An Overview of Computers and Programming Languages

Chapter # 1

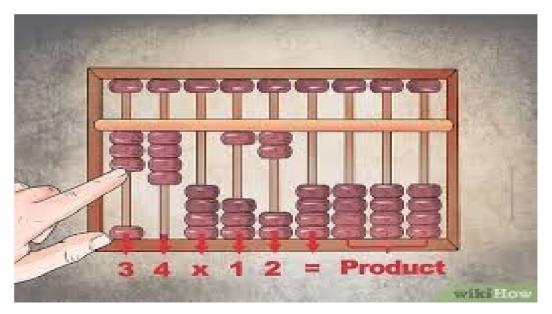
Instructor: Sadullah Karimi, Msc in CSE

Today Agenda

- Learn about different types of computers
- Explore the hardware and software components of a computer system
- Learn about the language of a computer
- Learn about the evolution of programming languages
- Examine high-level programming languages
- Discover what a compiler is and what it does
- Examine a C++ program
- Explore how a C11 program is processed
- Learn what an algorithm is and explore problem-solving techniques
- Become aware of structured-design and object-oriented design programming methodologies
- Become aware of ANSI/ISO Standard C11, C1111, C1114

The Abacus

- Origins: Invented in Asia, used in Babylon, China, and Europe.
- Function: Utilizes sliding beads on a rack.
- Operations: Performs addition and subtraction.



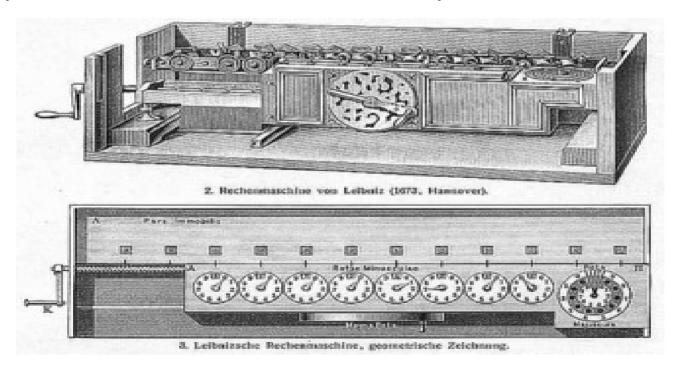
The Pascaline

- Inventor: Blaise Pascal (1642)
- Features: Eight movable dials on wheels.
- Function: Calculates sums up to eight figures long.
- Operations: Addition and subtraction.



Leibniz's Calculator

- Inventor: Gottfried von Leibniz (17th Century)
- Capabilities: Addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division.



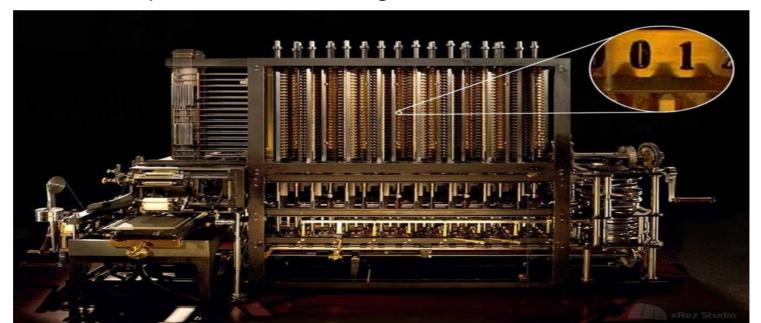
Punched Card Looms

- Inventor: Joseph Jacquard (1819)
- Function: Weaving instructions stored on punched cards.
- Impact: Concept of storing information on punched cards.



Charles Babbage's Designs

- Inventions: Difference Engine and Analytical Engine (Early-Mid 1800s)
- Difference Engine: Performs complex operations like squaring numbers.
- Completion: First complete Difference Engine finished in 2002.



Legacy of Babbage

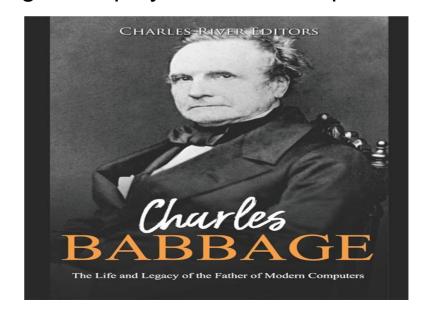
Collaborator: Ada Augusta, Countess of Lovelace

Contribution: Considered the first computer programmer.

Museum: Replica of the Difference Engine displayed at the Computer

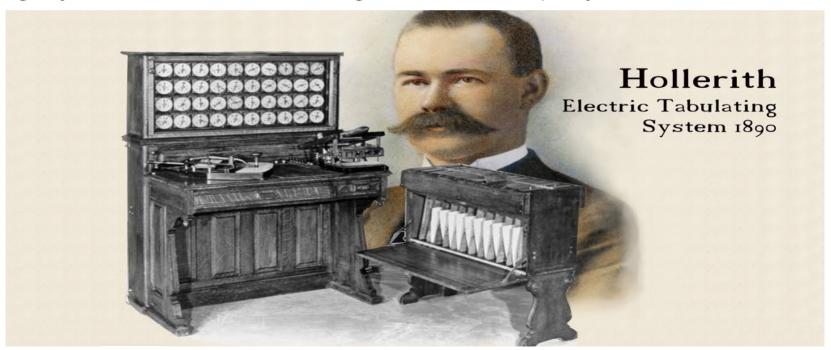
History Museum, California.





Herman Hollerith and Early Computers

- Invention: Calculating machine using punched cards.
- Impact: Helped accurately tabulate census data.
- Legacy: Founded the Tabulating Machine Company, now IBM.



The Mark I

Year: 1944

Developers: IBM and Harvard University (Howard Aiken)

Specifications: 52 feet long, 50 tons, 750,000 parts.

Data Input: Punched cards.



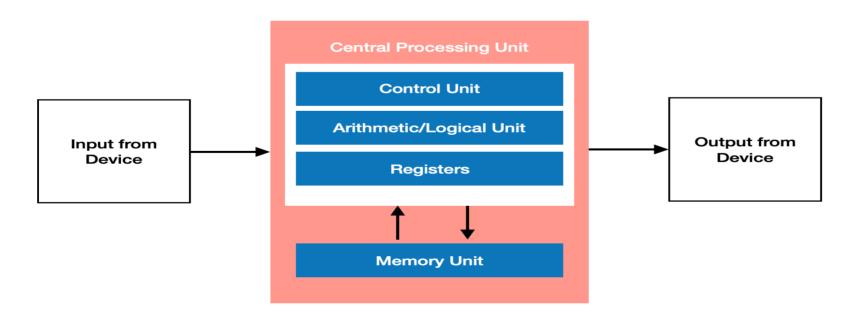
ENIAC

- Year: 1946
- Location: University of Pennsylvania
- Specifications: 18,000 vacuum tubes, 30 tons.
- Significance: Early electronic general-purpose computer.



John von Neumann's Architecture

- Design (Late 1940s): Arithmetic logic unit, control unit, memory, input/output devices.
- Key Innovation: Stored-program concept.
- First Computer Built: UNIVAC (1951), sold to U.S. Census Bureau.

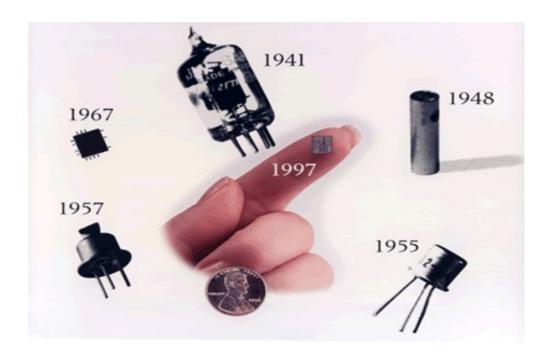


The Era of Transistors

• Year: 1956

Impact: Smaller, faster, more reliable, and energy-efficient computers.

Software Development: Introduction of FORTRAN and COBOL.



Integrated Circuits and Microprocessors

- Development: Transistors replaced by integrated circuits (chips).
- Advantage: Chips are smaller and more efficient; contain thousands of circuits.
- Year of Microprocessor Invention: 1970



Microprocessor Vs Integrated Circuit

The Personal Computer Revolution

- First Apple Computer: Designed by Stephen Wozniak and Steven Jobs (1977).
- IBM PC Introduction: 1981.
- Impact: Affordable personal computing, widespread adoption by mid-1990s.



Modern Computing Advances

- Technological Improvements: Faster, more affordable, and powerful computers.
- Features: Spoken-word instructions, artificial intelligence, expert systems.
- Applications: Mobile computing, GPS, social media, banking.



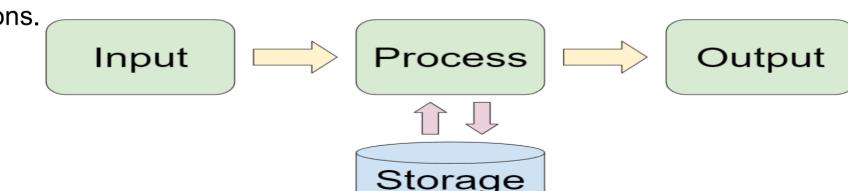
Categories of Computers

- Types: Mainframe, midsize, and microcomputers.
- Basic Elements: Shared across categories (e.g., processors, memory).



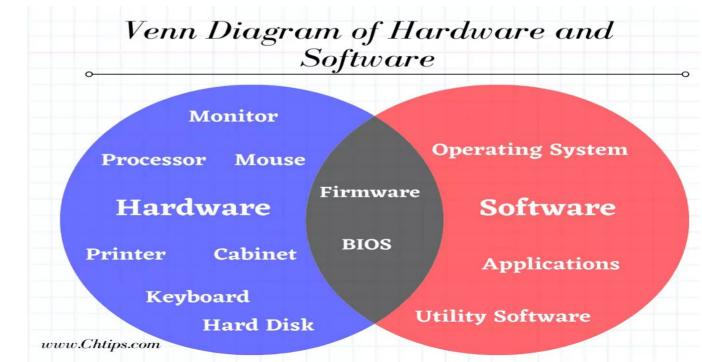
Elements of a Computer System

- Definition: An electronic device capable of performing commands.
- Basic Commands:
- Input: Receive data.
- Output: Display results.
- Storage: Save data.
- Arithmetic and Logical Operations: Perform calculations and logical decisions.



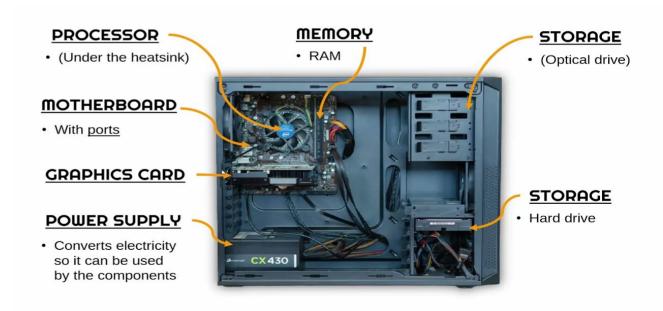
Components of a Computer System

- Main Components:
- Hardware: Physical parts of the computer.
- Software: Programs and applications.



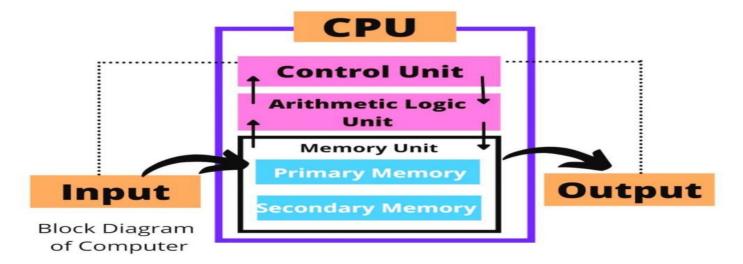
Overview of Hardware

- Definition: The physical parts of a computer system.
- Components Include:
- Central Processing Unit (CPU): The brain of the computer.
- Memory: RAM (Random Access Memory), cache.
- Storage Devices: Hard drives, SSDs.
- Input Devices: Keyboard, mouse.
- Output Devices: Monitor, printer.



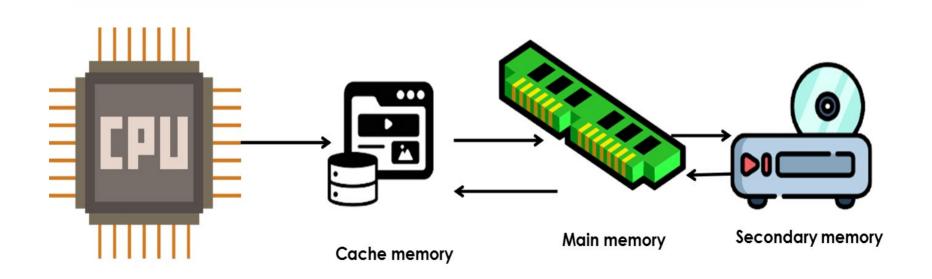
Central Processing Unit (CPU)

- Function: Executes instructions from software.
- Components:
- Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU): Performs arithmetic and logical operations.
- Control Unit (CU): Directs operations and processes instructions.



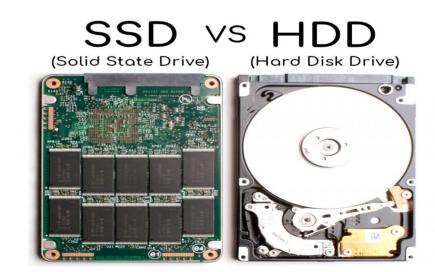
Memory

- Types of Memory:
- RAM (Random Access Memory): Temporary storage used for current tasks.
- Cache: Fast, small memory that speeds up access to frequently used data.



Storage Devices

- Types of Storage:
- Hard Disk Drives (HDD): Traditional spinning disks.
- Solid State Drives (SSD): Faster, newer technology with no moving parts.



Input Devices

- Examples:
- Keyboard: For typing data.
- Mouse: For pointing and selecting.
- Others: Scanner, microphone.



Output Devices

- Examples:
- Monitor: Displays visual output.
- Printer: Produces physical copies of digital documents.
- Speakers: For audio output.

OUTPUT DEVICES



What is Software?

- Definition: Programs written to perform specific tasks.
- Example: Word processors for writing letters, papers, books.
- Written In: Programming languages.



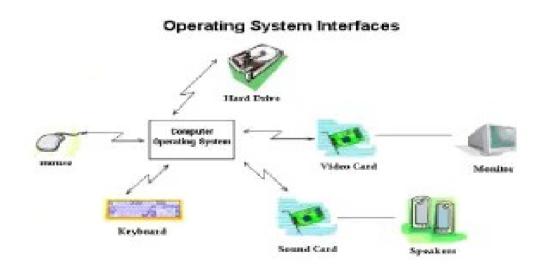
Types of Programs

- System Programs: Control and manage the computer.
- Application Programs: Perform specific tasks for users.



System Programs

- Definition: Programs that control and manage computer hardware and software.
- Key Component: Operating System (OS).
- Function:
- Memory management.
- Input/output activities.
- Storage management.



Operating System

- Definition: The system program that loads first when the computer starts.
- Importance: Without an OS, the computer is non-functional.
- Functions:
- Manages hardware resources.
- Provides user services.
- Organizes secondary storage.
- Examples: Windows 10, Mac OS X, Linux, Android.



Application Programs

- Definition: Programs designed to perform specific tasks for users.
- Examples:
- Word Processors: Write letters, papers.
- Spreadsheets: Perform calculations and manage data.
- Games: Entertainment.
- Role: Run on top of the operating system.























FollowMania



YouTube



Daum Equation Editor













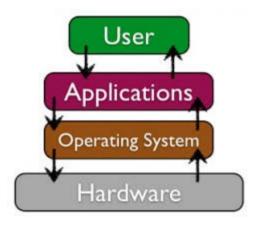
ho Wiki

Photo Book

PDF to Word Converter...

The Relationship Between OS and Applications

- Operating System: Manages hardware and provides a platform for applications.
- Applications: Utilize OS services to perform specific tasks.



Computer Language Basics

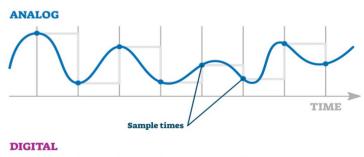
- What You See: Pressing 'A' on the keyboard displays 'A' on the screen.
- What Happens Inside: Stored as binary data in the computer's memory.

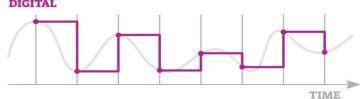


Electrical Signals

- Analog Signals:
- Continuously varying waveforms.
- Represent continuous data like sound.
- Example: Audio tapes.
- Digital Signals:
- Represent information as sequences of 0s and 1s.
- 0 = Low voltage, 1 = High voltage.
- More reliable and precise.

ANALOG VS DIGITAL SIGNAL





Why Digital Signals?

- Advantages of Digital Signals:
- Reliable transmission of information.
- Exact copies can be made (e.g., CD vs. audio tape).

1-Describe the major difference between analog and digital quantities?

Analog	Digital
Information is translated into electric pulses of varying amplitude. Analog signal is a continuous signal. Analog hardware is not flexible.	Translation of information is into binary format zero or one . Digital signal are discrete time signals. Digital hw is flexible in implementation.

Machine Language

- Definition: The language of a computer, consisting of sequences of 0s and 1s.
- Binary Digit (Bit): The basic unit of data (0 or 1).
- Binary Code: Sequence of bits used to represent data.

Bits and Bytes

- Bit: A binary digit (0 or 1).
- Byte: A sequence of 8 bits.
- Kilobyte (KB): 1,024 bytes (2^10 bytes).

Summary of Byte Units

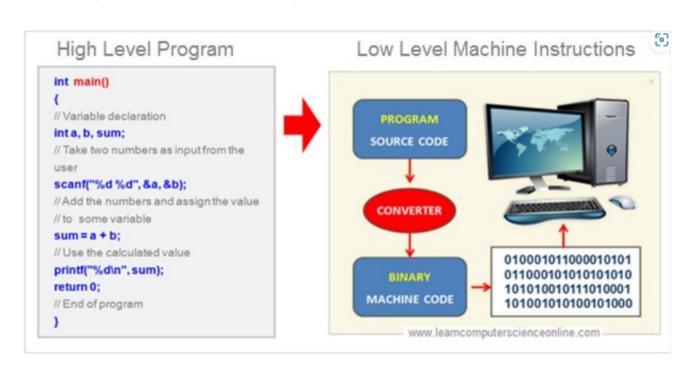
- Bits: 0 or 1.
- Bytes: 8 bits.
- Kilobyte (KB): 1,024 bytes.

D: 11 %

TABLE 1-1 Binary Units		
Unit	Symbol	Bits/Bytes
Byte		8 bits
Kilobyte	KB	2 ¹⁰ bytes = 1024 bytes
Megabyte	MB	$1024 \text{ KB} = 2^{10} \text{ KB} = 2^{20} \text{ bytes} = 1,048,576 \text{ bytes}$
Gigabyte	GB	$1024 \text{MB} = 2^{10} \text{MB} = 2^{30} \text{bytes} = 1,073,741,824 \text{bytes}$
Terabyte	ТВ	$1024 \text{GB} = 2^{10} \text{GB} = 2^{40} \text{bytes} = 1,099,511,627,776 \text{bytes}$
Petabyte	РВ	$1024 \text{ TB} = 2^{10} \text{ TB} = 2^{50} \text{ bytes} = 1,125,899,906,842,624 bytes}$
Exabyte	EB	$1024 \text{ PB} = 2^{10} \text{ PB} = 2^{60} \text{ bytes} = 1,152,921,504,606,846,976 \text{ bytes}$
Zettabyte	ZB	1024 $EB = 2^{10} EB = 2^{70} $ bytes = 1,180,591,620,717,411,303,424 bytes

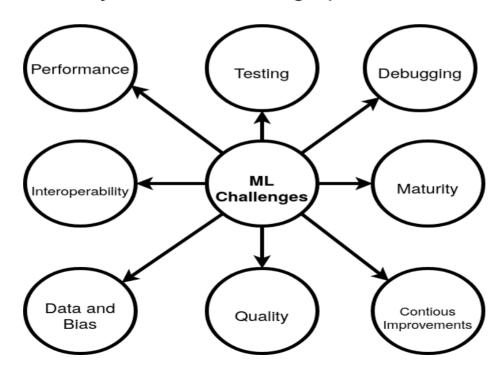
Machine Language

- Definition: The most basic language of a computer, consisting of binary code (0s and 1s).
- Characteristics: Each computer may have different binary codes for operations.
- Example Instruction:
- wages = rate · hours
- Binary codes:
- Load: 100100
- Multiply: 100110
- Store: 100010



Challenges of Machine Language

- Complexity: Programmers had to remember binary codes for operations.
- Error-Prone: Difficulty in remembering specific codes and memory locations.



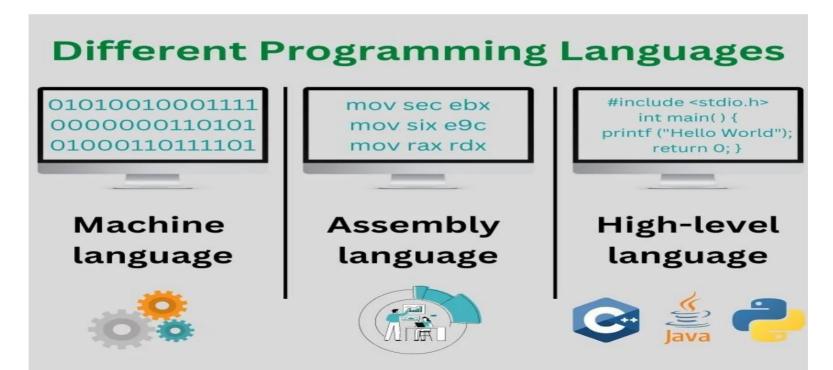
Assembly Language

- Definition: A step above machine language, using mnemonics instead of binary codes.
- Example Instructions:
- LOAD rate
- MULT hours
- STOR wages

drago@Ubuntu: ~ a ^@^@@^@^@^@^@@^@@^@^N^@^M^@**ó**^O^^úUH<89>**å**H<8d>=^@^@^@^@@<mark>è</mark>^@^@^@^@_^@_@@@@@<mark>^</mark>@^@@@<mark>fhello World</mark>^@^@**GCC:** Ubuntu 9.4.0-1ubuntu1~20.04.1) 9.4.0^@^@^@^@^@^@^D^@^@^P^@^@^@^&^@^@GNU^@^B^@^@À^D^@^@^@^C^ @.shstrtab^@.rela.text^@.data^@.bss^@.rodata^@.comment^@.note.GNU-stack^@.note.gnu.property^@.

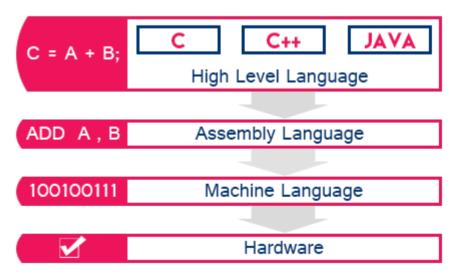
Advantages of Assembly Language

- Ease of Use: Easier to write and understand than machine language.
- Translation: Requires an assembler to convert to machine language.



High-Level Languages

- Definition: Languages closer to human languages, making programming more intuitive.
- Examples: Basic, FORTRAN, COBOL, C, C++, C#, Java, Python.
- High-Level Language Instruction:
- wages = rate * hours; (in C++)



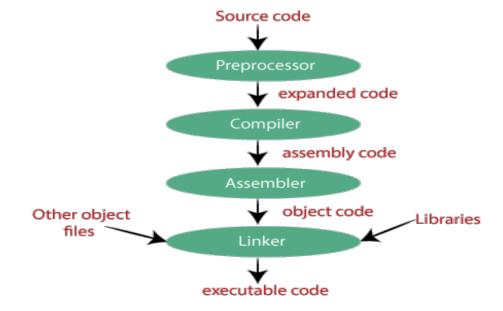
Benefits of High-Level Languages

- Readability: Easier to understand and write, closer to natural language.
- Translation: Requires a compiler to convert into machine language.

```
Edit
                              Compile Debug Project
                                                       Options
                                                                           Help
    File
                Search
                         Run
                                                                   Window
                                     PRAC.C ==
                                                                           1=[#]:
#include<stdio.h>
#include<comio.h>
void main()
        //Program to check if two numbers are Equal or Not
        int a,b;
        clrscr():
        printf("Enter 2 numbers: ");
        scanf ("xdxd", &a, &b);
                                          //Input two numbers
        if(a==b)
        printf("\nEqual");
        else
        printf("\nHot Equal");
        getch();
       19:61
                  F3 Open
                            Alt-F9 Compile
        F2 Save
                                            F9 Make
                                                      F10 Menu
F1 Help
```

Compilers

- Definition: Programs that translate high-level language instructions into machine code.
- Function: Converts easier-to-write code into executable machine language.



Example C11 Program

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int main() {
  cout << "My first C++ program." << endl;
  return 0;
```

Purpose: Displays "My first C++ program." on the screen.

Note: This code must be translated into machine language to be executed.

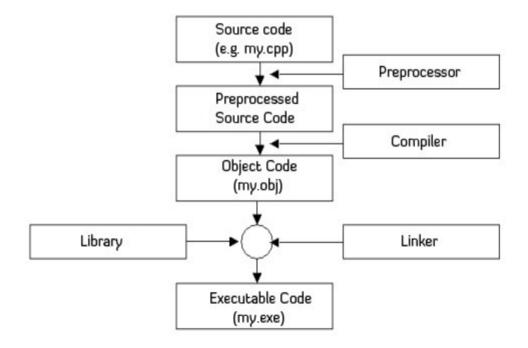
Writing the Source Code

- Task: Use a text editor to create the C11 program.
- File Extension: Save the file with a .cpp extension (e.g., FirstCPPProgram.cpp).
- Source Program: The high-level language code you write.

```
#include<stdio.h>
1
     #include<conio.h>
3
4
     int main ()
5
6
     printf("Hello World!");
     getch();
8
     return 0;
9
1 ()
```

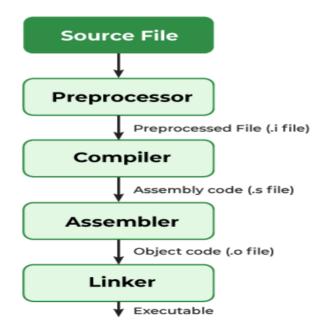
Compressor Directives

- Definition: Statements that begin with #, like #include <iostream>.
- Process: Handled by the preprocessor before actual compilation.



Compilation

- Task: The compiler checks the source code for syntax errors and translates it into machine language.
- Output: Object Program (machine language version of the source code).

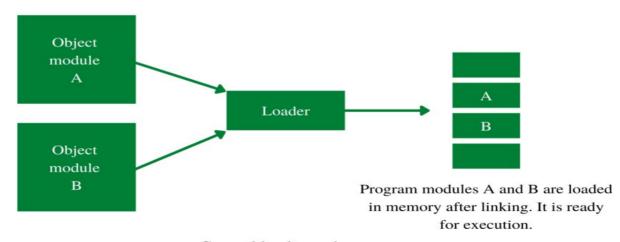


Linking

- Task: The linker combines the object program with prewritten code from libraries.
- Purpose: Creates an executable program by integrating code resources.
- Linker: A program that performs this task.

Loading

- Task: Load the executable program into main memory.
- Loader: A program responsible for this task.

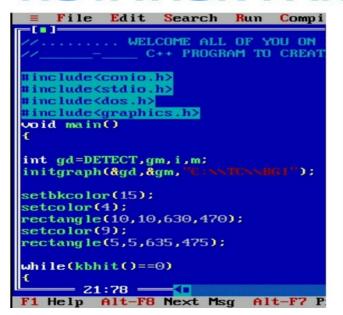


General loading scheme

Execution

- Task: Run the program to perform its intended function.
- Outcome: The program displays the result or performs the action as coded.

ROTATION FAN ANIMATION IN C++





Summary of Processing Steps

- Write Source Code
- Process Preprocessor Directives
- Compile to Object Program
- Link to Create Executable
- Load into Main Memory
- Execute Program

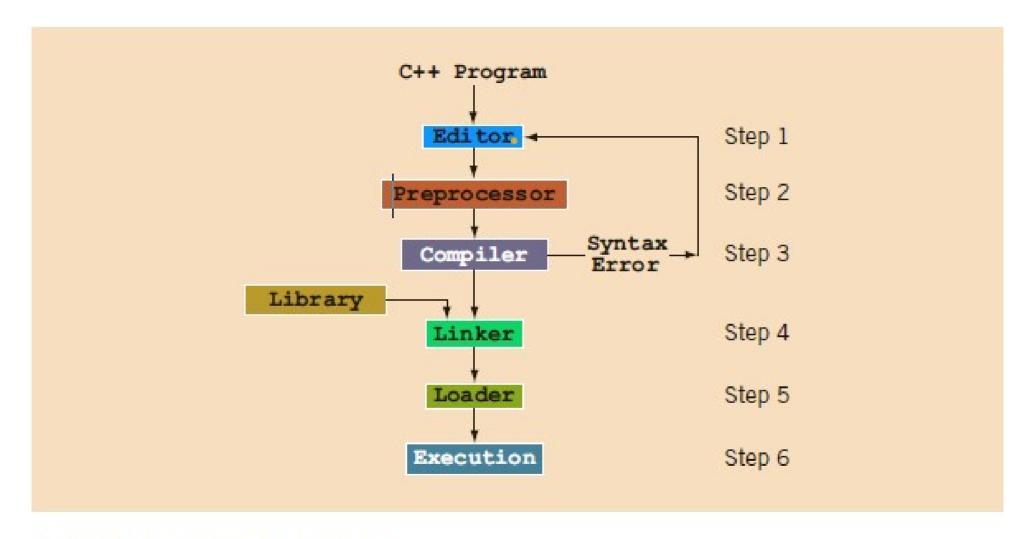


FIGURE 1-2 Processing a C++ program

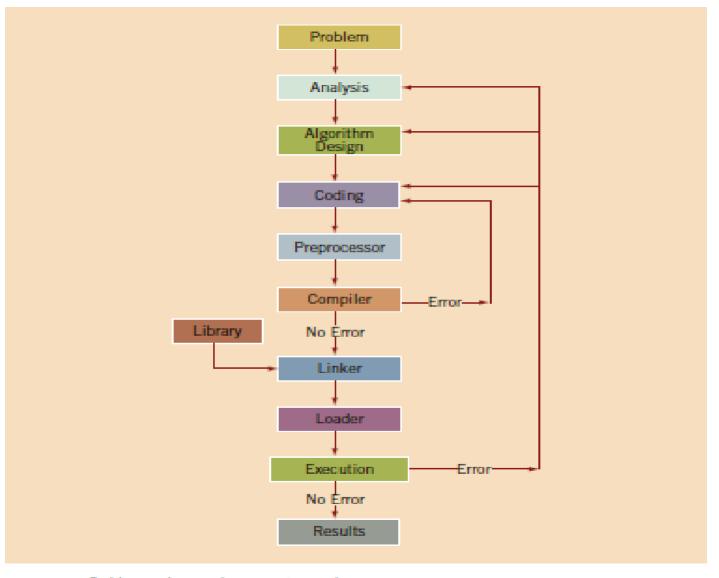


FIGURE 1-3 Problem analysis-coding-execution cycle

Any question are appreciating