Chapter 1

Introduction

Computer Components

- Hardware
 - Physical Components
 - -Keyboard, Mouse, Screen, Hard Disk. etc
- Software
 - –System SW
 - Programs written for computer systems
 - Compilers, operating systems, ...
 - Application SW
 - Programs written for computer users
 - Word-processors, spreadsheets, & other application packages

Programs

- Programs (software) are written in programming languages
 - PL = programming language
 - Pieces of the same program can be written in different PLs
- A PL is
 - A special purpose and limited language
 - A set of rules and symbols used to construct a computer program
 - A language used to interact with the computer

Programming Languages

- Programming languages allow programmers to code software.
- The three major families of languages are:
 - Machine languages
 - Assembly languages
 - High-Level languages

Machine Languages

- Comprised of 1s and 0s
- The "native" language of a computer
- Difficult to program one misplaced 1 or 0 will cause the program to fail.
- Example of code:

```
1110100010101 111010101110
10111010110100 10100011110111
```

Assembly Languages

- Assembly languages are a step towards easier programming.
- Assembly languages are comprised of a set of elemental commands which are tied to a specific processor.
- Assembly language code needs to be translated to machine language before the computer processes it.
- Example:
 ADD 1001010, 1011010

High-Level Languages

- High-level languages represent a giant leap towards easier programming.
- The syntax of HL languages is similar to English.
- Historically, we divide HL languages into two groups:
 - Procedural languages
 - Object-Oriented languages (OOP)

Procedural Languages

- Early high-level languages are typically called procedural languages.
- Procedural languages are characterized by sequential sets of linear commands. The focus of such languages is on structure.
- Examples include C, COBOL, Fortran, LISP, Perl, HTML, VBScript

Object-Oriented Languages

- Most object-oriented languages are high-level languages.
- The focus of OOP languages is not on structure, but on modeling data.
- Programmers code using "blueprints" of data models called classes.
- Examples of OOP languages include C++, Visual Basic.NET and Java.

Compilers & Programs

Compiler

- A program that converts another program from some source language (or high-level programming language / HLL) to machine language (object code).
- Some compilers output assembly language which is then converted to machine language by a separate assembler.
- Is distinguished from an assembler by the fact that each input statement, in general, correspond to more than one machine instruction.

Compilers & Programs

Source program

- The form in which a computer program, written in some formal programming language, is written by the programmer.
- Can be compiled automatically into <u>object</u> <u>code</u> or <u>machine code</u> or executed by an interpreter.

Compilers & Programs

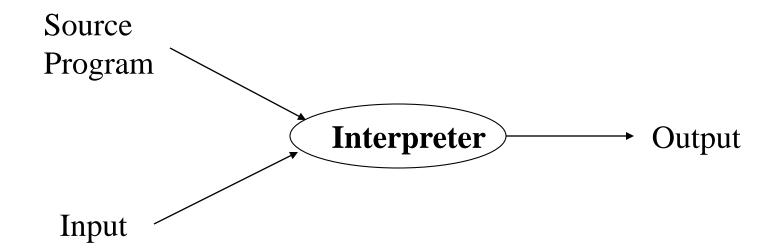
Object program

- Output from the compiler
- Equivalent machine language translation of the source program
- Files usually have extension '.obj'

Executable program

- Output from linker/loader
- Machine language program linked with necessary libraries & other files
- Files usually have extension '.exe'

Interpretation



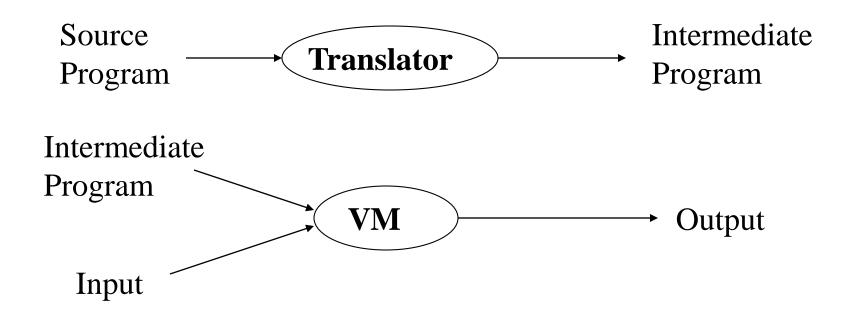
- The interpreter stays around during execution
- It reads and executes statements one at a time

Compilation vs. Interpretation

Compilation:

- Syntax errors caught before running the program
- Better performance
- Decisions made once, at compile time
- Interpretation:
 - Better diagnostics (error messages)
 - More flexibility
 - Supports late binding (delaying decisions about program implementation until runtime)
 - Can better cope with PLs where type and size of variables depend on input
 - Supports creation/modification of program code on the fly (e.g. Lisp, Prolog)

Mixture of Compiler & Interpreter



- Many programming languages implement this
- Interpreter implements a Virtual Machine (VM).

Program Development Cycle

Programming as Problem Solving

- Problem solving principles:
 - 1. Completely understand the problem
 - 2. Devise a plan to solve it
 - 3. Carry out the plan
 - 4. Review the results

- Developing a Program:
 - 1. Analyze the problem
 - 2. Design the program
 - 3. Code the program
 - 4. Test the program

1) Analyze the Problem

Mary's Thousands

- The problem: Mary wants to invest money at a local bank. There are many options such as interest rates, terms of deposit, compounding frequencies. She needs a program to compute, for any given initial investment, the final maturity (value) of the deposit.
 - What are the inputs? (given data)
 - What are the outputs? (required data)
 - How will we calculate the required outputs from the given inputs?

2) Design the Program

- Create an outline of the program
- An algorithm a step by step procedure that will provide the required results from the given inputs.
- Algorithm Examples: Instructions on how to make a cake, use the bank's ATM, etc.

3) Code the Program

- Once the design is completed, write the program code.
- Code is written in some programming language such as BASIC, Pascal, C++, Java, etc.

4) Testing the program

- Locate any errors (bugs)
- Testing is done throughout the development cycle
- Code walkthrough is performed to locate errors in the code.
- Ultimate test is to run the program to see if the outputs are correct for the given inputs.

Modular Programming

- Determine the major tasks that the program must accomplish.
- Each of these tasks will be a module.
- Some modules will be complex themselves, and they will be broken into *sub-modules*, and those sub-modules may also be broken into even smaller modules.
- This is called top-down design