Lecture 18

**CS 131: COMPILERS** 

#### **Announcements**

- HW5: OAT v. 2.0
  - records, function pointers, type checking, array-bounds checks, etc.
  - Due: December 13<sup>th</sup>.
  - Available soon after the class.
  - Start Early!

oat.pdf

#### **TYPECHECKING OAT**

# **Checking Derivations**

- A derivation or proof tree has (instances of) judgments as its nodes and edges that connect premises to a conclusion according to an inference rule.
- Leaves of the tree are *axioms* (i.e. rules with no premises)
  - Example: the INT rule is an axiom
- Goal of the type checker: verify that such a tree exists.
- Example1: Find a tree for the following program using the inference rules in oat.pdf:

```
var x1 = 0;
var x2 = x1 + x1;
x1 = x1 - x2;
return(x1);
```

Example 2: There is no tree for this ill-scoped program:

```
var x2 = x1 + x1;
return(x2);
```

### **Example Derivation**

```
var x1 = 0;
var x2 = x1 + x1;
x1 = x1 - x2;
return(x1);
```

```
\frac{\mathcal{D}_{1} \quad \mathcal{D}_{2} \quad \mathcal{D}_{3} \quad \mathcal{D}_{4}}{G_{0}; \cdot ; \text{int} \vdash \text{var } x_{1} = 0; \text{var } x_{2} = x_{1} + x_{1}; x_{1} = x_{1} - x_{2}; \text{return } x_{1}; \Rightarrow \cdot, x_{1} : \text{int}, x_{2} : \text{int}}{\vdash \text{var } x_{1} = 0; \text{var } x_{2} = x_{1} + x_{1}; x_{1} = x_{1} - x_{2}; \text{return } x_{1};} 
[PROG]
```

### **Example Derivation**

$$\mathcal{D}_{1} = \frac{\frac{\overline{G_{0}; \cdot \vdash 0 : int}}{\overline{G_{0}; \cdot \vdash 0 : int}} \begin{bmatrix} INT \end{bmatrix}}{\overline{G_{0}; \cdot \vdash var \ x_{1} = 0 \Rightarrow \cdot, x_{1} : int}} \begin{bmatrix} DECL \end{bmatrix}}$$

$$\mathcal{D}_{1} = \overline{G_{0}; \cdot ; int \vdash var \ x_{1} = 0; \Rightarrow \cdot, x_{1} : int}} \begin{bmatrix} SDECL \end{bmatrix}$$

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## **Example Derivation**

$$\mathcal{D}_{3} = \frac{\frac{}{\vdash -: (\mathtt{int}, \mathtt{int}) \to \mathtt{int}} \stackrel{[\mathtt{ADD}]}{=} \frac{\frac{x_{1} : \mathtt{int} \in \cdot, x_{1} : \mathtt{int}, x_{2} : \mathtt{int}}{G_{0} : \cdot, x_{1} : \mathtt{int}, x_{2} : \mathtt{int}} \stackrel{[\mathtt{VAR}]}{=} \frac{\frac{x_{2} : \mathtt{int} \in \cdot, x_{1} : \mathtt{int}, x_{2} : \mathtt{int}}{G_{0} : \cdot, x_{1} : \mathtt{int}, x_{2} : \mathtt{int}} \stackrel{[\mathtt{VAR}]}{=} \frac{G_{0} : \cdot, x_{1} : \mathtt{int}, x_{2} : \mathtt{int}}{G_{0} : \cdot, x_{1} : \mathtt{int}, x_{2} : \mathtt{int}} \stackrel{[\mathtt{ASSN}]}{=} [SOP]}$$

$$\mathcal{D}_{4} = \frac{x_{1}: \mathtt{int} \in \cdot, x_{1}: \mathtt{int}, x_{2}: \mathtt{int}}{G_{0}; \cdot, x_{1}: \mathtt{int}, x_{2}: \mathtt{int} \vdash x_{1}: \mathtt{int}} [\mathtt{VAR}]}{G_{0}; \cdot, x_{1}: \mathtt{int}, x_{2}: \mathtt{int} \vdash \mathtt{return} \ x_{1}; \Rightarrow \cdot, x_{1}: \mathtt{int}, x_{2}: \mathtt{int}} [\mathtt{ReT}]$$

## **Type Safety For General Languages**

#### **Theorem: (Type Safety)**

- If  $\vdash P : t$  is a well-typed program, then either:
  - (a) the program terminates in a well-defined way, or
  - (b) the program continues computing forever
- Well-defined termination could include:
  - halting with a return value
  - raising an exception
- Type safety rules out undefined behaviors:
  - abusing "unsafe" casts: converting pointers to integers, etc.
  - treating non-code values as code (and vice-versa)
  - breaking the type abstractions of the language
- What is "defined" depends on the language semantics...

# Why Inference Rules?

- They are a compact, precise way of specifying language properties.
  - − E.g. ~20 pages for full Java vs. 100's of pages of prose Java Language Spec.
- Inference rules correspond closely to the recursive AST traversal that implements them
- Type checking (and type inference) is nothing more than attempting to prove a different judgment ( $E \vdash e : t$ ) by searching backwards through the rules.
- Compiling in a context is nothing more than a collection of inference rules specifying yet a different judgment ( $G \vdash src \Rightarrow target$ )
  - Moreover, the compilation rules are very similar in structure to the typechecking rules
- Strong mathematical foundations
  - The "Curry-Howard correspondence": Programming Language ~ Logic, Program ~ Proof, Type ~ Proposition
  - See UPenn CIS 5000 if you're interested in type systems!

В

### **MORE TYPES**

## **Tuples**

- ML-style tuples with statically known number of products:
- First: add a new type constructor: T<sub>1</sub> \* ... \* T<sub>n</sub>

**TUPLE** 

$$G \vdash e_1 : T_1 \dots G \vdash e_n : T_n$$

$$G \vdash (e_1, ..., e_n) : T_1 * ... * T_n$$

**PROJ** 

$$G \vdash e : T_1 * ... * T_n \quad 1 \le i \le n$$

$$G \vdash prj_i e : T_i$$

### **Arrays**

- Array constructs are not hard
- First: add a new type constructor: T[]

NEW

$$G \vdash e_1 : int \qquad G \vdash e_2 : T$$

$$G \vdash \text{new T}[e_1](e_2) : T[]$$

e<sub>1</sub> is the size of the newly allocated array. e<sub>2</sub> initializes the elements of the array.

**INDEX** 

$$G \vdash e_1 : T[] \qquad G \vdash e_2 : int$$

$$G \vdash e_1[e_2] : T$$

**UPDATE** 

$$G \vdash e_1 : T[] G \vdash e_2 : int G \vdash e_3 : T$$

$$G \vdash e_1[e_2] = e_3 \text{ ok}$$

Note: These rules don't ensure that the array index is in bounds – that should be checked dynamically.

#### References

- ML-style references (note that ML uses only expressions)
- First, add a new type constructor: T ref

REF

$$G \vdash e : T$$

 $G \vdash ref e : T ref$ 

DEREF

G ⊢ !e : T

**ASSIGN** 

$$G \vdash e_1 : T ref \quad E \vdash e_2 : T$$

$$G \vdash e_1 := e_2 : unit$$

Note the similarity with the rules for arrays...

## **COMPILING WITH TYPES**

## **Compilation As Translating Judgments**

Consider the source typing judgment for source expressions:

How do we interpret this information in the target language?

$$[\![C \vdash e : t]\!] = ?$$

- [C] translates contexts
- [t] is a target type
- [e] translates to a (potentially empty) stream of instructions, that, when run, computes the result into some operand
- INVARIANT: if [C ⊢ e : t] = ty, operand, stream
   then the type (at the target level) of the operand is ty=[t]

## **Example**

•  $C \vdash 3410 + 5 : int$ 

what is  $[C \vdash 3410 + 5 : int]$ ?

#### What about the Context?

- What is [C]?
- Source level C has bindings like: x:int, y:bool
  - We think of it as a finite map from identifiers to types
- What is the interpretation of C at the target level?
- [C] maps source identifiers, "x" to target types and [x]
- What is the interpretation of a variable \[ \textsize \textsize \] at the target level?
  - How are the variables used in the type system?

$$\frac{x:t \in L}{G;L \vdash x:t}$$
 TYP\_VAR as expressions (which denote values)

$$x: t \in L$$
  $G; L \vdash exp: t$ 

$$G; L; rt \vdash x = exp; \Rightarrow L$$
as addresses
(which can be assigned)

### **Interpretation of Contexts**

• [C] = a map from source identifiers to types and target identifiers

INVARIANT:

```
x:t \in C means that
```

- (1) lookup  $[C] x = ([t]^*, \%id_x)$
- (2) the (target) type of %id\_x is [[t]]\* (a pointer to [[t]])

## **Interpretation of Variables**

Establish invariant for expressions:

What about statements?

# Other Judgments?

Statement:
 [C; rt ⊢ stmt ⇒ C'] = [C'], stream

Declaration:
 [G;L ⊢ t x = exp ⇒ G;L,x:t]] = [G;L,x:t], stream
 INVARIANT: stream is of the form:
 stream' @
 [%id\_x = alloca [t]];
 store [t] opn, [t]\* %id\_x]
 and [G;L ⊢ exp:t] = ([t], opn, stream')

Rest follow similarly

### **COMPILING CONTROL**

## **Translating while**

- Consider translating "while(e) s":
  - Test the conditional, if true jump to the body, else jump to the label after the body.

```
[C;rt \vdash while(e) s \Rightarrow C'] = [C'],
```

```
lpre:
    opn = [C ⊢ e : bool]
    %test = icmp eq i1 opn, 0
    br %test, label %lpost, label %lbody
lbody:
    [C;rt ⊢ s ⇒ C']
    br %lpre
lpost:
```

- Note: writing opn = [C ⊢ e : bool] is pun
  - translating [C ⊢ e : bool] generates code that puts the result into opn
  - In this notation there is implicit collection of the code

# **Translating if-then-else**

• Similar to while except that code is slightly more complicated because ifthen-else must reach a merge and the else branch is optional.

```
[\![C; rt \vdash if (e_1) s_1 else s_2 \Rightarrow C']\!] = [\![C']\!]
```

```
opn = [\![ C \vdash e : bool ]\!]
\% test = icmp \ eq \ i1 \ opn, \ 0
br \ \% test, \ label \ \% else, \ label \ \% then
then:
[\![ C; rt \vdash s_1 \Rightarrow C' ]\!]
br \ \% merge
else:
[\![ C; rt \ s_2 \Rightarrow C' ]\!]
br \ \% merge
merge:
```

# **Connecting this to Code**

- Instruction streams:
  - Must include labels, terminators, and "hoisted" global constants
- Must post-process the stream into a control-flow-graph
- See frontend.ml from HW4

## **OPTIMIZING CONTROL**

#### **Standard Evaluation**

Consider compiling the following program fragment:

```
if (x & !y | !w)
z = 3;
else
z = 4;
return z;
```



```
%tmp1 = icmp Eq [y], 0 ; !y
    %tmp2 = and [[x]] [[tmp1]]
    %tmp3 = icmp Eq [w], 0
    %tmp4 = or %tmp2, %tmp3
    %tmp5 = icmp Eq %tmp4, 0
    br %tmp4, label %else, label %then
then:
    store [[z]], 3
    br %merge
else:
    store [[z]], 4
    br %merge
merge:
    %tmp5 = load [[z]]
    ret %tmp5
```

#### **Observation**

- Usually, we want the translation [e] to produce a value
  - $[C \vdash e : t] = (ty, operand, stream)$
  - e.g.  $[C \vdash e_1 + e_2 : int] = (i64, %tmp, [%tmp = add i64 <math>[e_1] = [e_2]])$
- But when the expression we're compiling appears in a test, the program jumps to one label or another after the comparison but otherwise never uses the value.
- In many cases, we can avoid "materializing" the value (i.e., storing it in a temporary) and thus produce better code.
  - This idea also lets us implement different functionality too:
     e.g. short-circuiting Boolean expressions
- Make up new "judgement" that is similar to [C ⊢ e : bool] but has a different semantics. Call it [C ⊢ e : bool@]

#### Idea: Use a different translation for tests

```
Usual Expression translation:
```

```
[\![C \vdash e : t]\!] = (ty, operand, stream)
```

Conditional branch translation of booleans,

without materializing the value:

[[C ⊢ e : bool@] Itrue Ifalse = stream

 $[\![\mathsf{C},\mathsf{rt}\vdash\mathsf{if}(\mathsf{e})\mathsf{then}\;\mathsf{s1}\;\mathsf{else}\;\mathsf{s2}\Rightarrow\mathsf{C'}]\!]=[\![\mathsf{C'}]\!],$ 

#### Notes:

- takes two extra arguments: a "true" branch label and a "false" branch label.
- Doesn't "return a value"
- Aside: this is a form of continuation-passing translation...

```
insns<sub>3</sub>
then:

[s1]
br %merge
else:

[s<sub>2</sub>]
br %merge
merge:
```

#### where

```
[\![C, rt \vdash s_1 \Rightarrow C']\!] = [\![C']\!], insns_1

[\![C, rt \vdash s_2 \Rightarrow C'']\!] = [\![C'']\!], insns_2

[\![C \vdash e : bool@]\!] then else = insns_3
```

# **Short Circuit Compilation: Expressions**

• ¶C ⊢ e : bool@∏ Itrue Ifalse = insns

```
FALSE

[C ⊢ false : bool@] Itrue Ifalse = [br %Ifalse]

TRUE

[C ⊢ true : bool@] Itrue Ifalse = [br %Itrue]

[C ⊢ e : bool@] Ifalse Itrue = insns

NOT

[C ⊢ !e : bool@] Itrue Ifalse = insns
```

#### **Short Circuit Evaluation**

Idea: build the logic into the translation

where right is a fresh label

#### **Short-Circuit Evaluation**

Consider compiling the following program fragment:

```
if (x & !y | !w)

z = 3;

else

z = 4;

return z;
```



```
%tmp1 = icmp Eq [x], 0
     br %tmp1, label %right2, label %right1
right1:
     %tmp2 = icmp Eq [y], 0
     br %tmp2, label %then, label %right2
right2:
     %tmp3 = icmp Eq [w], 0
     br %tmp3, label %then, label %else
then:
     store [[z]], 3
     br %merge
else:
     store [[z]], 4
     br %merge
merge:
     %tmp5 = load [z]
     ret %tmp5
```

Beyond describing "structure"... describing "properties"

Types as sets

Subsumption

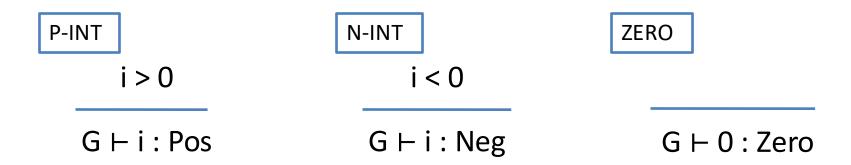
# TYPES, MORE GENERALLY

# What are types, anyway?

- A type is just a predicate on the set of values in a system.
  - For example, the type "int" can be thought of as a boolean function that returns "true" on integers and "false" otherwise.
  - Equivalently, we can think of a type as just a subset of all values.
- For efficiency and tractability, the predicates are usually taken to be very simple.
  - Types are an abstraction mechanism
- We can easily add new types that distinguish different subsets of values:

# Modifying the typing rules

- We need to refine the typing rules too...
- Some easy cases:
  - Just split up the integers into their more refined cases:



Same for booleans:

G ⊢ true : True G ⊢ false : False

#### What about "if"?

Two cases are easy:

G 
$$\vdash$$
 if  $(e_1)$   $e_2$  else  $e_3$ : T

 $IF-F$ 
 $G \vdash e_1$ : False  $E \vdash e_3$ : T

 $G \vdash$  if  $(e_1)$   $e_2$  else  $e_3$ : T

- What happens when we don't know statically which branch will be taken?
- Consider the typechecking problem:

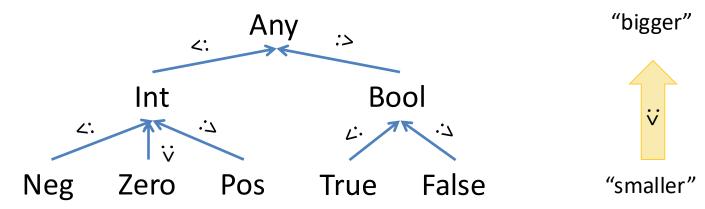
$$x:bool \vdash if(x) 3 else -1 : ?$$

The true branch has type Pos and the false branch has type Neg.

— What should be the result type of the whole if?

## **Subtyping and Upper Bounds**

- If we think of types as sets of values, we have a natural inclusion relation:
   Pos ⊆ Int
- This subset relation gives rise to a <u>subtype</u> relation: Pos <: Int</li>
- Such inclusions give rise to a <u>subtyping hierarchy</u>:



- Given any two types  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ , we can calculate their least upper bound (LUB) according to the hierarchy.
  - Definition: LUB( $T_1$ ,  $T_2$ ) is the smallest T such that  $T_1 <: T$  and  $T_2 <: T$
  - Example: LUB(True, False) = Bool, LUB(Int, Bool) = Any
- Note: might want to add types for "NonZero", "NonNegative", and "NonPositive" so that set union on values corresponds to taking LUBs on types.

# "If" Typing Rule Revisited

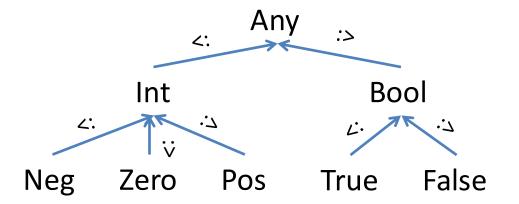
• For statically unknown conditionals, we want the return value to be the LUB of the types of the branches:

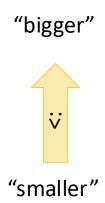
G  $\vdash$  e<sub>1</sub>: bool  $E \vdash$  e<sub>2</sub>: T<sub>1</sub>  $G \vdash$  e<sub>3</sub>: T<sub>2</sub>  $G \vdash$  if (e<sub>1</sub>) e<sub>2</sub> else e<sub>3</sub>: LUB(T<sub>1</sub>,T<sub>2</sub>)

- Note: LUB( $T_1$ ,  $T_2$ ) is the most precise type (according to the hierarchy) that can describe any value that has either type  $T_1$  or type  $T_2$ .
- In math notation, LUB(T<sub>1</sub>, T<sub>2</sub>) is sometimes written T<sub>1</sub> V T<sub>2</sub>
- LUB is also called the join operation.

#### **Subtyping Hierarchy**

A subtyping hierarchy:





- The subtyping relation is a partial order:
  - Reflexive: T <: T for any type T</li>
  - Transitive:  $T_1 <: T_2$  and  $T_2 <: T_3$  then  $T_1 <: T_3$
  - Antisymmetric: It  $T_1 <: T_2$  and  $T_2 <: T_1$  then  $T_1 = T_2$

# **Soundness of Subtyping Relations**

- We don't have to treat every subset of the integers as a type.
  - e.g., we left out the type NonNeg
- A subtyping relation  $T_1 <: T_2$  is *sound* if it approximates the underlying semantic subset relation.
- Formally: write [T] for the subset of (closed) values of type T
  - $i.e., ||T|| = \{v \mid \vdash v : T\}$
  - e.g., [Zero] = {0}, [Pos] = {1, 2, 3, ...}
- If  $T_1 <: T_2$  implies  $[T_1] \subseteq [T_2]$ , then  $T_1 <: T_2$  is sound.
  - e.g., Pos <: Int is sound, since  $\{1,2,3,...\}\subseteq \{...,-3,-2,-1,0,1,2,3,...\}$
  - *e.g.*, Int <: Pos is *not* sound, since it is *not* the case that  $\{...,-3,-2,-1,0,1,2,3,...\}$  ⊆  $\{1,2,3,...\}$

#### **Soundness of LUBs**

Whenever you have a sound subtyping relation, it follows that:

$$[LUB(T_1, T_2)] \supseteq [T_1] \cup [T_2]$$

- Note that the LUB is an over approximation of the "semantic union"
- Example:  $[LUB(Zero, Pos)] = [Int] = {...,-3,-2,-1,0,1,2,3,...}$  ⊇  $\{0,1,2,3,...\} = \{0\} \cup \{1,2,3,...\} = [Zero] \cup [Pos]$
- Using LUBs in the typing rules yields sound approximations of the program behavior (as if the IF-B rule).
- It just so happens that LUBs on these specific subtypes of Int are sound for

ADD

$$G \vdash e_1 : T_1 \quad G \vdash e_2 : T_2 \quad T_1 <: Int \quad T_2 <: Int$$

$$G \vdash e_1 + e_2 : T_1 \lor T_2$$

## **Subsumption Rule**

 When we add subtyping judgments of the form T <: S we can uniformly integrate it into the type system generically:

- Subsumption allows any value of type T to be treated as an S whenever T
   S.
- Adding this rule makes the search for typing derivations more difficult:
  - this rule can be applied anywhere, since T <: T.</li>
  - But careful engineering of the typing system can incorporate the subsumption rule into a deterministic algorithm.
  - See, e.g., the OAT type system

#### **Downcasting**

- What happens if we have an Int but need something of type Pos?
  - At compile time, we don't know whether the Int is greater than zero.
  - At run time, we do.
- Add a "checked downcast"

$$G \vdash e_1 : Int \quad G, x : Pos \vdash e_2 : T_2 \quad G \vdash e_3 : T_3$$

$$G \vdash ifPos(x = e_1) e_2 else e_3 : T_2 \lor T_3$$

- At runtime, if Pos checks whether  $e_1$  is > 0. If so, branches to  $e_2$  and otherwise branches to  $e_3$ .
- Inside the expression e<sub>2</sub>, x is the name for e<sub>1</sub>'s value, which is known to be strictly positive because of the dynamic check.
- Note that such rules force the programmer to add the appropriate checks, and can be used in other contexts too:
  - We could give integer division the type: Int  $\rightarrow$  NonZero  $\rightarrow$  Int

#### **SUBTYPING OTHER TYPES**

# **Extending Subtyping to Other Types**

- What about subtyping for tuples?
  - Intuition: whenever a program expects something of type  $S_1 * S_2$ , it is sound to give it a  $T_1 * T_2$ .
  - Example: (Pos \* Neg) <: (Int \* Int)</p>

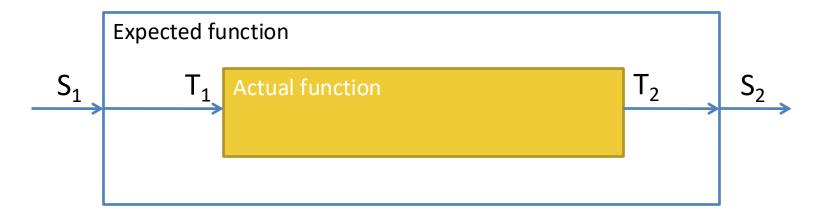
$$T_1 <: S_1 \quad T_2 <: S_2$$

$$(T_1 * T_2) <: (S_1 * S_2)$$

• What about functions? When is  $T_1 \rightarrow T_2 <: S_1 \rightarrow S_2$ ?

## **Subtyping for Function Types**

One way to see it:



• Need to convert an  $S_1$  to a  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  to  $S_2$ , so the argument type is **contravariant** and the output type is **covariant**.

$$S_1 <: T_1 \quad T_2 <: S_2$$

$$(T_1 \rightarrow T_2) <: (S_1 \rightarrow S_2)$$

#### **Immutable Records**

- Record type:  $\{lab_1:T_1; lab_2:T_2; ...; lab_n:T_n\}$ 
  - Each lab; is a label drawn from a set of identifiers.

**RECORD** 

$$G \vdash e_1 : T_1$$

$$G \vdash e_1 : T_1$$
  $G \vdash e_2 : T_2$  ...  $G \vdash e_n : T_n$ 

$$G \vdash \{lab_1 = e_1; lab_2 = e_2; ...; lab_n = e_n\} : \{lab_1:T_1; lab_2:T_2; ...; lab_n:T_n\}$$

**PROJECTION** 

$$G \vdash e : \{lab_1:T_1; lab_2:T_2; ...; lab_n:T_n\}$$

$$G \vdash e.lab_i : T_i$$

## **Immutable Record Subtyping**

- Depth subtyping:
  - Corresponding fields may be subtypes

DEPTH

$$T_1 <: U_1 \qquad T_2 <: U_2 \dots \quad T_n <: U_n$$

```
{lab_1:T_1; lab_2:T_2; ...; lab_n:T_n} <: {lab_1:U_1; lab_2:U_2; ...; lab_n:U_n}
```

- Width subtyping:
  - Subtype record may have more fields on the right:

WIDTH

$$m \le n$$

$${lab_1:T_1; lab_2:T_2; ...; lab_n:T_n} <: {lab_1:T_1; lab_2:T_2; ...; lab_m:T_m}$$

# Depth & Width Subtyping vs. Layout

• Width subtyping (without depth) is compatible with "inlined" record representation as with C structs:

```
{x:int; y:int; z:int} <: {x:int; y:int} [Width Subtyping]
```



- The layout and underlying field indices for 'x' and 'y' are identical.
- The 'z' field is just ignored
- Depth subtyping (without width) is similarly compatible, assuming that the space used by A is the same as the space used by B whenever A <: B</li>
- But... they don't mix without more work

# Immutable Record Subtyping (cont'd)

 Width subtyping assumes an implementation in which order of fields in a record matters:

```
\{x:int; y:int\} \neq \{y:int; x:int\}
```

- But: {x:int; y:int; z:int} <: {x:int; y:int}</li>
  - Implementation: a record is a struct, subtypes just add fields at the end of the struct.
- Alternative: allow permutation of record fields:

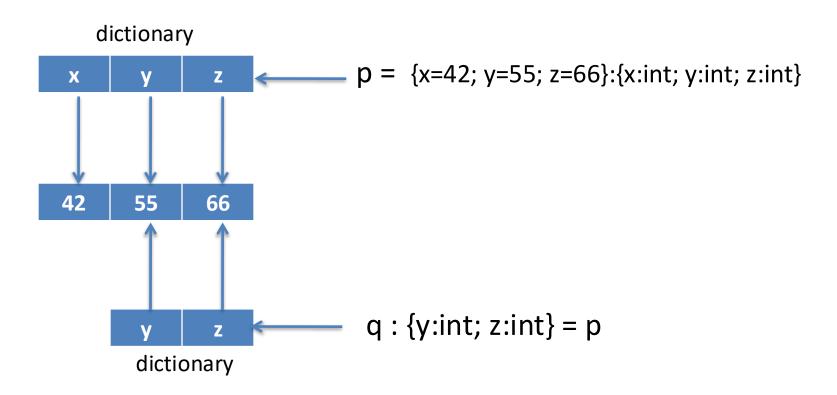
```
{x:int; y:int} = {y:int; x:int}
```

- Implementation: compiler sorts the fields before code generation.
- Need to know all of the fields to generate the code
- Permutation is not directly compatible with width subtyping:

```
{x:int; z:int; y:int} = {x:int; y:int; z:int} </: {y:int; z:int}
```

#### If you want both:

• If you want permutability & dropping, you need to either copy (to rearrange the fields) or use a dictionary like this:



#### **MUTABILITY & SUBTYPING**

#### **NULL**

- What is the type of null?
- Consider:

```
int[] a = null; // OK?
int x = null; // not OK?
string s = null; // OK?
```

NULL

G ⊢ null : r

- Null has any reference type
  - Null is generic
- What about type safety?
  - Requires defined behavior when dereferencing null e.g. Java's NullPointerException
  - Requires a safety check for every dereference operation (typically implemented using low-level hardware "trap" mechanisms.)