Designing postmodern substrate architectures

Position paper for ‹Programming› 2025's *Software Substrates* workshop

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Abstract Manipulating information with a computer requires reading, transforming and writing that information using a series of constrained encodings in the computer's memory—*information substrates*. However, to perceive and act upon that information, humans need to interact with representations and instruments that differ from the encoded information itself—*interaction substrates*. Reconciling these two types of substrates is difficult: accessing, observing and transforming the underlying digital data is conceptually and technically challenging, especially in the major software architectures in use. To address these difficulties, researchers often suggest replacing various parts of established software with arguably better alternatives, following a *modern* view of computing. In this position paper, I critique this approach and argue in favour of a more *postmodern* view of computing, which acknowledges the diversity of computing in the 21st century and encourages research that embraces the constraints that come with it rather than rejecting them altogether. Following this claim, I give examples of modern failures and postmodern successes and present a few research directions that I explored recently and would like to explore in the future to foster discussions and future collaborations on this topic.

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Computers are, by definition, apparatuses for manipulating information that we encode using sequences of symbols stored in the computer's memory—bits, usually. In modern computers, this manipulation is both mechanised and programmable. It is mechanised as, unlike other tools that we can use to encode information using symbols such as abacuses and paper, moving from one symbolic state to another is the result of the machine executing hardware-enforced instructions that do not (necessarily) require any human intervention. It is also programmable, in the sense that the way symbols are transformed can be changed over time, such as by running a program rather than another.

A consequence of that definition is that any information that we manipulate with a computer—such as a piece of text or an image—must be encoded somewhere, somehow, in some of its memory. Often times, though, a single piece of information is actually encoded in several locations and formats in parallel—in other words, in different *information substrates*. To illustrate this, consider a situation—that I currently experience myself—in which one writes a text document using the LaTeX typesetting system and renders it as PDF using a web-based editor such as Overleaf[1] or Visual Studio Code with a plug-in for previewing the generated PDF in a webview.

In this situation, each encoding serves a different purpose. The content of the document typed by the author is first encoded in the array of String-like objects managed by the text editing component that executes in the webpage. Every time the text changes, the editor updates the DOM, to which the web browser reacts by rendering the page as shapes (following CSS rules) and painting them as pixels to be displayed on the author's screen. Similarly, whenever the document is saved, its content is written as text in a LaTeX file (either locally or on a remote server). The LaTeX compiler that watches for changes is automatically triggered and produces a new PDF file on the same filesystem, whose change is notified to the PDF viewer embedded in the same webpage. The program parses the new PDF into a list of objects, renders them as shapes in a canvas, possibly updating the DOM to, e.g., add invisible text on top to make it selectable, and eventually paints the shapes as pixels.

Although each of these encodings contains different data—either because they encodes the same information in different ways or because some contain extra information—, they are nonetheless kept in sync by the computer. In other words, these transformations are used to enforce *constraints* between substrates. In the above situation, every time the author modifies the LaTeX code, such as by pressing a key on their keyboard, a series of transformations map the hardware interrupt processed by the operating system to an event in the DOM, which is itself processed by a function registered by the text editor's script in order to update the internal array of String-like objects. This change triggers a cascade of transformations to update all the other information substrates that depend on this one, eventually resulting in an updated image on the author's screen. Similarly, whenever the document is saved, a similar series of transformations are automatically performed by the computer to keep the information substrates used by the PDF viewer updated.

[1] https://www.overleaf.com.

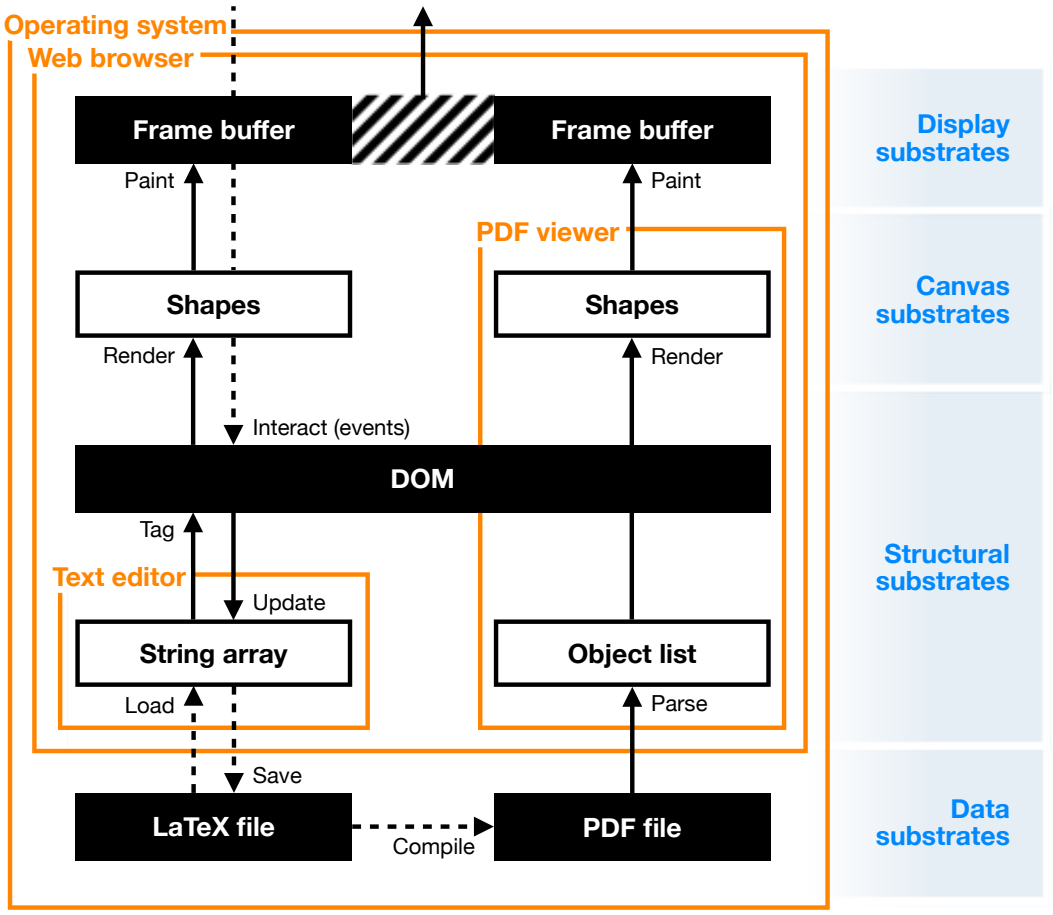

Figure 1 Graph of substrates of the interactive system described in the text. Rectangles represent information substrates that users can either interact with (black rectangles) or not (white rectangles). Arrows represent transformations performed by the machine that maintain constraints between substrates, either automatically (plain arrows) or when the user performs an additional action (dashed arrows). Orange frames represent independent systems that manage the substrates they enclose. Information substrates are vertically arranged according to the type of interaction substrates that can be used to interact with them, which are listed in blue on the right.

Taken together, the information substrates and their inter-dependencies form a graph, depicted in Figure 1, in which each encoding is a node and each arrow is a transformation between two encodings. Different encodings (and their related constraints) are managed by different subsystems running on the computer, shown as orange rectangles on the diagram. A key characteristic of these subsystems is that they are usually not aware of the encodings managed by other subsystems, even when they depend on them. For example, although the web browser is responsible for managing the memory used by the text editor and the PDF viewer programs, it has no understanding of the idiosyncratic meaning of the information that the programmer encodes and manipulates in this memory using JavaScript.

However, when we humans think about and interact with a computer, we usually only consider a limited subset of this graph of substrates, shown as black rectangles in Figure 1. There is no inherent reason for only being able to interact with only some of these substrates; it is only a matter of providing the human user with appropriate representations and instruments for doing so—or, as Mackay and Beaudouin-Lafon call them, *interaction substrates* [15]. Interaction substrates are equally meant to belong to this graph, but unlike information substrates, they are meant to be used by humans rather than by computers. As a consequence, we must be able to perceive the information they contain using output peripherals (such as screens and loudspeakers) and/or act upon it using input peripherals (such as mice and keyboards). This means that any information substrate can be exposed to a user as long as the data it contains can be mapped to the appropriate interaction substrate. In the figure, this is depicted by classifying each information substrate into one of the four categories of interaction substrates (shown in blue) proposed by Mackay and Beaudouin-Lafon [15, fig. 8] according to the type of information it contains.

To use a certain interaction substrate S_1 implemented in system X to interact with the data D contained in and constrained by a certain information substrate S_2 implemented in system Y, the underlying systems must exhibit a number of properties: readability (R), interpretability (I), observability (O) and writeability (W). In order to present D to the user via S_1, X must be able to read the memory that contains D (R), interpret the format it is encoded in (I) and observe changes that may occur in it (O). In addition, to let users modify D, S_1 must be able to write D in such a way that S_2 is notified of every modification performed by S_1 (W + O).

Achieving these properties is easier in certain types of programming systems than in others [10]. For example, using Smalltalk [9] as an operating system guarantees that every object is globally accessible by any other object and encoded in the same format. Since substrates must be implemented as objects, any substrate can read, interpret and write any other substrate they get a hold onto. In addition, while Smalltalk's object properties are not reactive by default, they can be made observable by exploiting the high level of reflexivity supported by the system. The high level of malleability permitted by this architecture is well demonstrated in the Glamorous Toolkit,[2] a

[2] https://gtoolkit.com.

system based on Pharo[3] (a modern Smalltalk implementation) that encourages users to systematically create ad-hoc representations for every piece of digital information they reason about in their minds, a paradigm called *moldable development*.

Although they were visionary back in the 1970s and keep being developed and researched nowadays, this type of system is very different from those that constitutes most of the computing of the early 21st century. Today, all the major operating systems in use strongly isolate the different subsystems they execute from each other (think Unix processes). In these systems, unless two subsystems were specifically designed to exchange information (using, e.g., an IPC channel provided by the OS), even achieving readability or writeability has become challenging. Moreover, apart from a few common file formats, the information processed in these systems is encoded in very diverse ways, making interpretation not only costly but also extremely case-specific—and therefore hard to reuse across situations—, as illustrated by the difficulty to implement mechanisms such as foreign function interfaces, which let a programmer call a function written in a different language than the one they program in.[4] Despite some attempts to break walls between subsystems in a systematic way, as did Apple with OpenDoc and Microsoft with OLE, no such attempt succeeded. As a result, the few main ways to let subsystems communicate together that are in use today rely on mechanisms that are old and standard enough to be available on every major operating system: file systems and network protocols.

In light of these observations, stances from researchers can be arranged on an ideological axis ranging between two opposite views of computing: modernism and postmodernism. Modern computing supports unified visions of what computing should be and argues in favour of replacing what exists with something designed to be inherently better: a new programming language, a new data format, a new operating system, etc. For example, a modern viewpoint may argue that since operating systems in which everything is an object are more adapted for interacting with any piece of data with the interaction substrate of our choosing, we shall replace the operating systems we already use everywhere with something closer to Smalltalk to address the limitations we currently face. In contrast, postmodern computing, which may be characterised by *the absence of a "grand narrative"* [16, p. 8], encourages to adapt to the computing world as it currently is by designing *for*—rather than *against*—the constraints we inherit from the stack of established practices and technologies we must deal with, such as programming using plain text and common data formats.

The story of JavaScript is a good example of postmodern computing. Although it was initially created for simple scripting and designed during a 10 days rush in 1995 [19, §2.2], it has become one of the most popular programming technologies in use today. Despite its imperfections, JavaScript was never replaced by arguably "better" alternatives (among which ActiveX, Flash, Silverlight, etc.) that all ceased to exist. Instead, by accepting that JavaScript was here to stay and by acknowledging

[3] https://pharo.org.

[4] Polyglot runtime environments such as GraalVM (https://www.graalvm.org) are making this progressively easier, but they are still far from being used at large.

the constraints that came with it, work that we keep benefiting from today was put into *improving*—rather than *replacing*—the user and developer experience, such as by developing interactive inspectors, faster interpreters and gradual type systems.

Can we learn from this story and put the same kind of work in other *things* that are here to stay in order to foster malleability of existing systems, rather than trying to replace them? More specifically, regarding interaction substrates (and operating systems), can we, as Kell [11, §7] puts it, *"accept the complex reality of existing ('found') software, developed in ignorance of our system, and [shift] our system's role to constructing views, including Smalltalk-like ones, of this diverse reality"*? This is the research direction on interaction substrates and their implementations that I want to explore.

In my own doctoral work [6], I worked on augmenting text editors with additional interaction substrates—that I call *projections*—to interact with specific fragments of code that are hard to manipulate as text, such as colours, tables and images. This work led me to implement two systems, *i*-LaTeX [7] and Lorgnette [8], which respectively apply this idea to four kinds of LaTeX fragments and let users freely map any textual or syntactic pattern to any projection provided by the text editor using a specification language. Although I initially believed that complementing text with other notations was novel, I quickly realised that a myriad of related concepts, techniques and software had been developed since the mid-1990s, including intentional programming [18], Barista [13], presentation extension [5], visual syntax [1], mage [12], Livelits [17], notational programming [2] and visual replacements [3]. Yet, putting this long line of work in perspective with the rarity of non-textual projections in the main programming systems in use today [10], as well as my own experience in adding new projections to existing text editors, made me realise that the biggest challenge is perhaps not to establish that completing text with projections can be helpful but to find ways to do so without requiring users and communities to switch to entirely different artifact ecologies in order to benefit from these projections.

Since then, this challenge has made me interested in evolving OS-level concepts that currently hinder malleability and richer interaction using a postmodern approach. For example, the in-memory file system that features real-time collaboration and cross-file reactivity I am currently working on makes me wonder how it could be mounted on a traditional OS file system, therefore enabling users to use any program installed on their system to interact with the files that it contains without having to re-create such software for yet another data format.[5] In addition, I am also increasingly interested in investigating how bringing uni- and bidirectional data format conversion to the operating system could help programmers and users connect software and data that were *not* designed to work together in the first place, a goal that echoes recent work on lenses and schema evolution [4, 14]. I am looking forward to discuss these ideas and issues during the workshop which, I hope, will lead to new ways of thinking about information and interaction substrates and pave the way for fruitful collaborations.

[5] This, in turns, questions what are the minimal non-breaking changes to, e.g., the Linux filesystem API, that are required to make this possible, at least to some extent.

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