

oops/cn/OS

Here is a **complete interview question bank for OOPS, Operating Systems (OS), and Computer Networks (CN)** — exactly what is asked for **1–3 years full-stack developer roles**.

OOPS (Object-Oriented Programming)

Fundamentals

1) What is OOP? Why do we need it?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

OOP (Object-Oriented Programming) is a programming approach where software is organized around **objects**—real-world entities that contain **data (attributes)** and **behavior (methods)**.

It allows us to build applications as a collection of interacting objects rather than writing logic in a procedural manner.

■ When/Why is it used

- To build **modular, maintainable, scalable** applications
- To reduce code duplication and improve reusability
- To represent real-world problems naturally (User, Product, Payment...)
- For clean architecture in large projects (layers, services, models)
- To support principles like abstraction, encapsulation, inheritance, and polymorphism

■ Example

A Banking system:

- Customer → object
- Account → object

- Loan → object

Each object has its own properties and operations.

■ Short summary line

OOP models software as interacting objects and helps create maintainable, reusable, and scalable applications.

2) Explain the 4 pillars of OOP.

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

The 4 pillars of OOP define the fundamental building blocks for object-oriented design.

1. Encapsulation (Data Hiding)

Binding data + methods inside a class and controlling access using access modifiers (private, public).

Prevents unwanted modification.

Example:

```
public class BankAccount
{
    private double balance; // hidden
    public void Deposit(double amount) ⇒ balance += amount;
}
```

2. Abstraction (Hiding Complexity)

Showing only essential features and hiding internal logic.

Example:

```
account.Transfer(500);
```

We don't see validation logic, DB calls, etc.

3. Inheritance (Reusability)

Creating a new class from an existing class.

Example:

```
class Employee {}  
class Manager : Employee {}
```

4. Polymorphism (Many Forms)

Same method behaves differently based on the object.

Example:

Overriding:

```
public override void CalculateSalary() { }
```

■ When/Why used

- Encapsulation → secure data
- Abstraction → simplify usage
- Inheritance → reuse base logic
- Polymorphism → flexible behavior

■ Short summary line

The 4 pillars—encapsulation, abstraction, inheritance, and polymorphism—form the foundation of object-oriented design.

3) What is Class and Object?

Example.

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Class → Blueprint or template

Object → Actual instance created from the class

Class defines properties + behavior; object uses them.

■ When/Why used

- Class helps structure code

- Objects hold real data and perform actions
- Essential for organizing layers (Models, DTOs, Services in .NET/Java)

■ Example

```
public class Car
{
    public string Brand;
    public void Drive() { }
}

// Object
Car c1 = new Car();
c1.Brand = "BMW";
c1.Drive();
```

■ Short summary line

Class is a blueprint; object is a real instance created from that blueprint.

✓ 4) Difference Between Abstraction vs Encapsulation

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

These two principles are often confused but are fundamentally different:

Feature	Abstraction	Encapsulation
Purpose	Hide complexity	Hide data
Focus	What object does	How object stores data
Achieved using	Abstract classes, interfaces	Access modifiers, properties
Example	<code>List.Add()</code> hides internal logic	Private fields with getters/setters

■ When/Why used

● Abstraction

Used when we want to expose only required functionality.

Example: Service Interfaces (`IUserService` , `IOrderService`).

Encapsulation

Used to protect data from outside modification.

Example: Private fields in DTOs or Models.

■ Example

```
// Encapsulation
private int salary;

// Abstraction
public abstract class Payment
{
    public abstract void Process();
}
```

■ Short summary line

Abstraction hides implementation; encapsulation hides data and bundles it with behavior.

5) Inheritance — Types and Use Cases

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Inheritance allows one class to **reuse** and **extend** another class's properties/methods.

It reduces duplication and supports logical hierarchy.

■ Types of Inheritance

1. Single Inheritance

One parent → one child

```
class Employee {}
class Manager : Employee {}
```

2. Multilevel Inheritance

Parent → Child → Subchild

```
class A {}  
class B : A {}  
class C : B {}
```

3. Hierarchical Inheritance

One parent → many children

```
class Shape {}  
class Circle : Shape {}  
class Square : Shape {}
```

4. Multiple Inheritance

One child inherits from multiple parents

✗ Not allowed in C# / Java for classes

✓ Supported using interfaces

5. Hybrid Inheritance

Combination of multiple + multilevel

✓ Possible using interfaces

■ When/Why used

✓ Reuse common logic

Example: BaseEntity with `CreatedAt` , `UpdatedAt` .

✓ Build clean hierarchies

Example:

`Vehicle` → `Car`, `Truck`, `Bike` .

✓ Override behavior using polymorphism

Example:

Different tax calculation for different employee roles.

■ Example

```
public class Animal
{
    public virtual void Sound() {}
}

public class Dog : Animal
{
    public override void Sound() ⇒ Console.WriteLine("Bark");
}
```

■ Short summary line

Inheritance promotes code reusability, hierarchy creation, and polymorphic behavior.

6) Compile-time vs Runtime Polymorphism

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Polymorphism means **one function, many forms**.

It occurs in two ways:

Compile-Time Polymorphism (Early Binding)

Decision is made at **compile time**.

Achieved using **method overloading**.

Runtime Polymorphism (Late Binding)

Decision is made at **runtime**.

Achieved using **method overriding** via inheritance.

■ When/Why used

Compile-Time Polymorphism

- Improve readability
- Same method name for different parameters

- Helpful in utility/helper classes

✓ Runtime Polymorphism

- Implement dynamic behavior
- Override methods in child classes
- Used in service architecture (e.g., PaymentService → UPI/Card/COD)

■ Example

```
// Compile-time polymorphism
public int Add(int a, int b) ⇒ a + b;
public int Add(int a, int b, int c) ⇒ a + b + c;

// Runtime polymorphism
public class Animal { public virtual void Sound() {} }
public class Dog : Animal { public override void Sound() ⇒ Console.WriteLine("Bark"); }
```

■ Short summary line

Overloading = compile-time polymorphism; overriding = runtime polymorphism.

✓ 7) Method Overloading vs Overriding

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Feature	Overloading	Overriding
When decided	Compile time	Runtime
Where used	Same class	Parent-child classes
Purpose	Multiple versions of same method	Change base class behavior
Parameters	Must differ	Must be same
Keywords	No keyword	<code>override</code> (C#)

■ When/Why used

✓ Overloading

- For flexible APIs
- Same method name with different inputs
- Example: `Print(int)` and `Print(string)`

✓ Overriding

- To provide custom behavior
- Useful in polymorphism
- Example: `CalculateTax()` different for Employee and Manager

■ Example

```
// Overloading
void Log(string message)
void Log(string message, int level)

// Overriding
class Base { public virtual void Show() {} }
class Derived : Base { public override void Show() {} }
```

■ Short summary line

Overloading changes parameters; overriding changes behavior.

✓ 8) Can we overload constructor? Why use it?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Yes — constructor overloading means having **multiple constructors with different parameters** in the same class.

■ When/Why used

- To provide **different ways to initialize an object**
- To set default values
- To handle optional parameters cleanly
- To improve usability and flexibility

■ Example

```
public class User
{
    public string Name;
    public int Age;

    public User()      { Name = "Guest"; Age = 0; }
    public User(string name)  { Name = name; }
    public User(string name, int age)
    {
        Name = name;
        Age = age;
    }
}
```

■ Short summary line

Yes, constructors can be overloaded to create objects in multiple flexible ways.

9) What is **this** keyword?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

this is a keyword that refers to the **current object** of the class.

Used to access instance fields, methods, and constructors.

■ When/Why used

- To differentiate between class fields and method parameters
- To call one constructor from another (**this()**)
- To pass current object as a parameter

■ Example

```
public class Employee
{
    private string name;
```

```
public Employee(string name)
{
    this.name = name; // using this to refer to field
}
}
```

Constructor chaining:

```
public Employee() : this("Unknown") {}
```

■ Short summary line

this refers to the current object and is used for field access and constructor chaining.

10) What is **super** keyword?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

super (Java) / **base** (C#) refers to the **parent class**.

It is used to access parent class fields, methods, or constructors.

■ When/Why used

- To call parent constructor
- To reuse parent logic
- To avoid code duplication
- To override methods but still call parent implementation

■ Example (C# using **base**)

```
public class Parent
{
    public Parent() { Console.WriteLine("Parent constructor"); }
    public virtual void Display() { Console.WriteLine("Parent display"); }
}

public class Child : Parent
{

```

```
public Child() : base() {} // calling Parent constructor
public override void Display()
{
    base.Display(); // calling Parent display
    Console.WriteLine("Child display");
}
}
```

■ Short summary line

super / base refers to the parent class and is used to call parent constructors and methods.

Advanced & Interview-Focused

1) Abstract Class vs Interface

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Both are used to achieve **abstraction**, but they differ in purpose:

Abstract Class

- Can contain **abstract + non-abstract** methods
- Can have **fields, constructors, and default implementations**
- Supports **single inheritance**

Interface

- Defines **only behavior/contract**
- Contains only **abstract methods** (C# also allows default/static methods)
- Supports **multiple inheritance**

■ When/Why used

Use **Abstract Class** when:

- You want a common base class with shared code
- You want to enforce partial abstraction

- Child classes share common state or fields

Example: `BaseController` , `BaseEntity`

✓ Use **Interface** when:

- You want to define a contract
- Multiple unrelated classes must follow the same behavior

Example: `ILogger` , `IRepository` , `IDisposable`

■ Example

```
public abstract class Animal
{
    public abstract void Sound();
    public void Sleep() { }
}

public interface IWalk
{
    void Walk();
}
```

■ Short summary line

Abstract class = shared base with partial implementation, **Interface** = contract for multiple unrelated classes.

✓ 2) Multiple Inheritance — Supported or Not?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Multiple inheritance means a class can inherit from **more than one parent class**.

In C# and Java:

✗ **Multiple inheritance of classes is NOT allowed.**

But:

✓ **Multiple inheritance using interfaces IS allowed.**

■ When/Why used

Avoid ambiguity and complexity from multiple parents (diamond problem).

Use interfaces for behavior composition.

■ Example

```
public interface IRun { void Run(); }  
public interface IFly { void Fly(); }  
  
public class Bird : IRun, IFly { }
```

■ Short summary line

Classes cannot have multiple parents, but they can implement multiple interfaces.

3) Diamond Problem — How Solved?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Diamond Problem occurs when:

Two parent classes inherit from the same base class →

A child class inherits both parents →

Compiler becomes confused about which parent's method to use.

Since **multiple class inheritance is not allowed**, C# and Java avoid this problem entirely.

In languages that allow it (C++), virtual inheritance solves it.

■ When/Why used

- To prevent ambiguity in method resolution
- To avoid complexity in class hierarchies

■ Example (Why C# avoids it)

```
// Not allowed in C#  
class A { }  
class B : A { }
```

```
class C : A {}  
class D : B, C {} // error
```

■ Short summary line

Diamond problem happens due to multiple class inheritance—C# solves it by not allowing multiple class inheritance.

4) Access Modifiers — public / private / protected / internal

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Access modifiers control **visibility** of classes and members.

public

Accessible everywhere.

private

Accessible only within the same class.

protected

Accessible in the same class + derived classes.

internal

Accessible only within the **same assembly/project**.

protected internal

Accessible within same assembly **OR** derived classes.

private protected

Accessible within same class **OR** derived classes in same assembly.

■ When/Why used

- private → to hide data
- protected → allow child classes to use base members
- internal → expose APIs inside project only

- public → expose behavior to entire application

■ Example

```
public class BankAccount
{
    private double balance;      // hidden
    protected void Calculate() { } // child classes can access
    internal int id;             // same project
}
```

■ Short summary line

Access modifiers decide where a class/member is visible, ensuring security and good design.

5) Static vs Non-static Methods

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Static Methods

- Belong to the class, NOT objects
- Called using class name
- Cannot access instance members
- Memory allocated once

Non-static Methods

- Belong to object instances
- Can access both static & instance members

■ When/Why used

✓ Use static when:

- Method does not depend on object data
- Utility, helper, factory methods
- Example: `Math.Max()` , Logger utilities

✓ Use non-static when:

- Behavior depends on object-specific data
- Need to work with instance fields
- Example: `account.Deposit(100);`

■ Example

```
public class Calculator
{
    public static int Add(int a, int b) ⇒ a + b; // no instance needed
    public int Multiply(int a, int b) ⇒ a * b; // object-specific behavior
}
```

■ Short summary line

Static methods belong to class; non-static methods belong to objects and access instance data.

✓ 6) What is a Pure Virtual Function / Abstract Method?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

A **pure virtual function** (C++) or **abstract method** (C#, Java) is a method that has **no implementation** in the base class and **must be implemented** by derived classes.

It forces child classes to provide their own behavior.

■ When/Why is it used

- To achieve full abstraction
- To enforce a contract among child classes
- To define a common method name but allow different implementations
- Used in frameworks, services, interfaces, and base classes

■ Example

```
public abstract class Shape
{
    public abstract void Draw(); // abstract method
}

public class Circle : Shape
{
    public override void Draw() ⇒ Console.WriteLine("Drawing Circle");
}
```

■ Short summary line

Abstract methods define a contract with no implementation—child classes must override them.

✓ 7) IS-A vs HAS-A Relationship

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

● IS-A (Inheritance Relationship)

Represents "**A is a type of B**"

Implemented using **inheritance**.

Example:

Manager IS-A Employee

● HAS-A (Composition/Aggregation)

Represents "**A has a B**"

Implemented using **object references inside classes**.

Example:

Car HAS-A Engine

■ When/Why used

✓ IS-A

- When child class is a **specialized version** of parent
- For reuse and polymorphism

✓ HAS-A

- For building complex objects from smaller objects
- Preferred over inheritance (more flexible)

■ Example

```
// IS-A
class Dog : Animal { }

// HAS-A
class Car
{
    Engine engine = new Engine();
}
```

■ Short summary line

IS-A means inheritance; HAS-A means composition—representing ownership or usage.

✓ 8) What is Object Composition?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Object Composition means creating complex classes by **combining objects of other classes** rather than using inheritance.

It is also known as **"HAS-A" relationship**.

■ When/Why used

- Preferred over inheritance because it avoids tight coupling
- Promotes reusability and flexibility
- Allows behavior change at runtime by replacing components
- Used in modern architectures (DI containers, service classes)

■ Example

```
public class Car
{
```

```
private Engine engine; // Car HAS-A Engine
public Car(Engine e) ⇒ engine = e;
}
```

■ Short summary line

Composition builds complex objects by using other objects, providing flexibility and loose coupling.

✓ 9) SOLID Principle — Explain Each Rule

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

SOLID is a set of 5 design principles that improve object-oriented design and make software maintainable.

● S — Single Responsibility Principle (SRP)

A class should have **one reason to change** (one responsibility).

Why: Avoids bloated classes.

Example:

`InvoiceService` (calculations) should not send emails → put email logic in `EmailService`.

● O — Open/Closed Principle (OCP)

Classes should be **open for extension, closed for modification**.

Why: Extend behavior without touching old code.

Example:

Use interfaces or strategy pattern to add new payment methods without modifying existing logic.

● L — Liskov Substitution Principle (LSP)

Child class should **replace** parent class without breaking functionality.

Why: Avoid runtime exceptions when using polymorphism.

Example:

If `Bird` has `Fly()`, `Penguin` should NOT inherit from `Bird` (because it cannot fly).

I — Interface Segregation Principle (ISP)

No class should be forced to implement **unnecessary methods**.

Why: Create smaller, focused interfaces.

Example:

Instead of `IWorker` with `Work` + `Eat`, create `IWorkable` and `IEatable`.

D — Dependency Inversion Principle (DIP)

High-level modules should not depend on low-level modules; both should depend on **abstractions**.

Why: Decoupling, flexibility, unit testing.

Example:

Use interfaces + DI container:

```
public class PaymentService
{
    private readonly IPaymentGateway _gateway;
    public PaymentService(IPaymentGateway gateway)
    {
        _gateway = gateway;
    }
}
```

■ Short summary line

SOLID improves code flexibility, maintainability, testability, and reduces coupling.

10) Cohesion vs Coupling — Which Is Preferred?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Cohesion

- How **focused** a class/module is
- High cohesion = class has **one purpose**
- Example: `EmailService` only sends emails

Coupling

- How much one class **depends on** another
- Low coupling = loose dependency
- Example: Using interfaces instead of concrete classes

■ When/Why used

✓ Prefer:

- **High cohesion**
- **Low coupling**

Why?

- Easier to maintain
- Better reuse
- Easier testing
- Better architecture

■ Example

```
// High cohesion, low coupling
public interface INotification { void Send(); }

public class EmailNotification : INotification
{
    public void Send() { }
}
```

■ Short summary line

High cohesion and low coupling produce clean, maintainable, and scalable software.

1) How OOPS fits in real project architecture?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

OOPS is the foundation for designing **layered, modular, and scalable** enterprise applications.

Modern backend applications (.NET/Java) use OOPS to break the system into components like:

- **Models (Entities, DTOs)**
- **Services (Business logic)**
- **Repositories (DB operations)**
- **Controllers (API layer)**

Each component is represented as **classes and objects**, and OOPS principles ensure separation, reusability, and testability.

■ When/Why is it used

- Controllers should NOT contain business logic → handled via abstraction
- Services should NOT talk directly to DB → handled via encapsulation + repositories
- Common rules should be reusable → inheritance
- Different implementations for same behavior → polymorphism
- Complex systems should hide internal details → abstraction in service/repository layers

Essential for:

- ✓ Enterprise APIs
 - ✓ Microservices
 - ✓ Domain-driven design
 - ✓ Clean architecture
-

■ Example / Real scenario (Your .NET Expense Tracker + BofA Project)

◆ Controller Layer (OOPS → abstraction + clean boundary)

```
public class ExpenseController : ControllerBase
{
    private readonly IExpenseService _service;
    public ExpenseController(IExpenseService service) { _service = service;
}

    public async Task<IActionResult> AddExpense(ExpenseDto dto)
    {
        await _service.AddExpense(dto);
        return Ok();
    }
}
```

Controller does NOT know how expense is stored → OOPS abstraction.

◆ Service Layer (OOPS → Abstraction + Polymorphism)

```
public class ExpenseService : IExpenseService
{
    private readonly IExpenseRepository _repo;

    public async Task AddExpense(ExpenseDto dto)
    {
        // business rules + validations
        await _repo.Add(dto);
    }
}
```

◆ Repository Layer (OOPS → Encapsulation + Composition)

```
public class ExpenseRepository : IExpenseRepository
{
    private readonly DbContext _ctx;

    public Task Add(ExpenseDto dto)
```



```
{  
    // all SQL or EF code is encapsulated here  
}  
}
```

■ Short summary line

OOPS organizes a real project into controllers, services, repositories, and models to keep code modular, reusable, and maintainable.

✓ 2) Where did you use abstraction in your project?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Abstraction hides unnecessary implementation details and exposes only required operations.

You work with **interfaces instead of concrete logic**, so high-level layers don't need to know how low-level code works.

■ When/Why is it used

- Hide database implementation from controllers
- Prevent exposing business rules
- Secure internal logic
- Allow easy testing + swapping implementations
- Reduce coupling
- Support dependency injection

■ Your project-specific examples (VERY GOOD FOR INTERVIEW)

◆ Abstraction in Service Layer

You exposed only *what* the service does, not *how* it does it.

```
public interface ITransactionService  
{
```

```
Task<bool> ProcessTransaction(TransactionDto dto);  
}
```

Controller uses this abstract contract → does NOT know payment validation logic or DB queries.

◆ Abstraction in Repository Layer

```
public interface IExpenseRepository  
{  
    Task AddExpense(Expense expense);  
}
```

Concrete class hides SQL/EF logic, so service layer interacts abstractly.

◆ Abstraction in Validation and Utilities

Example:

You created an abstraction for logging/error handling, while implementation changed between local → cloud.

■ Short summary line

You used abstraction by defining interfaces in service/repository layers, hiding internal logic from controllers and ensuring loose coupling.

✓ 3) Why do we use interface for service layer in .NET/Java?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Interfaces define *what* a class should do, not *how* it should do it.

Service layers use interfaces to allow flexible, loosely coupled architectures.

■ When/Why is it used

✓ 1. Loose Coupling

Controller depends on `IUserService` instead of `UserService`.

Easier to change implementation without breaking code.

✓ 2. Dependency Injection

DI containers (like .NET Core) work best with interfaces.

```
services.AddScoped<IUserService, UserService>();
```

✓ 3. Testability

Interfaces can be mocked:

```
var mock = new Mock<IUserService>();
```

✓ 4. Multiple Implementations

E.g., PaymentService could have:

- UPI implementation
- CreditCard implementation
- NetBanking implementation

✓ 5. Clean Architecture

Interfaces help maintain clear boundaries between layers.

■ Example

```
public interface IUserService
{
    Task<UserDto> GetUser(int id);
}

public class UserService : IUserService
{
    public Task<UserDto> GetUser(int id) { ... }
}
```

Controller depends only on the interface—not the implementation.

■ Short summary line

Interfaces give loose coupling, DI support, multiple implementations, and high testability in the service layer.

✓ 4) Factory Pattern vs Builder — In Which Scenario?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

● Factory Pattern

Used when **your program needs to decide which object to create** based on input/logic.

Factory = *object creation decision*.

● Builder Pattern

Used when **object construction is complex**, involving many steps or optional parameters.

Builder = *step-by-step object creation*.

■ When/Why used

✓ Use Factory when:

- You need to return different concrete classes

Example: `SMSNotification`, `EmailNotification`, `PushNotification`

- Object choice depends on input
- Want to avoid "newing" objects everywhere

Your real project example

Choosing fraud scoring algorithm:

```
IFraudChecker checker = FraudCheckerFactory.Create("RuleBased");
```

✓ Use Builder when:

- Object has **too many fields**

- Object needs validation between steps
- Many optional fields
- You want readable construction code

Your real project example

Building a complex SQL query report or request payload:

```
var request = new PaymentRequestBuilder()  
    .WithAmount(1000)  
    .WithCustomer("John")  
    .WithReference("XYZ")  
    .Build();
```

■ Short summary line

Factory chooses *which* object to create; Builder constructs *how* the object is built step-by-step.



OPERATING SYSTEM (OS)



Basics



1) What is an Operating System?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

An Operating System (OS) is a system software that acts as an **interface between the user and the hardware**.

It manages CPU, memory, storage, processes, and all input/output devices.

It ensures programs run smoothly by allocating resources and preventing conflicts.

■ When/Why is it used

- To manage hardware resources efficiently
- To run multiple applications safely
- To provide security and access control

- To handle process scheduling, memory allocation, file storage
- To provide UI/CLI for user interaction

■ Example

Windows, Linux, macOS, Android, iOS.

OS handles tasks like:

- Running your browser, VS Code, SQL Server
- Allocating RAM to apps
- Performing disk operations

■ Short summary line

OS manages hardware, provides an interface for users, and controls how programs run.

2) Types of OS — Batch, Multitasking, Real-time

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Different OS types are designed for different workloads and environments.

1. Batch Operating System

Executes jobs in **batches without user interaction**.

■ When/Why

- Used for data processing, payroll, billing
- Efficient for large, repetitive tasks
- No immediate user involvement

■ Example

Older IBM mainframe systems, nightly banking batch jobs.

2. Multitasking Operating System

Allows multiple tasks/processes to run **seemingly at the same time**.

■ When/Why

- For desktops/laptops
- Allows running Chrome + VS Code + Teams simultaneously
- Improves productivity

■ Example

Windows, Linux, macOS.

3. Real-Time Operating System (RTOS)

Responds to events **within strict time constraints**.

Guarantees "predictable response time."

■ When/Why

- Used where delays cannot be tolerated
- Mission-critical systems
- Embedded systems

■ Example

Pacemakers, automotive systems, robots, flight control systems.

■ Short summary line

Batch → No interaction, Multitasking → Many tasks, RTOS → Time-critical systems.

3) What is a Kernel?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Kernel is the **core component** of an Operating System.

It is responsible for interacting with hardware and managing system resources.

Think of the kernel as the **brain of the OS**.

■ When/Why is it used

- Manages processes (scheduling, switching)
- Allocates memory
- Controls device drivers
- Handles system calls

- Ensures security and protection

■ Types

- **Monolithic Kernel** (Linux): Large, high performance
- **Microkernel** (Minix): Smaller, modular, more secure
- **Hybrid Kernel** (Windows): Mix of both

■ Example

When a program tries to read a file:

Program → System Call → Kernel → Storage Device.

■ Short summary line

Kernel is the core of OS that manages CPU, memory, processes, and hardware interactions.

4) System Calls vs Library Calls

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

System Calls

Requests made by programs to the OS kernel.

They switch execution from **user mode to kernel mode**.

Examples:

- `read()`
- `write()`
- `open()`
- `fork()`
- `exec()`

Library Calls

Functions provided by programming libraries (C#, Java, Python).

They run completely in **user mode**.

Examples:

- `printf()`
 - `fopen()`
 - Math functions
 - String functions
-

■ When/Why used

✓ System Calls

- Needed when interacting with hardware
- Require OS privileges
- Slower due to mode switching

✓ Library Calls

- Faster
 - Just code inside a library
 - Sometimes internally they call system calls
-

■ Example

```
printf("hello");
```

This is a **library call**, but internally it uses a **system call** like `write()`.

Another example:

In .NET:

```
File.ReadAllText() → library call
```

Internally uses OS system calls to read from disk.

■ Short summary line

System calls interact with kernel; library calls are user-level functions built on top of system calls.

Processes & Threads

1) Process vs Thread

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

A **process** is an independent program in execution with its own memory.

A **thread** is the smallest unit of execution inside a process and shares the process's memory.

Process = big container

Thread = lightweight unit inside the process

■ When/Why used

✓ Process

- Heavy tasks
- Applications that must be isolated
- If one process crashes → others not affected

✓ Thread

- For parallelism inside the same application
 - Web servers use threads to handle multiple requests
 - Faster context switching
-

■ Example

- Opening Chrome = **Process**
 - Each Chrome tab = **Thread**
 - In .NET/Java: Each API request → thread from thread pool
-

■ Short summary line

Process is independent with separate memory; threads are lightweight units inside a process sharing memory.

2) PCB (Process Control Block) — What it contains?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

PCB (Process Control Block) is a **data structure in OS** that stores **all information about a process**.

OS uses PCB to manage & switch processes.

■ When/Why used

- To track the state of every process
 - Required for context switching
 - Helps OS resume execution from exact point
-

■ PCB Contains:

1. **Process ID (PID)**
 2. **Process state** (Ready/Running/Waiting...)
 3. **Program counter** (next instruction address)
 4. **CPU registers**
 5. **Memory info** (base/limit, page tables)
 6. **I/O status info**
 7. **CPU scheduling info** (priority, time used)
 8. **Open files list**
-

■ Example

When switching between VS Code and Chrome, OS saves each process's PCB so it can resume later without losing state.

■ Short summary line

PCB stores all necessary information about a process so OS can manage and resume it.

3) Context Switching — Why Needed?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Context switching is the process of **saving the state of currently running process** and **loading the state of another process**.

This allows multitasking.

■ When/Why used

- When CPU switches between processes/threads
- For multitasking OS
- To provide fair CPU time to all tasks
- During interrupts (I/O event, timer interrupt)

Without context switching, only one program could run at a time.

■ Example

- You type in Chrome → interrupt → OS switches to Slack notification → context switch → returns to Chrome
 - In servers: OS switches between multiple API requests (threads)
-

■ Short summary line

Context switching lets CPU save one process's state and load another, enabling multitasking.

4) Process States → New, Ready, Running, Waiting, Terminated

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

A process moves through different states during its lifetime.

■ Process Lifecycle

1. New

Process is created but not ready for execution.

2. Ready

Process is in memory, waiting for CPU.

3. Running

CPU is executing the process instructions.

4. Waiting (Blocked)

Process is waiting for some I/O event:

(ex: disk read, network response, user input)

5. Terminated

Process finished or killed.

■ When/Why used

- OS uses states to schedule processes efficiently
- Helps decide which process to give CPU time
- Required for round-robin, priority scheduling

■ Example

When your VS Code loads a file:

- Running → Waiting for disk → Running again → Terminated (operation completed)

■ Short summary line

A process moves through new → ready → running → waiting → terminated during its lifetime.

5) Multithreading vs Multiprocessing

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Multithreading

A single process contains **multiple threads** that share the same memory space.

Multiprocessing

Multiple **independent processes**, each with its own memory, run in parallel.

■ When/Why used

✓ Multithreading

- Lightweight

- Faster communication (shared memory)
- Best for I/O-bound tasks
- Common in servers (API requests handled via thread pool)

✓ Multiprocessing

- Heavy but more stable
- Processes do NOT affect each other
- Best for CPU-heavy work (ML, video processing)
- Avoids thread-locking issues because each process has its own memory

■ Example

- Chrome tabs → Threads inside Chrome process (multithreading)
- Running Chrome + VS Code + Postman → Different processes (multiprocessing)
- .NET Kestrel handling multiple API requests → Multithreading

■ Short summary line

Multithreading = many threads in one process; Multiprocessing = many independent processes running in parallel.

✓ 6) Thread Synchronization — Why Required?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Thread synchronization ensures that **shared data** is accessed safely when multiple threads try to read/write at the same time.

Without synchronization → **race condition** occurs.

■ When/Why used

- When multiple threads access the same variable
- To prevent inconsistent data and corruption
- To enforce order of execution

- To avoid race conditions

■ Example (Race condition)

Two threads updating bank balance simultaneously:

Without lock:

```
Thread1: read balance = 100
Thread2: read balance = 100
Thread1: writes 80
Thread2: writes 90
Final balance = 90 (incorrect)
```

Using lock:

```
lock(_lockObj)
{
    balance -= amount;
}
```

■ Short summary line

Thread synchronization prevents race conditions when multiple threads access shared data.

✓ 7) What is a Deadlock? 4 Conditions for Deadlock

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

A **deadlock** occurs when two or more processes/threads are **waiting forever** for each other, and none can proceed.

■ When/Why occurs

Mainly due to poor locking design or resources requested in wrong order.

■ Four Conditions of Deadlock (VERY IMPORTANT)

✓ 1. Mutual Exclusion

Resource cannot be shared.

Example: Printer, database row lock.

✓ 2. Hold and Wait

A thread holds one resource and waits for another.

✓ 3. No Preemption

Resource cannot be forcibly taken away.

✓ 4. Circular Wait

Thread A waits for Thread B → Thread B waits for Thread A.

■ Example

Thread1 locks Resource A → waiting for Resource B
Thread2 locks Resource B → waiting for Resource A

Both wait forever → deadlock.

■ Short summary line

Deadlock happens when mutual exclusion, hold-and-wait, no preemption, and circular wait occur simultaneously.

✓ 8) How Do You Prevent Deadlocks?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Deadlocks can be avoided by breaking at least **one** of the four deadlock conditions.

■ When/Why used

- In multithreaded systems
- Database systems
- Distributed systems
- API servers (thread pools)

■ Deadlock Prevention Techniques

✓ 1. Lock Ordering (most practical)

Acquire locks in **same global order**.

Example:

```
lock(resourceA)
{
    lock(resourceB)
    {
        // safe
    }
}
```

✓ 2. Use Timeouts for Locks

If a lock is not acquired → give up.

```
Monitor.TryEnter(lockObj, 1000)
```

✓ 3. Avoid Nested Locks

Reduce holding multiple locks.

✓ 4. Release Resources Quickly

Keep critical sections small.

✓ 5. Use Semaphores / Mutex properly

Prevent multiple threads from blocking each other.

✓ 6. Use concurrency libraries

Like `ConcurrentDictionary` , `ConcurrentQueue` .

■ Example (Avoid circular wait)

If every thread acquires locks in alphabetical order ($A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$), circular wait cannot happen.

■ Short summary line

Avoid deadlocks by using lock ordering, timeouts, reducing nested locks, and careful resource management.

Memory Management

1) Paging vs Segmentation

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Paging

- Memory is divided into **fixed-size blocks**
 - Physical memory → **frames**
 - Logical memory → **pages**
- Eliminates external fragmentation
- Simple memory management
- Every page = same size
- Page table is used for mapping

Segmentation

- Memory is divided into **variable-size segments** based on program structure
Example: Code segment, Data segment, Stack segment
- Eliminates internal fragmentation
- More logical (resembles actual program structure)

■ When/Why used

Paging

- When OS wants efficient & simple memory allocation
- Best for large systems
- Avoids external fragmentation

Segmentation

- Used when a program has logical divisions
 - Supports protection (each segment can have separate permissions)
-

■ Example

A program has:

- Code: 8 KB
- Data: 5 KB
- Stack: 2 KB

Segmentation → stored as 3 different segments

Paging → broken into pages like: page1, page2, page3... (all same size, e.g., 4KB)

■ Short summary line

Paging = fixed-size blocks; Segmentation = variable-size logical divisions.

2) Virtual Memory — Why Used?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Virtual memory allows a system to run programs **larger than physical RAM** by temporarily storing data on disk (swap space).

It gives an **illusion of large memory**.

■ When/Why used

- To allow multiple large applications to run simultaneously
 - To avoid "Out of Memory" errors
 - To isolate each process memory (security)
 - To increase multitasking capability
-

■ Example

If your physical RAM = 8GB

But applications need 12GB

OS moves less-used pages to disk → continues running normally.

■ Short summary line

Virtual memory allows programs to run even when RAM is insufficient by using disk space as memory.

✓ 3) Thrashing — What and Why?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Thrashing occurs when the OS spends **more time swapping pages** between RAM and disk than executing the actual program.

System becomes extremely slow.

■ When/Why it happens

- Too many processes running
 - Not enough RAM
 - High page-fault rate
 - Wrong paging algorithms
-

■ Example

If every few milliseconds OS swaps pages in/out → CPU becomes idle waiting for memory → system freezes.

Typical Windows example:

RAM full → Hard disk usage at 100% → system very slow.

■ Short summary line

Thrashing is excessive paging that slows down the system when RAM is overloaded.

✓ 4) Page Replacement Algorithms — FIFO, LRU

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

When a new page must be loaded but memory is full, OS chooses a page to remove using replacement algorithms.

1. FIFO (First In First Out)

Evicts the **oldest loaded page**.

■ When/Why used

- Simple and easy
- But may remove frequently used pages

■ Example

Pages loaded in order: A, B, C

Next page = D → remove A (oldest)

2. LRU (Least Recently Used)

Evicts the page that has not been used for the **longest time**.

■ When/Why used

- More accurate than FIFO
- Prevents removing frequently used pages
- More costly (need timestamps)

■ Example

Recent usage: C (just used), B, A

Least recently used = A → remove A.

■ Short summary line

FIFO removes earliest page; LRU removes least recently used page for better performance.

5) Stack vs Heap Memory

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Stack

- Stores local variables, function calls, parameters
- Memory managed automatically (LIFO)
- Very fast

- Limited size
- Allocated at compile/run time

Heap

- Stores objects, dynamic memory (`new` in .NET/Java)
- Memory managed manually (GC)
- Slower than stack
- Large memory area
- Allocated at runtime

■ When/Why used

✓ **Stack**

- For small, short-lived data
- Function calls, parameters, return addresses

✓ **Heap**

- For large objects
- Objects whose lifetime is unknown
- Shared objects

■ Example (C# / Java)

```
int x = 10; // stack
Person p = new Person(); // heap
```

■ Short summary line

Stack holds local variables & call frames; heap holds objects & dynamic memory.

Scheduling Algorithms

1) FCFS, SJF, Round Robin — Differences

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

These are CPU scheduling algorithms used by OS to decide **which process gets CPU next**.

FCFS (First Come First Serve)

- Processes served in **arrival order**
- Simple and non-preemptive
- No starvation
- Long processes delay short ones ("convoy effect")

When/Why used:

- Simple batch systems
 - When fairness (order) matters
 - Low overhead
-

SJF (Shortest Job First)

- Process with **shortest execution time** is chosen
- Minimizes average waiting time
- Can cause starvation (short jobs always picked)

When/Why used:

- CPU-bound processes
 - When job lengths are predictable
 - Improves throughput
-

Round Robin (RR)

- Each process gets fixed time slice (quantum)
- Preemptive

- Best for time-sharing & interactive systems

When/Why used:

- Operating systems for users
- Ensures fairness
- No starvation

■ Example

Processes (burst time): P1=10, P2=4, P3=2

Algorithm	First Process	Behavior
FCFS	P1	Long wait for others
SJF	P3	Shortest first
RR (quantum=2)	Time sliced	Fair turn-taking

■ Short summary line

FCFS = arrival order, SJF = shortest first, RR = equal time slices (fair for all).

✓ 2) Priority Scheduling + Starvation Problem

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Priority scheduling selects the process with the **highest priority** (or lowest number) to run first.

■ When/Why used

- Used when some processes must run earlier (system, real-time tasks)
- Useful for time-critical workloads
- Allows OS to schedule important tasks before regular ones

🔵 Starvation Problem

Occurs when **low-priority processes wait indefinitely** because higher-priority processes keep arriving.

Example

- P1 (High priority)
- P2 (High priority)
- P3 (High priority)
- P4 (Low priority)

P4 may **never** get CPU → starvation.

Solution → Aging Technique

Gradually increase the priority of waiting processes.

Example:

Every 2 seconds in ready queue → increase priority by 1.

Eventually low-priority processes get executed.

■ Short summary line

Priority scheduling picks highest priority; starvation happens when low-priority tasks never run—solved by aging.

3) Pre-emptive vs Non-preemptive Scheduling

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Pre-emptive Scheduling

OS can **interrupt** a running process and give CPU to another process with:

- Higher priority
- Time slice expiration
- System event

Non-preemptive Scheduling

Once a process gets CPU, it **runs until completion** or voluntarily releases CPU.

■ When/Why used

✓ Pre-emptive

- Used in modern OS (Windows, Linux)
- Best for real-time and interactive systems
- Ensures responsiveness
- But more overhead due to context switching

✓ Non-preemptive

- Simple, predictable
- Less overhead
- Used in embedded systems
- Risk of long waiting time

■ Example

Scenario	Result
Running process P1, higher priority P2 arrives	Pre-emptive → switch to P2
Running process P1, even if P2 arrives	Non-preemptive → P2 must wait

■ Short summary line

Pre-emptive scheduling interrupts running processes; non-preemptive lets a process run until it finishes or yields.

📌 File System & OS Internals

✓ 1) Inode Structure

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

An **inode** (index node) is a data structure used in Unix/Linux file systems to **store metadata of a file**.

It does *not* store the file name or content — only metadata.

■ When/Why is it used

- To keep track of file properties

- To locate the actual data blocks of a file on disk
 - Faster file access and directory traversal
 - Enables linking (hard links use same inode)
-

■ Inode Contains:

1. File size
 2. File type (directory, regular file)
 3. Ownership (UID, GID)
 4. Permissions (rwx flags)
 5. Timestamps (created, modified, accessed)
 6. Number of links
 7. File location pointers:
 - Direct pointers
 - Indirect pointers
 - Double indirect pointers
 - Triple indirect pointers
-

■ Example

When you run `ls -li` in Linux, you see inode numbers.

The OS uses inode pointer metadata to locate file data blocks.

■ Short summary line

Inode stores file metadata and pointers to data blocks, not file content or name.

2) What is a Semaphore?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

A **semaphore** is a synchronization mechanism used to control access to shared resources in concurrent systems.

It uses an integer value to allow or block threads.

■ When/Why used

- To limit how many threads access a critical section
- To avoid race conditions
- To coordinate tasks in multithreading
- Works well when multiple threads can access a resource (not just one)

■ Types of Semaphore:

1. Binary Semaphore

- Value = 0 or 1
- Works like a mutex

2. Counting Semaphore

- Value ≥ 0
- Allows multiple threads at once (e.g., max 3 threads)

■ Example

```
sem_wait(&s); // lock
// critical section
sem_post(&s); // unlock
```

■ Short summary line

Semaphore is a signaling mechanism used to control access to shared resources using a counter.

3) Mutex vs Semaphore

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Feature	Mutex	Semaphore
Access	Only 1 thread	Multiple threads allowed
Type	Locking mechanism	Signaling mechanism
Ownership	Owned by a thread	Not owned
Value	Always 1	Can be >1

Feature	Mutex	Semaphore
Use case	Critical section with single access	Limited resource pool

■ When/Why used

✓ Use **Mutex** when:

- Only **one** thread can access a resource at a time
- Resource is exclusive (DB write, file write)

✓ Use **Semaphore** when:

- A resource allows **multiple** threads
- Example: Thread pool, connection pool

■ Example

A shared printer → only ONE process prints → **mutex**

DB connection pool with 10 connections → **counting semaphore with value 10**

■ Short summary line

Mutex allows only one thread; semaphore allows many threads based on counter value.

✓ 4) Race Condition — Example

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

A race condition occurs when **two or more threads modify shared data simultaneously**, leading to inconsistent results.

■ When/Why happens

- No proper locking or synchronization
- Shared variables accessed concurrently
- Multi-threaded applications, servers, OS scheduling

■ Example

Bank account withdrawal — two threads access same balance:

Balance = 100

Thread1 withdraw(40)

Thread2 withdraw(30)

Both read 100 →

Thread1 writes 60

Thread2 writes 70

Final balance becomes **70** or **60** → incorrect.

With lock:

```
lock(lockObj)
{
    balance -= amount;
}
```

■ Short summary line

Race condition is inconsistent data caused by unsynchronized access to shared variables.

✓ 5) What Happens When You Open an Application in OS?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

When you open an app (e.g., VS Code, Chrome), the OS performs multiple steps to load and execute it.

■ When/Why is it used

This flow explains **process creation, loading, scheduling, and execution.**

■ Detailed Steps (Interview-Ready)

1. User launches the program

Clicking icon or running from terminal triggers OS launcher.

2. OS creates a new process

- Assigns **Process ID (PID)**
 - Allocates PCB (Process Control Block)
-

3. Program binary loaded into memory

- Loads **code, data, stack, heap**
 - Allocates memory using paging mechanism
-

4. OS loads required libraries

- DLLs in Windows
 - .so shared objects in Linux
 - Loads runtime (CLR for .NET, JVM for Java)
-

5. Scheduler assigns CPU

Process goes to **ready queue**, then to **running** state.

6. OS sets up file handles & I/O

- Opens necessary files
 - Initializes UI/graphics
 - Loads configuration
-

7. Code execution begins

Instruction by instruction, OS manages:

- CPU scheduling
 - Memory allocation
 - I/O interrupts
-

8. App runs until user closes it

OS cleans resources, closes files, destructs process.

■ Short summary line

Opening an application involves process creation, loading program into memory, linking libraries, CPU scheduling, and execution.



COMPUTER NETWORKS (CN)



Basics & Networking Models



1) What is a Computer Network?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

A Computer Network is a system where **multiple devices (computers, servers, mobiles, routers)** are connected to each other to **share data, resources, and services**.

It enables communication over wired or wireless mediums.

■ When/Why is it used

- To share files, applications, printers
- To communicate (email, chat, video calls)
- To access internet and cloud services
- For distributed systems and APIs

■ Example

- Your office LAN
- Internet
- Mobile hotspot network
- Cloud-based systems communicating via REST APIs

■ Short summary line

A computer network connects devices to communicate and share data/resources.



2) OSI Model — 7 Layers & Functions

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

OSI (Open Systems Interconnection) model is a **7-layer framework** used to understand how data travels in a network.

Each layer has a specific responsibility.

■ 7 Layers (Top → Bottom)

7. Application Layer

- User-facing protocols (HTTP, SMTP, FTP)

6. Presentation Layer

- Data formatting (encryption, compression)

5. Session Layer

- Establish/maintain/terminate communication sessions

4. Transport Layer

- End-to-end delivery
- TCP/UDP
- Segmentation, error control

3. Network Layer

- Logical addressing (IP)
- Routing packets through routers

2. Data Link Layer

- MAC addressing
- Frames
- Error detection

1. Physical Layer

- Electrical signals
- Cables, NIC, radio waves

■ When/Why is it used?

- Helps standardize communication
- Helps troubleshoot network issues
- Explains routing, encryption, sessions

■ Example

Sending an email:

Application (SMTP) → Transport (TCP) → Internet (IP) → Data link → Physical.

■ Short summary line

OSI model explains how data flows through 7 layers from physical hardware to user applications.

✓ 3) TCP/IP Model — Layer Comparison with OSI

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

TCP/IP model is the real-world model used on the internet.

It has **4 layers**, not 7.

■ TCP/IP Layers vs OSI Layers

TCP/IP Layer	OSI Equivalent	Function
Application	Application + Presentation + Session	Protocols like HTTP, DNS
Transport	Transport	TCP/UDP, port numbers
Internet	Network	IP addressing, routing
Network Access	Data Link + Physical	MAC, frames, bits

■ When/Why used

- Used by all internet devices
- Defines how packets travel from source → destination
- Forms basis of network communication in modern systems

■ Example

When you send an HTTP request:

Browser → TCP → IP → Ethernet → Internet → Server

■ Short summary line

TCP/IP has 4 layers and is the practical version of OSI used in real internet communication.

✓ 4) What is Encapsulation & Decapsulation?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

● Encapsulation (Sender Side)

Adding headers (and sometimes trailers) to data as it moves **down the layers**.

Example: Application data → TCP header → IP header → Ethernet header

● Decapsulation (Receiver Side)

Removing headers as data moves **up the layers**.

■ When/Why used

- Required to send data across networks
 - Each layer adds its own control information
 - Ensures correct delivery, routing, error control
-

■ Example

You send: "GET /index.html"

Encapsulation:

HTTP → TCP → IP → MAC → Bits → Sent via network

Receiver:

Bits → MAC → IP → TCP → HTTP → Decapsulation

■ Short summary line

Encapsulation adds protocol headers; decapsulation removes them during data transmission.



5) What are Protocols? Examples.

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

A protocol is a set of **rules and formats** that defines how devices communicate in a network.

It ensures that sender and receiver understand each other.

■ When/Why used

- To standardize communication
 - To ensure reliability (TCP), addressing (IP), security (HTTPS), etc.
 - Without protocols, communication would be impossible
-

■ Examples

Application Layer Protocols

- HTTP / HTTPS → Web browsing
- FTP → File transfer
- SMTP / IMAP → Email
- DNS → Domain name lookup

Transport Layer

- TCP → Reliable communication
- UDP → Fast, no confirmation

Network Layer

- IP → Addressing and routing
 - ICMP → Ping
 - ARP → Resolve IP → MAC
-

■ Short summary line

Protocols are rules for communication—like HTTP, TCP, IP, DNS—that allow devices to exchange data reliably.

IP, Routing & Switching

1) IPv4 vs IPv6

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

IPv4 and IPv6 are versions of Internet Protocol used for addressing devices.

IPv4

- 32-bit address
- ~4.3 billion unique addresses
- Written as: `192.168.1.10`
- Supports NAT due to limited addresses

IPv6

- 128-bit address
- Almost unlimited addresses
- Written as: `2001:0db8:85a3::8a2e:0370:7334`
- Built-in security (IPSec)

■ When/Why used

- IPv4 still widely used (legacy systems)
- IPv6 used to avoid address exhaustion and support more devices (IoT)

■ Example

- Laptop using IPv4 in home network
- Cloud servers / modern devices using IPv6

■ Short summary line

IPv4 is 32-bit and limited; IPv6 is 128-bit and provides huge address space with better security.

2) Static IP vs Dynamic IP

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Static IP

- Assigned manually
- Never changes
- Used for servers (DNS, email, APIs)

Dynamic IP

- Assigned automatically by DHCP
- Changes when device reconnects
- Used for normal users (home networks)

■ **When/Why used**

- Static → when permanent connectivity needed
- Dynamic → reduces management overhead

■ **Example**

Your mobile → Dynamic IP

Your Azure VM or API endpoint → Static IP

■ **Short summary line**

Static IP stays fixed; dynamic IP changes and is assigned by DHCP.

3) What is Subnetting? Default Subnet Sizes

■ **Explanation (simple, conceptual)**

Subnetting divides a large network into **smaller logical networks**.

It improves IP management, security, and reduces congestion.

■ **When/Why used**

- To isolate departments (HR, IT, Finance)
- To improve routing efficiency
- To avoid broadcast storms

- To manage IP pools better

■ Default Subnet Sizes / Classes

Class	Range	Default Subnet Mask	Hosts
A	0–127	255.0.0.0	~16 million
B	128–191	255.255.0.0	~65,000
C	192–223	255.255.255.0	254

■ Example

A company divides a `192.168.1.0/24` network into:

- `192.168.1.0/26`
- `192.168.1.64/26`
- `192.168.1.128/26`

Each subnet gets 62 hosts.

■ Short summary line

Subnetting divides a network into smaller parts to improve management and security.

4) Public IP vs Private IP

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Public IP

- Accessible over the internet
- Unique globally
- Assigned by ISP / Cloud providers

Private IP

- Used inside LAN
 - Not reachable from internet
 - Requires NAT to communicate outside
-

■ When/Why used

- Public IP → servers, websites, cloud VMs
 - Private IP → office/home devices
-

■ Examples

✓ Private IP Ranges:

- 10.0.0.0 – 10.255.255.255
- 172.16.0.0 – 172.31.255.255
- 192.168.0.0 – 192.168.255.255

✓ Public IP example:

52.12.145.11 (AWS VM)

■ Short summary line

Public IP is globally accessible; private IP is used inside local networks.

✓ 5) Router vs Switch vs Hub

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

● Hub

- Broadcasts data to all devices
- No intelligence
- Works on Physical layer
- Very outdated

● Switch

- Forwards data using MAC addresses
- Works on Data Link layer
- Faster, secure
- Most commonly used in LANs

Router

- Routes data between networks
- Uses IP addresses
- Connects LAN to internet
- Performs NAT, firewall, DHCP

■ When/Why used

- Hub → small/simple networks (rare today)
- Switch → connect devices inside same network
- Router → connect different networks (LAN ↔ Internet)

■ Example

- Home Wi-Fi router contains router + switch + DHCP
- Office networks use switches everywhere

■ Short summary line

Hub broadcasts, switch filters using MAC, router routes using IP across networks.

6) ARP — What and Why?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

ARP (Address Resolution Protocol) maps an **IP address** → **MAC address** within a local network.

Network needs MAC to deliver frames inside LAN.

■ When/Why used

- Required when a device knows target IP but not MAC
- Essential for LAN communication
- Every time a packet enters LAN, ARP resolves it

■ Example

Your PC wants to send to 192.168.1.5 →

It broadcasts ARP request:

"Who has 192.168.1.5? Send me your MAC."

Target replies with its MAC.

■ Short summary line

ARP resolves IP addresses to MAC addresses inside a local network.

7) DHCP Working — Step by Step

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

DHCP (Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol) automatically assigns IP, gateway, DNS to devices.

■ When/Why used

- Avoid manual IP configuration
- For scalable networks (office, ISP networks)
- Ensures unique IP assignment
- Supports IP reuse

■ DHCP 4-Step Process (DORA)

1. Discover

Client → Broadcast request:

"Is there any DHCP server?"

2. Offer

Server → Offers an IP address.

3. Request

Client → Requests the offered IP.

4. Acknowledge

Server → Confirms assignment and sends:

- IP

- Subnet mask
 - Gateway
 - DNS
-

■ Example

Your phone connecting to Wi-Fi → automatically gets:

- 192.168.1.x
 - gateway 192.168.1.1
 - DNS 8.8.8.8
-

■ Short summary line

DHCP assigns IP automatically using DORA: Discover → Offer → Request → Acknowledge.

TCP/UDP (Must Know)

1) TCP vs UDP Differences

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

TCP and UDP are **Transport Layer protocols** that handle data delivery between systems.

TCP — Transmission Control Protocol

- Connection-oriented
- Reliable delivery (acknowledgements, retransmissions)
- Ensures ordered data delivery
- Slower but accurate
- Heavyweight (more overhead)

UDP — User Datagram Protocol

- Connectionless
- No reliability, no acknowledgements

- No ordering guarantee
- Faster and lightweight
- Best for real-time apps

■ When/Why used

✓ TCP

- When accuracy > speed
- For financial, banking, login, file transfer

✓ UDP

- When speed > accuracy
- Dropping some packets is acceptable
- For real-time systems

■ Example Table

Feature	TCP	UDP
Reliability	Yes	No
Connection	Required	Not needed
Speed	Slower	Faster
Use cases	Web, Email	Video calls, Gaming

■ Short summary line

TCP is reliable and connection-based; UDP is fast and connectionless.

✓ 2) Why TCP is Reliable? Explain 3-Way Handshake (SYN-SYN/ACK-ACK)

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

TCP provides **reliable, ordered, and error-checked** data delivery.

It uses acknowledgements, retransmissions, and sequencing.

■ Why TCP is reliable?

1. **3-way handshake** (connection setup)
 2. **Sequence numbers**
 3. **Acknowledgements (ACKs)**
 4. **Retransmission of lost packets**
 5. **Flow control (Window size)**
 6. **Congestion control (Slow start)**
 7. **Error detection**
-

■ 3-Way Handshake (Connection Establishment)

Step 1: SYN (synchronize)

Client → Server: "I want to connect, here's my sequence number."

Step 2: SYN + ACK

Server → Client: "OK, I acknowledge; here's my sequence."

Step 3: ACK

Client → Server: "I acknowledge your sequence."

After this → connection is established.

■ Short summary line

TCP is reliable due to handshake, sequencing, ACKs, retransmission, flow & congestion control.

3) What is Flow Control & Congestion Control in TCP?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Flow Control

Controls **sender** → **receiver** speed.

Prevents sender from overwhelming the receiver.

TCP uses **Sliding Window Protocol** for this.

Congestion Control

Controls traffic in the **network** to avoid congestion (overloaded routers).

TCP uses:

- Slow Start
 - Additive Increase
 - Multiplicative Decrease
 - Congestion Window (cwnd)
-

■ **When/Why used**

✓ **Flow Control**

- Needed when sender sends data faster than receiver can process
- Protects slow devices

✓ **Congestion Control**

- Needed to avoid packet loss
 - Ensures network stability
 - Prevents router overload
-

■ **Example**

Flow Control example:

Receiver says:

"My window size = 4 packets"

Sender sends only 4 packets at a time.

Congestion Control example:

If packet loss occurs →

TCP reduces sending rate by half (Multiplicative Decrease).

■ **Short summary line**

Flow control protects the receiver; congestion control protects the network.



4) Use Cases — When to Use TCP vs UDP

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Use TCP when data must be correct.

Use UDP when speed matters more than accuracy.

■ When/Why used

✓ Use TCP for:

- Web requests (HTTP/HTTPS)
- Banking transactions
- File uploads/downloads
- Emails
- Database connections
- REST APIs
- Login/authentication systems

✓ Use UDP for:

- Video calls (Zoom, Teams)
 - Live streaming
 - Online gaming
 - DNS queries
 - IoT real-time sensors
 - Voice over IP (VoIP)
-

■ Example

In a video call, dropping a few frames is OK → UDP

In an online payment API, accuracy is critical → TCP

■ Short summary line

TCP is used for accurate delivery; UDP is used for fast, real-time communication.

HTTP/HTTPS + Web Communication

1) HTTP vs HTTPS — Difference

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

HTTP is an insecure protocol used to transfer data between client and server.

HTTPS is secure HTTP that uses **SSL/TLS encryption** to protect data during transmission.

■ When/Why is it used

HTTP

- Used when data is non-sensitive
- Faster but not secure

HTTPS

- Encrypts data
 - Protects from hacking (MITM attacks)
 - Mandatory for login pages, payments, banking
 - Used almost everywhere today
-

■ Example

```
http://example.com    // Data in plain text
https://example.com    // Data encrypted with TLS
```

■ Short summary line

HTTPS = HTTP + SSL/TLS encryption, providing secure communication.

2) What is SSL/TLS Handshake?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

SSL/TLS handshake is the process by which **browser and server establish a secure, encrypted connection.**

■ When/Why is it used

- To exchange keys securely
 - To verify server identity
 - To start encrypted communication
-

■ Steps (Interview-Ready)

1. Client Hello

Client sends supported encryption algorithms.

2. Server Hello

Server responds with chosen algorithm + **server certificate.**

3. Certificate Verification

Client verifies certificate authenticity.

4. Key Exchange

Client generates a **session key** and encrypts it with server's public key.

5. Secure Connection Established

Both sides now share same secret session key.

All further communication is **encrypted.**

■ Short summary line

SSL/TLS handshake securely exchanges keys between client and server to begin encrypted communication.

3) What is a Cookie? What is a Session?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Cookie

- Small piece of data stored on **client/browser**
- Used for remembering users, preferences, tracking

Session

- Data stored on **server**
- Identifies logged-in users
- More secure than cookies

■ **When/Why used**

- Authentication
- Shopping cart
- Remembering user preferences
- Tracking user activity

■ **Example**

Cookie example:

```
isLoggedIn = true  
theme = dark
```

Session example (server memory):

```
sessionId → userId 101
```

■ **Short summary line**

Cookies store data in browser; sessions store data on server for user identification.

4) What is JWT Token? Where Stored?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

JWT (JSON Web Token) is a compact, signed token used for **stateless authentication**.

It contains:

- Header
- Payload (user info, roles)
- Signature

Server does NOT store session data; token itself contains trustable info.

■ When/Why used

- Modern REST APIs
- Single Page Applications (Angular, React)
- Mobile apps
- Microservices authentication
- Stateless systems

■ Where is JWT Stored?

- **LocalStorage** (most common)
- **SessionStorage**
- **HTTP-only cookies** (more secure)

■ Example (JWT Structure)

```
xxxxx.yyyyy.zzzzz
```

■ Short summary line

JWT is a stateless authentication token usually stored in browser storage or secure cookies.

5) CORS — What & Why?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

CORS (Cross-Origin Resource Sharing) is a browser security mechanism that blocks requests from **different domains** unless the server explicitly allows them.

Browser only allows cross-domain API calls if the server replies with **Access-Control-Allow-Origin** header.

■ When/Why used

- Angular/React frontend calling .NET backend
- Prevents unauthorized websites from calling APIs
- Avoids cross-site attacks

■ Example

Frontend:

```
http://localhost:4200
```

Backend API:

```
http://localhost:5000
```

Browser blocks request → unless API sends:

```
Access-Control-Allow-Origin: http://localhost:4200
```

■ Short summary line

CORS protects APIs by controlling which domains can access them.

6) DNS — How Domain Resolves to IP?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

DNS (Domain Name System) converts **domain names to IP addresses** so browsers can find servers.

■ When/Why used

- To avoid remembering numeric IPs (e.g., 142.250.182.46)

- To allow friendly URLs
 - Essential for internet communication
-

■ Steps of DNS Resolution (Interview-Ready)

1. Browser Cache

Check if IP already stored.

2. OS Cache

OS checks local DNS cache.

3. Router Cache

Home router stores recently resolved domains.

4. ISP DNS Server

If not found above, ISP DNS resolves it.

5. Root DNS Server

Points to TLD servers (.com, .org, .net).

6. TLD DNS Server

Points to authoritative DNS of domain.

7. Authoritative DNS Server

Returns the real IP (e.g., `142.250.182.46`).

Browser then connects to that IP via TCP/HTTPS.

■ Short summary line

DNS converts domain names into IP addresses using a hierarchical lookup from cache → ISP → root → authoritative servers.

Network Security

1) Firewall — Purpose?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

A **firewall** is a network security device/software that **filters incoming and outgoing traffic** based on defined rules.

It allows safe traffic and blocks malicious/unauthorized traffic.

■ When/Why is it used

- To protect servers from external attacks
- To block suspicious IPs/ports
- To restrict access to internal systems
- To enforce network security policies
- Used at organization gateways, cloud VMs, APIs

■ Example

A firewall can block:

- Port 23 (Telnet, insecure)
- Unknown IP trying to hit API
- Unauthorized traffic from public internet

Azure Example: *NSG (Network Security Group) acts as a firewall for VNets.*

■ Short summary line

Firewall filters traffic to protect networks by allowing only trusted communication.

2) Proxy vs VPN

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Proxy

Acts as an **intermediate server** between client and internet.

Hides client identity and controls internet access.

VPN

Creates an **encrypted tunnel** between user and network, hiding data and IP.

■ When/Why used

✓ Proxy is used for:

- Content filtering (block sites)
- Caching pages
- Hiding client identity
- Monitoring employee internet usage

✓ VPN is used for:

- Securely accessing office network remotely
- Encrypting all internet traffic
- Hiding real IP and location

■ Example

- Office uses a proxy to block Facebook.
- Employee uses VPN to connect to office server securely from home.

■ Short summary line

Proxy controls and filters traffic; VPN encrypts and hides all traffic for secure remote access.

3) Man-in-the-Middle (MITM) Attack

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

MITM attack occurs when an attacker secretly intercepts and possibly modifies communication between two parties **without their knowledge**.

■ When/Why it happens

- Using public Wi-Fi
- Weak/no HTTPS
- Fake access points
- ARP spoofing
- Unsecured networks

■ Example

You send login credentials to a website using HTTP.

Attacker in between captures username/password.

HTTPS prevents MITM because data is encrypted end-to-end.

■ Short summary line

MITM attack intercepts communication between client and server to steal or modify data.

4) CSRF vs XSS Attack

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

CSRF (Cross-Site Request Forgery)

Tricks a **logged-in user** into performing unwanted actions on a website.

- Attacker forces your browser to send a request using your **session cookies**
- Targets **state-changing actions**

Example

While logged into bank site, you click malicious link → money transferred without your intent.

XSS (Cross-Site Scripting)

Attacker injects **malicious JavaScript** into a website that runs on users' browsers.

- Steals cookies
- Redirects, phishing
- Defaces UI

Example

Comment box allows script:

```
<script>alert('Hacked')</script>
```

■ When/Why used

CSRF:

- Attacker uses victim's **authentication**
- Requires victim to be logged in

XSS:

- Attacker runs **script inside victim browser**
- No login required

■ Short summary line

CSRF forces a user to perform unwanted actions; XSS injects malicious scripts into a website.

5) IDS vs IPS

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

IDS (Intrusion Detection System)

Monitors traffic, detects malicious activity, and **alerts**.

IPS (Intrusion Prevention System)

Monitors traffic and **blocks** malicious activity in real time.

■ When/Why used

IDS is used when:

- Organization wants monitoring
- Security team wants visibility
- No automatic blocking needed

IPS is used when:

- Immediate prevention required
- Protecting critical servers

- Automated security policy enforcement
-

■ Example

IDS:

Detects unusual traffic pattern → sends alert

"Possible SQL Injection attack detected."

IPS:

Detects pattern → **blocks request immediately**

■ Short summary line

IDS detects and alerts; IPS detects and blocks threats automatically.

Real-time Networking Questions

1) What happens when you type a URL in the browser?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Typing a URL triggers a full chain of browser → OS → network → server interactions to fetch the webpage.

■ When/Why is it used

This explains the entire request lifecycle and is a COMMON interview question that checks networking + DNS + HTTP basics.

■ Step-by-step Process (Interview-Perfect)

1. URL Parsing

Browser analyzes the URL:

- Protocol (HTTP/HTTPS)
 - Domain (google.com)
 - Path (/search)
-

2. Browser Cache Check

Browser checks if it already knows IP from DNS cache.

3. DNS Lookup

If not in cache → OS → Router → ISP → Root DNS → Authoritative DNS

Returns server IP (e.g., 142.250.182.46)

4. TCP Handshake

For HTTPS:

- SYN → SYN/ACK → ACK
- Connection established.
-

5. TLS/SSL Handshake (if HTTPS)

- Certificate exchange
 - Key exchange
 - Secure encrypted tunnel created
-

6. HTTP Request Sent

Browser sends: GET /index.html

Headers include cookies, tokens, user-agent.

7. Server Processes Request

Server generates response using:

- Controllers
 - Services
 - Database calls
 - Caching layer
 - Load balancer routing
-

8. HTTP Response Returned

Server returns HTML/JSON + status code.

9. Browser Renders

- HTML parsed
 - CSS applied
 - JS executed
 - Images loaded
-

■ Short summary line

Typing a URL triggers DNS lookup → TCP/TLS handshake → HTTP request → server response → browser rendering.

2) Why latency increases in remote API requests?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Latency = **time delay** between sending request and receiving response.

It increases because the request must travel longer distances and pass through multiple network layers.

■ When/Why latency increases

✓ 1. Physical distance

Longer distance → more hops → more delay.

Example: Client in India calling API hosted in US.

✓ 2. Network congestion

High traffic on routers → queue delays.

✓ 3. Slow server or overloaded backend

Server takes longer to process the request.

✓ 4. DNS lookup time

Slow DNS increases initial request delay.

✓ 5. TLS/SSL handshake

HTTPS handshake adds extra round-trips.

✓ 6. Serialization/Deserialization overhead

JSON/XML encoding/decoding takes time.

✓ 7. Multiple microservices calls

Internal network calls add latency.

■ Example

Your Angular app calls .NET API deployed in a different region → server takes time → network hops → increased latency.

■ Short summary line

Latency increases due to distance, network congestion, slow servers, TLS handshakes, and multiple internal hops.

✓ 3) How load balancers help in scaling?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Load balancer distributes incoming traffic across multiple servers so no single server gets overloaded.

■ When/Why used

- To prevent server overload
- To achieve high availability
- To scale horizontally (add more servers)
- To reduce downtime
- To balance requests among multiple instances

■ How it works (simple)

User → Load Balancer → Server 1/2/3/...

LB routes based on algorithms:

- Round robin
 - Least connections
 - IP hash
 - Weighted distribution
-

■ Benefits

- Handles traffic spikes
 - Improves performance
 - Enables auto-scaling in cloud
 - Provides health checks (remove unhealthy instances)
-

■ Example

Azure Application Gateway / AWS ALB:

If API traffic spikes, LB routes requests to 10 instances instead of 2.

■ Short summary line

Load balancers distribute traffic across servers to achieve performance and horizontal scaling.

4) How distributed systems communicate?

■ Explanation (simple, conceptual)

Distributed systems consist of multiple services running on different machines. They communicate over the network using well-defined protocols.

■ Common Communication Methods

1. REST APIs (HTTP/HTTPS)

Most common

- Language independent
- Simple
- JSON-based

● 2. gRPC

- High performance
- Binary protocol
- Used between microservices

● 3. Message Queues

For async communication

- RabbitMQ
- Azure Service Bus
- Kafka

● 4. Event-driven Communication

Publish → Subscribe model

- Useful for decoupled systems
- Example: OrderPlaced event triggers StockService, PaymentService

● 5. TCP/UDP Socket communication

Used in gaming, streaming, or real-time apps.

■ When/Why used

- For microservices
- For distributed backend architectures
- To ensure fault tolerance
- To allow independent scaling

■ Example (Real-time for your projects)

Fraud Detection System

- RiskScoreService calls UserProfileService via REST
- TransactionService sends events to Kafka
- AI model service communicates via gRPC

Expense Tracker

- Angular → .NET API (REST)
 - API → SQL Server
 - API → EmailService via internal REST API
-

■ Short summary line

Distributed systems communicate via REST, gRPC, message queues, or event-driven messaging to stay scalable and decoupled.
