can continue using (with modifications) the approach you outlined in Step 1, but occasionally you will need to fundamentally alter the approach.

Note that an iterative approach is typically useful. That is, once you have solved the problems from Step 3, new problems may have emerged, and you must tackle those as well.

Your goal is not to re-architect a complex system that companies have spent millions of dollars building, but rather to demonstrate that you can analyze and solve problems. Poking holes in your own solution is a fantastic way to demonstrate this.

Key Concepts

While system design questions aren't really tests of what you know, certain concepts can make things a lot easier. We will give a brief overview here. All of these are deep, complex topics, so we encourage you to use online resources for more research.

Horizontal vs. Vertical Scaling

A system can be scaled one of two ways.

- Vertical scaling means increasing the resources of a specific node. For example, you might add additional memory to a server to improve its ability to handle load changes.
- Horizontal scaling means increasing the number of nodes. For example, you might add additional servers, thus decreasing the load on any one server.

Vertical scaling is generally easier than horizontal scaling, but it's limited. You can only add so much memory or disk space.

Load Balancer

Typically, some frontend parts of a scalable website will be thrown behind a load balancer. This allows a system to distribute the load evenly so that one server doesn't crash and take down the whole system. To do so, of course, you have to build out a network of cloned servers that all have essentially the same code and access to the same data.

Database Denormalization and NoSQL

Joins in a relational database such as SQL can get very slow as the system grows bigger. For this reason, you would generally avoid them.

Denormalization is one part of this. Denormalization means adding redundant information into a database to speed up reads. For example, imagine a database describing projects and tasks (where a project can have multiple tasks). You might need to get the project name and the task information. Rather than doing a join across these tables, you can store the project name within the task table (in addition to the project table).

Or, you can go with a NoSQL database. A NoSQL database does not support joins and might structure data in a different way. It is designed to scale better.

Database Partitioning (Sharding)

Sharding means splitting the data across multiple machines while ensuring you have a way of figuring out which data is on which machine.

A few common ways of partitioning include:

- **Vertical Partitioning**: This is basically partitioning by feature. For example, if you were building a social network, you might have one partition for tables relating to profiles, another one for messages, and so on. One drawback of this is that if one of these tables gets very large, you might need to repartition that database (possibly using a different partitioning scheme).
- **Key-Based (or Hash-Based) Partitioning**: This uses some part of the data (for example an ID) to partition it. A very simple way to do this is to allocate N servers and put the data on `mod(key, n)`. One issue with this is that the number of servers you have is effectively fixed. Adding additional servers means reallocating all the data—a very expensive task.
- **Directory-Based Partitioning**: In this scheme, you maintain a lookup table for where the data can be found. This makes it relatively easy to add additional servers, but it comes with two major drawbacks. First, the lookup table can be a single point of failure. Second, constantly accessing this table impacts performance.

Many architectures actually end up using multiple partitioning schemes.

Caching

An in-memory cache can deliver very rapid results. It is a simple key-value pairing and typically sits between your application layer and your data store.

When an application requests a piece of information, it first tries the cache. If the cache does not contain the key, it will then look up the data in the data store. (At this point, the data might—or might not—be stored in the data store.)

When you cache, you might cache a query and its results directly. Or, alternatively, you can cache the specific object (for example, a rendered version of a part of the website, or a list of the most recent blog posts).

Asynchronous Processing & Queues

Slow operations should ideally be done asynchronously. Otherwise, a user might get stuck waiting and waiting for a process to complete.

In some cases, we can do this in advance (i.e., we can pre-process). For example, we might have a queue of jobs to be done that update some part of the website. If we were running a forum, one of these jobs might be to re-render a page that lists the most popular posts and the number of comments. That list might end up being slightly out of date, but that's perhaps okay. It's better than a user stuck waiting on the website to load simply because someone added a new comment and invalidated the cached version of this page.

In other cases, we might tell the user to wait and notify them when the process is done. You've probably seen this on websites before. Perhaps you enabled some new part of a website and it says it needs a few minutes to import your data, but you'll get a notification when it's done.

Networking Metrics

Some of the most important metrics around networking include:

- **Bandwidth**: This is the maximum amount of data that can be transferred in a unit of time. It is typically expressed in bits per second (or some similar ways, such as gigabytes per second).
- **Throughput**: Whereas bandwidth is the maximum data that can be transferred in a unit of time, throughput is the actual amount of data that is transferred.
- **Latency**: This is how long it takes data to go from one end to the other. That is, it is the delay between the sender sending information (even a very small chunk of data) and the receiver receiving it.

Imagine you have a conveyor belt that transfers items across a factory. Latency is the time it takes an item to go from one side to another. Throughput is the number of items that roll off the conveyor belt per second.

- Building a fatter conveyor belt will not change latency. It will, however, change throughput and bandwidth. You can get more items on the belt, thus transferring more in a given unit of time.
- Shortening the belt will decrease latency, since items spend less time in transit. It won't change the throughput or bandwidth. The same number of items will roll off the belt per unit of time.
- Making a faster conveyor belt will change all three. The time it takes an item to travel across the factory decreases. More items will also roll off the conveyor belt per unit of time.
- Bandwidth is the number of items that can be transferred per unit of time, in the best possible conditions. Throughput is the time it really takes, when the machines perhaps aren't operating smoothly.

Latency can be easy to disregard, but it can be very important in particular situations. For example, if you're playing certain online games, latency can be a very big deal. How can you play a typical online sports game (like a two-player football game) if you aren't notified very quickly of your opponent's movement? Additionally, unlike throughput where at least you have the option of speeding things up through data compression, there is often little you can do about latency.

MapReduce

MapReduce is often associated with Google, but it's used much more broadly than that. A MapReduce program is typically used to process large amounts of data.

As its name suggests, a MapReduce program requires you to write a Map step and a Reduce step. The rest is handled by the system.

- `Map` takes in some data and emits a `<key, value>` pair.
- `Reduce` takes a key and a set of associated values and "reduces" them in some way, emitting a new key and value. The results of this might be fed back into the `Reduce` program for more reducing.

MapReduce allows us to do a lot of processing in parallel, which makes processing huge amounts of data more scalable.

For more information, see "MapReduce" on page 642.

Considerations

In addition to the earlier concepts to learn, you should consider the following issues when designing a system.

- **Failures**: Essentially any part of a system can fail. You'll need to plan for many or all of these failures.
- **Availability and Reliability**: Availability is a function of the percentage of time the system is operational. Reliability is a function of the probability that the system is operational for a certain unit of time.
- **Read-heavy vs. Write-heavy**: Whether an application will do a lot of reads or a lot of writes impacts the design. If it's write-heavy, you could consider queuing up the writes (but think about potential failure here!). If it's read-heavy, you might want to cache. Other design decisions could change as well.
- **Security**: Security threats can, of course, be devastating for a system. Think about the types of issues a system might face and design around those.

This is just to get you started with the potential issues for a system. Remember to be open in your interview about the tradeoffs.

There is no "perfect" system.

There is no single design for TinyURL or Google Maps or any other system that works perfectly (although there are a great number that would work terribly). There are always tradeoffs. Two people could have substantially different designs for a system, with both being excellent given different assumptions.

Your goal in these problems is to be able to understand use cases, scope a problem, make reasonable assumptions, create a solid design based on those assumptions, and be open about the weaknesses of your design. Do not expect something perfect.

Example Problem

Given a list of millions of documents, how would you find all documents that contain a list of words? The words can appear in any order, but they must be complete words. That is, "book" does not match "bookkeeper."

Before we start solving the problem, we need to understand whether this is a one time only operation, or if this `findWords` procedure will be called repeatedly. Let's assume that we will be calling `findWords` many times for the same set of documents, and, therefore, we can accept the burden of pre-processing.

Step 1

The first step is to pretend we just have a few dozen documents. How would we implement `findWords` in this case? (Tip: stop here and try to solve this yourself before reading on.)

One way to do this is to pre-process each document and create a hash table index. This hash table would map from a word to a list of the documents that contain that word.

```
"books" -> {doc2, doc3, doc6, doc8}
"many"  -> {doc1, doc3, doc7, doc8, doc9}
```

To search for "`many books`," we would simply do an intersection on the values for "`books`" and "`many`", and return `{doc3, doc8}` as the result.

Step 2

Now go back to the original problem. What problems are introduced with millions of documents? For starters, we probably need to divide up the documents across many machines. Also, depending on a variety of factors, such as the number of possible words and the repetition of words in a document, we may not be able to fit the full hash table on one machine. Let's assume that this is the case.

This division introduces the following key concerns:

1. How will we divide up our hash table? We could divide it up by keyword, such that a given machine contains the full document list for a given word. Or, we could divide by document, such that a machine contains the keyword mapping for only a subset of the documents.
2. Once we decide how to divide up the data, we may need to process a document on one machine and push the results off to other machines. What does this process look like? (Note: if we divide the hash table by document, this step may not be necessary.)
3. We will need a way of knowing which machine holds a piece of data. What does this lookup table look like, and where is it stored?

These are just three concerns. There may be many others.

Step 3

In Step 3, we find solutions to each of these issues. One solution is to divide up the words alphabetically by keyword, such that each machine controls a range of words (e.g., "after" through "apple").

We can implement a simple algorithm in which we iterate through the keywords alphabetically, storing as much data as possible on one machine. When that machine is full, we can move to the next machine.

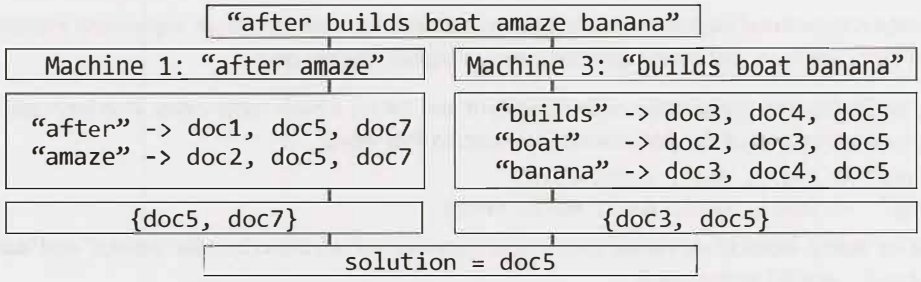
The advantage of this approach is that the lookup table is small and simple (since it must only specify a range of values), and each machine can store a copy of the lookup table. However, the disadvantage is that if new documents or words are added, we may need to perform an expensive shift of keywords.

To find all the documents that match a list of strings, we would first sort the list and then send each machine a lookup request for the strings that the machine owns. For example, if our string is "after builds boat amaze banana", machine 1 would get a lookup request for {"after", "amaze"}.

Machine 1 looks up the documents containing "after" and "amaze," and performs an intersection on these document lists. Machine 3 does the same for {"banana", "boat", "builds"}, and intersects their lists.

In the final step, the initial machine would do an intersection on the results from Machine 1 and Machine 3.

The following diagram explains this process.



Interview Questions

These questions are designed to mirror a real interview, so they will not always be well defined. Think about what questions you would ask your interviewer and then make reasonable assumptions. You may make different assumptions than us, and that will lead you to a very different design. That's okay!

9.1 **Stock Data:** Imagine you are building some sort of service that will be called by up to 1,000 client applications to get simple end-of-day stock price information (open, close, high, low). You may assume that you already have the data, and you can store it in any format you wish. How would you design the client-facing service that provides the information to client applications? You are responsible for the development, rollout, and ongoing monitoring and maintenance of the feed. Describe the different methods you considered and why you would recommend your approach. Your service can use any technologies you wish, and can distribute the information to the client applications in any mechanism you choose.

Hints: #385, #396

pg 372

9.2 **Social Network:** How would you design the data structures for a very large social network like Facebook or LinkedIn? Describe how you would design an algorithm to show the shortest path between two people (e.g., Me -> Bob -> Susan -> Jason -> You).

Hints: #270, #285, #304, #321

pg 374

9.3 **Web Crawler:** If you were designing a web crawler, how would you avoid getting into infinite loops?

Hints: #334, #353, #365

pg 378

9.4 **Duplicate URLs:** You have 10 billion URLs. How do you detect the duplicate documents? In this case, assume "duplicate" means that the URLs are identical.

Hints: #326, #347

pg 380

9.5 **Cache:** Imagine a web server for a simplified search engine. This system has 100 machines to respond to search queries, which may then call out using `processSearch(string query)` to another cluster of machines to actually get the result. The machine which responds to a given query is chosen at random, so you cannot guarantee that the same machine will always respond to the same request. The method `processSearch` is very expensive. Design a caching mechanism for the most recent queries. Be sure to explain how you would update the cache when data changes.

Hints: #259, #274, #293, #311

pg 381

9.6 **Sales Rank**: A large eCommerce company wishes to list the best-selling products, overall and by category. For example, one product might be the #1056th best-selling product overall but the #13th best-selling product under "Sports Equipment" and the #24th best-selling product under "Safety." Describe how you would design this system.

Hints: #142, #158, #176, #189, #208, #223, #236, #244

pg 385

9.7 **Personal Financial Manager**: Explain how you would design a personal financial manager (like Mint.com). This system would connect to your bank accounts, analyze your spending habits, and make recommendations.

Hints: #162, #180, #199, #212, #247, #276

pg 388

9.8 **Pastebin**: Design a system like Pastebin, where a user can enter a piece of text and get a randomly generated URL to access it.

Hints: #165, #184, #206, #232

pg 392

Additional Questions: Object-Oriented Design (#7.7)

Hints start on page 662.

10

Sorting and Searching

Understanding the common sorting and searching algorithms is incredibly valuable, as many sorting and searching problems are tweaks of the well-known algorithms. A good approach is therefore to run through the different sorting algorithms and see if one applies particularly well.

For example, suppose you are asked the following question: Given a very large array of `Person` objects, sort the people in increasing order of age.

We're given two interesting bits of knowledge here:

1. It's a large array, so efficiency is very important.
2. We are sorting based on ages, so we know the values are in a small range.

By scanning through the various sorting algorithms, we might notice that bucket sort (or radix sort) would be a perfect candidate for this algorithm. In fact, we can make the buckets small (just 1 year each) and get `O(n)` running time.

▸ Common Sorting Algorithms

Learning (or re-learning) the common sorting algorithms is a great way to boost your performance. Of the five algorithms explained below, Merge Sort, Quick Sort and Bucket Sort are the most commonly used in interviews.

Bubble Sort | Runtime: $O(n^2)$ **average and worst case. Memory:** $O(1)$.

In bubble sort, we start at the beginning of the array and swap the first two elements if the first is greater than the second. Then, we go to the next pair, and so on, continuously making sweeps of the array until it is sorted. In doing so, the smaller items slowly "bubble" up to the beginning of the list.

Selection Sort | Runtime: $O(n^2)$ **average and worst case. Memory:** $O(1)$.

Selection sort is the child's algorithm: simple, but inefficient. Find the smallest element using a linear scan and move it to the front (swapping it with the front element). Then, find the second smallest and move it, again doing a linear scan. Continue doing this until all the elements are in place.

Merge Sort | Runtime: $O(n \log(n))$ **average and worst case. Memory:** Depends.

Merge sort divides the array in half, sorts each of those halves, and then merges them back together. Each of those halves has the same sorting algorithm applied to it. Eventually, you are merging just two single-element arrays. It is the "merge" part that does all the heavy lifting.

The merge method operates by copying all the elements from the target array segment into a helper array, keeping track of where the start of the left and right halves should be (`helperLeft` and `helperRight`). We then iterate through `helper`, copying the smaller element from each half into the array. At the end, we copy any remaining elements into the target array.

```
1  void mergesort(int[] array) {
2    int[] helper = new int[array.length];
3    mergesort(array, helper, 0, array.length - 1);
4  }
5
6  void mergesort(int[] array, int[] helper, int low, int high) {
7    if (low < high) {
8      int middle = (low + high) / 2;
9      mergesort(array, helper, low, middle); // Sort left half
10     mergesort(array, helper, middle+1, high); // Sort right half
11     merge(array, helper, low, middle, high); // Merge them
12   }
13 }
14
15 void merge(int[] array, int[] helper, int low, int middle, int high) {
16   /* Copy both halves into a helper array */
17   for (int i = low; i <= high; i++) {
18     helper[i] = array[i];
19   }
20
21   int helperLeft = low;
22   int helperRight = middle + 1;
23   int current = low;
24
25   /* Iterate through helper array. Compare the left and right half, copying back
26    * the smaller element from the two halves into the original array. */
27   while (helperLeft <= middle && helperRight <= high) {
28     if (helper[helperLeft] <= helper[helperRight]) {
29       array[current] = helper[helperLeft];
30       helperLeft++;
31     } else { // If right element is smaller than left element
32       array[current] = helper[helperRight];
33       helperRight++;
34     }
35     current++;
36   }
37
38   /* Copy the rest of the left side of the array into the target array */
39   int remaining = middle - helperLeft;
40   for (int i = 0; i <= remaining; i++) {
41     array[current + i] = helper[helperLeft + i];
42   }
43 }
```

You may notice that only the remaining elements from the left half of the helper array are copied into the target array. Why not the right half? The right half doesn't need to be copied because it's *already* there.

Consider, for example, an array like `[1, 4, 5 || 2, 8, 9]` (the "`||`" indicates the partition point). Prior to merging the two halves, both the helper array and the target array segment will end with `[8, 9]`. Once we copy over four elements (`1`, `4`, `5`, and 2) into the target array, the `[8, 9]` will still be in place in both arrays. There's no need to copy them over.

The space complexity of merge sort is $O(n)$ due to the auxiliary space used to merge parts of the array.

Quick Sort | Runtime: $O(n \log(n))$ **average,** $O(n^2)$ **worst case. Memory:** $O(\log(n))$.

In quick sort, we pick a random element and partition the array, such that all numbers that are less than the partitioning element come before all elements that are greater than it. The partitioning can be performed efficiently through a series of swaps (see below).

If we repeatedly partition the array (and its sub-arrays) around an element, the array will eventually become sorted. However, as the partitioned element is not guaranteed to be the median (or anywhere near the median), our sorting could be very slow. This is the reason for the $O(n^2)$ worst case runtime.

```
1  void quickSort(int[] arr, int left, int right) {
2     int index = partition(arr, left, right);
3     if (left < index - 1) { // Sort left half
4        quickSort(arr, left, index - 1);
5     }
6     if (index < right) { // Sort right half
7        quickSort(arr, index, right);
8     }
9  }
10
11 int partition(int[] arr, int left, int right) {
12    int pivot = arr[(left + right) / 2]; // Pick pivot point
13    while (left <= right) {
14       // Find element on left that should be on right
15       while (arr[left] < pivot) left++;
16
17       // Find element on right that should be on left
18       while (arr[right] > pivot) right--;
19
20       // Swap elements, and move left and right indices
21       if (left <= right) {
22          swap(arr, left, right); // swaps elements
23          left++;
24          right--;
25       }
26    }
27    return left;
28 }
```

Radix Sort | Runtime: $O(kn)$ **(see below)**

Radix sort is a sorting algorithm for integers (and some other data types) that takes advantage of the fact that integers have a finite number of bits. In radix sort, we iterate through each digit of the number, grouping numbers by each digit. For example, if we have an array of integers, we might first sort by the first digit, so that the 0s are grouped together. Then, we sort each of these groupings by the next digit. We repeat this process sorting by each subsequent digit, until finally the whole array is sorted.

Unlike comparison sorting algorithms, which cannot perform better than $O(n \log(n))$ in the average case, radix sort has a runtime of $O(kn)$, where n is the number of elements and k is the number of passes of the sorting algorithm.

Searching Algorithms

When we think of searching algorithms, we generally think of binary search. Indeed, this is a very useful algorithm to study.

In binary search, we look for an element x in a sorted array by first comparing x to the midpoint of the array. If x is less than the midpoint, then we search the left half of the array. If x is greater than the midpoint, then we search the right half of the array. We then repeat this process, treating the left and right halves as subarrays. Again, we compare x to the midpoint of this subarray and then search either its left or right side. We repeat this process until we either find x or the subarray has size 0.

Note that although the concept is fairly simple, getting all the details right is far more difficult than you might think. As you study the code below, pay attention to the plus ones and minus ones.

```
1  int binarySearch(int[] a, int x) {
2    int low = 0;
3    int high = a.length - 1;
4    int mid;
5
6    while (low <= high) {
7      mid = (low + high) / 2;
8      if (a[mid] < x) {
9        low = mid + 1;
10     } else if (a[mid] > x) {
11       high = mid - 1;
12     } else {
13       return mid;
14     }
15   }
16   return -1; // Error
17 }
18
19 int binarySearchRecursive(int[] a, int x, int low, int high) {
20   if (low > high) return -1; // Error
21
22   int mid = (low + high) / 2;
23   if (a[mid] < x) {
24     return binarySearchRecursive(a, x, mid + 1, high);
25   } else if (a[mid] > x) {
26     return binarySearchRecursive(a, x, low, mid - 1);
27   } else {
28     return mid;
29   }
30 }
```

Potential ways to search a data structure extend beyond binary search, and you would do best not to limit yourself to just this option. You might, for example, search for a node by leveraging a binary tree, or by using a hash table. Think beyond binary search!

Interview Questions

10.1 **Sorted Merge:** You are given two sorted arrays, A and B, where A has a large enough buffer at the end to hold B. Write a method to merge B into A in sorted order.

Hints: #332

pg 396