popular development environment.

Virtual Machine VirtualBox : Oracle VM VirtualBox (formerly Sun VirtualBox, Sun xVM VirtualBox and Innotek VirtualBox) is a free and open-source hypervisor for x86 computers currently being developed by Oracle Corporation. Developed initially by Innotek GmbH, it was acquired by Sun Microsystems in 2008 which was in turn acquired by Oracle in 2010. VirtualBox may be installed on a number of host operating systems, including: Linux, macOS, Windows, Solaris, and OpenSolaris. There are also ports to FreeBSD and Genode. It supports the creation and management of guest virtual machines running versions and derivations of Windows, Linux, BSD, OS/2, Solaris, Haiku, OSx86 and others, and limited virtualization of macOS guests on Apple hardware. For some guest operating systems, a "Guest Additions" package of device drivers and system applications is available which typically improves performance, especially of graphics.

VMWare : VMware, Inc. is a subsidiary of Dell Technologies that provides cloud computing and platform virtualization software and services. It was the first commercially successful company to virtualize the x86 architecture. VMware's desktop software runs on Microsoft Windows, Linux, and macOS, while its enterprise software hypervisor for servers, VMware ESXi, is a bare-metal hypervisor that runs directly on server hardware without requiring an additional underlying



operating system.

## 12.1 Vim

**Vim Running Vim for the First Time** To start Vim, enter this command:

`gvim file.txt` In UNIX you can type this at any command prompt. If you are running Microsoft Windows, open an MS-DOS prompt window and enter the command. In either case, Vim starts editing a file called `file.txt`. Because this is a new file, you get a blank window. This is what your screen will look like:

```
+-----+ ||| || || || || "file.txt" [New file] | +-----
+ (' is the cursor position.)
```

The tilde ( ) lines indicate lines not in the file. In other words, when Vim runs out of file to display, it displays tilde lines. At the bottom of the screen, a message line indicates the file is named `file.txt` and shows that you are creating a new file. The message information is temporary and other information overwrites it.

### THE VIM COMMAND

The `gvim` command causes the editor to create a new window for editing. If you use this command:

`vim file.txt` the editing occurs inside your command window. In other words, if you are running inside an xterm, the editor uses your xterm window. If you are using an MS-DOS command prompt window under Microsoft Windows, the editing occurs inside this window. The text in the window will look the same for both versions, but with `gvim` you have extra features, like a menu bar. More about that later.

**Inserting text** The Vim editor is a modal editor. That means that the editor behaves differently, depending on which mode you are in. The two basic modes are called Normal mode and Insert mode. In Normal mode the characters you type are commands. In Insert mode the characters are inserted as text. Since you have just started Vim it will be in Normal mode. To start Insert mode you type the `"i"` command (i for Insert). Then you can enter the text. It will be inserted into the file. Do not worry if you make mistakes; you can correct them later. To enter the following programmer's limerick, this is what you type:

`i`A very intelligent turtle Found programming UNIX a hurdle After typing "turtle" you press the key to start a new line. Finally you press the key to stop Insert mode and go back to Normal mode. You now have two lines of text in your Vim window:

```
+-----+ |A very intelligent turtle | |Found program-
ming UNIX a hurdle | | | | | +-----+ WHAT IS
THE MODE?
```

To be able to see what mode you are in, type this command:

`:set showmode` You will notice that when typing the colon Vim moves the cursor to the last line of the window. That's where you type colon commands (commands that start with a colon). Finish this command by pressing the `<Enter>` key (all commands that start with a colon are finished this way). Now, if you type the `"i"` command Vim will display `-INSERT-` at the bottom of the window. This indicates you are in Insert mode.

```
+-----+ |A very intelligent turtle | |Found program-
ming UNIX a hurdle | | | | |- INSERT - | +-----+
you press <Esc> to go back to Normal mode the last line will be made blank.
```

## GETTING OUT OF TROUBLE

One of the problems for Vim novices is mode confusion, which is caused by forgetting which mode you are in or by accidentally typing a command that switches modes. To get back to Normal mode, no matter what mode you are in, press the key. Sometimes you have to press it twice. If Vim beeps back at you, you already are in Normal mode.

=====

Moving around After you return to Normal mode, you can move around by using these keys:

h left \*hijkl\* j down k up l right At first, it may appear that these commands were chosen at random. After all, who ever heard of using l for right? But actually, there is a very good reason for these choices: Moving the cursor is the most common thing you do in an editor, and these keys are on the home row of your right hand. In other words, these commands are placed where you can type them the fastest (especially when you type with ten fingers).

Note: You can also move the cursor by using the arrow keys. If you do, however, you greatly slow down your editing because to press the arrow keys, you must move your hand from the text keys to the arrow keys. Considering that you might be doing it hundreds of times an hour, this can take a significant amount of time. Also, there are keyboards which do not have arrow keys, or which locate them in unusual places; therefore, knowing the use of the hjkl keys helps in those situations. One way to remember these commands is that h is on the left, l is on the right and j points down. In a picture:

k h l j The best way to learn these commands is by using them. Use the "i" command to insert some more lines of text. Then use the hjkl keys to move around and insert a word somewhere. Don't forget to press to go back to Normal mode. The |vimtutor| is also a nice way to learn by doing.

For Japanese users, Hiroshi Iwatani suggested using this:

Komsomolsk |HuanHo < ----- > LosAngeles(Yellowriver)|vJava(theisland,nottheprogramminglan

Deleting characters To delete a character, move the cursor over it and type "x". (This is a throwback to the old days of the typewriter, when you deleted things by typing xxxx over them.) Move the cursor to the beginning of the first line, for example, and type xxxxxxxx (seven x's) to delete "A very ". The result should look like this:

```
+-----+ |intelligent turtle | |Found programming UNIX
a hurdle | | | | | +-----+ Now you can insert new
text, for example by typing:
```

iA young <Esc> This begins an insert (the i), inserts the words "A young", and then exits insert mode (the final ). The result:

```
+-----+ |A young intelligent turtle | |Found program-
ming UNIX a hurdle | | | | | +-----+ DELETING
A LINE
```

To delete a whole line use the "dd" command. The following line will then move up to fill the gap:

```
+-----+ |Found programming UNIX a hurdle | | | |
| | | +-----+ DELETING A LINE BREAK
```

In Vim you can join two lines together, which means that the line break between them is deleted. The "J" command does this. Take these two lines:

A young intelligent turtle Move the cursor to the first line and press "J":

A young intelligent turtle =====

Undo and Redo Suppose you delete too much. Well, you can type it in again, but an easier way exists. The "u" command undoes the last edit. Take a look at this in action: After using "dd" to delete the first line, "u" brings it back. Another one: Move the cursor to the A in the first line:

A young intelligent turtle Now type xxxxxxxx to delete "A young". The result is as follows:

intelligent turtle Type "u" to undo the last delete. That delete removed the g, so the undo restores the character.

g intelligent turtle The next u command restores the next-to-last character deleted:

ng intelligent turtle The next u command gives you the u, and so on:

ung intelligent turtle oung intelligent turtle young intelligent turtle young intelligent turtle A young intelligent turtle

Note: If you type "u" twice, and the result is that you get the same text back, you have Vim configured to work Vi compatible. Look here to fix this: [not-compatible]. This text assumes you work "The Vim Way". You might prefer to use the good old Vi way, but you will have to watch out for small differences in the text then. REDO

If you undo too many times, you can press CTRL-R (redo) to reverse the preceding command. In other words, it undoes the undo. To see this in action, press CTRL-R twice. The character A and the space after it disappear:

young intelligent turtle There's a special version of the undo command, the "U" (undo line) command. The undo line command undoes all the changes made on the last line that was edited. Typing this command twice cancels the preceding "U".

A very intelligent turtle xxxx Delete very

A intelligent turtle xxxxxx Delete turtle

A intelligent Restore line with "U" A very intelligent turtle Undo "U" with "u"

A intelligent The "U" command is a change by itself, which the "u" command undoes and CTRL-R redoes. This might be a bit confusing. Don't worry, with "u" and CTRL-R you can go to any of the situations you had. More about that in section [32.2].

Reference: <http://vimdoc.sourceforge.net/html/doc/usr02.html>

## 12.2 Virtual Box

Virtual Box Export and Import VirtualBox VM images? Export Open Virtual-Box and enter into the File option to choice Export Appliance...

You will then get an assistance window to help you generating the image.

Select the VM to export Enter the output file path and name

You can choice a format, which I always leave the default OVF 1.

Finally you can write metadata like Version and Description Now you have an OVA file that you can carry to whatever machine to use it.

Import Open VirtualBox and enter into the File option to choice Import

You will then get an assistance window to help you loading the image.

Enter the path to the file that you have previously exported

Then you can modify the settings of the VM like RAM size, CPU, etc.

My recommendation on this is to enable the Reinitialize the MAC address of all the network cards option

Press Import and done! Now you have cloned the VM from the host machine into another one

Reference: <https://askubuntu.com/questions/588426/how-to-export-and-import-virtualbox-vm-images>

Install Guest Additions Guest Additions installs on the guest system and includes device drivers and system applications that optimize performance of the machine. Launch the guest OS in VirtualBox and click on Devices and Install Guest Additions.

The AutoPlay window opens on the guest OS and click on the Run VBox Windows Additions executable.

Click yes when the UAC screen comes up.

Now simply follow through the installation wizard.

During the installation wizard you can choose the Direct3D acceleration if you would like it. Remember this is going to take up more of your Host OS's resources and is still experimental possibly making the guest unstable.

When the installation starts you will need to allow the Sun display adapters to be installed.

After everything has completed a reboot is required.

## 12.3 VMWare

VMWare VMware Workstation is a program that allows you to run a virtual computer within your physical computer. The virtual computer runs as if it was its own machine. A virtual machine is great for trying out new operating systems such as Linux, visiting websites you don't trust, creating a computing environment specifically for children, testing the effects of computer viruses, and much more. You can even print and plug in USB drives. Read this guide to get the most out of VMware Workstation.

Installing VMware Workstation

1. Make sure your computer meets the system requirements. Because you will be running an operating system from within your own operating system, VMware Workstation has fairly high system requirements. If you don't meet these, you may not be able to run VMware effectively. You must have a 64-bit processor. VMware supports Windows and Linux operating systems. You must have enough memory to run your operating system, the virtual operating system, and any programs inside that operating system. 1 GB is the minimum, but 3 or more is recommended. You must have a 16-bit or 32-bit display adapter. 3D effects will most likely not work well inside the virtual operating system, so gaming is not always efficient. You need at least 1.5 GB of free space to install VMware Workstation, along with at least 1 GB per operating system that you install.
2. Download the VMware software. You can download the VMware installer from the Download Center on the VMware website. Select the newest version and click the link for the installer. You will need to login with your VMware username. You will be asked to read and review the license agreement before you can download the file. You can only have one version of VMware Workstation installed at a time.
3. Install VMware Workstation. Once you have downloaded the file, right-click on the file and select "Run as administrator". You will be asked to review the license again. Most users can use the Typical installation option. At the end of

the installation, you will be prompted for your license key. Once the installation is finished, restart the computer. Part

#### Installing an Operating System

1. Open VMware. Installing a virtual operating system is much like installing it on a regular PC. You will need to have the installation disc or ISO image as well as any necessary licenses for the operating system that you want to install. You can install most distributions of Linux as well as any version of Windows.
2. Click File. Select New Virtual Machine and then choose Typical. VMware will prompt you for the installation media. If it recognizes the operating system, it will enable Easy Installation:

Physical disc – Insert the installation disc for the operating system you want to install and then select the drive in VMware. ISO image – Browse to the location of the ISO file on your computer. Install operating system later. This will create a blank virtual disk. You will need to manually install the operating system later.

3. Enter in the details for the operating system. For Windows and other licensed operating systems, you will need to enter your product key. You will also need to enter your preferred username and a password if you want one. \* If you are not using Easy Install, you will need to browse the list for the operating system you are installing.

4. Name your virtual machine. The name will help you identify it on your physical computer. It will also help distinguish between multiple virtual computers running different operating systems.

5. Set the disk size. You can allocate any amount of free space on your computer to the virtual machine to act as the installed operating system's hard drive. Make sure to set enough to install any programs that you want to run in the virtual machine.

6. Customize your virtual machine's virtual hardware. You can set the virtual machine to emulate specific hardware by clicking the "Customize Hardware" button. This can be useful if you are trying to run an older program that only supports certain hardware. Setting this is optional.

7. Set the virtual machine to start. Check the box labeled "Power on this virtual machine after creation" if you want the virtual machine to start up as soon as you finish making it. If you don't check this box, you can select your virtual machine from the list in VMware and click the Power On button.

8. Wait for your installation to complete. Once you've powered on the virtual machine for the first time, the operating system will begin to install automatically. If you provided all of the correct information during the setup of the virtual machine, then you should not have to do anything. If you didn't enter your product key or create a username during the virtual machine setup, you will most likely be prompted during the installation of the operating system.

9. Check that VMware Tools is installed. Once the operating system is installed, the program VMware Tools should be automatically installed. Check that it appears on the desktop or in the program files for the newly installed operating system.

VMware tools are configuration options for your virtual machine, and keeps your virtual machine up to date with any software changes.

#### Navigating VMware

1. Start a virtual machine. To start a virtual machine, click the VM menu and select the virtual machine that you want to turn on. You can choose to start

the virtual machine normally, or boot directly to the virtual BIOS.

2. Stop a virtual machine. To stop a virtual machine, select it and then click the VM menu. Select the Power option.

Power Off – The virtual machine turns off as if the power was cut out. Shut Down Guest – This sends a shutdown signal to the virtual machine which causes the virtual machine to shut down as if you had selected the shutdown option. You can also turn off the virtual machine by using the shutdown option in the virtual operating system.

3. Move files between the virtual machine and your physical computer. Moving files between your computer and the virtual machine is as simple as dragging and dropping. Files can be moved in both directions between the computer and the virtual machine, and can also be dragged from one virtual machine to another.

When you drag and drop, the original will stay in the original location and a copy will be created in the new location. You can also move files by copying and pasting. Virtual machines can connect to shared folders as well.

4. Add a printer to your virtual machine. You can add any printer to your virtual machine without having to install any extra drivers, as long as it is already installed on your host computer.

Select the virtual machine that you want to add the printer to. Click the VM menu and select Settings. Click the Hardware tab, and then click Add. This will start the Add Hardware wizard. Select Printer and then click Finish. Your virtual printer will be enabled the next time you turn the virtual machine on.

5. Connect a USB drive to the virtual machine. Virtual machines can interact with a USB drive the same way that your normal operating system does. The USB drive cannot be accessed on both the host computer and the virtual machine at the same time.

If the virtual machine is the active window, the USB drive will be automatically connected to the virtual machine when it is plugged in. If the virtual machine is not the active window or is not running, select the virtual machine and click the VM menu. Select Removable Devices and then click Connect. The USB drive will automatically connect to your virtual machine.

6. Take a snapshot of a virtual machine. A snapshot is a saved state and will allow you to load the virtual machine to that precise moment as many times as you need.

Select your virtual machine, click the VM menu, hover over Snapshot and select Take Snapshot. Give your Snapshot a name. You can also give it a description, though this is optional. Click OK to save the Snapshot. Load a saved Snapshot by clicking the VM menu and then selecting Snapshot. Choose the Snapshot you wish to load from the list and click Go To.

7. Become familiar with keyboard shortcuts. A combination of the "Ctrl" and other keys are used to navigate virtual machines. For example, "Ctrl," "Alt" and "Enter" puts the current virtual machine in full screen mode or moves through multiple machines. "Ctrl," "Alt" and "Tab" will move between virtual machines when the mouse is being used by 1 machine.

## Phần II

# Toán

## Chương 13

# Xác suất

Xác suất là công cụ để mô hình hóa các sự vật tưởng như ngẫu nhiên.

19/01/2018 Nay  
tìm được khóa  
CS 109 của bác  
Chris Piech quá  
hay

### 13.1 Probability Distributions

When we use the word “probability” in day-to-day life, we refer to a degree of confidence that an event of an uncertain nature will occur. For example, the weather report might say “there is a low probability of light rain in the afternoon.” Probability theory deals with the formal foundations for discussing such estimates and the rules they should obey. Before we discuss the representation of probability, we need to define what the events are to which we want to assign a probability. These events might be different outcomes of throwing a die, the outcome of a horse race, the weather configurations in California, or the possible failures of a piece of machinery.

#### 13.1.1 Event Spaces

event Formally, we define events by assuming that there is an agreed upon space of possible outcomes, outcome space which we denote by  $\Omega$ . For example, if we consider dice, we might set  $\Omega = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6$ . In the case of a horse race, the space might be all possible orders of arrivals at the finish line, a much larger space.

measurable event In addition, we assume that there is a set of measurable events  $S$  to which we are willing to assign probabilities. Formally, each event  $A \in S$  is a subset of  $\Omega$ . In our die example, the event 6 represents the case where the die shows 6, and the event 1, 3, 5 represents the case of an odd outcome. In the horse-race example, we might consider the event “Lucky Strike wins,” which contains all the outcomes in which the horse Lucky Strike is first. Probability theory requires that the event space satisfy three basic properties: • It contains the empty event  $\emptyset$ , and the trivial event  $\Omega$ . • It is closed under union. That is, if  $A, B \in S$ , then so is  $A \cup B$ . • It is closed under complementation. That is, if  $A \in S$ , then so is  $\Omega \setminus A$ . The requirement that the event space is closed under union and complementation implies that it is also closed under other Boolean operations, such as intersection and set difference.



### 13.1.2 Probability Distributions

**Definition 2.1** A probability distribution  $P$  over  $(\Omega, S)$  is a mapping from events in  $S$  to real values that satisfies probability distribution the following conditions:

- $P(A) \geq 0$  for all  $A \in S$ .
- $P(\Omega) = 1$ .
- If  $A, B \in S$  and  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ , then  $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$ .

The first condition states that probabilities are not negative. The second states that the “trivial event,” which allows all possible outcomes, has the maximal possible probability of 1. The third condition states that the probability that one of two mutually disjoint events will occur is the sum of the probabilities of each event. These two conditions imply many other conditions. Of particular interest are  $P(\emptyset) = 0$ , and  $P(A^c) = P(\Omega) - P(A)$ .

**1.3 Interpretations of Probability** Before we continue to discuss probability distributions, we need to consider the interpretations that we might assign to them. Intuitively, the probability  $P(A)$  of an event  $A$  quantifies the degree of confidence that  $A$  will occur. If  $P(A) = 1$ , we are certain that one of the outcomes in  $A$  occurs, and if  $P(A) = 0$ , we consider all of them impossible. Other probability values represent options that lie between these two extremes. This description, however, does not provide an answer to what the numbers mean. There are two common interpretations for probabilities.

**frequentist** The frequentist interpretation views probabilities as frequencies of events. More precisely, the interpretation probability of an event is the fraction of times the event occurs if we repeat the experiment indefinitely. For example, suppose we consider the outcome of a particular die roll. In this case, the statement  $P(A) = 0.3$ , for  $A = \{1, 3, 5\}$ , states that if we repeatedly roll this die and record the outcome, then the fraction of times the outcomes in  $A$  will occur is 0.3. More precisely, the limit of the sequence of fractions of outcomes in  $A$  in the first roll, the first two rolls, the first three rolls, . . . , the first  $n$  rolls, . . . is 0.3.

The frequentist interpretation gives probabilities a tangible semantics. When we discuss concrete physical systems (for example, dice, coin flips, and card games) we can envision how these frequencies are defined. It is also relatively straightforward to check that frequencies must satisfy the requirements of proper distributions. The frequentist interpretation fails, however, when we consider events such as “It will rain tomorrow afternoon.” Although the time span of “Tomorrow afternoon” is somewhat ill defined, we expect it to occur exactly once. It is not clear how we define the frequencies of such events. Several attempts have been made to define the probability for such an event by finding a reference class reference class of similar events for which frequencies are well defined; however, none of them has proved entirely satisfactory. Thus, the frequentist approach does not provide a satisfactory interpretation for a statement such as “the probability of rain tomorrow afternoon is 0.3.”

An alternative interpretation views probabilities as subjective degrees of belief. Under subjective interpretation this interpretation, the statement  $P(A) = 0.3$  represents a subjective statement about one’s own degree of belief that the event  $A$  will come about. Thus, the statement “the probability of rain tomorrow afternoon is 50 percent” tells us that in the opinion of the speaker, the chances of rain and no rain tomorrow afternoon are the same. Although tomorrow afternoon will occur only once, we can still have uncertainty about its outcome, and represent it using numbers (that is, probabilities). This description still does not resolve what exactly it means to hold a particular degree of belief. What stops a person from stating that the probability that Bush will win the election is 0.6 and the probability that he will lose is 0.8?

The source of the problem is that we need to explain how subjective degrees of beliefs (something that is internal to each one of us) are reflected in our actions. This issue is a major concern in subjective probabilities. One possible way of attributing degrees of beliefs is by a betting game. Suppose you believe that  $P() = 0.8$ . Then you would be willing to place a bet of \$1 against \$3. To see this, note that with probability 0.8 you gain a dollar, and with probability 0.2 you lose \$3, so on average this bet is a good deal with expected gain of 20 cents. In fact, you might be even tempted to place a bet of \$1 against \$4. Under this bet the average gain is 0, so you should not mind. However, you would not consider it worthwhile to place a bet \$1 against

4 and 10 cents, since that would have negative expected gain. Thus, by finding which bets you are willing to place, we can assess your degrees of beliefs. The key point of this mental game is the following. If you hold degrees of belief that do not satisfy the rule of probability, then by a clever construction we can find a series of bets that would result in a sure negative outcome for you. Thus, the argument goes, a rational person must hold degrees of belief that satisfy the rules of probability.<sup>1</sup> In the remainder of the book we discuss probabilities, but we usually do not explicitly state their interpretation. Since both interpretations lead to the same mathematical rules, the technical definitions hold for both interpretations.

## 13.2 Basic Concepts in Probability

### 13.2.1 Conditional Probability

To use a concrete example, suppose we consider a distribution over a population of students taking a certain course. The space of outcomes is simply the set of all students in the population. Now, suppose that we want to reason about the students' intelligence and their final grade. We can define the event

$\alpha$  to denote all students with grade A, and the event  $\beta$  to denote all students with high intelligence. Using our distribution  $P()$  (2.1) That is, the probability that is true given that we know is the relative proportion of outcomes satisfying  $\alpha$ . (2.2) The conditional probability given an event (say)  $\beta$  satisfies the properties of definition 2.1 (see exercise 2.4), and

## 13.3 Chain Rule and Bayes Rule

From the definition of the conditional distribution, we immediately see that  $P(\beta) = P(\alpha)P(\beta | \alpha)$ . (2.2) chain rule This equality is known as the chain rule of conditional probabilities. More generally, if  $1, \dots, k$  are events, then we can write  $P(1 \dots k) = P(1)P(2 | 1) \dots P(k | 1 \dots k-1)$ . (2.3) In other words, we can express the probability of a combination of several events in terms of the probability of the first, the probability of the second given the first, and so on. It is important to notice that we can expand this expression using any order of events — the result will remain the same. Bayes' rule Another immediate consequence of the definition of conditional probability is Bayes' rule  $P(\alpha | \beta) = P(\beta | \alpha)P(\alpha) / P(\beta)$

A more general conditional version of Bayes' rule, where all our probabilities are conditioned on some background event  $\gamma$ , also holds:  $P(\alpha | \beta) = P(\beta | \alpha)P(\alpha | \gamma) / P(\beta | \gamma)$ . Bayes' rule is important in that it allows us to compute the conditional probability  $P(\alpha | \beta)$  from the "inverse" conditional probability  $P(\beta | \alpha)$ . Example

2.1 Consider the student population, and let *Smart* denote smart students and *GradeA* denote students who got grade A. Assume we believe (perhaps based on estimates from past statistics) that  $P(\text{GradeA} \mid \text{Smart}) = 0.6$ , and now we learn that a particular student received grade A. Can we estimate the probability that the student is smart? According to Bayes' rule, this depends on prior our prior probability for students being smart (before we learn anything about them) and the prior probability of students receiving high grades. For example, suppose that  $P(\text{Smart}) = 0.3$  and  $P(\text{GradeA}) = 0.2$ , then we have that  $P(\text{Smart} \mid \text{GradeA}) = 0.6 \cdot 0.3 / 0.2 = 0.9$ . That is, an A grade strongly suggests that the student is smart. On the other hand, if the test was easier and high grades were more common, say,  $P(\text{GradeA}) = 0.4$  then we would get that  $P(\text{Smart} \mid \text{GradeA}) = 0.6 \cdot 0.3 / 0.4 = 0.45$ , which is much less conclusive about the student. Another classic example that shows the importance of this reasoning is in disease screening. To see this, consider the following hypothetical example (none of the mentioned figures are related to real statistics). Example 2.2 Suppose that a tuberculosis (TB) skin test is 95 percent accurate. That is, if the patient is TB-infected, then the test will be positive with probability 0.95, and if the patient is not infected, then the test will be negative with probability 0.95. Now suppose that a person gets a positive test result. What is the probability that he is infected? Naive reasoning suggests that if the test result is wrong 5 percent of the time, then the probability that the subject is infected is 0.95. That is, 95 percent of subjects with positive results have TB. If we consider the problem by applying Bayes' rule, we see that we need to consider the prior probability of TB infection, and the probability of getting positive test result. Suppose that 1 in 1000 of the subjects who get tested is infected. That is,  $P(\text{TB}) = 0.001$ . What is the probability of getting a positive test result? From our description, we see that  $0.001 \cdot 0.95$  infected subjects get a positive result, and  $0.999 \cdot 0.05$  uninfected subjects get a positive result. Thus,  $P(\text{Positive}) = 0.0509$ . Applying Bayes' rule, we get that  $P(\text{TB} \mid \text{Positive}) = 0.001 \cdot 0.95 / 0.0509 = 0.0187$ . Thus, although a subject with a positive test is much more probable to be TB-infected than is a random subject, fewer than 2 percent of these subjects are TB-infected.

## 13.4 Random Variables and Joint Distributions

### 13.4.1 Motivation

Our discussion of probability distributions deals with events. Formally, we can consider any event from the set of measurable events. The description of events is in terms of sets of outcomes. In many cases, however, it would be more natural to consider attributes of the outcome. For example, if we consider a patient, we might consider attributes such as "age," "gender," and "smoking history" that are relevant for assigning probability over possible diseases and symptoms. We would like then consider events such as "age  $> 55$ , heavy smoking history, and suffers from repeated cough." To use a concrete example, consider again a distribution over a population of students in a course. Suppose that we want to reason about the intelligence of students, their final grades, and so forth. We can use an event such as *GradeA* to denote the subset of students that received the grade A and use it in our formulation. However, this discussion becomes rather cumbersome if we also want to consider students with

grade B, students with grade C, and so on. Instead, we would like to consider a way of directly referring to a student's grade in a clean, mathematical way. The formal machinery for discussing attributes and their values in different outcomes are random variable random variables. A random variable is a way of reporting an attribute of the outcome. For example, suppose we have a random variable Grade that reports the final grade of a student, then the statement  $P(\text{Grade} = A)$  is another notation for  $P(\text{Grade} = A)$ .  
 In the statement  $P(\text{Grade} = A)$  is another notation for  $P(\text{Grade} = A)$ .

### 13.4.2 What Is a Random Variable?

Formally, a random variable, such as Grade, is defined by a function that associates with each outcome in  $\Omega$  a value. For example, Grade is defined by a function  $f_{\text{Grade}}$  that maps each person in  $\Omega$  to his or her grade (say, one of A, B, or C). The event  $\text{Grade} = A$  is a shorthand for the event  $\{\omega : f_{\text{Grade}}(\omega) = A\}$ . In our example, we might also have a random variable Intelligence that (for simplicity) takes as values either "high" or "low." In this case, the event "Intelligence = high" refers, as can be expected, to the set of smart (high intelligence) students. Random variables can take different sets of values. We can think of categorical (or discrete) random variables that take one of a few values, as in our two preceding examples. We can also talk about random variables that can take infinitely many values (for example, integer or real values), such as Height that denotes a student's height. We use  $\text{Val}(X)$  to denote the set of values that a random variable  $X$  can take. In most of the discussion in this book we examine either categorical random variables or random variables that take real values. We will usually use uppercase roman letters  $X, Y, Z$  to denote random variables. In discussing generic random variables, we often use a lowercase letter to refer to a value of a random variable. Thus, we use  $x$  to refer to a generic value of  $X$ . For example, in statements such as " $P(X = x) \geq 0$  for all  $x \in \text{Val}(X)$ ." When we discuss categorical random variables, we use the notation  $x_1, \dots, x_k$ , for  $k = |\text{Val}(X)|$  (the number of elements in  $\text{Val}(X)$ ), when we need to enumerate the specific values of  $X$ , for example, in statements such as  $\sum_{i=1}^k P(X = x_i) = 1$ . The distribution over such a variable is called a multinomial. In the case of a binary-valued distribution random variable  $X$ , where  $\text{Val}(X) = \{\text{false}, \text{true}\}$ , we often use  $x_1$  to denote the value true for  $X$ , and  $x_0$  to denote the value false. The distribution of such a random variable is called a Bernoulli distribution. We also use boldface type to denote sets of random variables. Thus,  $\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}$ , or  $\mathbf{Z}$  are typically used to denote a set of random variables, while  $x, y, z$  denote assignments of values to the variables in these sets. We extend the definition of  $\text{Val}(X)$  to refer to sets of variables in the obvious way. Thus,  $x$  is always a member of  $\text{Val}(X)$ . For  $\mathbf{Y} \subseteq \mathbf{X}$ , we use  $x|_{\mathbf{Y}}$  to refer to the assignment within  $x$  to the variables in  $\mathbf{Y}$ . For two assignments  $x$  (to  $\mathbf{X}$ ) and  $y$  (to  $\mathbf{Y}$ ), we say that  $x \sim y$  if they agree on the variables in their intersection, that is,  $x|_{\mathbf{X} \cap \mathbf{Y}} = y|_{\mathbf{X} \cap \mathbf{Y}}$ . In many cases, the notation  $P(X = x)$  is redundant, since the fact that  $x$  is a value of  $X$  is already reported by our choice of letter. Thus, in many texts on probability, the identity of a random variable is not explicitly mentioned, but can be inferred through the notation used for its value. Thus, we use  $P(x)$  as a shorthand for  $P(X = x)$  when the identity of the random variable is clear from the context. Another shorthand notation is that  $P_x$  refers to a sum over all possible values that  $X$  can

take. Thus, the preceding statement will often appear as  $\sum_x P(x) = 1$ . Finally, another standard notation has to do with conjunction. Rather than write  $P((X = x) \cap (Y = y))$ , we write  $P(X = x, Y = y)$ , or just  $P(x, y)$ .

**3.3 Marginal and Joint Distributions** Once we define a random variable  $X$ , we can consider the distribution over events that can be marginal described using  $X$ . This distribution is often referred to as the marginal distribution over the distribution random variable  $X$ . We denote this distribution by  $P(X)$ . Returning to our population example, consider the random variable Intelligence. The marginal distribution over Intelligence assigns probability to specific events such as  $P(\text{Intelligence} = \text{high})$  and  $P(\text{Intelligence} = \text{low})$ , as well as to the trivial event  $P(\text{Intelligence} = \text{high, low})$ . Note that these probabilities are defined by the probability distribution over the original space. For concreteness, suppose that  $P(\text{Intelligence} = \text{high}) = 0.3$ ,  $P(\text{Intelligence} = \text{low}) = 0.7$ . If we consider the random variable Grade, we can also define a marginal distribution. This is a distribution over all events that can be described in terms of the Grade variable. In our example, we have that  $P(\text{Grade} = A) = 0.25$ ,  $P(\text{Grade} = B) = 0.37$ , and  $P(\text{Grade} = C) = 0.38$ . It should be fairly obvious that the marginal distribution is a probability distribution satisfying the properties of definition 2.1. In fact, the only change is that we restrict our attention to the subsets of  $S$  that can be described with the random variable  $X$ . In many situations, we are interested in questions that involve the values of several random variables. For example, we might be interested in the event “Intelligence = high and Grade = A.” joint distribution To discuss such events, we need to consider the joint distribution over these two random variables. In general, the joint distribution over a set  $X = X_1, \dots, X_n$  of random variables is denoted by  $P(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  and is the distribution that assigns probabilities to events that are specified in terms of these random variables. We use  $\omega$  to refer to a full assignment to the variables in  $X$ , that is,  $\omega \in \text{Val}(X)$ . The joint distribution of two random variables has to be consistent with the marginal distribution, in that  $P(x) = \sum_y P(x, y)$ . This relationship is shown in figure 2.1, where we compute the marginal distribution over Grade by summing the probabilities along each row. Similarly, we find the marginal distribution over Intelligence by summing out along each column. The resulting sums are typically written in the row or column margins, whence the term “marginal distribution.” Suppose we have a joint distribution over the variables  $X = X_1, \dots, X_n$ . The most fine-grained events we can discuss using these variables are ones of the form “ $X_1 = x_1$  and  $X_2 = x_2, \dots$ , and  $X_n = x_n$ ” for a choice of values  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  for all the variables. Moreover,

Intelligence low high A 0.07 0.18 0.25 Grade B 0.28 0.09 0.37 C 0.35 0.03 0.38  
0.7 0.3 1 Figure 2.1 Example of a joint distribution  $P(\text{Intelligence}, \text{Grade})$ : Values of Intelligence (columns) and Grade (rows) with the associated marginal distribution on each variable. any two such events must be either identical or disjoint, since they both assign values to all the variables in  $X$ . In addition, any event defined using variables in  $X$  must be a union of a set of canonical such events. Thus, we are effectively working in a canonical outcome space: a space where each outcome space outcome corresponds to a joint assignment to  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ . More precisely, all our probability computations remain the same whether we consider the original outcome space (for example, all students), or the canonical space (for example, all combinations of intelligence and grade). atomic outcome We use  $\omega$  to denote these atomic outcomes: those assigning a value to each variable in  $X$ . For example, if we let  $X = \text{Intelligence}, \text{Grade}$ ,

there are six atomic outcomes, shown in figure 2.1. The figure also shows one possible joint distribution over these six outcomes. Based on this discussion, from now on we will not explicitly specify the set of outcomes and measurable events, and instead implicitly assume the canonical outcome space.

**3.4 Conditional Probability** The notion of conditional probability extends to induced distributions over random variables. For conditional example, we use the notation  $P(\text{Intelligence} \mid \text{Grade} = A)$  to denote the conditional distribution over the events describable by Intelligence given the knowledge that the student's grade is A. Note that the conditional distribution over a random variable given an observation of the value of another one is not the same as the marginal distribution. In our example,  $P(\text{Intelligence} = \text{high}) = 0.3$ , and  $P(\text{Intelligence} = \text{high} \mid \text{Grade} = A) = 0.18/0.25 = 0.72$ . Thus, clearly  $P(\text{Intelligence} \mid \text{Grade} = A)$  is different from the marginal distribution  $P(\text{Intelligence})$ . The latter distribution represents our prior knowledge about students before learning anything else about a particular student, while the conditional distribution represents our more informed distribution after learning her grade. We will often use the notation  $P(X \mid Y)$  to represent a set of conditional probability distributions. Intuitively, for each value of  $Y$ , this object assigns a probability over values of  $X$  using the conditional probability. This notation allows us to write the shorthand version of the chain rule:  $P(X, Y) = P(X)P(Y \mid X)$ , which can be extended to multiple variables as  $P(X_1, \dots, X_k) = P(X_1)P(X_2 \mid X_1) \cdots P(X_k \mid X_1, \dots, X_{k-1})$ . (2.5) Similarly, we can state Bayes' rule in terms of conditional probability distributions:  $P(X \mid Y) = P(X)P(Y \mid X) / P(Y)$ . (2.6)

## 13.5 Independence and Conditional Independence

**4.1 Independence** As we mentioned, we usually expect  $P(A)P(B)$  to be different from  $P(A, B)$ . That is, learning that  $B$  is true changes our probability over  $A$ . However, in some situations equality can occur, so that  $P(A, B) = P(A)P(B)$ . That is, learning that  $B$  occurs did not change our probability of  $A$ .

**Definition independent events**

We say that an event  $A$  is independent of event  $B$  in  $PP$ , denoted  $P(A)P(B)$ , if  $P(A, B) = P(A)P(B)$  or if  $P(A) = 0$  or  $P(B) = 0$ .

We can also provide an alternative definition for the concept of independence:

**Proposition 2.1**

A distribution  $PP$  satisfies (2.1) if and only if  $P(A, B) = P(A)P(B)$ .

**PROOF** Consider first the case where  $P(A) = 0$  or  $P(B) = 0$ ; here, we also have  $P(A, B) = 0$ , and so the equivalence immediately holds. When  $P(A) > 0$  and  $P(B) > 0$ , we can use the chain rule; we write  $P(A, B) = P(A)P(B \mid A)$ . Since  $A$  is independent of  $B$ , we have that  $P(B \mid A) = P(B)$ . Thus,  $P(A, B) = P(A)P(B)$ . Conversely, suppose that  $P(A, B) = P(A)P(B)$ . Then, by definition, we have that  $P(B \mid A) = P(B)$ . As an immediate consequence of this alternative definition, we see that independence is a symmetric notion. That is, (2.1) implies (2.2). **Example 2.3** For example, suppose that we toss two coins, and let  $A$  be the event "the first toss results in a head" and  $B$  the event "the second toss results in a head." It is not hard to convince ourselves that we expect that these two events to be independent. Learning that  $A$  is true would not change our probability of  $B$ . In this case, we see two different physical

processes (that is, coin tosses) leading to the events, which makes it intuitive that the probabilities of the two are independent. In certain cases, the same process can lead to independent events. For example, consider the event denoting “the die outcome is even” and the event denoting “the die outcome is 1 or 2.” It is easy to check that if the die is fair (each of the six possible outcomes has probability  $1/6$ ), then these two events are independent.

**4.2 Conditional Independence** While independence is a useful property, it is not often that we encounter two independent events. A more common situation is when two events are independent given an additional event. For example, suppose we want to reason about the chance that our student is accepted to graduate studies at Stanford or MIT. Denote by *Stanford* the event “admitted to Stanford” and by *MIT* the event “admitted to MIT.” In most reasonable distributions, these two events are not independent. If we learn that a student was admitted to Stanford, then our estimate of her probability of being accepted at MIT is now higher, since it is a sign that she is a promising student.

Now, suppose that both universities base their decisions only on the student’s grade point average (GPA), and we know that our student has a GPA of A. In this case, we might argue that learning that the student was admitted to Stanford should not change the probability that she will be admitted to MIT: Her GPA already tells us the information relevant to her chances of admission to MIT, and finding out about her admission to Stanford does not change that. Formally, the statement is  $P(\text{MIT} \mid \text{Stanford}, \text{GradeA}) = P(\text{MIT} \mid \text{GradeA})$ . In this case, we say that MIT is conditionally independent of Stanford given GradeA. **Definition 2.3** We say that an event is conditionally independent of event given event in  $P$ , denoted conditional independence  $P \models ( \mid )$ , if  $P( \mid ) = P( \mid )$  or if  $P( ) = 0$ . It is easy to extend the arguments we have seen in the case of (unconditional) independencies to give an alternative definition. **Proposition 2.2**  $P$  satisfies  $( \mid )$  if and only if  $P( \mid ) = P( \mid )P( \mid )$ .

**4.3 Independence of Random Variables** Until now, we have focused on independence between events. Thus, we can say that two events, such as one toss landing heads and a second also landing heads, are independent. However, we would like to say that any pair of outcomes of the coin tosses is independent. To capture such statements, we can examine the generalization of independence to sets of random variables. **Definition 2.4** Let  $X, Y, Z$  be sets of random variables. We say that  $X$  is conditionally independent of  $Y$  given conditional independence  $Z$  in a distribution  $P$  if  $P$  satisfies  $(X = x \ Y = y \mid Z = z)$  for all values  $x \in \text{Val}(X)$ ,  $y \in \text{Val}(Y)$ , and  $z \in \text{Val}(Z)$ . The variables in the set  $Z$  are often said to be observed. If the set observed variable  $Z$  is empty, then instead of writing  $(X \ Y \mid )$ , we write  $(X \ Y)$  and say that  $X$  and  $Y$  are marginally independent. marginal independence Thus, an independence statement over random variables is a universal quantification over all possible values of the random variables. The alternative characterization of conditional independence follows immediately: **Proposition 2.3** The distribution  $P$  satisfies  $(X \ Y \mid Z)$  if and only if  $P(X, Y \mid Z) = P(X \mid Z)P(Y \mid Z)$ . Suppose we learn about a conditional independence. Can we conclude other independence properties that must hold in the distribution? We have already seen one such example: symmetry • **Symmetry:**  $(X \ Y \mid Z) = (Y \ X \mid Z)$ . (2.7) There are several other properties that hold for conditional independence, and that often provide a very clean method for proving important properties about distributions. Some key properties are:

- **Decomposition:**  $(X \ Y, W \mid Z) = (X \ Y \mid Z)$ . (2.8) weak union • **Weak union:**

$(X \perp Y, W \mid Z) = (X \perp Y \mid Z, W)$ . (2.9) contraction • Contraction:  $(X \perp W \mid Z, Y)(X \perp Y \mid Z) = (X \perp Y, W \mid Z)$ . (2.10) An additional important property does not hold in general, but it does hold in an important subclass of distributions. Definition 2.5 A distribution  $P$  is said to be positive if for all events  $S$  such that  $\phi \in S$ , we have that positive distribution  $P(\phi) > 0$ . For positive distributions, we also have the following property: intersection • Intersection: For positive distributions, and for mutually disjoint sets  $X, Y, Z, W$ :  $(X \perp Y \mid Z, W)(X \perp W \mid Z, Y) = (X \perp Y, W \mid Z)$ . (2.11) The proof of these properties is not difficult. For example, to prove Decomposition, assume that  $(X \perp Y, W \mid Z)$  holds. Then, from the definition of conditional independence, we have that  $P(X, Y, W \mid Z) = P(X \mid Z)P(Y, W \mid Z)$ . Now, using basic rules of probability and arithmetic, we can show  $P(X, Y \mid Z) = \sum_w P(X, Y, w \mid Z) = \sum_w P(X \mid Z)P(Y, w \mid Z) = P(X \mid Z) \sum_w P(Y, w \mid Z) = P(X \mid Z)P(Y \mid Z)$ . The only property we used here is called “reasoning by cases” (see exercise 2.6). We conclude that  $(X \perp Y \mid Z)$ .

## 13.6 Querying a Distribution

Our focus throughout this book is on using a joint probability distribution over multiple random variables to answer queries of interest.

### 13.6.1 5.1 Probability Queries

probability query Perhaps the most common query type is the probability query. Such a query consists of two parts: evidence • The evidence: a subset  $E$  of random variables in the model, and an instantiation  $e$  to these variables; query variables • the query variables: a subset  $Y$  of random variables in the network. Our task is to compute  $P(Y \mid E = e)$ , posterior that is, the posterior probability distribution over the values  $y$  of  $Y$ , conditioned on the fact that distribution  $E = e$ . This expression can also be viewed as the marginal over  $Y$ , in the distribution we obtain by conditioning on  $e$ .

### 13.6.2 5.2 MAP Queries

A second important type of task is that of finding a high-probability joint assignment to some subset of variables. The simplest variant of this type of task is the MAP query (also called MAP assignment most probable explanation (MPE)), whose aim is to find the MAP assignment — the most likely assignment to all of the (non-evidence) variables. More precisely, if we let  $W = X \setminus E$ , our task is to find the most likely assignment to the variables in  $W$  given the evidence  $E = e$ :  $\text{MAP}(W \mid e) = \arg\max_w P(w, e)$ , (2.12) where, in general,  $\arg\max_x f(x)$  represents the value of  $x$  for which  $f(x)$  is maximal. Note that there might be more than one assignment that has the highest posterior probability. In this case, we can either decide that the MAP task is to return the set of possible assignments, or to return an arbitrary member of that set. It is important to understand the difference between MAP queries and probability queries. In a MAP query, we are finding the most likely joint assignment to  $W$ . To find the most likely assignment to a single variable  $A$ , we could simply compute  $P(A \mid e)$  and then pick the most likely value. However, the assignment where each variable individually picks its most likely value can be quite different from the



most likely joint assignment to all variables simultaneously. This phenomenon can occur even in the simplest case, where we have no evidence. Example 2.4 Consider a two node chain  $A \rightarrow B$  where  $A$  and  $B$  are both binary-valued. Assume that:  $a0 \ a1 \ 0.4 \ 0.6 \ A \ b0 \ b1 \ a0 \ 0.1 \ 0.9 \ a1 \ 0.5 \ 0.5$  (2.13) We can see that  $P(a1) > P(a0)$ , so that  $\text{MAP}(A) = a1$ . However,  $\text{MAP}(A, B) = (a0, b1)$ : Both values of  $B$  have the same probability given  $a1$ . Thus, the most likely assignment containing  $a1$  has probability  $0.6 \times 0.5 = 0.3$ . On the other hand, the distribution over values of  $B$  is more skewed given  $a0$ , and the most likely assignment  $(a0, b1)$  has the probability  $0.4 \times 0.9 = 0.36$ . Thus, we have that  $\text{argmax}_{a,b} P(a, b) = (\text{argmax}_a P(a), \text{argmax}_b P(b))$ .

### 13.6.3 5.3 Marginal MAP Queries

To motivate our second query type, let us return to the phenomenon demonstrated in example 2.4. Now, consider a medical diagnosis problem, where the most likely disease has multiple possible symptoms, each of which occurs with some probability, but not an overwhelming probability. On the other hand, a somewhat rarer disease might have only a few symptoms, each of which is very likely given the disease. As in our simple example, the MAP assignment to the data and the symptoms might be higher for the second disease than for the first one. The solution here is to look for the most likely assignment to the disease variable(s) only, rather than the most likely assignment to both the disease and symptom variables. This approach suggests marginal MAP the use of a more general query type. In the marginal MAP query, we have a subset of variables  $Y$  that forms our query. The task is to find the most likely assignment to the variables in  $Y$  given the evidence  $E = e$ :  $\text{MAP}(Y | e) = \arg \max_y P(y | e)$ . If we let  $Z = X \setminus Y \setminus E$ , the marginal MAP task is to compute:  $\text{MAP}(Y | e) = \arg \max_{Y \setminus X \setminus Z} P(Y, Z | e)$ . Thus, marginal MAP queries contain both summations and maximizations; in a way, it contains elements of both a conditional probability query and a MAP query. Note that example 2.4 shows that marginal MAP assignments are not monotonic: the most likely assignment  $\text{MAP}(Y1 | e)$  might be completely different from the assignment to  $Y1$  in  $\text{MAP}(Y1, Y2 | e)$ . Thus, in particular, we cannot use a MAP query to give us the correct answer to a marginal MAP query.

## 13.7 Continuous Spaces

In the previous section, we focused on random variables that have a finite set of possible values. In many situations, we also want to reason about continuous quantities such as weight, height, duration, or cost that take real numbers in  $\mathbb{R}$ . When dealing with probabilities over continuous random variables, we have to deal with some technical issues. For example, suppose that we want to reason about a random variable  $X$  that can take values in the range between 0 and 1. That is,  $\text{Val}(X)$  is the interval  $[0, 1]$ . Moreover, assume that we want to assign each number in this range equal probability. What would be the probability of a number  $x$ ? Clearly, since each  $x$  has the same probability, and there are infinite number of values, we must have that  $P(X = x) = 0$ . This problem appears even if we do not require uniform probability.

**6.1 Probability Density Functions** How do we define probability over a continuous random variable? We say that a function density function  $p : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a probability density function or (PDF) for  $X$  if it is a nonnegative integrable function such that  $\int_{\text{Val}(X)} p(x)dx = 1$ . That is, the integral over the set of possible values of  $X$  is 1. The PDF defines a distribution for  $X$  as follows: for any  $x$  in our event space:  $P(X \leq a) = \int_{-\infty}^a p(x)dx$ . The function  $P$  is the cumulative distribution for  $X$ . We can easily employ the rules of distribution probability to see that by using the density function we can evaluate the probability of other events. For example,  $P(a \leq X \leq b) = \int_a^b p(x)dx$ . Intuitively, the value of a PDF  $p(x)$  at a point  $x$  is the incremental amount that  $x$  adds to the cumulative distribution in the integration process. The higher the value of  $p$  at and around  $x$ , the more mass is added to the cumulative distribution as it passes  $x$ . The simplest PDF is the uniform distribution. **Definition 2.6** A variable  $X$  has a uniform distribution over  $[a, b]$ , denoted  $X \sim \text{Unif}[a, b]$  if it has the PDF uniform distribution  $p(x) = \frac{1}{b-a}$  otherwise 0. Thus, the probability of any subinterval of  $[a, b]$  is proportional its size relative to the size of  $[a, b]$ . Note that, if  $b - a < 1$ , then the density can be greater than 1. Although this looks unintuitive, this situation can occur even in a legal PDF, if the interval over which the value is greater than 1 is not too large. We have only to satisfy the constraint that the total area under the PDF is 1. As a more complex example, consider the Gaussian distribution. **Definition 2.7** A random variable  $X$  has a Gaussian distribution with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ , denoted  $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$  if it has the PDF  $p(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$ . A standard Gaussian is one with mean 0 and variance 1. A Gaussian distribution has a bell-like curve, where the mean parameter  $\mu$  controls the location of the peak, that is, the value for which the Gaussian gets its maximum value. The variance parameter  $\sigma^2$  determines how peaked the Gaussian is: the smaller the variance, the

more peaked the Gaussian. Figure 2.2 shows the probability density function of a few different Gaussian distributions. More technically, the probability density function is specified as an exponential, where the expression in the exponent corresponds to the square of the number of standard deviations that  $x$  is away from the mean  $\mu$ . The probability of  $x$  decreases exponentially with the square of its deviation from the mean, as measured in units of its standard deviation.

## 6.2 Joint Density Functions

The discussion of density functions for a single variable naturally extends for joint distributions of continuous random variables. **Definition 2.8** Let  $P$  be a joint distribution over continuous random variables  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ . A function  $p(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  joint density is a joint density function of  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  if  $p(x_1, \dots, x_n) \geq 0$  for all values  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  of  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ .  $p$  is an integrable function. For any choice of  $a_1, \dots, a_n$ , and  $b_1, \dots, b_n$ ,  $P(a_1 \leq X_1 \leq b_1, \dots, a_n \leq X_n \leq b_n) = \int_{a_1}^{b_1} \dots \int_{a_n}^{b_n} p(x_1, \dots, x_n) dx_1 \dots dx_n$ . Thus, a joint density specifies the probability of any joint event over the variables of interest. Both the uniform distribution and the Gaussian distribution have natural extensions to the multivariate case. The definition of a multivariate uniform distribution is straightforward. We defer the definition of the multivariate Gaussian to section 7.1. From the joint density we can derive the marginal density of any random variable by integrating out the other variables. Thus, for example, if  $p(x, y)$  is the joint density of  $X$  and  $Y$

then  $p(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x, y)dy$ . To see why this equality holds, note that the event

$a \leq X \leq b$  is, by definition, equal to the event “ $a \leq X \leq b$  and  $Y = y$ .” This rule is the direct analogue of marginalization for discrete variables. Note that, as with discrete probability distributions, we abuse notation a bit and use  $p$  to denote both the joint density of  $X$  and  $Y$  and the marginal density of  $X$ . In cases where the distinction is not clear, we use subscripts, so that  $p_X$  will be the marginal density, of  $X$ , and  $p_{X,Y}$  the joint density.

**6.3 Conditional Density Functions** As with discrete random variables, we want to be able to describe conditional distributions of continuous variables. Suppose, for example, we want to define  $P(Y | X = x)$ . Applying the definition of conditional distribution (equation (2.1)), we run into a problem, since  $P(X = x) = 0$ . Thus, the ratio of  $P(Y, X = x)$  and  $P(X = x)$  is undefined. To avoid this problem, we might consider conditioning on the event  $x \leq X \leq x + \Delta$ , which can have a positive probability. Now, the conditional probability is well defined. Thus, we might consider the limit of this quantity when  $\Delta \rightarrow 0$ . We define  $P(Y | x) = \lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} P(Y | x \leq X \leq x + \Delta)$ . When does this limit exist? If there is a continuous joint density function  $p(x, y)$ , then we can derive the form for this term. To do so, consider some event on  $Y$ , say  $a \leq Y \leq b$ . Recall that  $P(a \leq Y \leq b | x \leq X \leq x + \Delta) = P(a \leq Y \leq b, x \leq X \leq x + \Delta) / P(x \leq X \leq x + \Delta) = \int_a^b \int_x^{x+\Delta} p(x, y) dy dx / \int_x^{x+\Delta} p(x, y) dy = \int_a^b p(x, y) dy / \int_a^b p(x, y) dy = \int_a^b p(x, y) dy / \int_a^b p(x, y) dy = \int_a^b p(x, y) dy / \int_a^b p(x, y) dy$ . When  $\Delta$  is sufficiently small, we can approximate  $\int_x^{x+\Delta} p(x, y) dy \approx \Delta p(x)$ . Using a similar approximation for  $p(x, y)$ , we get  $P(a \leq Y \leq b | x \leq X \leq x + \Delta) \approx \int_a^b p(x, y) dy / \Delta p(x) = \int_a^b p(x, y) dy / \Delta p(x)$ . We conclude that  $p(x, y) / p(x)$  is the density of  $P(Y | X = x)$ .

Let  $p(x, y)$  be the joint density of  $X$  and  $Y$ . The conditional density function of  $Y$  given  $X$  is conditional density function defined as  $p(y | x) = p(x, y) / p(x)$ . When  $p(x) = 0$ , the conditional density is undefined. The conditional density  $p(y | x)$  characterizes the conditional distribution  $P(Y | X = x)$  we defined earlier. The properties of joint distributions and conditional distributions carry over to joint and conditional density functions. In particular, we have the chain rule  $p(x, y) = p(x)p(y | x)$  (2.14) and Bayes' rule  $p(x | y) = p(x)p(y | x) / p(y)$ . (2.15) As a general statement, whenever we discuss joint distributions of continuous random variables, we discuss properties with respect to the joint density function instead of the joint distribution, as we do in the case of discrete variables. Of particular interest is the notion of (conditional) independence of continuous random variables. **Definition 2.10** Let  $X, Y$ , and  $Z$  be sets of continuous random variables with joint density  $p(X, Y, Z)$ . We say conditional that  $X$  is conditionally independent of  $Y$  given  $Z$  if independence  $p(x | z) = p(x | y, z)$  for all  $x, y, z$  such that  $p(z) > 0$ .

## 13.8 Kỳ vọng và phương sai

### 13.8.1 Kỳ vọng

**kỳ vọng**

Cho  $X$  là một biến rời rạc nhận các giá trị số, khi đó kỳ vọng của  $X$  dưới phân phối  $P$  là

$$\mathbb{E}_P[X] = \sum_x x \cdot P(x).$$

Nếu  $X$  là một biến liên tục, khi đó sử dụng hàm mật độ

$$\mathbb{E}_P[X] = \int x \cdot p(x).$$

Ví dụ, nếu  $X$  là số chấm hiện ra khi tung một xúc sắc với xác suất xuất hiện mỗi mặt là  $\frac{1}{6}$ . Khi đó, kì vọng của  $\mathbb{E}[X] = 1 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 2 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + \cdots + 6 \cdot \frac{1}{6} = 3.5$ . Nếu trong trường hợp xúc sắc không cân bằng  $P(X = 6) = 0.5$  và  $P(X = x) = 0.1$  với  $x < 6$ , khi đó,  $\mathbb{E}[X] = 1 \cdot 0.1 + 2 \cdot 0.1 + \cdots + 5 \cdot 0.1 + 6 \cdot 0.5 = 4.5$ .

Often we are interested in expectations of a function of a random variable (or several random variables). Thus, we might consider extending the definition to consider the expectation of a functional term such as  $X^2 + 0.5X$ . Note, however, that any function  $g$  of a set of random variables  $X_1, \dots, X_k$  is essentially defining a new random variable  $Y$ : For any outcome  $\Omega$ , we define the value of  $Y$  as  $g(fX_1(), \dots, fX_k())$ . Based on this discussion, we often define new random variables by a functional term. For example  $Y = X^2$ , or  $Y = eX$ . We can also consider functions that map values of one or more categorical random variables to numerical values. One such function that we use quite often is indicator function the indicator function, which we denote  $11X = x$ . This function takes value 1 when  $X = x$ , and 0 otherwise. In addition, we often consider expectations of functions of random variables without bothering to name the random variables they define. For example  $\text{IEP}[X + Y]$ . Nonetheless, we should keep in mind that such a term does refer to an expectation of a random variable. We now turn to examine properties of the expectation of a random variable. First, as can be easily seen, the expectation of a random variable is a linear function in that random variable. Thus,  $\text{IE}[a \cdot X + b] = a\text{IE}[X] + b$ . A more complex situation is when we consider the expectation of a function of several random variables that have some joint behavior. An important property of expectation is that the expectation of a sum of two random variables is the sum of the expectations. Proposition 2.4  $\text{IE}[X + Y] = \text{IE}[X] + \text{IE}[Y]$ . linearity of This property is called linearity of expectation. It is important to stress that this identity is true expectation even when the variables are not independent. As we will see, this property is key in simplifying many seemingly complex problems. Finally, what can we say about the expectation of a product of two random variables? In general, very little: Example 2.5 Consider two random variables  $X$  and  $Y$ , each of which takes the value  $+1$  with probability  $1/2$ , and the value  $-1$  with probability  $1/2$ . If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent, then  $\text{IE}[X \cdot Y] = 0$ . On the other hand, if  $X$  and  $Y$  are correlated in that they always take the same value, then  $\text{IE}[X \cdot Y] = 1$ . However, when  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent, then, as in our example, we can compute the expectation simply as a product of their individual expectations: Proposition 2.5 If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent, then  $\text{IE}[X \cdot Y] = \text{IE}[X] \cdot \text{IE}[Y]$ . conditional We often also use the expectation given some evidence. The conditional expectation of  $X$  expectation given  $y$  is  $\text{IEP}[X | y] = \sum x \cdot P(x | y)$ .

### 13.8.2 Phương sai

#### phương sai

Kì vọng của  $X$  chỉ giá trị trung bình của  $X$ . Tuy nhiên, nó không chỉ sự khác nhau giữa các giá trị mà  $X$  có thể nhận.

$$\text{Var}_P[X] = \mathbb{E}_P[(X - \mathbb{E}_P[X])^2].$$

A measure of this deviation is the variance of  $X$ .  $VVar[X] = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^2]$ . Thus, the variance is the expectation of the squared difference between  $X$  and its expected value. It gives us an indication of the spread of values of  $X$  around the expected value. An alternative formulation of the variance is  $VVar[X] = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - (\mathbb{E}[X])^2$ . (2.16) (see exercise 2.11). Similar to the expectation, we can consider the expectation of a function of random variables. Proposition 2.6 If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent, then  $VVar[X + Y] = VVar[X] + VVar[Y]$ . It is straightforward to show that the variance scales as a quadratic function of  $X$ . In particular, we have:  $VVar[a \cdot X + b] = a^2 VVar[X]$ . For this reason, we are often interested in the square root of the variance, which is called the standard deviation of the random variable. We define deviation  $X = \sqrt{VVar[X]}$ . The intuition is that it is improbable to encounter values of  $X$  that are farther than several standard deviations from the expected value of  $X$ . Thus,  $X$  is a normalized measure of “distance” from the expected value of  $X$ . As an example consider the Gaussian distribution of definition 2.7. Proposition 2.7 Let  $X$  be a random variable with Gaussian distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , then  $\mathbb{E}[X] = \mu$  and  $VVar[X] = \sigma^2$ . Thus, the parameters of the Gaussian distribution specify the expectation and the variance of the distribution. As we can see from the form of the distribution, the density of values of  $X$  drops exponentially fast in the distance  $x - \mu$ . Not all distributions show such a rapid decline in the probability of outcomes that are distant from the expectation. However, even for arbitrary distributions, one can show that there is a decline. Theorem 2.1 (Chebyshev inequality): Chebyshev’s inequality  $P(|X - \mathbb{E}[X]| \geq t) \leq \frac{VVar[X]}{t^2}$ . We can restate this inequality in terms of standard deviations: We write  $t = kX$  to get  $P(|X - \mathbb{E}[X]| \geq kX) \leq \frac{1}{k^2}$ . Thus, for example, the probability of  $X$  being more than two standard deviations away from  $\mathbb{E}[X]$  is less than  $1/4$ .

## 13.9 Các hàm phân phối thông dụng

Phần này có thêm khảo [Goodfellow u.a. \(2016\)](#) và giáo trình xác suất thống kê của thạc sỹ Trần Thiện Khải, đại học Trà Vinh <sup>1</sup>

17/01/2018  
Lòng vòng thế  
nào hôm nay  
lại tìm được  
blog của bạn Đỗ  
Minh Hải, rất  
hay

### 13.9.1 Biến rời rạc

Tổng kết các phân phối rời rạc tham khảo slide 3, chapter 9 của khóa CS 109 <sup>2</sup>

**Phân phối Bernoulli:**

- xác suất xuất hiện mặt ngửa  $X \sim Ber(p)$

**Phân phối Bernoulli:**

- xác suất xuất hiện mặt ngửa  $X \sim Ber(p)$

**Phân phối Binomial:**

- xác suất thành công  $n$  lần  $X \sim B(n, p)$

**Phân phối Poisson:**

<sup>1</sup>[http://www.ctec.tvu.edu.vn/ttkhai/xacsuatthongke\\_dh.htm](http://www.ctec.tvu.edu.vn/ttkhai/xacsuatthongke_dh.htm)

<sup>2</sup>Slide 3, chapter 9, CS109 Stanford

- xác suất thành công  $n$  lần  $X \sim Poi(\lambda)$

**Phân phối Geometric:**

- số lần thử đến khi thành công  $X \sim Geo(p)$

**Phân phối Negative Binomial:**

- số lần thử đến khi  $r$  thành công  $X \sim NegBin(r, p)$

**Phân phối Hyper Geometric:**

- số bóng trắng lấy được trong  $N$  bóng chứa  $m$  bóng trắng  $X \sim HypG(n, N, m)$

**13.9.2 Biến ngẫu nhiên Bernoulli**

**Phép thử Bernoulli** là một phép thử chỉ có hai khả năng xảy ra "thành công" hoặc "thất bại". Trong thực tế, các ví dụ của phép thử Bernoulli xuất hiện rất phổ biến như *tung đồng xu*, *sự kiện một ổ đĩa bị hỏng*, *sự kiện một ai đó thích xem một bộ phim trên Netflix*. iên Định nghĩa  $X$  là một biến ngẫu nhiên, nhận giá trị bằng 1 nếu sự kiện thành công, nhận giá trị bằng 0 nếu sự kiện thất bại. Xác suất sự kiện thành công ( $X$  nhận giá trị bằng 1) là  $P(X = 1) = p(1) = p$ , xác suất sự kiện thất bại  $P(X = 0) = p(0) = 1 - p$

**$X$  là biến ngẫu nhiên Bernoulli**

$$X \sim Ber(p)$$

Khi đó, kì vọng của  $X$

$$E[X] = p$$

Phương sai của  $X$

$$Var(X) = p(1 - p)$$

**13.9.3 Phân phối Bernoulli**

Như đã đề cập về phép thử Béc-nu-li rằng mọi phép thử của nó chỉ cho 2 kết quả duy nhất là  $A$  với xác suất  $p$  và  $\bar{A}$  với xác suất  $q = 1 - p$  Biến ngẫu nhiên  $X$  tuân theo phân phối Béc-nu-li

$$X \sim B(p)$$

với tham số  $p \in \mathbb{R}, 0 \leq p \leq 1$  là xác suất xuất hiện của  $A$  tại mỗi phép thử

Định nghĩa		Giá trị
PMF	$p(x)$	$p(x) \mid p^x(1-p)^{1-x}, x \in \{0, 1\}$
CDF	$F(x; p)$	$\begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } x < 0 \\ 1 - p & \text{for } 0 \leq x < 1 \\ 1 & \text{for } x \geq 1 \end{cases}$
Kỳ vọng	$E[X]$	$p$
Phương sai	$Var(X)$	$p(1 - p)$

**13.9.4 Phân phối Binomial**

- xác suất thành công  $n$  lần  $X \sim B(n, p)$

**13.9.5 Phân phối Poisson**

- xác suất thành công  $n$  lần  $X \sim Poi(\lambda)$

**13.9.6 Phân phối Geometric**

- số lần thử đến khi thành công  $X \sim Geo(p)$

**13.9.7 Phân phối Negative Binomial**

- số lần thử đến khi  $r$  thành công  $X \sim NegBin(r, p)$

**13.9.8 Phân phối Hyper Geometric**

- số bóng trắng lấy được trong  $N$  bóng chứa  $m$  bóng trắng  $X \sim HypG(n, N, m)$

**13.9.9 Biến liên tục****13.9.10 Phân phối đều**

phân phối đều

Là phân phối mà xác suất xuất hiện của các sự kiện là như nhau.

Biến ngẫu nhiên  $X$  tuân theo phân phối đều rời rạc

$$X \sim Unif(a, b)$$

với tham số  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}; a < b$  là khoảng giá trị của  $X$ , đặt  $n = b - a + 1$

Ta sẽ có:

Định nghĩa	Giá trị
PMF	$p(x) \mid \frac{1}{n}, \forall x \in [a, b]$
CDF - $F(x; a, b)$	$\frac{x - a + 1}{n}, \forall x \in [a, b]$
Kỳ vọng - $E[X]$	$\frac{a + b}{2}$
Phương sai - $Var(X)$	$\frac{n^2 - 1}{12}$

Ví dụ 1:

bài toán chờ xe buýt

Lịch chạy của xe buýt tại một trạm xe buýt như sau: chiếc xe buýt đầu tiên trong ngày sẽ khởi hành từ trạm này vào lúc 7 giờ, cứ sau mỗi 15 phút sẽ có một xe khác đến trạm. Giả sử một hành khách đến trạm trong khoảng thời gian từ 7 giờ đến 7 giờ 30. Tìm xác suất để hành khách này chờ:

- Ít hơn 5 phút.
- Ít nhất 12 phút.

**Giải**

Gọi  $X$  là số phút sau 7 giờ mà hành khách đến trạm.

Ta có:  $X \sim R[0; 30]$ .

a) Hành khách sẽ chờ ít hơn 5 phút nếu đến trạm giữa 7 giờ 10 và 7 giờ 15 hoặc giữa 7 giờ 25 và 7 giờ 30. Do đó xác suất cần tìm là:

$$P(0 < X < 15) + P(25 < X < 30) = \frac{5}{30} + \frac{5}{30} = \frac{1}{3}$$

b) Hành khách chờ ít nhất 12 phút nếu đến trạm giữa 7 giờ và 7 giờ 3 phút hoặc giữa 7 giờ 15 phút và 7 giờ 18 phút. Xác suất cần tìm là:

$$P(0 < X < 3) + P(15 < X < 18) = \frac{3}{30} + \frac{3}{30} = \frac{1}{5}$$



## Chương 14

# Thống kê

Theo [Nguyễn Tiến Dũng \(2015\)](#), **thống kê toán học** có thể coi là tổng thể các phương pháp toán học, dựa trên lý thuyết xác suất và các công cụ khác, nhằm đưa ra được những thông tin mới, kết luận mới, có giá trị, từ những bảng số liệu thô ban đầu, và nhằm giải quyết những vấn đề nào đó nảy sinh từ thực tế.

### 14.1 Các vấn đề thống kê

Một số mục đích chính của thống kê

- Mô tả số liệu.
- Ước lượng và dự đoán các đại lượng.
- Tìm ra các mối quan hệ giữa các đại lượng.
- Kiểm định các giả thuyết.

### 14.2 Ước lượng bằng thống kê

#### 14.2.1 Phương pháp hợp lý cực đại

phương pháp hợp lý cực đại

Theo [Nguyễn Tiến Dũng \(2015\)](#), một trong những phương pháp phổ biến nhất để ước lượng phân bố xác suất của  $X$  bằng một phân bố xác suất trong một họ nào đó gọi là **phương pháp hợp lý cực đại** (maximum likelihood - dễ xảy ra nhất)

Ý tưởng của phương pháp này: những gì mà thấy được trong thực nghiệm, thì phải dễ xảy ra hơn là những gì không thấy. Ví dụ, khi một giáo viên hỏi một học sinh 4 câu hỏi ngẫu nhiên về một môn học nào đó mà học sinh đều trả lời được, thì giáo viên sẽ "ước lượng" đây là một học sinh giỏi, vì khi giỏi thì mới nhiều khả năng trả lời được cả 4 câu hỏi, còn nếu không giỏi sẽ có nhiều khả năng không trả lời được ít nhất 1 trong 4 câu hơn là khả năng "ăn may" trả lời được cả 4 câu.

Chúng ta sẽ tìm phân phối xác suất của biến ngẫu nhiên  $X$  sao cho mẫu thực nghiệm  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  có nhiều khả năng xảy ra nhất.

$$h_{MLE} = \underset{h \in H}{\operatorname{argmax}} P(h|D)$$

Ví dụ. Giả sử ta muốn tìm thấy xác suất của một sự kiện  $A$  nào đó (ví dụ như sự kiện: say rượu khi lái xe). Gọi  $X$  là *hàm chỉ báo* của  $A$ :  $X = 0$  nếu  $A$  không xảy ra,  $X = 1$  nếu  $A$  xảy ra. Khi đó  $X$  có phân bố Bernoulli với tham số  $p = P(A)$ . Để ước lượng  $p$ , ta làm  $n$  phép thử ngẫu nhiên độc lập, và được một mẫu  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  của  $X$ . Các số  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  chỉ nhận hai giá trị 0 và 1. Gọi  $k$  là số số 1 trong dãy số  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ . Khi đó, hàm độ hợp lý là:

$$L(p) = p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$$

Đạo hàm của  $L(p)$  là  $L'(p)$

$$L'(p) = n \left( \frac{k}{n} - p \right) p^{k-1} (1-p)^{n-k-1}$$

Từ đó, hàm  $L(p)$  đạt cực đại trên khoảng  $[0, 1]$  tại điểm  $p = \frac{k}{n} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{x_i}{n}$ . Như vậy, theo phương pháp hợp lý cực đại, ta có ước lượng sau đây của xác suất  $p = p(A)$

$$\hat{p} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{x_i}{n}$$

### 14.2.2 Phương pháp moment

### 14.2.3 Phương pháp hậu nghiệm cực đại

**phương pháp hậu nghiệm cực đại** Với một tập các giả thiết có thể  $H$ , hệ thống học sẽ tìm **giả thiết có thể xảy ra nhất**  $h$  ( $h \in H$ ) đối với dữ liệu quan sát được  $D$ .

Giả thiết này được gọi là giả thiết có xác suất hậu nghiệm cực đại (**maximum a posteriori - MAP**)

$$h_{MAP} = \underset{h \in H}{\operatorname{argmax}} P(h|D)$$

Do định lý Bayes,

$$h_{MAP} = \underset{h \in H}{\operatorname{argmax}} \frac{P(D|h)P(h)}{P(D)}$$

Do  $P(D)$  không phụ thuộc vào  $h$ , nên

$$h_{MAP} = \underset{h \in H}{\operatorname{argmax}} P(D|h)P(h) \quad (14.1)$$

Ví dụ. Dữ liệu **chơi tennis**. Dữ liệu được giới thiệu trong quyển [Mitchell \(1997\)](#) chứa thông tin thời tiết và quyết định chơi/không chơi tennis của một người. Được trình bày trong bảng [14.2.3](#). Tập  $H$  bao gồm 2 giả thiết có thể

- $h_1$ : Anh ta chơi tennis

ngày	ngoài trời	nhệt độ	độ ẩm	gió	chơi tennis
n1	nắng	nóng	cao	yếu	không
n2	nắng	nóng	cao	mạnh	không
n3	âm u	nóng	cao	yếu	có
n4	mưa	bình thường	cao	yếu	có
n5	mưa	mát mẻ	bình thường	yếu	có
n6	mưa	mát mẻ	bình thường	mạnh	không
n7	âm u	mát mẻ	bình thường	mạnh	có
n8	nắng	bình thường	cao	yếu	không
n9	nắng	mát mẻ	bình thường	yếu	có
n10	mưa	bình thường	bình thường	yếu	có
n11	nắng	bình thường	bình thường	mạnh	có
n12	âm u	bình thường	cao	mạnh	có
n13	âm u	nóng	bình thường	yếu	có
n14	mưa	bình thường	cao	mạnh	không

Bảng 14.1: Dữ liệu chơi tennis

- $h_2$ : Anh ta không chơi tennis

D: Tập dữ liệu (các ngày) mà trong đó trời nắng và gió mạnh (ngoài trời = nắng)

Dựa vào phương pháp MAP, có thể trả lời câu hỏi với thời tiết như vậy, anh ta có chơi tennis hay không?

Nhắc lại công thức 14.1

$$h_{MAP} = \underset{h \in H}{\operatorname{argmax}} P(D|h)P(h) \quad (14.2)$$

Do đó, ta cần tính hai giá trị  $P(D|h_1)P(h_1)$  và  $P(D|h_2)P(h_2)$

- $P(D|h_1)P(h_1) = P(D, h_1)$   
 $= P(\text{ngoài trời=nắng, chơi tennis=có}) = \frac{2}{14}$
- $P(D|h_2)P(h_2) = P(D, h_2)$   
 $= P(\text{ngoài trời=nắng, chơi tennis=không}) = \frac{3}{14}$

Do đó, với phương pháp MAP, có thể đưa ra kết luận với thời tiết như vậy, anh ta sẽ **không** chơi tennis

### 14.3 unbiased estimation

### 14.4 Kiểm định các giả thuyết

### 14.5 Tài liệu tham khảo

22/01/2018 Hôm nay tìm được quyển [Nhập môn hiện đại xác suất và thống kê](#) của hai tác giả Đỗ Đức Thái và Nguyễn Tiến Dũng quá vui.

**Phần III**

**Khoa học máy tính**

## Chương 15

# Data Structure and Algorithm

View online <http://magizbox.com/training/danda/site/>

### 15.1 Introduction

Algorithms + Data Structures = Programs

In computer science, a data structure is a particular way of organizing data in a computer so that it can be used efficiently. Data structures can implement one or more particular abstract data types (ADT), which specify the operations that can be performed on a data structure and the computational complexity of those operations. In comparison, a data structure is a concrete implementation of the specification provided by an ADT.

In mathematics and computer science, an algorithm is a self-contained step-by-step set of operations to be performed. Algorithms perform calculation, data processing, and/or automated reasoning tasks.

Software engineering is the study of ways in which to create large and complex computer applications and that generally involve many programmers and designers. At the heart of software engineering is with the overall design of the applications and on the creation of a design that is based on the needs and requirements of end users. While software engineering involves the full life cycle of a software project, it includes many different components - specification, requirements gathering, design, verification, coding, testing, quality assurance, user acceptance testing, production, and ongoing maintenance.

Having an in-depth understanding on every component of software engineering is not mandatory, however, it is important to understand that the subject of data structures and algorithms is concerned with the coding phase. The use of data structures and algorithms is the nuts-and-blots used by programmers to store and manipulate data.

This article, along with the other examples in this section focuses on the essentials of data structures and algorithms. Attempts will be made to understand how they work, which structure or algorithm is best in a particular situation in an easy to understand environment.

**Data Structures and Algorithms - Defined** A data structure is an arrangement of data in a computer's memory or even disk storage. An example of several common data structures are arrays, linked lists, queues, stacks, binary trees, and hash tables. Algorithms, on the other hand, are used to manipulate the data contained in these data structures as in searching and sorting.

Many algorithms apply directly to a specific data structures. When working with certain data structures you need to know how to insert new data, search for a specified item, and deleting a specific item.

Commonly used algorithms include are useful for:

Searching for a particular data item (or record). Sorting the data. There are many ways to sort data. Simple sorting, Advanced sorting Iterating through all the items in a data structure. (Visiting each item in turn so as to display it or perform some other action on these items)

### 15.1.1 Greedy Algorithm

**Greedy Algorithms** An algorithm is designed to achieve optimum solution for a given problem. In greedy algorithm approach, decisions are made from the given solution domain. As being greedy, the closest solution that seems to provide an optimum solution is chosen.

Greedy algorithms try to find a localized optimum solution, which may eventually lead to globally optimized solutions. However, generally greedy algorithms do not provide globally optimized solutions.

**Counting Coins** This problem is to count to a desired value by choosing the least possible coins and the greedy approach forces the algorithm to pick the largest possible coin. If we are provided coins of 1, 2, 5 and 10 and we are asked to count 18 then the greedy procedure will be

Select one 10 coin, the remaining count is 8

Then select one 5 coin, the remaining count is 3

Then select one 2 coin, the remaining count is 1

And finally, the selection of one 1 coins solves the problem

Though, it seems to be working fine, for this count we need to pick only 4 coins. But if we slightly change the problem then the same approach may not be able to produce the same optimum result.

For the currency system, where we have coins of 1, 7, 10 value, counting coins for value 18 will be absolutely optimum but for count like 15, it may use more coins than necessary. For example, the greedy approach will use  $10 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1$ , total 6 coins. Whereas the same problem could be solved by using only 3 coins ( $7 + 7 + 1$ )

Hence, we may conclude that the greedy approach picks an immediate optimized solution and may fail where global optimization is a major concern.

**Examples** Most networking algorithms use the greedy approach. Here is a list of few of them

Travelling Salesman Problem Prim's Minimal Spanning Tree Algorithm Kruskal's Minimal Spanning Tree Algorithm Dijkstra's Minimal Spanning Tree Algorithm Graph - Map Coloring Graph - Vertex Cover Knapsack Problem Job Scheduling Problem

### 15.1.2 Divide and Conquer

In divide and conquer approach, the problem in hand, is divided into smaller sub-problems and then each problem is solved independently. When we keep on dividing the subproblems into even smaller sub-problems, we may eventually reach a stage where no more division is possible. Those "atomic" smallest possible sub-problem (fractions) are solved. The solution of all sub-problems is finally merged in order to obtain the solution of an original problem.

Broadly, we can understand divide-and-conquer approach in a three-step process.

**Divide/Break** This step involves breaking the problem into smaller sub-problems. Sub-problems should represent a part of the original problem. This step generally takes a recursive approach to divide the problem until no sub-problem is further divisible. At this stage, sub-problems become atomic in nature but still represent some part of the actual problem.

**Conquer/Solve** This step receives a lot of smaller sub-problems to be solved. Generally, at this level, the problems are considered 'solved' on their own.

**Merge/Combine** When the smaller sub-problems are solved, this stage recursively combines them until they formulate a solution of the original problem. This algorithmic approach works recursively and conquer merge steps works so close that they appear as one.

**Examples** The following computer algorithms are based on divide-and-conquer programming approach

Merge Sort Quick Sort Binary Search Strassen's Matrix Multiplication Closest pair (points) There are various ways available to solve any computer problem, but the mentioned are a good example of divide and conquer approach.

### 15.1.3 Dynamic Programming

Dynamic programming approach is similar to divide and conquer in breaking down the problem into smaller and yet smaller possible sub-problems. But unlike, divide and conquer, these sub-problems are not solved independently. Rather, results of these smaller sub-problems are remembered and used for similar or overlapping sub-problems.

Dynamic programming is used where we have problems, which can be divided into similar sub-problems, so that their results can be re-used. Mostly, these algorithms are used for optimization. Before solving the in-hand sub-problem, dynamic algorithm will try to examine the results of the previously solved sub-problems. The solutions of sub-problems are combined in order to achieve the best solution.

So we can say that

The problem should be able to be divided into smaller overlapping sub-problem. An optimum solution can be achieved by using an optimum solution of smaller sub-problems. Dynamic algorithms use memorization. Comparison In contrast to greedy algorithms, where local optimization is addressed, dynamic algorithms are motivated for an overall optimization of the problem.

In contrast to divide and conquer algorithms, where solutions are combined to achieve an overall solution, dynamic algorithms use the output of a smaller sub-problem and then try to optimize a bigger sub-problem. Dynamic algorithms use memorization to remember the output of already solved sub-problems.

Example The following computer problems can be solved using dynamic programming approach

Fibonacci number series Knapsack problem Tower of Hanoi All pair shortest path by Floyd-Warshall Shortest path by Dijkstra Project scheduling Dynamic programming can be used in both top-down and bottom-up manner. And of course, most of the times, referring to the previous solution output is cheaper than recomputing in terms of CPU cycles.

#### 15.1.4 7 Steps to Solve Algorithm Problems

Today, I viewed the video "7 Steps to Solve Algorithm Problems" by Gayle Laakmann McDowell - the author of Cracking the Coding Interview book. In this video, Gayle describe her method for solve algorithms problems which consists 7 steps: listen carefully, example, brute force, optimize, walk through your algorithms, code and test. In this article, I will summary these steps base on what I learned from this video.

Step 1: Listen carefully Every single detail in a question is necessary to solve it. The first step is to listen carefully to the problem. So, generally speaking every single detail in a question is necessary to solve that problem - either to solve it all or to solve it optimally. So if there's some detail you haven't used in the question in your algorithm so far think about how you can put that to use because it might be necessary to solve the problem optimally.

Let me give you an example.

You have two arrays, sorted and distinct How did you find the number of elements in common between the two arrays? A lot of people solve this problem and they'll get kind of stuck for awhile and what they'll do is they'll be solving the problem and they'll know the arrays are sorted but they haven't actually used the fact that it's sorted.

This sorting detail - it's not necessary just to find an algorithm but it is necessary to solve the problem optimally.

So remember every single detail in the problem and make sure you use it.

Step 2: Example Make example big, no special cases

The second piece is to come up with a good example, so the last problem that I gave two arrays sorted and distinct compute the number of elements in common, most people's examples look like this.

too small and special case A: 1, 5, 15, 20 B: 2, 5, 13, 30 Yes technically if it's a problem but it's not very useful.

As soon as you glance at this example you notice that there's only one element common and you know exactly what it is and it's obvious because this example is so small and it's actually kind of a special case.

A better example is something like this

larger and avoid special cases A: 1, 5, 15, 20, 30, 37 B: 2, 5, 13, 30, 32, 35, 37, 42 It's much larger and you've avoided some special cases. One of the easiest ways of improving your performance on algorithm questions is just make your examples larger and really avoid special cases.

Step 3: Brute force Better to have a brute force than nothing at all

The third step is to come up with a brute force algorithm. Now I'm not saying you need to go out of your way to come up with something slow, I'm really just saying, hey if the first thing you have is only something really really slow and terrible that's okay. It is so much better to start off with something slow then



to start off with nothing at all. So it's fine if your first algorithm is slow and terrible whatever. However, and this is very very very important, I'm not saying to code the brute force. I'm saying just state your brute force algorithm, state its runtime, and then immediately go to optimizing.

A good chunk of the time on algorithm interview question will often be spent on optimizations. So that's step 4 and spend some good time on it.

Step 4: Optimize The fourth step is optimize and spend some good time on it.

Step 5: Walk through your algorithms Know exactly what you're going to do before coding

what variables data structures? how, why, why do they change? what is the structure of your code Then once you have an optimal algorithm or you're ready to start coding take a step back and just make sure you know exactly what you're going to do in your code.

So many people code prematurely when they aren't really really comfortable with what they're about to do and it ends in disaster. An eighty percent understanding of what you're about to write is really not enough for a whiteboard especially. So take a moment and walk through your algorithm and make sure you know exactly what you're about to do.

Step 6: Code Use space wisely, coding style matters, modularize

Step 6 is to start coding and I'm gonna go into this in a bit of detail. So a couple things to keep in mind particularly when you're coding on a whiteboard. The first couple tips are kind of whiteboard specific but try to write your lines straight. I'm not gonna be judging you on your handwriting and things like that but when people start writing their lines and sharp angles they start to lose track over whether this if statement under this for loop or not. The second thing is use your board space wisely. If you don't need stuff up on the board anymore just erase it. Try to write in this top left corner etc.

Basically give yourself as much space as you possibly can to write your code. If you do run out of space though, it's ok to use arrows, that's fine, I'm really not gonna be judging you on this kind of stuff. So more important things.

Coding style matters (consistent braces, consistent variable naming, consistence spaces, descriptive variables)

Coding style matters even on a whiteboard but on a computer as well, so that means things like braces, naming conventions, or using camel case or underscores, things like that. Those kind of style things absolutely matter. I'm not that concerned over which style you pick, I don't care if you write braces on the same line or the next line but I do care a lot that you have a style and you stick to it. So be consistent in your style. When it comes to variable names, yeah I know it's an annoying to write long variable names on a whiteboard but descriptive variable names are important to good style. So one compromise here is write the good descriptive variable name first and then just ask your interviewer, hey is it okay if I abbreviate this the next time. So that'll be a nice little compromise - you'd show that you care about good variable names but you also don't waste a lot of time.

Modularize (before. not after)

Last thing I want to talk about is modularization. Modularize your code up front and just any little conceptual chunks of code, push that off to another function. So suppose you have three steps in your algorithm - process the first string, process the second string, and then compare the results. Don't start writing these for loops that walk through each string in the very beginning.

Instead write this overall function that wraps these three steps. So step one, step two, step three, and then start drilling in and going into all the details there. Remember any conceptual chunks of code push those off to other functions, don't write them in line.

Step 7: Test Analyse: think about each line, double check things that look weird/risky (for-loop that decrement, math)

Use test cases (smaller test-cases first (faster to run, you will probably be more through, edge cases, big test cases)

Then once you're done with the coding you have to start testing your code. One of the mistakes a lot of people do here is they take their big example from step 2 and throw that in as a test case. The problem with that is it's very large so it will take you a long time to run through but also you just used that to develop your code, so if here's an oversight there, the problem will probably repeat itself here.

What's a better step to do, what's a better process to do, is just walk through your code line by line and just think about each line up front not with the test case but just consider, is it really doing the right thing?

Double check anything that looks weird, so for loops that decrement instead of increment and any math at all is a really common place for errors. Just think, look at your code analytically and think what are the most likely places for errors to be and double-check those.

Start with small rather than big

Then once you start with actual test cases start with small test cases rather than big ones. Small test cases work pretty much as effectively as big test cases but they are so much faster to run through, and in fact because they're faster people tend to be much more thorough so you're much more likely to actually find bugs with small test cases than big test cases. So start with small test cases then go in to edge cases after that and then if you have time maybe throw in some big test cases. A couple last techniques with testing. The first one is make sure that when you're testing you're really thinking about what you're doing. A lot of people when they're testing they're just walking through their code almost like they're a bot, and they only look to see if things made sense at the very end when they look at their output. It's much better to really think as you're testing, this way you find the bug as soon as it happens rather than six lines later at the very bottom.

Test your code not your algorithm

The second thing is when you're testing make sure that you're actually testing your code and not your algorithm. An amazing number of people will just take their example and like just walk through it again as though they're just walking through their algorithm but they're never even looking at their code, they're not looking at the exact calculations their code actually did. So make sure that you're really testing your code.

Find bugs

Then the last thing is when you find in a bug, don't panic. Just really think about what caused the bug. A lot of times people will panic and just try to make the first fix that fixes it for that output but they haven't really given it some thought and then they're in a much worse position because if you make the wrong fix to your code, the thing that just fixed the output but didn't fix a real bug you've not fixed the actual bug, you've made your code more complex, and you potentially introduced a brand new bug and you're in a much worse

position. It's much better to just when you find the bug, it's ok, it's not that big of a deal to have a bug it's very normal just really think through what the actual bug, where the actual plug came from.

Remember

think as you test (don't be a bot) test your code, not your algorithm think before you fix bugs. Don't panic! (wrong fixes are worse than no fix) Suggested Reading 7 Steps to Solve Algorithm Problems. Gayle Laakmann McDowell

## 15.2 Data Structures

### 15.2.1 Array

**Arrays** An array is an aggregate data structure that is designed to store a group of objects of the same or different types. Arrays can hold primitives as well as references. The array is the most efficient data structure for storing and accessing a sequence of objects.

Here is the list of most important array features you must know (i.e. be able to program)

copying and cloning insertion and deletion searching and sorting You already know that the Java language has only two data types, primitives and references. Which one is an array? Is it primitive? An array is not a primitive data type - it has a field (and only one), called length. Formally speaking, an array is a reference type, though you cannot find such a class in the Java APIs. Therefore, you deal with arrays as you deal with references. One of the major differences between references and primitives is that you cannot copy arrays by assigning one to another:

```
int[] a = {9, 5, 4}; int[] b = a; The assignment operator creates an alias to the object, like in the picture below
```

Since these two references a and b refer to the same object, comparing them with the double equal sign "==" will always return true. In the next code example, `int[] a = {1,2,3}; int[] b = {1,2,3};` a and b refer to two different objects (though with identical contents). Comparing them with the double equal sign will return false. How would you compare two objects with identical contents? In short, using the equals method. For array comparison, the Java APIs provides the Arrays class. The Arrays class The `java.util.Arrays` class is a convenience class for various array manipulations, like comparison, searching, printing, sorting and others. Basically, this class is a set of static methods that are all useful for working with arrays. The code below demonstrates a proper invocation of equals:

```
int[] a = {1,2,3}; int[] b = {1,2,3}; if( Arrays.equals(a, b) ) System.out.println("arrays with identical contents");
```

Another commonly used method is `toString()` which takes care of printing

```
int[] a = {1,2,3}; System.out.println(Arrays.toString(a));
```

Here is the example of sorting

```
int[] a = {3,2,1}; Arrays.sort(a); System.out.println(Arrays.toString(a));
```

In addition to that, the class has other utility methods for supporting operations over multidimensional arrays.

**Copying arrays** There are four ways to copy arrays

using a loop structure using `Arrays.copyOf()` using `System.arraycopy()` using `clone()` The first way is very well known to you

`int[] a = 1, 2, 3; int[] b = new int[a.length]; for(int i= 0; i < a.length; i++) b[i] = a[i];` The next choice is to use `Arrays.copyOf()`  
`int[] a = 1, 2, 3; int[] b = Arrays.copyOf(a, a.length);` The second parameter specifies the length of the new array, which could either less or equal or bigger than the original length.

The most efficient copying data between arrays is provided by `System.arraycopy()` method. The method requires five arguments. Here is its signature  
`public static void arraycopy(Object source, int srcIndex, Object destination, int destIndex, int length)` The method copies length elements from a source array starting with the index `srcIndex` to a new array destination at the index `destIndex`. The above code example can be rewritten as it follows

`int[] a = 1, 2, 3; int[] b = new int[a.length]; System.arraycopy(a, 0, b, 0, 3)` And the last copying choice is the use of cloning. Cloning involves creating a new array of the same size and type and copying all the old elements into the new array. The `clone()` method is defined in the `Object` class and its invocation is demonstrated by this code segment

`int[] a = 1, 2, 3; int[] b = (int[]) a.clone();` Note, that casting (`int[]`) is the must. Examine the code in `ArrayCopyPrimitives.java` for further details.

Insertion and Deletion Arrays in Java have no methods and only one immutable field `length`. Once an array is created, its length is fixed and cannot be changed. What do you do to resize the array? You allocate the array with a different size and copy the contents of the old array to the new array. This code example demonstrates deletion from an array of primitives

`public char[] delete(char[] data, int pos) if(pos >= 0 pos < data.length) char[] tmp = new char[data.length-1]; System.arraycopy(data, 0, tmp, 0, pos); System.arraycopy(data, pos+1, tmp, pos, data.length-pos-1); return tmp; else return data;` The first `arraycopy` copies the elements from index 0 to index `pos-1`, the second `arraycopy` copies the elements from index `pos+1` to `data.length`.

Examine the code in `ArrayDemo.java` for further details.

The `ArrayList` class The `java.util.ArrayList` class supports an idea of a dynamic array - an array that grows and shrinks on demand to accommodate the number of elements in the array. Below is a list of commonly used methods

`add(object)` - adds to the end `add(index, object)` - inserts at the index `set(index, object)` - replaces at the index `get(index)` - returns the element at that index `remove(index)` - deletes the element at that index `size()` - returns the number of elements The following code example will give you a heads up into how some of them are used.

`/* ADD */ ArrayList<Integer> num = new ArrayList<Integer>(); for(int i = 0; i < 10; i++) num.add(i); System.out.println(num);`  
`/* REMOVE even integers */ for(int i = 0; i < num.size(); i++) if(num.get(i)%2==0) num.remove(i); System.out.println(num);`

Copying arrays of objects This topic is more complex for understanding.. Let us start with a simple loop structure

`Object[] obj1 = new Integer(10), new StringBuffer("foobar"), new Double(12.95);`  
`Object[] obj2 = new Object[obj1.length]; for(int i = 0; i < obj1.length; i++) obj2[i] = obj1[i];` At the first glance we might think that all data is copied. In reality, the internal data is shared between two arrays. The figure below illustrates the inner structure

The assignment operator `obj2[i] = obj1[i]` is a crucial part of understanding the concept. You cannot copy references by assigning one to another. The assignment creates an alias rather than a copy. Let us trace down changes in the above

picture after execution the following statements

```
obj1[0] = new Integer(5);
and ((StringBuffer) obj1[1]).append('s');
```

As you see, `obj1[0]` and `obj2[0]` now refer to different objects. However, `obj1[1]` and `obj2[1]` refer to the same object (which is "foobars"). Since both arrays shares the data, you must be quite careful when you modify your data, because it might lead to unexpected effects.

The same behavior will take place again, if we use `Arrays.copyOf()`, `System.arraycopy()` and `clone()`. Examine the code example `ArrayCopyReferences.java` for further details.

**Multi-dimensional arrays** In many practical application there is a need to use two- or multi-dimensional arrays. A two-dimensional array can be thought of as a table of rows and columns. This creates a table of 2 rows and 4 columns:

```
int[][] ar1 = new int[2][4];
```

You can create and initialize an array by using nested curly braces. For example, this creates a table of 3 rows and 2 columns:

```
int[][] ar2 = {1,2,3,4,5,6};
```

Generally speaking, a two-dimensional array is not exactly a table - each row in such array can have a different length. Consider this code fragment

```
Object[][] obj = new Integer(1),new Integer(2), new Integer(10), "bozo", new
Double(1.95);
```

The accompanying picture sheds a bit of light on internal representation

From the picture you clearly see that a two-dimensional array in Java is an array of arrays. The array `obj` has two elements `obj[0]` and `obj[1]` that are arrays of length 2 and 3 respectively.

**Cloning 2D arrays** The procedure is even more confusing and less expected. Consider the following code segment

```
Object[][] obj = new Integer(1),new Integer(2), new Integer(10), "bozo", new
Double(1.95);
```

```
Object[][] twin = (Object[][]) obj.clone();
```

The procedure of cloning 2d arrays is virtually the same as cloning an array of references. Unfortunately, built-in `clone()` method does not actually clone each row, but rather creates references to them. Here is a graphical interpretation of the above code

Let us change the value of `obj[1][1]`

```
obj[1][1] = "xyz";
```

This assignment effects the value of `twin[1][1]` as well

Such a copy is called a "shallow" copy. The default behavior of `clone()` is to return a shallow copy of the object. If we want a "deep" copy instead, we must provide our own implementation by overriding `Object's clone()` method.

The idea of a "deep" copy is simple - it makes a distinct copy of each of the object's fields, recursing through the entire object. A deep copy is thus a completely separate object from the original; changes to it don't affect the original, and vice versa. In relevance to the above code, here is a deep clone graphically. Further, making a complete deep copy is not always needed. Consider an array of immutable objects. As we know, immutable objects cannot be modified, allowing clients to share the same instance without interfering with each other. In this case there is no need to clone them, which leads to the following picture

Always in this course we will create data structures of immutable objects, therefore implementing the clone method will require copying a structure (a shape) and sharing its internal data. We will discuss these issues later on in the course. Challenges "Arrays: Left Rotation". hackerrank. 2016 References "Array Data Structure". Victor S.Adamchik, CMU. 2009

### 15.2.2 Linked List

A linked list is a sequence of data structures, which are connected together via links.

Linked List is a sequence of links which contains items. Each link contains a connection to another link. Linked list is the second most-used data structure after array. Following are the important terms to understand the concept of Linked List.

**Link** Each link of a linked list can store a data called an element. **Next** Each link of a linked list contains a link to the next link called Next. **LinkedList** A Linked List contains the connection link to the first link called First. **Representation** Linked list can be visualized as a chain of nodes, where every node points to the next node.

As per the above illustration, following are the important points to be considered.

Linked List contains a link element called first. Each link carries a data field(s) and a link field called next. Each link is linked with its next link using its next link. Last link carries a link as null to mark the end of the list. **Types of Linked List** Following are the various types of linked list.

**Simple Linked List** Item navigation is forward only. **Doubly Linked List** Items can be navigated forward and backward. **Circular Linked List** Last item contains link of the first element as next and the first element has a link to the last element as previous. **Basic Operations** Following are the basic operations supported by a list.

**Insertion** Adds an element at the beginning of the list. **Deletion** Deletes an element at the beginning of the list. **Display** Displays the complete list. **Search** Searches an element using the given key. **Delete** Deletes an element using the given key. **Insertion Operation** Adding a new node in linked list is a more than one step activity. We shall learn this with diagrams here. First, create a node using the same structure and find the location where it has to be inserted.

Imagine that we are inserting a node B (NewNode), between A (LeftNode) and C (RightNode). Then point B.next to C

`NewNode.next > RightNode;` It should look like this

Now, the next node at the left should point to the new node.

`LeftNode.next > NewNode;`

This will put the new node in the middle of the two. The new list should look like this

Similar steps should be taken if the node is being inserted at the beginning of the list. While inserting it at the end, the second last node of the list should point to the new node and the new node will point to NULL.

**Deletion Operation** Deletion is also a more than one step process. We shall learn with pictorial representation. First, locate the target node to be removed, by using searching algorithms.

The left (previous) node of the target node now should point to the next node of the target node

`LeftNode.next > TargetNode.next;`

This will remove the link that was pointing to the target node. Now, using the following code, we will remove what the target node is pointing at.

`TargetNode.next > NULL;`

We need to use the deleted node. We can keep that in memory otherwise we can simply deallocate memory and wipe off the target node completely.

**Reverse Operation** This operation is a thorough one. We need to make the last node to be pointed by the head node and reverse the whole linked list.

First, we traverse to the end of the list. It should be pointing to NULL. Now, we shall make it point to its previous node

We have to make sure that the last node is not the lost node. So we'll have some temp node, which looks like the head node pointing to the last node. Now, we shall make all left side nodes point to their previous nodes one by one.

Except the node (first node) pointed by the head node, all nodes should point to their predecessor, making them their new successor. The first node will point to NULL.

We'll make the head node point to the new first node by using the temp node. The linked list is now reversed.

### 15.2.3 Stack and Queue

An array is a random access data structure, where each element can be accessed directly and in constant time. A typical illustration of random access is a book - each page of the book can be open independently of others. Random access is critical to many algorithms, for example binary search.

A linked list is a sequential access data structure, where each element can be accessed only in particular order. A typical illustration of sequential access is a roll of paper or tape - all prior material must be unrolled in order to get to data you want.

In this note we consider a subcase of sequential data structures, so-called limited access data structures.

**Stacks** A stack is a container of objects that are inserted and removed according to the last-in first-out (LIFO) principle. In the pushdown stacks only two operations are allowed: push the item into the stack, and pop the item out of the stack. A stack is a limited access data structure - elements can be added and removed from the stack only at the top. push adds an item to the top of the stack, pop removes the item from the top. A helpful analogy is to think of a stack of books; you can remove only the top book, also you can add a new book on the top. A stack is a recursive data structure. Here is a structural definition of a Stack:

a stack is either empty or it consists of a top and the rest which is a stack;

**Applications** The simplest application of a stack is to reverse a word. You push a given word to stack - letter by letter - and then pop letters from the stack. Another application is an "undo" mechanism in text editors; this operation is accomplished by keeping all text changes in a stack. **Backtracking.** This is a process when you need to access the most recent data element in a series of elements. Think of a labyrinth or maze - how do you find a way from an entrance to an exit? Once you reach a dead end, you must backtrack. But backtrack to where? to the previous choice point. Therefore, at each choice point you store on a stack all possible choices. Then backtracking simply means popping a next choice from the stack.

**Language processing:** space for parameters and local variables is created internally using a stack. compiler's syntax check for matching braces is implemented by using stack. support for recursion **Implementation** In the standard library of

classes, the data type stack is an adapter class, meaning that a stack is built on top of other data structures. The underlying structure for a stack could be an array, a vector, an ArrayList, a linked list, or any other collection. Regardless of the type of the underlying data structure, a Stack must implement the same functionality. This is achieved by providing a unique interface:

```
public interface StackInterface<AnyType> {
    public void push(AnyType e);
    public AnyType pop();
    public AnyType peek();
    public boolean isEmpty();
}
```

The following picture demonstrates the idea of implementation by composition.

Another implementation requirement (in addition to the above interface) is that all stack operations must run in constant time  $O(1)$ . Constant time means that there is some constant  $k$  such that an operation takes  $k$  nanoseconds of computational time regardless of the stack size.

**Array-based implementation**

In an array-based implementation we maintain the following fields: an array  $A$  of a default size (1), the variable  $top$  that refers to the top element in the stack and the capacity that refers to the array size. The variable  $top$  changes from  $-1$  to  $capacity - 1$ . We say that a stack is empty when  $top = -1$ , and the stack is full when  $top = capacity - 1$ . In a fixed-size stack abstraction, the capacity stays unchanged, therefore when  $top$  reaches capacity, the stack object throws an exception. See `ArrayStack.java` for a complete implementation of the stack class.

In a dynamic stack abstraction when  $top$  reaches capacity, we double up the stack size.

**Linked List-based implementation**

Linked List-based implementation provides the best (from the efficiency point of view) dynamic stack implementation. See `ListStack.java` for a complete implementation of the stack class.

**Queues** A queue is a container of objects (a linear collection) that are inserted and removed according to the first-in first-out (FIFO) principle. An excellent example of a queue is a line of students in the food court of the UC. New additions to a line made to the back of the queue, while removal (or serving) happens in the front. In the queue only two operations are allowed enqueue and dequeue. Enqueue means to insert an item into the back of the queue, dequeue means removing the front item. The picture demonstrates the FIFO access. The difference between stacks and queues is in removing. In a stack we remove the item the most recently added; in a queue, we remove the item the least recently added.

**Implementation** In the standard library of classes, the data type queue is an adapter class, meaning that a queue is built on top of other data structures. The underlying structure for a queue could be an array, a Vector, an ArrayList, a LinkedList, or any other collection. Regardless of the type of the underlying data structure, a queue must implement the same functionality. This is achieved by providing a unique interface.

```
interface QueueInterface<AnyType> {
    public boolean isEmpty();
    public AnyType getFront();
    public AnyType dequeue();
    public void enqueue(AnyType e);
}
```



public void clear(); Each of the above basic operations must run at constant time  $O(1)$ . The following picture demonstrates the idea of implementation by composition.

**Circular Queue** Given an array A of a default size ( 1) with two references back and front, originally set to -1 and 0 respectively. Each time we insert (enqueue) a new item, we increase the back index; when we remove (dequeue) an item - we increase the front index. Here is a picture that illustrates the model after a few steps:

As you see from the picture, the queue logically moves in the array from left to right. After several moves back reaches the end, leaving no space for adding new elements

However, there is a free space before the front index. We shall use that space for enqueueing new items, i.e. the next entry will be stored at index 0, then 1, until front. Such a model is called a wrap around queue or a circular queue

Finally, when back reaches front, the queue is full. There are two choices to handle a full queue: a) throw an exception; b) double the array size.

The circular queue implementation is done by using the modulo operator (denoted

See ArrayQueue.java for a complete implementation of a circular queue.

**Applications** The simplest two search techniques are known as Depth-First Search (DFS) and Breadth-First Search (BFS). These two searches are described by looking at how the search tree (representing all the possible paths from the start) will be traversed.

**Depth-First Search with a Stack** In depth-first search we go down a path until we get to a dead end; then we backtrack or back up (by popping a stack) to get an alternative path.

**Create a stack** Create a new choice point Push the choice point onto the stack while (not found and stack is not empty) Pop the stack Find all possible choices after the last one tried Push these choices onto the stack Return **Breadth-First Search with a Queue** In breadth-first search we explore all the nearest possibilities by finding all possible successors and enqueue them to a queue.

**Create a queue** Create a new choice point Enqueue the choice point onto the queue while (not found and queue is not empty) Dequeue the queue Find all possible choices after the last one tried Enqueue these choices onto the queue Return We will see more on search techniques later in the course.

**Arithmetic Expression Evaluation** An important application of stacks is in parsing. For example, a compiler must parse arithmetic expressions written using infix notation:

$1 + ((2 + 3) * 4 + 5) * 6$  We break the problem of parsing infix expressions into two stages. First, we convert from infix to a different representation called postfix. Then we parse the postfix expression, which is a somewhat easier problem than directly parsing infix.

**Converting from Infix to Postfix.** Typically, we deal with expressions in infix notation

$2 + 5$  where the operators (e.g. +, \*) are written between the operands (e.g. 2 and 5). Writing the operators after the operands gives a postfix expression 2 and 5 are called operands, and the '+' is operator. The above arithmetic expression is called infix, since the operator is in between operands. The expression  $2\ 5\ +$  Writing the operators before the operands gives a prefix expression

+2 5 Suppose you want to compute the cost of your shopping trip. To do so, you add a list of numbers and multiply them by the local sales tax (7.25  
 $70 + 150 * 1.0725$  Depending on the calculator, the answer would be either 235.95 or 230.875. To avoid this confusion we shall use a postfix notation  
 $70\ 150 + 1.0725 *$  Postfix has the nice property that parentheses are unnecessary. Now, we describe how to convert from infix to postfix.

Read in the tokens one at a time If a token is an integer, write it into the output  
 If a token is an operator, push it to the stack, if the stack is empty. If the stack is not empty, you pop entries with higher or equal priority and only then you push that 1. token to the stack. If a token is a left parentheses '(', push it to the stack If a token is a right parentheses ')', you pop entries until you meet '('.  
 When you finish reading the string, you pop up all tokens which are left there. Arithmetic precedence is in increasing order: '+', '-', '\*', '/'; Example. Suppose we have an infix expression:  $2+(4+3*2+1)/3$ . We read the string by characters. '2' - send to the output. '+' - push on the stack. '(' - push on the stack. '4' - send to the output. '+' - push on the stack. '3' - send to the output. '\*' - push on the stack. '2' - send to the output. Evaluating a Postfix Expression. We describe how to parse and evaluate a postfix expression.

We read the tokens in one at a time. If it is an integer, push it on the stack  
 If it is a binary operator, pop the top two elements from the stack, apply the operator, and push the result back on the stack. Consider the following postfix expression

5 9 3 + 4 2 \* \* 7 + \* Here is a chain of operations

Stack Operations Output ————— push(5); 5 9 push(9); 5 9 push(3); 5 9 3 push(pop() + pop()) 5 12 push(4); 5 12 4 push(2); 5 12 4 2 push(pop() \* pop()) 5 12 8 push(pop() \* pop()) 5 96 push(7) 5 96 7 push(pop() + pop()) 5 103 push(pop() \* pop()) 515 Note, that division is not a commutative operation, so  $2/3$  is not the same as  $3/2$ .

Challenges Stacks: Balanced Brackets Queues: A Tale of Two Stacks References "Stacks and Queues". Victor S.Adamchik, CMU. 2009

### 15.2.4 Tree

Binary Tree Fundamentally, a binary tree is composed of nodes connected by edges (with further restrictions discussed below). Some binary tree,  $tt$ , is either empty or consists of a single root element with two distinct binary tree child elements known as the left subtree and the right subtree of  $tt$ . As the name binary suggests, a node in a binary tree has a maximum of 22 children.

The following diagrams depict two different binary trees:

Here are the basic facts and terms to know about binary trees:

The convention for binary tree diagrams is that the root is at the top, and the subtrees branch down from it. A node's left and right subtrees are referred to as children, and that node can be referred to as the parent of those subtrees. A non-root node with no children is called a leaf. Some node  $aa$  is an ancestor of some node  $bb$  if  $bb$  is located in a left or right subtree whose root node is  $aa$ . This means that the root node of binary tree  $tt$  is the ancestor of all other nodes in the tree. If some node  $aa$  is an ancestor of some node  $bb$ , then the path from  $aa$  to  $bb$  is the sequence of nodes starting with  $aa$ , moving down the ancestral chain of children, and ending with  $bb$ . The depth (or level) of some node  $aa$  is its distance (i.e., number of edges)

from the tree's root node. Simply put, the height of a tree is the number of edges between the root node and its furthest leaf. More technically put, it's  $1 + \max(\text{height}(\text{leftSubtree}), \text{height}(\text{rightSubtree}))$  (i.e., one more than the maximum of the heights of its left and right subtrees). Any node has a height of 11, and the height of an empty subtree is 11. Because the height of each node is  $1 + 1 +$  the maximum height of its subtrees and an empty subtree's height is 11, the height of a single-element tree or leaf node is 00. Let's apply some of the terms we learned above to the binary tree on the right:

The root node is AA.

The respective left and right children of AA are BB and EE. The left child of BB is CC. The respective left and right children of EE are FF and DD.

Nodes CC, FF, and DD are leaves (i.e., each node is a leaf).

The root is the ancestor of all other nodes, BB is an ancestor of CC, and EE is an ancestor of FF and DD.

The path between AA and CC is  $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow CA \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$ . The path between AA and FF is  $A \rightarrow E \rightarrow FA \rightarrow E \rightarrow F$ . The path between AA and DD is  $A \rightarrow E \rightarrow D \rightarrow E \rightarrow D$ . The depth of root node AA is 00. The depth of nodes BB and EE is 11. The depth of nodes CC, FF, and DD, is 22.

The height of the tree,  $\text{height}(t)$ , is 22. We calculate this recursively as  $\text{height}(t) = 1 + (\max(\text{height}(\text{root.leftChild}), \text{height}(\text{root.rightChild})))$ . Because this is long and complicated when expanded, we'll break it down using an image of a slightly simpler version of  $tt$  whose height is still 22:

Binary Search Tree A Binary Search Tree (BST),  $tt$ , is a binary tree that is either empty or satisfies the following three conditions:

Each element in the left subtree of  $tt$  is less than or equal to the root element of  $tt$  (i.e.,  $\max(\text{leftTree}(t).value) \leq t.value \leq \max(\text{rightTree}(t).value)$ ).

Each element in the right subtree of  $tt$  is greater than the root element of  $tt$  (i.e.,  $\max(\text{rightTree}(t).value) > t.value$ ).

Both  $\text{leftTree}(t)$  and  $\text{rightTree}(t)$  are BSTs.

You can essentially think of it as a regular binary tree where for each node parent having a leftChild and rightChild,  $\text{parent.value} > \text{leftChild.value}$  and  $\text{parent.value} < \text{rightChild.value}$ .

In the first diagram at the top of this article, the binary tree of integers on the left side is a binary search tree.

**Advantages and Drawbacks** Searching for elements is very fast. We know that each node has a maximum of two children and we know that the  $\leq$  items are always in the left subtree and the  $>$  items are always in the right subtree. To search for an element, we simply need to compare the value we want against the value stored in the root node of the current subtree and work our way down the appropriate child subtrees until we either find the value we're looking for or we hit null (i.e., an empty subtree) which indicates the item is not in the BST. Inserting or searching for a node in a balanced tree is  $O(\log n)$  because you're discarding half of the possible values each time you go left or right.

It can easily become unbalanced. Depending on the insertion order, the tree can very easily become unbalanced (which makes for longer search times). For example, if we create a new tree where the sequence of inserted nodes is  $2 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 4 \rightarrow 5 \rightarrow 6$ , we end up with the following unbalanced tree:

Observe that the root's left subtree only has one node, whereas the root's right subtree has four nodes. For this reason, inserting or searching for a node in an

unbalanced tree is  $O(n)O(n)$ .

Challenges "Trees: Is This a Binary Search Tree?". hackerrank. 2016 References  
"Binary Trees and Binary Search Trees". AllisonP, hackerrank. 2016

### 15.2.5 Binary Search Tree

A Binary Search Tree (BST) is a tree in which all the nodes follow the below-mentioned properties

The left sub-tree of a node has a key less than or equal to its parent node's key.

The right sub-tree of a node has a key greater than to its parent node's key.

Thus, BST divides all its sub-trees into two segments; the left sub-tree and the right sub-tree and can be defined as

*left\_subtree(keys)node(key)right\_subtree(keys)Representation BST is a collection of nodes arranged in a way where*

Following is a pictorial representation of BST

We observe that the root node key (27) has all less-valued keys on the left sub-tree and the higher valued keys on the right sub-tree.

Basic Operations Following are the basic operations of a tree

Search Searches an element in a tree. Insert Inserts an element in a tree.

Pre-order Traversal Traverses a tree in a pre-order manner. In-order Traversal

Traverses a tree in an in-order manner. Post-order Traversal Traverses a tree

in a post-order manner. Node Define a node having some data, references to its left and right child nodes.

```
struct node { int data; struct node *leftChild; struct node *rightChild; };
Search Operation Whenever an element is to be searched, start searching from the root node. Then if the data is less than the key value, search for the element in the left subtree. Otherwise, search for the element in the right subtree. Follow the same algorithm for each node.
```

Algorithm

```
struct node* search(int data) { struct node *current = root; printf("Visiting elements: ");
while(current->data != data)
if(current != NULL) printf("
//go to left tree if(current->data > data) current = current->leftChild; //else
go to right tree else current = current->rightChild;
//not found if(current == NULL) return NULL; return current;
Insert Operation Whenever an element is to be inserted, first locate its proper location. Start searching from the root node, then if the data is less than the key value, search for the empty location in the left subtree and insert the data. Otherwise, search for the empty location in the right subtree and insert the data.
```

Algorithm

```
void insert(int data) { struct node *tempNode = (struct node*) malloc(sizeof(struct node)); struct node *current; struct node *parent;
tempNode->data = data; tempNode->leftChild = NULL; tempNode->rightChild = NULL;
//if tree is empty if(root == NULL) root = tempNode; else current = root;
parent = NULL;
while(1) parent = current;
//go to left of the tree if(data < parent->data) current = current->leftChild;
//insert to the left
```

```

if(current == NULL) parent->leftChild = tempNode; return; //go to right of
the tree else current = current->rightChild;
//insert to the right if(current == NULL) parent->rightChild = tempNode;
return;

```

## 15.3 Heaps

A heap is just what it sounds like — a pile of values organized into a binary tree-like structure adhering to some ordering property. When we add elements to a heap, we fill this tree-like structure from left to right, level by level. This makes heaps really easy to implement in an array, where the value for some index  $i$ 's left child is located at index  $2i+1$  and the value for its right child is at index  $2i+2$  (using zero-indexing). Here are the two most fundamental heap operations:

**add:** Insert an element into the heap. You may also see this referred to as **push**.

**poll:** Retrieve and remove the root element of the heap. You may also see this referred to as **pop**. **Max Heap** This type heap orders the maximum value at the root.

When we add the values  $1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 4$  to a Max heap, it looks like this:

When we poll the same Max heap until it's empty, it looks like this:

**Min Heap** This type of heap orders the minimum value at the root.

When we add the values  $1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 4$  to a Min heap, it looks like this:

When we poll the same Min heap until it's empty, it looks like this:

**Applications** The heap data structure has many applications.

**Heapsort:** One of the best sorting methods being in-place and with no quadratic worst-case scenarios. **Selection algorithms:** A heap allows access to the min or max element in constant time, and other selections (such as median or  $k$ th-element) can be done in sub-linear time on data that is in a heap. **Graph algorithms:** By using heaps as internal traversal data structures, run time will be reduced by polynomial order. Examples of such problems are Prim's minimal-spanning-tree algorithm and Dijkstra's shortest-path algorithm. **Priority Queue:** A priority queue is an abstract concept like "a list" or "a map"; just as a list can be implemented with a linked list or an array, a priority queue can be implemented with a heap or a variety of other methods. **Order statistics:** The Heap data structure can be used to efficiently find the  $k$ th smallest (or largest) element in an array. **Challenges** "Heaps: Find the Running Median". hackerrank. 2016 **References** "Heaps". AllisonP, hackerrank. 2016 "Heap (data structure)". wikipedia. 2016

## 15.4 Sort

### 15.4.1 Introduction

Sorting refers to arranging data in a particular format. Sorting algorithm specifies the way to arrange data in a particular order. Most common orders are in numerical or lexicographical order.

The importance of sorting lies in the fact that data searching can be optimized to a very high level, if data is stored in a sorted manner. Sorting is also used to represent data in more readable formats. Following are some of the examples of sorting in real-life scenarios

**Telephone Directory** The telephone directory stores the telephone numbers of people sorted by their names, so that the names can be searched easily. **Dictionary** The dictionary stores words in an alphabetical order so that searching of any word becomes easy. **In-place Sorting and Not-in-place Sorting** Sorting algorithms may require some extra space for comparison and temporary storage of few data elements. These algorithms do not require any extra space and sorting is said to happen in-place, or for example, within the array itself. This is called in-place sorting. Bubble sort is an example of in-place sorting.

However, in some sorting algorithms, the program requires space which is more than or equal to the elements being sorted. Sorting which uses equal or more space is called not-in-place sorting. Merge-sort is an example of not-in-place sorting.

**Stable and Not Stable Sorting** If a sorting algorithm, after sorting the contents, does not change the sequence of similar content in which they appear, it is called stable sorting.

If a sorting algorithm, after sorting the contents, changes the sequence of similar content in which they appear, it is called unstable sorting.

Stability of an algorithm matters when we wish to maintain the sequence of original elements, like in a tuple for example.

**Adaptive and Non-Adaptive Sorting Algorithm** A sorting algorithm is said to be adaptive, if it takes advantage of already 'sorted' elements in the list that is to be sorted. That is, while sorting if the source list has some element already sorted, adaptive algorithms will take this into account and will try not to re-order them. A non-adaptive algorithm is one which does not take into account the elements which are already sorted. They try to force every single element to be re-ordered to confirm their sortedness.

**Important Terms** Some terms are generally coined while discussing sorting techniques, here is a brief introduction to them

**Increasing Order**

A sequence of values is said to be in increasing order, if the successive element is greater than the previous one. For example, 1, 3, 4, 6, 8, 9 are in increasing order, as every next element is greater than the previous element.

**Decreasing Order**

A sequence of values is said to be in decreasing order, if the successive element is less than the current one. For example, 9, 8, 6, 4, 3, 1 are in decreasing order, as every next element is less than the previous element.

**Non-Increasing Order**

A sequence of values is said to be in non-increasing order, if the successive element is less than or equal to its previous element in the sequence. This order occurs when the sequence contains duplicate values. For example, 9, 8, 6, 3, 3, 1 are in non-increasing order, as every next element is less than or equal to (in case of 3) but not greater than any previous element.

**Non-Decreasing Order**

A sequence of values is said to be in non-decreasing order, if the successive element is greater than or equal to its previous element in the sequence. This order occurs when the sequence contains duplicate values. For example, 1, 3,

3, 6, 8, 9 are in non-decreasing order, as every next element is greater than or equal to (in case of 3) but not less than the previous one.

### 15.4.2 Bubble Sort

Bubble sort is a simple sorting algorithm. This sorting algorithm is comparison-based algorithm in which each pair of adjacent elements is compared and the elements are swapped if they are not in order. This algorithm is not suitable for large data sets as its average and worst case complexity are of  $O(n^2)$  where  $n$  is the number of items.

**How Bubble Sort Works?** We take an unsorted array for our example. Bubble sort takes  $O(n^2)$  time so we're keeping it short and precise.

Bubble sort starts with very first two elements, comparing them to check which one is greater.

In this case, value 33 is greater than 14, so it is already in sorted locations. Next, we compare 33 with 27.

We find that 27 is smaller than 33 and these two values must be swapped.

The new array should look like this

Next we compare 33 and 35. We find that both are in already sorted positions.

Then we move to the next two values, 35 and 10.

We know then that 10 is smaller 35. Hence they are not sorted.

We swap these values. We find that we have reached the end of the array. After one iteration, the array should look like this

To be precise, we are now showing how an array should look like after each iteration. After the second iteration, it should look like this

Notice that after each iteration, at least one value moves at the end.

And when there's no swap required, bubble sort learns that an array is completely sorted.

Now we should look into some practical aspects of bubble sort.

**Algorithm** We assume list is an array of  $n$  elements. We further assume that swap function swaps the values of the given array elements.

```
begin BubbleSort(list)
```

```
for all elements of list if list[i] > list[i+1] swap(list[i], list[i+1]) end if end for
```

```
return list
```

**end BubbleSort Pseudocode** We observe in algorithm that Bubble Sort compares each pair of array element unless the whole array is completely sorted in an ascending order. This may cause a few complexity issues like what if the array needs no more swapping as all the elements are already ascending.

To ease-out the issue, we use one flag variable swapped which will help us see if any swap has happened or not. If no swap has occurred, i.e. the array requires no more processing to be sorted, it will come out of the loop.

Pseudocode of BubbleSort algorithm can be written as follows

```
procedure bubbleSort( list : array of items )
```

```
loop = list.count;
```

```
for i = 0 to loop-1 do: swapped = false
```

```
for j = 0 to loop-1 do:
```

```
/* compare the adjacent elements */ if list[j] > list[j+1] then /* swap them */
```

```
swap( list[j], list[j+1] ) swapped = true end if
```

```
end for
```

```
/*if no number was swapped that means array is sorted now, break the loop.*/
```

```

if(not swapped) then break end if
end for

```

end procedure return list Implementation One more issue we did not address in our original algorithm and its improvised pseudocode, is that, after every iteration the highest values settles down at the end of the array. Hence, the next iteration need not include already sorted elements. For this purpose, in our implementation, we restrict the inner loop to avoid already sorted values.

### 15.4.3 Insertion Sort

This is an in-place comparison-based sorting algorithm. Here, a sub-list is maintained which is always sorted. For example, the lower part of an array is maintained to be sorted. An element which is to be 'insert'ed in this sorted sub-list, has to find its appropriate place and then it has to be inserted there. Hence the name, insertion sort.

The array is searched sequentially and unsorted items are moved and inserted into the sorted sub-list (in the same array). This algorithm is not suitable for large data sets as its average and worst case complexity are of  $(n^2)$ , where  $n$  is the number of items.

How Insertion Sort Works? We take an unsorted array for our example.

Insertion sort compares the first two elements.

It finds that both 14 and 33 are already in ascending order. For now, 14 is in sorted sub-list.

Insertion sort moves ahead and compares 33 with 27.

And finds that 33 is not in the correct position.

It swaps 33 with 27. It also checks with all the elements of sorted sub-list. Here we see that the sorted sub-list has only one element 14, and 27 is greater than 14. Hence, the sorted sub-list remains sorted after swapping.

By now we have 14 and 27 in the sorted sub-list. Next, it compares 33 with 10. These values are not in a sorted order.

So we swap them.

However, swapping makes 27 and 10 unsorted.

Hence, we swap them too.

Again we find 14 and 10 in an unsorted order.

We swap them again. By the end of third iteration, we have a sorted sub-list of 4 items.

This process goes on until all the unsorted values are covered in a sorted sub-list.

Now we shall see some programming aspects of insertion sort.

Algorithm Now we have a bigger picture of how this sorting technique works, so we can derive simple steps by which we can achieve insertion sort.

Step 1 If it is the first element, it is already sorted. return 1; Step 2 Pick next element Step 3 Compare with all elements in the sorted sub-list Step 4 Shift

all the elements in the sorted sub-list that is greater than the value to be sorted Step 5 Insert the value Step 6 Repeat until list is sorted Pseudocode procedure

insertionSort( A : array of items ) int holePosition int valueToInsert

for i = 1 to length(A) inclusive do:

/\* select value to be inserted \*/ valueToInsert = A[i] holePosition = i

/\*locate hole position for the element to be inserted \*/

while holePosition > 0 and A[holePosition-1] > valueToInsert do: A[holePosition] = A[holePosition-1] holePosition = holePosition - 1 end while



```

/* insert the number at hole position */ A[holePosition] = valueToInsert
end for
end procedure

```

#### 15.4.4 Selection Sort

Selection sort is a simple sorting algorithm. This sorting algorithm is an in-place comparison-based algorithm in which the list is divided into two parts, the sorted part at the left end and the unsorted part at the right end. Initially, the sorted part is empty and the unsorted part is the entire list.

The smallest element is selected from the unsorted array and swapped with the leftmost element, and that element becomes a part of the sorted array. This process continues moving unsorted array boundary by one element to the right. This algorithm is not suitable for large data sets as its average and worst case complexities are of  $O(n^2)$ , where  $n$  is the number of items.

**How Selection Sort Works?** Consider the following depicted array as an example. For the first position in the sorted list, the whole list is scanned sequentially. The first position where 14 is stored presently, we search the whole list and find that 10 is the lowest value.

So we replace 14 with 10. After one iteration 10, which happens to be the minimum value in the list, appears in the first position of the sorted list.

For the second position, where 33 is residing, we start scanning the rest of the list in a linear manner.

We find that 14 is the second lowest value in the list and it should appear at the second place. We swap these values.

After two iterations, two least values are positioned at the beginning in a sorted manner.

The same process is applied to the rest of the items in the array.

Following is a pictorial depiction of the entire sorting process

Now, let us learn some programming aspects of selection sort.

Algorithm Step 1 Set MIN to location 0 Step 2 Search the minimum element in the list Step 3 Swap with value at location MIN Step 4 Increment MIN to point to next element Step 5 Repeat until list is sorted Pseudocode procedure selection sort list : array of items n : size of list

```

for i = 1 to n - 1 /* set current element as minimum */ min = i
/* check the element to be minimum */
for j = i+1 to n if list[j] < list[min] then min = j; end if end for
/* swap the minimum element with the current element */ if indexMin != i then
swap list[min] and list[i] end if
end for
end procedure

```

#### 15.4.5 Merge Sort

Merge sort is a sorting technique based on divide and conquer technique. With worst-case time complexity being  $O(n \log n)$ , it is one of the most respected algorithms.

Merge sort first divides the array into equal halves and then combines them in a sorted manner.

How Merge Sort Works? To understand merge sort, we take an unsorted array as the following

We know that merge sort first divides the whole array iteratively into equal halves unless the atomic values are achieved. We see here that an array of 8 items is divided into two arrays of size 4.

This does not change the sequence of appearance of items in the original. Now we divide these two arrays into halves.

We further divide these arrays and we achieve atomic value which can no more be divided.

Now, we combine them in exactly the same manner as they were broken down. Please note the color codes given to these lists.

We first compare the element for each list and then combine them into another list in a sorted manner. We see that 14 and 33 are in sorted positions. We compare 27 and 10 and in the target list of 2 values we put 10 first, followed by 27. We change the order of 19 and 35 whereas 42 and 44 are placed sequentially. In the next iteration of the combining phase, we compare lists of two data values, and merge them into a list of found data values placing all in a sorted order.

After the final merging, the list should look like this

Now we should learn some programming aspects of merge sorting.

Algorithm Merge sort keeps on dividing the list into equal halves until it can no more be divided. By definition, if it is only one element in the list, it is sorted. Then, merge sort combines the smaller sorted lists keeping the new list sorted too.

Step 1 if it is only one element in the list it is already sorted, return. Step 2 divide the list recursively into two halves until it can no more be divided. Step 3 merge the smaller lists into new list in sorted order. Pseudocode We shall now see the pseudocodes for merge sort functions. As our algorithms point out two main functions divide merge.

Merge sort works with recursion and we shall see our implementation in the same way.

```

procedure mergesort( var a as array ) if ( n == 1 ) return a
var l1 as array = a[0] ... a[n/2] var l2 as array = a[n/2+1] ... a[n]
l1 = mergesort( l1 ) l2 = mergesort( l2 )
return merge( l1, l2 ) end procedure
procedure merge( var a as array, var b as array )
var c as array
while ( a and b have elements ) if ( a[0] > b[0] ) add b[0] to the end of c remove
b[0] from b else add a[0] to the end of c remove a[0] from a end if end while
while ( a has elements ) add a[0] to the end of c remove a[0] from a end while
while ( b has elements ) add b[0] to the end of c remove b[0] from b end while
return c
end procedure

```

#### 15.4.6 Shell Sort

Shell sort is a highly efficient sorting algorithm and is based on insertion sort algorithm. This algorithm avoids large shifts as in case of insertion sort, if the smaller value is to the far right and has to be moved to the far left.

This algorithm uses insertion sort on a widely spread elements, first to sort them and then sorts the less widely spaced elements. This spacing is termed as interval. This interval is calculated based on Knuth's formula as

Knuth's Formula  $h = h/3 + 1$

where

$h$  is interval with initial value 1 This algorithm is quite efficient for medium-sized data sets as its average and worst case complexity are of  $O(n^2)$ , where  $n$  is the number of items.

How Shell Sort Works? Let us consider the following example to have an idea of how shell sort works. We take the same array we have used in our previous examples. For our example and ease of understanding, we take the interval of 4. Make a virtual sub-list of all values located at the interval of 4 positions. Here these values are 35, 14, 33, 19, 42, 27 and 10, 44

We compare values in each sub-list and swap them (if necessary) in the original array. After this step, the new array should look like this

Then, we take interval of 2 and this gap generates two sub-lists - 14, 27, 35, 42, 19, 10, 33, 44

We compare and swap the values, if required, in the original array. After this step, the array should look like this

Finally, we sort the rest of the array using interval of value 1. Shell sort uses insertion sort to sort the array.

Following is the step-by-step depiction

We see that it required only four swaps to sort the rest of the array.

Algorithm Following is the algorithm for shell sort.

Step 1 Initialize the value of  $h$  Step 2 Divide the list into smaller sub-list of equal interval  $h$  Step 3 Sort these sub-lists using insertion sort Step 3 Repeat until complete list is sorted Pseudocode Following is the pseudocode for shell sort.

```

procedure shellSort() A : array of items
/* calculate interval*/ while interval < A.length /3 do: interval = interval * 3
+ 1 end while
while interval > 0 do:
for outer = interval; outer < A.length; outer ++ do:
/* select value to be inserted */ valueToInsert = A[outer] inner = outer;
/*shift element towards right*/ while inner > interval -1 A[inner - interval]
>= valueToInsert do: A[inner] = A[inner - interval] inner = inner - interval end
while
/* insert the number at hole position */ A[inner] = valueToInsert
end for
/* calculate interval*/ interval = (interval -1) /3;
end while
end procedure

```

### 15.4.7 Quick Sort

Quick sort is a highly efficient sorting algorithm and is based on partitioning of array of data into smaller arrays. A large array is partitioned into two arrays one of which holds values smaller than the specified value, say pivot, based on which the partition is made and another array holds values greater than the pivot value.

Quick sort partitions an array and then calls itself recursively twice to sort the two resulting subarrays. This algorithm is quite efficient for large-sized data sets as its average and worst case complexity are of  $(n^2)$ , where  $n$  is the number of items.

Partition in Quick Sort Following animated representation explains how to find the pivot value in an array.

The pivot value divides the list into two parts. And recursively, we find the pivot for each sub-lists until all lists contains only one element.

Quick Sort Pivot Algorithm Based on our understanding of partitioning in quick sort, we will now try to write an algorithm for it, which is as follows.

Step 1 Choose the highest index value has pivot Step 2 Take two variables to point left and right of the list excluding pivot Step 3 left points to the low index Step 4 right points to the high Step 5 while value at left is less than pivot move right Step 6 while value at right is greater than pivot move left Step 7 if both step 5 and step 6 does not match swap left and right Step 8 if left right, the point where they met is new pivot Quick Sort Pivot Pseudocode The pseudocode for the above algorithm can be derived as

```
function partitionFunc(left, right, pivot) leftPointer = left rightPointer = right - 1
```

```
while True do while A[++leftPointer] < pivot do //do-nothing end while
```

```
while rightPointer > 0 A[--rightPointer] > pivot do //do-nothing end while
```

```
if leftPointer >= rightPointer break else swap leftPointer,rightPointer end if end while
```

```
swap leftPointer,right return leftPointer
```

end function Quick Sort Algorithm Using pivot algorithm recursively, we end up with smaller possible partitions. Each partition is then processed for quick sort. We define recursive algorithm for quicksort as follows

Step 1 Make the right-most index value pivot Step 2 partition the array using pivot value Step 3 quicksort left partition recursively Step 4 quicksort right partition recursively Quick Sort Pseudocode To get more into it, let see the pseudocode for quick sort algorithm

```
procedure quickSort(left, right)
```

```
if right-left <= 0 return else pivot = A[right] partition = partitionFunc(left, right, pivot) quickSort(left,partition-1) quickSort(partition+1,right) end if end procedure
```

## 15.5 Search

### 15.5.1 Linear Search

Linear search is a very simple search algorithm. In this type of search, a sequential search is made over all items one by one. Every item is checked and if a match is found then that particular item is returned, otherwise the search continues till the end of the data collection.

Algorithm Linear Search ( Array A, Value x)

Step 1: Set  $i$  to 1 Step 2: if  $i > n$  then go to step 7 Step 3: if  $A[i] = x$  then go to step 6 Step 4: Set  $i$  to  $i + 1$  Step 5: Go to Step 2 Step 6: Print Element  $x$  Found at index  $i$  and go to step 8 Step 7: Print element not found Step 8: Exit Pseudocode procedure linear<sub>search</sub>(list, value)

```

for each item in the list
if match item == value
return the item's location
end if
end for
end procedure

```

### 15.5.2 Binary Search

Binary search is a fast search algorithm with run-time complexity of  $(\log n)$ . This search algorithm works on the principle of divide and conquer. For this algorithm to work properly, the data collection should be in the sorted form.

Binary search looks for a particular item by comparing the middle most item of the collection. If a match occurs, then the index of item is returned. If the middle item is greater than the item, then the item is searched in the sub-array to the left of the middle item. Otherwise, the item is searched for in the sub-array to the right of the middle item. This process continues on the sub-array as well until the size of the subarray reduces to zero.

**How Binary Search Works?** For a binary search to work, it is mandatory for the target array to be sorted. We shall learn the process of binary search with a pictorial example. The following is our sorted array and let us assume that we need to search the location of value 31 using binary search.

First, we shall determine half of the array by using this formula  
 $\text{mid} = \text{low} + (\text{high} - \text{low}) / 2$  Here it is,  $0 + (9 - 0) / 2 = 4$  (integer value of 4.5). So, 4 is the mid of the array.

Now we compare the value stored at location 4, with the value being searched, i.e. 31. We find that the value at location 4 is 27, which is not a match. As the value is greater than 27 and we have a sorted array, so we also know that the target value must be in the upper portion of the array.

We change our low to  $\text{mid} + 1$  and find the new mid value again.

$\text{low} = \text{mid} + 1$   $\text{mid} = \text{low} + (\text{high} - \text{low}) / 2$  Our new mid is 7 now. We compare the value stored at location 7 with our target value 31.

The value stored at location 7 is not a match, rather it is more than what we are looking for. So, the value must be in the lower part from this location.

Hence, we calculate the mid again. This time it is 5.

We compare the value stored at location 5 with our target value. We find that it is a match.

We conclude that the target value 31 is stored at location 5.

Binary search halves the searchable items and thus reduces the count of comparisons to be made to very less numbers.

**Pseudocode** The pseudocode of binary search algorithms should look like this

Procedure *binary\_search(A,sortedarrayn,sizeofarrayx,valueto\_besearched*

Set *lowerBound* = 1 Set *upperBound* = *n*

while *x* not found if *upperBound* < *lowerBound* EXIT: *x* does not exists.

set *midPoint* = *lowerBound* + ( *upperBound* - *lowerBound* ) / 2

if *A[midPoint]* < *x* set *lowerBound* = *midPoint* + 1

if *A[midPoint]* > *x* set *upperBound* = *midPoint* - 1

if *A[midPoint]* = *x* EXIT: *x* found at location *midPoint*

end while

end procedure

### 15.5.3 Interpolation Search

Interpolation search is an improved variant of binary search. This search algorithm works on the probing position of the required value. For this algorithm to work properly, the data collection should be in a sorted form and equally distributed.

Binary search has a huge advantage of time complexity over linear search. Linear search has worst-case complexity of  $(n)$  whereas binary search has  $(\log n)$ .

There are cases where the location of target data may be known in advance. For example, in case of a telephone directory, if we want to search the telephone number of Morpheus. Here, linear search and even binary search will seem slow as we can directly jump to memory space where the names start from 'M' are stored.

**Positioning in Binary Search** In binary search, if the desired data is not found then the rest of the list is divided in two parts, lower and higher. The search is carried out in either of them.

Even when the data is sorted, binary search does not take advantage to probe the position of the desired data.

**Position Probing in Interpolation Search** Interpolation search finds a particular item by computing the probe position. Initially, the probe position is the position of the middle most item of the collection.

If a match occurs, then the index of the item is returned. To split the list into two parts, we use the following method

$mid = Lo + ((Hi - Lo) / (A[Hi] - A[Lo])) * (X - A[Lo])$  where

$A$  = list  $Lo$  = Lowest index of the list  $Hi$  = Highest index of the list  $A[n]$  = Value stored at index  $n$  in the list If the middle item is greater than the item, then the probe position is again calculated in the sub-array to the right of the middle item. Otherwise, the item is searched in the subarray to the left of the middle item. This process continues on the sub-array as well until the size of subarray reduces to zero.

Runtime complexity of interpolation search algorithm is  $O(\log(\log n))(\log(\log n))$  as compared to  $O(\log n)(\log n)$  of BST in favorable situations.

**Algorithm** As it is an improvisation of the existing BST algorithm, we are mentioning the steps to search the 'target' data value index, using position probing

Step 1 Start searching data from middle of the list. Step 2 If it is a match, return the index of the item, and exit. Step 3 If it is not a match, probe position. Step 4 Divide the list using probing formula and find the new middle. Step 5 If data is greater than middle, search in higher sub-list. Step 6 If data is smaller than middle, search in lower sub-list. Step 7 Repeat until match. Pseudocode  
 $A \rightarrow$  Array list  $N \rightarrow$  Size of  $A$   $X \rightarrow$  Target Value

Procedure *Interpolationsearch()*

Set  $Lo \rightarrow 0$  Set  $Mid \rightarrow -1$  Set  $Hi \rightarrow N-1$

While  $X$  does not match

if  $Lo$  equals to  $Hi$  OR  $A[Lo]$  equals to  $A[Hi]$  EXIT: Failure, Target not found  
 end if

Set  $Mid = Lo + ((Hi - Lo) / (A[Hi] - A[Lo])) * (X - A[Lo])$

if  $A[Mid] = X$  EXIT: Success, Target found at  $Mid$  else if  $A[Mid] < X$  Set  $Lo$  to  $Mid+1$  else if  $A[Mid] > X$  Set  $Hi$  to  $Mid-1$  end if end if

End While

End Procedure

### 15.5.4 Hash Table

Hash Table is a data structure which stores data in an associative manner. In a hash table, data is stored in an array format, where each data value has its own unique index value. Access of data becomes very fast if we know the index of the desired data.

Thus, it becomes a data structure in which insertion and search operations are very fast irrespective of the size of the data. Hash Table uses an array as a storage medium and uses hash technique to generate an index where an element is to be inserted or is to be located from.

Hashing Hashing is a technique to convert a range of key values into a range of indexes of an array. We're going to use modulo operator to get a range of key values. Consider an example of hash table of size 20, and the following items are to be stored. Item are in the (key,value) format.

(1,20) (2,70) (42,80) (4,25) (12,44) (14,32) (17,11) (13,78) (37,98) Sr. No. Key Hash Array Index 1 1 1 2 2 2 3 42 42 4 4 4 5 12 12 6 14 4 7 17 7 8 13 3 9 37 7 Linear Probing As we can see, it may happen that the hashing technique is used to create an already used index of the array. In such a case, we can search the next empty location in the array by looking into the next cell until we find an empty cell. This technique is called linear probing.

Sr. No. Key Hash Array Index After Linear Probing, Array Index 1 1 1 2 2 2 3 42 42 4 4 4 5 12 12 6 14 14 7 17 17 8 13 13 9 37 37 Basic Operations Following are the basic primary operations of a hash table.

Search Searches an element in a hash table. Insert inserts an element in a hash table. delete Deletes an element from a hash table. DataItem Define a data item having some data and key, based on which the search is to be conducted in a hash table.

struct DataItem int data; int key; ; Hash Method Define a hashing method to compute the hash code of the key of the data item.

int hashCode(int key) return key Search Operation Whenever an element is to be searched, compute the hash code of the key passed and locate the element using that hash code as index in the array. Use linear probing to get the element ahead if the element is not found at the computed hash code.

Example

```
struct DataItem *search(int key) //get the hash int hashIndex = hashCode(key);
//move in array until an empty while(hashArray[hashIndex] != NULL)
if(hashArray[hashIndex]->key == key) return hashArray[hashIndex];
//go to next cell ++hashIndex;
//wrap around the table hashIndex
```

return NULL; Insert Operation Whenever an element is to be inserted, compute the hash code of the key passed and locate the index using that hash code as an index in the array. Use linear probing for empty location, if an element is found at the computed hash code.

Example

```
void insert(int key,int data) struct DataItem *item = (struct DataItem*) mal-
loc(sizeof(struct DataItem)); item->data = data; item->key = key;
//get the hash int hashIndex = hashCode(key);
//move in array until an empty or deleted cell while(hashArray[hashIndex] !=
NULL hashArray[hashIndex]->key != -1) //go to next cell ++hashIndex;
//wrap around the table hashIndex
```

hashArray[hashIndex] = item; Delete Operation Whenever an element is to be deleted, compute the hash code of the key passed and locate the index using that hash code as an index in the array. Use linear probing to get the element ahead if an element is not found at the computed hash code. When found, store a dummy item there to keep the performance of the hash table intact.

Example

```
struct DataItem* delete(struct DataItem* item) int key = item->key;
//get the hash int hashIndex = hashCode(key);
//move in array until an empty while(hashArray[hashIndex] !=NULL)
if(hashArray[hashIndex]->key == key) struct DataItem* temp = hashAr-
ray[hashIndex];
//assign a dummy item at deleted position hashArray[hashIndex] = dum-
myItem; return temp;
//go to next cell ++hashIndex;
//wrap around the table hashIndex
return NULL;
```

## 15.6 Graph

### 15.6.1 Graph Data Structure

A graph is a pictorial representation of a set of objects where some pairs of objects are connected by links. The interconnected objects are represented by points termed as vertices, and the links that connect the vertices are called edges.

Formally, a graph is a pair of sets  $(V, E)$ , where  $V$  is the set of vertices and  $E$  is the set of edges, connecting the pairs of vertices. Take a look at the following graph

In the above graph,

$V = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$

$E = \{ab, ac, bd, cd, de\}$

Definitions Mathematical graphs can be represented in data structure. We can represent a graph using an array of vertices and a two-dimensional array of edges. Before we proceed further, let's familiarize ourselves with some important terms

**Vertex** Each node of the graph is represented as a vertex. In the following example, the labeled circle represents vertices. Thus, A to G are vertices. We can represent them using an array as shown in the following image. Here A can be identified by index 0. B can be identified using index 1 and so on. Edge represents a path between two vertices or a line between two vertices. In the following example, the lines from A to B, B to C, and so on represents edges. We can use a two-dimensional array to represent an array as shown in the following image. Here AB can be represented as 1 at row 0, column 1, BC as 1 at row 1, column 2 and so on, keeping other combinations as 0. Adjacency Two node or vertices are adjacent if they are connected to each other through an edge. In the following example, B is adjacent to A, C is adjacent to B, and so on. Path represents a sequence of edges between the two vertices. In the following example, ABCD represents a path from A to D.

Basic Operations Following are basic primary operations of a Graph



Add Vertex Adds a vertex to the graph. Add Edge Adds an edge between the two vertices of the graph. Display Vertex Displays a vertex of the graph.

### 15.6.2 Depth First Traversal

Depth First Search (DFS) algorithm traverses a graph in a depthward motion and uses a stack to remember to get the next vertex to start a search, when a dead end occurs in any iteration.

As in the example given above, DFS algorithm traverses from A to B to C to D first then to E, then to F and lastly to G. It employs the following rules.

Rule 1 Visit the adjacent unvisited vertex. Mark it as visited. Display it. Push it in a stack. Rule 2 If no adjacent vertex is found, pop up a vertex from the stack. (It will pop up all the vertices from the stack, which do not have adjacent vertices.) Rule 3 Repeat Rule 1 and Rule 2 until the stack is empty. Algorithms Step Traversal Description 1. Initialize the stack. 2. Mark S as visited and put it onto the stack. Explore any unvisited adjacent node from S. We have three nodes and we can pick any of them. For this example, we shall take the node in an alphabetical order. 3. Mark A as visited and put it onto the stack. Explore any unvisited adjacent node from A. Both Sand D are adjacent to A but we are concerned for unvisited nodes only. 4. Visit D and mark it as visited and put onto the stack. Here, we have B and C nodes, which are adjacent to D and both are unvisited. However, we shall again choose in an alphabetical order. 5. We choose B, mark it as visited and put onto the stack. Here B does not have any unvisited adjacent node. So, we pop B from the stack. 6. We check the stack top for return to the previous node and check if it has any unvisited nodes. Here, we find D to be on the top of the stack. 7. Only unvisited adjacent node is from D is C now. So we visit C, mark it as visited and put it onto the stack.

### 15.6.3 Breadth First Traversal

Breadth First Search (BFS) algorithm traverses a graph in a breadthward motion and uses a queue to remember to get the next vertex to start a search, when a dead end occurs in any iteration.

As in the example given above, BFS algorithm traverses from A to B to E to F first then to C and G lastly to D. It employs the following rules.

Rule 1 Visit the adjacent unvisited vertex. Mark it as visited. Display it. Insert it \* in a queue. Rule 2 If no adjacent vertex is found, remove the first vertex from the queue. Rule 3 Repeat Rule 1 and Rule 2 until the queue is empty. Algorithms Step Traversal Description 1. Initialize the stack. 2. Mark S as visited and put it onto the stack. Explore any unvisited adjacent node from S. We have three nodes and we can pick any of them. For this example, we shall take the node in an alphabetical order. 3. Mark A as visited and put it onto the stack. Explore any unvisited adjacent node from A. Both Sand D are adjacent to A but we are concerned for unvisited nodes only. 4. Visit D and mark it as visited and put onto the stack. Here, we have B and C nodes, which are adjacent to D and both are unvisited. However, we shall again choose in an alphabetical order. 5. We choose B, mark it as visited and put onto the stack. Here B does not have any unvisited adjacent node. So, we pop B from the stack. 6. We check the stack top for return to the previous node and check if it has any unvisited nodes. Here, we find D to be on the top of the stack. 7. Only unvisited adjacent

node is from D is C now. So we visit C, mark it as visited and put it onto the stack. At this stage, we are left with no unmarked (unvisited) nodes. But as per the algorithm we keep on dequeuing in order to get all unvisited nodes. When the queue gets emptied, the program is over

## 15.7 String

String manipulation is a basic operation of many algorithms and utilities such as data validation, text parsing, file conversions and others. The Java APIs contain three classes that are used to work with character data:

Character – A class whose instances can hold a single character value. String – An immutable class for working with multiple characters. StringBuffer and StringBuilder – Mutable classes for working with multiple characters. The String and StringBuffer classes are two you will use the most in your programming assignments. You use the String class in situations when you want to prohibit data modification; otherwise you use the StringBuffer class.

The String class In Java Strings can be created in two different ways. Either using a new operator

```
String demo1 = new String("This is a string");
```

```
char[] demo2 = {'s','t','r','i','n','g'}; String str = new String(demo2); or using a string literal
```

```
String demo3 = "This is a string";
```

The example below demonstrates differences between these initializations

```
String s1 = new String("Fester"); String s2 = new String("Fester"); String s3 = "Fester"; String s4 = "Fester";
```

Then

`s1 == s2` returns false `s1 == s3` returns false `s3 == s4` returns true Because of the importance strings in real life, Java stores (at compile time) all strings in a special internal table as long as you create your strings using a string literal `String s3 = "Fester"`. This process is called canonicalization - it replaces multiple string objects with a single object. This is why in the above example `s3` and `s4` refer to the same object. Also note that creating strings like `s3` and `s4` is more efficient. Review the code example `StringOptimization.java` that demonstrates time comparisons between these two ways of string creation.

Here are some important facts you must know about strings:

1. A string is not an array of characters. Therefore, to access a particular character in a string, you have to use the `charAt()` method. In this code snippet we get the fourth character which is 't':

```
String str = "on the edge of history"; char ch = str.charAt(3);
```

2. The `toString()` method is used when we need a string representation of an object.

The method is defined in the `Object` class. For most important classes that you create, you will want to override `toString()` and provide your own string representation.

3. Comparing strings content using `==` is the most common mistake beginners do. You compare the content using either `equals()` or `compareTo()` methods.

Basic String methods The `String` class contains an enormous amount of useful methods for string manipulation. The following table presents the most common String methods:

`str.charAt(k)` returns a char at position `k` in `str`. `str.substring(k)` returns a substring from index `k` to the end of `str`. `s.substring(k, n)` returns a substring from

index  $k$  to index  $n-1$  of `str` `str.indexOf(s)` returns an index of the first occurrence of String `s` in `str` `str.indexOf(s, k)` returns an index of String `s` starting an index  $k$  in `str` `str.startsWith(s)` returns true if `str` starts with `s` `str.startsWith(s, k)` returns true if `str` starts with `s` at index  $k$  `str.equals(s)` returns true if the two strings have equal values `str.equalsIgnoreCase(s)` same as above ignoring case `str.compareTo(s)` compares two strings `s.compareToIgnoreCase(t)` same as above ignoring case Examine the code in `BasicStringDemo.java` for further details.

The `StringBuffer` class In many cases when you deal with strings you will use methods available in the companion `StringBuffer` class. This mutable class is used when you want to modify the contents of the string. It provides an efficient approach to dealing with strings, especially for large dynamic string data. `StringBuffer` is similar to `ArrayList` in a way that the memory allocated to an object is automatically expanded to take up additional data.

Here is an example of reversing a string using string concatenation

```
public static String reverse1(String s) String str = "";
for(int i = s.length() - 1; i >= 0; i--) str += s.charAt(i);
return str; and using a StringBuffer's append
public static String reverse2(String s) StringBuffer sb = new StringBuffer();
for(int i = s.length() - 1; i >= 0; i--) sb.append(s.charAt(i));
return sb.toString(); Another way to reverse a string is to convert a String
object into a StringBuffer object, use the reverse method, and then convert it
back to a string:
```

```
public static String reverse3(String s) return new StringBuffer(s).reverse().toString();
```

The performance difference between these two classes is that `StringBuffer` is faster than `String` when performing concatenations. Each time a concatenation occurs, a new string is created, causing excessive system resource consumption. Review the code example `StringOverhead.java` that demonstrates time comparisons of concatenation on `Strings` and `StringBuffer`.

`StringTokenizer` This class (from `java.util` package) allows you to break a string into tokens (substrings). Each token is a group of characters that are separated by delimiters, such as an empty space, a semicolon, and so on. So, a token is a maximal sequence of consecutive characters that are not delimiters. Here is an example of the use of the tokenizer (an empty space is a default delimiter):

```
String s = "Nothing is as easy as it looks"; StringTokenizer st = new StringTokenizer(s); while (st.hasMoreTokens()) String token = st.nextToken(); System.out.println( "Token [" + token + "]" ); Here, hasMoreTokens() method checks if there are more tokens available from the string, and nextToken() method returns the next token from the string tokenizer.
```

The set of delimiters (the characters that separate tokens) may be specified in the second argument of `StringTokenizer`. In the following example, `StringTokenizer` has a set of two delimiters: an empty space and an underscore:

```
String s = "Every_solution_reedsnewproblems"; StringTokenizer st = new StringTokenizer(s, " _"); while (st.hasMoreTokens()) String token = st.nextToken(); System.out.println( "Token [" + token + "]" ); Here, the second argument of the StringTokenizer constructor is a string of characters that are used as delimiters.
```

Character Classes

`[abc]` `a`, `b`, or `c` (simple class) `[^abc]` Any character except `a`, `b`, or `c` (negation) `[a-zA-Z]` `a` through `z`, or `A` through `Z`, inclusive (range) `[a-d[m-p]]` `a` through `d`, or `m` through `p` : `[a-dm-p]` (union) `[a-z[def]]` `d`, `e`, or `f` (intersection) `[a-z[^bc]]` `a` through `z`, except for `b` and `c` : `[ad-z]` (subtraction) `[a-z[m-p]]` `a` through `z`, and not `m` through `p` : `[a-lq-z]` (subtraction) `d` any digit from 0 to 9

wanywordcharacter(a - z, A - Z, 0 - 9 and,

Wanynon - wordcharacter

sanywhitespacecharacter?appearingonceornotatall\*appearingzeroormoretimes+

appearingoneormoretimesTheJavaStringclasshasseveralmethodsthatallowyoutoperformanoperationusing

The matches() method The matches("regex") method returns true or false depending whether the string can be matched entirely by the regular expression

"regex". For example,

"abc".matches("abc") returns True, but

"abc".matches("bc") returns False. In the following code examples we match all strings that start with any number of dots (denoted by \*), followed by "abc" and end with one or more underscores (denoted by +).

String regex = ".\*"+"abc"+"+";

"..abc".matches(regex);

"abc".matches(regex);

"abc".matches(regex); ThereplaceAll()methodThemethodreplaceAll("regex", "replacement")replaceseach

lettersfromagivenstring

String str = "Nothing 2is as <> easy AS it +=looks!"; str = str.replaceAll("[a-zA-Z]", "");

Thepattern"[a-zA-Z]"describesallletters(inupperandlowercases).Nextwenegatethispattern, togetherwiththe

letters"[a-zA-Z]".

In the next example, we replace a sequence of characters by "-"

String str = "aabfoooooabfooabfoob"; str = str.replaceAll("a\*b", "-");

The star "\*" in the pattern "ab" denotes that character "a" may be repeated zero or more

times. The output: "-foo-foo-foo-";

The split() method The split("regex") splits the string at each "regex" match

and returns an array of strings where each element is a part of the original string

between two "regex" matches.

In the following example we break a sentence into words, using an empty space

as a delimiter:

String s = "Nothing is as easy as it looks"; String[] st = s.split(" ");

Tokens are stored in in an array of strings and could be be easily accessible using array

indexes. In the next code example, we choose two delimiters: either an empty

space or an underscore:

String s = "Every\_solution\_breedsnewproblems"; String[] st = s.split("\_| ");

Whatifastringcontainsseveralunderscores, thatdenotesarepetitivepattern

String s = "Every\_solution\_breedsnew\_pproblems"; String[] st=s.split("\_| ");It'simportanttoobservethatsplit()mightreturnemptytokens.Inthe

String[] st = "Tomorrow".split("r"); we have three tokens, where the second

token is empty string. That is so because split() returns tokens between two

"regex" matches.

One of the widely use of split() is to break a given text file into words. This

could be easily done by means of the metacharacter "" (any non-word character),

which allows you to perform a "whole words only" search using a regular

expression. A "word character" is either an alphabet character (a-z and A-Z) or

a digit (0-9) or a underscore.

"Let's go, Steelers!!!"

.split(" "); returns the following array of tokens

[Let, s, go, Steelers] Examine the code in Split.java for further details.

Pattern matching Pattern matching in Java is based on use of two classes

Pattern - compiled representation of a regular expression. Matcher - an engine

that performs match operations. A typical invocation is the following, first we

create a pattern

String seq = "CCCAA"; Pattern p = Pattern.compile("C\*A\*"); In this example we match all substrings that start with any number of Cs followed by any number of As. Then we create a Matcher object that can match any string against our pattern

Matcher m = p.matcher(seq); Finally, we do actual matching

boolean res = m.matches(); The Matcher class has another widely used method, called find(), that finds next substring that matches a given pattern. In the following example we count the number of matches "ACC"

String seq = "CGTATCCCACAGCACCACACCCAACAACCCA"; Pattern p = Pattern.compile("A1C2"); Matcher m = p.matcher(seq); int count = 0; while( m.find() ) count++; System.out.println("there are " + count + " ACC"); Examine the code example Matching.java for further details.

Pattern matching in Computational Biology

The DNA (the genetic blueprint) of any species is composed of about 4 billion ACGT nucleotides. DNA forms a double helix that has two strands of DNA binding and twisting together. In pattern matching problems we ignore the fact that DNA forms a double helix, and think of it only as a single strand. The other strand is complimentary. Knowing one strand allows uniquely determine the other one. Thus, DNA is essentially a linear molecule that looks like a string composed out of only four characters A, C, G, and T:

CGTATCCCACAGCACCACACCCAACAACCC Each nucleotides (also called a base) strongly binds to no more than two other bases. These links provides a linear model of DNA strand. The particular order of ACGT nucleotides is extremely important. Different orders generate humans, animals, corn, and other organisms. The size of the genome (a genome is all the DNA in an organism) does not necessarily correlate with the complexity of the organism it belongs to. Humans have less than a third as many genes as were expected.

Pattern matching in computational biology arises from the need to know characteristics of DNA sequences, such as

find the best way to align two sequences. find any common subsequences determine how well a sequence fits into a given model. Comparing various DNA sequences provide many uses. Current scientific theories suggest that very similar DNA sequences have a common ancestor. The more similar two sequences are, the more recently they evolved from a single ancestor. With such knowledge, for example, we can reconstruct a phylogenetic tree (known as a "tree of life".) that shows how long ago various organisms diverged and which species are closely related.

Challenges Strings: Making Anagrams References "Strings". Victor S.Adamchik, CMU. 2009

### 15.7.1 Tries

Introduction There are many algorithms and data structures to index and search strings inside a text, some of them are included in the standard libraries, but not all of them; the trie data structure is a good example of one that isn't.

Let word be a single string and let dictionary be a large set of words. If we have a dictionary, and we need to know if a single word is inside of the dictionary the tries are a data structure that can help us. But you may be asking yourself, "Why use tries if set and hash tables can do the same?"

There are two main reasons:

The tries can insert and find strings in  $O(L)O(L)$  time (where  $L$  represent the length of a single word). This is much faster than set, but is it a bit faster than a hash table. The set and the hash tables can only find in a dictionary words that match exactly with the single word that we are finding; the trie allow us to find words that have a single character different, a prefix in common, a character missing, etc.

The tries can be useful in TopCoder problems, but also have a great amount of applications in software engineering. For example, consider a web browser. Do you know how the web browser can auto complete your text or show you many possibilities of the text that you could be writing? Yes, with the trie you can do it very fast. Do you know how an orthographic corrector can check that every word that you type is in a dictionary? Again a trie. You can also use a trie for suggested corrections of the words that are present in the text but not in the dictionary.

What is a Tree? You may read about how wonderful the tries are, but maybe you don't know yet what the tries are and why the tries have this name. The word trie is an infix of the word "retrieval" because the trie can find a single word in a dictionary with only a prefix of the word. The main idea of the trie data structure consists of the following parts:

The trie is a tree where each vertex represents a single word or a prefix. The root represents an empty string (""), the vertexes that are direct sons of the root represent prefixes of length 1, the vertexes that are 2 edges of distance from the root represent prefixes of length 2, the vertexes that are 3 edges of distance from the root represent prefixes of length 3 and so on. In other words, a vertex that are  $k$  edges of distance of the root have an associated prefix of length  $k$ . Let  $v$  and  $w$  be two vertexes of the trie, and assume that  $v$  is a direct father of  $w$ , then  $v$  must have an associated prefix of  $w$ . The next figure shows a trie with the words "tree", "trie", "algo", "assoc", "all", and "also."

Note that every vertex of the tree does not store entire prefixes or entire words. The idea is that the program should remember the word that represents each vertex while lower in the tree.

**Coding a Trie** The tries can be implemented in many ways, some of them can be used to find a set of words in the dictionary where every word can be a little different than the target word, and other implementations of the tries can provide us with only words that match exactly with the target word. The implementation of the trie that will be exposed here will consist only of finding words that match exactly and counting the words that have some prefix. This implementation will be pseudo code because different coders can use different programming languages.

We will code these 4 functions:

**addWord.** This function will add a single string word to the dictionary. **countPrefixes.** This function will count the number of words in the dictionary that have a string prefix as prefix. **countWords.** This function will count the number of words in the dictionary that match exactly with a given string word. Our trie will only support letters of the English alphabet. We need to also code a structure with some fields that indicate the values stored in each vertex. As we want to know the number of words that match with a given string, every vertex should have a field to indicate that this vertex represents a complete word or only a prefix (for simplicity, a complete word is considered also a prefix) and

how many words in the dictionary are represented by that prefix (there can be repeated words in the dictionary). This task can be done with only one integer field words.

Because we want to know the number of words that have like prefix a given string, we need another integer field prefixes that indicates how many words have the prefix of the vertex. Also, each vertex must have references to all his possible sons (26 references). Knowing all these details, our structure should have the following members:

structure Trie integer words; integer prefixes; reference edges[26]; And we also need the following functions:

initialize(vertex) addWord(vertex, word); integer countPrefixes(vertex, prefix); integer countWords(vertex, word); First of all, we have to initialize the vertexes with the following function:

initialize(vertex) vertex.words=0 vertex.prefixes=0 for i=0 to 26 edges[i]=NoEdge

The addWord function consists of two parameters, the vertex of the insertion and the word that will be added. The idea is that when a string word is added to a vertex vertex, we will add word to the corresponding branch of vertex cutting the leftmost character of word. If the needed branch does not exist, we will have to create it. All the TopCoder languages can simulate the process of cutting a character in constant time instead of creating a copy of the original string or moving the other characters.

addWord(vertex, word) if isEmpty(word) vertex.words=vertex.words+1 else vertex.prefixes=vertex.prefixes+1 k=firstCharacter(word) if(notExists(edges[k])) edges[k]=createEdge() initialize(edges[k]) cutLeftmostCharacter(word) addWord(edges[k], word) The functions countWords and countPrefixes are very similar. If we are finding an empty string we only have to return the number of words/prefixes associated with the vertex. If we are finding a non-empty string, we should to find in the corresponding branch of the tree, but if the branch does not exist, we have to return 0.

countWords(vertex, word) k=firstCharacter(word) if isEmpty(word) return vertex.words else if notExists(edges[k]) return 0 else cutLeftmostCharacter(word) return countWords(edges[k], word);

countPrefixes(vertex, prefix) k=firstCharacter(prefix) if isEmpty(word) return vertex.prefixes else if notExists(edges[k]) return 0 else cutLeftmostCharacter(prefix) return countWords(edges[k], prefix)

Complexity Analysis In the introduction you may read that the complexity of finding and inserting a trie is linear, but we have not done the analysis yet. In the insertion and finding notice that lowering a single level in the tree is done in constant time, and every time that the program lowers a single level in the tree, a single character is cut from the string; we can conclude that every function lowers L levels on the tree and every time that the function lowers a level on the tree, it is done in constant time, then the insertion and finding of a word in a trie can be done in  $O(L)$  time. The memory used in the tries depends on the methods to store the edges and how many words have prefixes in common.

Other Kinds of Tries We used the tries to store words with lowercase letters, but the tries can be used to store many other things. We can use bits or bytes instead of lowercase letters and every data type can be stored in the tree, not only strings. Let flow your imagination using tries! For example, suppose that you want to find a word in a dictionary but a single letter was deleted from the word. You can modify the countWords function:

countWords(vertex, word, missingLetters) k=firstCharacter(word) if isEmpty(word) return vertex.word else if notExists(edges[k]) and missingLetters=0 return 0 else if notExists(edges[k]) cutLeftmostCharacter(word) return countWords(vertex, word, missingLetters-1) Here we cut a character but we don't go lower in the tree else We are adding the two possibilities: the first character has been deleted plus the first character is present r=countWords(vertex, word, missingLetters-1) cutLeftmostCharacter(word) r=r+countWords(edges[k], word, missingLetters) return r The complexity of this function may be larger than the original, but it is faster than checking all the subsets of characters of a word.

Challenges "Tries: Contacts". hackerrank. 2016 References "Using Tries – Top-coder". Topcoder.com. N.p., 2016. Web. 11 Oct. 2016.

### 15.7.2 Suffix Array and suffix tree

A suffix tree  $T$  is a natural improvement over trie used in pattern matching problem, the one defined over a set of substrings of a string  $s$ . The idea is very simple here. Such a trie can have a long paths without branches. If we only can reduce these long paths into one jump, we will reduce the size of the trie significantly, so this is a great first step in improving the complexity of operations on such a tree. This reduced trie defined over a subset of suffixes of a string  $s$  is called a suffix tree of  $s$ .

For better understanding, let's consider the suffix tree  $T$  for a string  $s = \text{abakan}$ . A word *abakan* has 6 suffixes *abakan*, *bakan*, *akan*, *kan*, *an*, *n* and its suffix tree looks like this:

There is a famous algorithm by Ukkonen for building suffix tree for  $s$  in linear time in terms of the length of  $s$ . However, because it may look quite complicated at first sight, many people are discouraged to learn how it works. Fortunately, there is a great, I mean an excellent, description of Ukkonen's algorithm given on StackOverflow. Please refer to it for better understanding what a suffix tree is and how to build it in linear time.

Suffix trees can solve many complicated problems, because it contain so many information about the string itself. For example, in order to know how many times a pattern  $P$  occurs in  $s$ , it is sufficient to find  $P$  in  $T$  and return the size of a subtree corresponding to its node. Another well known application is finding the number of distinct substrings of  $s$ , and it can be solved easily with suffix tree, while the problem looks very complicated at first sight.

The post I linked from StackOverflow is so great, that you simple must read it. After that, you will be able to identify problems solvable with suffix trees easily. If you want to know more about when to use a suffix tree, you should read this paper about the applications of suffix trees.

**Suffix Array** Suffix array is a very nice array based structure. Basically, it is a lexicographically sorted array of suffixes of a string  $s$ . For example, let's consider a string  $s = \text{abakan}$ . A word *abakan* has 6 suffixes *abakan*, *bakan*, *akan*, *kan*, *an*, *n* and its suffix tree looks like this:

Of course, in order to reduce space, we do not store the exact suffixes. It is sufficient to store their indices.

Suffix arrays, especially combined with LCP table (which stands for Longest Common Prefix of neighboring suffixes table), are very very useful for solving many problems. I recommend reading this nice programming oriented paper



about suffix arrays, their applications and related problems by Stanford University.

Suffix arrays can be build easily in  $O(n \log 2n)O(n \log 2n)$  time, where  $n$  is the length of  $s$ , using the algorithm proposed in the paper from the previous paragraph. This time can be improved to  $O(n \log n)O(n \log n)$  using linear time sorting algorithm.

However, there is so extraordinary, cool and simple linear time algorithm for building suffix arrays by Kärkkäinen and Sanders, that reading it is a pure pleasure and you cannot miss it.

Correspondence between suffix tree and suffix array

It is also worth to mention, that a suffix array can be constructed directly from a suffix tree in linear time using DFS traversal. Suffix tree can be also constructed from the suffix array and LCP table as described here.

### 15.7.3 Knuth-Morris-Pratt Algorithm

The problem:

given a (short) pattern and a (long) text, both strings, determine whether the pattern appears somewhere in the text.

We'll go through the Knuth-Morris-Pratt (KMP) algorithm, which can be thought of as an efficient way to build these automata. I also have some working C++ source code which might help you understand the algorithm better.

First let's look at a naive solution.

suppose the text is in an array: `char T[n]` and the pattern is in another array: `char P[m]`. One simple method is just to try each possible position the pattern could appear in the text.

Naive string matching:

```
for (i=0; T[i] != "; i++) for (j=0; T[i+j] != " P[j] != " T[i+j]==P[j]; j++) ;
if (P[j] == ") found a match
```

There are two nested loops; the inner one takes  $O(m)$  iterations and the outer one takes  $O(n)$  iterations so the total time is the product,  $O(mn)$ . This is slow; we'd like to speed it up.

In practice this works pretty well – not usually as bad as this  $O(mn)$  worst case analysis. This is because the inner loop usually finds a mismatch quickly and move on to the next position without going through all  $m$  steps. But this method still can take  $O(mn)$  for some inputs. In one bad example, all characters in  $T[]$  are "a"s, and  $P[]$  is all "a"'s except for one "b" at the end. Then it takes  $m$  comparisons each time to discover that you don't have a match, so  $mn$  overall. Here's a more typical example. Each row represents an iteration of the outer loop, with each character in the row representing the result of a comparison (X if the comparison was unequal). Suppose we're looking for pattern "nano" in text "banananobano".

```
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 T: b a n a n a n o b a n o
```

```
i=0: X i=1: X i=2: n a n X i=3: X i=4: n a n o i=5: X i=6: n X i=7: X i=8: X
i=9: n X i=10: X
```

Some of these comparisons are wasted work! For instance, after iteration  $i=2$ , we know from the comparisons we've done that  $T[3]="a"$ , so there is no point comparing it to "n" in iteration  $i=3$ . And we also know that  $T[4]="n"$ , so there is no point making the same comparison in iteration  $i=4$ .

Skipping outer iterations The Knuth-Morris-Pratt idea is, in this sort of situation, after you've invested a lot of work making comparisons in the inner loop of

the code, you know a lot about what's in the text. Specifically, if you've found a partial match of  $j$  characters starting at position  $i$ , you know what's in positions  $T[i] \dots T[i+j-1]$ . You can use this knowledge to save work in two ways. First, you can skip some iterations for which no match is possible. Try overlapping the partial match you've found with the new match you want to find:

$i=2$ : n a n  $i=3$ : n a n o Here the two placements of the pattern conflict with each other – we know from the  $i=2$  iteration that  $T[3]$  and  $T[4]$  are "a" and "n", so they can't be the "n" and "a" that the  $i=3$  iteration is looking for. We can keep skipping positions until we find one that doesn't conflict:

$i=2$ : n a n  $i=4$ : n a n o Here the two "n"s coincide. Define the overlap of two strings  $x$  and  $y$  to be the longest word that's a suffix of  $x$  and a prefix of  $y$ . Here the overlap of "nan" and "nano" is just "n". (We don't allow the overlap to be all of  $x$  or  $y$ , so it's not "nan"). In general the value of  $i$  we want to skip to is the one corresponding to the largest overlap with the current partial match:

String matching with skipped iterations:

```
i=0; while (i<n) for (j=0; T[i+j] != " P[j] != " T[i+j]==P[j]; j++) ; if (P[j] ==
") found a match; i = i + max(1, j-overlap(P[0..j-1],P[0..m]));
```

Skipping inner iterations The other optimization that can be done is to skip some iterations in the inner loop. Let's look at the same example, in which we skipped from  $i=2$  to  $i=4$ :

$i=2$ : n a n  $i=4$ : n a n o In this example, the "n" that overlaps has already been tested by the  $i=2$  iteration. There's no need to test it again in the  $i=4$  iteration. In general, if we have a nontrivial overlap with the last partial match, we can avoid testing a number of characters equal to the length of the overlap. This change produces (a version of) the KMP algorithm:

KMP, version 1:

```
i=0; o=0; while (i<n) for (j=o; T[i+j] != " P[j] != " T[i+j]==P[j]; j++) ; if
(P[j] == ") found a match; o = overlap(P[0..j-1],P[0..m]); i = i + max(1, j-o);
```

The only remaining detail is how to compute the overlap function. This is a function only of  $j$ , and not of the characters in  $T$ , so we can compute it once in a preprocessing stage before we get to this part of the algorithm. First let's see how fast this algorithm is.

**KMP time analysis** We still have an outer loop and an inner loop, so it looks like the time might still be  $O(mn)$ . But we can count it a different way to see that it's actually always less than that. The idea is that every time through the inner loop, we do one comparison  $T[i+j]==P[j]$ . We can count the total time of the algorithm by counting how many comparisons we perform. We split the comparisons into two groups: those that return true, and those that return false. If a comparison returns true, we've determined the value of  $T[i+j]$ . Then in future iterations, as long as there is a nontrivial overlap involving  $T[i+j]$ , we'll skip past that overlap and not make a comparison with that position again. So each position of  $T$  is only involved in one true comparison, and there can be  $n$  such comparisons total. On the other hand, there is at most one false comparison per iteration of the outer loop, so there can also only be  $n$  of those. As a result we see that this part of the KMP algorithm makes at most  $2n$  comparisons and takes time  $O(n)$ .

**KMP and finite automata** If we look just at what happens to  $j$  during the algorithm above, it's sort of like a finite automaton. At each step  $j$  is set either to  $j+1$  (in the inner loop, after a match) or to the overlap  $o$  (after a mismatch). At each step the value of  $o$  is just a function of  $j$  and doesn't depend on other infor-

mation like the characters in  $T[]$ . So we can draw something like an automaton, with arrows connecting values of  $j$  and labeled with matches and mismatches. The difference between this and the automata we are used to is that it has only two arrows out of each circle, instead of one per character. But we can still simulate it just like any other automaton, by placing a marker on the start state ( $j=0$ ) and moving it around the arrows. Whenever we get a matching character in  $T[]$  we move on to the next character of the text. But whenever we get a mismatch we look at the same character in the next step, except for the case of a mismatch in the state  $j=0$ .

So in this example (the same as the one above) the automaton goes through the sequence of states:

$j=0$  mismatch  $T[0] \neq \text{"n"}$   $j=0$  mismatch  $T[1] \neq \text{"n"}$   $j=0$  match  $T[2] == \text{"n"}$   $j=1$  match  $T[3] == \text{"a"}$   $j=2$  match  $T[4] == \text{"n"}$   $j=3$  mismatch  $T[5] \neq \text{"o"}$   $j=1$  match  $T[5] == \text{"a"}$   $j=2$  match  $T[6] == \text{"n"}$   $j=3$  match  $T[7] == \text{"o"}$   $j=4$  found match  $j=0$  mismatch  $T[8] \neq \text{"n"}$   $j=0$  mismatch  $T[9] \neq \text{"n"}$   $j=0$  match  $T[10] == \text{"n"}$   $j=1$  mismatch  $T[11] \neq \text{"a"}$   $j=0$  mismatch  $T[11] \neq \text{"n"}$  This is essentially the same sequence of comparisons done by the KMP pseudocode above. So this automaton provides an equivalent definition of the KMP algorithm. As one student pointed out in lecture, the one transition in this automaton that may not be clear is the one from  $j=4$  to  $j=0$ . In general, there should be a transition from  $j=m$  to some smaller value of  $j$ , which should happen on any character (there are no more matches to test before making this transition). If we want to find all occurrences of the pattern, we should be able to find an occurrence even if it overlaps another one. So for instance if the pattern were "nana", we should find both occurrences of it in the text "nanana". So the transition from  $j=m$  should go to the next longest position that can match, which is simply  $j=\text{overlap}(\text{pattern}, \text{pattern})$ . In this case  $\text{overlap}(\text{"nano"}, \text{"nano"})$  is empty (all suffixes of "nano" use the letter "o", and no prefix does) so we go to  $j=0$ .

Alternate version of KMP The automaton above can be translated back into pseudo-code, looking a little different from the pseudo-code we saw before but performing the same comparisons.

KMP, version 2:

```
j = 0; for (i = 0; i < n; i++) for (;) // loop until break if (T[i] == P[j]) //
matches? j++; // yes, move on to next state if (j == m) // maybe that was
the last state found a match; j = overlap[j]; break; else if (j == 0) break;
// no match in state j=0, give up else j = overlap[j]; // try shorter partial
match
```

The code inside each iteration of the outer loop is essentially the same as the function `match` from the C++ implementation I've made available. One advantage of this version of the code is that it tests characters one by one, rather than performing random access in the  $T[]$  array, so (as in the implementation) it can be made to work for stream-based input rather than having to read the whole text into memory first. The `overlap[j]` array stores the values of `overlap(pattern[0..j-1], pattern)`, which we still need to show how to compute. Since this algorithm performs the same comparisons as the other version of KMP, it takes the same amount of time,  $O(n)$ . One way of proving this bound directly is to note, first, that there is one true comparison (in which  $T[i] == P[j]$ ) per iteration of the outer loop, since we break out of the inner loop when this happens. So there are  $n$  of these total. Each of these comparisons results in increasing  $j$  by one. Each iteration of the inner loop in which we don't break out of the loop results in executing the statement  $j=\text{overlap}[j]$ , which decreases

j. Since j can only decrease as many times as it's increased, the total number of times this happens is also  $O(n)$ .

Computing the overlap function Recall that we defined the overlap of two strings x and y to be the longest word that's a suffix of x and a prefix of y. The missing component of the KMP algorithm is a computation of this overlap function: we need to know  $\text{overlap}(P[0..j-1], P)$  for each value of  $j > 0$ . Once we've computed these values we can store them in an array and look them up when we need them. To compute these overlap functions, we need to know for strings x and y not just the longest word that's a suffix of x and a prefix of y, but all such words. The key fact to notice here is that if w is a suffix of x and a prefix of y, and it's not the longest such word, then it's also a suffix of  $\text{overlap}(x, y)$ . (This follows simply from the fact that it's a suffix of x that is shorter than  $\text{overlap}(x, y)$  itself.) So we can list all words that are suffixes of x and prefixes of y by the following loop:

```
while (x != empty) x = overlap(x, y); output x;
Now let's make another definition: say that shorten(x) is the prefix of x with one fewer character. The next simple observation to make is that shorten(overlap(x, y)) is still a prefix of y, but is also a suffix of shorten(x). So we can find overlap(x, y) by adding one more character to some word that's a suffix of shorten(x) and a prefix of y. We can just find all such words using the loop above, and return the first one for which adding one more character produces a valid overlap:
```

Overlap computation:

```
z = overlap(shorten(x), y) while (last char of x != y[length(z)]) if (z = empty)
return overlap(x, y) = empty else z = overlap(z, y) return overlap(x, y) = z
So this gives us a recursive algorithm for computing the overlap function in general. If we apply this algorithm for x=some prefix of the pattern, and y=the pattern itself, we see that all recursive calls have similar arguments. So if we store each value as we compute it, we can look it up instead of recomputing it again. (This simple idea of storing results instead of recomputing them is known as dynamic programming; we discussed it somewhat in the first lecture and will see it in more detail next time.) So replacing x by  $P[0..j-1]$  and y by  $P[0..m-1]$  in the pseudocode above and replacing recursive calls by lookups of previously computed values gives us a routine for the problem we're trying to solve, of computing these particular overlap values. The following pseudocode is taken (with some names changed) from the initialization code of the C++ implementation I've made available. The value in  $\text{overlap}[0]$  is just a flag to make the rest of the loop simpler. The code inside the for loop is the part that computes each overlap value.
```

KMP overlap computation:

```
overlap[0] = -1; for (int i = 0; pattern[i] != '\0'; i++) overlap[i + 1] = overlap[i] + 1; while (overlap[i + 1] > 0 pattern[i] != pattern[overlap[i + 1] - 1]) overlap[i + 1] = overlap[overlap[i + 1] - 1] + 1; return overlap;
Let's finish by analyzing the time taken by this part of the KMP algorithm. The outer loop executes m times. Each iteration of the inner loop decreases the value of the formula  $\text{overlap}[i+1]$ , and this formula's value only increases by one when we move from one iteration of the outer loop to the next. Since the number of decreases is at most the number of increases, the inner loop also has at most m iterations, and the total time for the algorithm is  $O(m)$ . The entire KMP algorithm consists of this overlap computation followed by the main part of the algorithm in which we scan the text (using the overlap values to speed up the scan). The first part
```

takes  $O(m)$  and the second part takes  $O(n)$  time, so the total time is  $O(m+n)$ .

## Chương 16

# Object Oriented Programming

View online [http://magizbox.com/training/object\\_oriented\\_programming/site/](http://magizbox.com/training/object_oriented_programming/site/)  
Object-oriented programming (OOP) is a programming paradigm based on the concept of "objects", which may contain data, in the form of fields, often known as attributes; and code, in the form of procedures, often known as methods. A feature of objects is that an object's procedures can access and often modify the data fields of the object with which they are associated (objects have a notion of "this" or "self"). In OOP, computer programs are designed by making them out of objects that interact with one another. There is significant diversity of OOP languages, but the most popular ones are class-based, meaning that objects are instances of classes, which typically also determine their type.

Many of the most widely used programming languages (such as C++, Java, Python etc.) are multi-paradigm programming languages that support object-oriented programming to a greater or lesser degree, typically in combination with imperative, procedural programming. Significant object-oriented languages include Java, C++, C, Python, PHP, Ruby, Perl, Delphi, Objective-C, Swift, Scala, Common Lisp, and Smalltalk.

### 16.1 OOP

Object-oriented programming (OOP) is a programming paradigm based on the concept of "objects", which are data structures that contain data, in the form of fields, often known as attributes; and code, in the form of procedures, often known as methods. A distinguishing feature of objects is that an object's procedures can access and often modify the data fields of the object with which they are associated (objects have a notion of "this" or "self"). In OO programming, computer programs are designed by making them out of objects that interact with one another.[1][2] There is significant diversity in object-oriented programming, but most popular languages are class-based, meaning that objects are instances of classes, which typically also determines their type. 1. A First Look Procedural vs Object Oriented 1 Procedural Approach

Focus is on procedures All data is shared: no protection More difficult to modify  
Hard to manage complexity Advantages of Object Orientation

People think in terms of object OO models map to reality OO models are:  
Easy to develop Easy to understand. 2. Principles encapsulation, inheritance,  
abstraction, polymorphism 2

Fundamental Principles of OOP In order for a programming language to be  
object-oriented, it has to enable working with classes and objects as well as  
the implementation and use of the fundamental object-oriented principles and  
concepts: inheritance, abstraction, encapsulation and polymorphism.

### 2.1 Encapsulation 3 4 5

Encapsulation is the packing of data and functions into a single component. The  
features of encapsulation are supported using classes in most object-oriented  
programming languages, although other alternatives also exist. It allows selec-  
tive hiding of properties and methods in an object by building an impenetrable  
wall to protect the code from accidental corruption.

What it do? We will learn to hide unnecessary details in our classes and provide  
a clear and simple interface for working with them.

Example: A popular example you'll hear for encapsulation is driving a car. Do  
you need to know exactly how every aspect of a car works (engine, carburettor,  
alternator, and so on)? No - you need to know how to use the steering wheel,  
brakes, accelerator, and so on.

### 2.2 Inheritance 6 7

Inheritance is when an object or class is based on another object (prototypal  
inheritance) or class (class-based inheritance), using the same implementation  
(inheriting from an object or class) specifying implementation to maintain the  
same behavior (realizing an interface; inheriting behavior).

inherit everything, add data or functionality, override functions, super

What it do? We will explain how class hierarchies improve code readability and  
enable the reuse of functionality.

Example: A real-world example of inheritance is genetic inheritance. We all  
receive genes from both our parents that then define who we are. We share  
qualities of both our parents, and yet at the same time are different from them.

Example: we might classify different kinds of vehicles according to the inheri-  
tance hierarchy. Moving down the hierarchy, each kind of vehicle is both more  
specialized than its parent (and all of its ancestors) and more general than its  
children (and all of its descendants). A wheeled vehicle inherits properties com-  
mon to all vehicles (it holds one or more people and carries them from place  
to place) but has an additional property that makes it more specialized (it has  
wheels). A car inherits properties common to all wheeled vehicles, but has addi-  
tional, more specialized properties (four wheels, an engine, a body, and so forth).  
The inheritance relationship can be viewed as an is-a relationship. In this re-  
lationship, the objects become more specialized the lower in the hierarchy you  
go.

Look at the image above you will get a point.8 Yes, the derived class can access  
base class properties and still the derived class has its own properties.

### 2.3 Abstraction

In computer science, abstraction is a technique for managing complexity of  
computer systems. It works by establishing a level of complexity on which a  
person interacts with the system, suppressing the more complex details below  
the current level. The programmer works with an idealized interface (usually well

defined) and can add additional levels of functionality that would otherwise be too complex to handle.

What it do? We will learn how to work through abstractions: to deal with objects considering their important characteristics and ignore all other details.

Example: You'll never buy a "device", but always buy something more specific : iPhone, Samsung Galaxy, Nokia 3310... Here, iPhone, Samsung Galaxy and Nokia 3310 are concrete things, device is abstract.

#### 2.4 Polymorphism 9

Polymorphism is the provision of a single interface to entities of different types. A polymorphic type is one whose operations can also be applied to values of some other type, or types.

What it do? We will explain how to work in the same manner with different objects, which define a specific implementation of some abstract behavior.

Example: All animal can speak, but dogs woof, cats meow, and ducks quack

There are two types of polymorphism

Overloading (compile time polymorphism): methods have the same name but different parameters. Overriding (run time polymorphism): the implementation given in base class is replaced with that in sub class.

Example 10: Let us Consider Car example for discussing the polymorphism. Take any brand like Ford, Honda, Toyota, BMW, Benz etc., Everything is of type Car. But each have their own advanced features and more advanced technology involved in their move behavior.

### 3. Concepts Learn Object Oriented Programming through Mario Game

[embed]<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HBbzYKMfx5Y>[/embed]

How Mario get 1up

#### 3.1. Object 11

Objects are key to understanding object-oriented technology. Look around right now and you'll find many examples of real-world objects: your dog, your desk, your television set, your bicycle. In mario world, Mario is an object.

Goomba is an object. Koopa is also an object. Even a coin and a pile are objects

Software objects are conceptually similar to real-world objects: they too consist of state and related behavior. An object stores its state in fields (variables in some programming languages) and exposes its behavior through methods (functions in some programming languages). Methods operate on an object's internal state and serve as the primary mechanism for object-to-object communication. Hiding internal state and requiring all interaction to be performed through an object's methods is known as data encapsulation — a fundamental principle of object-oriented programming. In Mario world, Mario has some fields like position (which indicate where Mario stands), state (which indicate whether Mario alive), and some methods like walk , fire or jump.

Goomba has some fields like position (which indicate where Goomba stands), state (which indicate whether Goomba die), and direction (which indicate the direction Goomba moves). Goomba has move method, and jumped<sub>o</sub>nmethod(whichoccurswhenitisjumpedonby

Mario Objects, real scene

#### 3.2 Class 12

In the real world, you'll often find many individual objects all of the same kind. There may be thousands of other bicycles in existence, all of the same make and model. Each bicycle was built from the same set of blueprints and therefore contains the same components. In object-oriented terms, we say that



your bicycle is an instance of the class of objects known as bicycles. A class is the blueprint from which individual objects are created.

In Mario world, each coin object come from Coin class, and every Koomba come from Koomba class

### 3.3. Inheritance 13

Inheritance is a mechanism in OOP to design two or more entities that are different but share many common features.

Feature common to all classes are defined in the superclass The classes that inherit common features from the superclass are called subclasses In Mario World, Goomba and Koopa is in

AND MANY, MANY MORE

### 3.4. Association, Aggregation and Composition 13

Association:

Whenever two objects are related with each other the relationship is called association between object

Aggregation:

Aggregation is specialized form of association. In aggregation objects have their own life-cycle but there is ownership and child object can not belongs to another parent object. But this is only an ownership not the life-cycle control of child control through parent object.

Example: Student and Teacher, Person and address

Composition

Composition is again specialize form of aggregation and we can call this as 'life and death' relationship. It is a strong type of aggregation. Child object does not have their life-cycle and if parent object is deleted, all child object will also be deleted.

Example: House and room

### 3.5 Polymorphism 13

Polymorphism indicates the meaning of "many forms"

Polymorphism present a method that can have many definitions. Polymorphism is related to "over loading" and "over ridding".

Overloading indicates a method can have different definitions by defining different type of parameters.

[code] getPrice(): void getPrice(string name): void [/code]

### 3.6 Abstraction 13

Abstraction is the process of modelling only relevant features

Hide unnecessary details which are irrelevant for current purpose. Reduces complexity and aids understanding.

Abstraction provides the freedom to defer implementation decisions by avoiding commitments to details.

### 3.7 Interface 13

An interface is a contract consisting of group of related function prototypes whose usage is defined but whose implementation is not:

An interface definition specifies the interface's member functions, called methods, their return types, the number and types of parameters and what they must do.

There is no implementation associated with an interface.

## 4. Coupling and Cohesion 13

4.1 Coupling Coupling defines how dependent one object on another object (that is uses).

Coupling is a measure of strength of connection between any two system components. The more any one components knows about other components, the tighter (worse) the coupling is between those components.

4.2 Cohesion Cohesion defines how narrowly defined an object is. Functional cohesion refers measures how strongly objects are related.

Cohesion is a measure of how logically related the parts of an individual components are to each other, and to the overall components. The more logically related the parts of components are to each other higher (better) the cohesion of that components.

4.3 Object Oriented Design Low coupling and tight cohesion is good object oriented design.

Challenge Object Task 1: With boiler plate code, make an gif image (32x32) Mario fire ball and jump to get coins

5. NEXT Design Principles Design Patterns

## 16.2 UML

The Unified Modeling Language (UML) is a general-purpose, developmental, modeling language in the field of software engineering, that is intended to provide a standard way to visualize the design of a system.

<http://www.yuml.me/> Use UML with IntelliJ: UML Designer Architecture 1

Design of a system consists of classes, interfaces and collaboration. UML provides class diagram, object diagram to support this. Implementation defines the components assembled together to make a complete physical system. UML component diagram is used to support implementation perspective. Process defines the flow of the system. So the same elements as used in Design are also used to support this perspective. Deployment represents the physical nodes of the system that forms the hardware. UML deployment diagram is used to support this perspective. Modelling Types 2

Diagrams Usecase Diagram 3 4 5

A use case diagram at its simplest is a representation of a user's interaction with the system that shows the relationship between the user and the different use cases in which the user is involved.

A use case diagram can identify the different types of users of a system and the different use cases and will often be accompanied by other types of diagrams as well.

Use case diagrams depict:

Use cases. A use case describes a sequence of actions that provide something of measurable value to an actor and is drawn as a horizontal ellipse. (example) Actors. An actor is a person, organization, or external system that plays a role in one or more interactions with your system. Actors are drawn as stick figures. (example) Associations. Associations between actors and use cases are indicated in use case diagrams by solid lines. An association exists whenever an actor is involved with an interaction described by a use case. Associations are modeled as lines connecting use cases and actors to one another, with an optional arrowhead on one end of the line. The arrowhead is often used to indicating the direction of the initial invocation of the relationship or to indicate the primary actor within

the use case. The arrowheads are typically confused with data flow and as a result I avoid their use. (example) Extend: Extend is a directed relationship that specifies how and when the behavior defined in usually supplementary (optional) extending use case can be inserted into the behavior defined in the extended use case. (example) Include is a directed relationship between two use cases which is used to show that behavior of the included use case (the addition) is inserted into the behavior of the including (the base) use case. (example) System boundary boxes (optional). You can draw a rectangle around the use cases, called the system boundary box, to indicate the scope of your system. Anything within the box represents functionality that is in scope and anything outside the box is not. System boundary boxes are rarely used, although on occasion I have used them to identify which use cases will be delivered in each major release of a system. (example) Packages (optional). Packages are UML constructs that enable you to organize model elements (such as use cases) into groups. Packages are depicted as file folders and can be used on any of the UML diagrams, including both use case diagrams and class diagrams. I use packages only when my diagrams become unwieldy, which generally implies they cannot be printed on a single page, to organize a large diagram into smaller ones. (example) Class Diagram 6

In software engineering, a class diagram in the Unified Modeling Language (UML) is a type of static structure diagram that describes the structure of a system by showing the system's classes, their attributes, operations (or methods), and the relationships among objects.

### 3.3.1 UML Association 9 10

#### Association

Association is reference based relationship between two classes. Here a class A holds a class level reference to class B. Association can be represented by a line between these classes with an arrow indicating the navigation direction. In case arrow is on the both sides, association has bidirectional navigation.

#### Aggregation

Aggregation (shared aggregation) is a "weak" form of aggregation when part instance is independent of the composite:

the same (shared) part could be included in several composites, and if composite is deleted, shared parts may still exist. Shared aggregation is shown as binary association decorated with a hollow diamond as a terminal adornment at the aggregate end of the association line. The diamond should be noticeably smaller than the diamond notation for N-ary associations. Shared aggregation is shown as binary association decorated with a hollow diamond.

#### Composition

Composition (composite aggregation) is a "strong" form of aggregation. Composition requirements/features listed in UML specification are:

it is a whole/part relationship, it is binary association part could be included in at most one composite (whole) at a time, and if a composite (whole) is deleted, all of its composite parts are "normally" deleted with it. Note, that UML does not define how, when and specific order in which parts of the composite are created. Also, in some cases a part can be removed from a composite before the composite is deleted, and so is not necessarily deleted as part of the composite.

#### Aggregation vs Composition

11

#### Sequence Diagram 7

A Sequence diagram is an interaction diagram that shows how processes operate with one another and in what order. It is a construct of a Message Sequence Chart.

A sequence diagram shows object interactions arranged in time sequence. It depicts the objects and classes involved in the scenario and the sequence of messages exchanged between the objects needed to carry out the functionality of the scenario. Sequence diagrams are typically associated with use case realizations in the Logical View of the system under development. Sequence diagrams are sometimes called event diagrams or event scenarios.

Activity Diagram 8

Activity diagrams are graphical representations of workflows of stepwise activities and actions with support for choice, iteration and concurrency. In the Unified Modeling Language, activity diagrams are intended to model both computational and organizational processes (i.e. workflows). Activity diagrams show the overall flow of control.

UML - Architecture

UML - Modeling Types

UML - Use Case Diagrams

Use Case Diagram

UML Association Between Actor and Use Case

Class diagram

Sequence diagram

Activity diagram

Aggregation

UML Class Diagram: Association, Aggregation and Composition

Lecture Notes on Object-Oriented Programming: Object Oriented Aggregation

## 16.3 SOLID

**SOLID Principles** In computer programming, SOLID (single responsibility, open-closed, Liskov substitution, interface segregation and dependency inversion) is a mnemonic acronym introduced by Michael Feathers for the "first five principles" named by Robert C. Martin in the early 2000s that stands for five basic principles of object-oriented programming and design. The intention is that these principles, when applied together, will make it more likely that a programmer will create a system that is easy to maintain and extend over time. The principles of SOLID are guidelines that can be applied while working on software to remove code smells by providing a framework through which the programmer may refactor the software's source code until it is both legible and extensible. It is part of an overall strategy of agile and Adaptive Software Development.

"Dependency Management is an issue that most of us have faced. Whenever we bring up on our screens a nasty batch of tangled legacy code, we are experiencing the results of poor dependency management. Poor dependency management leads to code that is hard to change, fragile, and non-reusable."

Uncle Bob talk about several different design smells in the PPP book, all relating to dependency management. On the other hand, when dependencies are well managed, the code remains flexible, robust, and reusable. So dependency

management, and therefore these principles, are at the foundation of the -ilities that software developers desire.

SRP - Single Responsibility A class should have one, and only one, reason to change.

A class should have only a single responsibility (i.e. only one potential change in the software's specification should be able to affect the specification of the class)

Original Paper

OCP - Open/Closed You should be able to extend a classes behavior, without modifying it.

Software entities . . . should be open for extension, but closed for modification."

Original Paper

LSP - Liskov Substitution Derived classes must be substitutable for their base classes.

Objects in a program should be replaceable with instances of their subtypes without altering the correctness of that program. See also design by contract.

Original Paper

ISP - Interface Segregation Make fine grained interfaces that are client specific. Many client-specific interfaces are better than one general-purpose interface.

Original Paper

DIP - Dependency Inversion Depend on abstractions, not on concretions.

One should "depend upon abstractions, not concretions."

Original Paper

References The Principles of OOD

## 16.4 Design Patterns

Design Patterns

Creational design patterns These design patterns are all about class instantiation. This pattern can be further divided into class-creation patterns and object-creational patterns. While class-creation patterns use inheritance effectively in the instantiation process, object-creation patterns use delegation effectively to get the job done.

Structural design patterns These design patterns are all about Class and Object composition. Structural class-creation patterns use inheritance to compose interfaces. Structural object-patterns define ways to compose objects to obtain new functionality.

Behavioral design patterns These design patterns are all about Class's objects communication. Behavioral patterns are those patterns that are most specifically concerned with communication between objects.

Design Pattern QA Examples of GoF Design Patterns in Java's core libraries

Dependency Injection vs Factory Pattern What is Inversion of Control? What is so bad about singletons? What is the basic difference between Factory and Abstract Factory Patterns? When would you use the Builder Pattern? What is the difference between Builder Design pattern and Factory Design pattern? How do the Proxy, Decorator, Adapter, and Bridge Patterns differ? Abstract Factory Pattern Creates an instance of several families of classes Intuitive 1

Volkswagen Transparent Factory in Dresden

What is it? 2 The abstract factory pattern provides a way to encapsulate a group of individual factories that have a common theme without specifying their concrete classes.

In normal usage, the client software creates a concrete implementation of the abstract factory and then uses the generic interface of the factory to create the concrete objects that are part of the theme. The client doesn't know (or care) which concrete objects it gets from each of these internal factories, since it uses only the generic interfaces of their products.

This pattern separates the details of implementation of a set of objects from their general usage and relies on object composition, as object creation is implemented in methods exposed in the factory interface.

Design

Example Code

The most interesting factories in the world Abstract factory pattern Observer Pattern Intuitive

Definition 1 The observer pattern is a software design pattern in which an object, called the subject, maintains a list of its dependents, called observers, and notifies them automatically of any state changes, usually by calling one of their methods. It is mainly used to implement distributed event handling systems. The Observer pattern is also a key part in the familiar model-view-controller (MVC) architectural pattern. The observer pattern is implemented in numerous programming libraries and systems, including almost all GUI toolkits. Structure 2

Subject

knows its observers. Any number of Observer objects may observe a subject. provides an interface for attaching and detaching Observer objects Observer defines an updating interface for objects that should be notified of changes in a subject. ConcreteSubject

stores state of interest to ConcreteObserver objects. sends a notification to its observers when its state changes. ConcreteObserver

maintains a reference to a ConcreteSubject object. stores state that should stay consistent with the subject's. implements the Observer updating interface to keep its state consistent with the subject's. Examples Example 1: Blog Manager Application

In this application, each user is an Observer, each blog is a Subject. When a blog post a new article (state change), user get an update. When users get update, they update their articles.

```
[code lang="java"] Blog sportBlog = new Blog("SPORT"); User user1 = new
User("Fan1"); User user2 = new User("Fan2");
sportBlog.attach(user1); sportBlog.attach(user2);
sportBlog.post(new Article("football")); sportBlog.post(new Article("swimming"));
user1.getArticles(); user2.getArticles();
sportBlog.detach(user1);' [/code]
```

Real Implementations Broadcast Receiver 3 4 on Android

More Articles [http://javapapers.com/design-patterns/observer-design-pattern/Comparison Observer/Observer pattern vs Publisher/Subscriber pattern](http://javapapers.com/design-patterns/observer-design-pattern/Comparison%20Observer/Observer/Observer%20pattern%20vs%20Publisher/Subscriber%20pattern) 5 Observer/Observerable pattern is mostly implemented in a synchronous way, i.e. the observable calls the appropriate method of all its observers when some event occurs. The Publisher/Subscriber pattern is mostly implemented in an asynchronous way (using message queue). In the Observer/Observerable pattern, the

observers are aware of the observable. Whereas, in Publisher/Subscriber, publishers and subscribers don't need to know each other. They simply communicate with the help of message queues. Observer pattern

Broadcast Receiver

Design Patterns: Elements of Reusable Object-Oriented Software

Which design patterns are used on Android?

stackoverflow, Difference between Observer, Pub/Sub, and Data Binding

# Chương 17

## Database

View online [http://magizbox.com/training/computer\\_science/site/database/](http://magizbox.com/training/computer_science/site/database/)

### 17.1 Introduction

Relational DBMS: Oracle, MySQL, SQLite

Key-value Stores: Redis, Memcached

Document stores: MongoDB

Graph: Neo4j

Wide column stores: Cassandra, HBase

**Design and Modeling (a.k.a Data Definition)**

**1.1 Schema** A database schema of a database system is its structure described in a formal language supported by the database management system (DBMS) and refers to the organization of data as a blueprint of how a database is constructed (divided into database tables in the case of Relational Databases). The formal definition of database schema is a set of formulas (sentences) called integrity constraints imposed on a database. These integrity constraints ensure compatibility between parts of the schema. All constraints are expressible in the same language. A database can be considered a structure in realization of the database language. The states of a created conceptual schema are transformed into an explicit mapping, the database schema. This describes how real world entities are modeled in the database.

**1.1.1 Type** In computer science and computer programming, a data type or simply type is a classification identifying one of various types of data, such as real, integer or Boolean, that determines the possible values for that type; the operations that can be done on values of that type; the meaning of the data; and the way values of that type can be stored.

TEXT, INT, ENUM, TIMESTAMP

**1.2 Cardinality (a.k.a Relationship)** Foreign key, Primary key

**1.2 Indexing** A database index is a data structure that improves the speed of data retrieval operations on a database table at the cost of additional writes and storage space to maintain the index data structure. Indexes are used to quickly locate data without having to search every row in a database table every time a database table is accessed. Indexes can be created using one or more columns



of a database table, providing the basis for both rapid random lookups and efficient access of ordered records. Why Indexing is important?

Indexing in MySQL

CREATE INDEX NameIndex ON Employee (name) SELECT \* FROM Employee WHERE name = 'Ashish' 2. Data Manipulation Create - Read - Update - Delete Create or add new entries Read, retrieve, search, or view existing entries \* Update or edit existing entries \* Delete/deactivate existing entries /\* create \*/

CREATE TABLE Guests ( id INT(6) UNSIGNED AUTO\_INCREMENT PRIMARY KEY, firstname VARCHAR(30) NOT NULL, lastname VARCHAR(30) NOT NULL, email VARCHAR(50) NOT NULL, create(insert)\*/INSERT INTO Guests (firstname, lastname, email) VALUES ('John', 'Doe', 'john@example.com') /\* read \*/ SELECT \* FROM Guests WHERE id = 1 /\* update \*/ UPDATE Guests SET lastname = 'Doe' WHERE id = 1 /\* delete \*/ DELETE FROM Guests WHERE id = 1 3. Data Retrieve Transaction 3.1 Data

Get user id, user name and number of post of this user

SELECT user.id, user.name, COUNT(post.\*) AS posts FROM user LEFT OUTER JOIN post ON post.owner\_id = user.id GROUP BY user.id Select user who only order onetime.

SELECT name, COUNT(name) AS c FROM orders GROUP BY name HAVING c = 1; Calculate the longest period (in days) that the company has gone without a hiring or firing anyone.

SELECT x.date, MIN(y.date) y\_date, DATEDIFF(MIN(y.date), x.date) days FROM (SELECT hire\_date date, date GROUP BY x.date ORDER BY days DESC LIMIT 1; Data Retrieve API

API Description get get single item Get dog by id

Dog.get(1) find find items

@see collection.find()

Find dog name "Max"

Dog.find("name": "Max") sort sort items

@see cursor.sort

Get 10 older dogs

Dog.find().sort("age", limit: 10) aggregate sum, min, max items

@see collection.aggregate

Get sum of dogs' age

Dog.find().aggregate( "sum\_age" : sum: "age" ) 3.2 Transaction A transaction

symbolizes a unit of work performed within a database management system (or similar system) against a database, and treated in a coherent and reliable way independent of other transactions. A transaction generally represents any change in database. Example: Transfer 900 from Account

Bob to Alice

start transaction select balance from Account where Account\_Number = 'Bob'; select balance from Account where Account\_Number = 'Alice'; update Account set balance = balance - 900 where Account\_Number = 'Bob'; update Account set balance = balance + 900 where Account\_Number = 'Alice'; commit; // if all sql queries succeed rollback; // if any of sql queries fail

In computer science, ACID (Atomicity, Consistency, Isolation, Durability) is a set of properties that guarantee that database transactions are processed reliably. In the context of databases, a single logical operation on the data is called a transaction.

For example, a transfer of funds from one bank account to another, even involving multiple changes such as debiting one account and crediting another, is a single transaction. [16]

4. Backup and Restore Sometimes it is desired to bring a database back to a previous state (for many reasons, e.g., cases when the database is found corrupted due to a software error, or if it has been updated with erroneous data). To achieve this a backup operation is done occasionally or continuously, where each desired database state (i.e., the values of its data and their embedding in

database's data structures) is kept within dedicated backup files (many techniques exist to do this effectively). When this state is needed, i.e., when it is decided by a database administrator to bring the database back to this state (e.g., by specifying this state by a desired point in time when the database was in this state), these files are utilized to restore that state.

5. Migration In software engineering, schema migration (also database migration, database change management) refers to the management of incremental, reversible changes to relational database schemas. A schema migration is performed on a database whenever it is necessary to update or revert that database's schema to some newer or older version. Example: Android Migration by droid-migrate

*droid-migrate init -d my\_databasedroid--migrategenerateupdroid--migrategeneratedownExample : DatabaseSeedingwithLaravel*

6. Active record pattern | Object-Relational Mapping (ORM) Object-relational mapping in computer science is a programming technique for converting data between incompatible type systems in object-oriented programming languages. This creates, in effect, a "virtual object database" that can be used from within the programming language. There are both free and commercial packages available that perform object-relational mapping, although some programmers opt to create their own ORM tools.

Example

php

```
employee = new Employee();employee->setName("Joe"); employee-> save(); Android
```

```
public class User @DatabaseField(id = true) String username; @DatabaseField  
String password; @DatabaseField String email; @DatabaseField String alias;  
public User() Implementations
```

Android: [ormlite-android] PHP: [Eloquent]

## 17.2 SQL

SQL SELECT \* FROM WORLD

INSERT INTO

SELECT \* FROM girls

## 17.3 MySQL

MySQL

MySQL is an open-source relational database management system (RDBMS); in July 2013, it was the world's second most widely used RDBMS, and the most widely used open-source client-server model RDBMS. It is named after co-founder Michael Widenius's daughter, My. The SQL abbreviation stands for Structured Query Language. The MySQL development project has made its source code available under the terms of the GNU General Public License, as well as under a variety of proprietary agreements. MySQL was owned and sponsored by a single for-profit firm, the Swedish company MySQL AB, now owned by Oracle Corporation. For proprietary use, several paid editions are available, and offer additional functionality.

MySQL: Docker Docker Run docker pull mysql docker run -d -p 3306:3306  
 --env MYSQL\_ROOT\_PASSWORD=docker --env MYSQL\_DATABASE=docker --env MYSQL\_USER=docker --env MYSQL\_PASSWORD=docker  
 docker mysql Note : On Windows, view your 0.0.0.0 IP by running below command line (or you can turn on Kitema)  
 Docker Compose Step 1: Clone Docker Project  
 git clone https://github.com/magizbox/docker-mysql.git mv docker-mysql mysql  
 Step 2: Docker Compose  
 version: "2"  
 services: mysql: build: ./mysql/. ports: - 3306:3306 environment: - MYSQL\_ROOT\_PASSWORD=docker - MYSQL\_DATABASE=docker - MYSQL\_USER=docker - MYSQL\_PASSWORD=docker  
 docker -- MYSQL\_DATABASE=docker -- MYSQL\_USER=docker -- MYSQL\_PASSWORD=docker  
 dockervolumes : - ./data/mysql : /var/lib/mysql Dockerfile Verify doc  
 machinels NAME ACTIVE DRIVER STATE URL SWARM default \* virtualbox Running tcp :  
 //192.168.99.100 : 2376 You can add phpmyadmin to see mysql works  
 phpmyadmin: image: phpmyadmin/phpmyadmin links: - mysql environment: -  
 PMA\_ARBITRARY=1 ports: - 80 : 80 See it works  
 Go to localhost Login with Server=mysql, Username=docker, Password=docker

## 17.4 Redis

Redis is an open source (BSD licensed), in-memory data structure store, used as database, cache and message broker. 1

It supports data structures such as strings, hashes, lists, sets, sorted sets with range queries, bitmaps, hyperloglogs and geospatial indexes with radius queries. Redis has built-in replication, Lua scripting, LRU eviction, transactions and different levels of on-disk persistence, and provides high availability via Redis Sentinel and automatic partitioning with Redis Cluster.

Redis: Client Python Client pipy/redis

Installation

pip install redis Usage

```
import redis
r = redis.StrictRedis(host='localhost', port=6379, db=0)
r.set('foo', 'bar') -> True
```

```
r.get('foo') -> 'bar'
```

```
r.delete('foo')
```

after delete r.get('foo') -> None Java Client <https://redislabs.com/redis-java>

Redis: Docker Docker Run docker run -d -p 6379:6379 redis Docker Compose

version: "2"

services: redis: image: redis ports: - 6379:6379 Redis.io

## 17.5 MongoDB

MongoDB is an open-source document database that provides high performance, high availability, and automatic scaling.

MongoDB provides high performance data persistence. In particular,

Support for embedded data models reduces I/O activity on database system.

Indexes support faster queries and can include keys from embedded documents and arrays. MongoDB is 1 in the Document Store according to db-engines

Client Mongo Shell The mongo shell is an interactive JavaScript interface to MongoDB and is a component of the MongoDB package. You can use the mongo shell to query and update data as well as perform administrative operations.

Start Mongo

Once you have installed and have started MongoDB, connect the mongo shell to your running MongoDB instance. Ensure that MongoDB is running before attempting to launch the mongo shell.

mongo Interact with mongo via shell

Show list database > show dbs

Create or use a database > use <database\_name> >> *usetestexample*

List collection > show collections

Create or use a collection > db.<collection\_name> >> *db.new\_collectionexample*

Read document > db.new\_collection.find()

Insert new document > db.new\_collection.insertOne("a" : "b")

Update document > db.new\_collection.update("a" : "b", set: {"a": "bcd"})

Remove document > db.new\_collection.remove("a" : "b") *PyMongo—PythonClientPyMongois aPythondistrib*

Installation We recommend using pip to install pymongo on all platforms:

```
pip install pymongo Usage import pymongo create connection client = pymongo.MongoClient('127.0.0.1', 27017) -> MongoClient(host=['127.0.0.1:27017'], document_class=dict, tz_aware=False, connect=True)
```

```
create database db = client.db_test -> Database(MongoClient(host=['127.0.0.1:27017'], document_class=dict, tz_aware=False, connect=True), u'db_test')
```

create collection (collection is the same with table in SQL) collection = db.new\_collection

```
insert document to collection (document is the same with rows in SQL) db.collection.insert_one("c" : "d") -> <pymongo.results.InsertOneResult at 0x7f7eab3c9f00>
```

```
read document of collection db.new_collection.find_one("c" : "d") -> u'd' : ObjectId('589a8195f23e627a973c')
```

```
update documents of collection db.new_collection.update("c" : "d", "set": {"c":
```

```
"def" }) -> u'n': 1, u'nModified': 1, u'ok': 1.0, 'updatedExisting': True
```

```
remove document of collection db.new_collection.remove("c" : "def") -> u'n': 1, u'ok': 1.0 Docker DockerRu
```

```
docker run -p 27017:27017 mongo:latest
```

## Chương 18

# Hệ điều hành

### Những phần mềm không thể thiếu

- Adblock extension
- Trình duyệt Google Chrome (với các extensions Scihub, Mendeley Desktop, Adblock)
- Terminal (Oh-my-zsh)
- IDE Pycharm để code python
- Quản lý phiên bản code Git
- Bộ gõ ibus-unikey trong Ubuntu hoặc unikey (Windows) (Ctrl-Space để chuyển đổi ngôn ngữ)
- CUDA (lập trình trên GPU)

### Xem thông tin hệ thống

Phiên bản ‘ubuntu 16.04’

```
sudo apt-get install sysstat
```

Xem hoạt động (%) của các core cpu

```
mpstat -A
```

CPU của mình có bao nhiêu core, bao nhiêu siblibngs

```
cat /proc/cpuinfo
```

```
processor      : 23
vendor_id     : GenuineIntel
cpu family    : 6
model         : 62
model name    : Intel(R) Xeon(R) CPU E5-2430 v2 @ 2.50GHz
stepping      : 4
microcode     : 0x428
cpu MHz       : 1599.707
```

```

cache size      : 15360 KB
physical id     : 1
siblings       : 12
core id        : 5
cpu cores      : 6
apicid         : 43
initial apicid : 43
fpu            : yes
fpu_exception  : yes
cpuid level    : 13
wp            : yes
flags          : fpu vme de pse tsc msr pae mce cx8 apic sep mtrr pge
                ↪ mca cmov pat pse36 clflush dts acpi mmx fxsr sse sse2 ss ht tm
                ↪ pbe syscall nx pdpe1gb rdtscp lm constant_tsc arch_perfmon
                ↪ pebs bts rep_good nopl xtopology nonstop_tsc aperfmperf
                ↪ eagerfpu pni pclmulqdq dtes64 monitor ds_cpl vmx smx est tm2
                ↪ ssse3 cx16 xtpr pdcm pcid dca sse4_1 sse4_2 x2apic popcnt
                ↪ tsc_deadline_timer aes xsave avx f16c rdrand lahf_lm ida arat
                ↪ xsaveopt pln pts dtherm tpr_shadow vnmi flexpriority ept vpid
                ↪ fsgsbase smep erms
bogomips       : 5005.20
clflush_size   : 64
cache_alignment : 64
address sizes   : 46 bits physical, 48 bits virtual
power management:

```

Kết quả cho thấy cpu của 6 core và 12 siblings

**Xem chương trình nào tốn ram**

```
ps aux | awk '{print $2, $4, $11}' | sort -k2rn | head -n 20
```

<https://www.garron.me/en/go2linux/how-find-which-process-eating-ram-memory-linux.html>

## Chương 19

# Ubuntu

### Chuyện terminal

Terminal là một câu chuyện muôn thưở của bất kì ông coder nào thích customize, đẹp, tiện (và bug kinh hoàng). Hiện tại mình đang thấy combo này khá ổn Terminal (Ubuntu) (Color: Black on white, Build-in schemes: Tango) + zsh + oh-my-zsh (fishy-custom theme). Những features hay ho

- Làm việc tốt trên cả Terminal (white background) và embedded terminal của Pycharm (black background)
- Hiện thị folder dạng ngắn (chỉ ký tự đầu tiên)
- Hiện thị branch của git ở bên phải



```
rain@rain-Inspiron-3847: ~  
File Edit View Search Terminal Help  
rain:-> ls /  
bin    dev    initrd.img    lib32    media    proc   /sbin    sys    var  
boot   etc    initrd.img.old lib64    mnt     root    snap   tmp    vmlinuz  
cdrom  home  lib           lost+found opt     run     srv     usr    vmlinuz.old  
rain:-> vim ~/.oh-my-zsh  
rain:-> vim ~/.zshrc  
rain:-> █
```

### Chuyện bộ gõ

Làm sao để khởi động lại ibus, thỉnh thoảng lại chết bất đắc kì tử

```
ibus-daemon &  
ibus restart
```

27/12/2017: Lại dính lỗi không thể login. Lần này thì lại phải xóa bạn KDE đi. Kể cũng hơn buồn. Nhưng nhất quyết phải enable được tính năng Windows Spreading (hay đại loại thế). Hóa ra khi ubuntu bị lỗi không có launcher hay toolbar là do bạn unity plugin chưa được enable. Oái. Sao người hiền lành như mình suốt ngày bị mấy lỗi vớ vẩn thế không biết.

20/11/2017: Hôm nay đen thật, dính lỗi login loop. Fix mãi mới được. Thôi cũng kệ. Cảm giác bạn KDE này đỡ bị lỗi ibus-unique hơn bạn GNOME. Hôm nay cũng đổi bạn zsh theme. Chọn mãi chẳng được bạn nào ổn ổn, nhưng không thể chịu được kiểu suggest lỗi nữa rồi. Đôi khi thấy default vẫn là tốt nhất.

21/11/2017: Sau một ngày trải nghiệm KDE, cảm giác giao diện mượt hơn GNOME. Khi overview windows với nhiều màn hình tốt và trực quan hơn. Đặc biệt là không bị lỗi ibus nữa. Đôi terminal cũng cảm giác ổn ổn. Không bị lỗi suggest nữa.

**Chuyện lỗi login loop**

Phiên bản: ‘ubuntu 16.04’

<https://askubuntu.com/questions/389903/ibus-doesnt-seem-to-restart>

**Hot Corner và Workspace**

Cần cài đặt ngay **gnome-tweak-tool**

```
sudo apt install gnome-tweak-tool
```

Cài đặt hot corner với

<https://askubuntu.com/questions/975348/how-to-get-all-hot-corner-in-ubuntu-17-10>

Cài đặt Workspace



## Chương 20

# Networking

View online [http://magizbox.com/training/computer\\_science/site/networking/](http://magizbox.com/training/computer_science/site/networking/)

TCP/IP TCP/IP is the protocol that has run the Internet for 30 years.

How TCP/IP works

Read More

Happy 30th Anniversary, Internet and TCP/IP!!! P2P Peer-to-peer (P2P) computing or networking is a distributed application architecture that partitions tasks or workloads between peers. Peers are equally privileged, equipotent participants in the application. They are said to form a peer-to-peer network of nodes.

Peers make a portion of their resources, such as processing power, disk storage or network bandwidth, directly available to other network participants, without the need for central coordination by servers or stable hosts.[1] Peers are both suppliers and consumers of resources, in contrast to the traditional client-server model in which the consumption and supply of resources is divided. Emerging collaborative P2P systems are going beyond the era of peers doing similar things while sharing resources, and are looking for diverse peers that can bring in unique resources and capabilities to a virtual community thereby empowering it to engage in greater tasks beyond those that can be accomplished by individual peers, yet that are beneficial to all the peers.

bridge vs NAT When you create a new virtual machine, you have one of many options when it comes to choosing your network connectivity. Two common options are to use either bridged networking or network address translation (NAT). So, what exactly does that look like? Take a look at the figure below.

NAT: In this diagram, the vertical line next to the firewall represents the production network and you can see that 192.168.1.1 is the IP address of the company's firewall that connects them to the Internet. There is also a virtual host with three virtual machines running inside it. The big red circle represents the virtual adapter to which NAT-based virtual machines connect (172.16.1.1). You can see that there are two such virtual machines with IP addresses of 172.16.1.2 and 172.16.1.3. When you configure a virtual machine as using NAT, it doesn't see the production network directly. In fact, all traffic coming from the virtual machine will share the VM host's IP address. Behind the scenes, traffic from the virtual machines is routed on the virtual host and sent out via the host's physical adapter and, eventually, to the Internet.

bridge: The third virtual machine (192.168.1.3) is configured in "bridged" mode

which basically means that the virtual network adapter in that virtual machine is bridged to the production network and that virtual machine operates as if it exists directly on the production network. In fact, this virtual machine won't even be able to see the two NAT-based virtual machines since they're on different networks.

Read more: NAT vs. bridged network: A simple diagram

## Chương 21

# UX - UI

View online [http://magizbox.com/training/computer\\_science/site/ux/](http://magizbox.com/training/computer_science/site/ux/)

1. Design Principles UI Design Do's and Don'ts Android Design Principles

2. Design Trends 2.1 Material Design 1 components

We challenged ourselves to create a visual language for our users that synthesizes the classic principles of good design with the innovation and possibility of technology and science. This is material design. This spec is a living document that will be updated as we continue to develop the tenets and specifics of material design.

Tools

materialpalette.com Icon: fa2png UI Components

Data Binding Transclusion Directive - Fragments

Messaging Intent Android 1

Intents are asynchronous messages which allow application components to request functionality from other Android components. Intents allow you to interact with components from the same applications as well as with components contributed by other applications. For example, an activity can start an external activity for taking a picture.

Intents are objects of the `android.content.Intent` type. Your code can send them to the Android system defining the components you are targeting. For example, via the `startActivity()` method you can define that the intent should be used to start an activity.

An intent can contain data via a `Bundle`. This data can be used by the receiving component.

Style Theme Android Development: Explaining Styles and Themes, <https://m.youtube.com/watch?v=MXp>

Responsive Design Support Multi Screen 2

Intent Android

Support Multi Screen

## Chương 22

# Service-Oriented Architecture

View online [http://magizbox.com/training/computer\\_science/site/software\\_architecture/](http://magizbox.com/training/computer_science/site/software_architecture/)

A service-oriented architecture (SOA) is an architectural pattern in computer software design in which application components provide services to other components via a communications protocol, typically over a network. The principles of service-orientation are independent of any vendor, product or technology. 2 Generally accepted view 1 Boundaries are explicit Services are autonomous Services share schema and contract, not class Service compatibility is based on policy Microservices In computing, microservices is a software architecture style in which complex applications are composed of small, independent processes communicating with each other using language-agnostic APIs. These services are small building blocks, highly decoupled and focussed on doing a small task, facilitating a modular approach to system-building. One of concepts which integrates microservices as a software architecture style is dew computing. 1 Properties 2 Each running in its own process Communicating with lightweight mechanisms, often an HTTP resource API Build around business capabilities Independently deployable fully automated deployment Maybe in a different programming language and use different data storage technologies Monolith vs Microservice Monolith Microservice Simplicity Partial Deployment Consistency Availability Inter-module refactoring Preserve Modularity Multiple Platforms Benefits 4 Their small size enables developers to be most productive. It's easy to comprehend and test each service. You can correctly handle failure of any dependent service. They reduce impact of correlated failures. Web Service RESTful API

REST Client Sense (Beta)

A JSON aware developer console to ElasticSearch.

API Document and Client Generator <http://swagger.io/swagger-editor/>

API Client CRUD Pet

API Client Method URL Body Return Body Method GET /pets [Pet] PetApi.list()

POST /pets/ Pet Pet PetApi.create(pet) GET /pets/pet;dPetPetApi.get(pet;d)PUT /pets/pet;dPetPetPetA

CRUD Store

GET /stores StoreApi.list() ... ... Relationships

Many to many

Example [<https://api.facebook.com/method/links.getStats?urls=Microservices>]

Slide 11/42, Micro-services

Martin Fowler, Microservices, youtube

Rick E. Osowski, Microservices in action, Part 1: Introduction to microservices,  
IBM developerworks

## Chương 23

# License

View online [http://magizbox.com/training/computer\\_science/site/licenses/](http://magizbox.com/training/computer_science/site/licenses/)  
Licenses More Licenses  
More Open Source Licenses Choose A License Top 20 Open Source Licenses

## Chương 24

# Semantic Web

View online [http://magizbox.com/training/semantic<sub>w</sub>eb/site/](http://magizbox.com/training/semantic_web/site/)

The Semantic Web is an extension of the Web through standards by the World Wide Web Consortium (W3C). The standards promote common data formats and exchange protocols on the Web, most fundamentally the Resource Description Framework (RDF).

According to the W3C, "The Semantic Web provides a common framework that allows data to be shared and reused across application, enterprise, and community boundaries". The term was coined by Tim Berners-Lee for a web of data that can be processed by machines. While its critics have questioned its feasibility, proponents argue that applications in industry, biology and human sciences research have already proven the validity of the original concept.

### 24.1 Web 3.0

Tim Berners-Lee has described the semantic web as a component of "Web 3.0". People keep asking what Web 3.0 is. I think maybe when you've got an overlay of scalable vector graphics – everything rippling and folding and looking misty – on Web 2.0 and access to a semantic Web integrated across a huge space of data, you'll have access to an unbelievable data resource ...

—Tim Berners-Lee, 2006

"Semantic Web" is sometimes used as a synonym for "Web 3.0", though the definition of each term varies.

### 24.2 RDF

### 24.3 SPARQL

SPARQL (pronounced "sparkle", a recursive acronym for SPARQL Protocol and RDF Query Language) is an RDF query language, that is, a semantic query language for databases, able to retrieve and manipulate data stored in Resource Description Framework (RDF) format. It was made a standard by the RDF Data Access Working Group (DAWG) of the World Wide Web Consortium, and is recognized as one of the key technologies of the semantic web. On 15 January

2008, SPARQL 1.0 became an official W3C Recommendation, and SPARQL 1.1 in March, 2013.

SPARQL allows for a query to consist of triple patterns, conjunctions, disjunctions, and optional patterns.

A SPARQL query

Anatomy of a query

SPARQL has four query forms. These query forms use the solutions from pattern matching to form result sets or RDF graphs. The query forms are:

SELECT Returns all, or a subset of, the variables bound in a query pattern match. CONSTRUCT Returns an RDF graph constructed by substituting variables in a set of triple templates. ASK Returns a boolean indicating whether a query pattern matches or not. DESCRIBE Returns an RDF graph that describes the resources found. Example

Query Result Data filename: ex008.rq

PREFIX ab: <http://learningsparql.com/ns/addressbook>

SELECT ?person WHERE ?person ab:homeTel "(229) 276-5135" Offline query

example GET CRAIG EMAILS PREFIX rdf: <http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-

rdf-syntax-ns> PREFIX owl: <http://www.w3.org/2002/07/owl> PREFIX xsd:

<http://www.w3.org/2001/XMLSchema> PREFIX rdfs: <http://www.w3.org/2000/01/rdf-schema> PREFIX : <http://www.semanticweb.org/lananh/ontologies/2016/10/untitled-ontology-3>

SELECT ?craigEmail WHERE :craig :email ?craigEmail . Online query example PREFIX ab: <http://learningsparql.com/ns/addressbook>

SELECT ?craigEmail WHERE ab:craig ab:email ?craigEmail . Query in dbpedia.org Example

SELECT \* WHERE ?a ?b ?c . LIMIT 20



**Phần IV**

**Khoa học dữ liệu**

## Chương 25

# Học sâu

Tài liệu cũ: [http://magizbox.com/training/deep\\_learning/site/](http://magizbox.com/training/deep_learning/site/)

Deep Learning is a new area of Machine Learning research, which has been introduced with the objective of moving Machine Learning closer to one of its original goals: Artificial Intelligence.

24/11/2017 -  
Từ hôm nay,  
mỗi ngày sẽ ghi  
chú một phần  
(rất rất nhỏ) về  
Deep Learning

22/11/2017 -  
Phải nói quyển  
này hơi nặng  
so với mình.  
Nhưng thôi cứ  
cố gắng vậy.

### 25.1 Deep Feedforward Networks

deep feedforward  
networks

Deep feedforward networks, (hay còn gọi là feedforward neural networks) hoặc multilayer perceptrons (MLPs) là mô hình deep learning cơ bản nhất. Mục tiêu của một feedforward network là xấp xỉ một hàm  $f^*$ . Ví dụ, với bài toán phân loại,  $y = f^*(x)$  chuyển đầu vào  $x$  thành một nhãn  $y$ . Một feedforward network định nghĩa một ánh xạ  $y = f(x, \theta)$  và học giá trị của  $\theta$  để xấp xỉ hàm  $f^*$  tốt nhất.

Mô hình được gọi là feedforward vì giá trị của  $x$  đang lan truyền qua mạng đến output, mà không có chiều ngược lại. Các mô hình neural có sự lan truyền ngược lại được gọi là recurrent neural network.

Feedforward là nền tảng cho rất nhiều mô hình mạng neural hiện đại. Ví dụ, các ứng dụng trong việc nhận diện ảnh thường áp dụng mô hình convolutional, là một dạng đặc biệt của feedforward network. Feedforward network cũng là nền tảng cho mạng recurrent network, có nhiều ứng dụng xử lý ngôn ngữ.

Feedforward neural networks được gọi là network vì nó thường được biểu diễn bởi một đồ thị gồm nhiều tầng, định nghĩa các hàm được kết hợp với nhau như thế nào. Ví dụ, chúng ta có 3 hàm  $f(1)(x)$ ,  $f(2)(x)$ ,  $f(3)(x)$  được đặt với nhau thành một chuỗi, hình thành hàm  $f(x) = f(3)(f(2)(f(1)(x)))$ . Cấu trúc chuỗi này là dạng phổ biến nhất trong mạng neural. Trong trường hợp này  $f(1)(x)$  được gọi là layer 1,  $f(2)(x)$  được gọi là layer 2, và cứ tiếp tục như vậy. Độ dài của chuỗi thể hiện độ sâu của mô hình. Thuật ngữ "deep learning" xuất phát từ điều này. Layer cuối cũng được gọi là output layer. Trong mạng neural, mục tiêu là học hàm  $f^*(x)$ . Ứng với mỗi giá trị đầu vào  $x$ , sẽ có tương ứng một giá trị  $y$ . Mục tiêu của mạng là tìm các tham số để  $y$  xấp xỉ với  $f^*(x)$ . Nhưng việc

học của hàm không hoàn toàn phụ thuộc vào  $x, y$ , mà do learning algorithm quyết định. Vì dữ liệu huấn luyện không chỉ rõ giá trị ở những layer ở giữa, nên chúng được gọi là các hidden layers. Cuối cùng, mạng neural được gọi là neural vì nó lấy cảm hứng từ ngành khoa học thần kinh. Mỗi hidden layer trong mạng thường là các giá trị vector. Mỗi phần tử trong vector sẽ quyết định việc hành xử thế nào với các input đầu vào và đưa ra output.

Ta có thể coi mỗi layer chứa rất nhiều units hoạt động song song, đóng vai trò như một hàm ánh xạ vector sang giá trị số. Mặc dù các kiến trúc của mạng neural lấy rất nhiều ý tưởng từ ngành khoa học thần kinh, tuy nhiên, mục tiêu của mạng neural không phải để mô phỏng bộ não. Một cách nhìn tốt hơn là xem mạng neural như một máy học, được thiết kế với các điểm nhấn từ những gì chúng ta biết về não người. Một cách để hiểu mạng neural là bắt đầu với các mô hình linear, và xem xét các hạn chế của các mô hình này. Linear models, như logistic regression hay linear regression, hấp dẫn ở chỗ chúng có thể fit rất hữu quả và đáng tin cậy, với các close form và tối ưu hóa lỗi. Một hạn chế hiển nhiên của linear là các hàm linear, nên model không thể hiểu tương tác giữa các input. Để mở rộng linear model để biểu diễn hàm nonlinear của  $x$ , chúng ta có thể áp dụng linear model không phải cho  $x$  mà cho  $\phi(x)$ , trong đó là một nonlinear transformer. Có thể xem như một tập các feature mô tả  $x$ , hoặc một cách để biểu diễn  $x$ . Vấn đề là chọn mapping. Có 3 cách thông dụng, chọn một generic như RBF, thiết kế bằng tay, hoặc học.

Nội dung chương này:

- 1. Ví dụ cơ bản củ feedforward network
- 2. Design decisions cho việc thiết kế mạng feedforward network
- 3. Choose activation functions trong hidden layer
- 4. Thiết kế mạng neural, bao nhiêu layers, các layer kết nối với nhau như thế nào, có bao nhiêu unit trong một layer
  - choosing the optimizer
  - cost function
  - form of the output units
- 5. Thuật toán Back-propagation
- 6. Góc nhìn lịch sử

Tham khảo Chapter 6, Deep Learning Book Neural Network Zoo <http://www.asimovinstitute.org/neural-network-zoo/>

word2vec Example Step 1: Download word2vec example from github

*dir*

02/06/2017 11:45 DIR . 02/06/2017 11:45 DIR .. 02/06/2017 10:12 9,144 word2vec<sub>basic</sub>.py Step2 :

*Run word2vec<sub>basic</sub> example*

*activate tensorflow - gpu python word2vec<sub>basic</sub>.py*

Found and verified text8.zip Data size 17005207 Most common words (+UNK)

[['UNK', 418391], ('the', 1061396), ('of', 593677), ('and', 416629), ('one', 411764)]

Sample data [5241, 3082, 12, 6, 195, 2, 3136, 46, 59, 156] ['anarchism', 'originated', 'as', 'a', 'term', 'of', 'abuse', 'first', 'used', 'against'] 3082 originated -> 5241 anarchism 3082 originated -> 12 as 12 as -> 6 a 12 as -> 3082 originated

6 a -> 195 term 6 a -> 12 as 195 term -> 2 of 195 term -> 6 a Initialized  
Average loss at step 0 : 288.173675537 Nearest to its: nasl, tinkering, deriva-  
tional, yachts, emigrated, fatalism, kingston, kochi, Nearest to into: streetcars,  
neglecting, deutschlands, lecture, realignment, bligh, donau, medalists, Near-  
est to state: canterbury, exceptions, disaffection, crete, westernmost, earthly,  
organize, richland,

## 25.2 Tài liệu Deep Learning

Lang thang thế nào lại thấy trang này [My Reading List for Deep Learning!](#) của một anh ở Microsoft. Trong đó, (đương nhiên) có Deep Learning của thánh Yoshua Bengio, có một vụ hay nữa là bài review "Deep Learning" của mấy thánh Yann Lecun, Yoshua Bengio, Geoffrey Hinton trên tạp chí Nature. Ngoài ra còn có nhiều tài liệu hữu ích khác.

## 25.3 Các layer trong deep learning

### 25.3.1 Sparse Layers

[nn.Embedding](#) (hướng dẫn)

grep code: [Shawn1993/cnn-text-classification-pytorch](#)

Đóng vai trò như một lookup table, map một word với dense vector tương ứng

### 25.3.2 Convolution Layers

[nn.Conv1d](#), [nn.Conv2d](#), [nn.Conv3d](#))

grep code: [Shawn1993/cnn-text-classification-pytorch](#), [galsang/CNN-sentence-classification-pytorch](#)

Các tham số trong Convolution Layer

\* *kernel\_size* (hay là filter size)

Đối với NLP, *kernel\_size* thường bằng *region\_size \* word\_dim* (đối với conv1d) hay (*region\_size, word\_dim*) đối với conv2d

<small>Quá trình tạo feature map đối với region size bằng 2</small> *

Kênh (channels) là các cách nhìn (view) khác nhau đối với dữ liệu. Ví dụ, trong ảnh thường có 3 kênh RGB (red, green, blue), có thể áp dụng convolution giữa các kênh. Với văn bản cũng có thể có các kênh khác nhau, như khi có các kênh sử dụng các word embedding khác nhau (word2vec, GloVe), hoặc cùng một câu nhưng biểu diễn ở các ngôn ngữ khác nhau.

\* *'stride'*

Định nghĩa bước nhảy của filter.



Hình minh họa sự khác biệt giữa các feature map đối với stride=1 và stride=2.

Feature map đối với stride = 1 có kích thước là 5, feature map đối với stride = 3 có kích thước là 3. Stride càng lớn thì kích thước của feature map càng nhỏ.

Trong bài báo của Kim 2014, *'stride = 1'* đối với *'nn.conv2d'* và *'stride = word\_dim'* đối với *'nn.conv1d'*

Toàn bộ tham số của mạng CNN trong bài báo Kim 2014,



Description	Values
input word vectors	Google word2vec
filter region size	(3, 4, 5)
feature maps	100
activation function	ReLU
pooling	1-max pooling
dropout rate	0.5
<i>latex</i> $s$	22 norm constraint
	3

Đọc thêm:

\* [Lecture 13: Convolutional Neural Networks (for NLP). CS224n-2017](http://web.stanford.edu/class/cs224n-2017-lecture13-CNNs.pdf) \* [DeepNLP-models-Pytorch - 8. Convolutional Neural Networks](https://nbviewer.jupyter.org/github/DSKSD/DeepNLP-models-Pytorch/blob/master/notebooks/08.CNN-for-Text-Classification.ipynb) \* [A Sensitivity Analysis of (and Practitioners' Guide to) Convolutional Neural Networks for Sentence Classification. Zhang 2015](https://arxiv.org/pdf/1510.03820.pdf)

## 25.4 Recurrent Neural Networks

### 25.4.1 What are RNNs?

The idea behind RNNs is to make use of sequential information. In a traditional neural network we assume that all inputs (and outputs) are independent of each other. But for many tasks that's a very bad idea. If you want to predict the next word in a sentence you better know which words came before it. RNNs are called recurrent because they perform the same task for every element of a sequence, with the output being depended on the previous computations. Another way to think about RNNs is that they have a “memory” which captures information about what has been calculated so far. In theory RNNs can make use of information in arbitrarily long sequences, but in practice they are limited to looking back only a few steps (more on this later). Here is what a typical RNN looks like:

A recurrent neural network and the unfolding in time of the computation involved in its forward computation

A recurrent neural network and the unfolding in time of the computation involved in its forward computation. Source: Nature The above diagram shows a RNN being unrolled (or unfolded) into a full network. By unrolling we simply mean that we write out the network for the complete sequence. For example, if the sequence we care about is a sentence of 5 words, the network would be unrolled into a 5-layer neural network, one layer for each word. The formulas that govern the computation happening in a RNN are as follows:

$x_t$  is the input at time step  $t$ . For example,  $x_2$  could be a one-hot vector corresponding to the second word of a sentence.  $st_t$  is the hidden state at time step  $t$ . It's the “memory” of the network.  $st_t$  is calculated based on the previous hidden state and the input at the current step:  $st_t = f(Ux_t + Wst_{t-1})$ . The function  $f$  usually is a nonlinearity such as tanh or ReLU.  $s_1$ , which is required to calculate the first hidden state, is typically initialized to all zeroes.  $ot_t$  is the output at step  $t$ . For example, if we wanted to predict the next word in a sentence it would be a vector of probabilities across our vocabulary.  $ot_t = \text{softmax}(Vst_t)$ . There are a few things to note here:

You can think of the hidden state  $st_t$  as the memory of the network.  $st_t$  captures information about what happened in all the previous time steps. The

output at step  $ot$  is calculated solely based on the memory at time  $tt$ . As briefly mentioned above, it's a bit more complicated in practice because  $st$  typically can't capture information from too many time steps ago. Unlike a traditional deep neural network, which uses different parameters at each layer, a RNN shares the same parameters ( $UU$ ,  $VV$ ,  $WW$  above) across all steps. This reflects the fact that we are performing the same task at each step, just with different inputs. This greatly reduces the total number of parameters we need to learn. The above diagram has outputs at each time step, but depending on the task this may not be necessary. For example, when predicting the sentiment of a sentence we may only care about the final output, not the sentiment after each word. Similarly, we may not need inputs at each time step. The main feature of an RNN is its hidden state, which captures some information about a sequence.

### 25.4.2 What can RNNs do?

RNNs have shown great success in many NLP tasks. At this point I should mention that the most commonly used type of RNNs are LSTMs, which are much better at capturing long-term dependencies than vanilla RNNs are. But don't worry, LSTMs are essentially the same thing as the RNN we will develop in this tutorial, they just have a different way of computing the hidden state. We'll cover LSTMs in more detail in a later post. Here are some example applications of RNNs in NLP (by non means an exhaustive list).

**Language Modeling and Generating Text** Given a sequence of words we want to predict the probability of each word given the previous words. Language Models allow us to measure how likely a sentence is, which is an important input for Machine Translation (since high-probability sentences are typically correct). A side-effect of being able to predict the next word is that we get a generative model, which allows us to generate new text by sampling from the output probabilities. And depending on what our training data is we can generate all kinds of stuff. In Language Modeling our input is typically a sequence of words (encoded as one-hot vectors for example), and our output is the sequence of predicted words. When training the network we set  $ot=xt+1$  since we want the output at step  $tt$  to be the actual next word.

Research papers about Language Modeling and Generating Text:

Recurrent neural network based language model Extensions of Recurrent neural network based language model Generating Text with Recurrent Neural Networks Machine Translation Machine Translation is similar to language modeling in that our input is a sequence of words in our source language (e.g. German). We want to output a sequence of words in our target language (e.g. English). A key difference is that our output only starts after we have seen the complete input, because the first word of our translated sentences may require information captured from the complete input sequence.

RNN for Machine Translation

RNN for Machine Translation. Image Source: <http://cs224d.stanford.edu/lectures/CS224d-Lecture8.pdf>

Research papers about Machine Translation:

A Recursive Recurrent Neural Network for Statistical Machine Translation Sequence to Sequence Learning with Neural Networks Joint Language and Translation Modeling with Recurrent Neural Networks Speech Recognition Given an

input sequence of acoustic signals from a sound wave, we can predict a sequence of phonetic segments together with their probabilities.

Research papers about Speech Recognition:

Towards End-to-End Speech Recognition with Recurrent Neural Networks Generating Image Descriptions Together with convolutional Neural Networks, RNNs have been used as part of a model to generate descriptions for unlabeled images. It's quite amazing how well this seems to work. The combined model even aligns the generated words with features found in the images.

Deep Visual-Semantic Alignments for Generating Image Descriptions. Source: <http://cs.stanford.edu/people/karpathy/deepimagesent/>

### 25.4.3 Training RNNs

Training a RNN is similar to training a traditional Neural Network. We also use the backpropagation algorithm, but with a little twist. Because the parameters are shared by all time steps in the network, the gradient at each output depends not only on the calculations of the current time step, but also the previous time steps. For example, in order to calculate the gradient at  $t=4$  we would need to backpropagate 3 steps and sum up the gradients. This is called Backpropagation Through Time (BPTT). If this doesn't make a whole lot of sense yet, don't worry, we'll have a whole post on the gory details. For now, just be aware of the fact that vanilla RNNs trained with BPTT have difficulties learning long-term dependencies (e.g. dependencies between steps that are far apart) due to what is called the vanishing/exploding gradient problem. There exists some machinery to deal with these problems, and certain types of RNNs (like LSTMs) were specifically designed to get around them.

RNN Extensions Over the years researchers have developed more sophisticated types of RNNs to deal with some of the shortcomings of the vanilla RNN model. We will cover them in more detail in a later post, but I want this section to serve as a brief overview so that you are familiar with the taxonomy of models.

Bidirectional RNNs are based on the idea that the output at time  $t$  may not only depend on the previous elements in the sequence, but also future elements. For example, to predict a missing word in a sequence you want to look at both the left and the right context. Bidirectional RNNs are quite simple. They are just two RNNs stacked on top of each other. The output is then computed based on the hidden state of both RNNs.

Deep (Bidirectional) RNNs are similar to Bidirectional RNNs, only that we now have multiple layers per time step. In practice this gives us a higher learning capacity (but we also need a lot of training data).

Deep Bidirectional RNN LSTM networks are quite popular these days and we briefly talked about them above. LSTMs don't have a fundamentally different architecture from RNNs, but they use a different function to compute the hidden state. The memory in LSTMs are called cells and you can think of them as black boxes that take as input the previous state  $h_{t-1}$  and current input  $x_t$ . Internally these cells decide what to keep in (and what to erase from) memory. They then combine the previous state, the current memory, and the input. It turns out that these types of units are very efficient at capturing long-term dependencies. LSTMs can be quite confusing in the beginning but if you're interested in learning more this post has an excellent explanation.

Conclusion So far so good. I hope you've gotten a basic understanding of what RNNs are and what they can do. In the next post we'll implement a first version of our language model RNN using Python and Theano. Please leave questions in the comments!

[<sup>1</sup>] : [*UnderstandingConvolutionalNeuralNetworksforNLP*](<http://www.wildml.com/2015/11/understanding-convolutional-neural-networks-for-nlp>)[<sup>2</sup>] : [<http://pytorch.org/docs/master/nn.html>](<http://pytorch.org/docs/master/nn.html>)



## Chương 26

# Xử lý ngôn ngữ tự nhiên

Bản lưu cũ [http://magizbox.com/training/natural\\_language\\_processing/site/](http://magizbox.com/training/natural_language_processing/site/)  
Natural language processing (NLP) is a field of computer science, artificial intelligence, and computational linguistics concerned with the interactions between computers and human (natural) languages.

### 26.1 Introduction to Natural Language Processing

Natural language processing (NLP) is a field of computer science, artificial intelligence, and computational linguistics concerned with the interactions between computers and human (natural) languages.

NLP is related to the area of human-computer interaction. Many challenges in NLP involve: natural language understanding, enabling computers to derive meaning from human or natural language input; and others involve natural language generation.

The input and output of an NLP system can be either speech or written text. Components of NLP

There are two components of NLP as given

Natural Language Understanding (NLU): this task mapping the given input in natural language into useful representations and analyzing different aspects of the language. Natural Language Generation (NLG): In the process of producing meaningful phrases and sentences in the form of natural language from some internal representation. It involves text planning retrieve the relevant content from knowledge base, sentence planning choose required words, forming meaningful phrases, setting tone of the sentence, text realization map sentence plan into sentence structure. Difficulties

Natural Language has an extremely rich form and structure. It is very ambiguous. There can be different levels of ambiguity

Lexical ambiguity: it is at very primitive level such as word-level. For example, treating the word “board” as noun or verb? Syntax level ambiguity: A sentence be parsed in different ways. For example, “He lifted the beetle with the red cap?” - did he use cap to lift the beetle or he lifted a beetle that had red cap? Referential ambiguity: referring to something using pronouns. For example, Rima went to

Gauri. She said “I am tired”. - Exactly who is tired? One input can mean different meanings. Many inputs can mean the same thing.

## 26.2 Natural Language Processing Tasks

The analysis of natural language is broken into various board levels such as phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic, pragmatic and discourse analysis.

**Phonological Analysis** Phonology is analysis of spoken language. Therefore, it deals with speech recognition and generation. The core task of speech recognition and generation system is to take an acoustic waveform as input and produce as output, a string of words. The phonology is a part of natural language analysis, which deals with it. The area of computational linguistics that deals with speech analysis is computational phonology

Example: Hans Rosling’s shortest TED talk

Original Sound

0:00 / 0:52

Text X means unknown but the world is pretty known it’s seven billion people have seven stones. One billion can save money to fly abroad on holiday every year. One billion can save money to keep a car or buy a car. And then three billion they save money to pay the by be a bicycle or perhaps a two-wheeler. And two billion they are busy saving money to buy shoes. In the future they will get rich and these people we move over here, these people will move over here, we will have two billion more in the world like this and the question is whether the rich people over there are prepared to be integrated in the world with 10 bilions people. Auto generated sound

0:00 / 0:36

**Morphological Analysis**

It is the most elementary phase of NLP. It deals with the word formation. In this phase, individual words are analyzed according to their components called “morphemes”. In addition, non-word taken such as punctuation, etc. are separated from words. Morpheme is basic grammatical building block that makes words.

The study of word structure is refereed to as morphology. In natural language processing, it is done in morphological analysis. The task of breaking a word into its morphemes is called morphological parsing. A morpheme is defined as minimal meaningful unit in a language, which cannot be further broken into smaller units.

Example: word fox consists a single morpheme, as it cannot be further resolved into smaller units. Whereas word cats consists two morphemes, the morpheme “cat” and morpheme “s” indicating plurality.

Here we defined the term meaningful. Though cat can be broken in “c” and “at”, but these do not relate with word “cat” in any sense. Thus word “cat” will be dealt with as minimum meaningful unit.

Morphemes are traditionally divided into two types

(i) “free morphemes”, that are able to act as words in isolation (e.g., “thing”, “permanent”, “local”) (ii) “bound morphemes”, that can operate only as part of other words (e.g., “is” ‘ing’ etc) The morpheme, which forms the center part of the word, is also called “stem”. In English, a word can be made up of one or more

morphemes, e.g., word - thing -> stem “think” word - localize -> stem “local”, suffix “ize” word - denationalize -> prefix “de”, stem “nation”, suffix “al”, “ize” The computational tool to perform morphological parsing is finite state transducer. A transducer performs it by mapping between the two sets of symbols, and a finite state transducer does it with finite automaton. A transducer normally consists of four parts: recognizer, generator, translator, and relator. The output of the transducer becomes a set of morphemes.

**Lexical Analysis** In this phase of natural language analysis, validity of words according to lexicon is checked. Lexicon stands for dictionary. It is a collection of all possible valid words of language along with their meaning.

In NLP, the first stage of processing input text is to scan each word in sentence and compute (or look-up) all the relevant linguistic information about that word. The lexicon provides the necessary rules and data for carrying out the first stage analysis.

The details of words, like their type (noun, verb and adverb, and other details of nouns and verb, etc.) are checked.

Lexical analysis is dividing the whole chunk of text into paragraphs, sentences, and words.

**Syntactic Analysis** Syntax refers to the study of formal relationships between words of sentences. In this phase the validity of a sentence according to grammar rules is checked. To perform the syntactic analysis, the knowledge of grammar and parsing is required. Grammar is formal specification of rules allowable in the language, and parsing is a method of analyzing a sentence to determine its structure according to grammar. The most common grammar used for syntactic analysis for natural languages are context free grammar (CFG) also called phrase structure grammar and definite clause grammar. These grammars are described in detail in a separate actions.

Syntactic analysis is done using parsing. Two basic parsing techniques are: top-down parsing and bottom-up parsing.

**Semantic Analysis** In linguistics, semantic analysis is the process of relating syntactic structures, from the levels of phrases, clauses, sentences and paragraphs to the level of the writing as a whole, to their language-independent meanings. It also involves removing features specific to particular linguistic and cultural contexts, to the extent that such a project is possible.

The elements of idiom and figurative speech, being cultural, are often also converted into relatively invariant meanings in semantic analysis. Semantics, although related to pragmatics, is distinct in that the former deals with word or sentence choice in any given context, while pragmatics considers the unique or particular meaning derived from context or tone. To reiterate in different terms, semantics is about universally coded meaning, and pragmatics the meaning encoded in words that is then interpreted by an audience

**Discourse Analysis** The meaning of any sentence depends upon the meaning of the sentence just before it. In addition, it also brings about the meaning of immediately succeeding sentence.

Topics of discourse analysis include:

The various levels or dimensions of discourse, such as sounds, gestures, syntax, the lexicon, style, rhetoric, meanings, speech acts, moves, strategies, turns, and other aspects of interaction Genres of discourse (various types of discourse in politics, the media, education, science, business, etc.) The relations between text (discourse) and context The relations between discourse and power The relations

between discourse and interaction The relations between discourse and cognition and memory Pragmatic Analysis During this, what was said is re-interpreted on what it actually meant. It involves deriving those aspects of language which require real world knowledge.

Sentiment Analysis

MetaMind, @RichardSocher

Named Entity Recognition KDD 2015 Tutorial: Automatic Entity Recognition and Typing from Massive Text Corpora - A Phrase and Network Mining Approach

Relationship Extraction AlchemyAPI

## 26.3 Natural Language Processing Applications

**Information Retrieval (IR)** Information retrieval (IR) is the activity of obtaining information resources relevant to an information need from a collection of information resources. Searches can be based on metadata or on full-text (or other content-based) indexing.

**Information Extraction (IE)** Information extraction (IE) is the task of automatically extracting structured information from unstructured and/or semi-structured machine-readable documents. In most of the cases this activity concerns processing human language texts by means of natural language processing (NLP).

**Machine Translation** Machine translation, sometimes referred to by the abbreviation MT (not to be confused with computer-aided translation, machine-aided human translation (MAHT) or interactive translation) is a sub-field of computational linguistics that investigates the use of software to translate text or speech from one language to another.

**Question Answering (QA)** Question answering (QA) is a computer science discipline within the fields of information retrieval and natural language processing (NLP), which is concerned with building systems that automatically answer questions posed by humans in a natural language.

## 26.4 Spelling Correction

For instance, we may wish to retrieve documents containing the term carrot when the user types the query carot. Google reports (<http://www.google.com/jobs/britney.html>) that the following are all treated as misspellings of the query britney spears: britian spears, britney's spears, brandy spears and prittany spears

We look at two steps to solving this problem: the first based on edit distance and the second based on k-gram overlap. Before getting into the algorithmic details of these methods, we first review how search engines provide spell-correction as part of a user experience.

**Implementing spelling correction** There are two basic principles underlying most spelling correction algorithms.

Of various alternative correct spellings for a mis-spelled query, choose the nearest one. This demands that we have a notion of nearness or proximity between a pair of queries. When two correctly spelled queries are tied (or nearly tied), select the one that is more common. For instance, grunt and grant both seem

equally plausible as corrections for *grnt*. Then, the algorithm should choose the more common of *grunt* and *grant* as the correction. The simplest notion of more common is to consider the number of occurrences of the term in the collection; thus if *grunt* occurs more often than *grant*, it would be the chosen correction. A different notion of more common is employed in many search engines, especially on the web. The idea is to use the correction that is most common among queries typed in by other users. The idea here is that if *grunt* is typed as a query more often than *grant*, then it is more likely that the user who typed *grnt* intended to type the query *grunt*. Corpus Birkbeck spelling error corpus

References How to Write a Spelling Corrector. Peter Norvig. 2007 Statistical Natural Language Processing in Python. Peter Norvig. 2007 Spelling correction. Introduction to Information Retrieval. 2008

## 26.5 Word Vectors

Discrete Representation Use a taxonomy like WordNet that has hypernyms (is-a) relationships

```
from nltk.corpus import wordnet as wn
panda = wn.synset("panda.n.01")
hyper = lambda s: s.hypernyms()
list(panda.closure(hyper))
[Synset('procyonid.n.01'),
Synset('carnivore.n.01'),
Synset('placental.n.01'),
Synset('mammal.n.01'),
Synset('vertebrate.n.01'),
Synset('chordate.n.01'),
Synset('animal.n.01'),
Synset('organism.n.01'),
Synset('living_thing.n.01'),
Synset('w')
```

Great as resource but missing nuances, e.g. synonyms: adept, expert, good, practiced, proficient, skillful? Missing new words (impossible to keep up to date): wicked, badass, nifty, crack, ace, wizard, genius, ninja Subjective Requires human labor to create and adapt Hard to compute accurate word similarity Word2Vec Word2vec is a group of related models that are used to produce word embeddings. These models are shallow, two-layer neural networks that are trained to reconstruct linguistic contexts of words. Word2vec takes as its input a large corpus of text and produces a vector space, typically of several hundred dimensions, with each unique word in the corpus being assigned a corresponding vector in the space. Word vectors are positioned in the vector space such that words that share common contexts in the corpus are located in close proximity to one another in the space.

Word2vec was created by a team of researchers led by Tomas Mikolov at Google. The algorithm has been subsequently analysed and explained by other researchers. Embedding vectors created using the Word2vec algorithm have many advantages compared to earlier algorithms like Latent Semantic Analysis.

Main Idea of Word2Vec

Instead of capturing cooccurrence counts directly,, Predict surrounding words of every word Both are quite similar, see “Glove: Global Vectors for Word Representation” by Pennington et al. (2014) and Levy and Goldberg (2014)... more later. Faster and can easily incorporate a new sentence/document or add a word to the vocabulary. Detail of Word2Vec

Predict surrounding words in a window of length  $m$  of every word. Objective function: Maximize the log probability of any context word given the current center word:  $J() = \sum_{t=1}^T \sum_{j=-m}^m \log p(w_t + j | w_t)$   $J() = \sum_{t=1}^T \sum_{j=-m}^m \log p(w_t + j | w_t)$  where  $\theta$  represents all variables we optimize

Predict surrounding words in a window of length  $m$  of every word For  $p(w_t + j | w_t) p(w_t + j | w_t)$

the simplest first formulation is  $p(o|c) = \exp(u^T o v_c) / \sum_w \exp(u^T w v_c)$   $p(o|c) = \exp(u^T o v_c) / \sum_w \exp(u^T w v_c)$

where o is the outside (or output) word id, c is the center word id, u and v are “center” and “outside” vectors of o and c

Every word has two vectors! This is essentially “dynamic” logistic regression Linear Relationships in word2vec

These representations are very good at encoding dimensions of similarity!

Analogies testing dimensions of similarity can be solved quite well just by doing vector subtraction in the embedding space Syntactically

xapplexcarsxfamilyxfamiliesxapplexcarsxfamilyxfamilies  
Similarly for verb and adjective morphological forms Semantically (Semeval 2012 task 2)

xshirtxclothingxchairxfurniturexshirtxclothingxchairxfurniture xkingxmanxqueenx-  
womanxkingxmanxqueenxwoman GloVe Project

Highlights Training Model Overview GloVe is an unsupervised learning algorithm for obtaining vector representations for words. Training is performed on aggregated global word-word co-occurrence statistics from a corpus, and the resulting representations showcase interesting linear substructures of the word vector space.

Pre-trained Model fastText

Pre-trained word vectors for 294 languages, trained on Wikipedia using fastText. These vectors in dimension 300 were obtained using the skip-gram model described in Bojanowski et al. (2016) with default parameters.

glove

Pre-trained word vectors. This data is made available under the Public Domain Dedication and License v1.0 whose full text can be found at: <http://www.opendatacommons.org/licenses/pddl>

Language: English

Wikipedia 2014 + Gigaword 5 (6B tokens, 400K vocab, uncased, 50d, 100d, 200d, 300d vectors, 822 MB download): glove.6B.zip Common Crawl (42B tokens, 1.9M vocab, uncased, 300d vectors, 1.75 GB download): glove.42B.300d.zip Common Crawl (840B tokens, 2.2M vocab, cased, 300d vectors, 2.03 GB download): glove.840B.300d.zip Twitter (2B tweets, 27B tokens, 1.2M vocab, uncased, 25d, 50d, 100d, 200d vectors, 1.42 GB download): glove.twitter.27B.zip word2vec-GoogleNews-vectors

Language: English

Pre-trained Google News corpus (3 billion running words) word vector model (3 million 300-dimension English word vectors).

Word Analogies Test for linear relationships, examined by Mikolov et al. (2014) Suggested Readings Simple Word Vector representations: word2vec, GloVe. cs224d.stanford.edu. Last Accessed: 2017-02-01. FastText and Gensim word embeddings. rare-technologies.com. Last Accessed: 2016-08-31. Distributed Representations of Words and Phrases and their Compositionality. papers.nips.cc. Last Accessed: 2013-12-05. Efficient Estimation of Word Representations in Vector Space. arxiv.org. Last Accessed: 2013-01-16

## 26.6 Conditional Random Fields in Name Entity Recognition

In this tutorial, I will write about how to using CRF++ to train your data for name entity recognition task.

Environment:

Ubuntu 14.04 Install CRF++ Download CRF++-0.58.tar.gz

Extact CRF++-0.58.tar.gz file

Navigate to the location of extracted folder through

Install CRF++ from source

./configure make sudo make install ldconfig Congratulations! CRF++ is install

*crflearnTrainingCRFTotraininCRFusingCRF++*, you need 2 things :

A template file: where you define features to be considered for training A training

data file: where you have data in CoNLL format *crflearn-ttemplatefiletrain\_data\_filemodel*

*crflearn-ttemplatefiletrain.txtmodelAbinaryofmodelisproduce.*

To test this model, on a testing data

*crflearn-test-mmodeltestfile > output.txt*

*crflearn-test-mmodeltest.txt > output.txtReferencesConditionalRandomFields :*

*InstallingCRF++onUbuntuConditionalRandomFieldsTrainingandTestingusingCRF++*

## 26.7 Entity Linking

In natural language processing, entity linking, named entity linking (NEL), named entity disambiguation (NED), named entity recognition and disambiguation (NERD) or named entity normalization (NEN) is the task of determining the identity of entities mentioned in text. More precise, it is the task of linking entity mentions to entries in a knowledge base (e.g., DBpedia, Wikipedia)

Entity linking requires a knowledge base containing the entities to which entity mentions can be linked. A popular choice for entity linking on open domain text are knowledge-bases based on Wikipedia, in which each page is regarded as a named entity. NED using Wikipedia entities has been also called wikification (see Wikify! an early entity linking system] ). A knowledge base may also be induced automatically from training text or manually built.

NED is different from named entity recognition (NER) in that NER identifies the occurrence or mention of a named entity in text but it does not identify which specific entity it is

Examples Example 1:

For example, given the sentence “Paris is the capital of France”, the idea is to determine that “Paris” refers to the city of Paris and not to Paris Hilton or any other entity that could be referred as “Paris”.

Example 2:

Give the sentence “In Second Debate, Donald Trump and Hillary Clinton Spar in Bitter, Personal Terms”, the idea is to determine that “Donald Trump” refer to an American politician, and “Hillary Clinton” refer to 67th United States Secretary of State from 2009 to 2013.

Architecture

Mention detection: Identification of text snippets that can potentially be linked to entities Candidate selection: Generating a set of candidate entities for each mention Disambiguation: Selecting a single entity (or none) for each mention, based on the context Mention detection

Goal: Detect all “linkable” phrases

Challenges:

Recall oriented: Do not miss any entity that should be link Find entity name variants (e.g. “jlo” is name variant of [Jennifer Lopez]) Filter out inappropriate ones (e.g. “new york” matches >2k different entities) COMMON APPROACH Build a dictionary of entity surface forms entities with all names variants Check all document n-grams against the dictionary the value of n is set typically between 6 and 8 Filter out undesired entities Can be done here or later in the pipeline Examples

Candidate Selection

Goal: Narrow down the space of disambiguation possibilities

Balances between precision and recall (effectiveness vs. efficiency)

Often approached as ranking problem: keeping only candidates above a score/rank threshold for downstream processing.

COMMONNESS Perform the ranking of candidate entities based on their overall popularity, i.e., “most common sense”

Examples

Commonness can be pre-computed and stored in the entity surface form dictionary. Follows a power law with a long tail of extremely unlikely senses; entities at the tail end of distribution can be safely discarded (e.g., 0.001 is sensible threshold)

Disambiguation

Baseline approach: most common sense

Consider additional types of evidence: prior importance of entities and mentions, contextual similarity between the text surrounding the mention and the candidate entity, coherence among all entity linking decisions in the document. Combine these signals: using supervised learning or graph-based approaches

Optionally perform pruning: reject low confidence or semantically meaning less annotations.

References “Entity Linking”. wikipedia “Entity Linking”. Krisztian Balog, University of Stavanger, 10th Russian Summer School in Information Retrieval. 2016 “An End-to-End Entity Linking Approach for Tweets”. Ikuya Yamada, Hideaki Takeda, Yoshiyasu Takefuji. 2015

## 26.8 Chatbot

### 26.8.1 3 loại chatbot

Bài này là dịch từ [bài của một bác ở IBM](#). Nóng hổi vừa thổi vừa dịch.

#### Chatbot hỗ trợ - Support Chatbots

Những câu này có xu hướng **nhắc rõ về một lĩnh vực**, giống như các kiến thức của một công ty.

Có lẽ Rabiloo, otonhanh, và rất nhiều bot trên facebook thuộc loại này.

28/01/2018  
Hôm nay thấy  
khoá này hay  
quá [Build Your  
Own Chatbot](#)  
[Cognitive Class](#)  
[CB0103EN](#)

24/01/2018  
Hôm qua vừa  
nhân kèo cà  
phê với CEO  
của Rabiloo.  
Thấy thú vị  
quá. Hôm nay  
hỏi anh Vũ qua  
qua về chatbot.  
Hehe



### Chatbot chức năng - Skill chatbot

Các chatbot chức năng thường là loại **một câu lệnh**, và không cần phải quá chú ý về ngữ cảnh.

Ví dụ, nó có thể thực hiện các câu "Bật đèn lên"

Mấy con bot này có thể ở các nhà thông minh hay các bot trong công nghiệp.

### Trợ lý ảo

Các trợ lý ảo có thể kết hợp của hai loại trên. Hoạt động tốt nào biết một chút kiến thức của mỗi lĩnh vực.

Một ví dụ là bạn Siri của Apple.

### Kết

Không cần biết loại chatbot bạn muốn xây dựng là gì, điều quan trọng là hãy **đưa cho nó một cuộc sống, một tính cách riêng, khiến nó trở nên hữu ích, và dễ dàng sử dụng.**

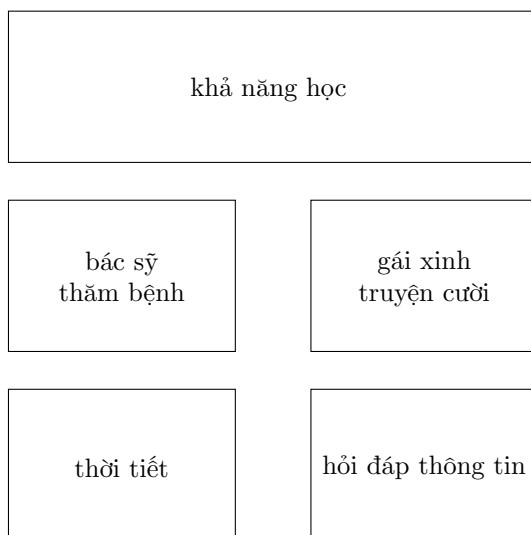
Mọi người sử dụng chatbot vì họ muốn có một cách giao tiếp tự nhiên hơn so với những cách trước đó. Có thể đó là công việc đơn giản như bật một chiếc đèn, hay đó là công việc phức tạp như cho vay thế chấp. Mỗi một công việc có những đặc tính cụ thể, chắc chắn chú bot của bạn tỏa sáng với thiết kế của nó.

**Các phương pháp là không thể đếm xuể.**

### 26.8.2 Các câu hỏi mà chatbot cần chuẩn bị

Tham khảo bài viết này [36 Questions to Ask Your Chatbot](#)

### 26.8.3 Ý tưởng chatbot



Mình muốn chatbot giao tiếp bằng ngôn ngữ tự nhiên chứ không theo kiểu mệnh lệnh. *cười* -> *ra chuyện cười*. Thế thì không khác gì search engine.

Mà sao không có quan bot nào khai thác tâm trạng, thông tin của người dùng. Để tìm ra nhu cầu của họ nhỉ?

Vài chức năng hữu ích

- Hỏi đáp thông tin cá nhân của bot. Nhiều bot fail bởi trò đơn giản này.
- Yêu đương an ủi tán tỉnh
- Dự báo thời tiết. Lấy thông tin địa điểm người dùng. Bình luận về thời tiết hiện tại
- Tìm ảnh gái xinh, đọc truyện cười
- Khả năng học

Chán chẳng cần làm

- Tra mã số karaoke

## 26.8.4 Một số chatbot

### Chatbot tiếng anh

1. [Mitsuku \(web\)](#) (2000-). Chiến thắng Loebner Prize vào năm 2016-2017
2. [Rose \(web\)](#). Chiến thắng Loebner Prize vào năm 2014-2015
3. [Cleverbot](#) (1997)
4. [ELIZA](#) (1964-1966) tại MIT bởi Joseph Weizenbaum
5. [poncho \(messenger\)](#). Con này chỉ chuyên về thời tiết
6. [Melody \(Baidu\)](#). Chuyên tư vấn về bác sỹ
7. [Do Not Pay](#) (2017). Chatbot về tư vấn luật
8. [meditatebot \(messenger\)](#) - Hướng dẫn thiền
9. [bots duolingo \(ios\)](#) - Bot hướng dẫn học ngoại ngữ

### Nền tảng tiếng Anh

- [api.ai](#)
- [DialogFlow](#)

### Cuộc thi tiếng Anh

[Loebner Prize](#). Được tổ chức lần đầu vào năm 1990. Mục tiêu là kiểm tra xem chương trình có vượt qua được Turning Test hay không.

### Chatbot tiếng việt

1. [troly.bedieu \(messenger\)](#) (2016) Có mấy chức năng. Tán ngẫu. Tìm ảnh gái xinh. Ổn phết
2. [Bob \(skype\)](#) Cũng khá vui đấy
3. [Người Bạn Tốt Miki](#) (2016). Xìt rồi
4. [hana.ai](#). Nghe nói có vẻ khủng

5. [Simsimi](#). Thấy bảo "con" chatbot này bậy lắm. Không biết có thật không?
6. [Sumichat](#) Hỗ trợ cả tiếng Việt đây
7. [VisualFriend](#) (2007) bởi HungCode. Nghe nói là thần thánh lắm nhưng chưa kiểm chứng.

### Nền tảng tiếng việt

1. [hekate.ai](#) (2017). 66 triệu doanh nghiệp. 1.2 tỷ người. 68 tỷ message mỗi ngày
2. [harafunnel.com](#)

### Cuộc thi trên nền tảng tiếng Việt

[fpt.ai: bot of the year](#)

Đề bài: Xây dựng Chatbot để nâng cao trải nghiệm của người dùng cá nhân và doanh nghiệp

Thời gian: 22/11/2017 – 30/07/2018

Đối tượng: Cá nhân và doanh nghiệp quan tâm đến lĩnh vực Chatbot trên khắp Việt Nam.

**Phần V**

**Linh tinh**

## Chương 27

# Nghiên cứu

01/11/2017  
Không biết  
mình có phải  
làm nghiên cứu  
không nữa? Vừa  
kiếm phát triển,  
vừa đọc paper  
mỗi ngày. Thôi,  
cứ (miễn cưỡng)  
cho là nghiên  
cứu viên đi.

### 27.1 Các công cụ

#### 27.1.1 Google Scholar & Semantic Scholar

[Google Scholar](#) vẫn là lựa chọn tốt

- Tìm kiếm tác giả theo lĩnh vực nghiên cứu và quốc gia: sử dụng filter label: + đuôi
  - ví dụ: [danh sách các nhà nghiên cứu Việt Nam thuộc lĩnh vực xử lý ngôn ngữ tự nhiên](#)
- danh sách này đã sắp xếp theo lượng trích dẫn

Bên cạnh đó còn có [semanticscholar](#) (một project của [allenai](#)) với các killer features

- [Tìm kiếm các bài báo khoa học với từ khóa và filter theo năm, tên hội nghị](#)
- [Xem những người ảnh hưởng, ảnh hưởng bởi một nhà nghiên cứu, cũng như xem co-author, journals và conferences mà một nhà nghiên cứu hay gửi bài](#)

#### 27.1.2 Mendeley

Mendeley rất tốt cho việc quản lý và lưu trữ. Tuy nhiên điểm hạn chế lại là không lưu thông tin về citation

#### 27.1.3 Hội nghị và tạp chí

Các hội nghị tốt về xử lý ngôn ngữ tự nhiên

- Rank A: ACL, EACL, NAACL, EMNLP, CoNLL

- Rank B: SemEval

Các tạp chí

- [Computational Linguistics \(CL\)](#)

### 27.1.4 Câu chuyện của SciHub

Sci-Hub được tạo ra vào ngày 5 tháng 9 năm 2011, do nhà nghiên cứu đến từ Kazakhstan, [Alexandra Elbakyan](#)

Hãy nghe chia sẻ của cô về sự ra đời của Sci-Hub

> Khi tôi còn là một sinh viên tại Đại học Kazakhstan, tôi không có quyền truy cập vào bất kỳ tài liệu nghiên cứu. Những bài báo tôi cần cho dự án nghiên cứu của tôi. Thanh toán 32 USD thì thật là điên rồ khi bạn cần phải đọc lướt hoặc đọc hàng chục hoặc hàng trăm tờ để làm nghiên cứu. Tôi có được những bài báo nhờ vào trộm chúng. Sau đó tôi thấy có rất nhiều và rất nhiều nhà nghiên cứu (thậm chí không phải sinh viên, nhưng các nhà nghiên cứu trường đại học) giống như tôi, đặc biệt là ở các nước đang phát triển. Họ đã tạo ra các cộng đồng trực tuyến (diễn đàn) để giải quyết vấn đề này. Tôi là một thành viên tích cực trong một cộng đồng như vậy ở Nga. Ở đây ai cần có một bài nghiên cứu, nhưng không thể trả tiền cho nó, có thể đặt một yêu cầu và các thành viên khác, những người có thể có được những giấy sẽ gửi nó cho miễn phí qua email. Tôi có thể lấy bất cứ bài nào, vì vậy tôi đã giải quyết nhiều yêu cầu và người ta luôn rất biết ơn sự giúp đỡ của tôi. Sau đó, tôi tạo Sci-Hub.org, một trang web mà chỉ đơn giản là làm cho quá trình này tự động và các trang web ngay lập tức đã trở thành phổ biến.

Về phần mình, là một nhà nghiên cứu trẻ, đương nhiên phải đọc liên tục. Các báo cáo ở Việt Nam về xử lý ngôn ngữ tự nhiên thì thường không tải lên các trang mở như arxiv.org, các kỷ yếu hội nghị cũng không public các proceedings. Thật sự sciHub đã giúp mình rất nhiều.

#### SciHub bị chặn

Vào thời điểm này (12/2017), sciHub bị chặn quyết liệt. Hóng được trên page facebook của sciHub các cách truy cập sciHub. Đã thử các domain khác như .tw, .hk. Mọi chuyện vẫn ổn cho đến hôm nay (21/12/2017), không thể truy cập vào nữa.

Đành phải cài tor để truy cập vào sciHub ở địa chỉ <http://scihub222666oqcxt.onion>. Và mọi chuyện lại ổn.

## 27.2 Làm sao để nghiên cứu tốt

- Làm việc mỗi ngày
- Cập nhật các kết quả từ các hội nghị, tạp chí
- Viết nhật ký nghiên cứu mỗi tuần (tổng kết công việc tuần trước, các ý tưởng mới, kế hoạch tuần này)

## 27.3 Sách giáo khoa

[Machine Learning Yearning](#), by Andrew Ng

## 27.4 Lượm lặt

[Review các khóa học Deep Learning](#)

## Chương 28

# Trở thành giảng viên

- Lên ý tưởng
- Chuẩn bị nội dung
- Code mẫu
- Xây dựng kịch bản
- Trình bày đơn giản, dễ hiểu

Hơi bị hay **AI** cũng có thể trở thành giảng viên giỏi nếu của anh Cường tại techmaster. Tưởng phải mua, hóa ra lại được set free. A hihi.

### 28.1 Dạy và Học

#### 28.1.1 Khác biệt giữa dạy online và offline

Dạy online

**Ưu điểm**

1. Khả năng mở rộng rất tốt
2. Chi phí thấp
3. Số lượng học viên không giới hạn

**Nhược điểm**

- Tỷ lệ bỏ học rất cao
- Tương tác chưa thực sự tốt

#### 28.1.2 Làm sao để giảm tỷ lệ bỏ học trực tuyến?

- Video ngắn < 10 phút
- Cấp chứng chỉ 70-90 USD lấy 1 chứng chỉ cho khóa học 4-6 tuần
- Chấm bài tập



- Facebook group kết nối giảng viên học viên
- Bài tập đủ dễ: chia nhỏ dự án khó ra
- Gamification: học như chơi
- Chịu khó email thông báo cho lớp

### 28.1.3 Flip Learning

Lớp học đảo ngược

Vấn đề học online

- Bỏ học cao
- Tương tác face 2 face kém
- Thực hành không có, không kiểm soát

Vấn đề học offline

- Chi phí cao
- Giao thông không thuận tiện
- Tuyển sinh khó

Flip Learning lớp học đảo ngược, kết hợp ưu điểm học trực tuyến và thực hành phòng lab.

- Khuyến khích học viên xem trước bài giảng video hướng dẫn giảng viên
- Đọc tìm hiểu thêm, trả lời trắc nghiệm qua Internet
- Tại buổi học, dành tối đa thời gian để **thực hành, hỏi đáp, hợp tác**

Khi đến lớp, học viên đã có kiến thức, biết rõ mình sẽ làm gì.

- Không thụ động, rèn tính tự học, tự đọc
- Không chống cằm nhìn giảng viên, không ghi chép
- Hỏi, làm, nói, giúp đỡ nhau

#### Flip Learning:

- Giảng viên phải chuẩn bị bài giảng
- Đến lớp trao đổi, hướng dẫn

## 28.2 Sai lầm cố hữu của giảng viên

1- Nghĩ ai cũng biết như mình.

Học viên 80% từ nông thôn, 40% thất nghiệp

Giảng viên dùng toàn từ chuyên ngành tiếng Anh mà không giải thích cặn kẽ

2- Nói nhiều, lý thuyết nhiều, ít có ví dụ, thí nghiệm minh họa. Học viên đã rất chán kiểu dạy ở đại học

3- Khô cứng: giải thích về kế thừa

4- Ba hoa, bốc phét như bán hàng đa cấp. Lesson online giới hạn 10 phút, học offline chỉ có 140 phút.

5- Dùng nhiều tính từ, đại ngôn: rất, cực.. mà không có con số.

6- Cầu thả: không chuẩn bị kỹ slide, slide toàn chữ 12 trang.

7- Mã nguồn, dự án ví dụ vô duyên, khó hiểu

```

*
**
***
****
*****

*      *
*     *
*  *
*

```

8- Chia nhỏ các bài tập

## 28.3 Bước 1: Xây dựng khung giáo trình

Các thông tin cơ bản của khóa học cần xác định khi thiết kế giáo trình cần có

- Mục tiêu của khóa học
- Đối tượng của khóa học
- Thời lượng của khóa học
- Học xong khóa học này, học sinh có thể làm gì?
- Các gợi ý cho khóa học tiếp theo

### 28.3.1 Xác định mục tiêu của khóa học

Trong phần này, có thể tham khảo sách ebook, các khóa học được đánh giá cao trên Udemy, PluralSights, Lynda

Hãy xem một mục tiêu cực kỳ hấp dẫn của một [khóa học về Python rất thành công trên udemy.com](#)

#### What Will I Learn?

- |  |   |
|--|---|
| ✓ Build 11 Easy-to-Follow Python 3 Projects                                      | ✓ Automate Coding Tasks By Building Custom Python Functions         |
| ✓ Add Python 3 to your Resume by Understanding Object-Oriented Programming (OOP) | ✓ Use Variables to Track Data In Python Programs                    |
| ✓ Use Numbers to Create "Behind-the-Scenes" Functionality                        | ✓ Use Strings to Create Customized, Engaged User Experiences        |
| ✓ Create Programs that can think using logic and data structures                 | ✓ Use Loops to Improve Efficiency, Save Time, Maximize Productivity |

Có lẽ điểm cộng quan trọng nhất trong khóa học này là **Xây dựng 11 dự án Python 3** - học xong khóa này học viên sẽ thực hiện được rất nhiều dự án

### 28.3.2 Xác định đối tượng của khóa học

Khi dạy một khóa học, điều quan trọng nhất để đạt được mục tiêu học tập đó là xác định đối tượng của khóa học là ai.

Có rất nhiều đối tượng tiềm năng

- Sinh viên năm đầu: Họ rất cần kiến thức cơ bản, kinh nghiệm từ những người đi trước.
- Lập trình viên cần nâng cao kỹ năng: khi tiếp cận một công nghệ mới, lập trình viên muốn thông qua video có thể tiếp cận nhanh hơn với vấn đề

**Học viên Techmaster là ai?**

1. Sinh viên CNTT năm đầu, cần thực hành: 30%
2. Người thất nghiệp: 40%
3. Lập trình cần nâng cao kỹ năng 30%
4. Hầu hết là từ nông thôn 70%
5. Thời gian có hạn, cần tìm việc ngay

**Họ cần gì?**

1. Bài giảng thực tế, có nhiều ví dụ sinh động
2. Rất khác với ở trường đại học:
  - Không phải thi
  - Lý thuyết ít, thực hành nhiều, trừu tượng ít
  - Ví dụ phải cool
  - Có người hỗ trợ ngay
3. Trung tâm giới thiệu việc làm sau khi học

### 28.3.3 Thời lượng khóa học

Thời lượng khóa học được tính bằng số lượng module, số lượng video, tổng thời lượng video.

Cần xác định với đối tượng học tập hiện tại, liệu họ có thể theo hết khóa học không?

### 28.3.4 Khung giáo trình

Mục tiêu của bước này là xây dựng khung giáo trình cho toàn bộ khóa học. Các điều cần ghi nhớ

- Top Down tốt hơn Bottom Up

Một công cụ hữu ích là MindMup, có thể dễ dàng tích hợp trong Google Drive. Người bình thường không thể nhớ quá 5 mục trong một buổi học:

- Offline: 1 buổi dạy 1 chủ đề chia thành 4 minitask
- Online: 1 section gồm 4-5 video, mỗi video < 10 phút

Sử dụng MindMap

**Tài liệu tham khảo**

- [Xây dựng khung giáo trình, Trịnh Minh Cường](#)

## 28.4 Bước 2: Xây dựng nội dung từng module

### 28.4.1 Thiết kế cấu trúc từng module

Đầu và cuối mỗi module cần có một video overview và summary.

Mỗi module nên có một sản phẩm cuối cùng

**Review 1:** Khoá [Machine Learning](#) của thầy Andrew Ng

- Cả khóa học gồm 11 tuần
- 1 tuần có từ 2-3 section
- Mỗi section có từ 5-9 videos
- Mỗi section có từ 3-5 bài tập lập trình

**Review 2:** Khoá [Web cơ bản HTML5, CSS3 và Javascript](#) của bạn Đặng Quang Huy

- Cả khóa học có 79 bài học
- Có tất cả 19 module
- Mỗi module gồm 3-9 video
- Mỗi module sẽ có một bài tập
- Mỗi video từ 5-9 phút

### 28.4.2 Thiết kế bài tập lập trình

Bài tập lập trình cần **giống một trò chơi**, hay là **một ứng dụng thực tế**. Học viên sẽ thấy phần khích và thử thách khi thấy thành quả cuối cùng.

## 28.5 Bước 3: Xây dựng một bài giảng pro

kiến thức

slide

kịch bản

code

câu hỏi

quay video

nén video

### 28.5.1 Thiết kế để học trực tuyến

- 1- Một video < 10 phút. Tốt nhất 3 - 5 phút
- 2- Ví dụ là một dự án mẫu chạy được. Đơn giản tối đa
- 3- Học viên phấn khích khi thấy kết quả cuối cùng
- 4- Chia nhỏ task top-down:
  - + Sản phẩm này làm gì?
  - + Có chức năng gì? chỉ nên 1 hoặc 2
  - + Màn hình chính

### 28.5.2 Tính logic cấu trúc bài giảng

Không nên:

- Tùy tiện theo ý thích hoặc kinh nghiệm cá nhân giảng viên - Giặp khuôn theo sách hoặc khóa học có sẵn Hậu quả học nhiều, nhưng kỹ năng, kiến thức lộn xộn. Thà học ít mà dùng được nhiều, hiệu quả còn hơn

Nên:

- Thiết kế top down dùng Mindmap - Các mẫu kiến thức có liên kết, sâu chuỗi
- Trước - Sau: thủ tục -> hướng đối tượng -> design pattern array -> dictionary -> linked list

SQL raw query -> Object Relation Mapping

- Kế thừa: Cha - Con, Chị - Em

UIView > UIScrollView > UITableView, UICollectionView

- Đối lập - so sánh:

Postgresql <> MongoDB, FireBase <> RethinkDB Apple Push Notification <> Google Cloud Messaging

- Phân nhóm theo tiêu chí: Dễ học, dùng thường xuyên, học viên sướng. Sướng quyết định tất cả

Ví dụ:

- Lễ tế, minh họa cụ thể từng cú pháp, API function. Học viên không thu hoạch được nhiều - Một dự án kết hợp các bước sẽ thú vị hơn, dài hơn. Hay lúc đầu, buồn ngủ lúc sau.

### 28.5.3 Tạo slide

Slide ngắn gọn, xúc tích

Tự nhiên hôm nay (22/01/2018) lại đọc được bài [You suck at PowerPoint](#), thấy hay quá.

Sau đây là 10 lỗi thường gặp khi làm bài thuyết trình

1. Quá nhiều chữ trong 1 slide.
2. Màu chữ và màu nền không tương phản với nhau.
3. Dùng clip art, word art.
4. Hình ảnh sử dụng trong slide chất lượng kém, scale sai tỉ lệ.
5. Sử dụng nhiều font chữ trong 1 slide.
6. Lạm dụng quá nhiều hiệu ứng (animation/transition).
7. Bài presentation không có cấu trúc.

8. Slide không ăn nhập gì với nội dung trình bày.
9. Không ghi rõ nguồn khi sử dụng tài liệu, hình ảnh của người khác.
10. Ý thức của người làm slide

#### 28.5.4 Viết kịch bản nói

1- Viết chi tiết chính xác đến từng câu, rồi đọc lại + Nói chưa lưu loát > viết chi tiết 2- Liệt kê ý chính, vừa demo, vừa nói + Nói tốt + lười + Hậu kỳ phải cắt bỏ nhiều đoạn nói nhịu, ề à Câu từ dài dòng, rườm rà, tỷ lệ tiếp thu càng thấp Học trực tuyến, học viên dùng mắt đọc - xem là chính 70%, nghe là phụ, 30%. Video qua 5 phút gây buồn ngủ.

Nhắc kịch bản

- Không nên in ra giấy ! - Màn hình rộng Dell Utra, để mở cửa sổ nhắc kịch bản
- Mở rộng thêm 1 màn hình mới - Gõ kịch bản ra iPad, dựng iPad lên thành màn hình phụ

#### 28.5.5 Đặt câu hỏi cho học viên

Nếu không đặt câu hỏi:

- Học viên thụ động, buồn ngủ, sớm rời bỏ khóa học
- Giảng viên không biết học viên có hiểu bài hay không?

**Đặt câu hỏi như thế nào?**

1. Tránh Yes / No Question
2. Câu hỏi để thức tỉnh khả năng suy nghĩ, động não
  - (a) AJAX được ai phát minh ra? : chẳng có gì là quan trọng
  - (b) AJAX là viết tắt của cụm từ nào? : câu hỏi xem học viên có theo dõi video không?
  - (c) Một trang web hiển thị giá cổ phiếu cập nhật 15 giây một lần. Có 4000 khách hàng cùng truy cập, vậy có bao nhiêu AJAX gửi về máy chủ trong 1 giây? : đây là câu hỏi hay
3. Câu hỏi ôn lại kiến thức
  - Ý nghĩa của http verb GET, POST, PUT, DELETE là gì, khác nhau như thế nào? Câu hỏi rất rộng, không tốt
  - Nhưng khi nào dùng POST và khi nào dùng PUT sẽ tập trung hơn và dễ tạo lựa chọn để trả lời.
  - Sử dụng GET truyền id có thể thay thế DELETE được không? Tại sao không nên.
4. Hãy nhìn vào mắt học viên khi hỏi. (offline)
  - Hỏi những học viên có dấu hiệu buồn ngủ

## 28.6 Bước 4.1: Quay video

### 28.6.1 Chú ý khi quay video

- 1- Camstasia 3 đã ra mắt
- 2- Ink2 Go
- 3- xScap
- 4- Terminal: font Roboto Mono for Powerline 18pt
- 5- Powerpoint 720p

### 28.6.2 Các lỗi giảng viên thường mắc phải khi làm video

1. Nói nhiều, thích ôm đồm nhiều thông tin trong một video > Độ dài tuyệt nhất là 3 phút
2. Chữ bé, các chi tiết khó nhìn khiến người dùng bị mỏi mắt > Thường sau 3-4 phút là khá mệt
3. Thiếu dòng title phút đầu tiên của video clip -> người dùng khó định hình ngay giảng viên muốn nói gì
4. Không điểm danh các mục nhỏ, nội dung trình bày trong video > Không biết sẽ đi về đâu
5. Không có điểm nhấn, phân cách giữa các mục nhỏ trong hướng dẫn > Mình đang ở mục mấy rồi nhỉ? Còn mấy mục nữa thì hết
6. Ít hình minh họa > Một hình ảnh dùng đúng hiệu quả hơn 1000 câu giải thích
7. Chỉ gõ lệnh nhưng ít khi nói mục đích để làm gì? Kết quả mong muốn là gì
8. Không giải thích các thuật ngữ mới
9. Chưa tính đến môi trường thực hành của học viên có thể khác so với giảng viên

### 28.6.3 Đồ nghề tạo giáo trình trực tuyến

- 1- Web Cam
  - + Logitech C920 hoặc Xioami Camera loại 650,000VND. + Tỷ lệ bỏ lửng bài video giảm 30% nếu học viên thấy mặt giảng viên. + Mặt giảng viên đẹp trai, hấp dẫn, hài hước càng tốt + Mở sẵn cửa sổ ứng dụng cần demo. Giảm tối đa thời gian chết
- 2- Camtasia
  - + Camtasia Studio trên Windows có nhiều chức năng hơn bản Camtasia Mac
  - + Phiên bản Camtasia Mac không nén được video định dạng H264 phải dùng FFmpeg để nén + Thu ở khung hình 1280 \* 720 pixels. Trên Mac có công cụ xScope để căn kích thước màn hình thu
- 3- Phòng thu âm cần yên tĩnh
  - + Đóng chặt cửa sổ, cửa phòng khi quay chấp nhận nóng trong 10 phút quay.
  - + Bật chế noise remove trong Camtasia
- 4- Sublime Text 5- Ink2Go 6- Lucid Chart 7- Adobe Photoshop 8- Skitch 9- PowerPoint 10- Slides.com

### 28.6.4 Kinh nghiệm khi quay video

**Phòng cần yên tĩnh:** nên tắt quạt hay các thiết bị điện tử gây ồn. Tắt điện thoại tránh cuộc gọi đến khi đang ghi hình. Để micro xa bàn phím để không lẫn tiếng lạch cạch

Tuyệt đối không nên để background wallpaper lộn lộn, học viên không chú ý vào demo của bạn mà xem background thì hiệu quả truyền đạt rất tệ. Tốt nhất để màn hình background là đen 100

Tắt Skype, chat, loại bỏ các icon không cần thiết trên màn hình desktop

Nên dùng web camera Logitech C920 để xa mồm để không ghi tiếng thở hổn hển của giảng viên

Nên quay cả mặt giảng viên, nhưng cut crop để không quay background của phòng thu. Hãy để học viên tập trung vào bài giảng

Không sử dụng âm thanh nền có tiếng hát hoặc giai điệu nhanh, phức tạp khiến học viên không tập trung

Lưu ý rằng:

Học viên thích xem demo sinh động và đọc chữ trên màn hình rất nhanh, đừng nói quá dài dòng, phức tạp.

### 28.6.5 Nén video chuẩn H.264

Áp dụng đối với hệ điều hành Mac và Linux. Sau khi ghi hình ở độ phân giải 1280x720 pixels, và xuất ra video mp4. Nếu kích thước video tính theo Megabytes  $> 2 * \text{số phút (Mb)}$  thì video đó nén chưa tốt. Chúng ta cần phải nén video với chuẩn H264.

Các bước thực hiện

Vào web site này <https://www.ffmpeg.org/> tải phần mềm ffmpeg về

Copy vào thư mục /usr/local/bin để có thể gọi ffmpeg ở mọi nơi Tạo một bash script có tên v264 trong thư mục /usr/local/bin cd /usr/local/bin nano v264

Paste đoạn script này vào file v264

```
#!/bin/bash
if [ -z "$1" ]; then
echo "You must input video file name"
exit
fi
if [ -f $1 ]; then
output="$(echo $1 | sed 's /\.[^\.]*$ //') "
ffmpeg -i $1 -c:a copy -x264-params crf=30 -b:a 64k "$output-264.mp4"
else
echo "File $1 does not exist"
fi
```

Để file v264 thực thi được cần gõ lệnh để bổ xung quyền execution

```
chmod +x v264
```

Khi nén video gõ lệnh này

```
v264 yourvideo.mp4
```



### 28.6.6 Upload video và tạo bài giảng

Tạo một lesson như thế nào?

- Có một video dài < 10 phút
- Tối thiểu 3 câu hỏi quiz
- Nên bổ sung mã nguồn hoặc slide

## 28.7 Bước 4.2: Thất bại khi thực hành

Mọi lỗi sơ suất đều khiến giảng viên cực kỳ bối rối, áp lực Mồ hôi toát ra như tắm, học viên xì xào, chán nản vì sốt ruột. Buổi học thất bại

Mọi demo cần chuẩn bị tập dượt, dù là chi tiết nhỏ nhất.

Thực hành tối thiểu 3 lần, ghi lại các bước thành Hand-On-Lab. Ghi lại những lỗi giảng viên đã gặp phải:

- Cắm nhầm cực dương - âm tụ hóa
- Thiếu tụ lọc nhiễu
- Máy học viên có thể bị thiếu RAM, cấu hình sai

Giảng viên phát trước Hand-On-Lab cho học viên xem. Tạo câu hỏi quiz để đảm bảo học viên hiểu bài trước khi thực hành.

Đối với những bài thực hành khó, hãy yêu cầu học viên cài sẵn môi trường thực hành bởi:

- 1- Thời gian tải phần mềm ở lớp học có thể lâu
  - 2- Tự học viên phát hiện lỗi khi cài phần mềm ở nhà
  - 3- Học viên được làm quen trước với bài lab đơn giản
- Đối với bài thực hành khó, hãy mạnh dạn chọn ra 1-2 học viên giỏi để chuẩn bị trước. Đây là đặc ân mà học viên giỏi sẽ thích thú và cố gắng tham gia.

## 28.8 Bước 5: Học viên mất căn bản - Trả lời hỏi đáp

**Question:** Trong một lớp học có quá nhiều học viên không có căn bản để học, nhưng lại có vài học viên giỏi, tiếp thu rất nhanh.

Phục vụ học viên mất căn bản hay phục vụ học viên giỏi?

**Trả lời:** Đừng chia thành 2 nhóm học viên giỏi và học viên kém. Nhóm giỏi sẽ tiếp tục đi nhanh hơn và nhóm kém sẽ bỏ cuộc.

Chia nhóm để ghép học viên giỏi và kém. Học viên giỏi sẽ giúp đỡ học viên kém.

Lớp 12 học viên chia thành 4 nhóm. Tạo ra cuộc thi đua nhỏ giữa các nhóm.

Nếu có học viên bỏ học, sắp xếp lại nhóm.

**Question:** Trong một lớp học thực hành, nếu có nhiều câu hỏi ở mức độ khó khác nhau? Giảng viên chỉ được chọn trả lời một. Vậy chọn câu trả lời nào?

**Answer:** Hãy trả lời có khả năng hài lòng số đông học viên nhất.

Câu hỏi khó trả lời buổi sau, qua Facebook group của lớp

Câu hỏi ngoài lề không trả lời

Câu hỏi dễ, nhờ học viên khá trong lớp trả lời hộ

## 28.9 Marketing

Các hình thức marketing

1. Mạng xã hội: Facebook, forum Phải boost quảng cáo. 500000 - 2000000 VND cho mỗi khóa học
2. SEO - Google Search
3. Qua hội thảo, meetup hiệu quả thấp do số lượng người tham gia < 40 người  
Conversation rate: số người mua hàng / số người tham quan  
Nếu đến từ organic search  $CR = 1 / 200$   
Nếu qua chia sẻ bài viết mạng xã hội  $CR = 1 / 4000$   
Nếu qua giới thiệu, tư vấn người quen  $CR = 1 / 2$

### 28.9.1 Chia sẻ bài học trên Facebook

Hoàn thành bài học

Một bài viết chia sẻ lên Facebook có ảnh sẽ được người dùng click vào cao gấp 2-3 lần bài viết không có ảnh. Một bài viết có ảnh thumbnail có nút play xem video thì sẽ có số người dùng click vào cao hơn 1.3 lần so với ảnh thuần túy

Một khóa học online không giới thiệu qua Facebook, YouTube thì chắc chắn không có học viên dù giảng viên giỏi đến mấy

Bài giới thiệu trên facebook có nút play có lượt click lớn hơn nhiều so với không có nút play

### 28.9.2 Sử dụng Photoshop

Sử dụng Photoshop để làm poster cho khóa học

## Chương 29

# Nghề lập trình

Chân kinh con đường lập trình: [Teach Yourself Programming in Ten Years. Peter Norvig](<http://norvig.com/21-days.html>)

Trang web hữu ích

\* Chia sẻ thú vị: [15 năm lập trình ở Việt Nam](<https://vozforums.com/showthread.php?t=3431312>) của Blanic (vozfourm) \* Trang web chứa cheatsheet so sánh các ngôn ngữ lập trình và công nghệ [<http://hyperpolyglot.org/>](<http://hyperpolyglot.org/>) 01/11/2017

Vậy là đã vào nghề (đi làm full time trả lương) được 3 năm rưỡi rồi. Thời gian trôi qua nhanh như \*ó chạy ngoài đồng thật. Tâm đắc nhất với câu trong một quyển gì đó của anh lead HR google. Có 4 level của nghề nghiệp. 1 là thỏa mãn được yêu cầu cả bản. 2 là dự đoán được tương lai. 3 là cá nhân hóa (ý nói là tận tình với các khách hàng). 4 là phiêu diêu tự tại. Hay thật! Bao giờ mới được vào mức 4 đây.

## Chương 30

# Latex

15/12/2017:

Hôm nay tự nhiên nổi hứng vẽ hình trên latex. Thấy blog này là một guide line khá tốt về viết blog phần mềm. Quyết định cài latex

Theo [hướng dẫn này](<http://milq.github.io/install-latex-ubuntu-debian/>)

““ sudo apt-get install texlive-full sudo apt-get install texmaker ““

Tìm được ngay bên này <https://www.overleaf.com/> có vẽ rất hay luôn

Hướng dẫn cực kì cơ bản <http://www.math.uni-leipzig.de/~hellmund/LaTeX/pgf-tut.pdf>

Chương trình đầu tiên, vẽ diagram cho LanguageFlow

```
\documentclass[border=10pt]{standalone}
\usepackage{verbatim}
\begin{comment}
\end{comment}
\usepackage{tikz}
\begin{document}
\begin{tikzpicture}
  \node[draw] (model) at (0, 0) {Model Folder};
  \node[draw] (analyze) at (6, 0) {Analyze Folder};
  \node[draw] (board) at (3,2) {Board};
  \node[draw] (logger) at (3, -2) {Logger};

  \path[->, densely dotted] (board.east)
    edge [out=0, in=90]
    node[ fill =white, pos=.5] {\tiny (1) init }
    (analyze.north) ;
  \path[->, densely dotted] (board.south)
    edge [out=-90, in=180]
    node[ fill =white, pos=.3] {\tiny (2) serve}
    (analyze.west) ;
  \path[->, densely dotted] (logger.west)
    edge [out=180, in=-90]
    node[ fill =white, pos=.7] {\tiny (1) read}
    (model.south) ;
  \path[->, densely dotted] (logger.east)
```

```
edge [out=0, in=-90]
node[ fill =white, pos=.7] {\tiny (2) write}
(analyze.south) ;
\end{tikzpicture}
\end{document}
```

Doc! Doc! Doc! <https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/LaTeX/PGF/TikZ>

## Chương 31

# Chào hàng

**\*\*16/01/2018\*\*** Bối cảnh. Hôm nay gửi lời mời kết bạn đến một thằng làm research về speech mà nó "chửi" mình không biết pitch. Tổ sư. Tuy nhiên, nó cũng dạy mình một bài học hay về pitch.

Chửi nó là vậy nhưng lần sau sẽ phải đầu tư nhiều hơn cho các lời pitch.

Vẫn không ưa Huyền Chíp như ngày nào, nhưng [bài này](<https://www.facebook.com/notes/huyen-chip/k>)

Tóm lại skill này có 4 phần

1. Ngôn ngữ không trau chuốt 2. Giới thiệu bản thân không tốt 3. Không chỉ ra cho người nhận rằng họ sẽ được gì 4. Không có phương án hành động

Đối với email, thì cần triển khai thể này

\* [Chào hỏi] \* [Giới thiệu bản thân một cách nào đó để người đọc quan tâm đến bạn] \* [Giải thích lý do bạn biết đến người này và bạn ấn tượng thế nào với họ – ai cũng thích được nghe khen] \* [Bạn muốn gì từ người đó và họ sẽ được gì từ việc này] \* [Kết thúc]

## Chương 32

# Phát triển phần mềm

\* Phát triển phần mềm là một việc đau khổ. Từ việc quản lý code và version, packing, documentation. Dưới đây là lược lặt những nguyên tắc cơ bản của mình.

Quản lý phiên bản

Việc đánh số phiên bản các thay đổi của phần mềm khi có hàm được thêm, lỗi được sửa, hay các phiên bản tiền phát hành cần thống nhất theo chuẩn của [semversion]. Điều này giúp nhóm có thể tương tác dễ hơn với người dùng cuối.



**\*\*Đánh số phiên bản\*\***

Phiên bản được đánh theo chuẩn của [semversion](https://semver.org/).

\* Mỗi khi một bug được sửa, phiên bản sẽ tăng lên một patch \* Mỗi khi có một hàm mới được thêm, phiên bản sẽ tăng lên một patch. \* Khi một phiên bản mới được phát hành, phiên bản sẽ tăng lên một minor. \* Trước khi phát hành, bắt đầu với x.y.z-rc, x.y.z-rc.1, x.y.z-rc.2. Cuối cùng mới là x.y.z \* Mỗi khi phiên bản rc lỗi, khi public lại, đặt phiên bản alpha x.y.z-alpha.t (một phương án tốt hơn là cài đặt thông qua github)

**\*\*Đánh số phiên bản trên git\*\***

Ở nhánh develop, mỗi lần merge sẽ được đánh version theo PATCH, thể hiện một bug được sửa hoặc một thay đổi của hàm

Ở nhánh master, mỗi lần release sẽ được thêm các chỉ như x.y1.0-rc, x.y1.0-rc.1, x.y1.0-rc, x.y1.0

\*Vẫn còn lẫn lộn\*:

\* Hiện tại theo workflow này thì chưa cần sử dụng alpha, beta (chắc là khi đó đã có lượt người sử dụng mới cần đến những phiên bản như thế này)

**\*\*Tải phần mềm lên pypi\*\***

Làm theo hướng dẫn [tại đây](http://peterdowns.com/posts/first-time-with-pypi.html)

1. Cấu hình file ‘.pypirc’ 2. Upload lên pypi

“python setup.py sdist upload -r pypi”

## Chương 33

# Phương pháp làm việc

Xây dựng phương pháp làm việc là một điều không đơn giản. Với kinh nghiệm 3 năm làm việc, trải qua 2 project. Mà vẫn chưa produce được sản phẩm cho khách hàng. Thiết nghĩ mình nên viết phương pháp làm việc ra để xem xét lại. Có lẽ sẽ có ích cho mọi người.

Làm sao để làm việc hiệu quả, hay xây dựng phương pháp làm việc hữu ích? Câu trả lời ngắn gọn là "Một công cụ không bao giờ đủ".

<!--more-->

Nội dung

1. [Làm sao để đánh giá công việc trong khoảng thời gian dài hạn?](section1)
2. [Làm sao để quản lý project?](section2)
3. [Làm sao để công việc trôi chảy?](section3)
4. [Làm sao để xem xét lại quá trình làm việc?](section4)

<p id="section1">nbsp;</p>

Làm sao để đánh giá công việc trong khoảng thời gian dài hạn?

Câu trả lời OKR (Objectives and Key Results)

 \*OKR Framework\*

Đầu mỗi quý, nên dành vài ngày cho việc xây dựng mục tiêu và những kết quả quan trọng cho quý tới. Cũng như review lại kết quả quý trước.

Bước 1: Xây dựng mục tiêu cá nhân (Objectives)

Bước 2: Xây dựng các Key Results cho mục tiêu này

Bước 3: Lên kế hoạch để hiện thực hóa các Key Results

<p id="section2">nbsp;</p>

Làm sao để quản lý một project

Meistertask

 \*MeisterTask\*

<p id="section3">nbsp;</p>

Làm sao để công việc trôi chảy?

Có vẻ trello là công cụ thích hợp

Bước 1: Tạo một team với một cái tên thật ấn tượng (của mình là Strong Coder)

Trong phần Description của team, nên viết Objectives and Key Results của quý này

Sau đây là một ví dụ

“ Objectives and Key Results



-> Build Vietnamese Sentiment Analysis -> Develop underthesea -> Deep Learning Book “

Bước 2: Đầu mỗi tuần, tạo một board với tên là thời gian ứng với tuần đó (của mình là ‘2017 | Fight 02 (11/12 - 16/12)‘)

Board này sẽ gồm 5 mục: "TODO", "PROGRESSING", "Early Fight", "Late Fight", "HABBIT", được lấy cảm hứng từ Kanban Board

\*  
TrelloBoardexample\*

\* Mỗi khi không có việc gì làm, xem xét card trong "TODO" \* [FOCUS] tập trung làm việc trong "PROGRESSING" \* Xem xét lại thói quen làm việc với "HABBIT"

Một Card cho Trello cần có

\* Tên công việc (title) \* Độ quan trọng (thể hiện ở label xanh (chưa quan trọng), vàng (bình thường), đỏ (quan trọng)) \* Hạn chót của công việc (due date)

Sắp xếp TODO theo thứ tự độ quan trọng và Due date

<p id="section4">nbsp;</p>

Làm sao để xem xét lại quá trình làm việc?

Nhật lý làm việc hàng tuần . Việc này lên được thực hiện vào đầu tuần . Có 3 nội dung quan trọng trong nhật ký làm việc (ngoài gió mây trắng cảm xúc, quan hệ với đồng nghiệp...)

\* Kết quả công việc tuần này \* Những công việc chưa làm? Lý do tại sao chưa hoàn thành? \* Dự định cho tuần tới

\*Đang nghiên cứu\*

\*\*Làm sao để lưu lại các ý tưởng, công việc cần làm?\*: Dùng chức năng checklist của card trong meister. Khi có ý tưởng mới, sẽ thêm một mục trong checklist

\*\*Làm sao để tập trung vào công việc quan trọng?\*: Dùng chức năng tag của meister, mỗi một công việc sẽ được đánh sao (với các mức 5 sao, 3 sao, 1 sao), thể hiện mức độ quan trọng của công việc. Mỗi một sprint nên chỉ tập trung vào 10 star, một product backlog chỉ nên có 30 star.

\*\*Tài liệu của dự án\*: Sử dụng Google Drive, tài liệu mô tả dự án sẽ được link vào card tương ứng trong meister.

## Chương 34

# Làm sao để thành công?

---

Vòng tròn thành công gồm có 3 phần : ĐAM MÊ, NĂNG LỰC, LỢI NHUẬN

ĐAM MÊ: là cái mình yêu thích làm

NĂNG LỰC: là cái mình làm tốt

LỢI NHUẬN: là cái đem lại giá trị cho người khác

27/01/2018:  
Hôm nay xem  
Shark Tank  
Việt Nam có  
vụ nói về các  
yếu tố để thành  
công hay quá.

## Chương 35

# Đặt tên email

Email hiện tại là anh.v.ict91@gmail.com. Chắc tốt hơn là email brother.rain.1024@gmail.com. Vụ này đã được anh Lê Hồng Phương nhắc một lần rồi.

## Chương 36

# Agile

View online <http://magizbox.com/training/agile/site/>

### 36.1 Introduction

What is Agile? 2 Agile methodology is an alternative to traditional project management, typically used in software development. It helps teams respond to unpredictability through incremental, iterative work cadences, known as sprints. Agile methodologies are an alternative to waterfall, or traditional sequential development.

Agile Manifesto

Scrum Framework

A manifesto for small teams doing important work 4

What is the difference between Scrum and Agile Development? 1 Scrum is just one of the many iterative and incremental agile software development method. You can find here a very detailed description of the process.

In the SCRUM methodology a sprint is the basic unit of development. Each sprint starts with a planning meeting, where the tasks for the sprint are identified and an estimated commitment for the sprint goal is made. A Sprint ends with a review or retrospective meeting where the progress is reviewed and lessons for the next sprint are identified. During each sprint, the team creates finished portions of a product.

In the Agile methods each iteration involves a team working through a full software development cycle, including planning, requirements analysis, design, coding, unit testing, and acceptance testing when a working product is demonstrated to stakeholders.

Agile Stories and Teasers 2011, PRESENTATION: HOW OUR TEAM LIVES SCRUM 2010, The real life of a Scrum team – with photos 2009, How Scrum Helped Our Team Agile Tools 3 Agilefant (4/ 3/ 3) What is the difference between Scrum and Agile Development?

Agile Methodology

[agile-tools.net/](http://agile-tools.net/)

A manifesto for small teams doing important work

## 36.2 Team

Scrum Team 1 Within the Scrum Framework three roles are defined:

Product Owner Scrum Master Development team Each of these roles has a defined set of responsibilities and only if they fulfill these responsibilities, closely interact and work together they can finish a project successfully.

Scrum Roles Stakeholders

Product Owner One of the most important things for the success of scrum is the role of the Product Owner, who serves as an interface between the team and other involved parties (stakeholders). It can be said that in companies that use scrum, the tasks and responsibilities of the particular Product Owner are never the same. Starting with the choice of that person provided with the proper and necessary skills, make them take specific trainings, up to the responsibility they take; the role of the Product Owner –short PO- is the most complex one regarding that procedure.

Often the PO has to “fight” on both sides. Whereas the team can work a certain fraction of time (time boxed) “protected” by the Scrum Master, the Product Owner often needs to deal with marketing, management or the customers in order to be able to present the software requirements (User Stories) quite precisely to the team (see the box “criteria for User Stories”).

Furthermore the Product Owner is responsible for the return on investment (ROI). He validates the solutions and verifies whether the quality is acceptable or not from the end-users’ point of view. He also has to decide over the importance of single features in order to prioritize these in their treatment and he has to tell the team what the product should look like in the end (product vision). Since one of the teams’ tasks is to work effectively, the Product Owner must react fast on call-backs. Hence he fulfills the role of a communicator, as he must be in contact with all stakeholders, sponsors and last but not least the team throughout a project. After all it is his task to coordinate the financial side of the product development, which is successful through his continuous work and prioritizing the advancing tasks (Product Backlog). All these diverse requests demonstrate how important the selection of the “right” person for the role of the PO is for the success of a project.

The nomenclature is definite. The Product Owner is at Scrum not only the manager of a product, but also the Owner and therefore he is the one responsible for the correct creation of a product. Being a Product Owner means:

You are responsible for the success of the outcome of the product delivered by the team. You make Business decisions of importance and priorities. You deliver the vision of the product to the team. You prepare the User Stories for the team of development. You should possess severe domain knowledge. You validate the outcomes and test them for their quality. You react promptly on callbacks. You communicate on a continual base with all Stakeholders, financiers and the team. You control the financial side of the project.

Scrum Master The most obvious difference between a team leader and a Scrum Master is represented by the name itself though. Whereas one is leading the team and sets the tasks, the other one is in charge of observing that the team obeys the rules and realizes the method of Scrum entirely. The Scrum Master does not interfere into the decisions of the team regarding specifically the development, but rather is there for the team as an advisor. He only interferes actively when anybody of the team or any other participant of a project (Stakeholder) does not

obey the rules of Scrum. Whereas a team leader often gives requirements and takes responsibility for the completion of those, an experienced Scrum Master gives only impulses and advises to the team to lead the correct way, to use the right method or to choose the right technology. In fine the Scrum Master acts more like a Team Coach than a team leader.

**ScrumMaster and Impediments** Another important task of the Scrum Master is to get rid of all possible impediments that might disturb the work of the team. Usually problems can be classified in three different categories. The first one is problems the team cannot solve. E.g. the team cannot do any kind of performance-tests because the hardware is not in place, the IT-department does not provide Bug tracker, or the ordered software just still did not reach the team. Another impediment could be that the marketing or sales manager was there again demanding that another feature gets integrated “quickly”.

The second one regards impediments that result through the organizational structure or strategic decisions. Maybe the office is not capable of handling the important meetings or teamwork – e.g. because there is no media. One mistake that occurs quite often regards the problem that the Scrum Master is seen as the personnel responsible for the team members. This is often because of the classical role of a project leader, but using Scrum it only leads to conflicts of interests and is strongly against its major principle: The team owns a management role in the method of Scrum and is therefore coequal with the Scrum Master and the Product Owner. Another aspect can be the insufficient bandwidth of the internet for the new project.

The third problem refers to the individuals. Someone needs a hand with the debugging. Another one cannot solve a task alone and needs someone else for the pair programming. Someone else has to reset his computer....

Even though a Scrum Master can’t and shouldn’t realize some requirements himself, he is still responsible for solving and getting rid of problems and needs to give proper criteria. This task often takes up a lot of time and requires great authority and backbone. The Scrum Master has to create an optimal working-condition for the team and is responsible for this condition to be retained, in order to meet the goals of every sprint – i.e. for a short sprint the defined requirements.

**Scrum Development Team** Different from other methods, in Scrum a team is not just the executive organ that receives its tasks from the project leader, it rather decides self dependent, which requirements or User Stories it can accomplish in one sprint. It constructs the tasks and is responsible for the permutation of those – the team becomes a manager. This new self-conception of the team and the therewith aligned tasks and responsibilities necessarily change the role of the team leader/project leader. The Scrum Master does not need to delegate all the work and to plan the project, he rather takes care that the team meets all conditions in order to reach the self-made goals. He cleans off any impediments, provides an ideal working environment for the team, coaches and is responsible for the observation of Scrum-rules – he becomes the so-called Servant Leader.

The changed role perception is one of the most important aspects, when someone wants to understand Scrum and with the intent to introduce it in their own company.

Scrum Roles

### 36.3 Artifacts

#### Product Backlog 1

Force-ranked list of desired functionality Visible to all stakeholders Any stakeholder (including the Team) can add items Constantly re-prioritized by the Product Owner Items at top are more granular than items at bottom Maintained during the Backlog Refinement Meeting

#### Product Backlog Item (PBI) 1

Specifies the what more than the how of a customer-centric feature Often written in User Story form Has a product-wide definition of done to prevent technical debt May have item-specific acceptance criteria Effort is estimated by the team, ideally in relative units (e.g., story points) Effort is roughly 2-3 people 2-3 days, or smaller for advanced teams Sprint Backlog 1

Consists of committed PBIs negotiated between the team and the Product Owner during the Sprint Planning Meeting

Scope commitment is fixed during Sprint Execution

Initial tasks are identified by the team during Sprint Planning Meeting

Team will discover additional tasks needed to meet the fixed scope commitment during Sprint execution

Visible to the team

Referenced during the Daily Scrum Meeting

#### Sprint Task 1

Specifies how to achieve the PBI's what

Requires one day or less of work

Remaining effort is re-estimated daily, typically in hours

During Sprint Execution, a point person may volunteer to be primarily responsible for a task

Owned by the entire team; collaboration is expected

Personal Sprint Board with Sticky Notes (Windows)

#### Sprint Burndown Chart 1

Indicates total remaining team task hours within one Sprint Re-estimated daily, thus may go up before going down Intended to facilitate team self-organization Fancy variations, such as itemizing by point person or adding trend lines, tend to reduce effectiveness at encouraging collaboration Seemed like a good idea in the early days of Scrum, but in practice has often been misused as a management report, inviting intervention. The ScrumMaster should discontinue use of this chart if it becomes an impediment to team self-organization.

#### Product / Release Burndown Chart

Tracks the remaining Product Backlog effort from one Sprint to the next May use relative units such as Story Points for Y axis Depicts historical trends to adjust forecasts scrum-reference-card

### 36.4 Meetings

Meetings Scrum Meetings 1 Sprint Planning Daily Scrum Sprint Review Sprint Retrospective Product Backlog Refinement

#### Sprint Planning 1

Goals – Discuss and make sure the whole team understands the upcoming Work Items to deliver (quantity, complexity) – Select the work items to achieve during

the Sprint (Create the Sprint Backlog) – Rationally forecast the amount of work and commit to accomplish it – Plan how this work will be done

Attendees 1st part (what?): Whole team 2nd part (how?): Even though the product owner does not attend, he should remain to answer questions. Duration The meeting is time-boxed: 2 hours / week of sprint duration.

Typical meeting roadmap In Scrum, the sprint planning meeting has two parts:

1. What work will be done?

– the Product Owner presents the ordered product backlog items to the development team – the whole Scrum team collaborates to understand the work and select work items starting from the top of the product backlog

2. How will the work be accomplished?

– the development team discusses to define how to produce the next product increment in accordance with the current Definition of Done – The team does just the sufficient design and planning to be confident of completing the work during the sprint – The upcoming work to be done in the early days is broken down into small tasks of one day or less – Work to be done later may be left in larger units to be decomposed later (this is called Just-In-Time planning in Lean) – Final commitment to do the work

Important to know / Good practices – The development team is alone responsible to determine the number of product backlog items that will be “pulled” to the sprint. Nobody else should interfere in that decision, based on the current state of the project, the past performance and the current availability of the team. – It is a good practice to set a sprint goal to keep focus on the big picture and not on the details. – It is necessary for the Sprint planning meeting success that the product backlog is well ordered and refined. This is the Product Owner’s responsibility. – The development team is responsible to decide how to do the work (self-organization). – There is no point, especially at the beginning, to try to make hourly estimates of the work and compare them to availability. This habit is inherited from traditional PM methods and may be counterproductive, as reduces ownership of the team’s commitments. The best for the team is to intuitively estimate its own capacity to do the work, reduce the amount of committed work to deliver, and get experienced at estimating during the first sprints.

Daily Scrum 1

Goals Ensure, every day, at the same place, that the team is on track for attaining the sprint goal and that team members are all on the same page. Spot blocks and problems. The Scrum Master can resolve impediments that are beyond the team’s control. This is NOT a management reporting meeting to anyone. The team members communicate together as a team. Based on what comes up in the meeting, the development team reorganizes the work as needed to accomplish the sprint goal. Create transparency, trust and better performance. Build the team’s self-organization and self-reliance. Attendees Development Team + Scrum Master. The Product Owner presence is not required but it is almost always interesting for him / her to be present, especially to clarify requirements if needed. Other stakeholders can attend to get a good and quick overview of the progress and project status, although having managerial presence may cause a “trigger” effect and pollute the meeting’s effectiveness. Duration No more than 15 minutes. A good practice is to allow 2 minutes to each team member. Typical meeting roadmap Every team member answers 3 questions:

What I have accomplished since the last daily Scrum What I plan to accomplish



between now and the next daily Scrum What (if anything) is impeding my progress No discussion during the meeting. Only brief questions to clarify the previous list. Any subsequent discussion should take place after the meeting with the concerned team members.

Important to know / Good practices The Daily Scrum is sometimes called “Daily Stand Up”. This name gives a good overview of the tone and shortness of this meeting. Each team member moves the tasks in the taskboard while speaking (if not done before) The Sprint Burndown chart can be updated by the Scrum Master at the end of the meeting Having a “being blocked” task list is useful. Personally I add a dedicated column in the taskboard Only team members speak during the daily Scrum. Nobody else. The Daily Scrum is a proof of the team’s self-organizing capacity as it shows how much team members collaborate together as they address themselves to the whole team (and not only the Scrum Master) It is quite common to uncover additional tasks during the Sprint to achieve the Sprint Goal Sprint Review Meeting 1

Goals After Sprint execution, the team holds a Sprint Review Meeting to demonstrate a working product increment to the Product Owner and everyone else who is interested. The meeting should feature a live demonstration, not a report. Attendees Product Team Product Owner When After Sprint execution Duration 4 hours given a 30-day Sprint (much longer than anyone recommends nowadays), the maximum time for a Sprint Review Meeting is 4 hours Roadmap Demonstration After the demonstration, the Product Owner reviews the commitments made at the Sprint Planning Meeting and declares which items he now considers done. For example, a software item that is merely “code complete” is considered not done, because untested software isn’t shippable. Incomplete items are returned to the Product Backlog and ranked according to the Product Owner’s revised priorities as candidates for future Sprints. The ScrumMaster helps the Product Owner and stakeholders convert their feedback to new Product Backlog Items for prioritization by the Product Owner. Often, new scope discovery outpaces the team’s rate of development. If the Product Owner feels that the newly discovered scope is more important than the original expectations, new scope displaces old scope in the Product Backlog. The Sprint Review Meeting is the appropriate meeting for external stakeholders (even end users) to attend. It is the opportunity to inspect and adapt the product as it emerges, and iteratively refine everyone’s understanding of the requirements. New products, particularly software products, are hard to visualize in a vacuum. Many customers need to be able to react to a piece of functioning software to discover what they will actually want. Iterative development, a value-driven approach, allows the creation of products that couldn’t have been specified up front in a plan-driven approach.

Sprint Retrospective Meeting 1 2

Goals At this meeting, the team reflects on its own process. They inspect their behavior and take action to adapt it for future Sprints.

When Each Sprint ends with a retrospective.

Duration 45 minutes

Roadmap

Dedicated ScrumMasters will find alternatives to the stale, fearful meetings everyone has come to expect. An in-depth retrospective requires an environment of psychological safety not found in most organizations. Without safety, the retrospective discussion will either avoid the uncomfortable issues or deteriorate

into blaming and hostility.

A common impediment to full transparency on the team is the presence of people who conduct performance appraisals.

Another impediment to an insightful retrospective is the human tendency to jump to conclusions and propose actions too quickly. Agile Retrospectives, the most popular book on this topic, describes a series of steps to slow this process down: Set the stage, gather data, generate insights, decide what to do, close the retrospective. (1) Another guide recommended for ScrumMasters, The Art of Focused Conversations, breaks the process into similar steps: Objective, reflective, interpretive, and decisional (ORID). (2)

A third impediment to psychological safety is geographic distribution. Geographically dispersed teams usually do not collaborate as well as those in team rooms.

Retrospectives often expose organizational impediments. Once a team has resolved the impediments within its immediate influence, the ScrumMaster should work to expand that influence, chipping away at the organizational impediments. ScrumMasters should use a variety of techniques to facilitate retrospectives, including silent writing, timelines, and satisfaction histograms. In all cases, the goals are to gain a common understanding of multiple perspectives and to develop actions that will take the team to the next level.

Product Backlog Refinement Meeting 1

How to: A Great Product Backlog Refinement Workshop

PRESENTATION: HOW OUR TEAM LIVES SCRUM

## Chương 37

# Docker

View online <http://magizbox.com/training/docker/site/>

Docker is an open platform for building, shipping and running distributed applications. It gives programmers, development teams and operations engineers the common toolbox they need to take advantage of the distributed and networked nature of modern applications.

### 37.1 Get Started

**Docker Promise** Docker provides an integrated technology suite that enables development and IT operations teams to build, ship, and run distributed applications anywhere.

**Build:** Docker allows you to compose your application from microservices, without worrying about inconsistencies between development and production environments, and without locking into any platform or language.

**Composable** You want to be able to split up your application into multiple services.

**Ship:** Docker lets you design the entire cycle of application development, testing and distribution, and manage it with a consistent user interface.

**Portable across providers** You want to be able to move your application between different cloud providers and your own servers, or run it across several providers.

**Run:** Docker offers you the ability to deploy scalable services, securely and reliably, on a wide variety of platforms.

**Portable across environments** You want to be able to define how your application will run in development, and then run it seamlessly in testing, staging and production.

#### 1. Docker Architecture

##### Docker Containers vs Virtual Hypervisor Model

In the Docker container model, the Docker engine sits atop a single host operating system. In contrast, with the traditional virtualization hypervisor mode, a separate guest operating system is required for each virtual machine.

##### Docker Images and Docker Containers

#### 2.1 Docker Images Docker images are the build component of Docker.

For example, an image could contain an Ubuntu operating system with Apache and your web application installed. Images are used to create Docker containers.

Docker provides a simple way to build new images or update existing images, or you can download Docker images that other people have already created.

Built by you or other Docker users

Stored in the Docker Hub or your local Registry

Images Tags

Images are specified by repository:tag The same image may have multiple tags

The default tag is latest Look up the repository on Docker to see what tags are available

2.2 Docker Containers Docker containers are the run component of Docker. Docker containers are similar to a directory. A Docker container holds everything that is needed for an application to run. Each container is created from a Docker image. Docker containers can be run, started, stopped, moved, and deleted. Each container is an isolated and secure application platform.

2.3 Registry and Repository Docker registries are the distribution component of Docker.

Docker registries

Docker registries hold images. These are public or private stores from which you upload or download images. The public Docker registry is provided with the Docker Hub. It serves a huge collection of existing images for your use. These can be images you create yourself or you can use images that others have previously created. Docker Hub

Docker Hub is the public registry that contains a large number of images available for your use.

2.3 Docker Networking Docker uses DNS instead of /etc/hosts

3. Docker Orchestration Three tools for orchestrating distributed applications with Docker

Docker Machine Tool that provisions Docker hosts and installs the Docker Engine on them

Docker Swarm Tool that clusters many Engines and schedules containers

Docker Compose Tool to create and manage multi-container applications

Installation Docker only supports CentOS 7, Windows 7.1, 8/8.1, Mac OSX 10.8 64bit

Windows, CentOS

Usage Lab: Search for Images on Docker Hub Installation: Ubuntu Installation ubuntu 14.04

Prerequisites

apt-get update apt-get install apt-transport-https ca-certificates

apt-key adv --keyserver hkp://p80.pool.sks-keyservers.net:80 --recv-keys 5811E89F3A912897C070ADBF7622

Edit /etc/apt/sources.list.d/docker.list

deb https://apt.dockerproject.org/repo ubuntu-trusty main apt-get update apt-

get purge lxc-docker apt-cache policy docker-engine Install docker

apt-get update apt-get install -y --force-yes docker-engine service docker start

Run Docker

docker run hello-world docker info docker version Installation <https://www.docker.com/products/docker-toolbox>

Go to the Docker Toolbox page. Click the installer link to download. Install Docker Toolbox by double-clicking the installer. Docker: CentOS 7 Installation

Install Docker

make sure your existing yum packages are up-to-date. sudo yum -y update

add docker repo sudo tee /etc/yum.repos.d/docker.repo «'EOF' [dockerrepo]

name=Docker Repository baseurl=https://yum.dockerproject.org/repo/main/centos/releasever/enabled =

1gpgcheck = 1gpgkey = https://yum.dockerproject.org/gpgEOF

install the Docker package. `sudo yum install -y docker-engine`  
 start the Docker daemon `sudo service docker start`  
 verify `sudo docker run hello-world` Install Docker Compose  
`sudo yum install epel-release sudo yum install -y python-pip`  
`sudo pip install docker-compose` Docker 1.10.3  
 Kitematic Port Forwarding Open Virtualbox  
 Volumes Install Docker for Windows  
 Self Paced Training, Docker Fundamentals  
 Understand the architecture  
 Understand the architecture  
 Docker Compose and Networking  
<https://www.docker.com/>  
 Orchestrating Docker with Machine, Swarm and Compose

## 37.2 Dev

Create New Image Create new image by commit `docker commit <container ID> <yourname>/curl:1.0`  
 Build image `docker build -t ubuntu/test:1.0 .` `docker build -t ubuntu/test:1.0 --no-cache .` Import/Export Container 1 2 Export the contents of a container's filesystem as a tar archive  
`docker export [OPTIONS] CONTAINER` `docker export red_panda > latest.tar`  
`docker import file|URL|- [REPOSITORY[:TAG]]` `docker import http://example.com/exampleimage.tgz`  
`cat exampleimage.tgz | docker import - exampleimagelocal:new` Save/Load Image 3 4 Save one or more images to a tar archive  
`docker save [OPTIONS] IMAGE [IMAGE...]` `docker save busybox > busybox.tar.gz`  
`docker load [OPTIONS]` `docker load < busybox.tar.gz` Push Images to Docker Hub Login to docker hub `docker login --username=yourhubusername --email=youremail@company.com`  
 push `docker push [repo:tag]`  
 tag an image into a repository `docker tag [OPTIONS] IMAGE[:TAG] [REGISTRYHOST/][USERNAME/]NAME[:TAG]` Windows 5 Useful Docker Tips and Tricks on Windows  
 Commandline Reference: export  
 Commandline Reference: import  
 Commandline Reference: save  
 Commandline Reference: load

## 37.3 Dockerfile

Build a song with Dockerfile  
 A dockerfile is a configuration file that contains instructions for building a Docker image.  
 Provides a more effective way to build images compared to using `docker commit`  
 Easily fits into your continuous integration and deployment process. Command Line  
 'FROM' instruction specifies what the base image should be FROM java:7

‘RUN’ instruction specifies a command to execute RUN apt-get update apt-get install -y curl vim openjdk-7-jdk

CMD Defines a default command to execute when a container is created CMD ["ping", "127.0.0.1", "-c", "30"]

ENTRYPOINT Defines the command that will run when a container is executed ENTRYPOINT ["ping"] Volumes

Configuration Files and Directories\*\*

COPY <src>... <dest> COPY hom\* /mydir/ adds all files starting with "hom" COPY hom?.txt /mydir/ ? is replaced with any single character, e.g., "home.txt" Networking

Ports still need to be mapped when container is executed EXPOSE Configures which ports a container will listen on at runtime FROM ubuntu:14.04 RUN apt-get update RUN apt-get install -y nginx

EXPOSE 80 443

CMD ["nginx", "-g", "daemon off;"] 2.4 Linking Containers Example: Web app container and Database container

Linking is a communication method between containers which allows them to securely transfer data from one to another

Source and recipient containers Recipient containers have access to data on source containers Links are established based on container names Create a Link Create the source container first Create the recipient container and use the –link option

Best practice - give your containers meaningful names

Create the source container using the postgres docker run -d –name database postgres

Create the recipient container and link it docker run -d -P –name website –link database:db nginx Uses of Linking

Containers can talk to each other without having to expose ports to the host Essential for micro service application architecture Example: Container with the Tomcat running Container with the MySQL running Application on Tomcat needs to connect to MySQL Operating Systems for Docker 1 2 Operating System Features CoreOS Service Discovery, Cluster management, Auto-updates CoreOS is designed for security, consistency, and reliability. Instead of installing packages via yum or apt, CoreOS uses Linux containers to manage your services at a higher level of abstraction. A single service’s code and all dependencies are packaged within a container that can be run on one or many CoreOS machines The New Minimalist Operating Systems

Top 5 operating systems for your Docker infrastructure

## 37.4 Container

Lifecycle docker create creates a container but does not start it. docker rename allows the container to be renamed. docker run creates and starts a container in one operation. docker rm deletes a container. docker update updates a container’s resource limits. Starting and Stopping docker start starts a container so it is running. docker stop stops a running container. docker restart stops and starts a container. docker pause pauses a running container, "freezing" it in place. docker unpause will unpause a running container. docker wait blocks

until running container stops. `docker kill` sends a `SIGKILL` to a running container. `docker attach` will connect to a running container. `Info docker ps` shows running containers. `docker logs` gets logs from container. (You can use a custom log driver, but `logs` is only available for `json-file` and `* journald` in 1.10). `docker inspect` looks at all the info on a container (including IP address). `docker events` gets events from container. `docker port` shows public facing port of container. `docker top` shows running processes in container. `docker stats` shows containers' resource usage statistics. `docker diff` shows changed files in the container's FS. Import / Export `docker cp` copies files or folders between a container and the local filesystem. `docker export` turns container filesystem into tarball archive stream to `STDOUT`. Example

```
docker cp foo.txt mycontainer:/foo.txt docker cp mycontainer:/foo.txt foo.txt
```

Note that `docker cp` is not new in Docker 1.8. In older versions of Docker, the `docker cp` command only allowed copying files from a container to the host

Executing Commands `docker exec` to execute a command in container. To enter a running container, attach a new shell process to a running container called `foo`

```
docker exec -it foo /bin/bash. Suggest Readings: docker cheatsheet
```

## 37.5 Compose

Compose a symphony

Compose is a tool for defining and running multi-container Docker applications. With Compose, you use a Compose file to configure your application's services. Then, using a single command, you create and start all the services from your configuration. To learn more about all the features of Compose see the list of features. Docker Compose Describes the components of an application

Box your component

```
.component/ docker-compose.yml app-1/ app/ file-1 file-2 Docker-
file run.sh app-2/ app/ file-1 file-2 Dockerfile run.sh Example docker-
compose.yml example from docker-birthday-3 3
```

```
version: "2"
```

```
services: voting-app: build: ./voting-app/. volumes: - ./voting-app:/app ports: -
"5000:80" networks: - front-tier - back-tier
```

```
result-app: build: ./result-app/. volumes: - ./result-app:/app ports: - "5001:80"
networks: - front-tier - back-tier
```

```
worker: image: manomarks/worker networks: - back-tier
```

```
redis: image: redis:alpine container_name : redisports : ["6379"] networks :
-back - tier
```

```
db: image: postgres:9.4 container_name : dbvolumes : -"db-data : /var/lib/postgresql/data" networks :
-back - tier
```

```
volumes: db-data:
```

```
networks: front-tier: back-tier: Networks network_mode, ports, external_hosts, link, net
```

```
network_mode : "bridge" network_mode : "host" network_mode : "service : [service_name]" network_mode :
```

```
"container : [containername/id]" VolumesOpsrebuildyourimagesdocker-composebuild
```

```
build or rebuild services docker-compose build [SERVICE...] docker-compose
```

```
build --no-cache database
```

```
start all the containers docker-compose up -d docker-compose up
```

stops the containers `docker-compose stop [CONTAINER]` Keep a container running in compose 2

You can use one of those lines

command: "top" command: "tail -f /dev/null" command: "sleep infinity" Docker Compose Files Version 2

github issue, Keep a container running in compose

`docker-compose.yml`

## 37.6 Swarm

Docker Swarm is native clustering for Docker. It turns a pool of Docker hosts into a single, virtual Docker host. Because Docker Swarm serves the standard Docker API, any tool that already communicates with a Docker daemon can use Swarm to transparently scale to multiple hosts 1

Architecture 2

Swarm Manager: Docker Swarm has a Master or Manager, that is a pre-defined Docker Host, and is a single point for all administration. Currently only a single instance of manager is allowed in the cluster. This is a SPOF for high availability architectures and additional managers will be allowed in a future version of Swarm with 598.

Swarm Nodes: The containers are deployed on Nodes that are additional Docker Hosts. Each Swarm Node must be accessible by the manager, each node must listen to the same network interface (TCP port). Each node runs a node agent that registers the referenced Docker daemon, monitors it, and updates the discovery backend with the node's status. The containers run on a node.

Scheduler Strategy: Different scheduler strategies (binpack, spread, and random) can be applied to pick the best node to run your container. The default strategy is spread which optimizes the node for least number of running containers. There are multiple kinds of filters, such as constraints and affinity. This should allow for a decent scheduling algorithm.

Node Discovery Service: By default, Swarm uses hosted discovery service, based on Docker Hub, using tokens to discover nodes that are part of a cluster. However etcd, consul, and zookeeper can be also be used for service discovery as well. This is particularly useful if there is no access to Internet, or you are running the setup in a closed network. A new discovery backend can be created as explained here. It would be useful to have the hosted Discovery Service inside the firewall and 660 will discuss this.

Standard Docker API: Docker Swarm serves the standard Docker API and thus any tool that talks to a single Docker host will seamlessly scale to multiple hosts now. That means if you were using shell scripts using Docker CLI to configure multiple Docker hosts, the same CLI would can now talk to Swarm cluster and Docker Swarm will then act as proxy and run it on the cluster.

Create Swarm Simple Swarm Swarm with CentOS Swarm with Windows Swarm and Compose 5 Create `docker-compose.yml` file

Example

`wget https://docs.docker.com/swarm/swarm_atscale/docker-compose.yml` Discovery 4

Scheduling 3 Docker Swarm: CentOS Prerequisites Docker 1.10.3 CentOS 7

Create cluster 1 Receipts: consult

Configure daemon in each host 6



```

Edit /etc/systemd/system/docker.service.d/docker.conf
[Service] ExecStart= ExecStart=/usr/bin/docker daemon -H fd:// -D -H tcp://<nodeip>:
2375 --cluster --store = consul : // < consulip> : 8500 --cluster --
advertise =< nodeip> : 2375Restartdocker
systemctl daemon-reload systemctl restart docker Verify docker run with config
ps aux | grep docker | grep -v grep Run cluster
In discovery host
run consul docker run -d -p 8500:8500 --name=consul progrium/consul -server
-bootstrap In swarm manage host
run swarm master docker run -d -p 2376:2375 swarm manage consul://<consulip>:
8500/swarmInswarmnodehost
open 2375 port firewall-cmd --get-active-zones firewall-cmd --zone=public --add-
port=2375/tcp --permanent firewall-cmd --reload
run swarm node docker run -d swarm join --addr=<nodeip> : 2375consul : // <
consulip> : 8500/swarmQuestion : Whymanagerandconsulcannotruninthesamehost?(becausedocker-
proxy?)
Verify 2
manage docker -H :2376 info export DOCKER_HOST = tcp : // < ip> :
12375dockerinfodockerrun -d -Predis
debug a swarm docker swarm --debug manage consul://<consulip> : 8500DockerSwarm :
SimpleSwarmSimpleSwarminonenodewithtoken1Changefilevi/etc/default/docker
DOCKER_OPTS = "--Htcp : //0.0.0.0 : 2375-Hunix : ///var/run/docker.sock"
Restart docker service docker restart
create swarm token docker run --rm swarm create > tokenid
Run swarm node docker run -d swarm join --addr=ip:2375 token://tokeniddockerps
Run swarm manager docker run -d -p 12375:2375 swarm manage token://tokenid
Swarm info docker -H :12375 info
export DOCKER_HOST = tcp : //ip : 12375dockerinfodockerrun-d-PredisDockerSwarm :
WindowsPrerequisitesDocker1.10.3GiithiuvchythDockerSwarm
Docker-swarm, Cannot connect to the docker engine endpoint
Docker Swarm Part 3: Scheduling
Docker Swarm Part 2: Discovery
Deploy the application
Configuring and running Docker on various distributions

```

## 37.7 UCP

Docker Universal Control Plane

Docker Universal Control Plane provides an on-premises, or virtual private cloud (VPC) container management solution for Docker apps and infrastructure regardless of where your applications are running.

[embed]<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=woDzgqtZZKc>[/embed]

## 37.8 Labs

Lab 1:

1. Create a container from an Ubuntu image and run a bash terminal docker run -it ubuntu /bin/bash
2. Inside the container install curl apt-get install curl

3. Exit the container terminal Ctrl-P 4. Run 'docker ps -a' and take note of your container ID 5. Save the container as a new image. For the repository name use <yourname>/curl. Tag the image as 1.0 6. Run 'docker images' and verify that you can see your new image Lab 2: Run Ubuntu

FROM ubuntu:14.04 RUN apt-get update apt-get install -y curl vim 1. Go into the test folder and open your Dockerfile from the previous exercise

2. Add the following line to the end CMD ["ping", "127.0.0.1", "-c", "30"]

3. Build the image docker build -t <yourname>/testimage:1.1 .

4. Execute a container from the image and observe the output docker run <yourname>/testimage:1.1

5. Execute another container from the image and specify the echo command docker run <yourname>/testimage:1.1 echo "hello world"

6. Observe how the container argument overrides the CMD instruction Lab:

1) In your home directory, create a folder called test 2) In the test folder, create a file called 'Dockerfile' 3) In the file, specify to use Ubuntu 14.04 as the base image FROM ubuntu:14.04 4) Write an instruction to install curl and vim after an apt-get update RUN apt-get update apt-get install -y curl vim 5) Build an image from Dockerfile. Give it the repository <yourname>/testimage and tag it as 1.0 docker build -t johnnytu/testimage:1.0 . 6) Create a container using your newly build image and verify that curl and vim are installed. Lab: Run a container and get Terminal Access

\* Create a container using the ubuntu image and connect to STDIN and a terminal docker run -i -t ubuntu /bin/bash \* In your container, create a new user using your first and last name as the username addusername username \* Exit the container exit \* Notice how the container shutdown \* Once again run: docker run -i -t ubuntu /bin/bash \* Try and find your user 'cat /etc/passwd' \* Notice that it does not exist. Lab: Run a web application inside a container

The -P flag to map container ports to host ports docker run -d -P tomcat:7 docker ps check your image details runing go to <server url>:<port number> verify that you can see the Tomcat page Lab Create a Docker Hub Account

Lab Push Images to Docker Hub

Login to docker hub *docker login --username = yourhubusername --email = your\_email@company.com Password : WARNING : login credentials saved in C : Docker.json Login Succeeded*

Use 'docker push' command docker push [repo:tag]

Local repo must have same name and tag as the Docker Hub repo

Used to rename a local image repository before pushing to Docker Hub docker

tag [image ID] [repo:tag] docker tag [local repo:tag] [Docker Hub repo:tag]

> tag image with ID (trainingteam/testexample is the name of repository on Docker hub) docker tag edfc212de17b trainingteam/testexample:1.0

> tag image using the local repository tag docker tag johnnytu/testimage:1.5 trainingteam/testexample

## 37.9 GUI

Environment

Ubuntu 14.04 Docker Engine 1.11 note: I can't make it run on CentOS.

Dockerfile 1 [code]

Base docker image FROM debian:sid MAINTAINER Jessica Frazelle jess@docker.com

```

ADD https://dl.google.com/linux/direct/google-talkplugin_current_amd64.deb/src/google-
talkplugin_current_amd64.deb
Install Chrome RUN echo 'deb http://httpredir.debian.org/debian testing main'
» /etc/apt/sources.list apt-get update apt-get install -y ca-certificates curl
hicolor-icon-theme libgl1-mesa-dri libgl1-mesa-glx libv4l-0 -t testing fonts-
symbola --no-install-recommends curl -sSL https://dl.google.com/linux/linux_signing_key.pub|apt-
keyadd -echo"deb[arch = amd64]http://dl.google.com/linux/chrome/deb/stablemain" >
/etc/apt/sources.list.d/google.list apt-get update apt-get install -y google-
chrome-stable --no-install-recommends dpkg -i /src/google-talkplugin_current_amd64.deb' apt-
get purge --auto-remove -y curl rm -rf /var/lib/apt/lists/ rm -rf /src/.deb
COPY local.conf /etc/fonts/local.conf
RUN rm /etc/apt/sources.list.d/google-chrome.list
RUN apt-get update RUN apt-get install -y libcanna-gtk-module RUN apt-
get install -y dbus libdbus-1-dev libxml2-dev dbus-x11
Autorun chrome ENTRYPOINT [ "google-chrome" ] CMD [ "-user-data-dir=/data"
] [/code]
Build Image [code] docker build -t chrome . [/code]
Docker Run [code] xhost + docker run -it --net host --cpuset-cpus 0 -v /tmp/.X11-
unix:/tmp/.X11-unix -e DISPLAY=unixDISPLAY -v HOME/chrome/data/Downloads:/root/Downloads
-v HOME/chrome/data/ : /data-v/dev/shm : /dev/shm --device/dev/sndchrome-
-user - data - dir = /datawww.google.com[/code]
Known Issue Issue 1: Failed to load module "canna-gtk-module" 2
[code] Gtk-Message: Failed to load module "canna-gtk-module" [/code]
Issue 2: Chrome crash 3
Solution: add -v /dev/shm:/dev/shm

```

- <https://hub.docker.com/r/jess/chrome/> /dockerfile/
- <http://fabiorehm.com/blog/2014/09/11/running-gui-apps-with-docker/comment-2515573749>

## Chương 38

# Lean

View online <http://magizbox.com/training/lean/site/>

Lean startup is a method for developing businesses and products first proposed in 2008 by Eric Ries. Based on his previous experience working in several U.S. startups, Ries claims that startups can shorten their product development cycles by adopting a combination of business-hypothesis-driven experimentation, iterative product releases, and what he calls validated learning. Ries' overall claim is that if startups invest their time into iteratively building products or services to meet the needs of early customers, they can reduce the market risks and sidestep the need for large amounts of initial project funding and expensive product launches and failures.

### 38.1 Lean Canvas

### 38.2 Workflow

Life's too short to build something nobody wants. What separates successful startups from unsuccessful ones is that they find a plan that works before running out of resources.

**Build-Measure-Learn** The fundamental activity of a startup is to turn ideas into products, measure how customers respond, and then learn whether to pivot or persevere. All successful startup processes should be geared to accelerate that feedback loop.

**Step 1: Document your Plan A.** Writing down the initial vision using Lean Canvas and then sharing it with at least one other person

**Step 2: Identify the Riskiest Parts Formulate Falsifiable Hypotheses**

Falsifiable Hypothesis = [Specific Repeatable Action] will [Expected Measurable Action] The biggest risk is building something nobody wants. The risks can be divided in:

**Stage 1: Problem/Solution Fit.** Do I have a problem worth solving?

Answer these questions:

Is it something customers want? (must-have) Will they pay for it? If not, who will? (viable) Can it be solved? (feasible) **Stage 2: Product/market Fit.** Have I built something people want?"

Qualitative metrics (interviews) Quantitative metrics for measuring product/-market fit. Stage 3: Scale. How do I accelerate growth?

After product/market fit, raise a big round of funding to scale the business.

Traction is needed! Seek External advice and ask specific questions.

Systematically test your Plan. Based on the scientific method run experiments.

First build hypothesis that can be easily disproved and use artifacts in front of customers to “measure” their response using qualitative and quantitative data to derive “learning” to validate or refute the hypothesis.

The Lean Startup is also about being efficient. In all the stages we can take actions to be more efficient: eliminate don’t-needs at the MVP, deploy continuously, make feedback easy for customers, don’t push for features, etc.

The Lean Startup methodology is strongly rooted in the scientific method, and running experiments is a key activity. Your job isn’t just building the best solution, but owning the entire business model and making all the pieces fit.

### 38.3 Validated Learning

Startups exist not to make stuff, make money, or serve customers. They exist to learn how to build a sustainable business. This learning can be validated scientifically, by running experiments that allow us to test each element of our vision.

# Tài liệu tham khảo

Goodfellow, Ian / Bengio, Yoshua / Courville, Aaron (2016): *Deep Learning*. , MIT Press.

Mitchell, Thomas M. (1997): *Machine Learning*. New York, NY, USA, McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1 Auflage.

Nguyễn Tiến Dũng, Đỗ Đức Thái (2015): *Nhập môn hiện đại: Xác suất và thống kê*. , Tủ sách SPUTNIK, first Auflage.

# Chỉ mục

- bài toán chờ xe buýt, 155
- convolution, 232
- dữ liệu chơi tennis, 158
- deep feedforward networks, 230
- hàm chỉ báo, 158
- kì vọng, 151
- maximum a posteriori, *Xem*  
phương pháp hậu nghiệm  
cực đại
- maximum likelihood, *Xem* phương  
pháp hợp lý cực đại
- phân phối đều, 155
- phương pháp hậu nghiệm cực đại,  
158
- phương pháp hợp lý cực đại, 157
- phương sai, 152

# Ghi chú

01/11/2017 Thích python vì nó quá đơn giản (và quá đẹp).	20
01/2018: Pycharm là trình duyệt ưa thích của mình trong suốt 3 năm vừa rồi.	58
19/01/2018 Nay tìm được khóa CS 109 của bác Chris Piech quá hay	140
17/01/2018 Lòng vòng thế nào hôm nay lại tìm được blog của bạn Đỗ Minh Hải, rất hay	153
27/12/2017: Lại dính lỗi không thể login. Lần này thì lại phải xóa bạn KDE đi. Kể cũng hơn buồn. Nhưng nhất quyết phải enable được tính năng Windows Spreading (hay đại loại thế). Hóa ra khi ubuntu bị lỗi không có launcher hay toolbar là do bạn unity plugin chưa được enable. Oái. Sao người hiền lành như mình suốt ngày bị mấy lỗi vớ vẩn thế không biết.	219
20/11/2017: Hôm nay đen thật, dính lỗi login loop. Fix mãi mới được. Thôi cũng kệ. Cảm giác bạn KDE này đỡ bị lỗi ibus-unkey hơn bạn GNOME. Hôm nay cũng đổi bạn zsh theme. Chọn mãi chẳng được bạn nào ổn ổn, nhưng không thể chịu được kiểu suggest lỗi nữa rồi. Đôi khi thấy default vẫn là tốt nhất.	219
21/11/2017: Sau một ngày trải nghiệm KDE, cảm giác giao diện mượt hơn GNOME. Khi overview windows với nhiều màn hình tốt và trực quan hơn. Đặc biệt là không bị lỗi ibus nữa. Đổi terminal cũng cảm giác ổn ổn. Không bị lỗi suggest nữa.	219
24/11/2017 - Từ hôm nay, mỗi ngày sẽ ghi chú một phần (rất rất nhỏ) về Deep Learning	230
22/11/2017 - Phải nói quyển này hơi nặng so với mình. Nhưng thôi cứ cố gắng vậy.	230
28/01/2018 Hôm nay thấy khoá này hay quá Build Your Own Chatbot Cognitive Class CB0103EN	244
24/01/2018 Hôm qua vừa nhận kèo cà phê với CEO của Rabiloo. Thấy thú vị quá. Hôm nay hỏi anh Vũ qua qua về chatbot. Hehe	244
01/11/2017 Không biết mình có phải làm nghiên cứu không nữa? Vừa kiếm phát triển, vừa đọc paper mỗi ngày. Thôi, cứ (miễn cưỡng) cho là nghiên cứu viên đi.	249
Hơi bị hay Ai cũng có thể trở thành giảng viên giỏi nếu của anh Cường tại techmaster. Tưởng phải mua, hóa ra lại được set free. A hihi.	252
27/01/2018: Hôm nay xem Shark Tank Việt Nam có vụ nói về các yếu tố để thành công hay quá.	270