# IAR C/C++ Compiler

Reference Guide

for the Renesas

R32C/100 Microcomputer Family

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## **Brief contents**

lablesxxi
Prefacexxiii
Part I. Using the compiler1
Getting started
Data storage11
Functions
Placing code and data27
The DLIB runtime environment41
Assembler language interface
Using C++
Efficient coding for embedded applications
Part 2. Reference information117
External interface details 119
Compiler options
Data representation
Compiler extensions 163
Extended keywords
Pragma directives
Intrinsic functions
The preprocessor
Library functions

Segment reference	225
Implementation-defined behavior	239
Index	251

## **Contents**

Tables	xxi
Preface	xxiii
Who should read this guide  How to use this guide  What this guide contains  Other documentation	xxiii
Document conventions	
Typographic conventions	xxvi
Naming conventions	xxvii
Part 1. Using the compiler	1
Getting started	3
IAR language overview	3
Supported R32C/100 devices	4
Building applications—an overvi	<b>ew</b> 4
Compiling	4
Linking	4
Basic settings for project configu	uration5
Data model	6
Code model	6
Size of double floating-point type	6
Optimization for speed and size	7
Runtime environment	7
Special support for embedded sy	ystems8
Extended keywords	8
C	9
	9
	9
Accessing low-level features	9

Data storage		. 11
Introduction		11
Different	ways to store data	11
Data models .		12
Specifying	g a data model	12
Memory types	s	13
Data16		14
Data24		14
Data32		14
Sbdata16		14
Sbdata24		14
Using data	a memory attributes	14
Structures	and memory types	16
More exam	mples	16
C++ and mem	nory types	17
Auto variable	s—on the stack	17
The stack		18
Dynamic men	nory on the heap	19
Functions		. 21
Function-related	ted extensions	21
Code models	and memory attributes for function storage	21
Using fun	ction memory attributes	22
Primitives for	interrupts, concurrency, and OS-related	
programming	·	22
Interrupt f	functions	23
Monitor f	unctions	24
C++ and s	special function types	26
Placing code and da	nta	. 27
Segments and	l memory	27
<del>-</del>	segment?	
Placing segme	ents in memory	28
Customizi	ing the linker command file	28

Data segments	31
Static memory segments	31
The internal data stack	34
The interrupt stack	35
The heap	35
Located data	37
Code segments	37
Startup code	37
Normal code	37
Interrupt vectors	38
C++ dynamic initialization	38
Verifying the linked result of code and dat	a placement38
Segment too long errors and range errors	38
Linker map file	39
The DLIB runtime environment	41
Introduction to the runtime environment	41
Runtime environment functionality	41
Library selection	42
Situations that require library building	43
Library configurations	43
Debug support in the runtime library	44
Using a prebuilt library	44
Customizing a prebuilt library without rebuild	ing46
Choosing formatters for printf and scanf	47
Choosing printf formatter	47
Choosing scanf formatter	48
Overriding library modules	49
Building and using a customized library	50
Setting up a library project	51
Modifying the library functionality	51
Using a customized library	51
System startup and termination	52
System startup	52

System termination	54
Customizing system initialization	55
low_level_init	
Modifying the file cstartup.s53	55
Standard streams for input and output	56
Implementing low-level character input and output	56
Configuration symbols for printf and scanf	58
Customizing formatting capabilities	59
File input and output	59
Locale	60
Locale support in prebuilt libraries	60
Customizing the locale support	60
Changing locales at runtime	61
Environment interaction	62
Signal and raise	63
Time	63
Strtod	63
Assert	64
Hardware support	64
Floating-point implementation	64
C-SPY runtime interface	65
Low-level debugger runtime interface	66
The debugger terminal I/O window	66
Checking module consistency	67
Runtime model attributes	67
Using runtime model attributes	68
Predefined runtime attributes	68
User-defined runtime model attributes	69
mbler language interface	71
Mixing C and assembler	
Intrinsic functions	
Mixing C and assembler modules	72
Inline assembler	73

Callir	ng assembler routines from C	. 74
	Creating skeleton code	. 74
	Compiling the code	. 75
Callir	ng assembler routines from C++	.76
Callir	ng convention	.77
	Function declarations	. 78
	Using C linkage in C++ source code	. 78
	Preserved versus scratch registers	. 79
	Function entrance	. 79
	Function exit	.82
	Restrictions for special function types	. 83
	Examples	. 83
	Function directives	. 84
Callir	ng functions	. 85
	Assembler instructions used for calling functions	. 85
Mem	ory access methods	. 86
	The data16 memory access method	. 87
	The data24 memory access method	. 87
	The data32 memory access method	. 87
	The sbdata16 memory access method	.88
	The sbdata24 memory access method	. 88
Call f	rame information	. 88
Using C++		91
Over	view	.91
	Standard Embedded C++	.91
	Extended Embedded C++	. 92
	Enabling C++ support	.92
Featu	ıre descriptions	. 93
	Classes	.93
	Functions	. 94
	Templates	.94
	Variants of casts	.95
	Mutable	.95

N	amespace	95
T	he STD namespace	95
U	sing interrupts and EC++ destructors	95
C++ lan	guage extensions	96
Efficient codi	ng for embedded applications	99
Selectir	ng data types	99
U	sing efficient data types	99
F	loating-point types	100
C	asting a floating-point value to an integer	101
A	lignment of elements in a structure	101
A	nonymous structs and unions	101
Contro	lling data and function placement in memory	103
D	ata placement at an absolute location	104
D	ata and function placement in segments	105
Contro	lling compiler optimizations	106
Se	cope for performed optimizations	107
O	ptimization levels	107
$S_1$	peed versus size	108
Fi	ine-tuning enabled transformations	109
Writing	g efficient code	111
S	aving stack space and RAM memory	112
F	unction prototypes	112
In	steger types and bit negation	113
Pi	rotecting simultaneously accessed variables	113
A	ccessing special function registers	114
N	on-initialized variables	115
Part 2. Re	eference information	117
External inte	rface details	119
Invocat	ion syntax	119
C	ompiler invocation syntax	119
Pa	assing options	119

	Environment variables	120
Incl	ude file search procedure	120
Con	mpiler output	121
Diag	gnostics	122
	Message format	123
	Severity levels	123
	Setting the severity level	124
	Internal error	124
Compiler	options	125
Opt	tions syntax	125
	Types of options	125
	Rules for specifying parameters	125
Sun	nmary of compiler options	128
Des	scriptions of options	130
	align_func	130
	char_is_signed	131
	code_model	131
	-D	131
	data_model	132
	debug, -r	132
	dependencies	133
	diag_error	134
	diag_remark	134
	diag_suppress	134
	diag_warning	135
	diagnostics_tables	135
	discard_unused_publics	136
	dlib_config	136
	double	137
	-e	
	ec++	137
	eec++	138
	enable multibytes	138

error_limit	38
-f	39
fp_model1	39
header_context	4(
-I1	4(
-1	4(
library_module1	41
mfc	41
migration_preprocessor_extensions 1	42
module_name1	42
no_code_motion1	43
no_cross_call1	43
no_cse	43
no_inline	44
no_path_in_file_macros1	44
no_tbaa1	45
no_typedefs_in_diagnostics1	45
no_unroll1	46
no_warnings1	46
no_wrap_diagnostics1	46
-01	47
-o,output	47
omit_types1	48
only_stdout1	48
-o,output	48
predef_macros	49
preinclude	49
preprocess	49
public_equ1	5(
-r,debug	5(
remarks	5(
require_prototypes 1	5
silent1	5
strict ansi	51

	warnings_affect_exit_code	152
	warnings_are_errors	152
Data repre	esentation	153
Aligr	nment	153
	Alignment on the R32C/100 microcomputer	153
Basic	c data types	154
	Integer types	154
	Floating-point types	156
Poin	ter types	157
	Function pointers	157
	Data pointers	158
	Casting	158
Struc	cture types	158
	Alignment	159
	General layout	159
	Packed structure types	159
Туре	qualifiers	161
	Declaring objects volatile	161
	Declaring objects const	162
Data	types in C++	162
Compiler	extensions	163
Com	piler extensions overview	
	Enabling language extensions	164
C lar	nguage extensions	164
	Important language extensions	164
	Useful language extensions	166
	Minor language extensions	169
Extended	keywords	173
Gene	eral syntax rules for extended keywords	173
	Type attributes	173
	Object attributes	176
Sum	mary of extended keywords	177

Desc	criptions of extended keywords	177
	code24	177
	code32	178
	data16	178
	data24	179
	data32	179
	fast_interrupt	179
	interrupt	180
	intrinsic	180
	monitor	180
	no_init	181
	noreturn	181
	packed	181
	root	182
	sbdata16	182
	sbdata24	183
	task	183
Pragma di	rectives	185
Sum	mary of pragma directives	185
Desc	criptions of pragma directives	186
	bitfields	186
	constseg	187
	data_alignment	187
	dataseg	188
	diag_default	188
	diag_error	189
	diag_remark	189
	diag_suppress	189
	diag_warning	190
	include_alias	190
	inline	191
	language	191

	message
	object_attribute
	optimize
	pack
	printf_args
	required
	rtmodel
	scanf_args
	segment
	type_attribute197
	vector
Intrinsic fui	nctions 199
Sumr	mary of intrinsic functions199
Desci	riptions of intrinsic functions201
	break201
	delay_cycles201
	disable_interrupt
	enable_interrupt201
	exchange_byte201
	exchange_long202
	exchange_word
	get_DCR_register
	get_DCT_register202
	get_DDA_register
	get_DDR_register
	get_DMD_register
	get_DSA_register
	get_DSR_register
	get_interrupt_level203
	get_interrupt_state203
	get_interrupt_table204
	get_VCT_register204
	illegal opcode

interrupt_on_overflow	204
load_context	204
low_level_init	205
no_operation	205
RMPA_B	205
RMPA_L	205
RMPA_W	205
ROUND	206
set_DCR_register	206
set_DCT_register	206
set_DDA_register	206
set_DDR_register	206
set_DMD_register	206
set_DSA_register	207
set_DSR_register	207
set_interrupt_level	207
set_interrupt_state	207
set_interrupt_table	207
set_VCT_register	207
SIN	208
software_interrupt	208
SOUT	208
STOP	208
store_context	208
wait_for_interrupt	209
The preprocessor	211
Overview of the preprocessor	211
Descriptions of predefined preprocessor symbols	
Descriptions of miscellaneous preprocessor extension	
NDEBUG	
_Pragma()	215
#warning message	215
VA_ARGS	215

Library fu	unctions	217
Intr	oduction	217
	Header files	217
	Library object files	217
	Reentrancy	218
IAR	R DLIB Library	218
	C header files	219
	C++ header files	220
	Library functions as intrinsic functions	222
	Added C functionality	222
Segment i	reference	225
Sum	nmary of segments	225
Des	scriptions of segments	226
	CHECKSUM	227
	CODE24	227
	CODE32	227
	CSTACK	228
	CSTART	228
	DATA16_AC	228
	DATA16_AN	228
	DATA16_C	229
	DATA16_I	229
	DATA16_ID	229
	DATA16_N	230
	DATA16_Z	230
	DATA24_AC	230
	DATA24_AN	230
	DATA24_C	231
	DATA24_I	231
	DATA24_ID	231
	DATA24_N	232
	DATA24_Z	232
	DATA32 AC	232

	DATA32_AN	232
	DATA32_C	233
	DATA32_I	233
	DATA32_ID	233
	DATA32_N	234
	DATA32_Z	234
	DIFUNCT	234
	HEAP	234
	INTVEC	235
	ISTACK	235
	NMIVEC	235
	SBDATA16_I	236
	SBDATA16_ID	236
	SBDATA16_N	236
	SBDATA16_Z	237
	SBDATA24_I	237
	SBDATA24_ID	237
	SBDATA24_N	238
	SBDATA24_Z	238
Implementa	ation-defined behavior	239
Descr	riptions of implementation-defined behavior	239
	Translation	239
	Environment	240
	Identifiers	240
	Characters	240
	Integers	242
	Floating point	242
	Arrays and pointers	243
	Registers	243
	Structures, unions, enumerations, and bitfields	243
	Qualifiers	244
	Declarators	244
	Statements	244

	Preprocessing directives	244
	IAR DLIB Library functions	246
Index		251

## **Tables**

1: Typographic conventions used in this guide	XV1
2: Naming conventions used in this guidexx	vii
3: Command line options for specifying library and dependency files	. 8
4: Data model characteristics	12
5: Memory types and their corresponding memory attributes	15
6: Code models	22
7: Function memory attributes	22
8: XLINK segment memory types	28
9: Memory layout of a target system (example)	29
10: Memory types with corresponding segment groups	32
11: Segment name suffixes	32
12: Library configurations	43
13: Levels of debugging support in runtime libraries	44
14: Prebuilt libraries	45
15: Customizable items	46
16: Formatters for printf	47
17: Formatters for scanf	48
18: Descriptions of printf configuration symbols	58
19: Descriptions of scanf configuration symbols	58
20: Low-level I/O files	59
21: Functions with special meanings when linked with debug info	65
22: Example of runtime model attributes	68
23: Predefined runtime model attributes	68
24: Registers used for passing parameters	80
25: Registers used for returning values	83
26: Specifying the size of a memory address in assembler instructions	86
27: Call frame information resources defined in a names block	89
28: Compiler optimization levels 1	07
29: Compiler environment variables 1	20
30: Error return codes	22
31: Compiler options summary 1	28

32:	Integer types	154
33:	Floating-point types	156
34:	Extended keywords summary	177
35:	Pragma directives summary	185
36:	Intrinsic functions summary	199
37:	Predefined symbols	212
38:	Traditional standard C header files—DLIB	219
39:	Embedded C++ header files	220
40:	Additional Embedded C++ header files—DLIB	220
41:	Standard template library header files	221
42:	New standard C header files—DLIB	221
43:	Segment summary	225
44:	Message returned by strerror()—IAR DLIB library	249

## **Preface**

Welcome to the IAR C/C++ Compiler for R32C Reference Guide. The purpose of this guide is to provide you with detailed reference information that can help you to use the compiler to best suit your application requirements. This guide also gives you suggestions on coding techniques so that you can develop applications with maximum efficiency.

### Who should read this guide

Read this guide if you plan to develop an application using the C or C++ language for the R32C/100 microcomputer and need detailed reference information on how to use the compiler. You should have working knowledge of:

- The architecture and instruction set of the R32C/100 microcomputer. Refer to the documentation from Renesas for information about the R32C/100 microcomputer
- The C or C++ programming language
- Application development for embedded systems
- The operating system of your host computer.

## How to use this guide

When you start using the IAR C/C++ Compiler for R32C, you should read *Part 1. Using the compiler* in this guide.

When you are familiar with the compiler and have already configured your project, you can focus more on *Part 2. Reference information*.

If you are new to using the IAR Systems build tools, we recommend that you first study the *IAR Embedded Workbench*® *IDE User Guide*. This guide contains a product overview, tutorials that can help you get started, conceptual and user information about the IDE and the IAR C-SPY® Debugger, and corresponding reference information.

### What this guide contains

Below is a brief outline and summary of the chapters in this guide.

### Part 1. Using the compiler

- Getting started gives the information you need to get started using the compiler for
  efficiently developing your application.
- Data storage describes how to store data in memory, focusing on the different data models and data memory type attributes.
- Functions gives a brief overview of function-related extensions—mechanisms for controlling functions—and describes some of these mechanisms in more detail.
- Placing code and data describes the concept of segments, introduces the linker command file, and describes how code and data are placed in memory.
- The DLIB runtime environment describes the DLIB runtime environment in which
  an application executes. It covers how you can modify it by setting options,
  overriding default library modules, or building your own library. The chapter also
  describes system initialization introducing the file cstartup, how to use modules
  for locale, and file I/O.
- Assembler language interface contains information required when parts of an application are written in assembler language. This includes the calling convention.
- *Using C++* gives an overview of the two levels of C++ support: The industry-standard EC++ and IAR Extended EC++.
- Efficient coding for embedded applications gives hints about how to write code that compiles to efficient code for an embedded application.

### Part 2. Reference information

- External interface details provides reference information about how the compiler
  interacts with its environment—the invocation syntax, methods for passing options
  to the compiler, environment variables, the include file search procedure, and the
  different types of compiler output. The chapter also describes how the compiler's
  diagnostic system works.
- *Compiler options* explains how to set options, gives a summary of the options, and contains detailed reference information for each compiler option.
- Data representation describes the available data types, pointers, and structure types.
   This chapter also gives information about type and object attributes.
- Compiler extensions gives a brief overview of the compiler extensions to the ISO/ANSI C standard. More specifically the chapter describes the available C language extensions.

- Extended keywords gives reference information about each of the R32C-specific keywords that are extensions to the standard C/C++ language.
- Pragma directives gives reference information about the pragma directives.
- *Intrinsic functions* gives reference information about functions to use for accessing R32C-specific low-level features.
- The preprocessor gives a brief overview of the preprocessor, including reference information about the different preprocessor directives, symbols, and other related information.
- Library functions gives an introduction to the C or C++ library functions, and summarizes the header files.
- Segment reference gives reference information about the compiler's use of segments.
- Implementation-defined behavior describes how the compiler handles the implementation-defined areas of the C language standard.

### Other documentation

The complete set of IAR Systems development tools for the R32C/100 microcomputer is described in a series of guides. For information about:

- Using the IDE and the IAR C-SPY Debugger®, refer to the *IAR Embedded Workbench*® *IDE User Guide*
- Programming for the R32C IAR Assembler, refer to the R32C IAR Assembler Reference Guide
- Using the IAR XLINK Linker, the IAR XAR Library Builder, and the IAR XLIB Librarian, refer to the IAR Linker and Library Tools Reference Guide
- Using the IAR DLIB Library functions, refer to the online help system
- Using the MISRA-C:1998 rules or the MISRA-C:2004 rules, refer to the IAR Embedded Workbench® MISRA C:2004 Reference Guide or the IAR Embedded Workbench® MISRA C:1998 Reference Guide, respectively.

All of these guides are delivered in hypertext PDF or HTML format on the installation media. Some of them are also delivered as printed books.

### **FURTHER READING**

These books might be of interest to you when using the IAR Systems development tools:

 Barr, Michael, and Andy Oram, ed. Programming Embedded Systems in C and C++. O'Reilly & Associates.

- Harbison, Samuel P. and Guy L. Steele (contributor). C: A Reference Manual. Prentice Hall.
- Kernighan, Brian W. and Dennis M. Ritchie. The C Programming Language.
   Prentice Hall. [The later editions describe the ANSI C standard.]
- Labrosse, Jean J. Embedded Systems Building Blocks: Complete and Ready-To-Use Modules in C. R&D Books.
- Lippman, Stanley B. and Josée Lajoie. *C++ Primer*. Addison-Wesley.
- Mann, Bernhard. C für Mikrocontroller. Franzis-Verlag. [Written in German.]
- Stroustrup, Bjarne. *The C++ Programming Language*. Addison-Wesley.

We recommend that you visit these web sites:

- The Renesas web site, www.renesas.com, contains information and news about the R32C/100 microcomputers.
- The IAR Systems web site, www.iar.com, holds application notes and other product information.
- Finally, the Embedded C++ Technical Committee web site,
   www.caravan.net/ec2plus, contains information about the Embedded C++ standard.

### **Document conventions**

When, in this text, we refer to the programming language C, the text also applies to C++, unless otherwise stated.

When referring to a directory in your product installation, for example r32c\doc, the full path to the location is assumed, for example c:\Program Files\IAR Systems\Embedded Workbench 5.n\r32c\doc.

### TYPOGRAPHIC CONVENTIONS

This guide uses the following typographic conventions:

Style	Used for
<ul> <li>Source code examples and file paths.</li> <li>Text on the command line.</li> <li>Binary, hexadecimal, and octal numbers.</li> </ul>	
parameter	A placeholder for an actual value used as a parameter, for example filename. h where filename represents the name of the file.
[option]	An optional part of a command.
a b c	Alternatives in a command.

Table 1: Typographic conventions used in this guide

Style	Used for
{a b c}	A mandatory part of a command with alternatives.
bold	Names of menus, menu commands, buttons, and dialog boxes that appear on the screen.
italic	<ul><li>A cross-reference within this guide or to another guide.</li><li>Emphasis.</li></ul>
	An ellipsis indicates that the previous item can be repeated an arbitrary number of times.
)	Identifies instructions specific to the IAR Embedded Workbench $\! \! \! \! \! \! \! \! \! \! \! \! \! \! \! \! \! \! \!$
	Identifies instructions specific to the command line interface.
<u></u>	Identifies helpful tips and programming hints.
<u>•</u>	Identifies warnings.

Table 1: Typographic conventions used in this guide (Continued)

### **NAMING CONVENTIONS**

The following naming conventions are used for the products and tools from IAR Systems® referred to in this guide:

Brand name	Generic term
IAR Embedded Workbench® for R32C	IAR Embedded Workbench®
IAR Embedded Workbench® IDE for R32C	the IDE
IAR C-SPY® Debugger for R32C	C-SPY, the debugger
IAR C/C++ Compiler™ for R32C	the compiler
IAR Assembler™ for R32C	the assembler
IAR XLINK™ Linker	XLINK, the linker
IAR XAR Library builder™	the library builder
IAR XLIB Librarian™	the librarian
IAR DLIB Library™	the DLIB library

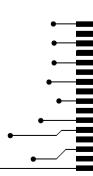
Table 2: Naming conventions used in this guide

Document conventions

## Part I. Using the compiler

This part of the IAR C/C++ Compiler for R32C Reference Guide includes these chapters:

- Getting started
- Data storage
- Functions
- Placing code and data
- The DLIB runtime environment
- Assembler language interface
- Using C++
- Efficient coding for embedded applications.





## **Getting started**

This chapter gives the information you need to get started using the compiler for efficiently developing your application.

First you will get an overview of the supported programming languages, followed by a description of the steps involved for compiling and linking an application.

Next, the compiler is introduced. You will get an overview of the basic settings needed for a project setup, including an overview of the techniques that enable applications to take full advantage of the R32C/100 microcomputer. In the following chapters, these techniques are studied in more detail.

## IAR language overview

There are two high-level programming languages you can use with the IAR C/C++ Compiler for R32C:

- C, the most widely used high-level programming language in the embedded systems industry. Using the R32C IAR C/C++ Compiler, you can build freestanding applications that follow the standard ISO 9899:1990. This standard is commonly known as ANSI C.
- C++, a modern object-oriented programming language with a full-featured library well suited for modular programming. IAR Systems supports two levels of the C++ language:
  - Embedded C++ (EC++), a subset of the C++ programming standard, which is intended for embedded systems programming. It is defined by an industry consortium, the Embedded C++ Technical committee. See the chapter *Using* C++.
  - IAR Extended Embedded C++, with additional features such as full template support, multiple inheritance, namespace support, the new cast operators, as well as the Standard Template Library (STL).

Each of the supported languages can be used in *strict* or *relaxed* mode, or relaxed with IAR extensions enabled. The strict mode adheres to the standard, whereas the relaxed mode allows some deviations from the standard. For more details, see the chapter *Compiler extensions*.

It is also possible to implement parts of the application, or the whole application, in assembler language. See the R32C IAR Assembler Reference Guide.

For more information about the Embedded C++ language and Extended Embedded C++, see the chapter Using C++.

## Supported R32C/I00 devices

The IAR C/C++ Compiler for R32C supports all devices based on the standard Renesas R32C/100 microcomputer. Hardware floating-point units (FPUs) are also supported.

### **Building applications—an overview**

A typical application is built from several source files and libraries. The source files can be written in C, C++, or assembler language, and can be compiled into object files by the compiler or the assembler.

A library is a collection of object files that are added at link time only if they are needed. A typical example of a library is the compiler library containing the runtime environment and the C/C++ standard library. Libraries can also be built using the IAR XAR Library Builder, the IAR XLIB Librarian, or be provided by external suppliers.

The IAR XLINK Linker is used for building the final application. XLINK normally uses a linker command file, which describes the available resources of the target system.





Below, the process for building an application on the command line is described. For information about how to build an application using the IDE, see the *IAR Embedded Workbench*® *IDE User Guide*.

### COMPILING

In the command line interface, the following line compiles the source file myfile.c into the object file myfile.r53 using the default settings:

```
iccr32c myfile.c
```

You must also specify some critical options, see *Basic settings for project configuration*, page 5.

### LINKING

The IAR XLINK Linker is used for building the final application. Normally, XLINK requires the following information as input:

• Several object files and possibly certain libraries

- The standard library containing the runtime environment and the standard language functions
- A program start label
- A linker command file that describes the placement of code and data into the memory of the target system
- Information about the output format.

On the command line, the following line can be used for starting XLINK:

```
xlink myfile.r53 myfile2.r53 -s __program_start -f lnkr32c.xcl
dlr32cfhfn.r53 -o aout.a53 -r
```

In this example, myfile.r53 and myfile2.r53 are object files, lnkr32c.xcl is the linker command file, and dlr32cfhfn.r53 is the runtime library. The option -s specifies the label where the application starts. The option -o specifies the name of the output file, and the option -r is used for specifying the output format UBROF, which can be used for debugging in C-SPY®.

The IAR XLINK Linker produces output according to your specifications. Choose the output format that suits your purpose. You might want to load the output to a debugger—which means that you need output with debug information. Alternatively, you might want to load the output to a flash loader or a PROM programmer—in which case you need output without debug information, such as Intel-hex or Motorola S-records. The option -F can be used for specifying the output format. (The default output format is Intel-extended.)

### **Basic settings for project configuration**

This section gives an overview of the basic settings for the project setup that are needed to make the compiler generate the best code for the R32C/100 device you are using. You can specify the options either from the command line interface or in the IDE.

The basic settings are:

- Data model
- Code model
- Floating-point model
- Size of double floating-point type
- Optimization settings
- Runtime environment.

In addition to these settings, many other options and settings can fine-tune the result even further. For details about how to set options and for a list of all available options, see the chapters *Compiler options* and the *IAR Embedded Workbench*® *IDE User Guide*, respectively.

### **DATA MODEL**

One of the characteristics of the R32C/100 microcomputer is a trade-off in how memory is accessed, between the range from cheap access to small memory areas, up to more expensive access methods that can access any location.

In the compiler, you can set a default memory access method by selecting a data model. However, you can use memory attributes to override the default access method for each individual variable.

The following data models are supported:

- The *Near* data model can access up to 32 Kbytes of RAM memory
- The Far data model can access up to 8 Mbytes of RAM memory
- The *Huge* data model can access up to 4 Gbytes of RAM memory.

The chapter *Data storage* covers data models in greater detail. The chapter also covers how to fine-tune the access method for individual variables.

### **CODE MODEL**

The compiler supports *code models* that you can set on file- or function-level to control which function calls are generated, which determines the size of the linked application. The following code models are available:

- The Far code model has an upper limit of 8 Mbytes of code
- The *Huge* code model can access the entire 32-bit address space.

For detailed information about the code models, see the chapter *Functions*.

### SIZE OF DOUBLE FLOATING-POINT TYPE

Floating-point values are represented by 32- and 64-bit numbers in standard IEEE754-compliant format. If you use the compiler option --double={32 | 64}, you can choose whether data declared as double should be represented with 32 bits or 64 bits. The data type float is always represented using 32 bits.

If there is a hardware floating-point unit (FPU) available, you can choose between using the FPU's own floating-point instructions, which do not comply with the IEEE-754 standard, and using library functions that are standards-compliant but slower. See *Floating-point implementation*, page 64.

### **OPTIMIZATION FOR SPEED AND SIZE**

The compiler is a state-of-the-art compiler with an optimizer that performs, among other things, dead-code elimination, constant propagation, inlining, common sub-expression elimination, and precision reduction. It also performs loop optimizations, such as unrolling and induction variable elimination.

You can decide between several optimization levels and for the highest level you can choose between different optimization goals—*size*, *speed*, or *balanced*. Most optimizations will make the application both smaller and faster. However, when this is not the case, the compiler uses the selected optimization goal to decide how to perform the optimization.

The optimization level and goal can be specified for the entire application, for individual files, and for individual functions. In addition, some individual optimizations, such as function inlining, can be disabled.

For details about compiler optimizations and for more information about efficient coding techniques, see the chapter *Efficient coding for embedded applications*.

### **RUNTIME ENVIRONMENT**

To create the required runtime environment you should choose a runtime library and set library options. You might also need to override certain library modules with your own customized versions.

The runtime library provided is the IAR DLIB Library, which supports ISO/ANSI C and C++. This library also supports floating-point numbers in IEEE 754 format and it can be configured to include different levels of support for locale, file descriptors, multibyte characters, et cetera.

The runtime library you choose can be one of the prebuilt libraries, or a library that you customized and built yourself. The IDE provides a library project template that you can use for building your own library version. This gives you full control of the runtime environment. If your project only contains assembler source code, you do not need to choose a runtime library.

For detailed information about the runtime environment, see the chapter *The DLIB* runtime environment.

The way you set up a runtime environment and locate all the related files differs depending on which build interface you are using—the IDE or the command line.



### Choosing a runtime library in the IDE

To choose a library, choose **Project>Options**, and click the **Library Configuration** tab in the **General Options** category. Choose the appropriate library from the **Library** drop-down menu.

Note that for the DLIB library there are two different configurations—Normal and Full—which include different levels of support for locale, file descriptors, multibyte characters, et cetera. See *Library configurations*, page 43, for more information.

Based on which library configuration you choose and your other project settings, the correct library file is used automatically. For the device-specific include files, a correct include path is set up.



### Choosing runtime environment from the command line

Use the following command line options to specify the library and the dependency files:

Command line	Description
-I r32c\inc	Specifies the include path to device-specific I/O definition
	files.
libraryfile.r53	Specifies the library object file
dlib_config	Specifies the library configuration file
C:\\configfile.h	

Table 3: Command line options for specifying library and dependency files

For a list of all prebuilt library object files, see Table 14, *Prebuilt libraries*, page 45. The table also shows how the object files correspond to the dependent project options, and the corresponding configuration files. Make sure to use the object file that matches your other project options.

### Setting library and runtime environment options

You can set certain options to reduce the library and runtime environment size:

- The formatters used by the functions printf, scanf, and their variants, see Choosing formatters for printf and scanf, page 47
- The size of the stack and the heap, see *The internal data stack*, page 34, and *The heap*, page 35, respectively.

## Special support for embedded systems

This section briefly describes the extensions provided by the compiler to support specific features of the R32C/100 microcomputer.

### **EXTENDED KEYWORDS**

The compiler provides a set of keywords that can be used for configuring how the code is generated. For example, there are keywords for controlling the memory type for individual variables as well as for declaring special function types.



By default, language extensions are enabled in the IDE.

The command line option -e makes the extended keywords available, and reserves them so that they cannot be used as variable names. See, -e, page 137 for additional information.

For detailed descriptions of the extended keywords, see the chapter Extended keywords.

#### PRAGMA DIRECTIVES

The pragma directives control the behavior of the compiler, for example how it allocates memory, whether it allows extended keywords, and whether it issues warning messages.

The pragma directives are always enabled in the compiler. They are consistent with ISO/ANSI C, and are very useful when you want to make sure that the source code is portable.

For detailed descriptions of the pragma directives, see the chapter Pragma directives.

#### PREDEFINED SYMBOLS

With the predefined preprocessor symbols, you can inspect your compile-time environment, for example time of compilation, and the code and data models.

For detailed descriptions of the predefined symbols, see the chapter *The preprocessor*.

#### **SPECIAL FUNCTION TYPES**

The special hardware features of the R32C/100 microcomputer are supported by the compiler's special function types: interrupt, monitor, and task. You can write a complete application without having to write any of these functions in assembler language.

For detailed information, see *Primitives for interrupts, concurrency, and OS-related programming*, page 22.

#### **ACCESSING LOW-LEVEL FEATURES**

For hardware-related parts of your application, accessing low-level features is essential. The compiler supports several ways of doing this: intrinsic functions, mixing C and assembler modules, and inline assembler. For information about the different methods, see *Mixing C and assembler*, page 71.

Special support for embedded systems

# **Data storage**

This chapter gives a brief introduction to the memory layout of the R32C/I00 microcomputer and the fundamental ways data can be stored in memory: on the stack, in static (global) memory, or in heap memory. For efficient memory usage, the compiler provides a set of data models and data memory attributes, allowing you to fine-tune the access methods, resulting in smaller code size. The concepts of data models and memory types are described in relation to structures, Embedded C++ class objects, and non-initialized memory. Finally, detailed information about data storage on the stack and the heap is provided.

#### Introduction

The R32C IAR C/C++ Compiler supports R32C/100 devices that have continuous memory ranging from 0x00000000 to 0xffffffff. Different types of physical memory can be placed in the memory range. A typical application will have both read-only memory (ROM) and read/write memory (RAM). In addition, some parts of the memory range contain processor control registers and peripheral units.

The compiler can access memory in different ways. The access methods range from generic but expensive methods that can access the full memory space, to cheap methods that can access limited memory areas. To read more about this, see *Memory types*, page 13.

#### **DIFFERENT WAYS TO STORE DATA**

In a typical application, data can be stored in memory in three different ways:

- · Auto variables.
  - All variables that are local to a function, except those declared static, are stored on the stack. These variables can be used as long as the function executes. When the function returns to its caller, the memory space is no longer valid.
- Global variables and local variables declared static.
  - In this case, the memory is allocated once and for all. The word static in this context means that the amount of memory allocated for this kind of variables does not change while the application is running. For more information, see *Data models*, page 12 and *Memory types*, page 13.

• Dynamically allocated data.

An application can allocate data on the *heap*, where the data it remains valid until it is explicitly released back to the system by the application. This type of memory is useful when the number of objects is not known until the application executes. Note that there are potential risks connected with using dynamically allocated data in systems with a limited amount of memory, or systems that are expected to run for a long time. For more information, see *Dynamic memory on the heap*, page 19.

## **Data models**

Technically, the data model specifies the default memory type. This means that the data model controls the default placement of static and global variables.

**Note:** The default placement of constant data is controlled by the *code* model, see *Code models and memory attributes for function storage*, page 21.

The data model only specifies the default memory type. It is possible to override this for individual variables. For information about how to specify a memory type for individual objects, see *Using data memory attributes*, page 14.

#### **SPECIFYING A DATA MODEL**

Three data models are implemented: Near, Far, and Huge. These models are controlled by the --data\_model option. Each model has a default memory type. If you do not specify a data model option, the compiler will use the Far data model.

Your project can only use one data model at a time, and the same model must be used by all user modules and all library modules. However, you can override the default memory type for individual data objects by explicitly specifying a memory attribute, using either keywords or the #pragma type\_attribute directive.

This table summarizes the different data models:

Data model	Default memory attribute	Placement of variable data
Near	data16	0x0-0x7FFF, 0xFFFF8000-0xFFFFFFFF
Far	data24	0x0-0x7FFFFF, 0xFF800000-0xFFFFFFFF
Huge	data32	0x0-0xFFFFFFF

Table 4: Data model characteristics



See the IAR Embedded Workbench® IDE User Guide for information about setting options in the IDE.



Use the --data\_model option to specify the data model for your project; see --data\_model, page 132.

#### The Near data model

The Near data model places variables in the lowest or highest 32 Kbytes of memory. This is the only memory type that can be accessed using 2-byte direct addressing.

#### The Far data model

The Far data model places variables in the lowest or highest 8 Mbytes of memory, using 3-byte direct addressing. It generates slightly more code than 2-byte-addressing using the Near data model, but it is more flexible.

#### The Huge data model

The Huge data model can place variables anywhere in memory, using indirect addressing. This is very convenient and flexible, but significantly less efficient compared to the Near and Far data models.

# Memory types

This section describes the concept of *memory types* used for accessing data by the compiler. It also discusses pointers in the presence of multiple memory types. For each memory type, the capabilities and limitations are discussed.

The compiler uses different memory types to access data that is placed in different areas of the memory. There are different methods for reaching memory areas, and they have different costs when it comes to code space, execution speed, and register usage. The access methods range from generic but expensive methods that can access the full memory space, to cheap methods that can access limited memory areas. Each memory type corresponds to one memory access method. If you map different memories—or part of memories—to memory types, the compiler can generate code that can access data efficiently.

For example, the memory accessed using 16-bit addressing is called data16 memory.

To choose a default memory type that your application will use, select a *data model*. However, it is possible to specify—for individual variables—different memory types. This makes it possible to create an application that can contain a large amount of data, and at the same time make sure that variables that are used often are placed in memory that can be efficiently accessed.

For more information about memory access methods, see *Memory access methods*, page 86.

#### DATA16

A data16 object can only be placed in data16 memory, and the size of such an object is limited to 32 Kbytes-1. By using objects of this type, the code generated by the compiler to access them is minimized. This means a smaller memory footprint for the application.

#### DATA24

The data24 memory consists of the memory in the ranges 0x0-0x7FFFFF and 0xFF800000-0xFFFFFFFF.

The drawback of the data24 memory type is that the code generated to access the memory is slightly larger than data16 memory.

#### DATA32

Using this memory type, you can place the data objects anywhere in memory. The drawback is that it can only use indirect addressing, which uses more processor registers and might force local variables to be stored on the stack rather than being allocated in registers. The resulting code is significantly larger and slower.

#### SBDATA16

The sbdata16 memory consists of the first 64 Kbytes of memory after the SB (static base) register. In hexadecimal notation, this is the address range SB + (0x0-0xFFFF).

#### SBDATA24

The sbdata24 memory consists of the first 16 Mbytes of memory after the SB (static base) register. In hexadecimal notation, this is the address range SB + (0x0-0xFFFFFFF).

#### **USING DATA MEMORY ATTRIBUTES**

The compiler provides a set of *extended keywords*, which can be used as *data memory attributes*. These keywords let you override the default memory type for individual data objects, which means that you can place data objects in other memory areas than the default memory. This also means that you can fine-tune the access method for each individual data object, which results in smaller code size.

**Note:** Even though the default placement of constant data is controlled by the *code* model, *data* memory attributes are used for overriding the default placement.

This table summarizes the available memory types and their corresponding keywords:

Memory type	Keyword	Address range for variables and	Default in data
Tiemory type	Reyword	constants	model
Data 16	data16	0x0-0x7FFF 0xFFFF8000-0xFFFFFFFF	Near
Data24	data24	0x0-0x7FFFFF 0xFF800000-0xFFFFFFFF	Far
Data32	data32	0x0-0xfffffff	Huge
Sbdata I 6	sbdata16	SB + 0x0-0xFFFF	_
Sbdata24	sbdata24	SB + 0x0-0xFFFFFF	_

Table 5: Memory types and their corresponding memory attributes

All data pointers are 32 bits.

The keywords are only available if language extensions are enabled in the compiler.



In the IDE, language extensions are enabled by default.



Use the -e compiler option to enable language extensions. See -e, page 137 for additional information.

For reference information about each keyword, see *Descriptions of extended keywords*, page 177.

#### **Syntax**

The keywords follow the same syntax as the type qualifiers const and volatile. The memory attributes are *type attributes* and therefore they must be specified both when variables are defined and in the declaration, see *General syntax rules for extended keywords*, page 173.

The following declarations place the variable i and j in data24 memory. The variables k and 1 will also be placed in data24 memory. The position of the keyword does not have any effect in this case:

```
__data24 int i, j; int __data24 k, 1;
```

Note that the keyword affects both identifiers. If no memory type is specified, the default memory type is used.

In addition to the rules presented here—to place the keyword directly in the code—the directive <code>#pragma type\_attribute</code> can be used for specifying the memory attributes. The advantage of using pragma directives for specifying keywords is that it offers you a method to make sure that the source code is portable. Refer to the chapter <code>Pragma</code>

directives for details about how to use the extended keywords together with pragma directives.

#### Type definitions

Storage can also be specified using type definitions. These two declarations are equivalent:

```
typedef char __data24 Byte;
Byte b;
and
  data24 char b;
```

#### STRUCTURES AND MEMORY TYPES

For structures, the entire object is placed in the same memory type. It is not possible to place individual structure members in different memory types.

In the example below, the variable gamma is a structure placed in data24 memory.

```
struct MyStruct
{
  int alpha;
  int beta;
};
__data24 struct MyStruct gamma;
```

This declaration is incorrect:

```
struct MySecondStruct
{
  int blue;
  __data24 int green;  /* Error! */
}:
```

#### **MORE EXAMPLES**

The following is a series of examples with descriptions. First, some integer variables are defined and then pointer variables are introduced. It makes no difference whether the memory attribute is placed before or after the data type.

To read the following examples, start from the left and add one qualifier at each step

```
int a; A variable defined in default memory determined by the data model in use.

int __data16 b; A variable in data16 memory.
```

```
__data24 int c;
int * d:
```

A variable in data24 memory.

A pointer stored in default memory. The pointer points to an integer in default memory.

# C++ and memory types

A C++ class object is placed in one memory type, in the same way as for normal C structures. However, the class members that are considered to be part of the object are the non-static member variables. The static member variables can be placed individually in any kind of memory.

Remember, in C++ there is only one instance of each static member variable, regardless of the number of class objects.

Also note that when calling class methods, the this pointer uses the default pointer type.

#### Example

In the example below, an object, named delta, of the type MyClass is defined in data16 memory. The class contains a static member variable that is stored in data24 memory.

```
// The class declaration (placed in a header file):
class MyClass
{
public:
   int alpha;
   int beta;

   __data24 static int gamma;
};

// Definitions needed (should be placed in a source file):
   __data24 int MyClass::gamma;

// A variable definition:
   __data16 MyClass delta;
```

## Auto variables—on the stack

Variables that are defined inside a function—and not declared static—are named *auto* variables by the C standard. A few of these variables are placed in processor registers; the rest are placed on the stack. From a semantic point of view, this is equivalent. The

main differences are that accessing registers is faster, and that less memory is required compared to when variables are located on the stack.

Auto variables can only live as long as the function executes; when the function returns, the memory allocated on the stack is released.

#### THE STACK

The stack can contain:

- Local variables and parameters not stored in registers
- Temporary results of expressions
- The return value of a function (unless it is passed in registers)
- Processor state during interrupts
- Processor registers that should be restored before the function returns (callee-save registers).

The stack is a fixed block of memory, divided into two parts. The first part contains allocated memory used by the function that called the current function, and the function that called it, etc. The second part contains free memory that can be allocated. The borderline between the two areas is called the *top of stack* and is represented by the stack pointer, which is a dedicated processor register. Memory is allocated on the stack by moving the stack pointer.

A function should never refer to the memory in the area of the stack that contains free memory. The reason is that if an interrupt occurs, the called interrupt function can allocate, modify, and—of course—deallocate memory on the stack.

#### **Advantages**

The main advantage of the stack is that functions in different parts of the program can use the same memory space to store their data. Unlike a heap, a stack will never become fragmented or suffer from memory leaks.

It is possible for a function to call itself—a *recursive function*—and each invocation can store its own data on the stack.

#### **Potential problems**

The way the stack works makes it impossible to store data that is supposed to live after the function returns. The following function demonstrates a common programming mistake. It returns a pointer to the variable x, a variable that ceases to exist when the function returns.

```
int * MyFunction()
{
  int x;
  ... do something ...
  return &x;
}
```

Another problem is the risk of running out of stack. This will happen when one function calls another, which in turn calls a third, etc., and the sum of the stack usage of each function is larger than the size of the stack. The risk is higher if large data objects are stored on the stack, or when recursive functions—functions that call themselves either directly or indirectly—are used.

# Dynamic memory on the heap

Memory for objects allocated on the heap will live until the objects are explicitly released. This type of memory storage is very useful for applications where the amount of data is not known until runtime.

In C, memory is allocated using the standard library function malloc, or one of the related functions calloc and realloc. The memory is released again using free.

In C++, a special keyword, new, allocates memory and runs constructors. Memory allocated with new must be released using the keyword delete.

#### Potential problems

Applications that are using heap-allocated objects must be designed very carefully, because it is easy to end up in a situation where it is not possible to allocate objects on the heap.

The heap can become exhausted if your application uses too much memory. It can also become full if memory that no longer is in use was not released.

For each allocated memory block, a few bytes of data for administrative purposes is required. For applications that allocate a large number of small blocks, this administrative overhead can be substantial.

There is also the matter of *fragmentation*; this means a heap where small sections of free memory is separated by memory used by allocated objects. It is not possible to allocate a new object if no piece of free memory is large enough for the object, even though the sum of the sizes of the free memory exceeds the size of the object.

Unfortunately, fragmentation tends to increase as memory is allocated and released. For this reason, applications that are designed to run for a long time should try to avoid using memory allocated on the heap.

# **Functions**

This chapter contains information about functions. It gives a brief overview of function-related extensions—mechanisms for controlling functions—and describes some of these mechanisms in more detail.

### **Function-related extensions**

In addition to the ISO/ANSI C standard, the compiler provides several extensions for writing functions in C. Using these, you can:

- Control the storage of functions in memory
- Use primitives for interrupts, concurrency, and OS-related programming
- Facilitate function optimization
- Access hardware features.

The compiler uses compiler options, extended keywords, pragma directives, and intrinsic functions to support this.

For more information about optimizations, see *Writing efficient code*, page 111. For information about the available intrinsic functions for accessing hardware operations, see the chapter *Intrinsic functions*.

# Code models and memory attributes for function storage

By means of *code models*, the compiler supports placing functions and constant literals in a default part of memory, or in other words, use a default address size for the functions and constants. Technically, the code models control the following:

- The possible memory range for storing the function or constant
- The maximum module size
- The maximum application size
- The default memory attribute.

The compiler supports two code models. If you do not specify a code model, the compiler will use the Far code model as default. Your project can only use one code model at a time, and the same model must be used by all user modules and all library modules.

These code models are available:

Code model	Address range for placing functions and constant data	
Far (default)	0xFF800000-0xFFFFFFF	
Huge	$0 \times 0 - 0 \times FFFFFFFFF$	

Table 6: Code models



See the *IAR Embedded Workbench*® *IDE User Guide* for information about specifying a code model in the IDE.



Use the --code\_model option to specify the code model for your project; see --code model, page 131.

#### **USING FUNCTION MEMORY ATTRIBUTES**

It is possible to override the default placement for individual functions. Use the appropriate *function memory attribute* to specify this. These attributes are available:

Function memory attribute	Address range	Default in code model	Description
code24	0xFF800000- 0xFFFFFFFF	Far	The function can be placed in the high 8 Mbytes of memory.
code32	0x0-0xFFFFFFFF	Huge	The function can be placed anywhere in memory.

Table 7: Function memory attributes

For detailed syntax information and for detailed information about each attribute, see the chapter *Extended keywords*.

**Note:** Even though the default placement of constant data is controlled by the *code* model, *data* memory attributes are used for overriding the default placement of constants.

# Primitives for interrupts, concurrency, and OS-related programming

The IAR C/C++ Compiler for R32C provides the following primitives related to writing interrupt functions, concurrent functions, and OS-related functions:

- The extended keywords \_\_interrupt, \_\_fast\_interrupt, \_\_task, \_\_no\_return, and \_\_monitor
- The pragma directive #pragma vector
- The intrinsic functions \_\_enable\_interrupt, \_\_disable\_interrupt, \_\_get\_interrupt\_state, \_\_set\_interrupt\_state,

```
__get_interrupt_level, __set_interrupt_level,
__wait_for_interrupt, __interrupt_on_overflow,
__software_interrupt, __get_VCT_register, __set_VCT_register,
__get_interrupt_table, and __set_interrupt_table.
```

#### INTERRUPT FUNCTIONS

In embedded systems, using interrupts is a method for handling external events immediately; for example, detecting that a button was pressed.

In general, when an interrupt occurs in the code, the microcomputer simply stops executing the code it runs, and starts executing an interrupt routine instead. It is extremely important that the environment of the interrupted function is restored after the interrupt is handled; this includes the values of processor registers and the processor status register. This makes it possible to continue the execution of the original code after the code that handled the interrupt was executed.

The R32C/100 microcomputer supports many interrupt sources. For each interrupt source, an interrupt routine can be written. Each interrupt routine is associated with a vector number, which is specified in the R32C/100 microcomputer documentation from the chip manufacturer. The interrupt vector is the offset into the interrupt vector table. If you want to handle several different interrupts using the same interrupt function, you can specify several interrupt vectors. For the R32C/100 microcomputer, the interrupt vector table always starts at the address <code>0xffffffdc</code> for non-maskable interrupts and at the base of the <code>INTB</code> register for all other interrupts.

The header file iodevice.h, where device corresponds to the selected device, contains predefined names for the existing exception vectors.

To define an interrupt function, the \_\_interrupt keyword and the #pragma vector directive can be used. For example:

```
#pragma vector=TIMER_A0 /* Symbol defined in I/O header file */
__interrupt void my_interrupt_routine(void)
{
    /* Do something */
}
```

**Note:** An interrupt function must have the return type void, and it cannot specify any parameters.

If a vector is specified in the definition of an interrupt function, the processor interrupt vector table is populated. It is also possible to define an interrupt function without a vector. This is useful if an application is capable of populating or changing the interrupt vector table at runtime. See the chip manufacturer's documentation for more information about the interrupt vector table.

#### **MONITOR FUNCTIONS**

A monitor function causes interrupts to be disabled during execution of the function. At function entry, the status register is saved and interrupts are disabled. At function exit, the original status register is restored, and thereby the interrupt status that existed before the function call is also restored.

To define a monitor function, you can use the \_\_monitor keyword. For reference information, see *monitor*, page 180.



Avoid using the \_\_monitor keyword on large functions, since the interrupt will otherwise be turned off for too long.

#### Example of implementing a semaphore in C

In the following example, a semaphore is implemented using one static variable and two monitor functions. A semaphore can be locked by one process, and is used for preventing processes from simultaneously using resources that can only be used by one process at a time, for example a USART. The \_\_monitor keyword assures that the lock operation is atomic; in other words it cannot be interrupted.

```
/* When the_lock is non-zero, someone owns the lock. */
static volatile unsigned int the lock = 0;
/* get_lock -- Try to lock the lock.
 * Return 1 on success and 0 on failure. */
__monitor int get_lock(void)
 if (the_lock == 0)
    /* Success, we managed to lock the lock. */
   the_lock = 1;
   return 1;
 }
 else
    /* Failure, someone else has locked the lock. */
   return 0:
}
/* release lock -- Unlock the lock. */
__monitor void release_lock(void)
{
  the_lock = 0;
```

This is an example of a program fragment that uses the semaphore:

```
void my_program(void)
{
   if (get_lock())
   {
      /* ... Do something ... */
      /* When done, release the lock. */
      release_lock();
   }
}
```

#### Example of implementing a semaphore in C++

In C++, it is common to implement small methods with the intention that they should be inlined. However, the compiler does not support inlining of functions and methods that are declared using the \_\_monitor keyword.

In the following example in C++, an auto object is used for controlling the monitor block, which uses intrinsic functions instead of the \_\_monitor keyword.

```
#include <intrinsics.h>
volatile long tick_count = 0;

/* Class for controlling critical blocks */
class Mutex
{
  public:
    Mutex ()
    {
        _state = __get_interrupt_state();
        __disable_interrupt();
    }

  ~Mutex ()
    {
        __set_interrupt_state(_state);
    }

private:
    __istate_t _state;
};

void f()
{
```

```
static long next_stop = 100;
extern void do_stuff();
long tick;

/* A critical block */
{
   Mutex m;
   /* Read volatile variable 'tick_count' in a safe way
        and put the value in a local variable */
   tick = tick_count;
}

if (tick >= next_stop)
{
   next_stop += 100;
   do_stuff();
}
```

#### C++ AND SPECIAL FUNCTION TYPES

C++ member functions can be declared using special function types. However, interrupt member functions must be static. When calling a non-static member function, it must be applied to an object. When an interrupt occurs and the interrupt function is called, no such object is available.

# Placing code and data

This chapter describes how the linker handles memory and introduces the concept of segments. It also describes how they correspond to the memory and function types, and how they interact with the runtime environment. The methods for placing segments in memory, which means customizing a linker command file, are described.

The intended readers of this chapter are the system designers that are responsible for mapping the segments of the application to appropriate memory areas of the hardware system.

# Segments and memory

In an embedded system, there are many different types of physical memory. Also, it is often critical *where* parts of your code and data are located in the physical memory. For this reason it is important that the development tools meet these requirements.

#### WHAT IS A SEGMENT?

A *segment* is a logical entity containing a piece of data or code that should be mapped to a physical location in memory. Each segment consists of many *segment parts*. Normally, each function or variable with static storage duration is placed in a segment part. A segment part is the smallest linkable unit, which allows the linker to include only those units that are referred to. The segment could be placed either in RAM or in ROM. Segments that are placed in RAM do not have any content, they only occupy space.

The compiler has several predefined segments for different purposes. Each segment has a name that describes the contents of the segment, and a *segment memory type* that denotes the type of content. In addition to the predefined segments, you can define your own segments.

At compile time, the compiler assigns each segment its contents. The IAR XLINK Linker is responsible for placing the segments in the physical memory range, in accordance with the rules specified in the linker command file. Ready-made linker command files are provided, but, if necessary, they can be easily modified according to the requirements of your target system and application. It is important to remember that, from the linker's point of view, all segments are equal; they are simply named parts of memory.

For detailed information about individual segments, see the chapter Segment reference.

#### Segment memory type

XLINK assigns a segment memory type to each of the segments. In some cases, the individual segments have the same name as the segment memory type they belong to, for example CODE. Make sure not to confuse the individual segment names with the segment memory types in those cases.

By default, the compiler uses these XLINK segment memory types:

Segment memory type	Description
CODE	For executable code
CONST	For data placed in ROM
DATA	For data placed in RAM

Table 8: XLINK segment memory types

XLINK supports several other segment memory types than the ones described above. However, they exist to support other types of microcontrollers.

For more details about segments, see the chapter Segment reference.

# Placing segments in memory

The placement of segments in memory is performed by the IAR XLINK Linker. It uses a linker command file that contains command line options which specify the locations where the segments can be placed, thereby assuring that your application fits on the target chip. To use the same source code with different derivatives, just rebuild the code with the appropriate linker command file.

In particular, the linker command file specifies:

- The placement of segments in memory
- The maximum stack size
- The maximum heap size.

This section describes the methods for placing the segments in memory, which means that you must customize the linker command file to suit the memory layout of your target system. For showing the methods, fictitious examples are used.

#### CUSTOMIZING THE LINKER COMMAND FILE

The config directory contains ready-made linker command files for all supported devices (filename extension xc1). The files contain the information required by the linker, and are ready to be used. The only change you will normally have to make to a supplied linker command file is to customize it so it fits the target system memory map.

If, for example, your application uses additional external RAM, you must add details about the external RAM memory area.

As an example, we can assume that the target system has this memory layout:

Range	Туре
0x00000-0x5FFFF	RAM
0x60000-0x7FFFF	ROM
0xffE00000-0xfffffff	ROM

Table 9: Memory layout of a target system (example)

The ROM can be used for storing CONST and CODE segment memory types. The RAM memory can contain segments of DATA type. The main purpose of customizing the linker command file is to verify that your application code and data do not cross the memory range boundaries, which would lead to application failure.

Remember not to change the original file. We recommend that you make a copy in the working directory, and modify the copy instead.

#### The contents of the linker command file

Among other things, the linker command file contains three different types of XLINK command line options:

- The CPU used:
  - -cr32c

This specifies your target microcomputer.

- Definitions of constants used in the file. These are defined using the XLINK option
- The placement directives (the largest part of the linker command file). Segments can be placed using the ¬Z and ¬P options. The former will place the segment parts in the order they are found, while the latter will try to rearrange them to make better use of the memory. The ¬P option is useful when the memory where the segment should be placed is not continuous.

In the linker command file, all numbers are specified in hexadecimal format. However, neither the prefix 0x nor the suffix h is used.

**Note:** The supplied linker command files include comments explaining the contents.

See the IAR Linker and Library Tools Reference Guide for more details.

#### Using the -Z command for sequential placement

Use the -Z command when you must keep a segment in one consecutive chunk, when you must preserve the order of segment parts in a segment, or, more unlikely, when you must put segments in a specific order.

The following illustrates how to use the -Z command to place the segment MYSEGMENTA followed by the segment MYSEGMENTB in CONST memory (that is, ROM) in the memory range 0xFFF52000-0xFFF5CFFF.

```
-Z(CONST)MYSEGMENTA,MYSEGMENTB=FFF52000-FFF5CFFF
```

To place two segments of different types consecutively in the same memory area, do not specify a range for the second segment. In the following example, the MYSEGMENTA segment is first located in memory. Then, the rest of the memory range could be used by MYCODE.

```
-Z (CONST) MYSEGMENTA=FFF52000-FFF5CFFF
```

Two memory ranges can overlap. This allows segments with different placement requirements to share parts of the memory space; for example:

```
-Z(CONST)MYSMALLSEGMENT=FFF52000-FFF520FF
```

<sup>-</sup>Z (CONST) MYLARGESEGMENT=FFF52000-FFF5CFFF



Even though it is not strictly required, make sure to always specify the end of each memory range. If you do this, the IAR XLINK Linker will alert you if your segments do not fit in the available memory.

#### Using the -P command for packed placement

The -P command differs from -z in that it does not necessarily place the segments (or segment parts) sequentially. With -P it is possible to put segment parts into holes left by earlier placements.

The following example illustrates how the XLINK -P option can be used for making efficient use of the memory area. This command will place the data segment MYDATA in DATA memory (that is, in RAM) in a fictitious memory range:

```
-P(DATA)MYDATA=0-1FFF,0x30000-0x31000
```

If your application has an additional RAM area in the memory range 0x4F000-0x4F7FF, you can simply add that to the original definition:

```
-P(DATA)MYDATA=0-1FFF,4F000-4F7FF,0x30000-0x31000
```

The linker can then place some parts of the MYDATA segment in the first range, and some parts in the second range. If you had used the -z command instead, the linker would have to place all segment parts in the same range.

<sup>-</sup>Z (CODE) MYCODE

**Note:** Copy initialization segments—*BASENAME\_I* and *BASENAME\_ID*—must be placed using -z.

#### Symbols for available memory areas

To make things easier, the start and end addresses of the memory areas available for your application are defined as symbols in the linker command file:

```
// Memory areas available for the application
-D_USER_RAM_BEGIN=00000400
-D_USER_RAM_END=0003FFFF
-D_USER_ROM_BEGIN=FFE00000
-D_USER_ROM_END=FFFFFFFF
-D_SB_START=1000
```

# **Data segments**

This section contains descriptions of the segments used for storing the different types of data: static, stack, heap, and located.

To understand how the data segments work, you must be familiar with the different memory types and the different data models available in the compiler. If you need to refresh these details, see the chapter *Data storage*.

#### STATIC MEMORY SEGMENTS

Static memory is memory that contains variables that are global or declared static, as described in the chapter *Data storage*. Variables declared static can be divided into these categories:

- Variables that are initialized to a non-zero value
- Variables that are initialized to zero
- Variables that are located by use of the @ operator or the #pragma location directive
- Variables that are declared as const and therefore can be stored in ROM
- Variables defined with the \_\_no\_init keyword, meaning that they should not be initialized at all.

For the static memory segments it is important to be familiar with:

- The segment naming
- How the memory types correspond to segment groups and the segments that are part of the segment groups
- Restrictions for segments holding initialized data

 The placement and size limitation of the segments of each group of static memory segments.

#### Segment naming

The names of the segments consist of two parts—the segment group name and a *suffix*—for instance, DATA16\_Z. There is a segment group for each memory type, where each segment in the group holds different categories of declared data. The names of the segment groups are derived from the memory type and the corresponding keyword, for example data16 and \_\_data16. The following table summarizes the memory types and the corresponding segment groups:

Memory type	Segment group	Memory range	
Data 16	DATA16	0x0-0x7FFF and 0xFFFF8000-0xFFFFFFFF	
Data24	DATA24	$0 \mathtt{x} 0 - 0 \mathtt{x} 7 \mathtt{FFFFF}$ and $0 \mathtt{x} \mathtt{FF} 800000 - 0 \mathtt{x} \mathtt{FFFFFFF}$	
Data32	DATA32	0x0-0xfffffff	
Sbdata I 6	SBDATA16	SB + (0x0-0xFFFF)	
Sbdata24	SBDATA24	SB + (0x0-0xFFFFFF)	

Table 10: Memory types with corresponding segment groups

Some of the declared data is placed in non-volatile memory, for example ROM, and some of the data is placed in RAM. For this reason, it is also important to know the XLINK segment memory type of each segment. For more details about segment memory types, see *Segment memory type*, page 28.

This table summarizes the different suffixes, which XLINK segment memory type they are, and which category of declared data they denote:

Categories of declared data	Suffix	Segment memory type
Non-initialized data	N	DATA
Zero-initialized data	Z	DATA
Non-zero initialized data	I	DATA
Initializers for the above	ID	CONST
Constants	С	CONST
Non-initialized absolute addressed data	AN	
Constant absolute addressed data	AC	

Table 11: Segment name suffixes

For a list of all supported segments, see Summary of segments, page 225.

#### Examples

These examples demonstrate how declared data is assigned to specific segments:

```
__data16 int j; The data16 variables that are to be initialized to zero when the system starts are placed in the segment DATA16_Z.

__no_init __data16 int j; The data16 non-initialized variables are placed in the segment DATA16_N.

__data16 int j = 4; The data16 non-zero initialized variables are placed in the segment DATA16_I in RAM, and the corresponding initializer data in the segment DATA16_ID in ROM.
```

#### Initialized data

When an application is started, the system startup code initializes static and global variables in these steps:

- It clears the memory of the variables that should be initialized to zero.
- 2 It initializes the non-zero variables by copying a block of ROM to the location of the variables in RAM. This means that the data in the ROM segment with the suffix ID is copied to the corresponding I segment.

This works when both segments are placed in continuous memory. However, if one of the segments is divided into smaller pieces, it is important that:

- The other segment is divided in exactly the same way
- It is legal to read and write the memory that represents the gaps in the sequence.

For example, if the segments are assigned these ranges, the copy will fail:

DATA16_I	0x1000-0x10FF and 0x1200-0x12FF
DATA16_ID	0x4000-0x41FF

However, in this example, the linker will place the content of the segments in identical order, which means that the copy will work appropriately:

DATA16_I	0x1000-0x10FF and $0x1200-0x12FF$
DATA16 ID	0×4000-0×40FF and 0×4200-0×42FF

The ID segment can, for all segment groups, be placed anywhere in memory, because it is not accessed using the corresponding access method. Note that the gap between the ranges will also be copied.

**3** Finally, global C++ objects are constructed, if any.

#### Data segments for static memory in the default linker command file

The default linker command file contains these directives to place the static data segments:

A line without a range assignment inherits the range from the previous line. All the data segments are placed in the area used by on-chip RAM. For information about the memory address symbols, see *Symbols for available memory areas*, page 31.

#### THE INTERNAL DATA STACK

The internal data stack is used by functions to store variables and other information that is used locally by functions, as described in the chapter *Data storage*. It is a continuous block of memory pointed to by the processor stack pointer register USP.

The data segment used for holding the stack is called CSTACK. The system startup code initializes the stack pointer to the end of the stack segment.

Allocating a memory area for the stack is done differently using the command line interface as compared to when using the IDE.



#### Stack size allocation in the IDE

Choose Project>Options. In the General Options category, click the Stack/Heap tab.

Add the required stack size in the **Stack size** text box.



#### Stack size allocation from the command line

The size of the CSTACK segment is defined in the linker command file.

The default linker file sets up a constant representing the size of the stack, at the beginning of the linker file:

-D\_CSTACK\_SIZE=size

**Note:** Normally, this line is prefixed with the comment character //. To make the directive take effect, remove the comment character.

Specify an appropriate size for your application. Note that the size is written hexadecimally without the 0x notation.





#### Placement of stack segment

Further down in the linker file, the actual stack segment is defined in the memory area available for the stack:

-Z (DATA) CSTACK+\_CSTACK\_SIZE#\_USER\_RAM\_BEGIN-\_USER\_RAM\_END

#### Note:

- This range does not specify the size of the stack; it specifies the range of the available memory
- The # allocates the CSTACK segment at the end of the memory area. In practice, this means that the stack will get all remaining memory at the same time as it is guaranteed that it will be at least \_CSTACK\_SIZE bytes in size.



#### Stack size considerations

The compiler uses the internal data stack, CSTACK, for a variety of user program operations, and the required stack size depends heavily on the details of these operations. If the given stack size is too large, RAM is wasted. If the given stack size is too small, two things can happen, depending on where in memory you located your stack. Both alternatives are likely to result in application failure. Either program variables will be overwritten, leading to undefined behavior, or the stack will fall outside of the memory area, leading to an abnormal termination of your application. Because the second alternative is easier to detect, you should consider placing your stack so that it grows toward the end of the memory, if possible.

#### THE INTERRUPT STACK

In addition to the application stack segment, CSTACK, there is also a stack segment for some interrupts, ISTACK, that uses the ISP stack pointer register. In other respects, the information about CSTACK applies to ISTACK as well.

#### THE HEAP

The heap contains dynamic data allocated by the C function malloc (or one of its relatives) or the C++ operator new.

If your application uses dynamic memory allocation, you should be familiar with:

- Linker segments used for the heap
- Allocating the heap size, which differs depending on which build interface you are using
- Placing the heap segments in memory.

The memory allocated to the heap is placed in the segment HEAP, which is only included in the application if dynamic memory allocation is actually used.



#### Heap size allocation in the IDE

Choose Project>Options. In the General Options category, click the Stack/Heap tab.

Add the required heap size in the **Heap size** text box.



#### Heap size allocation from the command line

The size of the heap segment is defined in the linker command file.

The default linker file sets up a constant, representing the size of the heap, at the beginning of the linker file:

-D HEAP SIZE=size

**Note:** Normally, this line is prefixed with the comment character //. To make the directive take effect, remove the comment character.

Specify the appropriate size for your application.





#### Placement of heap segment

The actual heap segment is allocated in the memory area available for the heap:

-Z(DATA)HEAP+\_HEAP\_SIZE=\_USER\_RAM\_BEGIN-04DF,0500-\_USER\_RAM\_END

**Note:** This range does not specify the size of the heap; it specifies the range of the available memory.



#### Heap size and standard I/O

If you excluded FILE descriptors from the DLIB runtime environment, as in the Normal configuration, there are no input and output buffers at all. Otherwise, as in the Full configuration, be aware that the size of the input and output buffers is set to 512 bytes in the stdio library header file. If the heap is too small, I/O will not be buffered, which is considerably slower than when I/O is buffered. If you execute the application using the simulator driver of the IAR C-SPY® Debugger, you are not likely to notice the speed penalty, but it is quite noticeable when the application runs on an R32C/100

microcomputer. If you use the standard I/O library, you should set the heap size to a value which accommodates the needs of the standard I/O buffer.

#### **LOCATED DATA**

A variable that is explicitly placed at an address, for example by using the #pragma location directive or the @ syntax, is placed in either the DATA16\_AC or the DATA16\_AN segment. The former is used for constant-initialized data, and the latter for items declared as \_\_no\_init. The individual segment part of the segment knows its location in the memory space, and it does not have to be specified in the linker command file

If you create your own segments, these must also be defined in the linker command file using the -z or -P segment control directives.

# **Code segments**

This section contains descriptions of the segments used for storing code, and the interrupt vector table. For a complete list of all segments, see *Summary of segments*, page 225. For information about the memory address symbols, see *Symbols for available memory areas*, page 31.

#### **STARTUP CODE**

The segment CSTART contains code used during system setup and runtime initialization (cstartup), and system termination (cexit). The segment must be placed into one continuous memory space, which means that the -P segment directive cannot be used.

#### NORMAL CODE

Functions declared without a memory type attribute are placed in different segments, depending on which code model you are using.

If you use the Far code model, or if the function is explicitly declared \_\_code24, the code is placed in CODE24 segment. If you use the Huge code model, or if the function is explicitly declared \_\_code32, the code is placed in CODE32 segment. Again, this is a simple operation in the linker command file:

```
-P(CODE)CODE24=_USER_ROM_BEGIN-_USER_ROM_END
-P(CODE)CODE32=_USER_ROM_BEGIN-_USER_ROM_END
```

The -P linker directive is used because it allows XLINK to split up the segments and pack their contents more efficiently. This is useful here, because the memory range is non-consecutive.

#### **INTERRUPT VECTORS**

The interrupt vector table contains pointers to interrupt routines, including the reset routine. The tables are placed in the segments INTVEC (normal interrupts) and NMIVEC (non-maskable interrupts and the reset vector). You must place the NMIVEC segment at a specific address, see *Interrupt functions*, page 23. The linker directives would then look like this:

```
-Z(CONST)NMIVEC=FFFFFDC-_USER_ROM_END
-Z(CONST)INTVEC=_USER_ROM_BEGIN-_USER_ROM_END
```

# C++ dynamic initialization

In C++, all global objects are created before the main function is called. The creation of objects can involve the execution of a constructor.

The DIFUNCT segment contains a vector of addresses that point to initialization code. All entries in the vector are called when the system is initialized.

#### For example:

```
-Z(CODE)DIFUNCT=_USER_ROM_BEGIN-_USER_ROM_END
```

For additional information, see *DIFUNCT*, page 234.

# Verifying the linked result of code and data placement

The linker has several features that help you to manage code and data placement, for example, messages at link time and the linker map file.

#### **SEGMENT TOO LONG ERRORS AND RANGE ERRORS**

All code or data that is placed in relocatable segments will have its absolute addresses resolved at link time. Note that it is not known until link time whether all segments will fit in the reserved memory ranges. If the contents of a segment do not fit in the address range defined in the linker command file, XLINK will issue a *segment too long* error.

Some instructions do not work unless a certain condition holds after linking, for example that a branch must be within a certain distance or that an address must be even. XLINK verifies that the conditions hold when the files are linked. If a condition is not satisfied, XLINK generates a *range error* or warning and prints a description of the error.

For further information about these types of errors, see the *IAR Linker and Library Tools Reference Guide*.

#### **LINKER MAP FILE**

XLINK can produce an extensive cross-reference listing, which can optionally contain the following information:

- A segment map which lists all segments in dump order
- A module map which lists all segments, local symbols, and entries (public symbols) for every module in the program. All symbols not included in the output can also be listed
- A module summary which lists the contribution (in bytes) from each module
- A symbol list which contains every entry (global symbol) in every module.



Use the option **Generate linker listing** in the IDE, or the option -x on the command line, and one of their suboptions to generate a linker listing.

Normally, XLINK will not generate an output file if any errors, such as range errors, occur during the linking process. Use the option **Range checks disabled** in the IDE, or the option –R on the command line, to generate an output file even if a range error was encountered.

For further information about the listing options and the linker listing, see the *IAR Linker* and *Library Tools Reference Guide*, and the *IAR Embedded Workbench*® *IDE User Guide*.

Verifying the linked result of code and data placement

# The DLIB runtime environment

This chapter describes the runtime environment in which an application executes. In particular, the chapter covers the DLIB runtime library and how you can modify it—setting options, overriding default library modules, or building your own library—to optimize it for your application.

The chapter also covers system initialization and termination; how an application can control what happens before the function main is called, and how you can customize the initialization.

The chapter then describes how to configure functionality like locale and file I/O, how to get C-SPY® runtime support, and how to prevent incompatible modules from being linked together.

#### Introduction to the runtime environment

The runtime environment is the environment in which your application executes. The runtime environment depends on the target hardware, the software environment, and the application code. The IAR DLIB runtime environment can be used as is together with the debugger. However, to be able to run the application on hardware, you must adapt the runtime environment.

This section gives an overview of:

- The runtime environment and its components
- Library selection.

#### **RUNTIME ENVIRONMENT FUNCTIONALITY**

The *runtime environment* supports ISO/ANSI C and C++ including the standard template library. The runtime environment consists of the *runtime library*, which contains the functions defined by these standards, and include files that define the library interface.

The runtime library is delivered both as prebuilt libraries and as source files, and you can find them in the product subdirectories r32c\lib and r32c\src\lib, respectively.

The runtime environment also consists of a part with specific support for the target system, which includes:

- Support for hardware features:
  - Direct access to low-level processor operations by means of *intrinsic* functions, such as functions for register handling
  - Peripheral unit registers and interrupt definitions in include files
  - Target-specific arithmetic support modules like hardware multipliers or floating-point coprocessors.
- Runtime environment support, that is, startup and exit code and low-level interface to some library functions.
- Special compiler support for some functions, for instance functions for floating-point arithmetics.

The runtime environment support and the size of the heap must be tailored for the specific hardware and application requirements.

For further information about the library, see the chapter *Library functions*.

#### LIBRARY SELECTION

To configure the most code-efficient runtime environment, you must determine your application and hardware requirements. The more functionality you need, the larger your code will become.

IAR Embedded Workbench comes with a set of prebuilt runtime libraries. To get the required runtime environment, you can customize it by:

- Setting library options, for example, for choosing scanf input and printf output formatters, and for specifying the size of the stack and the heap
- Overriding certain library functions, for example cstartup.s53, with your own customized versions
- Choosing the level of support for certain standard library functionality, for example, locale, file descriptors, and multibyte characters, by choosing a *library* configuration: normal or full.

You can also make your own library configuration, but that requires that you *rebuild* the library. This allows you to get full control of the runtime environment.

**Note:** Your application project must be able to locate the library, include files, and the library configuration file.

#### SITUATIONS THAT REQUIRE LIBRARY BUILDING

Building a customized library is complex. Therefore, consider carefully whether it is really necessary.

You must build your own library when:

- There is no prebuilt library for the required combination of compiler options or hardware support
- You want to change the data model of the runtime library
- You want to define your own library configuration with support for locale, file descriptors, multibyte characters, et cetera.

For information about how to build a customized library, see *Building and using a customized library*, page 50.

#### LIBRARY CONFIGURATIONS

It is possible to configure the level of support for, for example, locale, file descriptors, multibyte characters. The runtime library configuration is defined in the *library configuration file*. It contains information about what functionality is part of the runtime environment. The configuration file is used for tailoring a build of a runtime library, and tailoring the system header files used when compiling your application. The less functionality you need in the runtime environment, the smaller it is.

These DLIB library configurations are available:

#### Library configuration Description

Normal DLIB	No locale interface, C locale, no file descriptor support, no multibyte characters in printf and scanf, and no hex floats in strtod.
Full DLIB	Full locale interface, C locale, file descriptor support, multibyte characters in printf and scanf, and hex floats in strtod.

Table 12: Library configurations

You can also define your own configurations, which means that you must modify the configuration file. Note that the library configuration file describes how a library was built and thus cannot be changed unless you rebuild the library. For further information, see *Building and using a customized library*, page 50.

The prebuilt libraries are based on the default configurations, see Table 14, *Prebuilt libraries*, page 45. There is also a ready-made library project template that you can use if you want to rebuild the runtime library.

#### **DEBUG SUPPORT IN THE RUNTIME LIBRARY**

You can make the library provide different levels of debugging support—basic, runtime, and I/O debugging.

This table describes the different levels of debugging support:

Debugging support	Linker option in IDE	Linker command line option	Description
Basic debugging	Debug information for C-SPY	-Fubrof	Debug support for C-SPY without any runtime support
Runtime debugging	With runtime control modules	-r	The same as -Fubrof, but also includes debugger support for handling program abort, exit, and assertions.
I/O debugging	With I/O emulation modules	-rt	The same as -r, but also includes debugger support for I/O handling, which means that stdin and stdout are redirected to the C-SPY Terminal I/O window, and that it is possible to access files on the host computer during debugging.

Table 13: Levels of debugging support in runtime libraries

If you build your application project with the XLINK options **With runtime control modules** or **With I/O emulation modules**, certain functions in the library are replaced by functions that communicate with the debugger. For further information, see *C-SPY runtime interface*, page 65.



To set linker options for debug support in the IDE, choose **Project>Options** and select the **Linker** category. On the **Output** page, select the appropriate **Format** option.

# Using a prebuilt library

The prebuilt runtime libraries are configured for different combinations of these features:

- Code model
- Floating-point implementation
- Size of the double floating-point type
- Library configuration—Normal or Full.

These prebuilt runtime libraries are available:

Library file	Code model	Floating-point implementation	Size of double	Library configuration
dlr32cfhfn.r53	Far	Hardware	32 bits	Normal
dlr32cfhff.r53	Far	Hardware	32 bits	Full
dlr32cfhdn.r53	Far	Hardware	64 bits	Normal
dlr32cfhdf.r53	Far	Hardware	64 bits	Full
dlr32cfsfn.r53	Far	Software	32 bits	Normal
dlr32cfsff.r53	Far	Software	32 bits	Full
dlr32cfsdn.r53	Far	Software	64 bits	Normal
dlr32cfsdf.r53	Far	Software	64 bits	Full
dlr32chhfn.r53	Huge	Hardware	32 bits	Normal
dlr32chhff.r53	Huge	Hardware	32 bits	Full
dlr32chhdn.r53	Huge	Hardware	64 bits	Normal
dlr32chhdf.r53	Huge	Hardware	64 bits	Full
dlr32chsfn.r53	Huge	Software	32 bits	Normal
dlr32chsff.r53	Huge	Software	32 bits	Full
dlr32chsdn.r53	Huge	Software	64 bits	Normal
dlr32chsdf.r53	Huge	Software	64 bits	Full

Table 14: Prebuilt libraries

The names of the libraries are constructed in this way:

<type><target><code\_model><float><double><library\_config>.r53

## where

- <type> is dl for the IAR DLIB runtime environment
- <target> is r32c
- <code\_model> is either f for Far or h for Huge
- <float> is either h for hardware floating-point or s for software-emulated floating-point
- <double> is either f for 32 bits or d for 64 bits
- for Full.

**Note:** The library configuration file has the same base name as the library.



The IDE will include the correct library object file and library configuration file based on the options you select. See the *IAR Embedded Workbench*® *IDE User Guide* for additional information.



If you build your application from the command line, you must specify t items to get the required runtime library:

- Specify which library object file to use on the XLINK command line, for instance: dlr32cfhdn.r53
- Specify the include paths for the compiler and assembler:
  - -I r32c\inc\dlib
- Specify the library configuration file for the compiler:
  - --dlib\_config C:\...\dlr32cfhdn.h

**Note:** All modules in the library have a name that starts with the character ? (question mark).

You can find the library object files and the library configuration files in the subdirectory r32c\1ib\.

#### **CUSTOMIZING A PREBUILT LIBRARY WITHOUT REBUILDING**

The prebuilt libraries delivered with the compiler can be used as is. However, it is possible to customize parts of a library without rebuilding it. There are two different methods:

- Setting options for:
  - Formatters used by printf and scanf
  - The sizes of the heap and the stack
- Overriding library modules with your own customized versions.

These items can be customized:

Items that can be customized	Described in
Formatters for printf and scanf	Choosing formatters for printf and scanf, page 47
Startup and termination code	System startup and termination, page 52
Low-level input and output	Standard streams for input and output, page 56
File input and output	File input and output, page 59
Low-level environment functions	Environment interaction, page 62
Low-level signal functions	Signal and raise, page 63
Low-level time functions	Time, page 63
Size of heaps, stacks, and segments	Placing code and data, page 27

Table 15: Customizable items

For a description about how to override library modules, see *Overriding library modules*, page 49.

# Choosing formatters for printf and scanf

To override the default formatter for all the printf- and scanf-related functions, except for wprintf and wscanf variants, you simply set the appropriate library options. This section describes the different options available.

**Note:** If you rebuild the library, it is possible to optimize these functions even further, see *Configuration symbols for printf and scanf*, page 58.

## **CHOOSING PRINTF FORMATTER**

The printf function uses a formatter called \_Printf. The default version is quite large, and provides facilities not required in many embedded applications. To reduce the memory consumption, three smaller, alternative versions are also provided in the standard C/EC++ library.

This table summarizes the capabilities of the different formatters:

Formatting capabilities	_PrintfFull	_PrintfLarge	_PrintfSmall	_PrintfTiny
Basic specifiers c, d, i, o, p, s, u, X,	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
x, and $%$				
Multibyte support	†	†	†	No
Floating-point specifiers $a,$ and $A$	Yes	No	No	No
Floating-point specifiers e, E, f, F, g, and ${\tt G}$	Yes	Yes	No	No
Conversion specifier $\boldsymbol{n}$	Yes	Yes	No	No
Format flag space, +, -, $\#$ , and $0$	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Length modifiers h, 1, L, s, t, and ${\tt Z}$	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Field width and precision, including $\ensuremath{^{\star}}$	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
long long support	Yes	Yes	No	No

Table 16: Formatters for printf

For information about how to fine-tune the formatting capabilities even further, see *Configuration symbols for printf and scanf*, page 58.

<sup>†</sup> Depends on the library configuration that is used.



# Specifying the print formatter in the IDE

To use any other formatter than the default (Full), choose **Project>Options** and select the **General Options** category. Select the appropriate option on the **Library options** page.



## Specifying printf formatter from the command line

To use any other formatter than the default (\_PrintfLarge), add one of these lines in the linker command file you are using:

```
-e_PrintfFull=_Printf
-e_PrintfSmall=_Printf
-e PrintfTiny= Printf
```

#### **CHOOSING SCANF FORMATTER**

In a similar way to the printf function, scanf uses a common formatter, called \_Scanf. The default version is very large, and provides facilities that are not required in many embedded applications. To reduce the memory consumption, two smaller, alternative versions are also provided in the standard C/C++ library.

This table summarizes the capabilities of the different formatters:

Formatting capabilities	_ScanfFull	_ScanfLarge	_ScanfSmall
Basic specifiers c, d, i, o, p, s, u, X,	Yes	Yes	Yes
x, and $%$			
Multibyte support	†	†	†
Floating-point specifiers $a,$ and ${\mathbb A}$	Yes	No	No
Floating-point specifiers e, E, f, F, g, and ${\tt G}$	Yes	No	No
Conversion specifier n	Yes	No	No
Scan set [ and ]	Yes	Yes	No
Assignment suppressing *	Yes	Yes	No
long long support	Yes	No	No

Table 17: Formatters for scanf

For information about how to fine-tune the formatting capabilities even further, see *Configuration symbols for printf and scanf*, page 58.

<sup>†</sup> Depends on the library configuration that is used.



# Specifying scanf formatter in the IDE

To use any other formatter than the default (Full), choose **Project>Options** and select the **General Options** category. Select the appropriate option on the **Library options** page.



# Specifying scanf formatter from the command line

To use any other variant than the default (\_ScanfLarge), add one of these lines in the linker command file you are using:

```
-e_ScanfFull=_Scanf
-e_ScanfSmall=_Scanf
```

# **Overriding library modules**

The library contains modules which you probably need to override with your own customized modules, for example functions for character-based I/O and cstartup. This can be done without rebuilding the entire library. This section describes the procedure for including your version of the module in the application project build process. The library files that you can override with your own versions are located in the r32c\src\lib directory.

**Note:** If you override a default I/O library module with your own module, C-SPY support for the module is turned off. For example, if you replace the module \_\_write with your own version, the C-SPY Terminal I/O window will not be supported.



# Overriding library modules using the IDE

This procedure is applicable to any source file in the library, which means that <code>library\_module.c</code> in this example can be *any* module in the library.

- I Copy the appropriate library\_module.c file to your project directory.
- **2** Make the required additions to the file (or create your own routine, using the default file as a model), and make sure that it has the same *module name* as the original module. The easiest way to achieve this is to save the new file under the same name as the original file.
- **3** Add the customized file to your project.
- **4** Rebuild your project.

# **.**

# Overriding library modules from the command line

This procedure is applicable to any source file in the library, which means that <code>library\_module.c</code> in this example can be *any* module in the library.

- Copy the appropriate *library\_module*.c to your project directory.
- **2** Make the required additions to the file (or create your own routine, using the default file as a model), and make sure that it has the same *module name* as the original module. The easiest way to achieve this is to save the new file under the same name as the original file.
- **3** Compile the modified file using the same options as for the rest of the project:

```
iccr32c library_module
```

This creates a replacement object module file named 1ibrary\_module.r53.

**Note:** The size of the double floating-point type, the floating-point implementation, and the include paths must be the same for <code>library\_module</code> as for the rest of your code.

**4** Add *library\_module.r53* to the XLINK command line, either directly or by using an extended linker command file, for example:

```
xlink library_module dlr32cfhdn.r53
```

Make sure that <code>library\_module</code> is placed before the library on the command line. This ensures that your module is used instead of the one in the library.

Run XLINK to rebuild your application.

This will use your version of <code>library\_module.r53</code>, instead of the one in the library. For information about the XLINK options, see the <code>IAR Linker</code> and <code>Library Tools Reference Guide</code>.

# Building and using a customized library

In some situations, see *Situations that require library building*, page 43, it is necessary to rebuild the library. In those cases you must:

- Set up a library project
- Make the required library modifications
- Build your customized library
- Finally, make sure your application project will use the customized library.

Information about the build process is described in the IAR Embedded Workbench® IDE User Guide.

**Note:** To build IAR Embedded Workbench projects from the command line, use the IAR Command Line Build Utility (iarbuild.exe). However, no make or batch files for building the library from the command line are provided.

# **SETTING UP A LIBRARY PROJECT**

The IDE provides a library project template which can be used for customizing the runtime environment configuration. This library template has Full library configuration, see Table 12, *Library configurations*, page 43.



In the IDE, modify the generic options in the created library project to suit your application, see *Basic settings for project configuration*, page 5.

**Note:** There is one important restriction on setting options. If you set an option on file level (file level override), no options on higher levels that operate on files will affect that file.

#### MODIFYING THE LIBRARY FUNCTIONALITY

You must modify the library configuration file and build your own library if you want to modify support for, for example, locale, file descriptors, and multibyte characters. This will include or exclude certain parts of the runtime environment.

The library functionality is determined by a set of *configuration symbols*. The default values of these symbols are defined in the file <code>Dlib\_defaults.h</code>. This read-only file describes the configuration possibilities. Your library also has its own library configuration file <code>dlr32clibraryname.h</code>, which sets up that specific library with full library configuration. For more information, see Table 15, *Customizable items*, page 46.

The library configuration file is used for tailoring a build of the runtime library, and for tailoring the system header files.

# Modifying the library configuration file

In your library project, open the file dlr32clibraryname.h and customize it by setting the values of the configuration symbols according to the application requirements.

When you are finished, build your library project with the appropriate project options.

#### **USING A CUSTOMIZED LIBRARY**

After you build your library, you must make sure to use it in your application project.



In the IDE you must do these steps:

Choose **Project>Options** and click the **Library Configuration** tab in the **General Options** category.

- 2 Choose Custom DLIB from the Library drop-down menu.
- **3** In the **Library file** text box, locate your library file.
- **4** In the **Configuration file** text box, locate your library configuration file.

# System startup and termination

This section describes the runtime environment actions performed during startup and termination of your application.

The code for handling startup and termination is located in the source files cstartup.s53, cexit.s53, and low\_level\_init.c located in the r32c\src\lib directory.

For information about how to customize the system startup code, see *Customizing system initialization*, page 55.

#### **SYSTEM STARTUP**

During system startup, an initialization sequence is executed before the main function is entered. This sequence performs initializations required for the target hardware and the C/C++ environment.

For the hardware initialization, it looks like this:

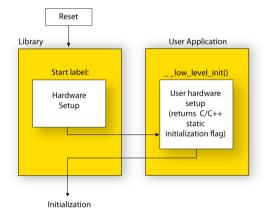


Figure 1: Target hardware initialization phase

- When the CPU is reset it will jump to the program entry label \_\_program\_start in the system startup code.
- Stack pointers, the SB register, and the interrupt vector base register are initialized

The function \_\_low\_level\_init is called if you defined it, giving the application
a chance to perform early initializations.

For the C/C++ initialization, it looks like this:

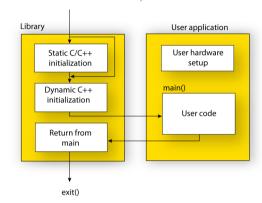


Figure 2: C/C++ initialization phase

- Static variables are initialized (if the return value of \_\_low\_level\_init is non-zero). Zero-initialized variables are cleared and the values of other initialized variables are copied from ROM to RAM memory. For more details, see *Initialized data*, page 33
- Static C++ objects are constructed
- The main function is called, which starts the application.

## SYSTEM TERMINATION

This illustration shows the different ways an embedded application can terminate in a controlled way:

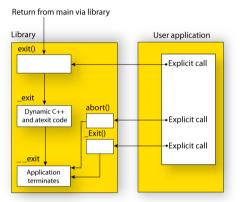


Figure 3: System termination phase

An application can terminate normally in two different ways:

- Return from the main function
- Call the exit function.

As the ISO/ANSI C standard states that the two methods should be equivalent, the system startup code calls the exit function if main returns. The parameter passed to the exit function is the return value of main.

The default exit function is written in C. It calls a small assembler function \_exit that will perform these operations:

- Call functions registered to be executed when the application ends. This includes C++ destructors for static and global variables, and functions registered with the standard C function atexit
- Close all open files
- Call \_\_exit
- When \_\_exit is reached, stop the system.

An application can also exit by calling the abort or the \_Exit function. The abort function just calls \_\_exit to halt the system, and does not perform any type of cleanup. The \_Exit function is equivalent to the abort function, except for the fact that \_Exit takes an argument for passing exit status information.

If you want your application to do anything extra at exit, for example resetting the system, you can write your own implementation of the \_\_exit(int) function.

## C-SPY interface to system termination

If your project is linked with the XLINK options **With runtime control modules** or **With I/O emulation modules**, the normal \_\_exit and abort functions are replaced with special ones. C-SPY will then recognize when those functions are called and can take appropriate actions to simulate program termination. For more information, see *C-SPY runtime interface*, page 65.

# **Customizing system initialization**

It is likely that you need to customize the code for system initialization. For example, your application might need to initialize memory-mapped special function registers (SFRs), or omit the default initialization of data segments performed by cstartup.

You can do this by providing a customized version of the routine \_\_low\_level\_init, which is called from cstartup.s53 before the data segments are initialized. Modifying the file cstartup directly should be avoided.

The code for handling system startup is located in the source files cstartup.s53 and low\_level\_init.c, located in the r32c\src\lib directory.

**Note:** Normally, you do not need to customize the file cexit.s53.



If you intend to rebuild the library, the source files are available in the template library project, see *Building and using a customized library*, page 50.

**Note:** Regardless of whether you modify the routine \_\_low\_level\_init or the file cstartup.s53, you do not have to rebuild the library.

#### LOW LEVEL INIT

A skeleton low-level initialization file, <code>low\_level\_init.c</code>, is supplied with the product. The value returned by <code>\_\_low\_level\_init</code> determines whether or not data segments should be initialized by the system startup code. If the function returns 0, the data segments will not be initialized.

**Note:** The file intrinsics.h must be included by low\_level\_init.c to assure correct behavior of the \_\_low\_level\_init routine.

#### **MODIFYING THE FILE CSTARTUP.S53**

As noted earlier, you should not modify the file cstartup.s53 if a customized version of \_\_low\_level\_init is enough for your needs. However, if you do need to modify

the file cstartup.s53, we recommend that you follow the general procedure for creating a modified copy of the file and adding it to your project, see *Overriding library modules*, page 49.

# Standard streams for input and output

Three standard communication channels (streams)—stdin, stdout, and stderr—are defined in stdio.h. If any of these streams are used by your application, for example by the functions printf and scanf, you must customize the low-level functionality to suit your hardware.

There are primitive I/O functions, which are the fundamental functions through which C and C++ performs all character-based I/O. For any character-based I/O to be available, you must provide definitions for these functions using whatever facilities the hardware environment provides.

# IMPLEMENTING LOW-LEVEL CHARACTER INPUT AND OUTPUT

To implement low-level functionality of the stdin and stdout streams, you must write the functions \_\_read and \_\_write, respectively. You can find template source code for these functions in the r32c\src\lib directory.

If you intend to rebuild the library, the source files are available in the template library project, see *Building and using a customized library*, page 50. Note that customizing the low-level routines for input and output does not require you to rebuild the library.

**Note:** If you write your own variants of \_\_read or \_\_write, special considerations for the C-SPY runtime interface are needed, see *C-SPY runtime interface*, page 65.

# Example of using \_\_write and \_\_read

The code in this example uses memory-mapped I/O to write to an LCD display:

```
/* Check for stdout and stderr
    (only necessary if FILE descriptors are enabled.) */
if (Handle != 1 && Handle != 2)
{
    return -1;
}
for (/*Empty */; Bufsize > 0; --Bufsize)
{
    LCD_IO = * Buf++;
    ++nChars;
}
return nChars;
```

**Note:** A call to \_\_write where BUF has the value NULL is a command to flush the handle.

The code in this example uses memory-mapped I/O to read from a keyboard:

```
__no_init volatile unsigned char KB_IO @ address;
size_t __read(int Handle, unsigned char *Buf, size_t BufSize)
{
    size_t nChars = 0;
    /* Check for stdin
        (only necessary if FILE descriptors are enabled) */
    if (Handle != 0)
    {
        return -1;
    }
    for (/*Empty*/; BufSize > 0; --BufSize)
    {
        unsigned char c = KB_IO;
        if (c == 0)
            break;
        *Buf++ = c;
        ++nChars;
    }
    return nChars;
}
```

For information about the @ operator, see *Controlling data and function placement in memory*, page 103.

# Configuration symbols for printf and scanf

When you set up your application project, you typically need to consider what printf and scanf formatting capabilities your application requires, see *Choosing formatters* for printf and scanf, page 47.

If the provided formatters do not meet your requirements, you can customize the full formatters. However, that means you must rebuild the runtime library.

The default behavior of the printf and scanf formatters are defined by configuration symbols in the file DLIB\_Defaults.h.

These configuration symbols determine what capabilities the function printf should have:

Printf configuration symbols	Includes support for
_DLIB_PRINTF_MULTIBYTE	Multibyte characters
_DLIB_PRINTF_LONG_LONG	Long long (11 qualifier)
_DLIB_PRINTF_SPECIFIER_FLOAT	Floating-point numbers
_DLIB_PRINTF_SPECIFIER_A	Hexadecimal floats
_DLIB_PRINTF_SPECIFIER_N	Output count (%n)
_DLIB_PRINTF_QUALIFIERS	Qualifiers h, 1, L, v, t, and $\boldsymbol{z}$
_DLIB_PRINTF_FLAGS	Flags -, +, #, and 0
_DLIB_PRINTF_WIDTH_AND_PRECISION	Width and precision
_DLIB_PRINTF_CHAR_BY_CHAR	Output char by char or buffered

Table 18: Descriptions of printf configuration symbols

When you build a library, these configurations determine what capabilities the function scanf should have:

Scanf configuration symbols	Includes support for
_DLIB_SCANF_MULTIBYTE	Multibyte characters
_DLIB_SCANF_LONG_LONG	Long long (11 qualifier)
_DLIB_SCANF_SPECIFIER_FLOAT	Floating-point numbers
_DLIB_SCANF_SPECIFIER_N	Output count (%n)
_DLIB_SCANF_QUALIFIERS	Qualifiers h, j, l, t, z, and ${\tt L}$
_DLIB_SCANF_SCANSET	Scanset ([*])
_DLIB_SCANF_WIDTH	Width
_DLIB_SCANF_ASSIGNMENT_SUPPRESSING	Assignment suppressing ([*])

Table 19: Descriptions of scanf configuration symbols

## **CUSTOMIZING FORMATTING CAPABILITIES**

To customize the formatting capabilities, you must set up a library project, see *Building and using a customized library*, page 50. Define the configuration symbols according to your application requirements.

# File input and output

The library contains a large number of powerful functions for file I/O operations. If you use any of these functions, you must customize them to suit your hardware. To simplify adaptation to specific hardware, all I/O functions call a small set of primitive functions, each designed to accomplish one particular task; for example, \_\_open opens a file, and \_\_write outputs characters.

Note that file I/O capability in the library is only supported by libraries with full library configuration, see *Library configurations*, page 43. In other words, file I/O is supported when the configuration symbol \_\_DLIB\_FILE\_DESCRIPTOR is enabled. If not enabled, functions taking a *FILE* \* argument cannot be used.

Template code for these I/O files are included in the product:

I/O function	File	Description
close	close.c	Closes a file.
lseek	lseek.c	Sets the file position indicator.
open	open.c	Opens a file.
read	read.c	Reads a character buffer.
write	write.c	Writes a character buffer.
remove	remove.c	Removes a file.
rename	rename.c	Renames a file.

Table 20: Low-level I/O files

The primitive functions identify I/O streams, such as an open file, with a file descriptor that is a unique integer. The I/O streams normally associated with stdin, stdout, and stderr have the file descriptors 0, 1, and 2, respectively.

**Note:** If you link your library with I/O debugging support, C-SPY variants of the low-level I/O functions are linked for interaction with C-SPY. For more information, see *Debug support in the runtime library*, page 44.

# Locale

*Locale* is a part of the C language that allows language- and country-specific settings for several areas, such as currency symbols, date and time, and multibyte character encoding.

Depending on what runtime library you are using you get different level of locale support. However, the more locale support, the larger your code will get. It is therefore necessary to consider what level of support your application needs.

The DLIB library can be used in two main modes:

- With locale interface, which makes it possible to switch between different locales during runtime
- Without locale interface, where one selected locale is hardwired into the application.

## LOCALE SUPPORT IN PREBUILT LIBRARIES

The level of locale support in the prebuilt libraries depends on the library configuration.

- All prebuilt libraries support the C locale only
- All libraries with full library configuration have support for the locale interface. For
  prebuilt libraries with locale interface, it is by default only supported to switch
  multibyte character encoding during runtime.
- Libraries with normal library configuration do not have support for the locale interface.

If your application requires a different locale support, you must rebuild the library.

#### **CUSTOMIZING THE LOCALE SUPPORT**

If you decide to rebuild the library, you can choose between these locales:

- The standard C locale
- The POSIX locale
- A wide range of European locales.

# Locale configuration symbols

The configuration symbol \_DLIB\_FULL\_LOCALE\_SUPPORT, which is defined in the library configuration file, determines whether a library has support for a locale interface

or not. The locale configuration symbols \_LOCALE\_USE\_*LANG\_REGION* and \_ENCODING\_USE\_*ENCODING* define all the supported locales and encodings:

See DLib Defaults.h for a list of supported locale and encoding settings.

If you want to customize the locale support, you simply define the locale configuration symbols required by your application. For more information, see *Building and using a customized library*, page 50.

**Note:** If you use multibyte characters in your C or assembler source code, make sure that you select the correct locale symbol (the local host locale).

# Building a library without support for locale interface

The locale interface is not included if the configuration symbol \_\_DLIB\_FULL\_LOCALE\_SUPPORT is set to 0 (zero). This means that a hardwired locale is used—by default the standard C locale—but you can choose one of the supported locale configuration symbols. The setlocale function is not available and can therefore not be used for changing locales at runtime.

## Building a library with support for locale interface

Support for the locale interface is obtained if the configuration symbol \_\_DLIB\_FULL\_LOCALE\_SUPPORT is set to 1. By default, the standard C locale is used, but you can define as many configuration symbols as required. Because the setlocale function will be available in your application, it will be possible to switch locales at runtime.

#### **CHANGING LOCALES AT RUNTIME**

The standard library function setlocale is used for selecting the appropriate portion of the application's locale when the application is running.

The setlocale function takes two arguments. The first one is a locale category that is constructed after the pattern LC\_CATEGORY. The second argument is a string that describes the locale. It can either be a string previously returned by setlocale, or it can be a string constructed after the pattern:

```
lang_REGION

or

lang REGION.encoding
```

The *lang* part specifies the language code, and the *REGION* part specifies a region qualifier, and *encoding* specifies the multibyte character encoding that should be used.

The <code>lang\_REGION</code> part matches the <code>\_LOCALE\_USE\_LANG\_REGION</code> preprocessor symbols that can be specified in the library configuration file.

## **Example**

This example sets the locale configuration symbols to Swedish to be used in Finland and UTF8 multibyte character encoding:

```
setlocale (LC_ALL, "sv_FI.Utf8");
```

# **Environment interaction**

According to the C standard, your application can interact with the environment using the functions geteny and system.

**Note:** The putenv function is not required by the standard, and the library does not provide an implementation of it.

The getenv function searches the string, pointed to by the global variable \_\_environ, for the key that was passed as argument. If the key is found, the value of it is returned, otherwise 0 (zero) is returned. By default, the string is empty.

To create or edit keys in the string, you must create a sequence of null terminated strings where each string has the format:

```
kev=value\0
```

The last string must be empty. Assign the created sequence of strings to the \_\_environ variable.

#### For example:

```
const char MyEnv[] = "Key=Value\0Key2=Value2\0";
__environ = MyEnv;
```

If you need a more sophisticated environment variable handling, you should implement your own getenv, and possibly putenv function. This does not require that you rebuild the library. You can find source templates in the files getenv.c and environ.c in the r32c\src\lib directory. For information about overriding default library modules, see Overriding library modules, page 49.

If you need to use the system function, you must implement it yourself. The system function available in the library simply returns -1.

If you decide to rebuild the library, you can find source templates in the library project template. For further information, see *Building and using a customized library*, page 50.

**Note:** If you link your application with support for I/O debugging, the functions getenv and system are replaced by C-SPY variants. For further information, see *Debug support in the runtime library*, page 44.

# Signal and raise

Default implementations of the functions signal and raise are available. If these functions do not provide the functionality that you need, you can implement your own versions.

This does not require that you rebuild the library. You can find source templates in the files signal.c and raise.c in the r32c\src\lib directory. For information about overriding default library modules, see *Overriding library modules*, page 49.

If you decide to rebuild the library, you can find source templates in the library project template. For further information, see *Building and using a customized library*, page 50.

# **Time**

To make the time and date functions work, you must implement the three functions clock, time, and \_\_getzone.

This does not require that you rebuild the library. You can find source templates in the files clock.c and time.c, and getzone.c in the r32c\src\lib directory. For information about overriding default library modules, see *Overriding library modules*, page 49.

If you decide to rebuild the library, you can find source templates in the library project template. For further information, see *Building and using a customized library*, page 50.

The default implementation of \_\_getzone specifies UTC as the time zone.

**Note:** If you link your application with support for I/O debugging, the functions clock and time are replaced by C-SPY variants that return the host clock and time respectively. For further information, see *C-SPY runtime interface*, page 65.

# **Strtod**

The function strtod does not accept hexadecimal floating-point strings in libraries with the normal library configuration. To make a library do so, you must rebuild the library, see *Building and using a customized library*, page 50. Enable the configuration symbol \_DLIB\_STRTOD\_HEX\_FLOAT in the library configuration file.

# **Assert**

If you linked your application with support for runtime debugging, C-SPY will be notified about failed asserts. If this is not the behavior you require, you must add the source file xreportassert.c to your application project. Alternatively, you can rebuild the library. The \_\_ReportAssert function generates the assert notification. You can find template code in the r32c\src\lib directory. For further information, see Building and using a customized library, page 50. To turn off assertions, you must define the symbol NDEBUG.



In the IDE, this symbol NDEBUG is by default defined in a Release project and *not* defined in a Debug project. If you build from the command line, you must explicitly define the symbol according to your needs.

# Hardware support

Some R32C/100 devices have a hardware floating-point unit (FPU). The R32C IAR C/C++ Compiler can take advantage of this and produce code which is very fast in floating-point operations.

#### FLOATING-POINT IMPLEMENTATION

The native floating-point operations of the FPU are not fully standards-compliant. For this reason, there are three different implementations of floating-point support. These are:

- Software-emulated floating-point operations
- Native FPU floating-point operations
- FPU floating-point operations with standards-compliant library functions

### Software-emulated floating-point operations



If no FPU is available, you should specify the Full floating-point model, --fp\_model=full. This will use the library routines that emulate floating-point operations.



In the IAR Embedded Workbench IDE, select **Project>Options>General Options>Target>Float implementation>Software emulation**.

## **Native FPU floating-point operations**



If an FPU is available, you can specify --fp\_model=fast. This will cause FPU instructions to be inserted directly in the code. This is the fastest model. However, in this model, the special numbers Not a number (NaN) and Infinity are not recognized.



In the IAR Embedded Workbench IDE, choose **Project>Options>General Options>Target** and select **FPU only**.

# FPU with standards-compliant library functions



If your application uses Not a number (NaN) or Infinity, you can use <code>--fp\_model=full</code> together with an extra linker command file <code>fpu\_compliant.xcl</code> to use alternative floating-point library functions that recognize Infinity and Not a Number, but still use the FPU instructions to perform the operations. This creates a significant overhead compared to the inlined FPU instructions of <code>--fp\_model=fast</code>, but it is approximately twice as fast as the software-emulating library.

**Note:** If you specify --fp\_model=full without using the extra linker command file, software-emulated floating-point operations will be used.



In the IAR Embedded Workbench IDE, choose **Project>Options>General Options>Target** and select **Standards-compliant with FPU**.

See also *Floating-point types*, page 156.

# **C-SPY** runtime interface

To include support for runtime and I/O debugging, you must link your application with the XLINK options **With runtime control modules** or **With I/O emulation modules**, see *Debug support in the runtime library*, page 44.

In this case, C-SPY variants of these library functions are linked to the application:

Function	Description
abort	C-SPY notifies that the application has called abort *
clock	Returns the clock on the host computer
close	Closes the associated host file on the host computer
exit	C-SPY notifies that the end of the application was reached $^{st}$
open	Opens a file on the host computer
read	stdin, stdout, and stderr will be directed to the Terminal I/O window; all other files will read the associated host file
remove	Writes a message to the Debug Log window and returns -I
rename	Writes a message to the Debug Log window and returns -I
_ReportAssert	Handles failed asserts *
seek	Seeks in the associated host file on the host computer
system	Writes a message to the Debug Log window and returns -I

Table 21: Functions with special meanings when linked with debug info

65

Function	Description
time	Returns the time on the host computer
write	stdin, stdout, and stderr will be directed to the Terminal I/O window, all other files will write to the associated host file

Table 21: Functions with special meanings when linked with debug info (Continued)

#### LOW-LEVEL DEBUGGER RUNTIME INTERFACE

The low-level debugger runtime interface is used for communication between the application being debugged and the debugger itself. The debugger provides runtime services to the application via this interface; services that allow capabilities like file and terminal I/O to be performed on the host computer.

These capabilities can be valuable during the early development of an application, for example in an application using file I/O before any flash file system I/O drivers are implemented. Or, if you need to debug constructions in your application that use stdin and stdout without the actual hardware device for input and output being available. Another debugging purpose can be to produce debug trace printouts.

The mechanism used for implementing this feature works as follows:

The debugger will detect the presence of the function \_\_pebugBreak, which will be part of the application if you linked it with the XLINK options for C-SPY runtime interface. In this case, the debugger will automatically set a breakpoint at the \_\_pebugBreak function. When the application calls, for example open, the \_\_pebugBreak function is called, which will cause the application to break and perform the necessary services. The execution will then resume.

#### THE DEBUGGER TERMINAL I/O WINDOW

To make the Terminal I/O window available, the application must be linked with support for I/O debugging, see *Debug support in the runtime library*, page 44. This means that when the functions \_\_read or \_\_write are called to perform I/O operations on the streams stdin, stdout, or stderr, data will be sent to or read from the C-SPY Terminal I/O window.

**Note:** The Terminal I/O window is not opened automatically just because \_\_read or \_\_write is called; you must open it manually.

See the IAR Embedded Workbench® IDE User Guide for more information about the Terminal I/O window.

<sup>\*</sup> The linker option With I/O emulation modules is not required for these functions.

# Speeding up terminal output

On some systems, terminal output might be slow because the host computer and the target hardware must communicate for each character.

For this reason, a replacement for the \_\_write function called \_\_write\_buffered is included in the DLIB library. This module buffers the output and sends it to the debugger one line at a time, speeding up the output. Note that this function uses about 80 bytes of RAM memory.

To use this feature you can either choose **Project>Options>Linker>Output** and select the option **Buffered terminal output** in the IDE, or add this to the linker command line:

```
-e__write_buffered=__write
```

# **Checking module consistency**

This section introduces the concept of runtime model attributes, a mechanism used by the IAR compiler, assembler, and linker to ensure module consistency.

When developing an application, it is important to ensure that incompatible modules are not used together. For example, in the compiler, it is possible to specify the size of the double floating-point type. If you write a routine that only works for 64-bit doubles, it is possible to check that the routine is not used in an application built using 32-bit doubles.

The tools provided by IAR Systems use a set of predefined runtime model attributes. You can use these predefined attributes or define your own to perform any type of consistency check.

#### **RUNTIME MODEL ATTRIBUTES**

A runtime attribute is a pair constituted of a named key and its corresponding value. Two modules can only be linked together if they have the same value for each key that they both define.

There is one exception: if the value of an attribute is \*, then that attribute matches any value. The reason for this is that you can specify this in a module to show that you have considered a consistency property, and this ensures that the module does not rely on that property.

### Example

In the following table, the object files could (but do not have to) define the two runtime attributes color and taste. In this case, file1 cannot be linked with any of the other files, since the runtime attribute color does not match. Also, file4 and file5 cannot be linked together, because the taste runtime attribute does not match.

On the other hand, file2 and file3 can be linked with each other, and with either file4 or file5, but not with both.

Object file	Color	Taste
file1	blue	not defined
file2	red	not defined
file3	red	*
file4	red	spicy
file5	red	lean

Table 22: Example of runtime model attributes

#### **USING RUNTIME MODEL ATTRIBUTES**

To ensure module consistency with other object files, use the #pragma rtmodel directive to specify runtime model attributes in your C/C++ source code. For example:

```
#pragma rtmodel="__rt_version", "1"
```

For detailed syntax information, see *rtmodel*, page 196.

You can also use the RTMODEL assembler directive to specify runtime model attributes in your assembler source code. For example:

```
RTMODEL "color", "red"
```

For detailed syntax information, see the R32C IAR Assembler Reference Guide.

**Note:** The predefined runtime attributes all start with two underscores. Any attribute names you specify yourself should not contain two initial underscores in the name, to eliminate any risk that they will conflict with future IAR Systems runtime attribute names.

At link time, the IAR XLINK Linker checks module consistency by ensuring that modules with conflicting runtime attributes will not be used together. If conflicts are detected, an error is issued.

## PREDEFINED RUNTIME ATTRIBUTES

The table below shows the predefined runtime model attributes that are available for the compiler. These can be included in assembler code or in mixed C/C++ and assembler code.

Runtime model attribute	Value	Description
core	R32C	Identifies the microcomputer core.

Table 23: Predefined runtime model attributes

Runtime model attribute	Value	Description
double_size	32 <b>or</b> 64	The size, in bits, of the double floating-point type.
rt_version	n	This runtime key is always present in all modules generated by the R32C IAR C/C++ Compiler. If a major change in the runtime characteristics occurs, the value of this key changes.

Table 23: Predefined runtime model attributes (Continued)

The easiest way to find the proper settings of the RTMODEL directive is to compile a C or C++ module to generate an assembler file, and then examine the file.

If you are using assembler routines in the C or C++ code, refer to the chapter *Assembler directives* in the *R32C IAR Assembler Reference Guide*.

## **Example**

The following assembler source code provides a function that increases the register R4 to count the number of times it was called. The routine assumes that the application does not use R4 for anything else, that is, the register is locked for usage. To ensure this, a runtime module attribute, \_\_reg\_r4, is defined with a value counter. This definition will ensure that this specific module can only be linked with either other modules containing the same definition, or with modules that do not set this attribute. Note that the compiler sets this attribute to free, unless the register is locked.

```
RTMODEL "__reg_r4", "counter"

MODULE myCounter

PUBLIC myCounter

RSEG CODE:CODE:NOROOT(1)

myCounter: INC R4

RET

ENDMOD

END
```

If this module is used in an application that contains modules where the register R4 is not locked, the linker issues an error:

```
Error[e117]: Incompatible runtime models. Module myCounter
specifies that '__reg_r4' must be 'counter', but module part1
has the value 'free'
```

#### **USER-DEFINED RUNTIME MODEL ATTRIBUTES**

In cases where the predefined runtime model attributes are not sufficient, you can use the RTMODEL assembler directive to define your own attributes. For each property, select a key and a set of values that describe the states of the property that are incompatible. Note that key names that start with two underscores are reserved by the compiler.

For example, if you have a UART that can run in two modes, you can specify a runtime model attribute, for example wart. For each mode, specify a value, for example model and model. Declare this in each module that assumes that the UART is in a particular mode. This is how it could look like in one of the modules:

#pragma rtmodel="uart", "model"

# Assembler language interface

When you develop an application for an embedded system, there might be situations where you will find it necessary to write parts of the code in assembler, for example when using mechanisms in the R32C/100 microcomputer that require precise timing and special instruction sequences.

This chapter describes the available methods for this and some C alternatives, with their advantages and disadvantages. It also describes how to write functions in assembler language that work together with an application written in C or C++.

Finally, the chapter covers how functions are called in the different code models, the different memory access methods corresponding to the supported memory types, and how you can implement support for call frame information in your assembler routines for use in the C-SPY® Call Stack window.

# Mixing C and assembler

The IAR C/C++ Compiler for R32C provides several ways to mix C or C++ and

- Modules written entirely in assembler
- Intrinsic functions (the C alternative)
- Inline assembler.

It might be tempting to use simple inline assembler. However, you should carefully choose which method to use.

#### INTRINSIC FUNCTIONS

The compiler provides a few predefined functions that allow direct access to low-level processor operations without having to use the assembler language. These functions are known as intrinsic functions. They can be very useful in, for example, time-critical routines.

7 I

An intrinsic function looks like a normal function call, but it is really a built-in function that the compiler recognizes. The intrinsic functions compile into inline code, either as a single instruction, or as a short sequence of instructions.

The advantage of an intrinsic function compared to using inline assembler is that the compiler has all necessary information to interface the sequence properly with register allocation and variables. The compiler also knows how to optimize functions with such sequences; something the compiler is unable to do with inline assembler sequences. The result is that you get the desired sequence properly integrated in your code, and that the compiler can optimize the result.

For detailed information about the available intrinsic functions, see the chapter *Intrinsic functions*.

#### MIXING C AND ASSEMBLER MODULES

It is possible to write parts of your application in assembler and mix them with your C or C++ modules. This gives several benefits compared to using inline assembler:

- The function call mechanism is well-defined
- The code will be easy to read
- The optimizer can work with the C or C++ functions.

This causes some overhead in the form of function call and return instruction sequences, and the compiler will regard some registers as scratch registers. However, the compiler will also assume that all scratch registers are destroyed by an inline assembler instruction. In many cases, the optimizer compensates for the overhead of the extra instructions.

An important advantage is that you will have a well-defined interface between what the compiler produces and what you write in assembler. When using inline assembler, you will not have any guarantees that your inline assembler lines do not interfere with the compiler generated code.

When an application is written partly in assembler language and partly in C or C++, you are faced with several questions:

- How should the assembler code be written so that it can be called from C?
- Where does the assembler code find its parameters, and how is the return value passed back to the caller?
- How should assembler code call functions written in C?
- How are global C variables accessed from code written in assembler language?
- Why does not the debugger display the call stack when assembler code is being debugged?

The first issue is discussed in the section *Calling assembler routines from C*, page 74. The following two are covered in the section *Calling convention*, page 77.

The section on memory access methods, page 86, covers how data in memory is accessed.

The answer to the final question is that the call stack can be displayed when you run assembler code in the debugger. However, the debugger requires information about the *call frame*, which must be supplied as annotations in the assembler source file. For more information, see *Call frame information*, page 88.

The recommended method for mixing C or C++ and assembler modules is described in *Calling assembler routines from C*, page 74, and *Calling assembler routines from C*++, page 76, respectively.

#### **INLINE ASSEMBLER**

It is possible to insert assembler code directly into a C or C++ function. The asm keyword inserts the supplied assembler statement in-line. The following example demonstrates the use of the asm keyword. This example also shows the risks of using inline assembler.

```
bool flag;
void foo(void)
{
  while (!flag)
  {
    asm("MOV PIND,flag");
  }
}
```

In this example, the assignment to the global variable flag is not noticed by the compiler, which means the surrounding code cannot be expected to rely on the inline assembler statement.

The inline assembler instruction will simply be inserted at the given location in the program flow. The consequences or side-effects the insertion might have on the surrounding code are not taken into consideration. If, for example, registers or memory locations are altered, they might have to be restored within the sequence of inline assembler instructions for the rest of the code to work properly.

Inline assembler sequences have no well-defined interface with the surrounding code generated from your C or C++ code. This makes the inline assembler code fragile, and

will possibly also become a maintenance problem if you upgrade the compiler in the future. There are also several limitations to using inline assembler:

- The compiler's various optimizations will disregard any effects of the inline sequences, which will not be optimized at all
- In general, assembler directives will cause errors or have no meaning. Data definition directives will however work as expected
- Alignment cannot be controlled; this means, for example, that DC32 directives might be misaligned
- Auto variables cannot be accessed.

Inline assembler is therefore often best avoided. If no suitable intrinsic function is available, we recommend that you use modules written in assembler language instead of inline assembler, because the function call to an assembler routine normally causes less performance reduction.

# Calling assembler routines from C

An assembler routine that will be called from C must:

- Conform to the calling convention
- Have a PUBLIC entry-point label
- Be declared as external before any call, to allow type checking and optional promotion of parameters, as in these examples:

```
extern int foo(void);
or
extern int foo(int i, int j);
```

One way of fulfilling these requirements is to create skeleton code in C, compile it, and study the assembler list file.

#### **CREATING SKELETON CODE**

The recommended way to create an assembler language routine with the correct interface is to start with an assembler language source file created by the C compiler. Note that you must create skeleton code for each function prototype.

The following example shows how to create skeleton code to which you can easily add the functional body of the routine. The skeleton source code only needs to declare the variables required and perform simple accesses to them. In this example, the assembler routine takes an int and a double, and then returns an int:

```
extern int gInt;
extern double gDouble;

int func(int arg1, double arg2)
{
   int locInt = arg1;
   gInt = arg1;
   gDouble = arg2;
   return locInt;
}

int main()
{
   int locInt = gInt;
   gInt = func(locInt, gDouble);
   return 0;
}
```

**Note:** In this example we use a low optimization level when compiling the code to show local and global variable access. If a higher level of optimization is used, the required references to local variables could be removed during the optimization. The actual function declaration is not changed by the optimization level.

#### **COMPILING THE CODE**



In the IDE, specify list options on file level. Select the file in the workspace window. Then choose **Project>Options**. In the **C/C++ Compiler** category, select **Override inherited settings**. On the **List** page, deselect **Output list file**, and instead select the **Output assembler file** option and its suboption **Include source**. Also, be sure to specify a low level of optimization.



Use these options to compile the skeleton code:

```
iccr32c skeleton -1A .
```

The -lA option creates an assembler language output file including C or C++ source lines as assembler comments. The . (period) specifies that the assembler file should be named in the same way as the C or C++ module (skeleton), but with the filename extension s53. Also remember to specify:

- the code model
- the data model
- the floating point model
- the size of the double type

- a low level of optimization
- -e for enabling language extensions.

The result is the assembler source output file skeleton.s53.

Note: The -lA option creates a list file containing call frame information (CFI) directives, which can be useful if you intend to study these directives and how they are used. If you only want to study the calling convention, you can exclude the CFI directives from the list file. In the IDE, choose Project>Options>C/C++

Compiler>List and deselect the suboption Include compiler runtime information.

On the command line, use the option -lB instead of -lA. Note that CFI information must be included in the source code to make the C-SPY Call Stack window work.



## The output file

The output file contains the following important information:

- The calling convention
- The return values
- The global variables
- The function parameters
- How to create space on the stack (auto variables)
- Call frame information (CFI).

The CFI directives describe the call frame information needed by the Call Stack window in the debugger.

# Calling assembler routines from C++

The C calling convention does not apply to C++ functions. Most importantly, a function name is not sufficient to identify a C++ function. The scope and the type of the function are also required to guarantee type-safe linkage, and to resolve overloading.

Another difference is that non-static member functions get an extra, hidden argument, the this pointer.

However, when using C linkage, the calling convention conforms to the C calling convention. An assembler routine can therefore be called from C++ when declared in this manner:

```
extern "C"
{
  int my_routine(int x);
}
```

Memory access layout of non-PODs ("plain old data structures") is not defined, and might change between compiler versions. Therefore, we do not recommend that you access non-PODs from assembler routines.

To achieve the equivalent to a non-static member function, the implicit this pointer must be made explicit:

```
class X:
extern "C"
 void doit(X *ptr, int arg);
```

It is possible to "wrap" the call to the assembler routine in a member function. Using an inline member function removes the overhead of the extra call—provided that function inlining is enabled:

```
class X
public:
 inline void doit(int arg) { ::doit(this, arg); }
```

**Note:** Support for C++ names from assembler code is extremely limited. This means that:

• Assembler list files resulting from compiling C++ files cannot, in general, be passed through the assembler.

It is not possible to refer to or define C++ functions that do not have C linkage in assembler.

# **Calling convention**

A calling convention is the way a function in a program calls another function. The compiler handles this automatically, but, if a function is written in assembler language, you must know where and how its parameters can be found, how to return to the program location from where it was called, and how to return the resulting value.

It is also important to know which registers an assembler-level routine must preserve. If the program preserves too many registers, the program might be ineffective. If it preserves too few registers, the result would be an incorrect program.

This section describes the calling convention used by the compiler. These items are examined:

Function declarations

77

- C and C++ linkage
- Preserved versus scratch registers
- Function entrance
- Function exit
- Return address handling.

At the end of the section, some examples are shown to describe the calling convention in practice.

### **FUNCTION DECLARATIONS**

In C, a function must be declared in order for the compiler to know how to call it. A declaration could look as follows:

```
int a_function(int first, char * second);
```

This means that the function takes two parameters: an integer and a pointer to a character. The function returns a value, an integer.

In the general case, this is the only knowledge that the compiler has about a function. Therefore, it must be able to deduce the calling convention from this information.

#### **USING C LINKAGE IN C++ SOURCE CODE**

In C++, a function can have either C or C++ linkage. To call assembler routines from C++, it is easiest if you make the C++ function have C linkage.

This is an example of a declaration of a function with C linkage:

```
extern "C"
{
   int f(int);
}
```

It is often practical to share header files between C and C++. This is an example of a declaration that declares a function with C linkage in both C and C++:

```
#ifdef __cplusplus
extern "C"
{
#endif
   int f(int);
#ifdef __cplusplus
}
#endif
```

## PRESERVED VERSUS SCRATCH REGISTERS

The general R32C/100 CPU registers are divided into three separate sets, which are described in this section.

## Scratch registers

Any function is permitted to destroy the contents of a scratch register. If a function needs the register value after a call to another function, it must store it during the call, for example on the stack.

The registers R2R0 and A0, as well any registers used for parameters (for instance R3R1, R7R5, A1, and A2), can be used as scratch registers by the function.

## **Preserved registers**

Preserved registers, on the other hand, are preserved across function calls. The called function can use the register for other purposes, but must save the value before using the register and restore it at the exit of the function.

The registers R6R4 and A3 are preserved registers, and all non-parameter registers except for R2R0 and A0.

# Special registers

For some registers, you must consider certain prerequisites:

- The stack pointer register must at all times point to or below the last element on the stack. In the eventuality of an interrupt, everything below the point the stack pointer points to, will be destroyed.
- The frame pointer register FB must be restored before returning from the function.
- The SB register (points to an area of data that is addressed with indexed addressing modes) must never be changed. In the eventuality of an interrupt, the register must have a specific value.

#### **FUNCTION ENTRANCE**

Parameters can be passed to a function using one of two basic methods: in registers or on the stack. It is much more efficient to use registers than to take a detour via memory, so the calling convention is designed to use registers as much as possible. Only a limited number of registers can be used for passing parameters; when no more registers are available, the remaining parameters are passed on the stack. The parameters are also passed on the stack in these cases:

Structure types: struct, union, and classes

 Unnamed parameters to variable length (variadic) functions; in other words, functions declared as foo(param1, ...), for example printf.

**Note:** Interrupt functions cannot take any parameters.

## Hidden parameters

In addition to the parameters visible in a function declaration and definition, there can be hidden parameters:

If the function returns a structure, the memory location where the structure will be stored is passed in the register A0 as a hidden parameter.

## Register parameters

The registers available for passing parameters are R0-R3, R5, R7, and A0-A2.

Parameters	Passed in registers
8-bit values	ROL, ROH, R2L, R2H, R1L, R1H, R3L, R3H
16-bit values	R0, R2, R1, R3, R5, R7
32-bit values	R2R0, R3R1, R7R5, A0, A1, A2
32-bit values (pointer)	A0, A1, A2
64-bit values	R3R1R2R0, A1A0

Table 24: Registers used for passing parameters

The assignment of registers to parameters is a straightforward process. Traversing the parameters in strict order from left to right, the first parameter is assigned to the available register or registers. Should there be no suitable register of the appropriate size available, the parameter is passed on the stack.

The registers are selected in the order given in Table 24, *Registers used for passing parameters*.

For example, the two functions g and h both take two int's, four char's and a short parameter.

```
void g(int,int,char,char,char,char,short);
void h(char,char,char,char,short,int,int);
```

When the first two parameters of the function g have been allocated (to R2R0 and R3R1 respectively), there are no remaining 8-bit registers for passing the char parameters, which will be passed on the stack. Register R5 is still free though, so the short parameter will be passed in R5.

The function h on the other hand, will pass the char parameters in registers ROL, ROH, R2L, and R2H. Because there are many parameter registers left, all parameters can be

passed in registers. The short parameter goes into R1, and the two int parameters in R7R5 and A0.

Both functions have the same types and number of parameters, but h will be significantly more efficient because all parameters are passed in registers. The function g will also use 16 bytes of stack space for passing the  ${\tt char}$  parameters, whereas function h does not need stack parameters.

#### Stack parameters and layout

Stack parameters are stored in the main memory, starting at the location pointed to by the stack pointer. Below the stack pointer (toward low memory) there is free space that the called function can use. The first stack parameter is stored at the location pointed to by the stack pointer. The next one is stored at the next location on the stack that is divisible by four, etc.

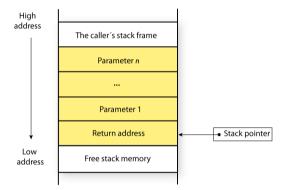


Figure 4: Stack image after the function call

And this is what the stack looks like when the execution has reached the first statement in the function:

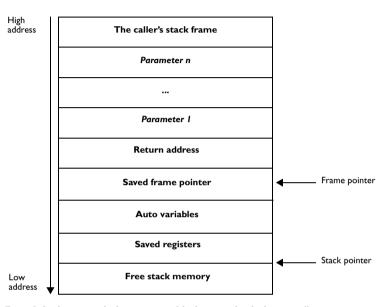


Figure 5: Stack image on the first statement of the function, after the function call

#### Aligning the function entry point

The runtime performance of a function depends on the entry address assigned by the linker. To make the function execution time less dependent on the entry address, the alignment of the function entry point can be specified explicitly using a compiler option, see *--align\_func*, page 130. A higher alignment does not necessarily make the function faster, but the execution time will be more predictable.

#### **FUNCTION EXIT**

A function can return a value to the function or program that called it, or it can have the return type void.

The return value of a function, if any, can be scalar (such as integers and pointers), floating-point, or a structure.

#### Registers used for returning values

These are the registers available for returning values:

Return values	Returned in registers	
8-bit values	ROL	
16-bit values	RO	
32-bit values	R2R0 (scalar) A0 (pointer)	
64-bit values	R3R1R2R0	
struct values	implicit pointer in A0	

Table 25: Registers used for returning values

#### Stack layout at function exit

It is the responsibility of the caller to clean the stack after the called function returns, by adjusting the stack pointer.

#### Return address handling

A function written in assembler language should, when finished, return to the caller. At a function call, the return address is stored on the stack.

Typically, a function returns by using the RTS instruction or the EXITD instruction if the FB register is used for stack accesses. Interrupt functions return by using the REIT or EXITI instructions, respectively, and fast interrupt functions (declared using the \_\_fast\_interrupt keyword) return by using the FREIT instruction.

#### **RESTRICTIONS FOR SPECIAL FUNCTION TYPES**

Functions declared \_\_monitor save the status register together with the saved registers. Functions declared \_\_interrupt save all used registers. Functions declared \_\_task do not save any registers.

#### **EXAMPLES**

The following section shows a series of declaration examples and the corresponding calling conventions. The complexity of the examples increases toward the end.

#### Example I

Assume this function declaration:

```
int add1(int);
```

This function takes one parameter in the register R2R0, and the return value is passed back to its caller in the register R2R0.

This assembler routine is compatible with the declaration; it will return a value that is one number higher than the value of its parameter:

```
ADD.L #1,R2R0
```

#### Example 2

This example shows how structures are passed on the stack. Assume these declarations:

```
struct a_struct { int a; };
int a_function(struct a_struct x, int y);
```

The calling function must reserve 4 bytes on the top of the stack and copy the contents of the struct to that location. The integer parameter y is passed in the register R2R0. The return value is passed back to its caller in the register R2R0.

#### Example 3

The function below will return a struct.

```
struct a_struct { int a; };
struct a_struct a_function(int x);
```

It is the responsibility of the calling function to allocate a memory location for the return value and pass a pointer to it as a hidden first parameter. The pointer to the location where the return value should be stored is passed in A0. The parameter x is passed in R2R0.

Assume that the function instead was declared to return a pointer to the structure:

```
struct a_struct * a_function(int x);
```

In this case, the return value is a scalar, so there is no hidden parameter. The parameter x is passed in R2R0, and the return value is returned in A0.

#### **FUNCTION DIRECTIVES**

**Note:** This type of directive is primarily intended to support static overlay, a feature which is useful in some smaller microcontrollers. The IAR C/C++ Compiler for R32C does not use static overlay, because it has no use for it.

The function directives FUNCTION, ARGFRAME, LOCFRAME, and FUNCALL are generated by the compiler to pass information about functions and function calls to the IAR XLINK Linker. These directives can be seen if you use the compiler option **Assembler file** (-1A) to create an assembler list file.

For reference information about the function directives, see the R32C IAR Assembler Reference Guide.

# **Calling functions**

In this section, we describe how functions are called in the different code models.

Functions can be called in two fundamentally different ways—directly or via a function pointer. For each code model, we will discuss how both types of calls will be performed.

# ASSEMBLER INSTRUCTIONS USED FOR CALLING FUNCTIONS

This section presents the assembler instructions that can be used for calling and returning from functions on the R32C/100 microcomputer. In the following sections we will see how the different code models use these instructions to call code.

The normal function calling instruction is the  $\ensuremath{\mathtt{JSR}}$  instruction:

```
JSR.A label:24
```

The location that the called function should return to (that is, the location immediately after this instruction) is stored on the stack.

The destination label must not be further away than 8 Mbytes. Larger jumps can be made with the JSRI instruction.

```
MOV.L #1abe1:32,A0 JSRI.L A0
```

#### Far code model

A direct call using this code model is simply:

```
JSR.A function:24
```

The JSR instruction can only reach  $\pm$  8 Mbytes.

When a function returns control to the caller, the RTS instruction is used if no auto variables were pushed at function entry and the EXITD instruction is used if auto variables were saved at function entry.

When a function call is made via a function pointer, this code will be generated:

```
JSRI.L function_pointer:24 ; Location of function pointer
```

Calls via a function pointer reach the whole 32-bit address space.

#### Huge code model

In the Huge code model, a function generates an indirect call. This example shows a simple call to the function *func*:

```
MOV.L #func:32,A0
JSRI.L A0
```

Returning from a function and assigning a function pointer work as in the Far code model.

## Memory access methods

This section describes the different memory types presented in the chapter *Data storage*. In addition to just presenting the assembler code used for accessing data, it will be used for explaining the reason behind the different memory types.

You should be familiar with the R32C/100 instruction set, in particular the different addressing modes used by the instructions that can access memory.

The IAR Assembler for R32C uses the convention that the size of a memory address is controlled by use of the suffixes :8, :16, and :24. For example:

Suffix	Size	Instruction example
:8	I byte	MOV.L -8:8[FB],R2R0
:16	2 bytes	MOV.L foo:16[FB],R2R0
:24	3 bytes	MOV.L bar:24,R2R0

Table 26: Specifying the size of a memory address in assembler instructions

For each of the access methods described in the following sections, there are three examples:

- Accessing a global variable
- Accessing a global array using an unknown index
- Accessing a structure using a pointer.

These three examples can be illustrated by this C program:

```
char x;
char y[10];
struct s
{
   long a;
   char b;
};
```

```
char test(int i, struct s * p)
{
   return x + y[i] + p->b;
}
```

#### THE DATA16 MEMORY ACCESS METHOD

Data16 memory is located in the lowest and highest 32 Kbytes of memory. This is the only memory type that can be accessed using 16-bit addresses.

#### Examples

These examples access data16 memory in different ways:

```
MOV.B:S x:16,R0L Access the global variable x ADD.B y:16[A1],R0L Access an entry in the global array y ADD.B 0x4:8[A0],R0L Access through a pointer
```

#### THE DATA24 MEMORY ACCESS METHOD

The first 8 Mbytes of memory can be accessed using 3-byte addresses.

#### Examples

These examples access data24 memory in different ways:

```
MOV.B x:24, R0L Access the global variable x ADD.B y:24[A1], R0L Access an entry in the global array y ADD.B 0x4:8[A0], R0L Access through a pointer
```

#### THE DATA32 MEMORY ACCESS METHOD

The data32 memory access method can access the entire memory range. The drawback of this access method is that only a few of the addressing modes can be used. This can result in larger and slower code compared with code accessing other types of data.

#### Examples

These examples access data32 memory in different ways:

MOV.L MOV.B	<pre>#x:32,A1 [A1],R0L</pre>	Access the global variable x
MOV.L INDEX1.L	#y:32,A1	Access an entry in the global array $_{\mathrm{Y}}$
ADD.B	[A1],R0L	

ADD.B 0x4:8[A0], R0L Access through a pointer

#### THE SBDATA16 MEMORY ACCESS METHOD

Sbdata16 memory is addressed relative to the SB register. An address in this memory is a 2-byte unsigned offset to the base address in the SB register. The start of the Sbdata area is marked by the SBREF symbol, defined in the linker command file.

#### Examples

This example accesses sbdata16 memory:

MOV.L x-SBREF:16[SB], R2R0 Accesses the \_\_sbdata16 variable x

#### THE SBDATA24 MEMORY ACCESS METHOD

Sbdata24 memory is addressed relative to the SB register. An address in this memory is a 3-byte unsigned offset to the base address in the SB register. The start of the Sbdata area is marked by the SBREF symbol, defined in the linker command file.

#### Examples

This example accesses sbdata24 memory:

MOV.L y-SBREF: 24[SB], A0 Accesses the \_\_sbdata24 variable y

### **Call frame information**

When debugging an application using C-SPY, it is possible to view the *call stack*, that is, the chain of functions that called the current function. To make this possible, the compiler supplies debug information that describes the layout of the call frame, in particular information about where the return address is stored.

If you want the call stack to be available when debugging a routine written in assembler language, you must supply equivalent debug information in your assembler source using the assembler directive CFI. This directive is described in detail in the *R32C IAR Assembler Reference Guide*.

The CFI directives will provide C-SPY with information about the state of the calling function(s). Most important of this is the return address, and the value of the stack pointer at the entry of the function or assembler routine. Given this information, C-SPY can reconstruct the state for the calling function, and thereby unwind the stack.

A full description about the calling convention might require extensive call frame information. In many cases, a more limited approach will suffice.

When describing the call frame information, the following three components must be present:

- A names block describing the available resources to be tracked
- A common block corresponding to the calling convention
- A data block describing the changes that are performed on the call frame. This
  typically includes information about when the stack pointer is changed, and when
  permanent registers are stored or restored on the stack.

This table lists all the resources defined in the names block used by the compiler:

Resource	Description
CFA_SP	The call frame of the stack
R4-R7, R0L-R3L, R0H-R3H	General purpose data registers
A0-A3	General purpose address registers
?RET32	The return address
SB	The static base register
FB	The frame base register
FLG	The flag register
SP	The active stack pointer (USB or ISB depending on the ${\tt FLG}$ register U bit)
ISP	The interrupt stack pointer

Table 27: Call frame information resources defined in a names block

#### Example

#include "cfi.m53"

The header file cfi.m53 contains the macros XCFI\_NAMES and XCFI\_COMMON, which declare a typical names block and a typical common block. These two macros declare several resources, both concrete and virtual.

This is an example of an assembler routine that stores a permanent register and the return register to the stack:

```
XCFI_NAMES myNames
XCFI_COMMON myCommon, myNames
MODULE cfiexample
```

PUBLIC

RSEG CODE24:CODE:NOROOT

cfiexample

```
CFI
                        Block myBlock Using myCommon
            CFI
                        Function 'cfiexample'
            // The common block does not declare the scratch
            // registers as undefined.
            CFI
                        ROL Undefined
                        ROH Undefined
                        R2L Undefined
                        R2H Undefined
cfiexample:
            PUSHM
                        R3R1
            CFI
                        ?RET32 Frame(CFA_SP, -4)
            CFI
                        R3R1 Frame (CFA_SP, -8)
            CFI
                        CFA_SP SP+8
            // Do something useless just to demonstrate the
            // call stack.
            MOV.L
                        #0, R3R1
            MOV.L
                         #0, R2R0
            POPM
                        R3R1
                        ?RET32 RA
            CFI
            CFI
                        R3R1 SameValue
            CFI
                        CFA_SP SP
            // Do something else.
            MOV.L
                        #0, R2R0
            RTS
            CFI
                        ENDBLOCK myBlock
            ENDMOD
            END
```

# Using C++

IAR Systems supports two levels of the C++ language: The industry-standard Embedded C++ and IAR Extended Embedded C++. They are described in this chapter.

#### **Overview**

Embedded C++ is a subset of the C++ programming language which is intended for embedded systems programming. It was defined by an industry consortium, the Embedded C++ Technical Committee. Performance and portability are particularly important in embedded systems development, which was considered when defining the language.

#### STANDARD EMBEDDED C++

The following C++ features are supported:

- Classes, which are user-defined types that incorporate both data structure and behavior; the essential feature of inheritance allows data structure and behavior to be shared among classes
- Polymorphism, which means that an operation can behave differently on different classes, is provided by virtual functions
- Overloading of operators and function names, which allows several operators or functions with the same name, provided that their argument lists are sufficiently different
- Type-safe memory management using the operators new and delete
- Inline functions, which are indicated as particularly suitable for inline expansion.

C++ features that are excluded are those that introduce overhead in execution time or code size that are beyond the control of the programmer. Also excluded are recent additions to the ISO/ANSI C++ standard. This is because they represent potential portability problems, due to that few development tools support the standard. Embedded C++ thus offers a subset of C++ which is efficient and fully supported by existing development tools.

Standard Embedded C++ lacks these features of C++:

- Templates
- Multiple and virtual inheritance
- Exception handling

- Runtime type information
- New cast syntax (the operators dynamic\_cast, static\_cast, reinterpret\_cast, and const\_cast)
- Namespaces
- The mutable attribute.

The exclusion of these language features makes the runtime library significantly more efficient. The Embedded C++ library furthermore differs from the full C++ library in that:

- The standard template library (STL) is excluded
- Streams, strings, and complex numbers are supported without the use of templates
- Library features which relate to exception handling and runtime type information (the headers except, stdexcept, and typeinfo) are excluded.

**Note:** The library is not in the std namespace, because Embedded C++ does not support namespaces.

#### **EXTENDED EMBEDDED C++**

IAR Systems' Extended EC++ is a slightly larger subset of C++ which adds these features to the standard EC++:

- Full template support
- Namespace support
- The mutable attribute
- The cast operators static\_cast, const\_cast, and reinterpret\_cast.

All these added features conform to the C++ standard.

To support Extended EC++, this product includes a version of the standard template library (STL), in other words, the C++ standard chapters utilities, containers, iterators, algorithms, and some numerics. This STL is tailored for use with the Extended EC++ language, which means no exceptions, no multiple inheritance, and no support for runtime type information (rtti). Moreover, the library is not in the std namespace.

**Note:** A module compiled with Extended EC++ enabled is fully link-compatible with a module compiled without Extended EC++ enabled.

#### **ENABLING C++ SUPPORT**



In the compiler, the default language is C. To be able to compile files written in Embedded C++, you must use the --ec++ compiler option. See --ec++, page 137.

To take advantage of *Extended* Embedded C++ features in your source code, you must use the --eec++ compiler option. See --eec++, page 138.



To set the equivalent option in the IDE, choose **Project>Options>**C/C++ **Compiler>Language**.

# **Feature descriptions**

When you write C++ source code for the IAR C/C++ Compiler for R32C, you must be aware of some benefits and some possible quirks when mixing C++ features—such as classes, and class members—with IAR language extensions, such as IAR-specific attributes.

#### **CLASSES**

A class type class and struct in C++ can have static and non-static data members, and static and non-static function members. The non-static function members can be further divided into virtual function members, non-virtual function members, constructors, and destructors. For the static data members, static function members, and non-static non-virtual function members the same rules apply as for statically linked symbols outside of a class. In other words, they can have any applicable IAR-specific type, memory, and object attribute.

The non-static virtual function members can have any applicable IAR-specific type, memory, and object attribute as long as a pointer to the member function can be implicitly converted to the default function pointer type. The constructors, destructors, and non-static data members cannot have any IAR attributes.

The location operator @ can be used on static data members and on any type of function members.

For further information about attributes, see *Type qualifiers*, page 161.

#### Example

#### The this pointer

The this pointer used for referring to a class object or calling a member function of a class object will by default have the data memory attribute for the default data pointer type. This means that such a class object can only be defined to reside in memory from which pointers can be implicitly converted to a default data pointer. This restriction might also apply to objects residing on a stack, for example temporary objects and auto objects.

#### Example

```
class B {
  public:
    void f();
    int i;
};
```

#### **FUNCTIONS**

A function with extern "C" linkage is compatible with a function that has C++ linkage.

#### Example

```
extern "C" {
  typedef void (*fpC)(void); // A C function typedef
}
void (*fpCpp)(void); // A C++ function typedef

fpC f1;
fpCpp f2;
void f(fpC);

f(f1); // Always works
f(f2); // fpCpp is compatible with fpC
```

#### **TEMPLATES**

Extended EC++ supports templates according to the C++ standard, except for the support of the export keyword. The implementation uses a two-phase lookup which means that the keyword typename must be inserted wherever needed. Furthermore, at each use of a template, the definitions of all possible templates must be visible. This means that the definitions of all templates must be in include files or in the actual source file.

#### The standard template library

The STL (standard template library) delivered with the product is tailored for Extended EC++, as described in *Extended Embedded C*++, page 92.

#### STL and the IAR C-SPY® Debugger



C-SPY has built-in display support for the STL containers. The logical structure of containers is presented in the watch views in a comprehensive way that is easy to understand and follow.

**Note:** To be able to watch STL containers with many elements in a comprehensive way, the **STL container expansion** option—available by choosing **Tools>Options>Debugger**—is set to display only a few items at first.

#### **VARIANTS OF CASTS**

In Extended EC++ these additional C++ cast variants can be used:

```
const_cast<t2>(t)
static_cast<t2>(t)
reinterpret_cast<t2>(t)
```

#### **MUTABLE**

The mutable attribute is supported in Extended EC++. A mutable symbol can be changed even though the whole class object is const.

#### **NAMESPACE**

The namespace feature is only supported in *Extended* EC++. This means that you can use namespaces to partition your code. Note, however, that the library itself is not placed in the std namespace.

#### THE STD NAMESPACE

The std namespace is not used in either standard EC++ or in Extended EC++. If you have code that refers to symbols in the std namespace, simply define std as nothing; for example:

#define std // Nothing here

#### **USING INTERRUPTS AND EC++ DESTRUCTORS**

If interrupts are enabled and the interrupt functions use class objects that have destructors, there might be problems if the program exits either by using exit or by returning from main. If an interrupt occurs after an object was destroyed, there is no guarantee that the program will work properly.

To avoid this, make sure that interrupts are disabled when returning from main or when calling exit or abort.

To avoid interrupts, place a call to the intrinsic function <code>\_\_disable\_interrupt</code> before the call to <code>\_exit</code>.

## C++ language extensions

When you use the compiler in C++ mode and enable IAR language extensions, the following C++ language extensions are available in the compiler:

• In a friend declaration of a class, the class keyword can be omitted, for example:

• Constants of a scalar type can be defined within classes, for example:

According to the standard, initialized static data members should be used instead.

• In the declaration of a class member, a qualified name can be used, for example:

```
struct A {
  int A::f(); //Possible when using IAR language extensions
  int f(); //According to standard
};
```

It is permitted to use an implicit type conversion between a pointer to a function
with C linkage (extern "C") and a pointer to a function with C++ linkage
(extern "C++"), for example:

According to the standard, the pointer must be explicitly converted.

• If the second or third operands in a construction that contains the ? operator are string literals or wide string literals (which in C++ are constants), the operands can be implicitly converted to char \* or wchar\_t \*, for example:

- Default arguments can be specified for function parameters not only in the top-level function declaration, which is according to the standard, but also in typedef declarations, in pointer-to-function function declarations, and in pointer-to-member function declarations.
- In a function that contains a non-static local variable and a class that contains a non-evaluated expression (for example a sizeof expression), the expression can reference the non-static local variable. However, a warning is issued.

**Note:** If you use any of these constructions without first enabling language extensions, errors are issued.

C++ language extensions

# Efficient coding for embedded applications

For embedded systems, the size of the generated code and data is very important, because using smaller external memory or on-chip memory can significantly decrease the cost and power consumption of a system.

The topics discussed are:

- Selecting data types
- Controlling data and function placement in memory
- Controlling compiler optimizations
- Writing efficient code.

As a part of this, the chapter also demonstrates some of the more common mistakes and how to avoid them, and gives a catalog of good coding techniques.

# Selecting data types

For efficient treatment of data, you should consider the data types used and the most efficient placement of the variables.

#### **USING EFFICIENT DATA TYPES**

The data types you use should be considered carefully, because this can have a large impact on code size and code speed.

- Use unsigned data types, (unsigned char and unsigned short) unless your application really requires signed values. This applies especially to loop variables.
- Try to avoid 64-bit data types, such as 64-bit double and long long.
- Bitfields with sizes other than 1 bit should be avoided because they will result in inefficient code compared to bit operations.
- Declaring a pointer to const data tells the calling function that the data pointed to will not change, which opens for better optimizations.

For details about representation of supported data types, pointers, and structures types, see the chapter *Data representation*.

#### **FLOATING-POINT TYPES**

Using floating-point types on a microprocessor without a floating-point unit is very inefficient, both in terms of code size and execution speed. The compiler supports two floating-point formats—32 and 64 bits. The 32-bit floating-point type float is more efficient in terms of code size and execution speed. However, the 64-bit format double supports higher precision and larger numbers.

For target devices equipped with a floating-point unit, you have two options with regard to 32-bit floating-point numbers: using the FPU's own floating-point instructions, which do not comply fully with the IEEE-754 standard, or using library functions that are standards-compliant but slower. See *Floating-point implementation*, page 64.

If available, use the FPU's own floating-point instructions unless you absolutely cannot manage without support for Infinity and NaN.

In the IAR C/C++ Compiler for R32C, the floating-point type float always uses the 32-bit format. The format used by the double floating-point type depends on the setting of the Size of type 'double' compiler option.

Unless the application requires the extra precision that 64-bit floating-point numbers give, we recommend using 32-bit floats instead.

Note that a floating-point constant in the source code is treated as being of the type double. This can cause innocent-looking expressions to be evaluated in double precision. In the example below a is converted from a float to a double, 1 is added and the result is converted back to a float:

```
float test(float a)
{
    return a + 1.0;
}
```

To treat a floating-point constant as a float rather than as a double, add an f to it, for example:

```
float test(float a)
{
    return a + 1.0f;
}
```

#### **CASTING A FLOATING-POINT VALUE TO AN INTEGER**

If you want the result of casting a float to an int to be a rounded value instead of a truncated value, use the intrinsic function \_\_ROUND to insert a ROUND instruction directly into the code. See \_\_ROUND, page 206.

#### **ALIGNMENT OF ELEMENTS IN A STRUCTURE**

The R32C/100 microcomputer requires that data in memory must be aligned. Each element in a structure must be aligned according to its specified type requirements. This means that the compiler might need to insert *pad bytes* to keep the alignment correct.

There are two reasons why this can be considered a problem:

- Due to external demands; for example, network communication protocols are usually specified in terms of data types with no padding in between
- You need to save data memory.

For information about alignment requirements, see *Alignment*, page 153.

There are two ways to solve the problem:

- Use the #pragma pack directive or the \_\_packed data type attribute for a tighter layout of the structure. The drawback is that each access to an unaligned element in the structure becomes slower.
- Write your own customized functions for packing and unpacking structures. This is
  a more portable way, which will not produce any more code apart from your
  functions. The drawback is the need for two views on the structure data—packed
  and unpacked.

For further details about the #pragma pack directive, see pack, page 194.

#### **ANONYMOUS STRUCTS AND UNIONS**

When a structure or union is declared without a name, it becomes anonymous. The effect is that its members will only be seen in the surrounding scope.

Anonymous structures are part of the C++ language; however, they are not part of the C standard. In the IAR C/C++ Compiler for R32C they can be used in C if language extensions are enabled.



In the IDE, language extensions are enabled by default.



Use the -e compiler option to enable language extensions. See -e, page 137, for additional information.

#### Example

In this example, the members in the anonymous union can be accessed, in function f, without explicitly specifying the union name:

```
struct s
{
    char tag;
    union
    {
        long l;
        float f;
    };
} st;

void f(void)
{
    st.l = 5;
}
```

The member names must be unique in the surrounding scope. Having an anonymous struct or union at file scope, as a global, external, or static variable is also allowed. This could for instance be used for declaring I/O registers, as in this example:

```
__no_init volatile
union
{
  unsigned char IOPORT;
  struct
  {
    unsigned char way: 1;
    unsigned char out: 1;
  };
} @ address;
```

This declares an I/O register byte IOPORT at address. The I/O register has 2 bits declared, way and out. Note that both the inner structure and the outer union are anonymous.

This example illustrates how variables declared this way can be used:

```
void test(void)
{
    IOPORT = 0;
    way = 1;
    out = 1;
}
```

Anonymous structures and unions are implemented in terms of objects named after the first field, with a prefix \_A\_ to place the name in the implementation part of the

namespace. In this example, the anonymous union will be implemented through an object named \_A\_IOPORT.

# Controlling data and function placement in memory

The compiler provides different mechanisms for controlling placement of functions and data objects in memory. To use memory efficiently, you should be familiar with these mechanisms to know which one is best suited for different situations. You can use:

#### Code and data models

Use the different compiler options for code and data models, respectively, to take advantage of the different addressing modes available for the microcomputer and thereby also place functions and data objects in different parts of memory. To read more about data and code models, see *Data models*, page 12, and *Code models and memory attributes for function storage*, page 21, respectively.

#### Memory attributes

Use memory attributes to override the default addressing mode and placement of individual functions and data objects. To read more about memory attributes for data and functions, see *Using data memory attributes*, page 14, and *Using function memory attributes*, page 22, respectively.

- The @ operator and the #pragma location directive for absolute placement

  Use the @ operator or the #pragma location directive to place individual global and static variables at absolute addresses. The variables must be declared either \_\_no\_init or const. This is useful for individual data objects that must be located at a fixed address, for example variables with external requirements, or for populating any hardware tables similar to interrupt vector tables. Note that it is not possible to use this notation for absolute placement of individual functions.
- The @ operator and the #pragma location directive for segment placement

  Use the @ operator or the #pragma location directive to place groups of functions or global and static variables in named segments, without having explicit control of each object. The variables must be declared either \_\_no\_init or const. The segments can, for example, be placed in specific areas of memory, or initialized or copied in controlled ways using the segment begin and end operators. This is also useful if you want an interface between separately linked units, for example an application project and a boot loader project. Use named segments when absolute control over the placement of individual variables is not needed, or not useful.

At compile time, data and functions are placed in different segments as described in *Data segments*, page 31, and *Code segments*, page 37, respectively. At link time, one of the most important functions of the linker is to assign load addresses to the various segments used by the application. All segments, except for the segments holding

absolute located data, are automatically allocated to memory according to the specifications of memory ranges in the linker command file, as described in *Placing segments in memory*, page 28.

#### DATA PLACEMENT AT AN ABSOLUTE LOCATION

The @ operator, alternatively the #pragma location directive, can be used for placing global and static variables at absolute addresses. The variables must be declared using one of these combinations of keywords:

- \_\_no\_init
- no init and const (without initializers)
- const (with initializers).

To place a variable at an absolute address, the argument to the @ operator and the #pragma location directive should be a literal number, representing the actual address.

**Note:** A variable placed in an absolute location should be defined in an include file, to be included in every module that uses the variable. An unused definition in a module will be ignored. A normal extern declaration—one that does not use an absolute placement directive—can refer to a variable at an absolute address; however, optimizations based on the knowledge of the absolute address cannot be performed.

#### **Examples**

In this example, a \_\_no\_init declared variable is placed at an absolute address. This is useful for interfacing between multiple processes, applications, etc:

```
__no_init volatile char alpha @ 0x2000;/* OK */
```

These examples contain two const declared objects. The first one is not initialized, and the second one is initialized to a specific value. Both objects are placed in ROM. This is useful for configuration parameters, which are accessible from an external interface. Note that in the second case, the compiler is not obliged to actually read from the variable, because the value is known.

In the first case, the value is not initialized by the compiler; the value must be set by other means. The typical use is for configurations where the values are loaded to ROM separately, or for special function registers that are read-only.

These examples show incorrect usage:

#### C++ considerations

In C++, module scoped const variables are static (module local), whereas in C they are global. This means that each module that declares a certain const variable will contain a separate variable with this name. If you link an application with several such modules all containing (via a header file), for instance, the declaration:

```
volatile const __no_init int x @ 0x100; /* Bad in C++ */
```

the linker will report that more than one variable is located at address 0x100.

To avoid this problem and make the process the same in C and C++, you should declare these variables extern, for example:

```
extern volatile const \_no\_init int x @ 0x100; /* the extern /* keyword makes x public */
```

**Note:** C++ static member variables can be placed at an absolute address just like any other static variable.

#### **DATA AND FUNCTION PLACEMENT IN SEGMENTS**

The @ operator, alternatively the #pragma location directive, can be used for placing individual variables or individual functions in named segments. The named segment can either be a predefined segment, or a user-defined segment. The variables must be declared either \_\_no\_init or const. If declared const, they can have initializers.

C++ static member variables can be placed in named segments just like any other static variable.

If you use your own segments, in addition to the predefined segments, the segments must also be defined in the linker command file using the -Z or the -P segment control directives.

**Note:** Take care when explicitly placing a variable or function in a predefined segment other than the one used by default. This is useful in some situations, but incorrect placement can result in anything from error messages during compilation and linking to a malfunctioning application. Carefully consider the circumstances; there might be strict requirements on the declaration and use of the function or variable.

The location of the segments can be controlled from the linker command file.

For more information about segments, see the chapter Segment reference.

#### Examples of placing variables in named segments

In the following three examples, a data object is placed in a user-defined segment. The segment will be allocated in default memory depending on the used data model.

```
__no_init int alpha @ "NOINIT"; /* OK */

#pragma location="CONSTANTS"

const int beta; /* OK */

const int gamma @ "CONSTANTS" = 3; /* OK */
```

To override the default segment allocation, you can explicitly specify a memory attribute other than the default:

#### **Examples of placing functions in named segments**

```
void f(void) @ "FUNCTIONS";

void g(void) @ "FUNCTIONS"
{
}

#pragma location="FUNCTIONS"
void h(void);
```

To override the default segment allocation, you can explicitly specify a memory attribute other than the default:

```
__code32 void f(void) @ "FUNCTIONS";
```

# **Controlling compiler optimizations**

The compiler performs many transformations on your application to generate the best possible code. Examples of such transformations are storing values in registers instead of memory, removing superfluous code, reordering computations in a more efficient order, and replacing arithmetic operations by cheaper operations.

The linker should also be considered an integral part of the compilation system, because some optimizations are performed by the linker. For instance, all unused functions and variables are removed and not included in the final output.

#### SCOPE FOR PERFORMED OPTIMIZATIONS

You can decide whether optimizations should be performed on your whole application or on individual files. By default, the same types of optimizations are used for an entire project, but you should consider using different optimization settings for individual files. For example, put code that must execute very quickly into a separate file and compile it for minimal execution time, and the rest of the code for minimal code size. This will give a small program, which is still fast enough where it matters.

You can also exclude individual functions from the performed optimizations. The #pragma optimize directive allows you to either lower the optimization level, or specify another type of optimization to be performed. Refer to *optimize*, page 193, for information about the pragma directive.

#### Multi-file compilation units

In addition to applying different optimizations to different source files or even functions, you can also decide what a compilation unit consists of—one or several source code files.

By default, a compilation unit consists of one source file, but you can also use multi-file compilation to make several source files in a compilation unit. The advantage is that interprocedural optimizations such as inlining, cross call, and cross jump have more source code to work on. Ideally, the whole application should be compiled as one compilation unit. However, for large applications this is not practical because of resource restrictions on the host computer. For more information, see --mfc, page 141.

If the whole application is compiled as one compilation unit, it is very useful to make the compiler also discard unused public functions and variables before the interprocedural optimizations are performed. Doing this limits the scope of the optimizations to functions and variables that are actually used. For more information, see *--discard unused publics*, page 136.

#### **OPTIMIZATION LEVELS**

The compiler supports different levels of optimizations. This table lists the optimizations that are performed on each level:

Optimization level	Description
None (Best debug support)	Variables live through their entire scope

Table 28: Compiler optimization levels

Optimization level	Description
Low	Dead code elimination
	Redundant label elimination
	Redundant branch elimination
Medium	Same as above
	Live-dead analysis and optimization
	Code hoisting
	Register content analysis and optimization
	Constant propagation
	Constant elimination
	Common subexpression elimination
High (Balanced)	Same as above
	Peephole optimization
	Cross jumping
	Memory contents tracking
	Copy propagation
	Cross call (when optimizing for size)
	Loop unrolling
	Function inlining
	Code motion
	Type-based alias analysis

Table 28: Compiler optimization levels (Continued)

**Note:** Some of the performed optimizations can be individually enabled or disabled. For more information about these, see *Fine-tuning enabled transformations*, page 109.

A high level of optimization might result in increased compile time, and will most likely also make debugging more difficult, because it is less clear how the generated code relates to the source code. For example, at the low, medium, and high optimization levels, variables do not live through their entire scope, which means processor registers used for storing variables can be reused immediately after they were last used. Due to this, the C-SPY Watch window might not be able to display the value of the variable throughout its scope. At any time, if you experience difficulties when debugging your code, try lowering the optimization level.

#### **SPEED VERSUS SIZE**

At the high optimization level, the compiler balances between size and speed optimizations. However, it is possible to fine-tune the optimizations explicitly for either size or speed. They only differ in what thresholds that are used; speed will trade size for speed, whereas size will trade speed for size. Note that one optimization sometimes enables other optimizations to be performed, and an application might in some cases become smaller even when optimizing for speed rather than size.

#### FINE-TUNING ENABLED TRANSFORMATIONS

At each optimization level you can disable some of the transformations individually. To disable a transformation, use either the appropriate option, for instance the command line option --no\_inline, alternatively its equivalent in the IDE **Function inlining**, or the #pragma optimize directive. These transformations can be disabled individually:

- Common subexpression elimination
- Loop unrolling
- Function inlining
- Code motion
- Type-based alias analysis
- · Cross call.

#### Common subexpression elimination

Redundant re-evaluation of common subexpressions is by default eliminated at optimization levels **Medium** and **High**. This optimization normally reduces both code size and execution time. However, the resulting code might be difficult to debug.

**Note:** This option has no effect at optimization levels **None** and **Low**.

To read more about the command line option, see --no cse, page 143.

#### Loop unrolling

It is possible to duplicate the loop body of a small loop, whose number of iterations can be determined at compile time, to reduce the loop overhead.

This optimization, which can be performed at optimization level **High**, normally reduces execution time, but increases code size. The resulting code might also be difficult to debug.

The compiler heuristically decides which loops to unroll. Different heuristics are used when optimizing for speed, size, or when balancing between size and speed.

**Note:** This option has no effect at optimization levels **None**, **Low**, and **Medium**.

To read more about the command line option, see --no\_unroll, page 146.

#### **Function inlining**

Function inlining means that a simple function, whose definition is known at compile time, is integrated into the body of its caller to eliminate the overhead of the call. This optimization, which is performed at optimization level **High**, normally reduces execution time, but increases code size. The resulting code might also be difficult to debug.

The compiler decides which functions to inline. Different heuristics are used when optimizing for speed, size, or when balancing between size and speed.

Note: This option has no effect at optimization levels None, Low, and Medium.

To read more about the command line option, see --no inline, page 144.

#### Code motion

Evaluation of loop-invariant expressions and common subexpressions are moved to avoid redundant re-evaluation. This optimization, which is performed at optimization level **High**, normally reduces code size and execution time. The resulting code might however be difficult to debug.

**Note:** This option has no effect at optimization levels **None**, and **Low**.

#### Type-based alias analysis

When two or more pointers reference the same memory location, these pointers are said to be *aliases* for each other. The existence of aliases makes optimization more difficult because it is not necessarily known at compile time whether a particular value is being changed.

Type-based alias analysis optimization assumes that all accesses to an object are performed using its declared type or as a char type. This assumption lets the compiler detect whether pointers can reference the same memory location or not.

Type-based alias analysis is performed at optimization level **High**. For ISO/ANSI standard-conforming C or C++ application code, this optimization can reduce code size and execution time. However, non-standard-conforming C or C++ code might result in the compiler producing code that leads to unexpected behavior. Therefore, it is possible to turn this optimization off.

**Note:** This option has no effect at optimization levels **None**, **Low**, and **Medium**.

To read more about the command line option, see --no tbaa, page 145.

#### Example

```
short f(short * p1, long * p2)
{
   *p2 = 0;
   *p1 = 1;
   return *p2;
}
```

With type-based alias analysis, it is assumed that a write access to the short pointed to by p1 cannot affect the long value that p2 points to. Thus, it is known at compile time that this function returns 0. However, in non-standard-conforming C or C++ code these

pointers could overlap each other by being part of the same union. If you use explicit casts, you can also force pointers of different pointer types to point to the same memory location.

#### Cross call

Common code sequences are extracted to local subroutines. This optimization, which is performed at optimization level **High**, can reduce code size, sometimes dramatically, on behalf of execution time and stack size. The resulting code might however be difficult to debug. This optimization cannot be disabled using the #pragma optimize directive.

Note: This option has no effect at optimization levels None, Low, and Medium.

To read more about related command line options, see --no cross call, page 143.

# Writing efficient code

This section contains general programming hints on how to implement functions to make your applications robust, but at the same time facilitate compiler optimizations.

The following is a list of programming techniques that will, when followed, enable the compiler to better optimize the application.

- Local variables—auto variables and parameters—are preferred over static or global variables. The reason is that the optimizer must assume, for example, that called functions can modify non-local variables. When the life spans for local variables end, the previously occupied memory can then be reused. Globally declared variables will occupy data memory during the whole program execution.
- Avoid taking the address of local variables using the & operator. This is inefficient
  for two main reasons. First, the variable must be placed in memory, and thus cannot
  be placed in a processor register. This results in larger and slower code. Second, the
  optimizer can no longer assume that the local variable is unaffected over function
  calls.
- Module-local variables—variables that are declared static—are preferred over global variables. Also avoid taking the address of frequently accessed static variables.
- The compiler is capable of inlining functions. This means that instead of calling a function, the compiler inserts the content of the function at the location where the function was called. The result is a faster, but often larger, application. Also, inlining might enable further optimizations. The compiler often inlines small functions declared static. The use of the #pragma inline directive and the C++ keyword inline gives you fine-grained control, and it is the preferred method compared to the traditional way of using preprocessor macros. This feature can be disabled using the --no\_inline command line option; see --no inline, page 144.

 Avoid using inline assembler. Instead, try writing the code in C or C++, use intrinsic functions, or write a separate module in assembler language. For more details, see *Mixing C and assembler*, page 71.

#### SAVING STACK SPACE AND RAM MEMORY

The following is a list of programming techniques that will, when followed, save memory and stack space:

- If stack space is limited, avoid long call chains and recursive functions
- Avoid using large non-scalar types, such as structures, as parameters or return type
   To save stack space, you should instead pass them as pointers or, in C++, as references
- Pass smaller parameters before larger ones, so that you avoid passing parameters on the stack. See Register parameters, page 80.

#### **FUNCTION PROTOTYPES**

It is possible to declare and define functions using one of two different styles:

- Prototyped
- Kernighan & Ritchie C (K&R C)

Both styles are included in the C standard; however, it is recommended to use the prototyped style, since it makes it easier for the compiler to find problems in the code. Using the prototyped style will also make it possible to generate more efficient code, since type promotion (implicit casting) is not needed. The K&R style is only supported for compatibility reasons.

To make the compiler verify that all functions have proper prototypes, use the compiler option **Require prototypes** (--require\_prototypes).

#### **Prototyped style**

In prototyped function declarations, the type for each parameter must be specified.

#### Kernighan & Ritchie style

In K&R style—traditional pre-ISO/ANSI C—it is not possible to declare a function prototyped. Instead, an empty parameter list is used in the function declaration. Also, the definition looks different.

#### INTEGER TYPES AND BIT NEGATION

In some situations, the rules for integer types and their conversion lead to possibly confusing behavior. Things to look out for are assignments or conditionals (test expressions) involving types with different size, and logical operations, especially bit negation. Here, *types* also includes types of constants.

In some cases there might be warnings (for example, for constant conditional or pointless comparison), in others just a different result than what is expected. Under certain circumstances the compiler might warn only at higher optimizations, for example, if the compiler relies on optimizations to identify some instances of constant conditionals. In this example an 8-bit character, a 16-bit integer, and two's complement is assumed:

```
void f1(unsigned char c1)
{
   if (c1 == ~0x80)
   ;
}
```

#### PROTECTING SIMULTANEOUSLY ACCESSED VARIABLES

Variables that are accessed asynchronously, for example by interrupt routines or by code executing in separate threads, must be properly marked and have adequate protection. The only exception to this is a variable that is always *read-only*.

To mark a variable properly, use the volatile keyword. This informs the compiler, among other things, that the variable can be changed from other threads. The compiler will then avoid optimizing on the variable (for example, keeping track of the variable in registers), will not delay writes to it, and be careful accessing the variable only the number of times given in the source code. To read more about the volatile type qualifier, see *Declaring objects volatile*, page 161.

A sequence that accesses a volatile declared variable must also not be interrupted. Use the \_\_monitor keyword in interruptible code to ensure this. This must be done for both write and read sequences, otherwise you might end up reading a partially updated variable. This is true for all variables of all sizes. Accessing a small-sized variable can be an atomic operation, but this is not guaranteed and you should not rely on it unless you continuously study the compiler output. It is safer to use the \_\_monitor keyword to ensure that the sequence is an atomic operation.

#### **ACCESSING SPECIAL FUNCTION REGISTERS**

Specific header files for several R32C/100 devices are included in the IAR product installation. The header files are named iodevice.h and define the processor-specific special function registers (SFRs).

**Note:** Each header file contains one section used by the compiler, and one section used by the assembler.

SFRs with bitfields are declared in the header file. The following example is from ior32c121.h:

```
/* uart0 transmit receive mode Register */
__data16 __no_init volatile union
{
  unsigned char UOMR;
  struct
  {
    unsigned char SMD0 : 1;
    unsigned char SMD1 : 1;
    unsigned char SMD2 : 1;
    unsigned char CKDIR : 1;
    unsigned char STPS : 1;
    unsigned char PRY : 1;
    unsigned char PRY : 1;
    unsigned char IOPOL : 1;
} UOMR_bit;
} @ 0x0368;
```

By including the appropriate include file in your code, it is possible to access either the whole register or any individual bit (or bitfields) from C code as follows:

```
/* Whole register access */
UOMR = 0x12;
/* Bitfield accesses */
UOMR_bit.CKDIR = 0;
UOMR_bit.IOPOL = 1;
```

You can also use the header files as templates when you create new header files for other R32C/100 devices. For details about the @ operator, see *Located data*, page 37.

#### **NON-INITIALIZED VARIABLES**

Normally, the runtime environment will initialize all global and static variables when the application is started.

The compiler supports the declaration of variables that will not be initialized, using the \_\_no\_init type modifier. They can be specified either as a keyword or using the #pragma object\_attribute directive. The compiler places such variables in a separate segment, according to the specified memory keyword. See the chapter *Placing code and data* for more information.

For \_\_no\_init, the const keyword implies that an object is read-only, rather than that the object is stored in read-only memory. It is not possible to give a \_\_no\_init object an initial value.

Variables declared using the \_\_no\_init keyword could, for example, be large input buffers or mapped to special RAM that keeps its content even when the application is turned off.

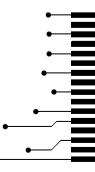
For information about the \_\_no\_init keyword, see page 181. Note that to use this keyword, language extensions must be enabled; see -e, page 137. For information about the #pragma object\_attribute, see page 193.

Writing efficient code

# Part 2. Reference information

This part of the IAR C/C++ Compiler for R32C Reference Guide contains these chapters:

- External interface details
- Compiler options
- Data representation
- Compiler extensions
- Extended keywords
- Pragma directives
- Intrinsic functions
- The preprocessor
- Library functions
- Segment reference
- Implementation-defined behavior.





# External interface details

This chapter provides reference information about how the compiler interacts with its environment. The chapter briefly lists and describes the invocation syntax, methods for passing options to the tools, environment variables, the include file search procedure, and finally the different types of compiler output.

# **Invocation syntax**

You can use the compiler either from the IDE or from the command line. Refer to the *IAR Embedded Workbench*® *IDE User Guide* for information about using the compiler from the IDE.

#### **COMPILER INVOCATION SYNTAX**

The invocation syntax for the compiler is:

```
iccr32c [options] [sourcefile] [options]
```

For example, when compiling the source file prog.c, use this command to generate an object file with debug information:

```
iccr32c prog --debug
```

The source file can be a C or C++ file, typically with the filename extension c or cpp, respectively. If no filename extension is specified, the file to be compiled must have the extension c.

Generally, the order of options on the command line, both relative to each other and to the source filename, is *not* significant. There is, however, one exception: when you use the -I option, the directories are searched in the same order that they are specified on the command line.

If you run the compiler from the command line without any arguments, the compiler version number and all available options including brief descriptions are directed to stdout and displayed on the screen.

#### **PASSING OPTIONS**

There are three different ways of passing options to the compiler:

Directly from the command line
 Specify the options on the command line after the iccr32c command, either before or after the source filename; see *Invocation syntax*, page 119.

Via environment variables

The compiler automatically appends the value of the environment variables to every command line; see *Environment variables*, page 120.

• Via a text file, using the -f option; see -f, page 139.

For general guidelines for the option syntax, an options summary, and a detailed description of each option, see the *Compiler options* chapter.

#### **ENVIRONMENT VARIABLES**

These environment variables can be used with the compiler:

#### Environment variable Description

C_INCLUDE	Specifies directories to search for include files; for example:		
	<pre>C_INCLUDE=c:\program files\iar systems\embedded workbench 5.n\r32c\inc;c:\headers</pre>		
QCCR32C	Specifies command line options; for example: QCCR32C=-1A asm.lst		

Table 29: Compiler environment variables

# Include file search procedure

This is a detailed description of the compiler's #include file search procedure:

- If the name of the #include file is an absolute path, that file is opened.
- If the compiler encounters the name of an #include file in angle brackets, such as:

#include <stdio.h>

it searches these directories for the file to include:

- 1 The directories specified with the − I option, in the order that they were specified, see -*I*, page 140.
- 2 The directories specified using the C\_INCLUDE environment variable, if any, see *Environment variables*, page 120.
- If the compiler encounters the name of an #include file in double quotes, for example:

```
#include "vars.h"
```

it searches the directory of the source file in which the #include statement occurs, and then performs the same sequence as for angle-bracketed filenames.

If there are nested #include files, the compiler starts searching the directory of the file that was last included, iterating upwards for each included file, searching the source file directory last. For example:

```
src.c in directory dir\src
    #include "src.h"
    ...
src.h in directory dir\include
    #include "config.h"
    ...
```

When dir\exe is the current directory, use this command for compilation:

```
iccr32c ..\src\src.c -I..\include -I..\debugconfig
```

Then the following directories are searched in the order listed below for the file config.h, which in this example is located in the dir\debugconfig directory:

dir\include Current file is src.h.

dir\src File including current file (src.c).

dir\include As specified with the first -I option.

dir\debugconfig As specified with the second -I option.

Use angle brackets for standard header files, like stdio.h, and double quotes for files that are part of your application.

**Note:** Both \ and / can be used as directory delimiters.

# **Compiler output**

The compiler can produce the following output:

• A linkable object file

The object files produced by the compiler use a proprietary format called UBROF, which stands for Universal Binary Relocatable Object Format. By default, the object file has the filename extension r53.

Optional list files

Different types of list files can be specified using the compiler option -1, see -*l*, page 140. By default, these files will have the filename extension 1st.

• Optional preprocessor output files

A preprocessor output file is produced when you use the --preprocess option; by default, the file will have the filename extension i.

#### • Diagnostic messages

Diagnostic messages are directed to stderr and displayed on the screen, and printed in an optional list file. To read more about diagnostic messages, see *Diagnostics*, page 122.

#### Error return codes

These codes provide status information to the operating system which can be tested in a batch file, see *Error return codes*, page 122.

#### Size information

Information about the generated amount of bytes for functions and data for each memory is directed to stdout and displayed on the screen. Some of the bytes might be reported as *shared*.

Shared objects are functions or data objects that are shared between modules. If any of these occur in more than one module, only one copy is retained. For example, in some cases inline functions are not inlined, which means that they are marked as shared, because only one instance of each function will be included in the final application. This mechanism is sometimes also used for compiler-generated code or data not directly associated with a particular function or variable, and when only one instance is required in the final application.

#### **Error return codes**

The compiler returns status information to the operating system that can be tested in a batch file.

These command line error codes are supported:

Code	Description	
0	Compilation successful, but there might have been warnings.	
I	Warnings were produced and the optionwarnings_affect_exit_code was used.	
2	Errors occurred.	
3	Fatal errors occurred, making the compiler abort.	
4	Internal errors occurred, making the compiler abort.	

#### Table 30: Error return codes

# **Diagnostics**

This section describes the format of the diagnostic messages and explains how diagnostic messages are divided into different levels of severity.

#### **MESSAGE FORMAT**

All diagnostic messages are issued as complete, self-explanatory messages. A typical diagnostic message from the compiler is produced in the form:

```
filename, linenumber level[tag]: message
```

with these elements:

The name of the source file in which the issue was encountered

1 Inenumber The line number at which the compiler detected the issue

1evel The level of seriousness of the issue

A unique tag that identifies the diagnostic message

message An explanation, possibly several lines long

Diagnostic messages are displayed on the screen, as well as printed in the optional list file.

Use the option --diagnostics\_tables to list all possible compiler diagnostic messages.

#### **SEVERITY LEVELS**

The diagnostic messages are divided into different levels of severity:

#### Remark

A diagnostic message that is produced when the compiler finds a source code construction that can possibly lead to erroneous behavior in the generated code. Remarks are by default not issued, but can be enabled, see *--remarks*, page 150.

#### Warning

A diagnostic message that is produced when the compiler finds a programming error or omission which is of concern, but not so severe as to prevent the completion of compilation. Warnings can be disabled by use of the command line option --no\_warnings, see page 146.

#### **Error**

A diagnostic message that is produced when the compiler finds a construction which clearly violates the C or C++ language rules, such that code cannot be produced. An error will produce a non-zero exit code.

#### Fatal error

A diagnostic message that is produced when the compiler finds a condition that not only prevents code generation, but which makes further processing of the source code pointless. After the message is issued, compilation terminates. A fatal error will produce a non-zero exit code.

#### SETTING THE SEVERITY LEVEL

The diagnostic messages can be suppressed or the severity level can be changed for all diagnostics messages, except for fatal errors and some of the regular errors.

See *Summary of compiler options*, page 128, for a description of the compiler options that are available for setting severity levels.

See the chapter *Pragma directives*, for a description of the pragma directives that are available for setting severity levels.

#### **INTERNAL ERROR**

An internal error is a diagnostic message that signals that there was a serious and unexpected failure due to a fault in the compiler. It is produced using this form:

Internal error: message

where *message* is an explanatory message. If internal errors occur, they should be reported to your software distributor or IAR Systems Technical Support. Include enough information to reproduce the problem, typically:

- The product name
- The version number of the compiler, which can be seen in the header of the list files generated by the compiler
- Your license number
- The exact internal error message text
- The source file of the application that generated the internal error
- A list of the options that were used when the internal error occurred.

# **Compiler options**

This chapter describes the syntax of compiler options and the general syntax rules for specifying option parameters, and gives detailed reference information about each option.

# **Options syntax**

Compiler options are parameters you can specify to change the default behavior of the compiler. You can specify options from the command line—which is described in more detail in this section—and from within the IDE.



Refer to the *IAR Embedded Workbench*® *IDE User Guide* for information about the compiler options available in the IDE and how to set them.

#### TYPES OF OPTIONS

There are two *types of names* for command line options, *short* names and *long* names. Some options have both.

- A short option name consists of one character, and it can have parameters. You specify it with a single dash, for example -e
- A long option name consists of one or several words joined by underscores, and it can have parameters. You specify it with double dashes, for example
   --char\_is\_signed.

For information about the different methods for passing options, see *Passing options*, page 119.

#### **RULES FOR SPECIFYING PARAMETERS**

There are some general syntax rules for specifying option parameters. First, the rules depending on whether the parameter is *optional* or *mandatory*, and whether the option has a short or a long name, are described. Then, the rules for specifying filenames and directories are listed. Finally, the remaining rules are listed.

#### Rules for optional parameters

For options with a short name and an optional parameter, any parameter should be specified without a preceding space, for example:

-0 or -0h

For options with a long name and an optional parameter, any parameter should be specified with a preceding equal sign (=), for example:

```
--misrac2004=n
```

#### Rules for mandatory parameters

For options with a short name and a mandatory parameter, the parameter can be specified either with or without a preceding space, for example:

```
-I..\src or -I ..\src\
```

For options with a long name and a mandatory parameter, the parameter can be specified either with a preceding equal sign (=) or with a preceding space, for example:

```
--diagnostics_tables=filename
or
--diagnostics_tables filename
```

#### Rules for options with both optional and mandatory parameters

For options taking both optional and mandatory parameters, the rules for specifying the parameters are:

- For short options, optional parameters are specified without a preceding space
- For long options, optional parameters are specified with a preceding equal sign (=)
- For short and long options, mandatory parameters are specified with a preceding space.

For example, a short option with an optional parameter followed by a mandatory parameter:

```
-1A filename
```

For example, a long option with an optional parameter followed by a mandatory parameter:

```
--preprocess=n filename
```

#### Rules for specifying a filename or directory as parameters

These rules apply for options taking a filename or directory as parameters:

• Options that take a filename as a parameter can optionally also take a path. The path can be relative or absolute. For example, to generate a listing to the file list.lst in the directory ..\listings\:

```
iccr32c prog -1 ..\listings\list.lst
```

• For options that take a filename as the destination for output, the parameter can be specified as a path without a specified filename. The compiler stores the output in that directory, in a file with an extension according to the option. The filename will be the same as the name of the compiled source file, unless a different name was specified with the option -o, in which case that name is used. For example:

```
iccr32c prog -1 ..\listings\
```

The produced list file will have the default name ..\listings\prog.lst

• The *current directory* is specified with a period (.). For example:

```
iccr32c prog -1 .
```

- / can be used instead of \ as the directory delimiter.
- By specifying -, input files and output files can be redirected to stdin and stdout, respectively. For example:

```
iccr32c prog -1 -
```

#### **Additional rules**

These rules also apply:

When an option takes a parameter, the parameter cannot start with a dash (-)
followed by another character. Instead, you can prefix the parameter with two
dashes; this example will create a list file called -r:

```
iccr32c prog -1 ---r
```

• For options that accept multiple arguments of the same type, the arguments can be provided as a comma-separated list (without a space), for example:

```
--diag_warning=Be0001,Be0002
```

Alternatively, the option can be repeated for each argument, for example:

```
--diag warning=Be0001
```

<sup>--</sup>diag\_warning=Be0002

# Summary of compiler options

This table summarizes the compiler command line options:

Command line option	Description	
align_func	Specifies the alignment of the function entry point	
char_is_signed	Treats char as signed	
code_model	Specifies the code model	
-D	Defines preprocessor symbols	
data_model	Specifies the data model	
debug	Generates debug information	
dependencies	Lists file dependencies	
diag_error	Treats these as errors	
diag_remark	Treats these as remarks	
diag_suppress	Suppresses these diagnostics	
diag_warning	Treats these as warnings	
diagnostics_tables	Lists all diagnostic messages	
discard_unused_publics	Discards unused public symbols	
dlib_config	Determines the library configuration file	
double	Sets the size of the data type double	
-e	Enables language extensions	
ec++	Enables Embedded C++ syntax	
eec++	Enables Extended Embedded C++ syntax	
enable_multibytes	Enables support for multibyte characters in source files	
error_limit	Specifies the allowed number of errors before compilation stops	
-f	Extends the command line	
fp_model	Specifies the floating-point implementation	
header_context	Lists all referred source files and header files	
-I	Specifies include file path	
-1	Creates a list file	
library_module	Creates a library module	
mfc	Enables multi file compilation	

Table 31: Compiler options summary

Command line option	Description	
migration_preprocessor	Extends the preprocessor	
_extensions		
misrac	Enables error messages specific to MISRA-C:1998. This option is a synonym ofmisrac1998 and is only available for backwards compatibility.	
misrac1998	Enables error messages specific to MISRA-C:1998. See the IAR Embedded Workbench® MISRA C:1998 Reference Guide.	
misrac2004	Enables error messages specific to MISRA-C:2004. See the IAR Embedded Workbench® MISRA C:2004 Reference Guide.	
misrac_verbose	Enables verbose logging of MISRA C checking. See the IAR Embedded Workbench® MISRA C:2004 Reference Guide or the IAR Embedded Workbench® MISRA C:1998 Reference Guide, respectively.	
module_name	Sets the object module name	
no_code_motion	Disables code motion optimization	
no_cross_call	Disables cross-call optimization	
no_cse	Disables common subexpression elimination	
no_inline	Disables function inlining	
no_path_in_file_macros	Removes the path from the return value of the symbolsFILE andBASE_FILE	
no_tbaa	Disables type-based alias analysis	
no_typedefs_in_diagnostics	Disables the use of typedef names in diagnostics	
no_unroll	Disables loop unrolling	
no_warnings	Disables all warnings	
no_wrap_diagnostics	Disables wrapping of diagnostic messages	
-O	Sets the optimization level	
-0	Sets the object filename	
omit_types	Excludes type information	
only_stdout	Uses standard output only	
output	Sets the object filename	
predef_macros	Lists the predefined symbols.	

Table 31: Compiler options summary (Continued)

Command line option	Description
preinclude	Includes an include file before reading the source file
preprocess	Generates preprocessor output
public_equ	Defines a global named assembler label
-r	Generates debug information
remarks	Enables remarks
require_prototypes	Verifies that functions are declared before they are defined
silent	Sets silent operation
strict_ansi	Checks for strict compliance with ISO/ANSI C
warnings_affect_exit_code	Warnings affects exit code
warnings_are_errors	Warnings are treated as errors

Table 31: Compiler options summary (Continued)

# **Descriptions of options**

The following section gives detailed reference information about each compiler option.



Note that if you use the options page **Extra Options** to specify specific command line options, the IDE does not perform an instant check for consistency problems like conflicting options, duplication of options, or use of irrelevant options.

# --align\_func

Syntax		align_func={1 2 4 8}		
Parameters		1 (default) 2 4 8	Sets the alignment of the function entry point to 1 byte.  Sets the alignment of the function entry point to 2 bytes.  Sets the alignment of the function entry point to 4 bytes.  Sets the alignment of the function entry point to 8 bytes.	
Description See also	<b>√</b> ®	Use this option to specify the alignment of the function entry point.  Aligning the function entry point, page 82.		

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Align functions

# --char\_is\_signed

Syntax --char\_is\_signed

Description By default, the compiler interprets the char type as unsigned. Use this option to make

the compiler interpret the char type as signed instead. This can be useful when you, for

example, want to maintain compatibility with another compiler.

**Note:** The runtime library is compiled without the --char\_is\_signed option. If you use this option, you might get type mismatch warnings from the linker, because the

library uses unsigned char.



#### Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language>Plain 'char' is

# --code\_model

Syntax --code\_model={far|f|huge|h}

**Parameters** 

far (default) Functions and constant data can be placed in the high 8 Mbytes of memory

huge Functions and constant data can be placed anywhere

Description Use this option to select the code model for which the code will be generated. If you do

not select a code model option, the compiler uses the default code model.

See also Code models and memory attributes for function storage, page 21.



#### Project>Options>General Options>Target>Code model

-D

Syntax -D symbol[=value]

**Parameters** 

Symbol The name of the preprocessor symbol

value The value of the preprocessor symbol

Description Use this option to define a preprocessor symbol. If no value is specified, 1 is used. This

option can be used one or more times on the command line.

The option -D has the same effect as a #define statement at the top of the source file:

-Dsymbol

is equivalent to:

#define symbol 1

To get the equivalence of:

#define FOO

specify the = sign but nothing after, for example:

-DFOO=



#### Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Preprocessor>Defined symbols

## --data model

Syntax --data\_model={near|n|far|f|huge|h}

**Parameters** 

near Places variables in the lowest or highest 32 Kbytes of memory

far (default) Places variables in the lowest or highest 8 Mbytes of memory

huge Places variables anywhere in memory

Description

Use this option to select the data model for which the code will be generated. If you do

not select a data model option, the compiler uses the default data model.

See also Data models, page 12.



#### Project>Options>General Options>Target>Data model

# --debug, -r

Syntax --debug -r

Description

Use the --debug or -r option to make the compiler include information in the object modules required by the IAR C-SPY® Debugger and other symbolic debuggers.

**Note:** Including debug information will make the object files larger than otherwise.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Output>Generate debug information

# --dependencies

Syntax --dependencies[=[i|m]] {filename|directory}

**Parameters** 

i (default) Lists only the names of files

m Lists in makefile style

For information about specifying a filename or a directory, see *Rules for specifying a filename or directory as parameters*, page 126.

Description

Use this option to make the compiler list all source and header files opened by the compilation into a file with the default filename extension i.

Example

If --dependencies or --dependencies=i is used, the name of each opened source file, including the full path, if available, is output on a separate line. For example:

```
c:\iar\product\include\stdio.h
d:\myproject\include\foo.h
```

If --dependencies=m is used, the output uses makefile style. For each source file, one line containing a makefile dependency rule is produced. Each line consists of the name of the object file, a colon, a space, and the name of a source file. For example:

```
foo.r53: c:\iar\product\include\stdio.h
foo.r53: d:\myproject\include\foo.h
```

An example of using --dependencies with a popular make utility, such as gmake (GNU make):

I Set up the rule for compiling files to be something like:

That is, in addition to producing an object file, the command also produces a dependency file in makefile style (in this example, using the extension .d).

**2** Include all the dependency files in the makefile using, for example:

```
-include $(sources:.c=.d)
```

Because of the dash (-) it works the first time, when the .d files do not yet exist.



# --diag\_error

Syntax --diag\_error=tag[,tag,...]

**Parameters** 

tag The number of a diagnostic message, for example the message

number Pe117

Description

Use this option to reclassify certain diagnostic messages as errors. An error indicates a violation of the C or C++ language rules, of such severity that object code will not be generated. The exit code will be non-zero. This option may be used more than once on the command line.



#### Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Diagnostics>Treat these as errors

# --diag\_remark

Syntax --diag\_remark=tag[,tag,...]

**Parameters** 

tag The number of a diagnostic message, for example the message

number Pe177

Description

Use this option to reclassify certain diagnostic messages as remarks. A remark is the least severe type of diagnostic message and indicates a source code construction that may cause strange behavior in the generated code. This option may be used more than once on the command line.

**Note:** By default, remarks are not displayed; use the --remarks option to display them.



#### Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Diagnostics>Treat these as remarks

# --diag\_suppress

Syntax --diag\_suppress=tag[,tag,...]

**Parameters** 

tag The number of a diagnostic message, for example the message

number Pe117

#### Description

Use this option to suppress certain diagnostic messages. These messages will not be displayed. This option may be used more than once on the command line.



#### Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Diagnostics>Suppress these diagnostics

# --diag\_warning

Syntax --diag\_warning=tag[,tag,...]

**Parameters** 

tag The number of a diagnostic message, for example the message

number Pe826

Description

Use this option to reclassify certain diagnostic messages as warnings. A warning indicates an error or omission that is of concern, but which will not cause the compiler to stop before compilation is completed. This option may be used more than once on the command line.



#### Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Diagnostics>Treat these as warnings

# --diagnostics\_tables

Syntax --diagnostics\_tables {filename | directory}

Parameters For information about specifying a filename or a directory, see *Rules for specifying a* 

filename or directory as parameters, page 208.

Description Use this option to list all possible diagnostic messages in a named file. This can be

convenient, for example, if you have used a pragma directive to suppress or change the

severity level of any diagnostic messages, but forgot to document why.

This option cannot be given together with other options.



# --discard\_unused\_publics

Syntax --discard\_unused\_publics

Description Use this option to discard unused public functions and variables from the compilation

unit. This enhances interprocedural optimizations such as inlining, cross call, and cross jump by limiting their scope to public functions and variables that are actually used.

This option is only useful when all source files are compiled as one unit, which means

that the --mfc compiler option is used.

Note: Do not use this option only on parts of the application, as necessary symbols

might be removed from the generated output.

See also --mfc, page 141 and Multi-file compilation units, page 107.



#### Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Discard unused publics

# --dlib\_config

Syntax --dlib\_config filename

Parameters For information about specifying a filename, see Rules for specifying a filename or

directory as parameters, page 126.

Description Each runtime library has a corresponding library configuration file. Use this option to specify the library configuration file for the compiler. Make sure that you specify a

configuration file that corresponds to the library you are using.

All prebuilt runtime libraries are delivered with corresponding configuration files. You can find the library object files and the library configuration files in the directory r32c\lib. For examples and a list of prebuilt runtime libraries, see *Using a prebuilt* 

library, page 44.

If you build your own customized runtime library, you should also create a corresponding customized library configuration file, which must be specified to the compiler. For more information, see *Building and using a customized library*, page 50.



To set related options, choose:

Project>Options>General Options>Library Configuration

#### --double

**Syntax** --double={32 | 64}

**Parameters** 

32 (default) 32-bit doubles are used

64 64-bit doubles are used

Description Use this option to select the precision used by the compiler for representing the

floating-point types double and long double. The compiler can use either 32-bit or

64-bit precision. By default, the compiler uses 32-bit precision.

See also Floating-point types, page 156.



Project>Options>General Options>Target>Size of type 'double'

**-е** 

Syntax -e

Description In the command line version of the compiler, language extensions are disabled by

default. If you use language extensions such as extended keywords and anonymous structs and unions in your source code, you must use this option to enable them.

**Note:** The -e option and the --strict\_ansi option cannot be used at the same time.

See also The chapter *Compiler extensions*.

X

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language>Allow IAR extensions

Note: By default, this option is enabled in the IDE.

--ec++

Syntax --ec++

Description In the compiler, the default language is C. If you use Embedded C++, you must use this

option to set the language the compiler uses to Embedded C++.

X

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language>Embedded C++

#### --eec++

Syntax --eec++

Description In the compiler, the default language is C. If you take advantage of Extended Embedded

C++ features like namespaces or the standard template library in your source code, you must use this option to set the language the compiler uses to Extended Embedded C++.

See also Extended Embedded C++, page 92.



#### Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language>Extended Embedded C++

# --enable\_multibytes

Syntax --enable\_multibytes

Description By default, multibyte characters cannot be used in C or C++ source code. Use this option

to make multibyte characters in the source code be interpreted according to the host

computer's default setting for multibyte support.

Multibyte characters are allowed in C and C++ style comments, in string literals, and in

character constants. They are transferred untouched to the generated code.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language>Enable multibyte support

# --error\_limit

Syntax --error\_limit=n

Parameters

The number of errors before the compiler stops the compilation. n

must be a positive integer; 0 indicates no limit.

Description Use the --error\_limit option to specify the number of errors allowed before the

compiler stops the compilation. By default, 100 errors are allowed.



-f

Syntax -f filename

Parameters For information about specifying a filename, see Rules for specifying a filename or

directory as parameters, page 208.

with the default filename extension xc1.

In the command file, you format the items exactly as if they were on the command line itself, except that you may use multiple lines, because the newline character acts just as a space or tab character.

Both C and C++ style comments are allowed in the file. Double quotes behave in the same way as in the Microsoft Windows command line environment.



To set this option, use **Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Extra Options**.

# --fp\_model

Syntax --fp\_model={fast|full}

**Parameters** 

The compiler will insert fast, but non-standard, FPU instructions fast (default)

directly in the code

full The compiler will use standard IEEE 754-compliant floating-point

instructions

Description Use this option to control the type of floating-point instructions that the compiler uses.

The more efficient Fast model requires a hardware floating-point unit (FPU). It is not compliant with the IEEE-754 standard and does not support, for example, Infinity and

NaN.

The Full model is less efficient but fully supports the IEEE-754 standard. If the device is equipped with an FPU, the Full model can use standards-compliant library functions but still use the FPU instructions. If the device does not have an FPU, library routines

that emulate floating-point operations will be used.

See also Floating-point implementation, page 64.

X

To set related options, choose:

Project>Options>General Options>Target>Float implementation

#### --header context

Syntax --header\_context

Description Occasionally, to find the cause of a problem it is necessary to know which header file

that was included from which source line. Use this option to list, for each diagnostic message, not only the source position of the problem, but also the entire include stack at

that point.



This option is not available in the IDE.

-I

Syntax -I path

**Parameters** 

path The search path for #include files

Description Use this option to specify the search paths for #include files. This option can be used

more than once on the command line.

See also Include file search procedure, page 120.



#### Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Preprocessor>Additional include directories

-1

Syntax -1[a|A|b|B|c|C|D][N][H] {filename|directory}

**Parameters** 

A Assembler list file with C or C++ source as comments

Basic assembler list file. This file has the same contents as a list file produced with -la, except that no extra compiler-generated information (runtime model attributes, call frame information, frame size information) is included \*

Basic assembler list file. This file has the same contents as a list file

Basic assembler list file. This file has the same contents as a list file produced with -1A, except that no extra compiler generated information (runtime model attributes, call frame information, frame

size information) is included

Assembler list file

a Assembler list file
C or C++ list file

C (default) C or C++ list file with assembler source as comments

D C or C++ list file with assembler source as comments, but without

instruction offsets and hexadecimal byte values

N No diagnostics in file

H Include source lines from header files in output. Without this option, only source lines from the primary source file are included

\* This makes the list file less useful as input to the assembler, but more useful for reading by a human.

For information about specifying a filename or a directory, see *Rules for specifying a filename or directory as parameters*, page 126.

Description

Use this option to generate an assembler or C/C++ listing to a file. Note that this option can be used one or more times on the command line.



To set related options, choose:

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>List

# --library\_module

Syntax --library\_module

Description

Use this option to make the compiler generate a library module rather than a program module. A program module is always included during linking. A library module will only be included if it is referenced in your program.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Output>Module type>Library Module

#### --mfc

Syntax --mfc

Description

Use this option to enable *multi-file compilation*. This means that the compiler compiles one or several source files specified on the command line as one unit, which makes interprocedural optimizations such as inlining, cross call, and cross jump possible.

**Note:** The compiler will generate one object file per input source code file, where the first object file contains all relevant data and the other ones are empty. If you want only the first file to be produced, use the -o compiler option and specify a certain output file.

Example iccr32c myfile1.c myfile2.c myfile3.c --mfc

See also --discard\_unused\_publics, page 136, -o, --output, page 147, and Multi-file compilation

units, page 107.



#### Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Multi-file compilation

# --migration\_preprocessor\_extensions

Syntax --migration\_preprocessor\_extensions

Description If you need to migrate code from an earlier IAR Systems C or C/C++ compiler, you might want to use this option. Use this option to use the following in preprocessor expressions:

- Floating-point expressions
- Basic type names and sizeof
- All symbol names (including typedefs and variables).

**Note:** If you use this option, not only will the compiler accept code that does not conform to the ISO/ANSI C standard, but it will also reject some code that *does* conform to the standard.

**Important!** Do not depend on these extensions in newly written code, because support for them might be removed in future compiler versions.



# Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language>Enable IAR migration preprocessor extensions

#### --module name

Syntax --module\_name=name

**Parameters** 

name An explicit object module name

#### Description

Normally, the internal name of the object module is the name of the source file, without a directory name or extension. Use this option to specify an object module name explicitly.

This option is useful when several modules have the same filename, because the resulting duplicate module name would normally cause a linker error; for example, when the source file is a temporary file generated by a preprocessor.



#### Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Output>Object module name

#### --no\_code\_motion

Syntax --no\_code\_motion

Description

Use this option to disable code motion optimizations. These optimizations, which are performed at the optimization levels Medium and High, normally reduce code size and execution time. However, the resulting code might be difficult to debug.

Note: This option has no effect at optimization levels below Medium.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Optimizations>Enable transformations>Code motion

#### --no cross call

Syntax --no\_cross\_call

Description

Use this option to disable the cross-call optimization. This optimization is performed at size optimization, level High. Note that, although the option can drastically reduce the code size, this option increases the execution time.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Optimizations>Enable transformations>Cross call

#### --no\_cse

Syntax --no\_cse

Description

Use this option to disable common subexpression elimination. At the optimization levels Medium and High, the compiler avoids calculating the same expression more than once. This optimization normally reduces both code size and execution time. However, the resulting code might be difficult to debug.

Note: This option has no effect at optimization levels below Medium.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Optimizations>Enable transformations>Common subexpression elimination

## --no inline

Syntax --no\_inline

Description Use this option to disable function inlining. Function inlining means that a simple

function, whose definition is known at compile time, is integrated into the body of its

caller to eliminate the overhead of the call.

This optimization, which is performed at optimization level High, normally reduces execution time and increases code size. The resulting code might also be difficult to

debug.

The compiler heuristically decides which functions to inline. Different heuristics are

used when optimizing for speed than for size.

**Note:** This option has no effect at optimization levels below High.



**Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Optimizations>Enable transformations>Function inlining** 

# --no\_path\_in\_file\_macros

Syntax --no\_path\_in\_file\_macros

Description Use this option to exclude the path from the return value of the predefined preprocessor

symbols \_\_FILE\_\_ and \_\_BASE\_FILE\_\_.

See also Descriptions of predefined preprocessor symbols, page 212.



#### --no tbaa

Syntax --no\_tbaa

Description Use this option to disable type-based alias analysis. When this options is not used, the

compiler is free to assume that objects are only accessed through the declared type or

through unsigned char.

See also *Type-based alias analysis*, page 110.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Optimizations>Enable transformations>Type-based alias analysis

# --no\_typedefs\_in\_diagnostics

Syntax --no\_typedefs\_in\_diagnostics

Description Use this option to disable the use of typedef names in diagnostics. Normally, when a

type is mentioned in a message from the compiler, most commonly in a diagnostic message of some kind, the typedef names that were used in the original declaration are

used whenever they make the resulting text shorter.

Example typedef int (\*MyPtr)(char const \*);

MyPtr p = "foo";

will give an error message like this:

Error[Pe144]: a value of type "char \*" cannot be used to initialize an entity of type "MyPtr"

If the --no\_typedefs\_in\_diagnostics option is used, the error message will be like this:

Error[Pe144]: a value of type "char \*" cannot be used to initialize an entity of type "int (\*)(char const \*)"



To set this option, use **Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Extra Options**.

## --no unroll

Syntax --no\_unroll

Description Use this option to disable loop unrolling. The code body of a small loop, whose number

of iterations can be determined at compile time, is duplicated to reduce the loop

overhead.

For small loops, the overhead required to perform the looping can be large compared with the work performed in the loop body.

The loop unrolling optimization duplicates the body several times, reducing the loop overhead. The unrolled body also opens up for other optimization opportunities.

This optimization, which is performed at optimization level High, normally reduces execution time, but increases code size. The resulting code might also be difficult to debug

The compiler heuristically decides which loops to unroll. Different heuristics are used when optimizing for speed and size.

**Note:** This option has no effect at optimization levels below High.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Optimizations>Enable transformations>Loop unrolling

# --no\_warnings

Syntax --no\_warnings

Description By default, the compiler issues warning messages. Use this option to disable all warning

messages.



This option is not available in the IDE.

# --no\_wrap\_diagnostics

Syntax --no\_wrap\_diagnostics

Description By default, long lines in diagnostic messages are broken into several lines to make the message easier to read. Use this option to disable line wrapping of diagnostic messages.

X

#### -0

Syntax -O[n|1|m|h|hs|hz]

**Parameters** 

n None\* (Best debug support)

 $\begin{array}{ll} 1 \text{ (default)} & \text{Low*} \\ \\ \text{m} & \text{Medium} \end{array}$ 

h High, balanced
hs High, favoring speed
hz High, favoring size

\*The most important difference between None and Low is that at None, all non-static variables will live during their entire scope.

Description

Use this option to set the optimization level to be used by the compiler when optimizing the code. If no optimization option is specified, the optimization level Low is used by default. If only −○ is used without any parameter, the optimization level High balanced is used.

A low level of optimization makes it relatively easy to follow the program flow in the debugger, and, conversely, a high level of optimization makes it relatively hard.

See also

Controlling compiler optimizations, page 106.



#### **Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Optimizations**

# -o, --output

Syntax -o {filename | directory}

--output {filename | directory}

Parameters For information about specifying a filename or a directory, see *Rules for specifying a* 

filename or directory as parameters, page 208.

Description By default, the object code output produced by the compiler is located in a file with the

same name as the source file, but with the extension r53. Use this option to explicitly

specify a different output filename for the object code output.

X

# --omit\_types

Syntax --omit\_types

Description

By default, the compiler includes type information about variables and functions in the object output. Use this option if you do not want the compiler to include this type information in the output, which is useful when you build a library that should not contain type information. The object file will then only contain type information that is a part of a symbol's name. This means that the linker cannot check symbol references for type correctness.



To set this option, use **Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Extra Options**.

# --only\_stdout

Syntax --only\_stdout

Description

Use this option to make the compiler use the standard output stream (stdout) also for messages that are normally directed to the error output stream (stderr).



This option is not available in the IDE.

#### -o, --output

Syntax -o {filename|directory}

--output {filename | directory}

Parameters For information about specifying a filename or a directory, see *Rules for specifying a* 

filename or directory as parameters, page 208.

Description By default, the object code output produced by the compiler is located in a file with the same name as the source file, but with the extension r53. Use this option to explicitly

specify a different output filename for the object code output.



# --predef\_macros

Syntax --predef\_macros {filename|directory}

Parameters For information about specifying a filename, see *Rules for specifying a filename or* 

directory as parameters, page 126.

Description Use this option to list the predefined symbols. When using this option, make sure to also

use the same options as for the rest of your project.

If a filename is specified, the compiler stores the output in that file. If a directory is specified, the compiler stores the output in that directory, in a file with the predef

filename extension.



This option is not available in the IDE.

# --preinclude

Syntax --preinclude includefile

Parameters For information about specifying a filename, see *Rules for specifying a filename or* 

directory as parameters, page 126.

Description

Use this option to make the compiler include the specified include file before it starts to

read the source file. This is useful if you want to change something in the source code for the entire application, for instance if you want to define a new symbol.

for the entire application, for histance if you want to define a new symbol.



#### Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Preprocessor>Preinclude file

# --preprocess

Syntax --preprocess[=[c][n][1]] {filename|directory}

**Parameters** 

c Preserve commentsn Preprocess only

1 Generate #line directives

For information about specifying a filename or a directory, see *Rules for specifying a filename or directory as parameters*, page 126.

Description

Use this option to generate preprocessed output to a named file.



#### Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Preprocessor>Preprocessor output to file

# --public\_equ

Syntax --public\_equ symbol[=value]

**Parameters** 

symbolThe name of the assembler symbol to be definedvalueAn optional value of the defined assembler symbol

Description

This option is equivalent to defining a label in assembler language using the EQU directive and exporting it using the PUBLIC directive. This option can be used more than once on the command line.



This option is not available in the IDE.

# -r, --debug

Syntax -r

--debug

Description

Use the -r or the --debug option to make the compiler include information in the object modules required by the IAR C-SPY Debugger and other symbolic debuggers.

Note: Including debug information will make the object files larger than otherwise.



#### Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Output>Generate debug information

#### --remarks

Syntax --remarks

Description

The least severe diagnostic messages are called remarks. A remark indicates a source code construct that may cause strange behavior in the generated code. By default, the compiler does not generate remarks. Use this option to make the compiler generate remarks.

See also

Severity levels, page 204.



#### Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Diagnostics>Enable remarks

## --require\_prototypes

Syntax

--require\_prototypes

Description

Use this option to force the compiler to verify that all functions have proper prototypes. Using this option means that code containing any of the following will generate an error:

- A function call of a function with no declaration, or with a Kernighan & Ritchie C declaration
- A function definition of a public function with no previous prototype declaration
- An indirect function call through a function pointer with a type that does not include a prototype.

**Note:** This option only applies to functions in the C standard library.



# Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language>Require prototypes

#### --silent

Syntax

--silent

Description

By default, the compiler issues introductory messages and a final statistics report. Use this option to make the compiler operate without sending these messages to the standard output stream (normally the screen).

This option does not affect the display of error and warning messages.



This option is not available in the IDE.

#### --strict ansi

Syntax

--strict ansi

Description

By default, the compiler accepts a relaxed superset of ISO/ANSI C/C++, see *Minor language extensions*, page 169. Use this option to ensure that the program conforms to the ISO/ANSI C/C++ standard.

**Note:** The -e option and the --strict\_ansi option cannot be used at the same time.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language>Language conformances>Strict ISO/ANSI

# --warnings\_affect\_exit\_code

Syntax --warnings\_affect\_exit\_code

Description By default, the exit code is not affected by warnings, because only errors produce a non-zero exit code. With this option, warnings will also generate a non-zero exit code.



This option is not available in the IDE.

# --warnings\_are\_errors

Syntax --warnings\_are\_errors

Description Use this option to make the compiler treat all warnings as errors. If the compiler

encounters an error, no object code is generated. Warnings that have been changed into

remarks are not treated as errors.

**Note:** Any diagnostic messages that have been reclassified as warnings by the option --diag\_warning or the #pragma diag\_warning directive will also be treated as

errors when --warnings\_are\_errors is used.

See also diag warning, page 296.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Diagnostics>Treat all warnings as errors

# **Data representation**

This chapter describes the data types, pointers, and structure types supported by the compiler.

See the chapter Efficient coding for embedded applications for information about which data types that provide the most efficient code for your application.

# **Alignment**

Every C data object has an alignment that controls how the object can be stored in memory. Should an object have an alignment of, for example, 4, it must be stored on an address that is divisible by 4.

The reason for the concept of alignment is that some processors have hardware limitations for how the memory can be accessed.

Assume that a processor can read 4 bytes of memory using one instruction, but only when the memory read is placed on an address divisible by 4. Then, 4-byte objects, such as long integers, will have alignment 4.

Another processor might only be able to read 2 bytes at a time; in that environment, the alignment for a 4-byte long integer might be 2.

A structure type will have the same alignment as the structure member with the most strict alignment. To decrease the alignment requirements on the structure and its members, use #pragma pack or the \_\_packed data type attribute.

All data types must have a size that is a multiple of their alignment. Otherwise, only the first element of an array would be guaranteed to be placed in accordance with the alignment requirements.

Note that with the #pragma data\_alignment directive you can increase the alignment demands on specific variables.

#### **ALIGNMENT ON THE R32C/100 MICROCOMPUTER**

The R32C/100 microcomputer can access memory using 8- to 64-bit operations. However, when an unaligned access is performed, more bus cycles are required. The compiler avoids this by assigning an alignment to every data type.

# **Basic data types**

The compiler supports both all ISO/ANSI C basic data types and some additional types.

#### **INTEGER TYPES**

This table gives the size and range of each integer data type:

Data type	Size	Range	Alignment
bool	8 bits	0 to I	I
char	8 bits	0 to 255	1
signed char	8 bits	-128 to 127	1
unsigned char	8 bits	0 to 255	1
signed short	16 bits	-32768 to 32767	2
unsigned short	16 bits	0 to 65535	2
signed int	32 bits	-2 <sup>31</sup> to 2 <sup>31</sup> -1	4
unsigned int	32 bits	0 to 2 <sup>32</sup> -I	4
signed long	32 bits	-2 <sup>31</sup> to 2 <sup>31</sup> -1	4
unsigned long	32 bits	0 to 2 <sup>32</sup> -1	4
signed long long	64 bits	-2 <sup>63</sup> to 2 <sup>63</sup> -1	8
unsigned long long	64 bits	0 to 2 <sup>64</sup> -1	8

Table 32: Integer types

Signed variables are represented using the two's complement form.

#### **Bool**

The bool data type is supported by default in the C++ language. If you have enabled language extensions, the bool type can also be used in C source code if you include the file stdbool.h. This will also enable the boolean values false and true.

## The enum type

The compiler will use the smallest type required to hold enum constants, preferring signed rather than unsigned.

When IAR Systems language extensions are enabled, and in C++, the enum constants and types can also be of the type long, unsigned long, long long, or unsigned long long.

To make the compiler use a larger type than it would automatically use, define an enum constant with a large enough value. For example,

## The char type

The char type is by default unsigned in the compiler, but the --char\_is\_signed compiler option allows you to make it signed. Note, however, that the library is compiled with the char type as unsigned.

## The wchar\_t type

The wchar\_t data type is an integer type whose range of values can represent distinct codes for all members of the largest extended character set specified among the supported locals.

The wchar\_t data type is supported by default in the C++ language. To use the wchar\_t type also in C source code, you must include the file stddef.h from the runtime library.

#### **Bitfields**

In ISO/ANSI C, int and unsigned int can be used as the base type for integer bitfields. In the IAR C/C++ Compiler for R32C, any integer type can be used as the base type when language extensions are enabled.

Bitfields in expressions will have the same data type as the integer base type.

By default, the compiler places bitfield members from the least significant to the most significant bit in the container type.

If you use the directive #pragma bitfields=reversed, the bitfield members are placed from the most significant to the least significant bit.

#### **FLOATING-POINT TYPES**

In the IAR C/C++ Compiler for R32C, floating-point values are represented in standard IEEE 754 format. The sizes for the different floating-point types are:

Туре	Size ifdouble=32	Size ifdouble=64
float	32 bits	32 bits
double	32 bits (default)	64 bits
long double	32 bits	64 bits

Table 33: Floating-point types

**Note:** The size of double and long double depends on the --double={32|64} option, see --double, page 137. The type long double uses the same precision as double.

The compiler does not support subnormal numbers. All operations that should produce subnormal numbers will instead generate zero.

Exception flags according to the IEEE 754 standard are not supported.

See also Floating-point implementation, page 64.

## 32-bit floating-point format

The representation of a 32-bit floating-point number as an integer is:

31	30	23 22	0
S	Exponent	Mantissa	

The exponent is 8 bits, and the mantissa is 23 bits.

The value of the number is:

The range of the number is:

The precision of the float operators (+, -, \*, and /) is approximately 7 decimal digits.

## 64-bit floating-point format

The representation of a 64-bit floating-point number as an integer is:

63	62	52 51	0
S	Exponent	Mantissa	

The exponent is 11 bits, and the mantissa is 52 bits.

The value of the number is:

The range of the number is:

```
±2.23E-308 to ±1.79E+308
```

The precision of the float operators (+, -, \*, and /) is approximately 15 decimal digits.

## Representation of special floating-point numbers

This list describes the representation of special floating-point numbers:

- Zero is represented by zero mantissa and exponent. The sign bit signifies positive or negative zero.
- Infinity is represented by setting the exponent to the highest value and the mantissa to zero. The sign bit signifies positive or negative infinity.
- Not a number (NaN) is represented by setting the exponent to the highest positive
  value and the mantissa to a non-zero value. The value of the sign bit is ignored.
- If you are using the Fast floating-point model (--fp\_model=fast), Not a number (NaN) and Infinity are not recognized. See Floating-point implementation, page 64.

# **Pointer types**

The compiler has two basic types of pointers: function pointers and data pointers.

#### **FUNCTION POINTERS**

The function pointer of the R32C IAR C/C++ Compiler is \_\_code32. It is a 32-bit pointer that can address the entire memory. The internal representation of the function pointer is the actual address it refers to.

#### **DATA POINTERS**

The data pointer of the R32C IAR C/C++ Compiler is \_\_data32. It is a 32-bit signed int pointer that can address the entire memory.

#### **CASTING**

Casts between pointers have these characteristics:

- Casting a value of an integer type to a pointer of a smaller type is performed by truncation
- Casting a value of an integer type to a pointer of a larger type is performed by zero extension
- Casting a *value* of an signed integer type to a pointer of a larger type is performed by signed extension
- Casting a *pointer type* to a smaller integer type is performed by truncation
- Casting a *pointer type* to a larger integer type is performed by zero extension
- Casting a *data pointer* to a function pointer and vice versa is illegal
- Casting a function pointer to an integer type gives an undefined result.

#### size t

size\_t is the unsigned integer type required to hold the maximum size of an object. In the IAR C/C++ Compiler for R32C, the size of size\_t is 32 bits.

#### ptrdiff t

ptrdiff\_t is the type of the signed integer required to hold the difference between two pointers to elements of the same array. In the IAR C/C++ Compiler for R32C, the size of ptrdiff\_t is 32 bits.

#### intptr t

intptr\_t is a signed integer type large enough to contain a void \*. In the IAR C/C++ Compiler for R32C, the size of intptr\_t is 32 bits.

#### uintptr t

uintptr\_t is equivalent to intptr\_t, with the exception that it is unsigned.

# Structure types

The members of a struct are stored sequentially in the order in which they are declared: the first member has the lowest memory address.

#### **ALIGNMENT**

The struct and union types have the same alignment as the member with the highest alignment requirement. The size of a struct is also adjusted to allow arrays of aligned structure objects.

#### **GENERAL LAYOUT**

Members of a struct are always allocated in the order specified in the declaration. Each member is placed in the struct according to the specified alignment (offsets).

#### Example

```
struct First {
  char c;
  short s;
} s;
```

This diagram shows the layout in memory:



Figure 6: Structure layout

The alignment of the structure is 2 bytes, and a pad byte must be inserted to give short s the correct alignment.

#### **PACKED STRUCTURE TYPES**

The #pragma pack attribute or the #pragma pack directive is used for relaxing the alignment requirements of the members of a structure. This changes the layout of the structure. The members are placed in the same order as when declared, but there might be less pad space between members.

Note that accessing an object that is not correctly aligned requires code that is slower. If such structure members are accessed many times, it is usually better to construct the correct values in a struct that is not packed, and access this struct instead.

## Example

This example declares a packed structure:

```
#pragma pack(1)
struct S {
   char c;
   short s;
};
#pragma pack()
```

In this example, the structure S has this memory layout:



Figure 7: Packed structure layout

This example declares a new non-packed structure, S2, that contains the structure s declared in the previous example:

```
struct S2 {
   struct S s;
   long 1;
};
```

S2 has this memory layout

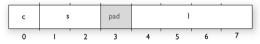


Figure 8: Packed structure layout

The structure S will use the memory layout, size, and alignment described in the previous example. The alignment of the member 1 is 4, which means that alignment of the structure S2 will become 4.

For more information, see Alignment of elements in a structure, page 101.

# Type qualifiers

According to the ISO/ANSI C standard, volatile and const are type qualifiers.

## **DECLARING OBJECTS VOLATILE**

There are three main reasons for declaring an object volatile:

- Shared access; the object is shared between several tasks in a multitasking environment
- Trigger access; as for a memory-mapped SFR where the fact that an access occurs has an effect
- Modified access; where the contents of the object can change in ways not known to the compiler.

## Definition of access to volatile objects

The ISO/ANSI standard defines an abstract machine, which governs the behavior of accesses to volatile declared objects. In general and in accordance to the abstract machine, the compiler:

- Considers each read and write access to an object declared volatile as an access
- The unit for the access is either the entire object or, for accesses to an element in a composite object—such as an array, struct, class, or union—the element. For example:

```
char volatile a;
a = 5;   /* A write access */
a += 6;   /* First a read then a write access */
```

• An access to a bitfield is treated as an access to the underlaying type.

However, these rules are not detailed enough to handle the hardware-related requirements. The rules specific to the IAR C/C++ Compiler for R32C are described below.

#### Rules for accesses

In the IAR C/C++ Compiler for R32C, accesses to volatile declared objects are subject to these rules:

- All accesses are preserved
- All accesses are complete, that is, the whole object is accessed
- All accesses are performed in the same order as given in the abstract machine
- All accesses are atomic, that is, they cannot be interrupted.

The compiler adheres to these rules for all 8-bit data types and for 16- and 32-bit types if they are aligned.

For all other object types, only the rule that states that all accesses are preserved applies.

# **DECLARING OBJECTS CONST**

The const type qualifier is used for indicating that a data object, accessed directly or via a pointer, is non-writable. A pointer to const declared data can point to both constant and non-constant objects. It is good programming practice to use const declared pointers whenever possible because this improves the compiler's possibilities to optimize the generated code and reduces the risk of application failure due to erroneously modified data.

Static and global objects declared const and located in the memories data16, data24, and data32 are allocated in ROM. For sbdata16 and sbdata24, the objects are allocated in RAM and initialized by the runtime system at startup.

In C++, objects that require runtime initialization cannot be placed in ROM.

# Data types in C++

In C++, all plain C data types are represented in the same way as described earlier in this chapter. However, if any Embedded C++ features are used for a type, no assumptions can be made concerning the data representation. This means, for example, that it is not supported to write assembler code that accesses class members.

# **Compiler extensions**

This chapter gives a brief overview of the compiler extensions to the ISO/ANSI C standard. All extensions can also be used for the C++ programming language. More specifically the chapter describes the available C language extensions.

# Compiler extensions overview

The compiler offers the standard features of ISO/ANSI C and a wide set of extensions, ranging from features specifically tailored for efficient programming in the embedded industry to the relaxation of some minor standards issues.

You can find the extensions available as:

#### • C/C++ language extensions

For a summary of available language extensions, see C language extensions, page 164. For reference information about the extended keywords, see the chapter Extended keywords. For information about C++, the two levels of support for the language, and C++ language extensions; see the chapter Using C++.

#### Pragma directives

The #pragma directive is defined by the ISO/ANSI C standard and is a mechanism for using vendor-specific extensions in a controlled way to make sure that the source code is still portable.

The compiler provides a set of predefined pragma directives, which can be used for controlling the behavior of the compiler, for example how it allocates memory, whether it allows extended keywords, and whether it outputs warning messages. Most pragma directives are preprocessed, which means that macros are substituted in a pragma directive. The pragma directives are always enabled in the compiler. For several of them there is also a corresponding C/C++ language extension. For a list of available pragma directives, see the chapter *Pragma directives*.

#### Preprocessor extensions

The preprocessor of the compiler adheres to the ISO/ANSI standard. The compiler also makes several preprocessor-related extensions available to you. For more information, see the chapter *The preprocessor*.

#### • Intrinsic functions

The intrinsic functions provide direct access to low-level processor operations and can be very useful in, for example, time-critical routines. The intrinsic functions compile into inline code, either as a single instruction or as a short sequence of

instructions. To read more about using intrinsic functions, see *Mixing C and assembler*, page 71. For a list of available functions, see the chapter *Intrinsic functions*.

Library functions

The IAR DLIB Library provides most of the important C and C++ library definitions that apply to embedded systems. The library also provides some extensions, partly taken from the C99 standard. For more information, see *IAR DLIB Library*, page 218.

**Note:** Any use of these extensions, except for the pragma directives, makes your application inconsistent with the ISO/ANSI C standard.

#### **ENABLING LANGUAGE EXTENSIONS**



In the IDE, language extensions are enabled by default.



For information about how to enable and disable language extensions from the command line, see the compiler options -e, page 137, and --strict\_ansi, page 151.

# C language extensions

This section gives a brief overview of the C language extensions available in the compiler. The compiler provides a wide set of extensions, so to help you to find the extensions required by your application, the extensions are grouped according to their expected usefulness. In short, this means:

- Important language extensions—extensions specifically tailored for efficient embedded programming, typically to meet memory restrictions
- Useful language extensions—features considered useful and typically taken from related standards, such as C99 and C++
- Minor language extensions, that is, the relaxation of some minor standards issues and also some useful but minor syntax extensions.

#### IMPORTANT LANGUAGE EXTENSIONS

The following language extensions available both in the C and the C++ programming languages are well suited for embedded systems programming:

- Memory attributes, type attributes, and object attributes
   For information about the related concepts, the general syntax rules, and for reference information, see the chapter Extended keywords.
- Placement at an absolute address or in a named segment
   The @ operator or the directive #pragma location can be used for placing global and static variables at absolute addresses, or placing a variable or function in a named

segment. For more information about using these primitives, see *Controlling data* and function placement in memory, page 103, and location, page 192.

#### Alignment

Each data type has its own alignment, for more details, see *Alignment*, page 153. If you want to change the alignment, the \_\_packed data type attribute, and the #pragma pack and #pragma data\_alignment directives are available. If you want to use the alignment of an object, use the \_\_ALIGNOF\_\_\_() operator.

The \_\_ALIGNOF\_\_ operator is used for accessing the alignment of an object. It takes one of two forms:

- \_\_ALIGNOF\_\_ (type)
- \_\_ALIGNOF\_\_ (expression)

In the second form, the expression is not evaluated.

Anonymous structs and unions

C++ includes a feature named anonymous unions. The compiler allows a similar feature for both structs and unions in the C programming language. For more information, see *Anonymous structs and unions*, page 101.

Bitfields and non-standard types

In ISO/ANSI C, a bitfield must be of type int or unsigned int. Using IAR Systems language extensions, any integer type or enumeration can be used. The advantage is that the struct will sometimes be smaller. This matches G.5.8 in the appendix of the ISO standard, *ISO Portability Issues*. For more information, see *Bitfields*, page 155.

• Dedicated segment operators \_\_segment\_begin and \_\_segment\_end

The syntax for these operators is:

```
void * __segment_begin(segment)
void * __segment_end(segment)
```

These operators return the address of the first byte of the named <code>segment</code> and the first byte <code>after</code> the named <code>segment</code>, respectively. This can be useful if you use the @ operator or the <code>#pragmalocation</code> directive to place a data object or a function in a user-defined segment.

The named segment must be a string literal and segment must have been declared earlier with the #pragma segment directive. If the segment was declared with a memory attribute memattr, the type of the \_\_segment\_begin operator is a pointer to memattr void. Otherwise, the type is a default pointer to void. Note that you must enable language extensions to use these operators.

```
In this example, the type of the __segment_begin operator is void __huge *.
#pragma segment="MYSEGMENT" __huge
```

```
...
segment_start_address = __segment_begin("MYSECTION");
```

See also segment, page 197, and location, page 192.

#### **USEFUL LANGUAGE EXTENSIONS**

This section lists and briefly describes useful extensions, that is, useful features typically taken from related standards, such as C99 and C++:

#### Inline functions

The #pragma inline directive, alternatively the inline keyword, advises the compiler that the function whose declaration follows immediately after the directive should be inlined. This is similar to the C++ keyword inline. For more information, see *inline*, page 191.

Mixing declarations and statements

It is possible to mix declarations and statements within the same scope. This feature is part of the C99 standard and C++.

• Declaration in for loops

It is possible to have a declaration in the initialization expression of a for loop, for example:

```
for (int i = 0; i < 10; ++i) \{...\}
```

This feature is part of the C99 standard and C++.

• The bool data type

To use the bool type in C source code, you must include the file stdbool.h. This feature is part of the C99 standard and C++. (The bool data type is supported by default in C++.)

• C++ style comments

C++ style comments are accepted. A C++ style comment starts with the character sequence // and continues to the end of the line. For example:

```
// The length of the bar, in centimeters.
int length;
```

This feature is copied from the C99 standard and C++.

#### Inline assembler

Inline assembler can be used for inserting assembler instructions in the generated function. This feature is part of the C99 standard and C++.

The asm and \_\_asm extended keywords both insert an assembler instruction. However, when compiling C source code, the asm keyword is not available when the option --strict\_ansi is used. The \_\_asm keyword is always available.

**Note:** Not all assembler directives or operators can be inserted using this keyword.

The syntax is:

```
asm ("string");
```

The string can be a valid assembler instruction or a data definition assembler directive, but not a comment. You can write several consecutive inline assembler instructions, for example:

where  $\n$  (new line) separates each new assembler instruction. Note that you can define and use local labels in inline assembler instructions.

For more information about inline assembler, see *Mixing C and assembler*, page 71.

## **Compound literals**

To create compound literals you can use this syntax:

```
/* Create a pointer to an anonymous array */
int *p = (int []) {1,2,3};

/* Create a pointer to an anonymous structX */
structX *px = &(structX) {5,6,7};
```

#### Note:

- A compound literal can be modified unless it is declared const
- Compound literals are not supported in Embedded C++ and Extended EC++.
- This feature is part of the C99 standard.

#### Incomplete arrays at end of structs

The last element of a struct can be an incomplete array. This is useful for allocating a chunk of memory that contains both the structure and a fixed number of elements of the array. The number of elements can vary between allocations.

This feature is part of the C99 standard.

**Note:** The array cannot be the only member of the struct. If that was the case, then the size of the struct would be zero, which is not allowed in ISO/ANSI C.

#### Example

```
struct str
{
  char a;
  unsigned long b[];
};
```

The incomplete array will be aligned in the structure just like any other member of the structure. For more information about structure alignment, see *Structure types*, page 158.

# **Hexadecimal floating-point constants**

Floating-point constants can be given in hexadecimal style. The syntax is  $0 \times MANTp \{+ | -\} EXP$ , where MANT is the mantissa in hexadecimal digits, including an optional. (decimal point), and EXP is the exponent with decimal digits, representing an exponent of 2. This feature is part of the C99 standard.

#### Examples

```
0x1p0 is 1
0xA.8p2 is 10.5*2^2
```

## Designated initializers in structures and arrays

Any initialization of either a structure (struct or union) or an array can have a designation. A designation consists of one or more designators followed by an initializer. A designator for a structure is specified as .elementname and for an array [constant index expression]. Using designated initializers is not supported in C++.

## Examples

This definition shows a struct and its initialization using designators:

```
struct{
 int i;
 int j;
 int k;
 int 1;
 short array[10];
u = \{
  .1 = 6,
                 /* initialize 1 to 6 */
                 /* initialize j to 6 */
  .i = 6,
                 /* initialize k to 8 */
  .array[7] = 2, /* initialize element 7 to 2 */
  .array[3] = 2, /* initialize element 3 to 2 */
                 /* arrav[4] = 5 */
                 /* reinitialize k to 4 */
  .k = 4
};
```

Note that a designator specifies the destination element of the initialization. Note also that if one element is initialized more than once, it is the last initialization that will be used.

To initialize an element in a union other than the first, do like this:

```
union {
  int i;
  float f;
} y = {.f = 5.0};
```

To set the size of an array by initializing the last element, do like this:

```
char array[] = \{[10] = 'a'\};
```

#### MINOR LANGUAGE EXTENSIONS

This section lists and briefly describes minor extensions, that is, the relaxation of some standards issues and also some useful but minor syntax extensions:

Arrays of incomplete types

An array can have an incomplete struct, union, or enum type as its element type. The types must be completed before the array is used (if it is), or by the end of the compilation unit (if it is not).

Forward declaration of enum types

The IAR Systems language extensions allow that you first declare the name of an enum and later resolve it by specifying the brace-enclosed list.

• Missing semicolon at end of struct or union specifier

A warning is issued if the semicolon at the end of a struct or union specifier is missing.

• Null and void

In operations on pointers, a pointer to void is always implicitly converted to another type if necessary, and a null pointer constant is always implicitly converted to a null pointer of the right type if necessary. In ISO/ANSI C, some operators allow such things, while others do not allow them.

• Casting pointers to integers in static initializers

In an initializer, a pointer constant value can be cast to an integral type if the integral type is large enough to contain it. For more information about casting pointers, see *Casting*, page 158.

• Taking the address of a register variable

In ISO/ANSI C, it is illegal to take the address of a variable specified as a register variable. The compiler allows this, but a warning is issued.

• Duplicated size and sign specifiers

Should the size or sign specifiers be duplicated (for example, short short or unsigned unsigned), an error is issued.

• long float means double

The type long float is accepted as a synonym for double.

• Repeated typedef declarations

Redeclarations of typedef that occur in the same scope are allowed, but a warning is issued.

• Mixing pointer types

Assignment and pointer difference is allowed between pointers to types that are interchangeable but not identical; for example, unsigned char \* and char \*. This includes pointers to integral types of the same size. A warning is issued.

Assignment of a string constant to a pointer to any kind of character is allowed, and no warning is issued.

Non-top level const

Assignment of pointers is allowed in cases where the destination type has added type qualifiers that are not at the top level (for example, int \*\* to int const \*\*). Comparing and taking the difference of such pointers is also allowed.

• Non-lvalue arrays

A non-lvalue array expression is converted to a pointer to the first element of the array when it is used.

• Comments at the end of preprocessor directives

This extension, which makes it legal to place text after preprocessor directives, is enabled, unless strict ISO/ANSI mode is used. The purpose of this language extension is to support compilation of legacy code; we do *not* recommend that you write new code in this fashion.

• An extra comma at the end of enum lists

Placing an extra comma is allowed at the end of an enum list. In strict ISO/ANSI mode, a warning is issued.

• A label preceding a }

In ISO/ANSI C, a label must be followed by at least one statement. Therefore, it is illegal to place the label at the end of a block. In the IAR C/C++ Compiler for R32C, a warning is issued.

**Note:** This also applies to the labels of switch statements.

• Empty declarations

An empty declaration (a semicolon by itself) is allowed, but a remark is issued (provided that remarks are enabled).

• Single-value initialization

ISO/ANSI C requires that all initializer expressions of static arrays, structs, and unions are enclosed in braces.

Single-value initializers are allowed to appear without braces, but a warning is issued. In the IAR C/C++ Compiler for R32C, this expression is allowed:

```
struct str
{
   int a;
} x = 10;
```

• Declarations in other scopes

External and static declarations in other scopes are visible. In the following example, the variable y can be used at the end of the function, even though it should only be visible in the body of the if statement. A warning is issued.

```
int test(int x)
{
   if (x)
   {
     extern int y;
     y = 1;
   }
   return y;
}
```

• Expanding function names into strings with the function as context

Use any of the symbols \_\_func\_\_ or \_\_FUNCTION\_\_ inside a function body to make the symbol expand into a string, with the function name as context. Use the symbol \_\_PRETTY\_FUNCTION\_\_ to also include the parameter types and return type. The result might, for example, look like this if you use the \_\_PRETTY\_FUNCTION\_\_ symbol:

"void func(char)"

These symbols are useful for assertions and other trace utilities and they require that language extensions are enabled, see -e, page 137.

# **Extended keywords**

This chapter describes the extended keywords that support specific features of the R32C/100 microcomputer and the general syntax rules for the keywords. Finally the chapter gives a detailed description of each keyword.

For information about the address ranges of the different memory areas, see the chapter Segment reference.

# General syntax rules for extended keywords

To understand the syntax rules for the extended keywords, it is important to be familiar with some related concepts.

The compiler provides a set of attributes that can be used on functions or data objects to support specific features of the R32C/100 microcomputer. There are two types of attributes—type attributes and object attributes:

- Type attributes affect the *external functionality* of the data object or function
- Object attributes affect the *internal functionality* of the data object or function.

The syntax for the keywords differs slightly depending on whether it is a type attribute or an object attribute, and whether it is applied to a data object or a function.

For information about how to use attributes to modify data, see the chapter *Data storage*. For information about how to use attributes to modify functions, see the chapter *Functions*. For detailed information about each attribute, see *Descriptions of extended keywords*, page 177.

**Note:** The extended keywords are only available when language extensions are enabled in the compiler.



In the IDE, language extensions are enabled by default.



Use the -e compiler option to enable language extensions. See -e, page 137 for additional information.

#### **TYPE ATTRIBUTES**

Type attributes define how a function is called, or how a data object is accessed. This means that if you use a type attribute, it must be specified both when a function or data object is defined and when it is declared.

You can either place the type attributes directly in your source code, or use the pragma directive #pragma type\_attribute.

Type attributes can be further divided into *memory type attributes* and *general type attributes*. Memory type attributes are referred to as simply *memory attributes* in the rest of the documentation.

## **Memory** attributes

A memory attribute corresponds to a certain logical or physical memory in the microcomputer.

- Available function memory attributes: \_\_code24 and \_\_code32
- Available data memory attributes: \_\_data16, \_\_data24, \_\_data32, \_\_sbdata16, and \_\_sbdata24

Data objects, functions, and destinations of pointers or C++ references always have a memory attribute. If no attribute is explicitly specified in the declaration or by the pragma directive #pragma type\_attribute, an appropriate default attribute is used. You can specify one memory attribute for each level of pointer indirection.

## General type attributes

These general type attributes are available:

- Function type attributes affect how the function should be called: \_\_interrupt, \_\_task, and \_\_fast\_interrupt
- Data type attributes: const, \_\_packed, and volatile

You can specify as many type attributes as required for each level of pointer indirection.

To read more about the type qualifiers const and volatile, see *Type qualifiers*, page 161.

#### Syntax for type attributes used on data objects

In general, type attributes for data objects follow the same syntax as the type qualifiers const and volatile.

The following declaration assigns the  $\__data24$  memory attribute to the variables i and j; in other words, the variable i and j is placed in data24 memory. The variables k and 1 behave in the same way:

```
__data24 int i, j; int __data24 k, 1;
```

Note that the attribute affects both identifiers.

This declaration of i and j is equivalent with the previous one:

```
#pragma type_attribute=__data24
int i, j;
```

The advantage of using pragma directives for specifying keywords is that it offers you a method to make sure that the source code is portable. Note that the pragma directive has no effect if a memory attribute is already explicitly declared.

For more examples of using memory attributes, see *More examples*, page 16.

An easier way of specifying storage is to use type definitions. These two declarations are equivalent:

```
typedef char __data24 Byte;
Byte b;
and
__data24 char b;
```

Note that #pragma type\_attribute can be used together with a typedef declaration.

## Syntax for type attributes on functions

The syntax for using type attributes on functions differs slightly from the syntax of type attributes on data objects. For functions, the attribute must be placed either in front of the return type, or in parentheses, for example:

```
__interrupt void my_handler(void);
or
void (__interrupt my_handler)(void);
This declaration of my_handler is equivalent with the previous one:
#pragma type_attribute=__interrupt
void my_handler(void);
```

# Syntax for type attributes on function pointers

To declare a function pointer, use this syntax:

```
int (__code32 * fp) (double);
```

After this declaration, the function pointer fp points to code32 memory.

An easier way of specifying storage is to use type definitions:

```
typedef __code32 void FUNC_TYPE(int);
typedef FUNC_TYPE *FUNC_PTR_TYPE;
```

```
FUNC_TYPE func();
FUNC PTR TYPE funcptr;
```

Note that #pragma type\_attribute can be used together with a typedef declaration.

## **OBJECT ATTRIBUTES**

Object attributes affect the internal functionality of functions and data objects, but not how the function is called or how the data is accessed. This means that an object attribute does not need to be present in the declaration of an object.

These object attributes are available:

- Object attributes that can be used for variables: \_\_no\_init
- Object attributes that can be used for functions and variables: location, @, and \_\_root
- Object attributes that can be used for functions: \_\_intrinsic, \_\_monitor, \_\_noreturn, and vector.

You can specify as many object attributes as required for a specific function or data object.

For more information about location and @, see *Controlling data and function placement in memory*, page 103. For more information about vector, see *vector*, page 198.

# Syntax for object attributes

The object attribute must be placed in front of the type. For example, to place myarray in memory that is not initialized at startup:

```
__no_init int myarray[10];
```

The #pragma object\_attribute directive can also be used. This declaration is equivalent to the previous one:

```
#pragma object_attribute=__no_init
int myarray[10];
```

**Note:** Object attributes cannot be used in combination with the typedef keyword.

# Summary of extended keywords

This table summarizes the extended keywords:

Extended keyword	Description
code24	Controls the storage of functions
code32	Controls the storage of functions
data16	Controls the storage of data objects
data24	Controls the storage of data objects
data32	Controls the storage of data objects
fast_interrupt	Supports fast interrupt functions
interrupt	Supports interrupt functions
intrinsic	Reserved for compiler internal use only
monitor	Supports atomic execution of a function
no_init	Supports non-volatile memory
noreturn	Informs the compiler that the declared function will not return
packed	Decreases data type alignment to I
root	Ensures that a function or variable is included in the object code even if unused
sbdata16	Controls the storage of data objects
sbdata24	Controls the storage of data objects
task	Allows functions to exit without restoring registers

Table 34: Extended keywords summary

# **Descriptions of extended keywords**

These sections give detailed information about each extended keyword.

# \_\_code24

• Maximum size: 8 Mbytes

• Pointer size: 4 bytes

**Example** \_\_code24 void myfunction(void);

See also Code models and memory attributes for function storage, page 21.

# \_\_code32

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on

functions, see Type attributes, page 173.

Description The \_\_code32 memory attribute overrides the default storage of functions given by the

selected code model and places individual functions in code32 memory.

Storage information • Address range: 0-0xffffffff (4 Gbytes)

• Maximum size: 4 Gbytes

Pointer size: 4 bytes

See also *Code models and memory attributes for function storage*, page 21.

# \_\_data16

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data

objects, see Type attributes, page 173.

Description The \_\_data16 memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables and

constants given by the selected data model and code model, respectively, and places

individual variables and constants in data16 memory.

• Address range: 0-0x7FFF, 0xFFFFF8000-0xFFFFFFFF (32 Kbytes)

• Maximum object size: 32 Kbytes

Pointer size: 4 bytes.

Example \_\_data16 int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 13.

# \_\_data24

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data

objects, see Type attributes, page 173.

Description The \_\_data24 memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables and

constants given by the selected data model and code model, respectively, and places

individual variables and constants in data24 memory.

• Address range: 0-0x7fffff, 0xff800000-0xfffffff (8 Mbytes)

Maximum object size: 8 Mbytes–1

• Pointer size: 4 bytes

Example \_\_data24 int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 13.

# \_\_data32

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data

objects, see *Type attributes*, page 173.

Description The \_\_data32 memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables and

constants given by the selected data model and code model, respectively, and places

individual variables and constants in data32 memory.

Storage information • Address range: 0-0xffffffff (4 Gbytes)

Maximum object size: 2 Gbytes-1

Pointer size: 4 bytes.

**Example** \_\_data32 int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 13.

# \_\_fast\_interrupt

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for type attributes that can be used on functions, see

Type attributes, page 173.

Description The \_\_fast\_interrupt keyword specifies a very fast interrupt function of the highest

priority, using the FREIT return mechanism. The interrupt uses the VCT register as a

vector. The register is set up during early initialization and will point to the fast interrupt function in the application, if one has been declared.

A fast interrupt function must have a void return type and cannot have any parameters.

**Example** \_\_fast\_interrupt void my\_interrupt\_handler(void);

See also Interrupt functions, page 23, vector, page 198, INTVEC, page 235.

# \_\_interrupt

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for type attributes that can be used on functions, see

Type attributes, page 173.

**Description** The \_\_interrupt keyword specifies interrupt functions. To specify one or several

interrupt vectors, use the #pragma vector directive. The range of the interrupt vectors depends on the device used. It is possible to define an interrupt function without a vector, but then the compiler will not generate an entry in the interrupt vector table.

An interrupt function must have a void return type and cannot have any parameters.

The header file iodevice.h, where device corresponds to the selected device,

contains predefined names for the existing interrupt vectors.

To override the non-maskable interrupts, use the template file fixedint.c in the src\lib directory. Non-maskable interrupts do not have a vector number and do not

use the #pragma vector directive.

Example #pragma vector=0x14

\_\_interrupt void my\_interrupt\_handler(void);

See also Interrupt functions, page 23, vector, page 198, INTVEC, page 235.

intrinsic

**Description** The \_\_intrinsic keyword is reserved for compiler internal use only.

\_\_monitor

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for object attributes, see *Object attributes*, page 176.

Description The \_\_monitor keyword causes interrupts to be disabled during execution of the

function. This allows atomic operations to be performed, such as operations on

semaphores that control access to resources by multiple processes. A function declared with the \_\_monitor keyword is equivalent to any other function in all other respects.

**Example** \_\_monitor int get\_lock(void);

See also *Monitor functions*, page 24. Read also about the intrinsic functions *disable interrupt*,

page 201, \_\_enable\_interrupt, page 201, \_\_get\_interrupt\_state, page 203, and

set interrupt state, page 207.

# \_\_no\_init

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for object attributes, see *Object attributes*, page 176.

that the initialization of the variable, for example at system startup, is suppressed.

**Example** \_\_no\_init int myarray[10];

# \_\_noreturn

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for object attributes, see *Object attributes*, page 176.

Description The \_\_noreturn keyword can be used on a function to inform the compiler that the

function will not return. If you use this keyword on such functions, the compiler can optimize more efficiently. Examples of functions that do not return are about and exit.

**Example** \_\_noreturn void terminate(void);

## packed

Description

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for type attributes that can be used on data, see *Type* 

attributes, page 173.

Use the \_\_packed keyword to decrease the data type alignment to 1. \_\_packed can be used for two purposes:

 When used with a struct or union type definition, the maximum alignment of members of that struct or union is set to 1, to eliminate any gaps between the members. The type of each members also receives the \_\_packed type attribute. When used with any other type, the resulting type is the same as the type without
the \_\_packed type attribute, but with an alignment of 1. Types that already have an
alignment of 1 are not affected by the \_\_packed type attribute.

A normal pointer can be implicitly converted to a pointer to \_\_packed, but the reverse conversion requires a cast.

**Note:** Accessing data types at other alignments than their natural alignment can result in code that is significantly larger and slower.

#### Example

See also

pack, page 194.

#### root

Syntax

Follows the generic syntax rules for object attributes, see *Object attributes*, page 176.

Description

A function or variable with the \_\_root attribute is kept whether or not it is referenced from the rest of the application, provided its module is included. Program modules are always included and library modules are only included if needed.

Example

\_\_root int myarray[10];

See also

To read more about modules, segments, and the link process, see the *IAR Linker and Library Tools Reference Guide*.

# \_\_sbdata16

Syntax

Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data objects, see *Type attributes*, page 173.

Description

The \_\_sbdata16 memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables and constants given by the selected data model and code model, respectively, and places individual variables and constants in SB-relative memory.

Storage information

• Address range: SB register + 0x0-0xFFFF (64 Kbytes)

• Maximum object size: 64 Kbytes

• Pointer size: 4 bytes.

**Example** \_\_sbdata16 int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 13.

# \_\_sbdata24

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data

objects, see Type attributes, page 173.

Description The \_\_sbdata24 memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables and

constants given by the selected data model and code model, respectively, and places

individual variables and constants in SB-relative memory.

Storage information • Address range: SB register + 0xffffff (16 Mbytes)

• Maximum object size: 16 Mbytes

• Pointer size: 4 bytes

**Example** \_\_sbdata24 int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 13.

#### task

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for type attributes that can be used on functions, see

Type attributes, page 173.

Description This keyword allows functions to exit without restoring registers and it is typically used

for the main function.

By default, functions save the contents of used non-scratch registers (preserved registers) on the stack upon entry, and restore them at exit. Functions declared \_\_task

do not save any registers, and therefore require less stack space.

Because a function declared \_\_task can corrupt registers needed by the calling

function, you should only use \_\_task on functions that do not return.

The function main can be declared \_\_task, unless it is explicitly called from the application. In real-time applications with more than one task, the root function of each

task can be declared \_\_task.

Example

\_\_task void my\_handler(void);

# **Pragma directives**

This chapter describes the pragma directives of the compiler.

The #pragma directive is defined by the ISO/ANSI C standard and is a mechanism for using vendor-specific extensions in a controlled way to make sure that the source code is still portable.

The pragma directives control the behavior of the compiler, for example how it allocates memory for variables and functions, whether it allows extended keywords, and whether it outputs warning messages.

The pragma directives are always enabled in the compiler.

# Summary of pragma directives

This table lists the pragma directives of the compiler that can be used either with the #pragma preprocessor directive or the \_Pragma() preprocessor operator:

Pragma directive	Description
bitfields	Controls the order of bitfield members
constseg	Places constant variables in a named segment
data_alignment	Gives a variable a higher (more strict) alignment
dataseg	Places variables in a named segment
diag_default	Changes the severity level of diagnostic messages
diag_error	Changes the severity level of diagnostic messages
diag_remark	Changes the severity level of diagnostic messages
diag_suppress	Suppresses diagnostic messages
diag_warning	Changes the severity level of diagnostic messages
include_alias	Specifies an alias for an include file
inline	Inlines a function
language	Controls the IAR Systems language extensions
location	Specifies the absolute address of a variable, or places groups of functions or variables in named segments
message	Prints a message

Table 35: Pragma directives summary

Pragma directive	Description
object_attribute	Changes the definition of a variable or a function
optimize	Specifies the type and level of an optimization
pack	Specifies the alignment of structures and union members
printf_args	Verifies that a function with a printf-style format string is called with the correct arguments
required	Ensures that a symbol that is needed by another symbol is included in the linked output
rtmodel	Adds a runtime model attribute to the module
scanf_args	Verifies that a function with a scanf-style format string is called with the correct arguments
segment	Declares a segment name to be used by intrinsic functions
type_attribute	Changes the declaration and definitions of a variable or function
vector	Specifies the vector of an interrupt function

Table 35: Pragma directives summary (Continued)

**Note:** For portability reasons, see also *Recognized pragma directives* (6.8.6), page 245.

# **Descriptions of pragma directives**

This section gives detailed information about each pragma directive.

# bitfields

Syntax	#pragma bitfie	<pre>#pragma bitfields={reversed default}</pre>	
Parameters	reversed	Bitfield members are placed from the most significant bit to the least significant bit.	
	default	Bitfield members are placed from the least significant bit to the most significant bit.	
Description	Use this pragma directive to control the order of bitfield members.		

By default, the compiler places bitfield members from the least significant bit to the most significant bit in the container type. Use the #pragma bitfields=reversed directive to place the bitfield members from the most significant to the least significant

bit. This setting remains active until you turn it off again with the #pragma bitfields=default directive.

See also *Bitfields*, page 155.

# constseg

**Parameters** 

\_\_memoryattribute An optional memory attribute denoting in what memory the

segment will be placed; if not specified, default memory is used.

SEGMENT\_NAME A user-defined segment name; cannot be a segment name

predefined for use by the compiler and linker.

default Uses the default segment for constants.

**Description** Use this pragma directive to place constant variables in a named segment. The segment

name cannot be a segment name predefined for use by the compiler and linker. The setting remains active until you turn it off again with the #pragma constseg=default

directive.

**Example** #pragma constseg=\_\_data24 MY\_CONSTANTS

const int factorySettings[] = {42, 15, -128, 0};

#pragma constseg=default

# data\_alignment

Syntax #pragma data\_alignment=expression

**Parameters** 

expression A constant which must be a power of two (1, 2, 4, etc.).

Description Use this pragma directive to give a variable a higher (more strict) alignment than it

would otherwise have. It can be used on variables with static and automatic storage

duration.

When you use this directive on variables with automatic storage duration, there is an upper limit on the allowed alignment for each function, determined by the calling

convention used.

# dataseg

**Parameters** 

\_\_memoryattribute An optional memory attribute denoting in what memory the

segment will be placed; if not specified, default memory is used.

SEGMENT\_NAME A user-defined segment name; cannot be a segment name

predefined for use by the compiler and linker.

default Uses the default segment.

Description Use this pragma directive to place variables in a named segment. The segment name

cannot be a segment name predefined for use by the compiler and linker. The variable will not be initialized at startup, and can for this reason not have an initializer, which means it must be declared <code>\_\_no\_init</code>. The setting remains active until you turn it off

again with the #pragma constseg=default directive.

Example #pragma dataseg=\_\_data24 MY\_SEGMENT

\_\_no\_init char myBuffer[1000];

#pragma dataseg=default

# diag\_default

Syntax #pragma diag\_default=tag[,tag,...]

**Parameters** 

tag The number of a diagnostic message, for example the message

number Pe117.

Description Use this pragma directive to change the severity level back to the default, or to the

severity level defined on the command line by any of the options --diag\_error, --diag\_remark, --diag\_suppress, or --diag\_warnings, for the diagnostic

messages specified with the tags.

See also *Diagnostics*, page 122.

### diag\_error

Syntax #pragma diag\_error=tag[,tag,...]

**Parameters** 

tag The number of a diagnostic message, for example the message

number Pe117.

Description Use this pragma directive to change the severity level to error for the specified

diagnostics.

See also Diagnostics, page 122.

diag\_remark

Syntax #pragma diag\_remark=tag[,tag,...]

**Parameters** 

tag The number of a diagnostic message, for example the message

 $\quad \text{number } \texttt{Pe} 177.$ 

Description Use this pragma directive to change the severity level to remark for the specified

diagnostic messages.

See also Diagnostics, page 122.

diag\_suppress

Syntax #pragma diag\_suppress=tag[,tag,...]

**Parameters** 

tag The number of a diagnostic message, for example the message

number Pe117.

**Description** Use this pragma directive to suppress the specified diagnostic messages.

See also *Diagnostics*, page 122.

# diag\_warning

Syntax #pragma diag\_warning=tag[,tag,...]

**Parameters** 

tag The number of a diagnostic message, for example the message

number Pe826.

Description Use this pragma directive to change the severity level to warning for the specified

diagnostic messages.

See also *Diagnostics*, page 122.

### include alias

#pragma include\_alias (<orig\_header> , <subst\_header>)

**Parameters** 

orig\_header The name of a header file for which you want to create an alias.

subst\_header The alias for the original header file.

Description Use this pragma directive to provide an alias for a header file. This is useful for

substituting one header file with another, and for specifying an absolute path to a relative

file.

This pragma directive must appear before the corresponding #include directives and

subst\_header must match its corresponding #include directive exactly.

Example #pragma include\_alias (<stdio.h> , <C:\MyHeaders\stdio.h>)

#include <stdio.h>

This example will substitute the relative file stdio.h with a counterpart located

according to the specified path.

See also *Include file search procedure*, page 120.

### inline

Syntax #pragma inline[=forced]

**Parameters** 

forced Disables the compiler's heuristics and forces inlining.

Description

Use this pragma directive to advise the compiler that the function whose declaration follows immediately after the directive should be inlined—that is, expanded into the body of the calling function. Whether the inlining actually occurs is subject to the compiler's heuristics.

This is similar to the C++ keyword inline, but has the advantage of being available in C code.

Specifying #pragma inline=forced disables the compiler's heuristics and forces inlining. If the inlining fails for some reason, for example if it cannot be used with the function type in question (like printf), an error message is emitted.

**Note:** Because specifying #pragma inline=forced disables the compiler's heuristics, including the inlining heuristics, the function declared immediately after the directive will not be inlined on optimization levels None or Low. No error or warning message will be emitted.

# language

Syntax #pragma language={extended|default}

**Parameters** 

extended Turns on the IAR Systems language extensions and turns off the

 $--{\tt strict\_ansi}\ {\tt command}\ {\tt line}\ {\tt option}.$ 

default Uses the language settings specified by compiler options.

Description Use this pragma directive to enable the compiler language extensions or for using the

language settings specified on the command line.

### location

Syntax #pragma location={address|NAME}

**Parameters** 

address The absolute address of the global or static variable for which you

want an absolute location.

NAME A user-defined segment name; cannot be a segment name

predefined for use by the compiler and linker.

Description Use this pragma directive to specify the location—the absolute address—of the global

or static variable whose declaration follows the pragma directive. The variable must be declared either \_\_no\_init or const. Alternatively, the directive can take a string specifying a segment for placing either a variable or a function whose declaration

follows the pragma directive.

Example #pragma location=0x2000

\_\_no\_init volatile char PORT1; /\* PORT1 is located at address

0x2000 \*/

#pragma location="foo"

char PORT1; /\* PORT1 is located in segment foo \*/

/\* A better way is to use a corresponding mechanism \*/

#define FLASH \_Pragma("location=\"FLASH\"")

. . .

FLASH int i; /\* i is placed in the FLASH segment \*/

See also Controlling data and function placement in memory, page 103.

### message

Syntax #pragma message(message)

**Parameters** 

message The message that you want to direct to stdout.

Description Use this pragma directive to make the compiler print a message to stdout when the file

is compiled.

Example: #ifdef TESTING

#pragma message("Testing")

#endif

## object\_attribute

Parameters For a list of object attributes that can be used with this pragma directive, see *Object* 

attributes, page 176.

Description Use this pragma directive to declare a variable or a function with an object attribute. This

directive affects the definition of the identifier that follows immediately after the directive. The object is modified, not its type. Unlike the directive #pragma

type\_attribute that specifies the storing and accessing of a variable or function, it is

not necessary to specify an object attribute in declarations.

Example #pragma object\_attribute=\_\_no\_init

char bar;

See also General syntax rules for extended keywords, page 173.

## optimize

Syntax #pragma optimize=param[ param...]

**Parameters** 

balanced | size | speed Optimizes balanced between speed and size,

optimizes for size, or optimizes for speed

no\_code\_motion Turns off code motion

no\_cse Turns off common subexpression elimination

no\_inline Turns off function inlining

no\_tbaa Turns off type-based alias analysis

no\_unroll Turns off loop unrolling

Description

Use this pragma directive to decrease the optimization level, or to turn off some specific optimizations. This pragma directive only affects the function that follows immediately

after the directive.

The parameters speed, size, and balanced only have effect on the high optimization level and only one of them can be used as it is not possible to optimize for speed and size at the same time. It is also not possible to use preprocessor macros embedded in this pragma directive. Any such macro will not be expanded by the preprocessor.

**Note:** If you use the #pragma optimize directive to specify an optimization level that is higher than the optimization level you specify using a compiler option, the pragma directive is ignored.

Example

```
#pragma optimize=speed
int small_and_used_often()
{
    ...
}

#pragma optimize=size no_inline
int big_and_seldom_used()
{
    ...
}
```

## pack

Syntax

```
#pragma pack(n)
#pragma pack()
#pragma pack({push|pop}[,name] [,n])
```

**Parameters** 

Sets an optional structure alignment; one of: 1, 2, 4, 8, or 16

Empty list Restores the structure alignment to default push Sets a temporary structure alignment

pop Restores the structure alignment from a temporarily pushed alignment

name An optional pushed or popped alignment label

Description

Use this pragma directive to specify the maximum alignment of struct and union members.

The #pragma pack directive affects declarations of structures following the pragma directive to the next #pragma pack or end of file.

**Note:** This can result in significantly larger and slower code when accessing members of the structure.

See also

Structure types, page 158.

# \_\_printf\_args

Syntax #pragma \_\_printf\_args

Description Use this pragma directive on a function with a printf-style format string. For any call to

that function, the compiler verifies that the argument to each conversion specifier (for

example %d) is syntactically correct.

Example #pragma \_\_printf\_args

```
int printf(char const *,...);
```

```
/* Function call */
```

printf("%d",x); /\* Compiler checks that x is a double \*/

# required

Syntax #pragma required=symbol

**Parameters** 

symbol Any statically linked function or variable.

Description

Use this pragma directive to ensure that a symbol which is needed by a second symbol is included in the linked output. The directive must be placed immediately before the second symbol.

Use the directive if the requirement for a symbol is not otherwise visible in the application, for example if a variable is only referenced indirectly through the segment it resides in.

Example

```
const char copyright[] = "Copyright by me";
...
#pragma required=copyright
int main()
{...}
```

Even if the copyright string is not used by the application, it will still be included by the linker and available in the output.

#### rtmodel

Syntax #pragma rtmodel="key","value"

**Parameters** 

" key" A text string that specifies the runtime model attribute.

"value" A text string that specifies the value of the runtime model attribute.

Using the special value \* is equivalent to not defining the attribute at

all.

Description

Use this pragma directive to add a runtime model attribute to a module, which can be used by the linker to check consistency between modules.

This pragma directive is useful for enforcing consistency between modules. All modules that are linked together and define the same runtime attribute key must have the same value for the corresponding key, or the special value \*. It can, however, be useful to state explicitly that the module can handle any runtime model.

A module can have several runtime model definitions.

**Note:** The predefined compiler runtime model attributes start with a double underscore. To avoid confusion, this style must not be used in the user-defined attributes.

Example

```
#pragma rtmodel="I2C","ENABLED"
```

The linker will generate an error if a module that contains this definition is linked with a module that does not have the corresponding runtime model attributes defined.

See also

Checking module consistency, page 67.

# \_\_scanf\_args

Syntax #pragma \_\_scanf\_args

**Description** Us

Use this pragma directive on a function with a scanf-style format string. For any call to that function, the compiler verifies that the argument to each conversion specifier (for example %d) is syntactically correct.

Example

```
#pragma __scanf_args
int printf(char const *,...);

/* Function call */
scanf("%d",x); /* Compiler checks that x is a double */
```

### segment

**Parameters** 

NAME The name of the segment

\_\_memoryattribute An optional memory attribute identifying the memory the segment

will be placed in; if not specified, default memory is used.

align Specifies an alignment for the segment part. The value must be a

constant integer expression to the power of two.

Description Use this pragma directive to define a segment name that can be used by the segment

operators \_\_segment\_begin and \_\_segment\_end. All segment declarations for a

specific segment must have the same memory type attribute and alignment.

If an optional memory attribute is used, the return type of the segment operators

 $\_\_$ segment\_begin and  $\_\_$ segment\_end is:

void \_\_memoryattribute \*.

Example #pragma segment="MYHUGE" \_\_data32 4

See also Important language extensions, page 164. For more information about segments and

segment parts, see the chapter Placing code and data.

# type\_attribute

**Syntax** #pragma type\_attribute=type\_attribute[,type\_attribute,...]

Parameters For a list of type attributes that can be used with this pragma directive, see *Type* 

attributes, page 173.

Description Use this pragma directive to specify IAR-specific *type attributes*, which are not part of

the ISO/ANSI C language standard. Note however, that a given type attribute might not

be applicable to all kind of objects.

This directive affects the declaration of the identifier, the next variable, or the next

function that follows immediately after the pragma directive.

Example In this example, an int object with the memory attribute \_\_data16 is defined:

#pragma type\_attribute=\_\_data16

int x;

This declaration, which uses extended keywords, is equivalent:

\_\_data16 int x;

See also See the chapter *Extended keywords* for more details.

#### vector

Syntax #pragma vector=vector1[, vector2, vector3, ...]

**Parameters** 

vector The vector number(s) of an interrupt function.

Description Use this pragma directive to specify the vector(s) of an interrupt function whose

declaration follows the pragma directive. Note that several vectors can be defined for

each function.

Example! #pragma vector=0x14

\_\_interrupt void my\_handler(void);

# **Intrinsic functions**

This chapter gives reference information about the intrinsic functions, a predefined set of functions available in the compiler.

The intrinsic functions provide direct access to low-level processor operations and can be very useful in, for example, time-critical routines. The intrinsic functions compile into inline code, either as a single instruction or as a short sequence of instructions.

# **Summary of intrinsic functions**

To use intrinsic functions in an application, include the header file intrinsics.h.

Note that the intrinsic function names start with double underscores, for example:

\_\_disable\_interrupt

This table summarizes the intrinsic functions:

Intrinsic function	Description
break	Inserts a BRK instruction
delay_cycles	Inserts code to delay execution
disable_interrupt	Disables interrupts
enable_interrupt	Enables interrupts
exchange_byte	Inserts an XCHG instruction
exchange_long	Inserts an XCHG instruction
exchange_word	Inserts an XCHG instruction
get_DCR_register	Returns the value of the DCR register
get_DCT_register	Returns the value of the $\mathtt{DCT}\xspace$ register
get_DDA_register	Returns the value of the DDA register
get_DDR_register	Returns the value of the DDR register
get_DMD_register	Returns the value of the ${\tt DMD}$ register
get_DSA_register	Returns the value of the ${\tt DSA}$ register
get_DSR_register	Returns the value of the DSR register
get_interrupt_level	Returns the interrupt level

Table 36: Intrinsic functions summary

Intrinsic function	Description
get_interrupt_state	Returns the interrupt state
get_interrupt_table	Returns the value of the ${\tt INTB}$ register
get_VCT_register	Returns the value of the $\operatorname{VCT}\nolimits$ register
illegal_opcode	Inserts an UND instruction
interrupt_on_overflow	Inserts an INTO instruction
load_context	Inserts an LDCTX instruction
low_level_init	Low-level initialization
no_operation	Inserts a NOP instruction
RMPA_B	Inserts an RMPA instruction
RMPA_L	Inserts an RMPA instruction
RMPA_W	Inserts an RMPA instruction
ROUND	Inserts a ROUND instruction
set_DCR_register	Writes a specific value to the DCR register
set_DCT_register	Writes a specific value to the $\mathtt{DCT}$ register
set_DDA_register	Writes a specific value to the DDA register
set_DDR_register	Writes a specific value to the DDR register
set_DMD_register	Writes a specific value to the ${\tt DMD}$ register
set_DSA_register	Writes a specific value to the $\mathtt{DSA}$ register
set_DSR_register	Writes a specific value to the DSR register
set_interrupt_level	Sets the interrupt level
set_interrupt_state	Restores the interrupt state
set_interrupt_table	Writes a specific value to the INTB register
set_VCT_register	Writes a specific value to the $\mathtt{VCT}\xspace$ register
SIN	Inserts an SIN instruction
software_interrupt	Inserts an INT instruction
SOUT	Inserts an SOUT instruction
STOP	Inserts a STOP instruction
store_context	Inserts an STCTX instruction
wait_for_interrupt	Inserts a WAIT instruction

Table 36: Intrinsic functions summary (Continued)

# **Descriptions of intrinsic functions**

This section gives reference information about each intrinsic function.

\_\_break

Syntax void \_\_break(void);

**Description** Inserts a BRK instruction.

\_\_delay\_cycles

Syntax void \_\_delay\_cycles(unsigned long cycles);

**Description** Inserts code to delay execution for cycles number of execution cycles.

\_\_disable\_interrupt

Syntax void \_\_disable\_interrupt(void);

Description Disables interrupts by clearing the I bit in the status register FLG.

 $\_\_enable\_interrupt$ 

Syntax void \_\_enable\_interrupt(void);

Description Enables interrupts by setting the I bit in the status register FLG.

\_\_exchange\_byte

Syntax unsigned char \_\_exchange\_byte(unsigned char src,

unsigned char \* dst);

**Description** Inserts an XCHG. B src, dst instruction.

# \_\_exchange\_long

Syntax unsigned long \_\_exchange\_long(unsigned long src,

unsigned long \* dst);

**Description** Inserts an XCHG. L src, dst instruction.

### \_\_exchange\_word

Syntax unsigned short \_\_exchange\_word(unsigned short src,

unsigned short \* dst);

**Description** Inserts an XCHG. W src, dst instruction.

# \_\_get\_DCR\_register

Syntax unsigned long \_\_get\_DCR\_register(unsigned char n);

**Description** Returns the value of the DCRn register. The channel n can be either 0, 1, 2, or 3.

# \_\_get\_DCT\_register

Syntax unsigned long \_\_get\_DCT\_register(unsigned char n);

Description Returns the value of the DCTn register. The channel n can be either 0, 1, 2, or 3.

# \_\_get\_DDA\_register

Syntax unsigned long \_\_get\_DDA\_register(unsigned char n);

Description Returns the value of the DDAn register. The channel n can be either 0, 1, 2, or 3.

# \_\_get\_DDR\_register

Syntax unsigned long \_\_get\_DDR\_register(unsigned char n);

**Description** Returns the value of the DDRn register. The channel n can be either 0, 1, 2, or 3.

# \_\_get\_DMD\_register

Syntax unsigned long \_\_get\_DMD\_register(unsigned char n);

Description Returns the value of the DMDn register. The channel n can be either 0, 1, 2, or 3.

## \_\_get\_DSA\_register

Syntax unsigned long \_\_get\_DSA\_register(unsigned char n);

Description Returns the value of the DSAn register. The channel n can be either 0, 1, 2, or 3.

# \_\_get\_DSR\_register

Syntax unsigned long \_\_get\_DSR\_register(unsigned char n);

Description Returns the value of the DSRn register. The channel n can be either 0, 1, 2, or 3.

# \_\_get\_interrupt\_level

Syntax \_\_ilevel\_t \_\_get\_interrupt\_level(void);

Description Returns the current interrupt level. The return type \_\_ilevel\_t has the following

definition:

typedef unsigned char \_\_ilevel\_t;

The return value of \_\_get\_interrupt\_level can be used as an argument to the

\_\_set\_interrupt\_level intrinsic function.

# \_\_get\_interrupt\_state

Syntax \_\_istate\_t \_\_get\_interrupt\_state(void);

Description Returns the global interrupt state. The return value can be used as an argument to the

\_\_set\_interrupt\_state intrinsic function, which will restore the interrupt state.

**Example** \_\_istate\_t s = \_\_get\_interrupt\_state();

\_\_disable\_interrupt();

/\* Do something \*/

\_\_set\_interrupt\_state(s);

The advantage of using this sequence of code compared to using

\_\_disable\_interrupt and \_\_enable\_interrupt is that the code in this example

will not enable any interrupts disabled.

# \_\_get\_interrupt\_table

Syntax unsigned long \_\_get\_interrupt\_table(void);

**Description** Returns the value of the INTB register.

# \_\_get\_VCT\_register

Syntax unsigned long \_\_get\_VCT\_register(void);

**Description** Returns the value of the VCT register.

# \_\_illegal\_opcode

Syntax void \_\_illegal\_opcode(void);

**Description** Inserts an UND instruction.

# \_\_interrupt\_on\_overflow

Syntax void \_\_interrupt\_on\_overflow(void);

**Description** Inserts an INTO instruction.

# \_\_load\_context

Syntax void \_\_load\_context(void \_\_data16 \* src, void \_\_data24 \* dst);

**Description** Inserts an LDCTX src, dst instruction.

# \_\_low\_level\_init

Description Gives the application a chance to perform early initializations. The function is called

from the file cstartup.s53. See Customizing system initialization, page 55.

### \_\_no\_operation

Syntax void \_\_no\_operation(void);

**Description** Inserts a NOP instruction.

### RMPA B

 $\label{eq:syntax} \mbox{ long long $\__{RMPA_B}(signed char * v1, signed char * v2, unsigned) }$ 

long n, long long acc);

Description Inserts an RMPA. B instruction. The RMPA instruction sequentially multiplies the two

vectors v1 and v2 and adds each product to the accumulator acc. The length of the vectors is n. You can supply an initial value for the accumulator acc, either variable or

a constant.

# \_\_RMPA\_L

Syntax long long \_\_RMPA\_L(signed long \* v1, signed long \* v2, unsigned

long n, long long acc);

Description Inserts an RMPA.L instruction. The RMPA instruction sequentially multiplies the two

vectors v1 and v2 and adds each product to the accumulator acc. The length of the vectors is n. You can supply an initial value for the accumulator acc, either variable or

a constant.

# \_\_RMPA\_W

Syntax long long  $_{RMPA_W}(signed short * v1, signed short * v2,$ 

unsigned long n, long long acc);

Description Inserts an RMPA.W instruction. The RMPA instruction sequentially multiplies the two

vectors v1 and v2 and adds each product to the accumulator acc. The length of the

vectors is n. You can supply an initial value for the accumulator acc, either variable or a constant.

### \_\_ROUND

Syntax int \_\_ROUND(float);

Description Inserts a ROUND instruction. See Casting a floating-point value to an integer, page 101.

### \_\_set\_DCR\_register

Syntax void \_\_set\_DCR\_register(unsigned char n, unsigned long value);

Description Writes a specific value to the DCRn register. The channel n can be either 0, 1, 2, or 3.

# \_\_set\_DCT\_register

Syntax void \_\_set\_DCT\_register(unsigned char n, unsigned long value);

Description Writes a specific value to the DCTn register. The channel n can be either 0, 1, 2, or 3.

# \_\_set\_DDA\_register

Syntax void \_\_set\_DDA\_register(unsigned char n, unsigned long value);

Description Writes a specific value to the DDAn register. The channel n can be either 0, 1, 2, or 3.

# \_\_set\_DDR\_register

Syntax void \_\_set\_DDR\_register(unsigned char n, unsigned long value);

Description Writes a specific value to the DDRn register. The channel n can be either 0, 1, 2, or 3.

# \_\_set\_DMD\_register

Syntax void \_\_set\_DMD\_register(unsigned char n, unsigned long value);

**Description** Writes a specific value to the DMDn register. The channel n can be either 0, 1, 2, or 3.

### \_\_set\_DSA\_register

Syntax void \_\_set\_DSA\_register(unsigned char n, unsigned long value);

Description Writes a specific value to the DSAn register. The channel n can be either 0, 1, 2, or 3.

## \_\_set\_DSR\_register

Syntax void \_\_set\_DSR\_register(unsigned char n, unsigned long value);

Description Writes a specific value to the DSRn register. The channel n can be either 0, 1, 2, or 3.

# \_\_set\_interrupt\_level

Syntax void \_\_set\_interrupt\_level(\_\_ilevel\_t);

Description Sets the interrupt level. For information about the \_\_ilevel\_t type, see

\_\_get\_interrupt\_level, page 203.

## \_\_set\_interrupt\_state

Syntax void \_\_set\_interrupt\_state(\_\_istate\_t);

Descriptions Restores the interrupt state by setting the value returned by the

\_\_get\_interrupt\_state function.

For information about the \_\_istate\_t type, see get interrupt state, page 203.

# \_\_set\_interrupt\_table

Syntax void \_\_set\_interrupt\_table(unsigned long address);

**Description** Writes a specific value to the INTB register.

# \_\_set\_VCT\_register

Syntax void \_\_set\_VCT\_register(unsigned long address);

**Description** Writes a specific value to the VCT register.

# \_\_SIN

Syntax void \_\_SIN(char \* src, char \* dst, unsigned long n);

**Description** Inserts an SIN.B instruction.

src The source register address

dst The destination char array pointer

n The number of bytes

## \_\_software\_interrupt

Syntax void \_\_software\_interrupt(unsigned char n);

**Description** Inserts an INT #n instruction.

### SOUT

Syntax void  $\__SOUT(char * src, char * dst, unsigned long n);$ 

**Description** Inserts an SOUT.B instruction.

The source char array pointer

dst

The destination register address

n The number of bytes

# \_\_STOP

Syntax void \_\_STOP(void);

**Description** Inserts a STOP instruction.

### \_\_store\_context

Syntax void \_\_store\_context(void \_\_data16 \* src, void \_\_data24 \* dst);

**Description** Inserts an STCTX src, dst instruction.

# \_\_wait\_for\_interrupt

Syntax void \_\_wait\_for\_interrupt(void);

**Description** Inserts a WAIT instruction.

Descriptions of intrinsic functions

# The preprocessor

This chapter gives a brief overview of the preprocessor, including reference information about the different preprocessor directives, symbols, and other related information.

# Overview of the preprocessor

The preprocessor of the IAR C/C++ Compiler for R32C adheres to the ISO/ANSI standard. The compiler also makes these preprocessor-related features available to you:

- Predefined preprocessor symbols
  - These symbols allow you to inspect the compile-time environment, for example the time and date of compilation. For details, see *Descriptions of predefined preprocessor symbols*, page 212.
- User-defined preprocessor symbols defined using a compiler option
   In addition to defining your own preprocessor symbols using the #define directive, you can also use the option -D, see -D, page 131.
- Preprocessor extensions
  - There are several preprocessor extensions, for example many pragma directives; for more information, see the chapter *Pragma directives* in this guide. Read also about the corresponding \_Pragma operator and the other extensions related to the preprocessor, see *Descriptions of miscellaneous preprocessor extensions*, page 214.
- Preprocessor output
  - Use the option --preprocess to direct preprocessor output to a named file, see --preprocess, page 149.

Some parts listed by the ISO/ANSI standard are implementation-defined, for example the character set used in the preprocessor directives and inclusion of bracketed and quoted filenames. To read more about this, see *Preprocessing directives*, page 244.

# **Descriptions of predefined preprocessor symbols**

This table describes the predefined preprocessor symbols:

Predefined symbol	Identifies
BASE_FILE	A string that identifies the name of the base source file (that is, not the header file), being compiled. See alsoFILE, page 212, and _no_path_in_file_macros, page 144.
BUILD_NUMBER	A unique integer that identifies the build number of the compiler currently in use. The build number does not necessarily increase with a compiler that is released later.
CODE_MODEL	An integer that identifies the code model in use. The symbol reflects thecode_model option and is defined toFAR orHUGE These symbolic names can be used when testing theCODE_MODEL symbol.
cplusplus	An integer which is defined when the compiler runs in any of the C++ modes, otherwise it is undefined. When defined, its value is 199711L. This symbol can be used with #ifdef to detect whether the compiler accepts C++ code. It is particularly useful when creating header files that are to be shared by C and C++ code.
DATA_MODEL	An integer that identifies the data model in use. The symbol reflects thedata_model option and can be defined toNEAR,FAR, orHUGE These symbolic names can be used when testing theDATA_MODEL symbol.
DATE	A string that identifies the date of compilation, which is returned in the form "Mmm dd yyyy", for example "Oct 30 2005". $^{*}$
embedded_cplusplus	An integer which is defined to 1 when the compiler runs in any of the C++ modes, otherwise the symbol is undefined. This symbol can be used with #ifdef to detect whether the compiler accepts C++ code. It is particularly useful when creating header files that are to be shared by C and C++ code.*
FILE	A string that identifies the name of the file being compiled, which can be both the base source file and any included header file. See alsoBASE_FILE, page 212, and _no_path_in_file_macros, page 144.*

Table 37: Predefined symbols

Predefined symbol	Identifies
func	A string that identifies the name of the function in which the symbol is used. This is useful for assertions and other trace utilities. The symbol requires that language extensions are enabled, see -e, page 137. See also PRETTY_FUNCTION, page 213.
FUNCTION	A string that identifies the name of the function in which the symbol is used. This is useful for assertions and other trace utilities. The symbol requires that language extensions are enabled, see -e, page 137. See also PRETTY_FUNCTION, page 213.
IAR_SYSTEMS_ICC	An integer that identifies the IAR compiler platform. The current value is 7. Note that the number could be higher in a future version of the product. This symbol can be tested with #ifdef to detect whether the code was compiled by a compiler from IAR Systems.
ICCR32C	An integer that is set to $1$ when the code is compiled with the IAR C/C++ Compiler for R32C, and otherwise to $0$ .
LINE	An integer that identifies the current source line number of the file being compiled, which can be both the base source file and any included header file.*
LITTLE_ENDIAN	An integer that identifies the byte order of the microcomputer. For the R32C/100 microcomputer families, the value of this symbol is defined to 1 (TRUE), which means that the byte order is little-endian.
PRETTY_FUNCTION	A string that identifies the function name, including parameter types and return type, of the function in which the symbol is used, for example "void func(char)". This symbol is useful for assertions and other trace utilities. The symbol requires that language extensions are enabled, see -e, page 137. See alsofunc, page 213.
STDC	An integer that is set to 1, which means the compiler adheres to the ISO/ANSI C standard. This symbol can be tested with $\#ifdef$ to detect whether the compiler in use adheres to ISO/ANSI C.*
STDC_VERSION	An integer that identifies the version of ISO/ANSI C standard in use. The symbols expands to $199409L$ . This symbol does not apply in EC++ mode.*

Table 37: Predefined symbols (Continued)

Predefined symbol	Identifies
SUBVERSION	An integer that identifies the version letter of the compiler version number, for example the C in 4.21C, as an ASCII character.
TIME	A string that identifies the time of compilation in the form $"hh:mm:ss".\overset{*}{.}$
VER	An integer that identifies the version number of the IAR compiler in use. The value of the number is calculated in this way: (100 * the major version number + the minor version number). For example, for compiler version 3.34, 3 is the major version number and 34 is the minor version number. Hence, the value ofVER is 334.

Table 37: Predefined symbols (Continued)

# Descriptions of miscellaneous preprocessor extensions

This section gives reference information about the preprocessor extensions that are available in addition to the predefined symbols, pragma directives, and ISO/ANSI directives.

### **NDEBUG**

Description

This preprocessor symbol determines whether any assert macros you have written in your application shall be included or not in the built application.

If this symbol is not defined, all assert macros are evaluated. If the symbol is defined, all assert macros are excluded from the compilation. In other words, if the symbol is:

- **defined**, the assert code will *not* be included
- not defined, the assert code will be included

This means that if you write any assert code and build your application, you should define this symbol to exclude the assert code from the final application.

Note that the assert macro is defined in the assert.h standard include file.



In the IDE, the NDEBUG symbol is automatically defined if you build your application in the Release build configuration.

<sup>\*</sup> This symbol is required by the ISO/ANSI standard.

# \_Pragma()

Syntax \_Pragma("string")

where string follows the syntax of the corresponding pragma directive.

Description This preprocessor operator is part of the C99 standard and can be used, for example, in

defines and is equivalent to the #pragma directive.

Note: The -e option—enable language extensions—does not have to be specified.

Example #if NO\_OPTIMIZE

#define NOOPT \_Pragma("optimize=none")

#else

#define NOOPT

#endif

See also See the chapter *Pragma directives*.

# #warning message

Syntax #warning message

where message can be any string.

Description Use this preprocessor directive to produce messages. Typically, this is useful for

assertions and other trace utilities, similar to the way the ISO/ANSI standard #error

directive is used.

# \_\_VA\_ARGS\_\_

Syntax #define P(...) \_\_VA\_ARGS\_\_

 $\#define P(x,y,...) x + y + \__VA_ARGS__$ 

\_\_\_VA\_ARGS\_\_ will contain all variadic arguments concatenated, including the

separating commas.

**Description** Variadic macros are the preprocessor macro equivalents of printf style functions.

\_\_VA\_ARGS\_\_ is part of the C99 standard.

# Library functions

This chapter gives an introduction to the C and C++ library functions. It also lists the header files used for accessing library definitions.

For detailed reference information about the library functions, see the online help system.

### Introduction

The compiler is delivered with the IAR DLIB Library; a complete ISO/ANSI C and C++ library. This library also supports floating-point numbers in IEEE 754 format and it can be configured to include different levels of support for locale, file descriptors, multibyte characters, et cetera.

For detailed information about the library functions, see the online documentation supplied with the product. There is also keyword reference information for the DLIB library functions. To obtain reference information for a function, select the function name in the editor window and press F1.

For additional information about library functions, see the chapter *Implementation-defined behavior* in this guide.

#### **HEADER FILES**

Your application program gains access to library definitions through header files, which it incorporates using the #include directive. The definitions are divided into several different header files, each covering a particular functional area, letting you include just those that are required.

It is essential to include the appropriate header file before making any reference to its definitions. Failure to do so can cause the call to fail during execution, or generate error or warning messages at compile time or link time.

### LIBRARY OBJECT FILES

Most of the library definitions can be used without modification, that is, directly from the library object files that are supplied with the product. For information about how to choose a runtime library, see *Basic settings for project configuration*, page 5. The linker will include only those routines that are required—directly or indirectly—by your application.

#### **REENTRANCY**

A function that can be simultaneously invoked in the main application and in any number of interrupts is reentrant. A library function that uses statically allocated data is therefore not reentrant.

Most parts of the DLIB library are reentrant, but these functions and parts are not reentrant because they need static data:

- Heap functions—malloc, free, realloc, calloc, and the C++ operators new and delete
- Time functions—asctime, localtime, gmtime, mktime
- Multibyte functions—mbrlen, mbrtowc, mbsrtowc, wcrtomb, wcsrtomb, wctomb
- The miscellaneous functions setlocale, rand, atexit, strerror, strtok
- Functions that use files in some way. This includes printf, scanf, getchar, and putchar. The functions sprintf and sscanf are not included.

Some functions also share the same storage for errno. These functions are not reentrant, since an errno value resulting from one of these functions can be destroyed by a subsequent use of the function before it is read. Among these functions are:

```
exp, exp10, ldexp, log, log10, pow, sqrt, acos, asin, atan2, cosh, sinh, strtod, strtol, strtoul
```

#### Remedies for this are:

- Do not use non-reentrant functions in interrupt service routines
- Guard calls to a non-reentrant function by a mutex, or a secure region, etc.

# IAR DLIB Library

The IAR DLIB Library provides most of the important C and C++ library definitions that apply to embedded systems. These are of the following types:

- Adherence to a free-standing implementation of the ISO/ANSI standard for the programming language C. For additional information, see the chapter Implementation-defined behavior in this guide.
- Standard C library definitions, for user programs.
- Embedded C++ library definitions, for user programs.
- CSTARTUP, the module containing the start-up code. It is described in the chapter
   *The DLIB runtime environment* in this guide.
- Runtime support libraries; for example low-level floating-point routines.

• Intrinsic functions, allowing low-level use of R32C/100 features. See the chapter *Intrinsic functions* for more information.

In addition, the IAR DLIB Library includes some added C functionality, partly taken from the C99 standard, see *Added C functionality*, page 222.

#### **C HEADER FILES**

This section lists the header files specific to the DLIB library C definitions. Header files may additionally contain target-specific definitions; these are documented in the chapter *Compiler extensions*.

The following table lists the C header files:

Header file	Usage
assert.h	Enforcing assertions when functions execute
ctype.h	Classifying characters
errno.h	Testing error codes reported by library functions
float.h	Testing floating-point type properties
inttypes.h	Defining formatters for all types defined in ${\tt stdint.h}$
iso646.h	Using Amendment I—iso646.h standard header
limits.h	Testing integer type properties
locale.h	Adapting to different cultural conventions
math.h	Computing common mathematical functions
setjmp.h	Executing non-local goto statements
signal.h	Controlling various exceptional conditions
stdarg.h	Accessing a varying number of arguments
stdbool.h	Adds support for the bool data type in C.
stddef.h	Defining several useful types and macros
stdint.h	Providing integer characteristics
stdio.h	Performing input and output
stdlib.h	Performing a variety of operations
string.h	Manipulating several kinds of strings
time.h	Converting between various time and date formats
wchar.h	Support for wide characters
wctype.h	Classifying wide characters

Table 38: Traditional standard C header files—DLIB

### C++ HEADER FILES

This section lists the C++ header files.

### Embedded C++

The following table lists the Embedded C++ header files:

Header file	Usage
complex	Defining a class that supports complex arithmetic
exception	Defining several functions that control exception handling
fstream	Defining several I/O stream classes that manipulate external files
iomanip	Declaring several I/O stream manipulators that take an argument
ios	Defining the class that serves as the base for many I/O streams classes
iosfwd	Declaring several I/O stream classes before they are necessarily defined
iostream	Declaring the I/O stream objects that manipulate the standard streams
istream	Defining the class that performs extractions
new	Declaring several functions that allocate and free storage
ostream	Defining the class that performs insertions
sstream	Defining several I/O stream classes that manipulate string containers
stdexcept	Defining several classes useful for reporting exceptions
streambuf	Defining classes that buffer I/O stream operations
string	Defining a class that implements a string container
strstream	Defining several I/O stream classes that manipulate in-memory character sequences

Table 39: Embedded C++ header files

The following table lists additional C++ header files:

Header file	Usage
fstream.h	Defining several I/O stream classes that manipulate external files
iomanip.h	Declaring several I/O stream manipulators that take an argument
iostream.h	Declaring the I/O stream objects that manipulate the standard streams
new.h	Declaring several functions that allocate and free storage

Table 40: Additional Embedded C++ header files—DLIB

## **Extended Embedded C++ standard template library**

The following table lists the Extended EC++ standard template library (STL) header files:

Header file	Description
algorithm	Defines several common operations on sequences
deque	A deque sequence container
functional	Defines several function objects
hash_map	A map associative container, based on a hash algorithm
hash_set	A set associative container, based on a hash algorithm
iterator	Defines common iterators, and operations on iterators
list	A doubly-linked list sequence container
map	A map associative container
memory	Defines facilities for managing memory
numeric	Performs generalized numeric operations on sequences
queue	A queue sequence container
set	A set associative container
slist	A singly-linked list sequence container
stack	A stack sequence container
utility	Defines several utility components
vector	A vector sequence container

Table 41: Standard template library header files

### Using standard C libraries in C++

The C++ library works in conjunction with 15 of the header files from the standard C library, sometimes with small alterations. The header files come in two forms—new and traditional—for example, cassert and assert.h.

The following table shows the new header files:

Header file	Usage
cassert	Enforcing assertions when functions execute
cctype	Classifying characters
cerrno	Testing error codes reported by library functions
cfloat	Testing floating-point type properties
cinttypes	Defining formatters for all types defined in ${\tt stdint.h}$

Table 42: New standard C header files—DLIB

Header file	Usage
climits	Testing integer type properties
clocale	Adapting to different cultural conventions
cmath	Computing common mathematical functions
csetjmp	Executing non-local goto statements
csignal	Controlling various exceptional conditions
cstdarg	Accessing a varying number of arguments
cstdbool	Adds support for the bool data type in C.
cstddef	Defining several useful types and macros
cstdint	Providing integer characteristics
cstdio	Performing input and output
cstdlib	Performing a variety of operations
cstring	Manipulating several kinds of strings
ctime	Converting between various time and date formats
cwchar	Support for wide characters
cwctype	Classifying wide characters

Table 42: New standard C header files—DLIB (Continued)

### LIBRARY FUNCTIONS AS INTRINSIC FUNCTIONS

Certain C library functions will under some circumstances be handled as intrinsic functions and will generate inline code instead of an ordinary function call, for example memcpy, memset, and strcat.

#### ADDED C FUNCTIONALITY

The IAR DLIB Library includes some added C functionality, partly taken from the C99 standard.

The following include files provide these features:

- ctype.h
- inttypes.h
- math.h
- stdbool.h
- stdint.h
- stdio.h
- stdlib.h
- wchar.h

• wctype.h

### ctype.h

In ctype.h, the C99 function isblank is defined.

#### inttypes.h

This include file defines the formatters for all types defined in stdint.h to be used by the functions printf, scanf, and all their variants.

#### math.h

In math.h all functions exist in a float variant and a long double variant, suffixed by f and 1 respectively. For example, sinf and sinl.

The following C99 macro symbols are defined:

HUGE\_VALF, HUGE\_VALL, INFINITY, NAN, FP\_INFINITE, FP\_NAN, FP\_NORMAL, FP\_SUBNORMAL, FP\_ZERO, MATH\_ERRNO, MATH\_ERREXCEPT, math\_errhandling.

The following C99 macro functions are defined:

fpclassify, signbit, isfinite, isinf, isnan, isnormal, isgreater, isless, islessequal, islessgreater, isunordered.

The following C99 type definitions are added:

float\_t, double\_t.

#### stdbool.h

This include file makes the bool type available if the **Allow IAR extensions** (-e) option is used.

#### stdint.h

This include file provides integer characteristics.

#### stdio.h

In stdio.h, the following C99 functions are defined:

vscanf, vfscanf, vsscanf, vsnprintf, snprintf

The functions printf, scanf, and all their variants have added functionality from the C99 standard. For reference information about these functions, see the library reference available from the **Help** menu.

The following functions providing I/O functionality for libraries built without FILE support are definded:

```
__write_array Corresponds to fwrite on stdout.
__ungetchar Corresponds to ungetc on stdout.
__gets Corresponds to fgets on stdin.
```

#### stdlib.h

In stdlib.h, the following C99 functions are defined:

```
_Exit, llabs, lldiv, strtoll, strtoull, atoll, strtof, strtold.
```

The function strtod has added functionality from the C99 standard. For reference information about this functions, see the library reference available from the **Help** menu.

The \_\_qsortbb1 function is defined; it provides sorting using a bubble sort algorithm. This is useful for applications that have a limited stack.

#### wchar.h

In wchar.h, the following C99 functions are defined:

```
vfwscanf, vswscanf, vwscanf, wcstof, wcstolb.
```

#### wctype.h

In wctype.h, the C99 function iswblank is defined.

# **S**egment reference

The compiler places code and data into named segments which are referred to by the IAR XLINK Linker. Details about the segments are required for programming assembler language modules, and are also useful when interpreting the assembler language output from the compiler.

For more information about segments, see the chapter Placing code and data.

# **Summary of segments**

The table below lists the segments that are available in the compiler:

Segment	Description
CHECKSUM	Holds the checksum generated by the linker.
CODE24	Holdscode24 program code.
CODE32	Holdscode32 program code.
CSTACK	Holds the stack used by C or C++ programs.
CSTART	Holds the startup code.
DATA16_AC	Holdsdata16 located constant data.
DATA16_AN	Holdsdata16 located uninitialized data.
DATA16_C	Holdsdata16 constant data.
DATA16_I	Holdsdata16 static and global initialized variables.
DATA16_ID	Holds initial values fordata16 static and global variables in
	DATA16_I.
DATA16_N	Holdsno_initdata16 static and global variables.
DATA16_Z	Holds zero-initializeddata16 static and global variables.
DATA24_AC	Holdsdata24 located constant data.
DATA24_AN	Holdsdata24 located uninitialized data.
DATA24_C	Holdsdata24 constant data.
DATA24_I	Holdsdata24 static and global initialized variables.
DATA24_ID	Holds initial values for $\_\_data24$ static and global variables in DATA24 $\_$ I.
DATA24_N	Holdsno_initdata24 static and global variables.

Table 43: Segment summary

Segment	Description
DATA24_Z	Holds zero-initializeddata24 static and global variables.
DATA32_AC	Holdsdata32 located constant data.
DATA32_AN	Holdsdata32 located uninitialized data.
DATA32_C	Holdsdata32 constant data.
DATA32_I	Holdsdata32 static and global initialized variables.
DATA32_ID	Holds initial values fordata32 static and global variables in DATA32_I.
DATA32_N	Holdsno_initdata32 static and global variables.
DATA32_Z	Holds zero-initializeddata32 static and global variables.
DIFUNCT	Holds pointers to code, typically C++ constructors, that should be executed by the system startup code before main is called.
HEAP	Holds the heap data used by malloc and free.
INTVEC	Contains all interrupt vectors except for non-maskable interrupts
ISTACK	Holds the interrupt stack used by C or C++ programs.
NMIVEC	Contains the reset and non-maskable interrupt vectors.
SBDATA16_I	Holdssbdata16 static and global initialized variables.
SBDATA16_ID	Holds initial values forsbdata16 static and global variables in SBDATA16_I.
SBDATA16_N	Holdsno_initsbdata16 static and global variables.
SBDATA16_Z	Holds zero-initializedsbdata16 static and global variables.
SBDATA24_I	Holdssbdata24 static and global initialized variables.
SBDATA24_ID	Holds initial values forsbdata24 static and global variables in SBDATA24_I.
SBDATA24_N	Holdsno_initsbdata24 static and global variables.
SBDATA24_Z	Holds zero-initializedsbdata24 static and global variables.

Table 43: Segment summary (Continued)

# **Descriptions of segments**

This section gives reference information about each segment.

The segments are placed in memory by the segment placement linker directives -Z and -P, for sequential and packed placement, respectively. Some segments cannot use packed placement, as their contents must be continuous.

In each description, the segment memory type—CODE, CONST, or DATA—indicates whether the segment should be placed in ROM or RAM memory; see Table 8, *XLINK segment memory types*, page 28.

For information about the -Z and the -P directives, see the *IAR Linker and Library Tools Reference Guide*.

For information about how to define segments in the linker command file, see *Customizing the linker command file*, page 28.

For detailed information about the extended keywords mentioned here, see the chapter *Extended keywords*.

### **CHECKSUM**

Description Holds the checksum generated by the linker.

Segment memory type CONST

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in ROM memory.

Access type Read-only

### CODE24

Description Holds \_\_code24 program code.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement This segment must be placed in the highest 8 Mbytes of memory.

Access type Read-only

### CODE32

Description Holds \_\_code32 program code.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in memory.

Access type Read-only

### **CSTACK**

Description Holds the internal data stack, the user stack referred to by the USP stack pointer.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in RAM memory.

Access type Read/write

See also The internal data stack, page 34.

### **CSTART**

Description Holds the startup code.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker command file, the -Z directive must be used.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement This segment must be placed in the highest 8 Mbytes of memory.

Access type Read-only

# DATA16 AC

Description Holds \_\_data16 located constant data.

Segments containing located data need no further configuration because they have already been assigned addresses prior to linking. *Located* means being placed at an absolute location using the @ operator or the #pragma location directive.

# DATA16 AN

Description Holds \_\_no\_init \_\_data16 located data.

Segments containing located data need no further configuration because they have already been assigned addresses prior to linking. *Located* means being placed at an absolute location using the @ operator or the #pragma location directive.

# DATA 16\_C

Description Holds \_\_data16 constant data.

Segment memory type CONST

Memory placement This segment must be placed in the highest 32 Kbytes of ROM memory.

Access type Read-only

# DATA 16\_I

Description Holds \_\_data16 static and global initialized variables initialized by copying from the

segment DATA16\_ID at application startup.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker command file, the -Z directive must be used.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement This segment must be placed in the lowest 32 Kbytes of RAM memory.

Access type Read/write

# DATA | 6\_ID

Description Holds initial values for \_\_data16 static and global variables in the DATA16\_I segment.

These values are copied from DATA16\_ID to DATA16\_I at application startup.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker command file, the -Z directive must be used.

Segment memory type CONST

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in ROM memory.

Access type Read-only

# DATA 16\_N

**Description** Holds static and global \_\_no\_init \_\_data16 variables.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement This segment must be placed in the lowest 32 Kbytes of RAM memory.

Access type Read/write

# DATA 16\_Z

Description Holds zero-initialized \_\_data16 static and global variables.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker command file, the -Z directive must be used.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement This segment must be placed in the lowest 32 Kbytes of RAM memory.

Access type Read/write

# DATA24\_AC

Description Holds \_\_data24 located constant data.

Segments containing located data need no further configuration because they have already been assigned addresses prior to linking. *Located* means being placed at an absolute location using the @ operator or the #pragma location directive.

# DATA24\_AN

Description Holds \_\_no\_init \_\_data24 located data.

Segments containing located data need no further configuration because they have already been assigned addresses prior to linking. *Located* means being placed at an absolute location using the @ operator or the #pragma location directive.

# DATA24\_C

Description Holds \_\_data24 constant data.

Segment memory type CONST

Memory placement This segment must be placed in the lowest or highest 8 Mbytes of ROM memory.

Access type Read-only

# DATA24\_I

Description Holds \_\_data24 static and global initialized variables initialized by copying from the

segment DATA24\_ID at application startup.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker command file, the -Z directive must be used.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement This segment must be placed in the lowest or highest 8 Mbytes of RAM memory.

Access type Read/write

# DATA24\_ID

Description Holds initial values for \_\_data24 static and global variables in the DATA24\_I segment.

These values are copied from DATA24\_ID to DATA24\_I at application startup.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker command file, the -Z directive must be used.

Segment memory type CONST

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in ROM memory.

Access type Read-only

# DATA24 N

Description Holds static and global \_\_no\_init \_\_data24 variables.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement This segment must be placed in the lowest or highest 8 Mbytes of RAM memory.

Access type Read/write

### DATA24 Z

Description Holds zero-initialized \_\_data24 static and global variables.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker command file, the -Z directive must be used.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement This segment must be placed in the lowest or highest 8 Mbytes of RAM memory.

Access type Read/write

# DATA32\_AC

Description Holds \_\_data32 located constant data.

Segments containing located data need no further configuration because they have already been assigned addresses prior to linking. *Located* means being placed at an absolute location using the @ operator or the #pragma location directive.

# DATA32\_AN

Description Holds \_\_no\_init \_\_data32 located data.

Segments containing located data need no further configuration because they have already been assigned addresses prior to linking. *Located* means being placed at an absolute location using the @ operator or the #pragma location directive.

# DATA32 C

Description Holds \_\_data32 constant data.

Segment memory type CONST

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in ROM memory.

Access type Read-only

# DATA32\_I

Description Holds \_\_data32 static and global initialized variables initialized by copying from the

segment DATA32\_ID at application startup.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker command file, the -z directive must be used.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in RAM memory.

Access type Read/write

# DATA32\_ID

Description Holds initial values for \_\_data32 static and global variables in the DATA32\_I segment.

These values are copied from DATA32\_ID to DATA32\_I at application startup.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker command file, the -Z directive must be used.

Segment memory type CONST

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in ROM memory.

Access type Read-only

# DATA32 N

**Description** Holds static and global \_\_no\_init \_\_data32 variables.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in RAM memory.

Access type Read/write

# DATA32\_Z

Description Holds zero-initialized \_\_data32 static and global variables.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker command file, the -Z directive must be used.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in RAM memory.

Access type Read/write

### **DIFUNCT**

Description Holds the dynamic initialization vector used by C++.

Segment memory type CONST

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in memory.

Access type Read-only

### **HEAP**

Description Holds the heap used for dynamically allocated data, in other words data allocated by

malloc and free, and in C++, new and delete.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in RAM memory.

Access type Read/write

See also The heap, page 35.

### INTVEC

Description Holds the interrupt vector table generated by the use of the \_\_interrupt extended

keyword in combination with the #pragma vector directive.

Segment memory type CONST

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in ROM memory.

Access type Read-only

### **ISTACK**

Description Holds the interrupt stack, referred to by the ISP stack pointer. It is used for

non-maskable interrupts and interrupts 0–127.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in RAM memory.

Access type Read/write

See also *The internal data stack*, page 34.

### **NMIVEC**

**Description** Holds the non-maskable interrupt vector table and the reset vector.

Segment memory type CONST

Memory placement This segment must be placed in the memory range 0xfffffffDC-0xffffffff.

Access type Read-only

# SBDATA 16\_I

Description Holds \_\_sbdata16 static and global initialized variables initialized by copying from

the segment SBDATA16\_ID at application startup. Also holds \_\_sbdata16 constant

data.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker command file, the -z directive must be used.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement This segment must be placed within the first 64 Kbytes of memory after the static base

reference point (SBREF).

Access type Read/write

# SBDATA16 ID

Description Holds initial values for \_\_sbdata16 static and global variables in the SBDATA16\_I

segment. These values are copied from SBDATA16\_ID to SBDATA16\_I at application

startup.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker command file, the -Z directive must be used.

Segment memory type CONST

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in ROM memory.

Access type Read-only

# SBDATA 16\_N

**Description** Holds static and global \_\_no\_init \_\_sbdata16 variables.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement This segment must be placed within the first 64 Kbytes of memory after the static base

reference point (SBREF).

Access type Read/write

# SBDATA 16\_Z

Description Holds zero-initialized \_\_sbdata16 static and global variables.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker command file, the -Z directive must be used.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement This segment must be placed within the first 64 Kbytes of memory after the static base

reference point (SBREF).

Access type Read/write

# SBDATA24\_I

Description Holds \_\_sbdata24 static and global initialized variables initialized by copying from

the segment SBDATA24\_ID at application startup. Also holds \_\_sbdata24 constant

data.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker command file, the -z directive must be used.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement This segment must be placed within the first 16 Mbytes of memory after the static base

reference point (SBREF).

Access type Read/write

# SBDATA24 ID

Description Holds initial values for \_\_sbdata24 static and global variables in the SBDATA24\_I

segment. These values are copied from SBDATA24\_ID to SBDATA24\_I at application

startup.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker command file, the -Z directive must be used.

Segment memory type CONST

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in ROM memory.

Access type Read-only

# SBDATA24 N

Description Holds static and global \_\_no\_init \_\_sbdata24 variables.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement This segment must be placed within the first 16 Mbytes of memory after the static base

reference point (SBREF).

Access type Read/write

### SBDATA24 Z

Description Holds zero-initialized \_\_sbdata24 static and global variables.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker command file, the -z directive must be used.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement This segment must be placed within the first 16 Mbytes of memory after the static base

reference point (SBREF).

Access type Read/write

# Implementation-defined behavior

This chapter describes how the compiler handles the implementation-defined areas of the C language.

ISO 9899:1990, the International Organization for Standardization standard - Programming Languages - C (revision and redesign of ANSI X3.159-1989, American National Standard), changed by the ISO Amendment 1:1994, Technical Corrigendum 1, and Technical Corrigendum 2, contains an appendix called Portability Issues. The ISO appendix lists areas of the C language that ISO leaves open to each particular implementation.

Note: The compiler adheres to a freestanding implementation of the ISO standard for the C programming language. This means that parts of a standard library can be excluded in the implementation.

# Descriptions of implementation-defined behavior

This section follows the same order as the ISO appendix. Each item covered includes references to the ISO chapter and section (in parenthesis) that explains the implementation-defined behavior.

### **Translation**

### Diagnostics (5.1.1.3)

Diagnostics are produced in the form:

filename, linenumber level[tag]: message

where filename is the name of the source file in which the error was encountered, linenumber is the line number at which the compiler detected the error, level is the level of seriousness of the message (remark, warning, error, or fatal error), tag is a unique tag that identifies the message, and message is an explanatory message, possibly several lines.

### **Environment**

### Arguments to main (5.1.2.2.2.1)

The function called at program startup is called main. No prototype was declared for main, and the only definition supported for main is:

int main(void)

To change this behavior for the IAR DLIB runtime environment, see *Customizing system initialization*, page 55.

### Interactive devices (5.1.2.3)

The streams stdin and stdout are treated as interactive devices.

### **Identifiers**

### Significant characters without external linkage (6.1.2)

The number of significant initial characters in an identifier without external linkage is 200.

### Significant characters with external linkage (6.1.2)

The number of significant initial characters in an identifier with external linkage is 200.

### Case distinctions are significant (6.1.2)

Identifiers with external linkage are treated as case-sensitive.

### Characters

### Source and execution character sets (5.2.1)

The source character set is the set of legal characters that can appear in source files. The default source character set is the standard ASCII character set. However, if you use the command line option --enable\_multibytes, the source character set will be the host computer's default character set.

The execution character set is the set of legal characters that can appear in the execution environment. The default execution character set is the standard ASCII character set. However, if you use the command line option --enable\_multibytes, the execution character set will be the host computer's default character set. The IAR DLIB Library needs a multibyte character scanner to support a multibyte execution character set.

See Locale, page 60.

### Bits per character in execution character set (5.2.4.2.1)

The number of bits in a character is represented by the manifest constant CHAR\_BIT. The standard include file limits.h defines CHAR\_BIT as 8.

### Mapping of characters (6.1.3.4)

The mapping of members of the source character set (in character and string literals) to members of the execution character set is made in a one-to-one way. In other words, the same representation value is used for each member in the character sets except for the escape sequences listed in the ISO standard.

### Unrepresented character constants (6.1.3.4)

The value of an integer character constant that contains a character or escape sequence not represented in the basic execution character set or in the extended character set for a wide character constant generates a diagnostic message, and will be truncated to fit the execution character set.

### Character constant with more than one character (6.1.3.4)

An integer character constant that contains more than one character will be treated as an integer constant. The value will be calculated by treating the leftmost character as the most significant character, and the rightmost character as the least significant character, in an integer constant. A diagnostic message will be issued if the value cannot be represented in an integer constant.

A wide character constant that contains more than one multibyte character generates a diagnostic message.

# Converting multibyte characters (6.1.3.4)

The only locale supported—that is, the only locale supplied with the IAR C/C++ Compiler—is the 'C' locale. If you use the command line option --enable\_multibytes, the IAR DLIB Library will support multibyte characters if you add a locale with multibyte support or a multibyte character scanner to the library.

See *Locale*, page 60.

# Range of 'plain' char (6.2.1.1)

A 'plain' char has the same range as an unsigned char.

# Integers

### Range of integer values (6.1.2.5)

The representation of integer values are in the two's complement form. The most significant bit holds the sign; 1 for negative, 0 for positive and zero.

See *Basic data types*, page 154, for information about the ranges for the different integer types.

### **Demotion of integers (6.2.1.2)**

Converting an integer to a shorter signed integer is made by truncation. If the value cannot be represented when converting an unsigned integer to a signed integer of equal length, the bit-pattern remains the same. In other words, a large enough value will be converted into a negative value.

### Signed bitwise operations (6.3)

Bitwise operations on signed integers work the same way as bitwise operations on unsigned integers; in other words, the sign-bit will be treated as any other bit.

### Sign of the remainder on integer division (6.3.5)

The sign of the remainder on integer division is the same as the sign of the dividend.

### Negative valued signed right shifts (6.3.7)

The result of a right-shift of a negative-valued signed integral type preserves the sign-bit. For example, shifting <code>0xFF00</code> down one step yields <code>0xFF80</code>.

# Floating point

### Representation of floating-point values (6.1.2.5)

The representation and sets of the various floating-point numbers adheres to IEEE 854–1987. A typical floating-point number is built up of a sign-bit (s), a biased exponent (e), and a mantissa (m).

See *Floating-point types*, page 156, for information about the ranges and sizes for the different floating-point types: float and double.

# Converting integer values to floating-point values (6.2.1.3)

When an integral number is cast to a floating-point value that cannot exactly represent the value, the value is rounded (up or down) to the nearest suitable value.

### Demoting floating-point values (6.2.1.4)

When a floating-point value is converted to a floating-point value of narrower type that cannot exactly represent the value, the value is rounded (up or down) to the nearest suitable value.

# **Arrays and pointers**

See *size t*, page 158, for information about size\_t.

### Conversion from/to pointers (6.3.4)

See *Casting*, page 158, for information about casting of data pointers and function pointers.

### ptrdiff\_t (6.3.6, 7.1.1)

See *ptrdiff\_t*, page 158, for information about the ptrdiff\_t.

# Registers

### Honoring the register keyword (6.5.1)

User requests for register variables are not honored.

# Structures, unions, enumerations, and bitfields

### Improper access to a union (6.3.2.3)

If a union gets its value stored through a member and is then accessed using a member of a different type, the result is solely dependent on the internal storage of the first member.

### Padding and alignment of structure members (6.5.2.1)

See the section *Basic data types*, page 154, for information about the alignment requirement for data objects.

# Sign of 'plain' bitfields (6.5.2.1)

A 'plain' int bitfield is treated as a signed int bitfield. All integer types are allowed as bitfields.

### Allocation order of bitfields within a unit (6.5.2.1)

Bitfields are allocated within an integer from least-significant to most-significant bit.

### Can bitfields straddle a storage-unit boundary (6.5.2.1)

Bitfields cannot straddle a storage-unit boundary for the chosen bitfield integer type.

### Integer type chosen to represent enumeration types (6.5.2.2)

The chosen integer type for a specific enumeration type depends on the enumeration constants defined for the enumeration type. The chosen integer type is the smallest possible.

# **Qualifiers**

### Access to volatile objects (6.5.3)

Any reference to an object with volatile qualified type is an access.

### **Declarators**

# Maximum numbers of declarators (6.5.4)

The number of declarators is not limited. The number is limited only by the available memory.

### **Statements**

### Maximum number of case statements (6.6.4.2)

The number of case statements (case values) in a switch statement is not limited. The number is limited only by the available memory.

# **Preprocessing directives**

# Character constants and conditional inclusion (6.8.1)

The character set used in the preprocessor directives is the same as the execution character set. The preprocessor recognizes negative character values if a 'plain' character is treated as a signed character.

### Including bracketed filenames (6.8.2)

For file specifications enclosed in angle brackets, the preprocessor does not search directories of the parent files. A parent file is the file that contains the #include directive. Instead, it begins by searching for the file in the directories specified on the compiler command line.

### Including quoted filenames (6.8.2)

For file specifications enclosed in quotes, the preprocessor directory search begins with the directories of the parent file, then proceeds through the directories of any grandparent files. Thus, searching begins relative to the directory containing the source file currently being processed. If there is no grandparent file and the file is not found, the search continues as if the filename was enclosed in angle brackets.

# Character sequences (6.8.2)

Preprocessor directives use the source character set, except for escape sequences. Thus, to specify a path for an include file, use only one backslash:

```
#include "mydirectory\myfile"
Within source code, two backslashes are necessary:
file = fopen("mydirectory\\myfile","rt");
```

# Recognized pragma directives (6.8.6)

In addition to the pragma directives described in the chapter *Pragma directives*, the following directives are recognized and will have an indeterminate effect:

```
alignment
baseaddr
building_runtime
can_instantiate
codeseg
cspy_support
define_type_info
do_not_instantiate
early_dynamic_initialization
function
hdrstop
important_typedef
instantiate
keep definition
```

```
memory
module_name
no_pch
once
__printf_args
public_equ
__scanf_args
section
STDC
system_include
warnings
```

# Default \_\_DATE\_\_ and \_\_TIME\_\_ (6.8.8)

The definitions for \_\_TIME\_\_ and \_\_DATE\_\_ are always available.

# IAR DLIB Library functions

The information in this section is valid only if the runtime library configuration you have chosen supports file descriptors. See the chapter *The DLIB runtime environment* for more information about runtime library configurations.

### **NULL** macro (7.1.6)

The NULL macro is defined to 0.

# Diagnostic printed by the assert function (7.2)

```
The assert() function prints:
```

```
filename: linenr expression -- assertion failed when the parameter evaluates to zero.
```

### Domain errors (7.5.1)

NaN (Not a Number) will be returned by the mathematic functions on domain errors.

# Underflow of floating-point values sets errno to ERANGE (7.5.1)

The mathematics functions set the integer expression errno to ERANGE (a macro in errno.h) on underflow range errors.

### fmod() functionality (7.5.6.4)

If the second argument to fmod() is zero, the function returns NaN; errno is set to EDOM.

### signal() (7.7.1.1)

The signal part of the library is not supported.

**Note:** Low-level interface functions exist in the library, but will not perform anything. Use the template source code to implement application-specific signal handling. See *Signal and raise*, page 63.

### Terminating newline character (7.9.2)

stdout stream functions recognize either newline or end of file (EOF) as the terminating character for a line.

### Blank lines (7.9.2)

Space characters written to the stdout stream immediately before a newline character are preserved. There is no way to read the line through the stdin stream that was written through the stdout stream.

### Null characters appended to data written to binary streams (7.9.2)

No null characters are appended to data written to binary streams.

### Files (7.9.3)

Whether a write operation on a text stream causes the associated file to be truncated beyond that point, depends on the application-specific implementation of the low-level file routines. See *File input and output*, page 59.

### remove() (7.9.4.1)

The effect of a remove operation on an open file depends on the application-specific implementation of the low-level file routines. See *File input and output*, page 59.

### rename() (7.9.4.2)

The effect of renaming a file to an already existing filename depends on the application-specific implementation of the low-level file routines. See *File input and output*, page 59.

# %p in printf() (7.9.6.1)

The argument to a %p conversion specifier, print pointer, to printf() is treated as having the type void \*. The value will be printed as a hexadecimal number, similar to using the %x conversion specifier.

### %p in scanf() (7.9.6.2)

The %p conversion specifier, scan pointer, to scanf() reads a hexadecimal number and converts it into a value with the type void \*.

### Reading ranges in scanf() (7.9.6.2)

A - (dash) character is always treated as a range symbol.

### File position errors (7.9.9.1, 7.9.9.4)

On file position errors, the functions fgetpos and ftell store EFPOS in errno.

### Message generated by perror() (7.9.10.4)

The generated message is:

usersuppliedprefix:errormessage

# Allocating zero bytes of memory (7.10.3)

The calloc(), malloc(), and realloc() functions accept zero as an argument. Memory will be allocated, a valid pointer to that memory is returned, and the memory block can be modified later by realloc.

# Behavior of abort() (7.10.4.1)

The abort () function does not flush stream buffers, and it does not handle files, because this is an unsupported feature.

# Behavior of exit() (7.10.4.3)

The argument passed to the exit function will be the return value returned by the main function to cstartup.

### **Environment (7.10.4.4)**

The set of available environment names and the method for altering the environment list is described in *Environment interaction*, page 62.

# system() (7.10.4.5)

How the command processor works depends on how you have implemented the system function. See *Environment interaction*, page 62.

# Message returned by strerror() (7.11.6.2)

The messages returned by strerror() depending on the argument is:

Argument	Message
EZERO	no error
EDOM	domain error
ERANGE	range error
EFPOS	file positioning error
EILSEQ	multi-byte encoding error
<0    >99	unknown error
all others	error nnn

Table 44: Message returned by strerror()—IAR DLIB library

# The time zone (7.12.1)

The local time zone and daylight savings time implementation is described in *Time*, page 63.

# clock() (7.12.2.1)

From where the system clock starts counting depends on how you have implemented the clock function. See *Time*, page 63.

Descriptions of implementation-defined behavior

A	assembler code calling from C
abort implementation-defined behavior (DLIB) 248 system termination	calling from C++
absolute location data, placing at (@)	using in inline assembler code
language support for	inserting inline
addressing. See memory types, data models, and code models	assembler labels, making public (public_equ)
algorithm (STL header file)	calling convention. See assembler code assembler list file, generating
forcing stricter (#pragma data_alignment)	assembler output file
in structures, causing problems	implementation-defined behavior of, (DLIB)
restrictions for inline assembler	assert.h (DLIB header file)
ALIGNOF (operator)	atomic operations
anonymous structures	object
building, overview of	auto variables
ARGFRAME (assembler directive)	В
designated initializers in168global, accessing86implementation-defined behavior243incomplete at end of structs167non-lvalue170of incomplete types169single-value initialization171	Barr, Michael
asm,asm (language extension)	bit negation

bitfields	missing from Embedded C++
data representation of	casting, pointers and integers
hints99	cctype (DLIB header file)
implementation-defined behavior of243	cerrno (DLIB header file)
non-standard types in	cexit (system termination code)
specifying order of members (#pragma bitfields) 186	placement in segment
bitfields (pragma directive)	CFI (assembler directive)
bold style, in this guide xxvii	cfi.m53 (CFI header example file)
bool (data type)154	cfloat (DLIB header file)
adding support for in DLIB	char (data type)154
making available in C code	changing default representation (char_is_signed) 131
break (intrinsic function)	signed and unsigned
BRK (assembler instruction)	characters, implementation-defined behavior of
bubble sort function, defined in stdlib.h	character-based I/O
building_runtime (pragma directive)	overriding in runtime library
BUILD_NUMBER (predefined symbol)	char_is_signed (compiler option)
byte order, identifying (LITTLE_ENDIAN)213	
byte order, identifying (LITTLE_ENDIAN)215	CHECKSUM (segment)
	cinttypes (DLIB header file)
C	classes
	climits (DLIB header file)
C and C++ linkage	clocale (DLIB header file)
C/C++ calling convention. See calling convention	clock (DLIB library function),
C header files	implementation-defined behavior of
call frame information	clock.c
in assembler list file	close (library function)
in assembler list file (-lA)140	cmath (DLIB header file)
call stack	code
callee-save registers, stored on stack	execution of
calling convention	interruption of execution
C++, requiring C linkage	verifying linked result
in compiler	code models
See also assembler code	calling functions in
calloc (library function)	configuration
See also heap	controlling default placement of constants21
implementation-defined behavior of (DLIB) 248	identifying (CODE_MODEL)
can_instantiate (pragma directive)245	specifying on command line (code_model)131
cassert (DLIB header file)	code motion (compiler transformation)110
	disabling (no_code_motion)
cast operators in Extended EC++	code pointers. See function pointers
III Extended EC++	code segments, used for placement

codeseg (pragma directive)	compiler platform, identifying
CODE_MODEL (predefined symbol) 212	compiler subversion number
code_model (compiler option)	compiler transformations
code24 (extended keyword) 177	compiler version number
CODE24 (segment)	compiling
code32 (extended keyword)	from the command line
code32 (function pointer)	syntax119
CODE32 (segment)	complex numbers, supported in Embedded C++92
command line options	complex (library header file)
See also compiler options	compound literals
part of compiler invocation syntax	computer style, typographic convention xxvi
passing119	configuration
typographic convention xxvi	basic project settings
command prompt icon, in this guidexxvii	low_level_init55
comments	configuration symbols, in library configuration files 51
after preprocessor directives	consistency, module67
C++ style, using in C code	const
common block (call frame information)	declaring objects
common subexpr elimination (compiler transformation) . 109	non-top level
disabling (no_cse)	constants
compilation date	default placement in memory21
exact time of (TIME)	overriding default placement of
identifying (DATE)212	placing in named segment
compiler	constseg (pragma directive)
environment variables	const_cast (cast operator)
invocation syntax	contents, of this guide xxiv
output from	conventions, used in this guide xxvi
compiler listing, generating (-1)140	copyright noticeii
compiler object file	core (runtime model attribute)
including debug information in (debug, -r)	cplusplus (predefined symbol)
compiler optimization levels	cross call (compiler transformation)
compiler options	csetjmp (DLIB header file)
passing to compiler	csignal (DLIB header file)
reading from file (-f)	cspy_support (pragma directive)245
specifying parameters	CSTACK (segment)
summary	example
syntax of	See also stack
-1	CSTART (segment)
warnings affect exit code	

cstartup (system startup code)37	data	
customizing55	alignment of	153
overriding in runtime library	different ways of storing	11
cstartup.s5352	located, declaring extern	105
cstdarg (DLIB header file)	placing	3, 188, 225
cstdbool (DLIB header file)	at absolute location	104
cstddef (DLIB header file)	representation of	153
cstdio (DLIB header file)	storage	11
cstdlib (DLIB header file)222	verifying linked result	38
cstring (DLIB header file)222	data block (call frame information)	89
ctime (DLIB header file)222	data memory attributes, using	14
ctype.h (library header file)	data models	
added C functionality	configuration	6
cwctype.h (library header file)	Far	
C++	Huge	13
See also Embedded C++ and Extended Embedded C++	identifying (DATA_MODEL)	
absolute location	Near	
calling convention	data pointers	158
dynamic initialization in	data segments	
features excluded from EC++	data types	
header files	avoiding signed	
language extensions	floating point	
special function types	in C++	
static member variables	integers	
support for	dataseg (pragma directive)	
C++ names, in assembler code	data_alignment (pragma directive)	
C++ objects, placing in memory type	DATA_MODEL (predefined symbol)	
C++ terminologyxxvi	data16 (extended keyword)	
C++-style comments	data16 (memory type)	
C-SPY	DATA16_AC (segment)	
low-level interface	DATA16_AN (segment)	
STL container support	DATA16_C (segment)	
C_INCLUDE (environment variable)	DATA16_I (segment)	
C99 standard, added functionality from	DATA16_ID (segment)	
,	DATA16_N (segment)	
<b>D</b>	DATA16_Z (segment)	
D	data24 (extended keyword)	
-D (compiler option)	data24 (memory type)	
data model (compiler option)	DATA24_AC (segment)	

DATA24_AN (segment)	declarators, implementation-defined behavior244
DATA24_C (segment)	define_type_info (pragma directive)
DATA24_I (segment)	delay code, inserting
DATA24_ID (segment)	delay_cycles (intrinsic function)
DATA24_N (segment)	delete (keyword)
DATA24_Z (segment)	dependencies (compiler option)
data32 (extended keyword)	deque (STL header file)
data32 (data pointer)	destructors and interrupts, using
data32 (memory type)	diagnostic messages
DATA32_AC (segment)	classifying as compilation errors
DATA32_AN (segment)	classifying as compilation remarks
DATA32_C (segment)	classifying as compiler warnings
DATA32_I (segment)	disabling compiler warnings
DATA32_ID (segment)	disabling wrapping of in compiler
DATA32_N (segment)	enabling compiler remarks
DATA32_Z (segment)	listing all used by compiler
DATE (predefined symbol)	suppressing in compiler
date (library function), configuring support for63	diagnostics_tables (compiler option)
DCR (register)	diag_default (pragma directive)
getting the value of (get_DCR_register)	diag_error (compiler option)
writing a value to (set_DCR_register)	diag_error (pragma directive)
DCT (register)	diag_remark (compiler option)
getting the value of (get_DCT_register)202	diag_remark (pragma directive)
writing a value to (set_DCT_register)	diag_suppress (compiler option)
DC32 (assembler directive)	diag_suppress (pragma directive)
DDA (register)	diag_warning (compiler option)
getting the value of (get_DDA_register)202	diag_warning (pragma directive)
writing a value to (set_DDA_register)	DIFUNCT (segment)
DDR (register)	directives
getting the value of (get_DDR_register)202	function for static overlay84
writing a value to (set_DDR_register)	pragma9, 185
debug (compiler option)	directory, specifying as parameter
debug information, including in object file 132, 150	disable_interrupt (intrinsic function)
declarations	discard_unused_publics (compiler option)136
empty171	disclaimer
in for loops	DLIB
Kernighan & Ritchie	See also runtime library
of functions	configuring
declarations and statements, mixing	reference information. See the online help system 217

dlib_config (compiler option)	overview
Dlib_defaults.h (library configuration file)	Embedded C++ Technical Committee xxvi
dlr32clibname.h	embedded systems, IAR special support for 8
DMD (register)	embedded_cplusplus (predefined symbol) 212
getting the value of (get_DMD_register) 203	enable_interrupt (intrinsic function)
writing a value to (set_DMD_register)206	enable_multibytes (compiler option)
document conventions	entry label, program
documentation, library	enumerations, implementation-defined behavior 243
domain errors, implementation-defined behavior 246	enums
double (compiler option)	data representation
double (data type)	forward declarations of
avoiding	environment
configuring size of floating-point type6	implementation-defined behavior240
double_size (runtime model attribute)	runtime
double_t, C99 extension	environment variables
do_not_instantiate (pragma directive)	
	C_INCLUDE
DSA (register)	7
getting the value of (get_DSA_register)203	EQU (assembler directive)
writing a value to (set_DSA_register)	errno.h (library header file)
DSR (register)	error messages
getting the value of (get_DSR_register)203	classifying for compiler
writing a value to (set_DSR_register)	error return codes
dynamic initialization	error_limit (compiler option)
in C++	exception handling, missing from Embedded C++ 91
dynamic memory	exception vectors
	exception (library header file)220
E	exchange_byte (intrinsic function)
	exchange_long (intrinsic function)
-e (compiler option)	exchange_word (intrinsic function)
early_initialization (pragma directive)245	_Exit (library function)
ec++ (compiler option)	exit (library function)
EC++ header files	implementation-defined behavior
edition, of this guide ii	_exit (library function)
eec++ (compiler option)	exit (library function)
Embedded C++91	export keyword, missing from Extended EC++94
differences from C++91	extended command line file
enabling	for compiler
function linkage	Extended Embedded C++92
language extensions	enabling

standard template library (STL)221	32-bits
extended keywords	64-bits
enabling (-e)	floating-point implementation
overview8	floating-point models
summary	setting
syntax15	floating-point operations, hardware support for 64
object attributes176	floating-point type, configuring size of double
type attributes on data objects	float.h (library header file)
type attributes on function pointers	float_t, C99 extension
type attributes on functions	fmod (library function),
code32 (function pointer)	implementation-defined behavior
data32 (data pointer)	for loops, declarations in
extern "C" linkage94	formats
	floating-point values
F	standard IEEE (floating point)
	fpclassify, C99 extension
-f (compiler option)	FPU, IEEE-754 support
Far (code model)	fpu_compliant.xcl (linker command file)
fast_interrupt (extended keyword)	FP_INFINITE, C99 extension
fatal error messages	fp_model (compiler option)
FB (register), considerations	FP_NAN, C99 extension
fgetpos (library function), implementation-defined	FP_NORMAL, C99 extension
behavior	FP_SUBNORMAL, C99 extension
FILE (predefined symbol)212	FP_ZERO, C99 extension
file dependencies, tracking	fragmentation, of heap memory
file paths, specifying for #include files	frame pointer register, considerations
filenames, specifying as parameter	free (library function). See also heap
FLG (register)	fstream (library header file)220
float (data type)	fstream.h (library header file)
floating-point constants	ftell (library function), implementation-defined behavior . 248
hexadecimal notation	Full DLIB (library configuration)
hints100	func (predefined symbol)
floating-point expressions,	FUNCALL (assembler directive)
using in preprocessor extensions142	FUNCTION (predefined symbol) 172, 213
floating-point format156	function calls
casting to integer	calling convention
hints100	Far code model
implementation-defined behavior242	Huge code model
special cases	stack image after
	function declarations, Kernighan & Ritchie

function directives for static overlay	get_DCT_register (intrinsic function)	202
function entry point, forcing alignment of82, 130	get_DDA_register (intrinsic function)	202
function inlining (compiler transformation) 109	get_DDR_register (intrinsic function)	202
disabling (no_inline)	get_DMD_register (intrinsic function)	203
function pointers157	get_DSA_register (intrinsic function)	
function prototypes	get_DSR_register (intrinsic function)	
enforcing	get_interrupt_level (intrinsic function)	
function return addresses	get_interrupt_state (intrinsic function)	
function type information, omitting in object output 148	get_interrupt_table (intrinsic function)	
FUNCTION (assembler directive)	get_VCT_register (intrinsic function)	
function (pragma directive)245	global arrays, accessing	
functional (STL header file)	global variables	
functions	accessing	86
calling in different code models	initialization	
C++ and special function types	guidelines, reading	
declared without attribute, placement	gardennes, reading	· · · · · · AAIII
declaring		
inlining	Н	
interrupt	Harbian Canada D	
intrinsic	Harbison, Samuel P	
monitor	hardware support in compiler	
omitting type info	hash_map (STL header file)	
parameters	hash_set (STL header file)	
placing in memory	hdrstop (pragma directive)	245
recursive	header files	210
avoiding112	C	
storing data on stack	C++	
e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e	EC++	
reentrancy (DLIB)	library	
related extensions	special function registers	
return values from	STL	
special function types	Dlib_defaults.h	
verifying linked result	dlr32c <i>libname</i> .h	
	intrinsics.h	
G	stdbool.h	•
	stddef.h	
getenv (library function), configuring support for62	header_context (compiler option)	140
getzone (library function), configuring support for 63	heap	
getzone.c63	dynamic memory	
get_DCR_register (intrinsic function)202	segment for	35

storing data	initializers, static	170
heap segment	inline assembler	.73, 166
HEAP (segment)	avoiding	112
placing	See also assembler language interface	
heap size	inline functions	166
and standard I/O	in compiler	109
changing default36	inline (pragma directive)	191
HEAP (segment)	instantiate (pragma directive)	245
hints, optimization	INT (assembler instruction)	
Huge (code model)	INTB (register)	
function calls	getting the value of ( <u>get_interrupt_table</u> )	204
HUGE_VALF, C99 extension	writing a value to (set_interrupt_table)	
HUGE_VALL, C99 extension	integer characteristics, adding	
, ,	integers	
	casting	
	implementation-defined behavior	
-I (compiler option)	intptr_t	
IAR Command Line Build Utility	ptrdiff_t	
IAR Systems Technical Support	size_t	
iarbuild.exe (utility)	uintptr_t	
IAR_SYSTEMS_ICC (predefined symbol) 213	integral promotion	
ICCR32C (predefined symbol)	internal error	
icons, in this guidexxvii	interrupt (extended keyword)	
identifiers, implementation-defined behavior	using in pragma directives	
IEEE format, floating-point values	interrupt functions	
illegal_opcode (intrinsic function)	placement in memory	
implementation-defined behavior	interrupt state, restoring	
important_typedef (pragma directive)	interrupt vector	
include files	specifying with pragma directive	198
including before source files	interrupt vector table	
specifying	in linker command file	
include_alias (pragma directive)	INTVEC segment	
infinity	NMIVEC segment	
INFINITY, C99 extension	interrupts	
inheritance, in Embedded C++	disabling	180
initialization	during function execution	
dynamic	processor state	
single-value	using with EC++ destructors	
e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e	interrupt_on_overflow (intrinsic function)	
initialized data segments	interrupt_on_overriow (intrinsic function)	204

INTO (assembler instruction)	iterator (STL header file)
intptr_t (integer type)	I/O debugging, support for
intrinsic (extended keyword)	I/O module, overriding in runtime library
intrinsic functions	
overview71	K
summary	
get_interrupt_state	keep_definition (pragma directive)
intrinsics.h (header file)	Kernighan & Ritchie function declarations
inttypes.h (library header file)	disallowing
inttypes.h, added C functionality	Kernighan, Brian W xxvi
INTVEC (segment)	keywords
Invocation syntax	extended8
iomanip (library header file)	CATCHICC
iomanip.h (library header file)	
los (library header file)	_
losfwd (library header file)	75.140
ostream (library header file)	-1 (compiler option)
ostream.h (library header file)	labels
isblank, C99 extension	assembler, making public
isfinite, C99 extension	program_start52
sgreater, C99 extension	Labrosse, Jean J
sisif, C99 extension	Lajoie, Josée xxvi
islessequal, C99 extension	language extensions
slessgreater, C99 extension	descriptions
isless, C99 extension	Embedded C++
Isness, C99 extension	enabling (compiler option)
	enabling (pragma directive)
snormal, C99 extension	language overview
ISO/ANSI C	language (pragma directive)
compiler extensions	LDCTX (assembler instruction)
C++ features excluded from EC++	libraries
specifying strict usage	building
so646.h (library header file)	definition of
ISP (stack pointer)	runtime44
ISTACK (segment)	standard template library
See also stack	library configuration files
stream (library header file)	Dlib_defaults.h
sunordered, C99 extension	dlr32c <i>libname</i> .h51
swblank, C99 extension	modifying
talic style, in this guide xxvi–xxvii	runtime library
	•

specifying
library documentation
library features, missing from Embedded C++ 92
library functions
reference informationxxv
summary, DLIB
library header files
library modules
creating
overriding49
library object files
library options, setting8
library project template
library_module (compiler option)
lightbulb icon, in this guidexxvii
limits.h (library header file)
LINE (predefined symbol)
linkage, C and C++
linker command files
customizing
fpu_compliant.xcl
using the -P command in
using the -Z command in
linker map file
linker segment. See segment
linking
from the command line
required input4
Lippman, Stanley Bxxvi
list (STL header file)
listing, generating
literals, compound
literature, recommended
LITTLE_ENDIAN (predefined symbol)213
llabs, C99 extension
lldiv, C99 extension
load_context (intrinsic function)
local variables, See auto variables

locale support	60
adding	
changing at runtime	61
removing	
locale.h (library header file)	
located data segments	
located data, declaring extern	105
location (pragma directive)	04, 192
LOCFRAME (assembler directive)	
long double (data type)	156
long float (data type), synonym for double	
long long (data type), avoiding	99
loop overhead, reducing	146
loop unrolling (compiler transformation)	109
disabling	146
loop-invariant expressions	110
low-level processor operations	63, 199
accessing	71
low_level_init	53
customizing	55
low_level_init (intrinsic function)	205
low_level_init.c	52
lseek (library function)	59
M	
• •	
macros	
variadic	215
main (function), definition	240
malloc (library function)	
See also heap	19
implementation-defined behavior	248
Mann, Bernhard	xxv
map (STL header file)	221
map, linker	39
math.h (library header file)	219
math.h, added C functionality	
MATH_ERREXCEPT, C99 extension	223
math_errhandling, C99 extension	223

MATH_ERRNO, C99 extension223	forcing
memory	mfc (compiler option)
accessing	migration_preprocessor_extensions (compiler option) 142
using data16 method	misrac (compiler option)
using data24 method	misrac_verbose (compiler option)
using data32 method	misrac1998 (compiler option)
using sbdata16 method	misrac2004 (compiler option)
using sbdata24 method	module consistency67
allocating in C++	rtmodel196
dynamic	module map, in linker map file
heap	module name, specifying142
non-initialized	module summary, in linker map file
RAM, saving	module_name (compiler option)
releasing in C++	module_name (pragma directive)
stack17	monitor (extended keyword)114, 180
saving	monitor functions
used by global or static variables	multibyte character support
memory layout, R32C11	multiple inheritance, missing from Embedded C++ 91
memory management, type-safe	multi-file compilation
memory placement	mutable attribute, in Extended EC++
using pragma directive	
using type definitions	N
memory segment. See segment	IA
memory types	names block (call frame information)89
C++17	namespace support
data16	in Extended EC++
data24	missing from Embedded C++
data32	naming conventions
placing variables in	NAN, C99 extension
sbdata1614	NDEBUG (preprocessor symbol)
sbdata2414	new (keyword)
specifying14	new (library header file)
structures	new.h (library header file)220
summary	NMIVEC (segment)
memory (pragma directive)246	non-initialized variables, hints for
memory (STL header file)221	non-scalar parameters, avoiding
message (pragma directive)192	NOP (assembler instruction)
messages	noreturn (extended keyword)
disabling	Normal DLIB (library configuration)
	- ()

Not a number (NaN)	summary	09 10 45 74 93 07 93 25 xv 20 . 5 49
O	P	
-O (compiler option)147	_	
-o (compiler option)	pack (pragma directive)	
object attributes176	packed (extended keyword)	
object filename	packed structure types1	59
specifying in compiler	parameters	<b>-</b> 0
object module name, specifying	function	
object_attribute (pragma directive)	hidden	
omit_types (compiler option)	non-scalar, avoiding	
only_stdout (compiler option)	rules for specifying a file or directory	
_open (library function)	specifying	
operators	stack	
See also @ (operator)	parameters, typographic convention	
optimization	part number, of this guide	
code motion, disabling143	permanent registers	
common sub-expression elimination, disabling 143	perror (library function),	
configuration	implementation-defined behavior	48
disabling109	placement	
function inlining, disabling (no_inline)144	code and data2	
hints111	in named segments1	
loop unrolling, disabling	pointer types	
specifying (-O)	mixing	70

pointers casting	implementation-defined behavior
data	accessing
function	low-level
implementation-defined behavior243	program entry label
polymorphism, in Embedded C++	programming hints
porting, code containing pragma directives186	program_start (label)
_Pragma (predefined symbol)215	projects
pragma directives	basic settings for
summary	prototypes, enforcing
bitfields	ptrdiff_t (integer type)
for absolute located data	PUBLIC (assembler directive)
list of all recognized	publication date, of this guideii
pack	public_equ (compiler option)
type_attribute, using	public_equ (pragma directive)
predefined symbols	putenv (library function), absent from DLIB62
overview9	
summary	
predef_macro (compiler option)149	Q
preinclude (compiler option)	QCCR32C (environment variable)
preprocess (compiler option)	qualifiers
preprocessor	implementation-defined behavior
output149	queue (STL header file)
overview	
preprocessor directives	R
implementation-defined behavior244	N
preprocessor extensions	-r (compiler option)
compatibility	raise (library function), configuring support for
#warning message	raise.c
VA_ARGS	RAM
preprocessor symbols	non-zero initialized variables
defining	saving memory112
preserved registers	range errors, in linker
PRETTY_FUNCTION (predefined symbol) 213	read (library function)
primitives, for special functions	customizing56
print formatter, selecting	read formatter, selecting
printf (library function)	reading guidelinesxxiii
choosing formatter47	reading, recommended xxv
configuration symbols	

realloc (library function)	enabling in compiler	150
implementation-defined behavior	remarks (compiler option)	
See also heap	remarks (diagnostic message)	
recursive functions	remove (library function)	
avoiding	implementation-defined behavior	
storing data on stack	rename (library function)	
reentrancy (DLIB)	implementation-defined behavior	
reference information, typographic conventionxxvii	ReportAssert (library function)	
register parameters	required (pragma directive)	
registered trademarksii	require_prototypes (compiler option)	
registers	return addresses	
assigning to parameters	return values, from functions	
callee-save, stored on stack	Ritchie, Dennis M	
for function returns	RMPA.B (assembler instruction)	
implementation-defined behavior	RMPA.L (assembler instruction)	
in assembler-level routines	RMPA.W (assembler instruction)	
preserved	RMPA_B (intrinsic function)	
scratch	RMPA_L (intrinsic function)	
DCR, getting the value of (get_DCR_register) 202	RMPA_W (intrinsic function)	
DCR, writing a value to (set_DCR_register) 206	root (extended keyword)	
DCT, getting the value of (get_DCT_register) 202	ROUND (assembler instruction)	
DCT, writing a value to (set_DCT_register) 206	ROUND (intrinsic function)	
DDA, getting the value of (get_DDA_register) 202	routines, time-critical	
DDA, writing a value to (set_DDA_register) 206	RTMODEL (assembler directive)	
DDR, getting the value of (get_DDR_register) 202	rtmodel (pragma directive)	
DDR, writing a value to (_set_DDR_register) 206	rtti support, missing from STL	
DMD, getting the value of (get_DMD_register)203	rt_version (runtime model attribute)	
DMD, writing a value to (set_DMD_register) 206	runtime environment	
DSA, getting the value of ( <u>get_DSA_register</u> )203	setting options	8
DSA, writing a value to (set_DSA_register) 207	runtime libraries	
DSR, getting the value of (get_DSR_register) 203	building customized	43
DSR, writing a value to (set_DSR_register) 207	choosing	
INTB, getting the value of ( <u>get_interrupt_table</u> ) 204	configurations	
INTB, writing a value to (set_interrupt_table) 207	configuring	
VCT, getting the value of (get_VCT_register) 204	customizing without rebuilding	46
VCT, writing a value to (set_VCT_register) 207	debug support	44
reinterpret_cast (cast operator)	DLIB	
remark (diagnostic message)	overriding modules in	49
classifying for compiler	introduction	

naming convention	segment names, declaring	
runtime model attributes	segment (pragma directive)	
core	segments	
double_size	code	. 37
rt_version69	data	.31
runtime model definitions	definition of	. 27
runtime type information, missing from Embedded C++ 92	initialized data	. 33
R32C	introduction	. 27
memory access6	located data	. 37
memory layout11	naming	. 32
supported devices	packing in memory	. 30
R32C/100, instruction set	placing in sequence	. 30
	static memory	.31
S	summary	225
<b>3</b>	too long for address range	.38
SB (register), considerations	too long, in linker	.38
_sbdata16 (extended keyword)	CODE24	227
sbdata16 (memory type)	CODE32	227
SBDATA16_I (segment)	CSTACK	228
SBDATA16_ID (segment)	CSTART	228
SBDATA16_N (segment)	DATA16_AC	228
SBDATA16_Z (segment)	DATA16_AN	228
_sbdata24 (extended keyword)	DATA16_C	229
sbdata24 (memory type)	DATA16_I	229
SBDATA24_I (segment)	DATA16_ID	229
SBDATA24_ID (segment)	DATA16_N	230
SBDATA24_N (segment)	DATA16_Z	230
SBDATA24_Z (segment)	DATA24_AC	230
SB_START (linker symbol)	DATA24_AN	230
scanf (library function)	DATA24_C	231
choosing formatter	DATA24_I	231
configuration symbols	DATA24_ID	231
implementation-defined behavior	DATA24_N	232
scratch registers	DATA24_Z	232
section (pragma directive)	DATA32_AC	232
segment group name	DATA32_AN	232
segment map	DATA32_C	233
in linker map file	DATA32_I	233
segment memory types, in XLINK	DATA32_ID	233

		_
DATA32_N	shared object	
DATA32_Z234	short (data type)	4
INTVEC	signal (library function)	
ISTACK235	configuring support for6	
NMIVEC	implementation-defined behavior	
SBDATA16_I236	signal.c	
SBDATA16_ID	signal.h (library header file)	
SBDATA16_N	signbit, C99 extension	
SBDATA16_Z	signed char (data type)	
SBDATA24_I237	specifying	1
SBDATA24_ID	signed int (data type)	4
SBDATA24_N	signed long long (data type)	4
SBDATA24_Z	signed long (data type)	4
segment_begin (extended operator)	signed short (data type)15	4
segment_end (extended operator)	signed values, avoiding	9
semaphores	silent (compiler option)	1
C example	silent operation	
C++ example	specifying in compiler	1
operations on	SIN (intrinsic function)	8
set (STL header file)	SIN (assembler instruction)	8
setjmp.h (library header file)219	64-bits (floating-point format)	7
setlocale (library function)	sizeof, using in preprocessor extensions	.2
settings, basic for project configuration5	size_t (integer type)	8
set_DCR_register (intrinsic function)	skeleton code	
set_DCT_register (intrinsic function)	creating for assembler language interface7	4
set_DDA_register (intrinsic function)206	skeleton.s53 (assembler source output)	
set_DDR_register (intrinsic function)	slist (STL header file)	1
set_DMD_register (intrinsic function)	snprintf, C99 extension22	
set_DSA_register (intrinsic function)	software_interrupt (intrinsic function)	
set_DSR_register (intrinsic function)	source files, list all referred14	
set_interrupt_level (intrinsic function)	SOUT (intrinsic function)	8
set_interrupt_state (intrinsic function)	SOUT.B (assembler instruction)	8
set_interrupt_table (intrinsic function)	special function registers (SFR)	
set_VCT_register (intrinsic function)	special function types	
severity level	overview	
of diagnostic messages	sprintf (library function)	
specifying	choosing formatter	
SFR (special function registers)	sscanf (library function)	
declaring extern	choosing formatter4	8
~	~	

sstream (library header file)	std namespace, missing from EC++	
stack	and Extended EC++	
advantages and problems using	stdarg.h (library header file)	
changing default size of	stdbool.h (library header file)	
cleaning after function return	added C functionality	. 223
contents of	STDC (predefined symbol)	. 213
for interrupts	STDC (pragma directive)	. 246
internal data	STDC_VERSION (predefined symbol)	. 213
interrupt	stddef.h (library header file)	, 219
layout81	stderr59	, 148
saving space112	stdexcept (library header file)	. 220
size35	stdin	59
stack parameters	implementation-defined behavior	. 247
stack pointer	stdint.h (library header file)219	, 222
stack pointer register, considerations	stdint.h, added C functionality	. 223
stack segment	stdio.h (library header file)	. 219
placing in memory	stdio.h, additional C functionality	. 223
stack (STL header file)	stdlib.h (library header file)	. 219
standard error	stdlib.h, additional C functionality	. 224
redirecting in compiler148	stdout	, 148
standard input	implementation-defined behavior	. 247
standard output	Steele, Guy L	xxvi
specifying in compiler	STL	95
standard template library (STL)	STOP (intrinsic function)	. 208
in Extended EC++	STOP (assembler instruction)	. 208
missing from Embedded C++	store_context (intrinsic function)	. 208
startup code	streambuf (library header file)	. 220
placement of	streams, supported in Embedded C++	92
See also CSTART	strerror (library function)	
startup, system	implementation-defined behavior	. 249
statements, implementation-defined behavior244	strict_ansi (compiler option)	. 151
static data, in linker command file	string (library header file)	. 220
static memory segments	strings, supported in Embedded C++	92
static overlay84	string.h (library header file)	. 219
static variables	Stroustrup, Bjarne	xxvi
initialization33	strstream (library header file)	. 220
taking the address of	strtod (library function), configuring support for	63
static_cast (cast operator)	strtod, in stdlib.h	. 224
STCTX (assembler instruction)	strtof, C99 extension	. 224
,	strtold. C99 extension	. 224

strtoll, C99 extension
strtoull, C99 extension
structure types
alignment
layout of
packed
structures
accessing using a pointer
aligning
anonymous101, 165
implementation-defined behavior
incomplete arrays as last element167
packing and unpacking101
placing in memory type
subnormal numbers
SUBVERSION (predefined symbol)
support, technical
symbol names, using in preprocessor extensions 142
symbols
anonymous, creating
including in output195
listing in linker map file
overview of predefined9
preprocessor, defining
syntax
command line options
extended keywords
invoking compiler
52
system startup52
customizing
•
customizing
customizing
customizing
customizing

## T

task (extended keyword)
technical support, IAR Systems
template support
in Extended EC++
missing from Embedded C++
Terminal I/O window, making available
terminal output, speeding up67
termination, of system
terminology xxv
32-bits (floating-point format)
this (pointer)
referring to a class object
TIME (predefined symbol)
time zone (library function)
implementation-defined behavior
time (library function), configuring support for63
time-critical routines
time.c
time.h (library header file)
tips, programming111
tools icon, in this guide
trademarks i
transformations, compiler
translation, implementation-defined behavior239
trap vectors, specifying with pragma directive 198
type attributes
specifying197
type definitions, used for specifying memory storage. 16, 175
type information, omitting148
type qualifiers
const and volatile
implementation-defined behavior244
typedefs
excluding from diagnostics
repeated
using in preprocessor extensions 1/2

type-based alias analysis (compiler transformation)	non-initialized omitting type info placing at absolute addresses placing in named segments static placement in memory	148 105 105
U	taking the address of	111
	static and global, initializing	33
uintptr_t (integer type)     158       UND (assembler instruction)     204       underflow range errors,     246	VCT (register) getting the value of (get_VCT_register) writing a value to (set_VCT_register)	207
implementation-defined behavior	vector (pragma directive)	,
unions anonymous	VER (predefined symbol)	
implementation-defined behavior	version	217
unsigned char (data type)	compiler	214
changing to signed char	IAR Embedded Workbench	
unsigned int (data type)	vfscanf, C99 extension	223
unsigned long long (data type)	vfwscanf, C99 extension	224
unsigned long (data type)	void, pointers to	170
unsigned short (data type)	volatile (keyword)	113
USER_RAM_BEGIN (linker symbol)	volatile, declaring objects	161
USER_RAM_END (linker symbol)	vscanf, C99 extension	223
USER_ROM_BEGIN (linker symbol)	vsnprintf, C99 extension	223
USER_ROM_END (linker symbol)	vsscanf, C99 extension	223
USP (stack pointer)228	vswscanf, C99 extension	224
utility (STL header file)	vwscanf, C99 extension	224
V	W	
variable type information, omitting in object output 148	WAIT (assembler instruction)	
variables	wait_for_interrupt (intrinsic function)	
auto	#warning message (preprocessor extension)	
defined inside a function	warnings	
global	classifying in compiler	
accessing86	disabling in compiler	
placement in memory	exit code	
hints for choosing111	warnings icon, in this guide	
local. See auto variables	warnings (pragma directive)	246

warnings_affect_exit_code (compiler option) 122, 152	align_func (compiler option)	130
warnings_are_errors (compiler option)	char_is_signed (compiler option)	131
wchar.h (library header file)	code_model (compiler option)	131
wchar.h, added C functionality	data_model (compiler option)	132
wchar_t (data type), adding support for in C155	debug (compiler option)	132
wcstof, C99 extension	dependencies (compiler option)	133
wcstolb, C99 extension224	diagnostics_tables (compiler option)	135
wctype.h (library header file)	diag_error (compiler option)	134
wctype.h, added C functionality	diag_remark (compiler option)	134
web sites, recommendedxxvi	diag_suppress (compiler option)	134
write (library function)	diag_warning (compiler option)	135
customizing	discard_unused_publics (compiler option)	136
	dlib_config (compiler option)	136
X	double (compiler option)	137
^	ec++ (compiler option)	137
XCFI_COMMON (call frame information macro) 89	eec++ (compiler option)	138
XCFI_NAMES (call frame information macro)	enable_multibytes (compiler option)	138
XCHG.B (assembler instruction)	error_limit (compiler option)	138
XCHG.L (assembler instruction)	fp_model (compiler option)	139
XCHG.W (assembler instruction)	header_context (compiler option)	140
XLINK errors	library_module (compiler option)	141
range error	mfc (compiler option)	141
segment too long	migration_preprocessor_extensions (compiler option	on)142
XLINK output files5	misrac (compiler option)	129
XLINK segment memory types	misrac_verbose (compiler option)	129
xreportassert.c64	misrac1998 (compiler option)	129
	misrac2004 (compiler option)	129
Cyropholo	module_name (compiler option)	142
Symbols	no_code_motion (compiler option)	143
#include files, specifying	no_cross_call (compiler option)	143
#warning message (preprocessor extension)	no_cse (compiler option)	143
-D (compiler option)	no_inline (compiler option)	144
-e (compiler option)	no_path_in_file_macros (compiler option)	144
-f (compiler option)	no_tbaa (compiler option)	145
-I (compiler option)	no_typedefs_in_diagnostics (compiler option)	145
-1 (compiler option)	no_unroll (compiler option)	146
-O (compiler option)	no_warnings (compiler option)	146
-o (compiler option)	no_wrap_diagnostics (compiler option)	146
-r (compiler option)	omit_types (compiler option)	148
- (		

only_stdout (compiler option)	enable_interrupt (intrinsic function)
predef_macro (compiler option)149	exchange_byte (intrinsic function)
preinclude (compiler option)	exchange_long (intrinsic function)
preprocess (compiler option)	exchange_word (intrinsic function)
remarks (compiler option)	exit (library function)
require_prototypes (compiler option)	fast_interrupt (extended keyword)
silent (compiler option)	FILE (predefined symbol)212
strict_ansi (compiler option)	FUNCTION (predefined symbol) 172, 213
warnings_affect_exit_code (compiler option) 122, 152	func (predefined symbol)
warnings_are_errors (compiler option)	gets, in stdio.h
@ (operator)	get_DCR_register (intrinsic function)202
placing at absolute address	get_DCT_register (intrinsic function)202
placing in segments	get_DDA_register (intrinsic function)
_Exit (library function)54	get_DDR_register (intrinsic function)
_exit (library function)	get_DMD_register (intrinsic function)
_Exit, C99 extension	get_DSA_register (intrinsic function)203
_Pragma (predefined symbol)215	get_DSR_register (intrinsic function)
ALIGNOF (operator)	get_interrupt_level (intrinsic function)
_asm (language extension)	get_interrupt_state (intrinsic function)
BASE_FILE (predefined symbol)212	get_interrupt_table (intrinsic function)
break (intrinsic function)201	get_VCT_register (intrinsic function)204
BUILD_NUMBER (predefined symbol) 212	IAR_SYSTEMS_ICC (predefined symbol) 213
close (library function)	ICCR32C (predefined symbol)
CODE_MODEL (predefined symbol)	illegal_opcode (intrinsic function)
code24 (extended keyword)	interrupt (extended keyword)
code32 (extended keyword)	using in pragma directives
code32 (function pointer)	interrupt_on_overflow (intrinsic function) 204
core (runtime model attribute)	intrinsic (extended keyword)180
cplusplus (predefined symbol)	LINE (predefined symbol)
DATA_MODEL (predefined symbol)	LITTLE_ENDIAN (predefined symbol)213
data16 (extended keyword)	load_context (intrinsic function)204
data24 (extended keyword)	low_level_init
data32 (data pointer)	low_level_init (intrinsic function)205
data32 (extended keyword)	low_level_init, customizing
DATE (predefined symbol)	lseek (library function)
delay_cycles (intrinsic function)	monitor (extended keyword)
disable_interrupt (intrinsic function)201	noreturn (extended keyword)
double_size (runtime model attribute)	no_init (extended keyword)115, 183
embedded_cplusplus (predefined symbol) 212	no operation (intrinsic function) 20°

open (library function)	59
packed (extended keyword)	181
$\underline{\hspace{0.3cm}} PRETTY\_FUNCTION\underline{\hspace{0.3cm}} (predefined \ symbol).\ .\ .$	213
printf_args (pragma directive)	195, 246
program_start (label)	52
qsortbbl, C99 extension	224
read (library function)	59
customizing	56
ReportAssert (library function)	64
RMPA_B (intrinsic function)	205
RMPA_L (intrinsic function)	205
RMPA_W (intrinsic function)	205
root (extended keyword)	182
ROUND (intrinsic function)	101, 206
rt_version (runtime model attribute)	69
sbdata16 (extended keyword)	182
sbdata24 (extended keyword)	183
scanf_args (pragma directive)	196, 246
segment_begin (extended operator	165
segment_end (extended operators)	165
set_DCR_register (intrinsic function)	206
set_DCT_register (intrinsic function)	206
set_DDA_register (intrinsic function)	206
set_DDR_register (intrinsic function)	206
set_DMD_register (intrinsic function)	206
set_DSA_register (intrinsic function)	207
set_DSR_register (intrinsic function)	207
set_interrupt_level (intrinsic function)	207
set_interrupt_state (intrinsic function)	207
set_interrupt_table (intrinsic function)	207
set_VCT_register (intrinsic function)	207
SIN (intrinsic function)	208
software_interrupt (intrinsic function)	208
SOUT (intrinsic function)	
$\_STDC\_VERSION\_\_$ (predefined symbol)	213
STDC (predefined symbol)	
STOP (intrinsic function)	
store_context (intrinsic function)	208
SUBVERSION (predefined symbol)	21/

task (extended keyword)	183
TIME (predefined symbol)	214
ungetchar, in stdio.h	224
VA_ARGS (preprocessor extension)	215
VER (predefined symbol)	214
wait_for_interrupt (intrinsic function)	209
write (library function)	59
customizing	56
write_array, in stdio.h	224
write_buffered (library function)	67
Numerics	
Mullierics	
32-bits (floating-point format)	156
64-bit data types, avoiding	
64-bits (floating-point format)	