

Register allocation

Advanced Compiler Construction
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Register allocation

Register allocation consists in:

- rewriting a program that makes use of an unbounded number of virtual or pseudo-registers,
- into one that only uses physical (machine) registers.

Some virtual registers might have to be **spilled** to memory.

Register allocation is done:

- very late in the compilation process – typically only instruction scheduling comes later,
- on an IR very close to machine code.

Setting the scene

We will do register allocation on an RTL with:

- n machine registers R_0, \dots, R_{n-1} (some with non-numerical indexes like the link register R_{LK}),
- unbounded number of virtual registers v_0, v_1, \dots

Of course, virtual registers are only available before register allocation.

Running example

Euclid's algorithm to compute greatest common divisor.

In L_3

```
(defrec gcd
  (fun (a b)
    (if (= 0 b)
      a
      (gcd b (% a b)))))
```

In RTL

```
gcd: R3 ← done
     if R2 = 0 goto R3
     R3 ← R2
     R2 ← R1 % R2
     R1 ← R3
     R3 ← gcd
     goto R3
done: goto RLK
```

Calling conventions:

- the arguments are passed in R_1, R_2, \dots
- the return address is passed in R_{LK} ,
- the return value is passed in R_1 .

Register allocation example

Before register allocation

```
gcd: v0 ← RLK
     v1 ← R1
     v2 ← R2
loop: v3 ← done
     if v2 = 0 goto v3
     v4 ← v2
     v2 ← v1 % v2
     v1 ← v4
     v5 ← loop
     goto v5
done: R1 ← v1
     goto v0
```

R₁, R₂: parameters
R_{LK}: return address

allocable
registers:
R₁, R₂, R₃,
R_{LK}



After register allocation

```
gcd:
loop: R3 ← done
     if R2 = 0 goto R3
     R3 ← R2
     R2 ← R1 % R2
     R1 ← R3
     goto R3
done: goto RLK
```

Allocation:

v₀ → R_{LK}
v₁ → R₁
v₂ → R₂
v₃, v₄, v₅ → R₃

Techniques

We will study two commonly used techniques:

1. register allocation by **graph coloring**, which:
 - produces good results,
 - is relatively slow,
 - is therefore used mostly in batch compilers,
2. **linear scan** register allocation, which:
 - produces average results,
 - is very fast,
 - is therefore used mostly in JIT compilers.

Both are **global**: they allocate registers for a whole function at a time.

Technique #1: graph coloring

Allocation by graph coloring

Register allocation can be reduced to graph coloring:

1. build the **interference graph**, which has:
 - one node per register – real or virtual,
 - one edge between each pair of nodes whose registers are live at the same time.
2. color the interference graph with at most K colors (K = number of available registers), so that all nodes have a different color than all their neighbors.

Problems:

- coloring is NP-complete for arbitrary graphs,
- a K-coloring might not even exist.

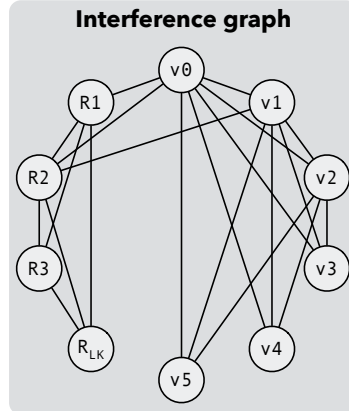
Interference graph example

Program

```
gcd:
v0 ← RLK
v1 ← R1
v2 ← R2
loop:
v3 ← done
if v2=0 goto v3
v4 ← v2
v2 ← v1 % v2
v1 ← v4
v5 ← loop
goto v5
done:
R1 ← v1
goto v0
```

Liveness (in){out}

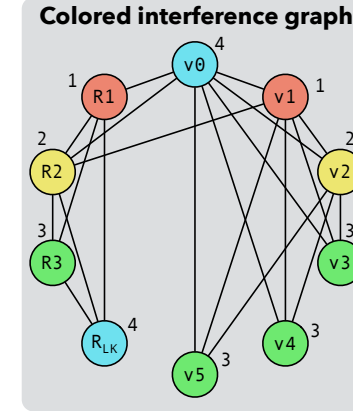
```
{R1,R2,RLK}{R1,R2,v0}
{R1,R2,v0}{R2,v0,v1}
{R2,v0,v1}{v0-v2}
{v0-v2}{v0-v3}
{v0-v3}{v0-v2}
{v0-v2}{v0-v2,v4}
{v0-v2,v4}{v0-v2,v4}
{v0-v2,v4}{v0-v2}
{v0-v2,v4}{v0-v2,v5}
{v0-v2,v5}{v0-v2}
{v0,v1}{R1,v0}
{R1,v0}{R1}
```



Coloring example

Original prog.

```
gcd:
v0 ← RLK
v1 ← R1
v2 ← R2
loop:
v3 ← done
if v2=0 goto v3
v4 ← v2
v2 ← v1 % v2
v1 ← v4
v5 ← loop
goto v5
done:
R1 ← v1
goto v0
```



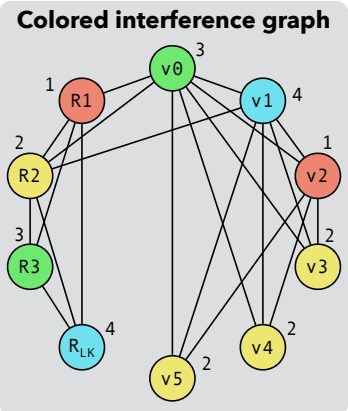
Rewritten prog.

```
gcd:
RLK ← RLK
R1 ← R1
R2 ← R2
loop:
R3 ← done
if R2=0 goto R3
R3 ← R2
R2 ← R1 % R2
R1 ← R3
R3 ← loop
goto R3
done:
R1 ← R1
goto RLK
```

Coloring example (2)

Original prog.

```
gcd:
v0 ← RLK
v1 ← R1
v2 ← R2
loop:
v3 ← done
if v2=0 goto v3
v4 ← v2
v2 ← v1 % v2
v1 ← v4
v5 ← loop
goto v5
done:
R1 ← v1
goto v0
```



Rewritten prog.

```
gcd:
R3 ← RLK
RLK ← R1
R1 ← R2
loop:
R2 ← done
if R1=0 goto R2
R2 ← R1
R1 ← RLK % R1
RLK ← R2
R2 ← loop
goto R2
done:
R1 ← RLK
goto R3
```

This second coloring is also correct, but produces worse code!

Coloring by simplification

Coloring by simplification is a heuristic technique to color a graph with K colors:

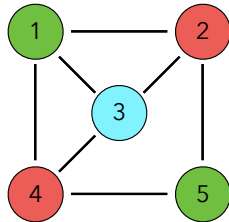
1. find a node n with less than K neighbors,
2. remove it from the graph,
3. recursively color the simplified graph,
4. color n with any color not used by its neighbors.

What if there is no node with less than K neighbors?

- a K -coloring might not exist,
- but simplification is attempted nevertheless.

Coloring by simplification

Number of available colors (K): 3



Stack of removed nodes: 5 2 1 3

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Spilling

15

(Optimistic) spilling

What if all nodes have K or more neighbors during simplification?

A node n must be chosen to be **spilled** and its value stored in memory instead of in a register:

- remove its node from the graph (assuming no interference between spilled value and other values),
- recursively color the simplified graph as usual.

Once recursive coloring is done, two cases:

1. by chance, the neighbors of n do not use all the possible colors, n is not spilled,
2. otherwise, n is really spilled.

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Spill costs

Which node should be spilled? Ideally one:

- whose value is not frequently used, and/or
- that interferes with many other nodes.

For that, compute the spill cost of a node n as:

$$\text{cost}(n) = (rw_0(n) + 10 rw_1(n) + \dots + 10^k rw_k(n)) / \text{degree}(n)$$

where:

- $rw_i(n)$ is the number of times the value of n is read or written in a loop of depth i,
- $\text{degree}(n)$ is the number of edges adjacent to n in the interference graph.

Then spill the node with lowest cost.

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Spilling of pre-colored nodes

The interference graph contains nodes corresponding to the physical registers of the machine:

- they are said to be **pre-colored**, as their color is given by the machine register they represent,
- they should never be simplified, as they cannot be spilled (they are physical registers!).

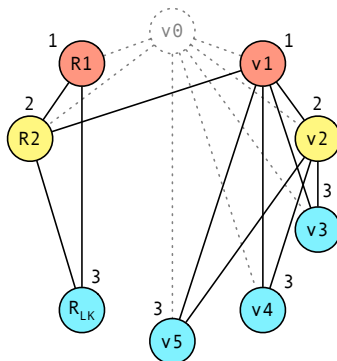
Spilling example: costs

```
gcd:
  v0 ← RLK
  v1 ← R1
  v2 ← R2
loop:
  v3 ← done
  if v2=0 goto v3
  v4 ← v2
  v2 ← v1 % v2
  v1 ← v4
  v5 ← loop
goto v5
done:
  R1 ← v1
goto v0
```

node	rw ₀	rw ₁	deg.	cost
v ₀	2	0	7	0,29
v ₁	2	2	6	3,67
v ₂	1	4	6	6,83
v ₃	0	2	3	6,67
v ₄	0	2	3	6,67
v ₅	0	2	3	6,67

$$\text{cost} = (rw_0 + 10 rw_1) / \text{degree}$$

Spilling example



Consequences of spilling

After spilling, rewrite the program to:

- insert code just before the spilled value is read, to fetch it from memory,
- insert code just after the spilled value is written, to write it back to memory.

But: spilling code introduces new virtual registers, so register allocation must be redone!

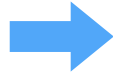
In practice, 1-2 iterations are enough in almost all cases.

Spilling code integration

Original program

```
gcd:
  v0 ← RLK
  v1 ← R1
  v2 ← R2
loop:
  v3 ← done
  if v2 = 0 goto v3
  v4 ← v2
  v2 ← v1 % v2
  v1 ← v4
  v5 ← loop
  goto v5
done:
  R1 ← v1
  goto v0
```

spilling
of v₀

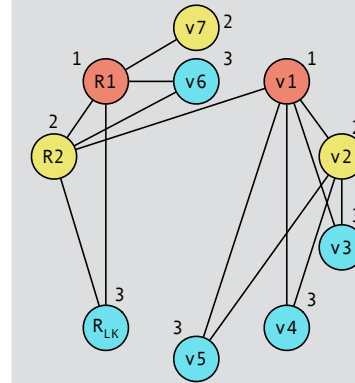


Rewritten program

```
gcd:
  v6 ← RLK
  push v6
  v1 ← R1
  v2 ← R2
loop:
  v3 ← done
  if v2 = 0 goto v3
  v4 ← v2
  v2 ← v1 % v2
  v1 ← v4
  v5 ← loop
  goto v5
done:
  R1 ← v1
  pop v7
  goto v7
```

New interference graph

Interference graph w/ spilling



Final program

```
gcd:
RLK ← RLK
  push RLK
R1 ← R1
R2 ← R2
loop:
  RLK ← done
  if R2 = 0 goto RLK
  RLK ← R2
  R2 ← R1 % R2
  R1 ← RLK
  RLK ← loop
  goto RLK
done:
R1 ← R1
  pop R2
  goto R2
```

Coalescing

Coloring quality

Two valid K-colorings of an interference graph are not necessarily equivalent: one can lead to a much shorter program than the other.

Why? Because "move" instruction of the form

$$v_1 \leftarrow v_2$$

can be removed if v_1 and v_2 end up being allocated to the same register (also holds when v_1 or v_2 is a real register).

Goal: make this happen as often as possible.

Coalescing

If v_1 and v_2 do not interfere, a move instruction of the form

$v_1 \leftarrow v_2$

can always be removed by replacing v_1 and v_2 by a new virtual register $v_{1\&2}$.

This is called **coalescing**, as the nodes of v_1 and v_2 in the interference graph coalesce into a single node.

Coalescing issue

Coalescing is not always a good idea!

Might turn a graph that is K -colorable into one that isn't, which implies spilling.

Therefore: use conservative heuristics.

Coalescing heuristics

Briggs: coalesce nodes n_1 and n_2 to $n_{1\&2}$ iff:

$n_{1\&2}$ has less than K neighbors of significant degree (i.e. of a degree greater or equal to K),

George: coalesce nodes n_1 and n_2 to $n_{1\&2}$ iff all neighbors of n_1 either:

- already interfere with n_2 , or
- are of insignificant degree.

Both heuristics are:

- safe: won't make a K -colorable graph uncolorable,
- conservative: might prevent a safe coalescing.

Heuristic #1: Briggs

Briggs: coalesce nodes n_1 and n_2 to $n_{1\&2}$ iff:

$n_{1\&2}$ has less than K neighbors of significant degree (i.e. of a degree $\geq K$),

Rationale:

- during simplification, all the neighbors of $n_{1\&2}$ that are of insignificant degree will be simplified;
- once they are, $n_{1\&2}$ will have less than K neighbors and will therefore be simplifiable too.

Heuristic #2: George

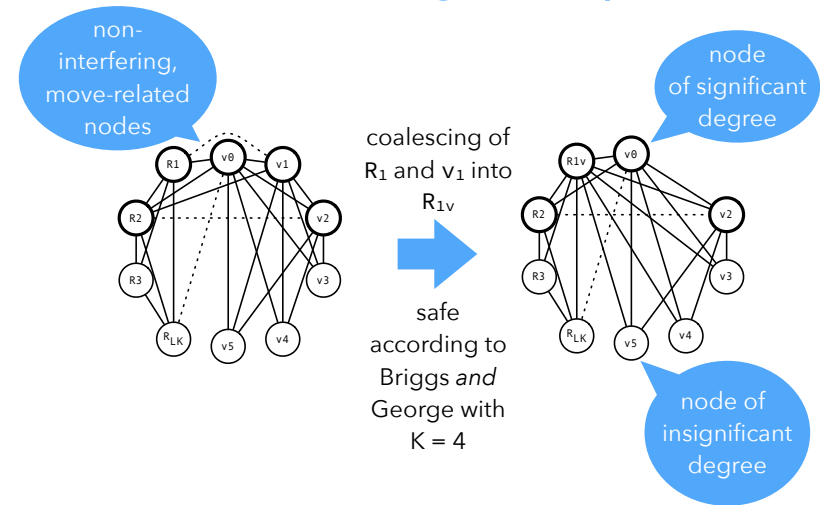
George: coalesce nodes n_1 and n_2 to $n_{1\&2}$ iff all neighbors of n_1 either:

- already interfere with n_2 , or
- are of insignificant degree.

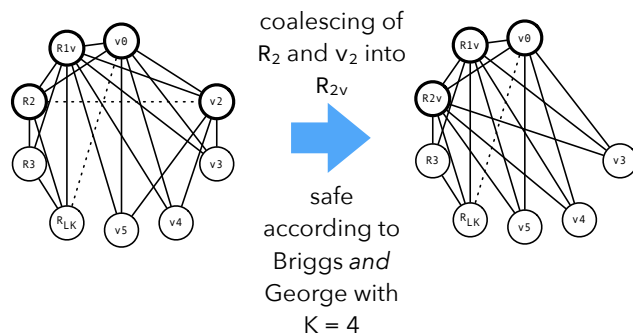
Rationale:

- the neighbors of $n_{1\&2}$ will be:
 1. those of n_2 , and
 2. the neighbors of n_1 of insignificant degree,
- the latter ones will all be simplified,
- once they are, the graph will be a sub-graph of the original one.

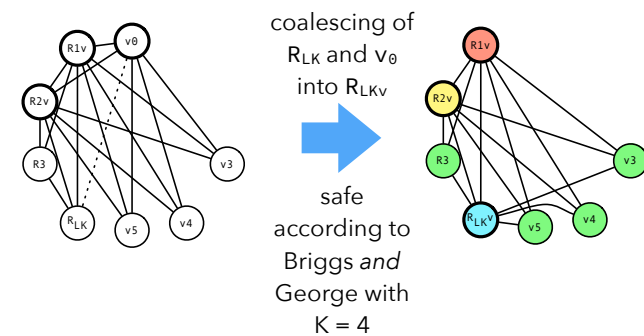
Coalescing example



Coalescing example (2)



Coalescing example (3)



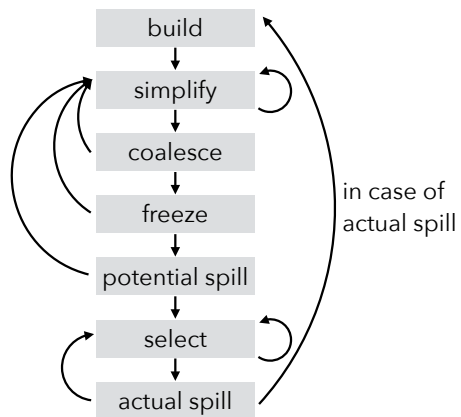
Putting it all together

Iterated register coalescing

Simplification and coalescing should be interleaved to get **iterated register coalescing**:

1. Interference graph nodes are partitioned in two classes: move-related or not.
2. Simplification is done on *not* move-related nodes (as move-related ones could be coalesced).
3. Conservative coalescing is performed.
4. When neither simplification nor coalescing can proceed further, some move-related nodes are **frozen** (marked as non-move-related).
5. The process is restarted at 2.

Iterated register coalescing



Assignment constraints

Assignment constraints

Current assumption: a virtual register can be assigned to any free physical register.

Not always true because of **assignment constraints** due to:

- registers classes (e.g. integer vs. floating-point registers),
- instructions with arguments or result in specific registers,
- calling conventions.

A realistic register allocator has to be able to satisfy these constraints.

Register classes

Most architectures have several register classes:

- integer vs floating-point,
- address vs data,
- etc.

To take them into account in a coloring-based allocator:

introduce artificial interferences between a node and all pre-colored nodes corresponding to registers to which it *cannot* be allocated.

Calling conventions

How to deal with the fact that calling conventions pass arguments in specific registers?

At function entry, copy arguments to new virtual regs:

fact:

$v_1 \leftarrow R_1$; copy first argument to v_1

Before a call, load arguments in appropriate registers:

$R_1 \leftarrow v_2$; load first argument from v_2

CALL fact

Whenever possible, these instructions will be removed by coalescing.

Caller/callee-saved registers

Calling conventions distinguish two kinds of registers:

- **caller-saved**: saved by the caller before a call and restored after it,
- **callee-saved**: saved by the callee at function entry and restored before function exit.

Ideally:

- virtual registers having to survive at least one call should be assigned to callee-saved registers,
- other virtual registers should be assigned to caller-saved registers.

How can this be obtained in a coloring-based allocator?

Caller/callee-saved registers

Caller-saved registers do not survive a function call.

To model this:

Add interference edges between all virtual registers live across at least one call and (physical) caller-saved registers.

Consequence:

Virtual registers live across at least one call won't be assigned to caller-saved registers.

Therefore:

They will either be allocated to callee-saved registers, or spilled!

Saving callee-saved registers

Callee-saved registers must be preserved by all functions, so:

- copy them to fresh temporary registers at function entry,
- restore them before exit.

Saving callee-saved registers

For example, if R_8 is callee-saved:

entry:

```
v1 ← R8 ; save callee-saved R8 in v1
...    ; function body
R8 ← v1 ; restore callee-saved R8
goto R_LK
```

If register pressure is low:

- R_8 and v_1 will be coalesced, and
- the two move instructions will be removed.

If register pressure is high:

- v_1 will be spilled, making R_8 available in the function (e.g. to store a virtual register live across a call).

Technique #2: linear scan

Linear scan

The basic linear scan technique is very simple:

- the program is linearized – i.e. represented as a linear sequence of instructions, not as a graph,
- a unique live range is computed for every variable, going from the first to the last instruction during which it is live,
- registers are allocated by iterating over the intervals sorted by increasing starting point: each time an interval starts, the next free register is allocated to it, and each time an interval ends, its register is freed,
- if no register is available, the active range ending last is chosen to have its variable spilled.

Linear scan example

Linearized version of GCD computation:

Program

```

1 gcd:  v0 ← RLK
2      v1 ← R1
3      v2 ← R2
4 loop: v3 ← done
5      if v2=0 goto v3
6      v4 ← v2
7      v2 ← v1 % v2
8      v1 ← v4
9      v5 ← loop
10     goto v5
11 done: R1 ← v1
12     goto v0
    
```

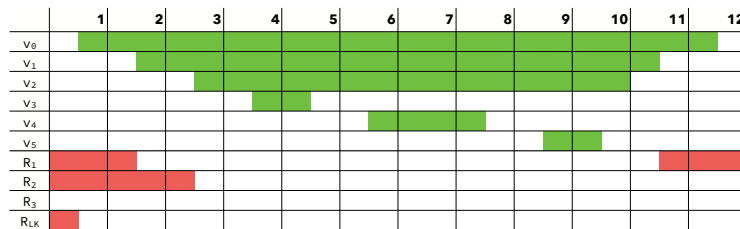
Live ranges

v_0 : [1⁺,12⁻]
 v_1 : [2⁺,11⁻]
 v_2 : [3⁺,10⁺]
 v_3 : [4⁺,5⁻]
 v_4 : [6⁺,8⁻]
 v_5 : [9⁺,10⁻]

Notation:

i^+ entry of instr. i
 i^- exit of instr. i

Linear scan example (4 r.)

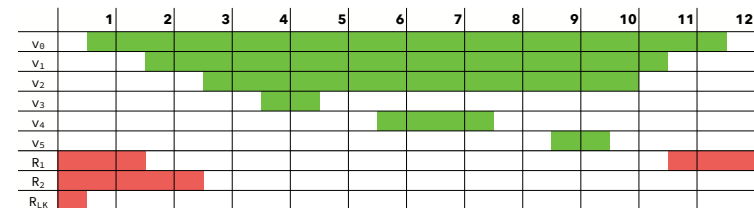


time active intervals

1 ⁺ [1 ⁺ ,12 ⁻]	$v_0 \rightarrow R_3$
2 ⁺ [2 ⁺ ,11 ⁻],[1 ⁺ ,12 ⁻]	$v_0 \rightarrow R_3, v_1 \rightarrow R_1$
3 ⁺ [3 ⁺ ,10 ⁺],[2 ⁺ ,11 ⁻],[1 ⁺ ,12 ⁻]	$v_0 \rightarrow R_3, v_1 \rightarrow R_1, v_2 \rightarrow R_2$
4 ⁺ [4 ⁺ ,5 ⁻],[3 ⁺ ,10 ⁺],[2 ⁺ ,11 ⁻],[1 ⁺ ,12 ⁻]	$v_0 \rightarrow R_3, v_1 \rightarrow R_1, v_2 \rightarrow R_2, v_3 \rightarrow R_{LK}$
6 ⁺ [6 ⁺ ,8 ⁻],[3 ⁺ ,10 ⁺],[2 ⁺ ,11 ⁻],[1 ⁺ ,12 ⁻]	$v_0 \rightarrow R_3, v_1 \rightarrow R_1, v_2 \rightarrow R_2, v_4 \rightarrow R_{LK}$
9 ⁺ [9 ⁺ ,10 ⁻],[3 ⁺ ,10 ⁺],[2 ⁺ ,11 ⁻],[1 ⁺ ,12 ⁻]	$v_0 \rightarrow R_3, v_1 \rightarrow R_1, v_2 \rightarrow R_2, v_5 \rightarrow R_{LK}$

Result: no spilling

Linear scan example (3 r.)



time active intervals

1 ⁺ [1 ⁺ ,12 ⁻]	$v_0 \rightarrow R_{LK}$
2 ⁺ [2 ⁺ ,11 ⁻],[1 ⁺ ,12 ⁻]	$v_0 \rightarrow R_{LK}, v_1 \rightarrow R_1$
3 ⁺ [3 ⁺ ,10 ⁺],[2 ⁺ ,11 ⁻],[1 ⁺ ,12 ⁻]	$v_0 \rightarrow R_{LK}, v_1 \rightarrow R_1, v_2 \rightarrow R_2$
4 ⁺ [4 ⁺ ,5 ⁻],[3 ⁺ ,10 ⁺],[2 ⁺ ,11 ⁻]	$v_0 \rightarrow S, v_1 \rightarrow R_1, v_2 \rightarrow R_2, v_3 \rightarrow R_{LK}$
6 ⁺ [6 ⁺ ,8 ⁻],[3 ⁺ ,10 ⁺],[2 ⁺ ,11 ⁻]	$v_0 \rightarrow S, v_1 \rightarrow R_1, v_2 \rightarrow R_2, v_4 \rightarrow R_{LK}$
9 ⁺ [9 ⁺ ,10 ⁻],[3 ⁺ ,10 ⁺],[2 ⁺ ,11 ⁻]	$v_0 \rightarrow S, v_1 \rightarrow R_1, v_2 \rightarrow R_2, v_5 \rightarrow R_{LK}$

Result: v_0 is spilled *during its whole life time!*

Linear scan improvements

The basic linear scan algorithm is very simple but still produces reasonably good code. It can be – and has been – improved in many ways:

- the liveness information about virtual registers can be described using a sequence of disjoint intervals instead of a single one,
- virtual registers can be spilled for only a part of their whole life time,
- more sophisticated heuristics can be used to select the virtual register to spill,
- etc.