

# A Typed Intermediate Language for Compiling Multiple Inheritance

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## Abstract

Type-preserving compilation can improve software reliability by generating code that can be verified independently of the compiler. Practical type-preserving compilation does not exist for languages with multiple inheritance. This paper presents  $E_{MI}$ , the first typed intermediate language to support practical compilation of a programming language with fully general multiple inheritance. The paper demonstrates the practicality of  $E_{MI}$  by showing that  $E_{MI}$  can be used to faithfully model standard implementation strategies of multiple inheritance for C++, the most widely-used programming language with general multiple inheritance.

**Categories and Subject Descriptors** D.3.3 [Programming Languages]: Language Constructs and Features—Classes and Objects; D.3.1 [Programming Languages]: Formal Definitions and Theory

**General Terms** Languages

**Keywords** Typed intermediate language, class and object encoding, multiple inheritance

## 1. Introduction

Type-preserving compilation can improve software reliability by generating code that can be verified independently of the compiler [15, 12, 9]. Techniques for practical type-preserving compilation, however, do not exist for programming languages with multiple inheritance, such as C++, Eiffel, SELF, Cecil, and CLOS.

This paper describes  $E_{MI}$  (E<sub>n</sub>coding for Multiple Inheritance), the first typed intermediate language to support practical compilation of a programming language with fully general multiple inheritance. It demonstrates the practicality of  $E_{MI}$  by showing that  $E_{MI}$  can be used to faithfully model standard implementation strategies of multiple inheritance for C++, the most widely-used programming language with general multiple inheritance.

In a language with multiple inheritance, a class may have multiple superclasses. A subclass object contains embedded objects for superclasses. Standard single-inheritance techniques assume that an object and its embedded superclass object can share the same base location within the object. With multiple inheritance, this is impossible when there is more than one embedded superclass object. Furthermore, there are different ways of handling multiple em-

bedded objects of the same superclass. Repeated inheritance allows multiple copies of the same superclass in a subclass object. Shared inheritance (virtual inheritance in C++) has only one shared copy of a superclass, even if the subclass inherits the superclass more than once. Languages may allow both types of inheritance in the same subclass. With repeated inheritance, a single class name is not sufficient to distinguish embedded objects because a subclass object may have several embedded objects for the same superclass, inherited via different ancestors.

To handle these difficulties,  $E_{MI}$  introduces paths—sequences of class names—to describe the location of an embedded object. At compile time, most objects have unknown runtime types and paths.  $E_{MI}$  uses path abstractions to represent those objects.  $E_{MI}$  introduces special address arithmetic expressions to model pointer adjustment that may occur during casting and dynamic dispatch (so that we can adjust a pointer to a subclass object to point to an embedded superclass object, or vice versa).

$E_{MI}$  borrows some concepts from  $LIL_C$ , a typed intermediate language for compiling object-oriented languages with single inheritance of classes (presented in our previous POPL paper [4]). Specifically, it preserves name-based notions such as classes and subclassing, as  $LIL_C$  does.  $E_{MI}$  also borrows notions such as exact classes and subclassing-bounded quantification. However, it differs from  $LIL_C$  in representing objects and inheritance.

Prior work on typed compilation of languages with multiple inheritance is not suitable for practical compilers. It does not address implementation details such as object layout and pointer adjustment. Some work requires non-standard semantics or implementation strategies. More discussion is in Section 5.

In the rest of the paper, Section 2 gives an informal overview of  $E_{MI}$ . The next two sections explain the syntax and semantics. Section 5 discusses related work. Section 6 concludes.

A type-preserving translation from a source language to  $E_{MI}$ , the complete semantics of  $E_{MI}$ , and the proofs of properties of  $E_{MI}$  are presented in a companion technical report [2].

## 2. Overview

This section describes  $E_{MI}$  informally. For simplicity,  $E_{MI}$  focuses on only core features and omits non-virtual methods, static members, constructors, access control, arrays, local variable assignment, etc. We use capital letters  $A$ - $E$  to range over class names.

We first describe a typical object layout for multiple inheritance. In an object of class  $E$ , the embedded objects for  $E$ 's direct superclasses are listed in declaration order and followed by fields introduced in  $E$ . Each embedded object has a pointer to a corresponding vtable. A subclass object can share the vtable with the embedded object if the two objects share addresses. Figure 1 shows the layout of a class  $E$  that inherits both  $C$  and  $D$ . The notations  $f$  and  $m$  with a class name subscript mean fields and virtual methods introduced

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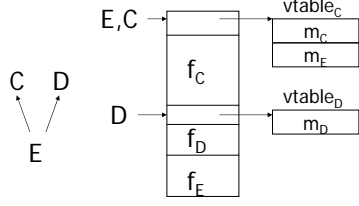


Figure 1. Multiple Inheritance

by the class respectively. The embedded  $C$  object is followed by the  $D$  object and then by  $f_E$ . The embedded  $C$  object and the  $E$  object share a vtable that contains virtual methods introduced by  $C$  and  $E$ .

Typically, casting a subclass object to a superclass object requires changing the value of the object pointer. For example, to cast an  $E$  object to the superclass  $D$ , we need to add an offset to the value of the object pointer. The offset is the difference between  $E$  and  $D$ . A virtual method call is similar, in that an adjustment may be needed before passing the object to the virtual method. Note that for an embedded object that shares the address with the subclass object, no adjustment is necessary. For example, casting the  $E$  object to superclass  $C$  does not need to change the object pointer.

With repeated inheritance, a subclass object may have multiple embedded objects for the same superclass. Figure 2 shows that if both  $C$  and  $D$  inherit a class  $A$ , then an  $E$  object has two embedded  $A$  objects, one for  $C$  and the other for  $D$ . Class name  $A$  is not sufficient to identify the two  $A$  objects.

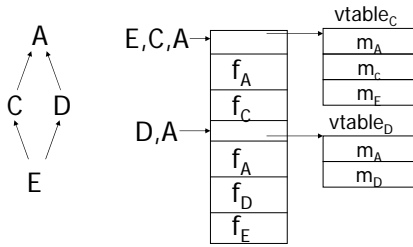


Figure 2. Repeated Inheritance

## 2.1 Basic Ideas of $E_{MI}$

$E_{MI}$ , like  $LIL_C$ , carries class types all the way through compilation. It uses record types to represent the actual layout of an object. Objects and records of the corresponding record type may be coerced to each other without any runtime effect. Objects are lightweight and are preserved only to simplify the type system.

For each class  $C$ , a record type  $R(C)$  describes the layout of  $C$ .  $R$  is not a type constructor in  $E_{MI}$ , but a “macro” used by the type checker. The layout in Figure 1 is represented as follows.

$$R(E) = \{C : \{vtable : \text{Ptr}\{m_C, m_E\}, f_C\}, \\ D : \{vtable : \text{Ptr}\{m_D\}, f_D\}, f_E\}$$

The top-level fields  $C$  and  $D$  in  $R(E)$  describe the layouts of the corresponding embedded objects. These fields are themselves records, which are “inlined” into their enclosing record. Thus, the fields in  $C$  and  $D$  ( $f_C$  and  $f_D$ ) are at fixed offsets from the beginning of the  $E$  object.

To represent indirection,  $E_{MI}$  has pointer types: pointer type “ $\text{Ptr } \tau$ ” represents pointers to heap values of type  $\tau$ . These are used in this example to represent the indirections to the vtables.

$E_{MI}$  uses **paths**—sequences of class names—to uniquely identify embedded objects.  $P$  and  $Q$  range over paths. A path  $P$  lists all intermediate classes between two classes  $\tau_s$  and  $\tau_e$  ( $\tau_s$  must be a

subclass of  $\tau_e$ ), represented as  $P : (\tau_s, \tau_e)$ . We say that  $P$  is from  $\tau_s$  to  $\tau_e$ . For example, in Figure 2 the two  $A$  objects have paths  $E :: C :: A$  and  $E :: D :: A$  respectively. Both paths are from  $E$  to  $A$  and they differ only in intermediate classes.

A path with a single class name  $C$  means a *complete*  $C$  object, which is not embedded in another object.  $E_{MI}$  uses class names as labels in record type  $R(C)$ , so that the path of an embedded object corresponds to the label sequence to fetch the object in  $R(C)$ . The layout of class  $E$  in Figure 2 is:

$$R(E) = \{C : \{A : \{vtable : \text{Ptr}\{m_A, m_C, m_E\}, f_A\}, f_C\}, \\ D : \{A : \{vtable : \text{Ptr}\{m_A, m_D\}, f_A\}, f_D\}, f_E\}$$

Following the label sequence “ $C, A$ ” in  $R(E)$  we can get the layout of the embedded  $A$  object with path  $E :: C :: A$ .

Note that vtable access may require the use of a path. This occurs when an object shares its vtable with a superclass. In general, each object shares its vtable with its **first** non-virtual superclass in declaration order. One can find the vtable by following the chain of first non-virtual superclasses until one reaches a class with no non-virtual superclasses. For example, the vtable of the  $E$  object can be accessed with path  $E :: C :: A$ .

In  $E_{MI}$ , paths are used as types of objects. The path of an object starts from the runtime type of the enclosing object and leads to the object. We need this generality because an object with source type  $C$  may be a complete  $C$  object, or an embedded  $C$  object in a subclass object. In turn, using paths as object types allows us to ensure the safety of dynamic dispatch.

$E_{MI}$  uses existential types with path abstraction to describe objects with statically unknown paths. An object with source type  $C$  has type  $\exists \alpha \ll C. \exists \rho : (\alpha, C). \rho$  in  $E_{MI}$ , read as “there exists a type  $\alpha$  which is a subclass of  $C$  and a path  $\rho$  which is from  $\alpha$  to  $C$ , and the object has path  $\rho$ ”. The notation “ $\ll$ ” means subclassing. The type variable  $\alpha$  identifies the object’s runtime type, which must be a subclass of  $C$ . The path variable  $\rho$  abstracts the path of the object, which is from  $\alpha$  to  $C$ .

If an object has a statically unknown runtime type and path, its layout is only partially known at compile time. For example, the object might share the vtable with an enclosing subclass object and thus the vtable might contain methods for the unknown subclass.

The record type  $\text{Approx}R(P)$  describes the approximate layout of objects with path  $P : (\tau, C)$  where  $P$  can be concrete or abstract.  $\text{Approx}R(P)$  is very similar to  $R(C)$ . The two types differ in “this” pointer types (Section 2.2) and embedded virtual superclass objects (Section 2.3).

$E_{MI}$  has two expressions for pointer adjustment between superclass and subclass objects. Suppose  $P : (\tau, E)$  and  $D$  is a “direct” non-virtual superclass of  $E$ , that is,  $E$ ’s declaration lists  $D$  as one of its superclasses. If a pointer  $o$  points to an  $E$  object with path  $P$ , expression “ $o \oplus D$ ” adjusts  $o$  to a pointer to the embedded  $D$  object with path  $P :: D$ . At run time, the expression adds to  $o$  the offset between  $E$  and  $D$ . Adjusting to superclasses higher in the class hierarchy is done by chaining such expressions. Expression “ $o' \ominus D$ ” adjusts back: if  $o'$  points to an embedded  $D$  object with path  $P :: D$ , the expression adjusts  $o'$  to an  $E$  pointer with path  $P$ .

## 2.2 “This” Pointer Types

Each virtual method has a hidden parameter “this”. Calling method  $m$  on an object  $o$  is translated to calling  $m$  with the pointer to  $o$  as “this”. If a class  $C$  introduces a method  $m$ , the vtable of a  $C$  object (complete or embedded) has an entry for  $m$ . The entry expects a  $C$  pointer as “this”. To call  $m$  on a subclass object, the compiler inserts code to adjust the subclass object to  $C$ . A challenge of typed intermediate languages for OO languages is to give “this” pointers appropriate types to guarantee the safety of dynamic dispatch.

Both runtime types and paths are important in “this” pointer types. Suppose in Figure 2 the class  $A$  introduces a method  $f_{oo}$

with implementation  $foo_A$  and only class  $C$  overrides  $foo$  with  $foo_C$ . The  $foo$  method fetched from the embedded object with path  $E :: C :: A$  calls  $foo_C$ , which might access fields introduced in  $C$ . Therefore, the “this” pointer in the method cannot point to an arbitrary  $A$  object: it is unsafe to use a pointer to a complete  $A$  object or to the embedded  $A$  object with path  $E :: D :: A$ .

Multiple inheritance may require “this” pointer adjustment when subclasses override virtual methods. In the above example, the implementation  $foo_C$  in class  $C$  expects a  $C$  pointer. But the  $foo$  method in the vtable of the embedded object with path  $E :: C :: A$  expects an  $A$  pointer. One standard strategy is to put an “adjuster thunk” for  $foo$  in the vtable of the embedded  $A$  object. The thunk converts a pointer to an  $A$  object that is embedded in a  $C$  object to a  $C$  pointer, and calls  $foo_C$  on the  $C$  pointer.

The adjustment involves two kinds of “this” pointers: for method implementations and for thunks (methods in vtables). Subclasses can inherit method implementations in superclasses. Therefore, the “this” pointer of a method implementation in class  $C$  (e.g.  $foo_C$ ) is given type  $\exists \alpha \ll C. \exists \rho : (\alpha, C). \text{Ptr } \rho$ , representing pointers to any  $C$  objects, complete or embedded.

For a thunk in the vtable of an object with path  $P$ , the “this” pointer has type  $\text{Ptr } P$ , representing only pointers to objects with the same path  $P$ . In the vtable of the object with path  $E :: C :: A$ , the thunk for  $foo$  has “this” pointer type  $\text{Ptr } (E :: C :: A)$ . No subclass objects are allowed because of virtual inheritance (see Section 2.3).

Thunks adjust “this” and then call method implementations. We show the three cases of thunks with the above  $foo$  example:

**Overriding** Class  $C$  overrides  $foo$  with implementation  $foo_C$ . The “this” pointer in  $foo_C$  has type  $\exists \alpha \ll C. \exists \rho : (\alpha, C). \text{Ptr } \rho$ . The thunk for the embedded  $A$  object in  $C$  adjusts “this” (with path  $E :: C :: A$ ) to a  $C$  pointer  $this_C$  and then passes it (after packing to the existential type required by  $foo_C$ ) to  $foo_C$ :

$$\begin{aligned} &foo : (this : \text{Ptr } (E :: C :: A), \dots) \{ \\ &\quad this_C = this \ominus A; \\ &\quad foo_C(\text{pack } this_C \text{ to } \exists \alpha \ll C. \exists \rho : (\alpha, C). \text{Ptr } \rho, \dots); \} \end{aligned}$$

**Inheriting** Class  $D$  inherits  $foo_A$  from  $A$ . The “this” pointer in  $foo_A$  has type  $\exists \alpha \ll A. \exists \rho : (\alpha, A). \text{Ptr } \rho$ . The embedded  $A$  object in  $D$  has path  $E :: D :: A$  and its vtable has a thunk for  $foo$  with “this” pointer type  $\text{Ptr } (E :: D :: A)$ . The thunk packs “this” and calls  $foo_A$ :

$$\begin{aligned} &foo : (this : \text{Ptr } (E :: D :: A), \dots) \{ \\ &\quad foo_A(\text{pack } this \text{ to } \exists \alpha \ll A. \exists \rho : (\alpha, A). \text{Ptr } \rho, \dots); \} \end{aligned}$$

**Same class** Class  $A$  introduces method  $foo$  with implementation  $foo_A$ . The thunk for  $foo$  in the vtable of a complete  $A$  object has “this” pointer type  $\text{Ptr } A$ . The thunk simply packs the “this” pointer and calls  $foo_A$ :

$$\begin{aligned} &foo : (this : \text{Ptr } A, \dots) \{ \\ &\quad foo_A(\text{pack } this \text{ to } \exists \alpha \ll A. \exists \rho : (\alpha, A). \text{Ptr } \rho, \dots); \} \end{aligned}$$

The thunks in the last two cases only change “this” pointer types. They can share the same address with  $foo_A$  to avoid calls to  $foo_A$  because “pack” is a runtime no-op.

### 2.3 Virtual Inheritance

With virtual inheritance, a subclass object has only one embedded object of a superclass if the subclass inherits the superclass multiple times. Figure 3 shows a class hierarchy with virtual inheritance. Dotted lines mean virtual inheritance. Both  $C$  and  $D$  virtually inherit  $B$ . Any  $E$  object has only one embedded  $B$  object, although  $E$  inherits  $B$  from both  $C$  and  $D$ . The challenge is to let the embedded  $C$  and  $D$  objects share the same  $B$  object in  $E$ . A standard strategy is to put embedded objects for virtual superclasses at the end of subclass objects. As a result, the offset between a  $C$

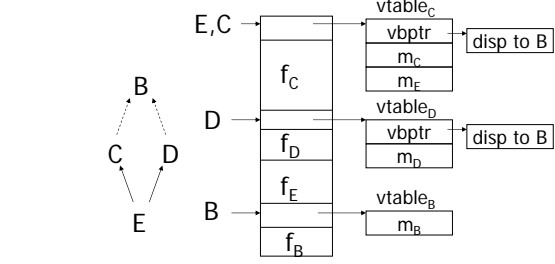


Figure 3. Virtual Inheritance

object and its embedded  $B$  object depends on the runtime type. The offset in a complete  $C$  object is different from the one in a complete  $E$  object. Each  $C$  object stores the offset and computes at run time the location of its embedded  $B$  object.

In  $E_{MI}$ , each vtable has a virtual base pointer (**vbptr**), which points to a table of offsets between the object where the vtable is fetched and embedded virtual superclass objects.<sup>1</sup> In the layout of class  $E$  in Figure 3, the vtable for  $C$  (or  $D$ ) contains a vbptr that points to a one-entry table and the entry is the offset between  $C$  (or  $D$ ) and  $B$ .

Virtual superclasses are “flattened” in the sense that, if class  $E$  inherits  $C$  (virtually or not), and  $C$  has a virtual superclass  $B$ , then  $E$  has a virtual superclass  $B$ . In Figure 3, the  $B$  object is not embedded in  $C$ , but at the same level as the  $C$  object.

Paths that involve virtual superclasses use a pseudo class name **VB** to separate virtual superclasses from non-virtual ones. In Figure 3, the  $B$  object in  $E$  has path  $E :: VB :: B$ . If  $E$  also has a non-virtual superclass  $B$ , the  $B$  object with the non-virtual inheritance would have a different path  $E :: B$ . Because virtual superclasses are flattened, **VB** must follow runtime types of objects. “ $E :: C :: VB :: B$ ” is invalid.

Casting a subclass object to a virtual superclass includes several steps: (1) get the vtable from the object; (2) get the vbptr from the vtable; (3) get the offset that corresponds to the target in the vbptr; (4) add the offset to the object.

$E_{MI}$  has special expressions for address arithmetic related to virtual inheritance. Expression “ $\text{disp}(P_1, P_2)$ ” is a constant representing the offset between two objects with concrete paths (and statically known runtime types). Path  $P_1$  represents a subclass object. Path  $P_2$  represents a virtual superclass object and must be of format  $E :: VB :: B$ . The expression has type “ $\text{Disp}(P_1, P_2)$ ”. Suppose  $e_2$  has type  $\text{Disp}(P_1, P_2)$ . Expression “ $e_1 \uplus e_2$ ” adjusts  $e_1$  with path  $P_1$  to a virtual superclass object with path  $P_2$ , by adding  $e_2$  to  $e_1$ . Expression “ $e_1 \ominus e_2$ ” is the dual operation and it subtracts  $e_2$  from  $e_1$  if  $e_1$  points to the virtual superclass object.

$R(E)$  and  $\text{Approx}R(P)$  for the class  $E$  in Figure 3 and  $P : (\tau, E)$  are defined as follows.

$$\begin{aligned} R(E) = & \{C : \{vtable : \text{Ptr}\{vbptr : \text{Ptr}\{B : \text{Disp}(E :: C, E :: VB :: B)\}, \\ & \quad m_C, m_E\}, f_C\}, \\ & D : \{vtable : \text{Ptr}\{vbptr : \text{Ptr}\{B : \text{Disp}(E :: D, E :: VB :: B)\}, \\ & \quad m_D\}, f_D\}, f_E, \\ & VB : \{B : \{vtable : \text{Ptr}\{m_B\}, f_B\}\} \\ \text{Approx}R(P) = & \{C : \{vtable : \text{Ptr}\{vbptr : \text{Ptr}\{B : \text{Disp}(P :: C, \tau :: VB :: B)\}, \\ & \quad m_C, m_E\}, f_C\}, \\ & D : \{vtable : \text{Ptr}\{vbptr : \text{Ptr}\{B : \text{Disp}(P :: D, \tau :: VB :: B)\}, \\ & \quad m_D\}, f_D\}, f_E \} \end{aligned}$$

<sup>1</sup> Microsoft Visual C++ puts the vbptr in objects (instead of in vtables) and the offsets are from the address of the “vbptr” to the virtual superclass objects [7]. Another approach stores offsets in method entries of vtables [8, 14].  $E_{MI}$  can model both approaches easily.

The two record types differ in “this” pointer types and in types for the offsets in  $\text{vbptr}$ . Also  $\text{Approx}R(P)$  does not contain the embedded  $B$  object because the location of the  $B$  object is statically unknown. The  $B$  object is accessed through offsets in  $\text{vbptr}$ .

“**This**” pointer With virtual inheritance, “this” pointers are typed the same way as with repeated inheritance. Note that if a class  $E$  overrides a method  $\text{foo}$  introduced in a virtual superclass  $B$  with implementation  $\text{foo}_E$ , the thunk in the vtable of the embedded  $B$  object needs to adjust a  $B$  pointer to an  $E$  pointer to call  $\text{foo}_E$ . This adjustment is possible only when the runtime type of the  $B$  object is statically known. The  $B$  object does not contain the offset to adjust itself to  $E$ . Therefore, “this” pointers in thunks have concrete paths, not existential types that hide runtime types and paths.

The thunk in the embedded  $B$  object has a “this” pointer type  $\text{Ptr}(E :: \text{VB} :: B)$ . The thunk subtracts the offset  $\text{disp}(E, E :: \text{VB} :: B)$  from “this” and gets an  $E$  pointer  $\text{this}_E$ . Then it calls  $\text{foo}_E$  after packing  $\text{this}_E$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \text{foo} &:: (\text{this} : \text{Ptr}(E :: \text{VB} :: B), \dots) \{ \\ &\quad \text{this}_E = \text{this} \ominus \text{disp}(E, E :: \text{VB} :: B); \\ &\quad \text{foo}_E(\text{pack } \text{this}_E \text{ to } \exists \alpha \ll E. \exists \rho : (\alpha, E). \text{Ptr } \rho, \dots); \} \end{aligned}$$

### 3. Syntax

This section describes the formal syntax of  $E_{MI}$ . Kinds and types are as follows.

$$\begin{aligned} \kappa &::= \Omega \mid \Omega_c \mid \Omega_1 \\ P &::= \rho \mid C \mid C :: \text{VB} :: B \mid \alpha :: \text{VB} :: B \mid P :: C \\ \tau &::= \text{int} \mid P \mid \text{Ptr}^\phi \tau \mid \{l_i^{\phi_i} : \tau_i\}_{i=1}^n \mid (\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n) \rightarrow \tau \\ &\quad \mid \alpha \mid \exists \rho : (\tau_s, \tau_e). \tau \mid \exists \alpha \ll \tau. \tau' \mid \text{Disp}(P_1, P_2) \\ \phi &::= I \mid M \end{aligned}$$

A special kind  $\Omega_c$  classifies class names and type variables that will be instantiated with class names. Well-formedness of types requires that certain types have kind  $\Omega_c$ , for example, the bounds of type variables and path variables. Kind  $\Omega_1$  classifies word-sized types to guarantee that the heap is updated one word at a time.  $\Omega_c$  and  $\Omega_1$  are subkinds of  $\Omega$ .

Paths are used to type objects. A path is a path variable  $\rho$ , a class name  $C$ , a path from a class to a virtual superclass  $C :: \text{VB} :: B$ , a path from a type variable to a virtual superclass  $\alpha :: \text{VB} :: B$ , or appending a class name to a path  $P :: C$ . A path can only be a sequence of class names, or a path variable or a type variable followed by a sequence of class names.  $\text{VB}$  must appear between the runtime type of an object (a class name or a type variable) and a virtual superclass (another class name).

$E_{MI}$  has standard types such as pointer type “ $\text{Ptr}^\phi \tau$ ”, record type “ $\{l_i^{\phi_i} : \tau_i\}_{i=1}^n$ ”, and function type “ $(\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n) \rightarrow \tau$ ” to represent object layout, vtable, and virtual methods.

Pointers and fields in record types have mutability annotations.  $\text{Ptr}^M \tau$  means the pointed-to value can be modified to a new value of type  $\tau$ . The annotation  $I$  means immutable. Annotations on field labels mean mutability of the corresponding fields. In  $E_{MI}$ , pointers to (embedded) objects, the vtable pointer, fields in the vtable, and the “this” pointers are immutable. All other fields and pointers are mutable. We often omit the annotation  $I$ .

$E_{MI}$  uses existential types that abstract unknown types and paths to represent objects. A source type  $C$  is translated to an existential type  $\exists \alpha \ll C. \exists \rho : (\alpha, C). \rho$  in  $E_{MI}$ . Type “ $\exists \alpha \ll \tau. \tau'$ ” introduces a type variable  $\alpha$  with a subclassing bound  $\tau$ . Type “ $\exists \rho : (\tau_s, \tau_e). \tau$ ” introduces a path variable  $\rho$  from  $\tau_s$  to  $\tau_e$ . Universal types are not needed in  $E_{MI}$  and can be added easily. Type “ $\text{Disp}(P_1, P_2)$ ” represents the offset between two embedded objects with paths  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  respectively. It is used to type offsets in the virtual base table.

Expressions and values are as follows.

$$\begin{aligned} e &::= x \mid n \mid \text{null}^\tau \mid \ell \mid \text{new}[\tau] \mid e.l \mid *e \mid *e_1 := e_2 \text{ in } e_3 \\ &\quad \mid x : \tau = e_1 \text{ in } e_2 \mid e(e_1, \dots, e_n) \mid C(e) \mid \text{c2r}(e) \\ &\quad \mid (\alpha, x) = \text{open}(e_1) \text{ in } e_2 \mid (\rho, x) = \text{open}(e_1) \text{ in } e_2 \\ &\quad \mid \text{pack } \tau \text{ as } \alpha \ll \tau_u \text{ in } (e : \tau') \\ &\quad \mid \text{pack } P \text{ as } \rho : (\tau_s, \tau_e) \text{ in } (e : \tau) \mid e \bullet P \\ &\quad \mid e \oplus C \mid e \ominus C \mid e_1 \uplus e_2 \mid e_1 \cup e_2 \mid \text{disp}(P_1, P_2) \\ v &::= n \mid \ell \mid C(v) \bullet P \mid v.l \mid \text{pack } \tau \text{ as } \alpha \ll \tau_u \text{ in } (v : \tau') \\ &\quad \mid \text{null}^\tau \mid \text{pack } P \text{ as } \rho : (\tau_s, \tau_e) \text{ in } (v : \tau) \mid \text{disp}(P_1, P_2) \\ hw &::= \text{recd} \mid \text{fix } g(x_i : \tau_i)_{i=1}^n : \tau = e_m \\ \text{recd} &::= \{l_i = v_i \mid l_i = \text{recd}_i\}_{i=1}^n \end{aligned}$$

$E_{MI}$  has standard expressions such as variable “ $x$ ”, integer “ $n$ ”, null pointer “ $\text{null}^\tau$ ”, label “ $\ell$ ”, record allocation “ $\text{new}[\tau]$ ”, field fetch “ $e.l$ ”, pointer dereference “ $*e$ ”, assignment “ $*e_1 := e_2 \text{ in } e_3$ ”, let binding “ $x : \tau = e_1 \text{ in } e_2$ ”, and function call “ $e(e_1, \dots, e_n)$ ”. Record allocation “ $\text{new}[\tau]$ ” allocates a record of type  $\tau$  on the heap and initializes each field with the default value of the field type. Expression “ $e.l$ ” returns an interior pointer to the field  $l$  of a record pointed to by  $e$ . Expression “ $*e_1 := e_2 \text{ in } e_3$ ” assigns  $e_2$  as the new content of pointer  $e_1$ .  $E_{MI}$  uses “ $(e.l)$ ” to return the value of the field  $l$  of  $e$  and “ $(*(e.l)) := e_2 \text{ in } e_3$ ” to assign the field.

Expressions “ $C(e)$ ” and “ $\text{c2r}(e)$ ” are coercions between object pointers and record pointers. The former coerces a record pointer  $e$  to a  $C$  pointer and the latter coerces an object pointer to a record pointer. To create a  $C$  object, we allocate a record of type  $R(C)$  using “ $\text{new}[R(C)]$ ”, assign values to fields, and coerce the record pointer to an object pointer using “ $C(e)$ ”. To fetch a field or to call a method, we first use “ $\text{c2r}(e)$ ” to coerce the object pointer  $e$  to a record pointer. These coercions have no runtime cost.

The pack and open expressions introduce and eliminate existential types respectively. Expressions “ $\text{pack } \tau \text{ as } \alpha \ll \tau_u \text{ in } (e : \tau')$ ” hides a type  $\tau$  bounded by  $\tau_u$  with a type variable  $\alpha$  in  $e$ . Expression “ $(\alpha, x) = \text{open}(e_1) \text{ in } e_2$ ” opens a package  $e_1$  and introduces  $\alpha$  for the hidden type. Both  $\alpha$  and  $x$  are in scope in  $e_2$ . Expression “ $\text{pack } P \text{ as } \rho : (\tau_s, \tau_e) \text{ in } (e : \tau)$ ” hides path  $P$  from  $\tau_s$  to  $\tau_e$  with path variable  $\rho$  in expression  $e$ . Expression “ $(\rho, x) = \text{open}(e_1) \text{ in } e_2$ ” opens  $e_1$  and introduces a path variable  $\rho$  for the hidden path and a value variable  $x$  for  $e_1$ .

Address arithmetic expressions “ $e \oplus C$ ”, “ $e \ominus C$ ”, “ $e_1 \uplus e_2$ ”, “ $e_1 \cup e_2$ ”, and “ $\text{disp}(P_1, P_2)$ ” are used for adjusting between superclass and subclass objects. The former two are for non-virtual superclasses. The rest are for virtual superclasses. Expression “ $e \bullet P$ ” represents an embedded object in  $e$  following path  $P$ .

Records are allocated on the heap. Each field in a record “ $\{l_i = v_i \mid l_i = \text{recd}_i\}_{i=1}^n$ ” is a word-sized value  $v_i$  or an inlined record  $\text{recd}_i$ . For simplicity  $E_{MI}$  does not support stack-allocated objects.

A function “ $\text{fix } g(x_i : \tau_i)_{i=1}^n : \tau = e_m$ ” defines  $g$  with formals  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  (of type  $\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n$  respectively), return type  $\tau$  and function body  $e_m$ . The body  $e_m$  may call  $g$  recursively.

Class and program declarations are as follows. The notation  $\overline{\Psi}$  means a sequence of items in  $\Psi$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{field} &::= f : \tau & \text{method} &::= m : (\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n) \rightarrow \tau \\ H &::= \ell \rightsquigarrow hw & \text{class} &::= C : \overline{A}, \text{virtual } \overline{B} \{ \overline{\text{field}}, \overline{\text{method}} \} \\ \text{Prog} &::= (\text{class}; H; e) \end{aligned}$$

A class declaration “ $C : \overline{A}, \text{virtual } \overline{B} \{ \overline{\text{field}}, \overline{\text{method}} \}$ ” declares a class  $C$  with *direct* non-virtual superclasses  $\overline{A}$ , *direct* virtual superclasses  $\overline{B}$ , fields  $\overline{\text{field}}$ , and methods  $\overline{\text{method}}$ . A field declaration “ $f : \tau$ ” declares a field  $f$  with type  $\tau$ . A method declaration “ $m : (\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n) \rightarrow \tau$ ” declares a method  $m$  with formal types  $\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n$  and return type  $\tau$ . Method declarations do not include explicit “this” pointer types. Method bodies are represented as functions on the heap, not in class declarations.

A program declaration “ $(\overrightarrow{class}; H; e)$ ” declares a program with class declarations  $\overrightarrow{class}$ , a heap  $H$ , and the “main” expression  $e$ . The heap  $H$  maps labels to heap values.

## 4. Semantics

This section formalizes the semantics and properties of  $E_{MI}$ .

### 4.1 Dynamic Semantics

Figure 4 shows selected evaluation rules. The programs in the first column evaluate to the ones in the second column, if the side conditions in the third column hold. Class declarations in programs are omitted because they do not change during evaluation. The notation “ $[\delta_1/\delta_2]$ ” means replacing  $\delta_2$  with  $\delta_1$ .

The notation “ $C(v) \bullet P$ ” represents a pointer to the object with path  $P$  in a complete  $C$  object. Given  $P = C :: C_1 :: \dots :: C_n$ , the object pointer models the same address as an interior pointer  $v.C_1 \dots C_n$ . As explained in Section 2, the label sequence  $C_1, \dots, C_n$  leads to the part of the record that represents the embedded object with path  $P$ . The two pointers have different types.

Expression “ $new[\tau]$ ” allocates a record of type  $\tau$  (with value  $default_\tau$ ) on the heap and returns a label to the record. The default value for the vtable field in  $R(C)$  is a pointer to the vtable of  $C$ . Expression “ $C(v)$ ” coerces the record label to a  $C$  pointer “ $C(v).C$ ”. Expression “ $c2r$ ” coerces an object pointer  $C(v) \bullet P$  to an interior pointer as described above.

Expression “ $*(v.C_1 \dots C_n.f)$ ” fetches the value of a field  $f$  in the embedded object and “ $*(v.C_1 \dots C_n.f) := v_2$  in  $e_3$ ” assigns  $v_2$  to the field and evaluates  $e_3$ .

Expression “ $(C(v) \bullet P) \oplus A$ ” adjusts a pointer  $C(v) \bullet P$  to  $C(v) \bullet (P :: A)$ , which points to the embedded object for a *non-virtual* superclass  $A$ . Expression “ $(C(v) \bullet (P :: A)) \ominus A$ ” adjusts the  $A$  pointer back. Similarly, expression “ $(C(v) \bullet P_1) \uplus disp(P_1, P_2)$ ” adjusts  $C(v) \bullet P_1$  to a *virtual* superclass pointer  $C(v) \bullet P_2$ . Expression “ $(C(v) \bullet P_2) \downlus disp(P_1, P_2)$ ” adjusts back to  $C(v) \bullet P_1$ .

Pointer-related expressions such as dereference, assignment, and address arithmetic infinitely loop if the pointers are null. Future versions of  $E_{MI}$  will use exceptions.

### 4.2 Static Semantics

The type checker maintains several environments. A class declaration table  $\Theta$  maps class names to declarations. A kind environment  $\Delta$  tracks type and path variables. Each type variable has a subclassing upper bound (a class name or a type variable introduced previously in  $\Delta$ ). Each path variable has a starting type and an ending type. A heap environment  $\Sigma$  maps labels to types. A type environment  $\Gamma$  maps variables to types.

Well-formedness rules of paths are as follows. The judgment  $\Theta; \Delta \vdash P : (\tau_s, \tau_e)$  means that, under environments  $\Theta$  and  $\Delta$ ,  $P$  is a well-formed path from  $\tau_s$  to  $\tau_e$ . If VB appears in the path, a virtual superclass must follow immediately. Paths are continuous: a path  $P : (\tau, C)$  can be concatenated only with a direct non-virtual superclass of  $C$ .

$$\frac{\rho : (\tau_1, \tau_2) \in \Delta \quad B \text{ is a virtual superclass of } \tau}{\Theta; \Delta \vdash \rho : (\tau_1, \tau_2) \quad \Theta; \Delta \vdash \tau :: VB :: B : (\tau, B)}$$

$$\frac{}{\Theta; \Delta \vdash C : (C, C)} \quad \frac{\Theta; \Delta \vdash P : (\tau, C) \quad \Theta(C) = \overline{A}, \{-\} \quad A_i \in \overline{A}}{\Theta; \Delta \vdash P :: A_i : (\tau, A_i)}$$

Well-formedness of types requires that the bounds for type variables and the starting and the ending types of paths be of kind  $\Omega_c$ . Type  $Disp(P_1, P_2)$  requires that  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  start from the same type and that  $P_2$  lead to a virtual superclass (of the format

$\tau :: VB :: C$ ). The judgment  $\Theta; \Delta \vdash \tau : \kappa$  means that, under environments  $\Theta$  and  $\Delta$ , type  $\tau$  has kind  $\kappa$ .

Subclassing rules are straightforward. The subclassing judgment  $\Theta; \Delta \vdash \tau_1 \ll \tau_2$  means that, under environments  $\Theta$  and  $\Delta$ ,  $\tau_1$  is a subclass of  $\tau_2$ . Subclassing between class names preserves the class hierarchy in the source programs. Subclassing is reflexive and transitive.

Subtyping in  $E_{MI}$  includes standard record breadth subtyping and depth subtyping (on immutable fields), function subtyping, and pointer subtyping (on pointers to immutable values). Subtyping is reflexive and transitive. The subtyping judgment  $\Theta; \Delta \vdash \tau_1 \leq \tau_2$  means that, under environments  $\Theta$  and  $\Delta$ ,  $\tau_1$  is a subtype of  $\tau_2$ .

The structural subtyping guarantees validity of layout approximation. Subtyping between quantified types is unnecessary because inheritance is represented by explicit pointer adjustments.

Figure 5 shows selected expression typing rules. The typing judgment  $\Theta; \Delta; \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash e : \tau$  means that, under environments  $\Theta$ ,  $\Delta$ ,  $\Sigma$ , and  $\Gamma$ , expression  $e$  has type  $\tau$ .

A pointer to a complete  $C$  object has type  $\text{Ptr } C$ . A pointer to an object with path  $P$  has type  $\text{Ptr } P$ .

**Coercions** A record pointer of type  $\text{Ptr } (R(C))$  can be coerced to and from an object pointer of type  $\text{Ptr } C$  by expressions  $C(e)$  and  $c2r(e)$  respectively. If  $e$  has type  $\text{Ptr } P$ , that is,  $e$  points to an embedded object with path  $P$ ,  $c2r(e)$  returns a pointer to a record of type  $\text{Approx}R(P)$ . The definitions of  $R$  and  $\text{Approx}R$  for the current layout strategy are in [2].

The compiler has the freedom to choose layout strategies and to use other definitions of  $R$  and  $\text{Approx}R$ , although the layout information is part of the type system. The soundness of the type system requires only that for any path  $P : (C, A)$ , the real layout of objects with  $P$  be a subtype of  $\text{Approx}R(P)$  ( $P$  may contain VB).

**Address arithmetic** Expressions  $e \oplus A$  and  $e \ominus A$  adjust between an object pointer with type  $\text{Ptr } P$  and a pointer with type  $\text{Ptr } (P :: A)$ . Expressions  $e_1 \uplus e_2$  and  $e_1 \downlus e_2$  adjust between an object pointer with type  $\text{Ptr } P_1$  and a pointer with type  $\text{Ptr } P_2$ , if  $e_2$  has type  $\text{Disp}(P_1, P_2)$ . When both paths are concrete, expression “ $disp(P_1, P_2)$ ” has type  $\text{Disp}(P_1, P_2)$  and requires that  $P_2$  lead to a virtual superclass.

A program  $(\Theta; H; e)$  is well-formed if its class declaration  $\Theta$  is well-formed, each heap value has the corresponding type in the heap environment, and the main expression  $e$  is well-typed.

### 4.3 Properties of $E_{MI}$

$E_{MI}$  has the following properties.

**Theorem 1 (Soundness)** If a program is well-formed, then it will not get stuck.

**Theorem 2 (Decidable type checking)** It is decidable whether  $\Theta; \Delta; \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash e : \tau$  holds.

## 5. Related Work

Prior work on supporting typed compilation of multiple inheritance cannot describe standard implementation techniques. None supports virtual inheritance. The model proposed by Chen *et al.* preserves class names and uses paths to identify embedded objects [1]. It encodes objects with functions and cannot address object layout. ML-ART uses row variables to abstract class extensions and serializes multiple inheritance to a sequence of single inheritance [10]. Fisher *et al.* proposed an *untyped* calculus to support inheritance from unknown base classes [6]. They use dictionary lookups for member access. Stone used indices (offsets) as first-class values to fetch members from objects so that classes can be extended without full knowledge of the base classes [13]. Compagnoni and Pierce used intersection types to model multiple inheritance [5]. The language does not preserve classes and subclassing. “This” pointer adjustment is hidden by intersection types and cannot be expressed.

Original Program	New Program	Side Conditions
$(H; \text{new}[\tau])$	$(H, \ell \rightsquigarrow \text{default}_\tau; \ell)$	$\ell \notin H$
$(H; C(v))$	$(H; C(v) \bullet C)$	
$(H; \text{c2r}(C(v) \bullet P))$	$(H; v.C_1 \dots C_n)$	$P = C :: C_1 :: \dots :: C_n$
$(H; *(l.l_1 \dots l_n))$	$(H; v)$	$H(\ell) = \{\dots, l_1 = \{\dots, l_n = v \dots\}, \dots\}$
$(H; *(l.l_1 \dots l_n) := v' \text{ in } e_3)$	$(H'; e_3)$	$H' = H \text{ except that } H'(\ell).l_1 \dots l_n = v'$
$(H; (C(v) \bullet P) \oplus A)$	$(H; C(v) \bullet (P :: A))$	$P = P' :: A$
$(H; (C(v) \bullet P) \ominus A)$	$(H; C(v) \bullet P')$	$v_2 = \text{disp}(P_1, P_2)$
$(H; (C(v) \bullet P_1) \uplus v_2)$	$(H; C(v) \bullet P_2)$	$v_2 = \text{disp}(P_1, P_2)$
$(H; (C(v) \bullet P_2) \uplus v_2)$	$(H; C(v) \bullet P_1)$	$v = \text{pack } \tau \text{ as } \beta \ll \_ \text{ in } (v' : \_)$
$(H; (\alpha, x) = \text{open}(v) \text{ in } e)$	$(H; e[\tau/\alpha][v'/x])$	$v = \text{pack } P \text{ as } \rho : \_ \text{ in } (v' : \_)$
$(H; (\rho, x) = \text{open}(v) \text{ in } e)$	$(H; e[P/\rho][v'/x])$	

Figure 4. Selected Evaluation Rules

$\Theta; \Delta; \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash e : \text{Ptr}(R(C))$	$\Theta; \Delta; \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash e : \text{Ptr } C$	$\Theta; \Delta; \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash e : \text{Ptr } P$	$\Theta; \Delta \vdash P : (\tau, C)$
$\Theta; \Delta; \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash \ell : \text{Ptr}(\Sigma(\ell))$	$\Theta; \Delta; \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash C(e) : \text{Ptr } C$	$\Theta; \Delta; \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash \text{c2r}(e) : \text{Ptr}(R(C))$	$\Theta; \Delta; \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash \text{c2r}(e) : \text{Ptr}(\text{Approx}R(P))$
$\Theta; \Delta; \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \exists \rho' : (\tau_s, \tau_e). \tau \quad \rho \notin \text{domain}(\Delta) \quad \rho \notin \text{free}(\tau')$ $\Theta; \Delta, \rho : (\tau_s, \tau_e); \Sigma; \Gamma, x : \tau[\rho/\rho'] \vdash e_2 : \tau'$			
$\Theta; \Delta; \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash (\rho, x) = \text{open}(e_1) \text{ in } e_2 : \tau'$		$\Theta; \Delta \vdash P : (\tau_s, \tau_e) \quad \rho \notin \text{domain}(\Delta) \quad \Theta; \Delta; \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash e : \tau'[P/\rho]$ $\Theta; \Delta; \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash \text{pack } P \text{ as } \rho : (\tau_s, \tau_e) \text{ in } (e : \tau') : \exists \rho : (\tau_s, \tau_e). \tau'$	
$\Theta; \Delta; \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \text{Ptr } P_1$	$\Theta; \Delta; \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \text{Ptr } P_2$	$\Theta; \Delta; \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash e : \text{Ptr } C$	$\Theta; \Delta; \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash e : \text{Ptr } P$
$\Theta; \Delta; \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \text{Disp}(P_1, P_2)$	$\Theta; \Delta; \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \text{Disp}(P_1, P_2)$	$\Theta; \bullet \vdash P : (C, \tau)$	$\Theta; \Delta \vdash P : (\tau, C)$
$\Theta; \Delta; \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash e_1 \uplus e_2 : \text{Ptr } P_2$		$\Theta; \Delta; \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash e \bullet P : \text{Ptr } P$	
$\Theta; \Delta; \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash e_1 \uplus e_2 : \text{Ptr } P_1$		$\Theta; \Delta; \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash e \oplus A : \text{Ptr}(P :: A)$	
$\Theta; \Delta; \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash e : \text{Ptr}(P :: A)$		$\Theta; \bullet \vdash P_1 : (C, \tau_1) \quad \Theta; \bullet \vdash C :: \text{VB} :: B : (C, B)$	
$\Theta; \Delta; \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash e \ominus A : \text{Ptr } P$		$\Theta; \Delta; \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash \text{disp}(P_1, C :: \text{VB} :: B) : \text{Disp}(P_1, C :: \text{VB} :: B)$	

Figure 5. Selected Expression Typing Rules

LIL<sub>CI</sub> extends LIL<sub>C</sub> to support multiple inheritance of interfaces as in Java and C# [3]. Interfaces do not have object layout problems because they contain no fields.

Rossie *et al.* [11] and Wasserrab *et al.* [16] formalized multiple inheritance in C++ at the source language level. The formalizations refer to no implementation details such as object layout and vbptr.

## 6. Conclusion

E<sub>MI</sub> is a typed intermediate language for compiling multiple inheritance, both repeated and shared inheritance. It uses paths to type objects, existential types to represent path abstractions, and special address arithmetic to model pointer adjustment. The type system is sound. The type checking is decidable. The translation from a source language to E<sub>MI</sub> preserves types. E<sub>MI</sub> can express standard implementation strategies of multiple inheritance in C++, including object layout, “this” pointer, pointer adjustment, and virtual base pointer.

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