

Concepts, Techniques, and Models of Computer Programming

PETER VAN ROY¹

Université catholique de Louvain (at Louvain-la-Neuve)
Swedish Institute of Computer Science

SEIF HARIDI²

Royal Institute of Technology (KTH)
Swedish Institute of Computer Science

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¹Email: pvr@info.ucl.ac.be, Web: <http://www.info.ucl.ac.be/~pvr>

²Email: seif@it.kth.se, Web: <http://www.it.kth.se/~seif>

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Preface

Six blind sages were shown an elephant and met to discuss their experience. “It’s wonderful,” said the first, “an elephant is like a rope: slender and flexible.” “No, no, not at all,” said the second, “an elephant is like a tree: sturdily planted on the ground.” “Marvelous,” said the third, “an elephant is like a wall.” “Incredible,” said the fourth, “an elephant is a tube filled with water.” “What a strange piecemeal beast this is,” said the fifth. “Strange indeed,” said the sixth, “but there must be some underlying harmony. Let us investigate the matter further.”

– Freely adapted from a traditional Indian fable.

“A programming language is like a natural, human language in that it favors certain metaphors, images, and ways of thinking.”

– Mindstorms: Children, Computers, and Powerful Ideas [141], *Seymour Papert* (1980)

One approach to study computer programming is to study programming languages. But there are a tremendously large number of languages, so large that it is impractical to study them all. How can we tackle this immensity? We could pick a small number of languages that are representative of different programming paradigms. But this gives little insight into programming as a unified discipline. This book uses another approach.

We focus on programming *concepts* and the *techniques* to use them, not on programming languages. The concepts are organized in terms of computation models. A computation model is a formal system that defines how computations are done. There are many ways to define computation models. Since this book is intended to be practical, it is important that the computation model should be directly useful to the programmer. We will therefore define it in terms of concepts that are important to programmers: data types, operations, and a programming language. The term computation model makes precise the imprecise notion of “programming paradigm”. The rest of the book talks about computation models and not programming paradigms. Sometimes we will use the phrase programming model. This refers to what the programmer needs: the programming techniques and design principles made possible by the computation model.

Each computation model has its own set of techniques for programming and

reasoning about programs. The number of different computation models that are known to be useful is much smaller than the number of programming languages. This book covers many well-known models as well as some less-known models. The main criterium for presenting a model is whether it is useful in practice.

Each computation model is based on a simple core language called its *kernel language*. The kernel languages are introduced in a progressive way, by adding concepts one by one. This lets us show the deep relationships between the different models. Often, just adding one new concept makes a world of difference in programming. For example, adding destructive assignment (explicit state) to functional programming allows us to do object-oriented programming.

When stepping from one model to the next, how do we decide on what concepts to add? We will touch on this question many times in the book. The main criterium is the *creative extension principle*. Roughly, a new concept is added when programs become complicated for technical reasons unrelated to the problem being solved. Adding a concept to the kernel language can keep programs simple, if the concept is chosen carefully. This is explained further in Appendix D. This principle underlies the progression of kernel languages presented in the book.

A nice property of the kernel language approach is that it lets us use different models together in the same program. This is usually called *multiparadigm programming*. It is quite natural, since it means simply to use the right concepts for the problem, independent of what computation model they originate from. Multiparadigm programming is an old idea. For example, the designers of Lisp and Scheme have long advocated a similar view. However, this book applies it in a much broader and deeper way than was previously done.

From the vantage point of computation models, the book also sheds new light on important problems in informatics. We present three such areas, namely graphical user interface design, robust distributed programming, and constraint programming. We show how the judicious combined use of several computation models can help solve some of the problems of these areas.

Languages mentioned

We mention many programming languages in the book and relate them to particular computation models. For example, Java and Smalltalk are based on an object-oriented model. Haskell and Standard ML are based on a functional model. Prolog and Mercury are based on a logic model. Not all interesting languages can be so classified. We mention some other languages for their own merits. For example, Lisp and Scheme pioneered many of the concepts presented here. Erlang is functional, inherently concurrent, and supports fault tolerant distributed programming.

We single out four languages as representatives of important computation models: Erlang, Haskell, Java, and Prolog. We identify the computation model of each language in terms of the book's uniform framework. For more information about them we refer readers to other books. Because of space limitations, we are

not able to mention all interesting languages. Omission of a language does not imply any kind of value judgement.

Goals of the book

Teaching programming

The main goal of the book is to teach programming as a unified discipline with a scientific foundation that is useful to the practicing programmer. Let us look closer at what this means.

What is programming?

We define *programming*, as a general human activity, to mean the act of extending or changing a system's functionality. Programming is a widespread activity that is done both by nonspecialists (e.g., consumers who change the settings of their alarm clock or cellular phone) and specialists (computer programmers, the audience of this book).

This book focuses on the construction of software systems. In that setting, programming is the step between the system's specification and a running program that implements it. The step consists in designing the program's architecture and abstractions and coding them into a programming language. This is a broad view, perhaps broader than the usual connotation attached to the word programming. It covers both programming "in the small" and "in the large". It covers both (language-independent) architectural issues and (language-dependent) coding issues. It is based more on concepts and their use rather than on any one programming language. We find that this general view is natural for teaching programming. It allows to look at many issues in a way unbiased by limitations of any particular language or design methodology. When used in a specific situation, the general view is adapted to the tools used, taking account their abilities and limitations.

Both science and technology

Programming as defined above has two essential parts: a technology and its scientific foundation. The technology consists of tools, practical techniques, and standards, allowing us to *do* programming. The science consists of a broad and deep theory with predictive power, allowing us to *understand* programming. Ideally, the science should explain the technology in a way that is as direct and useful as possible.

If either part is left out, we are no longer doing programming. Without the technology, we are doing pure mathematics. Without the science, we are doing a craft, i.e., we lack deep understanding. Teaching programming correctly therefore means teaching both the technology (current tools) and the science (fundamental

concepts). Knowing the tools prepares the student for the present. Knowing the concepts prepares the student for future developments.

More than a craft

Despite many efforts to introduce a scientific foundation, programming is almost always taught as a craft. It is usually taught in the context of one (or a few) programming languages (e.g., Java, complemented with Haskell, Scheme, or Prolog). The historical accidents of the particular languages chosen are interwoven together so closely with the fundamental concepts that the two cannot be separated. There is a confusion between tools and concepts. What's more, different schools of thought have developed, based on different ways of viewing programming, called "paradigms": object-oriented, logic, functional, etc. Each school of thought has its own science. The unity of programming as a single discipline has been lost.

Teaching programming in this fashion is like having separate schools of bridge building: one school teaches how to build wooden bridges and another school teaches how to build iron bridges. Graduates of either school would implicitly consider the restriction to wood or iron as fundamental and would not think of using wood and iron together.

The result is that programs suffer from poor design. We give an example based on Java, but the problem exists in all existing languages to some degree. Concurrency in Java is complex to use and expensive in computational resources. Because of these difficulties, Java-taught programmers conclude that concurrency is a fundamentally complex and expensive concept. Program specifications are designed around the difficulties, often in a contorted way. But these difficulties are not fundamental at all. There are forms of concurrency that are quite useful and yet as easy to program with as sequential programs (for example, stream programming as exemplified by Unix pipes). Furthermore, it is possible to implement threads, the basic unit of concurrency, almost as cheaply as procedure calls. If the programmer were taught about concurrency in the correct way, then he or she would be able to specify for and program in systems without concurrency restrictions (including improved versions of Java).

The kernel language approach

Practical programming languages scale up to programs of millions of lines of code. They provide a rich set of abstractions and syntax. How can we separate the languages' fundamental concepts, which underlie their success, from their historical accidents? The kernel language approach shows one way. In this approach, a practical language is translated into a *kernel language* that consists of a small number of *programmer-significant* elements. The rich set of abstractions and syntax is encoded into the small kernel language. This gives both programmer and student a clear insight into what the language does. The kernel language has a simple formal semantics that allows reasoning about program correctness and