

Type-safe Composition of Object Modules

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Abstract

We describe a facility that enables routine type-checking during the linkage of external declarations and definitions of separately compiled programs in ANSI C. The primary advantage of our server-style type-checked linkage facility is the ability to program the combination of object modules via a suite of strongly typed module operators. Such programmability enables one to easily incorporate programmer-defined data format conversion stubs at link-time. In addition, our linkage facility is able to automatically generate safe coercion stubs for compatible encapsulated data.¹

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1 Introduction

It is widely agreed that strong typing increases the reliability and efficiency of software. However, compilers for statically typed languages such as C and C++² in traditional non-integrated programming environments guarantee *complete* type-safety only within a compilation unit, but not *across* such units. Longstanding and widely available linkers compose separately compiled units by matching symbols purely by name equivalence with no regard to their types. Such “common denominator” linkers accommodate object modules from various source languages by simply ignoring the static semantics of the language. Moreover, commonly used object file formats are not designed to incorporate source language type information in an easily accessible manner.

In this paper, we present a technique to perform type checking of object modules as a routine link-time activity. Our technique is characterized by (i) the design of specific language type systems into a system-wide linker, (ii) programmed link-time control over individual symbols of object modules, and (iii) utilization of standard debugging information generated by compilers for type checking. We describe in detail the realization of these steps for ANSI C.

A crucial enabler for this facility is the ability to resolve inconsistencies among compiled object modules at link time. The existence of link time type errors does not mean that program source files need to be modified and recompiled, as this may not be possible for pre-compiled libraries. Programmer control for correcting link time type errors is provided via the already existing programming facilities of OMOS [OM92], our dynamic linker. For instance, consider the case where the type of a symbol declaration in one translation unit and its definition in another do not match. This can usually be fixed by either (i) renaming the declaration to match the actually intended name, or (ii) introducing a new declaration to match the definition, and binding the original declaration with a modified form of the new declaration by supplying a separate “stub” module. If a type error cannot be corrected with such simple transformations on object modules, it might indicate a more serious error in the design of the modules involved.

Our link-time type-checking facility permits us to adapt and utilize the full expressive power of language type systems to better suit modern persistent, distributed and heterogeneous environments. For instance, structural typing can be applied to languages such as ANSI C with name-based typing. Pure name-based typing becomes a problem in persistent and distributed environments, where data and types could migrate outside the program in which they were originally created [AC93], and lead to matching of names that may or may not have the same programmer-intended meaning. This argues for structural matching of aggregate types similar to Modula-3 [Nel91] and Strongtalk [BG93], using member order and type significance along with names.

Furthermore, our programmable linkage facility enables the incorporation of automatic and user-defined conversion routines for encapsulated data. For automatic conversion, we postulate safe adaptability rules for converting built-in data types using the language definition in conjunction with the characteristics of particular hardware platforms. We then utilize these rules to automatically generate data conversion “stubs” at link time. More importantly, programmer defined conversion stubs can also be easily incorporated at link time. This opens up the possibility

²Name-mangling does not accomplish complete type-safety across compilation units; see Section 6.

Operator	Semantics	Typing
M1 merge M2	Combine M1 and M2	Matching definitions disallowed; a definition must be a subtype of its matching declaration.
M1 override M2	Merge, but resolve matches in favor of right operand	Same as merge, except matching definition in right operand must be a subtype.
M restrict L	Make L undefined	Attribute must be defined.
M freeze L	Make L statically bound	Attribute must be defined.
M rename L1 L2	Rename L1 and all its uses to L2	Attribute must be defined.
M hide L	Freeze and remove L from interface	Attribute must be defined.
M copyas L1 L2	Copy attribute named L1 to L2	Attribute must be defined.

Figure 1: Informal Semantics and Typing of Module Operators

of programmer-controlled data evolution and conversion across heterogeneous data formats, *e.g.* those arising from different languages, hardware architectures, *etc.*

We provide the ability to support differing type systems by designing our type-checking facility as an extension of an object-oriented *framework* [BL93]. The O-O framework contains generic type system related abstractions such as *named types*, *function types*, *record types*, *etc.* that are specialized via inheritance to implement the type domain of specific languages.

In the following sections, we describe in detail the type-checking of object modules generated by compiling ANSI C programs. Section 2 introduces our notion of modules and interfaces, Section 3 briefly describes our object server OMOS, and Section 4 discusses the essential aspects of the type system of ANSI C. We then give some implementation details, discuss related work and conclude.

2 Object Modules and their Interfaces

We refer to an ANSI C program source or object file as a *module*, consisting of a set of *attributes* with no order significance. An attribute is either a file-level declaration (a name with an associated type, *e.g.* `extern int i;`), or a file-level definition (a name with a data, storage or function *binding*). Type definitions (*e.g.* `struct` definitions, and `typedef`'s in C) are not attributes of a module. The *interface* of a module consists of `<name, type>` pairs of the *attributes* of the module. In the context of type-checking object module interfaces, attributes *match* if they have the same *name*³. There cannot be matching attributes within a single interface⁴, and attributes that match across interfaces must be type compatible. The notion of type compatibility depends on the particular operation being performed on modules, and is informally described below.

Our linker is based upon a formal model of modules proposed in [Bra92], achieving a fine level of control over individual attributes of object modules. Briefly, object modules are combined via a suite of module combination *operators* that were originally conceived to describe the many facets of inheritance in object-oriented programming. Figure 1 gives the primary operators, their informal semantics and type rules. These operators provide control over aspects of visibility, sharing, and rebinding of individual attributes of modules. The power that this model lends to object module

³The sameness of names is string equality.

⁴This rule makes it impossible to model languages that support user-defined overloading, *e.g.* C++. However, we plan to extend our module model in this direction in the future.

```

/* Module 01: */          /* Module 02: */          /* Module 03: */
struct S {                extern int f ();          struct S {
    int x;                void bar () {           int x;
    /* ... */            int x = foo ();       /* ... */
}                          }
struct S f () {           }
    /* ... */
}
/* ... */                /* ... */

```

Modules 01 and 02 are combined with the expression: `(02 rename f f_stub) merge 03 merge 01`

Figure 2: Type Correction

linkage is briefly given in Section 3, and is described in more detail in [OM92], where the original implementation of a type-less OMOS is described. The current effort incorporates the rules of the strongly typed module model and illustrates some of its applications.

The semantics of common linkage is embodied in the module operator `merge`. For a simple example of the use of this module operator, consider Figure 2. In this figure, the compiled module 01 provides a definition of function `f`. A programmer creates and compiles module 02 with the intention of using `f`'s definition by performing `01 merge 02`, but makes the incorrect presumption that `f` returns an `int`. If `merge` were untyped (as in common linkage), `01 merge 02` would have been legal; however, it does not typecheck in our linker since the interfaces of 01 and 02 do not match. The 02 programmer discovers during linkage that `f` returns the desired `int` value as a component of a structure. In order to make 01 and 02 compatible, one could modify the source code of either module extensively, if it were available, and recompile. This, of course, could adversely affect combination of the modified module with yet other modules. Alternatively, one could construct module 03, compile it, and use it to obtain a modified version of 02 with the expression `(02 rename f f_stub) merge 03`, which can then be `merge`'ed with 01 to get the original desired effect.

3 The OMOS Linker

In this section, we describe our linkage facility, the Object Meta-Object Server OMOS[OM92].

The OMOS linker/loader is designed to provide a dynamic linking and loading facility for client programs via the use of module combination and instantiation. OMOS implements a hierarchical namespace much like the UNIX directory hierarchy whose leaf nodes are either object modules (`.o` files) or *meta-objects*, whose primary function is to represent the result of an evaluated module expression. OMOS essentially provides a level of indirection between the named OMOS entity (a module) and the actual implementation (a module *instance*) that is loaded into a client. Clients may directly load module implementations or generate new implementations by combining or modifying existing modules. This facility is used as the basis for system program execution and shared libraries[OBLM93], as well as dynamic loading of simple modules.

```

/* Module 01: */
void g () {
    short z = f (3);
}
short f (short x) {
    /* ... */
}

/* Module 02: */
/* Automatically generated */
extern short __f (short);
extern void _log_enter (char *);
extern void _log_exit (char *);
short f (short x) {
    short v;
    _log_enter ("f");
    v = __f (x);
    _log_exit ("f");
    return v;
}

```

Module expression: (((01 copyas f __f) restrict f) merge 02) hide __f

Figure 3: Wrapping a routine to monitor its execution

Expressions specifying module combination are encoded in a scripting language with a LISP-like syntax. These expressions consist primarily of operations for manipulating modules and module namespaces, such as those shown in Figure 1. Additionally, OMOS supports operations for constructing an object module given program source code, and for specializing the implementation of a given module (*e.g.* library vs. ordinary module) [OBLM93], among others. The operands in module expressions may be executable code or data fragments, other module expressions, or other meta-objects.

Since OMOS is an active entity (a server), it is capable of performing sophisticated module manipulations on each instantiation of a module. Evaluation of a module expression could potentially produce different results each time. Some OMOS operations such as those used to implement program monitoring and reordering [OMHL93] enact program transformations using operations on module expressions.

For example, monitoring a program using OMOS might involve extracting and transforming the expression that generates the program so that each defined procedure is transparently *wrapped* with an outer routine that monitors entry to and exit from the procedure. Figure 3 shows the module operations used to “wrap” the procedure `f` in module 01 with the automatically generated routine found in 02.

The process of wrapping procedures is enhanced by the availability of type information. The wrapper procedure is constructed with a signature identical to that of the wrapped procedure; simple language constructs can be used to propagate the caller’s arguments to the wrapped routine. If type information was not available (or in cases such as `printf` where the routine is defined to take a variable number of arguments) it would be necessary to use a machine-dependent wrapper that could preserve and pass along the call frame without knowledge of its contents.

While OMOS is capable of performing sophisticated manipulations on each invocation, it caches the results of most operations to avoid re-doing work unnecessarily. The practice of combining a caching linker with the system object loader gives OMOS the flexibility to change implementations

Type	Equivalence within a translation unit	Equivalence across translation units
Primitive type	name equivalence	same
Function type	structural, with in and out parameter types significant	same
Enum type	name equivalence	same
Structure and union type	name (tag) equivalence; tag-less types are unique	structural, with tag, member order and member names significant
Pointer type	equivalence of target types	same
Array type	equivalence of element types, and equality of array size	same
<code>typedef</code> 'ed name	<code>typedef</code> 'ed type	name equivalence

Figure 4: Type equivalence in ANSI C

as it deems necessary, *e.g.* to reflect an updated implementation of a shared module across all its clients [OBLM93].

4 C's Type System

This concludes the general discussion of linkage via module manipulation. In order to ascertain the type-safety of modules being combined, the module type rules built into our linker requires knowledge of the type system (type domain, type equivalence and subtyping) of the base language ANSI C. This section describes the relevant type system of ANSI C [KR88], and enhancements made to it for type-checking across compilation units.

The type domain of ANSI C consists of (i) basic types (primitive types (`int`, `float`, *etc.*), and enumerated types), (ii) derived types (function types, struct and union types, array and pointer types), and (iii) `typedef`'ed names. Specifiers for these types can be augmented with type qualifiers (*e.g.* `const`) and storage class specifiers. The storage class specifiers `auto` and `register` may only be used within functions, and hence are not relevant to this discussion. The storage specifier `extern` indicates a declaration. The storage specifier `static` for a global attribute gives it internal linkage, *i.e.* the attribute can be viewed as having been subjected to a `hide` module operation⁵.

C permits calls to functions that have not been declared in a module. A call to an undeclared function `f` in a module results in an implicit file-level declaration of `extern int f ()`.

4.1 Type Equivalence

Type equivalence in ANSI C within a single translation unit, and our extensions for type-checking across translation units, is given in Figure 4. The rationale for the two modifications are

1. For aggregate types (`struct`'s and `union`'s), name equivalence is too weak when applied outside of a single translation unit, as explained in the introduction. Therefore, we adopt

⁵Similarly, attributes that are subjected to `hide` via link-time programming can be regarded as having been converted to the `static` storage class after the fact.

Type	Why subtyping is restricted to type equivalence for global data
Primitive type	Layout formats for various primitive data types are almost certainly incompatible
Enum type	Compilers usually optimize layout by packing
Struct type	Instances of structs are allocated memory based on knowledge of size
Union type	Access to members of unions are not type-checked

Figure 5: Subtyping is restricted to type equivalence for global data across compilation units

a conservative structural typing regimen in which the names, order and types of members are also significant⁶. We also retain the significance of aggregate tags since there could be application-specific semantic content in them.

2. For `typedef`'ed names, again, there could be application-specific semantic content in them, so we adopt strict name equivalence.

Furthermore, some type specifiers are implied by others, *e.g.* `short` implies `short int`, therefore these types are equivalent. The type qualifier `const` is significant for equivalence.

4.2 Subtyping

ANSI C specifies compatibility rules for primitive data types governed by hardware characteristics. Based on these rules, rules for storage layout compatibility of user-defined data types can be formulated. We might ask if such subsumption rules can be exploited during type-checking of global data across translation units. Unfortunately, C compilers optimize storage layout and access code within a single translation unit with complete knowledge of layout and usage. Consequently, even though we can utilize subsumption rules within a single translation unit, we cannot apply them for global data across translation units, and is not defined to be so in the language. More detailed reasoning as to why subtyping cannot be utilized for C data types⁷ is given in Figure 5.

Nonetheless, ANSI C compatibility rules for datatypes can be utilized for data that are *encapsulated* within functions, since “stubs” that perform the appropriate coercion between datatypes can be automatically inserted between combined modules at link time. However, applying this stub technique to global data involves initializing global variables with non-constant values, which is illegal in ANSI C. Function types lend themselves particularly well to this technique since the performance of function calls is affected much less by this indirection than the performance of data access. Moreover, it does not seem unreasonable to impose the requirement on users to encapsulate such data that they foresee will be accessed via supertypes.

Subtyping of function types is by *contravariance*. That is, a function type is a subtype of another if its return type is a subtype of the latter's and its input types are *supertypes* of the corresponding ones in the latter [Bru92]. A function type is a subtype of another function type

⁶Strictly speaking, names of members of aggregate types are not necessarily significant outside of a compilation unit, since member access via these names are compiled away as offsets within a compilation unit. However, the order and types of members are necessarily significant for structural typing of aggregate types in C.

⁷For pointer types, subtyping is restricted to type equivalence due to semantic considerations, since reading via pointers is covariant while writing via pointers is contravariant.

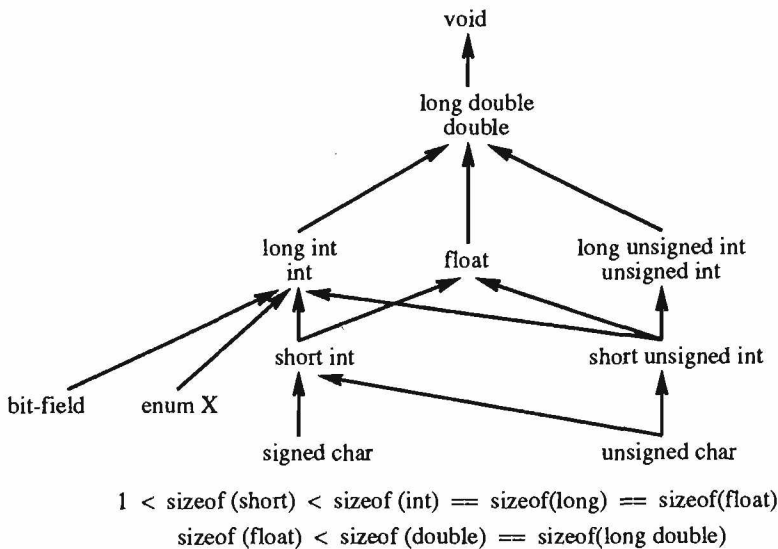


Figure 6: Subtyping of C Primitive Data Types

```

/* Module 01: */          /* Module 02: */          /* Module 03: */
short f (float y) {      extern float f (short);    /* Automatically generated */
  /* ... */              void g () {                  extern short f (float);
}                          float z = f (3);
                          }
                          float f_stub (short x) {
                          return (float) f ((float) x);
                          }

```

Modules 01 and 02 are combined with the expression:
 ((02 rename f f_stub) merge 03) hide f_stub merge 01

Figure 7: Automatic Data Coercion Using Language Rules

with a *variable* number of arguments if it has at least the number of specified arguments in the latter, and the arguments are in a *supertype* relationship as before.

Our linker automatically generates coercion stubs for the primitive type conversions shown in Figure 6. For instance, a value of type `short` can be safely coerced into a value of type `float` on most hardware platforms⁸ without loss of precision or change in numerical value. An additional subtyping rule applies to the type qualifier `const`: if a type `s` is a subtype of type `t`, it is also a subtype of `const t`. The above rules apply only to input and output parameters of functions, since coercion stubs can be automatically generated to account for function subtyping only.

For an example of the use of language defined subtypes, consider Figure 7. As mentioned earlier, the type `short` is a subtype of `float`. Therefore, the definition of function `f` in module 01 is a subtype (by contravariance) of the declaration of the function `f` in module 02. However, 01 cannot

⁸The data type sizes given in Figure 6 are for the HP series 9000 machines (300s and 700s).

```

/* Module 01: */           /* Module 02: */           /* Module 03: */
                           /* Automatically generated */
struct S {                 struct S {                 struct S1 {
    short x;                float x;                   short x;
    float y;                }                          float y;
}                           }
struct S f () {           extern struct S f ();     struct S {
    /* ... */              void g () {                float x;
}                           /* ... */                       }
                           }
                           }
                           extern struct S f ();
                           struct S f_stub () {
                               struct S1 s1;
                               struct S* s = (struct S*) &s1;
                               struct S ret_s;
                               *s = f ();
                               ret_s.x = (float) s->x;
                               return ret_s;
                           }

```

Modules 01 and 02 are combined with the expression:
`((02 rename f f_stub) merge 03) hide f_stub) merge 01`

Figure 8: Automatic Conversion of structs Using Structural Subtyping

be directly merged with 02, since in general the calling sequence for `f` might not be compatible, *e.g.* the definition of `f` might be expecting its input in a floating point register rather than an integer register. This is remedied by first combining 02 with the automatically generated stub module 03, and then performing the desired merge, as shown in the figure.

We have also incorporated a comprehensive subtyping model including structural record subtyping with member name, type and order significance, an example of which is shown in Figure 8. This technique of type conversion stubs can be generalized as illustrated in Figure 9 to provide a general facility to incorporate user defined stubs at link time for arbitrary data format conversion. In the figure, module 03 comprises user-defined stubs.

5 Implementation And Usage Details

Ideally, we would have compilers that generate object modules in a “self-describing” format, with information about the source language, the machine architecture, and the interface packaged within the object module itself in a readily accessible format. However, this is far from reality — the closest approximation is an object file that has been compiled with the debugging option⁹ `-g`, which instructs the compiler to generate type information in a standard encoded format.

⁹Object files compiled without the debugging option contain no type information, and those compiled with the debugging option contain more information than is necessary for type-checking linkage, *e.g.* types of local variables, line numbers, *etc.*

```

/* Module 01: */          /* Module 02: */          /* Module 03: */
R1 f (T1 y) {             extern R2 f (T2);          extern R1 f (T1);
  /* ... */
}                          void g () {                R2 f_stub (T2 x) {
                          R2 z = f (/*T2 value*/);          return R1_to_R2 (f (T2_to_T1(x)));
                          }                                  }
                                                                R2 R1_to_R2 (R1 r) {
                                                                /* ... */
                                                                }
                                                                T1 T2_to_T1 (T2 t) {
                                                                /* ... */
                                                                }

```

Modules 01 and 02 are combined with the expression: (02 rename f f_stub) merge 03 merge 01

Figure 9: Programmer-defined Data Conversion

Although conceptually simple, the actual process of extracting type information is technically challenging, and in our prototype involved the following steps. The GNU C compiler, `gcc`, does not generate debugging information for C `extern` symbols, since debugging is normally performed on executable files in which all external references have been resolved. To solve this, we modified the back end of `gcc` to generate debugging information for all symbols. For accessing the sections of the object file that contain debugging information (`.stab` and `.stabstr`), we use Cygnus Corporation's Binary File Descriptor (BFD) library [Cha92], and parse the "stabs" format debug strings [MKM93] using a yacc/lex generated parser. Our parser instantiates the appropriate classes in our O-O framework to create the interface of the object module.

For using our type-checked linkage facility, the source programs currently must be written in ANSI C, and function declarations specified using "new-style" prototypes. Furthermore, usage of header files can be minimized; explicit declarations of external functions can be provided instead. Programs that are to be type-checked at link time must be (re)compiled with our (modified) compiler using the `debug (-g)` option.

One legitimate concern is the size of object files as a result of the inclusion of debugging information. The size of object files does increase significantly due to debugging information, but this problem is exacerbated by the inclusion of huge library header files. Our solution to this problem is that given type-checking at link-time, it is not necessary to include header files in the traditional way. Instead, programs can explicitly declare prototypes for those external (library) functions that are called. A further discussion of the disadvantages of header files is found below in Section 6.

6 Related Work

Integrated Development Environments (IDE's) for strongly typed languages, *e.g.* Eiffel [Mey89], undoubtedly utilize mechanisms for type-checking separately compiled modules, since they have

complete knowledge and control over source and object modules. However, our work differs from IDE's in that we provide a systemwide linkage facility that attempts to typecheck combined modules independent of language processors. Furthermore, the programmability of our linker enables "fine tuning" the compatibility of (possibly heterogeneous) object modules at link time.

Use of header files has been a longstanding attempt at type-safety of separate compilation. The *Annotated C++ Reference Manual* [ES90] (page 122) explains the inadequacy of header files as follows:

... C tried to ensure the consistency of separately compiled programs by controlling the information given to the compiler in header files. This approach works fine up to a point, but does involve extra-linguistic mechanisms, is usually error-prone, and can be costly because of the need to have other programs (in addition to the linker and the compiler) know about the detailed structure of a program.

Instead of including header files, it is clearly more modular and less error-prone to explicitly declare the expected external functionality (*e.g.* libraries), let the linker check consistency at link time, and correct inconsistencies via programming.

With the objective of enabling type-safe linkage within the constraints of existing linkers, Stroustrup [Str88, ES90] describe a mechanism for encoding functions with the types of input arguments. However, this mechanism is inadequate since (i) certain classes of type errors cannot be detected, *e.g.* overloaded functions that differ only in the return type, and multiple definitions of the same variable with differing types, (ii) although it could be extended to deal with structural typing of C aggregate types, it does not scale well to arbitrarily large types, *e.g.* large `structs`, and (iii) if useful error messages are to be generated at link time, the linker would need to be aware of the type encoding mechanism, *i.e.* the linker would need to be "smart" anyway.

The Berkeley Pascal Compiler `pc` [Dis86] is similar to our effort in that it employs debugging information to check type consistency across separately compiled modules. The compiler routinely generates stab-format type information into object modules, which is used by a binding phase of the compiler to check consistency before delegating the actual linking to `ld`. However, the crucial advantage with our approach is that we perform type-checking as a controlled and programmable link-time activity.

There is a plethora of literature related to stub generation [BN84, Lyo84, BALL90, Tha94]. The Polygen system [CP91] is representative of automatic stub generation for programming in a heterogeneous environment. Polygen packages heterogeneous modules by utilizing a programmer-defined specification of their interfaces and execution environments specified in a common module language. The packaging process involves generation of client and server stubs that handle module interconnection and data type coercion dynamically. Our technique differs from Polygen in that we enable the combination of pre-compiled object modules by automatic extraction of interfaces and via link-time programming.

7 Ongoing Work

We foresee several applications for our type-safe linkage facility. In the immediate future, we plan to extend this technique to apply to O-O languages such as C++, whose type systems are

significantly more complex than the simple type system of C. Furthermore, if type equivalence and subtyping rules can be established across programming languages, our facility enables multilingual programming.

Link-time type checking of module combination also opens up the possibility of more expressive type systems. The current status of static type systems for O-O languages is unable to deal with, for example, polymorphic inheritance operators [Ban93], which has several software engineering applications.

We are currently in the process of extending OMOS to include a small LISP interpreter to replace the special-purpose module expression language. This change will allow conditional processing of modules, definition of functions, etc. In addition, we are producing an interface to OMOS that will allow it to subsume the role of the system linker.

8 Conclusion

We have described a programmable linkage facility for separately compiled ANSI C object modules. The programming model of our linker is based on a formal notion of modules and their combination via a suite of strongly typed operators. We design the type system of ANSI C into our linker and typecheck linkage by extracting interfaces of object modules compiled with debugging information. Furthermore, we automatically generate conversion stubs for compatible encapsulated types, and permit easy incorporation of arbitrary user-defined conversion stubs at link time. We have thus demonstrated a powerful, flexible, and type-safe linkage facility.

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