SPIM S20: A MIPS R2000 Simulator*

" $\frac{1}{25}^{th}$ the performance at none of the cost"

James R. Larus
larus@cs.wisc.edu
Computer Sciences Department
University of Wisconsin-Madison
1210 West Dayton Street
Madison, WI 53706, USA
608-262-9519

Copyright ©1990–1993 by James R. Larus (This document may be copied without royalties, so long as this copyright notice remains on it.)

April. 12, 1993
(Revision 11 corresponding to SPIM Version 5.1)

1 SPIM

SPIM S20 is a simulator that runs programs for the MIPS R2000/R3000 RISC computers.¹ SPIM can read and immediately execute files containing assembly language or MIPS executable files. SPIM is a self-contained system for running these programs and contains a debugger and interface to a few operating system services.

The architecture of the MIPS computers is simple and regular, which makes it easy to learn and understand. The processor contains 32 general-purpose registers and a well-designed instruction set that make it a propitious target for generating code in a compiler.

However, the obvious question is: why use a simulator when many people have workstations that contain a hardware, and hence significantly faster, implementation of this computer? One reason is that these workstations are not generally available. Another reason is that these machine will not persist for many years because of the rapid progress leading to new and faster computers. Unfortunately, the trend is to make computers faster by executing several instructions concurrently, which makes their architecture more difficult to understand and program. The MIPS architecture may be the epitome of a simple, clean RISC machine.

In addition, simulators can provide a better environment for low-level programming than an actual machine because they can detect more errors and provide more features than an actual computer. For example, SPIM has a X-window interface that is better than most debuggers for the actual machines.

^{*}I grateful to the many students at UW who used SPIM in their courses and happily found bugs in a professor's code. In particular, the students in CS536, Spring 1990, painfully found the last few bugs in an "already-debugged" simulator. I am grateful for their patience and persistence. Alan Yuen-wui Siow wrote the X-window interface.

¹For a description of the real machines, see Gerry Kane and Joe Heinrich, MIPS RISC Architecture, Prentice Hall, 1992.

Finally, simulators are an useful tool for studying computers and the programs that run on them. Because they are implemented in software, not silicon, they can be easily modified to add new instructions, build new systems such as multiprocessors, or simply to collect data.

1.1 Simulation of a Virtual Machine

The MIPS architecture, like that of most RISC computers, is difficult to program directly because of its delayed branches, delayed loads, and restricted address modes. This difficulty is tolerable since these computers were designed to be programmed in high-level languages and so present an interface designed for compilers, not programmers. A good part of the complexity results from delayed instructions. A delayed branch takes two cycles to execute. In the second cycle, the instruction immediately following the branch executes. This instruction can perform useful work that normally would have been done before the branch or it can be a nop (no operation). Similarly, delayed loads take two cycles so the instruction immediately following a load cannot use the value loaded from memory.

MIPS wisely choose to hide this complexity by implementing a *virtual machine* with their assembler. This virtual computer appears to have non-delayed branches and loads and a richer instruction set than the actual hardware. The assembler *reorganizes* (rearranges) instructions to fill the delay slots. It also simulates the additional, *pseudoinstructions* by generating short sequences of actual instructions.

By default, SPIM simulates the richer, virtual machine. It can also simulate the actual hardware. We will describe the virtual machine and only mention in passing features that do not belong to the actual hardware. In doing so, we are following the convention of MIPS assembly language programmers (and compilers), who routinely take advantage of the extended machine. Instructions marked with a dagger (†) are pseudoinstructions.

1.2 SPIM Interface

SPIM provides a simple terminal and a X-window interface. Both provide equivalent functionality, but the X interface is generally easier to use and more informative.

spim, the terminal version, and xspim, the X version, have the following command-line options:

-bare

Simulate a bare MIPS machine without pseudoinstructions or the additional addressing modes provided by the assembler. Implies -quiet.

-asm

Simulate the virtual MIPS machine provided by the assembler. This is the default.

-notrap

Do not load the standard trap handler. This trap handler has two functions that must be assumed by the user's program. First, it handles traps. When a trap occurs, SPIM jumps to location 0x80000080, which should contain code to service the exception. Second, this file contains startup code that invokes the routine main. Without the trap handler, execution begins at the instruction labeled <u>_start</u>.

-trap

Load the standard trap handler. This is the default.

-noquiet

Print a message when an exception occurs. This is the default.

-quiet

Do not print a message at an exception.

-nomapped_io

Disable the memory-mapped IO facility (see Section 5).

-mapped_io

Enable the memory-mapped IO facility (see Section 5). Programs that use SPIM syscalls (see Section 1.5) to read from the terminal should not also use memory-mapped IO.

-file

Load and execute the assembly code in the file.

-execute

Load and execute the code in the MIPS executable file a.out.

- -s seg size Sets the initial size of memory segment seg to be size bytes. The memory segments are named: text, data, stack, ktext, and kdata. For example, the pair of arguments -sdata 2000000 starts the user data segment at 2,000,000 bytes.
- -lseg size Sets the limit on how large memory segment seg can grow to be size bytes. The memory segments that can grow are: data, stack, and kdata.

1.2.1 Terminal Interface

The terminal interface (spim) provides the following commands:

exit

Exit the simulator.

read "file"

Read *file* of assembly language commands into SPIM's memory. If the file has already been read into SPIM, the system should be cleared (see **reinitialize**, below) or global symbols will be multiply defined.

load "file"

Synonym for read.

execute "a.out"

Read the MIPS executable file a.out into SPIM's memory.

run <addr>

Start running a program. If the optional address *addr* is provided, the program starts at that address. Otherwise, the program starts at the global symbol <u>_start</u>, which is defined by the default trap handler to call the routine at the global symbol main with the usual MIPS calling convention.

step <N>

Step the program for N (default: 1) instructions. Print instructions as they execute.

continue

Continue program execution without stepping.

print \$N

Print register N.

print \$fN

Print floating point register N.

print addr

Print the contents of memory at address addr.

print_sym

Print the contents of the symbol table, i.e., the addresses of the global (but not local) symbols.

reinitialize

Clear the memory and registers.

breakpoint addr

Set a breakpoint at address addr. addr can be either a memory address or symbolic label.

delete addr

Delete all breakpoints at address addr.

list

List all breakpoints.

Rest of line is an assembly instruction that is stored in memory.

<n1>

A newline reexecutes previous command.

7

Print a help message.

Most commands can be abbreviated to their unique prefix e.g., ex, re, 1, ru, s, p. More dangerous commands, such as reinitialize, require a longer prefix.

1.2.2 X-Window Interface

The X version of SPIM, xspim, looks different, but should operate in the same manner as spim. The X window has five panes (see Figure 1). The top pane displays the contents of the registers. It is continually updated, except while a program is running.

The next pane contains the buttons that control the simulator:

quit

Exit from the simulator.

load

Read a source or executable file into memory.

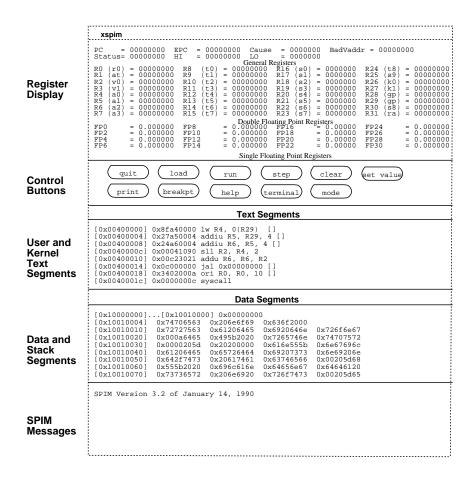


Figure 1: X-window interface to SPIM.

run

Start the program running.

step

Single-step through a program.

clear

Reinitialize registers or memory.

set value

Set the value in a register or memory location.

print

Print the value in a register or memory location.

breakpoint

Set or delete a breakpoint or list all breakpoints.

help

Print a help message.

terminal

Raise or hide the console window.

mode

Set SPIM operating modes.

The next two panes display the memory contents. The top one shows instructions from the user and kernel text segments.² The first few instructions in the text segment are startup code (_start) that loads argc and argv into registers and invokes the main routine.

The lower of these two panes displays the data and stack segments. Both panes are updated as a program executes.

The bottom pane is used to display messages from the simulator. It does not display output from an executing program. When a program reads or writes, its IO appears in a separate window, called the Console, which pops up when needed.

1.3 Surprising Features

Although SPIM faithfully simulates the MIPS computer, it is a simulator and certain things are not identical to the actual computer. The most obvious differences are that instruction timing and the memory systems are not identical. SPIM does not simulate caches or memory latency, nor does it accurate reflect the delays for floating point operations or multiplies and divides.

Another surprise (which occurs on the real machine as well) is that a pseudoinstruction expands into several machine instructions. When single-stepping or examining memory, the instructions that you see are slightly different from the source program. The correspondence between the two sets of instructions is fairly simple since SPIM does not reorganize the instructions to fill delay slots.

²These instructions are real—not pseudo—MIPS instructions. SPIM translates assembler pseudoinstructions to 1–3 MIPS instructions before storing the program in memory. Each source instruction appears as a comment on the first instruction to which it is translated.

1.4 Assembler Syntax

Comments in assembler files begin with a sharp-sign (#). Everything from the sharp-sign to the end of the line is ignored.

Identifiers are a sequence of alphanumeric characters, underbars (_), and dots (.) that do not begin with a number. Opcodes for instructions are reserved words that are **not** valid identifiers. Labels are declared by putting them at the beginning of a line followed by a colon, for example:

.data
item: .word 1
 .text
 .globl main # Must be global
main: lw \$t0, item

Strings are enclosed in double-quotes ("). Special characters in strings follow the C convention:

newline \n tab \t quote \"

SPIM supports a subset of the assembler directives provided by the MIPS assembler:

.align n

Align the next datum on a 2^n byte boundary. For example, .align 2 aligns the next value on a word boundary. .align 0 turns off automatic alignment of .half, .word, .float, and .double directives until the next .data or .kdata directive.

.ascii str

Store the string in memory, but do not null-terminate it.

.asciiz str

Store the string in memory and null-terminate it.

.byte b1, ..., bn

Store the n values in successive bytes of memory.

.data <addr>

The following data items should be stored in the data segment. If the optional argument addr is present, the items are stored beginning at address addr.

.double d1, ..., dn

Store the n floating point double precision numbers in successive memory locations.

.extern sym size

Declare that the datum stored at sym is size bytes large and is a global symbol. This directive enables the assembler to store the datum in a portion of the data segment that is efficiently accessed via register \$gp.

.float f1, ..., fn

Store the n floating point single precision numbers in successive memory locations.

.globl sym

Declare that symbol sym is global and can be referenced from other files.

Service	System Call Code	${f Arguments}$	\mathbf{Result}
print_int	1	a0 = integer	
print_float	2	f12 = float	
print_double	3	f12 = double	
print_string	4	a0 = string	
$read_int$	5		integer (in \$v0)
read_float	6		float (in \$f0)
$read_double$	7		double (in \$f0)
read_string	8	a0 = buffer, a1 = length	
sbrk	9	a0 = amount	address (in \$v0)
$_{ m exit}$	10		

Table 1: System services.

.half h1, ..., hn

Store the n 16-bit quantities in successive memory halfwords.

.kdata <addr>

The following data items should be stored in the kernel data segment. If the optional argument addr is present, the items are stored beginning at address addr.

.ktext <addr>

The next items are put in the kernel text segment. In SPIM, these items may only be instructions or words (see the .word directive below). If the optional argument addr is present, the items are stored beginning at address addr.

.space n

Allocate n bytes of space in the current segment (which must be the data segment in SPIM).

.text <addr>

The next items are put in the user text segment. In SPIM, these items may only be instructions or words (see the .word directive below). If the optional argument addr is present, the items are stored beginning at address addr.

.word w1, ..., wn

Store the n 32-bit quantities in successive memory words.

SPIM does not distinguish various parts of the data segment (.data, .rdata, and .sdata).

1.5 System Calls

SPIM provides a small set of operating-system-like services through the system call (syscall) instruction. To request a service, a program loads the system call code (see Table 1) into register \$v0 and the arguments into registers \$a0...\$a3 (or \$f12 for floating point values). System calls that return values put their result in register \$v0 (or \$f0 for floating point results). For example, to print "the answer = 5", use the commands:

```
.data
str: .asciiz "the answer = "
```

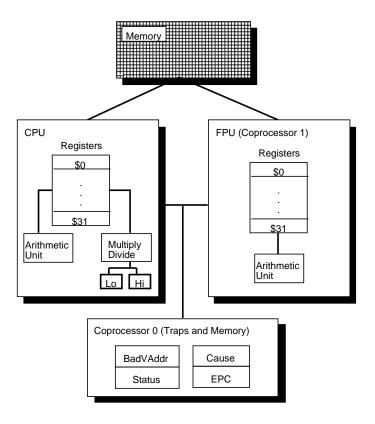


Figure 2: MIPS R2000 CPU and FPU

```
.text
li $v0, 4  # system call code for print_str
la $a0, str  # address of string to print
syscall  # print the string
li $v0, 1  # system call code for print_int
li $a0, 5  # integer to print
syscall  # print it
```

print_int is passed an integer and prints it on the console. print_float prints a single floating point number. print_double prints a double precision number. print_string is passed a pointer to a null-terminated string, which it writes to the console.

read_int, read_float, and read_double read an entire line of input up to and including the newline. Characters following the number are ignored. read_string has the same semantics as the Unix library routine fgets. It reads up to n-1 characters into a buffer and terminates the string with a null byte. If there are fewer characters on the current line, it reads through the newline and again null-terminates the string. Warning: programs that use these syscalls to read from the terminal should not use memory-mapped IO (see Section 5).

 ${\tt sbrk}$ returns a pointer to a block of memory containing n additional bytes. ${\tt exit}$ stops a program from running.

Register Name	Number	${f Usage}$
zero	0	Constant 0
at	1	Reserved for assembler
v0	2	Expression evaluation and
v1	3	results of a function
a0	4	Argument 1
a1	5	Argument 2
a2	6	Argument 3
a3	7	Argument 4
t0	8	Temporary (not preserved across call)
t1	9	Temporary (not preserved across call)
t2	10	Temporary (not preserved across call)
t3	11	Temporary (not preserved across call)
t4	12	Temporary (not preserved across call)
t5	13	Temporary (not preserved across call)
t6	14	Temporary (not preserved across call)
t7	15	Temporary (not preserved across call)
s0	16	Saved temporary (preserved across call)
s1	17	Saved temporary (preserved across call)
s2	18	Saved temporary (preserved across call)
s3	19	Saved temporary (preserved across call)
s4	20	Saved temporary (preserved across call)
s5	21	Saved temporary (preserved across call)
s6	22	Saved temporary (preserved across call)
s7	23	Saved temporary (preserved across call)
t8	24	Temporary (not preserved across call)
t9	25	Temporary (not preserved across call)
k0	26	Reserved for OS kernel
k1	27	Reserved for OS kernel
gp	28	Pointer to global area
sp	29	Stack pointer
fp	30	Frame pointer
ra	31	Return address (used by function call)

Table 2: MIPS registers and the convention governing their use.

2 Description of the MIPS R2000

A MIPS processor consists of an integer processing unit (the CPU) and a collection of coprocessors that perform ancillary tasks or operate on other types of data such as floating point numbers (see Figure 2). SPIM simulates two coprocessors. Coprocessor 0 handles traps, exceptions, and the virtual memory system. SPIM simulates most of the first two and entirely omits details of the memory system. Coprocessor 1 is the floating point unit. SPIM simulates most aspects of this unit.

2.1 CPU Registers

The MIPS (and SPIM) central processing unit contains 32 general purpose registers that are numbered 0-31. Register n is designated by n. Register always contains the hardwired value 0. MIPS has established a set of conventions as to how registers should be used. These

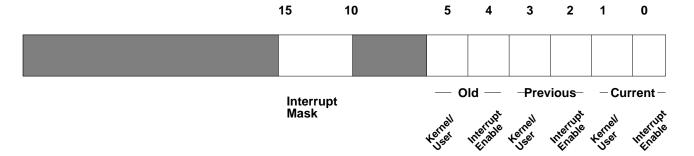


Figure 3: The Status register.

suggestions are guidelines, which are not enforced by the hardware. However a program that violates them will not work properly with other software. Table 2 lists the registers and describes their intended use.

Registers \$at (1), \$k0 (26), and \$k1 (27) are reserved for use by the assembler and operating system.

Registers \$a0-\$a3 (4-7) are used to pass the first four arguments to routines (remaining arguments are passed on the stack). Registers \$v0 and \$v1 (2, 3) are used to return values from functions. Registers \$t0-\$t9 (8-15, 24, 25) are caller-saved registers used for temporary quantities that do not need to be preserved across calls. Registers \$s0-\$s7 (16-23) are caller-saved registers that hold long-lived values that should be preserved across calls.

Register \$sp (29) is the stack pointer, which points to the first free location on the stack. Register \$fp (30) is the frame pointer.³ Register \$ra (31) is written with the return address for a call by the jal instruction.

Register \$gp (28) is a global pointer that points into the middle of a 64K block of memory in the heap that holds constants and global variables. The objects in this heap can be quickly accessed with a single load or store instruction.

In addition, coprocessor 0 contains registers that are useful to handle exceptions. SPIM does not implement all of these registers, since they are not of much use in a simulator or are part of the memory system, which is not implemented. However, it does provide the following:

Register Name	Number	$_{ m Usage}$
BadVAddr	8	Memory address at which address exception occurred
Status	12	Interrupt mask and enable bits
Cause	13	Exception type and pending interrupt bits
EPC	14	Address of instruction that caused exception

These registers are part of coprocessor 0's register set and are accessed by the lwc0, mfc0, mtc0, and swc0 instructions.

Figure 3 describes the bits in the Status register that are implemented by SPIM. The interrupt mask contains a bit for each of the five interrupt levels. If a bit is one, interrupts at that level are allowed. If the bit is zero, interrupts at that level are disabled. The low six bits of the Status register implement a three-level stack for the kernel/user and interrupt enable bits. The kernel/user bit is 0 if the program was running in the kernel when the interrupt occurred and 1 if it was in user mode. If the interrupt enable bit is 1, interrupts are allowed. If it is 0, they are disabled. At an interrupt, these six bits are shifted left by two bits, so the

³The MIPS compiler does not use a frame pointer, so this register is used as callee-saved register \$s8.

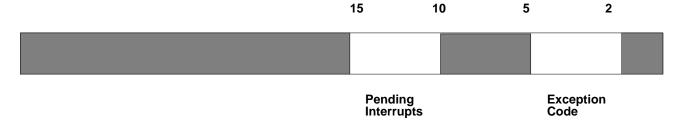


Figure 4: The Cause register.

current bits become the previous bits and the previous bits become the old bits. The current bits are both set to 0 (i.e., kernel mode with interrupts disabled).

Figure 4 describes the bits in the Cause registers. The five pending interrupt bits correspond to the five interrupt levels. A bit becomes 1 when an interrupt at its level has occurred but has not been serviced. The exception code register contains a code from the following table describing the cause of an exception.

Number	Name	Description
0	INT	External interrupt
4	ADDRL	Address error exception (load or instruction fetch)
5	ADDRS	Address error exception (store)
6	IBUS	Bus error on instruction fetch
7	DBUS	Bus error on data load or store
8	SYSCALL	Syscall exception
9	BKPT	Breakpoint exception
10	RI	Reserved instruction exception
12	OVF	Arithmetic overflow exception

2.2 Byte Order

Processors can number the bytes within a word to make the byte with the lowest number either the leftmost or rightmost one. The convention used by a machine is its *byte order*. MIPS processors can operate with either *biq-endian* byte order:

or *little-endian* byte order:

SPIM operates with both byte orders. SPIM's byte order is determined by the byte order of the underlying hardware running the simulator. On a DECstation 3100, SPIM is little-endian, while on a HP Bobcat, Sun 4 or PC/RT, SPIM is big-endian.

2.3 Addressing Modes

MIPS is a load/store architecture, which means that only load and store instructions access memory. Computation instructions operate only on values in registers. The bare machine provides only one memory addressing mode: c(rx), which uses the sum of the immediate (integer) c and the contents of register rx as the address. The virtual machine provides the following addressing modes for load and store instructions:

Format	Address Computation	
(register)	contents of register	
imm	immediate	
imm (register)	immediate + contents of register	
symbol	address of symbol	
$symbol \pm imm$	address of symbol + or - immediate	
symbol \pm imm (register)	address of symbol + or - (immediate + contents of register)	

Most load and store instructions operate only on aligned data. A quantity is *aligned* if its memory address is a multiple of its size in bytes. Therefore, a halfword object must be stored at even addresses and a full word object must be stored at addresses that are a multiple of 4. However, MIPS provides some instructions for manipulating unaligned data.

2.4 Arithmetic and Logical Instructions

In all instructions below, Src2 can either be a register or an immediate value (a 16 bit integer). The immediate forms of the instructions are only included for reference. The assembler will translate the more general form of an instruction (e.g., add) into the immediate form (e.g., addi) if the second argument is constant.

abs Rdest, Rsrc $Absolute\ Value\ ^\dagger$

Put the absolute value of the integer from register Rsrc in register Rdest.

```
add Rdest, Rsrc1, Src2

addi Rdest, Rsrc1, Imm

Addition (with overflow)

Addition Immediate (with overflow)

Addition (without overflow)

Addition Immediate (without overflow)

Addition Immediate (without overflow)
```

Put the sum of the integers from register Rsrc1 and Src2 (or Imm) into register Rdest.

```
and Rdest, Rsrc1, Src2

andi Rdest, Rsrc1, Imm

AND Immediate
```

Put the logical AND of the integers from register Rsrc1 and Src2 (or Imm) into register Rdest.

```
      div Rsrc1, Rsrc2
      Divide (with overflow)

      divu Rsrc1, Rsrc2
      Divide (without overflow)
```

Divide the contents of the two registers. Leave the quotient in register 10 and the remainder in register hi. Note that if an operand is negative, the remainder is unspecified by the MIPS architecture and depends on the conventions of the machine on which SPIM is run.

```
div Rdest, Rsrc1, Src2 Divide\ (with\ overflow)\ ^{\dagger} divu Rdest, Rsrc1, Src2 Divide\ (without\ overflow)\ ^{\dagger} Put the quotient of the integers from register Rsrc1 and Src2 into register Rdest.
```

```
mul Rdest, Rsrc1, Src2 Multiply (without \ overflow)^{\dagger} mulo Rdest, Rsrc1, Src2 Multiply \ (with \ overflow)^{\dagger}
```

mulou Rdest, Rsrc1, Src2

Unsigned Multiply (with overflow) †
Put the product of the integers from register Rsrc1 and Src2 into register Rdest.

```
mult Rsrc1, Rsrc2

multu Rsrc1, Rsrc2

Unsigned Multiply

Unsigned Multiply
```

Multiply the contents of the two registers. Leave the low-order word of the product in register 10 and the high-word in register hi.

neg Rdest, Rsrc

Negate Value (with overflow) †

negu Rdest, Rsrc

Negate Value (without overflow) †

Put the negative of the integer from register Rsrc into register Rdest.

nor Rdest, Rsrc1, Src2

NOR

Put the logical NOR of the integers from register Rsrc1 and Src2 into register Rdest.

not Rdest, Rsrc

 NOT^{\dagger}

Put the bitwise logical negation of the integer from register Rsrc into register Rdest.

or Rdest, Rsrc1, Src2

OR

ori Rdest, Rsrc1, Imm

OR Immediate

Put the logical OR of the integers from register Rsrc1 and Src2 (or Imm) into register Rdest.

rem Rdest, Rsrc1, Src2

Remainder †

remu Rdest, Rsrc1, Src2

Unsigned Remainder †

Put the remainder from dividing the integer in register Rsrc1 by the integer in Src2 into register Rdest. Note that if an operand is negative, the remainder is unspecified by the MIPS architecture and depends on the conventions of the machine on which SPIM is run.

rol Rdest, Rsrc1, Src2

Rotate Left †

ror Rdest, Rsrc1, Src2

Rotate Right †

Rotate the contents of register Rsrc1 left (right) by the distance indicated by Src2 and put the result in register Rdest.

sll Rdest, Rsrc1, Src2

Shift Left Logical

sllv Rdest, Rsrc1, Rsrc2

Shift Left Logical Variable

sra Rdest, Rsrc1, Src2

Shift Right Arithmetic

srav Rdest, Rsrc1, Rsrc2

Shift Right Arithmetic Variable

srl Rdest, Rsrc1, Src2

 $Shift\ Right\ Logical$

srlv Rdest, Rsrc1, Rsrc2

Shift Right Logical Variable

Shift the contents of register Rsrc1 left (right) by the distance indicated by Src2 (Rsrc2) and put the result in register Rdest.

sub Rdest, Rsrc1, Src2

Subtract (with overflow)

subu Rdest, Rsrc1, Src2

Subtract (without overflow)

Put the difference of the integers from register Rsrc1 and Src2 into register Rdest.

xor Rdest, Rsrc1, Src2

XOR

xori Rdest, Rsrc1, Imm

XOR Immediate

Put the logical XOR of the integers from register Rsrc1 and Src2 (or Imm) into register Rdest.

2.5 Constant-Manipulating Instructions

li Rdest, imm

Load Immediate †

Move the immediate imm into register Rdest.

lui Rdest, imm

Load Upper Immediate

Load the lower halfword of the immediate imm into the upper halfword of register Rdest. The lower bits of the register are set to 0.

2.6 Comparison Instructions

In all instructions below, Src2 can either be a register or an immediate value (a 16 bit integer).

seq Rdest, Rsrc1, Src2

Set Equal †

Set register Rdest to 1 if register Rsrc1 equals Src2 and to be 0 otherwise.

sge Rdest, Rsrc1, Src2

Set Greater Than Equal †

sgeu Rdest, Rsrc1, Src2

Set Greater Than Equal Unsigned †

Set register Rdest to 1 if register Rsrc1 is greater than or equal to Src2 and to 0 otherwise.

sgt Rdest, Rsrc1, Src2

Set Greater Than †

sgtu Rdest, Rsrc1, Src2

Set Greater Than Unsigned †

Set register Rdest to 1 if register Rsrc1 is greater than Src2 and to 0 otherwise.

sle Rdest, Rsrc1, Src2

Set Less Than Equal †

sleu Rdest, Rsrc1, Src2

Set Less Than Equal Unsigned †

Set register Rdest to 1 if register Rsrc1 is less than or equal to Src2 and to 0 otherwise.

slt Rdest, Rsrc1, Src2

Set Less Than

slti Rdest, Rsrc1, Imm

Set Less Than Immediate

sltu Rdest, Rsrc1, Src2

Set Less Than Unsigned

sltiu Rdest, Rsrc1, Imm

Set Less Than Unsigned Immediate

Set register Rdest to 1 if register Rsrc1 is less than Src2 (or Imm) and to 0 otherwise.

sne Rdest, Rsrc1, Src2

Set Not Equal †

Set register Rdest to 1 if register Rsrc1 is not equal to Src2 and to 0 otherwise.

2.7 Branch and Jump Instructions

In all instructions below, Src2 can either be a register or an immediate value (integer). Branch instructions use a signed 16-bit offset field; hence they can jump $2^{15} - 1$ instructions (not bytes) forward or 2^{15} instructions backwards. The jump instruction contains a 26 bit address field.

b label $Branch\ instruction\ ^{\dagger}$

Unconditionally branch to the instruction at the label.

bczt label

Branch Coprocessor z True

bczf label

Branch Coprocessor z False

Conditionally branch to the instruction at the label if coprocessor z's condition flag is true (false).

beq Rsrc1, Src2, label

Branch on Equal

Conditionally branch to the instruction at the label if the contents of register Rsrc1 equals Src2.

beqz Rsrc, label

Branch on Equal Zero †

Conditionally branch to the instruction at the label if the contents of Rsrc equals 0.

bge Rsrc1, Src2, label bgeu Rsrc1, Src2, label Branch on Greater Than Equal †
Branch on GTE Unsigned †

Conditionally branch to the instruction at the label if the contents of register Rsrc1 are greater than or equal to Src2.

bgez Rsrc, label

Branch on Greater Than Equal Zero

Conditionally branch to the instruction at the label if the contents of Rsrc are greater than or equal to 0.

bgezal Rsrc, label

Branch on Greater Than Equal Zero And Link

Conditionally branch to the instruction at the label if the contents of Rsrc are greater than or equal to 0. Save the address of the next instruction in register 31.

bgt Rsrc1, Src2, label

Branch on Greater Than †

bgtu Rsrc1, Src2, label

Branch on Greater Than Unsigned †

Conditionally branch to the instruction at the label if the contents of register Rsrc1 are greater than Src2.

bgtz Rsrc, label

Branch on Greater Than Zero

Conditionally branch to the instruction at the label if the contents of Rsrc are greater than 0.

ble Rsrc1, Src2, label

Branch on Less Than Equal †

bleu Rsrc1, Src2, label

Branch on LTE Unsigned †

Conditionally branch to the instruction at the label if the contents of register Rsrc1 are less than or equal to Src2.

blez Rsrc, label

Branch on Less Than Equal Zero

Conditionally branch to the instruction at the label if the contents of Rsrc are less than or equal to 0.

bgezal Rsrc, label

Branch on Greater Than Equal Zero And Link

bltzal Rsrc, label

Branch on Less Than And Link

Conditionally branch to the instruction at the label if the contents of Rsrc are greater or equal to 0 or less than 0, respectively. Save the address of the next instruction in register 31.

blt Rsrc1, Src2, label

Branch on Less Than †

bltu Rsrc1, Src2, label

Branch on Less Than Unsigned †

Conditionally branch to the instruction at the label if the contents of register Rsrc1 are less than Src2.

bltz Rsrc, label

Branch on Less Than Zero

Conditionally branch to the instruction at the label if the contents of Rsrc are less than 0.

bne Rsrc1, Src2, label

Branch on Not Equal

Conditionally branch to the instruction at the label if the contents of register Rsrc1 are not equal to Src2.

bnez Rsrc, label

Branch on Not Equal Zero †

Conditionally branch to the instruction at the label if the contents of Rsrc are not equal to 0.

 ${f j}$ label ${\it Jump}$

Unconditionally jump to the instruction at the label.

jal label Jump and Link

jalr Rsrc Jump and Link Register

Unconditionally jump to the instruction at the label or whose address is in register Rsrc. Save the address of the next instruction in register 31.

jr Rsrc Jump Register

Unconditionally jump to the instruction whose address is in register Rsrc.

2.8 Load Instructions

la Rdest, address Load Address †

Load computed address, not the contents of the location, into register Rdest.

1b Rdest, address Load Byte

1bu Rdest, address Load Unsigned Byte

Load the byte at *address* into register Rdest. The byte is sign-extended by the 1b, but not the 1bu, instruction.

1d Rdest, address Load Double-Word †

Load the 64-bit quantity at address into registers Rdest and Rdest + 1.

1h Rdest, address Load Halfword

1hu Rdest, address Load Unsigned Halfword

Load the 16-bit quantity (halfword) at *address* into register Rdest. The halfword is sign-extended by the 1h, but not the lhu, instruction

lw Rdest, address Load Word

Load the 32-bit quantity (word) at address into register Rdest.

 ${ t load \ Word \ Coprocessor}$

Load the word at address into register Rdest of coprocessor z (0-3).

lwl Rdest, address
Load Word Left

lwr Rdest, address Load Word Right

Load the left (right) bytes from the word at the possibly-unaligned address into register Rdest.

ulh Rdest, address Unaligned Load Halfword †

ulhu Rdest, address Unaligned Load Halfword Unsigned †

Load the 16-bit quantity (halfword) at the possibly-unaligned address into register Rdest. The

halfword is sign-extended by the ulh, but not the ulhu, instruction

ulw Rdest, address Unaligned Load Word †

Load the 32-bit quantity (word) at the possibly-unaligned address into register Rdest.

2.9 Store Instructions

 $Store\ Byte$

Store the low byte from register Rsrc at address.

sd Rsrc, address $Store\ Double ext{-}Word\ ^\dagger$

Store the 64-bit quantity in registers Rsrc and Rsrc + 1 at address.

 $Store\ Halfword$

Store the low halfword from register Rsrc at address.

sw Rsrc, address Store Word

Store the word from register Rsrc at address.

 ${\tt swc} z \; {\tt Rsrc, \; address} \qquad \qquad {\tt Store \; Word \; Coprocessor}$

Store the word from register Rsrc of coprocessor z at address.

 $Store\ Word\ Left$

swr Rsrc, address Store Word Right

Store the left (right) bytes from register Rsrc at the possibly-unaligned address.

ush Rsrc, address Unaligned Store Halfword †

Store the low halfword from register Rsrc at the possibly-unaligned address.

usw Rsrc, address Unaligned Store Word †

Store the word from register Rsrc at the possibly-unaligned address.

2.10 Data Movement Instructions

move Rdest, Rsrc $Move^{\dagger}$

Move the contents of Rsrc to Rdest.

The multiply and divide unit produces its result in two additional registers, hi and lo. These instructions move values to and from these registers. The multiply, divide, and remainder instructions described above are pseudoinstructions that make it appear as if this unit operates on the general registers and detect error conditions such as divide by zero or overflow.

mfhi Rdest $Move\ From\ hi$ mflo Rdest $Move\ From\ lo$

Mayo the contents of the hi (le) register to register Pdest

Move the contents of the hi (lo) register to register Rdest.

Move the contents register Rdest to the hi (lo) register.

Coprocessors have their own register sets. These instructions move values between these registers and the CPU's registers.

mfcz Rdest, CPsrc

Move From Coprocessor z

Move the contents of coprocessor z's register CPsrc to CPU register Rdest.

mfc1.d Rdest, FRsrc1

Move Double From Coprocessor 1 †

Move the contents of floating point registers FRsrc1 and FRsrc1 + 1 to CPU registers Rdest and Rdest + 1.

 $\mathtt{mtc}z$ Rsrc, CPdest

Move To Coprocessor z

Move the contents of CPU register Rsrc to coprocessor z's register CPdest.

2.11 Floating Point Instructions

The MIPS has a floating point coprocessor (numbered 1) that operates on single precision (32-bit) and double precision (64-bit) floating point numbers. This coprocessor has its own registers, which are numbered \$f0-\$f31. Because these registers are only 32-bits wide, two of them are required to hold doubles. To simplify matters, floating point operations only use even-numbered registers—including instructions that operate on single floats.

Values are moved in or out of these registers a word (32-bits) at a time by lwc1, swc1, mtc1, and mfc1 instructions described above or by the l.s, l.d, s.s, and s.d pseudoinstructions described below. The flag set by floating point comparison operations is read by the CPU with its bc1t and bc1f instructions.

In all instructions below, FRdest, FRsrc1, FRsrc2, and FRsrc are floating point registers (e.g., \$f2).

abs.d FRdest, FRsrc abs.s FRdest, FRsrc

Floating Point Absolute Value Double
Floating Point Absolute Value Single

Compute the absolute value of the floating float double (single) in register FRsrc and put it in register FRdest.

add.d FRdest, FRsrc1, FRsrc2 add.s FRdest, FRsrc1, FRsrc2

Floating Point Addition Double
Floating Point Addition Single

Compute the sum of the floating float doubles (singles) in registers FRsrc1 and FRsrc2 and put it in register FRdest.

c.eq.d FRsrc1, FRsrc2

Compare Equal Double

c.eq.s FRsrc1, FRsrc2

Compare Equal Single

Compare the floating point double in register FRsrc1 against the one in FRsrc2 and set the floating point condition flag true if they are equal.

c.le.d FRsrc1, FRsrc2

Compare Less Than Equal Double

c.le.s FRsrc1, FRsrc2

Compare Less Than Equal Single

Compare the floating point double in register FRsrc1 against the one in FRsrc2 and set the floating point condition flag true if the first is less than or equal to the second.

c.lt.d FRsrc1, FRsrc2

 $Compare\ Less\ Than\ Double$

c.lt.s FRsrc1, FRsrc2

Compare Less Than Single

Compare the floating point double in register FRsrc1 against the one in FRsrc2 and set the condition flag true if the first is less than the second.

cvt.d.s FRdest, FRsrc
cvt.d.w FRdest, FRsrc

Convert Single to Double Convert Integer to Double

Convert the single precision floating point number or integer in register FRsrc to a double precision number and put it in register FRdest.

cvt.s.d FRdest, FRsrc

Convert Double to Single

cvt.s.w FRdest, FRsrc

Convert Integer to Single

Convert the double precision floating point number or integer in register FRsrc to a single precision number and put it in register FRdest.

cvt.w.d FRdest, FRsrc

Convert Double to Integer

cvt.w.s FRdest, FRsrc

Convert Single to Integer

Convert the double or single precision floating point number in register FRsrc to an integer and put it in register FRdest.

div.d FRdest, FRsrc1, FRsrc2

Floating Point Divide Double

div.s FRdest, FRsrc1, FRsrc2

Floating Point Divide Single

Compute the quotient of the floating float doubles (singles) in registers FRsrc1 and FRsrc2 and put it in register FRdest.

1.d FRdest, address

Load Floating Point Double †

1.s FRdest, address

Load Floating Point Single †

Load the floating float double (single) at address into register FRdest.

mov.d FRdest, FRsrc

Move Floating Point Double

mov.s FRdest, FRsrc

Move Floating Point Single

Move the floating float double (single) from register FRsrc to register FRdest.

mul.d FRdest, FRsrc1, FRsrc2

Floating Point Multiply Double

mul.s FRdest, FRsrc1, FRsrc2

Floating Point Multiply Single

Compute the product of the floating float doubles (singles) in registers FRsrc1 and FRsrc2 and put it in register FRdest.

neg.d FRdest, FRsrc

Negate Double

neg.s FRdest, FRsrc

Negate Single

Negate the floating point double (single) in register FRsrc and put it in register FRdest.

s.d FRdest, address

Store Floating Point Double †

s.s FRdest, address

Store Floating Point Single †

Store the floating float double (single) in register FRdest at address.

sub.d FRdest, FRsrc1, FRsrc2

Floating Point Subtract Double

sub.s FRdest, FRsrc1, FRsrc2

Floating Point Subtract Single

Compute the difference of the floating float doubles (singles) in registers FRsrc1 and FRsrc2 and put it in register FRdest.

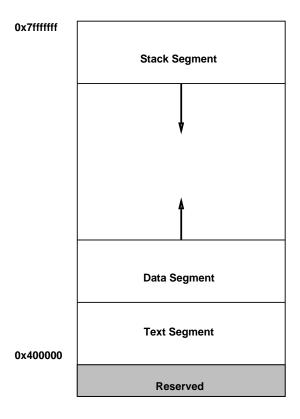


Figure 5: Layout of memory.

2.12 Exception and Trap Instructions

rfe Return From Exception

Restore the Status register.

System Call

Register \$v0 contains the number of the system call (see Table 1) provided by SPIM.

break n

Cause exception n. Exception 1 is reserved for the debugger.

nop No operation

Do nothing.

3 Memory Usage

The organization of memory in MIPS systems is conventional. A program's address space is composed of three parts (see Figure 5).

At the bottom of the user address space (0x400000) is the text segment, which holds the instructions for a program.

Above the text segment is the data segment (starting at 0x10000000), which is divided into two parts. The static data portion contains objects whose size and address are known to the

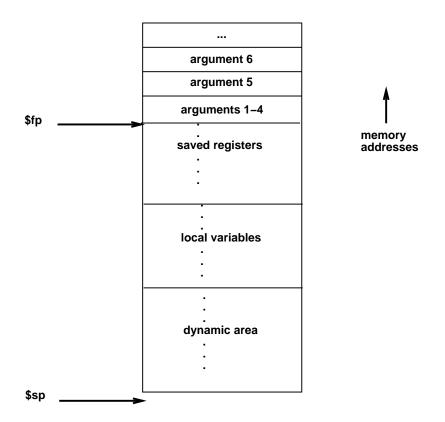


Figure 6: Layout of a stack frame. The frame pointer points just below the last argument passed on the stack. The stack pointer points to the first word after the frame.

compiler and linker. Immediately above these objects is dynamic data. As a program allocates space dynamically (i.e., by malloc), the sbrk system call moves the top of the data segment up.

The program stack resides at the top of the address space (0x7fffffff). It grows down, towards the data segment.

4 Calling Convention

The calling convention described in this section is the one used by gcc, not the native MIPS compiler, which uses a more complex convention that is slightly faster.

Figure 6 shows a diagram of a stack frame. A frame consists of the memory between the frame pointer (\$fp), which points to the word immediately after the last argument passed on the stack, and the stack pointer (\$sp), which points to the first free word on the stack. As typical of Unix systems, the stack grows down from higher memory addresses, so the frame pointer is above stack pointer.

The following steps are necessary to effect a call:

- 1. Pass the arguments. By convention, the first four arguments are passed in registers \$a0-\$a3 (though simplier compilers may choose to ignore this convention and pass all arguments via the stack). The remaining arguments are pushed on the stack.
- 2. Save the caller-saved registers. This includes registers \$t0-\$t9, if they contain live values at the call site.

3. Execute a jal instruction.

Within the called routine, the following steps are necessary:

- 1. Establish the stack frame by subtracting the frame size from the stack pointer.
- 2. Save the callee-saved registers in the frame. Register \$fp is always saved. Register \$ra needs to be saved if the routine itself makes calls. Any of the registers \$s0-\$s7 that are used by the callee need to be saved.
- 3. Establish the frame pointer by adding the stack frame size to the address in \$sp.

Finally, to return from a call, a function places the returned value into \$v0 and executes the following steps:

- 1. Restore any callee-saved registers that were saved upon entry (including the frame pointer \$fp).
- 2. Pop the stack frame by adding the frame size to \$sp.
- 3. Return by jumping to the address in register \$ra.

5 Input and Output

In addition to simulating the basic operation of the CPU and operating system, SPIM also simulates a memory-mapped terminal connected to the machine. When a program is "running," SPIM connects its own terminal (or a separate console window in xspim) to the processor. The program can read characters that you type while the processor is running. Similarly, if SPIM executes instructions to write characters to the terminal, the characters will appear on SPIM's terminal or console window. One exception to this rule is control-C: it is not passed to the processor, but instead causes SPIM to stop simulating and return to command mode. When the processor stops executing (for example, because you typed control-C or because the machine hit a breakpoint), the terminal is reconnected to SPIM so you can type SPIM commands. To use memory-mapped IO, spim or xspim must be started with the -mapped_io flag.

The terminal device consists of two independent units: a receiver and a transmitter. The receiver unit reads characters from the keyboard as they are typed. The transmitter unit writes characters to the terminal's display. The two units are completely independent. This means, for example, that characters typed at the keyboard are not automatically "echoed" on the display. Instead, the processor must get an input character from the receiver and re-transmit it to echo it.

The processor accesses the terminal using four memory-mapped device registers, as shown in Figure 7. "Memory-mapped" means that each register appears as a special memory location. The Receiver Control Register is at location 0xffff0000; only two of its bits are actually used. Bit 0 is called "ready": if it is one it means that a character has arrived from the keyboard but has not yet been read from the receiver data register. The ready bit is read-only: attempts to write it are ignored. The ready bit changes automatically from zero to one when a character is typed at the keyboard, and it changes automatically from one to zero when the character is read from the receiver data register.

Bit one of the Receiver Control Register is "interrupt enable". This bit may be both read and written by the processor. The interrupt enable is initially zero. If it is set to one by the

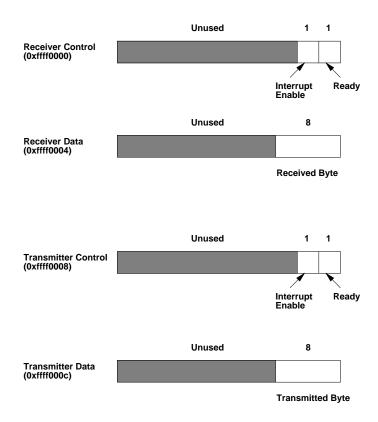


Figure 7: The terminal is controlled by four device registers, each of which appears as a special memory location at the given address. Only a few bits of the registers are actually used: the others always read as zeroes and are ignored on writes.

processor, an interrupt is requested by the terminal on level zero whenever the ready bit is one. For the interrupt actually to be received by the processor, interrupts must be enabled in the status register of the system coprocessor (see Section 2).

Other bits of the Receiver Control Register are unused: they always read as zeroes and are ignored in writes.

The second terminal device register is the Receiver Data Register (at address 0xffff0004). The low-order eight bits of this register contain the last character typed on the keyboard, and all the other bits contain zeroes. This register is read-only and only changes value when a new character is typed on the keyboard. Reading the Receiver Data Register causes the ready bit in the Receiver Control Register to be reset to zero.

The third terminal device register is the Transmitter Control Register (at address 0xffff0008). Only the low-order two bits of this register are used, and they behave much like the corresponding bits of the Receiver Control Register. Bit 0 is called "ready" and is read-only. If it is one it means the transmitter is ready to accept a new character for output. If it is zero it means the transmitter is still busy outputting the previous character given to it. Bit one is "interrupt enable"; it is readable and writable. If it is set to one, then an interrupt will be requested on level one whenever the ready bit is one.

The final device register is the Transmitter Data Register (at address 0xffff000c). When it is written, the low-order eight bits are taken as an ASCII character to output to the display. When the Transmitter Data Register is written, the ready bit in the Transmitter Control Register will be reset to zero. The bit will stay zero until enough time has elapsed to transmit the character to the terminal; then the ready bit will be set back to one again. The Transmitter Data Register should only be written when the ready bit of the Transmitter Control Register is one; if the transmitter isn't ready then writes to the Transmitter Data Register are ignored (the write appears to succeed but the character will not be output).

In real computers it takes time to send characters over the serial lines that connect terminals to computers. These time lags are simulated by SPIM. For example, after the transmitter starts transmitting a character, the transmitter's ready bit will become zero for a while. SPIM measures this time in instructions executed, not in real clock time. This means that the transmitter will not become ready again until the processor has executed a certain number of instructions. If you stop the machine and look at the ready bit using SPIM, it will not change. However, if you let the machine run then the bit will eventually change back to one.