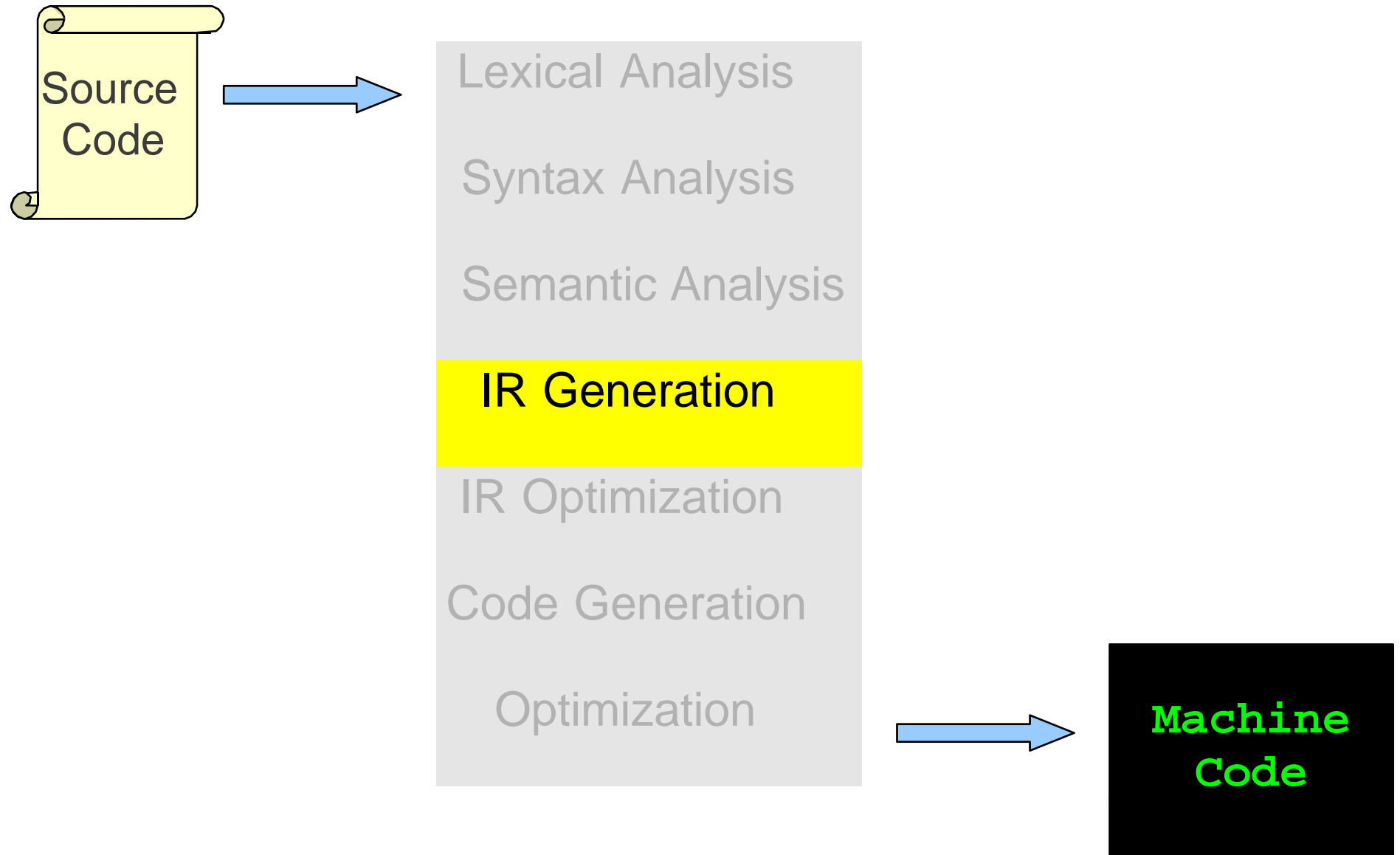


Compilers and Interpreters

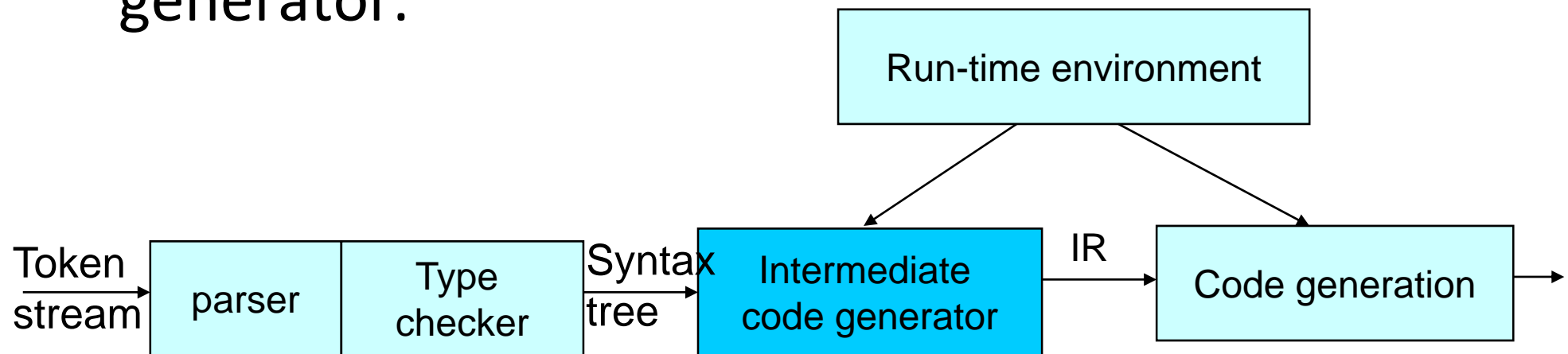
# **Intermediate Code Generation**

# Where We Are



# Intermediate Code Generation

- Intermediate codes are machine independent codes, but they are close to machine instructions.
- The given program in a source language is converted to an equivalent program in an intermediate language by the intermediate code generator.



# Keywords

- Intermediate Representation
  - Directed Acyclic Graph ( DAG )
  - Three-address Code
  - Postfix
  - ...
- Checking and Translation
  - Type Checking
  - Translation of Expressions
  - Boolean Expressions Translation
  - Flow-of-Control Statements Translation

# Intermediate language

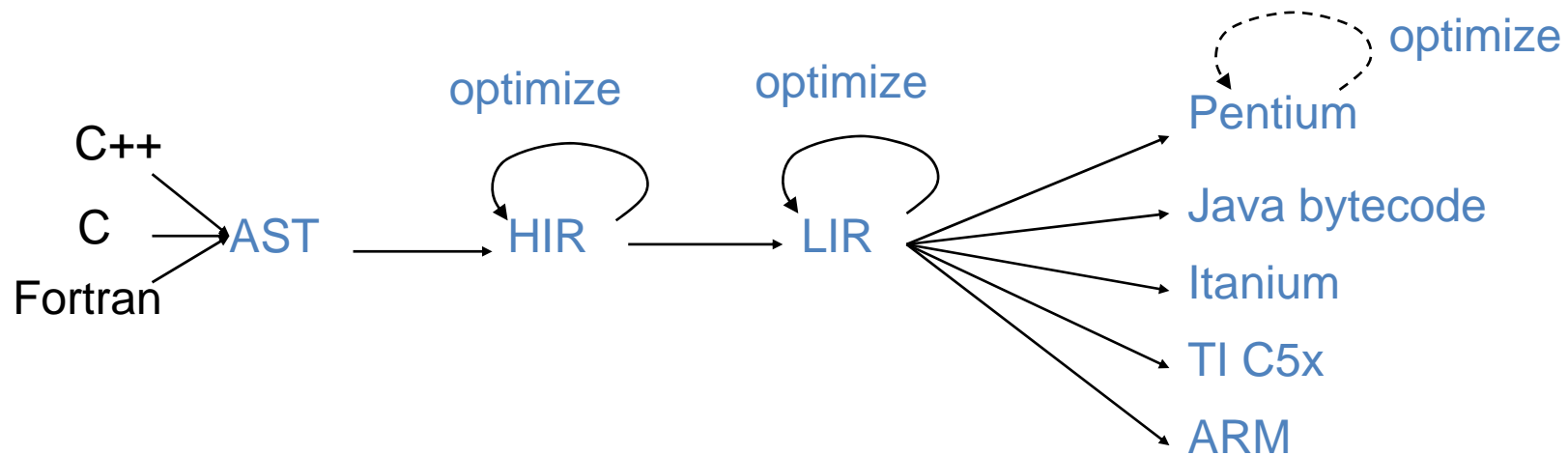
- Intermediate language can be many different languages
  - syntax trees can be used as an intermediate language.
  - postfix notation can be used as an intermediate language.
  - three-address code (Quadruples) can be used as an intermediate language
    - we will use quadruples to discuss intermediate code generation
    - quadruples are close to machine instructions, but they are not actual machine instructions.
  - some programming languages have well defined intermediate languages.
    - java – java virtual machine
    - In fact, there are byte-code emulators to execute instructions in these intermediate languages.

# What Makes a Good IR?

- Captures high-level language constructs
  - Easy to translate from AST
  - Supports high-level optimizations
- Captures low-level machine features
  - Easy to translate to assembly
  - Supports machine-dependent optimizations
- Narrow interface: small number of node types (instructions)
  - Easy to optimize
  - Easy to retarget

# Multiple IRs

- Most compilers use 2 IRs:
  - High-level IR (HIR): Language independent but closer to the language
  - Low-level IR (LIR): Machine independent but closer to the machine
  - A significant part of the compiler is both language and machine independent!



# Intermediate Representation Categories

- **Structural (High-level IR)**
  - graphically oriented
    - e.g.: trees, DAGs
  - nodes, edges tend to be large
- **Linear (Low-level IR)**
  - pseudo-code for abstract machine
  - large variation in level of abstraction
  - simple, compact data structures
- **Hybrids**
  - combination of graph & linear code
  - examples: control flow graphs



# IR Category example

## Source

```
float a[10][20];  
a[i][j+2];
```

Low  $\leftrightarrow$  High

## High-level IR

```
t1 = a[i, j+2]
```

## Middle-level IR

```
t1 = j + 2  
t2 = i * 20  
t3 = t1 + t2  
t4 = 4 * t3  
t5 = addr a  
t6 = t5 + t4  
t7 = *t6
```

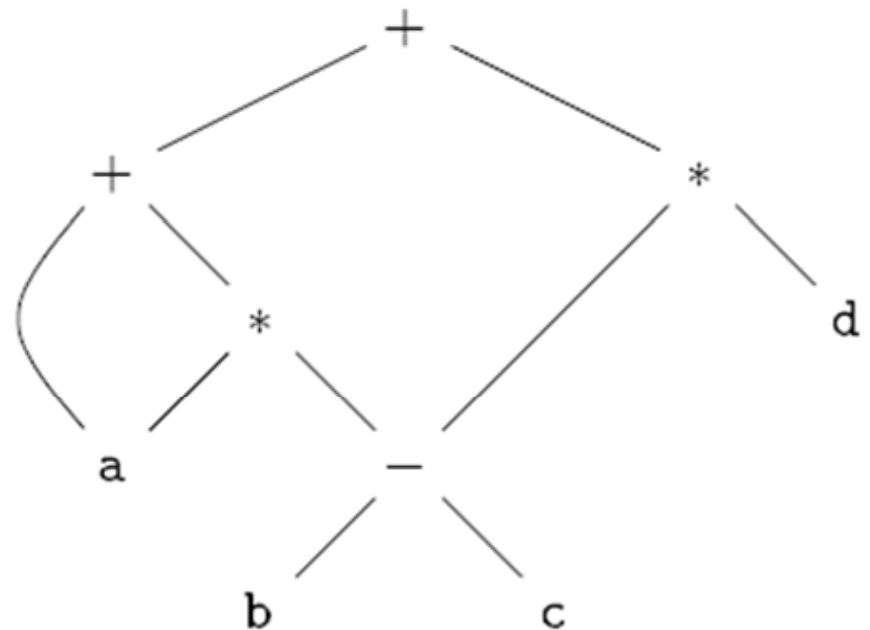
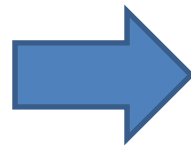
## Low-level IR

```
r1 = [fp - 4]  
r2 = [r1 + 2]  
r3 = [fp - 8]  
r4 = r3 * 20  
r5 = r4 + r2  
r6 = 4 * r5  
r7 = fp - 216  
f1 = [r7 + r6]
```

# Directed Acyclic Graphs

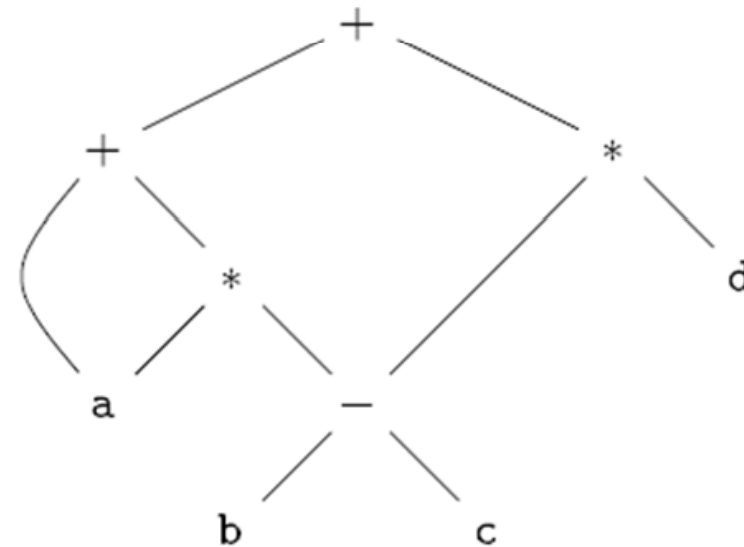
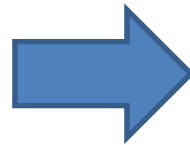
- A DAG has leaves corresponding to atomic operands and interior codes corresponding to operators.
- A DAG not only represents expressions more succinctly, it gives the compiler important clues regarding the generation of efficient code to evaluate the expressions.

$a + a * (b - c) + (b - c) * d$



# Directed Acyclic Graphs ( Cont. )

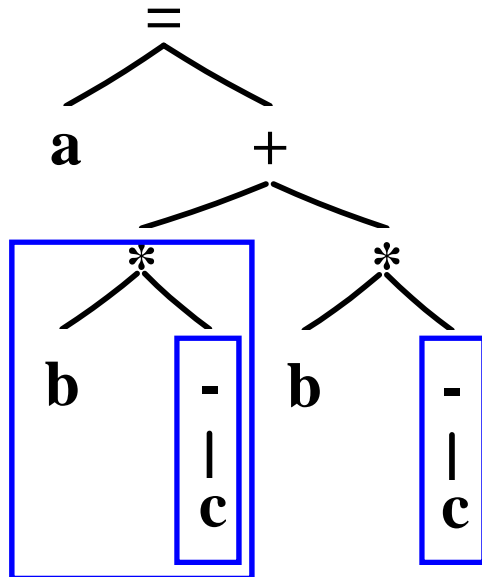
$a + a * (b - c) + (b - c) * d$



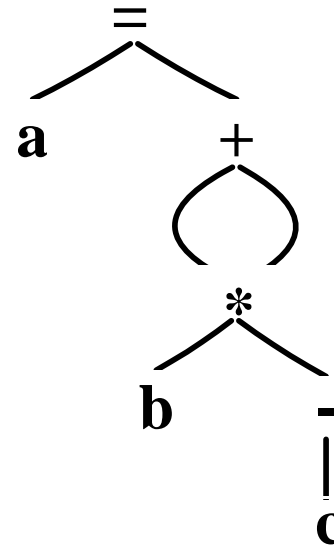
PRODUCTION	SEMANTIC RULES
1) $E \rightarrow E_1 + T$	$E.node = \mathbf{new} \text{ Node}(' + ', E_1.node, T.node)$
2) $E \rightarrow E_1 - T$	$E.node = \mathbf{new} \text{ Node}(' - ', E_1.node, T.node)$
3) $E \rightarrow T$	$E.node = T.node$
4) $T \rightarrow ( E )$	$T.node = E.node$
5) $T \rightarrow \mathbf{id}$	$T.node = \mathbf{new} \text{ Leaf}(\mathbf{id}, \mathbf{id.entry})$
6) $T \rightarrow \mathbf{num}$	$T.node = \mathbf{new} \text{ Leaf}(\mathbf{num}, \mathbf{num.val})$

# Directed Acyclic Graphs

- $a = (b * (-c)) + (b * (-c))$
- Postfix : a b c uminus \* b c uminus \* + =



Abstract Syntax Tree



DAG

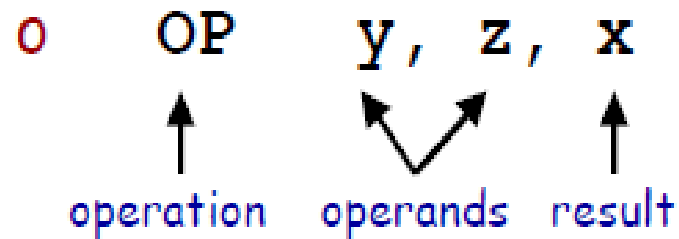
# Postfix Notation

•  $a*b+c \Rightarrow ab * c +$

$E \rightarrow T + E_1$	$E.code = T.code    E_1.code    +$
$E \rightarrow T$	$E.code = T.code$
$T \rightarrow F * T_1$	$T.code = F.code    T_1.code    *$
$T \rightarrow F$	$E.code = F.code$
$F \rightarrow (E)$	$E.code = E.code$
$F \rightarrow id$	$F.code = id$

- $(E, E.code) \Rightarrow (T+E_1, T.code || E_1.code || +)$   
 $\Rightarrow (F * T_1 + E_1, F.code || T_1.code || * || E_1.code || +)$   
 $\Rightarrow (a * T_1 + E_1, a || T_1.code || * || E_1.code || +)$   
 $\Rightarrow (a * F + E_1, a || F.code || * || E_1.code || +)$   
 $\Rightarrow (a * b + E_1, a || b || * || E_1.code || +)$   
 $\Rightarrow (a * b + T, a || b || * || T.code || +)$   
 $\Rightarrow (a * b + F, a || b || * || F.code || +)$   
 $\Rightarrow (a * b + c, a || b || * || c || +)$

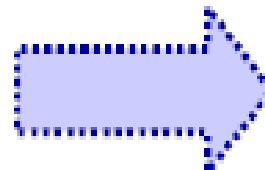
# Three-Address Code ( Quaduples )



- Has three names/addresses ( $x, y, z$ ), or less
- A single operator ( $OP$ )
- We will write as:  $x \leftarrow y \text{ OP } z$

## Example:

$x \leftarrow (y + z) * (-r) ;$



$t1 \leftarrow y + z$

$t2 \leftarrow -r$

$t3 \leftarrow t1 * t2$

# Three-Address Code ( Quadruples )

- A quadruple is:

$$x \; ::= \; y \; \textit{op} \; z$$

where  $x$ ,  $y$  and  $z$  are names, constants or compiler-generated temporaries;  $\textit{op}$  is any operator.

- But we may also the following notation for quadruples (much better notation because it looks like a machine code instruction)

$$\textit{op} \; x, y, z$$

apply operator  $\textit{op}$  to  $y$  and  $z$ , and store the result in  $x$ .

- We use the term “three-address code” because each statement usually contains three addresses (two for operands, one for the result).

# Three-Address Code

## ***Binary Operator:***

**op result,y,z or result := y op z**

where `op` is a binary arithmetic or logical operator. This binary operator is applied to `y` and `z`, and the result of the operation is stored in `result`.

Ex:

<code>add</code>	<code>a,b,c</code>
<code>addi</code>	<code>a,b,c</code>
<code>gt</code>	<code>a,b,c</code>

## ***Unary Operator:***

**op result,,y or result := op y**

where `op` is a unary arithmetic or logical operator. This unary operator is applied to `y`, and the result of the operation is stored in `result`.

Ex:

<code>uminus</code>	<code>a,,c</code>
<code>not</code>	<code>a,,c</code>
<code>inttoreal</code>	<code>a,,c</code>



# Three-Address Code(cont.)

## ***Move Operator:***

`mov result,,y` or `result := y`

where the content of `y` is copied into `result`.

Ex:

<code>mov</code>	<code>a,,c</code>
<code>movi</code>	<code>a,,c</code>
<code>movr</code>	<code>a,,c</code>

## ***Unconditional Jumps:***

`jmp ,,L` or `goto L`

We will jump to the three-address code with the label `L`, and the execution continues from that statement.

Ex:

<code>jmp</code>	<code>,,L1</code>	// jump to L1
<code>jmp</code>	<code>,,7</code>	// jump to the statement 7

# Three-Address Code(cont.)

## ***Conditional Jumps:***

`jmp relop y,z,L`                      or  
`if y relop z goto L`

We will jump to the three-address code with the label `L` if the result of `y relop z` is true, and the execution continues from that statement. If the result is false, the execution continues from the statement following this conditional jump statement.

Ex:

<code>jmpgt</code>	<code>y,z,L1</code>	// jump to L1 if <code>y&gt;z</code>
<code>jmpge</code>	<code>y,z,L1</code>	// jump to L1 if <code>y&gt;=z</code>
<code>jmpeq</code>	<code>y,z,L1</code>	// jump to L1 if <code>y==z</code>
<code>jmpne</code>	<code>y,z,L1</code>	// jump to L1 if <code>y!=z</code>

Our relational operator can also be a unary operator.

<code>jmpnz</code>	<code>y,,L1</code>	// jump to L1 if y is not zero
<code>jmpz</code>	<code>y,,L1</code>	// jump to L1 if y is zero
<code>jmpt</code>	<code>y,,L1</code>	// jump to L1 if y is true
<code>jmpf</code>	<code>y,,L1</code>	// jump to L1 if y is false

# Three-Address Code(cont.)

## ***Procedure Parameters:***

`param x,,` or `param x`

## ***Procedure Calls:***

`call p,n,` or `call p,n`

where `x` is an actual parameter, we invoke the procedure `p` with `n` parameters.

Ex:

`param x1,,`

`param x2,,`

$\rightarrow p(x_1, \dots, x_n)$

`param xn,,`

`call p,n,`

`f(x+1,y)  $\rightarrow$  add t1,x,1`

`param t1,,`

`param y,,`

`call f,2,`

# Three-Address Code(cont.)

## ***Indexed Assignments:***

move x, ,y[i] or x := y[i]

move y[i], ,x or y[i] := x

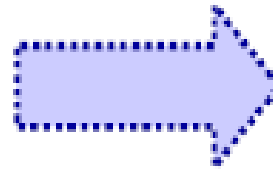
## ***Address and Pointer Assignments:***

moveaddr x, ,y or x := &y

movecont x, ,y or x := \*y

# Three-Address Code Example 1

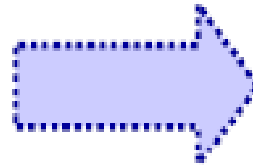
```
n = 0;  
while ( n < 10 ) {  
    n = n + 1;  
}
```



```
n ← 0  
label lTEST  
t2 ← n < 10  
t3 ← NOT t2  
cjmp t3 lEND  
label lBODY  
n ← n + 1  
jump lTEST  
label lEND
```

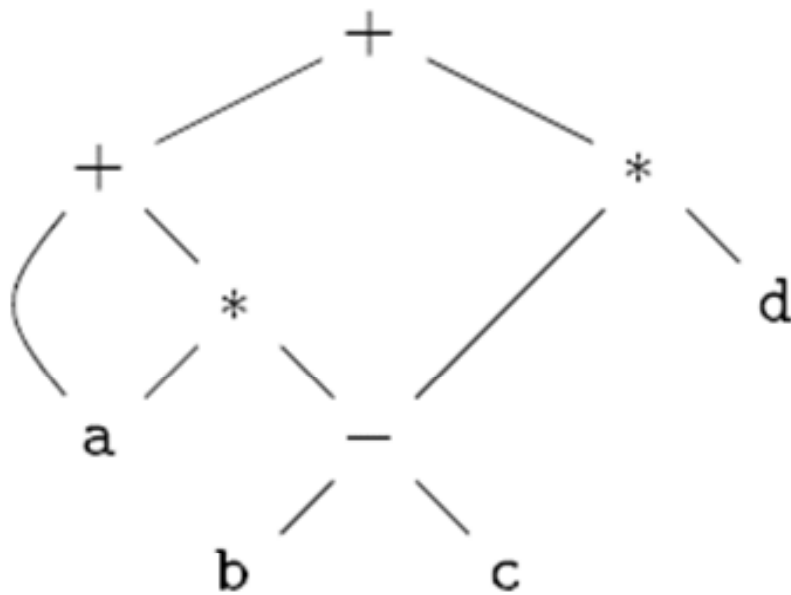
# Three-Address Code Example 2

```
m = 0;  
if ( c == 0 ) {  
    m = m + n*n;  
} else {  
    m = m + n;  
}
```



```
m ← 0  
t1 ← c == 0  
cjmp t1 lTRUE  
m ← m + n  
jump lEND  
label lTRUE  
t2 ← n * n  
m ← m + t2  
label lEND
```

# Different IRs



(a) DAG

```
t1  =  b - c
t2  =  a * t1
t3  =  a + t2
t4  =  t1 * d
t5  =  t3 + t4
```

(b) Three-address code

$$a = (b * (-c)) + (b * (-c))$$

```

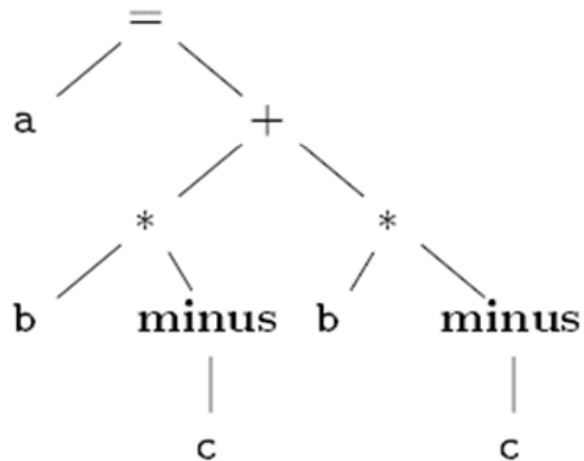
t1 = minus c
t2 = b * t1
t3 = minus c
t4 = b * t3
t5 = t2 + t4
a = t5

```

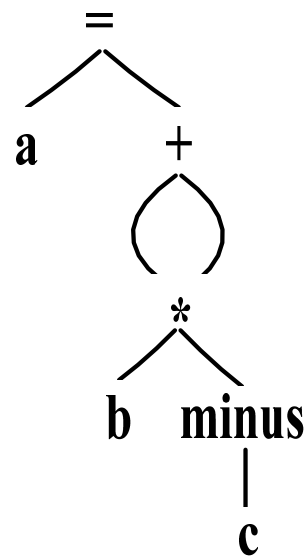
Three-address code

	<i>op</i>	<i>arg</i> <sub>1</sub>	<i>arg</i> <sub>2</sub>	<i>result</i>
0	minus	c		t <sub>1</sub>
1	*	b	t <sub>1</sub>	t <sub>2</sub>
2	minus	c		t <sub>3</sub>
3	*	b	t <sub>3</sub>	t <sub>4</sub>
4	+	t <sub>2</sub>	t <sub>4</sub>	t <sub>5</sub>
5	=	t <sub>5</sub>		a
	...			

Quadruples



Syntax tree



DAG

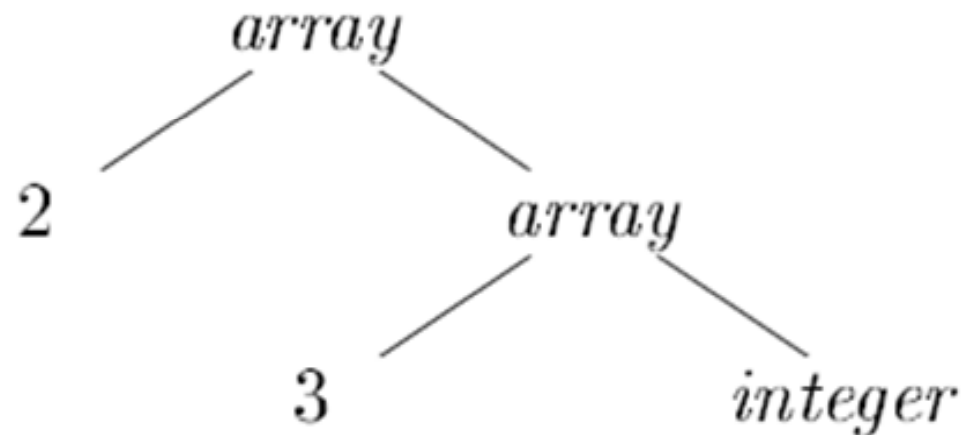
	<i>op</i>	<i>arg</i> <sub>1</sub>	<i>arg</i> <sub>2</sub>	<i>result</i>
0	minus	c		
1	*	b	(0)	
2	minus	c		
3	*	b	(2)	
4	+	(1)	(3)	
5	=	a	(4)	
	...			

Triples



# Type Expressions

- A **type expression** is either a basic type or is formed by applying an operator called a type constructor to a type expression. The sets of basic types and constructors depend on the language to be checked.



Type expression for `int [2] [3]`

# Declarations

- At compile time, we can use these amounts to assign each name a relative address. The type and relative address are saved in the symbol-table entry for the name .
- Data of varying length, such as strings, or data whose size cannot be determined until run time , such as dynamic arrays , is handled by reserving a known fixed amount of storage for a pointer to the data.

$$\begin{array}{ll} T \rightarrow B & \{ t = B.type; w = B.width; \} \\ C & \{ T.type = C.type; T.width = C.width; \} \end{array}$$

$$B \rightarrow \text{int} \quad \{ B.type = integer; B.width = 4; \}$$

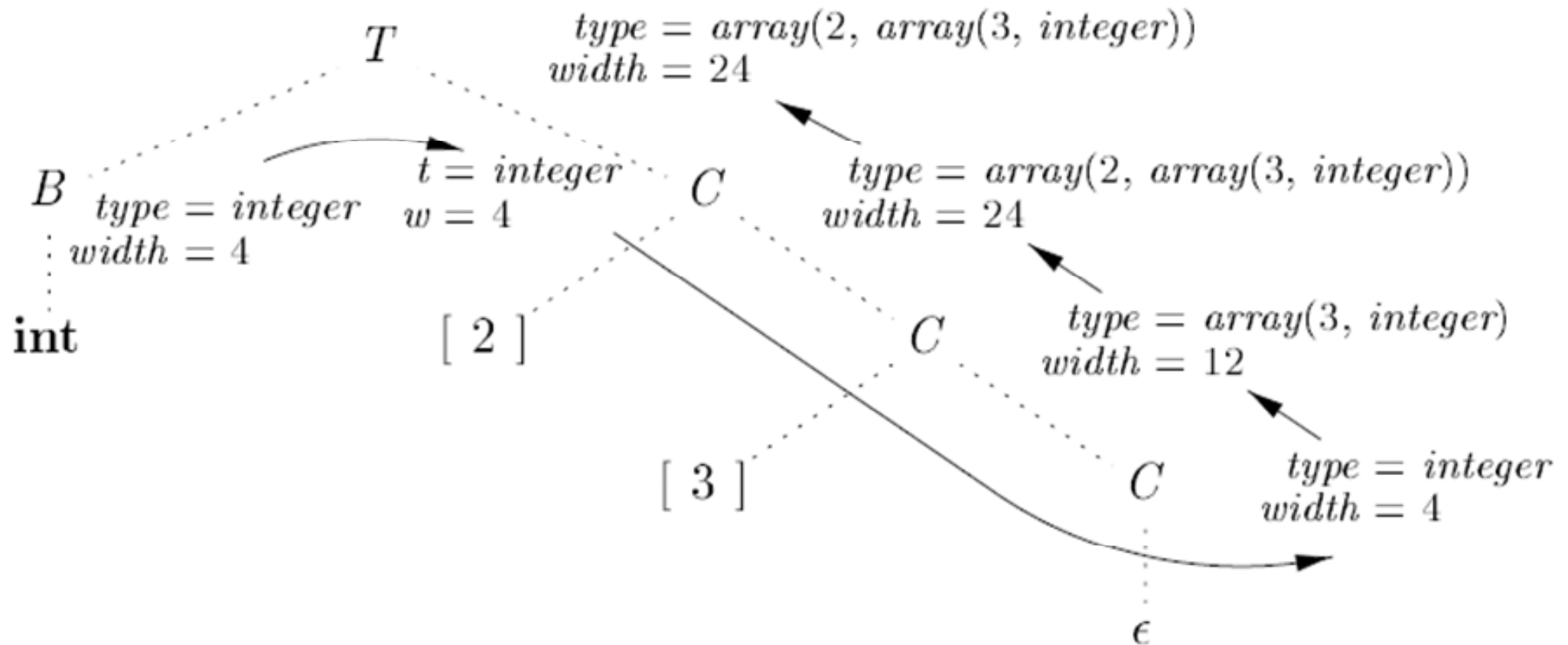
$$B \rightarrow \text{float} \quad \{ B.type = float; B.width = 8; \}$$

$$C \rightarrow \epsilon \quad \{ C.type = t; C.width = w; \}$$

$$C \rightarrow [ \text{num} ] C_1 \quad \{ C.type = array(\text{num.value}, C_1.type); \\ C.width = \text{num.value} \times C_1.width; \}$$

# Storage Layout for Local Names

- Syntax-directed translation of array types



# Type Checking

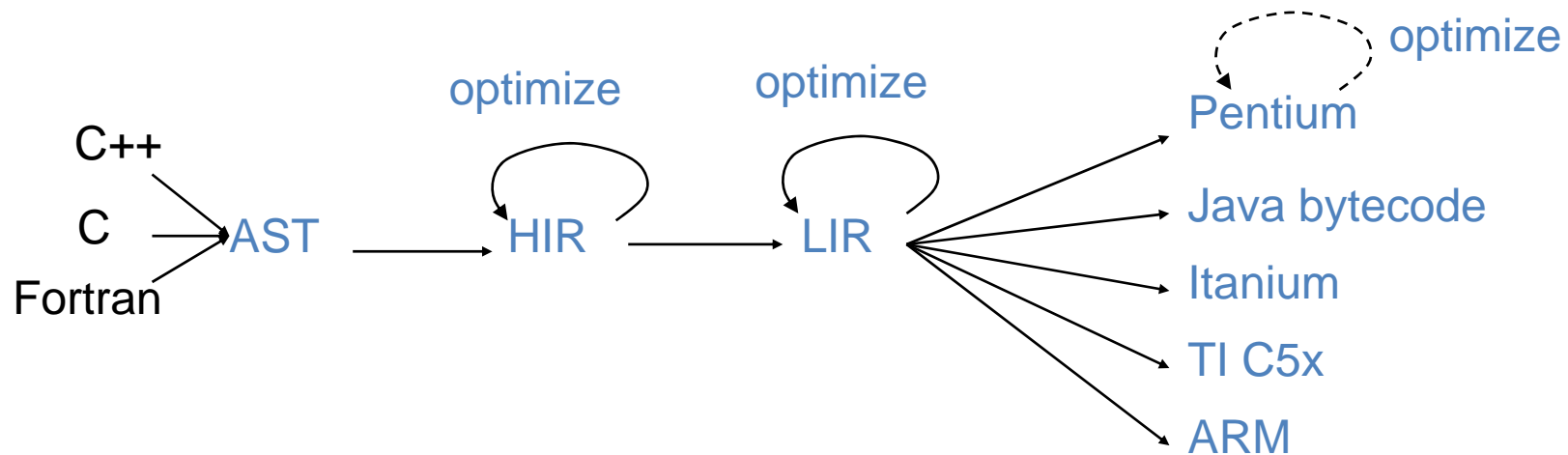
- To do type checking a compiler needs to assign a type expression to each component of the source program. The compiler must then determine that these type expressions conform to a collection of logical rules that is called the type

# Type Systems

- A **type system** is a collection of rules for assigning type expressions to the parts of a program.
- A **type checker** implements a type system.
- A sound type system eliminates run-time type checking for type errors.
- A programming language is **strongly-typed**, if every program its compiler accepts will execute without type errors.
  - In practice, some of type checking operations are done at run-time (so, most of the programming languages are not strongly-typed).
  - Ex: `int x[100]; ... x[i]`      most of the compilers cannot guarantee that `i` will be between 0 and 99

# Multiple IRs

- Most compilers use 2 IRs:
  - High-level IR (HIR): Language independent but closer to the language
  - Low-level IR (LIR): Machine independent but closer to the machine
  - A significant part of the compiler is both language and machine independent!



# Type Expressions

- The type of a language construct is denoted by a **type expression**.
- A *type expression* can be:
  - A **basic type**
    - a primitive data type such as *integer, real, char, boolean, ...*
    - *type-error* to signal a type error
    - *void* : no type
  - A **type name**
    - a name can be used to denote a type expression.

# A Simple Type Checking System

- The type checker is a translation scheme that synthesizes the type of each expression from the types of its sub-expressions.

```
P → D; E
D → D; D
D → id: T    { addtype(id.entry,T.type) }
T → char     { T.type=char }
T → int      { T.type=int }
T → real     { T.type=real }
T → ↑T1     { T.type=pointer(T1.type) }
T → array[intnum] of T1 { T.type=array(0..intnum.val,T1.type) }
```



# Type Checking of Expressions


$E \rightarrow \text{id}$	{ E.type=lookup(id.entry) }
$E \rightarrow \text{charliteral}$	{ E.type=char }
$E \rightarrow \text{intliteral}$	{ E.type=int }
$E \rightarrow \text{realliteral}$	{ E.type=real }
$E \rightarrow E_1 + E_2$	{ if ( $E_1$ .type=int and $E_2$ .type=int) then E.type=int else if ( $E_1$ .type=int and $E_2$ .type=real) then E.type=real else if ( $E_1$ .type=real and $E_2$ .type=int) then E.type=real else if ( $E_1$ .type=real and $E_2$ .type=real) then E.type=real else E.type=type-error }
$E \rightarrow E_1 [E_2]$	{ if ( $E_2$ .type=int and $E_1$ .type=array(s,t)) then E.type=t else E.type=type-error }
$E \rightarrow \uparrow E_1$	{ if (t=pointer( $E_1$ .type)) then E.type=t else E.type=type-error }

# Type Checking of Functions

$E \rightarrow E_1 ( E_2 ) \quad \{ \text{if } (E_2.\text{type}=s \text{ and } E_1.\text{type}=s \rightarrow t) \text{ then } E.\text{type}=t$   
 $\text{else } E.\text{type}=\text{type-error} \}$

Ex:     `int f(double x, char y) { ... }`

f:        `double x char → int`



argument types                  return type

# Structural Equivalence of Type Expressions

- How do we know that two type expressions are equal?
- As long as type expressions are built from basic types (no type names), we may use **structural equivalence** between two type expressions

## Structural Equivalence Algorithm (**sequiv**):

if ( $s$  and  $t$  are same basic types) then return true

else if ( $s = \text{array}(s_1, s_2)$  and  $t = \text{array}(t_1, t_2)$ ) then return ( $\text{sequiv}(s_1, t_1)$  and  $\text{sequiv}(s_2, t_2)$ )

else if ( $s = s_1 \times s_2$  and  $t = t_1 \times t_2$ ) then return ( $\text{sequiv}(s_1, t_1)$  and  $\text{sequiv}(s_2, t_2)$ )

else if ( $s = \text{pointer}(s_1)$  and  $t = \text{pointer}(t_1)$ ) then return ( $\text{sequiv}(s_1, t_1)$ )

else if ( $s = s_1 \rightarrow s_2$  and  $t = t_1 \rightarrow t_2$ ) then return ( $\text{sequiv}(s_1, t_1)$  and  $\text{sequiv}(s_2, t_2)$ )

else return false

# Type Coercions

**x + y**

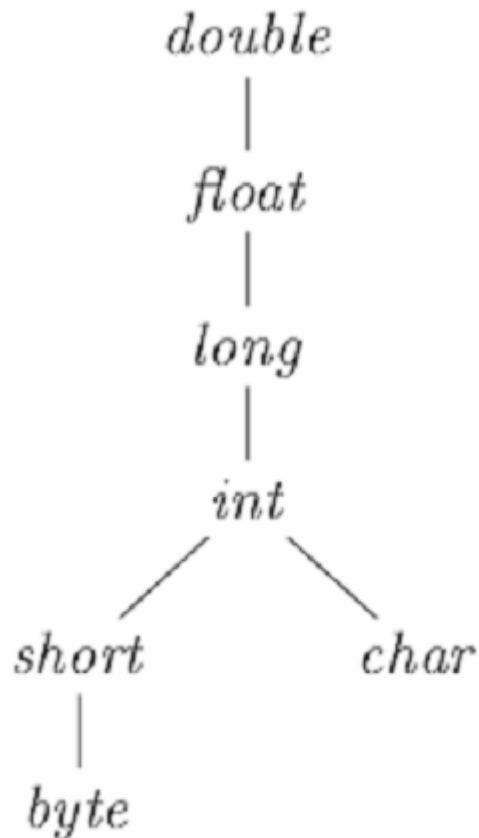
what is the type of this expression (int or double)?

- What kind of codes we have to produce, if the type of x is double and the type of y is int?

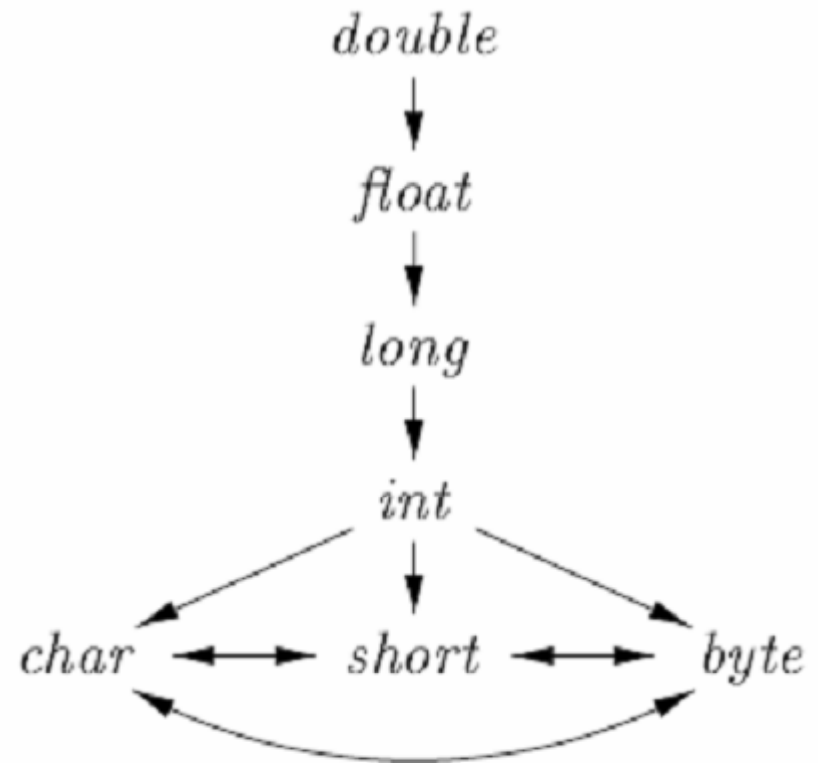
```
inttoreal    t1,,y
real+        t2,x,t1    (addf $f3,$f1,$f2)
                                ↑    ↑    ↑
                                t2   x   t1
```

Conversion from one type to another is said to be **implicit** if it is done automatically by the compiler. Implicit type conversions, also called **coercions**. Conversion is said to be **explicit** if the programmer must write something to cause the conversion. Explicit conversions are also called **casts**.

# Type Coercions (cont.)



(a) Widening conversions



(b) Narrowing conversions

# Overloading

- Expressions might have a multitude of types.

$$\begin{array}{ll} E \rightarrow \text{id} & \{E.\text{types} = \text{lookup}(\text{id}.\text{entry})\} \\ E \rightarrow E_1 + E_2 & \{E.\text{types} = \{ t \mid \text{there exists a type in} \\ & \quad E_1.\text{types and } E_2.\text{types simultaneously } \} \\ E \rightarrow E_1(E_2) & \{E.\text{types} = \{ t \mid \text{there exists a } s \text{ in } E_2.\text{types} \\ & \quad \text{such that } s \rightarrow t \text{ belongs to } E_1.\text{types} \} \end{array}$$

- An overloaded symbol is one that has different meanings depending on its context.
  - The type of  $E$  is determined by looking at the possible types of  $E_1$  and  $E_2$ .
- Type error will occur when  $E.\text{types}$  becomes empty for some expression.

# SDD of Expressions

$S \rightarrow \mathbf{id} := E$	$S.code = E.code \mid \mid \text{gen}(\text{'mov' id.place ',, ' E.place})$
$E \rightarrow E_1 + E_2$	$E.place = \text{newtemp}();$ $E.code = E_1.code \mid \mid E_2.code \mid \mid \text{gen}(\text{'add' E.place ',' E_1.place ',' E_2.place})$
$E \rightarrow E_1 * E_2$	$E.place = \text{newtemp}();$ $E.code = E_1.code \mid \mid E_2.code \mid \mid \text{gen}(\text{'mult' E.place ',' E_1.place ',' E_2.place})$
$E \rightarrow - E_1$	$E.place = \text{newtemp}();$ $E.code = E_1.code \mid \mid \text{gen}(\text{'uminus' E.place ',, ' E_1.place})$
$E \rightarrow ( E_1 )$	$E.place = E_1.place;$ $E.code = E_1.code$
$E \rightarrow \mathbf{id}$	$E.place = \mathbf{id}.place;$ $E.code = \text{null}$

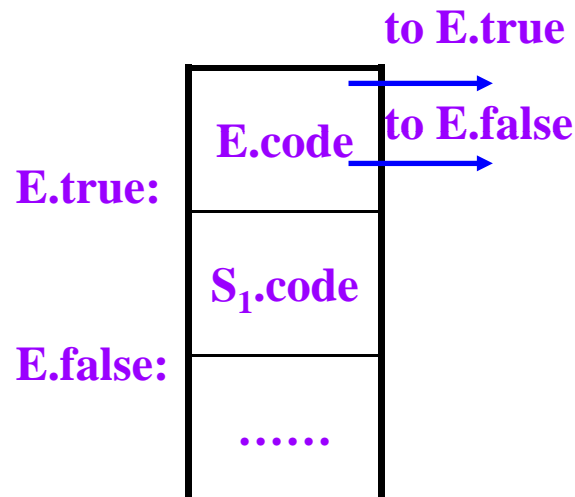
## Translation Scheme to Produce Three-Address Code -- Assignment Statements

$S \rightarrow \mathbf{id} := E$	{ p= lookup(id.name); if (p is not nil) then emit('mov' p',,' E.place) else error("undefined-variable") }
$E \rightarrow E_1 + E_2$	{ E.place = newtemp(); emit('add' E.place ',' E <sub>1</sub> .place ',' E <sub>2</sub> .place) }
$E \rightarrow E_1 * E_2$	{ E.place = newtemp(); emit('mult' E.place ',' E <sub>1</sub> .place ',' E <sub>2</sub> .place) }
$E \rightarrow - E_1$	{ E.place = newtemp(); emit('uminus' E.place ',,' E <sub>1</sub> .place) }
$E \rightarrow ( E_1 )$	{ E.place = E <sub>1</sub> .place; }
$E \rightarrow \mathbf{id}$	{ p= lookup(id.name); if (p is not nil) then E.place = <b>id</b> .place else error("undefined-variable") }

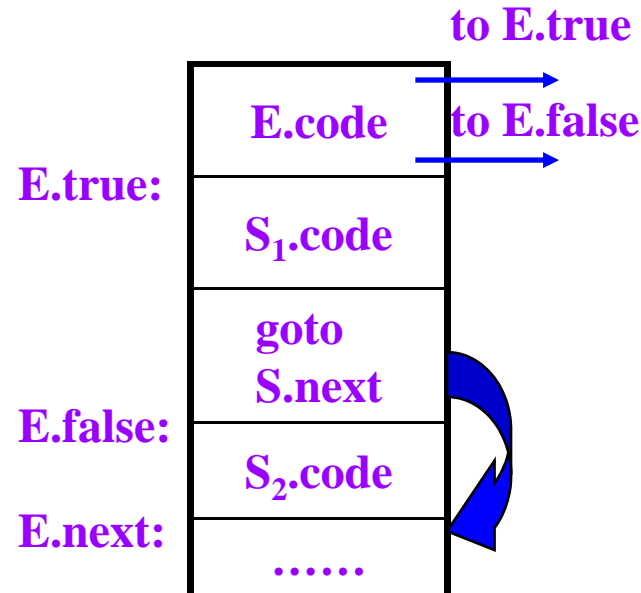


# Flow-of-Control Statement

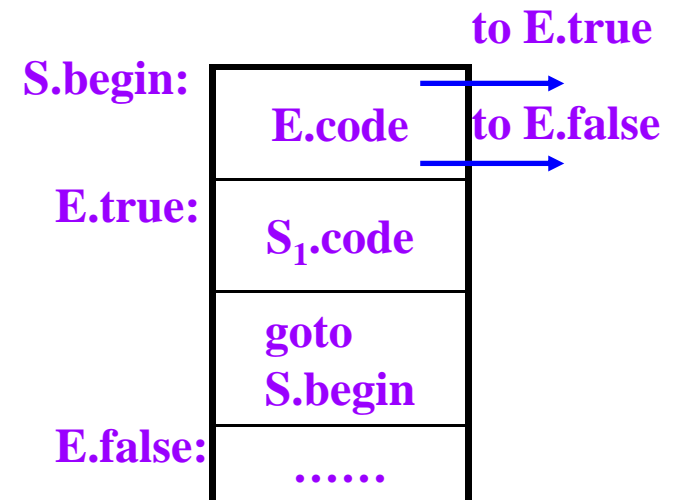
- $S \rightarrow \text{if } E \text{ then } S_1 \mid \text{if } E \text{ then } S_1 \text{ else } S_2 \mid \text{while } E \text{ do } S_1$



if-then statement



if-then-else statement



while-do statement

PRODUCTION	SEMANTIC RULES
$B \rightarrow B_1 \    \ B_2$	$B_1.true = B.true$ $B_1.false = newlabel()$ $B_2.true = B.true$ $B_2.false = B.false$ $B.code = B_1.code \    \ label(B_1.false) \    \ B_2.code$
$B \rightarrow B_1 \ \&\& \ B_2$	$B_1.true = newlabel()$ $B_1.false = B.false$ $B_2.true = B.true$ $B_2.false = B.false$ $B.code = B_1.code \    \ label(B_1.true) \    \ B_2.code$
$B \rightarrow ! \ B_1$	$B_1.true = B.false$ $B_1.false = B.true$ $B.code = B_1.code$
$B \rightarrow E_1 \ \mathbf{rel} \ E_2$	$B.code = E_1.code \    \ E_2.code$ $\quad \    \ gen('if' \ E_1.addr \ \mathbf{rel.op} \ E_2.addr \ 'goto' \ B.true)$ $\quad \    \ gen('goto' \ B.false)$
$B \rightarrow \mathbf{true}$	$B.code = gen('goto' \ B.true)$
$B \rightarrow \mathbf{false}$	$B.code = gen('goto' \ B.false)$

Figure 6.37: Generating three-address code for booleans

```
        if x < 100 goto L2
        goto L3
L3:     if x > 200 goto L4
        goto L1
L4:     if x != y goto L2
        goto L1
L2:     x = 0
L1:
```

Figure 6.38: Control-flow translation of a simple if-statement

- 1)  $B \rightarrow B_1 \ || \ M \ B_2$      $\{ \text{backpatch}(B_1.\text{falselist}, M.\text{instr});$   
 $B.\text{truelist} = \text{merge}(B_1.\text{truelist}, B_2.\text{truelist});$   
 $B.\text{falselist} = B_2.\text{falselist}; \}$
- 2)  $B \rightarrow B_1 \ \&\& \ M \ B_2$      $\{ \text{backpatch}(B_1.\text{truelist}, M.\text{instr});$   
 $B.\text{truelist} = B_2.\text{truelist};$   
 $B.\text{falselist} = \text{merge}(B_1.\text{falselist}, B_2.\text{falselist}); \}$
- 3)  $B \rightarrow ! \ B_1$      $\{ B.\text{truelist} = B_1.\text{falselist};$   
 $B.\text{falselist} = B_1.\text{truelist}; \}$
- 4)  $B \rightarrow ( \ B_1 \ )$      $\{ B.\text{truelist} = B_1.\text{truelist};$   
 $B.\text{falselist} = B_1.\text{falselist}; \}$
- 5)  $B \rightarrow E_1 \ \mathbf{rel} \ E_2$      $\{ B.\text{truelist} = \text{makelist}(\text{nextinstr});$   
 $B.\text{falselist} = \text{makelist}(\text{nextinstr} + 1);$   
 $\text{gen}(\text{'if' } E_1.\text{addr} \ \mathbf{rel.op} \ E_2.\text{addr} \ \text{'goto -'});$   
 $\text{gen}(\text{'goto -'}); \}$
- 6)  $B \rightarrow \mathbf{true}$      $\{ B.\text{truelist} = \text{makelist}(\text{nextinstr});$   
 $\text{gen}(\text{'goto -'}); \}$
- 7)  $B \rightarrow \mathbf{false}$      $\{ B.\text{falselist} = \text{makelist}(\text{nextinstr});$   
 $\text{gen}(\text{'goto -'}); \}$
- 8)  $M \rightarrow \epsilon$      $\{ M.\text{instr} = \text{nextinstr}; \}$

Figure 6.43: Translation scheme for boolean expressions

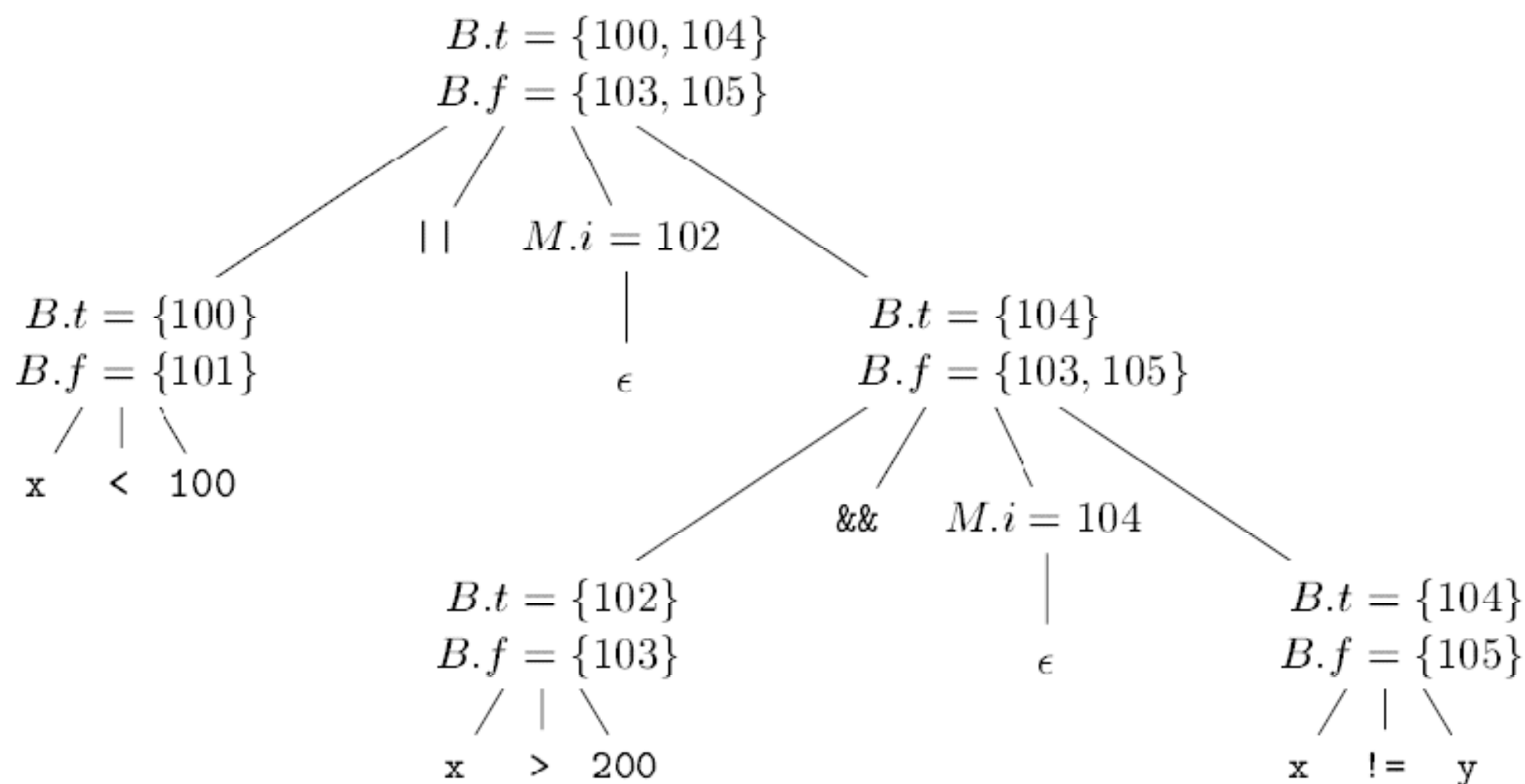


Figure 6.44: Annotated parse tree for  $x < 100 \ || \ x > 200 \ \&\& \ x \neq y$

```
100:  if x < 100 goto _
101:  goto _
102:  if x > 200 goto 104
103:  goto _
104:  if x != y goto _
105:  goto _
```

(a) After backpatching 104 into instruction 102.

```
100:  if x < 100 goto _
101:  goto 102
102:  if x > 200 goto 104
103:  goto _
104:  if x != y goto _
105:  goto _
```

(b) After backpatching 102 into instruction 101.

Figure 6.45: Steps in the backpatch process

- 1)  $S \rightarrow \mathbf{if}(B) M S_1 \{ \text{backpatch}(B.\text{truelist}, M.\text{instr});$   
 $S.\text{nextlist} = \text{merge}(B.\text{falselist}, S_1.\text{nextlist}); \}$
- 2)  $S \rightarrow \mathbf{if}(B) M_1 S_1 N \mathbf{else} M_2 S_2$   
 $\{ \text{backpatch}(B.\text{truelist}, M_1.\text{instr});$   
 $\text{backpatch}(B.\text{falselist}, M_2.\text{instr});$   
 $\text{temp} = \text{merge}(S_1.\text{nextlist}, N.\text{nextlist});$   
 $S.\text{nextlist} = \text{merge}(\text{temp}, S_2.\text{nextlist}); \}$
- 3)  $S \rightarrow \mathbf{while} M_1 (B) M_2 S_1$   
 $\{ \text{backpatch}(S_1.\text{nextlist}, M_1.\text{instr});$   
 $\text{backpatch}(B.\text{truelist}, M_2.\text{instr});$   
 $S.\text{nextlist} = B.\text{falselist};$   
 $\text{gen}(\text{'goto' } M_1.\text{instr}); \}$
- 4)  $S \rightarrow \{ L \} \quad \{ S.\text{nextlist} = L.\text{nextlist}; \}$
- 5)  $S \rightarrow A ; \quad \{ S.\text{nextlist} = \mathbf{null}; \}$
- 6)  $M \rightarrow \epsilon \quad \{ M.\text{instr} = \text{nextinstr}; \}$
- 7)  $N \rightarrow \epsilon \quad \{ N.\text{nextlist} = \text{makelist}(\text{nextinstr});$   
 $\text{gen}(\text{'goto' } \_); \}$
- 8)  $L \rightarrow L_1 M S \quad \{ \text{backpatch}(L_1.\text{nextlist}, M.\text{instr});$   
 $L.\text{nextlist} = S.\text{nextlist}; \}$
- 9)  $L \rightarrow S \quad \{ L.\text{nextlist} = S.\text{nextlist}; \}$

Figure 6.46: Translation of statements

# Reference

- Compilers Principles, Techniques & Tools (Second Edition) Alfred Aho., Monica S. Lam, Ravi Sethi, Jeffrey D. Ullman, Addison-Wesley, 2007
  - Chapter 6.1, 6.2, 6.3, 6.4, 6.5, 6.6, 6.7.1, 6.7.2, 6.7.3
- Coursera Course – Compiler, [http://www. Coursera.org](http://www.Coursera.org)
- Stanford Course CS143 by Keith Schwarz, <http://cs143.stanford.edu>