

5 Fundamentals of Data Representation

5.1 Number Systems

- 4.5.1.1 • The set of **natural numbers** are all positive whole numbers including 0.
 $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$
- 4.5.1.2 • The set of **integers** are all positive and negative whole numbers, including 0.
 $\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$
- 4.5.1.3 • The set of **rational numbers** is the set of all numbers that can be expressed as the ratio of two integers.
 \mathbb{Q}
- 4.5.1.4 • The set of **irrational numbers** is the set of all numbers that cannot be expressed as the ratio of two integers.
- 4.5.1.5 • The set of **Real numbers** is the set made by combining the rationals with the irrationals. It's the set of all "possible real world possibilities"
 \mathbb{R}
- 4.5.1.6 • **Ordinals** are numbers used to identify the position relative to other numbers. For example, use of *First*, *Second*, *Third*, etc, is essentially use of ordinal numbers.
- 4.5.1.7 We are use to using natural and real numbers in every day life, as we use natural numbers to count objects, and real numbers for measurements.

5.2 Number bases

- 4.5.2.1 A number base indicates the number of digits available within a system, e.g. base 10 for decimal, base 2 for binary. The accepted method for representing different number bases is by using subscript numbers to represent their base. e.g:
- 67_{10} Decimal (base 10)
 - 10011011_2 Binary (base 2)
 - AE_{16} Hexadecimal (base 16)

Hexadecimal is useful because it allows us to represent large numbers with less digits, e.g: $1101001_2 = 211_{10} = D3_{16}$. Through some calculations, you can show that binary number of length n will be converted to a decimal number of length $\log_{10}(2)n$ which will be converted to a hexadecimal number of length $\frac{n}{4}$. This means that 8 bits (= 1 byte) can be written as two hex digits. This is also the reason why hexadecimal is used to show memory addresses and colour codes.

Decimal	Binary	Hexadecimal
1	1	1
2	10	2
3	11	3
4	100	4
5	101	5
6	110	6
7	111	7
8	1000	8
9	1001	9
10	1010	A
11	1011	B
12	1100	C
13	1101	D
14	1110	E
15	1111	F
16	10000	10

Here are a list of conversions which you need to be comfortable with:

- Binary \rightarrow Decimal

1. Write down the binary number with spaces between each bit.
2. Above the Least significant bit write the number 1.
3. As you move left from the LSB, double the value of the previous number.
4. Wherever there's a one on the bottom, add those decimal values together.

For Example:

$2^7 =$	$2^6 =$	$2^5 =$	$2^4 =$	$2^3 = 8$	$2^2 = 4$	$2^1 = 2$	$2^0 = 1$
128	64	32	16				
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1

$$11001111_2 = 128 + 64 + 8 + 4 + 2 + 1 = 207$$

- Decimal \rightarrow Binary

1. Divide by two and note down the remainder until you get the result 0 remainder 0.
2. reverse the order in which you noted down the remainders. For example:

207/2	=103	remainder	1
103/2	=51	remainder	1
51/2	=25	remainder	1
25/2	=12	remainder	1
12/2	=6	remainder	0
6/2	=3	remainder	0
3/2	=1	remainder	1
1/2	=0	remainder	1
0/2	=0	remainder	0

$$207_{10} = 11001111_{16}$$

- Hexadecimal \rightarrow Decimal

1. Write down the hexadecimal number with spaces between each hex digit.
2. Beneath each hex digit, write down the decimal equivalent.
3. Above the Least significant bit write the number 1.
4. As you move left from the LSB, multiply the value by 16 the value of the previous number.
5. multiply the value in the bottom row with the corresponding value in the top row, add these decimal values together.

For Example:

$16^2 =$	$16^1 =$	$16^0 =$
256	16	1
9	0	A
9	0	10

$$90A_{16} = 9 \times 256 + 0 \times 16 + 10 \times 1 = 2314_{10}$$

- Decimal \rightarrow Hexadecimal

1. Divide by 16 and note down the remainder until you get the result 0 remainder 0.
2. Convert the remainders to hex digits.

3. reverse the order in which you noted down the remainders. For example:

2314 /16	=144	remainder	10	A
144/16	=9	remainder	0	0
9/16	=0	remainder	9	9
0/16	=0	remainder	0	0

$$2314_{10} = 90A_{16}$$

• Binary \rightarrow Hexadecimal

1. Write out the binary number, splitting it into blocks of four from the right.
2. Convert each of the binary blocks into hexadecimal (which can be done via a conversion to decimal)
3. Stick all of the blocks together to make one hexadecimal number.

1100	1010	1110	0111
12	10	14	7
C	A	E	7

$$1100101011100111_2 = CAE7_{16}$$

• Hexadecimal \rightarrow Binary

1. Write out the hexadecimal number with spaces between each digit.
2. Convert each digit from hexadecimal to binary, which can be done via decimal, or just remembering how each binary number convert to hex digits. MAKE SURE ALL THE BLOCKS ARE FOUR DIGITS LONG.
3. Put all the blocks of binary numbers together to form the binary number

C	A	E	7
12	10	14	7
1100	1010	1110	0111

$$CAE7_{16} = 1100101011100111_2$$

5.3 Units of Information

4.5.3.1 A binary digit (bit) is the fundamental unit of information, and can take the value 0 or 1. due to the fact that one byte can only store 2 possible values (0 or 1), bytes are more often used which consist of 8 bits (meaning they can store 256 different values). We can calculate the number of different values which can be obtained from using n bits by calculating 2^n . From this we can see that

- If we use 3 bits, we can get $2^3 = 8$ different values.
- if we use 8 bits (1 byte), we can get $2^8 = 256$ different values.
- if we use 16 bits (2 bytes), we can get $2^{16} = 65,536$ different values.
- if we use 32 bits (4 bytes), we can get $2^{32} = 4,294,967,296$ different values.

4.5.3.2 A unit describes a grouping of bits, for example one byte is unit of 8 bits. You can use prefixes to dictate the size of a unit. The prefixes used fall into the categories of binary and decimal, because binary prefixes can be written as 2^n whereas decimal prefixes can be written as 10^n , these prefixes are approximately equal because $2^{10} \cong 10^3 \implies 1024 \cong 1000$. All the prefixes we need to know are:

Binary			Decimal		
Kibi	Ki	2^{10}	Kilo	K	10^3
Mebi	Ki	2^{20}	Mega	K	10^6
Gibi	Ki	2^{30}	Giga	K	10^9
Tebi	Ki	2^{40}	Tera	K	10^{12}

5.4 Binary Number System

- 4.5.4.1 Unsigned binary numbers are binary numbers that have no sign, they are all positive. On the other hand, signed binary numbers are numbers that do have a sign, they can be positive or negative. We know from above that is an unsigned binary number has n bits, it can represent 2^n values, meaning it could represent the values $1 \rightarrow 2^n$ however, if we want the first binary number it represents to be 0, then the range of values n bits can represent is $0 \rightarrow 2^n - 1$.
- 4.5.4.2 To form binary addition we can simply perform column addition. For example, to do $11000101_2 + 10100011_2$ we would do:

$$\begin{array}{r} 11000101 \\ + 10100011 \\ \hline 101101000 \\ \hline 1 \quad \quad 111 \end{array}$$

We can do the something similar for multiplication, in that we perform column multiplication. For example, to do $100101_2 \times 101_2$ we would do:

$$\begin{array}{r} 100101 \\ \times \quad 101 \\ \hline 100101 \\ + 10010100 \\ \hline 10111001 \\ \hline 1 \end{array}$$

- 4.5.4.3 As said above signed binary numbers can be used to represent both positive and negative numbers, one possible way of coding this is by using two's complement. Within two's complement if you decide to use n bits, then the range of values that can be used is $-2^{n-1} \rightarrow 2^{n-1} - 1$. To convert a binary two's complement to decimal, we do a similar method to convert an unsigned binary number to decimal, except we make the most significant bit negative, for example:

$$\begin{array}{cccccccc} 2^7 = & 2^6 = & 2^5 = & 2^4 = & 2^3 = 8 & 2^2 = 4 & 2^1 = 2 & 2^0 = 1 \\ -128 & 64 & 32 & 16 & & & & \\ \hline 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{array}$$

$$11001111_2 = -128 + 64 + 8 + 4 + 2 + 1 = -49_{10}$$

To convert a positive integer into a two's complement, you simply use the method to convert a decimal number to binary, making sure the MSB is zero. To convert a negative integer into a two's complement, you do the following:

- Make the number positive (e.g. $-58 \rightarrow 58$)
- Convert the positive number into a positive two's complement (as described above)
- Starting from the LSB, working to the left, write down all the digits including the first 1 you come across.
- After the first 1, reverse all of the bits ($1 \rightarrow 0$, $0 \rightarrow 1$)

For example:

$$-49_{10} \rightarrow 49_{10}$$

$$49_{10} = 0110001_2$$

$$-49_{10} = 1001111_2$$

To perform subtraction you simply convert one of the numbers into two's complement. For example:

$$102_{10} - 73_{10} = 01100110_2 - (01001001_2)$$

$$-01001001_2 = 10110111_2 \implies 01100110_2 - 01001001_2 = 01100110_2 + 10110111_2$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 01100110 \\ + 10110111 \\ \hline 100011101 \\ \hline 1 \quad 11 \quad 11 \end{array}$$

$$01100110_2 - (01001001_2) = 00011101_2 = 29_{10}$$

- 4.5.4.4 Numbers with a fractional part can be represented in many ways, one way to represent them is using fixed point binary numbers. This method means that the binary is in a fixed place and the programmer can determine how many are before and after the binary point. Conversion from binary (signed or unsigned) to decimal is similar to always, except you place the one before the decimal place, doubling as you go to the left, and halving as you move right. To convert from decimal to binary, you can break it into two parts:

1. The part before the binary point (the integer)
2. The part after the binary point (the fraction)

You can deal with part 1 by simply using the original method to convert from decimal to binary, to deal with part 2, you will have to try and separate the fraction to show it as the sum of fractions in the form $\frac{1}{2^n}$.

- 4.5.4.5 Rounding Errors
- 4.5.4.6 Absolute and Relative Errors
- 4.5.4.7 Range and Precision
- 4.5.4.8 Normalisation of Floating Point Form
- 4.5.4.9 Underflow and Overflow

5.5 Information Coding Systems

- 4.5.5.1 When using character codes (which are binary codes that represent different characters) We need to realise that the binary representation of 9_{10} does not equal 1001_2 but has a completely different value, due to the fact it is representing the character "9", not the value of 9.

- 4.5.5.2 Before standardised coding systems, different programs would use different character codes for each character, which made it harder to understand different programs as they may use completely different character codes to represent the same character.

For this reason, ASCII (American Standard Code for Information Interchange) was invented to create a standard for all the keys on a keyboard. ASCII uses 7 bits meaning it could show 128 different characters, extended ASCII uses 8 bits meaning it could show 256 different characters. ASCII has many limitation:

- It only allows a maximum of 256 characters, which isn't sufficient to store all possible and necessary characters, numbers and symbols.
- It was initially developed in English, so it doesn't represent other languages and scripts of the world.
- Worldwide use of the internet made a universal international coding system more important.
- The range of platforms and programs has drastically increased, meaning developers from around the world are using a wider range of characters.

Because of this, a new standard was created called Unicode. Unicode is a superset of ASCII (or you could say ASCII was subsumed by Unicode) meaning for the first 256 characters (8 bits), the two are the same. For example in ASCII the character code for "A" is 65 so in Unicode the character code for "A" is also 65. Unicode comes in two different forms UTF-8 which uses 8 bits, and therefore resembles extended ASCII, and UTF-16 which uses 16 bits, meaning it can store 65536 different characters, making it very useful for storing all characters worldwide.

- 4.5.5.3 There are several ways of checking whether a sequence of bits has an error. Three ways of doing this are:

- Parity Bit

This is a method of checking binary codes by counting the number of 0s and 1s in the code, parity always depends on the number of 1s in a number. There are 2 different types of parities

- Even Parity

This process makes sure there are an even number of 1s in the number. This means that if there are an odd number of 1s within the number, the parity bit will be 1, but if there are an even number of 1s, then the parity bit will be 0.

- Odd Parity

This process makes sure there are an odd number of 1s in the number. This means that if there are an odd number of 1s within the number, the parity bit will be 0, but if there are an even number of 1s, then the parity bit will be 1.

- Majority Voting

This is a method of checking binary codes via producing the same data several (3) times and taking the majority. So for example if you wanted to send the data 1001, we would send the data 111000000111, however due to possible interferences the actual data sent may be 101001000111. We can split the data into blocks of three and we get

- 101 → 1
- 001 → 0
- 000 → 0
- 111 → 1

meaning we get the final datum of 1001.

- Check Digits

This has many uses outside of binary, the central idea is that a digit is added to the end of the number, which is the result of some sort of simple arithmetic calculation, this calculation can then be done again at the other end to check whether the number transmitted is valid. A system using weights is often used as it usually means that both changing values and translation (the position of numbers changing)

5.6 Representing Images, Sound and Other Data

- 4.5.6.1 Different patterns of bits can be used to represent different forms of data for example, in an image each pixel may be given 3 bytes (1 byte for red, 1 byte for green, 1 byte for blue), whereas a sound may use 1 byte to represent an amplitude every set time period (e.g. every 0.01 seconds).
- 4.5.6.2 Analogue data are data that are infinitely variable and are often represented in the form of a wave, for example a sound wave, whereas digital data are often represented by discrete values (often 1 and 0). Analogue signals are signals that can vary in both frequency and amplitude whereas digital signals is described as using binary (0s and 1s), and therefore, cannot take on any fractional values.
- 4.5.6.3 There are two main conversion to do with audio:

- Analogue to Digital Converter

An ADC works by taking a series of readings are taken from the wave at fixed intervals in order to create discrete data values, which can be easily converted to binary. These readings can then be stored as binary codes. This is called sampling because you don't take the reading every time the amplitude changes, instead you use set points.

- Digital to Analogue Converter

A DAC is usually embedded in a device that plays the audio data and signal is passed in analogue form to the loudspeaker or headphones, which then play the audio out loud.

- 4.5.6.4 Bit-mapped graphics are images made up of individual pixels, with each pixel being represented by a set number of bits. A pixel is an individual picture element. Resolution is width (of image in pixels) \times height (of image in pixels). Colour depth is the number of bits allocated to represent the colour of a pixel in a bit-mapped graphic. We can also calculate the number of pixels per inch (PPI) by dividing the number of pixels in a given direction, by the length of the screen in that direction. For example a monitor that is 12×9 image with resolution 1366×768 . The PPI in the horizontal axis would be $\frac{1366}{12} \approx 114$ PPI and the PPI in the vertical axis would be $\frac{768}{9} \approx 85$ PPI.

We can calculate the amount of storage a picture needs by first finding out the number of pixels a picture is made up of (the resolution) and then multiplying this by the number of bits used to represent each pixel (colour depth), so we end up with the formulas: Storage = resolution \times Colour Depth

We also need to note that the picture may also contain meta data, meaning that the bit-map stores information about itself, such as width, height, colour depth, file type, and this will add

to the size of the file. The meta data will normally be found at the beginning of a file within the header.

4.5.6.5 Vector Graphics

4.5.6.6 Vector Graphics versus Bitmapped Graphics

4.5.6.7 The sample rate of a sound represents the number of samples that will be taken per second, the higher the sample rate, the more accurate the sound will be compared to the original analogue sound. The sampling resolution is the number of bits allocated to representing the (amplitude of the) sound. When deciding the optimum sampling rate, many programmers refer to Nyquist's Theorem, which states that to faithfully recreate the analogue signal, you should sample at least twice the highest frequency for example, the human ear can hear a maximum frequency of 20,000Hz, so a sampling rate of at least 40,000Hz should be used. This is because using double the frequency allows the sample to cover the complete range of peaks and troughs. To calculate the space a sound sample will take up, we do the following calculation: Sample rate (Hz) \times length of recording (seconds) \times sampling resolution (bits)

4.5.6.8 Musical Instrument Digital Interface (MIDI) is a way to convert Analogue signals from instruments to digital signals. MIDI uses event messages to control various properties of the sound. These messages provide communication between MIDI devices or between a MIDI device and a processor. For Example, an event message may contain data on:

- When to play a note
- When to stop playing a note
- Timing a note to play with other notes or sounds
- Timing a note to play with other MIDI-enabled devices
- What pitch a note is
- How loud to play it
- What effect to use when playing it

The advantage of using midi files over other digital audio formats are:

- MIDI files tend to be smaller
- MIDI files are completely editable as individual elements and sounds can be selected and edited
- MIDI supports a wide range of instruments, providing more choices for music production
- MIDI files can produce very high quality authentic reproduction of the instrument

4.5.6.9 Often we find that files can be extremely large, taking up megabytes or gigabytes of space. Compression is the process of reducing the number of bits required to represent data, this is useful for making files smaller, which in turn makes the files easier to transmit.

Lossless compression is compression where all the data is kept (no data is lost), the compressed is as accurate as the uncompressed file. Lossy compression is compression that causes some degradation in the quality of the file, for example, a grainier photo.

Two of the methods used for lossless compression are as follows:

- Run Length Encoding (RLE)

This method compresses data by eliminating repeated data, for example, NNNNNN
 \rightarrow 6N.

- Dictionary-Based Methods

This method is used to compress data files by using a dictionary to associate certain groupings of characters with a certain token, as shown below, so to create the string "creation" we would simply use 41.

Data	Token
tion	1
sta	2
na	3
crea	4

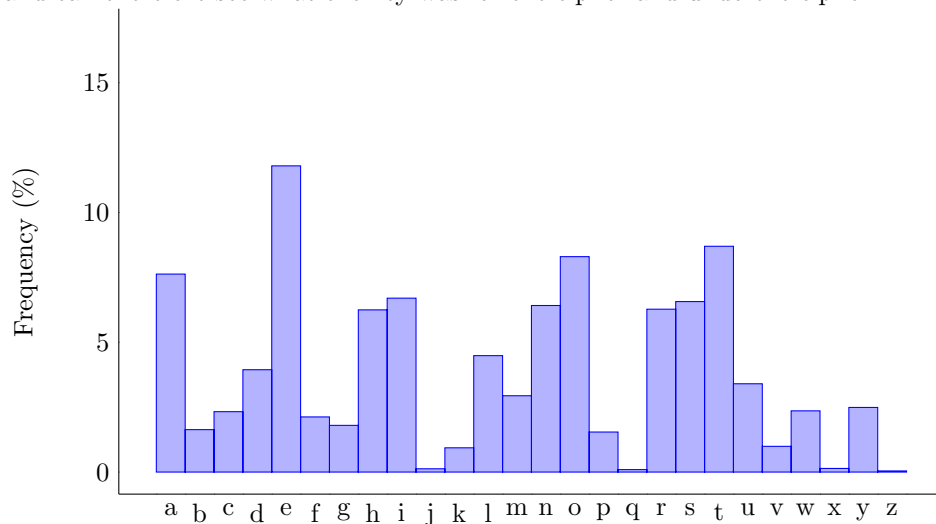
4.5.6.10 Encryption is the process of turning plaintext (A normal piece of text) into scrambled ciphertext, which can only be understood if decrypted. A key in encryption is a piece of data used that defines the way in which plaintext is converted into ciphertext and therefore implies how to convert ciphertext to plaintext. There are many ciphers that can be used when to encrypt data, Two examples are:

- Caesar Cipher

The caesar cipher is a substitution cipher where one character of plaintext is substituted for another, which becomes the cipher text. This works by shifting all of the letters in the cipher text backwards or forwards a certain amount along the Alphabet, the amount shifted is dictated by the key. For example, if you were to use a key of 2 $A \rightarrow C$, $B \rightarrow D$, $C \rightarrow E$, ...etc.

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
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

The caesar cipher is one of the easiest due to the fact that you can do simple frequency analysis of the cipher text as all you would see is a shift in the frequency of certain letters, and can therefore see what the key was for the cipher and undo the cipher.



- Vernam Cipher/ One-time Pad

The Vernam cipher is a method of encryption that uses a one-time pad (key) to create ciphertext. the one time pad is a randomly generated string with the same length as the cipher text. To encrypt a message, each character in the plaintext is combined with the character at the corresponding position in the key by converting them into a binary code and performing a bitwise xor on the binary representations to obtain new binary codes, which can in turn be mapped to new characters. So For example

Plaintext Message	H	E	L	L	O
Key	I	S	W	I	B
Ciphertext	L		E	H	E

The Vernham is said to be mathematically impossible to crack, this is due to the fact that a random key is used, meaning that all characters have an equal chance of appearing, so no form of analysis can be done to figure out what the key is, and thus is impossible to get the original message. This is different to other cyphers which may be computationally secure, meaning that they can theoretically be solved with enough time and cipher text, but not in any time that would be considered useful using current technology.

6 Fundamentals of Computer Systems

6.1 Hardware and Software

3.6.1.1 Hardware is a generic term for the physical parts of the computer, both internal and external. Software is a generic term for any program that can be run on a computer. Thus we get the relationship that software is run on hardware.

3.6.1.2 There are several different types of software:

- Application Software

This is software that perform specific tasks for the user. Some examples are word processors, spreadsheets, and web browsers.

3.6.1.3 • System Software

This is software that is needed for the computer to run, they support the application software. There are several forms of application software:

- Utility Programs

This is software that is written to carry out certain housekeeping tasks on hardware, they usually come with the OS and help to enhance your computer, however your computer can work without them, examples are compression software, anti-virus software, back-up software, registry cleaners.

- Library Programs

this is a large amount of different pieces of software that are in general important for applications to work, as they usually call data from within this software. An example is Windows Dynamically linked libraries, which are called upon whenever windows needs it, they contain code, data, and resources.

- Translators (Compilers, Assemblers, and Interpreters)

A translator is software that converts high level programming languages into machine code (1s and 0s) so that it can be carried out by the machine.

- Operating Systems (OS)

This is a suite of programs designed to control the operations of the computer, it acts as the interface between the user and computer.

3.6.1.4 The OS links together the hardware, applications and the user, but hides the true complexity of the computer from the user and other software by using a virtual machine. Some examples of the tasks that the OS performs are as follows:

- Configure the start configuration of your computer
- recognising inputs from I/O devices and deciding what to do
- Attempts to cope with errors as they occur
- controls the shutting down of the computer
- controls print queues
- manages users on a network
- Resource Management

This is the way in which an OS manages hardware and software to optimise the performance of the computer. If a computer features one processor, then only one process (and thus one application) can actually be alive at any time, so to simulate having multiple applications being run at the same time the computer has to schedule how different programs are able to use the processor. A common type of scheduling is Round-Robin scheduling, where each task has an equal amount of time using the processor. This can be inefficient as some processes may need little or none of the time allocated to them, so a more advanced scheduling system would allocate this time to another task before the time slice ran out.

- Managing I/O devices

The operating controls the way in which I/O devices are allocated, controlled and used by programs that are using them. Due to the fact that I/O devices work relatively slow when compared to the processor, a queue of commands for a certain device, which the device can carry out in order when it is ready. Every I/O device has a driver which allows the OS to interact with that device.

- Memory Management

This deals with how RAM is allocated to different files and applications. The OS stores data of all unallocated memory addresses in a section of memory called the heap, when a file is opened, it is assigned memory from the heap, and when it is closed, the memory locations are put back into the heap. It is the task of the memory management routines to manage the assignment of memory and to load the necessary files to their respective memory address. The OS uses a memory so that it knows what places in the memory are taken up so the OS can control more than one task in the ram at any one time. The amount of RAM a program depends its size and complexity.

- Virtual Memory and paging

When a file or application is too big to fit in RAM, part of the secondary memory may be allocated to store memory that is usually held in RAM and treats this part of the secondary memory as if it were RAM, this is called virtual memory. An alternative method is to store the central block of the code in the RAM and then call upon other sections of code (called pages) from secondary memory as they are needed, this allows large applications to run in a small part of the RAM.

- File Management

This concerns how the OS stores and retrieves files from secondary memory. The OS uses a hierarchical structure, which allows you to have files of the same name as long as they are in different folders. Larger hard disks have lent themselves to the idea of partitions, which means that one hard drive can act as two logical drives so, to your computer, it would seem like you have two hard drives.

6.2 Classification of Programming Languages

- 3.6.2.1 There are many different programming languages, some closely reflect the architecture of the computer (low-level languages) while others more reflect the way we naturally speak (high-level languages).

There are two main low level languages:

- Machine Code

This is the lowest level of code which is made up of 0s and 1s, this is the only format that the processor can process. Due to the fact that it is simply a sequence of 1s and 0s, it can make it very unwieldy to read and write, and also means there's a large chance of mistakes. One way to make it easier is to Hexadecimal or decimal numbers to show a sequence of bits. If the code does have an error, it can be very hard track down, also due to the fact that you are writing directly to one specific processor, it is unlikely to be portable, however this also means that it is likely to run quickly on that specific processor and do exactly what you said.

- Assembly Language

Assembly language is more programmer as it allows programs to use mnemonics which translate to one command in machine code, there is a one-to-one relationship. The number of mnemonics used in an assembly language is usually quite small. Assembly language can be quite difficult to read but has many benefits: programs are executed quickly due to the fact that a compiler cannot optimise code as well as a programmer, program code is relatively compact for the same reason, direct manipulation of registers leads to a high level of control. For these reasons it is used for projects where quick responses are needed or low level interactions, such as embedded systems, real time apps, and device drivers.

A High level programming language is a programming language that allows programs to be written using English keywords and that is platform independent. These are problem-oriented, meaning that they are created to overcome a certain problem, not made for a specific computer

architecture, so they are portable. Imperative languages (Also known as procedural languages) are languages that work by typing in lists of instructions (subroutines/procedures) that the computer has to follow. Every time the program is run, the same set of instructions are run. High level languages are related to low level languages because high level languages must be translated to low level languages (specifically machine code) in order to be understood by the computer. Some of the main features are:

- Easy to identify what a town does
- They need to be translated
- One high level command translates to many machine code commands, there is a one-to-many relationship
- They are portable
- They are easy to maintain via use of a wide range of program structures.

6.3 Types of Program Translator

3.6.3.1 There are three types of translators:

- Assembler

An assembler is a program that translates a program written in assembly language into machine code.

- Compiler

A compiler is a program that translates high level language into machine code by translating all of the code.

- Interpreter

An interpreter is a program that translates high level language by reading each statement in the source code and immediately performing the action.

Interpreter		Compiler	
Advantage	Disadvantage	Advantage	Disadvantage
You don't need to compile the whole program in order to run a section of the code	Sections of the code that are revisited in a program will need translating each time, meaning longer execution time	Once compiled, source code no longer needed	Whole program has to be translated when slight alterations are made, meaning debugging takes a long time
Program code can be run on processors with different instruction sets.	Source Code can only be translated thus executed on a computer with the same interpreter.	Difficult to reverse engineer source code from object code.	The object code will only run on a computer that has the same platform.
Mostly like to be used during development.	The source code must be distributed.		

Some programming languages use bytecode, which is an instruction set that can be executed using a virtual machine. This virtual machine can emulate the instruction set of the architecture of the computer, meaning that the source code written using bytecode can be executed on any platform.

6.4 Logic Gates

3.6.4.1 These are the logic gates that you need to know:

Logic Gate Name

Truth Table

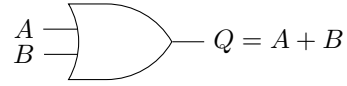
A	B	$A \bullet B$
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

Logic Gate Symbol



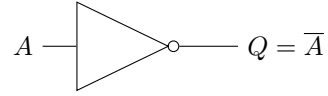
OR

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



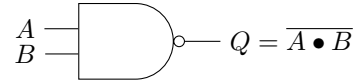
NOT

A	\overline{A}
0	1
1	0



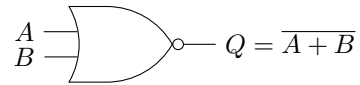
NAND

A	B	$\overline{A \bullet B}$
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0



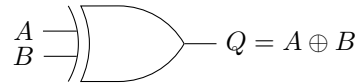
NOR

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

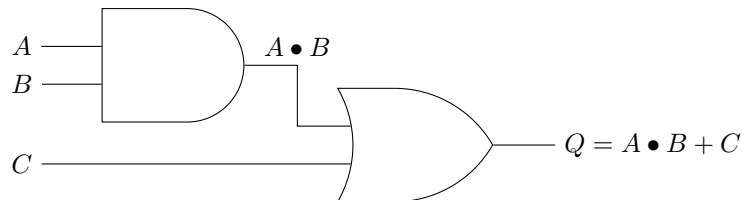


XOR

A	B	$A \oplus B$
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0



Logic Gates can be combined in order to create more complex boolean expressions, for example $Q = A \bullet B + C$ can be expressed using the following logic gate:



We can also construct logic tables from logic diagrams, we can show how this may be done using the logic diagram above as an example:

A	B	C	$A \bullet B$	$A \bullet B + C$
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	1
0	1	0	0	0
0	1	1	0	1
1	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	0	1
1	1	0	1	1
1	1	1	1	1

6.5 Boolean Algebra

3.6.5.1 There are several boolean identities that can be used to simplify a boolean expression, these are as follows:

Identity Name	AND Form	OR Form
---------------	----------	---------

Identity	$A \bullet 1 = A$	$A + 0 = A$
Null (or Dominance) Law	$A \bullet 0 = 0$	$A + 1 = 1$
Idempotence Law	$A \bullet A = A$	$A + A = A$
Inverse Law	$A \bullet \bar{A} = 0$	$A + \bar{A} = 1$
Commutative Law	$A \bullet B = B \bullet A$	$A + B = B + A$
Associative Law	$(A \bullet B) \bullet C = A \bullet (B \bullet C)$	$(A + B) + C = A + (B + C)$
Distributive Law	$A + B \bullet C = (A + B) \bullet (A + C)$	$A \bullet (B + C) = A \bullet B + A \bullet C$
Absorption Law	$A \bullet (A + B) = A$	$A + A \bullet B = A$
De Morgan's Law	$\overline{A \bullet B} = \bar{A} + \bar{B}$	$\overline{A + B} = \bar{A} \bullet \bar{B}$
Double Complement Law	$\overline{\bar{A}} = A$	

Here's an example of how you could simplify a boolean expression:

$$\begin{aligned}
(A \oplus B) \oplus B &= (A \bullet \bar{B} + \bar{A} \bullet B) \oplus B \\
&= (A \bullet \bar{B} + \bar{A} \bullet B) \bullet \bar{B} + \overline{(A \bullet \bar{B} + \bar{A} \bullet B)} \bullet B \\
&= A \bullet \bar{B} \bullet \bar{B} + \bar{A} \bullet B \bullet \bar{B} + \overline{(A \bullet \bar{B} + \bar{A} \bullet B)} \bullet B \\
&= A \bullet \bar{B} + \overline{(A \bullet \bar{B} + \bar{A} \bullet B)} \bullet B \\
&= A \bullet \bar{B} + \bar{A} \bullet \bar{B} \bullet \bar{A} \bullet B \bullet B \\
&= A \bullet \bar{B} + (\bar{A} + B) \bullet (A + \bar{B}) \bullet B \\
&= A \bullet \bar{B} + (\bar{A} \bullet A + \bar{A} \bullet \bar{B} + A \bullet B + B \bullet \bar{B}) \bullet B \\
&= A \bullet \bar{B} + (\bar{A} \bullet \bar{B} + A \bullet B + B) \bullet B \\
&= A \bullet \bar{B} + \bar{A} \bullet \bar{B} \bullet B + A \bullet B \bullet B \\
&= A \bullet \bar{B} + A \bullet B \\
&= A \bullet (\bar{B} + B) \\
\therefore (A \oplus B) \oplus B &= A
\end{aligned}$$

7 Fundamentals of Computer Organisation and Architecture

7.1 Internal Hardware Components of a computer

4.7.1.1 There are several component that lie within a computer, the main internal components are:

- Processor

A device that carries out computation on data by following instructions, in order to produce an output.

- Main Memory

This stores data and instructions that will be used by processor.

- Address Bus

A mono-directional (from processor to memory) bus that is used to specify a physical address in memory so that the data bus can access it.

- Data Bus

This is a bi-directional bus that transfers data between the processor and memory.

- Control Bus

This is a bi-directional bus that sends control signals to the registers, the data, and the address buses.

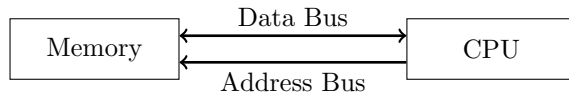
- I/O Controllers

These control the flow of information between the processor and the input and output devices.

There are two main architectures you need to know about:

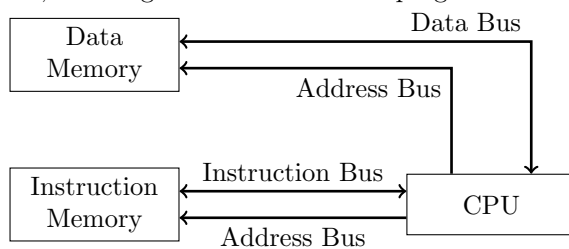
- Von Neumann Architecture

A technique for building a processor where data and instructions are stored in the same memory and accessed via buses. This is used for common computing devices, e.g. a computer.



- Harvard Architecture

A technique for building a processor that uses separate buses and memory for data and instructions. These are mainly used in embedded computer systems (e.g. mobile phones, burglar alarms, etc.) as data and instructions don't have to run down the same bus, meaning faster executions of programs.



Addressable memory is the concept that memory is made up of millions addressable cells with each cell being given a uniquely identifiable address, allowing programs and files to be stored across a number of these cells. The systematic way in which memory is organised allows different programs to be stored in different parts of the memory. A memory map could be made to show what type of programs are stored in what part of the memory.

7.2 The Stored Program Concept

- 4.7.2.1 This is the concept that instructions and data are stored together in memory, and the instructions are fetched and executed serially by a processor that performs arithmetic and logical operations.

7.3 Structure and Role of the Processor and its Components

- 4.7.3.1 There are many parts within the processor, the major components are:

- Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU)

This is the part of the processor that processes and manipulates data. It can do two different types of operations, arithmetic and logical.

- Control Unit

This is the part of the processor that manages the execution of instructions in the fetch-execute cycle.

- Clock

This is a device that generated a signal used to synchronise the components of a computer. clock speed is measured in megahertz (MHz) or gigahertz (GHz) and shows how many pulses are sent per second.

- General-Purpose registers

A small section of temporary storage that is part of the processor. Stores data or control instructions during fetch-decode-execute cycle.

- Dedicated Registers, including:

- Program Counter (PC)

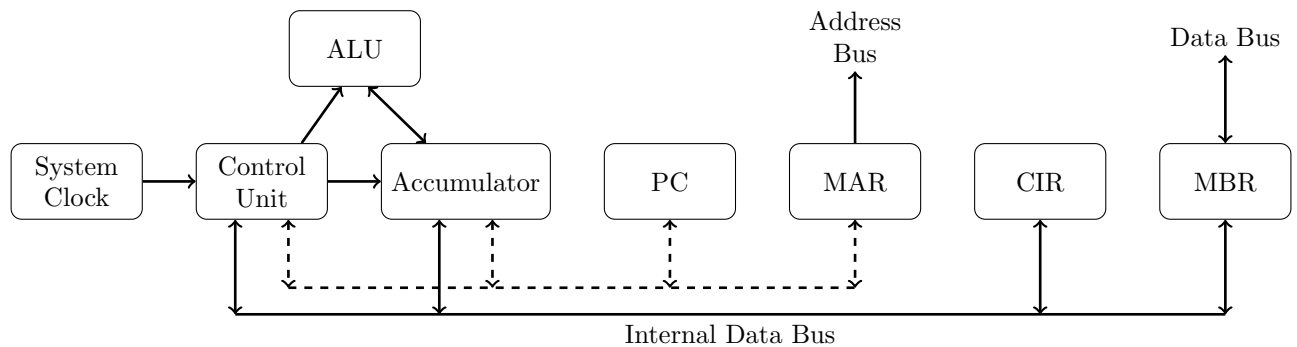
This is a register that stores the address of the next instruction to be taken from main memory into the processor.
- Current Instruction Register (CIR)

This is a register that stores the instructions that the CPU is currently decoding/ executing.
- Memory Address Register (MAR)

This register stores the location of the address that data is either written to or copied from by the processor.
- Memory Buffer Register (MBR)

This register holds data that is either written to or copied from the CPU.
- Status Register

This keeps track of the various functions of the computer such as if the result of the last calculation was positive or negative.



4.7.3.2 There are three steps for the Fetch-execute cycle

1. Fetch

The program counter holds the address for the next instruction. The processor sends this address along the address bus to the main memory. The contents of the memory location at that address are sent via the data bus to the current instruction register and the program counter is incremented. The details of the addresses are initially loaded into the memory address register and the data initially goes to the memory buffer register. Some instructions need to load a number of bytes or words, so they may need to be fetched as successive parts of a single instruction.

2. Decode

The processor then takes the instruction from the CIR and decides what to do with it. It does this by referring to the instruction set. These instruction sets are either classed as an RISC (Reduced Instruction Set) or CISC (Complex Instruction Set). An instruction set is a library of all the things the processor can be asked to do. Each instruction in the instruction set is accompanied by details of what the processor should do when it receives that particular instruction. This might be to send the contents of the memory buffer register to the arithmetic logic unit.

3. Execute

Once the instruction that has just been taken from the memory has been decoded, the processor now carries out the instruction. It then goes back to the top of the cycle and fetches the next instruction. A simple instruction will require only a single clock cycle, whereas a complex instruction may need three or four. The results of any calculations are written either to a register or a memory location.

4.7.3.3 An instruction set is a set of instructions that a processor can perform written in machine code, each processor has its own unique instruction set. A simple instruction can be split into three different parts:

- Opcode

an operation code or instructions used in assembly language.

- Operand

a value or memory address that forms part of an assembly language instructions. The number of operands a needed depends on the opcode being used.

- Addressing Mode

The way in which the operand is interpreted (a memory address or an actual value)

Here's an example of a possible instruction using a 32 bit scheme (the precise format is up to the designer of the processor, the following uses 16 bits for the op code, 4 bits for the addressing code, and 12 bits for the operand):

$\underbrace{1101010011101000}_{\text{Opcode}} \quad \underbrace{0001}_{\text{Addressing Mode}} \quad \underbrace{010011110011}_{\text{Operand}}$

4.7.3.4 There are two main types of addressing modes:

- Direct addressing

This means that the operand refers to the address of the datum, meaning that the data is held in RAM or in a register, and the operand says where to find the data.

- Immediate addressing

This means the operand is the datum, so for example #10 would mean immediate address and that the value to use is the number 10.

4.7.3.5 There are a large array of opcodes, here are the ones you will need to know:

- Load

This loads the value stored in the memory location specified by <memory ref> into register d: `LDR Rd, <memory ref>`

- Add

Add the value specified in <operand2> to the value in register n and store the result in register d: `ADD Rd, Rn, <Operand2>`

- Subtract

Subtract the value specified in <operand2> to the value in register n and store the result in register d: `SUB Rd, Rn, <Operand2>`

- Store

Store the value that is in register d into the memory location specified by <memory ref>: `STR Rd, <memory ref>`

- Branching

- Conditional

Conditionally branch to the instruction at position <label> in the program if the last comparison met the criteria specified by the <condition>. Possible values for <condition> and their meanings are: EQ-Equal to, NE-Not equal to, GT-Greater than, LT-Later than: `B<condition> <label>`

- Unconditional

Always branch to the instruction at position <label> in the program: `B <label>`

- Compare

Compare the value stored in register n with the value specified by <operand2>: `CMP Rn, <operand2>`

- Logical Bitwise Operators

- AND

Perform a bitwise logical AND operation between the value in register n and the value specified by <operand2> and store the result in register d: `AND Rd, Rn, <operand2>`

- OR

Perform a bitwise logical OR operation between the value in register n and the value specified by <operand2> and store the result in register d: `ORR Rd, Rn, <operand2>`

- NOT

Perform a bitwise logical NOT on the value specified by <operand2> and store the result in register d: `MVN Rd, <operand2>`

- XOR

Perform a bitwise logical XOR operation between the value in register **n** and the value specified by **<operand2>** and store the result in register **d**: **EOR Rd, Rn, <operand2>**

- Logical

- Shift Left

Logically shift left the value stored in register **n** by the number of bits specified by **<operand2>** and store the result in register **d**: **LSL Rd, Rn, <operand2>**

- Shift Right

Logically shift right the value stored in register **n** by the number of bits specified by **<operand2>** and store the result in register **d**: **LSR Rd, Rn, <operand2>**

- Halt

Stops the execution of the program.

4.7.3.6 Interrupts

4.7.3.7 There are several factors that can impact the performance of a processor:

- Multiple Cores

Multiple cores means that multiple instructions can be carried out at once, so more processors can lead to an increase in processor performance.

- Cache Memory

This involves a technique where instructions and data that are frequently used are stored in cache memory (a high-speed temporary area of memory), so programs run faster.

- Clock Speed

This indicates how many pulses the clock sends out per second and thus indicates the maximum number of instructions that can be performed per second, so increasing clock speed may increase processor performance.

- Word Length

This indicates the number of bits that can be addressed, transferred or manipulated as one unit. Increasing the word length means that more data can be processed at each pulse of the unit clock.

- Address Bus Width

This indicates the number of bits that can be sent down the address bus in one go (during one clock pulse), increasing the address bus width means more memory can be addressed, so more memory can be installed on the computer.

- Data Bus Width

This indicates the number of bits that can be sent down the data bus in one go (during one clock pulse), increasing the data bus width means more data can be sent down the bus during each clock pulse, so more data can be processed within a given time.

7.4 External Hardware Devices

4.7.4.1 We need to know the purpose and principles of operation for 4 I/O devices:

- Barcode Reader

Barcodes are used primarily for inputting product details at the point of sale. This can be done by passing the object over a scanner or by using a handheld scanner to scan the barcode. They work in the following way:

1. A light (an LED or laser) is passed over an image
2. Some form of light sensor is used to measure the intensity of light that is reflected which is converted into a current, effectively generating a waveform by using a photodiode or charge coupled device (CCD).
3. white areas reflect the most light whereas black reflects the least, so the waveform can be used to identify the pattern of black and white bars.

4. The analogue waveform needs to be converted into digital form using an ADC, encoding the white and black into binary (for example, black=0, white=1).
5. The signal is decoded into a form that can be interpreted by software.

- Digital Camera

Digital Camera's are useful for creating digital images of photographs, which can then be printed or transferred onto a computer to be manipulated and stored. The quality of a camera is dictated by how many pixels it uses to record the image, e.g. a 12 megapixel camera stores data on 12,000,000 pixels. They work in the following way:

1. When a photograph is taken the shutter opens and lets light in through the lens.
2. The light is focused onto a sensor (charge coupled device (CCD) or a complementary metal oxide semiconductor (CMOS)).
3. The sensors are made up of millions of transistors, each of which stores the data for one or more pixels.
4. As the light hits the sensors, it is converted into electrons and the amount of charge is recorded for each pixel in digital form.
5. With light, all colours can be created from red, green and blue (RGB). Therefore to record colour, the camera will either have three different sensors, or use three different sensors, one for each colour.
6. The data are typically stored on removable storage devices, usually referred to as flash memory, which uses programmable ROM and are usually stored in compressed files, e.g. TIFF, JPEG or PNG. (Raw files can also be generated, which are uncompressed and therefore contain all of the data from the original photograph)
7. This digital data can now be decoded and manipulated using specialised software.

- Laser Printer

This is a device that uses lasers and toner to create mono and colour prints, its major advantage over standard home printers is that it is much faster, and is built to print many different documents. It works in the following way:

1. A rotating drum inside the printer is coated in a chemical which holds an electrical charge.
2. The laser beam is reflected by a mirror onto the drum and where the light hits the drum the charge is discharged, effectively creating the image on the drum.
3. As the drum rotates it picks up toner which is attracted to the charged part of the drum.

If printing in colour, then four colours will need to be used: cyan, yellow, magenta, and key (black) (CMYK), so either the paper has to go around the drum 4 times, or a transfer belt may be used to hold all of the colours.

4. Paper is passed over the drum and by charging the paper with the opposite charge to the toner, the toner is attracted to the paper and away from the drum. The paper is then heat treated to fuse the toner onto the paper.

- Radio Frequency Identification (RFID)

This is a microscopic device that stores data and transmits it using radio waves - usually used in tags to track items. It works in the following way:

- The tag contains a chip, which contains data about the item and a modem to modulate and demodulate the radio signals, it also contains an antennae to send and receive signals.
- Tags can be either active, meaning they have their own power supply or passive, meaning that they will pick up electromagnetic power when they are in range of a RFID reader.
- Signals, and therefore data, can be transmitted in both directions using radio frequencies. This may be over a short or long distance depending on how the tag is built. The typical range is between 1 and 100m.
- Tags may be used to simply track the physical location of an item or the data may transmit data back.

RFID is a relatively new tech and it is being put to various uses, some of which are controversial. Applications include:

- Tracking individuals, particularly vulnerable adults such as Alzheimer’s patients.
- Use in electronic passports to keep track of where people travel.
- Tags have been added to credit and debit cards allow users to make contactless payment via RFID in a shop.
- Transport and distribution companies can use RFID to track shipments and deliveries
- Tags have been added to high value items, for example artworks in museums or equipment in hospitals.

4.7.4.2 Secondary storage devices are used within computers to allow data to be permanently stored within it. There are three main secondary storage devices:

- Hard Disk (HDD)

Hard disks are constructed of hard metallic material and are hermetically sealed (air-tight). This is to protect them from being corrupted by dust or other debris. Most hard disks are in fact made up of a number of disks arranged in a stack. The disks are coated with a thin film of magnetic material. Changes in direction of magnetism represents zeros and ones.

- hard disks spin at speeds between 3600 and 12500 RPM, as a series of heads read from and write to the disks.
- The heads do not actually touch the surface of the disk but float slightly above it by virtue of the speed at which the disk spins.
- There is an actuator arm which moves the head across the surface of the disk as it spins.
- The combination of the rotating of the disks with lateral movement of the arm means that the head can access every part of the disk surface.
- The surface of the disk is organised into concentric tracks and each track is split into sectors each of which can be addressed by the OS.
- Because all of the actuator arms move at the same time due to the assembly head, the cylinder is often referenced, which simply just says what track the data is on for all of the disks.
- Each sector has the same capacity and a large file will be stored over a number of sectors.
- The OS groups sectors together into clusters to make storage easier to manage, there will be many occasions when a whole cluster is not needed, leading to redundant space.

For example, a file may need four sectors and part of the fifth, so it will be allocated all 5 sectors, meaning there’s empty (redundant) space that can’t be used.

- Optical Disk

Optical disk is a generic term for all variations of CD, DVD and Blu-Ray that use laser technology to read and write data. An optical disk is made up of one single spiral track that starts in the middle and work it’s way to the edge of the CD. The laser will read data that are contained within this track by reading the pits (lower parts) and lands (higher parts) in combination with a sensor that measures how much light is reflected.

- For read-only optical disks, when data is written it is encoded as a series of pits and lands within the track of the disk.
- A protective layer is then put over the surface to prevent any data corruption, the pattern of pits and lands are used to represent data.
- When the CD is read, the pits and lands are read by the laser which then interprets each as different electrical signals, then the electrical signals can be converted into binary codes.

- For writeable optical disks, rather than using pits and lands, the disk is coated photosensitive dye, which is translucent, when writing to the disk, the laser will alter the state of a dye spot that is coated onto the surface making it opaque.
 - The dye reflects a certain amount of light.
 - A write laser alters the density of the dye and a read laser interprets the different densities to create binary patterns which in turn can represent data, write lasers are higher powered than read lasers.
- Solid-State Disk (SSD)

Solid-state disks use programmable ROM chips, similar to memory cards, hence they are more often referred to as Solid-state drive instead of solid-state disk.

 - These are stored inside a unit that looks like a hard disk and commonly uses a type of memory called NAND memory.
 - This organises data into blocks in a similar way to traditional hard disk as described earlier, with a controller being used to manage the blocks of data.
 - Blocks of a set physical size will be made up of binary data.
 - When reading and writing, data can only be accessed in blocks.
 - With SSD, blocks will be allocated to particular semiconductors, meaning data can be added and deleted to different blocks to different areas of the drive, sso that only small parts of the drive have to be erased and written to, enabling very fast access times.
 - It uses a floating gate transistor to be able to trap and store charge, it contains two gates: floating gate and control gate, a thin layer of oxide is placed between the two gates, trapping the charge inside the floating gate even when power is turned off.

Here is a table comparing the different devices:

	Hard Disk (HDD)	Solid State Disk (SDD)	Optical Disk (CD/DVD)	Optical Disk (Blu-ray)
Typical Capacity	High (1 TB)	Medium (500 GB)	Low (900 MB to 1.7 GB)	Low to Medium (25-50 GB)
Relative Cost	Medium	High	Low	Low
Easily portable	External disks are available	External disks are available	Yes	Yes
Relative Power Consumption	High	Low	High	High
Relative Speed of access	Medium	High	Low	Low
Latency	High	Low	Very High	High
Fragmentation		None		
Reliability	Good	Very Good	Fair	Fair
Relative Physical size	Large	Small	Large	Large

8 Consequences of Uses of Computing

8.1 Individual (Moral), Social (Ethical), Legal and Cultural Issues and Opportunities

3.8.1 Here, we define a moral issue as an issue that concerns our personal concepts about what is right and what is wrong, whereas ethical issues are about what society finds right and wrong. Development in technology has led to many people worrying about use and misuse of data:

- Personal privacy
- Data security
- Misuse of Data

- Governmental Monitoring
- Online Profile
- Profiling

There are also many other issues associated with computer science:

- Unauthorised access
- Unauthorised use of software
- Inappropriate behaviour
- Inappropriate Content
- Freedom of Speech
- Unemployment
- Access to the internet

When using a computer as part of an institution, you will normally have to agree to a code of conduct. The British Computer Society (BSC) has produced a code of conduct that guide organisations on the ethical use of computer systems in general. Any breaches in the code can't be punished legally but could lead to dismissal of an employee or asking a student to leave their school. The general principle are:

- Always operate in the interest of the public
- Have a duty to the institution you represent
- Have a duty to the profession
- Maintain professional competence and integrity

For this course you may be ask questions on how laws manage the use of computers, the specification is super vague so they can basically ask you about anything, so here's a bunch of laws you may need to know:

- Data Protection Act

This law states that (with a few exceptions) any person or organisation storing personal data must register with the Information Commissioner, and that data subjects have the right to know what data are stored about them by any particular individual or organisation.

- Freedom of Information Act

This gives general rights of access to information held by public authorities such as hospitals, doctors, dentists, the police, schools and colleges.

- Computer Misuse Act

This was introduced to prevent hacking (data misuse) and deals with three specific offences: unauthorised access to computer programs or data, unauthorised access with further criminal intent, unauthorised modification of computer material.

- Regulation of Investigatory Powers (RIP) Act

This talks about the powers the government have when investigating and have two parts that relate to computing (out of 5 parts), part one which relates to interception of communication, and part three which relates to investigation of encrypted data.

- Copyright, Designs and Patents Act

This gives certain rights to the creators of certain kinds of material allowing them control over the way in which the material is used, covering the copying, adapting and renting of materials.

Copyright can be dealt with in a few ways, two techniques are: Digital Rights Management (DRM) which uses access control software to limit what the user can do, and Licensing where the user has to use some sort of paper or digital proof to be able to use a piece of software.

- Official Secrets Act

Prevents the disclosure of government data relating to national security

- Defamation Act
Prevents people from making untrue statements about others which will lead to their reputation being damaged
- Obscene Publications Act and the Protection of Children Act
Prevent people from disseminating pornographic or violent images
- Health and Safety Regulations
Provides regulations on the correct use of screens and on how to keep employees safe in general
- Equality Act
Illegal to discriminate against anyone because of their age, sex, sexual orientation, ethnicity, religion, disability, or age.

Here are some cultural issues that could possibly be talked about:

- Over-use of data: Too dependant on data
- Invasive technologies: Data collected without consent
- Over-reliance on computers: Computer systems failing may lead to loss of lives
- Over-reliance on technology companies: Some companies have large internet presence
- Governmental monitoring: Beliefs that the government may track everything we do
- Globalisation: We can be influenced by other countries and cultures

9 Fundamentals of Communication and Networking

9.1 Communication

4.9.1.1 There are several forms of transmission:

- Serial Transmission
Data is transmitted one bit at a time down a single wire.
- Parallel Transmission
Data is transmitted several bits at a time using multiple wires.
- Synchronous Transmission
Data is transmitted where the pulse of the clock of the sending and receiving device are in time with each other. The devices may share a common clock.
- Asynchronous Transmission
Data is transmitted between two devices that do not share a common signal.

Serial transmission has 3 main advantages over parallel transmission:

- It requires less wires so it is cheaper
- It degrades less over distance compared to parallel transmission (due to the fact that the multiple wires cause interference between them)
- Serial transmission doesn't need to be synchronised whereas parallel transmission does.

4.9.1.2 Here are some keywords to do with communication:

- Bit Rate
The rate at which data is transmitted across a digital network in bits per second
- Baud Rate
The number of electrical state (symbol) changes per second, The baud rate can be different than the bit rate if more than one bit is encoded into each symbol change.
- Bandwidth
Bandwidth is the difference between the upper and lower frequency of a range of frequencies, it is typically measured in hertz (Hz). The bit rate is directly proportional to the bandwidth of the network.

- Latency

The time delay that occurs when transmitting data between devices.

- Protocol

Rules and conventions for communication between network devices.

9.2 Networking

- 4.9.2.1 A physical star topology is a when a network of devices is connected in such a way that each workstation has a dedicated cable to a central computer or switch.

Advantages of Star topology	Disadvantages of star topology
Fast connection speed as each client has a dedicated cable	Expensive to set up due to increasing cabling costs
Will not slow down as much as other network topologies when many users are online.	If the cable fails then that client may not be able to receive data
Fault- finding is simpler as individual faults are easier to trace	Difficult to install as multiple cables are needed. The problem is exaggerated where the LAN is spread over multiple buildings
Relatively secure as the connection from client to server is unique	the server can get congested as all communications must pass through it
New clients can be added without affecting the other clients	
If one cable or client fails, then only that client is affected	

A logical bus network topology is the concept of a network layout that uses one main data cable as a backbone to transmit data.

Advantages of Bus topology	Disadvantages of Bus topology
Cheaper to install than a star topology as only one main cable is required	Less secure than a star topology as all data are transmitted down one main cable
Easier to install than a star topology	Transmission times get slower when more users are on the network
Easy to add new clients by branching them off the main cable	If main cable fails, then all clients are affected
	Less reliable than a star network due to reliance on the main cable
	More difficult to find faults

the difference between a physical and logical topology is that a physical topology is how a network is laid out in the real world, and the logical topology is the conceptual way in which data is transmitted around a network. It is possible for a certain physical topology to act as a different logical topology, for example a physical switch topology that uses a switch could be made to emulate a logical bus topology by switching the switch for a hub and making sure all the workstations can follow bus network protocols.

- 4.9.2.2 Peer-to-peer networks are networks where all the devices in the network share resources rather than having a dedicated server (each workstation can act as a client or a server), it is mainly used in homes to allow all computers access to the printer and the internet. Client-server networks are networks where one computer has the main processing power and storage and the other computers act as clients requesting services from the server, such as access to files, the internet, printer, emails, and applications, it is mainly used in LANs with a large number of users.
- 4.9.2.3 WIFI enables us to create a wireless local area network that is based on international standards (IEEE 802.11), and is used to enable devices to connect to a network wirelessly. To be able to connect to a wireless network, you will need two components, a wireless network adapter and a wireless access point. There are many ways to secure wireless networks:

- Strong encryption of transmitted data

This can be done using WPA (WiFi Protected Access)/ WPA2

- SSID broadcast disabled

The SSID (Service Set Identifier) is the way in which a machine identifies a certain network, so by disabling broadcast, only computers that know the SSID can access the network.

- MAC address white list

The MAC (Media Access Control) address is unique for each device that is connected to a network and is used set when the manufacturer makes the NIC (network interface card). Due to the fact that each MAC address is unique, you can use this to allow only certain people with a specific MAC address to use the network.

There is one protocol which you need to know about, which is the Carrier Sense Multiple Access with Collision Avoidance (CSMA/CA). The basic premise of the protocol is that a device checks with the transmission medium to see whether if it is idle or if it is busy, if it's busy it will wait a random amount of time before checking again (as this reduces the chances of two devices asking at the same time). If it's idle, then the computer will try to send data along the transmission medium and wait for a response to say that all the data got there, if it doesn't get this response, it waits a random amount of time before trying again. An extension to this protocol is RTS/CTS (Request to Send/ Clear to Send) in which the device first sends out a RTS to the receiving device/ node and if a CTS message is received from the receiving node then the data is sent to the receiving node, which in turn sends back acknowledgement of receiving the data.

9.3 The Internet

- 4.9.3.1 The internet and how it works
- 4.9.3.2 Internet Security

9.4 The Transmission Control Protocol/ Internet Protocol (TCP/IP) protocol

- 4.9.3.1 TCP/IP
- 4.9.3.1 Standard application layer protocols
- 4.9.3.1 IP address structure
- 4.9.3.1 Subnet masking
- 4.9.3.1 IP standards
- 4.9.3.1 Public and Private IP addresses
- 4.9.3.1 Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol (DHCP)
- 4.9.3.1 Network Address Translation (NAT)
- 4.9.3.1 Port Forwarding
- 4.9.3.1 Client Server Model
- 4.9.3.1 Thin versus Thick-client computing

10 Fundamentals of Databases

10.1 Conceptual data models and entity relationship modelling

10.2 Relational databases

10.3 Database design and normalisation techniques

10.4 Structured Query Language (SQL)

10.5 Client server databases

11 Big Data

11.1 Big Data

12 Fundamentals of Functional Programming

12.1 Functional programming paradigm

4.12.1.1 Function type

4.12.1.2 First-class object

4.12.1.3 Function application

4.12.1.4 Partial function application

4.12.1.5 Composition of functions

12.2 Writing functional programs

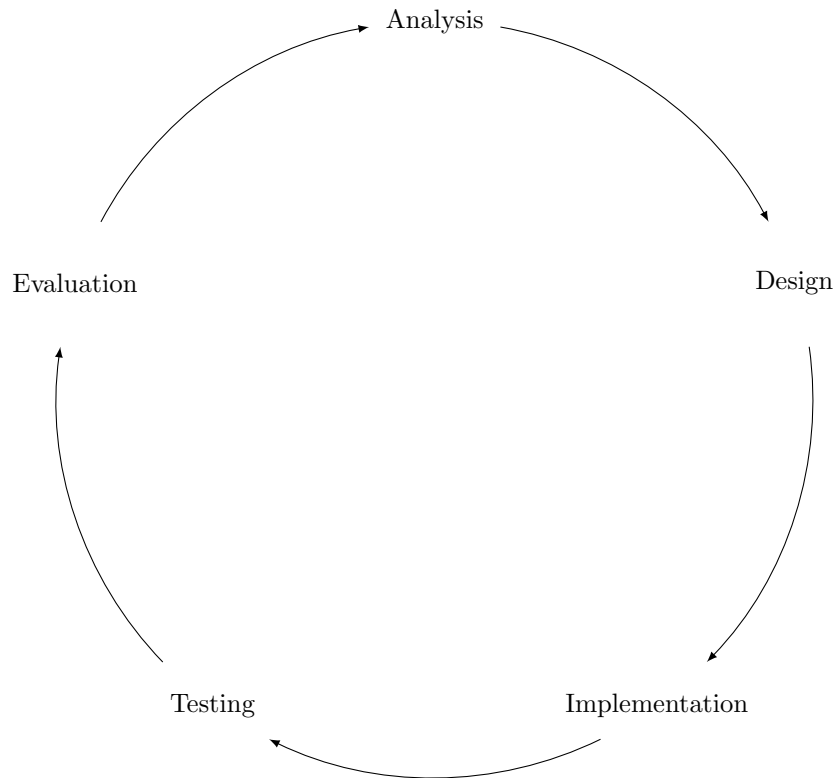
4.12.2.1 Functional language programs

12.3 Lists in functional programming

4.12.3.1 List processing

13 Systematic Approach to Problem Solving

13.1 Aspects of Software Development



3.3.1.1 Analysis is first stage of system development cycle where the problem is initially identified (through understanding what has prompted the need for a new computer system) and researched (through gathering information and feasibility study).

During this stage the problem you will need to try and define the actual problems that will need to be solved, and try to be realistic with the resources available, a list of constraining factors may be identified, to obtain a feasible solution. A specification and discussion of the scope of the work should be done if you are working for someone else.

There are several reasons why a company may want a new computer system, some of the reasons are:

- The existing system is not capable of handling the increasing volume of data being required.
- New technology means the old system is obsolete.
- The current system may be inflexible or inefficient.
- New technology has created new opportunities for expansion/ creation of systems.
- Commercial Reasons, Improved to generate increased demand of the system.
- Develop systems for a new platform or Operating System.
- To take advantage of increased processing and network power

If you are analysing an existing system, then you should aim to gather information about the current system, this can be done in many ways such as:

- Interview people who are involved with the current system.

This can be quite time consuming but allows you to easily obtain in-depth information about the system, although this information will be somewhat subjective.

- Asking people currently involved with the system to answer a questionnaire or survey.

Questionnaires allow for quick data gathering, however they often only allow limited information to be gathered as if you want easily analysable data, you will have to use closed questions.

- Observation of current practices when interacting with the system.

Although this can be very time consuming, it is more objective rather than subjective and can lead to spotting something others did not.

- Examination of the current system files, paperwork and processes.

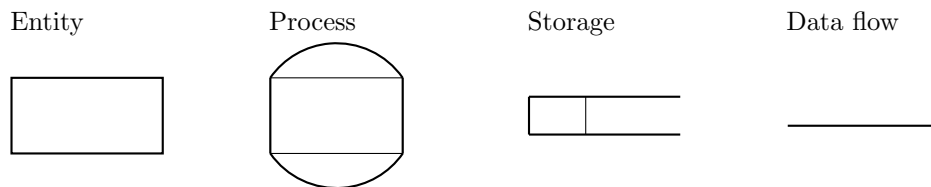
This will help to inform you of the data requirements of the new system, how to develop the human-controller interface (HCI), and the overall scope of the problem.

A feasibility study is an analysis of whether it is possible or desirable to create a system. The report will indicate how practical a solution may be in terms of many factors such as time, availability of software and hardware, and UI.

3.3.1.2 Design is the second stage of the system development cycle and is where the algorithms, data and interface are designed.

On big projects it is often difficult to consider the problem as a one problem, so the problem is broken down into smaller units, which can then themselves be broken down further, this is known as top-down design. This is similar to modular design where the main problem is broken down into several self-contained modules. Both approaches allow multiple programmers to work on the solution, and both require a defined feel so that the different parts of the program flow together. The main risk with Top-down design is that a person may get too invested in a specific detail without having completed the overall section for the program.

Data Flow Diagrams are a visual method of showing how data passes around a system, it only requires 4 symbols:



During the design phase, you may want to identify and describe the algorithms to be used within the system. It may be appropriate to write the algorithms in pseudo-code that reflects the programming paradigm being used.

A data dictionary is a list of all the data being used in the system including its name, length, name, data type and validation. This should be used only when relevant (mainly in databases). A variable table is a list of all the variables that a program will use, including names, scope and data types. This is useful as it allows the programmer to have tighter control of the program being made. At this stage, names of subroutines can also be identified and the type of data to be returned.

When building a system, the volumetrics of the system should be considered. The volumetrics of a system is the amount of data the system has to deal with in a given time span. Larger volumetrics implies a different way of handling data, leaning towards mass optimisation of a system. Volumetrics are very important when dealing with databases and the realisation needs to be made that the databases we have seen (e.g School Registers) are microscopic when compared to databases with over 20 million members and 100s of fields (e.g DVLA database).

The human-computer interface is the term given to any form of interaction between a computer and its user. Factors to consider are:

- **Ease of Use:** The user should be able to use the system reasonably easily.
- **Target Audience:** The age and personality of the user will directly impact how they will use the system.
- **Technology:** The technology the user uses will directly impact the features and limits of the system being developed.
- **Ergonomics:** The comfortability of the system should be taken into high regard.

3.3.1.3 Implementation is the third stage of the system development cycle and is where the actual code and data structures are created. Just to note, not all of the program needs to be written at once for example, one module may be being implemented while others are being designed.

A prototype is a stripped down version of a whole system built at the design stage to test whether the concept works. At this stage the end user is asked to comment on the product so far, and they will check to make sure all the major functions work as expected.

3.3.1.4 Testing is the fourth stage of the system development cycle and is where a range of tests are performed on the program using a variety of data. There are three different types of data that is used once each module has been completed. These are:

- Normal

This is data that the system is expected handle without issue.

- Boundary

This is data that is on the extremes of the acceptable values.

- Erroneous.

This is data that is clearly incorrect and expect the program to catch the error.

During Development several different tests are done on the modules, these test are:

- Black Box Testing

This test checks whether a specific input causes the expected output, without seeing how it is actually done.

- White Box Testing

This test checks all pathways through the code, looking inside it and potentially adding extra commands to check what is happening.

- Unit Testing

This checks that each unit/ module/component is fully functional by itself. It uses both white and black testing.

Once all the units have been tested and are fully functional, the units are first put together to create large modules and undergo integration testing, and checks whether the different modules made from individual units, will work together. Once integration testing is complete, the program then undergoes system testing as one large single unit. System testing involves a range of tests to be carried out on the system to check whether the system satisfies the specification set out in the analysis stage. The main parts of system testing are:

- Alpha Testing

this is done in-house once the system is complete and tries to simulate possible eventualities of the system under normal conditions. The benefits are it allows the program to be corrected before the full system is released, and the original set of data is known and can thus be more easily analysed.

- Beta Testing

This occurs after alpha and is when the system is given to users, who are expected to give feedback about bugs, so that the programmers can resolve them. The benefits of this is that due to the fact it has been given to people who have never used the system, they may use it in different ways and therefore highlight problems they may not have been seen in alpha testing.

- Acceptance Testing

This is where the intended user test the system by entering their own data and making sure the system matches the specification that was agreed with the program writers.

3.3.1.5 Evaluation is the final stage of system development where the system is judged according to certain criteria (i.e. The specification set in the Analysis stage) and improvements are suggested. There may be several criteria used to evaluate a system, e.g:

- Functionality
- Ease of Use
- Ease of Implementation (How easy is it to go from old system to new system)
- Reliability
- Performance
- Cost Effectiveness
- Ease of Maintenance and Adaptability
- Longevity