

Introduction to computer science:

historical perspective, computer structure,
operating systems & languages

GIGA Doctorate School

Christophe Phillips, Ir Ph.D.



Program

- ▶ Historical perspective
- ▶ Computer structure
- ▶ Operating systems
- ▶ Programming languages



Some wisdom...

"1. Start simple. 2. Get it to work. 3. Then, add complexity."

- Tom Bredemeier

"One of the best programming skills you can have is knowing when to walk away for awhile."

- Oscar Godson



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Historical perspective

Computer science did NOT suddenly appear during World War II out of a genius mind.

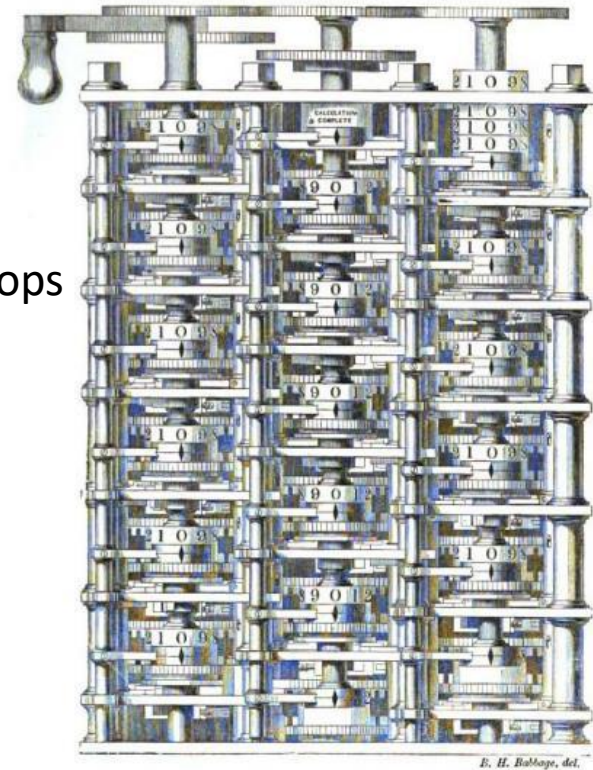
Three parallel streams:

- ▶ Calculation instruments, from abacus to Pascal's mechanical calculator
- ▶ Mathematical logic, from al-Khwarizmi (VIIIth century) to Alan Turing (XXth century)
- ▶ Automats, from antiquity (e.g. Hero of Alexandria's 1st vending machine) to 'Jacquard loom', and great watch & clock makers



Historical perspective

- ▶ 1837, the “Analytical Engine”, described by **Charles Babbage**
 - = 1st mechanical general-purpose computer, including:
 - arithmetic logic unit + integrated memory
 - control flow in the form of conditional branching and loops
- ▶ 1843, “algorithm” for the Analytical Engine, by **Ada Lovelace**
 - = 1st software (to calculate [Bernoulli numbers](#))
 - set of instructions to solve problems of any complexity
 - symbolic representation by numbers of letters, musical notes, etc.



E. H. Babbage, del.

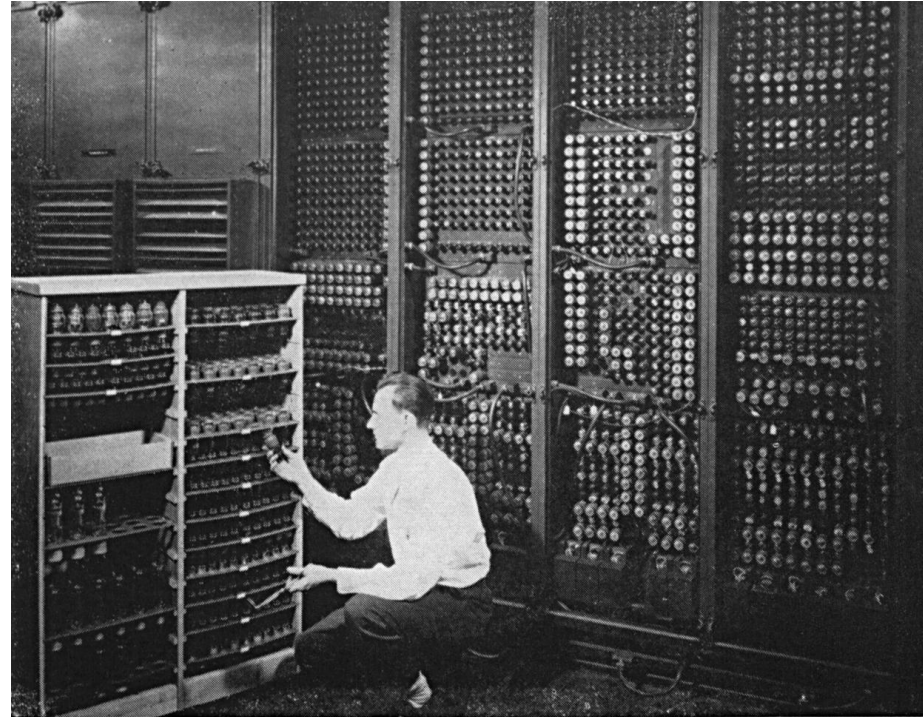


Historical perspective

- ▶ 1943-1945, Colossus computer, UK.
- ▶ 1945-1956, ENIAC (Electronic Numerical Integrator and Computer), USA.

Programs hard coded into the machines with 10000's of switches and plugs!

(...and bugs were real!)



Replacing a bad tube meant checking among ENIAC's 19,000 possibilities.

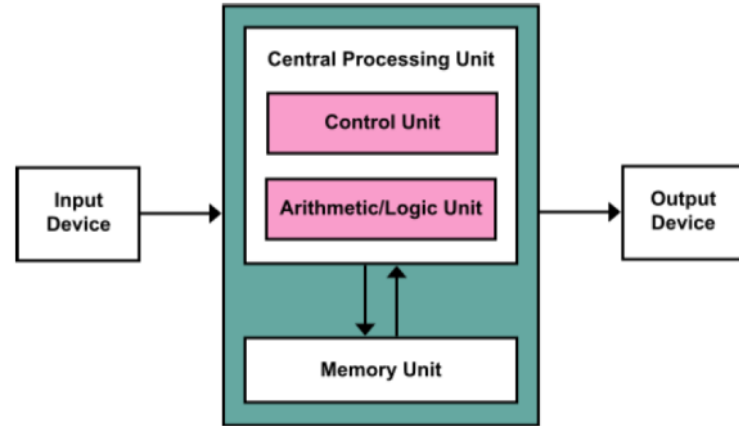


Von Neumann architecture

- ▶ Proposed by Von Neumann in 1945 (unifies Babbage's Analytical Engine and abstract Turing machine)

- ▶ Fundamental ideas:

- Bring *input*, *output* and *program* in “memory unit”
- Operate only on this memory



→ Stored-program computer keeps both program instructions and data in read-write, “random-access memory” (RAM)!

Hardware innovations



- ▶ In the 1950's & 1960's, tubes are replaced by transistors then integrated circuits.
 - higher density + more reliable
 - + less energy consumption (heat!)

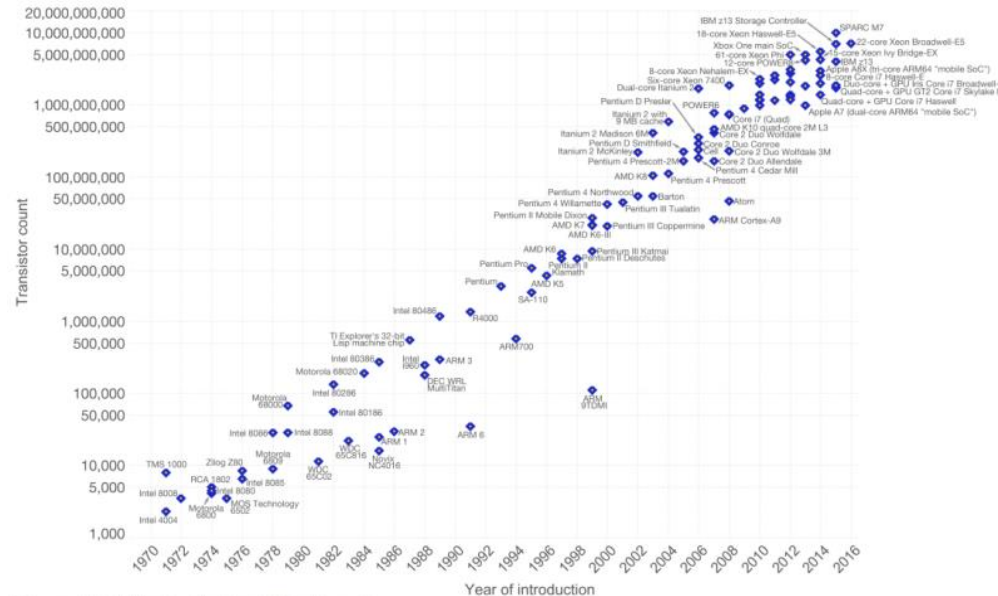
- ▶ In 1965, Moore's law:

The number of transistors in an IC doubles every 18 months!

Moore's Law – The number of transistors on integrated circuit chips (1971-2016)

Moore's law describes the empirical regularity that the number of transistors on integrated circuits doubles approximately every two years. This advancement is important as other aspects of technological progress – such as processing speed or the price of electronic products – are strongly linked to Moore's law.

Our World
in Data



Data source: Wikipedia (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Transistor_count)
The data visualization is available at OurWorldinData.org. There you find more visualizations and research on this topic.

Licensed under CC-BY-SA by the author Max Roser.

Mainframes vs. mini-computers

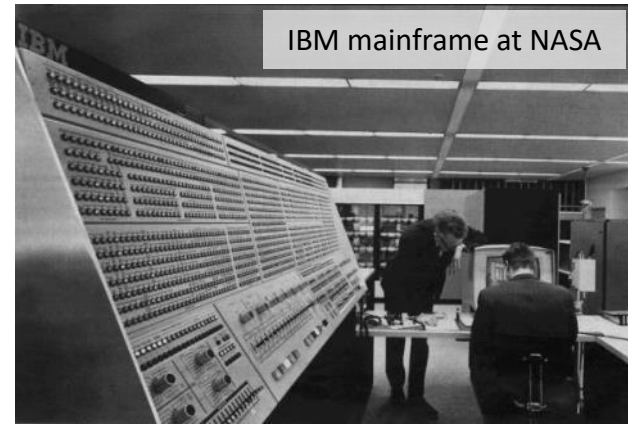
1960's & 1970's, development of :

- ▶ mainframes

- Large centralised infrastructure
→ high performance
- Passive terminals
→ submit 'batches'

- ▶ mini-computers

- All-in-one machine
→ direct interaction
- Small and cheap (actually still pretty big and expensive...)



Micro-computer

In 1971, first Intel microprocessor

- All main elements of a computer in 1 integrated circuit & no wiring, except on 'motherboard'
- the **micro-computer**



In 1975, Altair 8800 (Bill Gates & Paul Allen)
& Apple 1 (Steve Jobs and Steve Wozniak)

Personal Computer (PC)

- ▶ 1977, TRS-80
- ▶ 1979, Apple 2 with 1st spreadsheet software
- ▶ 1982, Commodore 64 → gaming
- ▶ 1982, IBM-PC with
 - Intel "x86" architecture (still used now)
 - MS-DOS from Microsoft





Software industry

- ▶ Software, originally part of the computer and thus “free”
- ▶ Increasing distinction between “hardware” and “software”
- ▶ Since the 70’s a 80’s, more standardized hardware
 - standardized and specific software:
 - › operating system: Unix, MS-Dos (later on Windows), Macintosh System 1 (later on Mac OS), Linux,...
 - › applications: spreadsheet, text editing, games, image & audio processing, high-level programming,...



Algorithm

Definition:

an algorithm is an unambiguous specification of how to solve a class of problems.

An algorithm

- ▶ expressed within a finite amount of space and time
- ▶ in a well-defined formal language for calculating a function.
- ▶ starting from an initial state and initial “input”,
- ▶ the instructions describe a computation that, when executed, proceeds through a finite number of well-defined successive states,
- ▶ eventually producing “output” and terminating at a final ending state.

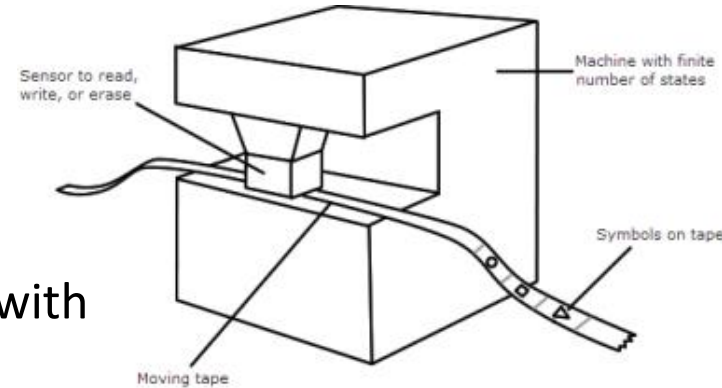
Turing machine

The (abstract) Turing machine models a machine with

- ▶ tape = infinite series of cells with 1's or 0's
- ▶ control unit = finite set of elementary instructions
- ▶ Input/output = to read, write or move the tape

Example: *“in state 42, if the symbol seen is 0, write a 1; if the symbol seen is 1, change into state 17; in state 17, if the symbol seen is 0, write a 1 and change to state 6; etc.”*

Given any computer algorithm, a Turing machine capable of simulating that algorithm's logic can be constructed.





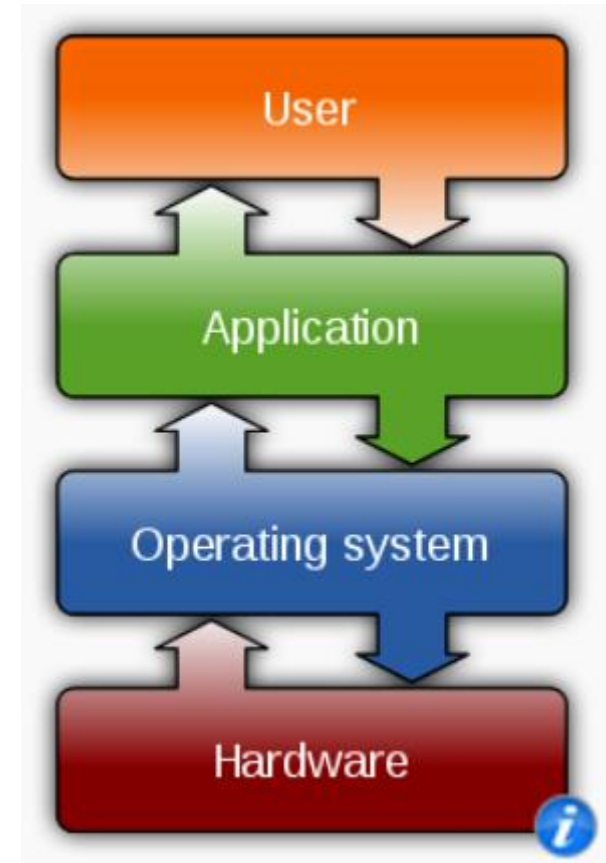
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- ▶ Languages

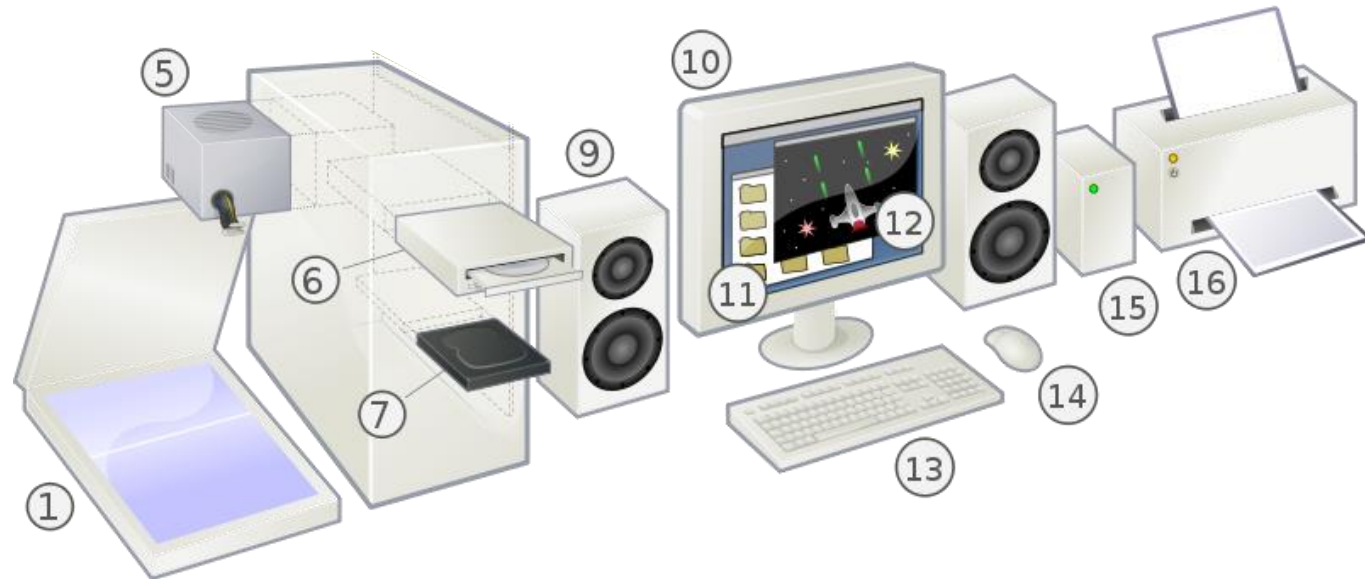




Outside the “motherboard”

Peripherals:

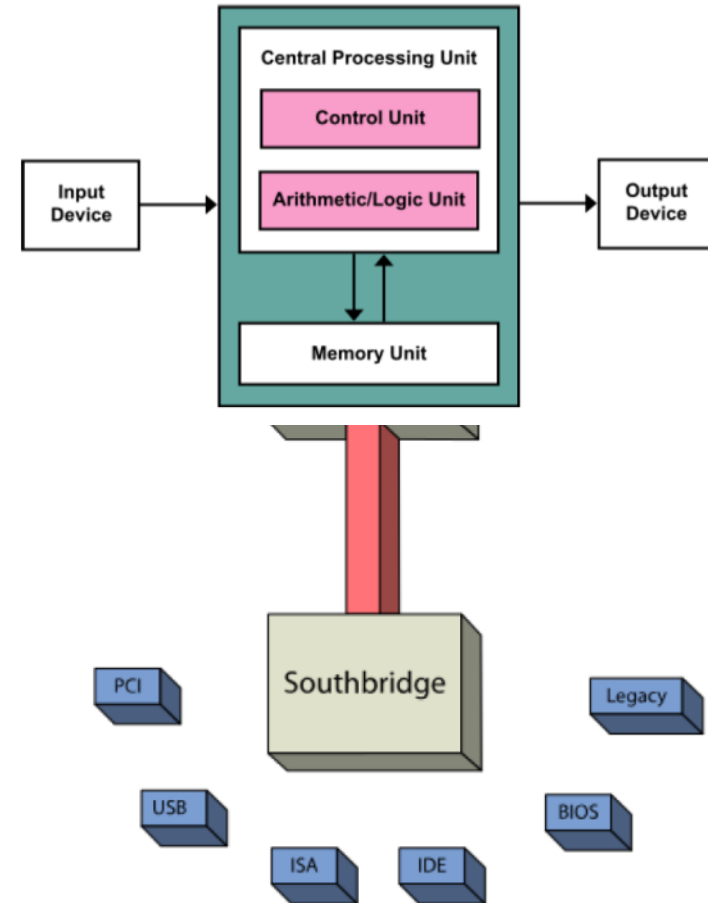
screen, keyboard, mouse, speaker, printer, scanner, power supply,... plugged to the “motherboard”





The “motherboard”

- ▶ CPU = microprocessor
 - executes the instructions.
 - includes very fast local memory locale, aka “cache”
- ▶ RAM = central memory
 - quickly read/write instructions and data
 - lost when power is off
- ▶ GPU (*Graphics Processing Unit*)
 - like CPU but parallelized infrastructure
 - generates and stores image frames
- ▶ Northbridge = connecting fast components
- ▶ Southbridge = handles slower input/output
 - hard-drives (internal/external)
 - USB peripherals (keyboard, mouse, USB stick,...)
 - network connexions, incl. Wi-Fi & cable
- ▶ Inter-connexion through “data bus”





Different types of memory

- ▶ RAM,
 - fast but not persistent → used by microprocessor (data & operations)
 - limited to a few Gb
- ▶ Hard drive
 - slower but persistent → used to store data, code, OS
 - up to several Tb
- ▶ Cache
 - inside the CPU → super fast but built in
- ▶ ROM/BIOS (Basic Input Output System)
 - boot firmware and power management firmware



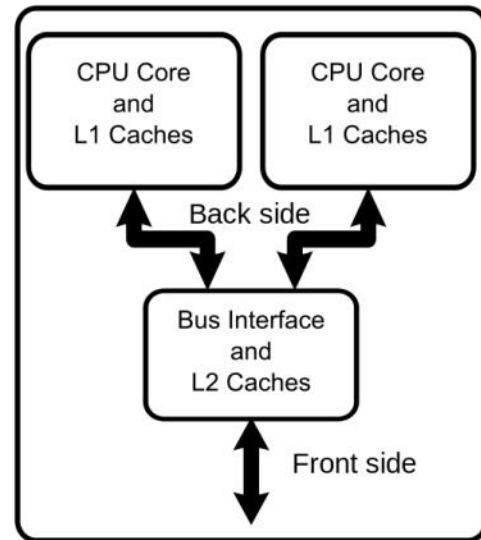
Faster & more power

Get some

- ▶ multi-core processor
- ▶ higher clock speed
- ▶ larger RAM
- ▶ faster data transfer

Caveats

- ▶ need specific software/compiler to parallelize operations
- ▶ depend on nature of data and processing pipeline
- ▶ depend on mass-storage solution (access & r/w time!)





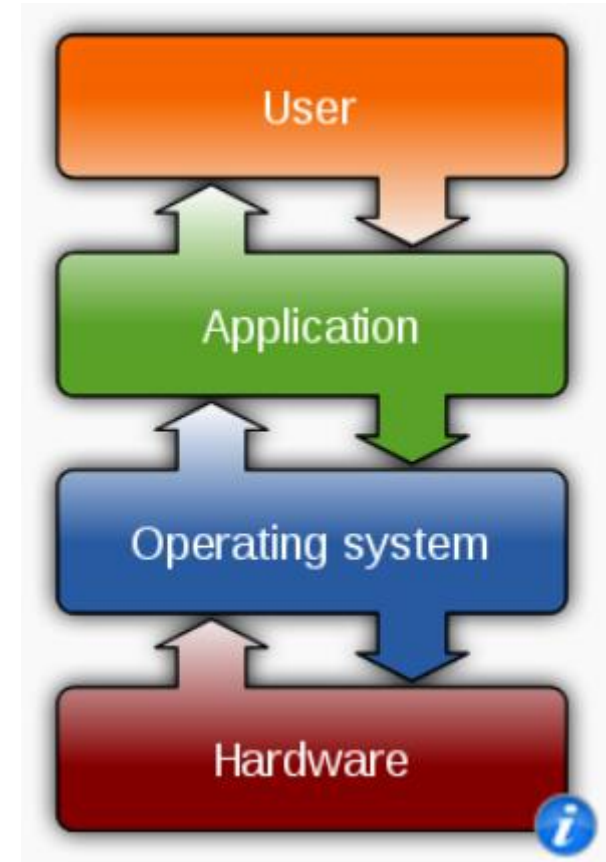
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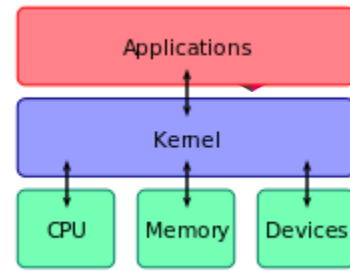


OS definition

An “**operating system**” (OS)

= system fundamental software to

1. manage computer hardware and software resources, and
2. provide common services for computer programs:



OS tasks

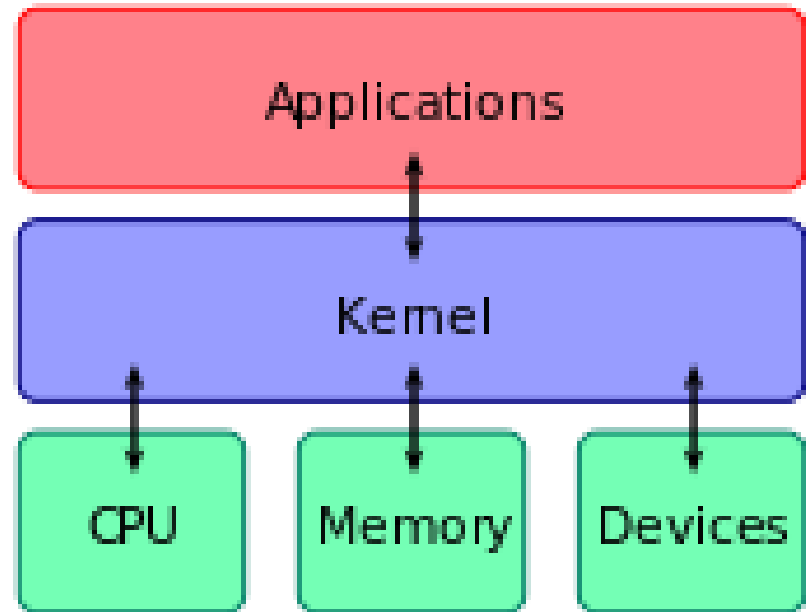


- ▶ **Process management.**
allocate resources to processes, enable processes to share and exchange information, protect the resources of each process from other processes and enable synchronization among processes
- ▶ **Memory management.**
management of computer memory resource
- ▶ **File system.**
controls how data is stored and retrieved
- ▶ **Device drivers.**
operates or controls a particular type of device attached to a computer
- ▶ **Networking.**
allows “nodes” to share resources
- ▶ **Interrupts.**
signal to the processor emitted by hardware or software indicating an event that needs immediate attention
- ▶ **Security.**
protection of computer systems from theft or damage to their hardware, software or electronic data, as well as from disruption or misdirection of the services they provide
- ▶ **I/O.**
communication between an information processing system, such as a computer, and the outside world, possibly a human or another information processing system



Current main players

- ▶ Windows
- ▶ Mac OS
- ▶ Linux
- ▶ (Unix)



- ▶ (Android & iOS on smartphones/tablets)



Linux

- ▶ Open-source OS, since 1991
 - free to use, copy, modify but not to sell
 - multiple distributions and flavours
 - supported by a large community
- ▶ On PC:
 - now (almost) as easy to use as a Win/Mac with simple GUI
 - typically runs open-source software: Open Office, Gimp,...
 - usually more secured than Windows/Mac
- ▶ On servers & clusters
 - Standard OS → need to know command line



Mac OS

vs

Windows

- ▶ 1st version in 1984
- ▶ Since 2001, based on a Unix kernel
- ▶ Proprietary to Apple, i.e. closed
- ▶ With GUI *and* command line
- ▶ 2nd most common OS on PC's.
- ▶ Usually more secure than Windows OS but limited to proprietary (and €€€) hardware...

- ▶ 1st version in 1985
- ▶ Originally graphical operating system shell for MS-DOS
- ▶ Proprietary to Microsoft, i.e. closed & €€€
- ▶ Other MS software, like Office, are €€€
- ▶ Most common OS on PC's
- ▶ More exposed to security issues but runs on all sorts of hardware built



All OS's in one computer

Use “virtual machines” (VM) to execute

- ▶ an entire OS, with applications, on a virtual hardware (“**system VM**”)
- ▶ a program in a platform-independent environment (“**process VM**”)

on the same physical machine, i.e. original hardware and OS.

→ easy to create, copy, kill, relaunch, distribute,...

For example:

- ▶ System VM with ‘VirtualBox’
- ▶ Process VM with ‘Docker’ or ‘Singularity’



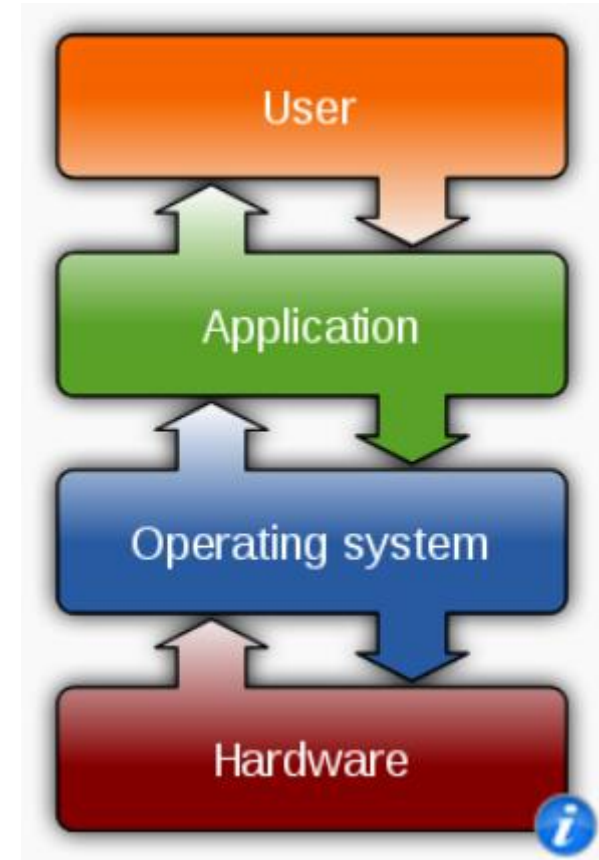
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Some wisdom...

"Programming: when the ideas turn into the real things."

- Maciej Kaczmarek

"The most important single aspect of software development is to be clear about what you are trying to build."

- Bjarne Stroustrup



Classic ones for scientific computing

- ▶ C/C++
- ▶ Java
- ▶ Python
- ▶ R
- ▶ Perl
- ▶ Matlab/Octave
- ▶ Julia

NOTE: There exist 1000' of them!!!



Low vs. high level of programming

- ▶ closer to hardware vs. relying on intermediate software layer
- ▶ more complicated vs. easier code writing
- ▶ tedious vs. more abstract
- ▶ faster and efficient vs. usually a bit less so

A “compiler” or “interpreter” translates code to ‘machine code’ to create an executable program or execute it.



High level program example

The perfect Vanilla Cake:

- 1. Preheat oven to 350° F.*
- 2. Prepare three 8-inch cake pans by spraying with baking spray or buttering and lightly flouring.*
- 3. Combine flour, baking powder, baking soda, and salt in a large bowl. Whisk through to combine. Set aside.*
- 4. Cream butter until fluffy and then add sugar. Cream together for about 8 more minutes.*
- 5. Add eggs, one at a time, and mix just until combined.*
- 6. Add flour mixture and buttermilk, alternately, beginning and ending with flour.*
- 7. Add vanilla and mix until thoroughly combined.*
- 8. Divide among pans and bake for 25-30 minutes until edges turn loose from pan and toothpick inserted into middle of cake comes out clean.*
- 9. Remove from the oven and allow to cool for about 10 minutes.*
- 10. Turn out onto wire cooling racks and allow to cool completely.*



Compiled vs. Interpreted language

- ▶ Compiler → generate machine code from source code
 - typically lower-level language
 - no cross-platform support for exec code (i.e. need to recompile on specific OS)
- ▶ Interpreter → step-by-step executors of source code
 - typically higher-level language
 - easy (at least should be easier) cross-platform
- ▶ Both available for most *high-level* language
- ▶ Can be a mix of both



Wrapping vs. number crunching

- ▶ Wrapping → relies on other bits of code
 - typically higher-level language
 - glues and pipelines different operations
- ▶ Number crunching → does the job on some data
 - typically lower-level language
 - takes in data and parameters to calculate an output
- ▶ Both available for most *high-level* language
- ▶ Can be a mix of both



C and C++

C

- ▶ Started in 1973, standardized in 1989
- ▶ Low level language (e.g. memory management)
→ very efficient when compiled
- ▶ Portable on any hardware and OS

C++

- ▶ Based on C with added object-oriented & other programming features
- ▶ Started in 1979, standardized since 1998



Java

- ▶ High-level general-purpose language (class-based and object-oriented)
- ▶ ideally "write once, run anywhere" (WORA)
- ▶ applications are typically compiled to bytecode that can run on any “*Java Virtual Machine*” (JVM) regardless of computer architecture
- ▶ open-source compiler (GNU GPL)
- ▶ fairly stable



Python

- ▶ started in 1991, latest version (3.9.7) out in August 2021.
- ▶ interpreted high-level programming language for general-purpose programming
- ▶ dynamic type system, object-oriented and automatic memory management.
- ▶ relies on large and comprehensive standard library.
- ▶ interpreters available for many OS's.
- ▶ open source with community-based development model
- ▶ still evolving: main version
([https://fr.wikipedia.org/wiki/Python_\(langage\)#Historique_des_versions](https://fr.wikipedia.org/wiki/Python_(langage)#Historique_des_versions)) and libraries



R

- ▶ started in 1992, stable since 2000
- ▶ open source with community-based development model
- ▶ high-level interpreted language, free software environment (GNU GPL)
- ▶ mostly used among statisticians and data miners for developing statistical software and data analysis.
- ▶ pre-compiled binary versions available for most OS's.
- ▶ command line interface, plus graphical front-ends and IDE's ("Integrated Development Environments").



Perl

- ▶ started in 1987, v5.32 released in June 2020
- ▶ originally general-purpose Unix scripting language to make report processing easier
- ▶ Built in C, free software environment (GNU GPL)
- ▶ very good at text processing without the arbitrary data-length limits
- ▶ high-level, general-purpose, interpreted, dynamic programming languages
- ▶ nicknamed the "duct tape": glue language and perceived inelegance



Matlab/Octave

- ▶ started in 1984 by MathWorks, based on C and Lapack libraries
- ▶ multi-paradigm numerical computing environment, good at matrix manipulations, implementation of algorithms
- ▶ can interface with programs written in C, C++, Java, and Python.
- ▶ large number of users-contributed (open source) packages
- ▶ but proprietary programming language → €€€ license
- ▶ fairly stable (back compatibility!)
- ▶ Octave = free alternative to Matlab but not 100% compatible or as efficient



Julia

- ▶ started in 2012, v1.6.3 released in September 2021
- ▶ free open-source language, runs on most OS's
- ▶ high-level general-purpose dynamic programming language
- ▶ originally designed for high-performance numerical analysis and computational science
- ▶ allows concurrent, parallel and distributed computing, and direct calling of C and Fortran libraries
- ▶ includes efficient libraries for floating-point calculations, linear algebra, random number generation, and regular expression matching.
- ▶ other libraries are available from the community



Some wisdom...

"The only way to learn a new programming language is by writing programs in it."

- Dennis Ritchie

Still

- ▶ some algorithm/coding principles remain the same across languages
- ▶ pick the language of your community/appropriate for your data
- ▶ do not reinvent the wheel



Some further wisdom...

*"The good news about computers is that
they do what you tell them to do.*

*The bad news is that
they do what you tell them to do."*

- Ted Nelson



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