# Native code generation

JOOS programs are compiled into bytecode.

This bytecode can be executed thanks to either:

- $\bullet$  an interpreter;
- an Ahead-Of-Time (AOT) compiler; or
- a Just-In-Time (JIT) compiler.

Regardless, bytecode must be implicitly or explicitly translated into native code suitable for the host architecture before execution.

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#### Interpreters:

- are easier to implement;
- can be very portable; but
- suffer an inherent inefficiency:

```
pc = code.start;
while(true)
  { npc = pc + instruction_length(code[pc]);
     switch (opcode(code[pc]))
       { case ILOAD_1: push(local[1]);
                       break:
          case ILOAD: push(local[code[pc+1]]);
                       break;
          case ISTORE: t = pop();
                       local[code[pc+1]] = t;
          case IADD:
                       t1 = pop(); t2 = pop();
                       push(t1 + t2);
                       break;
          case IFEQ:
                       t = pop();
                       if (t == 0) npc = code[pc+1];
      }
    pc = npc;
```

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#### Ahead-of-Time compilers:

- translate the low-level intermediate form into native code:
- create all object files, which are then linked, and finally executed.

This is not so useful for Java and JOOS:

- method code is fetched as it is needed;
- from across the internet; and
- from multiple hosts with different native code sets.

# Just-in-Time compilers:

- merge interpreting with traditional compilation;
- have the overall structure of an interpreter;
- method code is handled differently.

When a method is invoked for the first time:

- the bytecode is fetched;
- it is translated into native code; and
- control is given to the newly generated native code.

When a method is invoked subsequently:

• control is simply given to the previously generated native code.

## Features of a JIT compiler:

- it must be fast, because the compilation occurs at run-time (Just-In-Time is really Just-Too-Late);
- it does not generate optimized code;
- it does not compile every instruction into native code, but relies on the runtime library for complex instructions;
- it need not compile every method; and
- it may concurrently interpret and compile a method (Better-Late-Than-Never).

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#### Problems in generating native code:

- instruction selection: choose the correct instructions based on the native code instruction set;
- memory modelling: decide where to store variables and how to allocate registers;
- method calling: determine calling conventions; and
- branch handling: allocate branch targets.

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## Compiling JVM bytecode into VirtualRISC:

- map the Java local stack into registers and memory;
- do instruction selection on the fly;
- allocate registers on the fly; and
- allocate branch targets on the fly.

This is successfully done in the Kaffe system.

# The general algorithm:

- determine number of slots in frame: locals limit + stack limit + #temps;
- find starts of basic blocks;
- find local stack height for each bytecode;
- emit prologue;
- emit native code for each bytecode; and
- fix up branches.

# NaÏve approach:

- each local and stack location is mapped to an offset in the native frame;
- each bytecode is translated into a series of native instructions, which
- constantly move locations between memory and registers.

This is similar to the native code generated by a non-optimizing compiler.

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```
Example:
```

```
public void foo() {
   int a,b,c;

a = 1;
   b = 13;
   c = a + b;
}
```

#### Generated bytecode:

```
.method public foo()V
  .limit locals 4
  .limit stack 2
 iconst_1
                   ; 1
 istore_1
                   ; 0
 ldc 13
                   ; 1
                   ; 0
 istore_2
 iload_1
                   ; 1
 iload 2
                   ; 2
                   ; 1
 iadd
                   ; 0
 istore_3
 return
                   ; 0
```

- compute frame size = 4 + 2 + 0 = 6;
- find stack height for each bytecode;
- emit prologue; and
- emit native code for each bytecode.

Assignment of frame slots:

name	offset	locatio
a	1	[fp-32]
b	2	[fp-36]
c	3	[fp-40]
stack	0	[fp-44]
stack	1	[fp-48]

## Native code generation:

```
save sp,-136,sp
a = 1;
             iconst_1
                        mov 1,R1
                        st R1,[fp-44]
                       ld [fp-44],R1
             istore_1
                        st R1,[fp-32]
b = 13;
             ldc 13
                        mov 13, R1
                        st R1,[fp-44]
             istore_2
                       ld [fp-44], R1
                        st R1,[fp-36]
c = a + b;
                        ld [fp-32],R1
            iload_1
                        st R1,[fp-44]
             iload_2
                        ld [fp-36],R1
                        st R1,[fp-48]
             iadd
                        ld [fp-48],R1
                        ld [fp-44],R2
                        add R2,R1,R1
                        st R1,[fp-44]
             istore_3
                        ld [fp-44],R1
                        st R1,[fp-40]
             return
                        restore
                        ret
```

The naïve code is very slow:

- many unnecessary loads and stores, which
- are the *most* expensive operations.

We wish to replace loads and stores:

```
c = a + b; iload_1
                       ld [fp-32],R1
                       st R1,[fp-44]
             iload_2
                       ld [fp-36],R1
                       st R1,[fp-48]
             iadd
                       ld [fp-48],R1
                       ld [fp-44],R2
                       add R2,R1,R1
                       st R1,[fp-44]
             istore_3
                      ld [fp-44],R1
                       st R1,[fp-40]
```

by registers operations:

```
c = a + b;
           iload_1
                       ld [fp-32],R1
            iload_2
                       ld [fp-36],R2
            iadd
                       add R1,R2,R1
            istore_3 st R1,[fp-40]
```

where R1 and R2 represent the stack.

The *fixed* register allocation scheme:

- assign m registers to the first m locals;
- $\bullet$  assign n registers to the first n stack locations;
- $\bullet$  assign k scratch registers; and
- spill remaining locals and locations into memory.

Example for 6 registers (m = n = k = 2):

name	offset	location	register
a b c	1 2 3	[fp-40]	R1 R2
stack	0		R3
stack	1		R4
scratch	0		R5
scratch	1		R6

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Improved native code generation:

```
save sp,-136,sp
a = 1:
            iconst_1
                      mov 1.R3
            istore_1
                      mov R3,R1
b = 13;
            ldc 13
                       mov 13,R3
            istore_2
                      mov R3,R2
c = a + b;
           iload_1
                       mov R1.R3
            iload_2
                      mov R2,R4
            iadd
                       add R3,R4,R3
            istore 3
                     st R3,[fp-40]
                       restore
            return
                       ret
```

This works quite well if:

- the architecture has a large register set;
- the stack is small most of the time; and
- the first locals are used most frequently.

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Summary of fixed register allocation scheme:

- registers are allocated once; and
- the allocation does not change within a method.

Advantages:

- it's simple to do the allocation; and
- no problems with different control flow paths.

Disadvantages:

- assumes the first locals and stack locations are most important; and
- may waste registers within a region of a method.

The basic block register allocation scheme:

- assign frame slots to registers on demand within a basic block; and
- update descriptors at each bytecode.

The descriptor maps a slot to an element of the set  $\{\bot, \text{mem}, Ri, \text{mem\&R}i\}$ :

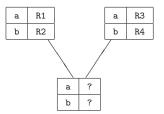
a	R2
b	mem
С	mem&R4
s_0	R1
s_1	上

We also maintain the inverse register map:

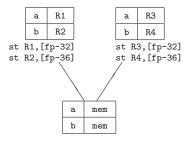
R1	s_0
R2	a
R3	
R4	С
R5	1

At the beginning of a basic block, all slots are in memory.

Basic blocks are merged by control paths:



Registers must be spilled after basic blocks:



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R1 R2  $\perp$ save sp,-136,sp R3 エ mem R4  $\perp$ s\_0 - 1 R1 s\_0 mem Т R2 mem  $iconst_{-1}$ mov 1,R1 R4  $\perp$ s\_0 R1 s\_1 工 R1 R2 R2 mem  ${\tt istore\_1}$ mov R1,R2 エ R3 mem R4 Т  $\perp$ R1 R2 s\_0 mem ldc 13 mov 13.R1 mem  $\perp$ R4 s\_0 R1 s\_1 丄 R1 R2 R2 R3 mov R1,R3 istore\_2 R4 丄 s\_0  $\perp$ 

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	2000		11401	vc	code	genera	101011
		R1	s_0	ĺ	a	R2	
		R2	a		b	R3	
iload_1	mov R2,R1	R3	b	ſ	С	mem	
		R4	Τ.		s_0	R1	
		R5		ſ	s_1	Т	
		R1	s_0		a	R2	
		R2	a		b	R3	
iload_2	mov R3,R4	R3	b		С	mem	
		R4	s_1		s_0	R1	
		R5	上		s_1	R4	
		R1	s_0		a	R2	
		R2	a		b	R3	
iadd	add R1,R4,R1	R3	ъ	[	С	mem	
		R4	1		s_0	R1	
		R5		Ì	s_1		
		R1			a	R2	
		R2	a	ſ	b	R3	
istore_3	st R1,R4	R3	b	Ì	С	R4	
		R4	С	ſ	s_0	1	
		R5			s_1	1	
		R1			a	mem	
	st R2,[fp-32]	R2		[	b	mem	
	st R3,[fp-36]	R3			С	mem	
	st R4,[fp-40]	R4	上	ļ	s_0		
	• •	R5			s_1		
return	restore						
	ret						

So far, this is actually no better than the fixed scheme.

But if we add the statement:

Fixed

```
c = c * c + c;
```

then the fixed scheme and basic block scheme generate:

Basic block

iload_3	ld [fp-40],R3	mv R4, R1
dup	ld [fp-40],R4	mv R4, R5
imul	mul R3,R4,R3	mul R1, R5, R1
iload_3	ld [fp-40],R4	mv R4, R5
iadd	add R3,R4,R3	add R1, R5, R1
istore_3	st R3,[fp-40]	mv R1, R4

Summary of basic block register allocation scheme:

- registers are allocated on demand; and
- slots are kept in registers within a basic block.

## Advantages:

- $\bullet$  registers are not wasted on unused slots; and
- less spill code within a basic block.

## Disadvantages:

- much more complex than the fixed register allocation scheme;
- registers must be spilled at the end of a basic block; and
- we may spill locals that are never needed.

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We can optimize further:

```
save sp,-136,sp
                      save sp,-136,sp
mov 1,R1
                      mov 1,R2
mov R1,R2
mov 13,R1
                      mov 13.R3
mov R1,R3
mov R2,R1
mov R3,R4
                      add R2,R3,R1
add R1,R4,R1
st R1,[fp-40]
                      st R1,[fp-40]
restore
                      restore
ret
                      ret
```

by not explicitly modelling the stack.

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Unfortunately, this cannot be done safely on the fly by a peephole optimizer.

The optimization:

```
mov 1,R3 \Longrightarrow mov 1,R1 mov R3,R1
```

is unsound if R3 is used in a later instruction:

Such optimizations require dataflow analysis.

# Invoking methods in bytecode:

- evaluate each argument leaving results on the stack; and
- emit invokevirtual instruction.

Invoking methods in native code:

- call library routine soft\_get\_method\_code to perform the method lookup;
- generate code to load arguments into registers; and
- branch to the resolved address.

Consider a method invocation:

```
c = t.foo(a,b);
```

where the memory map is:

name	offset	location	register
a	1	[fp-60]	R3
b	2	[fp-56]	R4
С	3	[fp-52]	
t	4	[fp-48]	R2
stack	0	[fp-36]	R1
stack	1	[fp-40]	R5
stack	2	[fp-44]	R6
scratch	0	[fp-32]	R7
scratch	1	[fp-28]	R8

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Native code generation (28)

## Generating native code:

```
mov R2,R1
aload_4
iload_1
                       mov R3,R5
iload_2
                       mov R4,R6
invokevirtual foo
                       // soft call to get address
                       ld R7, [R2+4]
                       ld R8, [R7+52]
                       // spill all registers
                       st R3,[fp-60]
                       st R4,[fp-56]
                       st R2,[fp-48]
                       st R6,[fp-44]
                       st R5,[fp-40]
                       st R1,[fp-36]
                       st R7,[fp-32]
                       st R8,[fp-28]
                       // make call
                       mov R8.R0
                       call soft_get_method_code
                       // result is in RO
                       // put args in R2, R1, and R0
                       ld R2,[fp-44] // R2 := stack_2
                       ld R1,[fp-40] // R1 := stack_1
                       st RO,[fp-32] // spill result
                       ld R0,[fp-36] // R0 := stack_0
                       ld R4,[fp-32] // reload result
                       jmp [R4] // call method
```

- this is long and costly; and
- the lack of dataflow analysis causes massive spills within basic blocks.

## Handling branches:

- the only problem is that the target address is not known;
- assemblers normally handle this; but
- the JIT compiler produces binary code directly in memory.

Generating native code:

How to compute the branch targets:

- previously encountered branch targets are already known;
- keep unresolved branches in a table; and
- patch targets when the bytecode is eventually reached.