

# Implementation and comparison of register allocation to translate LLVM-- to x86

William Welle Tange

2023

## Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>2</b>	<b>Review of Literature</b>	<b>4</b>
2.1	Control Flow Analysis . . . . .	4
2.2	Liveness Analysis . . . . .	4
2.3	Graph Coloring . . . . .	5
2.4	Linear Scan . . . . .	5
<b>3</b>	<b>Control Flow Analysis</b>	<b>5</b>
3.1	Building a graph . . . . .	5
3.2	Parameterized over individual instructions . . . . .	5
3.3	Parameterized over basic blocks . . . . .	5
<b>4</b>	<b>Liveness Analysis</b>	<b>5</b>
4.1	Dataflow Analysis . . . . .	5
4.2	Constructing an interference graph . . . . .	5
<b>5</b>	<b>Graph Coloring</b>	<b>5</b>
5.1	Coloring by simplification . . . . .	6
5.2	Coalescing . . . . .	6
<b>6</b>	<b>Linear Scan</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>7</b>	<b>Instruction Selection</b>	<b>6</b>
7.1	LLVM-- instruction set . . . . .	6
7.2	Translating to x86 . . . . .	6
<b>8</b>	<b>Further Optimization</b>	<b>7</b>

<b>9</b>	<b>Evaluation</b>	<b>7</b>
9.1	Benchmarking . . . . .	7
9.1.1	Measurements . . . . .	8
9.2	Comparison to other work and ideas for future work . . . . .	8
<b>10</b>	<b>Conclusion</b>	<b>8</b>
<b>A</b>	<b>LLVM– instruction set</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>B</b>	<b>Benchmarks</b>	<b>10</b>

# 1 Introduction

Compilation refers to the process of translating from one language to another, most often from a high-level programming language intended for humans to work with, to machine- or bytecode intended to be executed on a target platform. This process can be divided into several distinct phases, which are grouped into one of two stages colloquially referred to as the *frontend* and *backend*. The former translating a high-level programming language to an *intermediate representation* (IR) layer and the latter translating IR to executable machine code on a target platform or bytecode for a target *virtual machine* (VM).

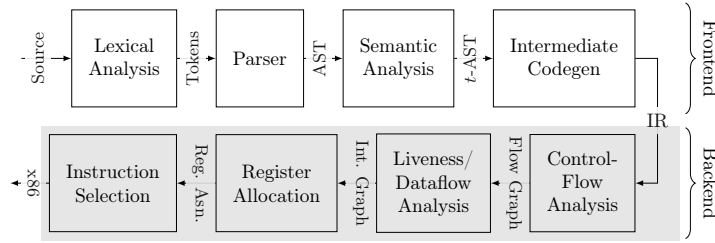


Figure 1: Compiler phases, backend highlighted

Most operations of a general-purpose programming language are translated to a set of logic, control, and arithmetic instructions to be executed sequentially on a computer processor: a single circuit/chip, referred to as the *central processing unit* (CPU), the design of which has varied and evolved over time. Most processors executing logic operations are *register machines*, in that they use a limited set of *general-purpose registers* (GPRs) to store working values in combination with *random access memory* (RAM) for mid-term, and other I/O peripherals for long-term storage.

This can largely be attributed to performance, as register machines routinely outperform so-called *stack machines* (Shi et al., 2008) that are often used in VMs. Because of the limited amount of GPRs available simultaneously, a crucial part of the backend stage for an optimizing compiler is assigning each variable of the source program to a GPR in such a way that maximizes performance without sacrificing correctness.

The process of assigning each variable to a GPR is referred to as *register allocation*, and can be approached in several different ways. This paper will seek to implement graph coloring and linear scan and evaluate them in terms of runtime performance after compilation. The primary sources will be *Modern Compiler Implementation in ML* (Appel, 1997) and *Compilers: Principles, techniques, and tools* (Aho et al., 2014), in addition to publications concerning the linear scan approach.

## 2 Review of Literature

The two primary sources are the *Modern Compiler Implementation in ML* Appel, 1997 and Dragonbook Aho et al., 2014, in addition to scientific publications concerning the linear scan approach.

### 2.1 Control Flow Analysis

The backend of a compiler takes some form of IR as input, usually a linear sequence of instructions for each separate function. This representation is close to the level of an actual processor by design, but it isn't immediately useful for the further analysis steps needed to generate optimized code for the target architecture. The control flow of a given program refers to the order in which instructions are executed. While the flow of most instructions is linear, in the sense that the next instruction to be executed is located immediately after, some transfer the flow of execution elsewhere or terminate it.

Such contiguous sequences of instructions are referred to as *basic blocks*: a basic block is defined as a sequence of instructions with no branches in or out except for the first and last instructions, and can be collectively construed of as a node in a control flow graph, whose directed entry edges are from any block that directs control flow towards itself.

These instructions are referred to as *terminators*, as they potentially terminate a contiguous flow of execution. This subset of instructions can be further divided into *branch instructions* and those concerned with handling the callstack in function/subroutine management.

hence a *control flow graph* is derived from these. A terminator will branch elsewhere to continue execution. The destination of this has to be an annotated by a label, hence labels *initiate* blocks.

### 2.2 Liveness Analysis

Liveness analysis is the process of finding the program points at which a variable is live. This serves the function of determining which variables are live simultaneously, i.e. in interference/conflict with one another, which cannot be assigned the same physical register without overwriting the value of one another in execution. These can be derived recursively by iteratively applying so-called *dataflow equations* to each node in a *control-flow graph* (CFG) until a stable state/fixed point is reached.

The algorithm described in *Modern Compiler Implementation in ML* Appel, 1997 and Aho et al., 2014 is based on the following equations for the live-in and live-out variables respectively:

$$in[n] = use[n] \cup (out[n] - def[n]) \quad (1)$$

$$out[n] = \bigcup_{s \in succ[n]} in[s] \quad (2)$$

where  $use[n]$  is the set of all dependent variables,  $def[n]$  is the set of all variables defines and  $succ[n]$  is the set of all immediate successor nodes of  $n$ .

The structure of the CFG is inherently vague as both Appel, 1997 and *Compilers : Principles, Techniques, and Tools* Aho et al., 2014, while based on the same underlying conceptions of dataflow, have different approaches to nodes of a CFG, with the former taking each individual instruction into consideration and the latter each basic block. Either of these approaches are sound

## 2.3 Graph Coloring

## 2.4 Linear Scan

# 3 Control Flow Analysis

## 3.1 Building a graph

## 3.2 Parameterized over individual instructions

## 3.3 Parameterized over basic blocks

With an input stream of instructions

Each function defined in an LLVM program is constructed with the help of

# 4 Liveness Analysis

## 4.1 Dataflow Analysis

Dataflow analysis

## 4.2 Constructing an interference graph

# 5 Graph Coloring

The heuristic for graph coloring as introduced in both the Appel and Aho et al. texts is a linear time approximation of an NP-complete problem. It is based on an iterative approach.

Let  $k$  be the number of working registers available on the target architecture. After building the interference graph  $G$ , a node  $n$  with fewer than  $k$  neighbors is chosen. As  $n$  has at most  $k - 1$  neighbors, it can be removed safely by ensuring it is not assigned any color assigned to its neighbors, effectively simplifying  $G$ .

It must hold that  $G - \{n\}$  is  $k$ -colorable if  $G$  is  $k$ -colorable

## 5.1 Coloring by simplification

## 5.2 Coalescing

Coalescing is the process of eliminating moves/copies of data from one GPR to another by combining their interference graph nodes.

# 6 Linear Scan

## 7 Instruction Selection

### 7.1 LLVM-- instruction set

The intermediate representation emitted by the frontend of a compiler serves as a stepping stone independent of the target architecture. The LLVM infrastructure is the industry standard in terms of bridging this gap and was consequently the library used to translate the semantically annotated abstract syntax tree to executable machine code in the 2022 compilers course. As this project is an expansion on this, it follows naturally to build on this.

The instruction set used in this paper will be a union of the sets used in the 2022 and 2023 compilers courses in order to work as a drop-in replacement of LLVM for either of the two respective source languages: Tiger and Dolphin. This instruction set is a subset of the one used in practice, as, for instance, neither of the languages implemented support exception handling, floating point operations and so on, and instead only strive to cover the basics of compilers.

The instructions included are `trunc` has only been added in order to help cover more generated LLVM. The branching for most of these is trivial: after successful execution the flow of all but `br`, `ret` and `unreachable` will unconditionally attempt to execute the next instruction in memory (i.e. increment the instruction pointer by instruction length).

Because of this, these instructions are referred to as *terminators*, as their purpose is to disrupt what had otherwise been a linear flow from the beginning of this continuous sequence of instructions, henceforth referred to as a *basic block*.

### 7.2 Translating to x86

Translating each IR instruction to x86 correctly is a matter of eliminating unintended side-effects. Each LLVM-- instruction is defined to have only one purpose, as concepts such as calling conventions, stack frames, or a `FLAGS` register are completely abstracted over in order to remain platform independent.

In contrast, the x86 *instruction set architecture* (ISA) is targeting a *complex instruction set computer* (CISC) family of processors, the instructions of which perform a much broader set of operations Appel, 1997, p. 190. This is in part due to pipelining, i.e. an abstraction over the concrete implementation of the actual processor, which in turn is made for the sake of performance.

An example of this would be the division/remainder operation: since integer division is a non-trivial iterative process wherein both the quotient and remainder is needed throughout, the result of both of these is stored in the `%rax` and `%rdx` registers respectively. This means two operations are performed simultaneously regardless of which value is used, hence they need to be restored before executing the next instruction, as any variables assigned to `%rax` or `%rdx` will be overwritten.

add	addx	{ }
mul	imul	{ %rax }
sdiv	idivx	{ %rax, %rdx }
srem	idivx	{ %rax, %rdx }
call	callx	{ %rax, <i>caller saved registers</i> }

## 8 Further Optimization

## 9 Evaluation

Relevant metrics by which to compare these variations are naturally the performance of the code generated at runtime, but also the time efficiency at compile-time. While the code written isn't expected to outperform LLVM, due to the time complexity of the linear scan and simplification algorithms implemented their respective runtime performances are expected to outperform the builtin graph coloring algorithm.

Another factor worth considering would be memory usage, caches misses, garbage collection (although not relevant to this as it doesn't use GC), vectorization (loop optimizations by SIMD) etc.

### 9.1 Benchmarking

There are different approaches to assessing how well a compiler backend translates IR to machine code targeting a specific architecture and platform. One of the primary means is to simply measure the time it takes to execute the code generated by it.

Since the target architecture is x86-64, all benchmarks are executed natively on the fastest processor available to be used consistently at the time of writing. This is to maximize the sample size and in turn reduce uncertainty, but the clock speed at which the benchmarks are performed is irrelevant to how fast the generated code is. Because of this, the metric recorded is the amount of CPU cycles spent executing from start to finish instead of actual time in seconds, as the time measure only works as a more imprecise estimate of the amount of underlying work/execution steps performed on the processor.

Needless to say, CPU cycles isn't a perfect measurement either, but it works to eliminate the clock speed as well as negate much of the time the scheduler

allocates for other processes. Scheduling still has a negative impact on execution because of the cache misses caused by context switching, but outside of executing each program in immediate mode which isn't possible on Linux or macOS this is a sensible estimate. To further reduce context switching, benchmarks are made on a fresh restart with minimal background processes running.

Additionally, all benchmarks are deterministic, so the value of each virtual variable will stay the same at every instruction step of execution when compared to another run with the same starting conditions. This means that the cycles measured over infinitely many runs will converge towards a 'perfect' run with no cache misses as caused by context switching. So across  $n$  runs, the run least affected by context switching will be the one with the least CPU cycles, so is the one most representative of the actual performance without noise.

Measurements are made with the `perf` utility, which relies on the *hardware counters* (HC) registers of modern microprocessors, which are special purpose registers meant to record performance data live during execution. Because the analysis is integrated into the chip on which it is executing, very little overhead is incurred, and is therefore the go-to for estimating native performance.

### 9.1.1 Measurements

Each `.ll` file present in the `benches` directory is listed here in a table denoting the input parameter on the left column and type of allocator used.

#### 9.1.1.1 fib.ll

The 'dumb' fib is a very naive approach to finding the  $n$ th number of the Fibonacci sequence by calling itself recursively twice (decrementing  $n$  before each), which causes an exponential growth in function calls.

fib	clang	greedy	simple	linear
40	1.000000	1.438693	1.441270	0.73
41	1.000000	1.441035	1.440626	0.73
42	1.000000	1.447140	1.446094	0

## 9.2 Comparison to other work and ideas for future work

# 10 Conclusion

## References

- Aho, A. V., lan, M. S., Sethi, R., & Ullmann, J. D. (2014). *Compilers : Principles, techniques, and tools* (2nd ed., internat. ed.). Pearson Education Limited.
- Appel, A. W. (1997). *Modern compiler implementation in ml*. Cambridge University Press.



Shi, Y., Casey, K., Ertl, M., & Gregg, D. (2008). Virtual machine showdown: Stack versus registers. *ACM transactions on architecture and code optimization*, 4(4), 1–36.

## A LLVM– instruction set

1. binary operations `add`, `and`, `ashr`, `lshr`, `mul`, `or`, `sdiv`, `srem`, `shl`, `sub` and `xor`
2. integer comparison `icmp` (conditions being `eq`, `ne`, `sge`, `sgt`, `sle` and `slt`)
3. memory/address operations `alloca`, `gep`, `load` and `store`
4. `mov` operations `gep`, `phi`, `ptrtoint`, `trunc`, and `zext`
5. control flow operations `br`, `call` and `ret`
6. a nullary block terminator `unreachable`

## B Benchmarks

### B.1 `benches/fib.ll`

```
declare i32 @atoi(i8*)
define i32 @fib(i32 %n0) {
    %cn = icmp sle i32 %n0, 2
    br i1 %cn, label %base, label %rec
base:
    ret i32 1
rec:
    %n1 = sub i32 %n0, 1
    %v0 = call i32 @fib(i32 %n1)
    %n2 = sub i32 %n0, 2
    %v1 = call i32 @fib(i32 %n2)
    %v2 = add i32 %v1, %v2
    ret i32 %v2
}
define i32 @main(i32 %argc, i8** %argv) {
    %arglptr = getelementptr i8*, i8** %argv, i64 1
    %arg1 = load i8*, i8** %arglptr
    %n = call i32 @atoi(i8* %arg1)
    call i32 @fib(i32 %n)
    ret i32 0
}
```

### B.1.1 make fib-clang

```
$ make fib-clang
clang -O0 -target x86_64-unknown-darwin benches/fib.ll -o
    fib-clang
```

#### B.1.1.1 make bench fib-clang 42

```
$ make bench fib-clang 42
/usr/bin/time -al ./fib-clang 42
    1.58 real        1.56 user        0.00 sys
    2678784 maximum resident set size
         0 average shared memory size
         0 average unshared data size
         0 average unshared stack size
       765 page reclaims
         0 page faults
         0 swaps
         0 block input operations
         0 block output operations
         0 messages sent
         0 messages received
         0 signals received
         0 voluntary context switches
        29 involuntary context switches
11000239251 instructions retired
 4962802652 cycles elapsed
   1708928 peak memory footprint
```

#### B.1.1.2 make bench fib-clang 43

```
make bench fib-clang 43
$ /usr/bin/time -al ./fib-clang 43
    2.71 real        2.49 user        0.00 sys
    2678784 maximum resident set size
         0 average shared memory size
         0 average unshared data size
         0 average unshared stack size
       700 page reclaims
        66 page faults
```

```

0 swaps
0 block input operations
0 block output operations
0 messages sent
0 messages received
0 signals received
13 voluntary context switches
32 involuntary context switches
17797124508 instructions retired
8035601598 cycles elapsed
1708928 peak memory footprint

```

#### B.1.1.3 **make bench fib-clang 44**

```

$ make bench fib-clang 44
/usr/bin/time -al ./fib-clang 44
4.06 real          4.04 user          0.00 sys
2678784 maximum resident set size
0 average shared memory size
0 average unshared data size
0 average unshared stack size
700 page reclaims
66 page faults
0 swaps
0 block input operations
0 block output operations
0 messages sent
0 messages received
0 signals received
5 voluntary context switches
29 involuntary context switches
28781328564 instructions retired
12988681489 cycles elapsed
1708928 peak memory footprint

```

#### B.1.1.4 **make bench fib-clang 45**

```

$ make bench fib-clang 45
/usr/bin/time -al ./fib-clang 45
6.54 real          6.51 user          0.00 sys
2678784 maximum resident set size

```

```

0 average shared memory size
0 average unshared data size
0 average unshared stack size
700 page reclaims
66 page faults
0 swaps
0 block input operations
0 block output operations
0 messages sent
0 messages received
0 signals received
6 voluntary context switches
39 involuntary context switches
46555259189 instructions retired
20968319385 cycles elapsed
1708928 peak memory footprint

```

#### B.1.1.5 **make bench fib-clang 46**

```

$ make bench fib-clang 46
/usr/bin/time -al ./fib-clang 46
10.58 real      10.54 user      0.00 sys
2678784 maximum resident set size
0 average shared memory size
0 average unshared data size
0 average unshared stack size
700 page reclaims
66 page faults
0 swaps
0 block input operations
0 block output operations
0 messages sent
0 messages received
0 signals received
5 voluntary context switches
107 involuntary context switches
75314385847 instructions retired
33939361073 cycles elapsed
1725376 peak memory footprint

```

#### B.1.1.6 **make bench fib-clang 47**

```

$ make bench fib-clang 47
/usr/bin/time -al ./fib-clang 47
    17.09 real        17.06 user        0.00 sys
    2678784 maximum resident set size
         0 average shared memory size
         0 average unshared data size
         0 average unshared stack size
       766 page reclaims
         0 page faults
         0 swaps
         0 block input operations
         0 block output operations
         0 messages sent
         0 messages received
         0 signals received
         0 voluntary context switches
        100 involuntary context switches
121838577947 instructions retired
 54901966523 cycles elapsed
   1708928 peak memory footprint

```

#### B.1.1.7 **make bench fib-clang 48**

```

$ make bench fib-clang 48
/usr/bin/time -al ./fib-clang 48
    27.65 real        27.59 user        0.00 sys
    2678784 maximum resident set size
         0 average shared memory size
         0 average unshared data size
         0 average unshared stack size
       766 page reclaims
         0 page faults
         0 swaps
         0 block input operations
         0 block output operations
         0 messages sent
         0 messages received
         0 signals received
         0 voluntary context switches
        161 involuntary context switches
197130073055 instructions retired
 88835375488 cycles elapsed

```

1708928 peak memory footprint