



# Subject: Fundamental of Computer Science

## Unit-4 INTRODUCTION TO SYSTEM SOFTWARES AND PROGRAMMING LANGUAGES





# 1. Classification of Computer Languages

## 1. Machine Language (First Generation Language)

Written in **binary (0s and 1s)**.

Directly understood by the computer (no translation needed).

Very difficult for humans to read/write.

**Example:** 10110000 01100001

## 2. Assembly Language (Second Generation Language)

Uses **mnemonics (short codes)** instead of binary.

Needs an **Assembler** to convert into machine code.

Easier than machine language but still hardware-specific.

**Example:**

MOV A, 5

ADD B, A



# 1. Classification of Computer Languages

## 3. High-Level Languages (Third Generation Languages)

Closer to human language (English-like).

Needs a **compiler or interpreter**.

Machine-independent (can run on different systems with little modification).

**Examples:** C, C++, Java, Python, FORTRAN, COBOL.

## 4. Very High-Level Languages (Fourth Generation Languages – 4GL)

More abstract, closer to natural language.

Focuses on **problem-solving rather than hardware details**.

Often used in **databases, report generation, scripting**.

**Examples:** SQL, MATLAB, Perl.

## 5. Fifth Generation Languages (5GL)

Based on **artificial intelligence (AI) and logic programming**.

Users state **what they want**, not how to do it.

Used in **AI, Expert Systems, Neural Networks**.

**Examples:** Prolog, Lisp.



## 2. Introduction of Operating System

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

It manages hardware, software, memory, and processes, making the computer usable.

Without an OS, a user cannot interact easily with the computer.





## 2. Introduction of Operating System

### Evolution of Operating System

Operating Systems evolved over time to meet increasing needs:

#### **Early Computers (No OS – 1940s)**

Programs were entered manually (using switches, punch cards).

No automation, very slow.

#### **Batch Processing Systems (1950s–1960s)**

Jobs were collected in batches and executed sequentially.

Example: IBM Mainframes.

#### **Multiprogramming & Time-Sharing (1960s–1970s)**

Multiple programs loaded into memory at once.

Time-sharing allowed multiple users to use the system simultaneously.

Examples: UNIX (1969).

#### **Personal Computer OS (1980s–1990s)**

OS became user-friendly with **Graphical User Interface (GUI)**.

Examples: MS-DOS, Windows 95, macOS.

#### **Modern OS (2000s–Present)**

Multitasking, multiprocessing, cloud-based, mobile OS.

Examples: Windows 11, Linux, Android, iOS.



## 2. Introduction of Operating System

### Functions of an Operating System

**Process Management** – Manages execution of programs (CPU scheduling, multitasking).

**Memory Management** – Allocates and deallocates memory to processes.

**File Management** – Handles storage, retrieval, and organization of files.

**Device Management** – Controls input/output devices (keyboard, printer, disk).

**Security & Access Control** – Protects data and system resources.

**User Interface** – Provides GUI (Graphical User Interface) or CLI (Command Line Interface).



## 2. Introduction of Operating System

### Types of Operating Systems

**Batch OS** – Executes jobs in batches (old systems).

**Time-sharing OS** – Multiple users share system at the same time.

**Distributed OS** – Manages group of computers as a single system.

**Real-time OS** – Used where quick response is needed (medical systems, robotics).

**Mobile OS** – Designed for smartphones (Android, iOS).



## 2. Introduction of Operating System

### 1. Batch Operating System

Jobs are collected in batches and executed one after another.

**No user interaction during execution.**

**Real-time Example:** Payroll system in old banks, billing in early electricity boards, IBM Mainframe systems.

### 2. Time-Sharing Operating System

Multiple users share the CPU at the same time.

Each user gets a small time slice (CPU scheduling).

**Real-time Example:** University mainframes, UNIX systems in labs.

### 3. Distributed Operating System

Controls multiple computers and makes them appear as a single system.

Resources are shared across connected machines.

**Real-time Example:** LOCUS, Amoeba OS, Google's Android-based cloud services.





## 2. Introduction of Operating System

### 4. Real-Time Operating System (RTOS)

Used where **instant response** is needed.

Divided into:

**Hard RTOS** → Missing a deadline = system failure. (e.g., Flight control systems)

**Soft RTOS** → Small delays acceptable. (e.g., multimedia streaming).

#### **Real-time Example:**

Hard RTOS → VxWorks in spacecraft, QNX in medical equipment.

Soft RTOS → Windows CE, Mobile Robots.

### 5. Mobile Operating System

Designed for smartphones and tablets.

Handles touch input, sensors, and wireless communication.

**Real-time Example:** Android, iOS, Windows Mobile.



## 2. Introduction of Operating System

### Examples of Operating Systems

**Desktop/Laptop OS:** Windows, Linux, macOS, Unix

**Mobile OS:** Android, iOS

**Server OS:** Windows Server, Red Hat Enterprise Linux

An **Operating System** is like a **manager** that coordinates all parts of a computer so that users and applications can work smoothly with hardware.



# UNIX commands

Helps in managing files, processes, permissions, and system operations directly from the command line.

Command	Purpose / Use	Example
<code>pwd</code>	Show present working directory	<code>pwd</code>
<code>ls</code>	List files & directories	<code>ls -l</code>
<code>cd</code>	Change directory	<code>cd Documents</code>
<code>mkdir</code>	Create new directory	<code>mkdir myfolder</code>
<code>rmdir</code>	Remove empty directory	<code>rmdir oldfolder</code>
<code>rm</code>	Remove file	<code>rm file.txt</code>
<code>touch</code>	Create empty file	<code>touch new.txt</code>
<code>cp</code>	Copy file	<code>cp file1.txt copy.txt</code>
<code>mv</code>	Move/rename file	<code>mv old.txt new.txt</code>





# UNIX commands

<code>cat</code>	Display file contents	<code>cat notes.txt</code>
<code>more</code> / <code>less</code>	View file page by page	<code>less bigfile.txt</code>
<code>nano</code> / <code>vi</code>	Open text editor	<code>nano file.txt</code>
<code>chmod</code>	Change permissions	<code>chmod 755 script.sh</code>
<code>grep</code>	Search text in file	<code>grep "main" file.c</code>
<code>find</code>	Search for files	<code>find /home -name "*.txt"</code>
<code>ps</code>	Show running processes	<code>ps</code>
<code>kill</code>	Kill a process	<code>kill 1234</code>
<code>tar</code>	Archive files	<code>tar -cvf files.tar file1 file2</code>
<code>gzip</code>	Compress file	<code>gzip file.txt</code>
<code>ping</code>	Check network connectivity	<code>ping google.com</code>



# UNIX commands

man

Show manual/help

man ls

whoami

Show current user

whoami

date

Show system date/time

date

cal

Show calendar

cal





# Features of a Good Programming Language

**Simplicity** – Easy to learn, read, and write (clear syntax).

**Readability** – Code should be understandable like plain English.

**Efficiency** – Should produce optimized programs (fast execution, low memory usage).

**Portability** – Programs should run on different hardware/OS with little or no modification.

**Reliability** – Must handle errors properly and give consistent results.

**Flexibility** – Should support multiple programming paradigms (procedural, OOP, functional).

**Extensibility** – Should allow new features/libraries to be added easily.

**Security** – Should provide features for safe coding (memory management, type checking).

**Support for Abstraction** – Should allow breaking problems into smaller modules/functions.

**Community & Tool Support** – Good documentation, libraries, IDEs, and large user community.



# Selection of a Good Programming Language

When choosing a language for a project, consider:

## **1.Application Domain –**

1. Scientific apps → Fortran, MATLAB
2. Business apps → COBOL, SQL
3. Web apps → JavaScript, Python, PHP
4. System software → C, C++

**2.Efficiency Requirements** – If speed and memory are critical → C/C++.

**3.Ease of Use** – For beginners or rapid development → Python.

**4.Portability** – Need to run on multiple platforms → Java, Python.

**5.Availability of Libraries/Frameworks** – For AI/ML → Python; for web → JavaScript/Java.

**6.Security Needs** – Languages with strict type-checking and safety (e.g., Java, Rust).

**7.Team Skills & Community Support** – Choose a language your team knows and has good global support.

**8.Maintainability** – Language should support modularity and readability for long-term projects.



# Development of Program

The **development of a program** (or program development) means creating computer software step by step to solve a problem. It is also called the **Program Development Life Cycle**

## Problem Definition

Understand what needs to be solved.

Example: You want to make a program to add two numbers.

## Analysis

Study the requirements in detail.

Example: Input → two numbers, Process → add them, Output → sum.

## Design

Create the solution plan using **algorithms, pseudocode, or flowcharts**.

Example: Start → Input numbers → Add → Print result → End.



# Development of Program

## **Coding (Implementation)**

Write the program in a programming language (like C, Python, Java).

## **Testing and Debugging**

Run the program, check results, and fix errors (bugs).

## **Documentation**

Write details about how the program works for future reference.

## **Maintenance**

Update and improve the program when requirements change or errors are found.



# Algorithm

An **algorithm** is a **step-by-step procedure** or **set of instructions** written in simple language to solve a specific problem.

## Key Points about an Algorithm

It is **finite** (must end after a certain number of steps).

It is **clear and unambiguous** (each step should be understandable).

It is **effective** (gives the correct solution).

It is **language independent** (written in plain English, not in programming language).



# Algorithm

## Algorithm for Addition of Two Numbers

Start

Input first number (A)

Input second number (B)

Add A and B → Store in SUM

Display SUM

Stop

## Find the Largest of Two Numbers

Start

Input two numbers A and B

If  $A > B$ , then Largest = A

Else Largest = B

Display Largest

Stop

# Algorithm

## Check Whether a Number is Even or Odd

Start

Input Number (N)

If  $N \bmod 2 = 0$ , then print "Even"

Else print "Odd"

Stop

## Calculate Area of a Rectangle

Start

Input Length (L) and Breadth (B)

Area =  $L \times B$

Display Area

Stop



# Flowchart

A **flowchart** is a **diagrammatic representation** of an algorithm. It uses **symbols and arrows** to show the step-by-step flow of a process or program.

## Key Features of a Flowchart

- Uses **shapes** (symbols) to represent different actions.
- Shows the **sequence of steps** using arrows.
- Makes it easier to **visualize** how a program will work.
- Simple to **understand** for both programmers and non-programmers.



# Flowchart

Symbol	Name	Meaning / Use
● Oval / Ellipse	Start / Stop	Shows the beginning or end of a process
▭ Parallelogram	Input / Output	Used for taking input (e.g., enter number) or showing output (e.g., print result)
▭ Rectangle	Process	Represents a calculation or action (e.g., $SUM = A + B$ )
◆ Diamond	Decision	Used for condition checking (Yes/No, True/False)
→ Arrow (Connector line)	Flow line	Shows the direction of steps

**Example: To calculate the area of a circle**

**Algorithm:**

*Step1: Start*

*Step2: Input radius of the circle say  $r$*

*Step3: Use the formula  $\pi r^2$  and store result in a variable AREA*

*Step4: Print AREA*

*Step5: Stop*





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# Program Testing and Debugging

## Testing

When we develop a program, after coding we must **test it** before using it.

**Purpose:** To check if the program gives **correct results** for all possible inputs.

**In Program Development:** Testing ensures the program meets the requirements defined in the problem analysis phase.

### Example:

If we write a program to add two numbers, we must test it with different inputs (positive numbers, negative numbers, zero) to confirm it always works.



# Program Testing and Debugging

## Debugging

During testing, if we find errors (bugs), we do **debugging**.

**Purpose:** To find, analyze, and correct errors in the program.

**In Program Development:** Debugging makes the program error-free and reliable before final delivery.

### Example:

If the addition program is giving wrong output because we used - instead of +, debugging means finding that mistake and correcting it.



# Program Documentation and Paradigms

**Documentation** = Record of program details.

**Paradigms** = Style/approach used to design and implement the program.



# Program Documentation and Paradigms

Program documentation is the process of **writing detailed information** about a program so that others (or the programmer later) can easily understand, use, and maintain it.

## Internal Documentation

Comments written inside the source code.

Example:

```
// This program adds two numbers  
int sum = a + b; // sum stores the result
```

## External Documentation

Written outside the code (manuals, guides, reports).

Includes:

Problem definition

Algorithm & Flowchart

User manuals

Installation guides

Maintenance notes





# Program Documentation and Paradigms

## Importance of Documentation:

Makes program **easy to understand**.

Helps in **maintenance and debugging**.

Useful when **different programmers** work on the same project.

Provides **guidelines for users**.



# Program Documentation and Paradigms

A **programming paradigm** is a style or way of programming (a method to structure and write code).

Paradigm	Focus	Example Languages
Procedural	Step-by-step procedures	C, Fortran
OOP	Objects (data + functions)	Java, C++
Functional	Functions, immutability	Haskell, Python
Logic	Rules and facts	Prolog

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