

2015 specification
first exams in 2016

A Level

AQA

Revision Guide

for A Level AQA Computer Science

Paper 2 – Topics 5-12

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TEACHER'S INTRODUCTION

This revision guide has been written to support the AQA A Level Computer Science specification (first teaching from September 2015, first exams in June 2017).

The essential theory required for the A Level Paper 2 specification is covered:

5. Data representation
6. Computer systems
7. Computer organisation and architecture
8. Consequences of uses of computing
9. Communication and networking
10. Fundamentals of databases
11. Big data
12. Fundamentals of functional programming

An equivalent resource is also available for the A Level 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.

November 2017

REVISION PROGRESS TRACKER: A LEVEL

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)

This should help you to focus your revision on the areas that require it the most, so that 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

| 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 two's complement | | | | | |
| Fixed point binary | | | | | |
| Rounding errors | | | | | |
| Absolute and relative errors | | | | | |
| Range and precision | | | | | |
| Normalisation and floating point form | | | | | |

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| Specification Topic | Confidence Level (1–5) | | | | |
|---|------------------------|-------|-------|-------|--|
| | Date: | Date: | Date: | Date: | |
| Underflow and overflow | | | | | |
| ASCII and Unicode | | | | | |
| Error checking and correction | | | | | |
| Analogue ↔ digital | | | | | |
| Bitmapped graphics | | | | | |
| Vector graphics | | | | | |
| Vector graphics versus bitmapped graphics | | | | | |
| Digital sound | | | | | |
| 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 | | | | | |

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| Specification Topic | Confidence Level (1 – 5) | | | | |
|---|--------------------------|-------|-------|-------|--|
| | Date: | Date: | Date: | Date: | |
| Half adder | | | | | |
| Full adder | | | | | |
| D-type flip flop | | | | | |
| 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 | | | | | |
| Machine code and assembly language operations | | | | | |
| Interrupts | | | | | |
| 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 | | | | | |

| Specification Topic | Confidence Level (1–5) | | | | |
|--|------------------------|-------|-------|-------|--|
| | Date: | Date: | Date: | Date: | |
| 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 | | | | | |
| The Internet | | | | | |
| Internet security | | | | | |
| TCP/IP | | | | | |
| Standard application layer protocols | | | | | |
| IP address structure | | | | | |
| Subnet masking | | | | | |
| IP standards | | | | | |
| Public and private IP addresses | | | | | |
| Dynamic host configuration protocol | | | | | |
| Network address translation | | | | | |
| Port forwarding | | | | | |
| Client–server model | | | | | |
| Thin- vs thick-client computing | | | | | |

| Specification Topic | Confidence Level (1–5) | | | |
|--|------------------------|------|------|------|
| | Date | Date | Date | Date |
| 10 – Fundamentals of databases | | | | |
| Conceptual data models | | | | |
| Conceptual data models | | | | |
| Entity relationship modelling | | | | |
| Relational databases | | | | |
| Database design and normalisation techniques | | | | |
| Structured query language | | | | |
| Client–server databases | | | | |
| 11 – Big data | | | | |
| Volume/velocity/variety | | | | |
| Distributed processing | | | | |
| Functional programming | | | | |
| Fact-based model | | | | |
| Graph schema representation | | | | |
| 12 – Fundamentals of functional programming | | | | |
| Function type | | | | |
| First-class object | | | | |
| Function application | | | | |
| Partial function application | | | | |
| Composition of functions | | | | |
| Functional language programs | | | | |
| Lists in functional programming | | | | |

TOPIC 5 – DATA REPRESENTATION

5.1 NUMBER SYSTEMS

| Number System | Examples | Explanation |
|--------------------|--|---|
| Natural Numbers | $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, \dots\}$ | \mathbb{N} is the set of natural numbers used for counting. |
| Integer Numbers | $\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ | \mathbb{Z} is the set of integer numbers, which include their negative inverses, as shown in the fractional part. |
| Rational Numbers | \mathbb{Q} includes: $7/2$, $8/1$, $100/3$, $1/2$, $16/4$... | \mathbb{Q} is the set of numbers that can be written as a fraction (where the denominator is not zero). Integers such as 7 are rational numbers ($7/1$). |
| 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 | \mathbb{R} includes: 1, 12.41, $\sqrt{2}$, 0, 12/7, 1/8, 1.23423, 129.6 | \mathbb{R} is the set of real numbers, which include both rational and irrational numbers; they can be plotted on a number line. Real numbers are used for measurement. The number of digits to the right of the decimal point indicates the precision of the measurement. A measurement of 1.05 is more precise than a measurement of 1. |
| Ordinal Numbers | $S = \begin{matrix} 1^{\text{st}} & 2^{\text{nd}} & 3^{\text{rd}} \\ a & b & c \end{matrix}$ | Ordinal numbers are used to describe the position of an object in an ordered list. In the example, S is an ordinal number. a is the first object, b is the second object and c is the third object. |



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: 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9. | | | |
| | 10^2 or 100 | 10^1 or 10 | 10^0 or 1 | The number 358 represents (3 x 100) + (5 x 10) + (8 x 1). The subscript 10 can be used to indicate the number base used. |
| | 3 | 5 | 8 | |
| 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 | The number 1011 represents (1 x 8) + (0 x 4) + (1 x 2) + (1 x 1). The subscript 2 can be used to indicate the number base used. |
| | 1 | 0 | 1 | |
| Hexadecimal (base 16) | The hexadecimal number system is based on the use of 16 digits: 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 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 represents (2 x 256) + (14 x 16) + (1 x 1). The subscript 16 can be used to indicate the number base used. |
| | 2 | E | 1 | |

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Convert binary to decimal

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

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

Then add the decimal numbers where 1 is shown, so $1011\ 0101_2 = 128 + 32 + 16 + 4 + 1 = 181$.

Convert decimal to binary

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

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 equal to 5.
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 to 1.
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 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |

Hexadecimal and binary

The **hexadecimal** number system (or **hex**) is based on 16 states. The table on the right can be used 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 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 8 | 4 | 2 | 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 | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 8 | 4 | 2 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |

| E | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 8 | 4 | 2 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |

| D | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 8 | 4 | 2 | 1 |
| 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. $1024 + 256 + 128 + 64 + 32 + 8 + 4 + 1 = 1517_{10}$



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)

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5.3 UNITS OF INFORMATION

Bits and bytes

Computer hardware is used to store and process data; hardware components use the binary system, which uses either 0 or 1.

Computer systems store data and program instructions using binary code, since digital computers use binary. 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 a byte. 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 using decimal prefixes representing powers of 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 |

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



5.3 – Progress Check

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

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5.4 BINARY NUMBER SYSTEMS

Signed and unsigned binary

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

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 shown in the example.

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 shown in the example.

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 | 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 x 00000101 = 10011011

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)



5.4 – Progress Check

- Add the following unsigned binary numbers: 00000101 and 11000100. (2 marks)
- Multiply the following unsigned binary numbers: 00010101 and 00000101. (2 marks)

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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 | Negative |
|---|--|
| 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 is calculated as follows: 1. Inverting each of the binary digits (0's to 1's and 1's to 0's) 2. Adding 1 to this new number |
| 0000 1111₂ = +15₁₀ | 0000 1111₂ = 1111 0001₂ = -15₁₀ |

Subtraction using two's complement

Example: 15 - 12

15₁₀ = 0000 1111₂ and

12₁₀ = 0000 1100₂ which is **(1111 0011) + 1 = 1111 0100₂** 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 above.

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 numbers.
- 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

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

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 | 1/8 | 1/16 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | . | 1 | 0 | 0 | 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 | 1/16 |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | . | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |



5.4 – Progress Check

- Convert fixed-point binary number 1001111100.10100_2 into decimal. (3 marks)

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Rounding errors

Rounding replaces a number with an approximate value using fewer digits. In the decimal system, the rules are:

- If the value of the last digit to be represented is greater than or equal to 5, then increase the previous digit by 1.
- If the value of the last digit to be represented is less than 5, then the previous digit remains the same.

For example, 34.567 can be rounded to two decimal digits giving 34.57; note that the last digit of the original number is 7, which is greater than 5, so the previous digit (6) is increased by 1.

Rounding errors

The use of rounding creates an error between the original number and the rounded off number.

In example above, rounding error = 34.567 - 34.57 giving an error of -0.003

In many cases, when converting from decimal to binary there are rounding errors, as decimal fractions cannot be represented exactly as binary fractions. In this case, rounding errors can be minimised by increasing the number of bits used to represent the decimal fraction.

Absolute and relative errors

| | |
|---|--|
| <p>Absolute error is the difference between the theoretical exact value calculated with no errors present and the processed/computed value to be stored.</p> | <p>There are often errors in the value of a computed result when compared to the theoretical value. These errors are caused by factors such as truncation, and finally rounding.</p> |
| <p>Relative error is the value of the absolute error divided by the theoretical exact value with no errors present.</p> | <p>The relative error gives a less misleading result as it takes into account the magnitude of the exact value. In this case, the error is compared to the exact value.</p> |

The formulae used to calculate these errors are:

$$\text{Absolute error} = |\text{exact value} - \text{computed value}|$$

$$\text{Relative error} = |\text{exact value} - \text{computed value}| / \text{exact value} = \text{Absolute error} / \text{exact value}$$

Examples

- 1 - Find absolute and relative errors for a computed value of 0.017 and an exact value of 0.02
 Absolute error = | exact value - computed value | = | 0.017 - 0.02 | = 0.003
 Relative error = Absolute error / exact value = 0.003 / 0.017 = 0.17647
- 2 - Truncation is used giving an exact value of 7.278 with computed value of 7.27 Find absolute and relative errors
 Absolute error = | exact value - computed value | = | 7.278 - 7.27 | = 0.008
 Relative error = Absolute error / exact value = 0.008 / 7.278 = 0.001099

Range and precision

| |
|--|
| <p>Precision is associated with word length and the maximum number of significant digits that can be represented.</p> <p>The mantissa is part of the floating point word which represents the significant digits. In a floating point system, we have fewer significant digits included in the mantissa than a comparable fixed point word.</p> |
| <p>Range is the set of all numbers that can be represented using a specific number system.</p> <p>The numbers available from an 8-bit two's complement integer representation are from -128 to 127. This gives a range of 255, based on the difference between the smallest and largest numbers.</p> |
| <p>Floating point is a real data type where the binary point can move within a number.</p> <p>Floating point numbers can represent a wider range of numbers than a comparable fixed point number. They are mainly used where a wide range of values need to be processed.</p> |

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Fixed point is a real data type is where a number has a fixed number of digits either before or after the decimal point.

Fixed point numbers include the following properties:

- Fixed point binary numbers have more precision than floating point numbers but are slower to process.
- In fixed point operations the absolute error will be constant
- Faster speed of operation for fixed point operations when used on certain hardware.

Fixed point operation is primarily used in applications where a high level of precision is required.



5.4 – Progress Check

- Calculate the rounding error when 72.465 is rounded to four significant figures.
- Explain the term 'absolute error'. (1 mark)
 - Find absolute and relative errors for a computed value of 0.082 and a true value of 0.08. (2 marks)
- Define the terms 'range' and 'precision'. (2 marks)
 - Compare range and precision for floating point and fixed point data.

Normalised floating point representation

Decimal numbers can be represented in standard form.

For example: 2724.5 can be represented as 2.7245×10^3

So the mantissa is 2.7245

And the exponent is 10^3 , which indicates that the decimal point has floated 3 places to the left.

The same floating point standard can be adopted in binary arithmetic; in the examples below a 16-bit floating point number consists of a 10-bit mantissa and a 6-bit exponent.

Normalised floating point is a standard representation where the decimal point position is fixed in a standard form and the mantissa can float to reflect different values.

Mantissa is the part of the number that contains the significant digits within the floating point.

Exponent is the power that the mantissa is raised to.

10-bit mantissa – binary point is after the most significant bit

The mantissa and exponent binary data is stored in two's complement form so that positive and negative values can be represented as well as positive and negative exponents.

| | | | | | |
|----------------|-----|----|---|---|---|
| Exponent Value | -32 | 16 | 8 | 4 | 2 |
|----------------|-----|----|---|---|---|

| | | | | | | | |
|-----------------|----|-----|-----|-----|------|------|------|
| Mantissa Values | -1 | 1/2 | 1/4 | 1/8 | 1/16 | 1/32 | 1/64 |
|-----------------|----|-----|-----|-----|------|------|------|

Example – positive mantissa and positive exponent

Convert floating point number 0110001000.000011 to denary:

Exponent 000011 = 3 in denary

Mantissa is 0.110001000

The binary point needs to be moved three places to the right, giving 0110.001000

0110 is 6 in denary

.001 is 1/8 in denary

Therefore, binary number 0110001000.000011 is 6.125 in denary

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Example – positive mantissa and negative exponent

Convert floating point number 0110000000.111101 to denary:

Exponent 111101

Two's complement of exponent is 000011 = -3 in denary

Mantissa is 0.110000000

The binary point needs to be moved three places to the left, giving 0.000110000

0.00011 is $1/16 + 1/32 = 3/32$ or 0.09375 in denary

Therefore binary number 0110000000.111101 is 0.09375 in denary

Example – negative mantissa and negative exponent

Convert floating point number 1110000000.111110 to denary:

Exponent 111110

Two's complement of exponent is 000010 = -2 in denary

Mantissa is 1110000000

Two's complement of mantissa is -0010000000

The binary point needs to be moved two places to the left, giving -0.000100000

-0.000100000 = - $1/16$ or -0.0625

Therefore, binary number 1110000000.111110 is -0.0625 in denary

Example – negative mantissa and positive exponent

Convert floating point number 1110000000.000011 to denary:

Exponent 000011 = 3 in denary

Mantissa is 1110000000

Two's complement of mantissa is -0010000000

The binary point needs to be moved three places to the right, giving -0010.00000

-0010.00000 = -2

Therefore, binary number 1110000000.000011 is -2 in denary

Underflow and overflow

If the result of a calculation is smaller than the smallest number that can be represented by the system, then an underflow will occur and the result will be stored as zero; dividing very small numbers can cause underflow.

Underflow
is too small
of bits

If the result of a calculation is too large a value to be represented by the system, then an overflow will occur; this can cause serious problems and is most likely to occur when multiplying two large numbers. Double precision registers can be used to minimise the occurrence of overflow.

Overflow
too large
bits available



5.4 – Progress Check

16. Convert the floating point number 0110110000 111001 that consists of a mantissa and an exponent into denary. (4 marks)
17. Compare the terms 'underflow' and 'overflow'. (2 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.

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 |

Unicode is a 65,536 different characters.

Unicode has been adopted by all major web browsers.

| Unicode |
|-----------|
| 0000 0000 |
| 0000 0001 |
| 0000 0010 |
| 0000 0011 |
| 0000 0100 |

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.

Even parity is where the number of 1s is counted and if the number of 1s is odd then the parity bit is set to 1. 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 |

Odd parity is where the number of 1s is counted and if the number of 1s is even then the parity bit is set to 1. 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 | 0 |

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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 three times, it is accepted. If it is different 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 needed to be transmitted.

Checksums

- A checksum is an error detection method where the number of bits transmitted in a message is compared with a count of the data received to check the integrity of the data transmission.

Check digits

- A **check digit** is added to binary data to check that the data is accurate; this is an approach used in bar codes. For example, a bar code 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 numbers 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 to get the check digit |
| 1280244 | | | | | | Original number with check digit added The computer system will perform a modulo-11 calculation on the data read in and compare the answer to the check digit. If they match then the data was entered correctly. |



5.5 – Progress Check

- Compare the use of ASCII and Unicode systems for character encoding. (2 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

- i** 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 discrete and discontinuous binary values. For example, a sound file is sampled and stored as a series of binary values. |

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 back into an analogue signal 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 (ADCs) receive signals input via an analogue sensor 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 (DACs) convert digital signals into a continuous analogue signal. For example, commonly, this is to convert digital audio data into an analogue signal to drive audio speakers. |

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.

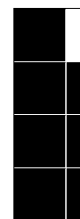
Colour can be shown in digital images by using more bits per pixel.

- i** **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.

- i** **Image resolution** is calculated using the pixel dimensions (height x width).

- i** **Display Resolution** is the number of dots per inch (DPI). More dots per inch give a better image resolution.

- i** **Metadata** is 'data about data'; metadata in an image file provides details of properties such as the image dimensions and colour depth.



| Bits per pixel |
|----------------|
| 1 |
| 8 |
| 16 |

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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)

Dimension
Width
Height
Horizontal
Vertical resolution
Bit depth

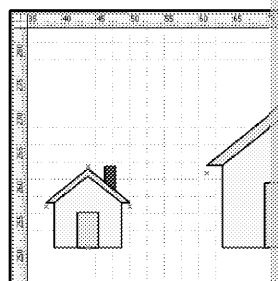
Vector graphics



Vector graphics are produced in graphics packages and are created using a series of objects and their coordinates.

The diagram on the right is an object (the home icon), and it has been copied twice and rescaled.

The size of the objects can be made larger, but the image quality of each object remains the same and requires the same storage. A vector graphic can consist of many individual objects that can be edited independently.



Objects are made up of a series of geometric shapes and a set of coordinates (reference position). Geometric shapes can be constructed using mathematical formulae to create objects based on coordinates.

It is possible to edit objects with the image individually; the changes that can be made include:

- Shape of the object
- Colour of lines or fill in an object
- Size of object and thickness of lines
- Reference position, by dragging the object to a new position in the editor

Vector graphics can be used to create simple shapes that can be copied to create more complex images.

Vector graphics versus bitmapped graphics

There are many differences and uses of bitmapped graphics and vector graphics, as tabulated below.

| Bitmapped graphics | Vector graphics |
|---|---|
| Bitmapped images are used in digital photography and website applications, where they provide realistic images. | Vector graphics are used in precise technical drawings, logos and icons. |
| Bitmap images store individual pixels and, therefore, take more storage space and memory than vector images. | Vector graphics are made up of lines and shapes, taking up less storage space than bitmap images. |
| Where bitmapped images are resized, the image quality is degraded and can appear fuzzy. | Vector graphics can be rescaled without loss of quality. |
| Bitmap images use less processing power than vector graphics. | Vector graphics use more processing power than bitmap images. |

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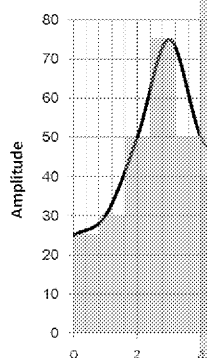


Digital representation of sound

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** is the number of bits used to represent the amplitude of each sample.

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?

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

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

Musical Instrument Digital Interface (MIDI)

i **MIDI** (Musical Instrument Digital Interface) is a protocol that is used to synthesise music from digital data. It is used for 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.



5.6 – Progress Check

- Describe the functions of an analogue to digital converter and a digital to analogue converter.
- Define the following digital image terms:
 - Colour depth (2 marks)
 - Resolution (2 marks)
- Calculate the memory used in kilobytes for a digital photographic image that is 1024 pixels wide, 768 pixels high, with colour depth 24 bpp (bits per pixel) where 1 byte = 8 bits.
- Define the following digital sound terms:
 - Sampling rate (1 mark)
 - Sampling resolution (1 mark)
- Describe one advantage of using vector graphics. (1 mark)
 - Describe one advantage of using bitmapped graphics. (1 mark)

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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 can be used to reduce the size of files, which can be downloaded faster and also be retransmitted.

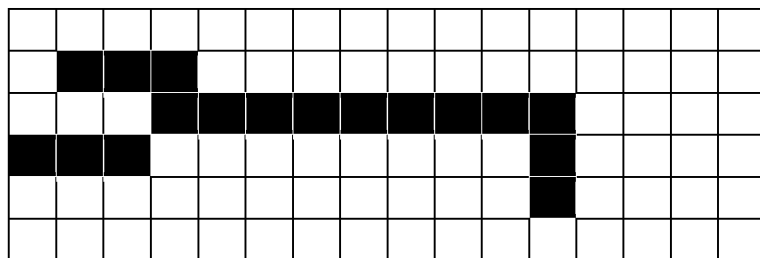
Lossy and lossless compression

| Compression method | Advantages and disadvantages |
|--|---|
| i Lossless compression techniques allow the original data to be perfectly reconstructed, resulting in no loss of data. | <p>An image can be compressed to low resolution for web use, but also be needed in a higher resolution in a print format.</p> <p>A program may be compressed to be downloaded faster, but it still needs to be expanded to an exact copy of the original.</p> <p>A text document might be compressed into a smaller file for transmission using email. Again the document needs to be expanded to an exact copy of the original to ensure that it contains all the original data.</p> |
| i Lossy compression techniques result in a loss of data, so the original data cannot be perfectly reconstructed. | <p>A copy of an image might be compressed to a smaller file for a website, but there is no need to expand back to the original.</p> <p>In sound files unnecessary data can be reduced, but the output quality is acceptable for the user.</p> |

Run-length encoding

i **Run-length encoding (RLE)** is a form of lossless compression where a sequence that occurs more than once is 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 RLE.



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 code for the bitmap image is 16,0 1,0 3,1 12,0 3,0 9,1 4,0 3,1 8,0 1,1 4,0 11,0 1,1 4,0 16,0. This is a lossless representation of the original image.

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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-length strings.

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 or a word.

The general idea behind dictionary encoding is straightforward. If a large amount of text is stored, such as a number of pages, a dictionary of data – such as words and phrases that are used in the book – is created. Each element of data has its own reference.

When a specific word or phrase is used on a page, it can be substituted for a compressed code. Dictionary-based compression algorithms encode variable-length strings of symbols as single tokens.

The dictionary can be coded as a simple look-up table where each word in the dictionary is assigned a unique reference. For example, if page is A, so it has a reference of 1/1.

Encryption

Encryption is used to make stored data more secure from hackers, by making it unreadable without a key 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 using a key which stipulates how the message will be encoded. An authorised user is able to decode the message using the decryption key based on a decryption algorithm.

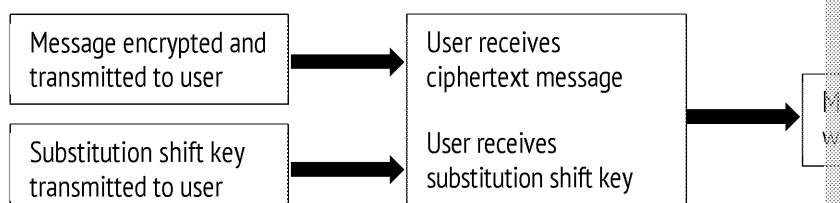
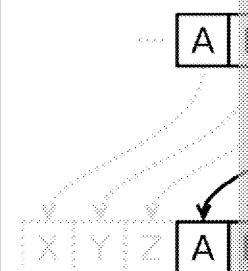
Caesar cipher

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 from plaintext and turning it back into plaintext.



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The table below can be used to convert between the ciphertext and the plaintext for a left shift 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 | S |
| Cipher: | X | Y | Z | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | H | I | J | K | L | M | N | O | P |

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

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 letter above in the plain text line.

Plaintext: **COMPUTER SCIENCE**

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

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 identifying words in the ciphertext.

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5.6 – Progress Check

25. Explain the difference between lossless and lossy compression. (4 marks)
26. Define the terms 'encryption' and 'cryptography'. (2 marks)
27. 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)

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.

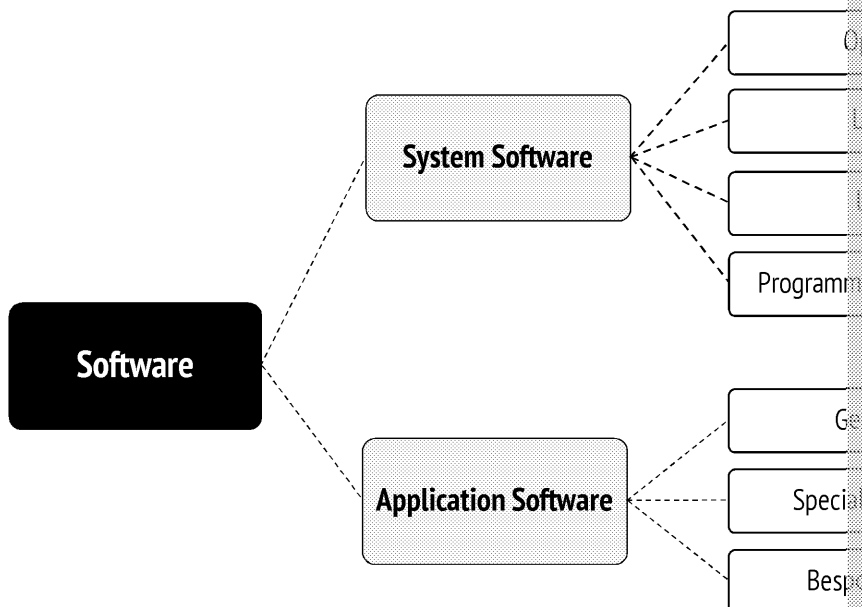
Software can be classified as systems software and applications software – the diagram below shows the types of software included in each.

Software refers to the instructions that tell the computer what to do.

Hardware refers to the physical components of a computer system.

Systems software operates the hardware and manages the system's resources.

Applications software is user-related tasks such as Payroll (SA) or Accounting (SA).



Systems software

| Software | Main Features |
|------------------------------|--|
| Operating System (OS) | <p>The operating system (OS) is the software that controls the hardware and manages the hardware by creating a platform to run application software.</p> <p>Hiding the complexity of the hardware with a Windows-based operating system allows a user to interact with a machine that has a user-friendly interface and operates in the same manner as the manufacturer of the computer system.</p> <p>Main functions include: resource management and the creation of user interfaces. The OS manages these resource requests in a systematic way. Other functions that can be managed are processor allocation, peripheral hardware devices, memory management, and file management.</p> |
| Library Programs | <p>Library programs are pre-written software that is stored in compiled form and can be used by a programmer within one or more programs. Library functions are widely used and interact with peripherals such as printers.</p> <p>A typical example of a library function from the mathematics library is to 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 help optimise the system. Main functions include: disk formatting, file compression, firewall, memory testing and anti-virus protection. |
| Programming Language Translators | <p>Programming language translators are used to translate a program in one different programming language and to maintain the functionality of the program 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 JavaScript |

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 | | | |
| High-level | IF (ExamScore > 55) THEN ExamGrade = "Pass" ELSE ExamGrade = "Fail" END IF | | | |
| | 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 statement sequence or order as defined by the programmer. These languages, sometimes known as procedural 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 at a low level is translated into numerous machine code statements prior to the execution of the code.

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

| | |
|----------------------|--|
| Advantages | Programming in low-level code can create faster and more efficient code than high-level languages; with high-level programming, the programmer has to 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 resources 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 code 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

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

Programming languages can be classified as listed below.

| Translator | Characteristics | |
|-------------------|---|---|
| Assemblers | The source code is written in assembly language, which is a series of mnemonic codes that represent machine operational codes; assembly code is the most difficult language to write and debug it. | |
| | The assembler translates this source code into machine code that the computer can execute. | |
| | 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: it is a difficult programming language to learn and use. |
| 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 is then converted to match the target computer that will run the software. | |

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| | 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: it takes a long time to create the executable code; the code need to be tested and debugged before it can be produced; the executable code is not necessary to compile the source code. |
|------------------------------|---|---|
| Translator | Characteristics | |
| Intermediate Language | <p>Some compilers create a final output in an intermediate language, such as Java Bytecode, which can then be run on a virtual machine (VM) rather than on a central processing unit (CPU). 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 so that the code is executed. Although the bytecode interpretation takes time, the virtual machine is more efficient than if the source code was compiled directly; this is the case for Java and JavaFX.</p> | |
| Interpreters | <p>Interpreter software normally executes the source code directly, it is translated as it is executed. There is no need to compile the program.</p> <p>Interpreted software runs more slowly than compiled software as each statement is translated before it is executed.</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. | Disadvantage: the target computer must be available to produce the machine code at the time of development. Additionally, the interpreter takes longer than a compiler to produce the machine code. |



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

Logic gates

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

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

NOT

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



AND

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



OR

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



XOR

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



NAND

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



NOR

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



Note: NAND and NOR logic gates are not examinable at AS Level.

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Half adder logic

i Half adder circuit carries out addition on two numbers (A and B) only.

Details are shown in the truth table below.

| Inputs | | Outputs | |
|--------|---|-----------|---------|
| A | B | C (Carry) | S (Sum) |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |

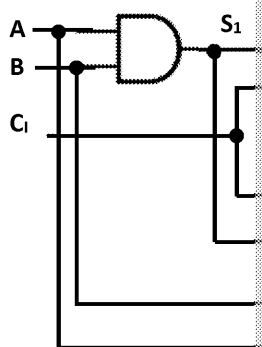
Full adder logic

i Full adder circuit carries out addition on two numbers (A and B) and a carry bit.

A series of full adders can be used to add two binary numbers, as the carry bit is available at each stage of the calculation.

Details are shown in the truth table below.

| Inputs | | | Outputs | | |
|--------|---|-----------------|------------------|----------------|---|
| A | B | C _{IN} | C _{OUT} | S ₁ | S |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 |



The logic gates create the Boolean equations:

$$S_1 = A \text{ XOR } B$$

$$S (\text{sum}) = S_1 \text{ XOR } C$$

$$C (\text{carry}) = (S_1 \text{ AND } C_i)$$



6.4 – Progress Check

8. (a) List the outputs from a half adder when A = 1 and B = 1. (1 mark)
(b) List the outputs from a half adder when A = 0 and B = 1. (1 mark)
9. (a) List the outputs from a full adder when A = 1, B = 1 and C=1. (1 mark)
(b) List the outputs from a full adder when A = 1, B = 0 and C=1. (1 mark)

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D-type flip flop logic

i A **flip flop** is an electronic circuit that has two stable states and can be used as a memory device to store one bit of data.

i A **D-type flip flop** changes state with each clock pulse, so data is delayed by one clock pulse.

The D-type flip flop symbol is shown on the right.

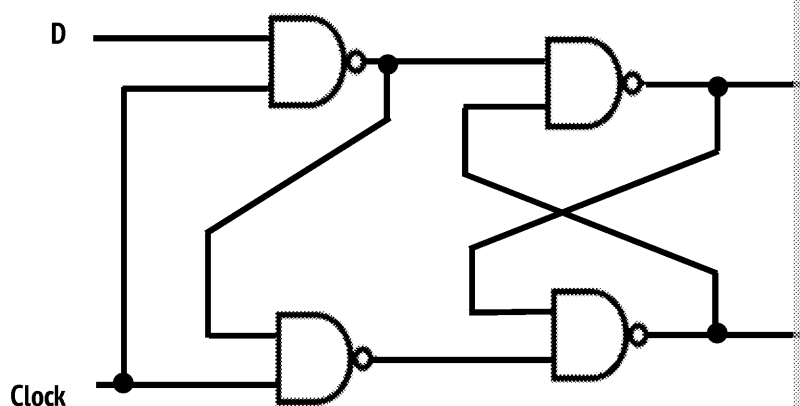
- It has a data input D and a clock input.
- The outputs are Q (data delayed by one clock pulse) and the inverse of Q.

A symbol for

D —

Clock —

D-type flip flops or delay flip flops can be wired from four NAND gates, as



| Clock | D | Q |
|-------|---|-----------------------|
| 0 | X | Q_{PREVIOUS} |
| 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 |

The previous value of Q is stored in Q when the clock is 0. On the leading edge of the clock pulse, D is either 0 or 1.



6.4 – Progress Check

- Define the terms 'flip flop' and 'D-type flip flop'. (4 marks)
- Describe the inputs and outputs used by a D-type flip flop. (2 marks)

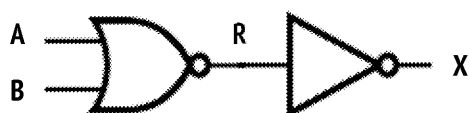
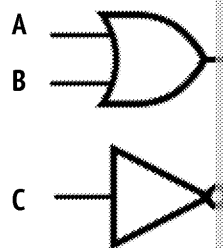
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Logic circuits and Boolean algebra

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.

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



| A | B |
|---|---|
| 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 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: $X = (A \text{ OR } B) \text{ AND } (\text{NOT } C)$

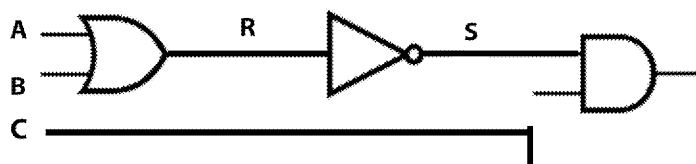
Draw complex logic diagrams by first drawing the bracketed terms, so in this case:

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



6.4 – Progress Check

12. 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)
13. Draw the logic circuit for $Q = (A \text{ OR } B) \text{ AND } (C \text{ OR } D)$ (3 marks)

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6.5 BOOLEAN ALGEBRA

Using Boolean algebra

De Morgan's laws and Boolean identities can be used to simplify and manipulate Boolean expressions. A Boolean expression can be produced using NAND or NOR gates.

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

| AND logic identities | OR logic identities | |
|---|---|---|
| $1 \cdot A = A$ | $0 + A = A$ | $A \cdot B = \overline{\overline{A} \cdot \overline{B}}$ The laws are: 1. Change 2. Change 3. Change so: $A =$ 4. Change expres exp (and v |
| $0 \cdot A = 0$ | $1 + A = 1$ | |
| $A \cdot A = A$ | $A + A = A$ | |
| $A \cdot \overline{A} = 0$ | $A + \overline{A} = 1$ | |
| $A \cdot B = B \cdot A$ | $A + B = B + A$ | |
| $A \cdot (B \cdot C) = (A \cdot B) \cdot C$ | $A + (B + C) = (A + B) + C$ | |
| $A + (B \cdot C) = (A + B) \cdot (A + C)$ | $A \cdot (B + C) = (A \cdot B) + (A \cdot C)$ | |
| $A \cdot (A + B) = A$ | $A + (A \cdot B) = A$ | |

Example

Simplify the following Boolean expression:

$$\overline{A} \cdot \overline{B} \cdot (\overline{A} + B) \cdot (B + \overline{B})$$

$$\overline{A} \cdot \overline{B} \cdot (\overline{A} + B) \cdot (B + \overline{B})$$

$$= \overline{A} \cdot \overline{B} \cdot (\overline{A} + B)$$

$$= (\overline{A} + \overline{B}) \cdot (\overline{A} + B)$$

$$= \overline{A} + (\overline{B} \cdot B)$$

$$= \overline{A}$$

Original Boolean expression

Remove identity $(B + \overline{B}) = 1$

Apply De Morgan's law to $\overline{A} \cdot \overline{B}$

Factorise for \overline{A}

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

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6.5 – Progress Check

14. Simplify the following (3 marks):

$$\overline{A} \cdot B \cdot C + \overline{A} \cdot C$$

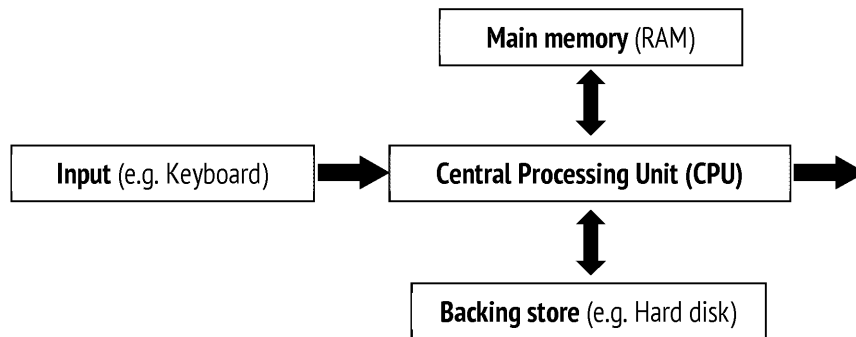
TOPIC 7 – COMPUTER ORGANISATION AND

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 the system is 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 a result.

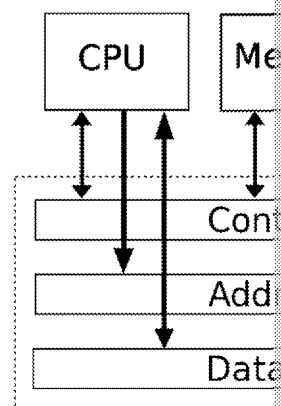
- Sorting and searching data
- Logical decision making
- Performing calculations
- Control of input, output and storage devices

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.

- ① **Main memory** stores program instructions and data that are processed by the processor.
- ① **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.
- ① **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.
- ① **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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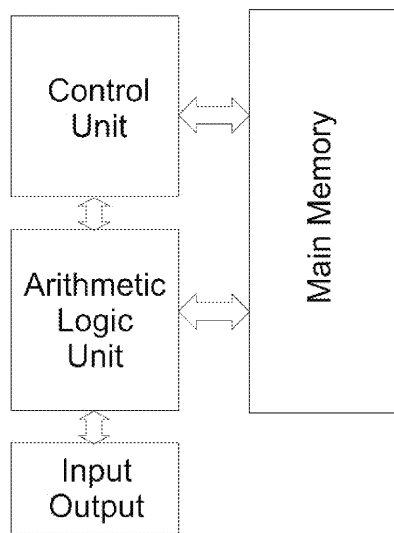
Computer architectures

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.

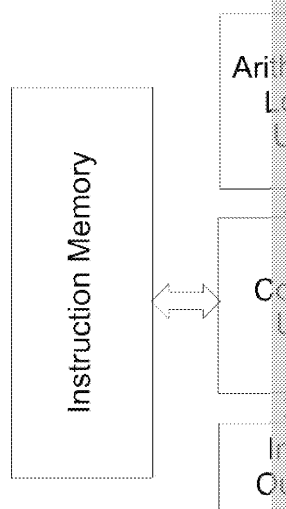


Harvard architecture

The Harvard architecture is based on instructions and data being stored in separate memories; instructions are fetched from instruction memory serially and data from data memory for an instruction.

The Harvard technique may be faster as the fetching of instruction and data can take place in parallel.

Embedded systems such as digital signal processors use the Harvard architecture extensively. Simple machines and burglar alarms make use of the Harvard architecture.



Addressable memory

The processor needs to be able to address individual memory locations, so each memory location is identified by 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



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.

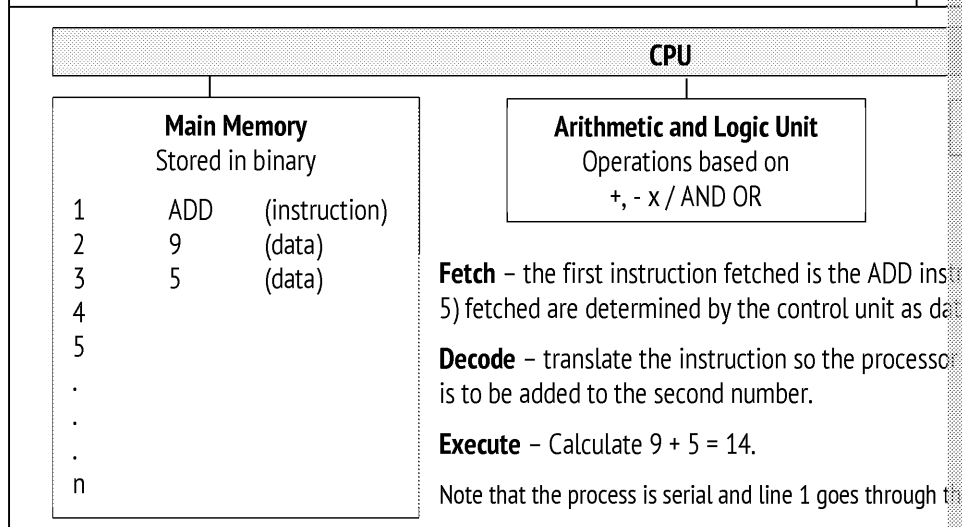
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7.2 THE STORED PROGRAM CONCEPT

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. |

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

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 the result of operations. Carry bit used, overflow error, and interrupt status are 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 executed. |
| 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 instructions from 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, the steps in the cycle 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

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 compiled into machine code that can be understood and executed by the processor.

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 |

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

Operand is 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 | Example |
|---------|----------------|-----------------------|---|
| 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 requires the use of immediate and direct addressing modes.

Immediate addressing means that the data in the operand is fixed; in other words, it is a constant value.

This is a very fast addressing mode since the data is readily available, rather than needing to obtain it from memory.

Typical example: ADD 12 – this instruction could be used to add 12 to the accumulator.

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 can only be used on single-program systems, such as a car engine fuel control system.



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)

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

- Assembly language** is used to make machine code instructions more understandable by 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: LDR r1, #12 ADD r2, r1, #5 SUB r3, r2, #3 STR r3, 1203 | Immediate address loads the data without reference to an address. <i># indicates that the operand is a number</i> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Loads the number 12 into the register r1 2. Adds the number 5 to value in r1 and stores result in r2 3. Subtracts the number 3 from value in r2 and stores result in r3 4. Stores the contents of the register r3 (14) into memory address 1203 |
|---|--|

| | |
|--|--|
| Direct address examples: LDR r1, 12 ADD r2, r1, 13 SUB r3, r2, 14 STR r3, 150 | In this case the operand is a memory address <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Loads data in memory address 12 (4) into r1 2. Adds the data in memory address 13 (5) to r1 and stores result in r2 (making 9) 3. Subtracts the data in memory address 14 (3) from the r2 and stores result in r3 (making 6) 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 no conditions. |
| ... | 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 a condition. |
| ... | 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

Logical bitwise operator is where a logical operation is carried out on each column of the binary representation of the operands.

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

| | | | |
|-------------------|---|------------------------------------|--|
| AND r2, r1, #1101 | Operand1 Operand2 AND result | 0011 <u>1101</u> 0001 | Performs a bitwise logical AND between the value in register r1 (#0011) and the immediate value #1101. The result (#0001) is stored in register r2. |
| ORR r2, r1, #1101 | Operand1 Operand2 OR result | 0011 <u>1101</u> 1111 | Performs a bitwise logical OR between the value in register r1 (#0011) and the immediate value #1101. The result (#1111) is stored in register r2. |
| EOR r2, r1, #1101 | Operand1 Operand2 XOR result | 0011 <u>1101</u> 1110 | Performs a bitwise logical Exclusive OR between the value in register r1 (#0011) and the immediate value #1101. The result (#1110) is stored in register r2. |
| MVN r2, #0011 | Operand NOT result | <u>0011</u> 1100 | Performs a bitwise logical NOT on the immediate value #0011. The result (#1100) is stored in register r2. |

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

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

Logical shifts can be useful as efficient ways of performing multiplication or division of unsigned integers.

- Shifting left by n bits has the effect of multiplying it by 2^n .
- Shifting right by n bits has the effect of dividing it by 2^n .


Logical Shift Left

LSL r1, r2, 2 operand is shifted left by 2 places

The value stored in register r2 is shifted left by 2 places and the result is stored in register r1.
So before shift After shift

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| | |
|---|---|
| Logical Shift Right LSR r1, r2, 5 operand is shifted left by 5 places | The value stored in r2 is shifted right by 5 places and the result is stored in r1. |
|  Halt simply terminates the program operation HALT no operand needed for halt instruction | So before shift After shift |



7.3 – Progress Check

8. Convert the following program code into assembly language instruction

```

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.

Interrupts

Processors have the option to cause an interruption of the normal operation of the system. Interrupts can be provided by hardware (mouse button pressed) or software (program has detected an error or illegal operation).

When an interrupt is generated, the operating system executes an interrupt service routine, so, if the interrupt is high priority, it causes the fetch-execute cycle to be immediately interrupted after the completion of the current instruction.

Interrupt service routine process interrupts the fetch-execute cycle as follows:

| | |
|--|--|
| Store interrupted task | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Current instruction finishes its execution • Program counter contents stored in memory • Register contents stored in memory |
| Interrupt service routine carried out | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interrupt number examined and source of interrupt identified • Program counter loaded with start address for interrupt service routine • Interrupt service routine is executed |
| Continue interrupted task | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Contents of registers from original task restored to memory • Program counter contents from original task restored • Interrupted task continues |

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| 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. It 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 the device 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 into it. A dual-core processor will provide two processors on one chip, which is a multi-processor.</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. It regularly 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 carried per pulse.</p> |
| Address Bus Width | The width of the address bus affects the amount of memory that can be accessed, allowing more memory to be installed on the system or embedded device. |
| Data Bus Width | <p>The width of the data bus directly affects how much data can be carried at one time. Where the processor uses a 64-bit data bus, it obviously carries more data than a 32-bit bus. Where word size and data bus width are matched, the processor can work faster. Where word size and data bus width are not matched, the data will always be carried out in one single process, which improves performance.</p> |



7.3 – Progress Check

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

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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 areas reflect more light than black areas so creating an analogue waveform of the bar code The analogue waveform is converted into digital data that is used to identify product data A check digit on the end of the bar code is used to ensure bar codes are read correctly |
| Digital camera | <p>Pictures taken using a digital camera are stored on a memory card and can be transferred to a computer by:</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 card reader <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 converts it into digital data The image sensor records in RGB format so that all other colours can be represented The picture is then stored as an image file on a memory card. Each image file contains a series of digital data for each pixel in the picture Image files can be stored in RAW uncompressed format that can be edited or in compressed format such as JPG or TIFF <p>Image editing software can be used to modify images that have been transferred from the digital camera into the computer; typical improvements include:</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 printing are sent to the laser printer using a page description language The printer processes this file and creates a bitmap pattern for the page The printer laser beam scans along and across the drum inside the printer creating a pattern as the page that requires printing; this builds up a pattern that attracts toner (powdered ink) onto the page The toner is then fused onto paper by heat and pressure, using a fuser unit <p>The main advantages of laser printers are their print speed; commercial printers can print up to 100 pages per minute and also there is high-quality dry page output.</p> |

| | | |
|-------------|---|---|
| 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 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. <p>RFID tags can be used for security purposes in stores to prevent theft set off an alarm when it is removed from the store.</p> | |
| | 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 reader does not have its own power source. |

Secondary storage devices

Secondary storage devices are used in computer systems to avoid having to re-enter programs. They store a non-volatile or permanent copy. Additionally, data can be stored more than once and restored 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 mounted in a sealed unit and is connected to the computer's 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 are connected to the computer via a USB cable.</p> | |
| | Advantages | |
| | <p>Hard disks have a high data transfer rate.</p> <p>High storage capacity (typically 500 gigabytes to 10 terabytes)</p> | <p>Where hard disk drives are not permanently fixed inside the computer, they can be difficult to use.</p> <p>Care has to be taken when using external hard disks due to the risk of damage.</p> |

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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"> <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>4.7 Gb</td></tr> <tr> <td>Blu-ray</td><td>25 Gb</td></tr> </tbody> </table> <p>Blu-ray disks can be produced in larger capacities by increasing their capacity.</p> <p>DVD disks can also be produced in larger capacities by using a different format, increasing the capacity.</p> <table border="1"> <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 needs to be taken not to scratch the shiny surface.</td></tr> <tr> <td>Reasonable storage capacity for home and office use 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 faster than SSD devices.</td></tr> </tbody> </table> | Type of Disk | Storage Capacity | CD | 650 Mb | DVD | 4.7 Gb | Blu-ray | 25 Gb | Advantages | | Portable device that is cheap to produce – typical blank disks cost between 10p–50p each. | Care needs to be taken not to scratch the shiny surface. | Reasonable storage capacity for home and office use 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 faster than SSD devices. |
|--|---|---------------------------|------------------|-------|--|------|--|---------|-------|------------|--|---|--|--|---|--|---|
| Type of Disk | Storage Capacity | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| CD | 650 Mb | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| DVD | 4.7 Gb | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Blu-ray | 25 Gb | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Advantages | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Portable device that is cheap to produce – typical blank disks cost between 10p–50p each. | Care needs to be taken not to scratch the shiny surface. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Reasonable storage capacity for home and office use 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 faster 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 but has to be erased before the page can be overwritten <table border="1"> <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 move and position read/write heads over the disk to access data.</td></tr> <tr> <td>Cost</td><td>SSDs are significantly more expensive to purchase and tend to be 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 move and position read/write heads over the disk to access data. | Cost | SSDs are significantly more expensive to purchase and tend to be smaller capacity than hard disk drives. | | | | | | | | | | |
| 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 move and position read/write heads over the disk to access data. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Cost | SSDs are significantly more expensive to purchase and tend to be smaller capacity than hard disk drives. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |



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 disk storage. (4 marks)

TOPIC 8 – CONSEQUENCES OF USES OF C

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 promote 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 Practice**, created by ACM (Association for Computer Machinery) and the IEEE (Institute of Electrical and Electronic Engineers).

Software Engineering Code of Ethics and Professional Practice

PREAMBLE

Software engineers shall commit themselves to making the analysis, specification, design, development, testing and maintenance of software a beneficial and respected profession. Software engineers shall have a commitment 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 to the best interests of their client and employer 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 exercising their judgment.*
5. **MANAGEMENT** – *Software engineering managers and leaders shall support the ethical approach to the management of software development and maintenance.*
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 their profession.*

See www.acm.org for the full text.

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 by the software.
- 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 to the law, was 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 systems, developers 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 are strong; strong passwords are created by using mixtures of numbers, letters, and symbols, and are not in common use so that the final password does not look like a word.
- **Encryption** is used to make stored data more secure, by making it unreadable to people who do not have the key to decode it. This method is commonly used to protect data transmitted over the Internet.
- **Selective drop-down menus** are sometimes used as a security method to add letters to a password without typing them; this prevents key-logging software from viewing the systems and gaining access.

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 individuals who create and produce materials based on their own individual ideas.

The computing industry has grown tremendously in recent years with a great many new computer products.

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; this can include illegal downloading of games and music as well as commercial software.
- **Theft** of hardware and software ideas and innovations. In an industry that moves so fast, it is important to patent your invention before you release it on to the open market. Many of the products of our time are the result of 'reverse engineering' techniques can be used to produce replicas.

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

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

Copyright issues include:

- Unauthorised use of software – downloading or copying software illegally without 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 connecting to other systems. This creates an associated difficulty of effectively policing access to the system. A firewall is a combination of hardware and software designed to check the integrity of incoming messages and requests for service from the system.

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 run antivirus software to prevent and detect spyware from being installed and to remove any spyware that has been installed.

Computer misuse issues include:

- Unauthorised access by hackers for fraud purposes or to gain access just for the ch...

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 demand that means the encryption key must be handed over.



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 comput

- One method to gain this knowledge is by making use of current technology news
- 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 consult other viewpoints



8 – Progress Check

1. Compare the terms 'morals' and 'ethics'. (4 marks)
2. Briefly discuss some of the ethical responsibilities faced by software engineers.

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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.

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

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. In 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 more expensive to produce and more complex than serial cables. |

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.

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.

Start bit
A single bit used to start a transmission.

Stop bit
A single bit used to end a transmission.

Communication basics

Baud rate is the number of symbols (or symbol changes) that are transferred across a network in a set amount of time; normally measured in bauds (baud).

Baud rate is based on the number of bits encoded in each signal change; so, for example, if a signal change encodes 8 bits, the bit rate will be eight times higher than the baud rate.

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

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

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

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.

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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)

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 counterparts. For example, 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 place through the central hub. If the hub fails the whole network fails. |
| Fast response time and no problems with data collision as each workstation has its own cable. | Uses the most cable which can be expensive to install. Also long cable runs can degrade signal. |
| 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 using network 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 all workstations can access the network. |
| 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 the performance can fall off dramatically. |
| | If the main bus fails all communication is lost. |



9.2 – Progress Check

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

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 local

| 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 activity and requires regular 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 is then maintained by the clients and the labour involved in the network. |

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

Wi-Fi allows devices, such as smartphones, tablets and laptops to communicate wirelessly.

A **wireless access point** is a device that allows wireless devices to connect to a wired network.

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 device fitted into a USB port.

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

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

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

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

SSID (service set identification) is a unique 32-character identifier that is used to name a wireless network.

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 the correct SSID can connect to the WLAN.

A **MAC (Media Access Control)** address is the physical address of a networking device. It is a unique identifier assigned by the manufacturer and is stored in the device's read-only memory.

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

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

Carrier Sense Multiple Access with Collision Avoidance (CSMA/CA) operates by the computer sensing the channel that it is about to transmit data. Other computers can then avoid a collision by delaying their transmission.

CSMA/CA access methods can be used both with and without the Request to Send / Clear to Send (RTS/CTS) protocol.

| With RTS/CTS | Without RTS/CTS |
|---|--|
| 1. RTS signal is sent by the sender of the package | 1. The computer wants to send data if the channel is 'idle' |
| 2. then a CTS signal is sent by the intended receiver of the package | 2. then it is able to send data |
| 3. consequently the sender and receiver are aware of a data transmission and hold off for the duration of the main transmission | 3. if the channel is sensed busy, the computer waits and tries again |

The CSMA/CA method is widely used in WLANs although it has the disadvantage of reducing the throughput of the network as it 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 (SSID) |
| (b) Wi-Fi protected access (2 marks) | (d) MAC address (2 marks) |

9.3 THE INTERNET

The Internet and how it works

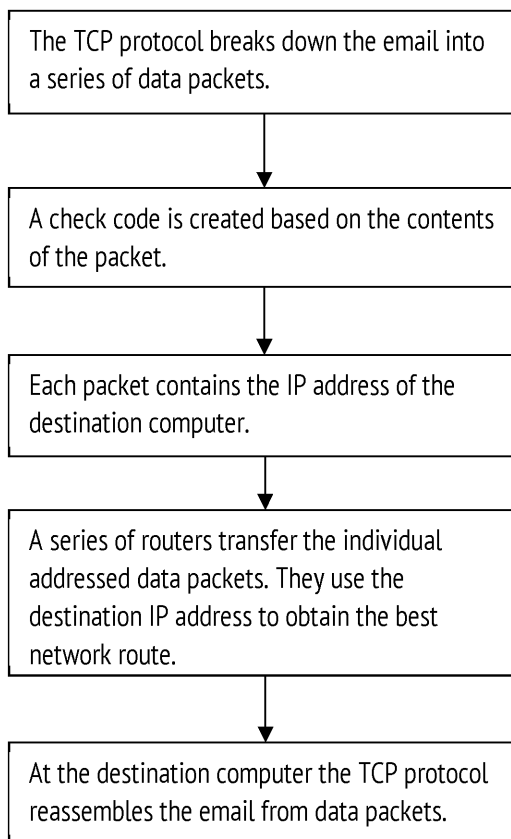
The **Internet** can be thought of as a massive network of networks, whereby it connects millions of computers, forming a network in which any computer can communicate with any other computer provided it is connected to the Internet. Information that travels over the Internet does so using the TCP/IP protocol (Transmission Control Protocol/Internet Protocol) to transport data packets over the Internet.

Packet switching

In networks, data is both transmitted and received. For example, if you download a web page, an email or a file, the data is broken down into a series of packets; these networks are known as packet-switched networks.

Packets can be defined as 'data that is sent over a network in manageable amounts; the actual size and structure of a packet is determined by the protocol (or rules) being used'.

The **TCP/IP protocol** is used to transfer an email using the simplified flowchart diagram below:



i Internet

i Packet

i Address

i TCP

Data pack

The check

The IP ad

The data

The reas

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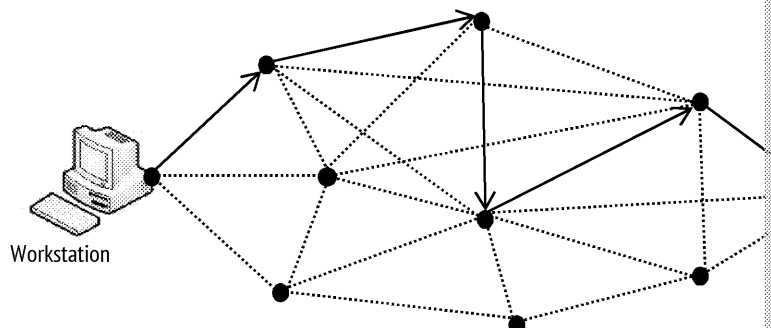
Routers and gateways

Gateways are used where the networks to be connected are of different types; then the job of passing data between them is more complicated. Data that is sent from one network to the other will, therefore, need to be converted from the format that is used on the sending network into the format that is used on the receiving network. This process is carried out by a gateway.

Router – devices called routers are used to determine an efficient route for data transfer between computer systems and to transmit web pages to users throughout the world.

Routing

Internet data is transmitted over between web servers and workstations using packet-switching.



The router transmits package data between the sender and the receiver via a series of nodes. In the diagram above there are many alternative routes that could be taken to transmit data to the receiver. The chosen route is shown with a solid line and the alternative routes are shown with dotted lines.

Routers find the ideal route to take, using sophisticated routing algorithms; each router forwards data to the next router; the routing table contains all the necessary information on the alternative routes between sender and receiver.

Uniform resource locator (URL)

Uniform resource locator refers to the location of a web resource on the Internet or a computer network. It identifies a particular website, file or document on the Internet and is displayed in the address bar of a web browser.

The example below is a URL for a Computer Science course companion file on the ZigZag Education website.

<http://www.zigzageducation.co.uk/synopses/6060-aqa-computer-science-course-companion-file.pdf>

In the example above:

| | | | | |
|--|---|---|--|--|
| http or hypertext transfer protocol is used to indicate the file is a website | www indicates the resource will be located using a World Wide Web server | zigzageducation is the name of the organisation that is providing the resource | co.uk is the type of organisation used and their country code | synopses/6060-aqa-computer-science-course-companion-file.pdf is the file name and extension |
|--|---|---|--|--|



9.3 – Progress Check

- Describe data transmission using the packet-switching method. (6 marks)
- Explain the function of the following terms:
 - Gateway (3 marks)
 - Router (2 marks)

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IP address

Every device on a network needs a unique identifier to ensure that data is sent to the specific computer that requests it. The unique identifier for a computer in a network is known as the IP address and consists of the network ID and the host ID.

The IP address is needed to allow one computer on a network to communicate with the server or any other device. It is also widely used on the Internet, which operates in a similar way to a smaller network.

Domain name

The most commonly used method for accessing a website is to enter its web address or domain name which is more commonly known as a uniform resource locator or URL.

An example of a domain name is **google.co.uk**, where:

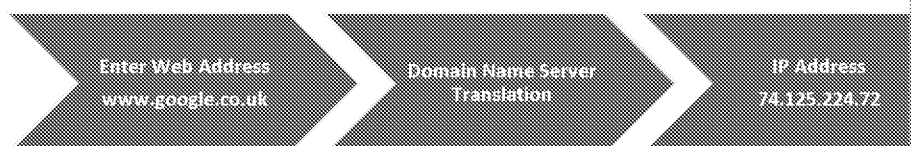
- google is the name of organisation
- .co indicates the type of organisation
- .uk indicates that the organisation is registered in the UK

Domain name server system

The most commonly used method for accessing a website is to enter its web address or domain name which is more commonly known as a uniform resource locator or URL.

IP addresses consist of four numbers of up to three digits, separated by dots. Domain names are easier to remember than IP addresses; for example, it is easier to learn or type in **www.google.co.uk** than the IP address.

When we type in a domain name into a web browser, it has to be converted into an IP address to access the website. This conversion takes place by using the domain name system (DNS), which keeps track of domain names and translates them into IP addresses when needed.



Another service provided by the domain name system is registering new domain names and is involved in collecting any fees for domain name registration.

The main advantage of using domain names is that they are easy to remember in preference to IP addresses. The conversion is carried out automatically by a domain name server. Also, companies can use domain names that reflect their type of business.

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9.3 – Progress Check

10. Define the following terms:

- IP address (1 mark)
- Uniform resource locator (1 mark)
- Domain name server (1 mark)


11. Explain how an IP address is accessed using the DNS system. (4 marks)

Internet Security

A **firewall** is used to prevent unauthorised requests from hackers to gain access to the network or computer systems via the Internet.

ICT systems are constantly communicating with the outside world, which involves connection to public networks and the associated difficulty of effectively policing access to the system.

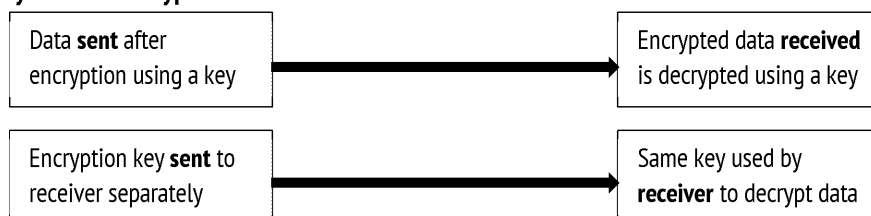
Firewall security can be achieved using the following techniques:

| Technique | Detail |
|----------------------------|--|
| Packet filtering | Packet filtering is where the firewall analyses data packets that are attempting to enter or leave the network. Packets are blocked unless they conform to a set of rules; typically, the filters are set up to view the source of the data. The rules can be set up to block access from a recognised source. |
| Stateful inspection | Stateful inspection, often termed dynamic packet filtering, is a more secure form of packet filtering. Each data packet is examined, and the state of active connections and the port numbers used is recorded. Data packets may be rejected if they come from an unexpected source. |
| Proxy server | <p>A proxy server processes the information received from the Internet and forwards it to the private network. Therefore, the website host is not in direct contact with the private network. Data is transmitted via the proxy server, as shown in the diagram below.</p>  <p>The diagram illustrates a proxy server setup. On the left, a computer icon represents the 'Private Network'. On the right, a server icon represents the 'Proxy Server'. A double-headed arrow connects the Private Network to the Proxy Server. A single-headed arrow points from the Proxy Server towards the right, representing the connection to the Internet.</p> |

Encryption

Encryption is widely used to make sure that data transmitted on a network is protected from hackers. It is the process of coding files before transmission, and encryption ensures that the information is only readable by the person or persons who have the encryption key to decode it.

Symmetric encryption



Asymmetric encryption



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The main advantage of asymmetric encryption is that the key to decrypt data is not transmitted. Also, it is exceptionally difficult to obtain details of the private key by inspection of the received data.

Digital signatures and certification

A **digital certificate** is issued by a certification authority and contains information that can be used to identify the user, the organisation, their email address, their country and the user's public key. When using asymmetric encryption, the recipient can view the digital certificate attached, establish that the message is from a trusted source and use their associated private key to decrypt the message.

A **digital signature** is a different method used to determine the authenticity of the message source by checking an encrypted and certified digital signature. Digital signatures use a mathematical technique based on the hashing algorithm, where the encryption key is based on a particular hash value.

Security threats

Malware or malicious software is a computer program that is installed on a computer system without the owner's consent; the main aim of malware is to damage the computer system or to perform uninvited actions that compromise system security.

The security threats that are dealt with on this course are:

- **Viruses** – computer viruses can be spread by email attachments and can cause damage, such as deletion of data or corruption of data. In extreme cases the contents of the hard disk can be deleted.
- **Worms** – the self-replication of these stand-alone programs can use up system resources, which causes the slowing down or halting of other tasks by using system bandwidth; worms spread around networks and cause disruption by increasing traffic rather than by altering files.
- **Trojans** – a Trojan can be inadvertently installed as it is hidden within another file, so the user is unaware of it. Trojans can be extremely dangerous, causing problems by deleting files, reformatting disks or crashing computers. In some cases, Trojans install spyware by providing a back door into the system to spy on user activities, such as monitoring user keystrokes or user activity.

Security protection methods

The following approaches can be taken by the system administrator to reduce the security risk from viruses:

- The use of an up-to-date virus scanner or **anti-virus software** helps to minimise the risk. It searches the computer system for viruses and deletes them once detected.
- Spyware can be loaded into a computer system as a software virus, so it is important to use software which will prevent and detect spyware from being installed and remove any spyware once detected.
- **Intrusion detection systems (IDS)** are designed to monitor the network or computer system. If an incident is detected, a report is produced which is sent to the network manager to assess the risk to the system.
- **Encryption** of data files using the techniques described above prevents hackers from accessing data if they can intercept it.
- Set up and configure a **firewall** using packet filtering, proxy server and stateful packet inspection to filter incoming messages and requests for service from the system.
- Check the **digital signatures / digital certification** of downloaded data to ensure that it is from a trusted source and that it is up to date.
- Ensure that operating system and network programs are updated on a regular basis.

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- Ensure that all data is backed up on a regular basis so that the system can be recovered in the event of damage to data and files on the system.

Programmers and users can take the following steps to alleviate the impact of security threats:

- Only use commercial software that was purchased from a well-known and reputable source.
- Test and develop new software on a stand-alone computer, being careful to check for malware before uploading the software to other networked computers.
- Only open attachments or click on pop-ups from known and trusted senders.
- Use password protection on files and programs.
- Encrypt all data files.
- Choose a programming language that is designed to avoid basic vulnerabilities to security threats.

Set up security permissions and access rights to prevent the modification of source code by users. Carry out these changes.



9.3 – Progress Check

- Define the following terms:
 - Firewall (2 marks)
 - Packet filtering (2 marks)
 - Stateful inspection (2 marks)
 - Proxy server (2 marks)
 - Symmetric encryption (2 marks)
- Explain the differences between viruses, worms and Trojans. (3 marks)

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9.4 TRANSMISSION CONTROL PROTOCOL / INTERNET PRO

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TCP/IP

The following four layers are part of the TCP / IP stack:

| Layer | Description |
|-------------|--|
| Application | The data that is being sent is encoded into a format that is understand |
| Transport | The data is split into parts suitable to be fitted into a data packet. Each to indicate the port it will be delivered to and is also assigned a number data packets can be correctly reordered once they have been received. |
| Network | The network layer attaches the IP address of the sender of the data and receive the data. |
| Link | The MAC address for the hardware device sending the data is added, as device receiving the data. |

Process and connection identification

The TCP / IP process contains an identifier termed as a **socket**, that is based on its IP address assigned to. Typical socket notation is <IP Address>:<Port Number>

MAC address

The **MAC** (media access control) address is the physical address of a device such as a **NIC** (network interface card) identifier assigned by the manufacturer and is stored on the network interface card in a ROM. MAC addresses uniquely identify a network adaptor on a LAN (local area network); on a LAN access the network traffic.

Security can be improved on a wireless network as follows: the router for a wireless network maintains a list of computers – these computers are identified by their unique MAC addresses.

Ports

TCP/IP networks have ports, which are logical connections that are used by a client program on a networked computer.

Well-known ports – these are ports that have numbers that are specifically pre-assigned and need to use the well-known ports that are the destination ports for a client request and, the service. So, for example, a server processes email based on the use of the following ports: 110 which is a POP3 port.

Client ports – when a server responds to a client request the port number the client is using for the request is used by the server to send their reply. Clients assign a temporary port number for each request.

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9.4 – Progress Check

14. Explain the role of each of the following layers in the TCP/IP stack:
- (a) Application layer (2 marks)
 - (b) Transport layer (3 marks)
 - (c) Network layer (2 marks)
 - (d) Link layer (2 marks)



Standard application layer protocols

Protocol is a set of rules or standards; the standard application layer protocols are:

| Protocol | Function |
|----------|---|
| FTP | File transfer protocol (FTP) – a TCP network protocol used for file transfer. |
| HTTP | Hypertext transfer protocol (HTTP) – a protocol to outline how files such as web pages are transmitted on the World Wide Web. |
| HTTPS | Hypertext transfer protocol secure (HTTPS) – similar functionality to HTTP, but the data transmitted is encrypted. |
| POP3 | Post office protocol v3 (POP3) – protocol used to receive email data via a mail server and store messages into text for display in a user email application. |
| SMTP | Simple mail transfer protocol (SMTP) – protocol used to send email data via a mail server, provided where a connection cannot be achieved between the sender and the recipient. |
| SSH | Secure shell (SSH) – protocol used to gain access to remote computers, typically used by system administrators to control web servers remotely. |

File transfer protocol (FTP)

File transfer protocol (FTP) is the set of rules that are generally used to download or upload files from the Internet.

Typical use of FTP is where a website developer uploads newly created web pages of their website.

FTP is based on the client-server approach where users need to sign in to the server to provide access. For example, online shopping sites, so the user needs to sign in with a username and password, exchanging information with the server. In some cases, the FTP server can be configured so that it doesn't need to log in to access the server's files.

Secure shell (SSH) protocol

Secure shell is a computer application that allows the user to log on to another networked computer. SSH provides secure connections and robust authentication where commands can be executed and data can be transferred between the machines.

This technique is based on the client-server approach, where the user is the client and the server or host.

SSH can be used to transfer files in a similar way to FTP, but with SSH the data that is transferred is encrypted. Typically, it is used as follows:

- Secure command shell can be used by the system administrator to log in to the server to perform tasks such as to change document permissions or to manage user accounts without compromising security.
- Secure file transfer can be used, for example, to set up an extranet for sharing files with other users.
- To transmit or modify data at the server.

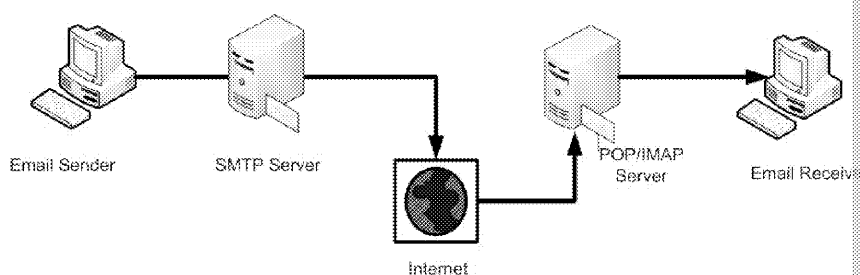
Secure command shell typically makes use of a simple command line interface; this requires the user to enter commands and the syntax which accompanies them.

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Email protocols and mail server



The schematic diagram above shows the main compounds used in the transmission and reception of email.

The email server is a specialist network computer that performs the following functions:

- Sends emails using the simple mail transfer protocol (SMTP); the data is transmitted from the sender to the server.
- Contains a set of rules for emails that are handled; for example, file attachments might be saved to a specific folder.
- Receives emails using post office protocol (POP3); incoming data is received via port 110.
- Contains a database of network user accounts so that emails can be routed to the correct user.
- Contains storage space to store all emails incoming and sent email messages.

Web server

Web server is a network computer whose function is deliver web content to clients over the Internet.

The web server is a physical server that uses a server operating system and contains the application software that allows it to establish communication using HTTP (hypertext transfer protocol). It can host one or more websites and handle the traffic from clients to the website.

The website data that is stored on the web server consists of the web pages for that site. Web servers use standard protocols to ensure that web pages are displayed correctly on all browsers and hardware.

HTML is a mark-up language and has become a standard for web page creation because it is easy to use to create a web page, and it can be written in a wide variety of software applications from Notepad to Dreamweaver.




9.4 – Progress Check

15. Describe the function of the following application protocols:
- FTP (1 mark)
 - HTTP (1 mark)
 - HTTPS (1 mark)
 - POP3 (2 marks)
 - SMTP (2 marks)
 - SSH (1 mark)

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Web browser

 **Web browser** is a software application that is used to navigate and view Internet sources.

Web browsers are a user-friendly method of finding and displaying websites and information.

We can select a website to display using the following alternative methods:

- By typing a domain name (URL) into a web browser
- By choosing a website from the result of a search
- By selecting the domain name from a list of bookmarks

Next, the domain name has to be converted into an IP address so that it can connect to the website.

This conversion takes place by using the domain name system (DNS) which keeps details of domain names and translates them into IP addresses when needed.



Once the IP address for the website is obtained, we can connect to the web server host to display the website.



9.4 – Progress Check

16. Define the term 'web browser' and list three alternative methods used to select a website to display (4 marks)

IP address structure

The TCP/IP protocol is used as a standard on most networks today; this protocol provides a unique address for each computer, known as its IP address.

The addressing technique used operates in the same way as a normal postal address, where the address is based on the unique house number and post code.

IP addresses consist of four numbers of up to three digits, separated by dots. For example, the unique IP address, including: **74.125.224.72**

The first two numbers represent the **network address**; in this case: **74.125**

The last two numbers represent the **host address** of the device on the network; in this case: **224.72**

The IP address contains a **network identifier** that identifies the network on which a device or computer can be found. The network ID is needed to authenticate access and connection to the server and applications of the network identified.

A **host identifier** can also be found in the IP address, which identifies a specific device on the network. The host ID (or host address) is used to identify any device on the network, such as a workstation or printer that has a network connection and network interface card.

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Subnet masking

Subnetting is used to divide the IP address into a network address and the host addresses. The subnet mask is a number that is used to mask the IP address; it consists of a series of 0s and 1s, and the host address is identified by executing a logical BITWISE AND operation.

Subnetting permits the network administrator to further divide the host address into two or more subnets for security reasons.

The example below is shown in binary, using a subnet mask of 255.255.240.000, which ensures that the last two words remain unchanged using a BITWISE AND operation.

| | | |
|----------------|-----------------|---|
| Subnet mask | 255.255.240.000 | 11111111 . 11111111 . 11111111 . 00000000 |
| IP address | 171.151.033.036 | 10101011 . 10010111 . 00000101 . 00100100 |
| Subnet address | 171.151.032.000 | 10101011 . 10010111 . 00000100 . 00000000 |

IP standards

There are currently two IP address standards known as v4 and v6.

IP standards have needed to change to accommodate the growth of the number of Internet devices. Each device has to have a unique IP address.

IP address v4 is based on the original 32-bit code. **IP address v6** is based on a 128-bit code.

It is written as a set of four decimal numbers of up to three digits, separated by dots. It is written as a set of eight groups of four hexadecimal digits, separated by colons.

For example: **74.125.224.72** is the address for Google. For example: **1A23:0000:0001:0110** is the address for a specific device.

Eventually all IP addresses will be in v6 format, but both systems are in use at the time of writing.

Public and private IP addresses

A public IP address is where a device is assigned to permit direct access routed via the Internet; these IP addresses are totally unique and routable.

A private IP address is where a device is assigned to a private network; for example, a home network.

Private networks can be connected to the Internet via a router or a proxy server, in which case the Internet connects to the public IP address of the router / proxy server.

This private IP address is not routable on the Internet. It is only used within the private network.

Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol (DHCP)

Dynamic host configuration protocol (DHCP) is a network protocol in which IP addresses are assigned to devices when they connect to the network. In the case of dynamic addressing, a device receives a unique IP address each time that it is connected to the network.

The DHCP server contains a list of available IP addresses that are automatically assigned to devices when they connect to the network.

Where **static IP addresses** are used, the network administrator has to manually configure the system for a device; this can be time-consuming and can result in errors where two devices are configured with the same IP address.

The advantage of using **dynamic IP addresses** is that no administration is necessary and the system can handle a large number of the IP addresses connected to the network.



9.4 – Progress Check

17. Define the following terms: (a) Network ID, (b) Host ID and (c) Subnet mask.

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Network Address Translation (NAT)

Network address translation is the technique used to assign a private network a registered public IP address which can then be mapped to the private IP addresses of the devices in the network.

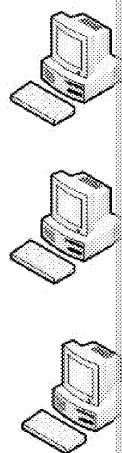
The translation table can be used to look up the links between each internal private IP address and the public IP address for the router.

The benefits of this technique are:

- The private IP address is hidden from the Internet, ensuring it is more secure from unauthorised access.
- The number of public IP addresses that need to be registered by an organisation is limited, saving costs and administration.

PRIVATE NETWORK

Unregistered IP Addresses



Port forwarding



Port forwarding is a technique used to route data to private IP addresses using additional information.

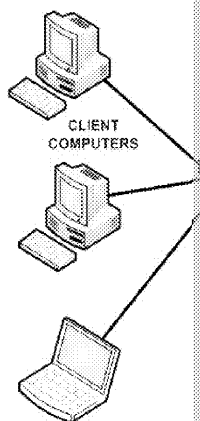
The network address translator (NAT) forwards a communication request from a public IP address using a translation table to determine the port number to use.

Client-server model

A **client-server** model is where the workstations in any network design use the server to provide a service. The many types of server include:

- Email server – provides client email handling
- Web server – handles website hosting and client website traffic
- File server – contains network files, including programs and data
- Database server – stores database, and handles client editing, searching and interaction
- Print server – handles client printing by buffering and ordering individual print tasks

The basic operation is where the client makes a service request from the server, which then fulfils the request; for example, a web browser at the client computer may access information at any web server in the world.



The print server uses a printer between several client computers on a local area network (LAN), as shown in Figure 9.2. Further information on this is given in Section 9.2 of this book.

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9.4 – Progress Check

18. Explain the difference between public IP addresses and private IP addresses (6 marks)
19. Explain how network address translation operates, and describe two benefits of this technique (6 marks)

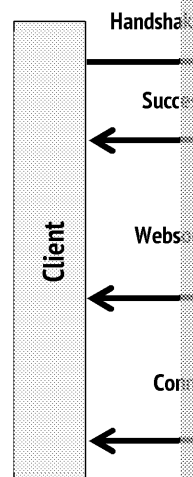
Websocket protocol

i **Application program interface (API)** is a set of function calls that enable communication between two programs.

The API consists of a set of rules that allow one application to communicate with another or to move data from one application to another. For example, the web application Google Maps links with a restaurant directory program to display details of restaurants near your current location.

i **Websocket protocol** describes the rules for creating a persistent connection between two networked computers to enable real-time data transfer.

The websocket protocol creates a persistent connection between the client and web server after a successful handshake routine. This connection is full duplex, meaning that data can be exchanged in both directions.



9.4 – Progress Check

20. Describe the function of the websocket protocol. (4 marks)

Create, retrieve, update and delete (CRUD)

The main functions used to control web-based databases are create, retrieve, update and delete – defined by the acronym **CRUD**.

All of the CRUD functions are necessary to create and manage a database.

Structured query language (SQL) is used to control and manage relational databases; it contains equivalent commands to CRUD, as listed in the table shown.

| CRUD |
|----------|
| Create |
| Retrieve |
| Update |
| Delete |

Representational state transfer (REST)

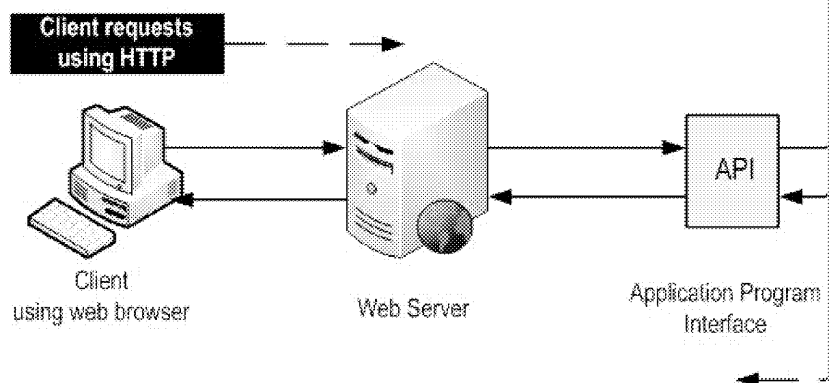
i **Representational state transfer (REST)** is a methodology for implementing web-based databases. It makes use of hypertext transfer protocol (HTTP) commands to perform the CRUD function necessary to create and manage a database.

The table on the right shows the mapping between the basic CRUD functions, the SQL database control functions and the HTTP communication functions.

| CRUD |
|----------|
| Create |
| Retrieve |
| Update |
| Delete |

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The schematic diagram above shows the communication route using a **REST** methodology, in the following stages:

- The client uses a web browser to send a request to the database.
- The database service request query is identified using its **URL** (uniform resource locator).
- The **API** (application program interface) is used to link the client to the database and control the data.
- The service request and associated data are transmitted using **HTTP** (hypertext transfer protocol).
- The database server response is in the form of **XML** (extensible markup language) or **JSON** (JavaScript object notation).

JavaScript object notation versus XML

Data objects can be formatted for transfer across servers and web application using JSON or XML.

- ❗ **XML** (extensible markup language) is a markup language based on tags, similar to HTML. It is used to transfer data around a network and also for data storage.
- ❗ **JSON** (JavaScript object notation) is a text-based, human-readable data format that is used to transfer data across a network.

| XML Example | JSON Example |
|---|--|
| <pre> ...> <Name>AQA </Name> <Phone>0161 953 1180</Phone> <Postcode>M15 6EX</Postcode> <.... </pre> | <pre> { "Name" "Phone" "Postcode" } </pre> |

XML and JSON compared

The simple examples above indicate the differences between the format of XML and JSON, which are shown in the list below.

- **Human readability** – easier to read in JSON as it is written as a list of objects and their values, whereas XML is cluttered as it is contained within markup tags
- **Parsing** – faster to parse in JSON as it is clearly defined as a list of objects and their values, whereas XML's values have to be removed from their tags
- **Code creation** – JSON creates less code for a given data set than XML, and the coding is simpler than XML
- **Data types** – XML can be used to create any data type required where this data structure is not supported in JSON, whereas JSON may have too limited a range of data for all applications

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Thin-client versus thick-client computing

i **Thin-client** computers are low-specification devices; they have little processing power to provide resources, such as processing power and storage for main programs and data.

The thin-client computer doesn't require any additional software to be downloaded; it typically uses a web browser. The advantages and disadvantages of using the thin-client model are listed below.

| Thin-client model advantages | Thin-client model disadvantages |
|---|---|
| Improved security as client access rights can be managed to reduce access to vulnerable files on the server | A high bandwidth network is required, leading to poor response time during peak periods |
| Network administrator can back up all system data more easily and control clients activities | It is expensive to purchase a server capable of operating many thin-client computers |
| Software and hardware can be configured and updated from the server | Server failure or inaccessibility can be affecting all clients |

i **Thick-client** computers are fully functional computers, so they can operate without being connected to a server. In a thick-client network, the server can give the client additional processing power to software that is installed on the server and run from the client machine.

| Thick-client model advantages | Thick-client model disadvantages |
|--|--|
| Improved performance for thick-client users, as software applications are processed locally on the client device | Less security as clients can access data directly from the Internet |
| Thick-client computers can run stand-alone from the network where necessary, minimising the impact of server failure or the network being inaccessible | Further tasks for network administrator as software need to be controlled on each client machine |
| Thick-client software offers additional features and customisation which improve the usability of the application | Additional costs incurred as clients need to be a higher specification |



9.4 – Progress Check

- Define the term 'representational state transfer' (REST) and describe the components of a RESTful web-based database. (6 marks)
- Compare the use of XML and JSON in terms of parsing and human readability.
- Define the thin client, and describe three advantages of using a thin-client model.
- Define the thick client, and describe three advantages of using a thick-client model.

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TOPIC 10 – FUNDAMENTALS OF DATA

10.1 FUNDAMENTALS OF DATABASES

Databases

A database can be described as 'a persistent organised store of data that is used on a computer system'. Persistent means that it is saved to a file so that it is non-volatile and so can be accessed again.

Flat file database

A flat file database can be created in a word processor or spreadsheet as it is only composed of one file or table.

In the spreadsheet example below a single table database is used to keep a record of the balance accounts for a small business.

In a flat file database, each **row** of the table is known as a **record** and each column is known as a **field**.

| | A | B | C | D | E | |
|----|----------|-------|----------|-----------|------------------------|------------|
| 1 | Customer | Title | Initials | Name | Address 1 | Address 2 |
| 2 | 1 | Dr | M.G. | Featherst | 1 Abbey Hey Lane | GORTON |
| 3 | 2 | Mrs. | R. | Camfield | 1 Angle Street | RUGBY |
| 4 | 3 | Dr | R. | Davison | 1 Byron Street | BURNLEY |
| 5 | 4 | Mr. | H.W. | Kinghorn | 1 Cayton Drive | WIGSTON |
| 6 | 5 | Mr. | C. | Tyrkas | 1 Crowland Avenue | BIRMINGHAM |
| 7 | 6 | Mr. | G.S. | Arnold | 1 Gargrave Road | SKIPTON |
| 8 | 7 | Mrs. | K. | Harland | 1 Hezeimere Close | BARNLEY |
| 9 | 8 | Dr | D.J. | Austin | 1 High Holme Road | LOUTH |
| 10 | 9 | Ms | D.B. | Plett | 1 Hill House Farm | PRESTON |
| 11 | 10 | Mr. | D. | Adams | 1 Hilton Close | HARLOW |
| 12 | 11 | Ms | A. | Malton | 1 James Reckitt Avenue | HULL |
| 13 | 12 | Mrs. | G. | Trons | 1 Juniper Avenue | DORKING |
| 14 | 13 | Mrs. | C. | Archer | 1 Kelliet Road | CARNFORTH |
| 15 | 14 | Ms | A. | Pendemo | 1 Lenhurst Avenue | LEEDS |
| 16 | 15 | Mr. | P. | Renny | 1 Lightfoot Terrace | HAYWARD |

Relational databases

A **relational database** is managed using a relational database management system (RDBMS). It is a database that comprises more than one table, where tables that share a relationship are joined by linking a primary key in one table to a foreign key in another.

The **primary key** in a table is a unique identifier and forms the index for that table. Typical examples of unique identifiers are car registration numbers, passport numbers or National Insurance numbers. AutoNumber data type can be used when creating a table to ensure that a unique identifier is defined.

The **foreign key** usually has the same field name as the primary key, but is not a key field. It is used to link with the primary key of another table to form a relationship between the two tables.

The **composite primary key** is used in a table where two columns are used to form a combined key field. It is necessary for both columns to be combined to form a unique reference.

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Entity and relationship

An entity is an object that data can be stored about; typical examples are customers, products and sales. In a relational database each entity modelled is represented by a table.

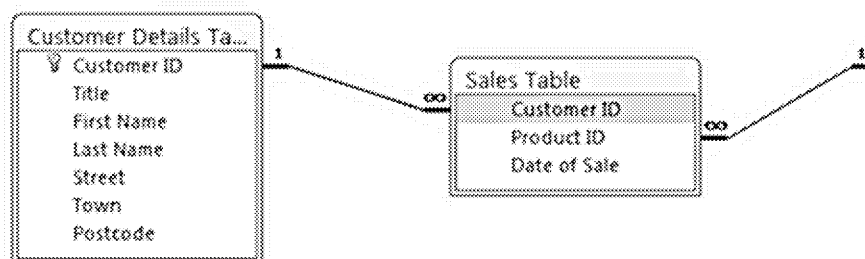
The advantage of using a relational database is that data redundancy is reduced as linking the data tables reduces the duplication of data. This makes it simpler to keep information up to date and increases the accuracy and consistency of data. The most common type of relationship defined in a relational database is **one to many**; typical examples are:

- One teacher can have many students
- One student can be enrolled on many courses
-

Attributes are the details about an entity in a database. For example, the customer details table shown below has the following attributes:

CUSTOMER DETAILS: Customer ID, Title, First Name, Last Name, Street, Town, Postcode

An efficient solution for the customer sales relational database can be created from three tables and the relationship diagram below.



The entity relationships are set up as follows:

1. **Customer details** table is related (**one to many**) with the **sales** table
2. **Mobile devices** table is related (**one to many**) with the **sales** table

The advantage of this structure is that customer details only have to be entered once, and the device only has to be entered once into the mobile devices table.



10 – Progress Check

1. Explain the difference between a primary key and a foreign key in a relational database. (2 marks)
2. Explain the difference between a flat file and relational file database. (4 marks)
3. Describe the advantage of using a relational database. (2 marks)

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Normalisation

Normalisation is the formal process involved in the design of an efficient database; this is a process where tables are created to cause a reduction in data dependency and data redundancy.

First normal form is where tables contain no repeating attributes or groups of attributes.

Second normal form is where tables contain no partial key dependencies.

Third normal form is where tables contain no non-key dependencies.

The single table **flat file database** for a sports club is shown below in un-normalised form.

| MemberID | FirstName | LastName | CourseID | CourseName | TrainerID |
|----------|-----------|----------|----------|-------------------|-----------|
| 1564A | Jon | Lane | YOGA/A | Advanced Yoga | JT |
| | | | CT | Circuit Training | DW |
| | | | Swim/A | Advanced Swimming | CK |
| 5472G | Helen | Smith | P/B | Beginners Pilates | LS |
| | | | Swim/A | Advanced Swimming | CK |

The **normalised** database for the sports club is shown below.

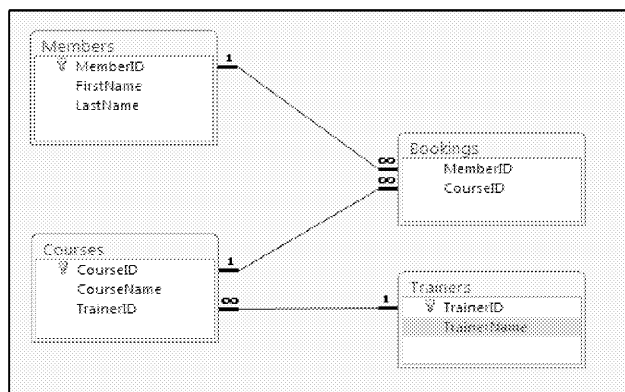
Four tables are created to normalise the sports club; the primary keys are underlined.

MEMBERS (MemberID, FirstName, LastName)

COURSES (CourseID, CourseName, TrainerID)

BOOKINGS (MemberID, CourseID)

TRAINERS (TrainerID, TrainerName)



The entity relationship diagram shows:

- one member can have many bookings
- one course can be booked many times
- one trainer can take many courses

Entity relationships are set up as follows:

1. **Members** table is related to **Bookings** table.
2. **Courses** table is related to **Bookings** table.
3. **Trainers** table is related to **Courses** table.



10 – Progress Check

4. Briefly define the following terms:
 - (a) Normalisation (2 marks)
 - (b) First normal form, second normal form and third normal form (3 marks)

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Structured query language (SQL)

Relational database management systems (RDBMS) support the use of structured query language for database maintenance purposes.

Using SQL to create database structure

The following examples of simple SQL statements are related to a Sports Club:

CREATE DATABASE Sports Club

This command creates an empty database named Sports Club.

The next step is to add tables to the database.

CREATE TABLE Customers

(CustomerID INT NOT NULL, FirstName VARCHAR(50), LastName VARCHAR(50), PRIMARY KEY (CustomerID))

This command has created a table named Customers with CustomerID as a primary key and no null value. The table structure is shown below.

| CustomerID (Primary Key) | FirstName | LastName |
|--------------------------|-----------|----------|
| | | |

The DROP command

This can be used to delete tables or a database; for example:

DROP DATABASE Sports Club

DROP TABLE Customers

Add/Modify data

INSERT INTO 'Sports Club'. 'Customers' ('CustomerID', 'FirstName', 'LastName') VALUES ('1', 'Jane', 'Wilson')

The insert statement adds a row to the Customers Table and enters data into each field.

| CustomerID | FirstName | LastName |
|------------|-----------|----------|
| 1 | Jane | Wilson |

UPDATE 'Sports Club'. 'Customers' SET 'LastName' = 'Marriott' WHERE 'Customers'. 'CustomerID' = 1

The Update function can be used to edit data in a table row that has already been inserted.

In this case, the LastName field has been edited as shown below.

The keyword SET identifies the field being updated.

| CustomerID | FirstName | LastName |
|------------|-----------|----------|
| 1 | Jane | Marriott |

Further rows (or records) are now inserted into the table using the insert command.

| CustomerID | FirstName | LastName |
|------------|-----------|-----------|
| 1 | Jane | Marriott |
| 2 | Jon | Brown |
| 3 | Kate | McPherson |
| 4 | Steve | Davies |

DELETE FROM Customers WHERE CustomerID = 2

In this case, the delete function removes the row or record where CustomerID=2.

| CustomerID | FirstName | LastName |
|------------|-----------|-----------|
| 1 | Jane | Marriott |
| 3 | Kate | McPherson |
| 4 | Steve | Davies |

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Extracting data from tables

The SELECT command can be used to extract data from a database.

Extract all records from a table

SELECT * FROM 'Customers'

The command above will extract all records and attributes from the Customers table.

| | | |
|---|-------|-----------|
| 1 | Jane | Marriott |
| 3 | Kate | McPherson |
| 4 | Steve | Davies |

Extract one record from a table

SELECT * FROM 'Customers' WHERE 'CustomerID' = 4

The command above will only extract the record where CustomerID = 4.

| | | |
|---|-------|--------|
| 4 | Steve | Davies |
|---|-------|--------|

Extract more than one record from a table

SELECT * FROM 'Customers' WHERE LastName LIKE 'M%'

| | | |
|---|------|-----------|
| 1 | Jane | Marriott |
| 3 | Kate | McPherson |

SQL and relational databases

The Sports Club database has been further developed to contain a table of Customers and a table of Sessions.

**Customers
Table**

| CustomerID (Primary Key) | FirstName |
|--------------------------|-----------|
| 1 | Jane |
| 2 | Jon |
| 3 | Kate |
| 4 | Steve |
| 5 | Mario |

**Sessions
Table**

| Trainer | Cost | Date |
|---------|-------|-------------|
| Zak | 25.00 | July 1 |
| Sally | 30.00 | July 12 |
| Liz | 27.50 | August 1 |
| Zak | 25.00 | September 9 |
| Liz | 27.50 | July 14 |
| Sally | 30.00 | July 29 |

SELECT Customer.FirstName, Customer.LastName, Sessions.Date, Session.Cost FROM Customers, Sessions WHERE Sessions.Cost < 30.00 AND Customers.CustomerID < 4

This query is based on the two tables Customers and Sessions.

It has extracted the FirstName, LastName, Session Date and Session Cost where the CustomerID was less than 4.

| FirstName | LastName | Date |
|-----------|----------|---------|
| Jane | Marriott | July 1 |
| Jon | Brown | July 14 |

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INNER JOIN

An inner join between two tables will return the rows where there is a match between the two tables. For example, if we join the Customers and Sessions tables from above:

```
SELECT Sessions.Trainer, Customers.LastName, Sessions.Date
FROM Sessions
INNER JOIN Customers
ON Session.CustomerID = Customers.CustomerID
```

This will return the Session Trainer, Customer LastName, Session Date for CustomerID = 1,2,3,4,5

Select query logical operators

Different logical operators that can be used to filter data in SQL include:

AND Displays result if condition 1 AND condition 2 are TRUE
OR Displays result if condition 1 OR condition 2 is TRUE



10 – Progress Check

5. An online book shop has created a relational database known as BOOKS4U. It contains two tables: Books and Publisher.

Books

| BookCode | Name | UnitCost | PublisherCode |
|----------|--------------|----------|---------------|
| 271DEC | A2 Computing | 19.50 | 137 |
| 56GCSE | GCSE ICT | 17.95 | 94 |
| 980UUT | GCSE Physics | 16.75 | 94 |
| GG77WS | AS Biology | 23.50 | 228 |
| 9494TT | A2 Biology | 23.50 | 137 |
| TGF67R | GCSE Music | 15.75 | 137 |

Publisher

| PublisherCode | Name | Website |
|---------------|------------|----------------------|
| 137 | Thornes | www.thornes.co.uk |
| 94 | Whitchurch | www.whitchurch.co.uk |
| 228 | Masters | www.masters.co.uk |

- a) Write out the SQL to create the **Publisher** table. (5 marks)
- b) List the results you would obtain from running the following SQL query (4 marks)
- ```
SELECT Books.Name, Books.UnitCost, Publisher.Name
FROM Books, Publisher
WHERE Books.UnitCost < 13.0 AND Books.UnitCost > 18.0
```
- c) Write an SQL statement to add the following data into the **Books** table (3 marks)

| BookCode | Name           | UnitCost | PublisherCode |
|----------|----------------|----------|---------------|
| 177TRV   | GCSE Chemistry | 19.99    | 137           |

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## Client-server databases

The client-server database model has become one of the central ideas of network computing. The database is maintained on a server and the client is considered to be a user who accesses the database over the network. The client-server database is a multi-user system that allows several clients to access the database simultaneously.

The client-server database uses a database management system software application to coordinate access to the database.

## Database management system (DBMS)

A database management system (DBMS) is a software application designed:

- to interact with database users
- to capture, extract and analyse data
- to interact with other software applications

### Database capture and manipulation of data

DBMS software is used to create a database, capture, select and retrieve data, as well as export data to other applications; DBMS provides the following:

- A database structure can be created including linking tables to form relationships and defining the elements of the database. Many DBMS systems automatically create documentation of the database structure.
- **Tables** are used to store data which can be captured by a **data entry form** or by importing data from a range of formats, such as CSV files.
- **Queries** are mainly used to retrieve specific data from a table or tables; where this data is complex a complex query will process the data into a single datasheet. Queries also let you access just the records you want and often these results are used as a record source for forms and reports.
- **Reports** are used to summarise and present the data that is in the tables. A report is a document such as 'list details for each customer account this month'. Each report can be formatted to present the database in the most readable way possible and can be outputted to the printer, a file or an application or program.

### Data management and administration

DBMS software is used by the database administrator to maintain the system as follows:

- Provides for a centralised automatic backup of the system.
- Assign different types of database user with associated access rights.
- Provide logon and password facilities for users.
- Update of DBMS programs and development of associated software tools

### Program-data independence

In a DBMS the data is separated from the applications that access it, so programs work independently. An advantage of this is that database administrators can modify the software tools that control the database without the need to change the programs that remain unchanged by these programs.

There are many commonly used DBMS systems including Oracle, dBase, MS Access and MySQL.

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## 10 – Progress Check

6. List four features that a DBMS provides the system administrator with to manage the database.
7. Explain the benefits of program-data independence in a DBMS. (2 marks)

### Concurrent access issues for client–server databases

Concurrent access can cause issues where data can be lost if two or more clients attempt to access the same data at the same time.

The following techniques can be used to manage this problem:

- **Record locking** – with this technique, a record is locked when it is being accessed by one user, which prevents additional users from editing and saving the record until the original user has finished their transaction.
- **Serialisation** – this technique only permits one transaction at a time to take place with the database.
- **Timestamp ordering** – this approach timestamps the start time of each database transaction against the system clock. The oldest timestamp transaction takes priority and is executed first with any other transactions on the same record.
- **Commitment ordering** – in this case, the order of operation of concurrent transactions is determined by the precedence of the particular command requested; for example, some commands are given priority so they are, therefore, executed before older timestamp transactions.



### 10 – Progress Check

8. Compare record locking and commitment ordering as techniques that could be used to manage concurrent access to databases. (4 marks)

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## TOPIC 11 – BIG DATA

### 11.1 BIG DATA

Big data is a relatively new term and it refers to large data sets that are too difficult to store or complex to easily analyse. Big data is based on the following characteristics:

- **Volume** – organisations gather and store large amounts of data; the amount of data can be so large that it is big data.
- **Velocity** – data streams are collected in a near-to-real-time fashion, making the processing of data difficult.
- **Variety** – data comes in a wide range of formats, such as text, audio, video, images, and so on.

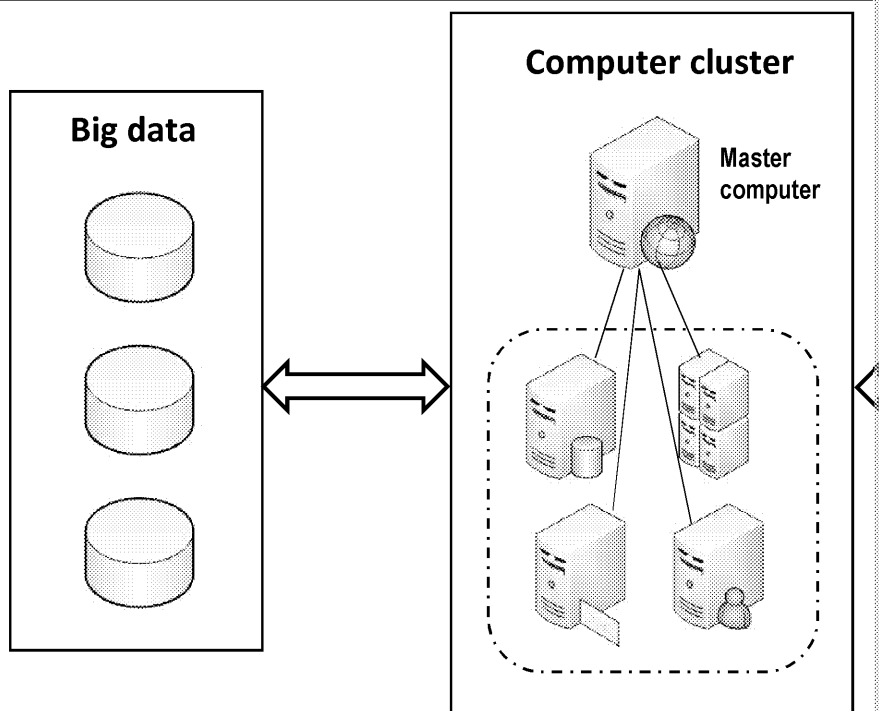
The ease with which data can be organised gives an indication of its ability to be analysed, whether it is structured or unstructured, as outlined below.

- **Structured data** – can be defined as data that is appropriate to be entered into a relational database; consequently, this data can be analysed and queries can be used to extract useful information.
- **Unstructured data** – can be defined as data that is difficult to organise and is not appropriate for a relational database. Machine learning data analysis techniques are used on unstructured data to analyse and extract useful information in a cost-effective manner. Data analysis is difficult on unstructured data because of the many formats used.

#### Distributed processing

When data is too big to be processed on a single machine, the processing is distributed across many machines. This is called distributed processing.

The block diagram below shows a typical distributed system where the computer cluster shares a master computer. The master computer makes use of specialist software to control each networked computer as the data is processed.



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## Functional programming

A **function** is a subroutine that carries out a set of instructions and returns a value.

**Functional programming** is a paradigm based on the use of functions to determine variables, similar to mathematical expressions to calculate the value of a variable.

In functional programming, data structures are **immutable**, meaning that the function only changes data at the time the function is executed. Therefore, new data structures are created rather than modifying the structure, so a function to update the value of an array will create a new array with updated values.

This is not the case in procedural languages that are mutable and have the **side effect** that can have an impact on how the program is executed. Functional programs are immutable so do not suffer from side effects.

Functional programming also supports:

- **Statelessness**, which means each function is calculated with no reliance on any data or state from previous function inputs; there is no dependence upon events that happened previously in a program.
- **Higher-order functions** are functions that either take other functions as an input (or as an output).

Due to immutability and statelessness, functional programming objects have a high degree of ability to be shared between multiple processors; this is essential in distributed processing as it ensures that the system performs correctly each iteration.

Functional programming has the advantage of being concise and efficient. Consequently, it is especially useful in distributed processing, where a specialist software package can be used to distribute the data to the various processors.

## Fact-based model for representing data

The fact-based model is a method used for storing data; it has the advantage that data can be represented as a set of **facts**, where each fact within a fact-based model captures a single piece of information.

The following example is based on some simple facts from a sixth-form college setting:

- Jack and Chloe are both students studying A Level Computer Science.
- Bill is a lecturer responsible for A Level Computer Science.
- Jane is Head of Department and manages Bill.

## Graph schema for modelling data

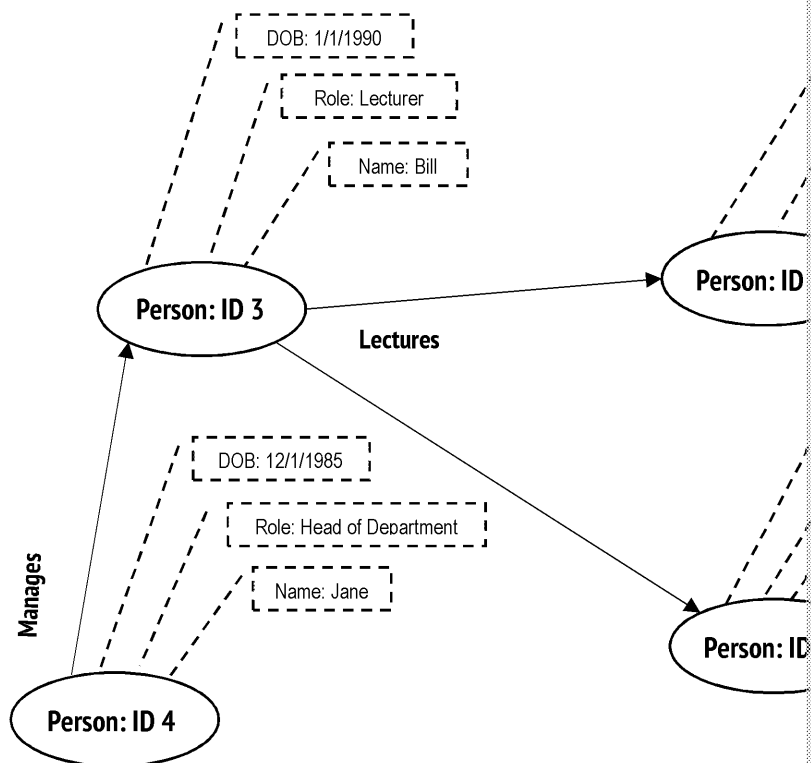
The core components used in a graph schema are:

1. **Nodes**, which are the entities within the dataset
2. **Edges**, which are the links and the associated relationships between nodes; edges are either directed or undirected
3. **Properties**, which are the information stored within each entity; details of properties are stored as key-value pairs

The facts from the sixth-form college example are shown below in a graph schema.

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The facts are stored in the graph schema using fields: DOB, Role and Name.



## 11 – Progress Check

1. Describe the main characteristics of big data. (3 marks)
2. Compare the terms 'structured data' and 'unstructured data'. (4 marks)
3. Define the following terms:
  - a) Functional programming (2 marks)
  - b) Immutable data structure (2 marks)
  - c) Statelessness (2 marks)
  - d) Higher-order functions (2 marks)

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## TOPIC 12 – FUNDAMENTALS OF FUNCTIONAL

### 12.1 FUNCTIONAL PROGRAMMING PARADIGM

#### Variety of programming paradigms

There are many programming languages that are designed based on a system of ideas known as programming paradigms; below are brief descriptions of the four main programming paradigms required for the Computer Science specification.

|                                 |                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                              |
|---------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>Imperative paradigm</b>      | <p>Programming languages based on the imperative paradigm make use of statements which are written to and, therefore, change the state of computer memory. These languages can be translated into efficient machine code.</p> <p>Procedural programming is an imperative language and is dealt with in more detail in the next section.</p>                                                                  |
| <b>Functional paradigm</b>      | <p>The functional paradigm uses programming languages that evaluate expressions rather than the imperative method where values are assigned to variables. Values are determined by calling functions.</p> <p>Functional programs are used to solve problems in complex structures and it is, therefore, easier to determine errors.</p>                                                                      |
| <b>Logic paradigm</b>           | <p>The logic paradigm is especially useful in solving problems that involve reasoning with knowledge from declared facts and their rules.</p> <p>Prolog is a declarative logic programming language that is widely used in expert system applications; it is useful for rule-based systems. Typical applications include diagnosis expert systems, and in banking to determine investment opportunities.</p> |
| <b>Object-oriented paradigm</b> | <p>The object-oriented paradigm is based on data structures known as objects. Objects are instances of a class which are grouped into a class hierarchy.</p> <p>Object-oriented programming languages are dealt with in more detail in the next section.</p>                                                                                                                                                 |

#### Function type

A **function** can be defined as a relation between input values from the domain to a set of output values in which each input is related to exactly one output.

A function can be written as  $f: A \rightarrow B$  where

The symbol  $\rightarrow$  means 'maps to'

The set A is the domain of  $f$  – the domain contains the input values for the function

The set B is the codomain of  $f$  – the codomain contains the set of output values

Function example:

$f(x) = x^2 + 1$  gives the following results:

| Input | Relationship | Output |
|-------|--------------|--------|
| 0     | $x^2 + 1$    | 1      |
| 1     |              | 2      |
| 2     |              | 5      |
| 3     |              | 10     |

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## First-class object

A **first-class object** is a language object which supports the operations normally available to

- appearing in expressions
- being assigned to a variable
- being used as an argument for a function
- being returned as an output from a function call

In many programming languages, first-class objects can consist of the following: integers, strings.

Functional programming makes use of higher-order functions and first-class objects, since another function and as the result of a function call.

## Function application

**Function application** is the process of providing a function with an input value from its domain or codomain.

An earlier example function  $f(x) = x^2 + 1$  can be evaluated by inputting a single value from

Using value  $A = 2$

Gives  $f(x) = 2^2 + 1 = 5$

Any value from the domain can be used in the application of a function.

## Partial function application

**Partial function application** can be applied to a function that requires more than one argument by applying the function with some but not all of the arguments needed. A new function is then created from the original function.

For example, adding three integers together can be performed as a partial function application.

Function **add3integers(x, y, z)** will process as follows:

**add(x, y) → (z)**

so the function **add3integers(x, y, z)** will return  $(x + y + z)$

## Composition of functions

**Composition of functions** is the process of combining two functions by applying the results of one function to the input of another.

This technique is widely used in functional programming, where complex functions can be built from simpler functions.

The composition of two functions **f** and **g** is written as **g ∘ f**, which gives a new composite function.

For example, given the following functions:

**f(x) = (x - 5)** and **g(y) = y<sup>2</sup>**

**g ∘ f = (x - 5)<sup>2</sup>**

Therefore, function **f** is applied first, and then function **g** is applied to the result.

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## 12.2 WRITING FUNCTIONAL PROGRAMS

### Functional language programs

The **map function** applies a given function to each of the elements in a list to form another list. The map function example using Haskell is based on squaring integers in the list [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]. The first task is to define a **square function** to square one integer input.

```
square :: Int → Int
square x = x * x
```

The **map function** can then be used with the square function to calculate the output for each element in the list. The Haskell code is as follows:

```
map square [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]
```

The map function goes through each element of the list and applies the square function, giving the output [1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36].

**Filter function** is a higher-order function that processes a list or data structure to create a new list that matches the specified criteria.

#### Even number filter example

The filter function example using Haskell is based on finding even numbers in the list [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6].

```
filter even [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]
```

In the statement, the predicate 'even' returns or filters out all the numbers in the argument list that are even, giving the output [2, 4, 6].

**Logical statements can be used in functional programming to filter data, as shown in the following examples:**

|                                        |                                                          |
|----------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>filter (not . even) [1 .. 12]</b>   | returns all the odd numbers in argument list             |
| [1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11]                    |                                                          |
| <b>filter (&lt;5) [1, 7, 12, 3, 6]</b> | returns all the numbers in argument that are less than 5 |
| [1, 3]                                 |                                                          |
| <b>filter (==7) [1, 7, 12, 3, 6]</b>   | returns all the numbers in argument that are equal to 7  |
| [7]                                    |                                                          |

**Reduce or fold function** is a method that can be used to reduce a list to a single value by applying a function to the elements of the list.

The following example traces the fold function to sum all the elements of a list using the reduce function.

| List                                                                   | Result      | Explanation                                                        |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------|
| [1,2,3,4,5]                                                            |             | Original list                                                      |
| [2,3,4,5]                                                              | 1           | Fold left, by removing the left-hand element from the list         |
| [3,4,5]                                                                | 1 + 2 = 3   | Remove the next element (2) from the list and add it to the result |
| [4,5]                                                                  | 3 + 3 = 6   | Remove the next element (3) from the list and add it to the result |
| [5]                                                                    | 6 + 4 = 10  | Remove the next element (4) from the list and add it to the result |
| []                                                                     | 10 + 5 = 15 | Remove the last element (5) from the list and add it to the result |
| Function completed – all elements of list [1,2,3,4,5] have been added. |             |                                                                    |

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## 12.3 LISTS IN FUNCTIONAL PROGRAMMING

### List processing

A **list** is a data structure consisting of a list of data elements that are of the same data type. The list identifier and the data elements stored can be integers, real numbers, characters or text strings.

A list data structure contains the following:

- **Head** – this is the first element of the list.
- **Tail** – this is all the other elements of the list apart from the head.
- **Length** – this is the number of elements in the list.

### Empty list

A list with no elements is termed an empty list and is shown using the symbols `[]`.

### Haskell head / tail defined

In Haskell, a list can be written in the form of **head : tail**.

Therefore, the list `[6, 4, 9, 12]` can be written as `6 : [4, 9, 12]` where `6` is the head of the list and `[4, 9, 12]` is the tail.

### List operations

The standard processes that can be carried out on lists are shown in the table below:

| Process                   | Description                                                                                                         | Example                                                              |
|---------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Return head of list       | Returns the first element of the list (1) using the <b>head</b> command in Haskell                                  | <code>head [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]</code><br><code>1</code>               |
| Return tail of list       | Returns all the other elements apart from the head (2, 3, 4, 5, 6) using the <b>tail</b> command in Haskell         | <code>tail [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]</code><br><code>[2, 3, 4, 5, 6]</code> |
| Test for empty list       | Returns <b>True</b> if the list being checked is empty using the <b>null</b> command in Haskell                     | <code>null []</code><br><code>True</code>                            |
|                           | Returns <b>False</b> if the list being checked is not empty using the <b>null</b> command in Haskell                | <code>null [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]</code><br><code>False</code>           |
| Return length of list     | Returns how many elements are contained in a list (6) using the <b>length</b> command in Haskell                    | <code>length [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]</code><br><code>6</code>             |
| Constructing lists        | Assign an <b>empty</b> <code>[]</code> list using the <b>let</b> command in Haskell, as shown in the example        | <code>let empty = []</code>                                          |
|                           | Assign a list <code>[5, 6, 7, 8]</code> using the <b>let</b> command in Haskell, as shown in the example            | <code>let mylist = [5, 6, 7, 8]</code>                               |
| Prepend an item to a list | Add a new element <code>[1]</code> to the beginning of the list <code>[5, 6, 7, 8]</code> , as shown in the example | <code>[1, 5, 6, 7, 8]</code>                                         |
| Append an item to a list  | Add a new element <code>[9]</code> to the end of the list <code>[5, 6, 7, 8]</code> , as shown in the example       | <code>[5, 6, 7, 8, 9]</code>                                         |

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## 12 – Progress Check

1. Describe the functional program paradigm. (3 marks)
2. Define the term 'function'. (2 marks)
3. Evaluate the function  $f(x) = 2x^2 + 5$  where  $x = 3$ . (1 mark)
4. List the operations that first-class language objects support. (4 marks)
5. Explain the term 'composition of functions'. (2 marks)
6. Determine the composite function  $(g \circ f)$  where  $f(x) = (14 + x)$  and  $g(y) = y^2$ . (2 marks)
7. Define the following functions
  1. Map (1 mark)
  2. Filter (1 mark)
  3. Fold (1 mark)
8. Trace the fold or reduce function to find the product of the list  $[1, 2, 3, 4, 5]$ . (2 marks)
9. Determine the head, tail and length of the following list:  $[9, 11, 17, 18, 27]$ . (3 marks)
10. Determine the result of prepending  $[7]$  to the list  $[9, 11, 17, 18, 27, 28, 29]$ . (1 mark)

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# ANSWERS

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## Topic 5 – Data representation

5.1 N is the set of natural numbers used for counting, e.g. 2 apples (1), whereas Z is the set of integers which includes the natural numbers and their negative inverses, e.g. -2, -1, 0, 1, 2. Integer

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  $3FA_{16} = 00111111010_2$ .

|   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 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,  $110101100100_2 = 7012_{10}$ .

|      |      |      |     |     |     |    |    |    |   |
|------|------|------|-----|-----|-----|----|----|----|---|
| 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 F
- So,  $00111111_2 = 3F_{16}$ .

5.7 Convert hexadecimal B7 to binary. (2 marks)

- Convert the two hexadecimal nibbles separately using the table, so  $B_{16} = 1011_2$
  - 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

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

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- 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 | 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 $0001\ 1000_2 - 0000\ 1100_2 = 12$ |

- 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   | 0   | 0   | 1  | 1  | 1  | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | . | 1   |

Then add the decimal numbers where 1 is shown:

$1010000111.10010_2 = 512 + 64 + 32 + 16 + 8 + 4 + 0.5 + 0.125 = \underline{636.625}$

Alternatively  $512 + 64 + 32 + 16 + 8 + 4 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{8} = 636\frac{5}{8}$

- 5.13  $72.465$  rounded to four significant figures =  $72.47$  (1)

Rounding error =  $72.465 - 72.47 = -0.005$  (1)

- 5.14 (a) Absolute error is the difference between the theoretical exact value calculated and the processed/computed value to be stored. (1 mark)

(b) Find absolute and relative errors for a computed value of  $0.082$  and an exact value of  $0.0766$ .

Absolute error = | exact value - computed value | = |  $0.0766 - 0.082$  | =  $0.0054$

Relative error = Absolute error / exact value =  $0.0054 / 0.0766 = 0.070496$

- 5.15 (a) Range is the set of all numbers that can be represented using a specific number of bits associated with word length and the maximum number of significant digits to be stored.

(b) Fixed point binary numbers have more precision than floating point numbers but a wider range (1).

- 5.16 Convert floating point number **0110000000 111001** to denary:

Exponent 111001

Two's complement of exponent is  $000111 = -7$  in denary

Mantissa is 0.110000000

The binary point needs to be moved seven places to the left, giving  $0.000000011$

$0.000000011$  is  $1/256 + 1/512 = 3/512$  or  $0.005859375$  in denary

Therefore, binary number **0110000000 111001** is **0.005859375** in denary

- 5.17 Underflow occurs where the required value is too small to be stored using the number of bits available. Overflow occurs where the required value is too large to be stored using the number of bits available.

- 5.18 ASCII is a 7-bit character set which offers 128 different characters (1), and many of these are used for controlling peripherals (1), whereas Unicode is a 16-bit character set which offers 65,536 different characters (1) and includes the character for any writing system in the world (1).

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

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

- 5.20 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 the computer can understand in 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 are converted into analogue signals for use by speakers.

- 5.21 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). Higher resolution means a better image resolution (1).
  - (c) Metadata is included in an image file (1) and gives details of image height, width and file size (1).

- 5.22 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) =  $102,510,000 / (1,024 \times 1,024) = \underline{97.76 \text{ MB}}$

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

- 5.24 (a) Vector graphics can be rescaled or resized with no loss of quality (1).  
 (b) Bitmap images use less processing power than vector graphics (1).

- 5.25 Lossless compression is where a file can be compressed (1) but the facility exists to decompress it back to the 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).

- 5.26 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).

- 5.27 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 from the original letter (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 BACED FGH IJKLMNOP Q RSTUVWX YZ

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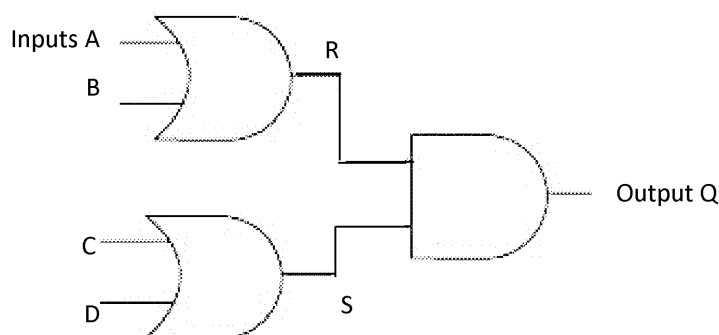
## Topic 6 – Computer systems

- 6.1 Software is the actual programs or coded instructions (1) that make the computer work. Physical parts (1) that make up a computer system (1).
- 6.2 Programming languages:
- Machine code is the set of binary instructions (1) that are used by the CPU to execute programs (1).
  - Assembly language is a low-level computer programming language (1) which uses mnemonics. One instruction is one machine operation (1).
  - High-level language is a computer programming language (1) based on natural language and uses high-level notation (1).
- 6.3 The advantages of machine code and assembly languages compared to high level languages:
- Programming in low-level code can create faster and more efficient code as it is closer to the hardware performance level of the created code (1); with high-level programming there is more abstraction and create optimised code (1).
  - Low-level language code is memory efficient due to the lack of abstraction in high-level languages (1).
- The disadvantages of machine code and assembly languages compared to high level languages:
- It is difficult to learn to program in low-level languages whereas high-level languages have more training options (1).
  - High-level code can be self-documenting which makes it is more understandable and easier to maintain and debug (1).
  - Machine-code and assembly programs are specific to a limited range of processors and cannot 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 contains 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 by the computer.
- The main advantage of using a compiler on high-level language code is that an executable file can run 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 any errors in the source code need to be corrected before an executable file can be created (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 code 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 hardware 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 (a)  $S = 0 \quad C = 1$  (b)  $S = 1 \quad C = 0$
- 6.9 (a)  $S = 1 \quad \text{COUT} = 1$  (b)  $S = 0 \quad \text{COUT} = 1$
- 6.10 A flip flop is an electronic circuit that has two stable states (1) and can be used as a memory element (1). A D-type flip flop changes state with each clock pulse (1), so data is delayed by one clock pulse (1).

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- 6.11 D-type flip flops have a data input and the clock input (1). The outputs are Q, which is the output and the inverse of Q (1).
- 6.12 Use the complex logic diagram to work out the outputs for various values of A, B and C (3 marks)
- When A = 0 B=1 C = 0 then R = 1, S = 0, T= 0 (3 marks)
  - When A = 0 B=0 C = 1 then R = 0, S = 1, T= 1 (3 marks)
  - When A = 1 B=1 C = 0 then R = 1, S = 0, T= 0 (3 marks)
  - When A = 1 B=1 C = 1 then R = 1, S = 0, T= 0 (3 marks)
- 6.13 Logic circuit for the  $Q = (A \text{ OR } B) \text{ AND } (C \text{ OR } D)$  (3 marks)



- 6.14 Simplify  $\bar{A}.B.C + \bar{A}.C$  (3 marks)
- |                     |                                       |
|---------------------|---------------------------------------|
| $\bar{A}.C (B + 1)$ | Take common terms outside of brackets |
| $(B + 1) = 1$       | So B can be removed                   |
| $\bar{A}.C (1)$     | Remove bracketed 1                    |
| $\bar{A}.C$         | Final answer                          |

## 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 controlling other devices (1).
  - Main memory or immediate access store (1) is storage for program instructions and data used by the CPU (1).
  - The address bus is used to specify a physical address in main memory (1) and the data written 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 devices (1). They handle input (write) requests they receive from the processor (1).
  - Arithmetic logic unit – performs arithmetic and logical operations, such as fixed-point arithmetic, logical operations (AND, OR, XOR) and shift operations (1). Inputs are from the accumulator, 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).

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- 7.4 Dedicated registers:
- (a) Status register (SR) is used to hold the status of various flags indicating such as zero, result, carry bit used, overflow error, and interrupt status. The details of the flags are dependent upon the actual processor involved (2).
  - (b) Program counter (PC) is the register that holds the address of the next instruction to be fetched (1).
  - (c) Memory address register (MAR) holds the address of the current instruction (1).
  - (d) Memory buffer register (MBR) holds the instruction from the (MAR) and the data from the memory (1).
  - (e) Current instruction register (IR) is used to store the instruction that is to be decoded (1).

## 7.5 Fetch-execute cycle

### Fetch:

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

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

## 7.6 Processor instruction set terms:

- (a) Machine code instructions are written in binary code (1) that a processor can execute (1).
- (b) Op-code instructions are the part of a machine code instruction (1) that represent the operation to be performed (1).
- (c) Operand is that part of the machine code instruction (1) that contains an item on which the operation is performed (1).
- (d) Instruction set is the set of machine code instructions (1) that the processor can execute and execute (1).

## 7.7 Immediate addressing means that the data in the operand is fixed (1); in other words, the data is part of the instruction (1).

This is a very fast addressing mode since the data is readily available (1), rather than having to be fetched from a memory address, whereas direct addressing, or absolute addressing, means that the data is stored in a memory location (1).

A typical example is the instruction ADD (1302) – this instruction could be used to add the value at memory location (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 executed (1). Clock speed has increased regularly in recent years (1). Most modern devices run at a clock speed in excess of 2.5 GHz, or 2.5 thousand million times a second (1). Clock speed can easily be increased by purchasing a faster device (1). However, the faster the device, the more additional cooling is necessary to prevent CPU damage.

System performance can be improved by increasing the number of processors; this is done by using a multi-core processor (1). A multi-core processor has more than one processor incorporated into a single chip (1). A dual-core processor will provide two processors on one chip, which will operate together to improve performance (1).

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Most modern processors use 32-bit or 64-bit word lengths; the performance of a processor is directly related to its word length, providing that the word length and data bus are the same size (1). A 64-bit 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; these tags are similar to a bar code; the tag will be programmed with information (1). Each tag has an antenna (1) (aerial) that can be used to communicate with a RFID reader or scanner for tracking (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) on checkouts where they have the advantage of being scanned remotely and are reusable (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 known as a magnetic storage device. Typical internal hard disks supplied with modern computers range from the range 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. 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 it can be rewritten (1).

SSDs perform faster than hard drives and optical drives as there are no moving parts. They can read and write and access data faster although they are significantly more expensive to purchase and 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 are 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. One of the responsibilities that a software engineer has at their disposal is not to misuse. Some of the typical ethical issues to be aware of are: to respect the privacy (1) of those users that will be affected by that software (1), to use 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).
- 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 computer systems via the Internet (1).
  - (d) Spyware – programs that run in a computer system (1) to gather information about a user or other parties (1).

## Topic 9 – Communication and networking

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

Asynchronous data transmission is where a data stream is transmitted at intermittent intervals; this method of data transmission is normally adopted for communication over a long distance (1).

- 9.2 Communication basic terms:
- (a) Bit rate is the number of bits that are transferred across a computer network (1) and is normally measured in bits per second (bps).

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- (b) Bandwidth is the speed of a computer network or the maximum rate at which data can pass 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 taken for a data packet and destination receiving that packet (1).
  - (d) Protocol simply means a set of rules or standards (1) which computers use for communication (1).
  - (e) Baud rate is the number of symbols (or signal changes) that are transferred across a set amount of time (1).
- 9.3 (a) A network topology is a way of describing the interconnections (1) and cabling (1) of a network (1).
- (b) Physical topology is how a group of computers are physically connected (1), which network devices communicate 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 (1). The hub 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 (1).
- (c) All communication takes place via the central hub (1) and if it fails, the whole network fails (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). All workstations are 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 a central server (1) where the client is a computer or workstation on a typical network and the file server is the server 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). 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 sent 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 a network interface card by the manufacturer (1).
- 9.8 Packet switching is where large data files are broken down into a series of small data packets (1). Each data packet has details of its destination sent in a header (1). The packets are sent to the destination computer via a series of separate routes (1). The actual route taken is determined by a router (1) which sends the data package via the fastest connection available (1). When the packets reach the destination computer they are assembled into the large data file that was originally sent (1).
- 9.9 (a) Gateways are used where the networks to be connected are of different types (1). The connection between them is more complicated. Data that is sent from one network to the other is converted from the format that is used (1) on the sending network into the format used on the receiving network (1). This process is carried out by a gateway.
- (b) Devices called routers are used to determine an efficient route (1) for data transmission (1) and to transmit web pages to users throughout the world (1).
- 9.10 (a) IP address is a number that uniquely identifies every host on an IP network (1).
- (b) Uniform resource locator (URL) refers to the location of a web resource on the Internet (1).
- (c) Domain name server translates domain names into their unique IP addresses (1).

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- 9.11 When accessing the Internet, we may type in the URL for a website into the web browser to remember (1). The DNS server is then used to find the matching IP address (1), which is difficult for humans to remember (1).
- For example, the IP address for bbc.co.uk is 212.58.251.195. This change is required to be made and not directly with URLs, so the IP address is then routed to the server that contains and display the home page (1).
- 9.12 (a) Firewall is a combination of hardware and software (1) that is designed to check incoming messages and requests for service from the system (1).
- (b) Packet filtering is where the firewall analyses data packets that are attempting to enter the network; blocked unless it conforms to a set of rules; typically, the filters are set up to view the source of the data (1).
- (c) Stateful inspection, often termed dynamic packet filtering, is a more secure form of packet filtering (1). Each data packet is examined, and the state of active connections and the ports used is recorded (1).
- (d) A proxy server processes the information received from the Internet and then forwards it to the network (1). Therefore, the website host is not in direct contact with the private network; data is transmitted via the proxy server (1).
- (e) Symmetric encryption is where the data sent is encrypted using a key (1) and the same key is used by the receiver to decrypt the data (1).
- 9.13 Viruses are small programs designed to spread between computers and to cause damage to the system operation (1). Worms are malware self-replicating programs that are designed to consume system resources (1). Trojans are malicious computer programs which appear to be legitimate but download and install them (1).
- 9.14 (a) Application layer: the data that is being sent is encoded (1) into a format that is suitable for the application (1).
- (b) Transport layer: the data is split into parts suitable to be fitted into a data packet (1). A number is assigned to each packet to indicate the port it will be delivered to (1) and also assigned a number to indicate the order in which the data packets can be correctly reordered once they have been received (1).
- (c) Network layer: the network layer attaches the IP address of the sender of the data (1) and the host that will receive the data (1).
- (d) Link layer: the MAC address for the hardware device sending the data is added (1) and the device receiving the data (1).
- 9.15 (a) File transfer protocol (FTP) is a TCP network protocol used for file transfer between a client and a server (1).
- (b) Hypertext transfer protocol (HTTP) is a protocol to outline how files such as text, images, and videos are transmitted on the World Wide Web (1).
- (c) Hypertext transfer protocol secure (HTTPS) has similar functionality to the HTTP but the data transmitted is encrypted (1).
- (d) Post office protocol v3 (POP3) is a protocol used to receive email data via Post Office Protocol (POP) messages into text for display in a user email application (1).
- (e) Simple mail transfer protocol (SMTP) is a protocol used to send email data via Simple Mail Transfer Protocol (SMTP) provided where a connection cannot be achieved between the sender and receiver (1).
- (f) Secure shell (SSH) is a protocol used to gain access to remote computers; it is used by system administrators to control web servers remotely (1).
- 9.16 Web browser is a software application that is used to navigate and view Internet resources (1). It can be selected to display using the following alternative methods: by typing a domain name into the browser, (1) by choosing a website from the result of a search (1) or by selecting the website from the bookmarks (1).
- 9.17 (a) Network ID identifies the network address on which a device or computer can be reached (1).
- (b) Host ID identifies the address of a specific device on the network (1).
- (c) Subnet mask is a number used to divide the IP address into a network address and a host address (1).
- 9.18 A public IP address is where a device is assigned to permit direct access routed via the Internet (1). Public IP addresses are totally unique and routable (1), whereas a private IP address is where a device is assigned to a local network, for example, a home network system (1).

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- 9.19 Network address translation is the technique used to assign a private network a range of public IP addresses. These can then be mapped to the private IP addresses of the devices in the network (1). The advantages of NAT are that the private IP address is hidden from the Internet (1), ensuring it is more secure and the number of public IP addresses that need to be registered by an organisation is reduced (1).
- 9.20 The websocket protocol outlines the rules for creating a persistent connection between a client and a server to enable real-time data transfer (1). The websocket protocol creates a persistent connection between a web server after a successful handshake routine (1). This connection is full duplex and data can be exchanged in both directions (1).
- 9.21 Representational state transfer (REST) is a methodology for implementing web-based data transfer using HTTP commands to perform the CRUD function necessary to create, read, update and delete data. REST performs the following stages when communicating with a web-based database:
- The client uses a web browser to send a request to the database (1).
  - The database service request query is identified using its **URL** (uniform resource locator) (1).
  - The **API** (application program interface) is used to link the client to the database (1).
  - The service request and associated data are transmitted using **HTTP** (hypertext transfer protocol) (1).
  - The database server response is in the form **XML** (extensible markup language) or **JSON** (JavaScript object notation) (1).
- 9.22 Human readability – JSON is easier to read as it is written as a list of objects and their values, whereas XML is more cluttered as it is contained within markup tags (1).
- Parsing – JSON is faster to parse as it is clearly defined as a list of objects and their values, whereas XML requires the tags and their values to be removed from their tags (1).
- 9.23 Thin-client computers are low-specification devices (1); they have little processing power and rely on a powerful server to provide resources, such as processing power and storage for most applications. Three advantages of using a thin-client model are: improved security as client access is restricted to the server (1); network administrator can back up all servers and clients' activities (1), and software and hardware can be configured and updated from the server (1).
- 9.24 Thick-client computers are fully functional computers, so they can operate without a network and a server (1). In a thick-client network the server can give the client additional processing power, storage and access to software that is installed on the server and run from the client. Three advantages of using a thick-client model are: improved performance for thick-client applications as they are processed locally on the client device (1); thick-client computers can operate offline (1); and network where necessary, minimising the impact of server failure or the network being down (1). Thick-client software offers additional features and customisation which improve the user experience (1).

## Topic 10 – Fundamentals of databases

- 10.1 A primary key is a unique identifier (1) such as a code number that can be used to identify a record in a table (1), whereas a foreign key is a field in a table which can be linked to a primary key in another table (1).
- 10.2 A flat file database is a single table (1) in which each row of the table is known as a record (1) and each column as a field (1), whereas a relational database comprises more than one table (1) which are joined by linking a primary key in one table to a foreign key in another table (1).
- 10.3 The advantage of using a relational database is that data redundancy is reduced as data is stored in a single table (1). This makes it simpler to keep information up to date and improves the consistency of data (1).
- 10.4 (a) Normalisation is the formal process involved in the design of an efficient database (1) where tables are created to cause a reduction in data dependency and data redundancy (1).
- (b) First normal form is where tables contain no repeating attributes or groups of attributes (1). Second normal form is where tables contain no partial key dependencies (1) and third normal form is where tables contain no transitive dependencies (1).

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- 10.5 (a) The SQL to create the Publisher table is:  

```
CREATE TABLE Publisher
(PublisherCode INT NOT NULL, Name VARCHAR(25), Website VARCHAR(25))
PRIMARY KEY (PublisherCode))
```
- (b) The results you would obtain from running the following SQL query are:
- | Books.Name   | Books.UnitCost | Publisher.Name |
|--------------|----------------|----------------|
| GCSE ICT     | 17.95          | Whitchurch     |
| GCSE Physics | 16.75          | Whitchurch     |
| GCSE Music   | 15.75          | Thornes        |
- (c) SQL statement to add data into the Books table:  

```
INSERT INTO 'Books4U'. 'Books' ('BookCode', 'Name', 'UnitCost', 'PublisherCode')
VALUES('177TRV', 'GCSE Chemistry', '19.99', '137', '35')
```
- 10.6 The DBMS – provides for a centralised automatic backup of the system (1), can assign access rights (1), can provide logon and password facilities for users (1), can manage DBMS programs and development of associated software tools (1).
- 10.7 In a DBMS the data is separated from the applications that access it, so programs can be updated without affecting the data. One main advantage of this is that database administrators can modify the software to improve performance without affecting the data. The data will remain unchanged by these programs (1).
- 10.8 A record is locked when it is being accessed by a user with write access (1); this prevents other users from updating and saving the record until the original user has completed their database transaction (1). Database systems use locking ordering concurrent transactions are based on the timestamp and the precedence of the transaction (1), so a higher precedence command can be executed before older timestamp transactions (1).

## Topic 11 – Big data

- Big data is based on the following characteristics:
  - Volume – organisations gather and store large amounts of data; the amount of data is increasing rapidly (1). Whether or not it is big data (1).
  - Velocity – data streams are collected in a near-to-real-time fashion, making it difficult to store and process (1). This is a challenge (1).
  - Variety – data comes in a wide range of formats, such as: text, audio, video, images, etc. (1). This is a challenge (1).
- Big data can be structured or unstructured as outlined below:
  - Structured data** – data defined as appropriate for a relational database in a row and column format (1). Consequently, this data can be analysed and queries can be used to extract useful information (1).
  - Unstructured data** – can be defined as data that is difficult to organise and is not in a row and column format (1). Machine learning data analysis techniques are used to detect patterns in this data and extract useful information in a cost-effective manner (1). This is a challenge (1).
- Definitions:
  - Functional programming is a paradigm based on the use of functions to determine the value of an expression (1). It uses expressions similar to mathematical expressions to calculate the value of an expression (1).
  - In functional programming, data structures are immutable, meaning that the value of input data at the time the function is executed (1). Therefore, new data is created rather than changing the original data structure, so a function to update the value of an array would return a new array with updated value from the old array (1).
  - Statelessness means each function is calculated with no reliance on any data or state from previous function inputs (1); there is no dependence upon events that happened previously (1).
  - Higher-order functions are functions that either take other functions as an input or return a function as an output (1).

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## Topic 12 – Fundamentals of functional programming

1. The functional paradigm uses programming languages that evaluate mathematical expressions using an imperative method where values are assigned to variables (1); to summarise, variables are used to store values (1). Functional programs are used to solve problems in complex structures and it is, therefore, easier to determine errors.
2. A function can be defined as a relation between input values from the domain (1) to the codomain, in which each input is related to exactly one output (1).
3.  $f(x) = 2x^2 + 5$   
 $= 2(3*3) + 5 = 23$  (1)
4. A first-class object is a language object which supports the operations normally available for objects (1), appearing in expressions (1), being assigned to a variable (1), being used as an argument in a function call (1) and returned as an output from a function call (1).
5. Composition of functions is the process of combining two functions by applying the output of one function as the input to another (1). A technique widely used in functional programming where complex functions can be built from simpler functions (1).
6. Composite function  $(g \circ f) = (14 + x)^3$  where  $f(x) = (14 + x)$  and  $g(y) = y^3$  (1)
7. Definitions
  - a) The **map function** applies a given function to each of the elements in a list to produce a new list of the same order (1).
  - b) **Filter function** is a higher-order function that processes a list or data structure to produce a new list of elements that match the specified criteria (1).
  - c) **Reduce or fold function** is a method that can be used to reduce a list to a single value (1).
8. Trace of the fold or reduction function to find the product of the list [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]:  
1 mark for each correct line

| List                                                                       | Result         | Explanation                                                           |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------|
| [1,2,3,4,5]                                                                |                | Original list                                                         |
| [2,3,4,5]                                                                  | 1              | Fold left, by removing the left-hand element from the list            |
| [3,4,5]                                                                    | $1 * 2 = 2$    | Remove next element (2) from list and multiply by the previous result |
| [4,5]                                                                      | $2 * 3 = 6$    | Remove next element (3) from list and multiply by the previous result |
| [5]                                                                        | $6 * 4 = 24$   | Remove next element (4) from list and multiply by the previous result |
| []                                                                         | $24 * 5 = 120$ | Remove last element (5) from list and multiply by the previous result |
| Function completed – all elements of list [1,2,3,4,5] have been multiplied |                |                                                                       |

9. The head = 9 (1), the tail = [11, 17, 18, 27, 28, 29] (1) and the length = 7 (1).
10. Result of prepending [7] to the list is [7, 9, 11, 17, 18, 27, 28, 29] (1).

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