G53CMP: Lectures 17 & 18 *Register Allocation*

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- We have seen code generation for TAM, a simple stack machine:
 - All instructions target a stack.
 - A few *dedicated* registers (e.g., SB, LB, ST).
 - Register allocation thus a non-issue: allocation decided once and for all by the design of the TAM.

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- Additionally, instructions for *memory access*.

 Stacks are *implemented* using memory, registers, and memory access instructions.

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- Very few registers, typically 8–32 word-sized ones, or 32–128 bytes of memory.
- Cf. modern programs that often use hundreds of Megabytes of memory.
- Additionally, registers may be:
 - general purpose
 - special purpose

The problem:

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- On the other hand:
 - Have to use some registers because of the way the instruction set is designed.
 - Want to use as many registers as possible because registers are very fast.
 - Preferable to use registers for irequently used data over seldomly used data.

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- minimise the memory traffic (loads and stores) by using registers
- subject to:
 - not exceeding the available number of registers;
 - additional constraints imposed by some registers having a special purpose or not being fully general.

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- Cache effects and instruction scheduling further complicates matters, though.

Again, "optimization"/"minimisation" not used in strict mathematical sense, but in relation to assumed "average" case.

• Registers:

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Registers:

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Some instructions (Ri etc. include SB, LB, ST):
load Ri, [Rj + d]

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- -load Ri, [Rj + d]
- store Ri, [Rj + d]
- add Ri, Rj, Rk (Ri := Rj + Rk)

Registers:

- Rn: general purpose registers
- SB: Stack Base
- LB: Local Base (stack frame)
- ST: Stack Top

- -load Ri, [Rj + d]
- store Ri, [Rj + d]
- add Ri, Rj, Rk
- mul Ri, Rj, Rk

$$(Ri := Rj + Rk)$$
$$(Ri := Rj * Rk)$$

Registers:

- Rn: general purpose registers
- SB: Stack Base
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- ST: Stack Top

Some instructions (Ri etc. include SB, LB, ST):

- -load Ri, [Rj + d]
- store Ri, [Rj + d]
- add Ri, Rj, Rk
- mul Ri, Rj, Rk

(Ri := Rj + Rk)(Ri := Rj * Rk)

Displacement/offset d in bytes.

Exercise: RM Code Generation (1)

Given:

Variable	Add	dres	SS
Х	SB	+	0
У	SB	+	4
Z	SB	+	8

• general purpose registers R0, R1, ... R9

generate code for

 $z := z \star (x + y)$

Exercise: RM Code Generation (2)

One possible answer:

load	R0,	[SB	+ 0]	;	Х
load	R1,	[SB	+ 4]	;	У
add	R2,	R0,	R1		
load	R3,	[SB	+ 8]	;	Z
mul	R4,	R3,	R2		
store	R4,	[SB	+ 8]	;	Z

Exercise: RM Code Generation (2)

One possible answer:

load	R0,	[SB	+ 0]	;	Х
load	R1,	[SB	+ 4]	;	У
add	R2,	R0,	R1		
load	R3,	[SB	+ 8]	;	Z
mul	R4,	R3,	R2		
store	R4,	[SB	+ 8]	;	Z

What if there were fewer registers available? How many do you need?

Exercise: RM Code Generation (3)

Another possibility using only R0 and R1:

load	R0,	[SB	+ 0]	;	Х
load	R1,	[SB	+ 4]	;	У
add	R0,	R0,	R1		
load	R1,	[SB	+ 8]	;	Z
mul	R1,	R1,	R0		
store	R1,	[SB	+ 8]	;	Z

Stack Frame or Activation Record

address	contents
LB – argOffset	arguments
LB	static link
LB + 4	dynamic link
LB + 8	return address
LB + 12	local variables
LB + tempOffset	temporary storage

where

argOffset = size(arguments) tempOffset = 12 + size(variables)(Offsets in bytes for register machine.)

Register Machine Code Generation (1)

We can implement a code generation function *evaluate* in a similar way to the stack machine code generator, except that it returns the *register* in which the result will be stored.

Assuming a code generation monad *CG* for keeping track of generated code, free registers, etc., we'd get:

 $evaluate : Expression \rightarrow CG Reg$

(ignoring bookkeeping arguments such as scope level and environment.)

Register Machine Code Generation (2)

Operation for getting a currently free register:

freeReg: CG Reg

In a naive scheme (or as a precursor to a register allocation step), *freeReg* would always return a previously unused register:

 $evaluate \llbracket E_1 + E_2 \rrbracket = \mathbf{do}$ $r_1 \leftarrow evaluate \ E_1$ $r_2 \leftarrow evaluate \ E_2$ $r \leftarrow free Reg$ $emit (Add \ r \ r_1 \ r_2)$ $return \ r$

Example: A Simple Function

```
var n: Integer;
fun f(x,y: Integer) : Integer =
    let
        z: Integer
    in begin
        z := x * x + y * y;
        return n * z
    end
```

We will consider the body less the details of storage allocation for z and return.

Naive Register Machine Code

Code for	z :=	= X*	x + y*y	Z ;	return n*z:
load	R0,	[LB	- 8]	;	$offset(\mathbf{x}) = -8$
load	R1,	[LB	- 8]		
mul	R2,	R0,	R1	;	R2 := x^2
load	R3,	[LB	- 4]	;	offset(y) = -4
load	R4,	[LB	- 4]		
mul	R5,	R3,	R4	;	R5 := y^2
add	R6,	R2,	R5	;	R6 := $x^2 + y^2$
store	R6,	[LB	+ 12]	;	offset(z) = 12
load	R7,	[SB	+ 168]	;	$offset(n) = 4 \times 42$
load	R8,	[LB	+ 12]		
mul	R9,	R7,	R8	;	R9 := $n(x^2 + y^2)$

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Stack Machine Code

TAM-code for the example for comparison:

LOAD	[LB - 2]	; X	ADD	
LOAD	[LB - 2]	; X	STORE [LB + 3] ; z	
MUL			LOAD [SB + 42] ; n	
LOAD	[LB - 1]	; y	LOAD [LB + 3] ; z	
LOAD	[LB - 1]	; y	MUL	
MUL				

Note: all offsets are in *words* (4 bytes) for the TAM (stack of word-sized memory cells).

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- *Fact:* reading/writing memory is *extremely slow* compared to reading/writing registers.
 - The naive code is *inefficient* because many unnecessary memory accesses.
- *Fact:* the number of registers is *strictly limited* (from a few to a few dozen)
 - The naive code-generation scheme could fail because it risks running out of registers.

Basic, ad-hoc, register allocation:

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- Allocate registers for x and y: saves reading them twice.
- Allocate a register for z: saves having to write it to memory!

Note: even the naive code-generation scheme employed a simple register allocation strategy for keeping intermediate results in registers as opposed to storing them in memory.

R0 used for x, R1 for y, R2 for z, R5 for n.

load	R0,	[LB	- 8]
mul	R3,	R0,	R0
load	R1,	[LB	- 4]
mul	R4,	R1,	R1
add	R2,	R3,	R4
load	R5,	[SB	+ 168]
mul	R6,	R5,	R2

; offset(x) = -8; R3 := x^2 ; offset(y) = -4

; R4 :=
$$y^2$$

; R2 :=
$$x^2 + y^2$$

R0 used for x, R1 for y, R2 for z, R5 for n.

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mul	R4,	R1,	R1	;	R4 := y^2
add	R2,	R3,	R4	;	R2 := $x^2 + y^2$
load	R5,	[SB	+ 168]	;	$offset(n) = 4 \times 42$
mul	R6,	R5,	R2	;	R6 := $n(x^2 + y^2)$

- Fewer loads and stores
- Shorter code
- Fewer registers used

Assume the calling convention is that the first three arguments are passed in registers R0, R1, R2 and the result is returned in R0.

Consider the following code fragment:

add	R5,	R6,	R7	;	R5 := $x + y$
load	R0,	[SB	+ 168]	;	R0 := n

- call factorial ; R0 := n!
- mul R0, R5, R0

; R0 := $(x + y) \times n!$

Assume the calling convention is that the first three arguments are passed in registers R0, R1, R2 and the result is returned in R0.

Consider the following code fragment:

add	R5, R6, R7	; R5 := $x + y$
load	RO, [SB + 168]	; RO $:= n$
call	factorial	; R0 := $n!$
mul	R0, R5, R0	; RO := $(x+y) \times n$

But what if factorial uses some registers, in particular R5 as manifestly in use across the call?

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Two basic approaches:

- Caller Saves: Caller saves registers that are in use; risks saving registers callee actually will not use.
- Callee Saves: Callee saves registers that it will use; risks saving registers that actually were not in use in caller.
- In practice, often a mixed approach: some registers are designated caller-saves, others callee-saves. Interprocedural optimization could improve code further.

Assuming R5 is a caller-saves register and the only register that is in use across the call, the code fragment becomes:

add	R5, R6, R7	; R5 := $x + y$
load	RO, [SB + 168]	; RO := n
store	R5, [LB + 30]	; Save R5
call	factorial	; R0 := $n!$
load	R5, [LB + 30]	; Restore R5
mul	R0, R5, R0	; RO := $(x+y) \times n!$

(LB + 30 is assumed to be address of free space in the temporary area.)

Automatic Register Allocation

How can we:

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Automatic Register Allocation

How can we:

Automatically decide which registers to use?

Automatic Register Allocation

How can we:

- Automatically decide which registers to use?
- Keep the number of registers used down?
 - Only a fixed, small number of registers available.
 - Each register must thus be used for many purposes.

Register Pressure: the number of registers used by a code fragment.

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Desirable to keep register pressure low:

- Minimizing the pressure maximizes the size of the code for which no auxiliary storage (primary memory) is needed.
- Low pressure means fewer registers to preserve (in primary memory) across subroutine calls (both caller and callee saves schemes).

Liveness (1)

 Need to take *liveness* of variables and intermediate results into account to make it possible to use *one* register for *many* purposes.

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Liveness (1)

- Need to take *liveness* of variables and intermediate results into account to make it possible to use *one* register for *many* purposes.
- A variable v is *live* at point p if there is an execution path from p to a use of v along which v is not updated.
- No need to keep dead variables in registers!

Liveness (2)

Example:

- 1 x := 3 * m;
- 2 y := 42 + x;
- 3 z := y * x;
- 4 if z > 0 then u := x else u := 0;
- 5 y := u;
- 6 return y;
 - x is *live* immediately before line 4 because it may be used at line 4.

 y from line 2 is *dead* immediately before line 4 because y is *updated* before being used again.

Liveness (3)

Example:

- 1 x := 3 * m;
- 2 y := 42 + x;
- 3 z := y * x;
- 4 if z > 0 then u := x else u := 0;
- 5 y := u;
- 6 return y;

u is dead before line 4 because it is updated in both branches of the if at line 4.

Liveness (4)

But consider this variation instead:

2
$$y := 42 + x;$$

4 if z > 0 then u := x else v := 0;

6 return y;

 Now u is live before line 4 because there exists at least one path to the use of u at line 5 along which u is not updated.

Exercise: Liveness

Consider:

- 1 i := m;
- 2 n := 1;
- 3 while (i < 10) do begin
- 4 n := n * p;
- 5 i := i + 1
- 6 end
- 7 return n;

Which of i, m, n, p are live immediately before:
line 1
line 5

line 3
 line 7

Liveness for the Running Example

load	R0,	ĹĹΒ	- 8]	i	$offset(\mathbf{x}) = -8$
mul	R3,	R0,	R0	;	R3 := x^2
load	R1,	[LB	- 4]	;	offset(y) = -4
mul	R4,	R1,	R1	;	R4 := y^2
add	R2,	R3,	R4	;	R2 := $x^2 + y^2$
load	R5,	[SB	+ 168]	;	$offset(n) = 4 \times 42$
mul	R6,	R5,	R2	;	R6 := $n(x^2+y^2)$

- x (R0) and y (R1) only used once.
- z (R2) is alive only for a short time, and only once x and y are dead.
- n (R5), interm. results (R4, R6) also short-lived.

Common approach for register allocation. Idea:

Represent each variable by a node in a graph.
 Called *interference graph*.

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- Represent each variable by a node in a graph.
 Called *interference graph*.
- Add an edge between two nodes if the variables are live simultaneously.
- Colour the graph so that no two adjacent nodes get the same colour, using as few colours as possible.
- Each colour corresponds to a register.
- Hard optimization problem (NP-complete).

Example: Interference Graph

Consider:

y := x * x; z := y + 42; return y * z

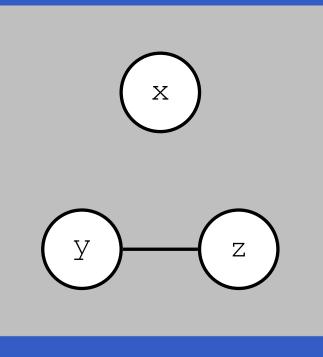
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Interference graph:

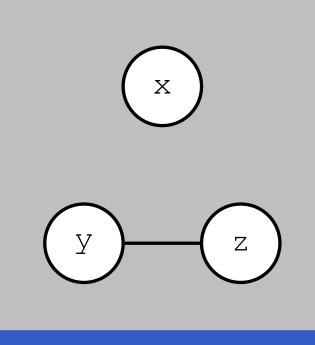


Example: Interference Graph

Consider:

y := x * x; z := y + 42; return y * z

Interference graph:



How many colours?

Graph Colouring for the Running Ex.

load	R0,	[LB	- 8]	;	$offset(\mathbf{x}) = -8$
mul	R3,	R0,	R0	;	R3 := x^2
load	R1,	[LB	- 4]	;	offset(y) = -4
mul	R4,	R1,	R1	;	R4 := y^2
add	R2,	R3,	R4	;	R2 := $x^2 + y^2$
load	R5,	[SB	+ 168]	;	$offset(n) = 4 \times$
mul	R6,	R5,	R2	;	R6 := $n(x^2 + y)$

Draw and colour the interference graph
Use the result to do a register allocation with the minimal number of registers.

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Code Using Minimal Number of Regs

The number of registers used reduced from 7 to 2:

load	R0,	[LB	- 8]
mul	R0,	R0,	R0
load	R1,	[LB	- 4]
mul	R1,	R1,	R1
add	R0,	R0,	R1
load	R1,	[SB	+ 168
mul	R0,	R1,	R0

- ; offset(x) = -8
- ; RO $:= x^2$

;
$$offset(y) = -4$$

; R1 := y^2

; RO
$$:= x^2 + y^2$$

;
$$offset(n) = 4 \times 42$$

; RO
$$:= n(x^2+y^2)$$

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- 2. Use graph colouring to bind each virtual register to a *physical* register.

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- 1. Generate code assuming *arbitrarily* many *virtual* registers (essentially the "naive" approach).
- 2. Use graph colouring to bind each virtual register to a *physical* register.

Note: above we started from a code where basic (ad hoc) register allocation already had been done for illustrative purposes.

 What if the register pressure exceeds the number of available registers?

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 - Intermediate results stored into the the "temporary" storage area of the stack frame/activation record.

- What if the register pressure exceeds the number of available registers?
 - Register Spilling: storing the content of a register into memory so as to free it and thus reduce the register pressure.
 - Intermediate results stored into the the "temporary" storage area of the stack frame/activation record.
 - Deciding which register(s) to spill is (another) hard optimization problem.

Register Spilling: Example (1)

Consider:

x * x + y * z

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Register Spilling: Example (1)

Consider:

x * x + y * z

If three or more registers available:

load	R0,	[LB	- 8]
mul	R0,	R0,	R0
load	R1,	[LB	- 4]
load	R2,	[LB	+ 12]
mul	R1,	R1,	R2
add	R0,	R0,	R1

; offset(x) = -8

; R0 :=
$$x^2$$

;
$$offset(y) = -4$$

;
$$offset(z) = 12$$

; R1 := yz

; RO
$$:= x^2 + yz$$

Register Spilling: Example (2)

x * x + y * z

If only two registers available ?

Register Spilling: Example (2)

x * x + y * z

If only two registers available :

load	R0,	[LB	—	8]
mul	R0,	R0,	RC)
load	R1,	[LB	—	4]
store	R0,	[LB	+	16]
load	R0,	[LB	+	12]
mul	R0,	R1,	RC)
load	R1,	[LB	+	16]
add	R0,	R1,	RC)

; offset(x) = -8

; R0 :=
$$x$$

:
$$offset(y) = -4$$

; Temporary storage

;
$$offset(z) = 12$$

; R0 := yz

: R1 :=
$$x^2$$

; RO := $x^2 + yz$

We have seen there are reasons to minimize the number of registers used:

- Ability to get by with as few registers as possible reduces likelihood of having to spill.
- Fewer registers to save and restore across subroutine calls.

But can there be downsides to not making use of all registers there are?

Consider:

add R2, R0, R1
store R2, [...]
mul R3, R0, R1

A superscalar CPU can execute the add and mul instructions in parallel because there is no data dependence between them.

Consider instead:

add R2, R0, R1 store R2, [...] mul R2, R0, R1

One fewer registers used, but no longer possible to execute add and mul in parallel!

mul is anti-dependent on store (or Write After Read (WAR) dependent).

Reducing the number of used registers might have *hurt* the performance!

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Commonly used; e.g. Pentium II/III/4, Athlon.

See e.g. Wikipedia for details.

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- Special purpose registers; e.g. dedicated registers for result of multiplication, memory addressing, etc.
- Registers of varying size.
- Non-uniform instruction set, and thus complicated interaction between code selection and register allocation.