

Register Windows

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

A register window may be pushed or popped using SPARC save and restore instructions.

After a register window push, the "out" registers become "in" registers and a fresh set of "local" and "out" registers is created:

Before save:

After save

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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.**

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.**

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. %g5 to %g7 are reserved for special use by the SPARC ABI (application binary interface) Local Registers %l0 to %l7 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.

%o0

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

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

%o1 to %o5

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

save %r1,const,%r3

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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restore %r1,%r2,%r3

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 (%o0).**

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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call label

This instruction branches to label *and* **puts the address of the call into register %o7 (which will become %i7 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.**

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 %g0).

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 %lo extracts the 10 low order bits of const, which are or-ed into %r1.

 $\text{CS } 701 \text{ Fall } 2005^{\circledcirc}$ 41 **Loading a 64 bit constant (in SPARC V9, which is a 64 bit processor) is far nastier:** sethi %uhi(const),% r_{tmp} or r_{tmp} , %ulo(const), % r_{tmp} $sllx$ kr_{tmp} , 32, kr_{tmp} **sethi %hi(const),%r or %r,%lo(const),%r** or r_{tmp} , r_{sr} , r_{sr}

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,%o0

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.**

 \sim CS 701 Fall 2005 $^{\circ}$ 45 **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,%l1 ...** **subr: subr: mov 100,%l1 mov 100,%l1 (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).**

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: add %o1, 1, %o0 mov %o0, %i0 b .LL2 nop .LL2: ret restore

 $\cos 701$ Fall $2005^{\circ\circ}$ 48 **save %sp, -112, %sp st %i0, [%fp+68] ld [%fp+68], %o1**

SPARC Frame Layout (on Run-Time Stack)

The Stack Grows Downward


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

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

```
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```
With More Extensive Optimization (including inlining) we get:

incr: retl add %o0, 1, %o0 main: retl add %o0, 1, %o0

"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.**

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

 Cost(register) = Σ **cost(values) values** ∈ **register**

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

- **0 Dead Value**
- **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**