

I. THE RANGE AND SCOPE OF COMPUTERS

Introduction

Calculations have always been part of man's life. Simpler calculations take less time but complex calculations take much longer time. With the idea of developing a machine which could perform complex calculations faster and with full accuracy, man invented the 'computer'. Computer is derived from the word "compute" which means "calculate" meaning that a computer is simply a calculating machine.

Definition: A computer is an electronic device that can accept, store, and process data to produce information.

It can also be defined as a machine that can take instructions and perform computations based on those instructions.

Computers range from very small to very large machines with some capable of doing millions of calculations in a single second, while others may take long periods of time to do even the most simple calculations.

1. Classification of Computers

Computers can be classified into five categories, on the basis of their size and capabilities. The size of the computer may refer to multiple factors like, size of the memory, number of terminals that can be connected to the computer, storage capacity of the hard disk and the type of processor used in the computer. These categories are supercomputers, mainframe computers, minicomputers and microcomputers.

1.1. Microcomputers

Microcomputers are the smallest category of computers that range in size from servers to handheld devices. They are the type of computers meant for public use. They are designed to be used by one person at a time. Microcomputers, also called personal computers (PC), can be further classified into desktop computers, laptop computers. Tablet PCs and personal digital assistants (PDAs).

1.2. Minicomputers

Minicomputers are larger and faster than microcomputers and are designed to support more than one user at a time. They are generally used for processing large volumes of data in an organization. Minicomputers are also used as servers in a local area network. Another name for minicomputers is "mid-range computers." Two classic examples of minicomputers were the Digital Equipment Corporation VAX and the IBM AS/400.

1.3. Mainframe Computers

Mainframes are powerful multi-user computers capable of supporting up to hundreds of users simultaneously. They operate at very high speed and have very large storage capacities. They are used by large organizations like meteorological surveys and statistical institutes for performing bulk mathematical computations.

1.4. Supercomputers

Supercomputers are the fastest and most expensive type of computers. They can perform hundreds of millions of computations per second and are employed for specialized applications that require immense amounts of mathematical calculations. Weather forecasting, scientific simulations, nuclear energy research, electronic design, and analysis of geological data all require supercomputers. Examples of supercomputers are Fujitsu K computer, IBM Blue Gene, Cray Jaguar and NEC Earth Simulator.

2. Generations of Computers

Computers of specific electronic era are often referred to as a generation. Each generation is characterized by a major technological development that fundamentally changed the way computers operate, resulting in increasingly smaller, cheaper, more powerful and more efficient and reliable devices.

Definition: A computer generation is an era or period in the history of computers in which the computer was characterized by a major technological development that fundamentally changed the way computers operate.

2.1. First Generation (1945-1955)

First generation computers were made using vacuum tubes. A vacuum tube was a fragile glass device that could control and amplify electronic signals. These computers were very large taking up entire rooms, very expensive to operate and in addition to using a great deal of electricity, generated a lot of heat, which was often the cause of malfunctions. First generation computers relied on machine language, the lowest-level programming language understood by computers, to perform operations, and they could only solve one problem at a time. Input was based on punched cards and paper tape, and output was displayed on printouts.

Some examples of first generation computers are ENIAC (*Electronic Numerical Integrator And Calculator*), EDSAC (*Electronic Delay Storage Automatic Calculator*) and UNIVAC I (*Universal Automatic Computer I*).

2.2. Second Generation (1955-1965)

Transistors replaced vacuum tubes and ushered in the second generation of computers. The transistor was far superior to the vacuum tube, allowing computers to become smaller, faster, cheaper, more energy-efficient and more reliable than their first-generation predecessors. Though the transistor still generated a great deal of heat that subjected the computer to damage, it was a vast improvement over the vacuum tube. Second-generation computers still relied on punched cards for input and printouts for output.

Second generation computers moved from cryptic binary machine language to symbolic, or assembly languages, which allowed programmers to specify instructions in words. High-level programming languages were also being developed at this time, such as early versions of COBOL and FORTRAN. These were also the first computers that stored their instructions in their memory, which moved from a magnetic drum to magnetic core technology.

2.3. Third Generation (1956-1980)

Third generation computers were designed with the use of integrated circuits (ICs). Integrated circuits made it possible to embed a large number of transistors into very small surface area of silicon known as chip. Instead of punched cards and printouts, users interacted with third generation computers through keyboards and monitors and interfaced with an operating system, which allowed the device to run many different applications at one time with a central program that monitored the memory. Computers for the first time became accessible to a mass audience because they were smaller and cheaper than their predecessors.

2.4. Fourth Generation

The microprocessor brought the fourth generation of computers, as thousands of integrated circuits were built onto a single silicon chip. What in the first generation filled an entire room could now fit in the palm of the hand. As these small computers became more powerful, they could be linked together to form networks, which eventually led to the development of the Internet. Fourth generation computers also saw the development of GUIs, the mouse and handheld devices.

2.5. Fifth Generation (1980 - present)

Till fourth generation computers, the main stress was on hardware technology. Fourth generation computers are faster, more accurate, reliable, smaller in size and very cheap, still they lack thinking power. Fifth generation computing devices are based on artificial intelligence. Artificial intelligence will give computers thinking power and capability to make decisions like human beings. They are still in development though there are some applications, such as voice recognition, that are being used today.

3. Applications of Computers

Computers are fast becoming our way of life and one cannot imagine life without computers in today's world. Their importance can be attributed to the fact that almost every sphere of our life is affected. We find their applications particularly in fields where computations are required to be done at a very fast speed and where data is so complicated that the human brain finds it difficult to cope up with.

3.1. Commercial and General Data Processing Systems

3.1.1. ATM Systems

ATM stands for Automatic/Automated Teller Machine. It is a machine that is connected to a bank's computer system that provides the bank's customers with access to financial transactions in a public space without the need for a cashier, human clerk or bank teller. The ATM can be used by the customers to make cash withdrawals, credit card advances or check their account balances.

On most modern ATM systems, a customer is identified by inserting a plastic ATM card with a magnetic stripe or a plastic smart card with a chip, which contains a unique card number and some security information. Authentication is provided by the customer entering a personal identification number (PIN). Upon successful entry of the PIN, the customer may perform a transaction.

ATMs are known by various other names including automatic/automated banking machine (ABM), automated transaction machine and cashpoint.

3.1.2. Stock Control Systems

The collection of items that a business manufactures or sells is called stock. In a shop for example, the stock includes all of the items on the shelves and out the back in the storeroom.

It is important that a business does not keep too much stock or too little stock. This is because:

- ✓ Too much stock costs money as you have to store it all somewhere
- ✓ Too much perishable stock (e.g. food) means that it may go bad before it is sold
- ✓ Too little stock means that you might run out of stock before the next delivery arrives

Definition: A stock control system is basically a database that keeps track of stock and informs users of when to re-order along with helpful sales reports.

When items are sold or delivered, their codes are input to the system either manually or using a point-of-sale terminal (barcode scanner or similar technology). The database matches the codes with the items' names and prices, prints an itemized bill and uses the data to update stock levels. It also updates a sales file which can be used there and then to calculate all sorts of statistics.

Stock control systems make it very easy for stock levels to be monitored, and for stock to be reordered when it is running low.

3.1.3. EFTPOS Systems

EFTPOS stands for Electronic Fund Transfer at the Point Of Sale. It is a system that combines a business' stock control system (EPOS) with an electronic fund transfer system, thereby enabling the business to conduct financial transactions electronically. It allows individuals to pay for goods using credit or debit cards.

To pay for goods, a customer inserts their debit or credit card into a terminal device and types in a PIN number to verify that it is their card. The system electronically contacts their bank to check that the card is valid and hasn't been stolen and also that there is enough fund in their account to pay for the goods. Once payment has been authorized by the bank, money is removed from the customer's account and electronically paid into the shop's account.

3.1.4. Reservation Systems

A computer reservation system or central reservation system is a computerized system used to store and retrieve information and conduct transactions related to air travel, hotels, car rental, or activities. They allow users to book hotel rooms, buy airline tickets, rent cars, etc. They also provide access to railway reservations and bus reservations in some markets, although these are not always integrated with the main system.

3.2. Industrial, Scientific and Technical Uses

3.2.1. Modeling and Simulation

Many things can be described by a set of mathematical formulas. When these formulas are included in a computer program, the result is a computer model.

Definition: A computer model is a computer program that represents the construction and working of a real-life situation or system.

Models are usually produced in order to study the systems they represent.

Definition: Simulation is the manipulation or operation of a model of a system in order to study the behavior of the real system.

Modeling and simulation are useful for studying systems which would be impossible, too expensive to build, impractical or dangerous to work with. Examples of situations that can be simulated are:

- ✓ The training of pilots
- ✓ The design of a bridge
- ✓ The design of a building

3.2.2. Computer-Aided Design

Computer-aided design (CAD) is the use of computer technology in the design process. A CAD software package allows a designer to create technical drawings and schematics which can be 2-dimensional or 3-dimensional.

The benefit of CAD software packages is their ability to provide a digital prototype of the product at early stages of the design process, which can be used for testing and evaluation. Examples of CAD applications are AutoCAD used for technical drawings and AREAS used for designing printed circuit boards.

3.2.3. Computer-Aided Manufacturing

Computer-aided manufacturing (CAM) is the use of computer technology to assist in the manufacturing process. In CAM, the computer is used to program, direct, and control production equipment in order to manufacture products. Its primary purpose is to create a faster production process and components and tooling with more detailed dimensions and material consistency, which in some cases, uses only the required amount of raw material (thus minimizing waste), while simultaneously reducing energy consumption. For example, on the production line of a car plant, computers will control the robots that spot-weld the car body together or the robots that spray-paint the car.

3.2.4. Computer Integrated Manufacturing

Computer-integrated manufacturing (CIM) is the manufacturing approach of using computers to control the entire production process. It is the total integration of computer-aided design and computer-aided manufacturing. The computers that design the products are linked directly to the computers that aid the manufacturing process.

3.3. Control Systems, Embedded Systems and Robotics

3.3.1. Control and Monitoring Systems

Control is the process of monitoring activities to ensure that they are being accomplished as planned and of correcting any significant deviations. A computer control system is a computerized system designed to control a process. Examples are traffic light control systems, greenhouse control systems, and patient monitoring systems.

a. Traffic Light System

In a traffic light system a computer controls the sequences of lights displayed at a cross-roads to ensure that cars do not crash. Additionally the computer operates a pedestrian crossing to let pedestrians cross the road when a button is pressed.

b. Greenhouse Control System

In a greenhouse system, a computer controls the temperature in a greenhouse to maintain the conditions required for the plants in it to grow. The greenhouse has temperature and humidity sensors linked to a computer, and the computer has a control program storing details of the correct temperature and humidity settings. The greenhouse is fitted with a heater, sprinkler and window motor, also linked to the computer. If the humidity falls below the values stored in the program, the computer activates the sprinklers and closes the windows. If the temperature falls outside the values stored in the program, the heater is activated by the computer.

The system monitors the conditions night and day with immediate response to any changes. To alter the growing conditions the values in the computer program can of course be changed.

c. Patient Monitoring System

In a patient monitoring system, a computer controls the monitoring system used to measure the health condition of patients. If a patient's condition gets critical, the system alerts the nurses or a doctor.

3.3.2. Embedded Systems

An embedded system is a small computing device (microcontroller) that is built into a larger equipment often as a single chip and dedicated to a given task. Embedded systems control many devices in use today such as digital watches, mobile phones, microwave ovens, washing machines, vehicles, photocopiers, and very large stationary installations like traffic lights, factory controllers or the systems controlling nuclear power plants.

3.3.3. Robotics

Robotics is the branch of technology that deals with the design, construction, operation and application of robots. A robot is a machine that is designed to repeatedly do what humans can do with speed and precision. An important application of this technology has been to create robots to perform certain functions that are dangerous for human beings, or to do tasks that can be more effectively performed by machines than by people. Although it may not have the physical appearance of a human being, a robot may be thought of as a machine acting as a person while being controlled by a computer.

3.4. Application of Computers in Arts and Media

3.4.1. Computers in Music

a. Notation Software

Notation or composition software is used to speed up the writing of music and allow easy duplication of scores. Many types of notation software include the ability to connect to instruments. An instrument can be connected to the computer through MIDI (Musical Instrument Digital Interface) and by simply playing a part, the software notates it and can even play it back in some cases. Finale is one of the most popular examples of notation software.

b. Recording Software

Recording software make it possible to record sound using a computer. With recording software, users can record their own music without going to Record Label Companies. Recording software makes it easy to fix poor recording. Also, one program can perform the same number of actions that will be performed with a number of equipment. Protools, Adobe Audition, Cool Edit Pro and Cubase are common examples.

c. Art Design Software

Art design is vital to the music industry as having good cover art is crucial to success. Art and graphical design software allow an artist to come up with their own look and feel to cover art. This lets the album take on a unique feel to it.

d. Advertising

Artists use the Internet to advertise new CD releases, tour dates, merchandise, and bonus tracks. Samples of new songs are released to entice the listener to buy the album.

3.4.2. Computers in Film-making

a. Animation

Animation is the rapid display of a series of images in order to create an illusion of movement. Stop motion animation (or frame-by-frame) is an animation technique where the artist maneuvers real-world objects and photographs them one at a time. A computer is then used to combine the photos in a series, thereby creating an illusion of movement. Cartoons are produced through animation.

Assignment: What is claymation?

Answer: A form of stop-motion animation in which each object is sculpted in clay or a similarly pliable material such as plasticine.

b. Motion Capture

Motion capture (mocap) is the process of recording a live motion event and translating it into actionable data that allows for a 3D recreation of the performance. In film making, motion capture is used to film an actor's movements which are turned into 3D movements, and then mapped to an avatar.

II. SOCIAL, ECONOMIC, ETHICAL AND LEGAL IMPLICATIONS OF COMPUTERS

Introduction

Computers have had many effects on individuals in society. They have impacted on the way individuals work, socialize and run their lives. As a result of computers, an individual's values are now in constant flux. The moral and ethical framework that guides an individual is constantly changing as is the economic and legal framework within which lives are led.

1. Social and Economic Effects of Computers

The widespread use of computers has affected people and organizations in many ways. Some of the effects of computers include:

- ✓ The introduction of computers have made some jobs outdated leading to unemployment
- ✓ New jobs have been created like engineering to build machines, software programming to write programs for the computers, etc
- ✓ There is reduction in working hours as a result of automation of some tasks which can lead to reduction of salaries.
- ✓ The introduction of computers has led to retraining or reskilling as many employees have to be trained on how to use a computer.
- ✓ Automation of tasks can lead to difficult jobs becoming easy so anyone can do them. As a result, a skilled employee suddenly is the proud possessor of skills that no-one needs any more.
- ✓ Automation of tasks has led to an increase in productivity thereby improving the profit of the organization.
- ✓ Computers have led to new types of crimes like phishing, identity theft, piracy etc
- ✓ The post office has become more of a bill paying center than a communication center as it is now faster and cheaper to communicate online through emails and chats.
- ✓ More information can be stored on very little space
- ✓ Privacy has become a concern as confidential data stored in computers or distributed on networks can be intercepted by hackers and crackers.

2. Computer Crimes

A computer crime is any illegal act that involves the computer either as the target of the crime or as a tool used in committing the crime. When the computer is the target of the criminal act, the crime is said to be a computer-related crime. When it is a tool used to commit the crime, the crime is referred to as a computer-assisted crime.

2.1. Types of Computer Crimes

2.1.1. Phishing

Phishing is the criminally fraudulent process of acquiring or attempting to acquire sensitive information such as usernames, passwords and credit card details by masquerading as a

trustworthy entity in an electronic communication. The phisher sends out an e-mail that pretends to come from a bank or corporation with which the victim has an account.

The e-mail message tells the victim to click on a link in order to handle some kind of urgent business. In reality, both the message and the link are counterfeit, and the victim ends up giving their password or credit card information to the phisher, or at the very least, visiting a web site that disseminates malware.

2.1.2. Software Piracy

Software piracy or copyright infringement is the illegal (unauthorized) reproduction of copyrighted or patented software for personal use, for sale or free distribution. It is the most widely practiced type of computer crime. Software piracy occurs more easily with the ability to post files for downloading all over the world. However, another more costly copyright infringement occurs when trademarks and logos of corporations are posted on non-authorized web sites. Some criminals utilize the trademarks and logos to appear to be a legitimate site to perpetrate fraud. Many corporations have employees or consulting contractors who constantly crawl the web to sniff out illegal usage of trademarks and logos.

2.1.3. Malware Attacks

Malware (malicious software) is any software that could harm a computer system, interfere with a user's data, or make the computer to perform actions without the owner's knowledge or permission. Examples are virus, worms, Trojan horse, spyware and logic bombs.

✓ Virus

A virus is a computer program that can copy itself and infect a computer where it destroys files and disrupts the operation of the computer. A virus can spread from one computer to another (in some form of executable code) when its host is taken to the target computer.

✓ Worm

A worm is a self-replicating malicious program which uses a computer network to send copies of itself to other computers (nodes) on the network and it may do so without any user intervention. Unlike a virus, it does not need to attach itself to an existing program. Worms cause harm to the network by consuming bandwidth whereas viruses corrupt or modify files on a targeted computer.

✓ Trojan horse

A Trojan horse is malware that appears to perform a desirable function for the user prior to run or install but instead facilitates unauthorized access of the user's computer system. Once a Trojan horse has been installed on a target computer system, a hacker may have access to the computer remotely and perform various operations, limited by user privileges on the target computer system and the design of the Trojan horse.

✓ Spyware

Spyware is software that monitors a computer user's activity without their knowledge and reports it to a central location. The purpose of spyware ranges from purportedly benign (enforcing copyrights, displaying targeted advertisements) to very malicious (stealing

passwords and credit card numbers). The most common way to get spyware on your computer is to install it yourself when you are tricked into installing free software.

✓ Logic bomb

A logic bomb also known as slag code, is a piece of computer code that executes a malicious task such as clearing a hard drive or deleting specific files, when it is triggered by a specific event. It is secretly inserted into the code of a computer's existing software, where it lies dormant until that event occurs. This event may be a specific date and time or failure to input a command at a certain time.

✓ Software Key loggers

Software key loggers are software that record keystrokes entered by a user, usually to secretly monitor and/or maliciously use this information. They can record instant messages, email, passwords and any other information you type at any time using your keyboard. Software key loggers may also be embedded in spyware, allowing your information to be transmitted to an unknown third party over the Internet.

2.1.4. Denial of Service

A denial or degradation of service (DoS) is an attack to a computer system that puts it out of action by overloading it with data in a way that the system was never prepared to handle. A DoS attack makes the system unavailable to its intended users. A distributed denial-of-service (DDoS) attack is one in which a multitude of compromised systems attack a single target, thereby causing denial of service for users of the targeted system.

2.1.5. Hacking and Cracking

2.1.6. Social Engineering

Social engineering refers to a non-technical kind of intrusion that relies heavily on human interaction and often involves tricking other people to break normal security procedures. A person using social engineering to break into a computer network might try to gain the confidence of an authorized user and get them to reveal information that compromises the network's security. Social engineers often rely on the natural helpfulness of people as well as on their weaknesses.

2.1.7. Cyber Stalking

Cyber stalking is a crime in which the attacker harasses a victim using electronic communication, such as e-mail or instant messaging (IM), or messages posted to a web site or a discussion group. Cyber stalking messages differ from ordinary spam in that a cyber-stalker targets a specific victim with often threatening messages, while the spammer targets a multitude of recipients with simply annoying messages.

2.1.8. Cyber Terrorism

Cyber terrorism can be defined as an act of terrorism committed through the use of cyberspace or computer resources. As such, a simple propaganda in the Internet, that there will be bomb attacks during the holidays can be considered cyber terrorism.

Other types of crimes are: scamming, theft of computer equipment, pharming, spoofing, and phreaking.

2.2. Measures to Combat Computer Crimes

The following measures can be used to combat computer crimes:

- ✓ Install strong doors and locks to computer rooms to prevent computer equipment theft.
- ✓ Use access control mechanisms that will ensure confidentiality, integrity and availability.
- ✓ Encrypt confidential data stored in computers or transmitted over communication networks.
- ✓ Install antivirus software and update it regularly
- ✓ Install intrusion detection systems to help detect any unauthorized access to the system.
- ✓ Install firewalls to prevent unauthorized access to local networks.

3. Computer Systems Security

Computer system security is the process of preventing and detecting the unauthorized use of computer systems. Prevention helps stop unauthorized users from accessing any part of the computer system by controlling access to the system, while detection helps determine whether or not someone attempted to break into the system, if they were successful, and what they may have done.

Computer security has three main goals, confidentiality, integrity and availability, which can be conveniently summarized by the acronym "CIA":

- ✓ Confidentiality ensures that information is not accessed by unauthorized persons. In other words, it ensures that information is kept secret or private.
- ✓ Integrity ensures that information is not altered by unauthorized persons in a way that is not detectable by authorized users. That means that there is an external consistency in the system - everything is as it is expected to be.
- ✓ Availability ensures that the system is accessible and useable upon appropriate demand by authorized users. In other words, this means preventing denial-of-service.

Different mechanisms used to ensure the security of computer systems are authentication, encryption, firewalls, digital signatures, etc.

3.1. Authentication

Authentication is the process of determining if someone is who they declare to be. In simple terms, it is proving someone's identity. Authentication can be obtained by the user providing something they know (password), something they have (smart card) or something they are (biometrics).

3.1.1. Passwords

A password is a secret sequence of characters that is required to login to a system, thus preventing unauthorized persons from gaining access to the system. When authentication is done through the use of a password, knowledge of the password is assumed to guarantee

that the user is authentic. Passwords can be guessed or cracked and so if anyone is using a password to protect their system, the following guidelines will help make it more secure:

- ✓ Don't choose an obvious password (like your name, date of birth or name of relative)
- ✓ Keep your password secret. Don't share it!
- ✓ Change your password regularly but not too often.
- ✓ Make your password at least eight characters long.
- ✓ Do not use common or proper words or phrases - these can be found using a dictionary cracker.
- ✓ Use a mixture of upper and lower case letters and numbers.

3.1.2. Smart Card

A smart card is a small card that holds user authentication information. When the card is inserted into a card reader, electrical fingers wipe against the card. The information in the card is read and used to authenticate the person. Cards can be stolen and so are not as reliable as biometrics.

3.1.3. Biometrics

Biometrics is the science and technology of measuring and analyzing biological data. In computer security, it refers to the use of measurable biological characteristics such as fingerprints, eye retinas, iris patterns, facial patterns, voice patterns, hand measurements and DNA, to identify a person. It is the safest authentication technique.

Assignment: What do you understand by access control?

Answer: The limitation and control of access to a system through identification and authentication.

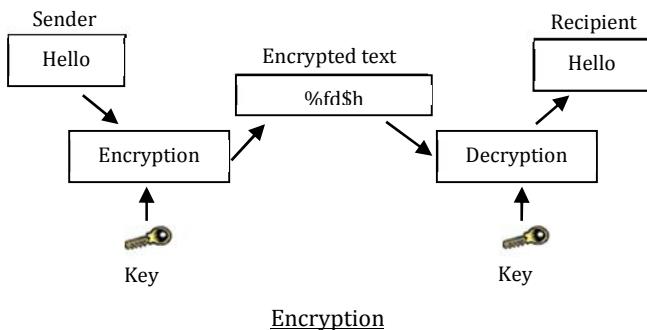
Or

The process of limiting access to a system only to authorized users. This can be achieved through identification and authentication.

3.2. Encryption

Encryption is the process of transforming a message using an algorithm into a form unreadable by anyone except the intended recipient. The original message is known as plaintext, the algorithm is cipher and the encrypted text is ciphertext. To read an encrypted message, one must have access to a key that will enable them to decrypt it.

Encryption ciphers can be grouped into two: substitution and transposition ciphers.



3.2.1. Substitution Ciphers

A substitution cipher is one in which the letters of the original message are replaced by other letters according to a key. Many substitution ciphers use only one alphabet, and are called monoalphabetic ciphers. This means that we substitute one and only one letter for a particular letter in the message.

For example, every T in the message is replaced by the same substitute letter or symbol. Such a cipher scheme is easy to remember, but is also vulnerable to "cracking" using frequency analysis (letter counting).

In order to make substitution ciphers more secure, more than one alphabet can be used. Such ciphers are called polyalphabetic ciphers, meaning that the same letter of a message can be represented by different letters when encoded. Such a one-to-many correspondence makes the use of frequency analysis much more difficult in order to crack the code. Examples of substitution ciphers are Caesar cipher and Vigenere cipher.

a. The Caesar Cipher

The Caesar or shift cipher, named after Roman emperor Julius Caesar, is a monoalphabetic substitution cipher in which each letter is translated into the letter a fixed number of positions after it in the alphabet table. A key number k is agreed upon by the sender and the receiver, then the standard alphabet is shifted k positions so that the k -th letter in the alphabet is substituted for letter A, the $k+1$ st for B, etc. The alphabet is wrapped to maintain a one-to-one correspondence.

Example:

Suppose $k = 3$

Plain text letter: ABCD... WXYZ

Cipher text letter: DEFG...ZABC

Hence, the message: COMPUTING GIVES INSIGHT

Is translated into: FRPSXWLQJJLYHV LQVLJKW

b. The Vigenere Cipher

The Vigenere cipher is a polyalphabetic cipher based on using successively shifted alphabets, a different shifted alphabet for each of the 26 English letters. The procedure is based on the table below and the use of a keyword. The letters of the keyword determine the shifted alphabets used in the encoding process.

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z
B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	A
C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	A	B
D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	A	B	C
E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	A	B	C	D
F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	A	B	C	D	E
G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	A	B	C	D	E	F
H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I
K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J
L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K
M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L
N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M
O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N
P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O
Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P
R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q
S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R
T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S
U	V	W	X	Y	Z	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T
V	W	X	Y	Z	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U
W	X	Y	Z	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	U
X	Y	Z	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	U	U
Y	Z	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	U	U	U
Z	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	U	U	U	U

The Vigenere tableau

Example:

For the message COMPUTING GIVES INSIGHT and keyword TRUE, we proceed by repeating the keyword as many times as needed above the message, as follows.

T	R	U	E	T	R	U	E	T	R	U	E	T	R	U	E	T	R	U	E	T
C	O	M	P	U	T	I	N	G	G	I	V	E	S	I	N	S	I	G	H	T

The Vigenere tableau above can be used directly to encode the message. For each letter of the message use the letter of the keyword to determine a row and go across the row to the column headed by the corresponding letter of the message. The letter at the intersection is used to replace the letter of the message.

The above message is translated into: VFGTNACRZ XCZXJ CRLZALM

3.2.2. Transposition Ciphers

A transposition cipher is one in which the letters of the original message are rearranged without otherwise changing them.

a. Columnar Transposition

A columnar transposition cipher enters the plaintext into a rectangle of a predetermined width and extracts cipher text by columns from left to right.

Example 1:

Plaintext: ENJOY THE BEAUTY OF SCIENCE

E	N	J	O	Y
T	H	E	B	E
A	U	T	Y	O
F	S	C	I	E
N	C	E		

Ciphertext: ETAFN NHUSC JETCE OBYI YEOE

Example 2:

Key: ORANGE

Plaintext: THE FUTURE IS BRIGHT

O	R	A	N	G	E
T	H	E	F	U	T
U	R	E	I	S	B
R	I	G	H	T	

Ciphertext: TUR HRI EEG FIN UST TB

b. Rail Fence Cipher

Rail fence writes the plaintext in a zig-zag pattern in two or more rows and forms the ciphertext by reading off the letters row by row from the first.

Example 1:

Plaintext: WE ARE HAVING FUN

		R				N			
	A	E			I	G			
E			H	V		F		N	
W			A				U		

Cipher text: RN AEIG EHVFN WAU

Example 2:

Cipher text: SL IIIFE HSAEC TRN

		S				L			
	I		I			I	F		E
H			S	A			E	C	

Plaintext: THIS IS RAIL FENCE

3.3. Firewall

A firewall is a system designed to prevent unauthorized access to or from a private network. Firewalls are implemented in either hardware or software form, or a combination of both. They prevent unauthorized Internet users from accessing private networks connected to the Internet. All messages entering or leaving the network must pass through the firewall which examines each message and blocks those that do not meet the specified security criteria. Some Operating Systems like Windows XP, 7 and Mac OS X, have built-in firewalls.

3.4. Intrusion Detection

Intrusion detection is the art and science of sensing when a system or network is being used inappropriately or without authorization. An intrusion-detection system (IDS) monitors system and network resources and activities and, using information gathered from these sources, notifies the authorities when it identifies a possible intrusion.

3.5. Digital Signatures

A digital signature is a computed digest of a message that is encrypted and sent with the message. The recipient decrypts the signature and compares it with the received text. If they match, the message is authenticated and proved intact from the sender. Digital signatures also ensure non-repudiation. Non-repudiation is the prevention of either the sender or the receiver denying a transmitted message. A system must be able to prove that certain messages were sent and received.

3.6. Fault Tolerance

4. Computer Ethics

Ethics refers to the principles of right and wrong that individuals, acting as free moral agents, use to make choices that guide their own behavior. Ethical principles place a value on human acts according to whether they are good or bad.

Computer ethics refers to standards of good conduct applied within the use of computers. It defines principles for judging computing acts whether they are good or bad.

4.1. Fundamental Principles of Computer Ethics

The fundamental principles of computer ethics formulated by the Computer Ethics Institute (CEI) as the "ten commandments" of computer ethics are:

1. Thou shall not use a computer to harm other people.
2. Thou shall not interfere with other people's computer work.
3. Thou shall not snoop around in other people's files.
4. Thou shall not use a computer to steal.
5. Thou shall not use a computer to bear false witness.
6. Thou shall not copy or use proprietary software for which you have not paid.
7. Thou shall not use other people's computer resources without authorization or proper compensation.
8. Thou shall not appropriate other people's intellectual output.
9. Thou shall think about the social consequences of the program you write or the system you design.

10. Thou shall use a computer in ways that show consideration and respect for your fellow humans.

4.2. Codes of Ethics and Professional Conduct

A code of ethics and professional conduct sets the standards for what is expected of a professional. They are promises by professions to regulate themselves in the general interest of the society. Code of ethics for information technology professionals encourage them to behave ethically and responsibly with the tools and information they have in their control. Examples are the British Computing Society (BCS) code of ethics, the Association for Computing Machinery (ACM) code of ethics, and the Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineer (IEEE) code of ethics.

4.2.1. ACM Code of Ethics

1. General Moral Imperatives

As an ACM member I will...

- 1.1. Contribute to society and human well-being.
- 1.2. Avoid harm to others.
- 1.3. Be honest and trustworthy.
- 1.4. Be fair and take action not to discriminate.
- 1.5. Honour copyrights and patents.
- 1.6. Give proper credit for intellectual property.
- 1.7. Respect rights to limit access to computing and communication systems.
- 1.8. Respect the privacy of others.
- 1.9. Honour confidentiality.

2. More Specific Professional Responsibilities.

As an ACM Computing Professional I will . . .

- 2.1. Strive to achieve the highest quality, effectiveness and dignity in both the process and products of professional work.
- 2.2. Acquire and maintain professional competence.
- 2.3. Know and respect existing laws pertaining to professional work.
- 2.4. Accept and provide appropriate professional review.
- 2.5. Give comprehensive and thorough evaluations of computer systems and their impacts, including analysis of possible risks.
- 2.6. Honor contracts, agreements, and assigned responsibilities.
- 2.7. Improve public understanding of computing and its consequences.
- 2.8. Access computing and communications resources only when authorized to do so.

4.2.2. IEEE Code of Ethics

We, the members of the IEEE, in recognition of the importance of our technologies in affecting the quality of life throughout the world, and in accepting a personal obligation to our profession, its members and the communities we serve, do hereby commit ourselves to the highest ethical and professional conduct and agree:

1. To accept responsibility in making decisions consistent with the safety, health and welfare of the public, and to disclose promptly factors that might endanger the public or the environment;
2. To avoid real or perceived conflicts of interest whenever possible, and to disclose them to affected parties when they do exist;
3. To be honest and realistic in stating claims or estimates based on available data;
4. To reject bribery in all its forms;
5. To improve the understanding of technology, its appropriate application, and potential consequences;
6. To maintain and improve our technical competence and to undertake technological tasks for others only if qualified by training or experience, or after full disclosure of pertinent limitations;
7. To seek, accept, and offer honest criticism of technical work, to acknowledge and correct errors, and to credit properly the contributions of others;
8. To treat fairly all persons regardless of such factors as race, religion, gender, disability, age, or national origin;
9. To avoid injuring others, their property, reputation, or employment by false or malicious action;

4.3. Netiquette

Netiquette is short for network etiquette. It is a set of rules about acceptable behavior when communicating over the Internet. Some basic rules of netiquette are:

- ✓ Avoid flaming i.e. using obscene or inappropriate language in your emails or posts
- ✓ Avoid using capital letters in your emails/comments, it is considered like YOU ARE SHOUTING and it is harder to read.
- ✓ Avoid sloppiness i.e. avoid spelling and grammatical errors. Re-read and edit your emails/comments before you send/post
- ✓ Do not send huge file attachments unless they are requested
- ✓ Always fill the subject field of an email before you send
- ✓ Do not format your emails with colored text or background color. They may cause them hard to read.

5. Legislation

Legislation is the act of making and passing laws. Some laws that govern the use of computers area the Data Protection Act, the Computer Misuse Act, the Copyright, Design and Patent Act, and the Health and Safety Act.

5.1. The Data Protection Act

It is aimed at protecting the rights of individuals to privacy. Some Data Protection Act rules are:

1. If an organization holds data on individuals, it must be registered under the act.
2. Personal data should be processed fairly and lawfully
3. Personal data should not be disclosed in anyway other than lawfully and within the registered purpose.
4. Personal data should be adequate and relevant and not excessive for the required purpose.

5. Personal data should be kept accurate and kept up to date
6. Data must be processed in accordance with the right of the data subject
7. Appropriate security measures must be taken against unauthorized access

5.2. The Computer Misuse Act

This act makes it an offence to access any computer to which you do not have an authorized right to use. It introduces three criminal offences:

1. Unauthorized access to computer material.
2. Unauthorized access with intent to commit or facilitate commission of further offences.
3. Unauthorized modification of computer material.

5.3. Copyright, Design and Patent Act

This Act is designed to protect all types of intellectual property and ensure that authors or creators of a piece of work receive both credit and compensation.

- ✓ **Copyright** is a statutory grant that protects original work. Something that is copyrighted is not to be reproduced, published or copied without permission from the copyright holder. Ideas are not protected by copyright; only the specific presentation of the idea is copyrightable.
- ✓ **Design** is the appearance or construction of something. A design is not immediately protected. It must be registered with the appropriate institution,
- ✓ A **Patent** is a grant to inventors that give them exclusive monopoly over their invention. It gives them the right to stop others from producing, selling or using their invention. Unlike copyrights, patents protect the ideas or design of the invention rather than any tangible form of the invention.

5.4. Health and Safety Act

The original Act and its many added regulations cover the range of hazards an employee may face like handling hazardous material. Some of the regulations that apply to the computing industry are:

✓ Display Screen Equipment Regulations

They cover the precautions that must be taken when an employee uses a visual display unit. The regulation covers items such as the chair which must be adjustable, the desk which must be at the appropriate height, the monitor which must be adjustable and the lighting which must be appropriate.

✓ Moving and Handling Regulations

These regulations lay down the rules for safe moving of heavy objects. All employees involved in such activities must receive proper training on avoiding injury when moving heavy objects.

✓ Control of Substances Hazardous to Health (COSHH)

These regulations cover the safe storage and use of hazardous materials. This includes items such as laser printer toners and anyone involved in replacing such items must be made aware of the potentially toxic nature of toners.

Assignment: State what you understand by the following terms.

- i) Digital inclusion
- ii) Digital divide.

Answer:

- i) Digital inclusion

Digital inclusion is commonly defined as the incorporation of information technologies into the community in order to promote education and improve the quality of life.

In other words, it is the ability of individuals and groups to access and use information and communication technologies.

Digital inclusion is necessary as we move towards a technology based society to ensure that all individuals can participate fully in the economic, educational, civic and social activities of their community.

- ii) Digital divide

The Digital divide refers to the gap between those who have and those who lack access to computers and the Internet.

6. Computers in the Workplace

It is important to note that in as much as the computer is a very vital tool for everyone's daily use, it can also be a very harmful tool if poorly used. Using the computer for prolonged periods of time can lead to physical health risks. For this reason, users must ensure that they follow health measures and apply safety precautions as they use the computers to avoid computer related disorders.

6.1. Computer Related Disorders

CRDs are health problems associated with prolonged computer usage. They include repetitive strain injury, carpal tunnel syndrome, eyestrain and headache.

6.1.1. Repetitive Strain Injury

Medically defined as cumulative trauma disorder (CTD), it is a debilitating health condition resulting from overusing the hands to perform a repetitive task such as typing, clicking a mouse or writing. RSI results in damage to muscles, tendons and nerves of the neck, shoulder, forearm and hand which can cause pain, weakness, numbness or impairment of the motor control.

Symptoms are tightness, discomfort, stiffness, burning sensation in the hands, wrists, fingers, forearms and elbows. Tingling, coldness and numbness of the hand with loss of strength and coordination occur. There is pain in the upper back, shoulders and neck and need for massage.

- 6.1.2. Carpal Tunnel Syndrome**
- 6.1.3. Computer Vision Syndrome**

6.2. Ergonomics

Ergonomics refers to the application of scientific knowledge to the workplace in an effort to improve the well-being and efficiency of workers. Simply put, it is the study of human factors related to things people use. These factors include workstation layout, sitting posture, lighting, viewing distance etc.

6.2.1. Workstation Layout

Workstation layout has to do with the arrangement of the computer and related products, in the workplace. Appropriate placement of workstation components and accessories allows one to work in neutral body position which will enable them perform more efficiently, work more comfortably and safe. The layout for a comfortable and productive workstation involves the following:

a. Desk or Work Surface Areas

Limited space on the work surface may cause users to place components and devices in undesirable positions. This may lead to awkward postures as you reach for a mouse/keyboard or look at a monitor that is to the side. Working with your neck turned to the side prolonged periods load neck muscles unevenly and increase fatigue and pain.

b. Areas under the Work surface

Inadequate clearance or space under the work surface due to poor design may result in discomfort and performance inefficiencies.

c. Placement of components

Placing components e.g. mouse, telephone, far away from you can cause you to repeatedly reach out for them resulting in strain on the shoulder, arm and neck.

6.2.2. Sitting Posture

Working with the body in a neutral position is important. It reduces stress and strain on the muscles, tendons and skeletal system thereby reducing your risk of developing musculoskeletal disorders. For a good sitting posture the following points are vital:

- ✓ The monitor should be set so that your neck will be straight
- ✓ Your elbows should stay close to the body and be bent at about 90°, with your upper arms hanging naturally from the side.
- ✓ Keep your hands in line with the fore arms so your wrists are straight. You may use a wrist rest or arm rest to help keep your wrists straight and your arm muscles from being overworked. Performing task without a wrist rest may increase the angle to which user's wrists are bent. Increasing the angle of bend increases contact stress and irritation on tendons and tendon sheaths.
- ✓ Your feet should be fully supported by the floor or a footrest should be used if the heights of your table and chair are not adjustable.
- ✓ Your back should be fully supported with a lumbar support when sitting vertical or leaning back slightly.

- ✓ Your thighs should be parallel to the floor

Regardless of how good your working posture is, working in the same posture or sitting still for prolonged periods is not healthy. You should change your working position frequently by

- ✓ Making small adjustments to your chair or backrest
- ✓ Stretching your fingers, arms and torso
- ✓ Walking around a few minutes periodically

6.2.3. Lighting

When a computer work environment is planned both overall lighting and positioning of lights and windows must be considered. Overhead lights and windows are sources of glare that may mask whatever is shown on the screen resulting in visual fatigue and discomfort. There are three types of glare: direct, indirect and masking.

- ✓ Direct glare occurs when there are bright light sources directly in the operator's field of view. Windows are often a source of direct glare.
- ✓ Indirect glare occurs when light from windows or overhead lights is reflected off shiny surfaces in the field of view.
- ✓ Light from sources directly overhead causes masking glare on the screen.

The use of light absorbing blinds and curtains will help reduce both direct and indirect glare. Placing the monitor in an appropriate position can help reduce overhead or masking glare. Glare can also be prevented using an anti-glare screen filter.

III. COMPUTER ORGANISATION AND ARCHITECTURE

Introduction

Computer architecture refers to those attributes of a system that have a direct impact on the logical execution of a program like the instruction set, the number of bits used to represent various data types, I/O mechanisms and techniques for addressing memory.

On the other hand, computer organization refers to the operational units of the system and their interconnections that realize the architectural specifications like control signals, interfaces between computer and peripherals and the memory technology used.

So, for example, the fact that a multiply instruction is available is a computer architecture issue. How that multiply is implemented is a computer organization issue.

1. The Von Neumann Architecture

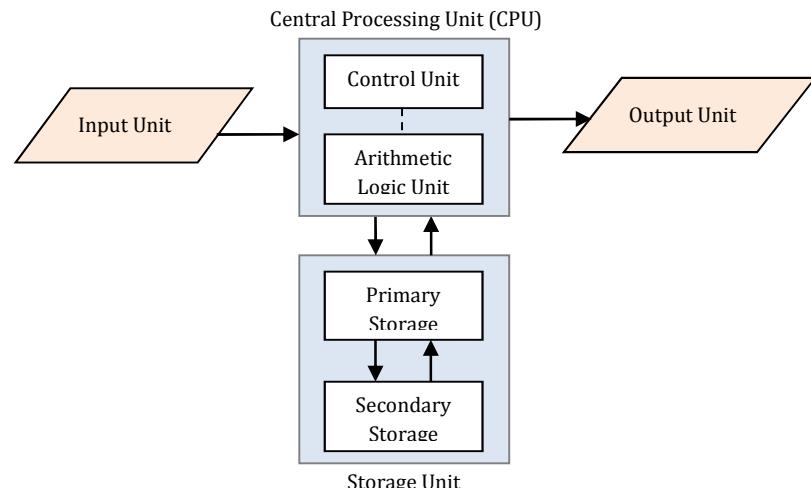
The Von Neumann architecture is a stored-program computer model that was designed by the Hungarian born Mathematician, John Von Neumann. It is based on three concepts:

- Both data and instructions (programs) are stored in a single storage structure called memory

- The contents of this memory are addressable by location, without regard to the type of data contained there.
- It has a single processing unit which. As such, execution occurs in a sequential fashion from one instruction to the next.

Programs being stored in memory ensures that by altering the stored program, the computer can perform a different task – reason why a computer is called a general purpose machine.

Neumann divided the computer into four functional units: input, processing, storage and output.



Functional Units of a Computer

Assignment: What is the difference between a computer with a Von Neumann's architecture and one with a Harvard architecture?

1.1. Input Devices

Input devices are hardware components that are used to enter data and instructions into the computer. Examples are keyboard, mouse, scanner, joystick, light pen, touchpad, trackball and microphone.

1.1.1. Keyboard

The keyboard is the standard input device attached to computers. It has keys (buttons) that are pressed to enter data and commands into the computer. These keys represent letters, numbers, symbols and control characters. The keyboard has a total of 101-104 keys divided into different groups or keypads.

- ✓ Function keys, labeled F1-F12, perform specific functions based on the software used. F1 for example is used in most software to display help.
- ✓ Alphabetical keys

- ✓ Numerical keys
- ✓ Navigation keys also called direction keys are used to navigate through documents and websites. Examples of navigation keys are the up, down, left and right arrows.
- ✓ Action keys

There are different keyboard layouts but the best known are QWERTY mainly used by English speakers and AZERTY used by French speakers. Another keyboard layout modified greatly from a standard layout is DVORAK, devised to increase typing speed by placing frequently used keys more naturally.

A keyboard connects to the computer through cable PS/2 cable, USB cable or wireless (cordless).

1.1.2. Mouse

A mouse is a handheld device which is moved across a flat surface to control the movement of a pointer on a computer screen. The mouse has two buttons, the right and the left buttons, which are clicked (pressed) to enter commands into the computer.

Different actions that can be performed with a mouse are:

- ✓ Click: Pressing the left mouse button.
- ✓ Right-click: pressing the right mouse button
- ✓ Double-click: pressing the left button two times in quick succession
- ✓ Drag: pressing the left button and while holding, moving the mouse
- ✓ Drop: Releasing the left button after dragging

Drag and drop can be used to move files or documents from one place to another.

A mouse connects to a computer through PS/2 cable (PS/2 mouse), USB cable (USB mouse), or wireless (optical mouse).

1.1.3. Scanner

A scanner is an optical device that converts hardcopy image or text into digital form so that it can be fed into the computer. The common optical scanner devices are the flatbed scanner, optical mark reader, optical character reader and barcode reader.

- ✓ Flatbed Scanner: a scanner in which the object to be scanned is held flat against a piece of glass.
- ✓ Optical Mark Reader
- ✓ Optical Character Reader
- ✓ Barcode Reader

Other types of input devices are joystick, light-pen, trackball and touch pad.

1.2. Output Devices

Output devices are hardware components that are used to retrieve information from the computer. They provide the results of computations to the person using the computer, in a way they can understand. Examples are monitor, printer, speaker and projector.

1.2.1. Monitor

Also referred to as VDU (Visual Display Unit), the monitor is the most popular output device. It displays information generated by a computer on a screen. Such output is known as softcopy output. Monitors are characterized by the technology they use and their resolution.

- ✓ By the technology used, monitors are of two main types: Cathode Ray Tube (CRT) monitors and Flat Panel Display.
- CRT monitors are similar to a television set.
- Flat panel display monitors are of different types: Liquid Crystal Display (LCD), Electroluminescent Display (ELD), Gas Plasma (GP) and Thin Film Transistor (TFT) monitors.
- ✓ Monitor resolution refers to the number of dots (pixels) on the screen. It is expressed as a pair of numbers that give the number of dots on a line (horizontal) and the number of lines (vertical). The size of a pixel is known dot pitch. The smaller the dot pitch, the clearer and sharper the picture appears on the monitor. Most monitors come with a .28 dot pitch.

Assignment: State the advantages of flat panel monitors over CRT.

1.2.2. Printer

A printer is a device that produces computer-generated information on paper. Such output is referred to as printout or hardcopy. Based on the technology used, printers can be classified into impact and non-impact printers.

- ✓ Impact printers have mechanical contact between paper and printing head (e.g. daisy wheel, dot matrix and line printers).
- ✓ Non-impact printers have no mechanical contact between paper and printing head (e.g. ink-jet, desk-jet, laser printers).

Assignment: State the advantages and disadvantages of impact and non-impact printers?

1.3. The Central Processing Unit

The central processing unit (CPU) also called processor, is the brain or heart of the computer. It is the part of the computer that interprets and executes program instructions. It also controls the other components of the system. The CPU is made up of three main components: the arithmetic-logic unit (ALU), the control unit (CU) and registers. Examples of CPUs are Intel Pentium II, III, IV, Pentium Celeron, and AMD Athlon.

1.3.1. Control Unit

The control unit acts like supervisor seeing that things are done as they ought to. It locates and retrieves program instructions from memory, interprets them and ensures that they are executed in proper sequence. It also ensures that data is selected from memory as necessary and information is stored correctly as well.

1.3.2. Arithmetic-Logic Unit

The arithmetic-logic unit (ALU) performs arithmetic and logic operations. It contains arithmetic circuits that perform arithmetic operations like addition, subtraction, multiplication and division, and logic circuits that perform comparisons like equal to, less than, greater than, greater than or equal to and less than or equal to.

1.3.3. Registers

Registers are special storage locations within the CPU that offer an advantage of speed. They work under the direction of the control unit to accept and hold data that is being processed. Since the CPU uses registers for the processing of data, the number of registers in a CPU and the size of each register affect the power and speed of the CPU.

Registers are grouped into two: special purpose registers and general purpose registers.

- ✓ Special purpose registers are dedicated to specific tasks like:
 - the **accumulator** which collects the result of computations,
 - the **memory address register** (MAR) which keeps track of where a given instruction or piece of data is stored in memory
 - the **memory data register** (MDR) which holds data values.
 - the **program counter** (PC) which holds the address of the next instruction to be executed.
 - The **current instruction register** (CIR) which holds the instruction being executed.
- ✓ General purpose registers on the other hand have no specific function; they are used according to the need of the program being executed.

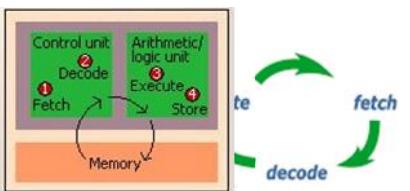
Question: How would you define processing?

Answer: Processing is performing arithmetic operations (add, subtract, multiply, divide etc) or logical operations (comparisons like less than, greater than, equal to etc) on data to convert it to useful information.

1.3.4. The Instruction Cycle

The instruction cycle describes how program instructions are repeatedly fetched, decoded and executed, one instruction at a time, until an instruction to HALT is encountered. Before an instruction can be fetched, it must be placed into memory as well as related data, from an input or secondary storage device. Once the necessary data and instructions are in memory, the central processing unit performs the following four steps for each instruction:

1. The control unit fetches (gets) data and instructions from memory.
2. The control unit decodes the instructions i.e. determines what they mean, and directs that the necessary data be moved to the arithmetic-logic unit.
3. The arithmetic-logic unit then executes the instruction on the data. That is, the ALU is given control and performs the actual operation on the data.
4. The arithmetic-logic unit stores the result of this operation in memory or in a register.



The Instruction Cycle

Steps 1 and 2 together are called instruction time or I-time and steps 3 and 4 together are called execution time or E-time. The combination of I-time and E-time is called the machine or instruction cycle or the fetch-decode-execute cycle. The length of time taken to fetch, decode and execute an instruction is measured in clock cycles.

1.3.5. System Clock

The CPU has a small quartz crystal circuit called the system clock that controls the timing of all computer operations. The system clock generates regular electronic pulses, or ticks, that set the operating pace of components of the system unit. Each tick is known as clock cycle and the pace of the system clock is called clock speed. Clock speed is measured in megahertz (Mhz) or gigahertz (Ghz) and refers to the number of clock cycles per second that the CPU runs at. Mega and giga stand for million and billion respectively while hertz means cycles per second. Thus, 1Ghz means one billion cycles per second. A computer that operates at 3 Ghz has 3 billion (giga) clock cycles in one second (hertz).

The faster the clock speed, the more instructions the processor can execute per second. The speed of the system clock has no effect on devices such as a printer or disk drive. The speed of the system clock is just one factor that influences a computer's performance. Other factors, such as the type of processor chip, amount of cache, memory access time, bus width, and bus clock speed.

1.4. Storage Devices

Storage devices are computer components that hold programs and data for use in the computer. Programs and data can be made available for initial or additional processing when required. A storage device is made of two parts: the storage medium and the device.

- ✓ The medium is the surface or substrate that holds actual data
- ✓ The device reads information from or stores information onto the medium

Computer storage can be classified basically into two: primary storage and secondary storage.

1.4.1. Primary Storage

Primary storage is directly accessible to the CPU. It holds programs and data that the CPU is currently working with. Primary storage is also called internal memory, immediate access memory or primary memory. Primary memory consists of random access memory, read only memory and cache memory.

a. Random Access Memory

Random access memory (RAM) also called "main memory" is the temporary storage space into which a computer loads programs and user data when it is running. It is the computer's working space. It is read/write meaning that data can be read from and written onto it. RAM is also volatile meaning that everything held in it is lost when power is switched off. Two types of RAM exist: Static RAM and dynamic RAM.

- ✓ Dynamic RAM (DRAM) consists of capacitors that slowly leak their charge over time. Thus, they must be refreshed every few milliseconds to prevent data loss. DRAM is cheap memory owing to its simple design.
- ✓ Static RAM (SRAM) consists of circuits that retain their charge over time. SRAM is faster and more expensive than dynamic RAM, and does not need to be refreshed as DRAM does. Due to its cost it is not used as main memory but rather to build cache memory.

b. Read Only Memory

Read only memory (ROM) is a kind of memory whose contents can only be read by the computer. Data found in ROM is written by the manufacturer and cannot be modified by the user. ROM is useful for holding data that never changes like the "boot" or start-up program which is run when the computer is switched on. ROM is non-volatile meaning that its content is preserved even without power. There are four types of ROM:

- ✓ Masked ROM is ROM programmed with its data when the chip is fabricated.
- ✓ Programmable ROM (PROM) is ROM that can be programmed once but not reprogrammed.
- ✓ Erasable Programmable ROM (EPROM) is ROM that can be erased by strong ultraviolet light and new data burnt into it. To do this the chip has to be removed from the machine and put back after the changes have been made.
- ✓ Electrically Erasable Programmable ROM (EEPROM) is ROM whose content can be erased electrically. In this case, the chip need not be removed from the machine. The programming is done using special software.

c. Cache Memory

Cache memory is a smaller and faster memory between the CPU and main memory, which stores copies of data from the most frequently accessed memory locations. The purpose of cache memory is to speed up accesses by storing recently used data closer to the CPU, instead of storing it in main memory. Cache is static RAM and is usually organized in levels:

- ✓ Level 1 (L1) cache, Level 2 and Level 3 cache.
- ✓ Level 1 cache is closest to the CPU or within it.
- ✓ L2 and L3 caches are outside it.

When the CPU needs to access memory, cache memory is examined first. If the data is found in cache, it is read from it. Otherwise, main memory is accessed. When the CPU refers to memory and finds the data in cache, it is said to be a HIT. Otherwise, it is a MISS.

1.4.2. Secondary Storage

Secondary storage is not directly accessible to the CPU. It is used to store programs and data for backup purposes (future use). It could be placed within the computer or connected externally. Programs and data from secondary storage must be transferred to main memory for processing. Secondary storage is also called secondary memory, mass storage, backing storage or external storage. It can be divided into magnetic storage, optical storage and solid state storage.

a. Magnetic Storage

Magnetic storage devices store data as electromagnetic charges on the magnetic surfaces of the storage units. Examples are floppy disks, hard disks and magnetic tape.

✓ Floppy Disk

A floppy disk consists of a round flexible plastic disk coated with a magnetic substance and protected by a plastic cover lined with a soft material that wipes the disk clean as it spins. The disk is made of two recordable surfaces which are divided into a number of circular paths called tracks. The number of tracks per surface varies with the particular type of disk. Each track is in turn divided into a number of smaller units called sectors. A sector is the basic unit of storage on the disk and has a capacity of 512 bytes.



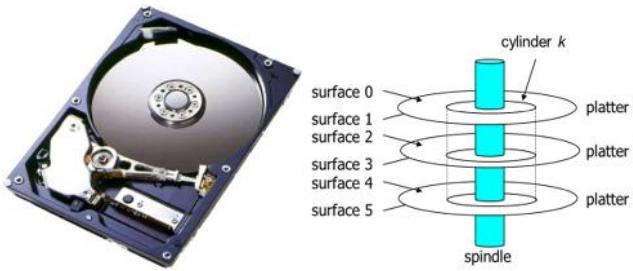
Floppy disk

✓ Hard Disk

A hard disk consists of several metallic platters which store data. Each platter has two sides and is divided into a number of rings called tracks. Tracks on a platter are numbered 0 from the outside and usually go up to 1023. Each track is divided into sectors. A sector is the basic unit of storage on the disk and has a capacity of 512 bytes. Sectors are grouped together to form clusters. A cluster is the smallest logical amount of disk space that can be allocated to hold a file. A cylinder is a sum set of all the tracks on all the platters that have the same track value.

Factors that determine the performance of hard disks are, seek time and drive rotational speed.

- Seek time is the time taken to move the read/write head over the right track and sector.
- Drive rotational speed is the total number of revolutions the disk platters make per minute. Higher rotational speed leads to higher transfer rate.



Hard disk

✓ Magnetic Tape

A magnetic tape consists of a magnetically coated stripe on which data is stored. Data is stored on the magnetic tape in chronological order or sequentially. This means that any piece of data is always stored in the next available space on the tape. To access data, the tape drive has to move through all the preceding data before it can access the desired data. This mode of access is known as sequential access. Less susceptible to environment, they are suitable for long-term storage and backup.

b. Optical Storage

Optical storage devices store data as microscopic light and dark spots on the disk surface. Examples are Compact discs, digital versatile discs and Blu-ray discs. They are less susceptible to environmental damage.

✓ Compact Disc (CD)

A CD is a round disk coated with a metallic surface on which data can be stored and accessed via laser technology. To store or access data on a CD, the CD drive focuses a laser beam on the disc surface. Different variations of CD exist: CD-ROM, CD-R and CD-RW. A CD can store 650MB to 700MB of data.

- CD-ROM stands for compact disc read only memory. CD-ROMs can only be read but not recorded on, by the user's computer. Their content is set during manufacture.
- CD-R stands for compact disc recordable. It is a type of CD that can be recorded by the user. Once the user records on the CD, the content is set and cannot be changed. CD-R can be read by CD-ROM drives but to write on them, you need a CD-R drive.
- CD-RW stands for compact disc rewritable. It is a type of CD that can be recorded, erased and reused by the user. CD-RW cannot be read by a CD-ROM and CD-R drives. CD-RW drives are required to read and write on them.



Compact disc

✓ **Digital Versatile Disc (DVD)**

A DVD is similar to a CD in size and thickness but has a higher storage capacity than the CD. DVDs use a laser beam of wavelength shorter than used by CDs. This allows for smaller indentations and increased storage capacity. Just like the CD, different types of the DVD exist: DVD-ROM, DVD-R and DVD-RW. A DVD can store up to 17GB of data. Common DVD storage capacities are:

Types	Characteristics	Capacity
DVD-5	Single-sided, Single-layer	4.7GB
DVD-9	Single-side, Dual-layer	8.5GB
DVD-10	Double-side, Single-layer	9.4GB
DVD-18	Double-side, Dual-layer	17.1GB

✓ **Blu-Ray Disc**

A Blu-ray disc is an optical disc similar to a DVD and of same size, but read and written with a blue or violet laser, whose shorter wavelength makes a higher data density possible. Blu-ray discs can hold 25 GB for single layer or 50 GB for double layer.

c. Solid State Storage

The term solid-state essentially means no moving parts. Solid-state storage devices are based on electronic circuits with no moving parts (no reels, no spinning disks). They store data using a special type of memory called flash memory. Flash memory is a type of EEPROM that can only be erased in blocks; it cannot be erased one byte at a time. In this regard it resembles a disk that is divided into sectors. Flash memory is usually used for storing larger amounts of data while EEPROM is used for small amounts of data, such as machine configuration. Examples of solid state devices are USB memory sticks, memory cards and secure digital cards.

✓ **Volatility**

a. Capacity

The capacity of a storage device is the maximum amount of data that can be stored on the device's medium. It is expressed in terms of the number of data bytes the device can hold. This simply means the unit of measurement of storage capacity is byte. Units of storage are summarized as follows:

1 bit = 0 or 1	
4 bits = 1 nibble	
8 bits = 1 byte	1 character
1024 bytes = 1 kilobyte (KB)	approx. 1/2 page
1024 KB = 1 megabyte (MB)	approx. 500,000 pages
1024 MB = 1 gigabyte (GB)	approx. 5 million pages
1024 GB = 1 terabyte (TB)	approx. 5 billion pages

b. Access time

Access time is the average time taken for a storage device to search and read required data on its medium. In other words, it is how fast data can be read from or written to a memory device's medium. It is measured in seconds. Units of time are summarized as follows:

Millisecond (ms) =	
Microsecond (μ s) =	
Nanosecond (ns) =	
Picoseconds (ps) =	
Femtoseconds (fs) =	

c. Access Method

An access method is the technique used to retrieve information from or store information to a medium. Storage media can be accessed in two ways: sequentially or randomly.

✓ **Sequential Access**

The medium is accessed by proceeding from the beginning of the medium until the designated area is reached. Any new data is stored in the next available space on the medium. To read any data stored on the medium, the device has to start from the beginning going through each data until the required data is found. An example of sequential access medium is magnetic tape.

✓ **Random Access**

Data is accessed in any order, regardless of its location on the medium. To read any data stored on the medium, the device does not need to go through all preceding data. It is also called direct access. Examples of direct access devices are RAM, ROM, CDs, DVDs and magnetic disks.

d. Volatility

1.4.3. Characteristics of Storage Devices

Four important characteristics of storage devices are:

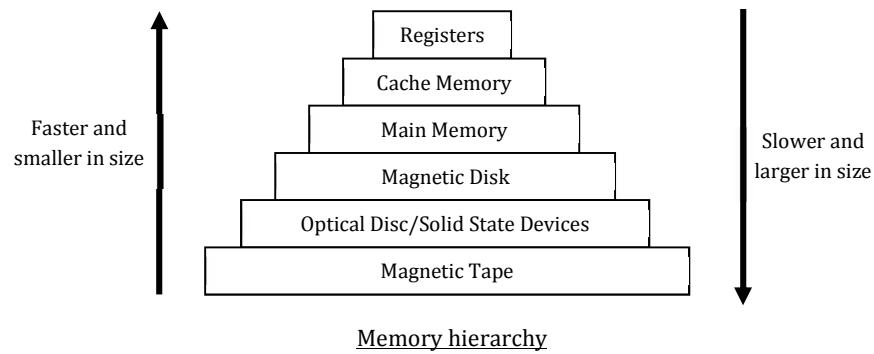
- ✓ capacity
- ✓ access time
- ✓ access method

Volatility refers to the behavior of the device without power. A device can be volatile or non-volatile. Volatile means that the device loses its content when power is switched off. Examples of volatile devices are Cache and RAM.

Non-volatile means that the device preserves its content even without power. Examples of non-volatile devices are ROM, magnetic disks, optical discs and solid state devices.

1.4.4. Memory Hierarchy

Modern computers manage memory by organizing memory into a hierarchy in which large and slower memories feed data into smaller but faster memories for faster processing of data. This organization of computer memory is known as memory hierarchy. At the top of the hierarchy are the CPU registers followed by cache memory. The next level in the hierarchy is made up of main memory, which is followed by magnetic disk.



1.5. The Motherboard

The motherboard is the main printed circuit board in the computer which holds the chipset and other electronic components that give function to the computer. The motherboard is indispensable to the computer and provides the main computing capability.



The Motherboard

1.5.1. Motherboard Form Factor

Motherboard types are better described by what we call the motherboard form factor. The form factor of a motherboard determines the specifications for its general shape and size. It also specifies what type of case and power supply will be supported, the placement of

mounting holes, and the physical layout and organization of the board. The most common form factors found in modern PCs are:

- ✓ Advanced Technology (AT)
- ✓ Advanced Technology Extended (ATX)
- ✓ Low Profile Extension (LPX)
- ✓ New Low profile Extended (NLXP)

1.5.2. The System Bus

A computer bus is a set of parallel lines that interconnects various components inside the computer, allowing the exchange of data between them. It is the pathway between these components, enabling data to be transferred from one component to another. The width or size of a bus is determined by the number of lines it has. The system bus is made up of three different busses: the data bus, the address bus and the control bus.

a. The Data Bus

The data bus carries data between the CPU and main memory or peripherals. During a write operation, data is carried from the CPU and during a read operation, data is carried into the CPU. This means that the data bus is bidirectional. The size of the data bus determines how much data can be transferred in a single operation.

b. The Address Bus

The address bus carries address information from the CPU to main memory or peripherals. It is unidirectional. The CPU uses the address bus to send the address of the memory location to be written to or read from. Also, when the CPU reads data from or writes to a port, it sends the port address out on the address bus. The size of the address bus determines the maximum amount of main memory (RAM) that can be addressed. A computer with a 32 bit bus size can address a maximum RAM of 2^{32} bits = 4GB.

c. The Control Bus

The control bus is used by the CPU to send out signals to enable the outputs of addressed memory devices or port devices. Typical control bus signals are memory read, memory write, I/O read and I/O write.

When the CPU wants to read data from a memory location, it sends out the memory address of the desired data on the address bus and then sends out a Memory Read signal on the control bus. The memory read signal enables the addressed memory device to output the data onto the data bus. The data from the memory travels along the data bus to the CPU.

1.5.3. Input/Output Interfaces

The CPU communicates with I/O devices through bus interfaces connected to the system bus. These bus interfaces also called expansion buses are then connected to ports which allow the exchange of data and information between the computer and external (peripheral) devices.

a. I/O Ports

A port is a pathway for data and information to go into and out of the computer from external devices such as keyboards, monitors and printers.

There are many standard ports as well as custom electronic ports designed for special purposes. Examples of ports are:

- PS/2 ports for connecting the keyboard and mouse
- VGA (Video Graphics Adapter) port for connecting the monitor
- RJ45 port for connection to an Ethernet network
- RJ14 for connection to the Internet via phone line
- USB port for connecting USB devices like Flash drives, printers, keyboards and mice
- Serial ports for connecting serial devices like PDAs
- Parallel port connecting parallel devices like printers
- Firewire is a high performance serial bus, for connecting devices to your personal computer. FireWire provides a single plug-and-socket connection on which up to 63 devices can be attached with data transfer speeds up to 400 mbps.

b. I/O Bus Standards

Ports follow standards that define their use. Examples of such standards are:

- SCSI (Small Computer System Interface) is a set of ANSI standard electronic interfaces that allow personal computers to communicate with peripheral hardware such as disk drives, tape drives, CD-ROM drives, printers, and scanners faster and more flexibly than previous interfaces. Developed at Apple Computer and still used in the Macintosh, the present set of SCISIs are parallel interfaces. SCSI ports continue to be built into many personal computers today and are supported by all major operating systems.
- USB: Universal Serial Bus
- RS-232:
- IDE: Integrated Device Equipment
- PCI: Peripheral Component Interconnect
- ISA: Industry Standard Architecture
- EISA: Extended ISA
- VESA: Video Electronics Standard Architecture
- SIMM: Single Inline Memory Module
- DIMM: Dual Inline Memory Module
- PCMCIA: Personal Computer Memory Card International Association

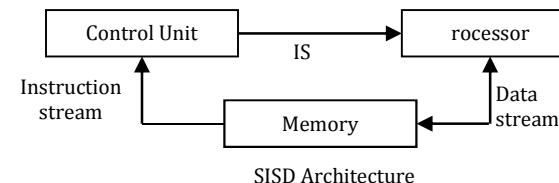
2. Flynn's Taxonomy of Computer Architecture

Michael Flynn classified computer architecture into four distinct categories based on the notion of stream or flow of information into the CPU. He identified two types of information streams:

- ✓ The instruction stream which is the flow of instructions into the processing unit
- ✓ The data stream which is the flow of the data on which the instructions are performed.

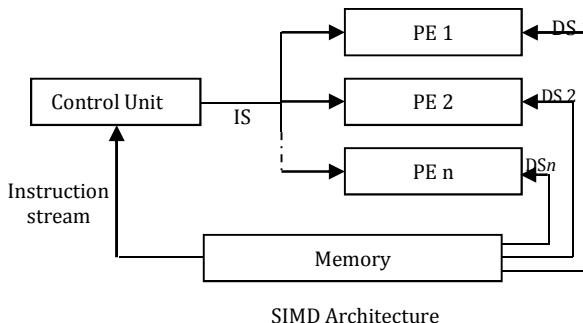
2.1. Single Instruction, Single Data Stream

A SISD machine is a uniprocessor machine which receives a single stream of instructions that operate on a single stream of data. At any given moment, a single instruction is being executed on a given data set. In SISD machines, instructions are executed sequentially. That is, instructions are executed one after the other, one at a time. Hence these machines are also called sequential or serial processor machines. They are typical examples of Von Neumann's computer model.



2.2. Single Instruction, Multiple Data Stream

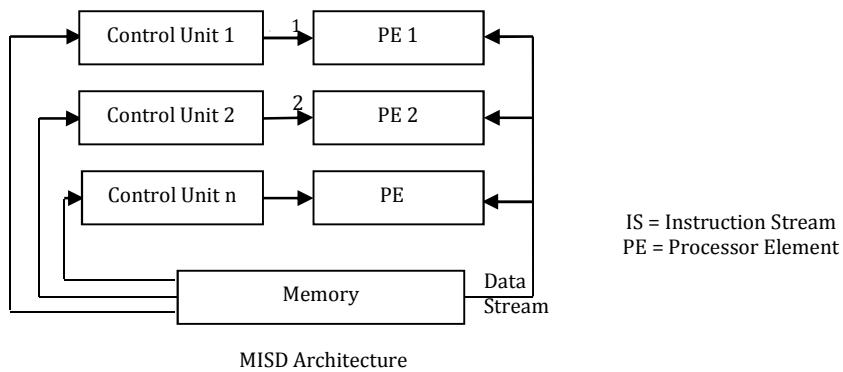
SIMD machines are multiprocessor machines which are capable of executing the same instruction on all the processors at the same time. They have *n* identical processors which operate under the control of a single instruction stream issued by a central control unit on different data sets. At any given moment, the control unit broadcasts the same instruction to all processors which operate on different data sets from distinct data streams. SIMD machines are also called array processor machines. An example is the CRAY's vector processing machine.



DS = Data Stream
IS = Instruction Stream
PE = Processor Element

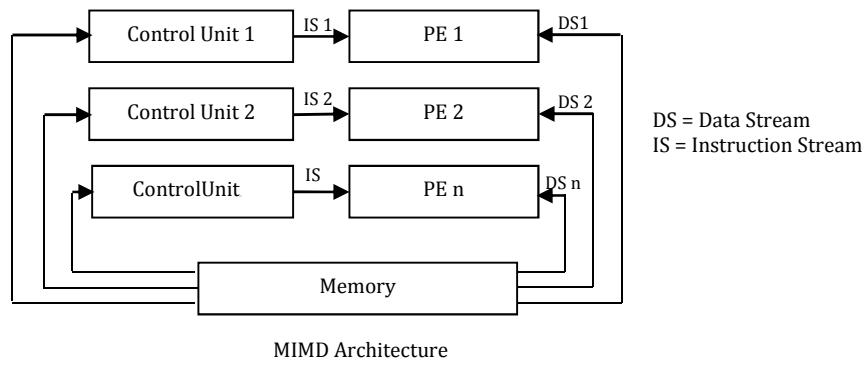
2.3. Multiple Data, Single Instruction Stream

MISD machines are multiprocessor machines capable of executing different instructions on different processors, but all of them operating on the same data set. They have *n* processors, each with its own control unit, that share a common memory. Each processor receives a distinct instruction stream but all operate on the same data stream. Such machines no longer exist.



2.4. Multiple Data, Multiple Instruction Stream

MIMD machines are multiprocessor machines capable of executing multiple instructions on multiple data sets. They have n processors, n streams of instructions and n streams of data. Each processor element in this model has a separate instruction stream and data stream hence such machines are well suited for any kind of application. Examples of MIMD machines include multi-core computers like the Blue Gene, Fujitsu K computer and CRAY Jaguar.



Assignment: SIMD, MISD and MIMD machines are known as parallel processing machines.

What do you understand by parallel processing?

Answer: Parallel processing is the use of multiple (independent) processors simultaneously to execute a single program or task.

Parallel processing divides a single problem into portions so that multiple processors work on their assigned portion of the problem at the same time. Parallel processing requires special software that recognizes how to divide the problem and then bring the results back together again.

Some personal computers implement parallel processing with dual-core processors or multi-core processors. Others have two or more separate processors. Others have two or more

separate processor chips, respectively called dual processor chips, respectively called dual processor or multiprocessor computers.

3. Processor Architecture

A processor's architecture refers to the way in which its memory and control are organized.

3.1. Instruction Set Architecture

Every CPU on the market today has a predefined instruction set which defines the primitive operations that can be performed by that CPU.

Definition: An instruction set is the collection of bit patterns or binary codes for the machine operations that a processor has been designed to perform.

An instruction set architecture (ISA) is the interface between the computer's software and hardware and also can be viewed as the programmer's view of the machine. Besides instructions, it defines items in the computer that are available to a program - e.g. data types, registers, addressing modes, and memory.

There are two types of fundamental CPU architectures based on the notion of instruction set: complex instruction set computers and reduced instruction set computers.

3.1.1. Complex Instruction Set Computer(CISC)

CISC (pronounced *sisk*) is a CPU design with a large amount of different and complex instructions. In CISC processors, the control unit contains a number of micro-electronic circuitry to generate a set of control signals and each micro-circuitry is activated by a microcode. Complex instructions are first decoded and the corresponding microcode routine dispatched to the execution unit.

The standard features of CISC processors are:

- ✓ a large number of different and complex instructions.
- ✓ the use of complex addressing modes.
- ✓ execution of different machine programs on a CISC machine.
- ✓ the use of micro-program control unit.
- ✓ limited number of registers.
- ✓ variable length instruction encoding
- ✓ direct memory access

Examples of CISC processors are: Intel 386, 486, Pentium, Pentium Pro, Pentium II, Pentium III, Motorola's 68000, 68020, 68040, etc.

3.1.2. Reduced Instruction Set Computers (RISC)

RISC (pronounced *risk*) is a CPU design with a small number of basic and simple machine language instructions, from which more complex instructions can be composed. RISC instructions are hardwired. That is, they are built into the chip with hardware rather than programming. Hardware implementation of instructions is much faster and uses less silicon than a microcode implementation.

The standard features of RISC processors are:

- ✓ a small and limited number of instructions.
- ✓ the use of hardwired control unit.
- ✓ consumption of less power and high performance
- ✓ instructions are very simple and consistent
- ✓ the use of simple addressing modes
- ✓ fixed length instructions (easier to decode)
- ✓ pipelining possible because fixed length instructions

Examples of RISC processors are: IBM RS6000, MC88100

DEC's Alpha 21064, 21164 and 21264 processors, Motorola/IBM PowerPC

Assignment: What is pipelining (pipeline processing)?

3.2. Addressing Modes

A machine instruction specifies to the CPU what to do, where the data is located, and where the output data (if any) will be put. Every instruction is made up of two parts: Op-code and operand.

- ✓ The Op-code (operation code) denotes the basic machine operation e.g. ADD, STORE, SHIFT, XOR.
- ✓ The operand (one or more) provides the data which the instruction manipulates.

For example, ADD A, #0E – ADD is the op-code; A and #0E are operands

MOV AX, 0 – MOV is the op-code; AX and 0 are operands

Operands can be specified in different ways in an instruction. The way an operand is specified in an instruction is known as an addressing mode.

Definition: An addressing mode refers to the way in which the processor locates the data (operand) associated with an instruction.

There are dozens of possible addressing modes, but they all generally fall into one of the following categories: direct addressing, indirect addressing and indexed addressing.

- a. Direct Addressing
- b. Indirect Addressing
- c. Indexed Addressing

4. Software

4.1. System Software

4.1.1. Operating Systems

4.1.2. Basic Input Output System

Basic input output system (BIOS) is software that contains hundreds of programs that allow for communication between the CPU and devices. It is stored on ROM, which is a permanent chip on the motherboard.

There are three kinds of BIOS for hardware devices:

- ✓ Permanent never changing BIOS for never changing hardware like the keyboard
- ✓ BIOS for hardware that changes occasionally. It requires extra volatile information so it is stored on a separate chip called CMOS (Complementary Metal Oxide Semiconductor).

4.1.3. Utility Software

Utility software is used to enhance the operating system, or in some other way improve the usefulness of the system. They help analyze, configure, optimize and maintain the computer. Rather than providing user-oriented or output-oriented functionality, utility software focuses on how the computer infrastructure operates. Most major operating systems come with several pre-installed utilities. Examples of utility software include: disk defragmenters, backup utilities, disk compression utilities, disk cleaners, file managers, disk formatters and virus checkers.

- ✓ Disk defragmenters detect computer files whose contents are broken across several locations on a disk, and move the fragments to one location to increase efficiency.
- ✓ Disk cleaners find and delete files that are unnecessary to computer operation, or take up considerable amounts of space. They help users decide what to delete when their hard disk is full.
- ✓ Backup utilities make copies of all information stored on a disk, and restore either the entire disk (e.g. in an event of disk failure) or selected files (e.g. in an event of accidental deletion).
- ✓ Disk compression utilities reduce the space that a file takes up on disk, increasing the capacity of the disk.
- ✓ File managers provide a convenient method of performing routine data management tasks, such as deleting, renaming, moving, copying, merging, generating and modifying files.
- ✓ Disk partition utilities divide an individual drive into multiple logical drives, each with its own file system which can be mounted by the operating system and treated as an individual drive.
- ✓ Disk formatters
- ✓ Virus checkers prevent, detect, and remove malware.

4.1.4. Device Driver

A device driver is software that allows interaction between the operating system and a hardware device. It is an interface for communicating with the device through the specific computer bus that the hardware is connected to. Without an appropriate device driver the system cannot communicate with a device, rendering the device useless. Installation of device drivers usually happens automatically when hardware is connected (plug n play), or from a CD provided with the device. Sometimes a device driver needs to be updated to stay functional.

4.1.5. Language Translators

A language translator is a computer program that translates program instructions from one programming language to another. There are three types of language translators: compilers, interpreters and assemblers.

- ✓ Compilers translate instructions written in a high-level language into machine language instructions.
- ✓ Interpreters translate instructions written in a high-level language into machine language instructions and execute them, one line at a time.
- ✓ Assemblers translate instructions written in assembly language to machine language instructions.

4.2. Application Software

Application software is computer software that causes a computer to perform useful tasks beyond the running of the computer itself. They provide user-oriented functionality. Application software are used to carry out productive work like typing a letter, designing and invitation card, surfing the Internet, listening to music or watching a movie. Application software includes a variety of programs that can be subdivided into general purpose software, special purpose software and custom-written software.

4.2.1. General Purpose Software

General purpose software is designed for a variety of tasks. It is not limited to one particular function. They are also called generic software and can be found off-the-shelf. That is, they can be bought from the market. Different types of general-purpose application software exist.

a. Word Processing Software

Examples are MS Word, WordPerfect, WordPad, NotePad

b. Spreadsheet software

Examples are MS Excel, Lotus 1-2-3, Quattro Pro, Apple Numbers

c. Database Software

Examples are MS-Access, Oracle, Dbase, FileMaker Pro

d. Presentation Software

Examples are MS PowerPoint, HyperStudio, Digital Chisel

e. Desktop Publishing Software

Examples are MS Publisher, Adobe PageMaker, Quark Express

An integrated software package is software that consists of multiple applications bundled together. They usually have related functions, features and user interfaces, and may be able to interact with each other. Examples are Microsoft Office, OpenOffice, Lotus Smart suite and Microsoft works.

4.2.2. Special Purpose Software

Special purpose software is designed for a specific task. Examples are web browsers, game applications, weather forecasting applications, media players and flight control software.

4.2.3. Custom-Written Software

Custom-written software is written to a particular user's requirements or needs. It is generally not available off-the-shelf and often has to be purchased directly from the software manufacturer. It is also called bespoke software or tailor made software as it is tailored to the exact requirements of the user or organization.

4.3. Software Distribution Licenses

Software are distributed under different licenses. They include public domain, freeware, shareware, open source and all rights reserved.

4.3.1. Public Domain

Public domain software has no owner and is not protected by copyright law. It was either created with public funds or the ownership was forfeited by the creator. Public domain software can be copied, sold and/or modified. It is often of poor quality.

4.3.2. Shareware

Shareware is copyrighted software that allows you to use it for a trial period but you must pay a registration fee to the owner for permanent use. Purchasing the right to use the software may also get you a version with more powerful features and published documentation.

4.3.3. Freeware

Freeware is copyrighted software that is licensed to be copied and distributed without charge. Freeware is free but it is still under the owner's control. Examples are Eudora and Netscape.

4.3.4. Commercial Software

All rights reserved software is software that must be used by the purchaser according to the exact details spelt out in the license agreement.

4.3.5. Open Source Software

Open source software is software whose source code is published so that a variety of people can add contribution. Examples are Linux OS, MySQL, Mozilla and OpenOffice.

IV. SOFTWARE

Introduction

A computer system is basically made up of hardware and software. Hardware refers to the physical components of the computer. They are the parts of the computer that can actually be seen and touched like the keyboard, mouse, monitor and internal circuits. Software on the other hand, refers to the collection of computer programs and data that run on a computer, and which make the hardware useful. They are the intangible components of the computer system.

Computer software has two major categories namely system software and application software.

1. System Software

System software control and coordinate computer resources (hardware and operations) so that the computer user and applications can smoothly interact. They help the computer carry out its basic operating tasks. System software are designed to perform computer related tasks. They include operating systems, firmware, utility programs, device drivers, library programs and language translators.

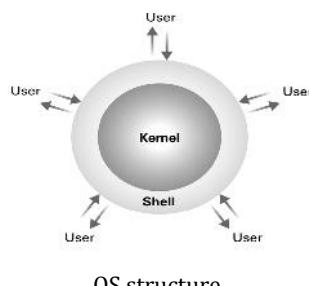
1.1. The Operating System

The operating system is the essential software that is required for a computer to become operational. It is the software layer that is on top of the hardware to provide functionality to computer components, manage the hardware and serve as interface between the computer user and the computer. The operating system is called a virtual machine as it hides the complexity of the hardware and presents the user with an interface that is easier to understand and program.

The operating system is stored on disk, but it needs to be loaded into memory (RAM) once the computer is switched on and before any other program can be run. The term bootstrapping refers to the process of loading the operating system into a computer's memory. This process is done by a program called the bootstrap loader that is stored permanently in the computer's electronic ROM chip. Examples of operating systems are Windows (95, 98, 2000, XP, Vista, 7 and 8), Macintosh Operating System (Mac OS), Linux and UNIX.

1.1.1. Operating System Structure

The operating system can be divided into two main components: kernel and command interpreter (shell).



a. OS Kernel

The kernel is the central part of an operating system that is running at all times on the computer. It loads first and remains in memory as long as the computer is on. It consists of utilities (file manager, memory manager, device drivers, process manager etc.) that perform basic required functions. In many operating systems, only the kernel can access hardware directly.

b. Command Interpreter

The command interpreter (processor) is the part of the operating system that understands and executes commands that are entered interactively by a human being or from a program. In some operating systems the command interpreter is called shell. It provides an interface between users and the operating system (kernel). When a user logs in, a shell is started up.

c. SystemCalls

The interface between the OS and the user program is defined by a set of instructions called system calls. User programs use system calls to talk with the operating system.

Definition: *System call is the mechanism by which a program requests a service from the operating system's kernel.*

When a running program needs a service from the operating system, it calls a system call.

1.1.2. Memory Management

For a program to be executed, it must be found in main memory (RAM). In a multiprogramming environment in which several programs can reside in memory at the same time, every program and its data must be protected from the actions of other programs. Memory management keeps track of what programs are in memory and where in memory they reside.

Memory allocation determines where a program as well as its related data will be kept in memory for execution. Memory needs to be allocated efficiently to pack as many jobs in memory as possible. Memory can be subdivided into segments or frames (pages).

a. Segmentation

Segmentation is when memory is divided into variable sized units called segments. When segments are used, memory allocation can be done in three different ways:

- First fit allocates the first free segment that is large enough for the new process.
- Best fit allocates the smallest block among those that are large enough for the new process.
- Worst fit allocates the largest block among those that are large enough for the new process.

b. Paging

Paging is when memory is divided into fixed-size units called frames. Jobs are broken up into blocks of same size as frames called pages which are allocated a number of frames. The OS then uses a *page table* to map program pages to memory frames. The pages for each job could be in logical order or they may be scattered about wherever there is a free frame.

c. Virtual Memory

A program may require more memory than it is available. To solve this problem, virtual memory is used. Virtual memory is part of the hard disk that is used as an extension of RAM. It is slower, but it is considerably bigger. As execution goes on, data is being swapped between RAM and virtual memory.

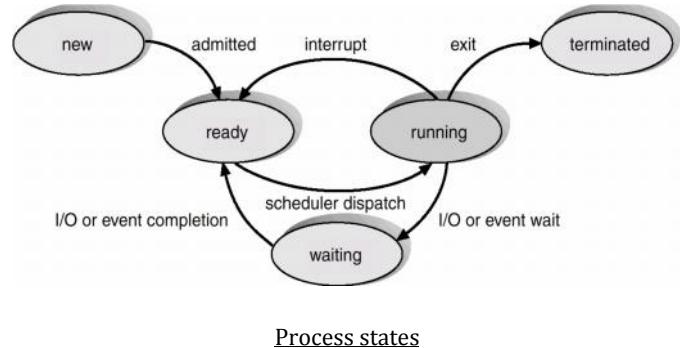
When a program is running, only the pages that contain the necessary data are kept in RAM while those that are not needed are kept on disk. For example, a program that has been minimized for a long time may be transferred to virtual memory so as not to fill up the main memory.

Disk thrashing occurs when the OS has to spend a considerable proportion of its time swapping data between virtual and real memory.

1.1.3. Process Management

A process is a program in execution. It consists of the program's instructions and the resources allocated to it for execution. A program is static while a process is active. The operating system performs process management to carefully track the progress of a process and all of its intermediate states.

A process changes state as it executes. The different states a process can have are shown in the diagram below.



- New - The process is being created.
- Ready - Process has all needed resources - waiting for CPU only.
- Running - Instructions are being executed.
- Waiting - Process is waiting for some event to occur (human, hardware or another process)
- Terminated - Process has finished execution

Definition: The turnaround time for a process is the amount of time between the time the process arrives the ready state and the time it exits the running state for the last time.

In other words, it is the length of time it takes to run a process from initialization to termination, including all the waiting time.

Assignment: Define the terms scheduler and dispatcher.

Answer:

- i) **Scheduler:** the part of the kernel in charge with the strategy for allocation/de-allocation of the CPU to each competing process. It maintains a record of all processes(called process table) in the OS, adds new processes to the process table and removes the ones that are completed.
- ii) **Dispatcher:** the component of the kernel that oversees the execution of the scheduled processes. It performs "process switch" – procedure to change from one process to another.

The operating system manages a large amount of data about a process like the program counter (PC), CPU registers, memory management information, I/O status, scheduling data and process state. This data is stored in a data structure called a process control block (PCB) also called process descriptor or state vector. Every process has its PCB and each time a process is moved to the running state, its register values are loaded into the CPU while register values for the currently running process are stored into its PCB. This exchange of information is called a context switch.

a. Process Synchronization

In a multi-tasking system, processes compete for resources. A resource is anything that is required by a process to accomplish its task (processor, memory, I/O device, bus, file etc.). Some resources can only be used in a non-sharable or exclusive mode. That is, they cannot be used by more than one process at a time. Such resources are known as critical resources. A critical section is a part of a program where it has access to a non-sharable (critical) resource. To prevent two or more processes from entering their critical sections over the same resource, processes must be synchronized.

Definition: Process synchronization is about getting processes to coordinate together in order to avoid two or more processes entering into critical section over the same resource.

If processes are not synchronized, it leads to deadlock and starvation.

b. Deadlock

Deadlock is a permanent blocking of a set of processes competing for resources. It is a situation in which each of two processes is waiting for the other to do something; thus, neither one can proceed. For a deadlock to occur, the following four conditions must hold.

- ✓ Mutual Exclusion: At least one resource must be held in a non-sharable way.
- ✓ Hold and Wait: A process must be holding a resource and waiting for another.
- ✓ No Preemption: No resource can be forcibly removed from a process holding it.
- ✓ Circular Wait: A waits for B, B waits for C, C waits for A.

Deadlock can be prevented by ensuring that one of the above conditions does not hold. For example using pre-emptive scheduling.

c. Starvation

Starvation is a situation where a task can never finish because it can never get a necessary resource such as a large block of memory. The operating system should detect such tasks and do its best to allocate the resources that they need.

1.1.4. Process/CPU Scheduling

CPU scheduling is the act of determining which process in the ready state should be moved to the running state. It decides which process in memory is to be executed by the CPU at any given moment. Scheduling decisions may take place when a process:

1. Switches from running to waiting state
 2. Switches from running to ready state
 3. Switches from waiting to ready
 4. Switches from running to terminated

Scheduling can be preemptive or non-preemptive.

- ✓ Preemptive scheduling is scheduling in which the currently executing process is forced to give up the CPU. Scheduling under (2) and (3) is preemptive.
 - ✓ Non preemptive scheduling is scheduling in which the currently executing process gives up the CPU voluntarily. Scheduling under (1) and (4) is non-preemptive.

There exist different algorithms used for scheduling. Examples are first come, first served, shortest job first and round robin algorithms.

a. First Come, First Served

First come first served algorithm moves processes to the CPU in the order in which they arrive in the ready queue. It is non-preemptive. As such, when a process has the CPU it runs to completion before giving up the CPU.

Consider that the following processes arrive in the order they are given below.

Process	Service time
P1	140
P2	75
P3	
P4	280
P5	125

Using FCFS algorithm to schedule the processes, we get



b. Shortest Job First

Shortest job first (SJF) algorithm looks at all the processes in the ready state and dispatches the one with the smallest execution time. It is also generally implemented as a non-preemptive algorithm. Using the SJF algorithm, we have

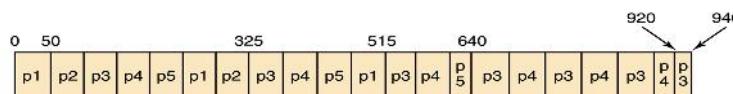


Disadvantage

- | Some jobs may never be executed as they have a high service time (starvation).

c. Round Robin

Round-robin algorithm distributes time equitably among all ready processes by establishing a particular time slice (or time quantum), during which each process executes. At the end of the quantum, the process is preempted. It returns to the ready state to allow another process its turn. Using round-robin algorithm with time slice of 50, the above processes will be scheduled as follows:



1.1.5. Management of I/O Devices

a. Interrupts

An interrupt is a signal generated by hardware or software that causes the CPU to suspend what it is doing to handle another task of higher priority. Any event that will cause an interrupt is called an interrupt request (IR). For example, a key pressed on the keyboard. An interrupt handler or interrupt service routine (ISR) is a program that services an interrupt request. It contains the actions that will be executed for a given interrupt request.

b. Polling

c. Buffering

A buffer is an area of memory used to temporarily store data while it is being moved from one place to another.

1.1.6. File Management

The file system is the portion of the operating system that manages how files are stored. Examples of file systems are FAT used in MS DOS, NTFS used in Windows, ext2 used in

Linux and HPFS used in OS/2. The operating system is responsible for the following activities in connection with file management:

- File creation and deletion.
- Directory creation and deletion.
- Support of primitives for manipulating files and directories
- Mapping files onto secondary storage.
- File backup on stable (nonvolatile) storage media.

1.1.7. Providing User Interface

Working on a computer, a user has to interact with the computer. A user interface is the means of communication or interaction between the user and the computer. The operating system provides this means that enables an individual to see and work when using a computer.

Different operating systems provide different types of user interfaces.

a. Command Line Interface (CLI)

A command line interface allows the user to interact with the computer by typing the commands in a specified format. It provides a prompt through which the user types the commands. Here the user mostly makes use of the keyboard.

In this type of interface, the user has to remember the name and format of the commands. Spelling mistakes and deviations in format lead to errors and the task is not performed. Examples of operating systems that provide a command line interface are MS DOS, early versions of UNIX and Linux.

b. Graphical User Interface (GUI)

A graphical user interface allows the user to interact with the computer through graphical items such as icons, menus, dialog boxes, etc. Here, the user mostly makes use of the mouse to point and click on these graphical items. GUI is also known as WIMP system where WIMP stands for windows, icons, menus and pointers.

This type of user interface requires a lot of memory space to store the graphics and can cause machines with low processing power to be slow. Examples of operating systems with a graphical user interface are Windows, Macintosh operating systems, some versions of Linux and UNIX.

c. Voice Recognition Interface

A speech recognition interface allows the user to give verbal commands to the computer. The user communicates with the computer through natural language. They are also called natural language interface

1.2. Providing Security

Security is the most desirable characteristic of any operating system. An operating system should provide a means for safeguarding system resources from unauthorized users and protection of one user's resources from other users of the system.

Popular operating systems offer security features through incorporation of the following:

- Login name.
- Login password.

- Read/write access file permissions.
- Encryption of data
- Virus protection software layers.

2. Types of Operating Systems

2.1. Single User OS

A single user operating system is an operating system which allows only one user to work on the system at a time. No two or multiple users can work on the system simultaneously. Examples are Control Program for Microcomputers (CP/M) and Microsoft Disk Operating System (MS DOS).

2.2. MultiUser OS

A multi-user operating system is an operating system which allows multiple users to work on the system simultaneously. This type of operating system is larger and more complex than a single user operating system.

Features of multi-user operating systems, which are not provided in single user operating systems, are:

- Time sharing (CPU devotes time to all the users in round robin fashion).
- Tight security features.
- Resource sharing among users.
- System administrator privileges

Examples of multi-user operating systems are Linux, Unix and Virtual Machine System (VMS).

2.3. Single task OS

A single task operating system allows a user to execute one and only program at a time. The user cannot run two or more programs at the same time. It is not possible to be preparing a worksheet on the computer while printing a report or listening to music. Once a user invokes a program, the computer gets dedicated to that task only.

CP/M and MS-DOS are examples of single user single task operating systems.

2.4. Multiprogramming OS

A multi-programming operating system is an operating system that allows multiple programs to be held in main memory at the same time. The concept of multi-programming is that the operating system keeps several jobs in memory simultaneously and decides which can be executed at a given moment.

2.5. Multitasking OS

A multitasking operating system allows a user to execute more than one program at a time. It allows a user to be preparing a worksheet on the computer while printing a report or listening to music. Multitasking is an extension of multiprogramming as two programs cannot be executed simultaneously if they are not found in memory at the same time.

Windows Me, Windows-XP, Macintosh operating system, OS/2 are examples of single user, multitasking operating systems.

2.6. Embedded OS

An embedded operating system is an operating system that is used in an embedded system. An embedded system is a small computing device that is built into a larger equipment often as a single chip and dedicated to a given task. Embedded systems control many devices in use today such as digital watches, mobile phones, microwave ovens, washing machines, vehicles, photocopiers, cameras and process controllers.

Embedded OS are ROM based. That is, they cannot be modified as ROM is read only.

2.7. Network OS

A network operating system is an operating system which includes networking features. It contains special functions, protocols and device drivers that enable the computer to be connected to a network.

Examples of network operating systems are Windows-NT, Windows-2000 server, Windows server 3000, Novell Netware and Artisoft LANstatic.

Some multi-purpose operating systems like Windows XP, Windows 7 and Mac OS 10, come with capabilities that enable them to be described as network operating systems.

✓ Field

As characters are composed of bits, fields are composed of characters. A field is a group of characters that conveys some meaning. For example, a person's name, a word, the name of a place or thing.

✓ Record

A record is a collection of related fields. A record consists of fields, with each field describing an attribute of an entity.

✓ File

A file is a collection of related records. Files are frequently classified by the application for which they are primarily used. A primary key in a file is a field whose value identifies a record among others in the file.

✓ Databases

A database is a collection of files.

2. File Formats

Records in a file must be stored in a way that a program that uses the file will be able to recognize and possibly access it. This is known as file format.

Definition: *File format is a particular way that data is encoded for storage in a computer file.*

A particular file format is often indicated as part of a file's name by a file name extension. Conventionally, the extension is separated from the file name by a dot and contains three or four letters that indicate the format. A file name is a unique name that is given to a file within its file directory. For example, lectures.docx is a file with filename "lectures" and extension ".docx" indicating that the file is an MS Word 2007 document.

There are as many different file formats as there are different programs to process the files. A few of the more common file format types are:

2.1. Graphics File Formats

Computers store graphic images as either bitmap images or vector graphics.

2.1.1. Bitmap Images

A bitmap image is stored as a collection of tiny dots (pixels) of individual colors that make up the image. Pixel is short for picture element. A data file for a bitmap image contains information about every single pixel in the image. As a result, the file size of a bitmap graphic is often quite large.

Bitmap images are resolution dependent. Resolution refers to the number of pixels in an image and is usually stated as dpi (dots per inch) or ppi (pixels per inch). The more the number of pixels in an image, the more detailed the image will be.

Because bitmaps are resolution dependent, it's difficult to increase or decrease their size without sacrificing a degree of image quality.

Some common bitmap graphic programs are:

✓ Photoshop

V. FILE FORMAT AND ORGANISATION

Introduction

Computers process and store all forms of data in binary format.

1. Data Hierarchy

Data items processed by computers form a data hierarchy in which they become larger and more complex in structure as we progress from bits, to characters, to fields and to larger data elements. Data elements can be organized in a hierarchical form as follows:

Bit → Byte (character) → Field → Record → File → Database

✓ Bit

The smallest data item manipulated by computers is the bit (short for binary digit). Each bit can assume either the value 0 or the value 1.

✓ Byte

A single bit is of little or no use as it can represent only two states. To make them important, they are usually used in groups. A group of eight bits is known as a byte. A byte is the smallest addressable unit of the computer and it is used to represent a character. Each character, be it a letter, a digit or a symbol is represented as an eight bits pattern. The word "data" has 4 characters, meaning that it will take up 4 bytes which is 32 bits.

- ✓ Paint Shop Pro
- ✓ GIMP
- ✓ Photo-Paint
- ✓ Graphic Converter

Examples of bitmap formats include:

- JPEG or JPG - Joint Photographic Experts Group
- GIF - Graphics Interchange Format
- TIFF or TIF- Tagged Image File Format
- BMP - Bitmap graphics file
- PNG – Portable Network Graphic

2.1.2. Vector Graphics

Vector images are stored as a collection of shapes (lines, circles, curves) called objects, together with information defining how the objects will be produced and where they will be located. The data file for a vector image contains the points where the shapes start and end, how much the shapes curve, and the colors that either border or fill the shapes. Because vector graphics are not made of pixels, the images can be scaled to be very large without losing quality. Programs used with vector graphics are drawing programs. Some of these programs include:

- ✓ Corel Draw
- ✓ Adobe Illustrator
- ✓ Adobe Photoshop

Examples of vector formats are:

- SVG - Scalable Vector Graphic
- CDR- CorelDraw graphic
- CMX - Corel Meta Exchange
- EPS - Encapsulated Postscript
- CGM - Computer Graphics Metafile
- PICT - Macintosh Picture
- WMF- Windows Metafile

2.2. Multimedia File Formats

Multimedia is any combination of digitally manipulated text, sound, animation and video.

2.2.1. Audio File Formats

- MP3- MPEG Layer 3
- WMA- Windows Media Audio
- WAV - Waveform audio file
- MIDI-

2.2.2. Video File Formats

- AVI - Audio Video Interleave

- MPEG or MPG - Motion Picture Experts Group
- 3GPP - Third Generation Partnership Project

2.3. Common Application File Formats

- DOC or DOCX - Document file (ASCII or MS Word)
- PDF - Portable Document Format
- TXT - ASCII Text file
- XLS (XLSX)- Excel Worksheet file
- WKS, WK2, WK3- Lotus 1-2-3 or MS Works Worksheet
- PPT (PPTX)- PowerPoint presentation file

2.4. Hypermedia File Formats

- HTML (HTM)- Hypertext Markup Language
- XML- Extensible Markup Language
- SGML- Standard Generalized Markup Language

2.5. Other File Formats

- EXE - Executable file (machine-language program)
- DLL - Dynamic Link Library
- SYS - System file
- ZIP- Zip compressed file

3. File Organization

File organization refers to the logical structuring of records in a file. In other words, it is the way records are arranged in a file.

In the context of data processing, files can be grouped into two types: master and transaction files.

- ✓ A master file contains the permanent data of a data processing system. Master files represent the most up to date situation of the system and contain two basic types of data:
 - data of a more or less permanent nature which only requires updating occasionally;
 - data which will change every time transactions are applied to a file.
- ✓ A transaction file contains data that is necessary to keep a master file up to date. Data is collected on a daily, weekly or monthly basis into a transaction file which is then used to update the master file.

Depending on the arrangement of records in a file, files can be serially, sequentially or randomly organized.

3.1. Serial File Organization

Serial files are files in which records are stored in chronological order with no particular sequence. As each record is received it is stored in the next available storage space. In order to access a particular record, the file must be read record by record from the beginning of the file until the required record is found. This type of access is called serial

access. Serial access is very slow which makes it impossible for serial files to be very useful if individual records have to be looked up. They are used as temporary files to store transaction data.

3.2. Sequential File Organization

A sequential file is a serial file in which records are stored in order by a record-key field. That is, the records are sorted according to a given field that identifies each record in the file, in a unique way. Sequential files are also accessed serially. However, a sequential file is particularly useful when a whole file of data has to be processed as it is faster and more efficient than other methods. Sequential files are ideal for master files and batch processing applications such as payroll and billing systems in which almost all records are processed in a single run of the application.

Serial and sequential files can be stored on both magnetic disk and magnetic tape. They are particularly suited to tape which is a serial/sequential access medium.

3.3. Indexed Sequential File Organization

An indexed sequential file is a sequential file in which an index is added to support random access. In this type of file, records are stored in blocks and the address of every block is stored in an index. A block address may consist of the key of the first record in the block. Indexed sequential files therefore combine the advantages of a sequential file with the possibility of direct access. To access any record in the file, the index is searched to determine the block to which the record belongs. The record is then searched for sequentially but only within the block in which it is found.

3.4. Random File Organization

A random file is a file in which records are stored in random order. In a random file, the value of the record key is mapped by a hash function to an address within the file where the record will be stored. The function transforms the value of a record key into an index that corresponds to a location in the file. This process is called hashing. Any record within this type of file can be accessed directly without reference to any other record.

To create and maintain a random file, a mapping function must be established between the record key and the address where the record is held

4. Processing Files

The main processes that can be performed on files are adding records, deleting records and updating records.

4.1. Processing Serial Files

4.1.1. Adding a Record

As there is no particular order in a serial file new records are simply added at the end of the file. The process can be expressed in simple algorithm:

```
Open file A for writing
Move record pointer to end of file A
Write new record to file A
Close file A
```

4.1.2. Deleting a Record

The process of deleting a record from a serial file is more complex. It involves reading the records from the beginning of the file and writing them, one by one, to a new file and simply not writing the record chosen for deletion.

```
Open file A for reading
Open file B for writing
While not at end of file A
  Read a record from file A
  If Key_of_A <> Key_to_Delete then
    Write record A to File B
  Endif
Endwhile
Close file A
Close file B
```

File B now contains the amended data and file A still exists with the original data.

4.2. Processing Sequential Files

4.2.1. Adding a Record

In order to maintain the order of the sequential file the new record has to be placed in the correct position in the file. This is done by copying the records from the original file into a new file until the position for the new record is found. The new record is written and then the remaining records copied after.

```
Open file A for reading
Open file B for writing
While not at end of file A
  Read a record from file A
  If Key_of_A <= Key_to_Add then
    Write record A to File B
  Else
    Write new record to File B
  Endif
Endwhile
Close file A
Close file B
```

4.2.2. Deleting a Record

This is exactly the same process as for a serial file.

4.3. Processing Direct Files

4.3.1. Adding a Record

4.3.2. Deleting a Record

5. File Data Security

There is always a chance that data can be compromised though it may appear secure when confined in a computer. One could suddenly be hit with a malware infection where a virus destroys the files or hackers may gain access into the computer system and steal, delete or destroy files. To secure data, some measures need to be taken.

Data security is the practice of keeping data protected from corruption and unauthorized access. Measures taken to ensure the safekeeping of data include backup storage, archival storage, data encryption, authentication, logs, antivirus and firewall.

4.1. Backup Storage

Backup is the process of making copies of data which may be used to restore the original data after a data loss event. Copies of data can be made and stored on storage devices like external hard drives, CDs and DVDs. Backups have two distinct purposes; to recover data after its loss, be it by data deletion or corruption and to recover data from an earlier time, according to a user-defined data retention policy, typically configured within a backup application.

4.2. Archival Storage

Data archiving is the process of moving data that is no longer actively used to a separate data storage device for long-term retention. Data archive is often confused with data backup, which are copies of data. Data archives protect older information that is not needed for everyday operations but may occasionally need to be accessed while data backups are used to restore frequently used data in case it is corrupt or destroyed.

4.3. Audit Logs

An audit log is a record of all the actions carried out by the user of a system, stored together with their user name. If a file is deleted, modified or copied, the person responsible can be identified by examining the logs. Getting a computer system to keep logs is one way of deterring authorized users from damaging or stealing data from the system.

4.4. Transaction Logs

A transaction log (also database log or binary log) is a history of actions executed by a database management system to guarantee ACID properties over crashes or hardware failures. ACID is a set of properties that guarantee that database transactions are processed reliably. ACID stands for atomicity, consistency, isolation and durability.

4.4.1. Atomicity

Atomicity requires that database modifications must follow an "all or nothing" rule. This means that, if one part of a transaction fails, the entire transaction fails and the database state is left unchanged. This guarantees that a transaction cannot be left in an incomplete state.

4.4.2. Consistency

Consistency ensures that any transaction will bring the database from one valid state to another. Any data written to the database must be valid according to all defined rules.

4.4.3. Isolation

Isolation refers to the requirement that no transaction should be able to interfere with another transaction. No transactions that affect the same rows can run concurrently since their sequence and hence their outcome would be unpredictable.

4.4.4. Durability

Durability means that once a transaction has been committed, it will remain so even in the event of power loss, crashes or errors.

4.5. Virus Checking Software

A virus checking software or antivirus is software that is used to prevent, detect and remove malware. Malware are malicious software including but not limited to computer viruses, computer worms, Trojan horses, spyware and adware. Malware are designed to cause damage or disruption to a computer system. When an antivirus has been installed on a system, it is necessary to update it regularly. Examples of antivirus software are Avast, Kaspersky, McAfee, Avira, AVG and Smadav.

See Encryption, authentication and firewall in Chapter 2.

VI. NUMBER SYSTEMS AND CODES

Introduction

1. Number Systems

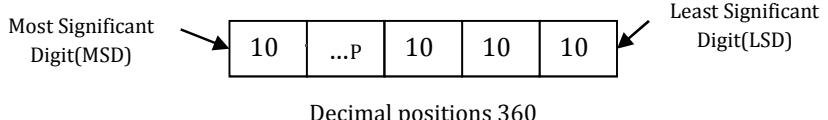
A number system is a set of symbols and rules used to represent numbers. The number of different symbols used in a given number system is known as the base or radix of the system. The largest value of a symbol (digit) in a given number system is always one less than the base or radix of that system. If the base of a system is represented by b , then the largest value a digit in that system can assume is $b - 1$.

Examples of number systems include the binary, octal, decimal (denary) and hexadecimal systems.

1.1. The Decimal System

The decimal system has a base value of 10. Its maximum or largest value of digit is $(b - 1) = 10 - 1 = 9$, meaning that the decimal system uses the digits 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9 to represent any quantity.

For any n -digit number, the value each digit represents depends on its position in the number. Decimal positions (place values) are powers of ten as shown below:



Where, 10^0 is the ones place

10^1 is the ten's place

10^2 is the hundreds place

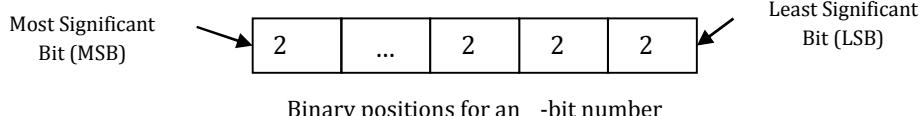
The value of any digit in a given n -digit number is obtained by multiplying the digit by its place value. The value of the number is the sum of the products of the digits and their place values. That is, we multiply each digit by its place value, then we add the different products obtained.

Example: $234_1 = 2 \times 10^2 + 3 \times 10^1 + 4 \times 10^0$. This means that there are two one hundreds, three tens and four ones in the number 234.

Remark Each digit position in decimal has a weight that is ten times the one to its immediate right. That is, 10^2 is ten times greater than 10^1 which is ten times greater than 10^0 .

1.2. The Binary System

The binary system has a base value of 2. Only two digits 0 and 1, are used to represent any quantity in binary. These digits are called binary digits or more commonly bits. To express any quantity in binary we use powers much like in the decimal system but this time, the weights are powers of 2 as shown below.



Binary positions for an n -bit number

e.g. the binary number 1101_2 is expressed as $1101_2 = 1 \times 2^3 + 1 \times 2^2 + 0 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^0$

This means that there are 1 one, 0 two, 1 four, and 1 eight in the number 1101.

1.2.1. Binary Addition

Rules for addition:

$$0+0=0; \quad 0+1=1; \quad 1+0=1; \quad 1+1=10; \quad 1+1+1=(1+1)+1=10+1=11$$

- i. $100 + 01 = 101$ ($4 + 1 = 5$)
- ii. $1101 + 101 = 10010$ ($13 + 5 = 18$)
- iii. $1111 + 110 = 10101$ ($15 + 6 = 21$)

1.2.2. Binary Subtraction

Rules for subtraction:

$$0-0=0; \quad 1-0=1; \quad 0-1=0 \text{ (we borrow digit)}; \quad 1-1=0$$

- i. $10101 - 100 = 10001$ ($21 - 4 = 17$)
- ii. $1010 - 101 = 101$ we borrow a digit worth 2 to continue with the calculation ($10 - 5 = 5$)
- iii. $1001011 - 110101 = 10110$ ($75 - 53 = 22$)

1.2.3. Binary Multiplication

Rules for multiplication:

$$0 \times 0 = 0; \quad 0 \times 1 = 0; \quad 1 \times 0 = 0; \quad 1 + 1 = 1$$

$$\text{i. } 101 \times 10 = 1010 \text{ } (5 \times 2 = 10)$$

$$\text{ii. } 111 \times 101 = 100011 \text{ } (7 \times 5 = 35)$$

$$\text{iii. } 11011 \times 1101 = 101011111 \text{ } (27 \times 13 = 351)$$

1.2.4. Binary Division

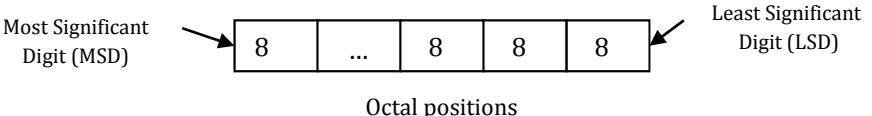
Rules for division:

$$0/1 = 0; \quad 1/1 = 1; \quad 1/0 = \text{undefined}.$$

1.3. The Octal System

The octal system has a base value of 8. It uses the digits 0-7 to represent any quantity.

Weights in octal are powers of eight as shown below.



Where 8^0 is the one's place

8^1 is the eights place

8^2 is the sixty fours place

Example: $367_8 = 3 \times 8^2 + 6 \times 8^1 + 7 \times 8^0$

(This means that there are 3 sixty fours, 6 eight's and 7 one's in 367)

1.4. The Hexadecimal System

The prefix "hex" means 6 and "deci" means 10. The hexadecimal number system is thus a base-16 number system. Each digit position represents a power of 16. The digits used in this system are 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, A, B, C, D, E and F, where A = 10_1 , B = 11_1 , C = 12_1 , D = 13_1 , E = 14_1 , F = 15_1 .

1.5. Conversion from One Base to Another

1.5.1. Binary/Decimal Conversion

a. Decimal to Binary

To convert a binary number to decimal, we proceed as follows:

Step 1: starting with the 1s place, write the binary place value over each digit in the binary number to be converted.

Step 2: add up all the place values that have a "1" in them

Example 1: Convert 11010_2 to base 10

16 8 4 2 1

1 1 0 1 0

$$16 + 8 + 2 = 26_1$$

Convert: 1111_2 (15), 10011_2 (19), 10101_2 (21) to base 10.

Example 2: Convert 1101.011_2 to base 10

$$\begin{aligned}1101.011_2 &= 1 \times 2^3 + 1 \times 2^2 + 0 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^0 + 0 \times 2^{-1} + 1 \times 2^{-2} + 1 \times 2^{-3} \\&= 8 + 4 + 0 + 1 + 0 + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} \\&= 13 + 0.25 + 0.125 \\&= 13 + 0.25 + 0.125 \\&= 13.375\end{aligned}$$

Exercise: Convert the following binary numbers to decimal

- iii) 1010.101_2
- iv) 10011.001_2

b. Binary to Decimal

There are two methods that can be used to convert decimal numbers to binary:

- repeated division method
- repeated subtraction method

✓ Repeated Division Method

The general technique of this method can be used to convert any decimal number to any other number system.

Step 1: divide the decimal number you want to convert by 2 in regular long division until you obtain a final remainder

Step 2: use the remainder as the least significant bit of the binary number

Step 3: divide the quotient you got from the first division operation by 2 until you obtain a final remainder

Step 4: use the remainder as the next digit of the binary number

Step 5: repeat steps 3 and 4 as many times as necessary until you get a quotient that cannot be divided by 2.

Step 6: use the last remainder (that cannot be divided by 2) as the most significant bit of the binary number.

Example 1: Convert 213_1 to base 2

$213/2 = 106$	remainder 1	
$106/2 = 53$	remainder 0	
$53/2 = 26$	remainder 1	
$26/2 = 13$	remainder 0	
$13/2 = 6$	remainder 1	
$6/2 = 3$	remainder 0	
$3/2 = 1$	remainder 1	
$1/2 = 0$	remainder 1	

Therefore, $213_1 = 11010101_2$

Step 1: starting with the 1s place, write down all the binary place values in order until you get to the first value that is greater than the number to be converted.

Step 2: mark out the largest place value

Step 3: subtract the new largest place value from the number to be converted. Place a "1" under the place value.

Step 4: for the rest of the place values, try to subtract each one from the previous result. If you can, place a "1" under that place value. If you cannot, place a "0".

Step 5: repeat step 4 until all the place values have been processed.

The resulting set of 1s and 0s is the decimal number you started with.

Example 2: 341_{10} to base 2

512 256 128 64 32 16 8 4 2 1

512 is greater 341 so we mark it out. What is left is

256 128 64 32 16 8 4 2 1

$341 - 256 = 85$ we place 1 under 256 (MSB)

$85 - 128 = x$ we place 0 under 128

$85 - 64 = 21$ we place 1 under 64

$21 - 32 = x$ we place 0 under 32

$21 - 16 = 5$ we place 1 under 16

$5 - 8 = x$ we place 0 under 8

$5 - 4 = 1$ we place 1 under 4

$1 - 2 = x$ we place 0 under 2

$1 - 1 = 0$ we place 1 under 1(LSB)

Therefore, $341_1 = 10101010101_2$

Example 3: Convert 25.75_1 to binary

$25_1 = 11001_2$,

$0.75 \times 2 = 1.5 \quad 1$

$0.5 \times 2 = 1.0 \quad 1$

$0.75_1 = 11_2$

$\Rightarrow 25.75_1 = 11001.11_2$

Example 4: Convert: 33.33_2 to decimal.

1.5.2. Binary/Octal Conversion

Theorem

If base R_1 is the integer power of another base, R_2 (i.e. $R_1 = R_2^d$), then every group of d digits in R_2 is equivalent to 1 digit in the R_1 base.

For example:

Assume that: $R_1 = 8$ (octal) and $R_2 = 2$ (binary)

✓ Repeated Subtraction Method

From the theorem, $8 = 2^3$

Hence, 3 digits in base-2 is equivalent to 1 digit in base-8.

From the stated theorem, the following is a binary-octal conversion table.

Binary	Hexadecimal
000	0
001	1
010	2
011	3
100	4
101	5
110	6
111	7

a. Binary to Octal

Step 1: make groups of three bits starting from the least significant bit and move towards the most significant bit.

Step 2: replace each group of bits by its octal representation.

Example: 1. Convert 100110_2 to base 8

$$100110_2 = 100 \ 110$$

$$100_2 = 4_8, 110_2 = 6_8$$

$$\therefore 100110_2 = 46_8$$

Example 2: Convert 1011101_2 to base 8

$$1011101_2 = 001 \ 011 \ 101$$

$$001_2 = 1_8, \quad 011_2 = 3_8, \quad 101_2 = 5_8$$

$$\therefore 1011101_2 = 135_8$$

b. Octal to Binary

To convert from octal to binary, we replace every octal digit by its 3-bits binary equivalent.

Example1: Convert 73_8 to binary

$$7_8 = 111_2, \quad 3_8 = 101_2$$

$$\therefore 73_8 = 111101_2$$

Example 2: Convert 450_8 to binary

$$4_8 = 100_2, \quad 5_8 = 101_2, \quad 0_8 = 000_2$$

$$\therefore 450_8 = 100101000_2$$

1.5.3. Binary/Hexadecimal Conversion

Assume that:

$$R_1 = 16 \text{ (hexadecimal)}$$

$$R_2 = 2 \text{ (binary)}$$

From the theorem, $16 = 2^4$

Hence, 4 digits in a binary number is equivalent to 1 digit in the hexadecimal number system.

The following is the binary-hexadecimal conversion table

Binary	Hexadecimal
0000	0
0001	1
0010	2
0011	3
0100	4
0101	5
0110	6
0111	7

Binary	Hexadecimal
1000	8
1001	9
1010	A
1011	B
1100	C
1101	D
1110	E
1111	F

a. Binary to Hexadecimal

Step 1: make groups of four bits starting from the least significant bit and move towards the most significant bit.

Step 2: replace each group of bits by its hexadecimal value representation.

Example 1: Convert 100110_2 to base 16

$$100110_2 = 0010 \ 0110$$

$$0010_2 = 2_1, \quad 0110_2 = 6_1$$

$$\therefore 100110_2 = 26_1$$

Example 2: Convert 1011101_2 to base 16

$$1011101_2 = 0000 \ 0101 \ 1101$$

$$0000_2 = 0_1, \quad 0101_2 = 5_1, \quad 1101_2 = C_1$$

$$\therefore 1011101_2 = 5C_1$$

b. Hexadecimal to Binary

To convert from hexadecimal to binary, we carry out the inverse operation. That is, we replace every hexadecimal digit by its 4-bits binary equivalent.

Example: Convert 450_8 to binary

$$4_1 = 0100_2, \quad 5_1 = 0101_2, \quad 0_1 = 0000_2$$

$$\therefore 450_8 = 10001010000_2$$

Example 2: Convert $6E$ to base 2

$$6 = 0110, \quad E = 1110$$

$$\therefore 6E = 1101110_2$$

Assignment:

1) Convert the following octal numbers to hexadecimal.

- i) 65_8
- ii) 53_8

2) Convert the following hexadecimal numbers to octal.

- i) $12B_{16}$
- ii) $F2E_{16}$

2. Data Representation

Computers use binary patterns (fixed number of bits) to represent data, which could be numbers, letters, videos, images or other symbols. It is important to decide on how these patterns will be interpreted. The interpretation of binary patterns is called data representation or encoding. Different representation schemes exist.

2.1. Representation of Unsigned Integers

Unsigned integers can represent zero and all positive integers. The value of an unsigned integer is interpreted as "the magnitude of its underlying binary pattern". That is, for an unsigned integer, all the bits in the binary pattern are used to represent the magnitude of the integer.

In binary, an n-bit pattern can represent 2^n distinct integers. Therefore, an n-bit pattern will represent integers from 0 to $2^n - 1$.

For example:

- o A 4-bit pattern will represent the integers 0 to $(2^4) - 1 = 3$
- o An 8-bit pattern will represent the integers 0 to $(2^8) - 1 = 255$

2.2. Representation of Signed Integers

Signed integers can represent zero, positive integers, as well as negative integers. Four representation schemes are available for signed integers:

1. Sign-Magnitude representation
2. 1's Complement representation
3. 2's Complement representation
4. Biased representation (Excess-n)

2.2.1. Sign-Magnitude Representation

In sign-magnitude representation, the most significant bit is the sign bit with 0 for positive and 1 for negative. The remaining $(n - 1)$ bits represent the absolute value of the integer. The absolute value of the integer is interpreted as "the magnitude of the $(n - 1)$ -bit pattern".

Example 1: Suppose $n = 8$ and the binary representation 01000001.

Sign bit is 0 \Rightarrow number is positive
Absolute value is $1000001 = 65$
Hence, the integer is 65.

Example 2: Suppose $n = 8$ and the binary representation 10001001.

Sign bit is 1 \Rightarrow number is negative
Absolute value is $0001001 = 9$
Hence, the integer is -9

The drawbacks of sign-magnitude representation are:

- o There are two representations (0000 0000 and 1000 0000) for the number zero, which could lead to inefficiency and confusion.
- o Arithmetic is cumbersome making the design of electronic circuits for this scheme difficult.

2.2.2. 1's Complement Representation

In 1's complement representation the most significant bit is still the sign bit. The remaining $(n - 1)$ bits represent the magnitude of the integer as follows:

- o for positive integers, the absolute value of the integer is equal to "the magnitude of the $(n - 1)$ -bit pattern".
- o for negative integers, the absolute value of the integer is equal to "the magnitude of the complement (inverse) of the $(n - 1)$ -bit pattern".

Example 1: Using 1's complement, represent the following base 10 numbers on 8 bits.

i) $26_1 = 11010$

Number is positive \Rightarrow sign bit is 0

$$\Rightarrow 26_1 = 0\ 0011010$$

ii) -25

Number is negative \Rightarrow sign bit is 1

$$25 = 11001$$

Complement of 0011001 is 1100110

$$\Rightarrow -25 = 1\ 1100110$$

Example 2: Give the decimal equivalent of the following 1's complement binary representations.

i) 0010 0001.

Sign bit is 0 \Rightarrow positive

$$\text{Absolute value is } 010\ 0001 = 33$$

Hence, the integer is +33

ii) 1000 0001

Sign bit is 1 \Rightarrow negative

Absolute value is the complement of 000 0001, i.e., 111 1110 = 126

Hence, the integer is -126

The problem with this representation is that there are still two representations for zero (0000 0000 and 1111 1111).

a. Addition in 1's Complement

- o Add binary representations of the two numbers
- o If there is a carry (referred to as end-round carry), add it to the result.

b. Subtraction in 1's complement

Subtraction is implemented using addition as follows:

- o Determine the 1's complement of the negative number
- o Add the binary representations of the two numbers
- o If there is any carry, add it to the result

Example: subtract 37 from 51 in binary

$37 = 0100101 \Rightarrow 37 = 1011010 \Rightarrow -37 = 1101101$ in 1's complement

(51) 00110011

(-37) + 11011010

1 00001101

+ 1

(14) 00001110

2.2.3. 2's Complement Representation

In 2's complement representation, the remaining $(n - 1)$ bits represent the magnitude of the integer as follows:

- o for positive integers, the absolute value of the integer is equal to "the magnitude of the $(n - 1)$ -bit pattern".
- o for negative integers, the absolute value of the integer is equal to "the magnitude of the complement of the $(n - 1)$ -bit pattern plus one". That is, we just add one to 1's complement to get 2's complement.

An alternative and simple way of getting 2's complement is

- o to write the representation of the positive number
- o starting from the least significant bit, flip all the bits to the left of the first 1.

Example 1: Using 2's complement, store the following base 10 numbers.

i) -24

Number is negative \Rightarrow sign bit is 1

$24 = 11000 = 0011000$

1's complement of 24 is 1100111

2's complement of 24 is $1100111 + 1 = 1101000$

$\Rightarrow -24$ is represented by 1101000

ii) -13

Number is negative \Rightarrow sign bit is 1

$13 = 1101 = 0001101$

1's complement of 13 is 1110010

2's complement of 13 is $1110010 + 1 = 1110011$

$\Rightarrow -13$ is represented by 1110011

Example 2: Give the decimal equivalent of the following 2's complement binary representations.

i) 01100000

Sign bit is 0 \Rightarrow positive

Absolute value is $110\ 0000 = 96$

Hence, the integer is +96

ii) 1 001 0001

Sign bit is 1 \Rightarrow negative

Absolute value is the complement of 001 0001 plus 1, i.e., $110\ 1110 + 1 = 111$

Hence, the integer is -111 ($-2^7 + 2^4 + 2^0 = -128 + 16 + 1 = -111$)

Modern computers use 2's complement in representing signed integers. This is because:

2. There is only one representation for the number zero unlike in sign-magnitude and 1's complement representations.
3. Positive and negative integers can be treated together in addition and subtraction. Subtraction can be carried out using the "addition logic".

a. Addition in 2's Complement

- o Add binary representations of the two numbers
- o If there is a carry, ignore it

b. Subtraction in 2's Complement

Subtraction is implemented as follows:

- o Determine the 2's complement for the negative number
- o Add the binary representations of the two numbers
- o If there is any carry, ignore it

Example: subtract 37 from 51

$37 = 0100101 \Rightarrow 37 = 1011010$ (1's C) $\Rightarrow -37 = 1\ 1011011$ (2's C)

(51) 00110011

(-37) + 11011011

(14) 1 00001110 discard end-round carry

c. 0.125

2.2.4. Excess-n Representation

In excess-n notation, where n is the number of bits used, the value represented is the unsigned value with a fixed value 2^{n-1} subtracted from it.

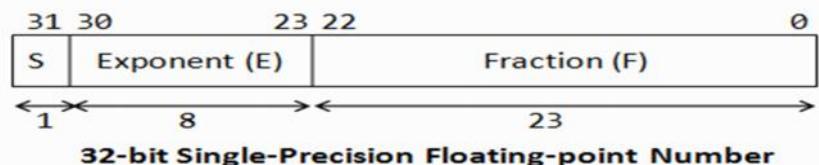
2.3. Representation of Real Numbers

Computers represent real numbers in a form similar to that of scientific notation of *mantissa* (M) and an *exponent* (E) of a certain *radix* (R), in the form of $M \times R^E$. Both M and E can be positive as well as negative. For example, 1.25×10^{-1} is expressed in scientific notation where 1.25 represents the mantissa, -1 the exponent and 10, the radix.

The IEEE 754 standard for representing floating-point numbers in the computer has two representation schemes: 32-bit single-precision and 64-bit double-precision.

✓ In 32-bit single-precision floating-point representation:

- ↳ the most significant bit is the *sign bit* (S), with 0 for negative numbers and 1 for positive numbers.
- ↳ the following 8 bits represent the *exponent* (E).
- ↳ the remaining 23 bits represent the *mantissa* (M) or *fraction* (F).



○ In 64-bit single-precision floating-point representation:

- ↳ the most significant bit is the *sign bit* (S), with 0 for negative numbers and 1 for positive numbers.
- ↳ the following 16 bits represent the *exponent* (E).
- ↳ the remaining 47 bits represent the *mantissa* (M) or *fraction* (F).

In floating-point representation, the mantissa and exponent play two important roles. The mantissa affects the precision of the number while the exponent affects the range. Precision has to do with the exactness of a number while range has to do with the set of numbers that can be represented.

For simplicity, we will use a 14-bit pattern for floating point with a 5-bit exponent and an 8-bit mantissa. In this case, we will use excess-16 representation for the exponent.

Examples:

1. Represent the following numbers as 32-bit single precision floating-point numbers.
 - a. 32.2
 - b. -15.37

Solution:

a. We convert the number to binary

$$\begin{array}{ll}
 32 = 100000 & 0 \quad M \\
 0.2 = 0.2 \times 2 = 0.4 & 0 \\
 0.4 = 0.4 \times 2 = 0.8 & 1 \\
 0.8 = 0.8 \times 2 = 1.6 & 1 \\
 1.6 = 0.6 \times 2 = 1.2 & 1 \\
 1.2 = 0.2 \times 2 = 0.4 & 0 \\
 0.4 = 0.4 \times 2 = 0.8 & 0 \\
 0.8 = 0.8 \times 2 = 1.6 & 1 \\
 1.6 = 0.6 \times 2 = 1.2 & 1
 \end{array}$$

So a binary representation of 0.2 is given by 0.001100110011
64.2 is 100000.001100110011

Step 2: we normalize the binary representation

1000000.001100110011 becomes $1.0000001100110011 \times 2^5$

Step 3: 5 is the true exponent.

In excess-16, we have $5 + 16 = 21$

21 in 5-bit unsigned representation is 10101

Step 4: The mantissa stored is what is on the right side of the radix point of the normal form.

So M is 00000011001100110

Putting all these together we have 64.2 represented as:

0 10101 00000001[10011001100110]

NB: On 8 bits we see that part of the number will be missing. That is why we say the mantissa determines the precision (exactness) of the number.

b. -15.375

Negative number \Rightarrow sign bit is 1

$$\begin{array}{ll}
 15 = 1111 & \\
 0.375 = 0.375 \times 2 = 0.75 & 0 \quad M \\
 0.75 = 0.75 \times 2 = 1.5 & 1 \\
 1.5 = 1.5 \times 2 = 0.96 & 0 \\
 0.96 = 0.96 \times 2 = 1.0 & 1
 \end{array}$$

0.375 = 0101

-15.375 = 1111.0101

Normalized we have, 1.1110101×2^3

$E = 3 \Rightarrow 19$ in excess-16

$E = 10010$

-15.375 is represented as 1 10010 11101010

c. 0.125

Positive number \Rightarrow Sign bit is 0

0 = 0000

$0.125 \times 2 = 0.25 \quad 0 \ M$

$0.25 \times 2 = 0.5 \quad 0$

$0.5 \times 2 = 1.0 \quad 1$

$0.125 = 0.001$

Normalized we have, 1.0×2^{-3}

$E = -3 + 16 = 13 = 01101$

0.125 is represented as 0 01100 00000000

2. Suppose the following 14-bit floating-point representation patterns, what decimal numbers do they represent?

a. 01000011000000

b. 10111010000000

c. 1111000000001

Solutions:

a. 010000110 00000

Sign bit is $S = 0 \Rightarrow$ positive number

$E = 10000 = 16$ (in normalized form)

Fraction is 1.11 (with an implicit leading 1) = $1 + 1 \times 2^{-1} + 1 \times 2^{-2} = 1.75$

The number is $+1.75 \times 2^{(1-1)} = +1.75 \times 2^0 = +1.75$

b. 10111010000000

Sign bit $S = 1 \Rightarrow$ negative number

$E = 01110 = 13$ (in normalized form)

Fraction is 1.1 (with an implicit leading 1) = $1 + 1 \times 2^{-1} = 1.5$

The number is $-1.5 \times 2^{(1-1)} = -1.5 \times 2^{-3} = -1.625$

c. 1 11110 00000001

Sign bit $S = 1 \Rightarrow$ negative number

$E = 11110 = 30$ (in normalized form)

Fraction is 1.00000001 (with an implicit leading 1) = $1 + 2^{-8}$

The number is $-(1 + 2^{-8}) \times 2^{(3-1)}$

2.4. Representation of Characters

2.4.1. Binary Coded Decimal

2.4.2. American Standard Code for Information Interchange

2.4.3. Extended Binary Coded Decimal

VII. DIGITAL ELECTRONICS

Introduction

1. Boolean Algebra

Boolean algebra also known as the algebra of logic was developed by an English mathematician called George Boole. It deals with binary variables and logic operators operating on these variables. A binary variable has only two possible values 0 or 1. Logic operators operating on these variables are AND (\cdot), OR ($+$) and NOT ($\bar{}$). Operations are defined for the values 0 and 1 as follows:

AND	OR	NOT
$0 \cdot 0 = 0$	$0 + 0 = 0$	$0 = 1$
$0 \cdot 1 = 0$	$0 + 1 = 1$	$1 = 1$
$1 \cdot 0 = 0$	$1 + 0 = 1$	
$1 \cdot 1 = 1$	$1 + 1 = 1$	

1.1. Laws and Theorems of Boolean Algebra

o Commutative law

$$A \cdot B = B \cdot A | A + B = B + A$$

o Associative law

$$(A \cdot B) \cdot C = A \cdot (B \cdot C) | (A + B) + C = A + (B + C)$$

o Distributive law

$$A(B + C) = (A \cdot B) + (A \cdot C) | A + (B \cdot C) = (A + B)(A + C)$$

o Identity law

$$A \cdot 1 = A | A + 0 = A$$

o Redundancy law

$$A \cdot 0 = 0 | A + 1 = 1$$

o Complement law

$$A \cdot \bar{A} = 0 | A + \bar{A} = 1$$

- Idempotence law**

$$A \cdot A = A \quad | \quad A + A = A$$

- Absorption law**

$$A(A + B) = A \quad | \quad A + (A \cdot B) = A$$

- Involution law**

$$\bar{\bar{A}} = A$$

- No name**

$$A + \bar{A}B = A + B \quad | \quad A(\bar{A} + B) = A$$

A	B	\bar{A}	$\bar{A}B$	$A + \bar{A}B$
0	0	1	0	0
0	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1
1	1	0	0	1

$$A + A\bar{B} = A \quad | \quad (A + B)(A + \bar{B}) = A$$

o De Morgan's Theorems

$$\overline{A + B} = \bar{A} + \bar{B} \quad | \quad \overline{A \cdot B} = \bar{A} \cdot \bar{B}$$

Expressions

Simplifying a Boolean expression consists of using the laws of Boolean algebra to write the expression in its simplest form.

Example 1: Simplify the expression $A + A(B + C) + B(B + C)$

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned}
 A + A(B + C) + B(B + C) &= A + A + A + B + B && \text{Distributive rule} \\
 &= A + A + A + B + B && \text{Idempotence rule } B + B = B \\
 &= A + A + B + B && \text{Idempotency rule } A + A = A \\
 &= A + A + B && \text{Absorption rule } B + B = B \\
 &= B + A && \text{Absorption rule } A + B = B + A
 \end{aligned}$$

B

Example 2: Simplify the expression

$$\begin{aligned}
 A\bar{B} + A(\bar{B} + C) + B(\bar{B} + \bar{C}) &= A\bar{B} + A(\bar{B}\bar{C}) + B(\bar{B}\bar{C}) && \text{De Morgan's theorem} \\
 &= A\bar{B} + A\bar{B}\bar{C} + B\bar{B}\bar{C} \\
 &= A\bar{B} + A\bar{B}\bar{C} + 0\bar{C} && \text{Complement law } B\bar{B} = 0 \\
 &= A\bar{B} + A\bar{B}\bar{C} + 0 && \text{Distributive law,} \\
 & && \text{Redundancy law } 0\bar{C}' = 0 \\
 &= A\bar{B}(1 + C) && \text{Redundancy } 1 + C' = 1 \\
 &= A\bar{B} \cdot 1 && \text{Identity rule } A\bar{B} \cdot 1 = A\bar{B} \\
 &= A\bar{B} && \text{Identity rule } A\bar{B} \cdot 1
 \end{aligned}$$

Example 3: Use De Morgan's theorems to simplify the following

- $(\bar{A} + B + C)^{-1}$
- $(A\bar{B} + A\bar{C})^{-1}$

Example 4: Show that

- $A + A = A$
- $(\bar{A} + \bar{B}) = \bar{B}(\bar{A} + B)$
- $(A + B)(A + \bar{B}) = A$

1.3. Constructing Truth Tables

A truth table shows the output for all possible values of the input variables. To construct a truth table, we evaluate the Boolean expression for all possible combinations of values for the input variables. The number of possible combinations is always equal to 2^n where n is the number of input variables.

Example 1: Construct a truth table for the expression $A + \bar{A}B$

We have 2 input variables A and $B \Rightarrow$ we will have $2^2 = 4$ different combinations.

Example 2: Construct a truth table for the expression $B + A$

3 input variables $\Rightarrow 2^3 = 8$ different combinations

A	B	C	A	$B + A$
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	0
0	1	0	0	1
0	1	1	0	1
1	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1
1	1	1	1	1

Example 3: Construct the truth tables for the following

- $\bar{A}B + A\bar{B}$
- $\bar{A}\bar{B} + A \cdot \bar{C}$ [B(Axor C)]
- $A(A + \bar{C})(A + B)$

2. Logic Gates and Circuits

Logic gates and circuits are simply ways of representing Boolean functions and expressions electronically.

2.1. Logic Gates

A logic gate is an electronic device that implements a simple Boolean function. Logic gates carry out the operations that the microprocessor performs. When a microprocessor is designed, a logic gate cell library (*collection of all low level logic functions used to implement the logic*) is also deeply planned and developed.

There are seven basic logic gates: AND, OR, NOT, NAND, NOR and XOR.

a. AND Gate

It is a logic gate whose output is "true" only when both inputs are "true". If neither or only one of the inputs is "false", the output is "false". The following illustration and table show the circuit symbol and logic combinations for an AND gate.

**Logic AND**

A	B	Output
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

b. OR Gate

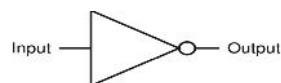
It is a logic gate whose output is "true" when either or both of the inputs are "true". If both inputs are "false," then the output is "false."

**Logic OR**

A	B	Output
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

c. NOT Gate

It is a logic gate whose output is "false" if its input is "true" and vice versa. It is called logical inverter, because it reverses the state of its input. A NOT gate accepts one input and produces a single output.

**Logic NOT (inverter)**

A	Output
0	1
1	0

d. NAND Gate

The NAND gate operates as an AND gate followed by a NOT gate. The output is "false" if both inputs are "true." Otherwise, the output is "true."

**Logic NAND**

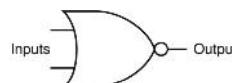
A	B	Output
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

by a NOT

A	B	Output
0	0	1
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	0

e. NOR Gate

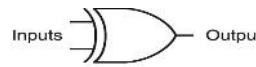
A NOR gate is equivalent to an OR gate followed by a NOT gate. Its output is "true" if both inputs are "false." Otherwise, the output is "false."

**Logic NOR**

an OR gate followed by a NOT gate.

f. XOR Gate

Exclusive-OR is a logic gate whose output is "true" when one but not both of its inputs is "true". The output is "false" if both inputs are "false" or if both inputs are "true." Another way of looking at this circuit is to observe that the output is "true" if the inputs are different, but "false" if the inputs are the same.

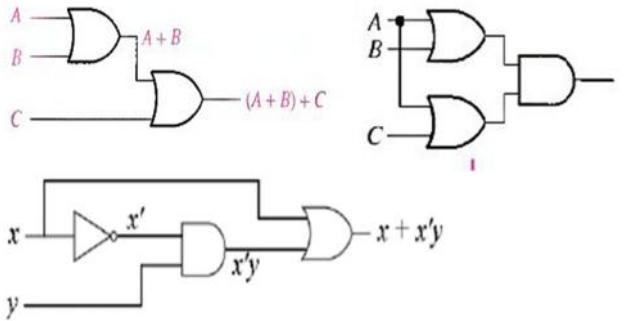
**Logic XOR**

A	B	Output
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

2.2. Logic Circuits

Circuits are made by combining two or more logic gates. Gates are combined into circuits by using the output of one gate as the input for another.

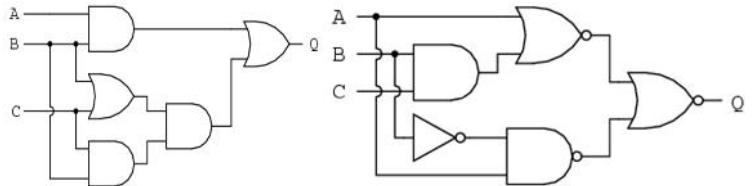
Examples



Exercise 1: Construct logic circuits for the following expressions

- 1) $\bar{A}B + A\bar{B}$
- 2) $(A + B)(\bar{A} + \bar{B})$
- 3) $\bar{A}(\bar{B} + A)$
- 4) $(\bar{A} + B)(\bar{A}\bar{B}\bar{C})$
- 5) $(A + \bar{B})A$

Exercise 2: What are the outputs for the following logic circuits



VIII. INFORMATION SYSTEMS

Introduction

A system is an integrated set of regularly interacting or interdependent components created to accomplish a defined objective, with defined and maintained relationships among its components. Basically, there are three major units in every system namely input, processing and output. The objective of a system demands that some output be produced as a result of processing the suitable inputs.

An information system can therefore be seen as a set of interrelated components that collect data, process the data to produce information.

1. Data and Information

Data are raw facts and figures that have no context or purposeful meaning. In computing, data is simply any number, letter or symbol that can be entered into a computer system.

When data has been processed it gives information. Information is data that has meaning and is presented in a context.

For example, the number 12.5 is data because we do not know why or in what context it is being used. However, if the number appears on a student's report card to show that they have an average of 12.5, then this data has changed into information, because it has acquired a context (it's an average) and meaning.

Also, the binary patterns that describe an icon on your desktop are data. They become information after the operating system software has processed them, because then they become meaningful to you as the icons representative of your hard disk or Internet explorer.

In summary,

$$I_1 = D + C$$

1.1. Sources of Data

a. Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a set of questions used for collecting data from people. A questionnaire may be in paper format or online.

b. Interview

An interview is a meeting during which somebody is asked questions. Interviews allow you to collect a greater depth of data and understanding from people than is possible by just using a questionnaire.

c. Observation

In observation, the data gatherer observes what is happening during a process or event and produces some kind of data file as a result

d. Data logging

Data logging is an automated method of gathering data by using sensors.

e. Document review

Document review is getting relevant data from a document, an article or a book.

f. Data mining

Data mining is the exploration of databases to collect data.

1.2. Characteristics of Information

Good information is that which is used and which creates value. Experience and research show that good information has numerous qualities.

a. Timeliness

Delay destroys the value of information. For effective decision making, information must reach the decision-maker at the right time. Timeliness means that information must reach its recipients within the prescribed timeframes.

b. Accuracy

Wrong information given to decision-makers would result in wrong decisions. Accuracy means that information should be free from mistakes and errors.

c. Current

For the characteristic of timeliness to be effective, information should be current or up-to-date. Information must be current as a fact of yesterday may not be a fact of today.

d. Completeness

Information should have every necessary part or everything that is wanted. If information is not complete, it may lead to wrong decisions being made as only half of an entirety of the information is known.

e. Explicitness

Good information should not require further analysis for decision making. It should be clear and obvious, leaving no doubts as to its intended meaning.

1.3. Data Collection

All computer systems need to have data input into them otherwise they have nothing to process. Getting the data for the computer to process is known as data collection. Data collection can be manual or automatic.

1.3.1. Manual Data Collection

Manual data collection uses forms and questionnaires. Data collected through this method has to be entered into the computer by typing and clicking.

Many different errors can occur when entering data into a system. To try and reduce the amount of input errors, a system designer can build in validation and verification checks into the software that the data is entered into.

a. Data Verification

Verification means checking the input data to make sure it has been entered correctly. Verification tries to ensure there have been no transcription errors. It is a check on accuracy. Two methods of data verification are double entry and proofreading.

✓ Double Entry

Double entry consists of entering the data twice. The two entries are then compared against each other and a warning given if they do not match. For example, a new password is always entered twice.

✓ Proof Reading

Proofreading consists of reading the data entered either on screen or printout, to be sure that it matches the data source. It is also known as visual check.

b. Data Validation

Validation is a check on input data to ensure that the data is sensible or reasonable. It compares the input with a set of rules that the computer has been told the data must follow. If the data does not match up with the rules then there must be an error. Validation

only checks that the data is valid. The data may be valid but not correct. Five types of validation checks are:

✓ Type check

A type check is used to ensure that data entered in a field fits the required data type. For example, a person's name will consist of letters of the alphabet and sometimes hyphens and apostrophe. Any name that contains numbers will be rejected as invalid.

✓ Length check

A length check ensures that an entered value is not longer than a certain number of characters. For example, a phone number has 8 digits. Entering fewer or more digits makes a number invalid.

✓ Range check

A range check is used to ensure that the data entered falls between a specified minimum and maximum values. For example, a mark in an exam is between 0 and 20. Any mark below 0 or above 20 is rejected as invalid.

✓ Presence check

A presence check ensures that an entry has been made in a particular field. If it has not, the system will not allow the record to be saved or any entries to be made in later fields. Such fields called mandatory fields are indicated on some systems by the use of an asterisk.

✓ Check digits

A check digit is a digit attached to the end of a string of digits that can be used to check that the string is correct. It is calculated from the other digits in the string. One example where a check digit is used is in the 10 digit ISBN number which uniquely identifies books. The last number of the ISBN is actually the check digit for the other numbers. For example, in the ISBN 1858134153, the 3 at the end of the number is the check digit.

The check digit for ISBNs is obtained using a calculation method known as the Modulus-11 weighted check digit calculation.

- Start with original number i.e. 185813415
- Weight each digit by its position in the string and add up the results.

Position	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Digit	1	8	5	8	1	3	4	1	5	
Weightings	10	72	40	56	6	15	16	3	10	

$$\text{Total} = 10+72+40+56+6+15+16+3+10 = 228$$

- Divide the total by 11 and then subtract the remainder from 11. The check digit is the result of this operation.

$$228 / 11 = 20 \text{ remainder } 8 \Rightarrow \text{Check digit is } 11-8 = 3.$$

- Add the check digit to the end of the original number to get the complete product number. i.e. 1858134153.

To check whether the ISBN is correct,

- Input the number including the check digit.
- Weight each digit by its position in the string and add up the results.

Position	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Digit	1	8	5	8	1	3	4	1	5	3
Weightings	10	72	40	56	6	15	16	3	10	3

$$\text{Total} = 10+72+40+56+6+15+16+3+10+3 = 231$$

- Divide the total by 11. If the remainder is 0, then the number has passed the validation check and so it is likely that it has been inputted correctly.

$$231 / 11 = 21 \text{ remainder } 0$$

Exercise:

- i) Dates are read into a computer in the following format: DDMMYY e.g. 15DEC92. The following dates were rejected by a validation program: 3JAN71, AUG2166, 31SEP72. State the validation check used to discover each error.
- ii) Calculate the check digits to complete the ISBNs: 019276150-1 and 995640216-8.
- iii) Set up a spreadsheet which will calculate and check the validity of Modulo-11 weighted check digits for any given ISBN.

1.3.2. Automatic Data Collection

Automatic data collection is a form of data input in which there is no data entry. It uses sensors and specialized input devices to collect data that is directly entered into the computer without any human involvement. It is also called data capture. Different automatic data collection methods are:

a. Optical Mark Recognition (OMR)

OMR uses a device called an optical mark reader to read marks made with prescribed pens, pencils or special writing material on OMR forms, and convert them into information in the computer. This system is good for multiple choice examination questions.

b. Optical Character Recognition (OCR)

This method uses a device called an optical character reader to read characters from printed or handwritten text and transmit them to the computer as if they were typed from the keyboard. This method is suitable for capturing data from airline tickets; reading postal codes; capturing data from telephone and electric bills.

c. Magnetic Ink Character Recognition (MICR)

The device used is a magnetic ink character reader that reads characters written in magnetic ink, using magnetic stripe readers or card swipe machines that capture the information on the magnetic card. These are seen on the back of credit cards and bank cards.

d. Barcode Reading

An optical device called barcode reader is used to read the barcode on products and convert them into a form that can be processed by the computer. A bar code is a sequence of vertical lines and numbers that identify a product. They are used in libraries, supermarkets and retail shops.

e. Voice Recognition

This method converts speech into text or a sequence of computer commands. It is most common for data entry and word processing environments.

2. Information System Components

There are six basic components in an information system: hardware, software, procedures, data and people.

✓ Hardware

Hardware refers to the physical devices that make up the system. They are the whole set of equipment used for input, processing, storage and communication of data.

✓ Software

Software is the collection of computer programs used in the system. They provide the instructions that tell the computer what to do.

✓ Data

Data are raw, unorganized, potentially useful facts and figures that are processed to produce information.

✓ People

People are the main actors of the system. They are the users of the information system. They input data into the computer, give some direction to the computer to perform tasks and review information on the computer for output.

✓ Procedures

Procedures are the series of documented actions taken to achieve a particular goal. A procedure is more than a single simple task. It can be complex and involved, such as reinstalling software, performing a backup etc.

3. Organizational Information Systems

There are three levels at which information can be used in an organisation: *strategic*, *tactical* and *operational* levels. This can be represented using the pyramid below.



- ✓ At the strategic level, information is needed by senior managers (executives) to help them with their business plans. Information at this level is used for making long term decisions.
- ✓ At the tactical level, information is needed by middle managers to help them monitor and control business activities. Tactical planning and decision-making takes place within the guidelines set by the strategic plan.
- ✓ At the operation level, employees with operational roles need information to help them carry out their duties. Results of operational work are passed upwards to let the tactical planners evaluate their plans.

In order to meet with the information needs of the organization, different types of information systems exist which can be grouped into two: operations support systems and management support systems.

3.1. Operations Support Systems

Operation support systems process data generated by business operations. They act at the operational level of the organization. Major categories of OSS are transaction processing systems, office automation systems and process control systems.

3.1.1. Transaction Processing Systems

A transaction is any event of interest to an organization. It may be a business activity such as a payment, a deposit, a customer's order, a reservation or a student's registration. Transaction processing systems capture and process data generated during an organization's day-to-day transactions and maintain records about the transactions. They are vital for any organization or business as they gather all the input necessary for other types of systems. TPS are also called Data Processing Systems.

There are two types of TPS: batch processing and online processing systems.

a. Batch Processing

With batch processing, transaction data is collected over a period of time and all processing is done as a group. Batch processing is ideal in situations where large amounts of data requiring similar processing are to be processed. Examples are:

- ✓ Payroll systems for calculating employee salaries
- ✓ Billing systems for calculating consumer bills.

b. Online Transaction Processing

With online transaction processing (OLTP) the computer processes transactions as they are entered. Such systems are ideal for situations where the master file needs to be updated each time a transaction is made. Examples are:

- ✓ Stock control systems which reduce automatically the number of items in stock once an item has been bought
- ✓ Reservation systems which reduce automatically the number of seats available on a flight or bus once a seat has been booked.

3.1.2. Office Automation Systems

Office automation systems automate office procedures and enhance office communication and productivity. They support a wide range of office activities such as creating and distributing documents, sending messages and scheduling. The software an OAS uses to support these activities include word processing, spreadsheets, databases, presentation, graphics, e-mail, Web browsers, personal information management, and groupware. They use communication technologies such as voice mail, facsimile (fax), videoconferencing, and electronic data interchange (EDI) for the electronic exchange of text, graphics, audio, and video. OAS are also called Office Information Systems (OIS).

3.2. Management Support Systems

Management support systems provide information and support needed for effective decision making by managers. They act at the tactical and strategic levels of the organization. Major categories of MSS are management information systems, decision support systems and executive information systems.

3.2.1. Management Information systems

Management information systems generate accurate, timely and organized information needed by middle managers to take decisions, solve problems, supervise activities, and track progress. They provide routine information for routine tasks. The source of data for an MIS usually comes from numerous databases. These databases are usually the data storage for Transaction Processing Systems. MIS take information from TPS and summarize them into a series of management reports. As such, MIS are sometimes called Management Reporting Systems (MRS).

MIS generate three basic types of information or reports: detailed, summary and exception.

- ✓ Detailed reports confirm transaction processing activities. A detailed order report is an example of a detail report.
- ✓ Summary reports consolidate data into a format that an individual can review quickly and easily. To help synthesize information, a summary report typically contains totals, tables, or graphs. An inventory summary report is an example of a summary report.
- ✓ Exception reports report information that is outside of a normal condition. These conditions called the exception criteria, define the range of what is considered

normal activity or status. An example of an exception report is an inventory exception report that notifies the purchasing department of items it needs to reorder. Exception reports help managers save time because they do not have to search through a detailed report for exceptions. Instead, an exception report brings exceptions to the manager's attention in an easily identifiable form. Exception reports thus help them focus on situations that require immediate decisions or actions.

Examples of MIS are:

- ✓ Sales management systems
- ✓ Inventory control systems
- ✓ Budgeting systems
- ✓ Management reporting systems

3.2.2. Decision Support Systems

Decision support systems are designed to help tactical and strategic decision-making in situations where there is uncertainty about the possible outcomes of those decisions. They provide interactive support for non-routine decisions or problems.

TPS and MIS provide information on a regular basis. However, managers need information not provided in their reports to help them make decisions. Decision support systems therefore use data from internal (TPS and MIS) and external sources.

- Internal sources of data might include sales, manufacturing, inventory, or financial data from an organization's database.
- Data from external sources could include interest rates, population trends, and costs of new housing construction or raw material pricing.

Examples of DSS are:

- ✓ Logistics Systems
- ✓ Financial Planning Systems
- ✓ Spreadsheet Models

3.2.3. Executive Information Systems

Executive information systems (EIS) are designed to support the information needs of executive management. Their purpose is to analyse, compare and identify trends to help the strategic direction of the organisation. Information in an EIS is presented in charts and tables that show trends, ratios, and other managerial statistics. Because executives usually focus on strategic issues, EISs rely on external data sources that can provide current information on interest rates, commodity prices, and other leading economic indicators.

To store all the necessary decision-making data, DSSs or EISs often use extremely large databases, called data warehouses.

4. Other Information Systems

4.1. Expert Systems

An expert system is a computer program that tries to emulate the decision making of a human expert. It does this by combining the knowledge of human experts and then, following a set of rules, it draws inferences. An expert system is made up of three parts: a knowledge base, an inference engine and a user interface.

- ✓ The knowledge base stores all of the facts, rules and information needed to represent the knowledge of the expert.
- ✓ The inference engine is the part of the system that interprets the rules and facts using backward and forward chaining to find solutions to user queries.
- ✓ The user interface allows the user to enter new knowledge and query the system.

Non-management employees are the primary users of such systems for job-related decisions. For example, there are expert systems that can diagnose human illnesses, make financial forecasts, and schedule routes for delivery vehicles.

Expert systems are one part of an exciting branch of computer science called artificial intelligence (AI). AI is the application of human intelligence to computers. AI technology can sense your actions and, based on logical assumptions and prior experience, will take the appropriate action to complete the task. AI has a variety of capabilities, including speech recognition, logical reasoning, and creative responses.

4.2. Geographic Information System

IX. DATA COMMUNICATION SYSTEMS

Introduction

The use of computers and data communications networks has been termed the 'second industrial revolution', because it is revolutionizing the way people work and communicate.

1. Computer Networks

A computer network is a collection of computers and other devices that are connected together so they can communicate and share resources. The smallest network can be as simple as two computers linked together. The resources shared include files, folders, printers, disk drives and anything else that exists on a computer. Any computer or device on a network is called a node.

Networking is the term that describes the processes involved in designing, implementing, upgrading, managing and otherwise working with networks and network technologies.

1.1. Types of Computer Networks

Different criteria exist for classifying computer networks. According to geographical area covered, networks can be classified as local area networks, wide area networks, metropolitan area networks, personal area networks etc.

1.1.1. Local Area Network

A local area network (LAN) is a network that is used for communication among computer devices, usually within an office building or home. It enables the sharing of resources such as files or hardware devices that may be needed by multiple users in an organization. A LAN is limited in size, spanning a few hundred meters, and not more than a mile. It is fast, with speeds from 10 Mbps to 10 Gbps. An example of LAN is the network in the Multimedia Resource Centre.

1.1.2. Metropolitan Area Network

A metropolitan area network (MAN) is a large computer network that usually spans a city or a large campus. It is optimized for a larger geographical area than a LAN, ranging from several blocks of buildings to entire cities. A MAN typically covers an area of between 5 and 50 km diameter. An example of a MAN is a cable TV network.

1.1.3. Wide Area Network

A wide area network (WAN) covers a large geographic area such as a country, a continent or even the whole world. It is a distributed collection of LANs. That is, it connects two or more LANs together. This is done using devices such as bridges, routers or gateways, which enable them to share data. The largest and most well-known example of a WAN is the Internet.

1.1.4. Personal Area Network

A personal area network (PAN) is a network that is used for communication among computers and computer devices in close proximity of around a few meters within a room. A PAN usually includes laptops, mobile phones, personal digital assistants, digital cameras and headsets. It can be used for communication between the devices themselves, or for connection to a larger network such as the Internet. The most popular is the Wireless PAN (WPAN), a Bluetooth connection between two laptop computers or phones.

1.2. Computer Network Components

All types of computer networks require special networking software and hardware to allow different computers to communicate with each other. The most important software component required for a network is the network operating system (NOS) while there are many types of hardware devices which are either installed or connected to the computer terminals in order to construct a network.

1.2.1. Network Operating System

A network operating system is an operating system which includes networking features. It contains special functions, protocols and device drivers that enable the computer to be connected to a network. NOS provide the ability to share resources and the ability to manage a network name directory, security, and other housekeeping aspects of a network. Examples of network operating systems are Windows-NT, Windows-2000 server, Windows server 3000, Novell Netware and Artisoft LANstatic.

Some multi-purpose operating systems like Windows XP, Windows 7 and Mac OS 10, come with capabilities that enable them to be described as network operating systems.

1.2.2. Network Interface/Adapter Card

A network interface card (NIC) provides the physical interface (link) between the computer and the communication medium. A NIC manages the communication and network protocol for the PC. It prepares data, sends data and controls the flow of data. It plugs into the system board and provides ports for connection to the network. A NIC is also called a LAN card or network adapter card. There are two kinds of NIC: wired NIC for wired networks and

wireless NIC (WNIC) for wireless networks. A NIC may be designed as an Ethernet card, a Token Ring card, or an FDDI card (but not all three).

1.2.3. Hub

A hub is a device that works as central connecting point for multiple computers in a network. It has ports to which the computers in the network are connected. Data sent to the hub is broadcasted to all the ports but, only the destination computer receives it. There are three kinds of hubs:

- ✓ Passive hubs which only split the transmission signal so it can be sent to all the ports
- ✓ Active hubs (also called Multiport Repeaters) which regenerate data bits to maintain a strong signal over extended cable lengths
- ✓ Intelligent hubs (also called Concentrators) usually have their own microprocessor chips and network operating systems. They can be managed remotely on the network.

1.2.4. Switch

A switch is used at the same place as a hub but the difference between the two is that a switch has a switching table within it. A switching table stores the Media Access Control (MAC) address of every computer connected to the switch and sends the data only to the requested address, unlike the hub which broadcasts the data to all the ports. Switches can therefore be considered as an advanced form of hubs.

A MAC address is a built-in number (i.e. set by the manufacturer) consisting of 12 hexadecimal digits that uniquely and permanently identifies the network adapter of a computer. Examples of a MAC addresses are 00-14-22-DA-67-15 and 00-13-02-31-E8-BA. MAC address is also called the physical address. Under Windows, the MAC address of a computer can be displayed by typing `ipconfig/all` at a Command prompt.

1.2.5. Repeater

A repeater is a device used to expand the boundaries of a wired or wireless network. With physical media, data transmissions can only span a limited distance before the quality of the signal degrades. Repeaters are used to preserve signal integrity and extend the distance over which data can safely travel by regenerating the signals they receive. Active hubs are considered as repeaters (multiport repeaters).

1.2.6. Bridge

A bridge, also called a layer 2 switch, is a device used to create a connection between two separate computer networks or to divide one network into segments. Creating multiple segments in a local network reduces the network traffic making the network to be faster and more efficient. A bridge performs its segmenting function by examining the data packet and forwarding it to other physical segments only if necessary.

1.2.7. Router

A router is a device that joins several networks together and is responsible for routing data from one network to another. It keeps track of the IP addresses of the computers on the networks connected to its network interface cards and directs data packets appropriately. It is more powerful than a bridge because instead of just choosing network segments based

on previous traffic, a router can look up the best route for a packet to take. Routers can be computers with operating systems and special network software, or they can be other dedicated devices built by network manufacturers. The Internet relies heavily on routers.

1.2.8. Modem

A modem (modulator/demodulator) is a device that encodes data for transmission over a particular medium, such as telephone line, coaxial cable, fiber optics, or microwaves. It converts digital signals from a computer to analog signals or waveform for transmission over a medium (modulation) and converts analog signals from the medium to digital signals understandable by the computer (demodulation).

Common types of modems are:

- ✓ Dial-up Modem
- ✓ Cable Modem
- ✓ DSL Modem
- ✓ Sat modem

1.2.9. Multiplexer

A multiplexer abbreviated MUX, is a device that takes input signals from different sources and transmits them over a single transmission line. This process is known as multiplexing. There are different types of multiplexing:

- ✓ Frequency-division multiplexing (FDM), in which the carrier bandwidth is divided into sub channels of different frequency widths, each carrying a signal at the same time in parallel.
- ✓ Time-division multiplexing (TDM), in which the multiple signals are carried over the same channel in alternating time slots.
- ✓ Code-division multiplexing (CDM), in which the multiple signals are carried over the same channel but every signal is coded differently.

Orange and MTN use a combination of FDM and TDM called GSM while Camtel uses CDMA.

1.2.10. Cables

Cables are used to link computers in a LAN. There are three types of cables commonly used:

- ✓ Coaxial cable
- ✓ Twisted pair cable
- ✓ Fiber optic cable

1.2.11. Gateway

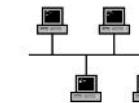
A gateway is a device that connects two dissimilar computer networks using direct and systematic translation between protocols. A gateway translates outgoing network traffic to the protocol needed by the destination network. The term gateway is also sometimes loosely used to describe any device that acts as the entry or exit point for a network.

1.3. Network Topologies

Network topology is the layout or arrangement of the components of a network. It refers to the way in which computers and cables are connected together to build a network. Different types of topologies exist.

1.3.1. BusTopology

In bus topology, all computers are connected to a single cable (trunk or backbone) known as bus, by a transceiver either directly or by using a short drop cable. Bus transmits in both directions such that any transmission can be received by all stations. All ends of the cable must be terminated, that is plugged into a device such as a computer or terminator, to avoid signals from bouncing back.



Bus topology

a. Advantages

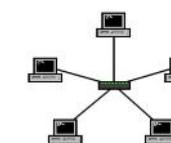
- ✓ Easy and inexpensive to set up as little cabling is required
- ✓ Easy to include additional stations without disrupting the network
- ✓ Failure of one node does not affect network

b. Disadvantages

- ✓ High rate of data collision
- ✓ Fails if there is any damage to the bus
- ✓ Any break in the bus is difficult to identify

1.3.2. StarTopology

In a star topology, all the computers are connected to a central device which could be a computer, a hub or a switch. Any communications between computers in this topology must pass through the central node. As such, the central node controls all the activities of the network.



Star topology

a. Advantages

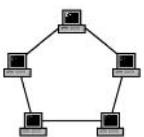
- ✓ Breakdown of a node does not affect the network
- ✓ No disruption of the network when connecting or removing devices
- ✓ It is easy to detect faults

b. Disadvantage

- ✓ Failure of the central node affects the entire network
- ✓ It is costly due to the amount of cables required to connect the devices

1.3.3. Ring Topology

In ring topology, all the nodes are connected in the form of a closed loop such that each node is connected to two others. It uses an empty data packet called a token and a special protocol called token ring. Packets travel around the ring in a clockwise direction. To transmit, a node requires an empty token.



Ring topology

a. Advantage

- ✓ No collision as a station needs the token to transmit
- ✓ Each computer acts like a repeater so signals are not attenuated

b. Disadvantage

- ✓ If a node in the network fails, the entire network fails
- ✓ Network is disrupted when additional stations are added

1.4. Network Standards

1.4.1. Ethernet Network

Ethernet (IEEE 802.3 standard) is the most common and widely used technology to establish a local area network. An Ethernet network is formed by physically connecting the individual computer units to each other in a bus topology or a star topology. Ethernet's media access policy is CSMA/CD (Carrier Sense Multiple Access with Collision Detection).

- ✓ CS: means that a station listens to (senses) the medium and transmits only if medium is idle
- ✓ MA: means that any station can use (access) the medium
- ✓ CD: means that each station stops transmitting immediately it senses a collision

When a collision is detected, the two stations involved will retransmit after a random time wait created by a backoff algorithm.

1.4.2. Token Ring Network

Token ring (IEEE 802.5 standard) is a network technology developed by IBM in which computers are connected together in a ring. Token ring's media-access method is called token passing. A special message, called token, circulates along the ring from one computer to another and each computer can transmit only while it is holding the token. Information flows in one direction along the ring from source to destination and back to source. When a station wishes to transmit, it waits for the empty token to pass by. It seizes it and inserts data into it and then releases it to the medium. The token circulates until it gets to the destination computer that picks it and retrieves the data. After retrieving the data, it regenerates the token and sends it back to the medium.

1.4.3. Fiber Distributed Data Interface

FDDI is a network technology that uses fiber-optic cables in a ring topology with dual rings on which information can travel in opposite directions. The media access method for FDDI is token passing. The primary ring is used for data transmission, and the secondary ring remains idle. Because of this double ring topology, if a station fails or a cable becomes damaged, the dual ring is automatically wrapped around itself, forming a single ring. This prevents downtime as a result of a failed machine or faulty wiring.

1.4.4. Frame Relay

1.4.5. Asynchronous Transfer Mode

1.4.6. Wireless Network Standards

Wireless networks are established without physical wiring techniques involved. They use radio and infrared signals and are based around one of these technologies: Bluetooth, Wi-Fi, WiMax, terrestrial microwaves and satellite.

a. Bluetooth

Bluetooth is a low power, short-range wireless technology largely used to interconnect computing devices into a personal area network. It is based on IEEE standard 802.15 which gives specifications for Wireless Personal Area Network (WPAN).

b. Wi-Fi

Wi-Fi stands for Wireless Fidelity. It is based on a set of wireless networking technologies known as 802.11. These include 802.11b, 802.11a, 802.11g and 802.11n. The range of Wi-Fi network transmission is about 30-40m indoors and up to about 100m outdoors.

The table below shows the different 802.11 standards for wireless networking.

Specification	Popular name	Frequency	Speed	Compatible with
802.11a	Wireless-A	5 GHz	54 Mbps	
802.11b	Wireless-B	2.4 GHz	11 Mbps	Wireless-B
802.11g	Wireless-G	2.4 GHz	54 Mbps	Wireless-B, -G
802.11n	Wireless-N	2.4 GHz	100 Mbps	Wireless-B, -G, -N

c. WiMax

WiMax stands for Worldwide Interoperability for Microwave Access. It is based on IEEE standard 802.16 and facilitates high speed wireless network links to both fixed and mobile devices. The range of a WiMax wireless connection is around 3-10km. WiMax service providers are now just entering the market, offering customers an alternative to a DSL Internet connection.

1.5. Network Architectures

1.5.1. Client/Server Architecture

Client/server is a network architecture in which a more powerful computer called server is dedicated to serving less powerful computers called clients. Servers hold shared resources like files, programs and the network operating system. They provide access to network resources to all the users of the network. There are many different kinds of servers, and one server can provide several functions. For example, there are file servers, print servers, mail servers, database servers and Web servers. Users run applications on client workstations which rely on servers for resources such as files, devices and even processing power.

Internet services are organized according to a client/server architecture. Client programs, such as Web browsers and file transfer programs create connections to servers, such as Web and FTP servers. The clients make requests and the server responds to the requests by providing the services requested by the client.

1.5.2. Peer-to-Peer Architecture

Peer-to-peer (P2P) is a network configuration in which all the workstations (computers) have equal capabilities and responsibilities. Each workstation acts both as a server and a client. This means that any computer on the network can provide services to any other computer. Peer-to-peer is usually implemented where strict security is not necessary. P2P networks are generally simpler and less expensive, but they usually do not offer the same performance under heavy loads.

Remark A hybrid network combines client/server and peer-to-peer architectures. It is the most commonly used network architecture.

1.6. Benefits and Limitations Of Computer Networks

1.6.1. Benefits

- ✓ Sharing devices such as printers saves money.
- ✓ Site (software) licenses are likely to be cheaper than buying several standalone licenses.
- ✓ Files can easily be shared between users.
- ✓ Network users can communicate by email and instant messaging.
- ✓ Data is easy to backup as all the data is stored on the file server.
- ✓ Organizations can organize videoconferences (videoconferencing)
- ✓ Employees can work from home (telecommuting)

1.6.2. Limitations

- ✓ Purchasing the network cabling and file servers can be expensive.
- ✓ Managing a large network is complicated. It requires training and a network manager usually needs to be employed.
- ✓ If the file server breaks down the files on the server become inaccessible. Email might still work if it is on a separate server. The computers can still be used but are isolated.
- ✓ Viruses can easily spread to other computers throughout the network, if one computer is infected..

- ✓ There is a danger of hacking, particularly with wide area networks. Security procedures are needed to prevent such abuse, eg a firewall.

2. Data Communication

Data communication refers to the exchange of data between two devices via some form of communication channel. In data communication the following basic terms are frequently used:

- ✓ Data: a collection of facts in raw form that becomes information after processing.
- ✓ Signal: an electric or electromagnetic encoding of data.
- ✓ Signaling: propagation of signals across a communication channel.
- ✓ Transmission: sending of data from one place to another by means of signals.

There are five basic components in a communication system.

- ✓ Data Source: creates data for transmission
- ✓ Transmitter: encodes data for transmission
- ✓ Communication channel: connecting medium between communicating devices
- ✓ Receiver: decodes transmitted signals back to data
- ✓ Destination: the final destination of the transmission

Example: John calls Peter on phone.

The data source is John, the transmitter is John's phone, the communication channel is the telephone cable or microwave, the receiver is Peter's phone and the destination is Peter.

2.1. Analog and Digital Signals

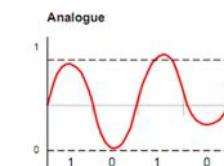
Data is transmitted from one point to another by means of electrical signals that may be in analogue or digital form.

2.1.1. Analogue Signals

An analog signal is one in which information is represented as a continuous variation of some physical property or quantity. Analog signals are continuous waves that carry information by varying the frequency or amplitude of the wave.

- ✓ When the amplitude of the signal is varied the technique is called amplitude modulation (AM)
- ✓ When the frequency of the signals is varied, the technique is called frequency modulation (FM).

Human speech is an example of an analog signal. Telephone lines use analog signals because they were originally designed for speech.

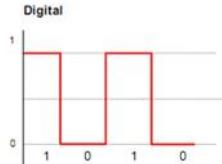


Analogue signal

2.1.2. Digital Signals

A digital signal is one in which information is represented as a sequence of binary values 0 and 1. These two values represent two conditions, on or off, corresponding to two known levels of voltage or current.

Digital signals do not continuously vary as analogue signals. Signals are transmitted within the computer as digital signals. Systems that use digital technology are known as baseband systems.



Digital signal

2.2. Broadband and Baseband Transmissions

2.2.1. Baseband System

A baseband system is a single-channel system that supports a single transmission at any given time. In a baseband system, data is sent as a digital signal through the media as a single channel that uses the entire bandwidth of the media. Baseband communication is bidirectional, which means that the same channel can be used to send and receive signals. In Baseband, frequency-division multiplexing is not possible.

2.2.2. Broadband System

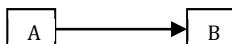
A broadband system is a system that supports multiple transmissions via multiple frequency channels. In a broadband system, data is sent in the form of an analog signal where each transmission is assigned a portion of the bandwidth. Broadband communication is unidirectional, so in order to send and receive, two pathways are needed. This can be accomplished either by assigning a frequency for sending and assigning a frequency for receiving along the same cable or by using two cables, one for sending and one for receiving.

2.3. Transmission Modes and Techniques

Transmission modes simply refer to the direction of flow of information between two communicating devices. It could be simplex, half duplex or full duplex.

2.3.1. Simplex

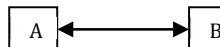
In simplex mode, signals are transmitted in only one direction. The flow of information is unidirectional from transmitter to receiver always. Examples are television broadcasting, computer to the printer connection and CPU to monitor communication.



2.3.2. Half Duplex

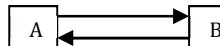
In half duplex mode, signals can be transmitted in both directions but only one way at a time. The flow of information is bidirectional but information can only be sent if it is not

being received. It is suitable for data transmission between a computer and dumb terminals. An example is the police radio (walkie-talkie).



2.3.3. Full Duplex

In full duplex mode, signals can be transmitted in both directions simultaneously. The communicating devices can transmit at the same time. The flow of information is bidirectional. It is suitable for interactive systems. An example is the telephone.



2.3.4. Parallel Transmission

Parallel transmission is the method of transferring several bits at the same time over separate channels. For example, eight separate channels will be required if a block of eight bits is to be transmitted in parallel. Parallel transmission is fast but it is suited only for short distances as cabling for long distances will be expensive. It is mainly used for connections within the computer and for connecting the computer to the printer.

2.3.5. Serial Transmissions

Serial transmission is the method of transferring data one bit at a time through the same channel. If a block of 8 bits is to be transmitted in series, the bits will be transmitted one after the other on the same channel. Serial transmission can be asynchronous or synchronous.

a. Asynchronous Serial Transmission

Asynchronous transmission describes the process where transmitted data is encoded with start and stop bits, specifying respectively the beginning and end of each character. Data is sent character by character with each character preceded by a start bit and a stop bit is added to the end. Other control bits like the parity bit are added to the group before the stop bit and small gaps are inserted to distinguish each group.

b. Synchronous Serial Transmission

Synchronous transmission describes a continuous and consistent timed transfer of data blocks. Data is sent as one long bit stream or block of data without start or stop bits and with no gaps. Upon reception, the receiver counts the bits and reconstructs bytes. It is essential that the same timing is maintained by both sender and receiver as there are no start and stop bits and no gaps. Another channel is therefore used to transfer timing signals to keep the both parties synchronized. Accuracy is dependent on the receiver keeping an accurate count of the bits as they arrive.

Serial transmission is slower than parallel transmission but it is suited for long distances. It is cheaper as only one transmission line is required. Synchronous transmission is faster than asynchronous transmission because fewer bits have to be transmitted; only data bits and no extra control bits. For this reason it is the choice for network communications links.

2.4. Communication Switching Techniques

Long distance transmission is done over a network of switched nodes. Data is routed by being switched from one node to another. Three switching techniques exist: packet switching, circuit switching and message switching.

2.4.1. PacketSwitching

Packet switching is a switching method in which the message to be transmitted is broken into small data packets and sent over the network. Each packet contains a portion of data and some control information. The packets may take different routes to arrive their destination and they may arrive in any order. On arrival, they are put back into order and the message is reconstituted. Each packet is sent with a header address which tells what its destination is. The header address also describes the sequence for reassembly at the destination. One packet contains information on how many packets should be arriving. If a packet fails to arrive, the destination computer sends a message to the sender's computer asking it to send the missing packet again. This method is suitable for transmission of data.

2.4.2. Circuit Switching

Circuit switching is a switching method in which a dedicated communication path in physical form between two stations within a network is established, maintained and terminated for each communication session. This channel remains open throughout the communication process and cannot be used by anyone else. It has basically three phases: circuit establishment, data transfer and circuit disconnect. The message is sent without being broken up, so it is received in the order it was sent. This method was designed for voice transmissions. Telephone networks use circuit switching for transmission of phone calls.

2.5. TransmissionMedia

A transmission medium is the physical pathway that connects computers and other devices on a network. Each transmission medium requires specialized network hardware that is compatible with that medium, and most networks need to use a combination of transmission media types selected based on the network's needs. There are two categories of transmission media: guided and unguided media.

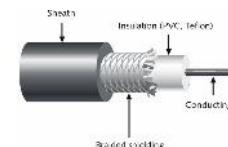
2.5.1. Guided Media

Guided media are the physical links through which signals are confined to narrow path. They are made up of an internal conductor bounded by jacket material. They are also called bounded or conducted media. Three common types of guided media are coaxial cable, twisted pair cable and fiber optical cable.

a. Coaxial Cable

Coaxial cable consists of an inner core and an outer flexible braided shield, both of conductive material separated by an insulator. The braided shield prevents the cable from picking up or emitting electrical noise. There are two types of coaxial cable:

- ✓ thinnet and
- ✓ thicknet.



Coaxial cable

To connect coaxial cable to devices, we need coaxial connectors. The most common type of connectors used today is the Bayonet-Neill-Concelman, or BNC connector.

b. Twisted Pair Cable

Twisted-pair cable is the most common type of cabling used in LAN networks today. It consists of a pair or pairs of insulated wires twisted together. Cable twisting helps reduce noise pickup from outside sources and crosstalk on multi-pair cables. There are two types of twisted pair cables: shielded twisted pairs (STP) and unshielded twisted pairs (UTP).



Twisted pair cable uses RJ-14 and RJ-45 connectors

Twisted pair cable

✓ Unshielded Twisted Pair

UTP cables consist of 2 or 4 pairs of twisted cable. Cable with 2 pair use RJ-11 connector and 4 pair cable use RJ-45 connector. RJ stands for registered jack. There are five levels of UTP:

Category 1: These are used in telephone lines and low speed data cable.

Category 2: These cables can support up to 4 mps implementation.

Category 3: These cable supports up to 16 mps and are mostly used in 10 mps.

Category 4: These are used for large distance and high speed. It can support 20mps.

Category 5: This is the highest rating for UTP cable and can support up to 100mps.

UTP can be connected as straight through or crossover. A straight-thru cable has identical ends. A crossover cable has different ends.

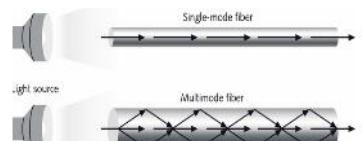
c. Fiber Optic Cable

Fiber optic cables use optical fibers that carry digital data signals in the form of modulated light pulses. An optic fiber consists of an extremely thin cylinder of glass, called the core, surrounded by a concentric layer of glass, known as the cladding. Each cable has two fibers - one to transmit and one to receive.

There are two types of optic fibers:

- ✓ A single mode fiber (SMF) uses a single ray of light to carry transmissions over long distances.

- ✓ A multi-mode fiber (MMF) uses multiple rays of light simultaneously with each ray of light running at a different reflection angle to carry transmissions over short distances.

Optic fiber

The light source can be LED (light emitting diode) or LD (laser diode)

2.5.2. Unguided Media

Unguided media do not use physical means to define the path to be taken. They provide a means for transmitting electromagnetic waves but do not guide them. They are also called unbounded media. Examples of unguided media are infrared waves, radio waves and microwaves.

a. Infrared

Infrared uses transmitters/receivers (transceivers) that modulate non-coherent infrared light. Infrared signals do not penetrate walls as such transceivers must be within line-of-sight either directly or via reflection. Line of sight is a type of propagation that can transmit and receive data only where transmit and receive stations are in view of each other without any sort of an obstacle between them.

b. Radio waves

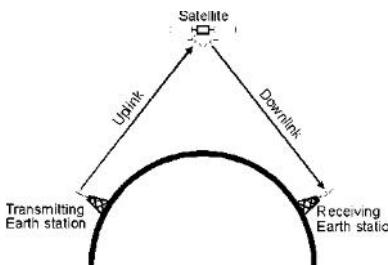
Radio wave systems transmit signals by modulation of electromagnetic waves with frequencies below that of visible light. Radio waves carry information by systematically changing some property of the radiated waves such as amplitude (AM radio), frequency (FM radio) and phase. Radiowaves are omnidirectional. This means that signals spread out in all directions and can be received by many antennas.

c. Microwaves

Microwaves are electromagnetic radiations beyond the frequency range of radio and television. There are two types of microwave systems: terrestrial microwave systems and satellite systems.

- ✓ Terrestrial microwave systems are land-based. Microwaves being line-of-sight and traveling in a straight line, the earth's curvature poses a problem to long distance microwave transmissions. As such, long distance transmissions require directional antennas (repeaters) to be used at intervals of 25 to 30 kilometers between the transmitting and receiving end.

- ✓ Satellite systems use communication satellites to solve the problem posed by the earth's curvature to terrestrial microwave systems. A communication satellite is a microwave relay station placed in outer space. A microwave signal is transmitted from earth to the satellite which amplifies the signal and sends it back to earth. The earth station transmits the signal to the satellite on an up-link, on one frequency and the satellite repeats those signals on a down link which is on another frequency.



✓ Advantages of microwave systems

- No cables needed
- Multiple channels available
- Wide bandwidth

✓ Disadvantages

- Line-of-sight will be disrupted if any obstacle, such as new buildings, are in the way
- Signal absorption by the atmosphere. Microwaves suffer from attenuation due to atmospheric conditions.
- Towers are expensive to build

2.6. Transmission Checks

Network data transmissions often produce errors, such as toggled, missing or duplicated bits. As a result, the data received might not be identical to the data transmitted, which is obviously a bad thing. Because of these transmission errors, network protocols very often use error-detection codes. Examples of error-detection codes include parity checking, checksums and cyclic redundancy checks.

2.6.1. Parity Checking

Parity checking refers to the process of using a parity bit to check that data has been transmitted accurately. A parity bit is an extra bit transmitted with a data unit that will be used to check its integrity. There are two types of parity: odd parity and even parity.

- ✓ In odd parity, the parity bit is added such that the total number of bits at 1, in the data unit, is an odd number.
- ✓ In even parity, the parity bit is added so that the total number of 1s is an even number.

Example: What are the parity bits for the following data units in odd parity?

- i) **1|11011011** ii) **0|01001010** iii) **1|10101010**

Example 2: What are the parity bits for the following data units in even parity?

- i) **0|11010100** ii) **1|11001011** iii) **1|00111000**

2.6.2. Checksum

A checksum or hash sum is a count of the number of bits in a transmission unit that is included with the unit for the purpose of detecting errors that may have been introduced during transmission. The checksum or hash sum may be computed according to the number of set or unset bits in the message. On reception, the receiver applies the same checksum function/algorithm to the message. If the checksum obtained matches the one sent, the transmission is considered to be successful and error-free.

2.6.3. CyclicRedundancy Check

A CRC is an error-detection code in which each segment of the original message is combined with additional bits to make a binary number that is divisible by some previously chosen divisor.

- ✓ k is the length of the message we want to send, i.e., the number of information bits.
- ✓ n is the total length of the message we will end up sending the information bits followed by the check bits. Peterson and Brown call this a code polynomial.
- ✓ $n-k$ is the number of check bits. It is also the degree of the generating polynomial. The basic (mathematical) idea is that we're going to pick the $n-k$ check digits in such a way that the code polynomial is divisible by the generating polynomial. Then we send the data, and at the other end we look to see whether it's still divisible by the generating polynomial; if it's not then we know we have an error, if it is, we hope there was no error.

2.7. Peripheral Device Control

2.7.1. Buffering

A buffer is an area of memory used to temporarily store data while it is being moved from one place to another. Buffers are used to compensate for differences in rate of flow of data or time of occurrence of events, when transferring data from one device to another. Routers use buffers to route data packets on the Internet. When a packet is sent from one router to another via one or more intermediate routers, the packet is received at each intermediate router in its entirety, stored there until the required output line is free, then the packet is forwarded.

2.7.2. Interrupt

An interrupt is a signal to the processor emitted by hardware or software indicating an event that needs immediate attention. An interrupt alerts the processor of a high-priority condition requiring the interruption of the current task the processor is executing. Interrupts are used to handle such events as data receipt from a modem or network, or a key press or mouse movement.

2.7.3. Polling

Polling is the process by which the central computer or communications controller in a network, "polls" or asks each device in the network if it has a message to send and then allows each in turn to transmit data. Access and control of star network typically is maintained by a polling system.

2.7.4. Handshaking

Handshaking is the process by which two devices initiate communications. It begins when one device sends a message to another device indicating that it wants to establish a communications channel. The two devices then send several messages back and forth that enable them to agree on a communications protocol.

2.8. CommunicationProtocols

For proper communication in a network, different entities must speak the same language. There must be mutually acceptable conventions and rules about the content, timing and underlying mechanisms. These conventions and associated rules are referred as protocols.

Definition: A protocol is a set of rules and conventions that govern how devices on a network communicate.

The need for a protocol is obvious: it allows different computers from different vendors and with different operating characteristics to 'speak the same language'. The same protocols must be followed by each machine involved in the communication in order for the receiving host to be able to understand the message. A protocol may be physical or logical.

2.8.1. PhysicalProtocols

Physical protocols are concerned with how a device connects to a medium. They ensure that a device connected to a medium can transmit through the medium. They make sure that the layout of pins on the connectors is the same and that devices are correctly connected and configured. Few examples of physical protocols are 802.11 for Wi-Fi connections and DSL for broadband.

2.8.2. LogicalProtocols

Logical protocols are concerned with data handling. They ensure that data are in the right format for the application, the bit rates match at both ends, and the same error correction is used. Examples of logical protocols are TCP/IP, HTTP, POP3, FTP, SMTP and WAP.

2.8.3. The OSI Reference Model

The Open Systems Interconnection (OSI) reference model or more commonly the OSI model is an ISO standard that defines how network communications take place by providing a framework for standardization. The OSI model divides network communications into seven layers. Each layer is responsible for carrying out specific functions when transmitting data on the network. The table below shows the layered architecture of the OSI reference model.

7	Application Layer
6	Presentation Layer
5	Session Layer
4	Transport Layer
3	Network Layer
2	Data Link Layer
1	Physical Layer

OSI Reference Model

These layers can be recalled using the following mnemonics: All People Seem To Need Data Processing. (Layers 7 - 1)

Layer 7: Application

It provides network services directly to the user's applications such as a web browser or e-mail client. This layer is said to be "closest to the user". Examples of protocols that operate at this layer are: TELNET, HTTP, FTP, SMTP and POP.

Layer 6: Presentation

The Presentation layer represents the data in a particular format to the Application layer. It defines encryption, compression, conversion and other coding functions. Examples of specifications defined at this layer are: GIF, JPEG, MPEG, MIME and ASCII.

Layer 5: Session

It establishes, maintains and terminates end-to-end connections (session) between two applications on two network nodes. It controls the dialogue between the source and destination nodes, which node can send when and for how long. Examples of protocols that operate on this layer are: RPC, NETBIOS and X.225

Layer 4: Transport

It is responsible for end-to-end delivery of entire messages. It allows data to be transferred reliably and uses sequencing to guarantee that it will be delivered in the same order it was sent. It also provides services such as error checking and flow control. Examples of protocols at this layer are: TCP, UDP, NETBEUI and SPX.

Layer 3: Network

It is responsible for path determination, routing, and the delivery of packets across internetworks. It is also responsible for addressing (also known as logical addressing) for example IP addressing. Examples of protocols at this layer are: IP, IPX and ICMP.

Examples of devices that operate at this level are Layer-3 switches and routers. WAPs (wireless access points) with built-in routing capabilities also act at this layer.

Layer 2: Data Link

It is responsible for reassembling bits taken off the wire by the physical layer to frames and makes sure they are in the correct order and requests retransmission of frames in case an error occurs. It provides error checking by adding CRC to the frame. Examples of protocols at this layer are: Ethernet, Token Ring, PPP and ISDN.

Examples of devices that operate at this layer are: switches, bridges, NICs and WAPs (Wireless Access Points).

Layer 1: Physical

This layer communicates directly with the communication medium. It is responsible for activating, maintaining and deactivating the physical link. It defines electrical and optical signaling, voltage levels, data transmission rates, as well as mechanical specifications such as cable lengths, and connectors, the amount of pins and their functions. Examples of devices that operate at this layer are: hubs, repeaters, and NICs.

These layers can be recalled using the following mnemonics: All People Seem To Need Data Processing. (Layers 7 - 1)

3. The Internet

3.1. Brief History

Many years ago, the military of the United States of America desired to interconnect or link their computers in order to better understand and manage information and communication with respect to enemy attacks in times of crisis. In the year 1969 the Department of Defense (DoD) then developed an experimental network called the Advanced Research Project Agency Network (ARPANet)

In the year 1980, the National Science Foundation of the United States of America then developed the technology of ARPANet to produce the National Science Foundation Network (NSFNet) which now enabled universities and other school establishments in the USA to be interconnected. After a great deal of work, a network which enabled the transfer of large amounts of information at very high speed which is today called the Internet was developed.

The Internet can be defined as a worldwide/global system of interconnected computer networks. It is the network of networks in which users can view information on the World Wide Web, exchange electronic mail, participate in electronic discussion forums (newsgroups), send files from any computer to any other and even use each other's computers directly if they have appropriate passwords. Another name for the Internet is information superhighway.

3.2. ISP and Internet Access

An Internet service provider (ISP), also sometimes referred to as an Internet access provider (IAP), is a company that offers Internet access to individuals and organizations. The ISP connects to its customers using a data transmission technology appropriate for delivering Internet Protocol Paradigm, such as dial-up, digital subscriber line (DSL), cable modem, wireless or dedicated high-speed interconnects.

ISPs may provide Internet e-mail accounts to users which allow them to communicate with one another by sending and receiving electronic messages through their ISP's servers. ISPs

may provide services such as remotely storing data files on behalf of their customers, as well as other services unique to each particular ISP.

Different methods exist for connection to the Internet.

3.2.1. Dial-Up Connection

A dial-up connection is a connection that is established by dialing a telephone number through a modem. A dial-up connection uses a dial-up modem to transmit digital information over the Plain Old Telephone System (POTS). POTS refers to the standard telephone network designed for analog transmission of voice over copper wire. This type of connection offers relatively slow transfer rates and is established on demand. This method has long been the most widely used method to connect to the Internet but it has been replaced by high-speed broadband and wireless connections.

3.2.2. Digital Subscriber Line

DSL uses the standard copper telephone wires, often already installed in homes and offices to provide a high-speed Internet connection. xDSL means that there are different types of DSL: asynchronous DSL (ADSL), synchronous DSL (SDSL), High bit-rate DSL (HDSL), Rate Adaptive DSL (RADSL) and ISDN DSL (IDSL).

- ✓ ADSL allows the telephone wires to be used for analog POTS system and digital data transfer simultaneously. The download speed (downstream) for ADSL is faster than the upload speed (upstream).
- ✓ SDSL cannot share the physical medium with standard telephone communications and has a download speed equal to the upload speed.

A DSL connection requires a transceiver (DSL modem) which allows an Ethernet UTP or a USB connection directly to a PC, or to a hub, router, or switch to provide Internet access to an entire network. The transceiver can be integrated into a router or switch.

3.2.3. BroadbandCable

TV channels only take up 6MHz of cable bandwidth each, which usually leaves several hundred MHz available. This additional space on cable is used for high-speed Internet connection. Information from the Internet travels through the cable as a single TV channel. Just as with DSL, cable Internet requires a special transceiver (cable modem) which allows information to be sent and received on frequencies not used by TV channels. The cable modem provides one or more LAN interfaces, usually Ethernet or USB which connect directly to a client or a device such as a hub, switch, or wireless router to allow additional clients or entire networks to use the same connection. The cable modem is also equipped with connections for TV and radio.

3.2.4. Wireless Internet Access

Wireless Internet access or wireless broadband is particularly useful for mobile users. With handheld devices becoming more advanced and increasingly popular, wireless access is becoming one of the major ways of connecting to the Internet. This method provides an "always-on connection" which can be accessed from anywhere as long as you are geographically within network coverage. Wireless Internet access includes deploying Wi-Fi hotspots for accessing the Internet. Technologies such as GPRS and UMTS (Universal

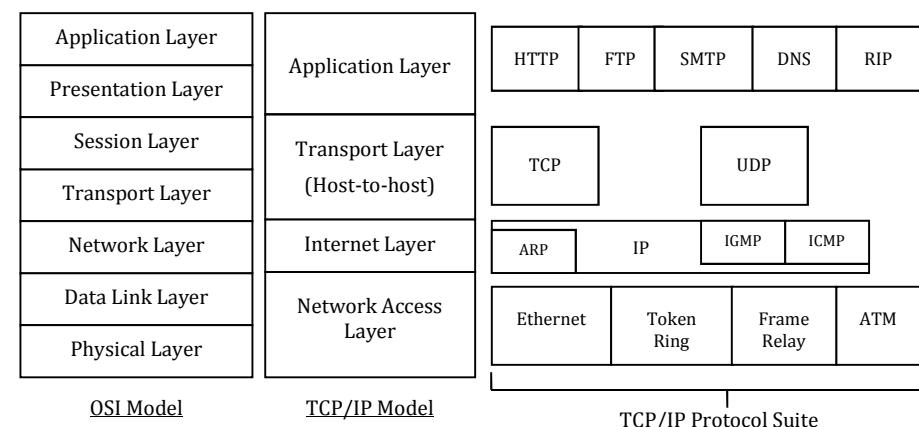
Mobile Telecommunication System) allow Smart phones and other handhelds with Internet capabilities to access the Internet using existing cell phone networks.

3.2.5. Internet over Satellite

Internet over satellite (IoS) allows a user to access the Internet via a satellite that orbits the earth. A satellite placed at a static point above the earth's surface, communicates with the ISP's dish giving the user access to the internet.

3.3. The TCP/IP Model

The Internet uses a collection of protocols known as the TCP/IP protocol suite. It is called TCP/IP after two of its most prominent protocols, but there are other protocols as well. The TCP/IP model is based on a four-layer model for networking. The layers from top to bottom are application layer, transport layer, Internet layer and network access layer. Below is a comparison between the TCP/IP model and the OSI model.



During a transmission, a message travels down all network layers at the source machine. Before sending a message to the next layer, each layer places it in an envelope of overhead information related to that layer. This process is called encapsulation. Encapsulation at each layer produces a data unit called protocol data unit (PDU). At the receiving end, the message travels up through the network layers, each layer removing the envelopes added when the message was sent. So, upon its receipt, the message is in its original state.

3.3.1. Network Access Layer

This layer is responsible for sending and receiving TCP/IP packets on the network medium (Physical/Data Link). The network Access layer PDU called frame, is obtained by adding a header and a trailer to the PDU from the Internet layer.

Applicable LAN technologies: Ethernet, Token Ring, FDDI etc.

Applicable WAN technologies: X.25 (old), Frame Relay, ATM etc.

3.3.2. InternetLayer

This layer is responsible for packaging, addressing and routing of packets. The PDU at this layer is called datagram or packet.

Core Internet layer protocols are: IP, ARP, ICMP and IGMP.

a. Internet Protocol

Internet Protocol (IP) specifies the format of packets and the addressing scheme. All computer devices (desktops, laptops, PDAs, phones, tablets) connected to the Internet, have IP addresses by which they are identified.

Definition: An IP address is a unique identifying number given to every single computer on a TCP/IP network.

Two versions of IP addresses are available: IPv4 that uses 32 bits and IPv6 that uses 128 bits.

- ✓ An IPv4 is made up of four sets of numbers separated by dots such as 123.23.168.22. This notation is known as dotted decimal notation. Each of the four numbers separated by dots can be any number from 0 to 255, making for a total of 4.3 billion potential IPv4 addresses (i.e. $255 \times 255 \times 255 \times 255$).
- ✓ An IPv6 has eight sets of numbers separated by colons such as 3ffe:1900:4545:3:200:f8ff:fe21:67cf.

IP addresses are assigned manually (by an administrator) or automatically (by DHCP or APIPA). An IP address is also known as a logical address.

b. Address Resolution Protocol

ARP resolves IP addresses to MAC addresses.

Assignment: Differentiate between an IP address and a MAC address.

c. Internet Control Message Protocol

ICMP is responsible for diagnostics and error reporting.

d. Internet Group Management Protocol

IGMP is responsible for management of group multicast.

3.3.3. TransportLayer

The transport layer is responsible for sequencing and transmission of packets, acknowledgment of receipts, recovery of packets and flow control. In essence, it engages in host-to-host transportation of data packets and the delivery of them to the application layer. A transport layer PDU is called segment.

Core protocols at this layer are TCP and UDP.

a. TransmissionControl Protocol

TCP is a connection-oriented reliable protocol used in the accurate transmission of large amounts of data. Data packets are verified using checksums and retransmitted if they are missing or corrupted. The application plays no part in validating the transfer.

b. User Datagram Protocol

UDP is a connectionless unreliable protocol used for the transmission of small amounts of data. Data packets are sent without testing to verify whether they actually arrive at the destination, nor whether they were corrupted in transit. It is up to the application to determine these factors and request retransmissions. UDP is faster compared to TCP.

3.3.4. ApplicationLayer

The application layer provides user applications with the ability to access the services of the other layers. Some protocols of this layer are HTTP, FTP, POP, SMTP, Telnet, IMAP and WAP.

a. HypertextTransfer Protocol

HTTP is a standard method of publishing information as hypertext in HTML format on the Internet. It provides the ability to supply web pages between a browser and the server. HTTPS is a secure version of HTTP used for accessing secure web servers, whereby all data transferred are encrypted.

b. File Transfer Protocol

FTP is a standard for transferring files between a server and a client on a TCP/IP network. It provides the ability to upload and download files between hosts on the network.

c. Simple Mail Transfer Protocol

SMTP is used for sending e-mails between servers on the Internet and other TCP/IP networks. It governs the transmission of mail messages and attachments. SMTP is used in the case of outgoing messages.

d. PostOfficeProtocol

POP is a standard protocol for delivering e-mails to personal computers. There are different versions of the post office protocol indicated by POP_n where $n = 1, 2, 3$ or 4.

e. Telnet

Telnet is a protocol that allows a computer on the network to be accessed remotely. It provides the ability to login into a remote host and administer the machine. Using Telnet a computer can be used as a terminal on another.

f. WirelessApplicationProtocol

WAP is a protocol which runs on mobile phones and provides a universal open standard for bringing Internet content to mobile phones and other wireless devices.

Assignment: Give the full meaning of the following protocols and state their functions.

- i) IMAP
- ii) RIP

iii) DNS

3.4. TCP/IP Ports

A computer has a single physical connection to the network. All data destined for a particular computer arrives through that connection. However, the data may be intended for different applications running on the computer. To identify the application for which the data is intended, TCP requires port numbers on the host and destination for communication.

Definition: A communication port is a 16-bit number that identifies an application on the Internet or TCP/IP network.

Popular Internet application protocols are associated with well-known ports assigned by the Internet Assigned Number Authority (IANA). Sample TCP port numbers are:

Port number	Protocol
20	FTP data channel
21	FTP control channel
23	Telnet
25	SMTP
80	HTTP
110	POP

Ports are usually combined with IP addresses to form a socket. For example 127.102.10.0:80.

3.5. Internet Services

3.5.1. The World Wide Web

The World Wide Web (WWW) is a system on the Internet which allows documents to be connected to other documents by hypertext links, enabling the user to search for information by moving from one document to another. It consists of a large number of web servers that host websites. A website consists of a number of web pages connected by hypertext links. A web page is a text file that contains information stored using a structured language called HTML (Hypertext Markup Language).

A website can be accessed by typing its address or URL (Uniform/Universal Resource Locator) into the address bar of a web browser. An example of a URL is <http://www.crvy.cm> where http is the protocol used and www.crvy.cm, the domain name (address) of the site.

Example 1: <http://www.bgsmolyko.edu/Ls3.4/ict796/intenet.pdf>

- ✓ http is the protocol used (hypertext transfer protocol)
- ✓ www.bgsmolyko.edu is the domain name (the machine at BGS Molyko that hosts the website)

- ✓ Ls3,4/ict796/internet.pdf is the path of the document (resource) on the host computer. Ls3,4 is the folder, ict796 is the subfolder and internet.pdf is the file(resource).

Example 2: www.minsup.gov.cm

- ✓ gov is the top level domain which specifies that the URL is for a government institution.
- ✓ cm specifies the country in which the URL is hosted or the country in which the institution is found.

Assignment: What is a home page?

Answer: A web page that links a user to the other areas of the website.

a. Domain Name System

A domain name system (DNS) is a service which performs the function of turning human-understandable domain names into IP addresses.

b. Web Browser

A web browser (or simply browser) is a computer program that enables a user to read hypertext in files or on the World Wide Web. Popular browsers include Mozilla Firefox, Microsoft Internet Explorer, Opera Mini and Netscape.

c. Search Engine

A search engine is a computer program that searches for specific words on the World Wide Web and returns a list of documents in which they were found. Examples of search engines include Google and yahoo.

3.5.2. ElectronicMail

Electronic mail or e-mail (email) is a means of sending messages, text, and computer files between computers via the Internet. To send and receive e-mails, you need an Internet connection and an e-mail account which can be created within a webmail service such as Yahoo, Hotmail or Gmail. When you create an e-mail account, you are given a unique email address that gives you access to your mail box. An email address is made up of two parts separated by the symbol @ pronounced "at". For example bgsmolyko@yahoo.com.

In the above address,

- ✓ bgsmolyko is the user ID, user name or login
- ✓ yahoo.com is the domain name. The domain specifies the mail server (computer) on which the mail box is located.

The part of the domain name after the dot is called top-level domain, and specifies the type of organization or the country the host server is located. Some common top-level domains are:

- .com - for commercial enterprises
- .edu - for educational institutions and universities
- .gov - for United States government agencies
- .net - for organizations such as Internet Service Providers

- .org - for non-commercial organizations

3.5.3. InstantMessaging

Instant messaging is a live (or real time) communication which occurs when brief text messages are exchanged instantly over the Internet. Instant Messaging requires that both users be on-line at the same time. Common IM applications are AOL Instant Messenger, Yahoo Messenger and Microsoft MSN messaging.

3.5.4. InternetTelephony

Internet telephony or voice over IP (VoIP) is the transmission of voice telephone conversations through the Internet or IP networks. It allows users to have voice-talk with others. The telephone calls are digitized and transmitted through the Internet. Internet telephone services can be mainly categorized into net-to-net and net-to-phone telephony. In net-to-net telephony, both caller and receiver must be online. When both are online, one dials the other person's phone number. If they accept the call, then voice communication is established.

In net-to-phone, only one person has to be online. This person dials the other person's phone number and the latter receives a ring on their phone. Yahoo messenger and Skype provide services for both types.

3.5.5. InterpersonalComputing

Interpersonal computing refers to person-to-person interactions facilitated by websites that enable collaborative content creation, sharing and manipulation. Interpersonal computing involves: blogs, social networks, wikis and viral video sites.

a. Blogs

A blog (web log) is a chronological, journal-style website which its author (or "blogger") maintains like an online diary, with regular entries of commentary, descriptions of events, or other material such as graphics or video. Many blogs provide commentary or news on a particular subject; others function as more personal online diaries. They also provide the readers with the ability to leave comments in an interactive format.

b. Social Networking Sites

Social networking sites are websites that allow user to build personalized communities to socialize with. Common features include a customizable profile, the ability to add other users as friends, the ease of sharing pictures, music, text, and links, and built-in chat and mail features. Examples of social networking sites areFacebook, Twitter and Instagram.

c. Wikis

Wikis are websites that allow visitors to easily add, remove and edit content, hence enabling the collaborative authorship of comprehensive documents. The best example of a wiki is the multi-lingual, web-based encyclopediaWikipedia, and which currently includes over two million articles.

d. Viral Video Sites

A viral video is a video that is distributed by sharing. Viral videosites are websites that allow anybody to post videos online. Whilst it is now not difficult to put a video on any website, the significance of viral video sites is that they provide somewhere to put videos where it is likely that at least some other people will actually find them. Examples are YouTube and Kaltura.

3.5.6. ElectronicCommerce

E-commerce refers to the buying and selling on the Internet. Different models of e-commerce exists: business-to-business, business-to-consumer, business-to-government and m-commerce

a. Business-to-Business

B2C model sells goods or services to the consumer, generally using online catalog and shopping cart transaction systems. For example, an online pharmacy giving free medical consultation and selling medicines to patients is following B2C model. Amazon is an example of one of the first and still one of the most successful B2C e-commerce companies.

b. Business-to-Business

B2B describes commerce transactions between businesses, such as between a manufacturer and a wholesaler, or between a wholesaler and a retailer. In this form, the buyers and sellers are both business entities and do not involve an individual consumer.

c. Business-to-Government

B2G is a derivative of B2B marketing. B2G sites provide a platform for businesses to bid on government opportunities which are presented as solicitations requests for proposal (RFPs) to tender.

d. M-Commerce

M-commerce refers to the use of mobile devices for conducting transactions. The mobile device holders can contact each other and can conduct the business. Even the web design and development companies optimize the websites to be viewed correctly on mobile devices.

Some e-commerce websites are: www.bruneiair.com for airline ticket bookings, www.amazon.com for sales of books and magazines, www.brumedia.com/shop for sales of computers, shirts, and cameras

✓ Some advantages of setting up an e-commerce website are:

- Products can be sold to local customers and those from abroad.
- It is accessible 24 hours each day.
- It needs a small number of staff to run.
- It does not need huge office space.
- Products can be sold at cheap prices

✓ Some disadvantages of e-commerce are:

- Credit card fraud - hackers are able to steal credit card numbers on computers.
- Certain websites spy or track the buying habits of their customers.
- Some goods do not arrive after they are paid for.
- It lacks human interaction as one only sees pictures and some text descriptions.

3.5.7. Online Banking

Online banking (Internet banking) is simply the use of the Internet to perform banking operations like opening an account, accessing account information, transferring funds, getting a bank statement etc. In an Internet banking system, the bank has a centralized database that is web-enabled. All the services that the bank has permitted on the Internet are displayed in a menu. Any service can be selected and further interaction is dictated by the nature of service.

3.6. Intranet and Extranet

An intranet is a private network that is set up using the same technology and protocols as the Internet but is restricted to users inside an organization. It provides similar services within an organization to those provided by the Internet without necessarily being connected to the Internet. An intranet can be seen as a private version of the Internet. To access an intranet, some form of user authentication is usually required. External access to an intranet is not always provided.

An extranet is an interconnection of two or more intranets. It allows an organization to share information with other organizations using Internet standards but with security features preventing access to others.

3.7. Web Design with HTML

HTML stands for HyperText Markup Language. It is the authoring language that describes how a Web page should be displayed by a Web browser. Hypertext means that it provides ways of representing information with links or connections to other information. These links are called hypertext links. Markup means that it provides ways to indicate underlining, italics, paragraph breaks, section headings, and so on, in text.

3.7.1. HTML Documents

An HTML document is simply a text file that is saved with the extension .html or .htm. It can be created by a simple text editor like Microsoft Notepad, Notepad++ as well as a sophisticated web authoring tool like FrontPage or Dreamweaver.

HTML documents are made up of markup tags (or simply tags). A tag is a code enclosed within angle brackets that indicates how something is to be interpreted by a web browser. Some examples of tags are <html>,
 and . Most tags come in pairs: an open tag and a closing tag which is written with a slash after the first < (e.g. </html>). A closing tag tells the browser where to stop applying the effect of a given tag.

An HTML document is contained within the <HTML> and </HTML> tags and comprises of two sections: head and body.

- ✓ The Head contains the page title and meta-tags within the <HEAD></HEAD> tags. Any JavaScript code that is used, as well as Cascading Style Sheet information is also contained within the Head. This section will not be displayed on the web page.

- ✓ The Body holds the actual content of the page (text, graphics, lists, etc.) contained within the <BODY></BODY> tags.

The <HTML>, <HEAD>, <TITLE>, and <BODY> tags are referred to as document tags while the tags that are used within the body part of the document are known as markup tags. A basic HTML document would look something like this:

```
<HTML>
  <HEAD>
    <TITLE>Page title here</TITLE>
  </HEAD>
  <BODY>
    Page content here.
  </BODY>
</HTML>
```

- <HTML> marks the beginning of an HTML document
- <HEAD> begins the heading section of the document
- <TITLE> ... </TITLE> gives a title that will appear on the browser's menu bar. This section must appear between the <HEAD> ... </HEAD> tags and should be straight text, no tags.
- </HEAD> defines the end of the heading
- <BODY> ... </BODY> defines the body of the document (text contained within the <BODY> ... </BODY> tags appears in the main browser window). It can be used with the attribute BGCOLOR.
- </HTML> defines the end of the document

Remark Once an HTML document hasbeen saved, it can now be opened as a web page using a web browser.

To edit the page, go back to the text document. Make the changes and save the document. In the web page, click "reload" or "refresh" to apply the changes.

3.7.2. Text Tags

Text tags are used to format text within the document. Some tags are used with attributes. An attribute is a special code that can enhance or modify a tag. They are generally located in the starting tag after the tag name. The basic syntax for html tags and attributes is:

```
<tag attribute="value"> ... </tag>
```

Tags	Description
 ... or ... 	Bolds the text between the opening and closing tags
<i>...</i> or ...	Puts text in italics
<u> ... </u>	Underlines text

<code> ... </code>	Sets the appearance of the text in your page. Can be used with "size", "color" and "face" attributes.
<code><blink> ... </blink></code>	Causes text to blink
<code><center> ... </center></code>	Centers text or any item or group of items place between its open and closing tags
<code><marquee> ... </marquee></code>	Causes text to navigate
<code><p> ... </p></code> <code><p align="center"> ... </p></code>	Sets a paragraph apart from other text and adds a line break after. <code></p></code> is optional
<code><!--...--></code>	Used to insert comments. Comments are not displayed by the browser. They are footnotes for you.
<code>
</code>	Used to insert a line break. It does not have a closing tag.

Example 1:

```

<html>
<head>
<title>My First Web Page</title>
</head>
<body>
    <strong>This text is bold</strong><br>
    <b>This text is bold too</b><br>
    <em>This text is in italics</em><br>
    <i>This text is in italics too</i><br>
    <u>This text is underlined</u><br>
    <b><i>This text is bold and in italics</i></b><br>
    <strong><em><u>This text is bold, underlined and in
italics</u></em></strong>
</body>
</html>

```

Example 2:

```

<html>
<head>
<title>MyPage</title>
</head>
<bodybgcolor="cyan">
    <font type="Monotype corsiva" size="12" color="blue">
</body>

```

</html>

Remark! Tags are case insensitive but it is advisable to write them in lower case.
All attribute values must be written within double quotes.

3.7.3. Heading Tags

Heading tags are used to highlight text by making them bigger and bolder than normal text. There are six levels of headings numbered **1** through **6**, where 1 is the biggest and 6 is the smallest heading. Headings are specified as `<hy></hy>` where h stands for heading and y is the level number (1 to 6).

Example:

```

<html>
<head>
<title>Heading</title>
</head>
<body>
    <h1>Level 1 heading</h1>
    <h2>Level 2 heading</h2>
</body>
</html>

```

3.7.4. List Tags

List tags are used to display items that are arranged in a list. Two types of lists exist: ordered and unordered lists.

Their respective tags are ` ... ` and ` and `. No matter the type of list, the ` ... ` tag is used for every item inside the list.

Example:

<code></code> <code>item 1</code> <code>item 2</code> <code>item 3</code> <code></code>	<code></code> <code>item 1</code> <code>item 2</code> <code>item 3</code> <code></code>
---	---

3.7.5. Anchor (Link) Tag

A link can be text or an image which when clicked takes one to another part of the document, another html document on the same machine or to another website. A link is introduced using the anchor `<a> ... ` tag.

```

<a href="URL or address"> ... </a>
<a href="www.facebook.com">Click here to log onto to Facebook</a>
<a href="mailto:joshnoyah@ymail.com">Send a mail to Josh</a>
<a href="#top">Back to top of page </a>

```

3.7.6. Image Tag

Images are inserted in the page with the use of the image tag . It has no closing tag and can be used with the attributes src which specifies the source of the image, align, top and width.

Example:

```
<img src= "image path" align="top" height="40" width="30"> ... </img>

<img src= "mypict.gif">
```

3.7.7. Table Tags

Tables are defined with the <table> tag. A table is divided into rows with the <tr> tag, and each row is divided into data cells with the <td> tag. The letters td stands for table data, which is the content of a data cell. A data cell can contain text, images, lists, paragraphs, forms, horizontal rules, tables, etc.

Example:

```
<table>
<tr><td>row 1, cell 1</td>
<td>row 1, cell 2</td>
</tr>
<tr><td>row 2, cell 1</td>
<td>row 2, cell 2</td>
</tr>
</table>
```

3.7.8. Form Tags

3.7.9. F

X. DATABASE DESIGN

Introduction

A database is an organized collection of related data stored in a way that it can be easily retrieved and manipulated. A telephone directory, a library catalogue and a class register are examples of manual or paper-based database systems. A paper-based database requires much paper as the database becomes larger, making it difficult to manipulate the database. The problems caused by paper-based systems are solved by the development of computer-based systems.

The capacity for computers to store large amounts of data and their ability to quickly and efficiently retrieve the data makes them ideal for creating and using electronic or computerized databases. A computerized database refers to a collection of related files that are digitized. Computerized databases are created using database software called database management systems (DBMS).

1. Database Models

1.1. Flat-file Database

A flat file database is a single table database, with separate copies of data in each part of the business. An example is a phone directory.

The problems encountered with flat file databases are

- ✓ Data duplication: data is repeated and hence stored many times. This wastes disk space and slows down query time.
- ✓ Maintenance is difficult as every occurrence of a piece of data needs to be updated if its value changes
- ✓ More manual data entry is required and therefore a greater likelihood of errors when data is being entered.

The solution to these problems is to divide the data into logical groups and store the data in multiple tables, then connect (relate) the tables to each other. This results to a Relational database.

1.2. Relational Database Model

In a relational database, data is organized in two dimensional tables called relations, which are linked. A relation has the following features:

- ✓ Name: the name of the table
- ✓ Attributes:
- ✓ Records or tuples:

1.3. Object-Oriented Database Model

An object-oriented database tries to keep the advantages of the relational model and at the same time allows applications to access structured data.

1.4. Hierarchical Database Model

2. Database Modeling

2.1. Database Normalization

Database normalization is the process of organizing the fields and tables of a relational database to minimize redundancy and dependency. Normalization usually involves dividing large tables into smaller and less redundant tables and defining relationships between them. Normalization works through a series of stages known as normal forms. In order to achieve one level of normal form, each previous level must be met.

2.1.1. First Normal Form

A relation (Table) is in first normal form (1NF) if and only if

-) It contains a primary key. A primary key is an attribute that identifies each entity in a unique way.

It contains no multivalued field or repeating groups. A multivalued field is one that may take several values for a single record. A repeating group is a set of one or more multivalued attributes that are related.

2.1.2. Second Normal Form

A relation is in second normal form (2NF) if and only if

-) it is in 1NF
-) every non-key attribute is fully dependent on the primary key.

In the above table, Subject does not depend on StudID. In this case, a different table is created for subject with its own primary key and a relationship is created between the two tables.

2.1.3. Third Normal Form

A relation is in third normal form (3NF) if and only if

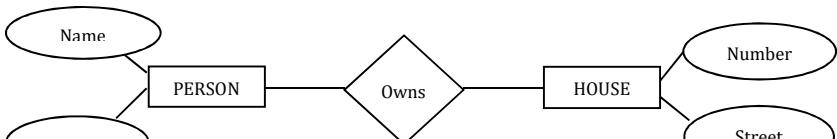
-) It is in 2NF
-) there are no transitive dependencies. Transitive dependency is a situation where a non-key attribute depends on another non-key attribute.

2.2. Entity-Relationship Modeling

When a relational database is to be designed, an entity-relationship model is drawn at an early stage and developed as the requirements of the database and its processing become better understood.

Definition: An E-R model is a diagram which uses basic graphic symbols to show the organization of and relationships between data in a database.

An E-R diagram serves as a schema diagram for the required database. A schema diagram is any diagram that attempts to show the structure of the data in a database.



An E-R diagram

The basic elements of an E-R diagram are entity sets, attributes and relationship types.

2.2.1. EntitySet

An entity is a person, place, concept or thing for which we intend to collect data. For example, a customer, an employee, a book, an appointment.

A group of entities that share the same properties is an entity set. An entity is therefore a member or an instance of an entity set. In an E-R diagram, an entity set is represented by a rectangle. In the above E-R diagram, PERSON and HOUSE are entity sets

2.2.2. Attribute

An attribute is a fact about an entity or a property that describes an entity. For example, a person's name, date of birth or gender, a vehicle's model, color or brand. Attributes store the actual data we want to keep about each entity within an entity set. An attribute is represented by an ellipse. In the above E-R diagram, name and date of birth are attributes of the entity set PERSON while Number and Street are attributes of the entity set HOUSE.

2.2.3. RelationshipType

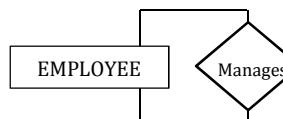
A relationship type is a named association between entities. A person (entity) owns (relationship) a house (entity), a teacher (entity) teaches (relationship) a subject (entity). Normally, individual entities have individual relationships of the type between them but in an E-R diagram, this is generalized to entity sets and relationship types. For example, the entity set PERSON is related to the entity set HOUSE by the relationship type OWNS. A relationship type is represented by a diamond.

A relationship type can be characterized by a degree and cardinality ratio.

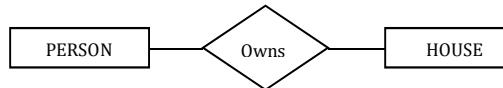
a. Degree of a Relationship Type

The degree of a relationship type is the number of entity sets involved in the relationship. It can be unary, binary, ternary or n-ary.

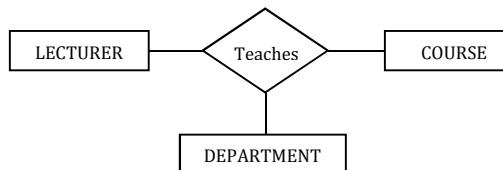
- ✓ A unary relationship type is one that involves entities from a single entity set. E.g. the relationship MANAGES between entities within the entity set EMPLOYEE.



- ✓ A binary relationship type is a relationship between entities from two different entity sets. An example is the relationship OWNS in the E-R diagram above.



- ✓ A ternary relationship type is one that involves entities from three different entity sets. An example is a LECTURER who teaches a certain COURSE in a DEPARTMENT.



- ✓ An n-ary relationship type involves entities from n different entity sets.

b. Cardinality Ratio of a Relationship Type

Cardinality is the maximum number of entities within each entity type that can take part in a relationship. For example, what is the maximum number of houses that a person can own? On the other hand, the minimum number of entities within each entity that can take part in the relationship is the Optionality. For example, what is the minimum number of houses that can be owned by a person?

The cardinality ratio is a ratio of the cardinalities of the entity sets involved in a relationship. It can be one-to-one (1:1), one-to-many (1:N) or many-to-many (M:N).

- ✓ In the relationship OWNS between PERSON and HOUSE, a person can own zero or many houses. Therefore, the cardinality of PERSON in the relationship OWNS is many while the optionality is zero.

On the other hand, a house is owned by one person. The cardinality of HOUSE in the inverse relationship IS OWNED_BY, is one while the optionality is one. The relationship OWNS is therefore described as a one-to-many (1:N) relationship.



(1:N) relationship

- ✓ In the relationship RECEIVES between STUDENT and SLIP, each student receives one and only one result slip. The cardinality of student is one and the optionality is one. Each result slip is issued to one and only one student. The cardinality of SLIP is one and the optionality is one. This relationship is described as one-to-one (1:1).



(1:1) relationship

- ✓ In the relationship TEACHES between TEACHER and SUBJECT, a teacher teaches one or many subjects. The cardinality of TEACHER is many and the optionality is one. A subject is taught by one or many teachers. The cardinality of SUBJECT in the inverse relationship IS TAUGHT_BY, is many and the optionality is one. This relationship is described as many-to-many (M:N).



(M:N) relationship

Remark In a normalized database, many-to-many relationships are eliminated by creating a link entity between the entities involved in the relationship.

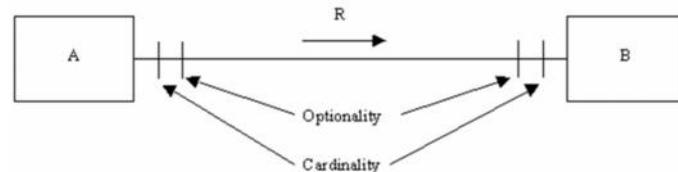
The above TEACHES relationship when normalized becomes



Normalized (M:N) relationship

The primary key of the link entity is a composite key that consists of the primary keys of the entities TEACHER and SUBJECT.

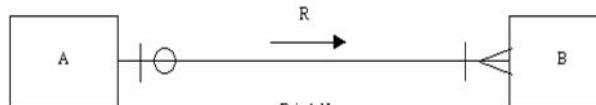
The above representation of an E-R diagram is the Chen Convention. Another way of representing E-R diagrams is the crow's foot notation that uses three symbols to show cardinality ratios. Here, a circle means zero, a line means one and a crow'sfoot means many. The cardinality is shown next to the entity type and the *optionality* (if shown at all) is shown behind it.



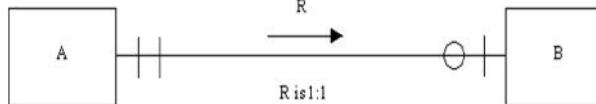
Where A and B are entity sets and R is the relationship type.

Exercise! Exercise! Exercise!

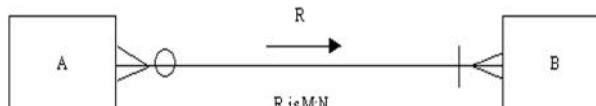
- 1) Identify the cardinality ratios of the following relationships.



R is 1:N



R is 1:1



R is M:N

- 2) A database will be made to store information about patients in a hospital. On arrival, each patient's personal details (name, address, and telephone number) are recorded where possible, and they are given an admission number. They are then assigned to a particular ward (Accident and Emergency, Cardiology, Oncology, etc.). In each ward there are a number of doctors and nurses. A patient will be treated by one doctor and several nurses over the course of their stay, and each doctor and nurse may be involved with several patients at any given time.

From the description, draw a corresponding E-R diagram showing all entity sets, attributes, relationship types and cardinality ratios.

3. Database Management Systems

A database management system (DBMS) is a computer program that is used to create, manipulate and access a database. Examples are MS Access, MySQL, Oracle, Sybase, dBase, Paradox, Objecstore and O2.

A DBMS provides users with:

- ✓ Data Definition Language (DDL): language which programs the structure (schema) of the database
- ✓ Data Manipulation Language (DML): language which changes the contents (instance) of the database
- ✓ Data Control Language (DCL)

3.1. Microsoft Access 2007

MS Access 2007 is made up of several components including:

- ✓ Tables
- ✓ Forms
- ✓ Queries
- ✓ Reports

These components are called database objects. One or more of these components are formed when a database is created. These components are stored in a single database file.

3.1.1. Tables

A table is an area of the database where information is stored. Tables organize data into columns (called fields) and rows (called records). Example: a database storing information about books and authors for a library could have a "BOOKS" table to store information about books (title, publisher, Year, etc) and an "AUTHORS" table to store information about authors (name, birth date, birth place, etc).

- ✓ A field is a specific piece of data stored in a table. The above mentioned 'BOOKS' table has fields 'Title', 'Publisher', 'Year' etc.
- ✓ A record is an individual entry in a database table. It comprises of one or more fields, depending on the number of fields defined to the table. For example: if five books are entered in our books and authors database, the "BOOKS" table would have five records (one for each book).
- ✓ Each field in a database table is assigned a data type when the field is created. The data type determines the kind and format of the information stored in the field. Example: the "Title" field in the "BOOKS" table will store text that will vary with each book in the database, so the data type in this case will be text or character type.

a. Creating a New Table

To create a new table,

- Click the Create Tab
- Select Table in the Tables group to create a new table in Datasheet view or Table Design to create a new table in Design view

b. Adding Fields in a Table

To add a field to a table in Datasheet View,

- Click the Add New Field column label.
- Click Rename in the Fields & Columns group.
- Type the field name and press Enter. Access creates the field. Continue until you have created all of the fields in your table.
- Press Enter without entering a field name to end your entries.

To add a field to a table in Design View,

- Select a cell in the Field Name column
- Type a name for the first field in the table and press Enter
- Select a data type and press Enter
- Type a description and press Enter

c. Naming and Saving a Table

To name and save a table,

- Click the Save button on the Quick Access toolbar. The Save As dialog box appears.
- Type the name you want to give your table.
- Click OK. Access names your table.

Tip: You can use the Rename option at any time to rename any column. For example, you can rename the ID column Author_ID.

d. Setting a Primary Key

A primary key is a field in a table that allows each entry in the table to be identified in a unique way. No two entries in the database can have the same primary key. For example your ID card number is unique. By default, Access sets the first field in the table as the Primary Key field.

To set a Primary Key:

- Switch to Design View
- Position your cursor in the field you wish to set as the Primary Key
- Click the Primary Key button on the Ribbon

e. The Foreign Key

The primary key is used to link the table with other tables in the database. When a primary key in one table (known as the source table) is linked to another table (known as the target table), the connecting field in the target table is called the foreign key. A foreign key must have the same structure, data type, and field size as the associated primary key, but it must not have the same name. Also, the foreign key in a relationship between two tables need not be a primary key in its own table.

3.1.2. Relationships

Relating tables reduces the unnecessary duplication of data (redundancy). The general procedure for creating relationships in Access is to

- Determine the type of the relationship and identify the source and target tables
- Create the foreign key field(s) in the target table if they are not already present
- Select the Database Tools tab
- Click on the Relationships command
- Add all the tables involved in the relationship to the window
- Create the relationships by dragging the primary keys from the source table(s) and dropping them on the associated foreign key(s) in the target table(s).

For example: Let's create a relation between the AUTHORS table and the BOOKS table.

3.1.3. Queries

A query is a command that tells the database what data the user wants to see. A query allows information to be found and retrieved from one or more tables based on a set of search conditions you define. For example: a query can be written specifying that the database should retrieve all the books from the "BOOKS" table written by William Shakespeare.

To create a query,

- Click the Create tab on the Ribbon
- Click the Query Design command
- Double-click Create Query in Design View
- Select the table that you would like to base your Query on
- Click Add
- Close the Show Table window

In order to control which records are displayed, you must define criteria in a Query.

To define criteria for your query:

- Position your cursor in the criteria row in the field for which you wish to define the criteria for
- Enter the criteria
- Click the Run Query button

For example: a query to find the books written by Barack Obama

The result of a query is called a recordset.

To Save the Query:

- Click the Save Icon
- Enter a name for the query
- Click OK

3.1.4. Forms

A form is an interface that allows users to enter and view data. Forms give the ability to choose the format and arrangement of fields. They can be used to enter, edit and display data. Forms can retrieve data from one or more tables, and display the output on the screen.

To create a Form using the Form Wizard

- 〕 Navigate to the table you want to base the form on
- 〕 Click Create on the Ribbon
- 〕 Click Forms

You are able to navigate using the navigation arrows at the bottom of the form.

To enter a record on the Form:

- 〕 Click the View button on the Ribbon to switch from Layout View to Form View
- 〕 Enter the data for each field in the record, pressing the Enter key to move to the next field
- 〕 Press Enter after you have entered data for the last field

NB. The form feeds the table. If you edit a record on the form, or create a new record, that data will be passed to the table it is associated with.

3.1.5. Reports

A report is an effective way to analyze and present data in printable format using a specific layout. Reports are the primary method of retrieving and viewing information. Using queries, reports pull information the user has requested and either print that information or display it on screen. The information that appears and the formatting and appearance of a report are set when the report is created.

To create a Report using the Report Wizard:

- 〕 Click the Create tab on the Ribbon
- 〕 Click the Report Wizard command
- 〕 Select the table or query upon which the report will be based
- 〕 Select the fields that you want to include on the report by double clicking on them
- 〕 Click Next
- 〕 Select a style for the report
- 〕 Click Next
- 〕 Type a title for the report

Click Finish

3.2. Structured Query Language

Structured query language (SQL)

XI. ALGORITHM DESIGN AND PROGRAMMING

1. Data Types and Structures

1.1. Data Types

Computers manipulate data of different types like numbers, letters, sound and images. No matter the type, each data is stored as a pattern of binary digits. Numbers can be added, subtracted, divided and multiplied whereas letters cannot. This implies that data of a given type will be treated differently from data of another type. As such, the type of any data stored in the computer must be specified so that the correct operations will be performed on it.

A data type is defined as a set of values and a collection of operations on those values. Examples of data types are integer, real, string and Boolean.

a. Integer

An integer is a whole number that can be positive, negative or zero. Examples: -3, 5, 67, -134 and 4231.

b. Real

A real is a number that contains a decimal point. Computers manipulate numbers with fractions as floating point numbers. Examples: 3.14, 12.25 and 0.001.

c. Boolean

A Boolean data type stores one of only two values – true or false, yes or no, or on or off. Usually these values are stored as 1 for true and 0 for false.

d. Character

A character is any letter, digit, space, punctuation mark, or symbol that can be typed on a computer. The word "computer" for example, consists of eight characters. The phrase "data type" takes up nine characters. A character data type stores only a single character or digit. Each character requires one byte of space, so "computer" takes up 8 bytes ($8 \times 8 = 64$ b). Examples: A, 5, -, and !.

e. String/Text

A string is a set of characters grouped together. A string is sometimes just referred to as 'text'. It can contain a mixture of numbers, letters and, spaces. Numeric data stored as text is only for representation not for calculation. Any type of alphabetic or numeric data can be stored as a string. Examples: "Limbe City", "10base-2" and "36.85".

f. Date/ Timestamp

Date and timestamp are data types for storing date and time respectively. The format used for date is either dd-mm-yy or mm-dd-yy and hh:mm:ss or ss:mm:hh for time.

g. Container

A container is a data type used for storing images, video, sound or another type of 'complex' file. In some languages, binary large object (blob) is used rather than container.

1.2. Data Structures

A data structure is a way of organizing and storing data in memory so that it can be used efficiently. Any data structure is designed to organize data so that it can be accessed and worked with in appropriate ways. A well-designed data structure allows a variety of critical operations to be performed, using as few resources, both execution time and memory space, as possible. Data structures include arrays, records, stacks, queues, trees, graphs and hash tables.

2.1.1. Arrays

An array is a data structure, which allows a set of items of identical data type to be stored together using the same identifier name. When an array is created, its dimension (size) and the type of its elements are specified.

For example: **String Names[5]**
Names :Array [1..5] of string

The above statements create an array called "Names" of five elements in C and Pascal respectively. The size of the array is 5 and its elements are of type string.

To reference an element in an array, an index is used. An index is an integer that gives the element at the indexed position in the array.

For example in C, Names[0] references the first element in the array Names, Names[1] references the second element, Names[2] references the third and so on...

In Pascal, the referencing starts from 1 rather than 0.

a. One-dimensional Arrays

A one-dimensional array is an array which is declared using a single index and can be visually represented as a list. The array "Names" above is one-dimensional.

If the array "Names" contains five elements (names), Raissa, Peter, James, Leticia and Isaac, it can be visually represented as follows:

Element	Raissa	Peter	James	Leticia	Isaac
Index	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]

Names[0] == Raissa, Names[4] == Isaac

b. Two-dimensional Arrays

A two-dimensional array is an array which is declared using two indices and can be visually represented as a table.

For example:

int Tab[3][2] or Tab : Array [1..3, 1..2] of integer

3 is the number of rows and 2 is the number of columns in the table Tab.

The elements of Tab will be referenced as:

Tab[0][0] Tab[0][1]

Tab[1][0] Tab[1][1]

Tab[2][0] Tab[2][1]

Example: Given the 2-dimensional array Tab[4][2] below, what are the elements given by the references Tab[0][0], Tab[1][1], Tab[3][0] and Tab[2][1]?

Index	[0]	[1]
[0]	5	3
[1]	1	4
[2]	3	1
[3]	2	8

Each individual element can be referenced by its row and column indices. For example:

Tab[0][0] = 5

Tab[1][1] = 4

Tab[3][0] = 2

2.1.2. Record

A record is a data structure which allows items of different types that define a particular structure or object, to be stored together. The elements of a record are usually called *fields* or *members*.

Defining a record includes specifying the data type of each field and a name (label) by which the field can be accessed.

For example,

```
Date= RECORD
Day: Integer
Month: String
Year: Integer
End RECORD
```

```
Student = RECORD
Name: String
Gender: Character
DOB: Date
End RECORD
```

```
struct Student
{
    string Name
    char Gender
    Date DOB
}
```

The above Date record has a numeric field Day, a text field Month and a numeric field Year. The Student record has fields Name, Gender and DOB which is of type Date. The table below gives examples of student records.

Name	Gender	DOB
Raissa	F	01 Apr 1996
Peter	M	17 Oct 1995
James	M	05 May 1995
Leticia	F	09 Dec 1997
Isaac	M	29 Feb 1995

Records

Each row in the table corresponds to a different record. This table has 5 records.

A field in a record is referenced as follows:

RecordName.fieldName = ""

Raissa.DOB= 01 Apr 1996

Record data structures are always used in association with arrays. That is, we define an array whose elements are of type record. When this is done, we have an *array of records*.

For example: let's define an arrayClassList, which stores information about the students in the table above.

StudentClassList[5] or **ClassList: Array [1..5] of Student**

An element in this type of array is referenced as follows:

ArrayName[index].fieldName

ClassList[0].Gender == F; ClassList[4].DOB == 29 Feb 1995; ClassList[3].DOB.Month == Dec

2.1.3. Stack

A stack is a linear list in which items are added and removed from the same end (head). Items being added and removed from the same end means that the last item to be added will be the first to be removed. As such stacks are also called last in, first out (LIFO) lists as they use the LIFO principle. (FILO)

Stack operations are:

- ✓ Stack(S): creates an empty stack named S
- ✓ Push(S,x): inserts the element x to the top of the stack S. Inserting an element into a stack that is full leads to a situation known as overflow. (START == NULL)
- ✓ Pop(S): removes an element from the top of the stack S. Removing an element from an empty stack leads to a situation known as underflow. (START == HEAD)
- ✓ IsEmpty(S): checks whether the stack S is empty. Returns true if it is empty and false otherwise.

Application of stacks:

a. Converting a Decimal Number to Binary

Initially we push the binary digit formed into the stack, instead of printing it directly. After the entire digit has been converted into the binary form, we pop one digit at a time from the stack and print it. Therefore we get the decimal number converted into its proper binary form.

b. Evaluating Arithmetic Expressions

Arithmetic expressions are usually written in the form $(a + b)$, where the operator is in between the operands. This is known as the infix notation. This notation poses problems for more complicated expressions. For example:

$$a \times b + c = \begin{cases} ((a \times b) + c)? \\ (a \times (b + c))? \end{cases}$$

$$2 \times 6 + 5 = \begin{cases} (2 \times 6) + 5 = 17? \\ \quad \quad \quad o \\ 2 \times (6 + 5) = 22? \end{cases}$$

Infix notation requires the use of order of precedence of operators and parentheses making it complicated and difficult for computers to evaluate expressions in this form.

To ease evaluation of arithmetic expressions, other notations are used: the prefix and postfix notations.

In prefix notation also called polish notation, operations are written before the operands.

For example the expression $(a \times b) + c$ will be written in prefix notation as

$$\begin{aligned} (a \times b) + c &= (\times a) + b \\ &= + \times a \end{aligned}$$

In postfix notation also called reverse polish notation, operands come before operators. For example

$$(a \times b) + c = (a \times) + c = a \times c + (2 \times 3) + 1 = 23 \times 1 +$$

Also,

$$a \times (b + c) = a \times (b +) = a + \times \quad 2 \times (3 + 1) = 231 + \times$$

Prefix and postfix notations do not require parentheses or precedence rules. Calculators use postfix notation to evaluate arithmetic expressions. A simple way to understand is by using the following expression: **Pre A InB Pos.**

To convert from infix to prefix or postfix, priorities are assigned to operators as follows:

p $(\times) = p$ $(/) > p$ $(+) = p$ $(-) = p$ and the following rules are used.

- When an operand lies between two operators, it associates with the operator that has higher priority.
- When an operand lies between operators of same priority, it associates with the operator on the left.

Example 1: Let's convert the expression $P: A + B \times C/D$ to postfix.

Considering the priority rules given above, we can rewrite P as follows:

$$P: A + ((B \times C)/D)$$

Stack[empty]

Output: []

Read A push it into stack → stack[A] output: [A]

Read + → stack[+] output: [A]

Read (→ stack[+()] output: []

Read (→ stack[+()] output: []

Read B → stack[+()] output: [A]

Read *	→ stack[+([*])	output: [A]
Read C	→ stack[+([*])	output: [A]
Read)	→ stack [+()]	output: [A ×] pop until you meet an opening)
Read /	→ stack [+(/)]	output: [A C ×]
Read D	→ stack [+(/)]	output: [A C × D]
Read)	→ stack [+]	output: [A × D/]
	→ stack[]	output: [A × D/+]

$A + ((B \times C)/D)$ in postfix notation is $A \times D/+$

Example 2: Let's evaluate the expression $234 \times 5 + -$ written in postfix notation.

Read 2	→ stack [2]
Read 3	→ stack [2, 3]
Read 4	→ stack [2, 3, 4]
Read ×	→ stack [2, 3 × 4 = 12] = [2, 12]
Read 5	→ stack [2, 12, 5]
Read +	→ stack [2, 12 + 5 = 17] = [2, 17]
Read -	→ stack [2 - 17 = -15] = [-15]

The result of the expression $234 \times 5 + -$ is -15

Exercise: Convert the following to postfix notation and evaluate them.

- | | |
|--|-----------------------|
| i) $2 - 3 \times 4 + 5$ | $(34 \times 2 - 5 +)$ |
| ii) $(2 - 3) \times (4 + 5)$ | $(23 - 45 + \times)$ |
| iii) $2 \times 3 / (2 - 1) + 5 \times 3$ | $(23 \times$ |

Exercise 2: Evaluate the following expressions

- | | |
|---|--------------------------|
| i) $623 + -382 / + \times 2^3 +$ | $(34 \times 2 - 5 +)$ |
| ii) $12, 7, 3, -, /, 2, 1, 5, +, \times, +$ | (June 2013, Paper 2, Q5) |

2.1.4. Queues

A queue is a linear list in which items are inserted at one end (tail/rear) and removed from the other end (head/front) such the first item added to the queue is the first to be removed. Queues are also called FIFO lists as they use the FIFO principle. (LILO)

Queue operations include:

-) Create(Q): creates a queue Q.
-) Enqueue(Q,x): inserts the element x to the tail of the queue Q.
-) Dequeue(Q): removes the first element from the head of the queue Q
-) Top(): checks the next element to be removed (do not remove)
-) IsEmpty(): checks whether the queue is empty. Returns true if it is empty and false otherwise.

Application of queues:

a. Spooling

It is a method used to place input and output on a fast access storage device, such as a disk, so that slow peripheral devices do not hold up the processor. For example, print spooler stores output to be printed in a queue while waiting for the user's program to finish creating the output. The spooler then sends the stored output to the printer at the proper speed. If new output arrives for printing, it is added to the queue.

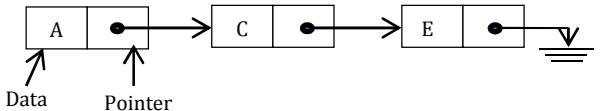
b. Scheduling

It is the process of determining which of the jobs in memory will be executed by the CPU. When a job is created, it is added to a queue, the ready queue. Any other job that arrives is added to the tail of the queue. A scheduling algorithm like round-robin is then used to allocate the jobs one by one, to the CPU for execution.

Remark A queue in which elements can be added and removed from any end is known as a double ended queue (Deque).

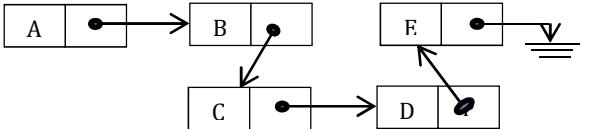
2.1.5. LinkedLists

A linked list is a linear list in which each element contains a pointer to the next element in the list. Each element in a linked list is known as a node and consists of two parts: the data item and the pointer to the next element.



A linked list that stores characters

Linked lists make it possible to insert items in the middle of the list without moving other items to make room.



Linked list with elements C and D inserted.

NB: In a double linked list, every node has two pointers: one for its predecessor and another for its successor in the list.

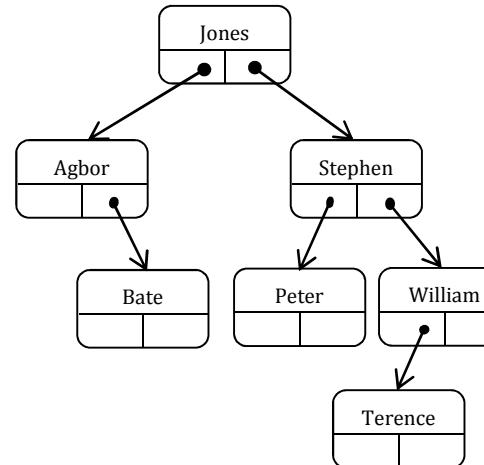
2.1.6. BinaryTree

A binary tree is a finite set of nodes that is either empty or consists of a root and two disjoint binary trees called the left sub-tree and the right sub-tree. In other words, it is a non-linear linked list where each node may point to two other nodes. Binary trees are a very efficient way of storing items that must be searched for and retrieved quickly. Suppose, for example, that you want to store the following names in a computer using a binary tree:

Jones, Stephen, Agbor, William, Bate, Peter, Terence

The names can be arranged into a binary tree by using the following two-step procedure:

1. Use the first name on the list as the root of the tree.
2. To find where to put each subsequent name, start at the root of the tree. If the name you are dealing with precedes the root name alphabetically, follow the left pointer; otherwise follow the right pointer. Proceed in this way until you come to an empty pointer; attach the name to it.



A binary tree that stores names

The topmost node in the tree is known as the *root node*. Each node in a binary tree may have at most two *children* or *child nodes*. A node that has a child is called the *child's parent node* (or ancestor node, or superior). A node has at most one parent except the root node that has no parent. Nodes that have the same parent are called *siblings*. Every node in a tree can be seen as the root node of the sub-tree rooted at that node.

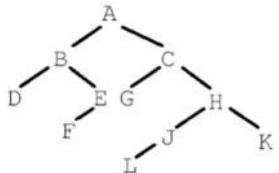
Nodes at the bottom most level of the tree are called *leaf nodes*. Since there are at the bottom most level, they will not have any children.

Tree traversal is the process of systematically visiting all the nodes in a tree and performing some computation. When describing a traversal strategy, we need not concern ourselves with what that computation is. There are two methods for traversing a tree: breadth first traversal and depth first traversal.

a. Breadth First Traversal

In a breadth first traversal all of the nodes on a given level are visited and then all of the nodes on the next level are visited, usually in a left to right fashion. It is also called level order traversal.

Consider the following binary tree.



A level order traversal of this tree gives: ABCDEGHFJKL

b. Depth First Traversal

In depth first traversal, the left subtree is traversed, the right subtree is traversed and the root is visited. There are three different depth first traversal techniques; preorder, in order and post order traversals. What distinguishes them is the order in which the subtrees and the root are visited.

- ✓ Preorder Traversal:
 - Visit the root
 - Traverse left subtree
 - Traverse right subtree

A preorder of the above tree gives: ABDEFCGHJLK

- ✓ Inorder Traversal:
 - Traverse left subtree
 - Visit the root
 - Traverse right subtree

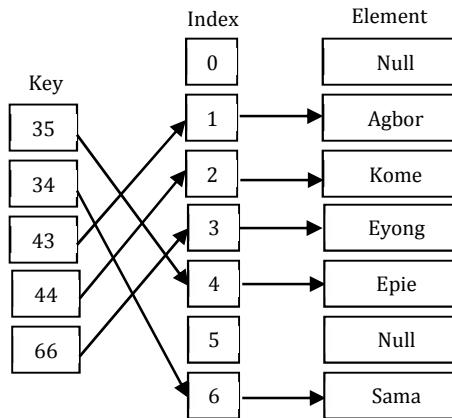
An inorder traversal of the tree above gives: Inorder traversal: DBFEAGCLJHK

- ✓ Postorder Traversal:
 - Traverse left subtree
 - Traverse right subtree
 - Visit the root

A post order traversal of the tree above give: DFEBGLJKHCA

2.1.7. HashTable

A hash table is an array in which data is stored at specific locations designated by a hash function. A hash function is a function that transforms the value of a record key into an index that corresponds to a location for storing the record. A hash function maps the set of input data to a set of integers. Each element to be stored in the array has a unique key that is mapped by the hash function to a numeric value that represents an index in the array. For example,



A hash table

The above hash table stores the names Agbor, Epie, Sama, Kome and Eyong using the hash function $h(k) = k \bmod \text{table size}$, where k , the key of each string is the sum of its letters' positions in the alphabet. This means that if an element p has key k , then p will be stored at position $h(k)$ in the table.

Keys:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Agbor} &= 1+7+2+15+18=43 \\
 \text{Epie} &= 5+16+9+5=35 \\
 \text{Sama} &= 19+1+13+1=34 \\
 \text{Kome} &= 11+15+13+5=44 \\
 \text{Eyong} &= 5+25+15+14+7=66
 \end{aligned}$$

Applying the function h to each key we get:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Agbor} &= 43 \bmod 7=1 \\
 \text{Epie} &= 35 \bmod 7=4 \\
 \text{Sama} &= 34 \bmod 7=6 \\
 \text{Kome} &= 44 \bmod 7=2 \\
 \text{Eyong} &= 66 \bmod 7=3
 \end{aligned}$$

Hash table operations are:

- Search: compute $h(k)$ and see if an element exists
- Insert: compute $h(k)$ and place element in the resulting position
- Delete: compute $h(k)$ and remove element in that position

Remarks! The size of the array should be preferably a prime number.

With hash tables, there always exists the possibility that two data elements will hash to the same integer value. This situation is known as collision. Two methods to solve collision are separate chaining and probing (closed hashing).

3. Algorithms

An algorithm is a well-defined set of step-by-step instructions for solving a problem in a finite amount of time. A set of instructions is not an algorithm if there is no definite stopping place, or if the instructions are too vague to be followed clearly.

A good algorithm:

- should be explicit (i.e. clear and obvious)
- should be precise (i.e. exact and accurate)
- should be unambiguous (i.e. no doubts about what to do/ only one way of interpreting the instructions)
- should be effective (i.e. produce good results)
- should be finite (i.e. have a definite stopping place)

3.1. Representation of Algorithms

There are different ways for representing algorithms such as pseudo code, flow chart and structured English.

3.1.1. Pseudo code

A pseudo code is an outline of a computer program, written in a mixture of a programming language and English. Writing pseudo code is one of the best ways to represent an algorithm as it allows the programmer to concentrate on how the program works while ignoring the details of the language.

In a pseudo code, some terms are commonly used to represent the various actions. For example, for inputting data the terms may be (INPUT, GET, READ), for outputting data (OUTPUT, PRINT, DISPLAY), for calculations (COMPUTE, CALCULATE), for incrementing (INCREMENT), in addition words like ADD, SUBTRACT, INITIALIZE are used for addition, subtraction, and initialization, respectively.

For example, here is a pseudo code for an algorithm that reads two numbers, computes and displays their sum:

```

Begin
Get A
Get B
Result = A + B
Print Result
End
  
```

3.1.2. Flowchart

A flow chart is a diagram that uses graphic symbols to describe the nature and flow of steps in an algorithm. Each step in a flowchart is followed by an arrow that indicates which step to go next. The following symbols are used in flow charting:

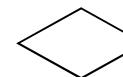
- a. Elongated circle: indicates the beginning (start) or end (stop) of the algorithm



- b. Rectangle: indicates instructions or actions



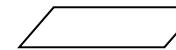
- c. Diamond: indicates a decision that has to be made



- d. Arrow: indicates the direction of flow



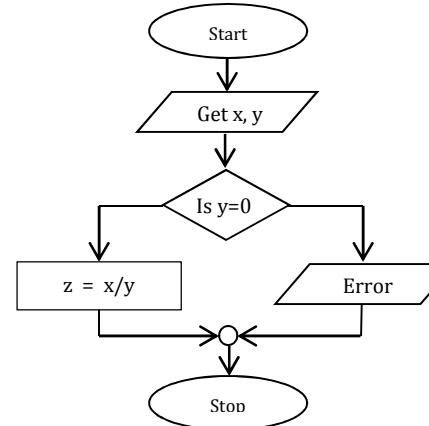
- e. Parallelogram: indicates data input and output



- f. Circle: serves as a connector



Example: flow chart for an algorithm that divides two numbers x and y.



3.2. Variables, Constants and Literals

A variable is an object in a program whose value can be modified during the execution of the program. In the above flow chart, x, y and z are variables.

A constant is an object whose value cannot be modified in the course of the algorithm or program. A constant is given a value that remains the same all through the program.

Variables and constants are characterized by:

- an identifier: which is the name of the object
- a value: which is the content of the object
- a type: which defines the domain in which the object gets its value

A literal is anything (numbers or text) that is usually written within double quotes. For example, "Enter a number", "The result is".

3.3. BasicInstructions

Three basic instructions used in an algorithm are input, output and assignment instructions:

-]) An input instruction allows information to be typed from the keyboard. Example: read (a, b), get (number)
-]) An output instruction allows:
 - ✓ display of information on the screen
 - ✓ printing of information on paper
 For example: write "a is greater than b" or print "b is greater than a"
-]) The assignment statement allows a value to be assigned to a variable. A variable can be assigned the content of another variable, a constant, a literal, an arithmetic or Boolean expression. The symbol used is \leftarrow .

Examples: $z \leftarrow x/y$, $s1 \leftarrow a + b$, $t1 \leftarrow t1 + 1$, $p \leftarrow 3.14$

In an assignment statement, the value to the right is assigned to the variable in the left.

In the case of $s1 \leftarrow a + b$, " $a + b$ " is calculated and the result is assigned (kept) in the variable sum.

For $t1 \leftarrow t1 + 1$, " $t1 + 1$ " is calculated and the result is assigned to the variable total, meaning that the value of total has been increased by 1.

E.g. Let $t1 = 3$

$$t1 \leftarrow t1 + 1 \Rightarrow t1 = 3 + 1 = 4.$$

Activity: Complete the table below.

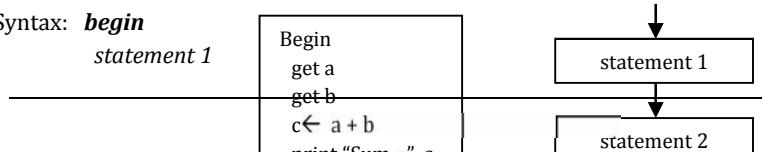
3.4. Control Structures

The logic of a program may not always be a linear sequence of statements to be executed in that order. The logic of a program may require execution of a statement based on a decision. It may repetitively execute a set of statements unless or until some condition is met. Control structures specify the statements to be executed and their order of execution.

3.4.1. Sequential Control

A sequence control structure executes a set of instructions one after the other from the first to the last in the order they are given.

Syntax: **begin**
 statement 1



statement 2

...

statement n

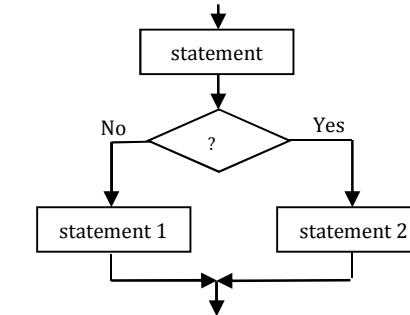
end

3.4.2. SelectionControl

A selection control structure (condition control structure) chooses the instruction or instructions to be executed based on the validity of a certain condition. Examples are IF and CASE statements.

a. The IF Statement

Syntax: **if condition then**
 statement 1
else
 statement 2



Explanation Condition is a Boolean expression meaning that it can take only one of two values true or false. The condition is evaluated, if it is true, Action3 is executed. If it is false, Action 2 is executed.

Note that actions 2 and 3 could be a block statements.

```

E Get a, b
if (a = 0) then
  Print "Error"
else
  Print b/a
  
```

C _i	x	y	z
$x \leftarrow 2$		—	—
$x \leftarrow x + 1$		—	—
$y \leftarrow 1$			—
$z \leftarrow x + y$			
$y \leftarrow z + x$			

It is possible to nest many selection structures.

Syntax: **if condition1 then**

if condition2 then

```

E get a, b
if a <> 0 then
  if b <> 0 then
    print b/a
  else
    print "Answer is 0"
  else
    print "Error: division by 0"
end
  
```

statement 1

else

statement 2

else

statement 3

Explanation If *condition1* is true, we move to *condition2*. If *condition2* is true, then *statement 1* is executed otherwise, *statement 2* is executed. If condition 1 is false, instruction 3 is executed. Instruction1 or instruction 2 will be executed if and only if condition 1 is true.

b. The CASE Statement

Syntax: **case** variable **of**
 case 1: *statement 1*
 case 2: *statement 2*
 ...
 case n: *statement n*
end case

Explanation The value of variable is evaluated, if it matches with case 1, instruction 1 is executed. If it matches with case 2, instruction 2 is executed and so on. CASE is a multiple selection structure. It is used when an important number of choices are to be considered depending on the value of a variable.

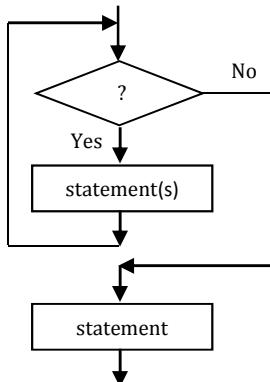
```
E Get a, b
Get op
caseop of
    1: print a+b
    2: print a*b
    3: print a/b
    4: print a-b
end case
```

3.4.3. RepetitionControl

The repetition (iteration) control structure executes a statement or group of statements many times until a certain condition is reached. Repetition structures define the order of operations and the number of repetitions. They are also called loops. Examples are, the WHILE, REPEAT and FOR loops.

a. The WHILE Loop

Syntax: **while** condition **do**
 statement(s);
end while



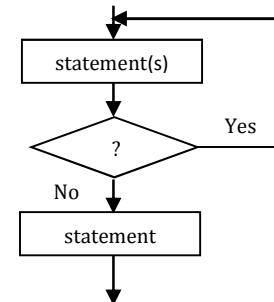
Explanation The *condition* is evaluated, if it is true statement(s) is/are executed. Instruction(s) is/are executed as long as condition remains true. When the condition becomes false, the loop stops.

The condition for the loop to stop comprises of a variable called control or iteration variable whose value must change at the end of each execution of the loop. In the example above, the control variable is "i".

```
F Get n
i ← 1
while (i <= n) do
    print "this is a while loop"
    i ← i + 1
endwhile
```

b. The REPEAT Loop

Syntax: **repeat**
 statement(s);
until (*condition*)



Explanation The statement(s) is/are executed and the condition is evaluated. If it evaluates to false, the statement or set statements is/are executed again. If condition evaluates to true, the program exits the loop.

```
Get n
i ← 1
repeat
    print "This is a repeat loop"
    i := i + 1
until(i <= n)
```

Remark! The repeat loop must be executed at least once as the condition is evaluated only at the end of the loop.

c. The FOR Loop

Syntax: **forvar ← low_limit to hi_limit do**
 statement(s);

```

end for
Or
for var ← hi_limit downto low_limit do
  statement(s);
end for

```

Explanation var (variable) is given a value *low_limit* or *hi_limit* depending on the loop, which is automatically incremented or decremented (by 1) after each iteration of the loop. The loop stops when *low_limit* becomes greater than *hi_limit*. In both cases, if *hi_limit* is less than *low_limit*, the loop body is not executed at all.

E Get n For i ← 1 to n do print "this is a for loop" end For Or Get n For i ← n downto 1 do print "this is a for loop" end For

Exercise! Exercise! Exercise!

- 1) Write an algorithm that reads a number n and returns the first n numbers. n should be a whole number greater than 0.
- 2) Write an algorithm that reads a number n and returns the sum of the first n numbers.
- 3) Write an algorithm to calculate the area of a circle.
- 4) Write an algorithm to solve a linear equation
- 5) Write an algorithm that reads a person's name and sex, and returns the message "good morning Mr. name" if the person is a man and "Good morning Mrs. Name" for a woman.

3.5. Recursion

Some problems are recursive in nature. This means that the solution to such problems involves the repeated application of the solution to its own values until a certain condition is reached. Algorithms for such problems are known as recursive algorithms.

A recursive algorithm is an algorithm that calls (invokes) itself during its execution. Examples are the factorial function and the sum function.

Recursion can be defined as the calling of a procedure by itself, creating a new copy of the procedure.

a. Factorial Function

Factorial is defined as:

$$\begin{aligned}
 1! &= 1 \\
 2! &= 2 \times 1 = 2 \\
 3! &= 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 6 \\
 4! &= 4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 24 \\
 5! &= 5 \times 4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 120 \\
 &\dots \\
 n! &= n \times (n - 1) \times (n - 2) \times \dots \times 2 \times 1
 \end{aligned}$$

By studying the above equations closely, we see that the factorial of any number n can be calculated by multiplying the number by the factorial of the preceding number.

We therefore have:

$$\begin{aligned}
 1! &= 1 \\
 2! &= 2 \times 1! \\
 3! &= 3 \times 2! \\
 4! &= 4 \times 3! \\
 5! &= 5 \times 4!
 \end{aligned}$$

$$n! = n \times (n - 1)!$$

Factorial is defined recursively as follows:

$$\text{fact}(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & = 1 \text{ base case} \\ \times (n-1) & > 1 \end{cases}$$

Get n If $n = 0$ or $n = 1$ then $\quad \leftarrow 1$ else $\quad \leftarrow n \times \text{fact}(n - 1)$ return fact

Remark $1! = 1$ is known as the base case. Every recursive problem must always have some base case which can be solved without recursion. For cases that are to be solved recursively, the recursive call must always make progress towards the base case.

b. The Sum Function

The sum function is a function that calculates the sum of the first n integers. For example we want to calculate the sum of the first 5 integers 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5. Their sum is calculated as follows:

$$\text{Sum}(5) = 1+2+3+4+5$$

We can see that for any number n , the sumsum(n), is the number n plus the sum of the previous numbers.

The sum function can therefore be defined recursively as:

$$\text{sum}(1) = 1$$

$si(2) = 2 + si(1)$ The base case is $= 1$
 $si(3) = 3 + si(2)$ which gives $(1) = 1$
 $si(4) = 4 + si(3)$
 ...
 $si(n) = n + si(n-1)$

```

getn
. ← 0
if = 1 then
. ← 1
else
. ← n + sum(n - 1)
return sum
    
```

c. The Fibonacci Series

The Fibonacci series is a series in which each number is the sum of the two previous numbers in the series. E.g. 0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21...

The Fibonacci series is defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(0) &= 0 \\
 f(1) &= 1 \\
 f(n) &= f(n-1) + f(n-2)
 \end{aligned}$$

$f(0)$ and $f(1)$ are the base cases.

Exercise! Exercise! Exercise!

Write a recursive algorithm to find the greatest common divisor (gcd) of two numbers.

```

Get
. ← 0
if = 0 then
. ← 0
else
if = 1 then
. ← 1
else
. ← fib(n - 1) + fib(n - 2)
return fib
    
```

3.6. Sort Algorithms

Sorting is a programming technique which is used to arrange a list of pre-stored data in an ascending or descending order according to a preset criterion. There are lots of useful sorting methods. For example: insertion sort, bubble sort, selection sort, quick sort, merge sort and heap sort algorithms.

a. Bubble Sort

Bubble sort algorithm arranges items in order as follows:

- First, examine the first two items in the list. If they are in order, leave them alone; if not, interchange them.
- Do the same with the second and third items, then with the third and fourth items, until you have reached the last two. At this point you are guaranteed that the item that should come last in the list has indeed "bubbled" up to that position.
- Now repeat the whole process for the first $(n-1)$ items in the list, then for $(n-2)$ and so on until the list is sorted.

b. Selection Sort

To perform an insertion sort, examine every item in the list except the first. Whenever you find an item that should come before the item that immediately precedes it, pick up the item, shift its neighbor on the left (predecessor) one step to the right, and see whether you can put the current item in the space thus vacated. If not, shift that item to the right and try again.

c. Insertion Sort

3.7. Search Algorithms

A search algorithm is a method of locating a specific item in a larger collection of data. They can be used to search for items within an array or list. Common search algorithms are sequential search and binary search.

a. Sequential Search

Sequential search is a simple technique for searching an item in a list by comparing each element with the element searched for, beginning with the first element until the element is found.

b. Binary Search

4. Programming

Programming is the activity of writing computer programs. A computer program is a set of instructions that will be followed by a computer to perform a computation. These instructions are made up of statements written in some languages specially designed for this purpose. These languages are called programming languages.

In other words, a program is an algorithm expressed in a programming language.

4.1. Programming Languages

A programming language is a set of predefined words, symbols and rules that are used to write computer programs. Programming languages are grouped into low-level and high-level languages.

4.1.1. Low-Level Languages

A low-level language is a language whose instruction set reflects the processor architecture. An instruction set is the set of bit patterns or binary codes for the machine operations that a processor has been designed to perform. Low-level languages include machine language and assembly language.

a. Machine Language

Machine language is the computer's language. It is the language the computer understands. Machine language instructions are written in binary (a series of 0s and 1s), and are directly executable by the computer. Each machine language statement corresponds to one machine action. Machine language is the first generation of programming languages. For example a short (3 instruction) program might look like this:

```
0111 0001: 0000 1111
1001 1011: 0001 1010
1110 0001: 0011 1110
```

b. Assembly Language

Assembly language is a low-level language consisting of mnemonic codes and symbolic addresses corresponding to machine language instructions. Assembly language is the second generation of programming languages. For example:

```
LOAD R0 Number1      Load number1 in register 0
LOAD R1 Number2      Load Number2 in register 1
ADD R2 R0 R1        Add register 0 and register 1 and keep result in register 2
```

✓ Advantages of assembly language

- It is easier to write and understand when compared to machine language.
- It can produce small program sizes
- It can produce very fast code as it allows low-level access to hardware features

✓ Disadvantages of assembly language

- Programs are not as easy to write and understand when compared to high level languages.
- Programs are tied to specific computer hardware and can't be reused on another kind of computer.
- Writing programs is very time consuming, tedious, and error-prone.

4.1.2. High-Level Languages

High-level languages are closer to human language. They allow programmers to write programs without having to understand the inner workings of the computer. One high-level language statement will generally be translated into several low-level language statements. They are the third generation of programming languages. Examples are C, BASIC (Beginner's All-purpose Symbolic Instruction Code), Pascal, Java, FORTRAN (Formula Translator) and COBOL (Common Business-Oriented Language). Below is a small code for adding two numbers in Pascal and C.

```
Pascal
program addition;
uses crt;
var number1, number2, sum: integer;
begin
  read(Number1);
  read(Number2);
  sum := Number1 + Number2;
  write(sum);
end.
```

```
C
#include <stdio.h>
intmain()
{ int number1, number2, sum;
  scanf("%d", &number1);
  scanf("%d", &number2);
  sum = number1 + number2;
  printf("%d", sum);
  return 0;
}
```

✓ Advantages of high-level languages

- easy to understand and write programs as they are user oriented
- they have built in libraries to perform routine tasks
- programs can be ported to multiple hardware setups from same code

✓ Disadvantages of high-level languages

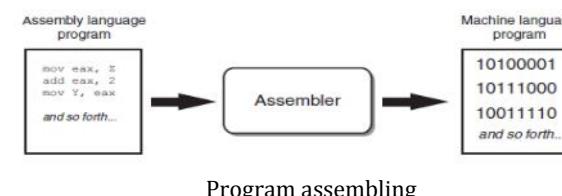
- programs may be slower than second generation languages
- may produce larger program files for same functionality as second generation languages.
- may not allow for low level hardware access

4.2. Language Translators

To run a program on a computer, the program needs to be translated into the machine language of the computer on which it will run. A language translator is a computer program that translates program instructions from one programming language to another without loss of original meaning. There are three types of language translators: compiler, interpreter and assembler.

4.2.1. Assembler

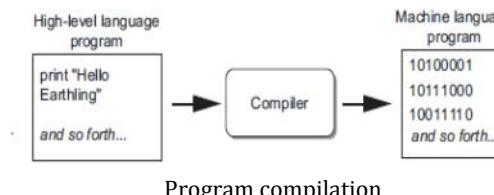
An assembler translates assembly language into machine language. The process is called assembling.



Program assembling

4.2.2. Compiler

A compiler translates the entire high-level program into a machine language program. The high-level language program is called source program or source code and the generated machine language program is called object program or object code. This process is called compilation. Some compilers convert high-level language into assembly language, then an assembler is used to create the finished object code.



Program compilation

✓ Advantages of a Compiler

- Fast in execution

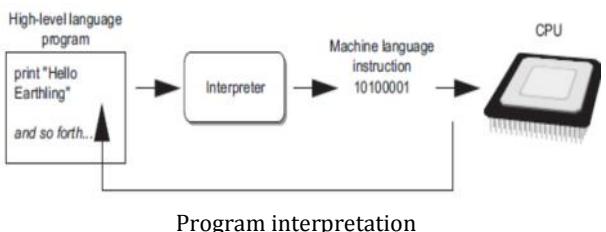
- The object code produced by a compiler can be distributed or executed without having to have the compiler present.
- The object program can be used whenever required without the need of recompilation.

✓ Disadvantages of a Compiler

- Debugging a program is much harder. Therefore not so good at finding errors
- When an error is found, the whole program has to be re-compiled

4.2.3. Interpreter

An interpreter is a computer program that translates and executes instructions written in a high-level language into machine language instructions one line at a time. The interpreter translates an instruction and allows it to be executed before translating the next line. If a program performs a section code 1000 times, then the section is translated into machine code 1000 times since each line is interpreted and then executed.



✓ Advantages of an Interpreter

- It is good at locating errors in programs
- Debugging is easier since the interpreter stops when it encounters an error.
- If an error is corrected, there is no need to retranslate the whole program

✓ Disadvantages of an Interpreter

- It is slow as interpretation and execution is done line by line.
- Translation has to be done every time the program is to be executed since no object code is produced.
- For the program to run, the interpreter must be present

4.3. Program Errors and Correction

4.3.1. Syntax Errors

Syntax is the set of rules that specify how the symbols of a language can be put together to form meaningful statements. In other words, syntax defines the structure of legal statements in a language. A syntax error is an error in a program that occurs due to the non-respect of the syntax rules of the language used. A syntax error will cause a compiler/interpreter to stop trying to generate machine code and will not create an executable. However, a compiler will usually not stop at the first error it encounters but will attempt to continue checking the syntax of a program right to the last line. For example, a misspelled key word, a missing punctuation mark or the incorrect use of an operator is a syntax error.

4.3.2. Semantic Errors

Semantics specify the meaning of a well-formed program. A semantic error occurs when you write a program that works, but does not do what you intend it to do. Compilation and interpretation do not detect semantic errors. Semantic or logic errors are detected from wrong results. Something may be syntactically correct but semantically incorrect.

4.3.3. Run-time Errors

A run-time error is an error that occurs during program execution. For example, a run-time error may occur if division by 0 is attempted. A run-time error may cause the program to stop execution, or it may be handled by an error-trapping routine.

4.3.4. Debugging

An error in a computer program is known as a bug. Debugging is the process of detecting and removing bugs. Syntax errors and semantic errors are bugs. A debugger is the software tool used for this purpose.

4.4. Programming Paradigms

A programming paradigm (or technique) is a fundamental style of computer programming. It describes a programming language's approach to solving a problem. Paradigms differ in the concepts and abstractions used to represent the elements of a program and the steps that compose a computation. High level languages can be classified under four different paradigms: procedural, functional, object-oriented and declarative paradigms.

4.4.1. Procedural Paradigm

In the procedural/imperative paradigm, a program is a collection of statements and procedures that affect data. Here, a program can be seen as an active agent that manipulates passive objects(variables). These objects are passive because they cannot initiate an action by themselves, but can only receive actions from active agents. The focus in procedural programming is to write good functions and procedures. Examples of imperative languages are Pascal, C, Ada, FORTRAN, and COBOL.

4.4.2. Object Oriented Paradigm

The object-oriented paradigm presents a program as a collection of classes for interacting objects. Unlike in imperative programming, object-oriented programming deals with active objects instead of passive objects. These objects are active because the actions to be performed on the objects are included in them (the objects). The objects need only to receive the appropriate stimulus from outside to perform one of the actions. Examples of object-oriented languages are C++, Java, Visual Basic and Smalltalk.

Some important concepts related to object oriented programming (OOP) are: class, object, abstraction, encapsulation, inheritance and polymorphism.

a. Class

A class is a description of an object or a real life concept. Classes are templates for creating objects, providing initial values for instance variables (attributes) and the bodies for methods. All objects generated from the same class share the same methods, but contain

separate copies of the instance variables. New objects can be created from a class by applying the *new* operator to the name of the class.

```
Class Person {
    private:
        charname[20];
        charsex;
        datebirthdate;
public:
    updateInfo();
    returnAge();
};
```

The name of the class is person. It has four instance variables (attributes) *name, sex and age*, and three methods: *updateInfo()*, and *returnAge()*. These methods act on the instance variables when invoked.

b. Object

An object is an instance of a class. An object consists of a collection of *attributes*, representing the state of the object, and a collection of *methods*, representing the behavior that the object is capable of performing. Attributes are sometimes referred to as the fields of an object. The methods are routines that are capable of accessing and manipulating the values of the attributes of the object. Objects interact with each other by sending messages. When a message is sent to an object, the corresponding method of the object is executed.

c. Abstraction

d. Encapsulation

Encapsulation is the process of combining together the attributes and methods of a class into a single abstract data type with a public interface and a private implementation. The goal of encapsulation is to protect the implementation from the users of the object. It ensures that all access to the internal representation of the object pass through the class methods, which act as an "interface" to the object. This is done by making properties and methods "private."

e. Inheritance

Inheritance is the derivation of one class from another so that the attributes and methods of the derived class are part of the definition of the initial class. The initial class is often called the base class, parent class or superclass while the derived class is often referred to as the child class or sub-class. The subclass usually contains all the attributes and methods of the superclass plus some of its own.

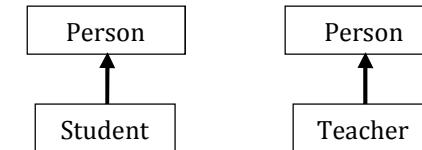
For example: the class Student inheriting from the class person will have all the attributes and methods of Person plus the following:

```
Class Student extends Person {
    private
```

```
intadmNumber;
intlevel;
public
    changeLevel(int newLevel) {
        level=newLevel;
    }
}
```

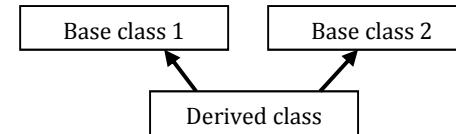
Inheritance is usually represented using an inheritance diagram.

For example: if the classes Student and Teacher are derived from the superclass Person, this is represented as:

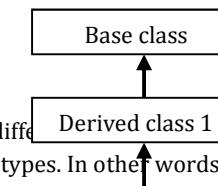


There are two types of Inheritance: multiple inheritance and multilevel inheritance.

- ✓ Multiple inheritance is when a derived class inherits features from more than one superclass. It is illustrated as follows:



- ✓ Multi-level inheritance is when a class inherits from a class which is itself inherited from another class. It is illustrated as follows:



f. Polymorphism:

Polymorphism is the use of different *Derived class 1* with the same name, which are associated with different object types. In other words, it is the ability for different objects to respond to the same message in different ways. Polymorphic methods are used which have one name but different implementations for different classes.

Assume you have a "shape" superclass. This class has a method called "area" which returns the area of the shape. Polymorphism allows you to make subclasses like "circle," "square," and "triangle" which inherit the "area" method, but each subclass would return the correct value even though they have different formulas to calculate their areas.

4.4.3. Functional Paradigm

In functional (applicative) programming, a program is a collection of function definitions. Lambda calculus forms the basis of almost all functional programming languages. Lambda

calculus is the use of lambda expressions to define functions. A lambda expression is a formula that defines a function. For example: $f(x) = x + 2$

Examples of functional languages are Haskell, LISP, ML and Scheme.

Sum function in Haskell

```
:: ( , ) →
( , ) = . +
```

Quick sort in Haskell

```
f:: [a] → [a]
f[ ] = []
f(x:x') = f. ++ [x] ++ f.
```

Where

```
y = [a | a < x, a ≤ x]
z = [b | b < x, b > x]
```

4.4.4. Declarative Paradigm

In declarative (logic) programming, a program is a collection of facts and rules involving relational expressions. Declarative paradigm uses the principle of logical reasoning to answer queries. It is based on formal logic defined by Greek mathematicians and later developed into first-order predicate calculus. The point of logic programming is to bring the style of mathematical logic to computer programming. An example of a declarative programming language is PROLOG (programming logic).

These facts are given:

```
human (John)
mortal (human)
```

The user asks the following question:

```
?-mortal (John)
```

The program answers yes.

4.5. C Programming

C is a high-level programming language developed by Dennis Ritchie and Brian Kernighan at Bell Labs in the mid-1970s. Although originally designed as a systems programming language, C has proved to be a powerful and flexible language that can be used for a variety of applications, from business programs to engineering.

The first major program written in C was the UNIX operating system, and for many years C was considered to be inextricably linked with UNIX. Now, however, C is an important language independent of UNIX.

C is a particularly popular language for personal computer programmers because it is relatively small - it requires less memory than other languages.

4.5.1. Basic Structure of a C Program

A C program is made up of the following components:

- ✓ Processor directive
- ✓ Declaration of variables
- ✓ Declaration of functions
- ✓ Function main()
- ✓ Definition of functions

a. The Preprocessor Directive

A preprocessor directive is a statement that begins with the # symbol. It instructs the compiler to include C preprocessors such as header files and symbolic constants before compiling the C program. There are two categories of preprocessor directives: the include directive and the define directive.

✓ The Include Directive

An “include directive” is used to include a header file. A header file is a library file that contains declarations for a special group of functions that can be used in the main body of the program. A header file must be included at the beginning of a program, if its functions are to be used in the program. The extension of a header file is ".h". A program may contain many header files. The general syntax to include a header file at the beginning of a program is:

```
#include <name of header file>
```

For example:

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <math.h>
```

The file “stdio.h” contains standard input and output functions that are used to get input (scanf) and print output (printf). The file “math.h” contains math functions used for mathematic calculations.

✓ The Define Directive

The “define directive” is used to define a symbolic constant which is assigned a value that will remain constant during the execution of the program. Its general syntax is:

```
#define identifier expression
```

Where

- Identifier specifies the macro name to which a value will be assigned
- Expression specifies the value that is assigned to the identifier. It may be a constant value, a string or an arithmetic expression.

For example:

```
#define Pi 3.14
#define CityLimbe
```

b. Declaration of Variables

A variable is a memory location reserved to contain a value that may change during the execution of the program. Variables are used for storing input data or values generated as result of processing.

Type	Description
1. Char	a single ASCII character
2. int	standard integers (usually 32 bits)
3. long int (long)	long integers
4. Float	standard floating point or real numbers
5. long float (double)	long floating point numbers
6. unsigned int	positive short integers
7. unsigned float	positive standard floating point numbers
8. unsigned long	positive long integers
9. unsigned double	positive long floating point numbers

Identifier in C can be anything from a single letter to a word. However, it must begin with a letter or the underscore character but the other characters in the name can be chosen from the following sets:

a .. z	(any letter from a to z)
A .. Z	(any letter from A to Z)
0 .. 9	(any digit from 0 to 9)
-	(the underscore character)

Examples of valid variable identifiers are: x, total, area_of_circle, x1, _a and aX.

Remark! C is case sensitive, so the identifiers sum and SUM are different. Same for total and Total. All key words must be in lower case.

✓ Variable Types

Every variable has a type. The type of the variable specifies what sort of data will be stored in it. The type of a variable is specified during its declaration. To declare a variable in C, one writes the *type* followed by the variable *name or identifier*.

The general syntax for declaring a variable is:

[Type] [Name of variable]

For example:

```
int age;
float area;
int sum = 0;
int i,j=2;
```

- o int specifies that the variables age and sum are integers while float specifies that the variable area is a floating point (real or decimal) number.

Variables are characterized by their name, type and scope.

✓ Variable Names

A variable's name or

- o int sum=0 indicates that variables can be assigned values when they are declared. This is called initialization. Therefore, one can initialize a variable at the time of declaration.
- o i and j are integers with j initialized at 2.

Variable declaration serves two purposes:

- o It gives the compiler precise information about the amount of memory that will have to be given over to a variable when a program is finally run and what sort of operations will have to be used on it.
- o It provides the compiler with a list of the variables in a convenient place so that it can cross check names and types for any errors.

Some basic C types are:

◎ C fun!

The bank said they couldn't FLOAT our loan because we were LONG on debt and SHORT of funds. Our application was UNSIGNED, so the whole deal was VOID. Can you believe it? The bank rejected us in C-speak!

✓ Scope of a Variable

The scope of a variable describes where in the program the variable can be legally used. Based on its scope, a variable can be global or local.

A global variable is a variable that can be recognized anywhere in the program. Global variables are declared before the function main().

A local variable is a variable that has meaning only within a particular function or other program unit. Local variables can be declared anywhere following the opening brace {} of a block. The name of a local variable can be used in another block elsewhere in the program, where it will refer to an entirely different variable.

c. The Function main()

The function main() indicates the beginning of the actual C program. It is the point at which execution of program is started. When a C program is executed, the execution control goes directly to the function main(). Every C program must have a function main(). The general syntax is:

```
int main()
{
    declaration of local variables;
    program statements;
    return 0;
}
```

- ✓ The keyword "int" is used before the main() function to indicate the type of the value that is returned by the main() function. By definition, a function may accept no, one or more inputs and returns no or a single value. 'int' means that the program

will return an integer value after its execution. The word "void" can be used in the place of "int" to indicate that the program will not return any value. It is good practice to always return a value because the operating system uses the return value to determine whether the program has been executed successfully or not.

- ✓ The body of the main() function must be enclosed in braces (or curly brackets { }). These braces are called delimiters. The left brace indicates the start of the body of the function whereas the matching right brace indicates the end of the body of the function. Braces are also used to indicate the beginning and ending of block (compound) statements.

Remark! The use of 'void' or 'int' before the function main() is optional. If it is not specified, the compiler assumes it is int.

- ✓ The body of the function main() is made up of program statements which represent instructions to be executed by the computer. An instruction may be an input/output statement, an arithmetic statement, a control statement, a simple assignment statement or any other statement.

A basic C program looks like this:

```
#include <header.h>
#define symbolic constant
Global declarations
void main()
{
    local declarations
    program instructions
} Local declarations program instructions know that the return from the Roman
empire fell was that, because they had no number zero,
they had no way to successfully return from C programs.
```

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
    printf("Welcome to the world of C!");
}
```

4.5.2. Input/Output Statements

a. The **scanf** Function

scanf (print-formatted) is used to interpret characters input to the computer and to store the interpretation in the specified variable(s).

Example:

```
scanf("%d", &x);
```

This statement reads a decimal integer from the keyboard and stores the value in the memory address of the variable x.

In the statement,

- ✓ %d is a conversion specifier and specifies that the variable to be read is of type integer. Other conversion specifiers used in C are %f for floating point numbers, %c for characters and %s for strings.

- ✓ & gives the address of something in memory. That is, it generates a *pointer* to the object. The arguments to scanf *must* be pointers (addresses), hence the need for &.

b. The **printf** Function

printf(print-formatted) is used to display information on the screen.

Example:

```
printf("The radius is %f cm",x);
```

in the statement,

- ✓ "The radius is %f cm" is the control string. The text in between the double quotes will be displayed except the conversion specifier %f.
- ✓ x is the variable to be printed. The value of x will be printed where the conversion specifier is placed in the control string.

Many conversion specifications can be used in a control string. In this case, the programmer has to ensure that both the number of conversion specifications and the number of variables to be printed are the same and, of the correct type specified.

Example:

```
printf("The sum of %d and %d is %d", x, y, x+y);
```

If x=2 and y=3, then what will be displayed on the screen is: The sum of 2 and 3 is 5

c. Common Conversion Specifiers

Character	Form of output
C	Character
D	Decimal integer
F	Normal floating point
S	String
E	Scientific notation floating point

Examples:

```
scanf("%s", &Name);
```

```
printf("Name: %s", Name);
scanf("%d %d",&x,&y);
printf("The sum of %d and %d = %d",x,y,z);
```

d. Character Input/Output

getchar and putchar are used for the input and output of single characters respectively.
 getchar() returns an int which is either EOF (indicating end-of-file) or the next character in the standard input stream
 putchar(c) puts the character c on the standard output stream

```
#include<stdio.h>
main()
{ char ch;
ch=getchar();
printf("%c",ch);
}
```

4.5.3. Operators and Expressions

An operator is something which takes one or more values and does something useful with those values to produce a result. C has different types of operators which can be arithmetic, relational, logical, assignment operators etc.

An expression is simply the name for any string of operators, variables and numbers.

a. Arithmetic Operators

Arithmetic operators are used for arithmetic calculations.

	Operator	Description
1.	+	Addition
2.	-	Subtraction
3.	*	Multiplication
4.	/	Division
5.	%	Remainder after division(modulo arithmetic)

b. Relational Operators

Relational operators are used for comparisons. Expressions that use these operators produce a true or false value when they are evaluated.

	Operator	Description	Example
1.	==	Equal to	If a == 2 and b == 5; a == b evaluates to FALSE
2.	<	Less than	a < b evaluates to TRUE
3.	>	Greater than	a > 5 evaluates to FALSE
4.	<=	Less than or equal to	b <= 5 evaluates to TRUE
5.	>=	Greater or equal to	a >= 5 evaluates to FALSE

6.	!=	Not equal to	a != b evaluates to TRUE
----	----	--------------	--------------------------

c. Logical Operators

Logical operators are used to combine logical values.

	Operator	Description	Example
1.	&&	Logical AND	(a>b) && (a>c)
2.		Logical OR	If ((a == 0) (a == 1)), printf("a!=1");
3.	!	Logical NOT (Negation)	If found == 1 (true), !(found) == 0 (false)
4.	&	Bitwise AND	4 & 5 = 0100 & 0101 = 0100 = 4
5.		Bitwise OR	4 5 = 0100 0101 = 0101 = 5
6.	^	Bitwise XOR	3 ^ 9 = 0011 ^ 1001 = 1010 = 10

Remark! Bitwise operators allow manipulation of the actual bits held in each byte of a variable. Other bitwise operators are:

- ✓ Right shift (>>) – binary division by 2
E.g. if == 0010111 then >>= 0001011
Also, >>2 = 0000101
- ✓ Left shift (<<) – binary multiplication by 2
If == 0010111 then <<= 0010110
Also, <<2 = 1011100
- ✓ One's complement (~)
If == 0010111 then ~ = 1101000

d. Assignment Operators

Assignment is the process of storing a value in a variable. The assignment operator is the equal sign (=).

For example:

$$\begin{aligned} p &= 3.14 \\ su &= si + 1 \end{aligned}$$

The variable *p* is assigned the value 3.14 and the variable *sum* is incremented by 1.

C has different types of assignment operators.

	Operator	Description	Example
1.	=	assign	c = 2
2.	+=	Assign with add	a = a + b ≡ a += b
3.	-=	Assign with subtract	a = a - b ≡ a -= b
4.	*=	Assign with multiply	a = a * b ≡ a *= b
5.	/=	Assign with divide	a = a/b ≡ a /= b
6.	%=	Assign with remainder	a = a % b ≡ a %= b

7.	$>>=$	Assign with right shift	$a>>= b$
8.	$<<=$	Assign with left shift	$a<<= b$
9.	$&=$	Assign with bitwise AND	$a = a \& b \equiv a \&= b$
10.	$ =$	Assign with bitwise OR	$a = a b \equiv a = b$
11.	$^=$	Assign with bitwise XOR	$a = a ^ b \equiv a ^= b$

e. Increment and Decrement Operators

Increment and decrement operators give a shorthand method of adding and subtracting 1 from an object respectively.

$++$	Increment	$a++ \equiv a = a + 1$
$--$	Decrement	$b-- \equiv b = b - 1$

These operators can be prefix or postfix. With the prefix form the variable is changed before the value of the expression in which it appears is evaluated, and with the postfix form the variable is modified afterwards.

$= 3;$ $= ++ + 6; \quad /* a = 9, b = 4 */$		$= 3;$ $= ++ + 6; \quad /* a = 10, b = 4 */$
--	--	---

4.5.4. Control Flow Statements

Control flow statements make it possible to make decisions, to perform tasks repeatedly or to jump from one section of code to another. C control flow statements are If statement, switch statement, while statement, do ... while statement, for statement and jump statements.

a. The IFStatement

The IFstatement is a decision-making statement that is used to evaluate an expression and then take one of two possible actions depending on the validity of the expression. The IF statement has two forms.

Syntax:**if(expression)
statement(s);**

and

```
if(condition)
{
    statement(s);
}
else
{
    statement(s)
}
```

In the first form, if the expression specified in the if statement evaluates to true, the statements inside the if-block are executed and then the control gets transferred to the statement immediately after the if-block.

In the second form, the else part is required only if a certain sequence of instructions needs to be executed if the expression evaluates to false.

```
scanf("%d",&b);
if (b>0)
    printf("Number %d is positive",b);
else
    printf("Number %d is negative",b);
```

- ✓ The expression is always enclosed within brackets.
- ✓ If statement(s) is a single statement, the curly brackets can be omitted as in the example above though it is good practice to always enclose them with curly brackets.

Sometimes we may want to evaluate more than one thing in an expression. This can be done in C by using the logic operators AND and OR.

For example:

✓ **if (a==0 || b==1)**

This expression is TRUE if a is 0 **OR** b is 1. It is also true if **a = 0 and b = 1**.

✓ **if (a == 1 && b == 2)**

This expression is TRUE if **a** is 0 **AND** **b** is 1. If one is NOT TRUE, the whole expression is evaluated to FALSE. In other words, **a** must equal 0 and **b** equal 2, for the expression to be TRUE.

@@C Fun!

Shakespeare must have been disappointed to learn that, whatever the value of a variable to be, the result of the question to be // !to be, is always true. Fortunately, this is not a question of life or death!

b. Nested IF

It is also possible to embed or to nest IF statements one within the other. Nesting is useful in situations where one of several different courses of action need to be selected.

Example:

```
#include<stdio.h>
int main()
{
    int a, b;
    scanf("%d %d ", &a,&b);
    if(a>b)
    {
```

```

printf("%d is greater.", a);
}
else
{
    if(a==b)
    {
        printf("%d and %d are the same: ", a,b);
    }
else
{
    printf("%d is greater.", b);
}
return 0;
}

```

c. SWITCH Statement

A switch statement is used for multiple way selections that will branch into different code segments based on the value of a variable.

Syntax:**switch**(variable)

```

{
    case value1 : code segment1; break;
    case value2 :code segment2; break;
    ...
    case valueN : code segment N; break;
    default: statement(s);
}

```

If the value of the variable equals 'value1', code segment1 is executed. Otherwise, if it equals value2, code segment2 is executed and so on.

The statement break is used after every case in order to prevent execution from continuing into the code segment of the next case without even checking its value.

For example, supposing a switch statement has five cases and the value of the third case matches the value of expression. If no break statement were present at the end of the third case, all the cases after case 3 would also get executed along with case 3. If break is present only the required case is selected and executed; after which the control gets transferred to the next statement immediately after the switch statement. There is no break after default because after the default case the control will either way get transferred to the next statement immediately after switch.

```

#include<stdio.h>
int main()
{ int a, b; char op;
printf("Enter two integers: ");
scanf("%d %d", &a, &b);
printf("Enter an operator: ");
scanf("%c", &op);
}

```

```

switch(op)
{
    case+: printf("%d + %d = %d ", a, b, a+b); break;
    case-: printf("(%d - %d = %d ", a, b, a-b); break;
    case*: printf("(%d * %d = %d ", a, b, a*b); break;
    case/: printf("%d / %d = %f ", a, b, a/b "); break;
    default: printf("Error!");
}
return 0;
}

```

Remark! If you need to select among a large group of values, a switch statement will run much faster than a set of nested IFs.

The switch differs from the IF in that switch can only test for equality, whereas IF can evaluate any type of Boolean expression.

d. WHILE Statement

The While statement or while loop is an iteration statement. Iteration statements are used to execute a particular set of instructions repeatedly until a particular condition is met or for a fixed number of iterations.

Syntax:**while** (condition)

```

{
    statements;
}

```

The *statement* or *statements* are only executed if the *expression* is true (non-zero). After every execution of the *statements*, the *expression* is evaluated again and the process repeats if it is true.

Example:

```

int i=1;
while(i<=10)
{
    printf("%d", i);
    i++;
}

```

This code will loop 10 times writing the numbers 1 to 10.

Example: A program that counts the number of blank spaces in a line of text.

```

#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{ char ch; short count = 0;
printf("Type in a line of text\n");
while((ch = getchar()) != '\n')

```

```

{
if(ch == ' ')
count++;
}
printf("Number of spaces = %d\n",count);
return 0;
}

```

e. DO... WHILE Statement

The do-while statement evaluates the condition at the end of the loop after executing the block of statements at least once. If the condition is true the loop continues, else it terminates after the first iteration.

Syntax:**do {**
statements to be executed;
} while(expression);

Remark!

- ✓ Pay attention to the semicolon which ends the do-while statement.
- ✓ The difference between while and do-while is that the while loop is an entry-controlled loop - it tests the condition at the beginning of the loop and will not execute even once if the condition is false, whereas the do-while loop is an exit-controlled loop - it tests the condition at the end of the loop after completing the first iteration.

Example: A program to print the sum of the digits in a number.

```

#include<stdio.h>
int main()
{ int n, a,sum=0;
  printf("Enter a number:");
  scanf("%d",&n);
  do{
    a=n%10;
    sum=sum+a;
    n=n/10;
  } while(n>0);
  printf("Sum of the digits = %d",sum);
  return 0;
}

```

A practical use of the do-while loop is in an interactive menu-driven program where the menu is presented at least once and then depending upon the choice of the user, the menu is displayed again or the session is terminated. Consider the same example that we saw in switch-case. Without using an iteration statement like do-while, the user can choose any option from the menu only once. Moreover, if a wrong choice is entered by mistake the user

doesn't have the option of entering his choice again. Both these faults can be corrected by using the do-while loop.

f. FOR Statement

The FOR statement or the FOR loop repeatedly executes a set of instructions that comprise the body of the loop until a particular condition is satisfied.

Syntax: **for(initialization; termination; increment/decrement);**
{
 statements to be executed;
}

- ✓ The initialization expression initializes the looping index which controls the looping action. The initialization expression is executed only once, when the loop begins.
- ✓ The termination expression represents a condition that must be true for the loop to continue execution.
- ✓ The increment/decrement expression is executed after every iteration to update the value of the looping index.

Example: A program to multiply two numbers by successive additions.

```

#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{ int a, b, i, prod=0;
  scanf("%d",&a);
  scanf("%d",&b);

  for (i=1;i<=b;i++)
    prod=prod+a;

  printf("%d",prod);
  return 0;
}

```

4.5.5. Arrays

An array is a collection of data items of the same type that are given a single name (identifier) and distinguished by numbers (subscripts). In simple terms, an array is a list of elements of the same type. When an array is created (declared), its size (dimension) and the type of its elements are specified. Arrays can be one dimensional or multidimensional.

a. One-Dimensional Arrays

One-dimensional arrays are declared using a single index (subscript).

For example:

```
int A[10], char Name[10], int vect[20]
```

int A[10] creates an array called "A" of 10 integers. The elements of array A are referenced as:

A[0], A[1], [2], ... A[8], A[9]

Where A[0] is the first element in the array, A[1] the second element, A[2] the third element and A[9] the last element.

Values can be assigned to the array as if each element were a separate variable.

A[0] = 3; A[1] = 1; A[2] = 0; ... A[9] = -5

A loop can as well be used.

For example:

```
int main()
{
    int i, n=10, A[n]
    i=0;
    while( i<=n)
    {
        printf("Enter element at position %d", i);
        scanf("%d",&A[i]);
        i++;
    }
    return 0;
}
```

To display the individual elements of the array A, we can proceed as follows.

```
printf("%d", A[0]); //prints the first element of the array.
printf("%d", A[1]); //prints the second element of the array.
printf("%d", A[2]); //prints the third element of the array.
...
printf("%d", A[n-1]); //prints the last element of the array.
```

Using a loop to display the elements of an array.

```
for(i=0; i<n; i++)
    printf("%d", A[i]);
```

b. Two-Dimensional Arrays

Two dimensional arrays are declared using two indices (subscripts).

For example:

```
int A[3][2], int B[5][3], int M[3][4]
```

int M[3][4] declares a 3x4 array where 3 is the number of rows and 4 the number of columns. The elements of the array M can be visually represented as a table as follows:

M[0][0]	M[0][1]	M[0][2]	M[0][3]
M[1][0]	M[1][1]	M[1][2]	M[1][3]
M[2][0]	M[2][1]	M[2][2]	M[2][3]

The elements of a 2-dimensional array can be assigned using nested loops or as separate variables.

✓ As separate variables

```
M[0][0] = 2;      //element on row 1, column 1
M[1][2] = 5      //element on row 2, column 3
```

✓ Using nested loops

```
int main()
{
    int i, j, n=3, m=4;
    for(i=0; i<n; i++)
        for(j=0; j<m; j++)
        {
            printf("M[%d][%d] = ", i, j);
            scanf("%d %d",&M[i][j]);
        }
    return 0;
}
```

The elements of a 2-dimensional array can be displayed using nested loops or as separate variables.

Using nested loops, we have

```
int main()
{
    int i, j, n=3, m=4;
    for(i=0; i<n; i++)
        for(j=0; j<m; j++)
            printf("M[%d] [%d]=%d ", i, j, M[i][j]);
    return 0;
}
```

4.5.6. User-Defined Functions

A user defined function is a subprogram written by the user to perform a specific task. User defined functions have to be declared and defined. They are declared before the function main but, may be defined (written) at declaration or after the function main().

a. Function Declaration

A function declaration (also called function prototype) is simply a statement which specifies the function's type, name and parameter or argument list. Function names follow the same rules as variable names. The general syntax for declaring a function is:

Type functionName(parameter list, if any)

- ✓ Type refers to the type of the value the function returns.
- ✓ Parameters or arguments refer to the function's inputs. A function may take no parameter, one or more parameters and returns no or a single value. If a function returns no value, it is of type "void". If the function takes in any parameters, their types and names are specified (declared) within the brackets.

Example:

intsquare(int n)	a function which takes an integer <i>n</i> and returns its square (n^2).
intpower(int b, int n)	a function which takes two integers <i>b</i> and <i>n</i> and returns b^n
chargetchar()	a function that takes no parameter and returns a character.

Remark! Parameter names are optional in a function prototype, so for the above prototypes we could have written:

```
int square(int)
int power(int, int)
```

b. Function Definition

Function definition consists of writing the actual statements of the function. A function definition has the form:

```
Type functionName(parameter list, if any)
{
    local declarations;           declaration of local variables
    statements;                  function statements
}
```

For example:

```
float areaCircle(int r)
{ float area;
  area = 3.14*r*r;
  return (area);
}
```

```
int square(int r)
{ int sqr;
  sqr=r*r;
  return (sqr);
}
```

A function that has been defined can be called within the function main() or within any other function.

For example:

```
#include<stdio.h>
Float areaCircle(int) //prototype

int main()
{ float area; int rad;
  scanf("%d", &rad);
  area = areaCircle(rad);
  printf("The area is %f",area);
  return 0;
}
```

```
#include<stdio.h>
int square(int) //prototype

int main()
{ int a, b;
  scanf("%d", &a);
  b = square(a);
  printf("The square of %d is %d",a,b);
  return 0;
}
```

Remarks!

- ✓ If the type of a function is not specified, C will always assume that the function is of type int.
- ✓ Notice that the function areaCircle was declared in the variables section of the function main(). This is because, if a function whose type is not int is not declared in the variables section of the function in which it is called, compilation errors will occur.
- ✓ The names used by a function for its parameters are local to the function, and are not visible to any other function: other routines can use the same names without conflict. This is also true of the variables declared within the function.
- ✓ When a function is called, parameters are passed to the function as inputs. In the above examples, *r* and *a* are passed to the functions areaCircle and square respectively.
- ✓ These parameters which replace the formal parameters when a function is called are passed either by value or by reference. A parameter is passed by value when the value of the parameter is calculated and this is passed into the function. A parameter is passed by reference by using pointers. Pointers are addresses.

XII. COMPUTATIONAL COMPLEXITY AND COMPUTABILITY

Introduction

There may be several different methods for solving a particular problem. How can one decide which method is the best in a certain situation? How would one define "best" – is it the fastest method or the one that takes up the least amount of memory space?

Understanding the relative efficiencies of algorithms designed to do the same task is very important in every area of computing.

1. Computational Complexity

Complexity theory is the mathematical study of the time and amount of memory needed to perform a computation. The goal of computational complexity is to classify algorithms according to their performances.

The efficiency of an algorithm can be measured in terms of:

- ✓ The execution time (time complexity)
- ✓ The amount of memory required (space complexity).

1.1. Time Complexity

Time complexity is a measure of the amount of time required to execute an algorithm. It is expressed as the number of times the algorithm's basic operations are executed on inputs of size *n*. Time in seconds is not used because there are too many factors that can vary e.g. computer speed.

As an illustration, consider a pseudo code algorithm that calculates the mean (average) of a set of *n* numbers:

1. n = read input from user
2. sum = 0
3. i = 0
4. while(i<n)
5. number = read input from user
6. sum = sum + number
7. i = i + 1
8. mean = sum / n

Statements 1, 2, and 3 are each executed once. Statements 5, 6, and 7 are each executed n times. Statement 4 (which controls the loop) is executed $n + 1$ times (one additional check is required), and statement 8 is executed once. The running time $T(n)$ of this algorithm is given as follows:

$$T(n) = 1 + 1 + 1 + n + 1 + n + n + n + 1 = 4n + 5$$

1.1.1. Big-O Notation

Big-O notation also called Landau's symbol, is a symbolism used to describe the asymptotic behavior of functions. Basically, it assesses by what factor execution time increases when the size of the input is increased. The letter O is used because the rate of growth of a function is also called its order of growth.

For example, let's suppose that the execution time for an algorithm of input size n is given by:

$$T(n) = 4n^2 - 2n + 2$$

Ignoring constants as they depend on the particular hardware the program is running on, and slower growing terms, we could say "T(n) grows at the order of n^2 " and write:

$$T(n) = O(n^2)$$

This simply means that if the input size (n) doubles, the algorithm takes four times longer to execute and the order of growth is said to be quadratic.

Some programs perform the same number of operations every time they are executed while others may perform different numbers of operations, depending on the value of a parameter.

Suppose a computer is going to process n items of input. The time complexity of the calculation may be any of the following:

a. Constant Time or $O(1)$

An algorithm is said to run in constant time if the computation takes the same number of steps regardless of how many items are to be processed. For example storing and retrieving array elements.

b. Linear Time or $O(n)$

An algorithm is said to run in linear time if its time of execution (number of steps) is directly proportional to the input size n . That is, time grows linearly as input size increases. An example would be finding the sum of n numbers, or any program that contains only one loop.

c. Quadratic Time or $O(n^2)$

An algorithm is said to run in quadratic time if its execution time is proportional to n squared. For example, if the computation involves comparing each item of input with all of the other items, it will take n^2 steps. Many sorting algorithms are $O(n^2)$.

d. Polynomial Time or $O(n^k)$

An algorithm is said to run in polynomial time if its execution time is proportional to n raised to some constant power. A program that contains k nested loops, each with a number

	Statement	Number of times executed
An time if its generally	1	1
	2	1
	3	1
	4	$n+1$
	5	n
	6	n
	7	n
	8	1

An time if its execution time is proportional to the logarithm of the input size. An example is binary search.

Remark! Big-O expressions do not have constants or low-order terms. This is because, when n gets large enough, constants and low-order terms don't matter.

A constant-time algorithm will be faster than a linear-time algorithm, which will be faster than a quadratic-time algorithm.

Formally, the time complexity of an algorithm is of the order $f(n)$

1.1.2. Best Case, Worst Case and Average Case

Some algorithms perform differently on various inputs of similar size. It is sometimes helpful to consider the Worst-Case, Best-Case, and Average-Case efficiencies of algorithms. For example, say we want to search an array A of size n for a given value K.

- ✓ **Best Case:** K is the first item that we check, so only one comparison.
- ✓ **Worst Case:** K is not in the array, then we must search every item (n comparisons)
- ✓ **Average Case:**

Exercise! Exercise! Exercise!

1. The big-O notation is often used to describe the efficiency of an algorithm.

(a) Place the following algorithms in order of efficiency, the most efficient first.

- Algorithm A that is $O(n)$
- Algorithm B that is $O(a^n)$
- Algorithm C that is $O(n^2)$

(1 mark)

(b) Describe a linear search and explain why it is $O(n)$.

(4 marks)

(c) Describe a bubble sort and explain why it is $O(n^2)$.

(4 marks)

1.2. SpaceComplexity

Space complexity is essentially the amount of memory (number of cells) which a program needs to execute. A good algorithm keeps this number as small as possible.

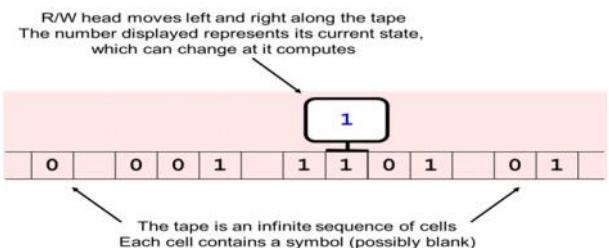
2. Computability

Computability deals with whether a problem can be solved at all, regardless of the resources required.

2.1. TuringMachines

A Turing machine (TM) is an imaginary machine conceived by Alan Turing in the 1930s to help identify the kinds of problems that are potentially solvable by machines. It consists of a read/write head and an infinite string of paper tape made up of cells where each cell can hold a symbol from the tape alphabet.

The head scans at a cell on the tape and can read, erase, and write a symbol on the cell. In each move, the head can move to the right cell or to the left cell or stay in the same cell.



Formally, a TM is defined as:

$\text{TM} = \langle S, T, s_0, d, H \rangle$ where,

S is a set of TM states

T is a set of tape symbols

s_0 is the start state

$H \subset S$ is a set of halting states

$d : S \times T \rightarrow S \times T \times \{L,R\}$ is the transition function

A TM begins computation at state s_0 . At each computational step, it reads the present tape symbol, changes its internal state, optionally writes another symbol onto tape, and moves one cell to the left or right in the tape.

The TM halts computation (and accepts the input string) when it reaches one of the halt states in H .

2.2. The Church-Turing Thesis

3. Computable Functions

A function is computable if it can be computed by a Turing machine.

4. Decidability

5. The Halting Problem

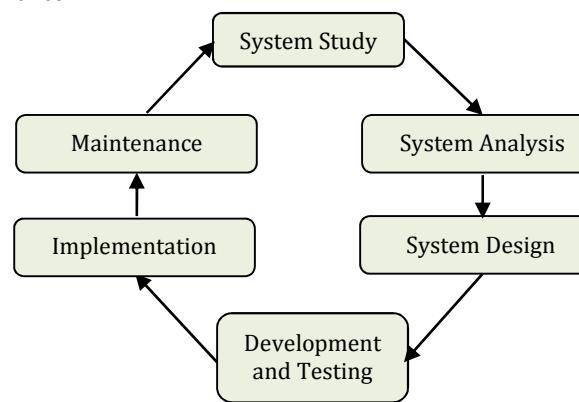
XIII. SYSTEM DEVELOPMENT AND PROJECT MANAGEMENT

Introduction

Most computer-based information systems are conceived, designed, and implemented using some form of systematic development process called software development process. In this process, end users and system analysts design systems based on an analysis of the information requirements of the information system to be built. The software development process is also called system development life cycle.

1. Software Development Life Cycle

SDLC is a structured step-by-step approach for creating and maintaining information systems. It consists of a number of stages that describe the activities involved in an information system development process. SDLC involves the following stages: system study, system analysis, system design, development and testing, implementation, and maintenance.



1.1. System Study

System study is a brief investigation of the system under consideration that gives a clear picture of what actually it is. During this phase, the system is evaluated and deficiencies are identified. This can be done by interviewing users of the system and consulting with support personnel. Main activities at this stage are:

- ✓ Determining whether a business problem or opportunity exists. i.e. identifying problems and opportunities.
 - A problem is a basic condition that is causing undesirable results
 - An opportunity is a basic condition that presents the potential for desirable results.
- ✓ Conducting a preliminary feasibility study to determine whether a new or improved information system is a feasible solution.
- ✓ Developing a project management plan and obtaining management approval.

1.2. System Analysis

Systems analysis is an in-depth study of end user information needs which produces functional requirements that are used as the basis for the design of a new information system. System analysis describes what a system should do to meet the information needs of users. It involves:

1.2.2. Analysis of the Old System

Analysis of present system involves:

- ✓ Collecting factual data about the present system (questionnaires, interviews, observations, etc.)
- ✓ Identifying how input, processing, storage and output are being accomplished.
- ✓ Analyzing how the present system uses resources (hardware, software and people) to convert input data into useful information
- ✓ Understanding information flow within the system
- ✓ Identifying problems with the system

1.2.3. Functional Requirements Analysis

Functional requirements explain what has to be done by identifying the necessary tasks, actions or activities that must be accomplished.

It involves:

- ✓ Determining specific information needs
- ✓ Determining the information processing capabilities required for each system activity (input, processing, output, storage, and control) to meet the needs. The goal here is to identify "what" should be done not "how" to do it.
- ✓ Determining functional requirements (information requirements that are not tied to the hardware, software, and people resources that end users presently use or might use in the new system).

1.2.4. Feasibility Analysis

Feasibility analysis is a study which investigates the information needs of prospective users and determines the resource requirements, cost, benefits, and workability of a proposed

project. Its goal is to evaluate alternative systems and propose the most feasible and desirable system for development.

Feasibility of a system can be evaluated in terms of four major categories: organisational feasibility, technical feasibility, economic feasibility and operational feasibility.

- a. Organizational feasibility focuses on how well a proposed information system supports the objectives of the organization and its strategic plan for information systems.
- b. Technical feasibility focuses on the reliability/capabilities of the hardware and software to meet the needs of the proposed system, and whether they can be acquired or developed in the required time.
- c. Economic feasibility focuses on whether the tangible costs and benefits of the proposed system will exceed the costs of developing and operating it.
- d. Operational feasibility focuses on the ability of the end users to operate, use, and support the proposed system.

The outcome of a feasibility analysis is a feasibility report which is presented to the user management for approval. It may be accepted or accepted with modifications or rejected.

1.2.5. Documenting System Analysis

The outcome of systems analysis is a system proposal or requirements specification document which describes what the new system should do without specifying how to do it. At the end of systems analysis phase, the system analyst produces a system proposal that will be used as basis for the design phase.

1.3. System Design

Systems design consists of design activities, which produce systems specifications satisfying the functional requirements developed in the systems analysis stage. While system analysis specifies what is to be done by the new system, system design describes how the system will accomplish what is to be done.

System design focuses on three main activities: user interface design, data design and process design.

1.3.1. User Interface Design

A user interface is a means of interaction between the user and the computer-based application. This activity focuses on designing how data will be introduced into the system and how the information generated will be retrieved. It produces detailed specifications for information products such as:

- Display screens
- Interactive user/computer dialogues
- Forms (on-screen forms for data input and output)
- Reports (on-screen and printed)

1.3.2. Data Design

Data design focuses on the design of the structure of data and files to be used by the proposed (new) system. It provides detailed descriptions of:

- Attributes (characteristics) of the entities about which the proposed system needs to maintain information.
- Relationships between these entities (E-R diagrams, data flow diagrams)
- Specific data elements (databases, files, records, etc.) that need to be maintained for each entity.
- Data dictionary
- Integrity rules (data validation and verification) that govern how each data element is specified and used in the system.

1.3.3. ProcessDesign

Process design focuses on the design of software resources, that is, computer programs and of procedures needed by the proposed system. It concentrates on developing detailed specifications for the program modules that will have to be purchased as software packages or developed by custom programming. Process design produces:

- Detailed specification of algorithms (pseudo-codes, flow charts, etc.)
- Detailed specifications of the procedures needed to meet the user interface and data design specifications.
- Detailed specification of the database schema (E-R diagram, object diagrams)

The design stage is very important because it is the place where quality is fostered in software engineering. Design provides us with representations of software that can be assessed for quality. Design is the only way that we can accurately translate a customer's requirements into a finished software product or system.

1.4. Developmentand Testing

Once the design of the system is complete, it has to be converted into a computer understandable form.

1.4.1. Coding (programming)

Coding is an important activity by which a programmer converts the systems specifications from the design stage into computer instructions referred to as programs. It is generally felt that the programs must be modular in nature. This helps in fast development, maintenance and future change if required.

1.4.2. Prototyping

Prototyping is the rapid development and testing of a working model of a product in an interactive and iterative process involving both systems analysts and end users. This working model or prototype, is a partially developed product that enables customers and developers to examine some aspects of the proposed product and decide if it is suitable for a finished product.

Various types of prototyping exist.

a. Throw-away Prototyping

In throw-away prototyping, the prototype is discarded once the actual requirements have been understood and the final system is developed with a much clear understanding of user requirements.

b. Evolutionary Prototyping

In evolutionary prototyping, a functional prototype with minimal functionality is built in the beginning and is refined over time, as requirements are better understood.

c. Incremental Prototyping

In incremental prototyping, functional prototypes of the various subsystems are built and then integrated to form a complete system. In other words, the product is built as separate prototypes which are later merged into a final product.

1.4.3. Testing

Testing is the process of executing a program with the intent of finding an error. During testing, trial runs are done to check for errors and whether or not the new system meets the users' needs. Once source code has been generated, the software must be tested to uncover and correct as many errors as possible before delivery.

There are three sets of data that can be used to test the system: normal data and abnormal data.

- Normal data is data which the system will accept.
- Abnormal (erroneous) data is invalid data which the system will reject.
- Extreme data are data values that are chosen at the absolute limits of the normal range. This is to ensure that all normal values will be accepted and processed correctly.

Using these test data, the following test runs can be carried out:

a. Unit Testing

The individual units or modules are tested separately with prepared test data so that any errors can be corrected.

b. Integration Testing

The complete system is tested after the individual units have been tested and put together. This tests that separately developed modules/units work together as planned without error.

c. SystemTesting

The integrated system is tested to evaluate the system's compliance with specified requirements.

d. Black-Box Testing

Black-box testing is a test that relies on the input/output behavior of the system, without any assumptions to what is happening within the system. It examines some fundamental aspects of a system with little regard for the internal logical structure of the system. Black-box tests are used to demonstrate that system functions are operational, that input is properly accepted and output is correctly produced, while at the same time searching for errors in each function.

e. White Box Testing

White-box testing, also called glass-box testing, is a test that relies on information about how the system has been designed and constructed. It requires knowledge of the internal structure or implementation of the system. White-box tests are conducted to ensure that internal operations are performed according to specifications and all internal components have been adequately exercised.

1.4.4. Documentation

The job of the programmer does not end with the code or software instructions. The organization or users need to know how to get the best out of the system. This is done through documentation. System documentation ensures continuity of the system.

There are two types of documentation; user documentation and technical documentation.

a. User Documentation

User documentation is a complete description of the system from the user's point of view detailing how to use or operate the system. It could be a paper-based user manual or help incorporated into the software that can be accessed when the software is installed. User documentation always covers the following:

- A guide that describes what the system is supposed to do in non-technical terms
- Instructions for installing and running the program
- Definition for hardware and Operating System requirements
- The format of the output data
- Explanation of common error messages and how to recover from them
- Description of how to make backups against accidental data loss

b. Technical Documentation

Technical documentation is a description from the designer's point of view. Technical documentation often contains:

- Detail functioning of the software showing algorithms, formulae, source codes etc.
- Description of data structures
- Test plans and testing procedures
- User interface and reports
- Location and version of the software

1.5. Implementation

Implementation is the conversion from the use of the present (old) system to the operation of the new system. It involves:

- ✓ Installation of new system
- ✓ Loading of data into new system
- ✓ Education and training of users of the system

There are different types of conversions:

a. Direct cutover

The old system is completely replaced by the new one. Its disadvantage is that, if the new system fails, there is no back-up system, so data can be lost.

b. Pilot run

The new system is installed in one part of the business or organization. This allows the new system to be fully developed and tested. Once the pilot system is running successfully, the new system is introduced to all of the business/organization.

- Its advantages are that, if something goes wrong with the new system, only a small part of the organization is affected, and the staff that were part of the pilot scheme can help train other staff.
- As a disadvantage, there is no back-up system for the office/department doing the pilot, if things go wrong.

c. Parallel run

The old and new systems are operated alongside each other (in parallel) until new system is proven capable.

- It is advantageous in that, if the new system fails, the old system will act as a back-up. Also, the outputs from the old and new systems can be compared to check that the new system is running correctly.
- Its disadvantage is that, entering data into two systems, and running two systems together, takes a lot of extra time and effort.

d. Phased implementation

The new system is installed in phases (stages or steps) gradually replacing parts of the old system until eventually, the new system takes over.

- Its advantages are that, it allows users to gradually get used to the new system, and training of staff can be done in stages.
- Its disadvantage is that, if a part of the new system fails, there is no back-up system, so data can be lost

1.6. Maintenance

Maintenance is the general process of changing a system after delivery to correct faults, improve performance or adapt the system to a changing environment or business requirements. Maintenance is necessary to eliminate errors in the system during its working life and to tune the system to any variations in its working environment.

Maintenance can be adaptive, preventive, corrective or perfective.

a. Adaptive Maintenance

Adaptive maintenance focuses on adjusting a software product to properly interface with a changing environment. Changes are made to the system to provide a closer fit between the system and its environment.

b. Preventive Maintenance

Preventive maintenance aims in retaining the system's capabilities before the occurrence of any problem (e.g. system failure). It locates weaknesses in the system and provides repairs in order to avoid any eventual breakdown of the system.

c. Corrective Maintenance

Corrective maintenance aims in restoring a defective system to a required state. This implies that repairs are made after a breakdown of the system.

d. Perfective Maintenance

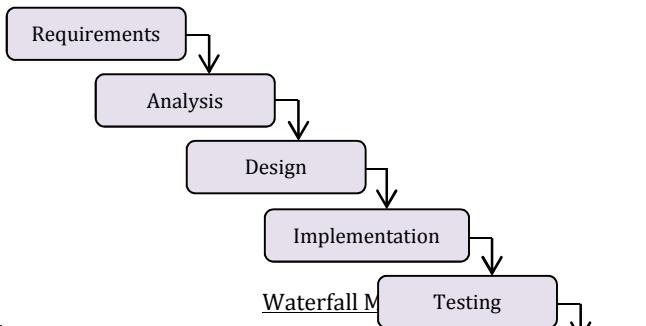
Perfective maintenance refers to enhancements to the product in order to either add new capabilities or modify existing functions.

2. SDLC Models

There are various SDLC models defined and designed which are followed during software development processes. These models are also referred to as "Software Development Process Models". Each model follows a series of steps unique to its type, in order to ensure success in the process of software development.

2.1. Waterfall Model

The waterfall model is the most common and classic of SDLC models. It illustrates the software development process in a linear sequential flow; hence it is also referred to as a linear-sequential life cycle model. In the waterfall model, each phase must be completed in its entirety before the next phase can begin. At the end of each phase, a review takes place to determine if the project is on the right path and whether or not to continue or discard the project.



✓ Advantages

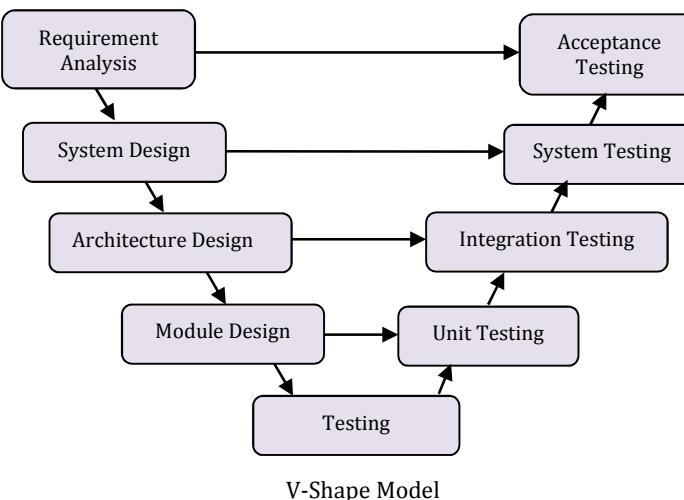
- Simple and easy to use.
- Easy to manage due to the rigidity of the model – each phase has specific deliverables and a review process.
- Phases are processed and completed one at a time.
- Works well for smaller projects where requirements are very well understood.

✓ Disadvantages

- Adjusting scope during the life cycle can kill a project
- No working software is produced until late during the life cycle.
- High amounts of risk and uncertainty.
- Poor model for complex and object-oriented projects.

2.2. V-Shape Model

The V-shape model is an SDLC model where execution of processes happens in a sequential manner in V-shape. It is also known as Verification and Validation model.



V-shape model is an extension of the waterfall model and is based on association of a testing phase for each corresponding development stage. This means that for every single phase in the development cycle there is a directly associated testing phase. This is a highly disciplined model and next phase starts only after completion of the previous phase.

✓ Advantages

- Simple and easy to use.
- Each phase has specific deliverables.
- Higher chance of success over the waterfall model due to the development of test plans early on during the life cycle.
- Works well for small projects where requirements are easily understood.

✓ Disadvantages

- Very rigid, like the waterfall model.
- Little flexibility and adjusting scope is difficult and expensive.
- Software is developed during the implementation phase, so no early prototypes of the software are produced.
- Model doesn't provide a clear path for problems found during testing phases.

2.3. The Spiral Model

The spiral model has four phases: Planning, Risk Analysis, Engineering and Evaluation. A software project repeatedly passes through these phases in iterations (called Spirals in this model). In the baseline spiral, starting in the planning phase, requirements are gathered and risk is assessed. Each subsequent spiral builds on the baseline spiral.

Requirements are gathered during the planning phase. In the risk analysis phase, a process is undertaken to identify risk and alternate solutions. A prototype is produced at the end of the risk analysis phase.

✓ Advantages

- High amount of risk analysis
- Good for large and mission-critical projects.
- Software is produced early in the software life cycle.

✓ **Disadvantages**

- Can be a costly model to use.
- Risk analysis requires highly specific expertise.
- Project's success is highly dependent on the risk analysis phase.
- Doesn't work well for smaller projects.

3. Software Design

Software design is the process of defining the architecture, components, modules, interfaces, and data for a software to satisfy specified requirements. It is the activity within the software development life cycle, where software requirements are analyzed in order to produce a description of the internal structure and organization of the system that will serve as the basis for its construction.

A software design must describe the architecture of the system, that is, how the system is decomposed and organized into components and must describe the interfaces between these components. It must also describe these components into a level of detail suitable for allowing their construction.

3.1. The Design Model

The design model encompasses the representation of data, architecture, interfaces, and procedures of the software.

3.1.1. Data Design

Data design selects logical representations of data objects (data structures) identified during requirements definition and specification. Well-designed data can lead to better program structure and modularity, and reduced procedural complexity.

3.1.2. Interface Design

3.1.3. Architecture Design

3.1.4. Procedure Design

3.2. Design Strategies and Methods

Various general strategies can be used to help guide the design process. Common examples are top-down design and stepwise refinement.

3.2.1. Top-down Design

Looking at some problems as a whole can make them seem impossible to solve because they are so complex. For example, writing a word processor program or an operating system. Such complex problems can be solved by breaking them into smaller parts which are solved individually and the smaller solutions are assembled into a big solution. This process is called decomposition, divide and conquer, or more commonly top-down design.

Definition: Top-down design is the process of designing a solution to a problem by systematically breaking the problem into smaller, more manageable parts.

The problem is broken down into smaller problems called sub-problems, which in turn are broken into smaller sub-problems, continuing until each sub-problem can be solved in a few steps.

Top-down design leads to modular development. Modular development is the process of developing software modules individually then combining the modules to form a solution to an overall problem.

Definition: A module is a self-contained entity that results when a problem is divided into sub-problems; each module corresponds to a sub-problem.

Modular development of computer software:

- ✓ Makes large projects more manageable.
Smaller and less complex tasks are easier to understand than larger ones and are less demanding of resources.
- ✓ Is faster for large projects.
Different people work on different modules at the same time which speeds up the overall project.
- ✓ Leads to a higher quality product
Programmers with knowledge and skills in a specific area can be assigned to the parts of the project that require those skills.
- ✓ Makes it easier to find and correct errors
It is easy to isolate the part of the software that is causing trouble, making it easy to fix it.
- ✓ Increases the reusability of solutions
Solutions to smaller problems are more likely to be useful elsewhere than solutions to bigger problems.

3.2.2. Stepwise Refinement

Stepwise refinement is the process of breaking a problem down through successive steps into smaller problems. It is an iterative process where each problem is decomposed and refined step by step. In stepwise refinement, the solution to a problem is first described in terms of high level functions, then, each function is broken down into details that are refined in successive steps until the whole problem is fully defined.

3.3. Design Notations

A large number of notations and languages exist to represent software design artifacts. Some are used mainly to describe the structural organization of a design, whereas others are used to represent the behavior of such software systems. Notations for describing the

structural organization of the system are static. For example, entity relationship diagrams, structure charts, class and object diagrams. Notations for describing the behavioral organization of the system are dynamic. Examples are data flow diagrams, flow charts, sequence diagrams, state transition diagrams and pseudo-code.

3.3.1. Data Flow Diagrams

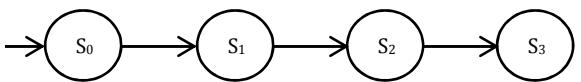
A data-flow diagram (DFD) is a graphical representation of the "flow" of data through a system. A DFD shows the flow of data among a set of processes.

3.3.2. Flowcharts

They are used to show the flow of control and the associated actions to be performed.

3.3.3. State Transition Diagrams

They are used to show the flow of control from state to state in a state machine.



3.4. Software Reuse

Software reuse is the process of implementing or updating software using existing software assets. Reusable software assets include more than just codes. Requirements, designs, models, algorithms, tests, documents, and many other products of the software process can be reused.

Software reuse makes programming easier because you only need to develop the solution to a problem once; then you can call up that code whenever you need it. Modules developed as part of one project, can be reused later as parts of other projects, modified if necessary to fit new situations. Most computer systems are filled with layers of short programming modules that are constantly reused in different situations.

Software reuse can be horizontal or vertical.

3.4.1. Horizontal Reuse

Horizontal reuse refers to software components used across a wide variety of applications. This type of reuse includes library of components, string manipulation routines, or graphical user interface functions.

3.4.2. Vertical Reuse

Vertical reuse, in another way, deals with the reuse of system functional areas, or domains that can be shared between systems with similar functionality.

3.4.3. Advantages of Software Reuse

The main advantages of software reuse include:

- ✓ Increase in software productivity
- ✓ Reduced software development time
- ✓ Reduced software development and maintenance costs
- ✓ Improved software system interoperability

- ✓ Software is developed with fewer people
- ✓ Easy movement of personnel from project to project,
- ✓ Production of more standardized software,
- ✓ Production of better quality software

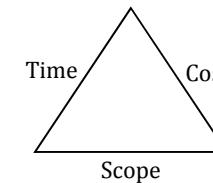
4. Project Management

A project is an endeavor to accomplish a specific objective through a unique set of interrelated tasks and the effective utilization of resources. A project has a definite start and finish time, well-defined outcomes or performance goals, and consumes scarce resources such as money, personnel, material, and equipment.

A project is considered constrained by three functions:

- ✓ Scope: what it is intended to accomplish. In other words, the customer's requirements for the project.
- ✓ Time allocation: the time schedule for the project.
- ✓ Cost: the money, budget, and resources for a project.

These three functions are called the Triple Constraint. The relationship between them is represented using the Project Management Triangle.

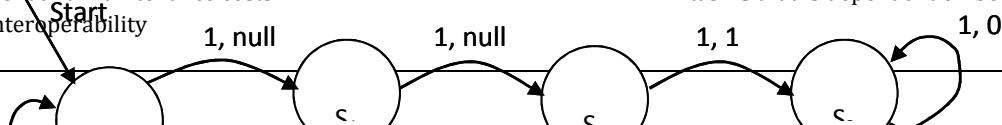


The Project Management Triangle visualizes the fact that time, cost and scope of a project are interdependent; changing one of them causes changes in the other two. For example, if you want to shorten a schedule, you can hire more resources which would increase cost, or reduce customer requirements which would affect quality. This simply means "you can have any two of quick, good or cheap, but not all three."

Projects are implemented through project management. Project management is defined as the application of knowledge, skills, tools and techniques to activities of a project for the achievement of the project's objectives/requirements. Project management ensures that an acceptable system is developed within time and budget.

4.1. Project Management Terms

- ✓ **Task/Activity:** anything that needs to be done that requires time and consumes resources.
- ✓ **Dependent task:** a task that can only begin after a previous one is finished. For example, roofing a house depends on the construction of the walls.
- ✓ **Slack time or float time:** the amount of delay that can be tolerated between the starting time and completion time of a task without causing a delay in the completion date of the entire project. If we have tasks A and B that start at the same time and task C that is dependent on both tasks A and B. If task A takes 3 days and task B takes



- Start**
- 5 days, then task A has 2 days slack time. That is, it can run for 2 days before it affects the planned starting time for task C.
- ✓ **Lag time:** the delay or amount of time between the end of one activity and the beginning of another if the two are dependent. For example, if task A is laying a row of cement blocks and dependent task B is putting the walls of the house, there would be some lag time between the end of task A and the start of task B to let the blocks get dry.
- ✓ **Lead time:** occurs when a task should theoretically wait for its predecessor to finish, but can actually start a little early. The time that the tasks overlap is lead time.
- ✓ **Milestone:** an event that signifies the accomplishment or completion of a major deliverable during a project.
- ✓ **Deliverable:** some concrete thing which is to be delivered, to the client or internally to the development team.
- ✓ **Leveling:** the process of adjusting tasks to match resources available. There are two techniques for leveling: task delay and task split.
- ✓ **Critical path:** a sequence of dependent tasks that have the largest sum of most likely durations. The critical path determines the earliest possible completion date of the project.
- ✓ **Critical task:** a task found on the critical path. A critical task cannot be delayed without delaying the entire project schedule.
- ✓ **Work Breakdown Structure:** a hierarchical decomposition of the project into phases, activities, and tasks.
- ✓ **Project management plan (PMP):** a document that describes how the project is to be executed, monitored and controlled, which includes creating a project workbreakdown structure, identifying and planning to mitigate risk, identifying manners in which to effectively communicate with stakeholders and other project team members, and developing a plan to manage changes.

4.2. Project Life Cycle

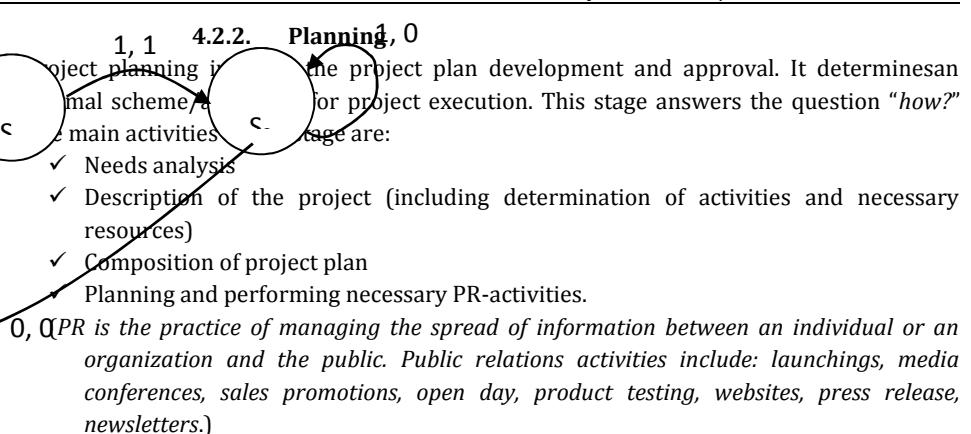
The activities related to a project can be structured and grouped into stages according to the aim of the activities. A typical project goes through the following stages called project life cycle: initiation, planning, execution, monitoring and control, and closing.

4.2.1. Initiation

Project initiation determines the main objective of the project and forms a clear understanding about the necessity and suitability of the project. This stage answers the questions "what?" and "why?" Common activities at this stage are:

- ✓ Identification and initial analysis of the business needs.
- ✓ Determination of the main objective(s).
- ✓ Resource analysis (people, equipment, financial; needs and availability).
- ✓ Composition of the project charter.

(*Project charter - document issued by the project initiator or sponsor that formally authorizes the existence of a project, and provides the project manager with the authority to apply organizational resources to project activities.*)



4.2.3. Execution

Project execution is the phase within which the deliverables are physically constructed and presented to the customer for acceptance. It integrates people and other resources to carry out the project management plan for the project. The activities undertaken to construct each deliverable will vary depending on the type of project being undertaken. Main activities are:

- ✓ Starting up the execution.
- ✓ Building the deliverables
- ✓ Day-to-day management and reporting

4.2.4. Monitoring and Control

Project control measures and monitors progress to identify variances from the project management plan so that corrective action can be taken when necessary to meet project objectives. Control occurs throughout the duration of the project and has a range relatively similar to that of execution. While the project is being executed, a series of management processes are undertaken to monitor and control the deliverables being output by the project. This includes:

- ✓ Requesting, evaluating and approving changes to the project scope, deliverables, timescales or resources (change management)
- ✓ Controlling the amount of time spent undertaking each activity within the project (time management)
- ✓ Identifying, approving and paying cost/expenses incurred on project (cost management)
- ✓ Reviewing deliverable quality (quality management)
- ✓ Identifying, quantifying and managing risks to the project (risk management)
- ✓ Identifying and handling issues currently affecting the ability of the project to produce the required deliverables (issue management)
- ✓ Measuring each deliverable produced against acceptance criteria (acceptance management)
- ✓ Handling sourcing of products from an external supplier (procurement management)
- ✓ Identifying, creating, and reviewing communication messages within the project (communication management)

- ✓ Performing a phase review at the end of execution to ensure the project has achieved its objectives as planned.

4.2.5. Closing

Once all the deliverables have been produced and the customer has accepted the final solution, the project is ready for closure.

Project closure involves:

- ✓ releasing the final deliverables to the customer
- ✓ handing over project documentation to the business
- ✓ terminating supplier contracts,
- ✓ releasing project resources
- ✓ communicating the closure of the project to all stakeholders

4.3. Project Analysis and Scheduling

Project scheduling is the process of converting a general or outline plan for a project into a time-based schedule based on the available resources and time constraints. Different techniques exist for analyzing and scheduling project activities.

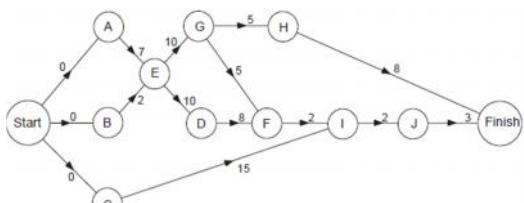
4.3.1. Critical Path Method(CPM)

CPM is an analysis technique used to predict project duration by analyzing which sequence of activities (which path) has the least amount of scheduling flexibility (the least amount of total float). Early dates are calculated by means of a forward pass using a specified start date while late dates are calculated by means of a backward pass starting from a specified completion date, usually the forward pass's calculated project early finish date.

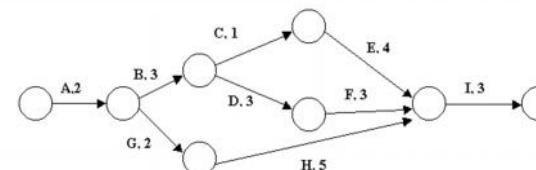
- ✓ **Forward pass:** The calculation of the early start and early finish dates for the uncompleted portions of all network activities, determined by working forward through the schedule network logic from the project's start date.
- ✓ **Backward pass:** The calculation of late finish and late start dates for the uncompleted portions of all schedule activities, determined by working backward through the schedule network logic from the project's end date.

CPM models the events and activities of a project as a network. Activities are depicted as nodes on the network and events that signify the beginning or ending of activities are depicted as arcs or lines between the nodes.

a)



b)



Network diagrams

In the above network diagram,

- ✓ Tasks are lettered from A to J. There are two ways of representing the activities on a network diagram: (a) activity on node and (b) activity on arc.
- ✓ Joining task A to E shows that task A must be completed before task E can be started.
- ✓ Joining tasks A and B to E shows that both task A and B must be completed before task E can be started.
- ✓ The number marked on each arc (arrow) shows the duration of the task from which the arc starts.

The critical path can be identified by determining the following four parameters for each activity:

- ✓ ES – earliest start time: the earliest time at which an activity can begin given that its predecessor activities must be completed first.
- ✓ EF – earliest finish time, equal to the earliest start time for the activity plus the time required to complete the activity.
- ✓ LF – latest finish time: the latest time at which an activity can be completed without delaying the project.
- ✓ LS – latest start time, equal to the latest finish time minus the time required to complete the activity.

Activities with the same earliest and latest start times (ES=LS) or with same earliest and latest finish times (EF=LF) define the critical path. This means that these activities have a float time of 0.

For the above network diagram, we have:

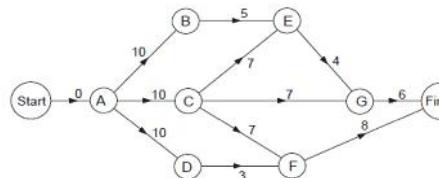
Activity	Duration	Start times		Float time
		Earliest	Latest	
A	7	0	0	0
B	2	0	5	5
C	15	0	12	12
E	10	7	7	0
D	8	17	17	0
F	2	25	25	0
G	5	17	19	2
H	8	22	24	2

I	2	27	27	0
J	3	29	29	0
Finish		32	32	

The critical path is A-E-D-F-I-J

The total estimated duration of the project = sum of duration of critical tasks = $7 + 10 + 8 + 2 + 2 + 3 = 32 \text{ d}$

Exercise 1: Given the task description table below:



Remark! CPM was developed for complex but fairly routine projects with minimal uncertainty in project completion times. For less routine projects there is more uncertainty in the completion times, and this uncertainty limits the usefulness of the deterministic CPM model. An alternative to

is the PERT (Program Evaluation and Review Technique) project planning model.

CPM	Activity	Duration	Precedence
A	3	-	
B	3	A	
C	4	-	
D	1	C	
E	3	B, D	
F	2	A, B, D	
G	2	C, F	
H	4	G	
I	1	C	
J	3	E, G	
K	5	F, H, I	

a = optimistic time estimate (best case)

b = pessimistic time estimate (worst case)

These three estimates are then used to calculate a weighted duration for each task by using the formula $T_E = (a + 4m + b)/6$

The weighted durations are then used as a more realistic estimate of task durations for constructing a PERT chart (network diagram).

Using PERT, the probability of completing the project by a certain date t, can now be found by finding

$$P(t \geq T) = \frac{t - T}{\sqrt{\sigma_1^2}} = \frac{t - T}{\sigma}$$

Where

T is the expected completion time of the project

And

$$\sigma_1^2 = \left(\frac{b - a}{6}\right)^2$$

is the variance of T = $\phi(\text{variances of activities on the critical path})$.

Example:

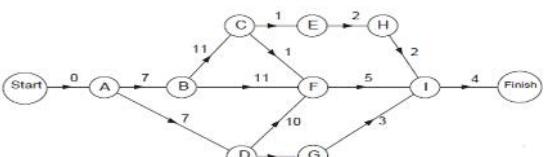
If a project's expected completion time is $T = 246 \text{ d}$ with its variance $\sigma_1^2 = 25$, then what is the probability that the project

- a) is actually completed within 246 days?
- b) is actually completed within 240 days?

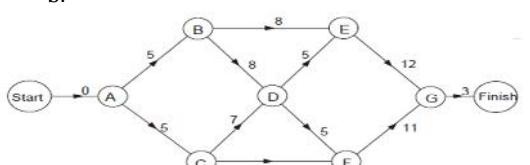
1. Draw the corresponding PERT diagram for this project
2. Determine the critical path
3. Calculate the total estimated duration of the project
4. State the float time for all non-critical activities

Exercise 2: Find the critical path for each of the activity networks below.

a.



b.



c.

c) is actually completed within 256 days

Solution

a) $t = 246, T = 246$ and $\sigma_T^2 = 25$

$$P(t \geq T) = \frac{246 - 246}{25} = 0$$

b) $t = 240, T = 246$ and $\sigma_T^2 = 25$

$$P(t < T) = \frac{240 - 246}{25} = \frac{-6}{25} = -0.24$$

$$\therefore P(t \leq T) = 1 - (P(t < 0.24)) = 1 - 0.24 = 0.76$$

c) $t = 256, T = 246$ and $\sigma_T^2 = 25$

$$P(t \geq T) = \frac{256 - 246}{25} = \frac{6}{25} = 0.24$$

Definition: A PERT chart/diagram is a graphic illustration of a project as a network diagram consisting of numbered nodes (either circles or rectangles) representing events, or milestones in the project linked by labeled vectors (directional lines) representing tasks in the project. The direction of the arrows on the lines indicates the sequence of tasks.

Comparison between CPM and PERT

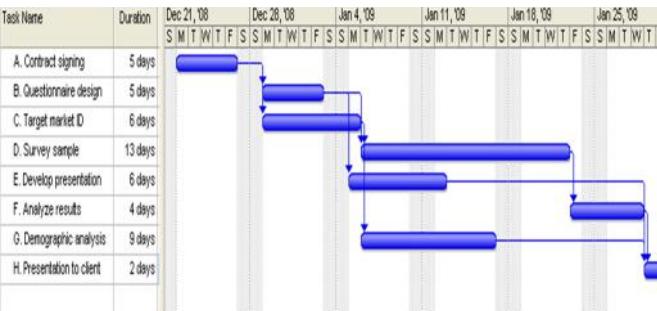
CPM task durations are known with certainty. CPM is therefore said to be deterministic while PERT is probabilistic.

	CPM	PERT
1	Uses network, calculate float or slack, identify critical path and activities, guides to monitor and controlling project	Same as CPM
2	Uses one value of activity time	Requires 3 estimates of activity time Calculates standard deviation and variance of time
3	Used where times can be estimated with confidence, familiar activities	Used where times cannot be estimated with confidence. Unfamiliar or new activities
4	Minimizing cost is more important	Meeting time target or estimating percent completion is more important

4.3.3. Gantt Chart

A Gantt chart is a horizontal bar graph that helps plan and monitor project development or resource allocation on a horizontal time scale. It depicts project tasks against a calendar. A Gantt chart is constructed with a horizontal axis representing the total time span of the project, broken down into increments (days, weeks, or months) and a vertical axis

representing the tasks that make up the project. Horizontal bars of varying lengths represent the sequences, timing, and time span for each task. The bar spans may overlap, as, for example, you may conduct research and choose software during the same time span. As the project progresses, secondary bars, arrowheads, or darkened bars may be added to indicate completed tasks, or the portions of tasks that have been completed. A vertical line is used to represent the report date.



A Gantt chart

The critical path is A-C-D-F-H = 5+6+4+2 = 17 days

Exercises!

Exercise 1: A project has been defined to contain the following list of activities along with their required times for completion.

Activity No.	Activity	Time (weeks)	Immediate Predecessors
1	Collect requirements	3	
2	Analyze processes	2	1
3	Analyze data	2	2
4	Design processes	6	2
5	Design data	3	3
6	Design screens	2	3,4
7	Design reports	4	4,5
8	Program	5	6,7
9	Test and Document	7	7
10	Install	2	8,9

- Draw a network diagram for this project.
- Calculate the earliest completion time of the project
- Show the critical path.
- What would happen if activity 6 were revised to take 6 weeks instead of 2 weeks?
- Construct a Gantt chart for this project

Exercise 2: At 4:30 pm one day CRTV news team hears of a Government Minister resigning. They wish to prepare an item on the event for that evening's 6 o'clock news. The table below lists the jobs needed to prepare this news item, the time each job takes and the constraints on when the job can commence.

Job	Time needed	Constraints
A - Interview the resigning minister	15 mins.	Starts at 4:30 pm
B - Film the ministry	20 mins.	None
C - Get reactions from regions	25 mins.	Cannot start until A and B are completed
D - Review possible replacements	40 mins	Cannot start until B is completed
E - Review the minister's career	25 mins	Cannot start until A is completed
F - Prepare film for archives	20 mins.	Cannot start until E and C are completed
G - Edit	20 mins.	Cannot start until A, B, C, D, E and F are completed

- a. Construct an activity network for this problem and by finding the critical path in your network, show that the news item can be ready before 6 pm that day.
- b. Construct the corresponding Gantt chart for this project

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