

Frame pointer

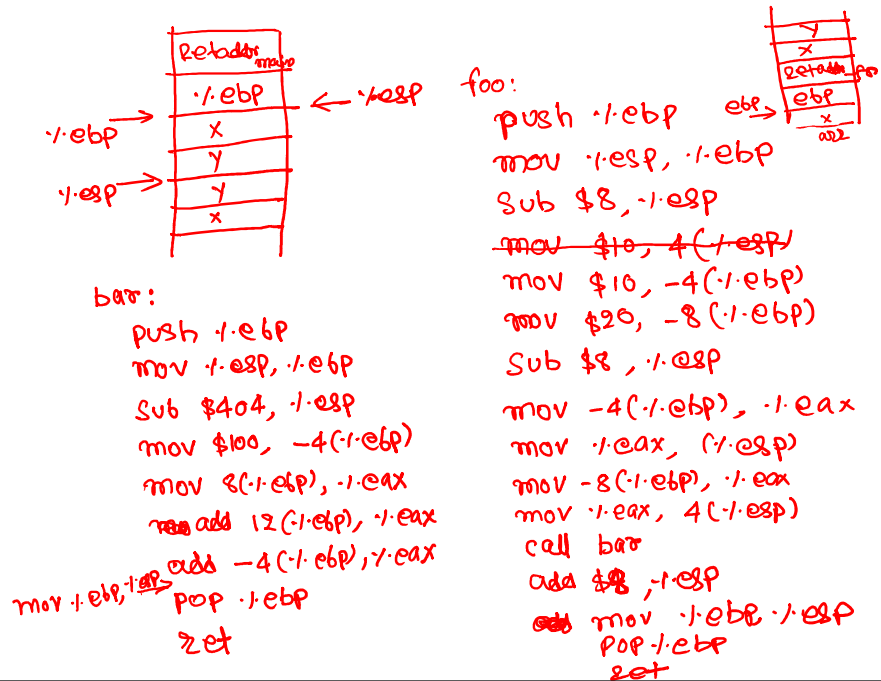
- To simplify code generation and aid debugging, the frame pointer (%ebp) is used on the function prologue and epilogue of the function body
- Function prologue
 - push %ebp
 - mov %esp, %ebp
- Function epilogue
 - mov %ebp, %esp
 - pop %ebp

Example

```

void
int foo() {
    int x = 10;
    int y = 20;
    bar(x, y);
}
int bar(int x, int y) {
    int z = 100;
    int arr[100];
    return x + y + z;
}

```



At function entry: caller's %ebp is saved on the stack, and %ebp is set to current %esp. After this step, %ebp points to the stack location that contains the caller's %ebp, (%ebp + 4) points to return address, (%ebp + 8) points to the first argument, and so on. The %ebp value doesn't change throughout the function body, except just before the ret instruction. Due to this relative address of local variables and function parameters corresponding to %ebp remains the same throughout the program. The use of frame pointer is entirely optional. The compilers can still generate code without the frame pointer. The frame pointer simplifies code generation and also aid debugging that we will discuss next.

Example

```
bar:
push %ebp
mov %esp, %ebp
sub $404, %esp
movl $100, -4(%ebp)
mov 8(%ebp), %eax
add 12(%ebp), %eax
add -4(%ebp), %eax
mov %ebp, %esp
pop %ebp
ret
```

```
int bar(int x, int y) {
    int z = 100;
    int arr[100];
    return x + y + z;
}
```

```
foo:
push %ebp
mov %esp, %ebp
sub $8, %esp
movl $10, -4(%ebp)
movl $20, -8(%ebp)
sub $8, %esp
mov -4(%ebp), %eax
mov %eax, (%esp)
mov -8(%ebp), %eax
mov %eax, 4(%esp)
call bar
add $8, %esp
mov %ebp, %esp
pop %ebp
ret
```

```
void foo() {
    int x = 10;
    int y = 20;
    bar(x, y);
}
```

Frame pointer

- The frame pointer is not strictly needed because a compiler can compute the address of variables and its parameters based on its knowledge of the current stack depth

Backtrace

```
foo() {
    bar();
}
bar() {
    baz();
}
baz() {
}
```

~~printf("%p", (ebp-4));~~ $ebp_{foo} \rightarrow$
 Unsigned $* *ebp = ebp-4$
~~printf("%p", (ebp-4));~~ $ebp_{bar} \rightarrow$
 $ebp = (unsigned) *ebp;$
~~printf("%p", ebp);~~ $ebp_{baz} \rightarrow$



The backtrace program prints the call stack. If we save the frame pointers on the stack, we can identify the location of stack locations that store the return addresses. The backtrace program is shown in the next slide.

Backtrace

```
unsigned *ebp = read_register_val(%ebp);  
do {  
    printf("%p\n", (char*)ebp[1]);  
    ebp = ebp[0];  
} while (ebp);
```

What is the purpose of registers?

- If all the variables live in memory, what is the role of registers?
 - register access is faster than memory access
 - local variables can live in registers
 - we can't put all variables because registers are limited
 - registers are used to store temporary computation
 - registers are also used to temporarily store the values of variables (who live in memory)

Registers

C program:

```
foo () {  
    int a, b, c, d, e;  
    a = 1, b = 2, c = 3, d = 4;  
    e = a + b + c + d;  
    d = e - 1;  
    ...  
}
```

assembly:

a : eax
b : ebx
c : ecx
d : stack *ebp-4*
e : stack *ebp-8*

```
foo:  
    push %ebp  
    mov %esp, %ebp  
    sub $8, %esp  
    mov $1, %eax  
    mov $2, %ebx  
    mov $3, %ecx  
    mov $4, -4(%ebp)  
    mov %eax, %edx  
    add eax %ebx, %edx  
    add ecx %ecx, %edx  
    add -4(%ebp), %edx  
    mov %edx, -8(%ebp)  
    mov -8(%ebp), %edx  
    sub $1, %edx  
    mov %edx, -4(%ebp)  
    ...
```

Registers

```
foo() {
  int a = 1, b = 2, c = 3, d = 4;
  bar(a, b);
  return a + b + c + d;
}

int bar(int x, int y) {
  int a = x + 1;
  int b = y + 1;
  return a + b;
}
```

assembly:

pushf
 -1.esp popf

```
bar:
  push %ebp
  mov %esp, %ebp
  mov $1, %eax
  add 8(%ebp), %eax
  mov $1, %ebx
  add 12(%ebp), %ebx
  add %ebx, %eax
  mov %ebp, %esp
  pop %ebp
  ret
```

```
foo:
  push %ebp
  mov %esp, %ebp
  mov $1, %eax
  mov $2, %ebx
  mov $3, %ecx
  mov $4, %edx
  sub $8, %esp
  mov %eax, (%esp)
  mov %ebx, 4(%esp)
  call bar
  add $8, %esp
  add %ebx, %eax
  add %ecx, %eax
  add %edx, %eax
  mov %ebp, %esp
  pop %ebp
  ret
```

A function can use registers for its variables. However, a function call may trash the registers values (because the target function may use the same registers). If a caller wishes to use a register across a function call, then it must save/restore them before/after the function call.

Caller saves/restore all live registers

```
foo() {
    int a = 1, b = 2, c = 3, d = 4;
    bar(a, b);
    return a + b + c + d;
}

int bar(int x, int y) {
    int a = x + 1;
    int b = y + 1;
    return a + b;
}
```

assembly:

```
foo:
    mov $1, %eax
    mov $2, %ebx
    mov $3, %ecx
    mov $4, %edx
    pushl %eax
    pushl %ebx
    pushl %edx
    pushl %ecx
    call bar
    subl $8, %esp
    movl %eax, (%esp)
    movl %ebx, 4(%esp)
    call bar2
    addl $8, %esp
```

```
foo:
    popl %ecx
    popl %edx
    popl %ebx
    popl %eax
    addl %ebx, %eax
    addl %ecx, %eax
    addl %edx, %eax
    ret
```

In this example, foo is using variables a(%eax), b(%ebx), c(%ecx), d(%edx) that are allocated on registers after calling the bar routine. Because foo doesn't know which registers bar is using, it saves all of them before the function call and restores them after the function call. However, this is not the best strategy. For example, in this case, the bar is not using %ecx and %edx at all. If foo would have known about this fact, then saving/restoring of these registers could have avoided. Because the compiler doesn't see the register allocation of the target routine, the saving/restoring of the values of the registers across the function call is divided among caller and callee. Registers are divided into callee and caller saved registers. If a caller uses a caller-saved register across a function call, then it must save/restore them before/after the function call. If a callee uses a callee saved register, then it must save/restore them at function entry/exit. The callee is free to trash the values of caller saved registers, but not the callee saved registers.

Caller saves/restore caller-saved live registers

<pre> foo() { ^{caller} <u>eax ebx</u> ^{callee} <u>esi edi</u> int a = 1, b = 2, c = 3, d = 4; bar(a, b); return <u>a + b + c + d</u>; } int bar(int x, int y) { int a = x + 1; int b = y + 1; return a + b; } </pre>	<pre> assembly: foo: pushl -1(%esi) pushl -1(%edi) movl \$1, %eax movl \$2, %ebx movl \$3, %esi movl \$4, %edi pushl %eax pushl %ebx subl \$8, %esp movl -1(%eax), 0(%esp) movl -1(%ebx), 4(%esp) call bar addl \$8, %esp popl %ebx popl %eax ret </pre>	<pre> foo: addl -1(%ebx), %eax addl -1(%esi), %eax addl -1(%edi), %eax popl %edi popl %esi ret </pre>
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In this example, we assume that %eax and %ebx are caller saved registers, and %esi and %edi are callee saved registers. The bar implementation is the same as in the previous slide because it is not using any callee saved register. Notice, in this case, when foo calls the bar, then it need not save/restore %esi and %edi before/after calling bar.

Calling convention

- Callee may trash the caller's registers values
- If a caller wishes to use the values of registers prior to a function call after the function call, it must save/restore them before/after the function call
- The job of saving/restoring of register values is divided among the caller and callee

caller and callee saved registers

- Registers are divided into two sets
 - caller saved registers
 - callee saved registers
- callee is allowed to trash a caller saved register
 - If a caller wants to use a caller saved register after a function call then it must save/restore the value of the caller saved register before/after the function call
- callee is not supposed to trash a callee saved register
 - If a callee wants to use callee saved registers, then it must save/restore them in the function prologue/epilogue

caller and callee saved register

- In gcc 32-bit compiler
 - %eax, %ecx, %edx are caller saved registers
 - %ebp, %ebx, %esi, and %edi are callee saved registers

Where does a.out live?

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- a.out is a file and lives on disk
- Who loads a.out into the RAM for execution?
 - OS
- Where does OS live?
 - OS is also a software and lives on disk.
- Who loads OS into the RAM for execution?

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- Who loads a.out into the RAM for execution?
 - OS
- Where does OS live?
 - OS is also a software and lives on disk.
- Who loads OS into the RAM for execution?
 - Part of OS lives in ROM that is persistent memory
 - CPU can execute instructions from ROM
 - OS code in ROM loads rest of the OS into the RAM and transfer control to it

On power-on, the CPU directly jumps to a predefined location (say entry) in ROM. The instructions start at entry load the OS from disk to RAM and transfer control to the main routine of OS.

Physical address space

32-bit memory mapped devices	0xFFFFFFFF (4 GB)
unused	
	depends on RAM
Extended memory	
BIOS ROM	0x10000 (1 MB)
16-bit devices	0x0F000 (960 KB)
VGA display	0x0C000 (768 KB)
Low memory	0x0A000 (768 KB)
	0x00000

BIOS ROM is the area where the CPU jumps on startup.