

2015 specification
first exams in 2016

AS

AQA

Revision Guide

for AS AQA Computer Science

Paper 2

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TEACHER'S INTRODUCTION

This revision guide has been written to support the AQA AS Computer Science specification (first teaching from September 2015, first exams in June 2016).

It summarises the essential theory required for the AS Paper 2 examination; more specifically, topics 5–9 of the AS specification:

5. Data representation
6. Computer systems
7. Computer organisation and architecture
8. Consequences of uses of computing
9. Communication and networking

An equivalent resource is also available for the AS AQA Paper 1 examination (topics 1–4).

Each section includes student notes, examples, diagrams and examination-style questions. Example answers to all of these questions can be found at the back of the resource. *Note that credit should also be given for any valid responses that are not explicitly included in this resource.* There is also a revision progress grid which students may find useful in the lead up to their exams.

P Chapman, January 2016

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REVISION PROGRESS TRACKER: AS

Use the grid below to track your progress while revising for your exam. Start by entering the top, and working down the grid, give a rating of between 1 (you really don't know it) to 5 (you are confident enough to answer the question).

This should help you to focus your revision on the areas that require it the most, so that it comes up in the exam. Use the Notes column to record any actions.

Repeat this process until you feel you are confident enough in all areas and are ready for the exam.

Specification Topic	Confidence Level (1-5)				
	Date:	Date:	Date:	Date:	
5 – Fundamentals of data representation					
Number Systems					
Number Bases					
Decimal → binary					
Binary → decimal					
Decimal → hex					
Hex → decimal					
Binary → hex					
Bits and bytes					
Units of bytes					
Unsigned binary					
Unsigned binary arithmetic					
Signed binary using 2's complement					
Fixed point binary					
ASCII & Unicode					
Error checking and correction					
Analogue ⇔ digital					
Bitmapped graphics					
Digital sound					

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Specification Topic	Confidence Level (1-5)				
	Date:	Date:	Date:	Date:	
Musical Instrument Digital Interface					
Data compression					
Encryption					
Caesar cipher					
Vernam cipher					
6 – Fundamentals of computer systems					
Relationship between hardware and software					
Classification of software					
System software					
Role of an operating system					
Classification of programming languages					
Types of translator					
Logic gates					
Logic diagrams					
Boolean algebra					
7 – Fundamentals of computer organisation and architecture					
Computer system components					
Von Neumann and Harvard architectures					
Stored program concept					
Parts of the CPU					
Fetch-Execute cycle					
Processor instruction set					
Addressing modes					

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Specification Topic	Confidence Level (1-5)				
	Date:	Date:	Date:	Date:	
Machine code and assembly language operations					
Factors affecting processor performance					
External hardware devices					
Secondary storage devices					
8 – Consequences of uses of computing					
Awareness of current individual, social, legal and cultural risks					
Awareness of how digital technology can be used					
Responsibilities of computer scientists and engineers					
Challenges facing legislators in the digital age					
9 – Fundamentals of communication and networking					
Serial vs. parallel transmission					
Synchronous vs. asynchronous transmission					
Communication basic definitions					
Network topologies					
Peer-to-peer vs. client server					
Wireless networking					

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TOPIC 5 – DATA REPRESENTATION

5.1 NUMBER SYSTEMS

Number System	Examples	Explanation						
Natural Numbers	$N = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, \dots\}$	N is the set of natural numbers (often counting , e.g. 7 cars, 2 apples).						
Integer Numbers	$Z = \{\dots -2, -1, 0, 1, 2 \dots\}$	Z is the set of integer numbers that include negative inverses, as shown in the example.						
Rational Numbers	Q includes: $\frac{7}{2}$, $\frac{8}{1}$, $\frac{100}{3}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{16}{4}$...	Q is the set of numbers that can be written as fractions (integers). Integers such as 7 are rational numbers.						
Irrational numbers	$\sqrt{2}$, $\sqrt{3}$, π , $\sqrt{99}$	An irrational number cannot be written as a fraction. All square roots are irrational; for example, $\sqrt{2}$.						
Real Numbers	1, 12.41, $\sqrt{2}$, 0, $\frac{12}{7}$, $\frac{1}{8}$, 1.23423, 129.6	Real numbers include: whole numbers, integers, rational numbers; they can be positive, negative or zero. Real numbers are used for measurement . Digits to the right of the decimal point indicate a more accurate measurement of 1.05 is more accurate than 1.						
Ordinal Numbers	<table border="1"> <tr> <td>1st</td> <td>2nd</td> <td>3rd</td> </tr> <tr> <td>S = a,</td> <td>b,</td> <td>c</td> </tr> </table>	1 st	2 nd	3 rd	S = a,	b,	c	Ordinal numbers are used to describe the order of a list. In the example S is an ordered list, a is the first object, b is the second object and c is the third or final object.
1 st	2 nd	3 rd						
S = a,	b,	c						



5.1 – Progress Check

1. Explain the difference between the natural number system (N) and the integer number system (Z).

5.2 NUMBER BASES

Number base	Description				
Decimal (base 10)	The decimal number system is based on the use of 10 digits:				
	10 ² or 100	10 ¹ or 10	10 ⁰ or 1	The number 358 is made up of 3 hundreds, 5 tens and 1s as shown below:	
	3	5	8		
	The subscript 10 can be used to indicate the number base used, e.g. 358 ₁₀ .				
Binary (base 2)	The binary number system is based on the use of 2 digits: 0 and 1.				
	2 ³ or 8	2 ² or 4	2 ¹ or 2	2 ⁰ or 1	The number 1011 is made up of 1 one thousand, 0 hundreds, 1 tens and 1s as shown below:
	1	0	1	1	
	So the binary number 1011 represents (1 x 8) + (0 x 4) + (1 x 2) + (1 x 1) = 11. The subscript 2 can be used to indicate the number base used, e.g. 1011 ₂ .				
Hexadecimal (base 16)	The hexadecimal number system is based on the use of 16 digits: 0-9, A, B, C, D, E, F where A=10, B=11, C=12, D=13, E=14 and F=15.				
	16 ² or 256	16 ¹ or 16	16 ⁰ or 1	The number 2E1 is made up of 2 hundreds, 14 tens and 1s as shown below:	
	2	E	1		
	So the hexadecimal number 2E1 represents (2 x 256) + (14 x 16) + (1 x 1) = 723. The subscript 16 can be used to indicate the number base used, e.g. 2E1 ₁₆ .				

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Convert binary to decimal

To convert **binary 1011 0101 to decimal**, write the binary numbers into a table in the cor

128	64	32	16	8	4	2
1	0	1	1	0	1	0

Then add the decimal numbers where 1 is shown, so $1011\ 0101_2 = 128 + 32 + 16 + 4 + 1 =$

Convert decimal to binary

To convert **decimal 133 to binary**, create a table with the binary place values and use the

1. Find the largest place value that is less than or equal to 133.
In this case, it is 128, so write 1 in row below 128.
2. Subtract 128 from 133 to obtain 5. Find the largest place value that is less than or
In this case, it is 4, so write 1 in row below 4.
3. Subtract 4 from 5 to obtain 1. Find the largest place value that is less than or equal
In this case, it is 1, so write 1 in row below 1.
4. Complete the process by adding 0 to all the blanks in the table.

128	64	32	16	8	4	2	
1	0	0	0	0	1	0	

Hexadecimal and binary

The **hexadecimal** number system (or **hex**) is based on 16 states. The table on the right can
to convert between binary and hex.

Note that two-digit hexadecimal numbers are the equivalent of eight binary bits or one byte
of data.

Convert binary to hexadecimal

Example:

To convert binary 11111011 into hexadecimal use the steps below:

1. Treat the 8-bit binary code as two hexadecimal nibbles: 1111 and 1011.
2. Use the table to convert 1111 to F and 1011 to B.
So, $11111011_2 = FB_{16}$

Convert hexadecimal to binary

Example:

To convert hexadecimal A9 into binary use the steps below:

1. Convert the two hexadecimal nibbles separately using the table,
so $A_{16} = 1010_2$ and $9_{16} = 1001_2$.
2. Join them together to form an 8-bit binary number.
So, $A9_{16} = 10101001_2$

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Convert decimal to hexadecimal

Convert decimal to binary and then convert binary to hex.

Example – convert 189_{10} to hexadecimal

1. 189 decimal is converted to binary; therefore, $10111101_2 = 189_{10}$

128	64	32	16	8	4	2	1
1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1

2. Split the binary number into (4-bit) nibbles

8	4	2	1	8	4	2	1
1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1

3. Add up each nibble (value between 0 and 15) and convert into hex

Giving $1011_2 = 11_{10} = B_{16}$ and $1101_2 = 13_{10} = D_{16}$

Therefore, $189_{10} = 10111101_2 = BD_{16}$

Convert hexadecimal to decimal

Convert hexadecimal to binary and then convert binary to decimal.

Example – convert $5ED_{16}$ to decimal

1. $5ED_{16}$ is converted to binary so $010111101101_2 = 5ED_{16}$

5				E				D			
8	4	2	1	8	4	2	1	8	4	2	1
0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1

2. Convert the binary into decimal using the table below:

1024	512	256	128	64	32	16	8	4	2	1
1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1

3. $1024 + 256 + 128 + 64 + 32 + 8 + 4 + 1 = 1517_{10}$

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5.2 – Progress Check

2. Convert binary $1110\ 0111$ to decimal (2 marks)
3. Convert decimal 101 to binary (2 marks)
4. Convert hexadecimal $3FA$ to decimal (2 marks)
5. Convert decimal 7012 to hexadecimal (2 marks)
6. Convert binary $0011\ 1111$ to hexadecimal (2 marks)
7. Convert hexadecimal $B7$ to binary (2 marks)

5.3 UNITS OF INFORMATION

Bits and bytes

Computer hardware is used to store and process data; hardware components use the binary system, where each component can be either 0 or 1.

Computer systems store data and program instructions using binary code, since digital computers use binary code. Therefore, all data that is input into the computer system needs to be converted into binary.

Single binary numbers or digits are usually grouped together in computer systems to form bytes. A byte is a group of 8 bits. 2^n different values can be represented with n bits as shown in the table below.

n	Bit Number	Bit Patterns	Different Bit Configuration for 2^n
1	2^1	2	0, 1
2	2^2	4	00, 01, 10, 11
3	2^3	8	000, 001, 010, 011, 100, 101, 110, 111
4	2^4	16	0000, 0001, 0010, 0011, 0100, 0101, 0110, 0111, 1000, 1001, 1010, 1011, 1100, 1101, 1110, 1111

Binary Code is based on a number system that uses two digits, 0 and 1.

Bit is a single binary digit that can have the values 0 or 1.

Byte is a group of 8 bits. The maximum decimal number it can store is 255.

Nibble is a group of 4 bits, which is half a byte.

Units

The number of bytes can be described using binary prefixes representing powers of 2 or 10.

Binary Powers			
Name	Symbol	Power	Description
kibi	KiB (kibibyte)	2^{10}	1 KiB = 2^{10} B
mebi	MiB (mebibyte)	2^{20}	1 MiB = 2^{20} B
gibi	GiB (gibibyte)	2^{30}	1 GiB = 2^{30} B
tebi	TiB (tebibyte)	2^{40}	1 TiB = 2^{40} B

Name	Symbol
kilo	k (kilobyte)
mega	M (megabyte)
giga	G (gigabyte)
tera	T (terabyte)

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5.3 – Progress Check

8. Define the term 'kibibyte' (2 marks)

5.4 BINARY NUMBER SYSTEMS

Signed and unsigned binary

i **Signed binary** numbers are encoded to include a positive or negative sign.

i **Unsigned binary** numbers do NOT have a positive or negative sign so are useful for positive whole numbers only.

The advantage of using unsigned integers is that they can be used to store larger numbers than using signed integers.

An unsigned binary number has a minimum of zero and a maximum value of $2^n - 1$, where n is the number of bits available; see the examples on the right.

Number of bit (n)	Maximum value
1	1
2	3
3	7
4	15
8	255

Unsigned binary addition

Binary numbers can be added using the same techniques used to add denary numbers as follows:

Example: Add the binary numbers 0111 and 0101.

	0	1	1	1	
	0	1	0	1	
Sum	1	1	0	0	
Carried	1	1	1		

$1 + 1 = 2$ so write 0 and carry 1
 $1 + 0 + 1 = 10$ binary so write 0 and carry 1
 $1 + 1 + 1 = 11$ binary so write 1 and carry 1
 $0 + 0 + 1 = 1$ binary so write 1
So $0111 + 0101 = 1100$ binary

Unsigned binary multiplication

Binary numbers can be multiplied using the same techniques used to multiply denary numbers as follows:

Example: Multiply binary numbers 0011011 by 101.

	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	
	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	
			0	0	1	1	0	1	1
	0	0	1	1	0	1	1		
	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	
Carry	1	1	1	1					

Multiply 0011011
 By 101
 Step 1 multiply 00011011 by 1
 Step 2 multiply 00011011 by 1 and shift left
 Binary addition three rows for final answer
 Use carry bits where necessary
So $00011011 \times 00000101 = 10$

Binary Multiplication Rules:

$0 \times 0 = 0$

$1 \times 0 = 0$

$0 \times 1 = 0$

$1 \times 1 = 1$ (there are no carry or borrow bits with binary multiplication)

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5.4 – Progress Check

- Add the following unsigned binary numbers 00000101 and 00000100 (2 marks)
- Multiply the following unsigned binary numbers 00010101 and 00000101 (2 marks)

Signed binary using two's complement

Signed numbers are represented in computers using the **Two's Complement** method.

The most significant bit will indicate 1 for a negative number and 0 for a positive number. Two's complement subtraction is performed by simply adding a negative number.

Positive Numbers	
A positive number in two's complement form is the same as an unsigned integer except the most significant bit needs to be zero, representing a positive sign.	The two's complement 1. Inverting each bit and 1's to 0's 2. Adding 1 to the result
$0000\ 1111_2 = +15_{10}$	$0000\ 1111_2 = 1111_2$

Subtraction using two's complement

Example: $15 - 12$

$15_{10} = 0000\ 1111_2$ and
 $12_{10} = 0000\ 1100_2$ which is $(1111\ 0011) + 1 = 1111\ 0100_2$ in two's complement

	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	15
	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	-12
Sum	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	$15 - 12 = 3$
Carry	1	1	1	1	1	-	-	-	

Signed binary using two's complement range

Binary	Decimal
0111 1111	+127
0000 1111	+15
0000 0001	+1
0000 0000	0
1111 1111	-1
1000 0001	-127
1000 0000	-128

The range of an unsigned Byte (8-bit) is 0 to 255.

The range of a signed byte using two's complement is -128 to 127, as shown in the table.

The range is $-(2^{N-1})$ to $+(2^{N-1}-1)$ where N is the number of bits.

- In an 8-bit byte the first bit is the sign bit, so only 7 bits contain numerical data.
- The range of numbers for an 8-bit byte is $-(2^{8-1})$ to $+(2^{8-1}-1)$ or -128 to 127.
 - Highest positive number in two's complement 8-bit byte is $2^{N-1}-1$.
 - Lowest negative number in two's complement 8-bit byte is -2^{N-1} .

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5.4 – Progress Check

11. Calculate $24 - 12$ using two's complement (2 marks)

Numbers with a fractional part

Fixed-point binary

Fixed-point binary is used to represent a fractional part of a number, where the binary point is fixed.

512	256	128	64	32	16	8	4	2	1	.	1/2	1/4	1/8	
Integer Part										Point	Fractional			

Convert fixed-point binary to decimal

For example, to convert 1010000111.10010_2 into decimal, write the binary numbers into the table shown below.

512	256	128	64	32	16	8	4	2	1	.	1/2	1/4		
1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	.	1	0		

Then add the decimal numbers where 1 is shown:

$$1010000111.10010_2 = 512 + 128 + 4 + 2 + 1 + 0.5 + 0.0625 = \underline{775.5625}$$

$$\text{Alternatively: } 512 + 128 + 4 + 2 + 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{16} = 775\frac{9}{16}$$

Convert decimal to fixed-point binary

To convert **decimal 130.25 to binary**, create a table with the binary place values and use the following steps:

- Find the largest place value that is less than or equal to 130.25.
In this case, it is 128, so write 1 in row below 128.
- Subtract 128 from 130.25 to obtain 2.25. Find the largest place value that is less than or equal to 2.25.
In this case, it is 2, so write 1 in row below 2.
- Subtract 2 from 2.25 to obtain 0.25. Find the largest place value that is less than or equal to 0.25.
In this case, it is 0.25, so write 1 in row below 0.25.
- Complete the process by adding 0 to all the blanks in the table.

512	256	128	64	32	16	8	4	2	1	.	1/2	1/4	1/8	
0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	.	0	1	0	0



5.4 – Progress Check

12. Convert fixed-point binary number 1001111100.1010 into decimal (3 marks)

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5.5 INFORMATION CODING SYSTEMS

Character encoding

When a character is pressed on the keyboard, a binary code for that character is input into the computer; characters can be encoded into either ASCII or Unicode.

There is a need to differentiate between the encoded decimal digits and their pure binary numbers; this is shown in the ASCII table below, where the ASCII code for the decimal 1 is represented by the pure binary number representing 49.

i **ASCII** is a seven-bit character set which offers 128 different characters. Some of these characters are used for controlling peripherals.

Every character on the keyboard has an ASCII code and lower-case letters have different codes to upper-case letters.

The main limitation with ASCII is that it does not have enough characters to cope with languages that have large character sets.

ASCII	Decimal	Binary
1	049	011 0001
2	050	011 0010
3	051	0110011
4	052	0110100
5	053	0110101
6	054	0110110
7	055	0110111
8	056	0111000
9	057	0111001
:	058	0111010
;	059	0111011
<	060	0111100

i **Unicode** is 65,536 different characters

Unicode has been used on all major web browsers

Unicode
0000
0000
0000
0000
0000

Note that ASCII uses 1 byte per character; Unicode uses 2 bytes per character;

Error checking and correction

Parity checking

Error checking is frequently carried out on data that is transmitted and parity is a simple method of checking data that has been received. Parity checking is only able to detect an odd number of errors.

i **Even parity** is where the number of 1s is counted and if the number of 1s is odd then a 1 is added to make it even. In the example below the 7-Bit ASCII code for Q is 1010001, which is an odd number of 1s.

Parity Bit	ASCII Code for Q					
1	1	0	1	0	0	0

i **Odd parity** is where the number of 1s is counted and if the number of 1s is even then a 1 is added to make it odd. In the example below the 7-Bit ASCII code for S is 1010011, which is an even number of 1s.

Parity Bit	ASCII Code for S					
1	1	0	1	0	0	1

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Majority vote

The parity bit approach can only detect errors in data transmission, but the majority vote can correct errors.

- With **majority voting**, each bit is sent three times and checked each time. If it is the same on one occasion there is an error, in which case the majority of two will determine the correct value.

In the example shown data sent is 01100, each bit will be transmitted three times.

Data transmitted will be	000	111
With interference errors data received is	100	101
Each triplet is then checked and majority accepted	000	111

Main disadvantage of majority vote correction method is three times the volume of data must be transmitted.

Check digits

- A **check digit** is added to binary data to check that the data is accurate; this is an application of a barcode printed on an item of shopping has been correctly entered into a computer.

The check digit is a single digit that is calculated using a mathematical algorithm and inserted into the data.

A typical method used is based on modulo-11 as shown in the example below:

1	2	8	0	2	4	Original number
7	6	5	4	3	2	Weighting – each of the original digits is multiplied by a weight
7	12	40	0	6	8	Multiply weights and add them together
73 divided by 11 = 6 remainder 7						Divide total by 11 since it is a modulo-11 system
11 - 7 = 4						Subtract the remainder from 11
1280244						Original number with check digit added. If there is an error then an error will be detected



5.5 – Progress Check

- Compare the use of ASCII and Unicode systems for character encoding (4 marks)
- Explain, with an example, even parity for error detection (2 marks)

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5.6 REPRESENTING IMAGES, SOUND AND OTHER DATA

Bit patterns

- A **bit pattern** is an arrangement of binary digits arranged in a sequence; they can be used to represent text (Unicode) as well as images (bitmaps and vector graphics), video and sound.

Analogue and digital

	Analogue	Digital
Data and Signals	Analogue data and signals vary in a continuous way. For example, the output from a microphone into a tape recorder is an analogue signal that varies as a function of the pressure of the sound.	Digital data and signals are represented by binary digits or a series of bits. For example, a sound file is stored as a series of bits.

Conversion between analogue and digital data

It is necessary to convert analogue signals using an **analogue-to-digital converter (ADC)** into a digital format that can be input and processed in a computer. The output from a computer may need to be converted using a **digital-to-analogue converter (DAC)** to interface with an analogue device.

Analogue to Digital Converter (ADC)	Digital to Analogue Converter (DAC)
Analogue to digital converters receive analogue signals input in the form of voltage waveforms which are converted into a digital format so they can be read into a computer.	Digital to analogue converters receive digital signals input and convert them into an analogue format. For example, a digital-to-analogue converter can convert a digital signal into a continuous analogue sound output.

Bitmapped graphics

Digital images are composed of a series of **pixels** or dots, so a pixel is the smallest element in a digital image.

Images are represented in digital or binary form to be stored or used on a computer. The black and white image of a staircase is shown on the right, where for each pixel 1 = black and 0 = white.

Colour can be shown in digital images by using more bits per pixel.

- Colour depth** is the number of bits used for each pixel, where 1 bit is black and white and 8 bits will give 256 colours.
- Image resolution** is calculated using the pixel dimensions (height x width).
- Display Resolution** is the number of dots per inch (DPI). More dots per inch give a better image resolution.
- Metadata** is 'data about data'; metadata in an image file provides details of properties such as the image dimensions and colour depth.



Bit

8

16

Image metadata and storage requirements

Metadata is used by the computer to help it interpret an image file, since all data is basically stored in binary format.

The image on the right shows some typical metadata properties for a digital image.

Image storage requirements are calculated using the following formula:

Storage = width (pixels) x height (pixels) x colour depth (bits per pixel)

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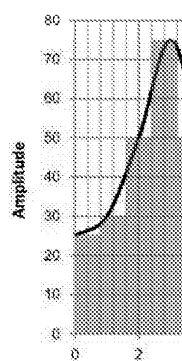


Digital representation of sound

When sound is input into a computer, it will be converted into a digital data file using an ADC.

In the graph on the right, the analogue sound input is sampled at regular intervals; the converted digital sound is shown superimposed on the analogue wave.

The digital sound is only approximately the same shape as the analogue wave; the sound quality can be improved by increasing the sample rate.



i **Sampling rate** (measured in Hz) is the number of samples taken per second from the analogue input to create a digital signal.

i **Nyquist's theorem** indicates that the sound must be sampled at twice the highest analogue input frequency to create an accurate representation of the original input waveform.

i **Sampling resolution** (number of bits)

Sound Sample Size Calculation

Example: Given that: Sample frequency = 4000 Hz, Sample resolution = 16 bits (2 bytes)
How much disk space would a 120-second sound recording require?

$$\text{File size (bytes)} = \text{sample frequency (Hz)} \times \text{sample resolution (bytes)} \times \text{length (s)}$$

$$= 4000 \times 2 \times 120 = \underline{960,000 \text{ bytes}}$$

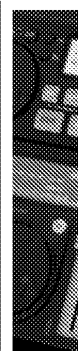
Musical Instrument Digital Interface (MIDI)

i **MIDI** (Musical Instrument Digital Interface) is a protocol that is used to synthesise music, recording and playing back music input from keyboard, voice and other musical instruments.

MIDI makes use of **event messages** that are used to control musical parameters such as notation and pitch and volume, and to synchronise the rhythm between a range of other devices.

The main advantages of using a MIDI system are:

- Music data that has been loaded onto the computer can be arranged and manipulated in many different ways.
- A musician or music producer can make use of overlays to create a whole band sound.
- It is straightforward to create a musical score from the edited music.



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5.6 – Progress Check

15. Describe the functions of an analogue to digital converter and a digital to analogue converter.

16. Define the following digital image terms:

- (a) Colour depth (2 marks) (b) Resolution (2 marks) (c) File size

17. Calculate the memory used in kilobytes for a digital photographic image of 1024 x 1024 pixels high, with colour depth 24 bpp (bits per pixel) where 1 byte = 8 bits.

18. Define the following digital sound terms:

- (a) Sampling rate (1 mark) (b) Sampling resolution (1 mark)

Data compression

Data compression is important in data transmission via the internet, as compressed data creates smaller files so that they can be transmitted faster and require less storage space on the computer system.

i Data compression also be r

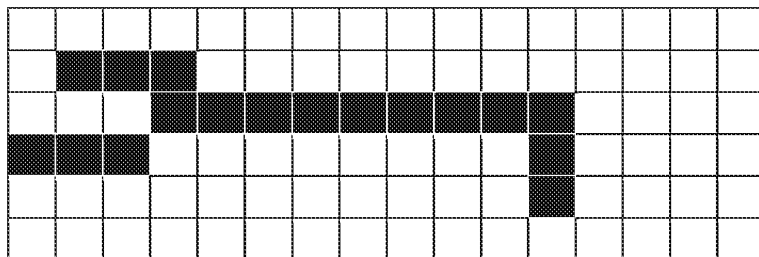
Lossy and lossless compression

Compression Method	Advantages :
i Lossless compression techniques allow the original data to be perfectly reconstructed, resulting in no loss of data.	An image can be compressed to low resolution and also be needed in a higher resolution in a p A program may be compressed to be downl need to be expanded to an exact copy of th A text document might be compressed into transmission using email. Again the docum exact copy of the original to ensure that it c
i Lossy compression techniques result in a loss of data, so the original data cannot be perfectly reconstructed.	A copy of an image might be compressed to website, but there is no need to expand bac In sound files unnecessary data can be redu output quality is acceptable for the user.

Run-Length Encoding

i **Run-length encoding (RLE)** is a form of lossless compression where a sequence that replaced by a single value of that data with a count of the number of times it occurs.

The black and white bitmap image (16 x 6 pixels) shown below can be used to demonstrate



This image can be written in the raw format below where a white pixel = 0 and a black pixel = 1

0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Run-length encoding can be used to represent the data in the following compressed form

Row	RLE Code	Description
1	16,0	16 '0' elements
2	1,0 3,1 12,0	1 '0', 3 '1' and 12 '0' elements
3	3,0 9,1 4,0	3 '0', 9 '1' and 4 '0' elements
4	3,1 8,0 1,1 4,0	3 '1', 8 '0', 1 '1' and 4 '0' elements
5	11,0 1,1 4,0	11 '0', 1 '1' and 4 '0' elements
6	16,0	16 '0' elements

The RLE
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Dictionary-based compression

The **dictionary-based** compression method (sometimes known as a substitution technique) contains encoded bit strings that contain fewer bits than the original code, so:

- Variable-length strings of symbols are encoded as single symbols or tokens.
- The token is used as the index for the look-up table or dictionary.
- Compression takes place where the tokens are smaller than the original variable

This is a lossless compression method as the original file can be created by using the dictionary where large amounts of data can be referenced by a simple token, such as a post code.

Encryption

Encryption is used to make stored data more secure from hackers, by making it unreadable to decrypt or decode it. This method is commonly used to protect data transmitted over the internet.

Encryption operates by modifying plain text using an encryption algorithm; this takes place before the data is transmitted. The algorithm stipulates how the message will be encoded. An authorised user is able to decode this message using a key based on a decryption algorithm.

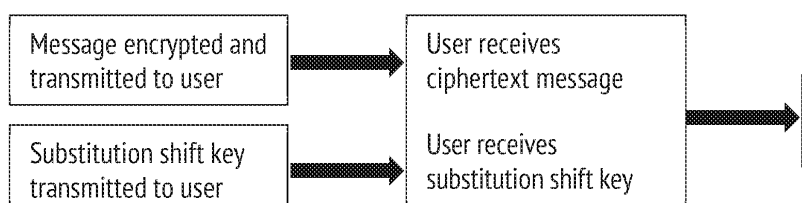
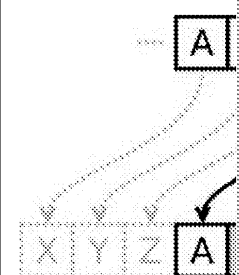
Caesar Cipher

The Caesar Cipher is a commonly used and simple substitution cipher; using this technique each of the plaintext letters in a message is replaced by a different letter of the alphabet a fixed position from the original letter.

The cipher shown on the right is replacing each letter with a different letter using a left shift of 3; therefore, E is represented by B, F is represented by C and so on.

Therefore, the ciphertext for the message will substitute 'B' for each 'E' that appears in the plaintext. Messages are transmitted using the approach shown in the diagram below.

A cipher algorithm is used to create ciphertext by substituting the plaintext letters and turning it back into a message.



The table below can be used to convert between the ciphertext and the plaintext for a left shift of 3. The link between E and B is highlighted.

Plain:	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R
Cipher:	X	Y	Z	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O

Encrypt using the table above and replace each letter of the plain text message with the corresponding ciphertext letter.

Ciphertext: **ZLJMRQBO PZFBKZB**

The message is decrypted by using the table to reverse the process, so that each letter of the ciphertext is replaced by the corresponding plaintext letter.

Plaintext: **COMPUTER SCIENCE**

The Caesar is easily cracked as there are only shifts between 1 and 25 so each can be tried until the correct shift is found. Then the shift can be applied to all the text to crack the cipher.

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Vernam Cipher

- i** The Vernam cipher or 'one-time pad cipher', is a digital data stream cipher that is combined with a same length random stream of data to create the ciphertext, based on the Boolean exclusive OR function.

The truth table for the Boolean **Exclusive OR** function is shown on the right.

Example:

To encrypt the ASCII code for 12 using the Vernam cipher use the following steps:

Plaintext – ASCII (1 and 2)	0110001 0110010	14 characters
Random key chosen	1010101 0111100	Any random key of the same length
Ciphertext	1100100 0001110	Created from Exclusive OR Plaintext

Decryption is the reverse of this process as shown in the table below:

Ciphertext	1100100 0001110	14 characters
Random key	1010101 0111100	Use the same random key chosen for encryption
Plaintext – ASCII (1 and 2)	0110001 0110010	Decrypted from Exclusive OR Ciphertext

The Vernam cipher is known as a one-time pad as the key must only be used once.

If the key is randomly chosen and used only once, unlike other ciphers, the resultant ciphertext is secure no matter how much time is spent trying to crack the code, so the Vernam cipher is a perfect cipher.

- i** **Computational security** is a term used to indicate the effectiveness of a cipher.

As stated, the Vernam cipher is considered to be 100% mathematically secure.

In theory, every other cipher can be broken given sufficient ciphertext and time; encryption (e.g. Caesar cipher) can be cracked by the recognition of patterns or by the dictionary process of trying all possible keys.



5.6 – Progress Check

19. Explain the difference between lossless and lossy compression (4 marks)
20. Define the terms 'encryption' and 'cryptography' (2 marks)
21. Briefly describe the Caesar cipher algorithm and decrypt the ciphertext:
CU EQORWVGT UEKGPEG
that has been encrypted with a Caesar cipher and a right shift of two (6 marks)

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TOPIC 6 – COMPUTER SYSTEMS

6.1 HARDWARE AND SOFTWARE

Relationship between hardware and software

A computer system operates with hardware and software to create a functional solution.

Computer hardware is the physical part of a computer, which includes digital circuitry, as distinguished from the applications software that is executed using the hardware. The processing hardware is necessary to gain a useable output from the system.

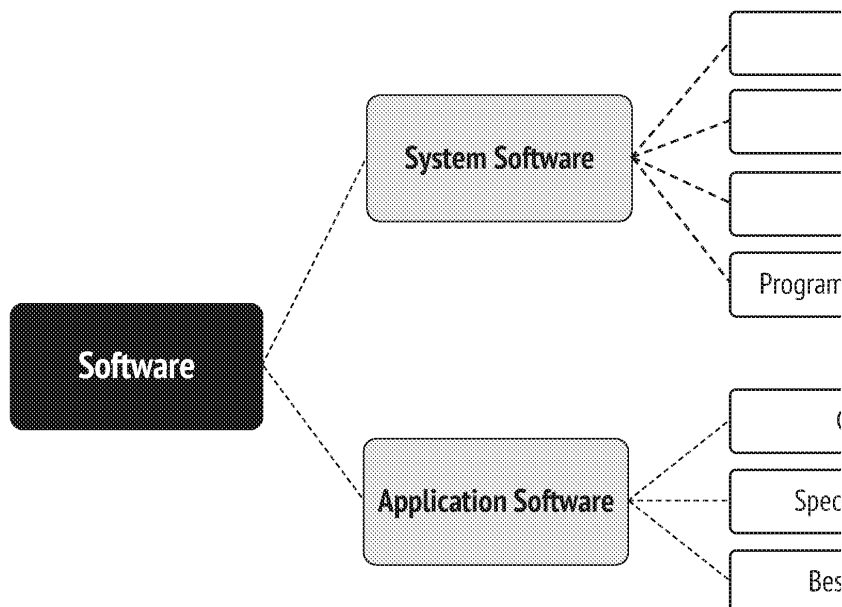
Software can be classified as systems software and applications software – the diagram below shows the types of software included in each.

Software
instructi

Hardware
up a con

Systems
tasks to

Applicat
out user
(GP), Pay



Systems software

Software	Main Features
Operating System (OS)	<p>The operating system (OS) is the software that controls the hardware hardware by creating a platform to run application software.</p> <p>Hiding the complexity of the hardware with a Windows-based operat machine that has a user-friendly interface and operates in the same r of the computer system.</p> <p>Main functions include: resource management and the creation of use conflicts where a resource, such as a printer, is requested by more th time; the OS manages these resource requests in a systematic way. O be managed are processor allocation, peripheral hardware devices, m</p>
Library Programs	<p>Library programs are pre-written software that is stored in compiled i programmer within one or more programs. Library functions are wide interacting with peripherals such as printers.</p> <p>A typical example of a library function from the mathematics library - calculate a square root.</p>

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Software	Main Features
Utility Programs	Utility programs are a range of systems software that is designed to optimise the system. Main functions include: disk formatting, file compression, memory testing and anti-virus protection.
Programming Language Translators	<p>Programming language translators are used to translate a program in different programming language and to maintain the functionality of using one of the following software programs:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Assembler – used for assembly language programs 2. Compiler – used for program languages such as: C++, Visual Basic 3. Interpreter – used for program languages such as: some versions of Java

6.2 CLASSIFICATION OF PROGRAMMING LANGUAGES

Programming languages				
Programming languages can be classified as listed below.				
Language	Sample Code			
Low-level (1 st Generation) Machine Code	Load data into register 8, taken from memory cell 68 where location codes are listed in register 3:			
	Operation	Register Operations		Memory Address
	35	3	8	68
	100011	00011	01000	00000 00001 00100
Low-level (2 nd Generation) Assembly Language	SET r1, 12 ; set register 1 to 12 STORE A, r1 ; store register 1 contents into variable A LOAD r2, A ; load variable A into register 2 STORE B, r2 ; store register 2 contents into variable B The ';' symbol is used to add comments			
	IF (ExamScore > 55) THEN ExamGrade = "Pass" ELSE ExamGrade = "Fail" END IF			
High-level	Sample to create database table in SQL:			
	CREATE TABLE Subjects (Subject_Id int NOT NULL AUTO_INCREMENT, Student_Id int, Subject varchar(20), Subject_Mark int, FOREIGN KEY (Student_Id) REFERENCES Students (Student_Id))			
Imperative Languages				
High-level languages include imperative languages, which is where the program statements are executed in a sequence or order as defined by the programmer. These languages, sometimes known as structured languages, use subroutines and functions to aid readability and hence maintainability.				
Low-level languages are imperative as all instructions are executed in a set sequence; each instruction is translated into numerous machine code statements prior to the execution of the code.				

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Machine-code and assembly languages compared to high-level languages

Advantages	Programming in low-level code can create faster and more efficient performance level of the created code; with high-level programming create optimised code.
	Low-level language code is memory efficient due to the lack of abstraction in high level languages.
Disadvantages	It is difficult to learn to program in low-level languages whereas high-level languages have many learning and training options.
	High-level code can be self-documenting which makes it more understandable for maintenance and debugging.
	Machine-code and assembly programs are specific to a limited range of processors; high-level languages can be compiled to run on a wide range of processors.



6.2 – Progress Check

1. Explain the difference between hardware and software (4 marks)
2. Describe the following:
 - (a) Machine code (2 marks)
 - (b) Assembly language (2 marks)
3. Describe the advantages and disadvantages of machine code and assembly language compared to high-level languages (6 marks)

6.3 TYPES OF PROGRAM TRANSLATOR

Types of program translator

i Source code is the language instructions that have been written by the computer programmer. The computer cannot execute the source code directly.	➔	i Object Code (or executable code) is the machine code that the computer can execute. It is created by translating the source code using instructions that the computer can understand.
---	---	---

Programming languages can be classified as listed below.

Translator	Characteristics	
Assemblers	The source code is written in assembly language, which is a series of machine operational codes; assembly code is the most difficult language to write and debug it.	
	Advantage: it is an efficient low-level language that can be translated quickly as it has a one-to-one relationship with machine code.	Disadvantage: programming is tedious and error-prone.
Compilers	The source code created by the programmer is not understandable by the computer; a compiler converts the source code to object code, which the computer can execute. The object code matches the target computer that will run the software.	
	Advantage: an executable file is produced which runs without the need of the source code; this makes the source code more secure as it does not need to be distributed to the customer.	Disadvantages: long time to create the executable code; need to be produced; source code is not visible; errors are hard to correct then.

Translator	Characteristics	
Intermediate Language	<p>Some compilers create a final output in an intermediate language, such as Java, which can then be run on a virtual machine (VM) rather than on a central processing unit (CPU). This means the program is portable and not machine dependent when in VM format.</p> <p>A bytecode interpreter is used to translate the VM code into machine language. The machine code is then executed. Although the bytecode interpretation takes time, the final program is more efficient than if the source code was compiled directly; this approach is known as Just In Time compilation.</p>	
Interpreters	<p>Interpreter software normally executes the source code directly, it is translated into machine code and then compiled to compile the program.</p> <p>Interpreted software runs more slowly than compiled software as each statement is translated before it is executed.</p> <p>Advantage: during development the programmer might make frequent changes, which can be tested without going through the time-consuming process of compiling and linking for each change.</p>	<p>Disadvantage: the target computer must have the interpreter software installed. Additionally, the development time is longer than a compiled program.</p>



6.3 – Progress Check

- Define the terms 'source code' and 'object code' (4 marks)
- Describe the advantages and disadvantages of using an assembler as a translator
- Describe the advantages and disadvantages of using a compiler as a translator
- Describe the advantages and disadvantages of using an interpreter as a translator

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6.4 LOGIC GATES

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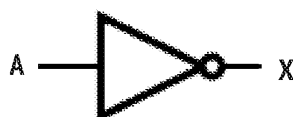
Logic gates

Binary numbers are stored in a computer system as different voltage levels where 0 is low voltage and 1 is high voltage.

The electronic circuits used in computers can be wired together to form logical operations; these circuits are based on logic gates.

NOT

- The output is the inverse (opposite) of the input.



AND

- Two or more inputs where the output is true if all inputs are true.



OR

- Two or more inputs where the output is true if either or both inputs are true.



XOR

- Two or more inputs where the output is true ONLY if one input is exclusively true.



NAND

- Two or more inputs where the output is false when all inputs are true.



NOR

Two or more inputs where the output is true when all inputs are false.



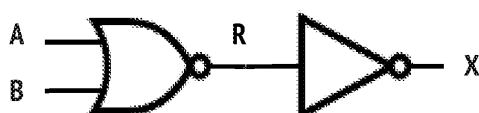
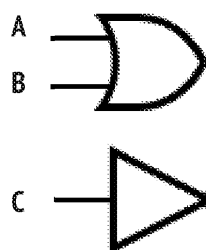
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Logic circuits and Boolean algebra

Logic gates can be combined to form **logic circuits**, for example the NOR and NOT gates shown below with the truth table for the circuit.

Boolean expressions are used in computer programs; when these expressions are evaluated they give a Boolean Logic output of either True or False.



A	
0	
0	
1	
1	

Boolean algebra is used to show logical expressions in the truth table, such as:

$$R = (A \text{ NOR } B)$$

The Boolean expression for the complete logic circuit is:

$$X = \text{NOT } (A \text{ NOR } B)$$

Drawing logic diagrams from Boolean expressions

Logic diagrams can be drawn from Boolean expressions, such as: $X = (A \text{ OR } B) \text{ AND } (\text{NOT } C)$

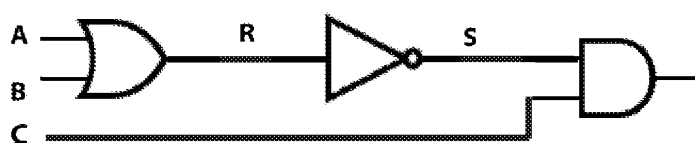
Draw complex logic diagrams by first drawing the bracketed terms, so in this case:

1. Draw the logic gate for A OR B
2. Then draw the logic gate for NOT C
3. Finally draw both inputs connected to an AND gate



6.4 – Progress Check

8. Use the following complex logic diagram to work out the outputs for various inputs.



- (a) State the outputs R, S and T when the following inputs are:
A = 0 B=1 C = 0 (3 marks)
 - (b) State the outputs R, S and T when the following inputs are:
A = 0 B=0 C = 1 (3 marks)
 - (c) State the outputs R, S and T when the following inputs are:
A = 1 B=1 C = 0 (3 marks)
 - (d) State the outputs R, S and T when the following inputs are:
A = 1 B=1 C = 1 (3 marks)
- 9 Draw the logic circuit for $Q = (A \text{ OR } B) \text{ AND } (C \text{ OR } D)$ (3 marks)

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Some useful Boolean identities are shown below, where + is a logical OR and '·' is a logical AND.

$A \cdot B = \overline{\overline{A} \cdot \overline{B}}$

The laws are

1. Char
2. Char
3. Char

$A =$

4. Char

express

exp

(and

Remove identity $(B \cdot \overline{B}) = 0$



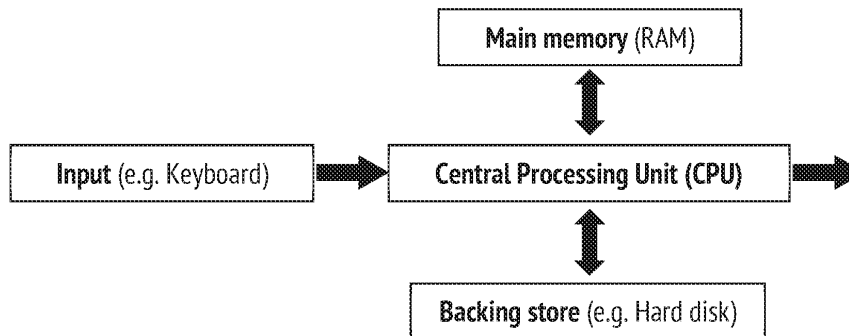
TOPIC 7 – COMPUTER ORGANISATION AND

7.1 INTERNAL HARDWARE COMPONENTS OF A COMPUTER

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Internal hardware components of a computer

All ICT systems have these same essential components and some typical examples of devices. The main part of the system is the CPU, which is a single chip responsible for all the processing.



Computer hardware	The physical components of the computer system, which includes the processing hardware. The processing hardware is necessary to gain a useable output from the system.
Backing store	Normally a hard disk, which retains the data written on to it after switched off; it could include other storage devices such as flash memory.
Input devices	Typically includes a mouse, keyboard and microphone.
Output devices	System output can be printed out by the user or displayed on a computer monitor.
Power supply	Used to convert alternating current (AC) into low-voltage direct current (DC) to power the internal components within the computer system.

The processor is responsible for following instructions in order to process data and produce an output.

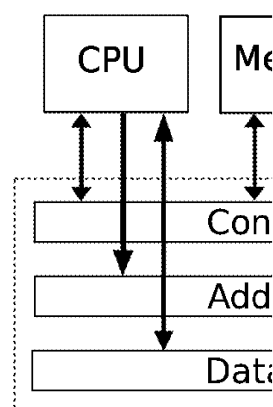
- Sorting and searching data
- Logical decision making
- Performing calculations
- Control of input, output and storage devices

Bus system

The bus system is composed of the communication links which connect the various parts of a computer.

The three buses involved are the address, data and the control bus; the direction of data flow for each bus is shown.

- i Main memory** stores program instructions and data that are processed by the processor.
- i Address bus** specifies a physical address in main memory and the value that is to be read or written into that address is communicated via the data bus.
- i Control bus** manages data processing; for example, sends a signal to either write from the data bus to a memory address or a signal to read from a memory address.
- i Input and output** – control signals received from the processor include input (read) or output (write) signals; these signals are then used to connect a system bus to specific I/O devices; typical I/O devices include a mouse with outputs to monitor and printer.



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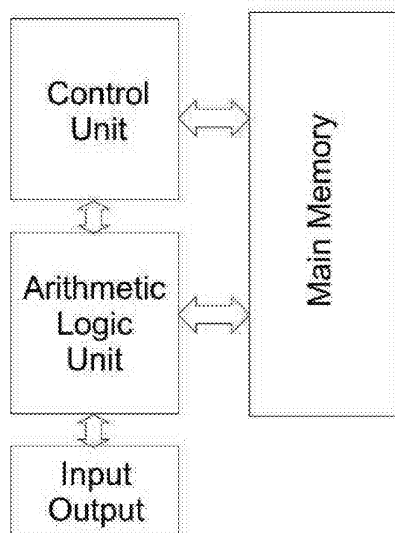
Computer architectures

Van Neumann architecture

The Van Neumann stored program architecture is based on both data and instructions stored in a single memory space.

Data and instructions are transmitted through a shared data bus.

Van Neumann architecture is used extensively in general purpose computing systems.

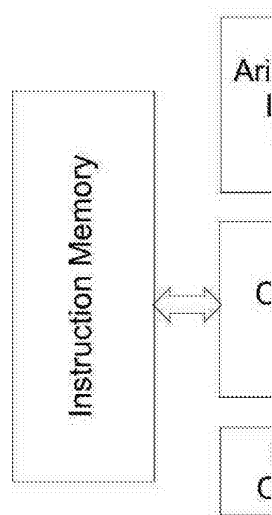


Harvard architecture

The Harvard architecture is based on being stored in separate memories; memory serially and data is fetched

The Harvard technique may be faster and data can take place in parallel.

Embedded systems such as digital signal processors use Harvard architecture extensively. Traffic lights and burglar alarms make



Addressable memory

The processor needs to be able to address individual memory locations, so each memory location has a numeric code.

To select a memory location the following steps are taken:

1. The processor writes the numeric code into the address bus
2. The processor sends a request to the control bus with instructions to read or write
3. Finally, the data that is being read from or written to will be transferred via the data bus

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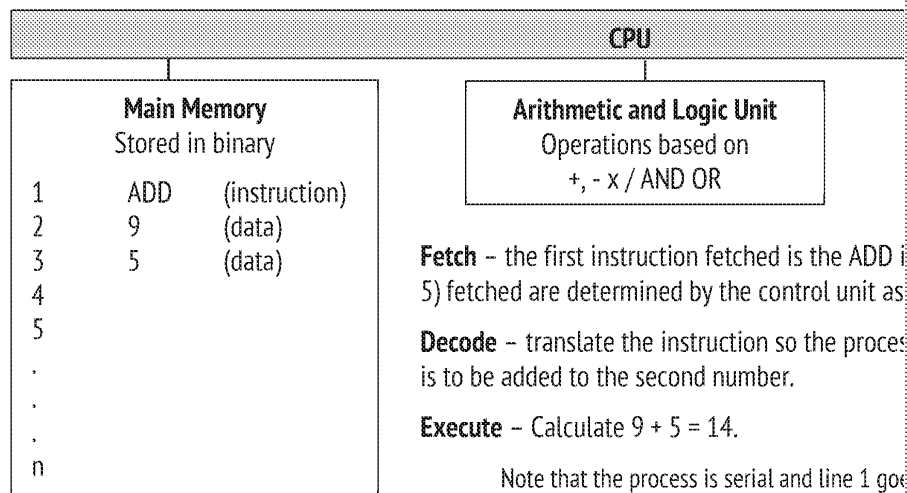
7.1 – Progress Check

1. Briefly describe the function of the following computer architecture terms:
 - (a) CPU (2 marks)
 - (b) Main memory (2 marks)
 - (c) Address bus (2 marks)
 - (d) Control bus (2 marks)
 - (e) I/O controller (2 marks)
 - (f) Arithmetic logic unit (2 marks)
2. Describe, with the aid of a sketch, the Van Neumann program architecture.

7.2 THE STORED PROGRAM CONCEPT

The stored program concept

The program is stored in main memory and machine code instructions are fetched and executed serially in the processor. The example below shows a typical arithmetic operation using the fetch-execute cycle (described fully in section 7.3).



7.3 STRUCTURE AND ROLE OF THE PROCESSOR AND ITS COMPONENTS

The processor and its components

Arithmetic logic unit	Performs arithmetic and logical operations, such as fixed point and floating point arithmetic, logical operations (AND, OR, XOR) and shift operations. Inputs are from the internal bus and the accumulator, with outputs routed to one of the registers.
Control unit	Main function is to fetch program instructions from memory, to decode them and to execute them serially.
Clock	System clock sends a signal to each of the computer components on a regular basis to synchronise all of the computer operations.
Register	A fast memory location that exists in the processor or the I/O controller. The computer consists of general purpose and dedicated registers.

i **General purpose registers** (normally named R0, R1, R2, etc.) can be used to hold instructions and data.

i **Dedicated registers** are used by the processor to carry out a specific role:

Accumulator (ACC)	Special register used as fast temporary storage by the ALU.
Status register (SR)	Used to hold the status of various flags indicating carry bit used, overflow error, and interrupt status dependent upon the processor involved.
Program counter (PC)	Register that holds the address of the next instruction to be fetched.
Memory address register (MAR)	Holds the address of the current instruction being fetched.
Memory buffer register (MBR)	Holds the instruction from the (MAR) and the associated data.
Current Instruction register (CIR)	Used to store the instruction that is to be decoded and executed.

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7.3 – Progress Check

3. Define the term 'register' and the difference between general purpose and dedicated registers.
4. Briefly describe the function of the following dedicated registers:
 - (a) Status register (2 marks)
 - (b) Program counter (2 marks)
 - (c) Memory address register (2 marks)
 - (d) Memory buffer register (2 marks)
 - (e) Current instruction register (2 marks)

The fetch-execute cycle and the role of registers within it

After the computer is switched on it performs the fetch-execute cycle; this process reads the main memory (RAM) and these instructions are then executed by the processor.

Once the instruction has been executed the process is repeated to read the next instruction and are described below:

Fetch:

1. Program counter (PC) points to next instruction to be fetched.
2. Contents of (PC) copied into memory address register (MAR).
3. The instruction in (MAR) is transferred via the data bus to the memory buffer register (MBR).
4. The contents of the (MBR) are copied to instruction register (CIR) and the program counter (PC) is updated to address next instruction.

Decode:

The instruction in the (CIR) is decoded.

Execute:

1. The decoded instruction is executed.
2. The process is repeated.

Execute
instruction



7.3 – Progress Check

5. Describe, with the aid of a sketch, the fetch-execute cycle and the role of registers within it.

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The processor instruction set

i **Machine code** instructions are written in binary code that the processor can interpret and execute. It is convenient to write software in high-level languages; these high-level languages are converted to machine code that can be understood and executed by the processor.

i The **instruction set** is the set of the machine code instructions that a particular type of processor can execute. Two different types of processor can only be compatible if they are able to operate the same set of instructions. The following operations:

- Arithmetic operations (ADD, SUB)
- Data transfer operation (MOV, OUT)
- Logical operations (AND, OR)
- Jump operations (JMP, JZ – jump if zero)

A machine code instruction consists of an operation or op-code and an operand, as shown in the table below:

Op-Code	Operand
4 bit	12 bit

i **Op-code** instructions are the part of a machine code instruction that represents a basic operation.

i **Operand** is a value or memory address that forms part of a machine code instruction.

Instructions consist of an op-code and an operand, where the op-code contains a basic machine operation and the operand contains a value or a memory address.

Some typical examples are shown in the table below:

Op-code	Operand	Machine Operation	Explanation
0001	0000 0000 1111	Load into accumulator	Load the contents of the operand into the accumulator
0100	0000 0000 0111	Add 7	Add 7 to contents of accumulator
1000	0000 0000 0011	Store to main memory	Store the contents of the accumulator to main memory

* **Note:** you will be expected to interpret op-codes rather than define them in the given context.

Addressing modes

Instructions and data are located in memory by using addressing modes; the specification of the addressing mode is part of the instruction. The two basic addressing modes are immediate and direct addressing modes.

i **Immediate addressing** means that the data in the operand is fixed; in other words, it is a constant. This is a very fast addressing mode since the data is readily available, rather than needing to be fetched from memory. Typical example: ADD 12 – this instruction could be used to add 12 to the accumulator.

i **Direct addressing**, or absolute addressing, means that the code is directly referred to a memory location. Example: ADD (1302) – this instruction adds the contents of memory location (1302) to the accumulator.

The disadvantage of using code that directly refers to memory addresses is that the code is not portable. It is typically used on single-program systems, such as a car engine fuel control system.

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7.3 – Progress Check

- Briefly describe the following processor instruction set terms:
 - Machine code (2 marks)
 - Op-code (2 marks)
 - Operand (2 marks)
 - Instruction set (2 marks)
- Compare the immediate and direct addressing modes (4 marks)

Machine code / assembly language operations based on ARM (Raspberry Pi)

- Assembly language** is used to make machine code instructions more understandable to humans.
- ARM** is a load-store architecture meaning that memory can only be accessed by:
 - Loading from memory into a register
 - Storing the result back into memory

Basic machine code operations that can be expressed in mnemonic form (assembly language)

Immediate address examples:	Immediate address loads the data without reference to an address. <i># indicates that the operand is a number</i>
LDR r1, #12	1. Loads the number 12 into the register r1
ADD r2, r1, #5	2. Adds the number 5 to value in r1 and stores result in r2
SUB r3, r2, #3	3. Subtracts the number 3 from value in r2 and stores result in r3
STR r3, 1203	4. Stores the contents of the register r3 (14) into memory address 1203

Direct address examples:	In this case the operand is a memory address
LDR r1, 12	1. Loads data in memory address 12 (4) into r1
ADD r2, r1, 13	2. Adds the data in memory address 13 (5) to r1 and stores result in r2 (making 9)
SUB r3, r2, 14	3. Subtracts the data in memory address 14 (3) from the r2 and stores result in r3 (making 6)
STR r3, 150	4. Stores the result in r3, which is $4 + 5 - 3 = 6$ into memory address 150

Compare is used to compare two values; the result is normally used as a setup for a conditional branch.

CMP r1, #23	compares r1 with the number 23 (immediate addressing).
CMP r1, 23	compares r1 with the number stored in memory address 23 (direct addressing).
CMP r1, r2	compares r1 with register r2

Branching

- Branching** is used for conditional statements or unconditional statements.
- A **label** is a sequence of characters that identifies a location in computer source code. It is commonly used in branch or jump instructions in assembler code.

- Unconditional branching** is a command where a section of code is jumped over, with the program continuing at a specified location.

...	some code
B Next	unconditional branch to label 'Next'
...	some more code
Next	label 'Next'
...	code continues

- Conditional branching** is a command where a section of code is jumped over based on the result of a comparison.

...	some code
CMP r1, r2	compares contents of registers r1 and r2
BEQ End	branch to label 'End' if contents of r1 = r2
...	some more code
End	label 'End'

Other branches include:

BNE	Branch not equal
BLT	Branch less than
BGT	Branch greater than

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High-level to assembly code conversion

Example

```
Total ← 0
FOR X = 1 TO 5
    Total ← Total + 10
END
```

Use r1 to store value of Total and r2 to store the value of X

	MOV r1, #0	initialise Total = 0
	MOV r2, #1	initialise X = 1
loop	CMP r1, r2	compare the value of r2 with #5
	BNE end	r1 = r2 so branch to end of loop label
	ADD r1, r1, #10	add 10 onto total
	ADD r2, r2, #1	increment X
	B loop	branch to start of loop
end	HALT	loop completed

Logical bitwise operator

i **Logical bitwise operator** is where a logical operation is carried out on each column of

In bitwise operations, the '#' symbol in the instructions below indicates that the operand is immediate addressing. Note – where no # symbol is used indicates that the operand is a m

AND r2, r1, #1101	Operand1 Operand2 AND result	0011 <u>1101</u> 0001	Performs a bitwise logical A register r1 (#0011) and the The result (#0001) is stored
ORR r2, r1, #1101	Operand1 Operand2 OR result	0011 <u>1101</u> 1111	Performs a bitwise logical O register r1 (#0011) and the The result (#1111) is stored
EOR r2, r1, #1101	Operand1 Operand2 XOR result	0011 <u>1101</u> 1110	Performs a bitwise logical E the value in register r1 (#00 The result (#1110) is stored
MVN r2, #0011	Operand NOT result	<u>0011</u> 1100	Performs a bitwise logical N The result (#1100) is stored

i **Logical shift** is a bitwise operation where all the bits of an operand are shifted left or
completed the vacant-bit positions are filled with zeros.

These bitwise operations are performed on unsigned integers as the sign bit is not preserv
zero. See examples below for further details.

Logical Shift Left LSL r1, r2, 2 operand is shifted left by 2 places	The value stored in places and the res So before shift After shift
Logical Shift Right LSR r1, r2, 5 operand is shifted left by 5 places	The value stored in places and the res So before shift After shift

i **Halt** simply terminates the program operation

HALT no operand needed for halt instruction

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7.3 – Progress Check

8. Convert the following program code into assembly language instructions

```
IF (A > B) THEN
    P ← 3
ELSE IF (A = B) THEN
    P ← 1
ELSE
    P ← 0
END IF
```

Use r1 to store A, r2 to store B and r3 to store P

Factors affecting processor performance

The factors and their impact on processor performance are outlined below:

Factor	Effect on processor performance
Clock Speed	<p>The clock speed is a key factor in the performance of a computer. It controls the process of executing an instruction as well as fetching instructions. Clock speed has increased regularly in recent years.</p> <p>Modern computer devices run at a clock speed in excess of 2.5 GHz per second. Computer performance can easily be increased by purchasing a faster device, but the more heat it produces and so additional cooling is needed.</p>
Number of Cores	<p>System performance can be improved by increasing the number of processors using a multi-core processor.</p> <p>A multi-core processor has more than one processor incorporated in a single chip. A dual-core processor will provide two processors on one chip, which improves performance.</p>
Cache Memory	<p>Cache is high-speed memory that is fitted close to or on the processor. Programs run faster using cache memory as it can be accessed faster than main memory. It stores frequently used data and instructions to further improve performance.</p>
Word Length	<p>Most modern processors use 32-bit or 64-bit word lengths; the performance increases with an increase in word length, providing that the word length and data bus width are matched.</p> <p>So, using a 64-bit word length with a 64-bit bus will allow 64 bits of data to be transferred per clock pulse.</p>
Address Bus Width	<p>The width of the address bus affects the amount of memory that can be accessed. Increasing the address bus width allows more memory to be installed on the system or embedded in the processor.</p>
Data Bus Width	<p>The width of the data bus directly affects how much data can be carried at once. A wider data bus allows more data to be transferred per clock pulse.</p> <p>Where the processor uses a 64-bit data bus, it obviously carries more data than a 32-bit bus. This means the processor can work faster. Where word size and data bus width are matched, data can always be carried out in one single process, which improves performance.</p>



7.3 – Progress Check

9. Describe how clock speed, number of cores and word length impact processor performance

7.4 EXTERNAL HARDWARE DEVICES

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Input and output devices	
Device	Description
Barcode reader	<p>A bar code represents a code number for a product and is a set of vertical lines of different thicknesses that represent a number.</p> <p>The lines may give information about:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Country of manufacture • Name of manufacturer • Product code <p>Barcode readers or scanners are used to input data from bar codes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It scans or 'reads' the barcode by using a visible red light • A light sensor measures the reflected light, where white are black areas so creating an analogue waveform of the bar code • The analogue waveform is converted into digital data that is product data • A check digit on the end of the bar code is used to ensure b.
Digital camera	<p>Pictures taken using a digital camera are stored on a memory card a</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Connecting the camera to the computer via a USB port or • By plugging the camera memory card into the computer car <p>Digital cameras operate as follows:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When a picture is taken the image strikes the camera sensor • The sensor records the amount of (RGB) light received and c • The image sensor records in RGB format so that all other co • The picture is then stored as an image file on a memory can • Image files can be stored in RAW uncompressed format that in compressed format such as JPG or TIFF <p>Image editing software can be used to modify images that have bee from the digital camera into the computer; typical improvements inc</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Red eye removal • Cropping or removing unwanted parts of the image • Modifying the brightness/contrast • Changing the image resolution
Laser printer	<p>Laser printers are used in many workplaces and function as follows:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • They operate on a page at a time and files that require print are sent to the laser printer using a page description langua • The printer processes this file and creates a bitmap pattern for the page • The printer laser beam scans along and across the drum ins the printer creating the same pattern as the page that requi printing; this builds up a pattern of static electricity which attracts toner (powdered ink) onto the page • The toner is then fused onto paper by heat and pressure, us <p>The main advantages of laser printers are their print speed; commer pages per minute and also there is high-quality dry page output.</p>

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RFID reader	Radio frequency identification tags (RFID), are fixed to products and be programmed with information, similar to a barcode.					
	The RFID reader operates as follows:					
	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• RFID tags have an antenna (normally a flat spiral aerial) that communicate with an RFID reader for tracking purposes• The RFID reader transmits a radio signal which is received by the tag and a programmed information code is returned to the reader• This code is then decoded and translated into digital data that identify the information received.					
	RFID tags can be used for security purposes in stores to prevent theft off an alarm when it is removed from the store.					
	<table><tr><th>Advantages</th><th></th></tr><tr><td>RFID tags do not need a power source as the signal from the 'reader' energises the passive tag and causes it to transmit its ID code.</td><td>The RFID tag does not have a power source.</td></tr></table>	Advantages		RFID tags do not need a power source as the signal from the 'reader' energises the passive tag and causes it to transmit its ID code.	The RFID tag does not have a power source.	
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Secondary storage devices							
Secondary storage devices are used in computer systems to avoid having to re-enter program data. They provide a non-volatile or permanent copy. Additionally, data can be stored more than once so there is a backup of the data from the secondary storage device.							
Device	Description						
Hard disk	<p>The most common form of secondary storage device is the internal hard disk drive, where:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Drive consists of a number of metal disks which have been coated with a special magnetic material• The disks are mounted on a common spindle and rotate at high speed• A series of read/write heads move across the disk surface together to access or store the data on the disk• The hard disk is mounted in a sealed unit and is connected to the power supply inside the computer						
	<p>Since the data is stored in this magnetic material the device is known as a magnetic storage device.</p> <p>Some hard disk drives are not permanently fixed inside the computer; other hard drives are even more portable as they can be connected to the computer via a USB cable.</p>						
	<table><tr><th colspan="2">Advantages</th></tr><tr><td>Hard disks have a high data transfer rate.</td><td>Where hard disk drives can be difficult to use.</td></tr><tr><td>High storage capacity (typically 500 gigabytes to 10 terabytes)</td><td>Care has to be taken to ensure the data is not lost.</td></tr></table>		Advantages		Hard disks have a high data transfer rate.	Where hard disk drives can be difficult to use.	High storage capacity (typically 500 gigabytes to 10 terabytes)
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High storage capacity (typically 500 gigabytes to 10 terabytes)	Care has to be taken to ensure the data is not lost.						

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Optical disk	<p>Optical disks are known as optical storage devices, where:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The optical disk is a plastic disk with a mirrored surface Binary data is burned or pressed onto the surface of the disk as series of 'pits' and 'lands' Whichever method is used to create the disk, the 'pit' has a binary value of zero, whereas the 'lands' have a binary value of one Laser beams are used to read the data stored on the disk by reflecting different amounts of light, which can then be decoded <p>There are different types of optical disk available as follows:</p> <table border="1" data-bbox="427 488 834 719"> <thead> <tr> <th>Type of Disk</th><th>Storage Capacity</th></tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>CD</td><td>650 Mb</td></tr> <tr> <td>DVD</td><td>8.4 Gb</td></tr> <tr> <td>Blu-ray</td><td>25 Gb</td></tr> </tbody> </table> <p>Blu-ray disks can be produced with increasing their capacity</p> <table border="1" data-bbox="427 748 1074 1070"> <thead> <tr> <th colspan="2">Advantages</th></tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Portable device that is cheap to produce – typical blank disks cost between 10p–50p each.</td><td>Care needed to keep the shiny surface free from scratches</td></tr> <tr> <td>Reasonable storage capacity for home and faster access time than magnetic tape.</td><td>Less storage space is unsuitable for large data sets</td></tr> <tr> <td>Optical drives are compatible with CD and DVD disks so data can be read from either media.</td><td>Access time is slower than SSD devices</td></tr> </tbody> </table>	Type of Disk	Storage Capacity	CD	650 Mb	DVD	8.4 Gb	Blu-ray	25 Gb	Advantages		Portable device that is cheap to produce – typical blank disks cost between 10p–50p each.	Care needed to keep the shiny surface free from scratches	Reasonable storage capacity for home and faster access time than magnetic tape.	Less storage space is unsuitable for large data sets	Optical drives are compatible with CD and DVD disks so data can be read from either media.	Access time is slower than SSD devices
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Optical drives are compatible with CD and DVD disks so data can be read from either media.	Access time is slower than SSD devices																
Solid-state disk (SSD)	<p>Solid-state disks act in a similar way to a hard drive except they are flash memory secondary storage devices where:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> They are based on non-volatile NAND flash memory with a controller to manage pages, blocks of data and the complexities of writing The flash memory cells are grouped into a grid that is separated into sections called 'pages', into which the data is written A block consists of many pages and pages cannot be overwritten until the block has to be erased before the page can be overwritten <table border="1" data-bbox="419 1476 1074 1787"> <thead> <tr> <th colspan="2">SSD compared to hard disk</th></tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Speed</td><td>SSDs perform faster than hard drives as there are no moving parts, consequently they can read, write and access data faster. Latency is a feature of hard disks as they are slow to position read/write heads over the disk to access data</td></tr> <tr> <td>Cost</td><td>SSDs are significantly more expensive to purchase than hard disk drives, but they have a smaller capacity than hard disk drives.</td></tr> </tbody> </table>	SSD compared to hard disk		Speed	SSDs perform faster than hard drives as there are no moving parts, consequently they can read, write and access data faster. Latency is a feature of hard disks as they are slow to position read/write heads over the disk to access data	Cost	SSDs are significantly more expensive to purchase than hard disk drives, but they have a smaller capacity than hard disk drives.										
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7.4 – Progress Check

- Describe the operation and uses of an RFID reader (6 marks)
- Compare the relative advantages of using hard disks or solid-state disks for storage (4 marks)

TOPIC 8 – CONSEQUENCES OF USES OF

8.1 INDIVIDUAL, SOCIAL, LEGAL AND CULTURAL ISSUES A

Individual and social issues

Morals are a set of principles that apply to an individual, but moral standards might be different for individuals based on what they consider to be 'right' or 'wrong'.

There are many definitions of ethical standards; for example, 'it is a set of principles to protect what is good for individuals and society'. In computing, ethical standards are the behaviours expected by the organisations to which the individual belongs.

Ideally individual moral codes would be similar to the ethics practised by computer professionals. However, individuals are not well regulated and there is a tendency to act outside of the law. Legislation has been introduced to try to prevent this behaviour.

The information below is a shortened version of the widely used **Software Engineering Code of Ethics and Professional Practice** created by ACM (Association for Computer Machinery) and the IEEE (Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers).

Software Engineering Code of Ethics and Professional Practice

PREAMBLE

Software engineers shall commit themselves to making the analysis, specification, development, testing and maintenance of software a beneficial and respected professional activity. In so doing, they shall be committed to the health, safety and welfare of the public, software engineers shall follow the following Eight Principles:

1. **PUBLIC** - Software engineers shall act consistently with the public interest.
2. **CLIENT AND EMPLOYER** - Software engineers shall act in a manner consistent with the public interest.
3. **PRODUCT** - Software engineers shall ensure that their products and services meet the highest professional standards possible.
4. **JUDGMENT** - Software engineers shall maintain integrity and independence in their professional judgment.
5. **MANAGEMENT** - Software engineering managers and leaders shall support the professional development of software engineers and shall approach to the management of software development and maintenance with a professional and ethical approach.
6. **PROFESSION** - Software engineers shall advance the integrity and reputation of the profession consistent with the public interest.
7. **COLLEAGUES** - Software engineers shall be fair to and supportive of their colleagues.
8. **SELF** - Software engineers shall participate in lifelong learning regarding their profession and shall promote an ethical approach to the practice of the profession.

See www.acm.org

There are many ethical responsibilities for software engineers and computer scientists to ensure that their disposal is not misused; typical ethical issues to be aware of are:

- To develop software that respects the privacy of those users that will be affected.
- To only use accurate data derived by ethical and lawful means.
- To maintain the integrity of data.
- To not knowingly use software that has been obtained illegally.

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Legal issues

The following legislation is important when creating computer systems:

- Data Protection Act
- Copyright Law
- Computer Misuse Act

Data Protection Act (1998)

The Data Protection Act was introduced to ensure that the data held on clients conformed held securely, being up to date and not kept longer than necessary.

Keeping data secure is a key feature of this legislation and so when developing computer add a range of software methods to help protect client data, such as:

- **Passwords** entered in to software applications should only be accepted if they a strong passwords are created by using mixtures of numbers, letters, and symbols that the final password does not look like a word.
- **Encryption** is used to make stored data more secure, by making it unreadable to decode it. This method is commonly used to protect data transmitted over the In
- **Selective drop-down menus** are sometimes used as a security method to add let typing them; this prevents key-logging software from viewing the systems and g

Personal data moral issues include:

- Misuse of personal data – selling it to businesses that use the data for a different purpose to the original reason it was collected.
- Data security – personal data is stored on networks that can be broken into and stolen by hackers. In some cases government employees have lost laptop computers with unencrypted personal details of taxpayers which have got into the wrong hands, causing privacy issues.

Copyright Design and Patents Act (1988)

The Copyright Design and Patents Act introduced to protect the intellectual property of inc and produce materials based on their own individual ideas.

The computing industry has grown tremendously in recent years with a great many new cc

Copyright legislation is useful in protecting the following aspects of computer technology:

- **Piracy** is the illegal copying of software for either personal use or business use; t can include illegal downloading of games and music as well as commercial softy
- **Theft** of hardware and software ideas and innovations. In an industry that moves time to patent your invention before you release it on to the open market. Many their rivals' products with the express purpose of copying their ideas, which save expense on research and development.

Protecting your copyright is especially worthwhile when you or your organisation have inv a new hardware or software concept.

There are many websites that can help the creator to protect and patent their work. The n that they make the public aware of their intellectual property rights; this can be achieved with their products, stating that their designs are copyrighted, can't be modified or copied 'reverse engineering' techniques can be used to produce replicas.

Copyright issues include:

- Unauthorised use of software – downloading or copying software illegally witho purchasing the necessary software licence
- Illegal copying of music and films
- Illegal copying of web content

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Computer Misuse Act (1990)

The Computer Misuse Act was introduced with the express purpose of preventing attacks on ICT systems to commit crimes or to damage the system; this legislation made hacking and the introduction of a computer virus into criminal offences.

Hacking is the practice of breaking into computer systems and it is essential that preventative measures are taken. The main techniques are to utilise a **firewall** and to set up some intrusion detection.

ICT systems are constantly communicating with the outside world, which involves associated difficulty of effectively policing access to the system. A firewall is a combination designed to check the integrity of incoming messages and requests for service from the system.

Intrusion detection systems (IDS) are designed to monitor the network or computer system. If an intrusion is detected a report is produced which is sent to the network management for further action.

A computer **virus** is a program designed to cause damage to a computer system. The use of antivirus software helps to minimise the risk from viruses; this software searches the computer system for viruses.

Spyware can be loaded into a computer system as a software virus, so it is important to regularly scan for and prevent and detect spyware from being installed and to remove any spyware that has been detected.

i A **firewall** is used to prevent unauthorised access to the network or computer systems via the Internet.

i **Spyware** refers to programs that run in a computer system to gather information and pass it on to other interested parties.

i **Hacking** is the practice of breaking into computer systems.

Computer misuse issues include:

- Unauthorised access by hackers for fraud purposes or to gain access just for the sake of it.

Regulation of Investigatory Powers Act (2000)

Regulation of Investigatory Powers Act was introduced to explain the powers that public authorities, such as the intelligence services, the police and Customs and Excise have available when investigating crime or terrorism.

The main parts of this legislation are that the authorities can obtain information from:

- ISPs providing access to customer communications
- Telephone tapping
- Monitoring individuals' Internet activities
- Accessing protected information, if encrypted the authorities have the right to decrypt it, which means the encryption key must be handed over.

Regulation of Investigatory Powers (RIP) Act issues:

- There is concern that the RIPA powers might be abused by the authorities and not just by terrorists.



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Cultural and communication issues

In recent years there have been many developments in computer science and digital technology which have had a major impact on information flow and communication throughout the world.

This has led to the ability to analyse, monitor and distribute personal information on a large scale. Although in some cases the consequences of this improved communication can be beneficial to society, there is a risk that it can also be harmful.

Students are expected to have an understanding of the consequences and uses of computing

- One method to gain this knowledge is by making use of current technology news from the Internet
- Reading case studies will develop an understanding of the issues involved
- If the article does not give a balanced view of the issues, it might be useful to consider a different viewpoint

The following Internet news articles provide an insight into some of the modern issues regarding technology



'Twitter sues US Government over spying' from BBC Technology News (7th Octob
<http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/technology-29528665>



'Bionic drone bird aims to take flight' video from BBC Technology News (26th Jan
<http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/technology-30955444>



'Facebook U-turns on phone and address data sharing' from BBC Technology News
<http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/technology-12214628>



'Obama makes push for stronger cyber security laws' from BBC World News (14th
<http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/world-us-canada-30807463>



'Samsung's smart TVs fail to encrypt voice commands' from BBC Technology News
<http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/technology-31523497>



'Seven million use illegal files' from BBC Technology News (28th May 2009)
<http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/technology/8073068.stm>



8.1 – Progress Check

1. Compare the terms 'morals' and 'ethics' (4 marks)
2. Briefly discuss some of the ethical responsibilities faced by software engineers
3. The Computer Misuse Act was introduced with the express purpose of preventing people from committing crimes or to damage the system; describe the following related issues:
 - (a) Hacking (2 marks)
 - (b) Viruses (2 marks)
 - (c) Firewall (2 marks)
 - (d) Spyware (2 marks)



Research Tasks

Use the Internet to research the following:

1. Countries that have censorship on Internet activity
2. Cases where the authorities have abused their powers of the RIP Act
3. Situations where a public sector employee has lost a laptop and the sensitive personal data has been compromised

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TOPIC 9 – COMMUNICATION AND NETWORKS

9.1 COMMUNICATION

Communication methods

Data transmission refers to the transfer of data between two or more digital devices.

i **Serial** data transmission is where data is transmitted one bit at a time along a single cable.

i **Parallel** data transmission is where data is transmitted more than one bit at a time along multiple cables.

Serial vs Parallel

Speed	If a parallel data bus had eight cables it would, in theory, transmit data eight times faster than a serial bus.
Interference	There is interference between the parallel wires which reduces the bandwidth. Serial transmission bit rate is limited by interference.
Connections	Connecting cables are short to minimise the interference effect with parallel transmission. In serial connection there is no interference or noise problem so connecting cables can be long.
Cables	Parallel data transmission uses more cables than serial data transmission. Parallel cables are expensive to produce and more complex than serial cables.

i **Synchronous** data transmission is where a block of data is transmitted along with a clock signal. This will ensure that the data transmitter and receiver are synchronised.

Most network protocols make use of synchronous transmission, where data is sent in packets.

i **Asynchronous** data transmission is where a data stream is not synchronised and transmitted at fixed time intervals.

It is only synchronised for the transmission period by making use of start and stop bits; this method is normally used for communications over telephone lines.

Data transmitted asynchronously includes a start bit inserted for each unit of data and a stop bit to indicate the termination of the data transmission.

i **Start bit**

i **Stop bit**

Communication basics

i **Baud rate** is the number of symbols (or symbol changes) that are transferred across a communication channel. Baud rate is based on the number of bits encoded in each signal change; so, for example, if there are 8 bits per signal change the bit rate will be eight times higher than the baud rate.

i **Bit rate** is the number of bits transferred across network in a set amount of time; normally measured in bits per second (bps).

i **Bandwidth** is the speed of a network or the maximum rate at which data is transferred. It indicates the maximum amount of data that can pass from one point to another in a given time. Bandwidth is proportional to bandwidth.

i **Latency** is the term used in a packet switched network to measure the time delay between the source sending the packet and the destination receiving that packet.

Ping is a network utility used to measure latency; it works by calculating the time taken for a packet to travel from its source and destination.

i A **protocol** is a set of rules or standards which computers use for communication.

An example of a protocol is **TCP/IP** which provides a unique identifier for a device or computer. The transmission control protocol (**TCP**) sets the standard for the delivery of information packets.



9.1 – Progress Check

- Compare and contrast 'synchronous' and 'asynchronous' data transmission.
- Describe the following communication terms:
 - Bit rate (2 marks)
 - Bandwidth (2 marks)
 - Latency (2 marks)
 - Protocol (2 marks)

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9.2 NETWORKING

Network topology

- i** A network **topology** is a way of describing the interconnections and cabling of a group of devices.
- i** **Physical topology** is how the devices or a group of computers are physically connected.
- i** **Logical topology** is how the network devices communicate with each other.

Logical classification of network topologies has the same characteristics as their physical paths for a logical bus network follow the same route as those in a physical bus network.

Physical Star Topology

- i** The physical **star topology** is based on connecting each workstation to a single point such as a hub which may also be linked to a file server.

If one network cable breaks, the workstation connected to it also fails, but it does not affect the rest of the network.

However, if the central hub fails the whole network will be inoperative as each workstation relies on the central hub for communication.

Advantages	
If one of the network cables breaks only the computer connected to that cable is affected.	All communication takes the whole network will
Fast response time and no problems with data collision as each workstation has its own cable.	Uses the most cable when install. Also long cable degrade.
Security can be installed at the central hub.	

Physical Bus Topology

- i** When a physical **bus topology** is used, each workstation is connected to a single cable (often referred to as the 'backbone') which links all of the workstations.

The file server is connected to the main bus for data distribution to all the workstations.

Data can be transmitted in either direction along the main cable, and workstations can communicate with their peers.

A range of peripherals can also be connected to the main bus for shared usage.

The physically wired star topology can be dynamically reconfigured into a logical bus topology protocols and specialist equipment such as routers and switches.

Advantages	
If one workstation fails it does not affect the rest of the network.	If the main network cable fails workstations can access
Is cheaper to install as it uses the least cable as the cost of network cabling (particularly fibre optic) and the cost of network cable installation can be significant.	If there is heavy network traffic fall off dramatically.
	If the main bus fails all



9.2 – Progress Check

3. (a) Define the term 'network topology' (2 marks)
- (b) Explain the difference between physical and logical topology (2 marks)
4. (a) Explain, with a sketch, the physical star topology (2 marks)
- (b) Describe one advantage of the physical star topology (2 marks)
- (c) Describe one disadvantage of the physical star topology (2 marks)

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Client-server and peer-to-peer networking

Client-server networking

- ❶ A **client-server** model is where the workstations in any network design use the server to provide a service.
- ❷ **Client** is a computer or workstation on a typical network.
- ❸ **File server** is the computer with the main processing power and storage that interacts with the clients.

The client-server model has become one of the central ideas of network computing. Clients are the many workstations on the network and the file server is the more powerful system that interacts with the clients.

The client-server system diagram shows a range of client devices connected via the Internet.

In a school context: a student logs on to a workstation and opens a word processor application document for editing (requested from the server) and the document is sent to them from the server. Whenever the document is saved the changes will be made to the file server location.

Advantages	Disadvantages
The system facilitates a centralised backup.	Server failure can cause the whole network to be unusable.
Centralised data which is more consistent as there is only one copy in use. Any lost data can be restored centrally for all users.	Network management is a skilled task requiring maintenance.
Security policies for access control and associated usernames are managed centrally.	It is expensive and time-consuming to set up a network operating system, which involves managing all clients and the labour involved in maintaining the system.

Peer-to-peer networking

Peer-to-peer networks are different from client-server networks as they do not have special workstations which are used as servers. Instead any workstation on the network can load information from the hard disk or use a local printer for any other workstation, as all workstations have equal status.

In the diagram it should be noted that all workstations are linked to each other; complexity of cabling can be reduced nowadays by use of Wi-Fi.

Peer-to-peer networks are commonly used as local area networks (LANs) for general administration by either small businesses or in the home.

Note that in peer-to-peer networks all workstations need to be linked but it does not need to be a direct link.



9.2 – Progress Check

5. Explain, with a sketch, peer-to-peer networking (2 marks)
6. (a) Describe the client-server network model (2 marks)
 - (b) Describe one advantage of the client-server network model (1 mark)
 - (c) Describe one disadvantage of the client-server network model (1 mark)

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Wireless networking

i Wi-Fi allows devices, such as smartphones, tablets and laptops to communicate wirel

i A wireless access point is device that allows wireless devices to connect to a wired n

A **wireless adaptor** performs a similar function to a **network interface card (NIC)** but wirelessly. The wireless adaptor can be built into the computer or it can be a portable dev fitted into a USB port.

In a home or office network a wireless router transmits a Wi-Fi signal that can be shared t more than one device. This approach is used to share an Internet connection between sev devices using a mixture of Wi-Fi and Ethernet cable connectivity.

i WPA/WPA2 (Wi-Fi Protected Access) are encryption protocols designed to protect a V

This protocol is used whenever an attempt is made to connect to a secured wireless netw key or passcode. This ensures that the connection is secured with encryption.

In some cases the wireless access point has option to choose the security protocol; where is the latest and most secure encryption version.

i SSID (service set identification) is a unique 32-character identifier that is used to nan

It is necessary to ensure that a device is connected to the correct WLAN (wireless local area network); the normal approach to checking for this connectivity is to put a copy of the SSID into the header of each packet of data being sent.

This SSID code is unique to a specific WLAN and only devices that are programmed with t

i A MAC (Media Access Control) address is the physical address of a networking device identifier assigned by the manufacturer and is stored in the device's read-only memo

Security can be improved on a wireless network as follows: the router for a wireless netw to a white list of computers – these computers are identified by their unique MAC address; addresses of all the devices that are approved, accepted or recognised by the system.

Carrier Sense Multiple Access with Collision Avoidance (CSMA/CA)

i Carrier Sense Multiple Access with Collision Avoidance (CSMA/CA) operates by the c that it is about to transmit data. Other computers can then avoid a collision by delayi

CSMA/CA access methods can be used both with and without the Request to Send / Clear

With RTS/CTS	W
1. RTS signal is sent by the sender of the package	1. The computer war
2. then a CTS signal is sent by the intended receiver of the package	the channel is 'idle'
3. consequently the sender and receiver are aware of a data transmission and hold off for the duration of the main transmission	2. then it is able to s
	3. if the channel is sc
	and try again

The CSMA/CA method is widely used in WLANs although it has the disadvantage of reduci increases the amount of network traffic.

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9.2 – Progress Check

7. Describe the following networking terms:

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| (a) Wireless adaptor (2 marks) | (c) Service set identification (S |
| (b) Wi-Fi protected access (2 marks) | (d) MAC address (2 marks) |

ANSWERS

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Topic 5 – Data representation

5.1 N is the set of natural numbers (often termed as whole numbers) used for counting. The set of integer numbers that includes the natural numbers and their negative counterparts. All integers have no fractional part (1).

5.2 Convert binary 1110 0111 to decimal (2 marks)

128	64	32	16	8	4	2	1
1	1	1	0	0	1	1	

So $128 + 64 + 32 + 4 + 2 + 1 = 231_{10}$

5.3 Convert decimal 101 to binary (2 marks)

128	64	32	16	8	4	2	1
0	1	1	0	0	1	0	

5.4 Convert hexadecimal 3FA to decimal (2 marks)

First convert to binary, so $3FA_{16} = 001111111010_2$

3				F			
8	4	2	1	8	4	2	1
0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1

Then use the table to convert to decimal

512	256	128	64	32	16	8	4
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0

So $512 + 256 + 128 + 64 + 32 + 16 + 8 + 4 + 1 = 1018_{10}$

5.5 Convert decimal 7012 to hexadecimal (2 marks)

(1) 7012 decimal is converted to binary; therefore, $1101101100100_2 = 7012_{10}$

4096	2048	1024	512	256	128	64	32	16	8
1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0

(2) Split the binary number into nibbles and convert into hex to give $1B64_{16}$

5.6 Convert binary 0011 1111 to hexadecimal (2 marks)

- Treat the 8-bit binary code as two hexadecimal nibbles: 0011 and 1111.
- Which converts to 3 and B

So, $00111111_2 = 3B_{16}$

5.7 Convert hexadecimal B7 to binary (2 marks)

- Convert the two hexadecimal nibbles separately using the table, so $B_{16} = 1011$
- Join them together to form an 8-bit binary number.

So, $B7_{16} = 10110111_2$

5.8 A kibibyte (KiB) is a unit used for digital information (1), where 1 kibibyte = 1024 bytes

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5.9 Add the following unsigned binary numbers 00000101 and 11000100 (2 marks)

	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
Sum	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1
Carried	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	

So 00000101 + 11000100 = **11001001** binary

5.10 Multiply the following unsigned binary numbers 00010101 and 00000101 (2 marks)

			0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1
			0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
			0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1
0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1		
			0	1	1	0	1	0	0	1
Carry						1		1		

00010101 x 00000101 = 01101001 Binary

5.11 Subtract 24 – 12 using two's complement (2 marks)

$24_{10} = 0001\ 1000_2$ and

$12_{10} = 0000\ 1100_2$ which is $(1111\ 0011) + 1 = 1111\ 0100_2$ in two's complement form

	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	24
	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	-12
Sum	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	24 – 12 = 12
Carry	1	1	1	0	0	-	-	-	So $0001\ 1000_2 - 0000\ 11$

5.12 Convert fixed-point binary number **1001111100.1010** into decimal (3 marks)

First write the binary numbers into a table in the correct order

512	256	128	64	32	16	8	4	2	1	.	1/2	1/4
1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	.	1	0

Then add the decimal numbers where 1 is shown;

$1010000111.1010_2 = 512 + 64 + 32 + 16 + 8 + 4 + 0.5 + 0.125$

Alternatively $512 + 64 + 32 + 16 + 8 + 4 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{8} = 636.625$

5.13 ASCII is a seven-bit character set which offers 128 different characters (1) and many controlling peripherals (1); whereas Unicode is a 16-bit character set which offers 65,536 characters (1) and includes the character for any writing system in the world (1).

5.14 Even parity is where the numbers of 1's in the data to be transmitted is counted and a parity bit is set (1) to 1. In the example below the 7-Bit ASCII code for Q is 1010001 parity bit is set (1) to 1.

Parity Bit	ASCII Code for Q					
1	1	0	1	0	0	

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5.15 Analogue to digital converters (ADC) converts an analogue signal that varies continuously into a digital signal.

Analogue signals are input into the device in the form of voltage waveforms (1) that are converted into a digital format before they can be read and understood by the computer (1).

Digital to analogue converters (DAC) convert a discrete digital signal (1) into a continuous analogue signal that is outputted from a computer (1). For example, sound outputs from a computer need to be converted into analogue signals for use by speakers.

5.16 Digital image terms:

- (a) Colour depth is the number of bits used for each pixel (1), where 1 bit is black and 0 is white (1).
- (b) Resolution is the number of pixels per inch (1) – often termed dpi or dots per inch (1).
- (c) Metadata is included in an image file (1) and gives details of image height, width and file size (1).

5.17 Calculate the memory used in kilobytes for a digital photographic image that is 8,500 pixels wide by 4,020 pixels high with colour depth 24 bpp (bits per pixel) where 1 byte = 8 bits (2).

Total pixels = $8500 \times 4020 = 34,170,000$
 File size (bytes) = total pixels * (colour depth / bits per byte)
 = $34,170,000 \times (24/8) = 102,510,000$
 File size (MB) = $102,510,000 / (1,024 \times 1,024) = 97.76 \text{ MB}$

5.18 Digital sound terms:

- (a) Sampling rate is the number of samples taken per second from the analogue input (1).
- (b) Sampling resolution (or audio bit depth) is the number of bits used to store each sample (1).

5.19 Lossless compression is where a file can be compressed (1) but the facility exists to decompress it back to its exact original format (1). Lossy compression is where a file is compressed by removing some data (1), so it is not possible to create an exact copy of the original file (1).

5.20 Encryption is used to make stored data more secure from hackers by making it unreadable without the key to decrypt or decode it (1). Cryptography is the process of creating ciphertext (known as encryption) and turning it back to the original plaintext (known as decryption) (1).

5.21 The Caesar cipher is a commonly used and simple substitution cipher; using this technique each letter in a message is replaced (1) by a different letter of the alphabet, a fixed position away (1).

The ciphertext: CU EQORWVGT UEKGPEG that has been encrypted with a Caesar cipher. Using the decryption key of a right shift by two places in the alphabet decrypts the message to: 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

Topic 6 – Computer systems

6.1 Software is the actual programs or coded instructions (1) that make the computer perform tasks. Hardware is the physical parts (1) that make up a computer system (1).

6.2 Programming languages:

- (a) Machine code is the set of binary instructions (1) that are used by the CPU to execute programs (1).
- (b) Assembly language is a low-level computer programming language (1) which is a human-readable representation of machine code (1). Each instruction is one machine operation (1).
- (c) High-level language is a computer programming language (1) based on natural language (1) and uses abstract notation (1).

6.3 The advantages of machine code and assembly languages compared to high level languages are:

- Programming in low-level code can create faster and more efficient code as the programmer has more control over the performance level of the created code (1); with high-level programming there is more abstraction and the code is less optimised (1).
- Low-level language code is memory efficient due to the lack of abstraction in high-level languages (1).

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The disadvantages of machine code and assembly languages compared to high level

- It is difficult to learn to program in low-level languages whereas high-level languages have many training options (1).
- High-level code can be self-documenting which makes it more understandable and debugging (1)
- Machine-code and assembly programs are specific to a limited range of processors whereas high-level code can be compiled to run on a wide range of processors (1).

6.4 Source code is the language instructions that have been written by the programmer. The computer cannot run or execute the source code directly (1).

Object Code (or executable code) is translated from the source code (1) using an assembler. It consists of instructions that can be understood and executed by the computer (1).

6.5 The assembler translates this source code into machine code that the computer can execute. The advantage of using assembly language is it is an efficient low-level language (1) and has a one-to-one relationship with machine code (1).

The main disadvantage of using an assembly programming language is that it is complex and requires a lot of programming time and expertise (1).

6.6 A software application called a compiler converts the source code to object code which can be executed without the need of the source code (1).

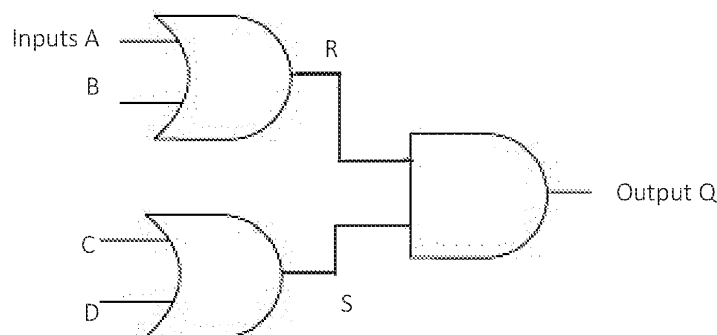
The disadvantages of this method are that the compilation of a large program takes a long time and errors in the source code need to be corrected before an executable file can be produced (1).

6.7 Interpreter software normally executes the source code directly; this avoids the need for a compiler. The advantage of using an interpreter is that during development the programmer can test the program which can be tested without going through the time-consuming process of compilation (1). The disadvantage of using an interpreter is that it needs to be loaded on the target machine and it does not produce efficient machine code at runtime (1). Additionally, the source code is available to the user and the translation method takes longer than a compiled program to run (1).

6.8 Use the complex logic diagram to work out the outputs for various values of A, B and C.

- When A = 0 B = 1 C = 0 (3 marks)
then R = 1, S = 0, T = 0
- When A = 0 B = 0 C = 1 (3 marks)
then R = 0, S = 1, T = 1
- When A = 1 B = 1 C = 0 (3 marks)
then R = 1, S = 0, T = 0
- When A = 1 B = 1 C = 1 (3 marks)
then R = 1, S = 0, T = 0

6.9 Logic circuit for the $Q = (A \text{ OR } B) \text{ AND } (C \text{ OR } D)$ (3 marks)



6.10 Simplify $\overline{A}.B.C + \overline{A}.C$ (3 marks)

- $\overline{A}.C(B + 1)$ Take common terms outside of brackets
 $(B + 1) = 1$ So B can be removed
 $\overline{A}.C(1)$ Remove bracketed 1
 $\overline{A}.C$ Final Answer

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Topic 7 – Computer organisation and architecture

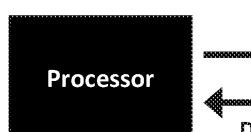
7.1 Computer architecture terms:

- The central processing unit (CPU) processes the data in a computer system (1); it sorts and searches data, performing calculations, logical decision-making and
- Main memory or immediate access store (1) is storage for program instructions CPU (1).
- The address bus is used to specify a physical address in main memory (1) and into that address is communicated via the data bus (1).
- The control bus manages data processing (1) so, for example: by sending a signal to a memory address or a signal to read data from a memory address (1).
- I/O controllers send control signals to connect a system bus (1) to specific I/O output (write) requests they receive from the processor (1).
- Arithmetic logic unit – performs arithmetic and logical operations, such as fixed logical operations (AND, OR, XOR) and shift operations (1). Inputs are from the with outputs routed to one of the registers (1).

7.2 Van Neumann program architecture

The Van Neumann stored program architecture is based on both data and instructions stored in a single memory (1).

Data and instructions are transmitted through a shared data bus (1). Sketch (2).



7.3 A register is a very fast memory location that exists in the processor or the I/O controller. General purpose registers are available for the programmer to store temporary data. Dedicated registers are used by the processor to carry out a specific role (1).

7.4 Dedicated registers:

- Status register (SR) is used to hold the status of various flags indicating such things as the result, carry bit used, overflow error, and interrupt status. The details of the status are upon the actual processor involved (2).
- Program counter (PC) is the register that holds the address of the next instruction.
- Memory address register (MAR) holds the address of the current instruction being executed.
- Memory buffer register (MBR) holds the instruction from the (MAR) and the address of the instruction.
- Current instruction register (IR) is used to store the instruction that is to be decoded.

7.5 Fetch-execute cycle

Fetch:

- Program counter (PC) points to next instruction to be fetched (1).
- Contents of (PC) copied into memory address register (MAR) (1).
- The instruction in (MAR) is transferred via the data bus to the memory buffer register (MBR) (1).
- The contents of the (MBR) are copied to instruction register (CIR) and the program counter (PC) is updated to address next instruction (1).

Decode:

The instruction in the (IR) is decoded (1).

Execute:

- The decoded instruction is executed (1).
- The process is repeated.

7.6 Processor instruction set terms:

- Machine code instructions are written in binary code (1) that a processor can execute.
- Op-code instructions are the part of a machine code instruction (1) that represents the operation to be performed.
- Operand is that part of the machine code instruction (1) that contains an item which the binary data is stored (1).
- Instruction set is the set of machine code instructions (1) that the processor has to execute (1).

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- 7.7 Immediate addressing means that the data in the operand is fixed (1); in other words, the data is readily available (1), rather than being fetched from a memory address, whereas direct addressing, or absolute addressing, means that the data is stored at a specific memory location (1).

A typical example is the instruction ADD (1302) – this instruction could be used to add the value (1302) to the accumulator (1).

```

7.8      CMP    r1, r2      ; compares value of A with B
          BGT    greater    ; branch if A > B
          BEQ    equal      ; branch if A = B
          MOV    r3, #0      ; set P = 0
          B      end         ; branch to end
greater  MOV    r3, #3      ; set P = 3
          B      end         ; branch to end
equal    MOV    r3, #1      ; set P = 1
end      HALT              ; end of code

```

- 7.9 The clock speed is a key factor in the performance of a computer; it controls the rate at which instructions are fetched and executed (1). Clock speed has increased regularly in recent years (1). A computer can now run at a clock speed in excess of 2.5 GHz, or 2.5 thousand million times a second. Clock speed can be increased by purchasing a faster device (1). However, the faster the device the more power is consumed and more cooling is necessary to prevent CPU damage.

System performance can be improved by increasing the number of processors; this can be done by using a multi-core processor (1). A multi-core processor has more than one processor incorporated into a single chip (1). A core processor will provide two processors on one chip, which will operate faster than a single processor (1). Most modern processors use 32-bit or 64-bit word lengths; the performance of a processor is determined by the word length, providing that the word length and data bus are the same size (1). So, a 64-bit data bus will allow 64 bits of data to be handled in one clock pulse (1).

- 7.10 RFID readers communicate with RFID tags, or radio frequency identification tags; they are used to identify items (1). A tag is a small device that can be used to communicate with a RFID reader or scanner for tracking purposes (1). The RFID reader transmits a radio signal which is received by the RFID tag and a code is sent to the reader (1). The code is then decoded and translated into digital data to identify the information received (1). These tags can be used for security purposes (1), such as on checkouts where they have the advantage of being scanned remotely and are not subject to theft (1).

- 7.11 The main secondary storage device on most computers is a hard disk, which consists of one or more platters which have been coated with a special magnetic material, and a series of read/write heads to access or store the data on the disk (1). Since the data is stored in this manner, it is considered as a magnetic storage device. Typical internal hard disks supplied with modern computers range from 500 gigabytes to 10 terabytes (1).

Solid-state disks act in a similar way to a hard drive except they are based on non-volatile memory (1). They use a controller to manage pages, blocks of data and the complexities of writing. The flash memory is organized into a grid that is separated into sections called 'pages', into which the data is stored. A block of pages cannot be overwritten individually; the whole block has to be erased before new data can be written (1). SSDs perform faster than hard drives and optical drives as there are no moving parts (1). They can read and write and access data faster although they are significantly more expensive to purchase (1). They also tend to be smaller capacity than hard disk drives (1).

Topic 8 – Consequences of uses of computing

- 8.1. Morals are a set of principles (1) that apply to an individual (1), whereas ethics is a set of principles (1) that apply to a group to which the individual belongs (1).
- 8.2. There are many ethical responsibilities for software engineers and computer scientists (1). One of the responsibilities that a software engineer has at their disposal is not to misuse the data (1). Some of the typical ethical issues that a software engineer should be aware of are: to respect the privacy (1) of those users that will be affected by that software (1), to use the data (1) by ethical and lawful means (1), to maintain the integrity of data (1) and to not know or use data (1) obtained illegally (1).

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8.3. The Computer Misuse Act terms

- (a) Hacking – the practice of breaking into (1) secure computer systems (1).
- (b) Viruses – are programs designed to cause damage (1) to a computer system (1).
- (c) A firewall is used to prevent unauthorised requests from hackers (1) to gain access to systems via the Internet (1).
- (d) Spyware – programs that run in a computer system (1) to gather information on a user (1).

Topic 9 –Communication and networking

9.1 Synchronous data transmission is a data transmission method where the data signal is clock-generated (1) timing signal; this will ensure that the data transmitter and receiver are in sync. Synchronous network protocols make use of synchronous transmission, where data is sent in packets.

Asynchronous data transmission is where a data stream is transmitted at intermittent intervals; this method of data transmission is normally adopted for communication over long distances.

9.2 Communication basic terms:

- (a) Bit rate is the number of bits that are transferred across a computer network (1) normally measured in bits per second (bps).
- (b) Bandwidth is the speed of a computer network or the maximum rate at which data can be transferred (1) measured in Mbps (Megabits per second) and basically bandwidth indicates the capacity of a network to pass data from one point to another in a unit of time (1).
- (c) Latency is the term used in a packet switched network to measure the time delay between a data packet being sent from a source and destination receiving that packet (1).
- (d) Protocol simply means a set of rules or standards (1) which computers use for communication.
- (e) Baud rate is the number of symbols (or signal changes) that are transferred across a network in a unit of time (1).

9.3 (a) A network topology is a way of describing the interconnections (1) and cabling (1) of a network.
 (b) Physical topology is how a group of computers are physically connected (1), with each computer and network devices communicating with each other (1).

9.4 (a) Physical star topology:

The physical star network topology is based on connecting each workstation to a central hub. A workstation may also be linked to a file server (1).

- (b) Fast response time and no problems with data collision (1) as each workstation communicates directly with the central hub.
- (c) All communication takes place via the central hub (1) and if it fails the whole network will break down (1).

9.5 Peer-to-peer networking:

Peer-to-peer networks are different from client-server networks as they do not have dedicated servers (1) used as servers (1).

Instead, any workstation on the network can load information from the hard disk of another workstation, as all workstations have equal status (1).

9.6 Client-server:

- (a) The client-server model is where the workstations in any network design use the server (1) where the client is a computer or workstation on a typical network and the file server is the central point that interacts with the clients (1).
- (b) Security policies for access control and associated usernames are managed centrally (1).
- (c) Server failure can cause the whole network to be inoperative (1).

9.7 Networking terms:

- (a) Wireless adaptor performs a similar function to a network interface card (NIC) (1) as it allows a computer to connect to a network without the need for a cable. A wireless adaptor can be built into the computer or it can be a portable device fitted into a USB port (1).
- (b) Wi-Fi protected access uses encryption protocols (1) such as WPA/WPA2 that protect the data being transmitted over the connection (1).
- (c) SSID stands for service set identification; it is a unique 32-character identifier for a wireless network (1).
- (d) MAC stands for media access control and it is a physical address (1) assigned to each network interface card (NIC) by the manufacturer (1).

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