Programming with Roles and Classes; 
the BabyUML Approach 

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Abstract 
The goal of the BabyUML project is to increase my confidence in my programs. The keywords are simplicity and leverage. Simplicity helps me to think clearly and a reader to understand and audit my code (my peers are very good at catching my blunders). Leverage lets me say more with less.

The essence of object orientation is that objects interact to produce some desired result. Yet current programming languages are focused on individual object as they are specified by their classes; there are no explicit language constructs for describing communities of interacting objects. In BabyUML, we zoom back from the individual objects and let our code specify the community as a whole with abstractions taken from OOram role modeling and the UML concepts of collaboration and interaction.

A class is a description of the nature of an object. The class is static, the nature of an object stays the same throughout the object’s lifetime. A collaboration is an ensemble of objects that interact to realize a certain function. A role is a link to an object that makes a specific contribution in a collaboration. The link is dynamic; it is only valid at a certain time and in a certain collaboration. The static/dynamic dichotomy is the foundation of BabyUML. The goal is a new discipline of programming in which the two are balanced so as to give the programmer new capabilities and new leverage.

The BabyUML project is experimental; its ideas and concepts are explored and their feasibility demonstrated with actual code and running programs. One experiment explores an old and a new paradigm for organizing objects in clear and explicit structures that we illustrate with a running Java program. The old paradigm is the MVC, the Model-View-Controller. MVC describes the roles played by objects that bridge the gap between a human mental model and the corresponding data stored in the computer. The new paradigm is the DCA, the Data-Collaboration-Algorithm. DCA differentiates model objects according to clearly defined roles and makes object structures and interactions explicit in the code.

The next experiment shall lead to BabyIDE, an integrated development environment that exhibits a balance between static and dynamic aspects. it will be part of a new discipline of programming where programmers can work consistently at a high conceptual level throughout coding, debugging, testing and maintenance. The experiment will include high-level languages and metaprogramming; all implemented in a corner of Smalltalk that we have called the BabyIDE Laboratory. Smalltalk was chosen because its
classes and metaclasses are programmed as regular objects. We describe the laboratory and how it supports metaprogramming by specializing metaclasses and tools to facilitate a consistent, high-level BabyUML discipline of programming. We finally indicate the future direction towards a workable BabyIDE.

Appendix (on CD): The Java experiment code.
1 INTRODUCTION

On the 9th September 1945, a moth was found trapped between the contact points on relay #70, Panel F, of the Mark II Aiken relay calculator. The event was entered in the calculator’s log book as the word’s first record computer bug [Hopper-45]. This first bug was an “act of God”; most later bugs are blunders of our own making and the fight against them has been an essential part of software engineering ever since. The following quotes from the first NATO Software Engineering conference [NATO-68] could have been uttered today:

**David and Fraser:** Particularly alarming is the seemingly unavoidable fallibility of large software, since a malfunction in an advanced hardware-software system can be a matter of life and death.

**Dijkstra:** The dissemination of knowledge is of obvious value -- the massive dissemination of error-loaded software is frightening.

The needs of society are still beyond us. The insatiable software market is ever wanting more, and we keep promising more than we can deliver. Many years ago, the Oslo public transport company announced a new ticketing system. As a user of their services, I found the promised functionality very attractive. New card readers were installed at all stations. A date for transition to the new system was announced. But software was delayed for a year, then another. Today, the card readers stand idle, and a new, two year delay has been announced.

In his 1980 Turing Award lecture, Tony Hoare succinctly stated our choices [Hoare-81]:

“There are two ways of constructing a software design: One way is to make it so simple that there are obviously no deficiencies and the other is to make it so complicated that there are no obvious deficiencies.”

The second way is the easy way. We get it by default when we fail to find a simple design. May be the time available is unreasonably short. Or may be our concepts, languages, and tools do not match the challenges posed by the requirements. We end up relying on testing to get most of our blunders out of the system. But any given test method can only find a certain percentage of the all the errors. So keeping the test method fixed, the more errors we find during testing, the more errors are probably left in the shipped software. To quote Dijkstra:

"Program testing can be used to show the presence of bugs, but never to show their absence!" [Dijkstra-structured]

and

“One of the reasons why the expression "software industry" can be so misleading is that a major analogy with manufacturing fails to hold: in software, it is often the poor quality of the "product" that make it so
expensive to make! In programming, nothing is cheaper than not introducing the bugs in the first place."

[Dijkstra-next50]

Hoare’s first way is the hard way. It is also the only way to get quality software, because no industry has ever been able to work quality into an inferior product by testing it. I have been programming for half a century and simplicity has always been my holy grail. The simple structure is not only the key to mastery by my brain, but also the key to a correspondence between user requirements and system implementation and thus to habitable systems.

Through the years, requirements have escalated from the simple computation to distributed systems with complex data and powerful algorithms. My brain has remained roughly the same, so I have had to rely on better tools for thinking, designing, coding, and maintenance. My tools have been ahead of the requirements some of the time, and I have had the deep satisfaction of running tests merely to check that I haven’t made any serious blunders. At other times, requirements have been ahead of my tools, and I have shamefully been forced to rely on testing to get some semblance of quality into my programs.

Requirements have been ahead of my tools for quite some time now. I started the BabyUML project in an attempt to remedy this deplorable situation, hoping once again to experience the pleasure of following Hoare’s first way. I need better support from a improved concepts and tools that enables me to think new and greater thoughts.

The metamodels need to be implemented, and I need new tools that bridge the gap between the my brain and the computer representation of my program. I envision a high level programming discipline that facilitates compact and simple descriptions of significant systems of collaborating objects. I want to be able to write a piece of code and give it to a colleague so that she can audit it and take responsibility for its correctness. I want my code to be effectively chunked and self documenting so that other people can read it and grasp the system architecture and operation. The BabyUML success criterion is that programmers shall be happier and more effective when they use its results. Programmer happiness is closely coupled with responsive environments; exploration and evolution is clearly better than being forced to live with old and regrettable decisions.

The Baby was the world’s first electronic, digital, stored program computer. It executed its first statements on the 21st June 1947 at the University of Manchester, England. BabyUML is, somewhat whimsically, named after this computer because it is based on the idea of a stored program object computer such as it is pioneered in Smalltalk. The other part of the name, UML, reflects that I see UML as a gold mine of concepts and ideas that are unified into a fairly consistent metamodel, many of them applicable to the project.
Most of my almost 50 years in computer programming have been devoted to creating tools for people. My success criteria have been the happy and effective user rather than the weighty scientific paper. The success criterion for the BabyUML project is thus the happiness and effectiveness of the programmer. This chapter is an engineering status report on the project. Most of the report is about harnessing known principles for the purposes of the project. Some of the report is about new ideas, they are identified when they are introduced and in the conclusion.

The BabyUML project is experimental because I need to use a tool in order to understand how to improve it. The result of the BabyUML series of experiments shall be a new discipline of programming that includes metamodels, processes, and computer tools. One or more new programming languages may or may not be required. I expect to find many useful concepts in UML. I do not commit to applying UML concepts correctly according to the specification, but will merely let them inspire my engineering solutions. One important simplification is that BabyUML is limited to sequential programming while UML also caters for parallel processes.

In section 2A, I describe a simple example taken from activity network planning and control that will be used to illustrate the concepts presented in this chapter. In section 2B, I use this example to illustrate why my old programming style can fail when scaled up to very large problems.

In section 3, I have selected some fundamental ideas that have proven their worth in the past and discuss them from a BabyUML perspective.

Section 3A, section 3B, and section 3C describe fundamental concepts as seen in a BabyUML perspective. A class is a description of the nature of an object. The class is static, the nature of an object stays the same throughout the object’s lifetime. A collaboration is an ensemble of objects that interact to realize a certain function. A role is a link to an object that makes a specific contribution in a collaboration. The link is dynamic; it is only valid at a certain time and in a certain execution of a collaboration. The class/role dichotomy is the foundation of BabyUML. The goal is a new discipline of programming in which the two are balanced so as to give the programmer new capabilities and new leverage.

The chunking of run time objects is critical to the mastery of large systems. Section 3D describes a BabyComponent as a “monster object” that looks like a regular object in its environment where it is completely characterized by its provided interface. The BabyComponent encapsulates member objects that are invisible from outside. Different components can structure their member objects according to different paradigms. Two examples called Model-View-Controller, MVC, and Data-Collaboration-Algorithm, DCA, are discussed in depth in later sections. The notion of a BabyComponent is recursive; its encapsulated objects can turn out to be components in their own right without this being apparent from their exter-
nal properties. The partitioning of the total system into components is an important contribution to system simplicity.

I cannot device a new discipline of programming before I understand what I want to achieve, i.e. the run time structure of interacting objects. BabyUML will provide leverage with a programming environment that supports an extensible set of object structuring paradigms. Section 4 and section5 describe my old MVC and new DCA programming paradigms together with a demonstration implementation in Java1. Both paradigms answer the essential questions: What are the objects, How are they interlinked, and How do they interact. Both are important stepping stones in my pursuit of the utmost simplicity. Both paradigms exemplify the kinds of object structures I envisage for BabyUML. Both paradigms demonstrate a balance between static and dynamic aspects in code and run time objects.

Section 4 describes MVC, my Model-View-Controller paradigm[Ree-MVC-1] that has survived for more than 30 years. The MVC bridges the gap between the human brain and the domain data stored in the computer. Its fundamental quality is that it separates model from view, i.e., tool from substance. The ideal Model is pure representation of information, while the ideal View is pure presentation:

- The domain data are represented in an object called the MVC Model.
- The human user observes and manipulates the data through an MVC View. The view shall ideally match the human mental model, giving the user the illusion that what’s in his mind is faithfully represented in the computer.
- The MVC Controller is responsible for setting up and coordinating a number of related views. The Controller is sometimes called a Tool.

Section 5 describes DCA, my new Data-Collaboration-Algorithm paradigm. The essence of object orientation is that objects collaborate to realize a certain function. Many object oriented designs distribute the specification of the collaborations as fragmentary information among the domain objects. In the DCA paradigm, the collaborating objects are explicitly identified by the role they play in an interaction, and the interaction pattern is explicitly defined in terms of these roles as follows:

- A D for Data part is a simple “micro database” that manages the domain objects.
- A C for Collaboration part is an object that defines the roles that objects play in an ensemble of interacting objects. The collaboration also binds the roles to objects by executing queries on the Data objects.
- An A for Algorithm part is a method that specify an interaction. The method is expressed in terms of the roles objects play in the interaction; the binding from role to object is done in the collaboration.

The MVC/DCA experiment reported in section4 and section5 is completed. It has revealed the kind of high-level structures that shall be included in the BabyUML discipline of programming. The next major step is to experiment with the BabyIDE -- an integrated development environment for BabyUML. In this

1.The program is given in full on the enclosed CD.
step, I will try out novel semantics for classes and metaclasses together with tools for design, compilation, and inspection.

Section 6 describes a rudimentary BabyIDE laboratory together with its core concepts. The laboratory has been embedded within the Smalltalk stored program object computer. Its main feature is that it gives the systems programmer full control over the semantics of classes and metaclasses. The foundation is a deep understanding of the implementation of objects, classes, instantiation and inheritance.

The next major step will be to create a BabyIDE for the DCA and MVC paradigms. I will clearly need to harness imperative, algorithmic programming as well as the declarative definition of data structures. I will need class oriented programming to define the nature of the objects as well as role models (collaborations) to define their collaboration. I will also need new debuggers and inspectors to create an integrated environment. The prospects are challenging, and I look forward to dig into them.

The BabyUML project will be completed when it has produced a BabyIDE working prototype that can act as a specification for a commercial, generally applicable software engineering product.
2 AN EXAMPLE AND A PROBLEM

2A An Activity Network Planning Example

Project planning and control is frequently based on the idea of activity networks. A piece of work that needs to be done is described as an activity. The work done by an architect when designing a house can be broken down into activities. The work of erecting the house likewise. Example activities: drawing a plan view, digging the pit, making the foundation, erecting the frame, paneling the walls, painting these walls.

An activity is characterized by its name, its duration, its earlyStart and earlyFinish times, its lateStart and lateFinish times, a set of predecessor activities, and a set of successor activities. Predecessors and successors are called technological dependencies. An activity can start when all its predecessors are finished, and a successors cannot start before the current activity is finished. There are more sophisticated forms of technological dependencies. For example, it is possible to start the painting of one wall before the panelling of all walls is finished. Such cases are catered for with various kinds of activity overlap.

Frontloading is the calculation of the early start and finish times of each activity given the earlyFinish times for all its predecessors. Similarly, backloading is the calculation of the late start and finish times of each activity given the lateStart times for all its successors. The example chosen for this experiment is the rudimentary activity network shown in figure 1. The activity duration, earlyStart and earlyFinish times are shown in parenthesis.

Fig. 1: The experimental activity network.

Activities may be tied to resources. The creation of a design drawing requires some hours of work by an architect and a draftsman. The digging of the pit requires machinery and the efforts of some navvies. Resource allocation is to reserve resources for each activity. A scarce resource may delay the whole project. Resource allocation is a non-trivial operation; one can easily end up with unimportant activities blocking the progress of critical ones. (We cannot dig the pit because the navvies are busy levelling the garden.) There is a single resource in this example; say a pool of workers. The resource has unlimited capacity and an activity employs a single worker for its duration.

The example has been programmed in Java as an illustration of the concepts discussed in this chapter. The user interface (GUI) is shown in figure 2. It is partitioned into four strips. The top strip has three com-
mand buttons: *Create First Network* (the one shown in figure 1). *Frontload* the network and allocate resources. *Create Second Network* is to demonstrate that the program works for more than one network. The second strip shows the dependency graph. The third strip is a gantt diagram showing when the different activities will be performed. Time along the horizontal axis, activities along the vertical. The bottom strip shows how the activities are allocated to the resource. Time along the horizontal axis, resource loading along the vertical.

![Java program user interface](image)

The above example could be programmed in many different ways. I use it to illustrate the MVC and DCA paradigms, pretending that I’m working on a non-trivial, comprehensive planning system.

### 2B My old style doesn’t always scale

A potential problem with my usual programming style is easily demonstrated. Figure 3 illustrates how I normally would implement the network planning example. The rounded rectangles denote objects, the solid lines denote links between them, the white rectangles denote classes, and the dashed arrow denotes «instanceOf».

The activity objects are shown bottom right with heavy outlines. The idea is that planning is realized by negotiation; internally between the activity objects themselves and externally between activity objects and their required resources. The technicalities of the user interface have been separated from the domain objects in conformance with the MVC paradigm; the GUI objects are shown on the left.

1. The complete Java code can be found on the enclosed CD.
My usual implementation style tends to give fairly small objects in a distributed structure and with distributed control. It leads to a large number of links and interaction patterns. An activity uses a certain resource; let the activity object negotiate directly with the resource object to establish a mutually acceptable schedule. A symbol on the computer screen represents a certain activity; let the symbol object interrogate the activity object to determine how it is to be presented, and let the activity object warn the symbol object of significant changes. This works fine in simple cases, but it can degenerate into a bowl of spaghetti for very large systems.

Fig. 3: A typical application.

Every object is an instance of a class written in a language such as Simula, Java, or Smalltalk. The structure and domain logic is distributed among the methods of the classes with their superclasses. This fragmentation makes it hard to see the system as a whole. Any trace of spaghetti will effectively be chopped into noodles. Since the structure is in the mind of the beholder an not explicit in the code; my beauty can be your bowl of noodles.


3 SOME FUNDAMENTAL CONCEPTS AND THEIR USE IN BabyUML

3A The object

The notion of objects was introduced by Nygaard and Dahl with the Simula language \[Simula\]. The concepts were considerably refined in the Smalltalk language and run time system. \[Smalltalk\].

Fig. 4: The object

Objects are entities that encapsulate state and behavior. In this chapter, we use Smalltalk’s pure object model as illustrated in figure 4. The state of an object is defined by the values of its instance variables. Its behavior is defined by its methods. Neither state nor behavior is directly visible from outside the object; they can only be accessed through messages to the object. A message is intention-revealing; it specifies what is required, but not how this is to be produced \(^1\). When an object receives a message, it looks up a message dictionary to find the appropriate subprogram for handling the message. This subprogram is called a method. A method can read and change the value of the instance variables, and it can send messages to itself or other objects. Different objects can thus handle identical messages in entirely different ways.

In some contexts, an object is defined as an instance of a class. A more conceptual definition is preferred in BabyUML: An object is an entity that encapsulates state and behavior. This allows us to focus on the objects and work with different abstractions for different purposes. The class abstraction discussed in section 3B describes the nature of an object. The role abstraction discussed in section 3C describe an object’s contribution in a set of collaborating objects.

The concept of an object is specialized in the BabyComponent that is introduced in Section 3D.

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1. This in contrast to a procedure call that uniquely identifies the procedure body.
3B The class

In most object oriented languages, an object is an instance of a class. The class defines all features that are common to the instances of the class, notably their methods and the specification of their instance variables. Note that the class was not mentioned in the above description of the object. It is the object that holds the state and the methods are executed in the context of the object.

A class inherits all the features of its superclass, it can add features of its own, and it can override methods defined in the superclass. A class with its superclasses can always be flattened into a single class with no superclass. This means that the actual distribution of features between the superclasses does not in any way influence the semantics of the object, and I see class inheritance mainly as a very powerful device for code saving and code sharing.

The concept of class is an important in BabyUML, but its use is restricted to describing isolated objects. The state and behavior of ensembles of collaborating objects are described by the role models of the next section.

3C The Role Model

Prokon was to be a comprehensive system for planning and control\[Ree-IFIP\] that we worked on in the early seventies. The system architecture was based on objects negotiating on behalf of the line managers and depended on global control of the object interaction patterns. The line managers should own their objects with the corresponding classes. Objects playing the same roles in the interactions could, therefore, be implemented by different classes owned by different managers. We tried implementing the system in Simula [Simula], but failed because the Simula language insisted on our knowing the class of every object. Indeed, there was no notion of an object with an unknown class.

The Prokon project lost its funding and died, but the vision has stayed with me. The transition to Smalltalk was a major step forward because its dynamic typing lets me focus on object interaction independently of classes and class hierarchy. The MVC paradigm discussed in section 4 was a result of thinking in terms of objects rather than classes, but there was still no construct for explicitly programming the interaction patterns.

The experience with MVC led me to search for a new abstraction that let me work explicitly with the interactions. The result was role modeling, an abstraction that describes how a structure of objects interact to
accomplish some desired result. Each object has a specific responsibility in an interaction\(^1\), we say that it plays a specific role.

We developed role modeling for our own use in the early eighties. Our tools were demonstrated in the Tektronix booth at the first OOPSLA in 1986. The first mention in print was in an overview article by Rebecca Wirfs-Brock\[^{Rebecca-90}\]. Our own report was in an article in JOOP in 1992 \[^{Ree-92}\]. My book, *Working with Objects* \[^{Ree-working}\], explains role modeling in depth. A theory of role modeling is given in Egil P. Andersen’s doctoral thesis \[^{Andersen-97}\].

The idea of role modeling has made it into UML\[^{UML}\] under the name of *Collaborations* and *Interactions* and describes them informally as follows:

**Collaborations**

*Objects in a system typically cooperate with each other to produce the behavior of a system. The behavior is the functionality that the system is required to implement.*

*A behavior of a collaboration will eventually be exhibited by a set of cooperating instances (specified by classifiers) that communicate with each other by sending signals or invoking operations. However, to understand the mechanisms used in a design, it may be important to describe only those aspects of these classifiers and their interactions that are involved in accomplishing a task or a related set of tasks, projected from these classifiers. Collaborations allow us to describe only the relevant aspects of the cooperation of a set of instances by identifying the specific roles that the instances will play. Interfaces allow the externally observable properties of an instance to be specified without determining the classifier that will eventually be used to specify this instance. Consequently, the roles in a collaboration will often be typed by interfaces and will then prescribe properties that the participating instances must exhibit, but will not determine what class will specify the participating instances.*

A role model is analogous to a stage production. *Hamlet* is a tragedy written by William Shakespeare. In a certain production; the role of Hamlet may be played by the actor Ian, Ophelia by the actress Susan. Outside the stage, Ian and Susan live their regular lives. Other productions of the same play may cast different actors.

Role modeling sees a system of interacting objects as a stage performance:

- A set of objects is like a set of available actors.
- An object interaction is like a stage performance and objects play roles just as actors do.
- A role model corresponds to a drama. Both describe what shall take place in terms of roles and their actions. Neither specify objects, classes or specific actors.
- The selection and assignment of objects to roles is done by a query on the objects; the selection and assignment of actors to roles is the task of casting.

\(^1\)More about responsibility driven design and roles in \[^{Rebecca-03}\]
A role really exists only while it is being played. At other times, there may be no object or actor assigned to the role. Therefore, the role concept is a dynamic concept, and it is a philosophical question if a role really exists when it is not played by some object.

As a role model example, we will consider the Observer Pattern as described in the Design Patterns book [GOF]. A design pattern describes a solution to a general problem in such a way that it can be realized in many different ways and made to fit under many different circumstances. The Observer Pattern is described in the book with a textual description, a class diagram, and a kind of collaboration diagram. We will here describe it with a role model.

The essence of object orientation is that objects collaborate to accomplish some desired functionality. Three questions need to be answered: What are the roles? How are they interlinked? How do they interact? The answer to the first two questions is the set of roles that work together to realize the functionality and the links between them. This is called a Collaboration in UML terminology.

The Observer collaboration.

Figure 5 shows the Observer pattern as a collaboration. We see the three roles. There is one object playing the subject role. There is one object playing the inputter role. There are any number of objects playing the observer role; the subject is linked to them and they are all linked to the single subject.

Every object has a unique identity. A role name such as subject is a alias for one or more objects, it can be seen as indirect addressing with dynamic binding between role and objects. We use a role name as an abbreviation of: “the object or objects that play this role at a certain time and in a certain context”.

Figure 6 specifies how the objects interact when synchronizing subject and observer. We see that the inputter sends setState() to the subject, presumably changing its state. The subject then sends an update() message to all observers. The observers then interrogate the subject to get the new state.

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1. This BabyUML diagram describes sequential interaction. A filled arrow is a method call. A thin, vertical rectangle denotes a method execution. The objects linked to the observer[*] role work in lock-step; their updates apparently occur simultaneously.
Note that many objects may play the observer role in different contexts and at different times, but we are only concerned with the objects that play the observer role in an occurrence of the interaction. Also note that a role may be played by many objects and an object may play many roles. In this example, the object playing the inputter role could also play the observer role. The collaboration diagram in Design Patterns\cite{GOF} mandated this by showing two objects called aConcreteObserver and anotherConcreteObserver respectively; the first also playing the inputter role.

A role modeling tool called OOram was put on the market, but the interest was not sufficient to sustain it as a product. The reason could be that I had not found a conceptual bridge between roles and classes.

I have recently found this bridge; roles and classes are unified into a coherent whole where the roles are the performers in an interaction and the classes specify the nature of the objects. The relations are illustrated informally in figure 7. Object interaction is specified by a method. The method references the interacting objects indirectly by their role names. A query links a role to one or more objects. An object is an instance of a class. There is no restriction on the formulation of a query. Its results may vary over time so that the role is a dynamic notion. The nature of an object does not change over time so that the class is a static notion.

An implementation of this unification is described more fully in section 5 on the DCA paradigm.

### 3D The BabyComponent

Section 2B demonstrated my need for injecting some sort of object clustering into my systems. The instance variables in the objects are in themselves less than useful for this purpose. Some of them may point to what can be considered peers in a cluster, e.g., an activity predecessor. Some of them may point out of a cluster, e.g., from an activity to its resource. And some of them may point to sub-objects that may be considered as parts of the object itself, e.g., from an activity to its name. Well chosen variable names
can help a knowledgeable reader understand the semantics, but it is a weakness that we only see the object structure from the perspective of a single object, we do not see the structure as a whole.

The UML definition of a Composite Structures provides the idea:

9.1 Overview
The term “structure” in this chapter refers to a composition of interconnected elements, representing runtime instances collaborating over communications links to achieve some common objectives.

Internal Structures
The InternalStructure subpackage provides mechanisms for specifying structures of interconnected elements that are created within an instance of a containing classifier. A structure of this type represents a decomposition of that classifier and is referred to as its “internal structure.”

A babyComponent is an object that encapsulates other objects and can loosely be described as an instance of a UML Composite Structure. A babyComponent looks like a regular object seen from its environment and is characterized by its provided interface. Regular objects and components can be used interchangeably. Inside a component, we find a bounded structure of interconnected Member Objects.

Figure 8 illustrates how the spaghetti of fig. 3 can be replaced by a simple structure of three interacting components. Like UML, the notion of a BabyComponent is recursive; I can organize several hundred thousand objects in a component structure so that I can deal with a manageable number at each level.

Fig. 8: A Component is an object that encapsulates other objects

There are many advantages of an architecture based on the BabyUML components:

- My brain can better visualize how the system represents and processes information. The code includes the component specification; the code thus documents the high level system architecture.
- The notion of components makes it easier to ensure correspondence between the user’s mental model and the model actually implemented in the system.
- The component boundary forms a natural place to put fire-walls for security and privacy. Indeed, it is hard to see how privacy and security can be achieved without some form of strict component architecture.
The notion of a BabyComponent is useful in many contexts. A specialization is the DCA component described in section 5.

3E The Database

An early idea for system structuring was the idea of separating system state and system behavior. The first, 1963 version of our Autokon system was structured as a number of application programs arranged around a central data store that held information about the ship, its geometry and the arrangement of its parts. Different applications accessed the store through special access routines that transformed the store’s data structure to an apparent structure suitable for the application as illustrated in figure 9.

![Fig. 9: Separating data and procedure.](image)

This separation of state and behavior is very useful for our purposes. Consider the roles and classes illustration in figure 7. Put the objects of figure 7 in the data store, we get the Data of the DCA paradigm. Put the role definitions with their queries into the access routines and we get the Collaboration of the DCA paradigm. Put the interaction methods into the applications and we get the Algorithms of the DCA paradigm. This idea is expanded in section 5.

3F Aspect Oriented Programming

Some programming problems cannot easily be captured by procedural or object oriented code because they cut across procedures and objects. Aspect oriented programming (AOP) was introduced to handle such cross-cutting aspects of the problem. Examples are aspects related to security and performance.

At a first glance, it seems that role models and interactions can be such aspects since they cut across object boundaries. A technology similar to AOP should be able to support methods that are defined for a particular role and thus shared among all objects playing this role. The object implementation classes may specialize these methods as needed. There is an appealing symmetry here: A class defines methods that are common to all its instances. What if a role defines AOP-like methods that are common to all objects that play this role. Interesting thought for a future experiment.
A UML package is used to group model elements. A package is a namespace for its members, and may contain other packages. A package can import either individual members of other packages, or all the members of other packages. In Java, similar packages are used to group classes and interfaces.

An object is an instance of a class. This class is a subclass of its superclass and so on up to the root of the class hierarchy. The classes in the superclass chain are typically members of different packages. An object is thus related to several packages. The notion of a package relates to build time issues and is irrelevant in the context of interacting, runtime objects.
4 MVC: 
THE MODEL-VIEW-CONTROLLER PARADIGM

How can we build a system that the user experiences as an extension of his own brain? How can we put the user in the driver’s seat so that he can not only run the program but also understand and even modify its operation? How can we structure a system so that each user sees an image of the world that corresponds to his own conception of it?

MVC was first conceived as a means for giving human users control of the computer resources. MVC bridges the gap between the users’ mental models and the information stored in the computer. The idea is illustrated in figure 10.

Fig. 10: Bridge the gap between the user’s mind and the stored data.

The domain of my first MVC was shipbuilding. The problem was project planning and control as described in section2A. A manager was responsible for a part of a large project. His department had its own bottlenecks and its own considerations for planning. Other departments were different; a pipe shop was very different from a panel assembly line which was again very different from a design office. How could each manager have his own specialized part of the planning system while preserving the integrity of the plan as a whole?

The answer was to replace the “dead” activity records in traditional, procedure oriented planning systems with interacting objects. The objects would represent their owners within the universe of interacting objects. The objects would be specialized according to the needs of their owners, yet they could all interact according to a common schema.

I implemented the first MVC while being a visiting scientist with the Smalltalk group at Xerox PARC [Ree-MVC-1], [Ree-MVC-2]. The conventional wisdom in the group was that objects should be visible and tangible, thus bridging the gap between the human brain and the abstract data within the computer. This simple and powerful idea failed for the planning systems for two reasons. The first was that a plan was a structure of many activity and resource objects so that the focus on one object at the time was too limiting. The other
was that users were familiar with the planning model and were used to seeing it from different perspectives. The visible and tangible object would get very complex if it should be able to show itself and be manipulated in many different ways.

4A The MVC Model

The terms data and information are commonly used indiscriminately. In the stone age, IFIP defined them precisely in a way that I still find very fruitful when thinking about the human use of computers [IFIP]:

DATA. A representation of facts or ideas in a formalized manner capable of being communicated or manipulated by some process.

Note: The representation may be more suitable either for human interpretation (e.g., printed text) or for internal interpretation by equipment (e.g., punched cards or electrical signals).

INFORMATION. In automatic data processing the meaning that a human assigns to data by means of the known conventions used in its representation.

Note: The term has a sense wider than that of information theory and nearer to that of common usage. [IFIP]

So the user’s mental model is information, information does not exist outside the human brain. But representation of information can and do exist outside the brain. It is called data. In the example, the Model is the data representing the activity network and the resources. The Model data may be considered latent because they need to be transformed to be observable to the user and related to the user’s mental project model.

I will discuss the Java implementation of the Model and its links to the View-Controller pair in section 5.

4B The MVC View

The View transforms the latent Model data into a form that the human can observe and convert into information as illustrated in figure 11.

The MVC triad could be implemented in a single class. If this class turns out to be complex, it can be simplified by a separation into separate classes. And if the users need to see the model data in different perspectives, then separating out several view classes is almost necessary.
I will discuss the Java implementation in section 5E.

4C The Controller

The Controller is responsible for creating and coordinating a number of related Views. I sometimes think of the Controller-View combination as a Tool that the user employs to work with the system’s latent information.\footnote{Note that the Smalltalk 80 Controller is responsible for input and thus different from the one discussed here.} \footnote{Also note that some so-called MVC structures let the controller control the user interaction and thus, the user. This whole idea is fundamentally different from MVC as described here. I want the user to be in control and the system appear as an extension of the user’s mind. In short, I want the “main program” of the interaction to be in the head of the user. In the perverse “MVC”, the computer is in control and the system appears as an enforcer of fixed procedures. In short, the “main program” of the interaction is in the computer.}

4D The anatomy of the Java user interface code

The Java tool is shown in figure 13. We see that the tool is divided into 4 strips:
1. The top strip is an instance of class `ButtonStrip`, it contains command buttons.
2. The second strip is an instance of class `DependencyPanel`; it is a view that shows the activities with their technological dependencies.
3. The third strip is an instance of class `GanttPanel`; it is a bar chart showing the time period for each activity.
4. The fourth strip is an instance of class `ResourcePanel`; it shows the activities that are allocated to the resource in each time period.

Fig. 13: The anatomy of the MVC Java tool.

(: ButtonStrip means an instance of class ButtonStrip).

An overview of the implementation is shown in the class diagram of figure 14. We see the classes described above and their main associations.

In my traditional programming style, the views would all be associated with the model. In this implementation, I reduce the number of associations in order to get a simpler and cleaner structure. The views are now subordinated the controller by being enclosed in a controller-managed component. This is indicated by a dashed line in figure 14. The `Model` and `Controller` are shown in heavy outline to indicate that they are the main collaborators in this implementation. The `Views`, being subordinate in this implementation, are shown in light outline. The Java library superclasses are shown dashed along the top of the diagram.
We will go into more details when we discuss the MVC Model internals and system behavior in section 5.

4E Controller code coordinates selection

We will now take the selection function as an example of how the controller coordinates the behavior of the views.

Figure 15 shows the tool after the user has clicked on any of the actC activity views. The key to simplicity and generality is that the view being clicked only reports this event to the controller object. The controller decides that this is indeed a selection command, and that it shall be reflected in the appearance of all activityViews. This behavior is illustrated in the BabyUML sequence diagram of figure 16.
In this program, the *inputView* role is some instance of class *ActivityView*. We see from figure 14 that *ActivityView* is an *awt.Button*, so it sends an *actionPerformed* event to its *actionListener*. All *activityView*s are created to let their *actionListener* be the *controller*. The Java program can be found on the enclosed CD.

**Discussion.** The Observer pattern, also known as Dependents, Publish-Subscribe, or Changed-update, defines a one-to-many dependency between objects so that when one object (the subject) changes state, all its dependents are notified and updated automatically.\[GOF\]

A variant of the selection interaction could use the Observer pattern to let the controller alert the views about a changed selection. On the face of it, this is very flexible, extensible, and so on. But in this case, it would merely be an obfuscator. The observer pattern is useful when the subject should be decoupled from its dependents. But here, the controller knows its views since it created them. The direct solution used here is the simplest and does not restrict flexibility and extensibility.

**Discussion.** We see from figure 14 that the controller knows both panels and activityViews. An alternative could to let the controller know the panelViews only. Each panelView could then act as a local controller for its activityViews. The programmer of the top level controller would then not need to know the inner workings of the panels. I did not choose this solution because the responsibility for activity selection is anchored in the top level controller.

---

[Diagram of the selection interaction]
5 DCA: THE DATA-COLLABORATION-ALGORITHM PARADIGM

We now come to the Model part of MVC. Seen from the Controller, it looks like an ordinary object. But a single object that represents all activities and resources would be a monster, so we have to give it some structure. My new DCA paradigm tells us how to master this monster object, realizing the bridge between roles and classes shown informally in figure 7.

The MVC Model becomes a BabyComponent. It looks like a regular object from the outside, characterized by its provided operations. Inside, there is a well ordered and powerful object structure partitioned into three parts, Data, Collaborations, and Algorithms. We fill in the details of the

- **The D stands for Data.** Like any object, a DCA component encapsulates state and behavior. The state is a set of domain objects. Their organization is declared as a number of relations in first normal form, guaranteeing data integrity. The data declaration can be read and understood independently of the system around it; an important step towards system simplicity. The recursive nature of components ensures that the data declaration is also recursive.

- **The C stands for Collaboration.** A DCA collaboration is useful when the schema for the base data is unsuitable for users of the data. Users then access the domain objects through the roles these objects play in a particular usage. Collaborations bridge the gap between usage and data by dynamically binding roles to domain objects. A role can be seen as indirectly addressing one or more domain objects, making it possible to address different objects at different times without changing the using code. The notion of Collaborations is derived from the OOram role model[Ree-working] and corresponds to the external views used in database technology.

- **The A stands for Algorithm.** Algorithms occur in two places in the DCA paradigm. Some are local to the domain objects and are coded as methods in the domain classes. Other algorithms describe domain object interaction and is a property of the inter-object space. The interaction algorithms are coded in separate classes, distinct from the domain classes. This ensures that object interaction is specified explicitly and makes it easier to check the code for correctness and to study its operation.

5A The MVC Model part as a single object

The Java tutorial\(^1\) describes an object as a number of fields (state) surrounded by methods (behavior) as illustrated in figure 17(a). This is actually a better illustration of the Smalltalk object than the Java object. In Smalltalk, the fields (“instance variables”) are invisible from outside the object; all access has to be through its methods. The Java object is different; the fields are visible from the outside. I write \(x = \text{foo.fieldX;}\) to access a field directly, and I write \(x = \text{foo.getFieldX();}\) to access it through a method.

\(^1\)http://java.sun.com/docs/books/tutorial/java/concepts/object.html
Figure 17(b) shows an object model that we use as a starting point for discussing DCA. Borrowing terminology from UML, we use the term *owned attributes* to denote the state (fields, instance variables). We use the UML term *derived attributes* to denote attributes that are computed rather than stored. For example, a *person* object could have `birthdate` as an owned attribute, while `age()` could be a derived attribute. Other methods implement the object’s provided operations.

Behavior is activated in an object when it receives a message. The message is dynamically linked to the appropriate method, and the method is activated. This link is symbolized by a small circle on the object boundary as shown in figure 17(b).

![Figure 17](image)

**5B The DCA Component; a well-structured monster object**

There are (at least) two definitions of the term *object*. The simple one is that *an object is an instance of a class*. The other one is that an object is an entity that encapsulates state and behavior. The two definitions are synonymous in a Java program, but they are different in DCA.

![Figure 18](image)

Figure 18 illustrates the DCA component as an object that encapsulates other objects. The DCA component looks like the object of figure 17 when seen from its environment. Inside, we find a number of specialized parts:
Data. This corresponds to the owned attributes of the regular object. The fields are replaced by a “baby database” that holds the component’s domain objects and their structure. The term “database” is used in a restricted sense, it is a set of domain objects organized according to a conceptual schema. We do not assume persistence, concurrency, access control, security, or any other goodie usually associated with databases. We just call it the Data.

- The Data are organized in a number of relations in the first normal form, ensuring referential integrity.
- The values of these relations are the domain objects (including structure objects).
- The structure is represented in explicit relations. Contrast with my traditional representation where structure information is fragmented among the domain objects. The DCA domain objects are correspondingly simplified.
- The code for the Data part should ideally be declarative in the form of a conceptual schema, but I here rely on defining some Java classes with only getter and setter methods in the current Java experiment.

Collaboration. This corresponds to the derived attributes of the regular object. The Data conceptual schema may not be ideal for the access requirements of the different uses of the data. The collaborations implement external schemas, each optimized for a particular usage of the Data.

- In UML [UML], “a Collaboration describes a structure of collaborating elements (roles), each performing a specialized function, which collectively accomplish some desired functionality. Its primary purpose is to explain how a system works and, therefore, it typically only incorporates those aspects of reality that are deemed relevant to the explanation. Thus, details, such as the identity and precise class of the actual participating instances are suppressed.” Also “a CollaborationUse represents the application of the pattern described by a collaboration to a specific situation involving specific classes or instances playing the roles of the collaboration.”
- In this experiment, a DCA Collaboration is coded as a class that has the collaboration roles as attributes and database queries as its methods. In its abstract form, it is one or more temporary relations that are derived from the base relations by queries.
- The DCA Collaboration is an instance of the above class where the results of the queries are assigned to the role fields, thus binding roles to actual domain objects. A binding is valid in a certain context and at a certain time. It is a kind of dynamic, indirect addressing. \(^1\)
- Objects using a Collaboration see the base data in a perspective optimized for their needs. Note that these user objects can be internal or external to the Model.

Algorithm. The domain objects interact in order to “collectively accomplish some desired functionality”. Traditionally, the code for this interaction is implicit by being distributed among the domain objects. In the DCA paradigm, the code controlling the interaction is pulled out and centralized in the component’s Algorithms. Thus, a DCA Algorithm defines how the system accomplishes some desired functionality.

---

1. The DCA Collaboration corresponds to the UML CollaborationUse. My choice of name reflects my focus on objects rather than code.
5C The MVC Model part as a DCA component

The Model part of the network Java example is implemented as a DCA component. Some important objects are shown in figure 19. For illustrative purposes, the Data are separated into two sub-parts. The netBase holds the activity network in two relations, activities is a list of Activity objects, dependencies is a list of Dependency objects, each having a predecessor and successor attribute. The resourceBase has a single relation, allocations, that is a list of Allocation objects, each having a time and an Activity attribute.

The GUI is split into a controller object and three panelView objects, each with a layout algorithm that creates its display. In addition, the frontload command button activates the frontload and resourceAllocation Algorithms. All five Algorithms are users of the DCA Data and access it through a suitable Collaboration.

In the following, we will discuss the code for the dependencyPanel and the frontload button together with their algorithms and data access collaborations as illustrated in figure 19.

5D The Data structure defined by a schema

The Data parts are defined by their schemas. Figure 20 shows the netBase schema expresses as a UML class diagram.
The corresponding Java class declarations are trivial. The complete Java code can be found on the enclosed CD.

5E Code Example 1: Panel layout

Figure 21 illustrates that the unit on the horizontal axis in the DependencyPanel is the activity rank; i.e., the max length of the activity’s predecessor chain from the activity to the start of the network. Activities having the same rank are stacked vertically.

The DependencyPanel layout Algorithm is as simple as can be. (Actually too simple, it will often lead to overlapping dependencies.) The most interesting statements are as follows:

```java
private void addActivityViews() {
    for (int rank=0; rank <= rankedCollab.maxRank(); rank++) {
        for (Activity act : rankedCollab.activityListAtRank(rank)) {
            ActivityView actView = new ActivityView(controller, act, 24);
            add(actView);
        }
    }
}
```

This layout algorithm accesses the activity objects through the rankedCollab, an instance of the RankedCollab class. This collaboration presents the data in a table with two columns: rank and activity. The table is accessed through the call to activityListAtRank() in (Java5) above.
The rank of an activity is simply computed recursively in `RankedCollab`, where it is also easy to cash the results. The ranks need to be recomputed whenever there is a change in the network. The `RankedCollab` can easily do this since it is an observer of the network as a whole. It is not so easy to do it in the activity objects since they are not aware of the network.

**5F Code Example 2: Frontloading**

*Frontloading* is the calculation of the `earlyStart` and `earlyFinish` for each activity given the start time of its predecessors. We see from figure 21 that `actA` and `actB` can both start when the project starts, e.g., in week 1. `actA` then finishes in week 2 and `actB` in week 7. We can now compute for `earlyStart` and `earlyFinish` for `actC`. `actD` can now be computed since we know the `earlyFinish` for both `actC` and `actB`. The result of the frontloading is shown in the gantt diagram of figure 2.

The frontloading operation is traditionally distributed among the activity objects. The default method could look like the following:

```java
Activity >> public void frontloadSimple (Integer startWeek) {
    earlyStart = startWeek;
    for(Activity pred : predecessors()) {
        earlyStart = Math.max(earlyStart, pred.earlyFinish() + 1);
    }
}
```

The problem with this simple solution is that the method cannot be triggered in an activity object before the `earlyFinish` of all predecessors are known. This means that the `frontload` network operation belongs in the inter-activity space and must be treated at a higher system level.

The common frontload logic could be in a method in the `Model` class, but I feel that this is an overloading of a class that should be clean and simple. So the top level `frontload()` method is coded in a separate `FrontloadAlgorithm` class. Three problems need to be resolved. One is identifying activities that are ready to be frontloaded. The second is to determine the `earlyStart` of an activity once all its predecessors have been loaded. The third is to compute the `earlyFinish` for an activity once its `earlyStart` is known.

1. Identifying activities that are ready to be planned is essentially a query on the Data objects. This work properly belongs in a collaboration class, here the `FrontloadCollab` class.
2. The `earlyStart` of an activity depends on all its predecessors and all modifiers such as activity overlap etc. This logic belongs in the inter-activity space and is here coded in the `FrontloadAlgorithm` class.
3. The `earlyFinish` of an activity once its `earlyStart` is known depends on the activity alone. The code, therefore, belongs in the `Activity` class.

We’ll discuss the coding of these actions in turn.
5F1  The frontloading collaboration, FrontloadCollab

I have chosen a query-based solution to illustrate how a query result changes through the frontloading process. An activity that is ready to be loaded is not yet loaded while all its predecessors have been loaded. Here is the query that finds a candidate activity for frontloading expressed in an unspecified language:

```sql
define frontloader as
    (select act
     from Activities act
     where act.earlyStart == null and ( for all pred in predecessors(act): pred.earlyStart != null )
     ) someInstance
```

The FrontloadCollab code is not trivial. But it is nicely isolated giving a complete separation of concern. The frontload algorithm can be expressed in terms a role called frontloader and can loop until frontCollab fails to bind the role to an activity object. I can give the code to a colleague and ask her to audit and sign it. (So that an unlikely bug will be her fault, not mine.) The complete code for class FrontloadCollab can be found on the enclosed CD. It is not very elegant and more readable forms should be found.

5F2  The frontloading interaction algorithm, FrontloadAlgorithm

The frontloading interaction is implemented in the FrontloadAlgorithm class:

```java
public void frontload(Integer startWeek) {
    ..... (Java 19)
    Activity frontloader; (Java 20)
    while ((frontloader = frontloadCollab.frontloader()) != null) { (Java 22)
        Integer earlyStart = startWeek; (Java 23)
        for(Activity pred : frontloadCollab.frontPredecessors()) { (Java 24)
            earlyStart = Math.max(earlyStart, pred.earlyFinish() + 1); (Java 25)
        } (Java 26)
        frontloader.setEarlyStart(earlyStart); (Java 27)
    } (Java 28)
} (Java 29)
```

We see that frontCollab defines two roles; frontloader is the activity object being loaded, and frontPredecessors are its predecessor objects. This code is pure algorithm with no confusing side issues. It is thus a good starting point for dealing with more complex situations.
6 THE BabyIDE LABORATORY

The experiments reported in section 5 and section 6 has revealed the kind of high-level structures that shall be included in the BabyUML discipline of programming. The next major step is to experiment with the BabyIDE -- an integrated development environment for BabyUML. In the experiment, I try out novel semantics for classes and metaclasses together with tools for design, compilation, and inspection.

6A The Integrated Development Environment

Nusse, the first Norwegian computer anno 1953, was a computer were the smallest addressable unit was a word of 32 bits. Data and operations were indistinguishable in the computer memory; my programs typically modified themselves. I moved a word to the accumulator register and the computer treated it as an operand in an operation. I moved the same word to the operation register and the computer executed it. My mind-set was binary, my programs were written in binary, I ran and inspected the programs from the binary console. There was an exact correspondence between the program in my mind and the bits in the computer. Figure 22 illustrates the situation. The man-machine system was harmonious because the same conceptual framework applied throughout my thinking, coding, and inspecting (including debugging).

I moved to larger computers and higher level languages. A gap opened between my mind and the realities of the computer. I thought in FORTRAN, I coded in FORTRAN, a compiler translated my code into binary, but the inspect path remained binary. Harmony was lost; I have spent innumerable hours debugging my FORTRAN programs by manually decoding pages of hexadecimal dumps.
The loop in figure 22 was again closed when the plain compilers grew into integrated development environments. First for FORTRAN, today I use the Java NetBeans IDE\(^1\) and think, code, inspect, debug, and even refactor a program within the conceptual framework of Java.

I introduced a new mismatch when I began thinking in terms of MVC and DCA. I had to translate my mental models into Java code, and then compile, inspect, and debug within the Java environment. My mental model was in my head only, and a Java expert reading my code couldn’t possibly guess my models. I could comment the code, but the comments would clutter the code and often be misleading. Extensive documentation could help, but I can never promise to maintain exact correspondence between documentation and code. I am highly motivated to improve the code; comments and documentation can be fixed later.

I tried using an advanced UML modeling tool for creating the demo program. There were several difficulties that hindered me working exclusively in UML. The three most important were:

- The tool only implemented parts of the UML 2.0 definition. The first stumbling block was that it lacked a necessary feature in the UML sequence diagram.
- The code generator was incomplete. The generated code was a mere skeleton; I had to fill in most of the code in Java. So much so that there was very little gain from using the additional tool and I quickly abandoned it.

These two difficulties can, in principle, be overcome with a more complete tool implementation. But the third is inherent in the idea of a model with a code generator:

- The code generator only transforms the model from UML to Java. I still had to inspect and debug in terms of Java. The correspondence with my MVC/DCA mental model was far from simple. Harmony is lost.

## 6B The BabyIDE Object Notation

The BabyIDE is centered around objects and their interaction. Interacting objects can only see the provided operations of their collaborators. Conceptually, an object appears to encapsulate state and behavior. In reality, the object is implemented by the object itself, and a class with its superclasses. BabyIDE introduces new notations for these perspectives. The encapsulated object notation is described in section 6B1. The conceptual object notation is described in section 6B2. The object implementation with class and superclasses is discussed in section 6C2.

---

The notation presented here symbolizes concrete objects with identity, state, and behavior. The notation will later be extended to denote roles; the artifact abstraction on objects described in section 3C.

6B1 The Encapsulated Object notation

An object is encapsulated; it can only be accessed through its provided operations. Its attributes and methods are invisible from its environment. BabyIDE uses the encapsulated object notation shown in figure 23 to denote an object seen as a black box.

Fig. 23: Examples of the encapsulated projection.

The BabyIDE notation for an object is a rounded rectangle; its corners are rounded to distinguish it from the UML classifier. An object has a unique identifier, the objectID. It is shown in angle brackets: `<2232>`. Some objects have a name, this is then shown after the objectID. There are two equivalent notations. The inline form in figure 23 (a) is useful in simple diagrams. The compact form of figure 23 (b) uses the UML symbol for an interface. A tool can pop up the interface dynamically so as to save screen acreage.

Note that we use the Smalltalk syntax in this chapter. For example, `name` is equivalent to the Java `name()` method call. (In Java, `name` is a reference to the corresponding instance variable, while instance variables are invisible from outside the object in Smalltalk). The Smalltalk `frontload: firstWeek` is equivalent to the Java `frontload (firstWeek)`.

The encapsulated object notation is useful in “wiring diagrams” showing systems of interlinked objects as illustrated in figure 24.

Fig. 24: “Wired” objects implementing the planning network example
6B2 The Conceptual Object Notation

An object encapsulates state and behavior. We all know that many of the object’s features are specified by its class with its superclasses, but do not let it confuse us. It is the object that has state and behavior, it is the object that interacts with other objects. So we hide the classes and pretend that the object itself holds everything of interest. The result is the conceptual object; very effective as a concept and very inefficient if naively implemented. We again use a rounded rectangle to denote an object and get the white box view of figure 25. We see selected object features, but we do not see how they are implemented. The conceptual object has three compartments:

- The top compartment shows the objectID \( <2232> \) together with a possible name.
- The middle compartment shows the names and values of the object’s attributes (instance variables).
- The bottom compartment shows the operations. A tool could also show the code of the corresponding method so that it can be inspected and edited.

Fig. 25: Example conceptual, white box object projection

```
+---+    +---+    +--------+
| actD |    | `actD` |    | activityName |
+---+    +---+    +--------+
| duration | 3 |
| earlyStart | 14 |
| earlyFinish | 16 |
| predecessors | {126}, {1125}. |
| successors | {} |
```

6C The Smalltalk Virtual Stored Program Object Computer

I regard Smalltalk[Smalltalk] as the ideal proving ground for my experiments with BabyIDE. The Smalltalk notions of class, method, programing language and programming tools are all realized by objects in the image. A new class is created by sending the message \texttt{new} to its \texttt{metaclass}; another object. The code for a method is translated from its text form to byte codes by a compiler method that is part of the class object. This means that BabyIDE can implement its own notions of programs, programming languages and tools by simply replacing the Smalltalk library classes with alternate ones.

In this section, we give a detailed description of how programs are implemented in the default Smalltalk class library. We need a deep understanding of the default Smalltalk way in order build BabyIDE within and on top of it.
Figure 26 shows Smalltalk as a virtual, stored program, object computer. *Object*, because all data are represented as objects; even booleans, numbers, and characters; classes and methods; stacks and activation records; inspectors and debuggers. *Virtual*, because it is realized in software by the Smalltalk Virtual Machine (VM). *Stored program* because programs are represented as regular objects.

![Smalltalk Object Space (Image)](image)

**6C1 The Smalltalk object computer implementation**

Every object has an object identity, *objectID*, that is unique through space and time. There shall never be another object with the same objectID anywhere in the world. We can thus be sure that any object can be linked to any other object without any danger of confusion.

Smalltalk objects are stored in its object space, the *image*. The VM creates a new object when told to do so by a method; returning the objectID of the new object so it can later be the receiver of messages.

**6C2 The Smalltalk stored program computer implementation**

The bytes representing an object are stored on the computer’s heap. It would be ridiculously inefficient if all the features of an object such as attributes and methods should be stored in every object. The object only stores its state values as indicated on a white background in figure 27. In addition, the object has a number of hidden values; the most important being its identity and a link to the class object. The rest is delegated to the class and superclass objects as illustrated in the figure.
Fig. 27: Implementation of the example object.

The objects in figure 27 are as follows:

- The object that is in the center of our interest has objectID=\texttt{<2232>} and stores the values '{actD}', 3, 14, 16, {\texttt{<1267>}, \texttt{<1125>}}.

- The \texttt{<2232>actD} object is an instance of class \textit{Activity}, represented in the \texttt{<0148>Activity} object. This class object has a link to its superclass, \texttt{<0002>Object}. The superclass of \texttt{<0002>Object} is \texttt{nil}, thus terminating the superclass chain.

- The names of the object’s attributes are the union of the \texttt{attributes} attributes of the class and all its superclasses. They are shown in the middle portion of the conceptual object.

- The object’s operations are a union of the operations defined in the \texttt{methodDict} attribute of the class and all its superclasses. The operations are shown in the bottom portion of the conceptual object. A tool can display the corresponding methods.

- It is interesting to notice that the \texttt{<instanceOf>} relation essentially defines the object’s semantics, while the exact distribution of feature definitions along the \texttt{<subclassOf>} relations is irrelevant to the object and thus is in the nature of a comment.
A class object has a *methodDict* attribute that binds operations (selectors) to the corresponding *CompiledMethod* objects. A *CompiledMethod* object contains a sequence of byte codes (VM instructions) and also a link to the corresponding source code. There are byte codes for getting and setting attribute values as well as for sending messages to specified objects.

Object behavior is activated when an object receives a message. The message is an object with attributes for sender, receiver, message selector (operation) and actual parameters. The VM locates the receiver’s class object and looks up its *methodDict* dictionary to find the corresponding *CompiledMethod*. If not found, it recursively tries the *methodDict* of the superclass. If this search fails, the VM starts the search anew with the default selector *doesNotUnderstand:* . The search will never fail because the *doesNotUnderstand:* -method is defined in the root class. Once the search has succeeded, the VM creates an activation record (another object) and puts it on the stack. It then begins executing the method’s byte codes in the context of the activation record. The method’s byte codes can send a message to an identified receiver object, and the story repeats itself.

The `<2232>actD` object responds to the *frontload:* operation. The corresponding method is stored in the *methodDict* attribute of the `<0148>Activity` class object. The `<2232>actD` object also responds to the *inspect* method that is stored in the `<0002>Object` class object. Both of them are visible to the collaborators of the `<2232>actD` object as bona fide operations on that object.

There are two important kinds of relationships in figure 27; the *instanceOf* and the *subclassOf* relationships. The implementation of an object consists of one *instanceOf* relation to its class object, followed by any number of *subclassOf* relations up the superclass chain. The two kinds of relations can easily be confused by the unwary.

For example, the features of the `<2232>actD` object are stored in attributes in its class object, `<0148>Activity` with its superclasses. Correspondingly, the features of the `<0148>Activity` class object are stored in attributes of its class object, its *metaclass* (not shown in figure 27). The “off by one” is here a potential source of extreme confusion. I look at an object, its features are in the attributes of its class object. A look at the class, its features are in the attributes of the metaclass. It is hard to see where the UML class symbol fits in. It does not symbolize the instance, because the instance is a merge of all classes in the superclass chain. It is does not symbolize the class object, because the features shown in the UML symbol are not features of the class object. The conclusion is that the UML class symbol represents the source code and is inappropriate for describing run time objects in a stored program object computer. The motivation for introducing the BabyIDE object notation discussed in section 3B was to avoid this confusion.

The class object `<0148>Activity` has its own provided operations with the corresponding methods. In the default Smalltalk implementation, it responds to the message *compile:* . The corresponding method is a compiler that translates source code into a *CompiledMethod* and installs it into the *methodDict* for later execution by an instance of this class. In BabyIDE, I will use this feature to provide different compilers for
different languages, new or old. The CompiledMethod has a link to its source code, thus making it possible to close the loop of figure 22.

6D The BabyIDE Laboratory Implementation

We argued for the choice of Smalltalk for implementing BabyIDE in section 6C. The choice of its Squeak dialect is harder. It is fairly easy to learn the semantics and syntax of the Smalltalk programming language, but it can be frustrating to become familiar with its pragmatics and class libraries. Squeak is even more frustrating because it is evolving very rapidly and includes a large number of undocumented features in different states of completion. But the advantages far outweigh the objections:

- The most important argument is that there is a very active and creative community around Squeak. Many ideas and even programs that are useful to BabyIDE are to be found in the Squeak program libraries and mailing lists.
- Squeak is open source; there are no obstacles to the distribution of the BabyIDE laboratory to anybody who might want to experiment with it.
- The Squeak VM is also open source; the program is written in a subset of Smalltalk and automatically translated to C. This means that it is feasible to modify the BabyIDE VM if necessary.

Fig. 28: The BabyIDE laboratory is embedded in the Smalltalk object space

![Diagram of Smalltalk Object Space and BabyIDE Objects]

Figure 28 illustrates the BabyIDE implementation. The baby objects have their own classes, metaclasses, and metametaclasses; but they can freely interoperate with regular Smalltalk objects because they conform to the simple VM conventions.
The BabyIDE Layered Architecture

Classes and metaclasses come in pairs in regular Smalltalk. The class object holds the properties of its instances. The corresponding metaclass is needed to hold the features of the class object itself such as its static attributes and methods. Many Smalltalk novices find it hard to distinguish between regular and static attributes and methods. In BabyIDE, we remove the notion of static attributes and methods from the core classes. There is no loss of generality; we can always implement the notions of shared features at a higher abstraction level. The result is a set of clear core constructs that permit us explore new languages and tools for our new discipline of programming.

Every object is an instance of a class. In BabyIDE, this is implemented by every object having a link to its class object. The class is represented by an object that has a link to its class object, the metaclass. Finally, the metaclass object has a link to the metametaclass which is an instance of itself. This idea of a layered architecture is fundamental to BabyIDE semantics, but the exact number of layers depend on circumstances. The core layers from the concrete to the abstract are shown in figure 29:

**M3 - Non-class layer:** Here are the non-class objects, typically application and support objects.

**M2 - Class layer:** Here are the regular classes. Class objects create new instances, act as repositories for information common to these instances, and know how to translate code from a human form to executable binary.

**M1 - Metaclass layer:** Metaclass objects are class objects that have classes as their instances. They serve as repositories for the features that are common to their instances; i.e., a set of classes of the same kind. This ensures that BabyIDE is genuinely extendable because different sets of classes can have different compiles, inspectors, etc.
**M0 - MetaMetaclass layer:** There is a single object in this layer; it is called `BMetaMetaclass`. Directly or indirectly, all BabyIDE objects are instances of this class. `BMetaMetaclass` is an instance of itself so it had to be created by a somewhat tricky program.

Note that the BabyIDE layered architecture is an *instantiation* hierarchy, the implementation of the `<2232>actD` object with its class and metaclasses is shown in figure 30. The figure says that `<2232>actD` has a link to its class object, `<0148>Activity`. Like every other object, this object has a link to its class, `<0101>MetaSimpleClass`. In its turn, this object has a link to its class again, `<0942>MetaMetaclass`, which is an instance of itself.

![Fig. 30: The example instantiation structure](image)

Popular languages such as Java have a single, built-in metaclass plus some trickery to handle static features. We could have made BabyIDE equally constrained by letting `<101>MetaSimpleClass` be an instance of itself, thus terminating the instantiation chain. We want BabyIDE to be extensible with different kinds of classes and different IDEs. We therefore added an additional layer, the `<942>MetaMetaclass` layer. BabyIDE can thus be extended by the addition of new metaclasses. Tool writers can leverage this power to create new concepts.

The orthogonal *class inheritance hierarchy* is a very powerful device for code reuse and code sharing. Figure 31 shows the inheritance hierarchy of the current example. We see that it bears no relationship to the instantiation hierarchy of fig. 30. The inheritance hierarchy can be refactored without changing the system semantics. This particular solution is, therefore, relatively unimportant.

---

1. We use the UML «instance of» to link an object to the object representing its class.
The human mind is well equipped for understanding a hierarchy, but it finds it harder to handle two of them simultaneously. BabyIDE gains its power and extensibility from its four layered instantiation architecture, but application programmers should still only see the familiar class inheritance. The toolmaker can exploit the power of metaclasses to give the application programmer leverage through high-powered concepts and tools.

6D2 Example implementation of the class layer

Every object is an instance of some class. The class of a class object is a metaclass. It is a rich source of confusion that the features of the <2232>actD object are implemented by the objects shown in fig. 27, while the features of the <0148>Activity class object are implemented by the objects shown in fig. 32.
Note that the `<0148>`Activity class object responds to its own messages such as `new` and `compile`. The corresponding methods are found in the class of the class, `<0148>`Metaclass (or actually the `methodDict` of its superclass, `<2528>`Behavior).

A toolmaker challenge is to exploit the power of a flexible instantiation structure without confusing the application programmer by forcing him to work with complex metaclasses.
7 CONCLUSION

The main thrust of the BabyUML project is to create a new discipline of programming where there is a balance between the static classes and the dynamic roles. Current IDEs such as NetBeans give the programmer excellent control over the specification of objects through defining their classes. Dynamic issues are neglected in current IDEs. Yet, the essence of object orientation is that objects interact to reach a desired result. The network example reported in section 4 and section 5 has served to exemplify how structures of interacting objects can realize the MVC and DCA paradigms.

I claim that the MVC and DCA paradigms often will lead to simpler and more readable code. MVC is long proven, DCA has as yet only been applied to the current simple Java problem. I believe both MVC and DCA are valuable as they stand and that it will be well worth while to use them in selected applications.

What remains to be done is to design and implement a programming environment that provides a balance between classes and roles. This will be the BabyIDE that will be built on top of the results reported in this chapter. Its top level architecture is compactly expressed in fig. 11 where a data model closely corresponds to the user’s mental model and a view bridges the gap between the abstract computer data and the user’s brain. Seen in this perspective, application programmers are the users of the tools to be created in the next experiment. The MVC and DCA paradigms will be the metamodels of the programmer’s perception of a program and the and the corresponding program descriptions in the computer. This will give added leverage that improves program readability and reduces program volume. MVC and DCA are but examples; BabyIDE shall be extensible so that it can support many different paradigms.

In my first BabyIDE experiment, I tried treating the UML metaclasses as genuine Smalltalk classes. I failed because there appeared to be a fundamental difference between the UML model of an object and the corresponding run time object. Take the notion of a link. In Smalltalk, it appears as the value of an instance variable. In UML, it appeared to be three interlinked instances: anAssociationEnd, anAssociation, anotherAssociationEnd. I did not find it worth while to continue this, somewhat naïve, approach.

The second experiment was to implement my own versions of class and method objects. This forced me to go deeply into the nature of objects and the fundamental difference between instantiation and generalization. The result of this experiment was the BabyIDE laboratory as reported in section 6. This laboratory forms a powerful and conceptually simple foundation for further development.

I tried to continue the second experiment by populating the BabyIDE laboratory with high level programming tools, but quickly realized that I couldn’t design and build the tools before I fully understood what they were to achieve, i.e., the interacting run time objects. The third experiment was done in order to create
concrete examples of the desired results of the initial BabyIDEs. This *activity network* experiment was done in Java for two reasons. One was to decouple IDE issues from the structures themselves. The other was to communicate some of the BabyUML ideas to a broader community. The result was the MVC and DCA structures reported in section 4 and section 5.

Most of my almost 50 years in computer programming have been devoted to creating tools for people. My success criteria have been the happy and effective user rather than the weighty scientific paper. The success criterion for the BabyUML project is thus the happiness and effectiveness of the programmer. The results of the next experiment will be decisive.

This next and *fourth experiment* will be to return to the BabyIDE laboratory and create high level tools for programming and documenting systems that follow paradigms such as DCA and MVC. I will clearly need to harness imperative, algorithmic programming as well as the declarative definition of data structures. I will need class oriented programming to define the nature of the objects and I will need role modeling to define their interaction. I will also need new debuggers and inspectors to close the loop of figure 22. A great deal of programming is clearly needed, and it is probably far in excess of what can be achieved by a single programmer (me) working alone. So I hope that other people will be inspired to pick up the loose ends from my ideas and experiments to create new and interesting results. There might even be an adventurous person who will join me in realizing the BabyIDE dream.
## 8 REFERENCES.

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The idea and implementation of the Smalltalk stored program object computer is due to Alan Kay, Dan Ingalls, Adele Goldberg and the Smalltalk team at Xerox PARC [Smalltalk]. UML is the combined result of a great number of people. Taken together, they have documented many concepts that are useful for modeling large systems of interacting objects [UML]. I am grateful to Dan Ingalls for helping me create my own class, metaclass, metametaclass and method objects in Squeak. Many thanks to Ragnar Norman for sharing his deep understanding of database technology and for helping me force my brain to think in declarative terms without immediately translating to my usual imperative style. (I apologize for any misrepresentations of his advice). My sincere thanks to Johannes Brodwall for his intelligent support and advice on Java technology. I also thank Øystein Haugen for his thorough commenting of an earlier draft of this chapter.

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