The SPARC provides 32 general-purpose integer registers, denoted as %r0 through %r31. These 32 registers are subdivided into 4 groups: Globals: %g0 to %g7			A registers). A register window m popped using SPARC instructions. After a register wind registers become "in		
In registers: %i0 to %i7 Locals: %10 to %17 Out registers: %20 to %27			set of "local" and "o Before save:		
There are also 32 floating-point registers			In	Local	Ou
*fo to *f31.			In (old)	Local (old)	In
A SPARC processor has an implementation dependent number of <i>register windows</i> , each consisting of 16 distinct registers. The "in", "local" and "out" registers that are accessed in a procedure depend on the current register window. The "global"	-		Af	ter save	
5 ⁰	29	CS 701 Fall 20	005 [©]		

registers are independent of the register windows (as are the floating-point

hay be pushed or save and restore

dow push, the "out" " registers and a fresh out" registers is created:

In	Local	Out		_
In	Local	In	Local	Out
(old)	(old)		(new)	(new)

Why the overlap between "in" and "out" registers? It's a convenient way to pass parameters-the caller puts parameter values in his "out" registers. After a call (and a **save**) these values are automatically available as "in" registers in the newly created register window.

Register Windows

SPARC procedure calls normally advance the register window. The "in" and "local" registers become hidden, and the "out" registers become the "in" registers of the called procedure, and new "local" and "out" registers become available.

A register window is advanced using the **save** instruction, and rolled back using the **restore** instruction. These instructions are separate from the procedure call and return instructions, and can sometimes be optimized away.

For example, a *leaf procedure*—one that contains no calls—can be compiled without use of **save** and **restore** if it doesn't need too many registers. The leaf procedure must then make do with the caller's registers, modifying only those the caller treats as volatile.

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Register Conventions Global Registers %g0 is unique: It always contains 0 and can never be changed. %g1 to %g7 have global scope (they are unaffected by save and restore instructions) **%g1** to **%g4** are volatile across calls; they may be used between calls. %q5 to %q7 are reserved for special use by the SPARC ABI (application binary interface) Local Registers %10 to %17 May be freely used; they are unaffected by deeper calls.

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Out Registers

Become the in registers for procedures called from the current procedure.

%00

Contains outgoing parameter 1. It also contains the value returned by the called procedure.

It is volatile across calls; otherwise it is freely usable.

%**01** t0 %05

Contain outgoing parameters 2 to 6 as needed.

These are volatile across calls; otherwise they are freely usable.

In Registers

These are also the caller's out registers; they are unaffected by deeper calls.

%i0

Contains incoming parameter 1. Also used to return function value to caller.

%i1 to %i5

Contain incoming parameters 2 to 6 (if needed); freely usable otherwise.

%i6 (also denoted as %fp) Contains frame pointer (stack pointer of caller); it must be preserved.

%i7

Contains return address -8 (offset due to delay slot); it must be preserved.

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%o6 (also denoted as %sp)

Holds the stack pointer (and becomes frame pointer of called routines)

It is reserved; it must *always* be valid (since TRAPs may modify the stack at any time).

%o7

Is volatile across calls.

It is loaded with address of caller on a procedure call.

Special SPARC Instructions

save %r1,%r2,%r3

%r1,const,%r3 save

This instruction pushes a register window and does an add instruction (\$r3 = \$r1 + \$r2). Moreover, the operands (%r1 and %r2) are from the old register window, while the result (%r3) is in the *new* window.

Why such an odd definition?

It's ideal to allocate a new register window and push a new frame. In particular,

save

%sp,-frameSize,%sp pushes a new register window. It also adds -frameSize (the stack grows downward) to the old stack pointer, initializing the new stack pointer. (The old stack pointer becomes the current frame pointer)

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call label

This instruction branches to **label** and puts the address of the call into register %07 (which will become %17 after a save is done).

ret

This instruction returns from a subprogram by branching to %i7+8. Why 8 bytes after the address of the call? SPARC processors have delayed branch instructions, so the instruction immediately after a branch (or a **call**) is executed *before* the branch occurs! Thus two instructions after the call is the normal return point.

%r1,%r2,%r3 restore

restore %r1,const,%r3

This instruction pops a register window and does an add instruction (%r3 = %r1+%r2). Moreover, the operands (%r1 and %r2) are from the *current* register window, while the result (%r3) is in the old window.

Again, why such an odd definition?

It's ideal to release a register window and place a result in the return register (%00).

In particular,

restore %r1,0,%o0

pops a register window. It also moves the contents of %r1 to %o0 (in the caller's register window).

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mov const,%r1

You can load a small constant (13 bits or less) into a register using a mov. (mov is actually implemented as an or of const with %q0).

But how do you load a 32 bit constant? One instruction (32 bits long) isn't enough. Instead you use:

sethi %hi(const),%r1 or %r1,%lo(const),%r1

That is, you extract the high order 22 bits of const (using %hi, an assembler operation). **sethi** fills in these 22 bits into %r1, clearing the lowest 10 bits. Then **%10** extracts the 10 low order bits of const, which are or-ed into %r1.

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Loading a 64 bit constant (in SPARC V9, which is a 64 bit processor) is far nastier: %uhi(const),%r_{tmp} sethi or %rtmp,%ulo(const),%rtmp %r_{tmp},32,%r_{tmp} sllx%hi(const),%r sethi or %r,%lo(const),%r or %r_{tmp},%r,%r CS 701 Fall 2005

Delayed Branches

In the SPARC, transfers of control (branches, calls and returns) are *delayed*. This means the instruction *after* the branch (or call or return) is executed *before* the transfer of control.

For example, in SPARC code you often see

ret

restore

The register window restore occurs first, then a return to the caller occurs.

Another example is

call subr

mov 3,%00

The load of **subr**'s parameter is placed after the call to **subr**. But the **mov** is done before **subr** is actually called.

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Why are Delayed Branches Part of the SPARC Architecture?

> Because of pipelining, several instructions are partially completed before a branch instruction can take effect. Rather than lose the computations already done, one (or more!) partially completed instructions can be allowed to complete before a branch takes effect.

How does a Compiler Exploit Delayed Branches?

A peephole optimizer or code scheduler looks for an instruction logically before the branch that can be placed in the branch's *delay slot*. The instruction should not affect a conditional branch's branch decision.

mov	3,%00	call	subr
call	subr	mov	3,%00
nop			
(before)		(aft	er)

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Another possibility is to "hoist" the target instruction of a branch into the branch's delay slot. call subr call subr+4 nop mov 100,%11 subr: subr: mov 100,%11 mov 100,%11 (before) (after) Hoisting branch targets doesn't work for conditional branches—we don't want to move an instruction that is executed sometimes (when the branch is taken) to a position where it is *always* executed (the delay slot). CS 701 Fall 2005 45

Annulled Branches

An *annulled branch* (denoted by a "**,a**" suffix) executes the instruction in the delay slot *if* the branch is taken, but *ignores* the instruction in the delay slot if the branch isn't taken.

With an annulled branch, a target of a conditional branch can be hoisted into the branch's delay slot.



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Examples of SPARC Code int incr(int i){ return i+1; } **Unoptimized:** incr: %sp, -112, %sp save %i0, [%fp+68] st ld [%fp+68], %o1 add %01, 1, %00 mov %00, %i0 .LL2 ь nop .LL2: ret restore

SPARC Frame Layout (on Run-Time Stack)

The Stack Grows Downward

Caller's Frame	str (old san)
Local Variables	
alloca() space	
Memory Temps & Saved FP Registers	
Parms past 6	
Parms 1 to 6 (memory home)	
Address of return value	
Register Window Overflow (16 words)	∢ %sp
Minimum frame Si bytes! (16+1+6+4 aligned)	ze (in gcc) is 112 words, double

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```
main(){
        int
            int a;
            return incr(a);}
      Unoptimized:
        main:
                     %sp, -120, %sp
            save
                     [%fp-20], %o0
            ld
                     incr, 0
            call
           nop
                     %00, %i0
           mov
           b
                     .LL3
           nop
        .LL3:
           ret
           restore
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                                               49
```

```
int incr(int i){
     return i+1; }
Optimized:
 incr:
     retl
     add
           %00, 1, %00
 int
        main(){
     int a;
     return incr(a);}
Optimized:
 main:
    save
            %sp, -112, %sp
 ! Where is variable a ????
            incr, 0
    call
    nop
    ret
    restore %g0, %o0, %o0
```

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With More Extensive Optimization (including inlining) we get:

incr: retl add %00, 1, %00 main: retl add %00, 1, %00

"On the Fly" Local Register Allocation

Allocate registers as needed during code generation.

Partition registers into 3 classes.

Allocatable

Explicitly allocated and freed; used to hold a variable, literal or temporary. On SPARC: Local registers & unused In registers.

Reserved

Reserved for specific purposes by OS or software conventions.

On SPARC: **%fp**, **%sp**, return address register, argument registers, return value register.



Register Tracking

Improve upon standard getReg/ freeReg allocator by tracking (remembering) register contents.

Remember the value(s) currently held within a register; store information in a Register Association List.

Mark each value as Saved (in memory) or *Unsaved* (in memory).

Each value in a register has a *Cost*. This is the cost (in instructions) to restore the value to a register.

The cost of allocating a register is the sum of the costs of the values it holds.

 $Cost(register) = \sum_{values \in register} cost(values)$

When we allocate a register, we will choose the *cheapest* one.

If 2 registers have the same cost, we choose that register whose values have the most distant next use.

(Why most distant?)

Costs for the SPARC

- **Dead Value** 0
- 1 Saved Local Variable
- 1 Small Literal Value (13 bits)
- 2 Saved Global Variable
- 2 Large Literal Value (32 bits)
- 2 **Unsaved Local Variable**
- 4 **Unsaved Global Variable**

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