

Backend Development Basics Review

Python functions

Ceiling Function

```
Math.ceil(p / K) = ((p-1) // K) + 1
```

Sort key-value pairs first by values then keys

```
# my_list: a list of key-value pair tuples
for key, value in sorted(my_list, key=lambda x:(x[1], x[0])):
    res.append(key + " " + value)
```

Dictionary functions

Method	Description
<u>clear()</u>	Removes all the elements from the dictionary
<u>copy()</u>	Returns a copy of the dictionary
<u>fromkeys()</u>	Returns a dictionary with the specified keys and value
<u>get()</u>	Returns the value of the specified key
<u>items()</u>	Returns a list containing a tuple for each key value pair
<u>keys()</u>	Returns a list containing the dictionary's keys
<u>pop()</u>	Removes the element with the specified key
<u>popitem()</u>	Removes the last inserted key-value pair
<u>setdefault()</u>	Returns the value of the specified key. If the key does not exist: insert the key, with the specified value
<u>update()</u>	Updates the dictionary with the specified key-value pairs
<u>values()</u>	Returns a list of all the values in the dictionary

bisect (binary search)

```
bisect.bisect_left(a, x, lo=0, hi=len(a))
```

Locate the insertion point for x in a to maintain sorted order. The parameters lo and hi may be used to specify a subset of the list which should be considered; by default the entire list is used. If x is already

present in `a`, the insertion point will be before (to the left of) any existing entries. The return value is suitable for use as the first parameter to `list.insert()` assuming that `a` is already sorted.

The returned insertion point `i` partitions the array `a` into two halves so that `all(val < x for val in a[lo:i])` for the left side and `all(val >= x for val in a[i:hi])` for the right side.

Special Python functions and values

`str.split()`

By default, split the `str` by any white spaces.

`str.strip()`

Remove spaces at the beginning and at the end of the string.

`list.sort()`

Sort the list in-place in ascending order.

`float('-inf') / float('inf')`

`list(#a string)`

Split a string into arrays with elements separated as items.

`collections.OrderedDict()`

key in dict

syntax to check if the dictionary `dict` contains the key.

Python set

Python set is implemented as a **hash table** with just keys and no values. The key is passed into a hash function, which returns a block address or index. The average time complexity of lookup / insert / delete is $O(1)$.

Algorithms

Union-Find (Rank and Path Compression) $O(\log n)$

```
def find(parent, i):
    if parent[i] != i:
        parent[i] = find(parent, parent[i])
    return parent[i]

def union(rank, x, y):
    x, y = find(parent, x), find(parent, y)
```

```

if rank[x] > rank[y]:
    parent[y] = x
elif rank[y] > rank[x]:
    parent[x] = y
else:
    parent[y] = x
    rank[x] += 1

parent = [i for i in range(n)]
rank = [0] * n
for (i, j) in ...:
    m = find(parent, i)
    n = find(parent, j)
    if m != n:
        union(rank, m, n)

```

- The technique to always attach smaller depth tree under the root of the deeper tree is called **union by rank**. The term rank is preferred instead of height because if path compression technique is used, then rank is not always equal to height. *Also, size (in place of height) of trees can also be used as rank*. Using both metric as rank yields worst case time complexity **$O(\log n)$** .
- The second optimization to naive method is **Path Compression**. The idea is to make the found root as parent of x so that we don't have to traverse all intermediate nodes again. If x is root of a subtree, then path (to root) from all nodes under x also compresses.

Binary Search

```

function binary_search(A, n, T) is
    L := 0
    R := n - 1
    while L ≤ R do
        m := floor((L + R) / 2)
        if A[m] < T then
            L := m + 1
        else if A[m] > T then
            R := m - 1
        else:
            return m
    return unsuccessful

```

Binary Trees

In-order traversal

```

Algorithm Inorder(tree)
1. Traverse the left subtree, i.e., call Inorder(left-subtree)

```

2. Visit the root.
3. Traverse the right subtree, i.e., call Inorder(right-subtree)

Pre-order traversal

Algorithm Preorder(tree)

1. Visit the root.
2. Traverse the left subtree, i.e., call Preorder(left-subtree)
3. Traverse the right subtree, i.e., call Preorder(right-subtree)

Post-order Traversal

Algorithm Postorder(tree)

1. Traverse the left subtree, i.e., call Postorder(left-subtree)
2. Traverse the right subtree, i.e., call Postorder(right-subtree)
3. Visit the root.

Minimum Spanning Trees

Prim Algorithm $O(E \log V)$

```
# Prim's Algorithm in Python

INF = 99999999
# number of vertices in graph
N = 5
#creating graph by adjacency matrix method
G = [[0, 19, 5, 0, 0],
      [19, 0, 5, 9, 2],
      [5, 5, 0, 1, 6],
      [0, 9, 1, 0, 1],
      [0, 2, 6, 1, 0]]

selected_node = [0, 0, 0, 0, 0]

no_edge = 0

selected_node[0] = True

# printing for edge and weight
print("Edge : Weight\n")
while (no_edge < N - 1):

    minimum = INF
```

```

a = 0
b = 0
for m in range(N):
    if selected_node[m]:
        for n in range(N):
            if ((not selected_node[n]) and G[m][n]):
                # not in selected and there is an edge
                if minimum > G[m][n]:
                    minimum = G[m][n]
                    a = m
                    b = n
print(str(a) + "-" + str(b) + ":" + str(G[a][b]))
selected_node[b] = True
no_edge += 1

```

Kruskal Algorithm $O(V^2)$

Leverages Union-Find

```

KRUSKAL(G):
A = ∅
For each vertex v ∈ G.V:
    MAKE-SET(v)
For each edge (u, v) ∈ G.E ordered by increasing order by weight(u, v):
    if FIND-SET(u) ≠ FIND-SET(v):
        A = A ∪ {(u, v)}
        UNION(u, v)
return A

```

Depth-First Search $O(V)$

Implemented using a stack. class Graph:

```

def __init__(self,V): # Constructor
    self.V = V          # No. of vertices
    self.adj = [[] for i in range(V)] # adjacency lists

def addEdge(self,v, w): # to add an edge to graph
    self.adj[v].append(w) # Add w to v's list.

# prints all not yet visited vertices reachable from s
def DFS(self,s): # prints all vertices in DFS manner from a
    given source.
        # Initially mark all verices as not visited
    visited = [False for i in range(self.V)]

```

```

# Create a stack for DFS
stack = []

# Push the current source node.
stack.append(s)

while (len(stack)):
    # Pop a vertex from stack and print it
    s = stack[-1]
    stack.pop()

    # Stack may contain same vertex twice. So
    # we need to print the popped item only
    # if it is not visited.
    if (not visited[s]):
        print(s,end=' ')
        visited[s] = True

    # Get all adjacent vertices of the popped vertex s
    # If a adjacent has not been visited, then push it
    # to the stack.
    for node in self.adj[s]:
        if (not visited[node]):
            stack.append(node)

```

DFS for binary trees (Recursion)

```

def dfs(s: TreeNode, info):
    if not s:
        return # or return False
    # Some operations with s.val
    dfs(s.left, info)
    dfs(s.right, info)

```

Notes

1. Recursion is usually preferred because of cleaner code.
2. If an algorithm (e.g. topological sort) requires to mark vertices as black (explored), gray (visited) or white (unvisited), then we must write recursion instead of the while loop.
3. We can pass information from parents to children by leveraging parameters and return values.

Breadth-First Search $O(V)$

Implemented using a queue.

Topological Sort $O(V+E)$

1. Initialize a new array *arr*.

2. For each of the unvisited nodes in our graph, we run **DFS**.
3. Suppose we are visiting node s . After recursing on all of s 's children, we add s to *arr* because all jobs that need s as a prerequisite are already in *arr*.
4. Once all the nodes have been processed, we simply return *arr* in the reversed order.

Dynamic Programming

Outline

- Breaking the problem down into simpler subproblems, solve each subproblem just once, and store their solutions.
- The next time the same subproblem occurs, instead of recomputing its solution, simply look up its previously computed solution.
- Hopefully, we save a lot of computation at the expense of modest increase in storage space.

Essential components

1. DP table (stores the answer to the problem for a given state)
2. Base cases (initialization values of the DP table)
3. Recurrence relationship

Hash Table

If let array elements be keys and array indices be values, we can reduce the lookup time from $O(n)$ to $O(1)$ by **trading space for speed**.

Example: Leetcode #1

QuickSort: $O(n \log n)$ average

QuickSelect: $O(n)$ average

Typically used to solve the problems "find k th something": k th smallest, k th largest, k th most frequent, k th less frequent, etc.

It has $O(N)$ average time complexity and $O(N^2)$ worst-case time complexity.

Note: the k th largest element is the same as $N-k$ th smallest element.

```
class Solution:
    def findKthLargest(self, nums: List[int], k: int) -> int:
        def partition(left, right, pivot_index):
            pivot = nums[pivot_index]
            # 1. move pivot to end
            nums[pivot_index], nums[right] = nums[right],
            nums[pivot_index]
            # 2. move all smaller elements to the left
            store_index = left
            for i in range(left, right):
                if nums[i] < nums[right]:
```

```

        nums[i], nums[store_index] = nums[store_index],
nums[i]
        store_index += 1

    # 3. move pivot to its final place
    nums[right], nums[store_index] = nums[store_index],
nums[right]
    return store_index

def select(left, right, k_smallest):
    # If the list contains only one element, return that element
    if left == right:
        return nums[left]
    # select a random index between left and right
    pivot_index = random.randint(left, right)
    # find the pivot position in a sorted list
    pivot_index = partition(left, right, pivot_index)
    # compare pivot_index with k
    if k_smallest == pivot_index:
        return nums[k_smallest]
    # go left
    elif k_smallest < pivot_index:
        return select(left, pivot_index - 1, k_smallest)
    else:
        return select(pivot_index + 1, right, k_smallest)
# kth largest is (n-k)th smallest
return select(0, len(nums) - 1, len(nums) - k)

```

Operating Systems

x86 is a family of instruction set architecture initially developed by Intel.

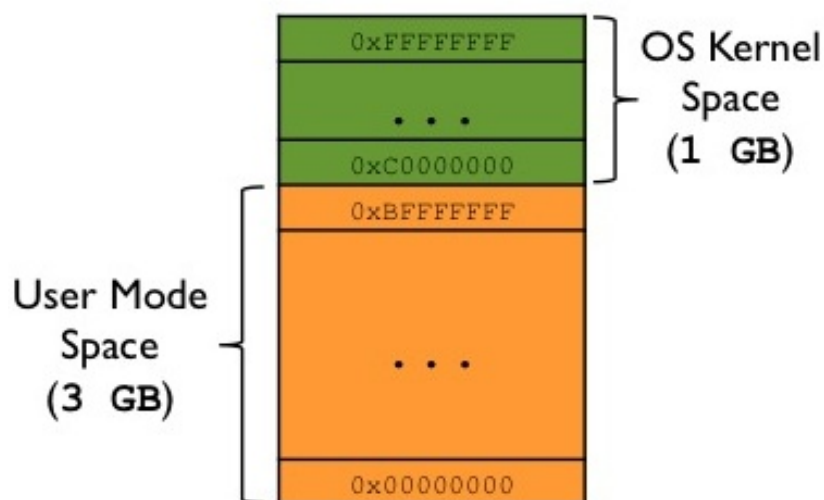
Virtual Memory

Each process in a multitasking OS runs in its own memory sandbox. This is the **virtual address space**, which in case of a 32-bit system is always a **4GB** block of memory addresses.

Since the smallest unit addressable by the CPU is **1 byte = 8 bit**, it turns out that a 32-bit CPU is able to generate up to 2^{32} addresses. These virtual addresses are then mapped to real, physical memory addresses by **page tables** in **memory management unit (MMU)**, which are kept by the operating system kernel.

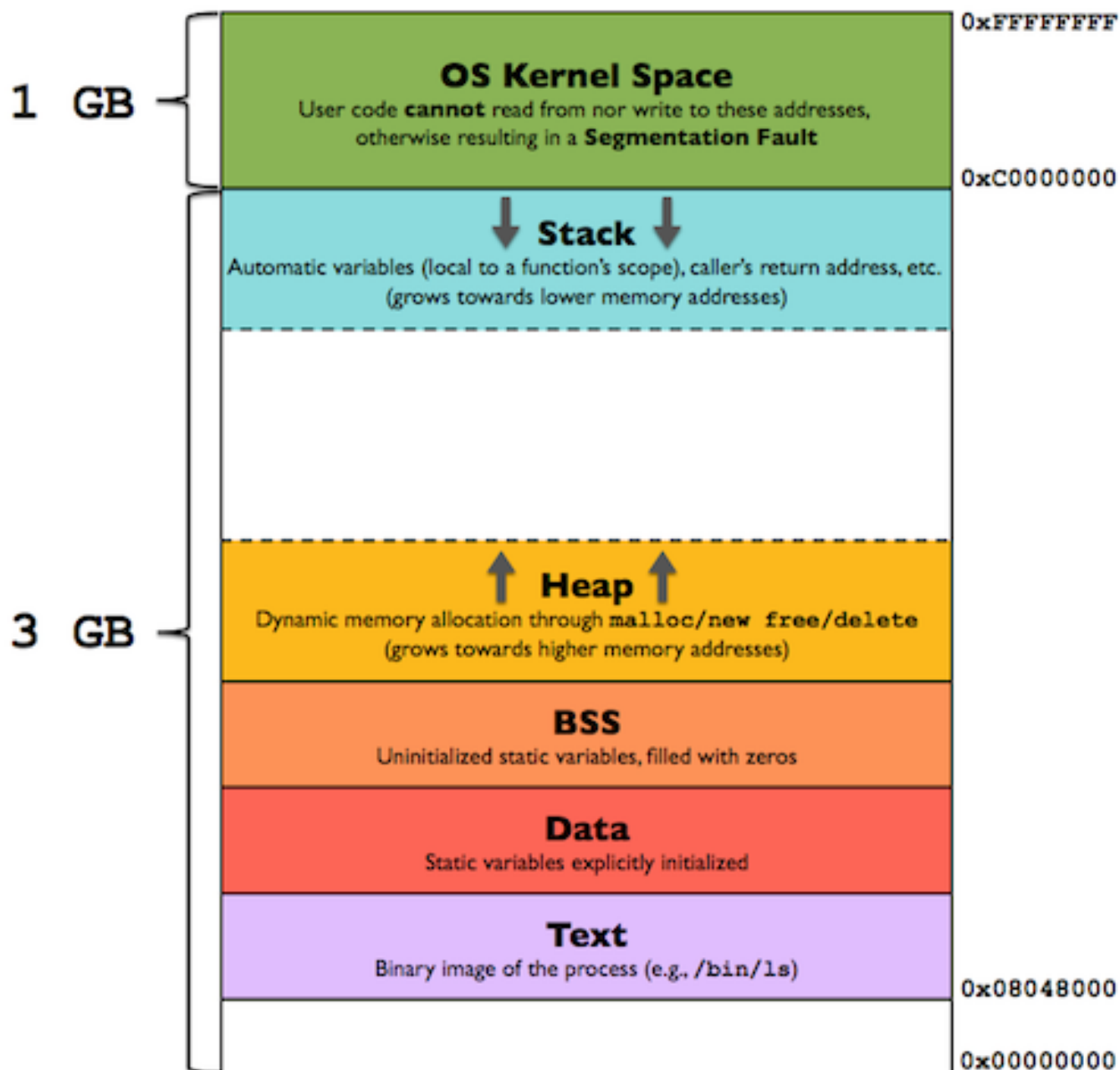
Since the OS kernel is a process itself, it has a dedicated portion of the virtual address space, separated from the portion reserved for any other user's application processes.

The following picture shows a possible split between the OS kernel and the user mode virtual memory



spaces on a typical 32-bit Linux OS.

How a process looks like within the user mode portion of the virtual address space



Text (Code)

- Contains executable instructions of a program.
- Usually sharable, so that only a single copy needs to be in memory for frequently executed programs.
- Often *Read-only* or *Executable*

Data (Initialized data segment)

- Contains the **global** and **static** variables that are initialized by the programmer.
- Not *Read-only*, values of the variables can be altered at run time.
- Further classified into
 - initialized *Read-only* area. e.g. a string literal

```
const char* str = "hello world"
```

- initialized *Read-Write* area. e.g. the following C statements outside the main.

```
char s[] = "hello world"  
int debug = 1
```

BSS (Block Started by Symbol) / Uninitialized data segment

- Data in this segment is initialized by the OS kernel of arithmetic 0 before the program starts executing.
- *Read-Write*
- Contains all global and static variables initialized to zero or not initialized in source code. e.g.

```
static int i
```

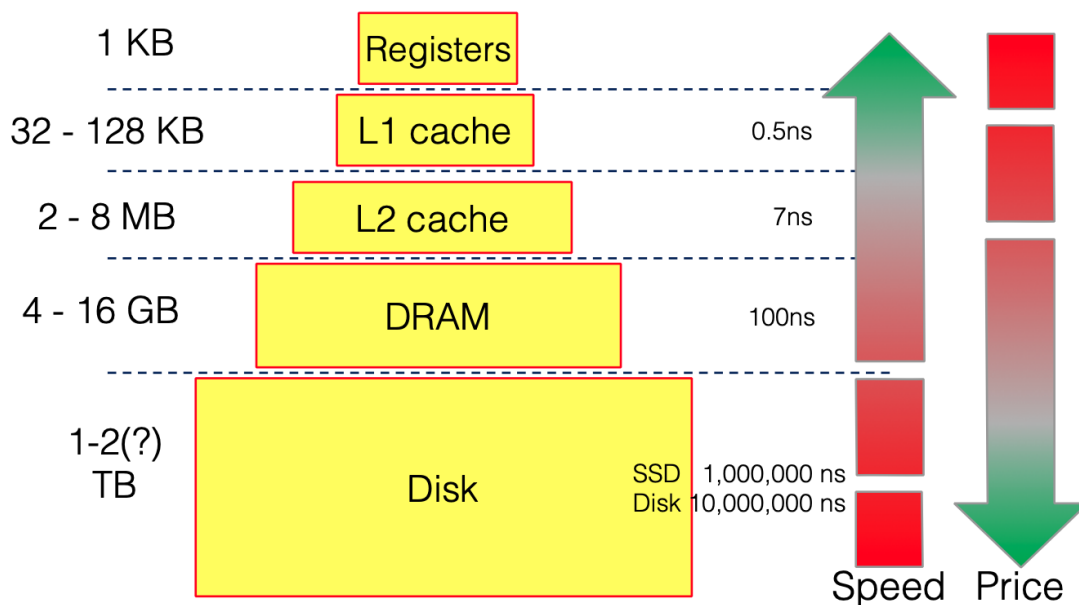
Stack

- Contains the program stack, an **LIFO** structure
- (In x86) Grows downwards to lower addresses
- Store all data needed by a function call in the program.
- Specifically, the set of values pushed for one function call is named a **stack frame**. A **stack pointer** register tracks the top of the stack, and is adjusted each time a value is pushed onto the stack. If the stack pointer meets the **heap pointer**, the available free memory is exhausted.

Heap

- Dynamic memory: memory requested by the programmer for variables whose size can be only known at run-time.
- Managed by `malloc` and `free`, which may use the `brk` and `sbrk` system calls to adjust its size.

Physical Memory Hierarchy



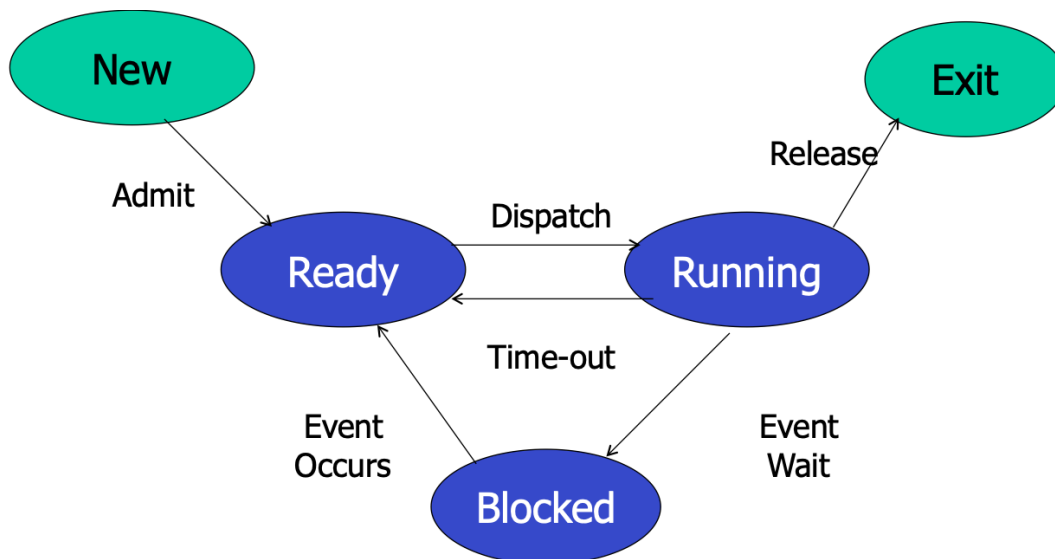
Processes and System Calls

- A process is a running program. A process contains all of the state for a program in execution.
 - An **address space**
 - The **code + data** for the executing program
 - An execution **stack** encapsulating the state of procedure calls
 - The **program counter (PC)** indicating the next instruction
 - A set of general-purpose **registers** with current values
 - A set of operating system resources
 - Open files, network connections, signals, etc.
- A process is named using its **process ID (PID)**

Pointer
Process State
Process Number
Program Counter
Registers
Memory Limits
Open File Lists
Misc. Accounting and Status Data

Process Control Block

Process life cycle



context switch: switch the CPU to another process by

- saving the state of the old process
- loading the saved state for the new process

When can this happen?

- Process calls `yield()` system call (voluntarily)
- Process makes other system call and is blocked
- Timer interrupt handler decides to switch processes

Process Creation

A process is created by another process. Parent is the creator, child is created. In Linux, the parent is the `PPID` field of the `ps -f`.

The **init process (PID 1)** creates the first process. The main task of the init process is to call `wait()` in a loop which collects the termination status of any process that it has adopted.

fork(): process are created.

- Creates and initializes a new PCB
- Creates a new address space
- Initializes the address space with a copy of the entire contents of the address space of the parent
- Initializes the kernel resources to point to the resources used by parent (e.g. open files)
- Places the PCB on the ready queue
- Returns in two processes
 - returns the child's PID to the parent, "0" to the child.

exec(): start a new program

- Stops the current process
- Loads program into the process's address space
- Initializes hardware context and args for the new program
- Places the PCB onto the ready queue

Note: **It does not create a new process.**

Process Destruction

exit(): a process voluntarily releases all resources

But OS cannot discard everything immediately.

- Stopping a process requires context switch to another process
- Parent may be awaiting or asking for the return value

When a process exits,

- Address space is freed
- Files are closed
- Some OS data structures retain the process's exit state
- PID is retained
- The process is now a zombie until its parent collect its termination status.
 - If it does not have a parent, then it is cleaned up by the init process.

We call the child process an "orphan" when its parent terminates first. When a process becomes an orphan, it is "adopted" by the init process.

System Calls

Function calls that invokes the operating system.

Interrupts

- **Hardware interrupt:** Interrupts signal CPU that a hardware device has an event that needs attention.
e.g.
 - timer interrupt
 - seg fault
 - divide by zero
- **Software trap or exception:** Interrupts signal errors or requests for OS intervention. e.g. system call.
 - Some instructions are **privileged instructions** which can only run in kernel mode.
 - On a "system call interrupt", the mode bit is switched to allow privileged instructions to occur.

mmap

Creating shared memory regions.

Processes & threads

How do processes communicate?

- signals
- pipes
- sockets
- shared files
- shared memory (e.g. threading, semaphores)
- message queues

Thread

A **thread** is a single control flow through a program (a segment of a process). A program with multiple control flows is **multithreaded**.

- **Kernel-level threads:** modern OSs have taken the execution aspect of a process and separated it out into a thread abstraction. All thread operations are implemented in the kernel and the OS schedules all of the threads in the system.
- **User-level threads:** Managed entirely by the run-time system
 - Small and fast: A thread is simply represented by a PC, registers, stack, and small thread control block (TCB).
 - Threads easily share code, heap and global variables.
 - Creating a new thread, switching between threads, and synchronizing threads are done via procedure call, no kernel involvement.

Processes vs. threads

- Processes are more heavy-weight than threads and have a higher startup/shutdown cost
- Processes are safer and more secure (each process has its own address space)
 - A thread crash takes down all other threads
 - A thread's buffer overrun creates security problem for all

Multi-processing vs. multi-threading

- Multi-processing needs more than one CPU; many threads are created of a single process for increasing computing power
- Both executes simultaneously
- Process creation is a time-consuming process
- Every process owned a separate address space; address space shared by all the threads

POSIX Threads (pthreads)

Standardized C language threads programming API.

Deadlocks

- Root causes:
 - Resources are finite
 - Hardware
 - Data
 - Synchronization objects
 - Processes wait if a resource they need is unavailable
 - Resources may be held by other waiting processes

Conditions for deadlock

1. **Mutual exclusion:** Only one process may use a resource at a time.
2. **Hold and wait:** A process may hold allocated resources while awaiting assignment of others.
3. **No preemption:** No resource can be forcibly removed from a process holding it.
4. **Circular wait:** A closed chain of processes exists, such that each process holds at least one resource needed by the next process in the chain.

Deadlock Prevention

Idea: Break one of the four conditions and deadlock cannot occur.

System Programming

Signals

A mechanism that allow a process or the operating system to interrupt a currently running process and notify it that an event has occurred.

sigaction()

Modify the signal table so that a new signal handling function is called instead of the default action.

Each signal is identified by a number between 1 and 31.

I/O

pipe()

Pipe is one type of communication mechanism that can be used to send data between related processes.

- Specified by an array of two file descriptors: stored in `fd` - One for reading data from the pipe: the 0th element `fd[0]` - One for writing data to the pipe: the 1th element `fd[1]`
- Unidirectional

When the program calls `pipe()`,

- The operating system creates the pipe data structures and opens two file descriptors on the pipe
- The pipe system call returns.

select()

```
int select(numfd, read_fds, write_fds, error_fds, timeout)
```

Avoid the situation where parent waiting for an indefinite child while the other child has a lot to say.

Idea: the caller specifies a set of file descriptors to watch. The second parameter is the address of the set of descriptors from which the user wants to read. **Select blocks until one of these file descriptors has data to be read or until the resource has been closed.** In either case, the user is certain now that calling read on that file descriptor will not cause `read()` to block. We will say that a file descriptor like this (with data or with a closed resource) is "ready".

socket()

```
int socket (int domain, int type, int protocol)
```

Sockets are built on the TCP protocol to communicate between processes on two different machines.

epoll()

```
int epoll_create1(int flags);
int epoll_ctl(int epfd, int op, int fd, struct epoll_event *event);
int epoll_wait(int epfd, struct epoll_event *events, int maxevents, int timeout);
```

`epoll()` is meant to replace `select()` and `poll()` for a scalable I/O event notification mechanism. It monitors multiple file descriptors to see if I/O is possible on any of them.

epoll() vs. select()

- We can add and remove file descriptor while waiting.

- `epoll_wait()` returns only the objects with ready file descriptors.
- `epoll` has better performance – $O(1)$ instead of $O(n)$.

assert()

`void assert(int expression);` If expression evaluates to 0 (false), then the expression, sourcecode filename, and line number are sent to the standard error, and then `abort()` function is called.

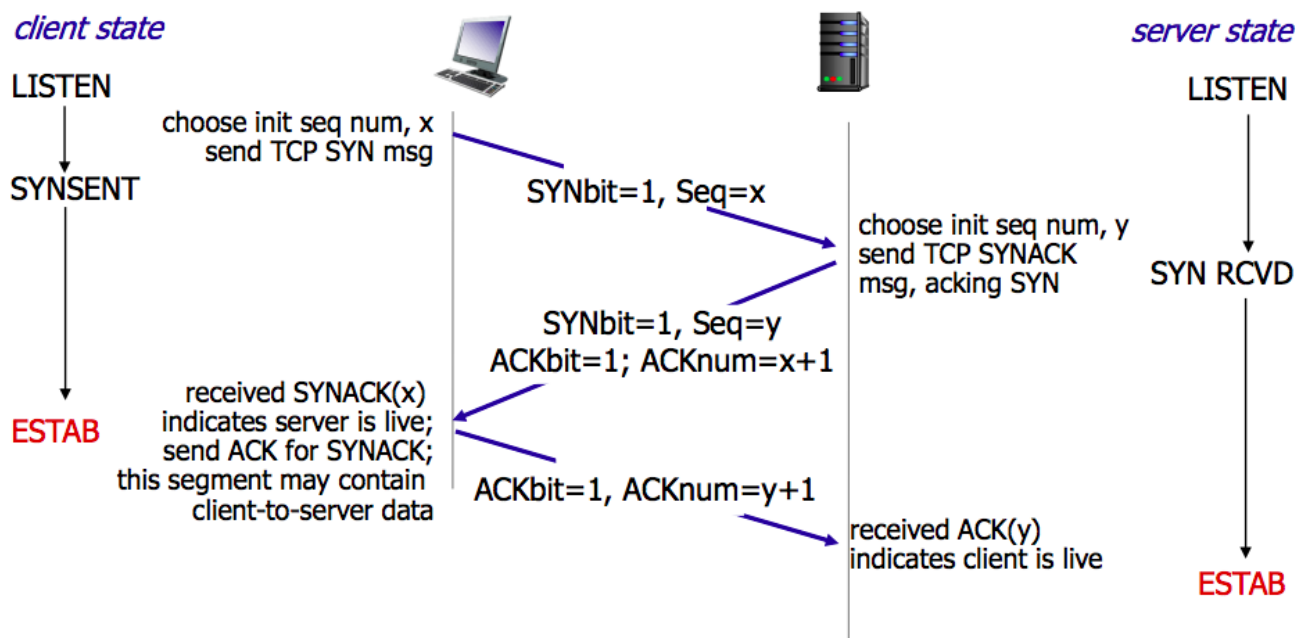
`abort()` terminates the process by raising a SIGABRT signal.

Computer Networks

TCP

Three-way handshake

1. Host A send a SYN to the host B
 1. SYN=1, sequence number=x
2. Host B returns a SYN acknowledgement (SYN ACK)
 1. SYN=1, ACK=1, sequence number=x, ACKnum=x+1
3. Host A sends an ACK to acknowledge SYN ACK
 1. SYN=0, ACK=1, ACKnum=y+1

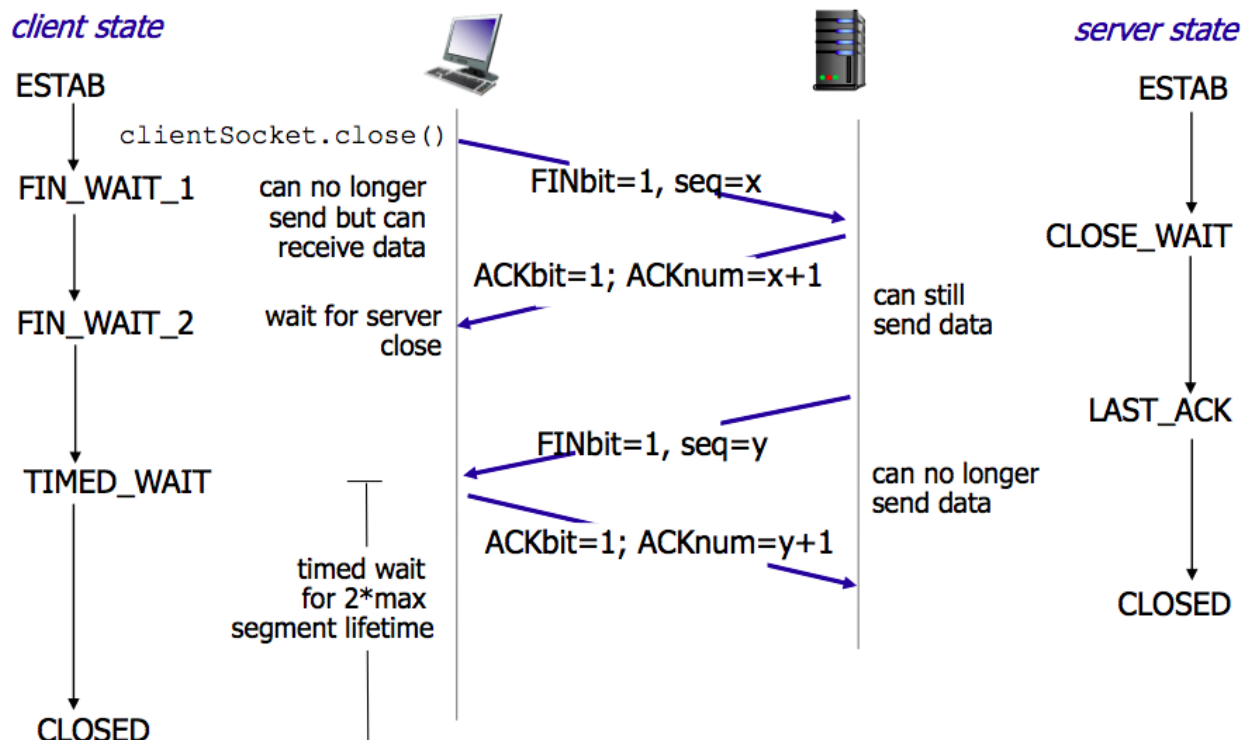


Four-way handshake

Tearing down TCP connections.

1. Host A send a FIN to the host B, indicating it has no packets to send out but can still receive data.
 1. FIN=1, sequence number=x
2. Host B returns an ACK. When A receive the packet, A will wait for B to close the connection.

1. ACK=1, ACKnum=x+1
3. Host B sends a FIN to the host A to request closing the connection and wait for acknowledgment. B can no longer send data.
 1. FIN=1, seq=y
4. Host A sends an ACK to the host B
 1. ACK=1, ACKnum=y+1



Flow control

Flow control

- The receiver specifies the *receive window* field that it is willing to buffer for the connection.
- When receiver advertises a window size of 0, the sender stops sending data and starts the *persist timer*. When the timer expires, the sender attempts recovery by sending a small packet so that the receiver responds by sending another acknowledgement containing the new window size.

Congestion Control

- Slow start
 - Exponential Growth: increase window size one segment each time an ACK is received.
- Congestion avoidance mechanism
 - Additively increase the window size when successfully send a window of data.
- Fast recovery algorithm
 - Used for decreasing the window size upon packet loss.

UDP

- Unreliable message delivery service
- Lightweight communication between processes

- No delay for connection establishment
- No connection
- Small packet header overhead (8 bytes)

Applications: telephone calls, video conferencing, gaming.

Hypertext Transfer Protocol (HTTP)

An application layer (TCP/IP based) client-server protocol that allows web-based applications to communicate and exchange data.

- Connectionless
- Stateless
- Can deliver any sort of data

Hypertext Transfer Protocol Secure (HTTPS)

An extension of HTTP. It is used for secure communication over a computer network, and is encrypted using Transport Layer Security (TLS) or, formerly, Secure Sockets Layer (SSL). It forbids the intermediate nodes on the network to see the data in delivery.

Encryption of HTTPS

Involves both symmetric and asymmetric encryption.

Handshake mechanism

- The client sends out a request to the server.
- The server generates a public key and a private key for asymmetric encryption. It sends out the public key to the server along with a public certificate signed by the certification authority.
- The client uses certificate to verify the public key belongs to the server. The client then generates the symmetric key for symmetric encryption, encrypts this key using the public key.
- The server then decrypts the message using its private key.
- The client and the server can then communicate safely using the symmetric key.

Requires a trusted Certification Authority (CA) to verify server's identity (signed with CA's private key). Client can verify certificate (and thus server identity) using CA's public key.

C++

Virtual function

A **virtual function** is a member function in the base class that we expect to redefine in derived classes. It ensures that the function is overridden.

Constructor

A **constructor** in C++ is a special method that is automatically called when an object of class is created.

When declared inside the class, the constructor can be defined outside the class by specifying the name of the class followed by the scope resolution : :.

```
class Car {          // The class
public:              // Access specifier
    string brand;    // Attribute
    string model;    // Attribute
    int year;        // Attribute
    Car(string x, string y, int z); // Constructor declaration
};

// Constructor definition outside the class
Car::Car(string x, string y, int z) {
    brand = x;
    model = y;
    year = z;
}

int main() {
    // Create Car objects and call the constructor with different
values
    Car carObj1("BMW", "X5", 1999);
    Car carObj2("Ford", "Mustang", 1969);

    // Print values
    cout << carObj1.brand << " " << carObj1.model << " " <<
carObj1.year << "\n";
    cout << carObj2.brand << " " << carObj2.model << " " <<
carObj2.year << "\n";
    return 0;
}
```