IAR Embedded Workbench®

IAR C/C++ Compiler User Guide

for Atmel® Corporation's

AVR Microcontroller Family





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Preface

Welcome to the *IAR C/C++ Compiler User Guide for AVR*. 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 AVR microcontroller and need detailed reference information on how to use the compiler. You should have working knowledge of:

REQUIRED KNOWLEDGE

To use the tools in IAR Embedded Workbench, you should have working knowledge of:

- The architecture and instruction set of the Atmel AVR microcontroller (refer to the chip manufacturer's documentation)
- The C or C++ programming language
- Application development for embedded systems
- The operating system of your host computer.

For more information about the other development tools incorporated in the IDE, refer to their respective documentation, see *Other documentation*, page 25.

How to use this guide

When you start using the IAR C/C++ Compiler for AVR, 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 this product, we suggest that you first read the guide *Getting Started with IAR Embedded Workbench*® for an overview of the tools and the features that the IDE offers. The tutorials, which you can find in IAR Information Center, will help you get started using IAR Embedded Workbench.

What this guide contains

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

PART I. USING THE COMPILER

- Introduction to the IAR build tools gives an introduction to the IAR build tools, which includes an overview of the tools, the programming languages, the available device support, and extensions provided for supporting specific features of the AVR microcontroller.
- Developing embedded applications gives the information you need to get started developing your embedded software using the IAR build tools.
- Data storage describes how to store data in memory.
- Functions gives a brief overview of function-related extensions—mechanisms for controlling functions—and describes some of these mechanisms in more detail.
- Linking overview describes the linking process using the IAR XLINK Linker and the related concepts.
- Linking your application lists aspects that you must consider when linking your
 application, including using XLINK options and tailoring the linker configuration
 file.
- 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.
- The CLIB runtime environment gives an overview of the CLIB runtime libraries and how to customize them. The chapter also describes system initialization and introduces the file cstartup.
- 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 supported variants of the C language and an
 overview of the compiler extensions, such as extensions to Standard C.
- *Using C++* gives an overview of the two levels of C++ support: The industry-standard EC++ and IAR Extended EC++.
- Application-related considerations discusses a selected range of application issues related to using the compiler and linker.
- 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.
- Extended keywords gives reference information about each of the AVR-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 AVR-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.
- The stack usage control file describes the syntax and semantics of stack usage control files.
- Implementation-defined behavior for Standard C describes how the compiler handles the implementation-defined areas of Standard C.
- Implementation-defined behavior for C89 describes how the compiler handles the implementation-defined areas of the C language standard C89.

Other documentation

User documentation is available as hypertext PDFs and as a context-sensitive online help system in HTML format. You can access the documentation from the Information Center or from the **Help** menu in the IAR Embedded Workbench IDE. The online help system is also available via the F1 key.

USER AND REFERENCE GUIDES

The complete set of IAR Systems development tools is described in a series of guides. Information about:

- System requirements and information about how to install and register the IAR
 Systems products, is available in the booklet Quick Reference (available in the
 product box) and the *Installation and Licensing Guide*.
- Getting started using IAR Embedded Workbench and the tools it provides, is available in the guide *Getting Started with IAR Embedded Workbench*®.
- Using the IDE for project management and building, is available in the IDE Project Management and Building Guide.
- Using the IAR C-SPY® Debugger, is available in the C-SPY® Debugging Guide for AVR.
- Programming for the IAR C/C++ Compiler for AVR, is available in the IAR C/C++ Compiler User Guide for AVR.
- Using the IAR XLINK Linker, the IAR XAR Library Builder, and the IAR XLIB Librarian, is available in the *IAR Linker and Library Tools Reference Guide*.
- Programming for the IAR Assembler for AVR, is available in the IAR Assembler User Guide for AVR.
- Using the IAR DLIB Library, is available in the *DLIB Library Reference information*, available in the online help system.
- Using the IAR CLIB Library, is available in the *IAR C Library Functions Reference Guide*, available in the online help system.
- Performing a static analysis using C-STAT and the required checks, is available in the C-STAT Static Analysis Guide.
- Developing safety-critical applications using the MISRA C guidelines, is available
 in the IAR Embedded Workbench® MISRA C:2004 Reference Guide or the IAR
 Embedded Workbench® MISRA C:1998 Reference Guide.
- Porting application code and projects created with a previous version of the IAR Embedded Workbench for AVR, is available in the IAR Embedded Workbench® Migration Guide.

Note: Additional documentation might be available depending on your product installation.

THE ONLINE HELP SYSTEM

The context-sensitive online help contains:

- Information about project management, editing, and building in the IDE
- Information about debugging using the IAR C-SPY® Debugger

- Reference information about the menus, windows, and dialog boxes in the IDE
- Compiler reference information
- 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. Note that if you select a function name in the editor window and press F1 while
 using the CLIB library, you will get reference information for the DLIB library.

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.
- Josuttis, Nicolai M. The C++ Standard Library: A Tutorial and Reference. Addison-Wesley.
- Kernighan, Brian W. and Dennis M. Ritchie. The C Programming Language. Prentice Hall.
- 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.]
- Meyers, Scott. Effective C++: 50 Specific Ways to Improve Your Programs and Designs. Addison-Wesley.
- Meyers, Scott. *More Effective C++*. Addison-Wesley.
- Meyers, Scott. Effective STL. Addison-Wesley.
- Stroustrup, Bjarne. *The C++ Programming Language*. Addison-Wesley.
- Stroustrup, Bjarne. *Programming Principles and Practice Using C++*. Addison-Wesley.
- Sutter, Herb. Exceptional C++: 47 Engineering Puzzles, Programming Problems, and Solutions. Addison-Wesley.

WEB SITES

Recommended web sites:

- The Atmel® Corporation web site, www.atmel.com, that contains information and news about the Atmel AVR microcontrollers.
- The IAR Systems web site, www.iar.com, that holds application notes and other product information.

- The web site of the C standardization working group, www.open-std.org/jtc1/sc22/wg14.
- The web site of the C++ Standards Committee, www.open-std.org/jtc1/sc22/wg21.
- Finally, the Embedded C++ Technical Committee web site,
 www.caravan.net/ec2plus, that contains information about the Embedded C++ standard.

Document conventions

When, in the IAR Systems documentation, 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 avr\doc, the full path to the location is assumed, for example $c:\Program Files\IAR$ Systems\Embedded Workbench 7.n\avr\doc.

TYPOGRAPHIC CONVENTIONS

The IAR Systems documentation set uses the following typographic conventions:

Style	Used for
computer	Source code examples and file paths.Text on the command line.Binary, hexadecimal, and octal numbers.
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 directive, where [and] are not part of the actual directive, but any [,], {, or } are part of the directive syntax.
{option}	A mandatory part of a directive, where { and } are not part of the actual directive, but any [,], {, or } are part of the directive syntax.
[option]	An optional part of a command.
[a b c]	An optional part of a command with alternatives.
{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	A cross-reference within this guide or to another guide.Emphasis.
	An ellipsis indicates that the previous item can be repeated an arbitrary number of times.

Table 1: Typographic conventions used in this guide

Style	Used for
\P	Identifies instructions specific to the IAR Embedded Workbench® IDE
	interface.
	Identifies instructions specific to the command line interface.
	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®, when referred to in the documentation:

Brand name	Generic term
IAR Embedded Workbench® for AVR	IAR Embedded Workbench®
IAR Embedded Workbench® IDE for AVR	the IDE
IAR C-SPY® Debugger for AVR	C-SPY, the debugger
IAR C-SPY® Simulator	the simulator
IAR C/C++ Compiler™ for AVR	the compiler
IAR Assembler™ for AVR	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
IAR CLIB Library™	the CLIB library

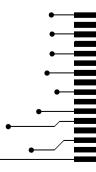
Table 2: Naming conventions used in this guide

Document conventions

Part I. Using the compiler

This part of the IAR C/C++ Compiler User Guide for AVR includes these chapters:

- Introduction to the IAR build tools
- Developing embedded applications
- Data storage
- Functions
- Linking overview
- Linking your application
- The DLIB runtime environment
- The CLIB runtime environment
- Assembler language interface
- Using C
- Using C++
- Application-related considerations
- Efficient coding for embedded applications.





Introduction to the IAR build tools

- The IAR build tools—an overview
- IAR language overview
- Device support
- Special support for embedded systems

The IAR build tools—an overview

In the IAR product installation you can find a set of tools, code examples, and user documentation, all suitable for developing software for AVR-based embedded applications. The tools allow you to develop your application in C, C++, or in assembler language.



IAR Embedded Workbench® is a very powerful Integrated Development Environment (IDE) that allows you to develop and manage complete embedded application projects. It provides an easy-to-learn and highly efficient development environment with maximum code inheritance capabilities, comprehensive and specific target support. IAR Embedded Workbench promotes a useful working methodology, and thus a significant reduction of the development time.

For information about the IDE, see the IDE Project Management and Building Guide.



The compiler, assembler, and linker can also be run from a command line environment, if you want to use them as external tools in an already established project environment.

IAR C/C++ COMPILER

The IAR C/C++ Compiler for AVR is a state-of-the-art compiler that offers the standard features of the C and C++ languages, plus extensions designed to take advantage of the AVR-specific facilities.

IAR ASSEMBLER

The IAR Assembler for AVR is a powerful relocating macro assembler with a versatile set of directives and expression operators. The assembler features a built-in C language preprocessor and supports conditional assembly.

The IAR Assembler for AVR uses the same mnemonics and operand syntax as the Atmel® Corporation AVR Assembler, which simplifies the migration of existing code. For more information, see the *IAR Assembler User Guide for AVR*.

THE IAR XLINK LINKER

The IAR XLINK Linker is a powerful, flexible software tool for use in the development of embedded controller applications. It is equally well suited for linking small, single-file, absolute assembler programs as it is for linking large, relocatable input, multi-module, C/C++, or mixed C/C++ and assembler programs.

To handle libraries, the library tools XAR and XLIB are included.

EXTERNAL TOOLS

For information about how to extend the tool chain in the IDE, see the *IDE Project Management and Building Guide*.

IAR language overview

The IAR C/C++ Compiler for AVR supports:

- C, the most widely used high-level programming language in the embedded systems industry. You can build freestanding applications that follow these standards:
 - Standard C—also known as C99. Hereafter, this standard is referred to as *Standard C* in this guide.
 - C89—also known as C94, C90, C89, and ANSI C. This standard is required when MISRA C is enabled.
- C++, a modern object-oriented programming language with a full-featured library well suited for modular programming. Any of these standards can be used:
 - 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++ (EEC++)—EC++ 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 common deviations from the standard.

For more information about C, see the chapter *Using C*.

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

For information about how the compiler handles the implementation-defined areas of the languages, see the chapter *Implementation-defined behavior for Standard C*.

It is also possible to implement parts of the application, or the whole application, in assembler language. See the *IAR Assembler User Guide for AVR*.

Device support

To get a smooth start with your product development, the IAR product installation comes with a wide range of device-specific support.

SUPPORTED AVR DEVICES

The IAR C/C++ Compiler for AVR supports all devices based on the standard Atmel® Corporation AVR microcontroller.

PRECONFIGURED SUPPORT FILES

The IAR product installation contains preconfigured files for supporting different devices. If you need additional files for device support, they can be created using one of the provided ones as a template.

Header files for I/O

Standard peripheral units are defined in device-specific I/O header files with the filename extension h. The product package supplies I/O files for many of the devices that are available at the time of the product release. You can find these files in the avr\inc directory. Make sure to include the appropriate include file in your application source files. If you need additional I/O header files, they can be created using one of the provided ones as a template.

Linker configuration files

The avr\config directory and the avr\src\template directory contain ready-made linker configuration files for all supported devices. The files have the filename extension xcl and contain the information required by the linker. For more information about the linker configuration file, see *Placing code and data—the linker configuration file*, page 74 as well as the *IAR Linker and Library Tools Reference Guide*.

Device description files

The debugger handles several of the device-specific requirements, such as definitions of available memory areas, peripheral registers and groups of these, by using device description files. These files are located in the avr\config directory and they have the filename extension ddf. The peripheral registers and groups of these can be defined in separate files (filename extension sfr), which in that case are included in the ddf file. For more information about these files, see the *C-SPY® Debugging Guide for AVR*.

EXAMPLES FOR GETTING STARTED

The avr\examples directory contains examples of working applications to give you a smooth start with your development.

Special support for embedded systems

This section briefly describes the extensions provided by the compiler to support specific features of the AVR microcontroller.

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 how to access and store data objects, as well as for controlling how a function should work internally and how it should be called/returned.

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 244 for additional information.

For more information about the extended keywords, see the chapter *Extended keywords*. See also, *Data storage*, page 53 and *Functions*, page 63.

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 standard C, and are very useful when you want to make sure that the source code is portable.

For more information about 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 or the build number of the compiler.

For more information about the predefined symbols, see the chapter *The preprocessor*.

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 149.

Special support for embedded systems

Developing embedded applications

- Developing embedded software using IAR build tools
- The build process—an overview
- Application execution—an overview
- Building applications—an overview
- Basic project configuration

Developing embedded software using IAR build tools

Typically, embedded software written for a dedicated microcontroller is designed as an endless loop waiting for some external events to happen. The software is located in ROM and executes on reset. You must consider several hardware and software factors when you write this kind of software. To your help, you have compiler options, extended keywords, pragma directives, etc.

CPU FEATURES AND CONSTRAINTS

When developing software for the AVR microcontroller, you must consider some CPU features and constraints. For example, the instruction set, processor configuration, and memory model.

The compiler supports this by means of compiler options, extended keywords, pragma directives, etc.

MAPPING OF MEMORY

Embedded systems typically contain various types of memory, such as on-chip RAM, external DRAM or SRAM, ROM, EEPROM, or flash memory.

As an embedded software developer, you must understand the features of the different types of memory. For example, on-chip RAM is often faster than other types of memories, and variables that are accessed often would in time-critical applications benefit from being placed here. Conversely, some configuration data might be accessed seldom but must maintain their value after power off, so they should be saved in EEPROM or flash memory.

For efficient memory usage, the compiler provides several mechanisms for controlling placement of functions and data objects in memory. For more information, see *Controlling data and function placement in memory*, page 204. The linker places sections of code and data in memory according to the directives you specify in the linker configuration file, see *Placing code and data—the linker configuration file*, page 74.

COMMUNICATION WITH PERIPHERAL UNITS

If external devices are connected to the microcontroller, you might need to initialize and control the signalling interface, for example by using chip select pins, and detect and handle external interrupt signals. Typically, this must be initialized and controlled at runtime. The normal way to do this is to use special function registers (SFR). These are typically available at dedicated addresses, containing bits that control the chip configuration.

Standard peripheral units are defined in device-specific I/O header files with the filename extension h. See *Device support*, page 35. For an example, see *Accessing special function registers*, page 215.

EVENT HANDLING

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 microcontroller immediately stops executing the code it runs, and starts executing an interrupt routine instead.

The compiler provides various primitives for managing hardware and software interrupts, which means that you can write your interrupt routines in C, see *Primitives for interrupts, concurrency, and OS-related programming*, page 64.

SYSTEM STARTUP

In all embedded systems, system startup code is executed to initialize the system—both the hardware and the software system—before the main function of the application is called.

As an embedded software developer, you must ensure that the startup code is located at the dedicated memory addresses, or can be accessed using a pointer from the vector table. This means that startup code and the initial vector table must be placed in non-volatile memory, such as ROM, EPROM, or flash.

A C/C++ application further needs to initialize all global variables. This initialization is handled by the linker and the system startup code in conjunction. For more information, see *Application execution—an overview*, page 44.

REAL-TIME OPERATING SYSTEMS

In many cases, the embedded application is the only software running in the system. However, using an RTOS has some advantages.

For example, the timing of high-priority tasks is not affected by other parts of the program which are executed in lower priority tasks. This typically makes a program more deterministic and can reduce power consumption by using the CPU efficiently and putting the CPU in a lower-power state when idle.

Using an RTOS can make your program easier to read and maintain, and in many cases smaller as well. Application code can be cleanly separated in tasks which are truly independent of each other. This makes teamwork easier, as the development work can be easily split into separate tasks which are handled by one developer or a group of developers.

Finally, using an RTOS reduces the hardware dependence and creates a clean interface to the application, making it easier to port the program to different target hardware.

The build process—an overview

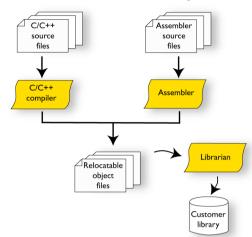
This section gives an overview of the build process; how the various build tools—compiler, assembler, and linker—fit together, going from source code to an executable image.

To get familiar with the process in practice, you should run one or more of the tutorials available from the IAR Information Center.

THE TRANSLATION PROCESS

There are two tools in the IDE that translate application source files to intermediary object files. The IAR C/C++ Compiler and the IAR Assembler. Both produce relocatable object files in the IAR UBROF format.

Note: The compiler can also be used for translating C/C++ source code into assembler source code. If required, you can modify the assembler source code which then can be assembled into object code. For more information about the IAR Assembler, see the *IAR Assembler User Guide for AVR*.



This illustration shows the translation process:

After the translation, you can choose to pack any number of modules into an archive, or in other words, a library. The important reason you should use libraries is that each module in a library is conditionally linked in the application, or in other words, is only included in the application if the module is used directly or indirectly by a module supplied as an object file. Optionally, you can create a library; then use the IAR XAR Library Builder or the IAR XLIB Librarian.

THE LINKING PROCESS

The relocatable modules, in object files and libraries, produced by the IAR compiler and assembler cannot be executed as is. To become an executable application, they must be *linked*.

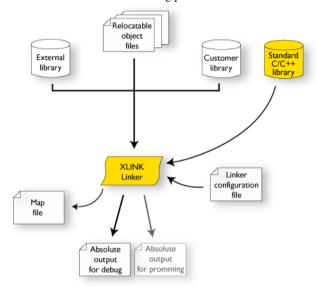
The IAR XLINK Linker (xlink.exe) is used for building the final application. Normally, the linker requires the following information as input:

- Several object files and possibly certain libraries
- The standard library containing the runtime environment and the standard language functions
- A program start label (set by default)
- The linker configuration file that describes placement of code and data in the memory of the target system
- Information about the output format.

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 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.

This illustration shows the linking process:



Note: The Standard C/C++ library contains support routines for the compiler, and the implementation of the C/C++ standard library functions.

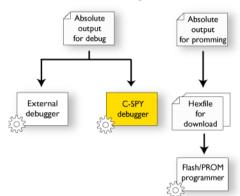
During the linking, the linker might produce error messages and logging messages on stdout and stderr. The log messages are useful for understanding why an application was linked the way it was, for example, why a module was included or a section removed.

For more information about the procedure performed by the linker, see the *IAR Linker* and *Library Tools Reference Guide*.

AFTER LINKING

The IAR XLINK Linker produces an absolute object file in the output format you specify. After linking, the produced absolute executable image can be used for:

- Loading into the IAR C-SPY Debugger or any other compatible external debugger that reads UBROF.
- Programming to a flash/PROM using a flash/PROM programmer.



This illustration shows the possible uses of the absolute output files:

Application execution—an overview

This section gives an overview of the execution of an embedded application divided into three phases, the

- Initialization phase
- Execution phase
- Termination phase.

THE INITIALIZATION PHASE

Initialization is executed when an application is started (the CPU is reset) but before the main function is entered. The initialization phase can for simplicity be divided into:

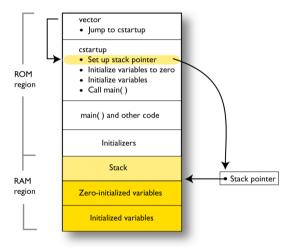
- Hardware initialization, which generally at least initializes the stack pointer.
 The hardware initialization is typically performed in the system startup code cstartup.s90 and if required, by an extra low-level routine that you provide. It might include resetting/starting the rest of the hardware, setting up the CPU, etc, in preparation for the software C/C++ system initialization.
- Software C/C++ system initialization
 Typically, this includes assuring that every global (statically linked) C/C++ symbol receives its proper initialization value before the main function is called.
- Application initialization
 This depends entirely on your application. It can include setting up an RTOS kernel and starting initial tasks for an RTOS-driven application. For a bare-bone application,

it can include setting up various interrupts, initializing communication, initializing devices, etc.

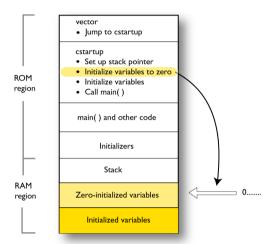
For a ROM/flash-based system, constants and functions are already placed in ROM. All symbols placed in RAM must be initialized before the main function is called. The linker has already divided the available RAM into different areas for variables, stack, heap, etc.

The following sequence of illustrations gives a simplified overview of the different stages of the initialization.

When an application is started, the system startup code first performs hardware initialization, such as initialization of the stack pointer to point at the end of the predefined stack area.

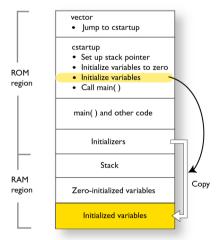


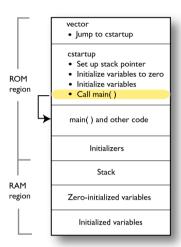
2 Then, memories that should be zero-initialized are cleared, in other words, filled with zeros.



Typically, this is data referred to as *zero-initialized data*; variables declared as, for example, int i = 0;

3 For *initialized data*, data declared, for example, like int i = 6; the initializers are copied from ROM to RAM.





4 Finally, the main function is called.

For more information about each stage, see *System startup and termination*, page 113. For more information about initialization of data, see *Initialization at system startup*, page 75.

Note: The AVR microcontroller is based on the Harvard architecture—thus code and data have separate memory spaces and require different access mechanisms. For more information, see the chapter *Data storage*.

THE EXECUTION PHASE

The software of an embedded application is typically implemented as a loop which is either interrupt-driven or uses polling for controlling external interaction or internal events. For an interrupt-driven system, the interrupts are typically initialized at the beginning of the main function.

In a system with real-time behavior and where responsiveness is critical, a multi-task system might be required. This means that your application software should be complemented with a real-time operating system. In this case, the RTOS and the different tasks must also be initialized at the beginning of the main function.

THE TERMINATION PHASE

Typically, the execution of an embedded application should never end. If it does, you must define a proper end behavior.

To terminate an application in a controlled way, either call one of the Standard C library functions exit, _Exit, or abort, or return from main. If you return from main, the exit function is executed, which means that C++ destructors for static and global variables are called (C++ only) and all open files are closed.

Of course, in case of incorrect program logic, the application might terminate in an uncontrolled and abnormal way—a system crash.

For more information about this, see System termination, page 115.

Building applications—an overview

In the command line interface, this line compiles the source file myfile.c into the object file myfile.r90 using the default settings:

```
iccavr myfile.c
```

You must also specify some critical options, see *Basic project configuration*, page 48.

On the command line, this line can be used for starting the linker:

```
xlink myfile.r90 myfile2.r90 -o a.d90 -f my configfile.xcl -r
```

In this example, myfile.r90 and myfile2.r90 are object files, and my_configfile.xcl is the linker configuration file. The option -o specifies the name of the output file. The option -r is used for specifying the output format UBROF, which can be used for debugging in C-SPY®.

Note: By default, the label where the application starts is __program_start. You can use the -s command line option to change this.



When building a project, the IAR Embedded Workbench IDE can produce extensive build information in the **Build** messages window. This information can be useful, for example, as a base for producing batch files for building on the command line. You can copy the information and paste it in a text file. To activate extensive build information, choose **Tools>Options> Messages** and select the option **Show build messages: All.**

Basic project configuration

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

You need to make settings for:

- Processor configuration
- · Memory model

- Size of double floating-point type
- Optimization settings
- Runtime environment
- Customizing the XLINK configuration, see the chapter *Linking your application*.

In addition to these settings, other options and settings can fine-tune the result even further. For information about how to set options and for a list of all available options, see the chapter *Compiler options* and the *IDE Project Management and Building Guide*, respectively.

PROCESSOR CONFIGURATION

To make the compiler generate optimum code, you should configure it for the AVR microcontroller you are using.

The --cpu option versus the -v option

There are two processor options that can be used for configuring the processor support:

```
--cpu=device and -vn
```

Your application may only use one processor option at a time, and the same processor option must be used by all user and library modules to maintain consistency.

Both options set up default behavior—implicit assumptions—but note that the --cpu option is more precise because it contains more information about the intended target than the more generic -v option. The --cpu option knows, for example, how much flash memory is available in the given target.

The --cpu=device option implicitly sets up all internal compiler settings needed to generate code for the processor variant you are using. These options are implicitly controlled when you use the --cpu option: --eecr_address, --eeprom_size, --enhanced_core, --spmcr_address, -v and --64k_flash.

Because these options are automatically set when you use the --cpu option, you cannot set them explicitly. For information about implicit assumptions when using the -v option, see *Summary of processor configuration for -v*, page 50. For more information about the generated code, see -v, page 267.

Use the --cpu or -v option to specify the AVR device; see the chapter *Compiler options* for syntax information.

See the *IDE Project Management and Building Guide* for information about setting project options in the IDE.

Summary of processor configuration for -v

This table summarizes the memory characteristics for each -v option:

Generic processor option	Available memory models	Function memory attribute	Max addressable data	Max module and/or program size
-v0 (default)	Tiny	nearfunc	<= 256 bytes	<= 8 Kbytes
-v1	Tiny, Small	nearfunc	<= 64 Kbytes	<= 8 Kbytes
-v2	Tiny	nearfunc	<= 256 bytes	<= 128 Kbytes
-v3	Tiny, Small	nearfunc	<= 64 Kbytes	<= 128 Kbytes
-v4	Small, Large, Huge	nearfunc	<= 16 Mbytes	<= 128 Kbytes
-v5	Tiny, Small	farfunc*	<= 64 Kbytes	<= 8 Mbytes
-v6	Small, Large, Huge	farfunc*	<= 16 Mbytes	<= 8 Mbytes

Table 3: Summary of processor configuration

Note:

- *) When using the -v5 or the -v6 option, it is possible, for individual functions, to override the __farfunc attribute and instead use the __nearfunc attribute
- Pointers with function memory attributes have restrictions in implicit and explicit
 casts between pointers and between pointers and integer types. For details about the
 restrictions, see *Casting*, page 280.
- -v2: There are currently no devices that match this processor option, which has been added to support future devices
- All implicit assumptions for a given -v option are also true for corresponding --cpu options.

It is important to be aware of the fact that the -v option does not reflect the amount of used data, but the maximum amount of addressable data. This means that, for example, if you are using a microcontroller with 16 Mbytes addressable data, but you are not using more than 256 bytes or 64 Kbytes of data, you must still use either the -v4 or the -v6 option for 16 Mbytes data.

SIZE OF DOUBLE FLOATING-POINT TYPE

Floating-point values are represented by 32- and 64-bit numbers in standard IEEE 754 format. If you use the compiler option --64bit_doubles, you can make the compiler use 64-bit doubles. The data type float is always represented using 32 bits.

OPTIMIZATION FOR SPEED AND SIZE

The compiler's optimizer performs, among other things, dead-code elimination, constant propagation, inlining, common sub-expression elimination, and precision reduction. It also performs loop optimizations, such as induction variable elimination.

You can decide between several optimization levels and for the highest level you can choose between different optimization goals—*size*. 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 information 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 libraries provided are the IAR DLIB Library and the IAR CLIB Library.

To set up an efficient runtime environment you need a good understanding of the various features, see the chapters *The DLIB runtime environment* and *The CLIB runtime environment*, respectively.



Setting up for the runtime environment in the IDE

The library is automatically chosen according to the settings you make in **Project>Options>General Options**, on the pages **Target**, **Library Configuration**, **Library Options**. A correct include path is automatically set up for the system header files and for the device-specific include files.

Note that for the DLIB library there are different configurations— Normal and Full—which include different levels of support for locale, file descriptors, multibyte characters, etc. See *Library configurations*, page 117, for more information.



Setting up for the runtime environment from the command line

On the compiler command line, specify whether you want the system header files for DLIB or CLIB by using the --dlib option or the --clib option. If you use the DLIB library, you can use the --dlib_config option instead if you also want to explicitly define which library configuration to be used.

On the linker command line, you must specify which runtime library object file to be used. The linker command line can looks like this:

dllibname.r90

In addition to these options you might want to specify any application-specific linker options or the include path to application-specific header files by using the -I option, for example:

-I MyApplication\inc

For information about the prebuilt library object files, see *Using prebuilt libraries*, page 101 (DLIB) and *Using a prebuilt library*, page 141. 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 104 (DLIB) and *Input and output*, page 143 (CLIB).
- The size of the stack and the heap, see Setting up stack memory, page 91, and Setting up heap memory, page 92, respectively.

Data storage

- Introduction
- Memory types
- Memory models
- Storage of auto variables and parameters
- Dynamic memory on the heap

Introduction

The AVR microcontroller is based on the Harvard architecture—thus code and data have separate memory spaces and require different access mechanisms. Code and different types of data are located in memory spaces as follows:

- The internal flash space, which is used for code, __flash declared objects, and initializers
- The data space, which can consist of external ROM, used for constants, and RAM areas used for the stack, for registers, and for variables
- The EEPROM space, which is used for variables.

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 either in registers or 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. For more information, see *Storage of auto variables and parameters*, page 60.
- Global variables, module-static 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 *Memory types*, page 54.
- Dynamically allocated data.
 - An application can allocate data on the *heap*, where the data 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 61.

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.

INTRODUCTION TO MEMORY TYPES

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 the near memory access method is called memory of near type, or simply near memory.

By selecting a *memory model*, you have selected a default memory type that your application will use. However, it is possible to specify—for individual variables or pointers—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.

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.

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

Memory attribute	Pointer size	Memory space	Address range	Max object size
tiny	I byte	Data	0x0-0xFF	127 bytes
near	2 bytes	Data	0x0-0xFFFF	32 Kbytes-I
far	3 bytes	Data	$0 \times 0 - 0 \times FFFFFFF$ (16-bit pointer arithmetics)	32 Kbytes-I
huge	3 bytes	Data	0x0-0xFFFFFF	16 Mbytes-1
tinyflash	I byte	Code	0x0-0xFF	127 bytes
flash	2 bytes	Code	0x0-0xFFFF	32 Kbytes-I
farflash	3 bytes	Code	$0 \times 0 - 0 \times FFFFFFF$ (16-bit pointer arithmetics)	32 Kbytes-I
hugeflash	3 bytes	Code	0x0-0xFFFFFF	8 Mbytes-I
eeprom	I bytes	EEPROM	0x0-0xFF	255 bytes
eeprom	2 bytes	EEPROM	0x0-0xFFFF	64 Kbytes-I
io	N/A	I/O space	0x0-0x3F	4 bytes
io	N/A	Data	0x60-0xFF	4 bytes
ext_io	N/A	Data	0x100-0xFFFF	4 bytes
generic	2 bytes 3 bytes	Data or Code	The most significant bit (MSB) determines whether this pointer points to code space (I) or data space (0). The small generic pointer is generated for the processor options $-v0$ and $-v1$.	32 Kbytes-I 8 Mbytes-I
regvar	N/A	Data	0x4-0x0F	4 bytes

Table 4: Memory types and their corresponding memory attributes

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 244 for additional information.

For more information about each keyword, see *Descriptions of extended keywords*, page 292.

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 287.

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

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

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

The #pragma type_attribute directive can also 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 *Pragma 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:

```
/* Defines via a typedef */
typedef char __far Byte;
typedef Byte *BytePtr;
Byte aByte;
BytePtr aBytePointer;

/* Defines directly */
__far char aByte;
char __far *aBytePointer;
```

POINTERS AND MEMORY TYPES

Pointers are used for referring to the location of data. In general, a pointer has a type. For example, a pointer that has the type int * points to an integer.

In the compiler, a pointer also points to some type of memory. The memory type is specified using a keyword before the asterisk. For example, a pointer that points to an integer stored in far memory is declared by:

```
int __far * MyPtr;
```

Note that the location of the pointer variable MyPtr is not affected by the keyword. In the following example, however, the pointer variable MyPtr2 is placed in near memory. Like MyPtr, MyPtr2 points to a character in far memory.

```
char __far * __near MyPtr2;
```

Whenever possible, pointers should be declared without memory attributes. For example, the functions in the standard library are all declared without explicit memory types.

Differences between pointer types

A pointer must contain information needed to specify a memory location of a certain memory type. This means that the pointer sizes are different for different memory types. In the IAR C/C++ Compiler for AVR, the size of the near and far pointers are 16 and 24 bits, respectively.

In the compiler, it is illegal to convert pointers between different types without explicit casts. For more information, see *Casting*, page 280.

For more information about pointers, see *Pointer types*, page 279.

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 eeprom memory.

```
struct MyStruct
{
   int mAlpha;
   int mBeta;
};

__eeprom struct MyStruct gamma;

This declaration is incorrect:

struct MyStruct
{
   int mAlpha;
   __eeprom int mBeta; /* Incorrect declaration */
};
```

MORE EXAMPLES

The following is a series of examples with descriptions. First, some integer variables are defined and then pointer variables are introduced. Finally, a function accepting a pointer

to an integer in far memory is declared. The function returns a pointer to an integer in eeprom memory. It makes no difference whether the memory attribute is placed before or after the data type.

int MyA;	A variable defined in default memory .
intfar MyB;	A variable in far memory.
eeprom int MyC;	A variable in eeprom memory.
int * MyD;	A pointer stored in default memory. The pointer points to an integer in default memory.
intfar * MyE;	A pointer stored in default memory. The pointer points to an integer in far memory.
<pre>intfar *eeprom MyF;</pre>	A pointer stored in eeprom memory pointing to an integer stored in far memory.
<pre>inteeprom * MyFunction(intfar *);</pre>	A declaration of a function that takes a parameter which is a pointer to an integer stored in far memory. The function returns a pointer to an integer stored in eeprom memory.

C++ AND MEMORY TYPES

Instances of C++ classes are placed into a memory (just like all other objects) either implicitly, or explicitly using memory type attributes or other IAR language extensions. Non-static member variables, like structure fields, are part of the larger object and cannot be placed individually into specified memories.

In non-static member functions, the non-static member variables of a C++ object can be referenced via the this pointer, explicitly or implicitly. The this pointer is of the default data pointer type unless class memory is used, see *Using IAR attributes with Classes*, page 177.

Static member variables can be placed individually into a data memory in the same way as free variables.

All member functions except for constructors and destructors can be placed individually into a code memory in the same way as free functions.

For more information about C++ classes, see *Using IAR attributes with Classes*, page 177.

Memory models

Technically, the memory model specifies the default memory type attribute and the default data pointer attribute. This means that the memory model controls the following:

- The default placement of static and global variables, and constant literals
- Dynamically allocated data, for example data allocated with malloc, or, in C++, the operator new
- The default pointer type
- The placement of the runtime stack. For details about stack placement, see *CSTACK*, page 367.

For information about how to specify a memory type for individual objects, see *Using data memory attributes*, page 54.

SPECIFYING A MEMORY MODEL

Four memory models are implemented: Tiny, Small, Large, and Huge. These models are controlled by the --memory_model option. Each model has a default memory type and a default pointer size. The code size will also be reduced somewhat if the Tiny or Small memory model is used.

If you do not specify a memory model option, the compiler will use the Tiny memory model for all processor options, except for -v4 and -v6, where the Small memory model will be used. For information about processor options, see *Summary of processor configuration for -v*, page 50.

Your project can only use one memory 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 and pointers by explicitly specifying a memory attribute, see *Using data memory attributes*, page 54.

This table summarizes the different memory models:

Memory model	Default memory attribute	Default data pointer	Max. stack range	Supported by processor option
Tiny	tiny	tiny	<= 256 bytes in the range $0-FF$	-v0, -v1, -v2,
				-v3, -v5
Small	near	near	<= 64 Kbytes in the range $0-FFFF$	-v1, -v3, -v4,
				-v5, -v6

Table 5: Memory model characteristics

Memory model	Default memory attribute	Default data pointer	Max. stack range	Supported by processor option
Large	far	far	<= 64 Kbytes in the range 0-FFFFFF, but never cross a 64-Kbyte boundary	-v4, -v6
Huge	huge	huge	<= 64 Kbytes in the range 0-FFFFFF, but never cross a 64-Kbyte boundary	-v4, -v6

Table 5: Memory model characteristics (Continued)

See the *IDE Project Management and Building Guide* for information about setting options in the IDE.

Use the --memory_model option to specify the memory model for your project; see --memory model, -m, page 252.

Storage of auto variables and parameters

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.

See also Stack considerations, page 193 and Setting up stack memory, page 91.

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 either directly or indirectly—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 here. */
  return &x; /* Incorrect */
}
```

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 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.

The compiler supports heaps in more than one data memory. For more information about this, see *Setting up heap memory*, page 92.

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

- Function-related extensions
- Function storage
- Primitives for interrupts, concurrency, and OS-related programming
- Inlining functions

Function-related extensions

In addition to supporting Standard C, 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
- Control function inlining
- 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 *Efficient coding for embedded applications*, page 199. For information about the available intrinsic functions for accessing hardware operations, see the chapter *Intrinsic functions*.

Function storage

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:

Memory attribute	Address range	Pointer size	Used in processor option
nearfunc	0-0x1FFFE (128 Kbytes)	16 bits	-v0, -v1, -v2, -v3, -v4
farfunc	0-0x7FFFFE (8 Mbytes)	24 bits	-v5, -v6

Table 6: Function memory attributes

When using the -v5 or the -v6 option, it is possible, for individual functions, to override the __farfunc attribute and instead use the __nearfunc attribute. The default memory can be overridden by explicitly specifying a memory attribute in the function declaration or by using the #pragma type_attribute directive:

```
#pragma type_attribute=__nearfunc
void MyFunc(int i)
{
...
```

It is possible to call a __nearfunc function from a __farfunc function and vice versa. Only the size of the function pointer is affected.

It is possible to place functions into named segments using either the @ operator or the #pragma location directive. For more information, see *Controlling data and function placement in memory*, page 204.

Pointers with function memory attributes have restrictions in implicit and explicit casts between pointers and between pointers and integer types. For information about the restrictions, see *Casting*, page 280.

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

Primitives for interrupts, concurrency, and OS-related programming

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

- The extended keywords: __interrupt, __nested, __task, __monitor
- The pragma directive #pragma vector
- The intrinsic functions: __enable_interrupt, __disable_interrupt.

INTERRUPT FUNCTIONS

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

Interrupt service routines

In general, when an interrupt occurs in the code, the microcontroller immediately stops executing the code it runs, and starts executing an interrupt routine instead. It is 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 AVR microcontroller 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 AVR microcontroller documentation from the chip manufacturer. If you want to handle several different interrupts using the same interrupt routine, you can specify several interrupt vectors.

Interrupt vectors and the interrupt vector table

For the AVR microcontroller, the interrupt vector table always starts at the address 0×0 and is placed in the INTVEC segment. The interrupt vector is the offset into the interrupt vector table. The interrupt vector table contains pointers to interrupt routines, including the reset routine. The AT90S80515 device has 13 interrupt vectors and one reset vector. For this reason, you should specify 14 interrupt vectors, each of two bytes.

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.

Defining an interrupt function—an example

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

```
#pragma vector = 0x14
__interrupt void MyInterruptRoutine(void)
{
    /* Do something */
}
```

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

Interrupt and C++ member functions

Only static member functions can be interrupt functions.

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 more information, see *monitor*, page 299.



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 binary semaphore—that is, a mutex—is implemented using one static variable and two monitor functions. A monitor function works like a critical region, that is no interrupt can occur and the process itself cannot be swapped out. 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.

```
/* This is the lock-variable. When non-zero, someone owns it. */
static volatile unsigned int sTheLock = 0;
/* Function to test whether the lock is open, and if so take it.
* Returns 1 on success and 0 on failure.
__monitor int TryGetLock(void)
 if (sTheLock == 0)
   /* Success, nobody has the lock. */
   sTheLock = 1;
   return 1;
 else
   /* Failure, someone else has the lock. */
   return 0;
 }
}
/* Function to unlock the lock.
* It is only callable by one that has the lock.
__monitor void ReleaseLock(void)
 sTheLock = 0;
/* Function to take the lock. It will wait until it gets it. */
void GetLock(void)
 while (!TryGetLock())
   /* Normally, a sleep instruction is used here. */
 }
}
```

```
/* An example of using the semaphore. */
void MyProgram(void)
{
   GetLock();
   /* Do something here. */
   ReleaseLock();
}
```

Inlining functions

Function inlining means that a function, whose definition is known at compile time, is integrated into the body of its caller to eliminate the overhead of the function call. This optimization, which is performed at optimization level High, normally reduces execution time, but might increase the code size. The resulting code might become more difficult to debug. Whether the inlining actually occurs is subject to the compiler's heuristics.

The compiler heuristically decides which functions to inline. Different heuristics are used when optimizing for speed, size, or when balancing between size and speed. Normally, code size does not increase when optimizing for size.

C VERSUS C++ SEMANTICS

In C++, all definitions of a specific inline function in separate translation units must be exactly the same. If the function is not inlined in one or more of the translation units, then one of the definitions from these translation units will be used as the function implementation.

In C, you must manually select one translation unit that includes the non-inlined version of an inline function. You do this by explicitly declaring the function as extern in that translation unit. If you declare the function as extern in more than one translation unit, the linker will issue a *multiple definition* error. In addition, in C, inline functions cannot refer to static variables or functions.

For example:

```
// In a header file.
static int sX;
inline void F(void)
{
    //static int sY; // Cannot refer to statics.
    //sX; // Cannot refer to statics.
}

// In one source file.
// Declare this F as the non-inlined version to use.
extern inline void F();
```

FEATURES CONTROLLING FUNCTION INLINING

There are several mechanisms for controlling function inlining:

- The inline keyword advises the compiler that the function defined immediately
 after the directive should be inlined.
 - If you compile your function in C or C++ mode, the keyword will be interpreted according to its definition in Standard C or Standard C++, respectively.
 - The main difference in semantics is that in Standard C you cannot (in general) simply supply an inline definition in a header file. You must supply an external definition in one of the compilation units, by designating the inline definition as being external in that compilation unit.
- #pragma inline is similar to the inline keyword, but with the difference that the compiler always uses C++ inline semantics.
 - By using the #pragma inline directive you can also disable the compiler's heuristics to either force inlining or completely disable inlining. For more information, see *inline*, page 319.
- --use_c++_inline forces the compiler to use C++ semantics when compiling a Standard C source code file.
- --no_inline, #pragma optimize=no_inline, and #pragma inline=never all disable function inlining. By default, function inlining is enabled at optimization level High.

The compiler can only inline a function if the definition is known. Normally, this is restricted to the current translation unit. However, when the --mfc compiler option for multi-file compilation is used, the compiler can inline definitions from all translation units in the multi-file compilation unit. For more information, see *Multi-file compilation units*, page 208.

For more information about the function inlining optimization, see $Function\ inlining$, page 210.

Linking overview

- Linking—an overview
- Segments and memory
- The linking process in detail
- Placing code and data—the linker configuration file
- Initialization at system startup
- Stack usage analysis

Linking—an overview

The IAR XLINK Linker is a powerful, flexible software tool for use in the development of embedded applications. It is equally well suited for linking small, single-file, absolute assembler programs as it is for linking large, relocatable, multi-module, C/C++, or mixed C/C++ and assembler programs.

The linker combines one or more relocatable object files—produced by the IAR Systems compiler or assembler—with required parts of object libraries to produce an executable image containing machine code for the microcontroller you are using. XLINK can generate more than 30 industry-standard loader formats, in addition to the proprietary format UBROF which is used by the C-SPY debugger.

The linker will automatically load only those library modules that are actually needed by the application you are linking. Further, the linker eliminates segment parts that are not required. During linking, the linker performs a full C-level type checking across all modules.

The linker uses a *configuration file* where you can specify separate locations for code and data areas of your target system memory map.

The final output produced by the linker is an absolute, target-executable object file that can be downloaded to the microcontroller, to C-SPY, or to a compatible hardware debugging probe. Optionally, the output file can contain debug information depending on the output format you choose.

To handle libraries, the library tools XAR and XLIB can be used.

Segments and memory

In an embedded system, there might be 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 container for pieces of data or code that should be mapped to a location in physical memory. Each segment consists of one or more *segment parts*. Normally, each function or variable with static storage duration is placed in its own segment part. A segment part is the smallest linkable unit, which allows the linker to include only those segment parts that are referred to. A segment can be placed either in RAM or in ROM. Segments that are placed in RAM generally do not have any content, they only occupy space.

Note: Here, ROM memory means all types of read-only memory, including flash memory.

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

At compile time, the compiler assigns code and data to the various segments. The IAR XLINK Linker is responsible for placing the segments in the physical memory range, in accordance with the rules specified in the linker configuration file. Ready-made linker configuration files are provided, but, if necessary, they can be 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.

Segment memory type

Each segment always has an associated segment memory type. In some cases, an individual segment has the same name as the segment memory type it belongs to, for example CODE. Make sure not to confuse the segment name with the segment memory type in those cases.

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

Segment memory type	Used for
CODE	Executable code
XDATA	Data placed in EEPROM

Table 7: XLINK segment memory types

Segment memory type	Used for
DATA	Data placed in RAM

Table 7: XLINK segment memory types (Continued)

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

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

The linking process in detail

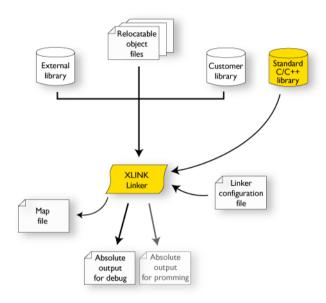
The relocatable modules in object files and libraries, produced by the IAR compiler and assembler, cannot be executed as is. To make an application executable, the object files must be *linked*.

The IAR XLINK Linker is used for the link process. It normally performs the following procedure (note that some of the steps can be turned off by command line options or by directives in the linker configuration file):

- Determines which modules to include in the application. Program modules are
 always included. Library modules are only included if they provide a definition for
 a global symbol that is referenced from an included module. If the object files
 containing library modules contain multiple definitions of variables or functions,
 only the first definition will be included. This means that the linking order of the
 object files is important.
- Determines which segment parts from the included modules to include in the application. Only those segments that are actually needed by the application are included. There are several ways to determine of which segment parts that are needed, for example, the __root object attribute, the #pragma required directive, and the -g linker option.
- Divides each segment that will be initialized by copying into two segments, one for the ROM part and one for the RAM part. The RAM part contains the label and the ROM part the actual bytes. The bytes are conceptually linked as residing in RAM.
- Determines where to place each segment according to the segment placement directives in the linker configuration file.
- Produces an absolute file that contains the executable image and any debug information. The contents of each needed segment in the relocatable input files is calculated using the relocation information supplied in its file and the addresses determined when placing segments. This process can result in one or more range errors if some of the requirements for a particular segment are not met, for instance if placement resulted in the destination address for a PC-relative jump instruction being out of range for that instruction.

 Optionally, produces a map file that lists the result of the segment placement, the address of each global symbol, and finally, a summary of memory usage for each module.

This illustration shows the linking process:



During the linking, XLINK might produce error messages and optionally a map file. In the map file you can see the result of the actual linking and is useful for understanding why an application was linked the way it was, for example, why a segment part was included. If a segment part is not included although you expect it to be, the reason is *always* that the segment part was not referenced to from an included part.

Note: To inspect the actual content of the object files, use XLIB. See the *IAR Linker and Library Tools Reference Guide*.

Placing code and data—the linker configuration file

The placement of segments in memory is performed by the IAR XLINK Linker. It uses a linker configuration 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 microcontroller. To use the same source code with different devices, just rebuild the code with the appropriate linker configuration file.

In particular, the linker configuration file specifies:

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

The file consists of a sequence of linker commands. This means that the linking process will be governed by all commands in sequence.

THE CONTENTS OF THE LINKER CONFIGURATION FILE

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

- The CPU used:
 - -ca90

This specifies your target microcontroller.

- Definitions of constants used in the file. These are defined using the XLINK option
 D. Symbols defined using -D can also be accessed from your application.
- The placement directives (the largest part of the linker configuration 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 configuration file, numbers are generally specified in hexadecimal format. However, neither the prefix $0 \times$ nor the suffix h is necessarily used.

Note: The supplied linker configuration file includes comments explaining the contents.

For more information about the linker configuration file and how to customize it, see *Linking considerations*, page 87.

See also the IAR Linker and Library Tools Reference Guide.

Initialization at system startup

In Standard C, all static variables—variables that are allocated at a fixed memory address—must be initialized by the runtime system to a known value at application startup. Static variables 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.

STATIC DATA MEMORY SEGMENTS

The compiler generates a specific type of segment for each type of variable initialization.

The names of the segments consist of two parts—the *segment group name* and a *suffix*—for instance, NEAR_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 NEAR and __near.

Some of the declared data is placed in non-volatile memory, for example ROM/flash, 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 information about segment memory types, see *Segment memory type*, page 72.

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	Source	Segment type	Segment name*	Segment content
Zero-initialized data	int i;	Read/write data, zero-init	MEMATTR_Z	None
Zero-initialized data	int i = 0;	Read/write data, zero-init	MEMATTR_Z	None
Initialized data (non-zero)	int i = 6;	Read/write data	MEMATTR_I	None
Initialized data (non-zero)	int i = 6;	Read/write data	MEMATTR_ID	Initializer data for MEMATTR_I
Non-initialized data	no_init int i;	Read/write data	MEMATTR_N	None
Data placed in flash memory	memattr int i = 6;	Read-only data	MEMATTR_F	The constant
Constants	<pre>const int i = 6;</pre>	Read-only data	MEMATTR_C	The constant

Table 8: segments holding initialized data

* The actual segment group name—MEMATTR—depends on the memory where the variable is placed. See *Memory types*, page 54.

For more information about each segment, see the chapter Segment reference.

THE INITIALIZATION PROCESS

Initialization of data is handled by the system startup code. If you add more segments, you must update the system startup code accordingly.

To configure the initialization of variables, you must consider these issues:

- Segments that should be zero-initialized should only be placed in RAM.
- Segments that should be initialized, except for zero-initialized segments:

The system startup code 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 \mathtt{ID} is copied to the corresponding \mathtt{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 very 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.
- Segments that contain constants do not need to be initialized; they should only be placed in flash/ROM
- Segments holding no init declared variables should not be initialized.
- Finally, global C++ object constructors are called.

For more information about and examples of how to configure the initialization, see *Linking considerations*, page 87.

Initialization of local aggregates at function invocation

Initialized aggregate auto variables—struct, union, and array variables local to a function—have the initial values in blocks of memory. As an auto variable is allocated either in registers or on the stack, the initialization has to take place every time the function is called. Assume the following example:

```
void f()
{
  struct block b = { 3, 4, 2, 3, 6634, 234 };
  ...
}
```

The initializers are copied to the b variable allocated on the stack each time the function is entered.

The initializers can either come from the code memory space (flash) or from the data memory space (optional external ROM). By default, the initializers are located in segments with the suffix _C and these segments are copied from external ROM to the stack.

If you use either the -y option or the --initializers_in_flash option, the aggregate initializers are located in segments with the suffix _F, which are copied from flash memory to the stack. The advantage of storing these initializers in flash is that valuable data space is not wasted. The disadvantage is that copying from flash is slower.

Initialization of constant objects

There are different ways of initializing constant objects.

By default, constant objects are placed in segments with the suffix _C, which are located in the optional external ROM that resides in the data memory space. The reason for this is that it must be possible for a default pointer—a pointer without explicit memory attributes—to point to the object, and a default pointer can only point to the data memory space.

However, if you do not have any external ROM in the data memory space, and for single chip applications you most likely do not have it, the constant objects have to be placed in RAM and initialized as any other non-constant variables. To achieve this, use the -y option, which means the objects are placed in segments with the suffix _ID.

If you want to place an object in flash memory, you can use any of the memory attributes <code>__tinyflash,__flash,__farflash</code>, or <code>__hugeflash</code>. The object becomes a flash object, which means you cannot take the address of it and store it in a default pointer. However, it is possible to store the address in either a <code>__flash</code> pointer or a <code>__generic</code> pointer, though neither of these are default pointers. Note that if you attempt to take the address of a constant <code>__flash</code> object and use it as a default pointer object, the compiler will issue an error. If you make an explicit cast of the object to a default pointer object, the error message disappears, instead there will be problems at runtime as the cast cannot copy the object from the flash memory to the data memory.

To access strings located in flash memory, you must use alternative library routines that expect flash strings. A few such alternative functions are provided—they are declared in the pgmspace.h header file. They are flash alternatives for some common C library functions with an extension _P. For your own code, you can always use the __flash keyword when passing the strings between functions. For reference information about the alternative functions, see *AVR-specific library functions*, page 360.

Stack usage analysis

This section describes how to perform a stack usage analysis using the linker.

In the AVR\src directory, you can find an example project that demonstrates stack usage analysis.

INTRODUCTION TO STACK USAGE ANALYSIS

Under the right circumstances, the linker can accurately calculate the maximum stack usage for each call graph, starting from the program start, interrupt functions, tasks etc. (each function that is not called from another function, in other words, the root).

If you enable stack usage analysis, a stack usage chapter will be added to the linker map file, listing for each call graph root the particular call chain which results in the maximum stack depth.

The analysis is only accurate if there is accurate stack usage information for each function in the application.

In general, the compiler will generate this information for each C function, but if there are indirect calls (calls using function pointers) in your application, you must supply a list of possible functions that can be called from each calling function.

If you use a stack usage control file, you can also supply stack usage information for functions in modules that do not have stack usage information.

You can use the check that directive in your linker configuration file to check that the stack usage calculated by the linker does not exceed the stack space you have allocated.

PERFORMING A STACK USAGE ANALYSIS

I Enable stack usage analysis:



In the IDE, choose Project>Options>Linker>Advanced>Enable stack usage analysis



On the command line, use the linker option --enable_stack_usage

See the *IAR Linker and Library Tools Reference Guide* for information about the linker option --enable_stack_usage.

2 Enable the linker map file:



In the IDE, choose Project>Options>Linker>List>Generate linker listing



On the command line, use the linker option -1

3 Link your project. Note that the linker will issue warnings related to stack usage under certain circumstances, see *Situations where warnings are issued*, page 84.

- **4** Review the linker map file, which now contains a stack usage chapter with a summary of the stack usage for each call graph root. For more information, see *Result of an analysis—the map file contents*, page 80.
- **5** For more details, analyze the call graph log, see *Call graph log*, page 84.

Note that there are limitations and sources of inaccuracy in the analysis, see *Limitations*, page 83.

You might need to specify more information to the linker to get a more representative result. See *Specifying additional stack usage information*, page 82



In the IDE, choose Project>Options>Linker>Advanced>Enable stack usage analysis>Control file



On the command line, use the linker option --stack_usage_control

See the *IAR Linker and Library Tools Reference Guide* for information about the linker option --stack_usage_control.

6 To add an automatic check that you have allocated memory enough for the stack, use the check that directive in your stack usage control file. For example, assuming a stack segment named MY_STACK, you can write like this:

When linking, the linker emits an error if the expression is false (zero). In this example, an error will be emitted if the sum of the following exceeds the size of the MY_STACK segment:

- The maximum stack usage in the category Program entry (the main program).
- The sum of each individual maximum stack usage in the category interrupt (assuming that all interrupt routines need space at the same time).
- A safety margin of 100 bytes (to account for stack usage not visible to the analysis).

See *check that directive*, page 382.

RESULT OF AN ANALYSIS—THE MAP FILE CONTENTS

When stack usage analysis is enabled, the linker map file contains a stack usage chapter with a summary of the stack usage for each call graph root category, and lists the call

chain that results in the maximum stack depth for each call graph root. This is an example of what the stack usage chapter in the map file might look like:

```
STACK USAGE ANALYSIS
 *************
 Call Graph Root Category Max Use Total Use
 ______
 interrupt
Program entry
                          4 4
350 350
Program entry
 "__program_start": 0x0000c0f8
 Maximum call chain
                                          350 bytes
   "__program_start"
                                           0
   "main"
                                           4
   "WriteObject"
                                           24
   "DumpObject"
                                           0
   "PrintObject"
                                           8
   "fprintf"
                                           4
   "_PrintfLarge"
                                          126
                                          100
   "_PutstrLarge"
   "pad"
                                          14
   "_PutcharsLarge"
                                          10
   "_FProut"
                                           6
   "fputc"
                                           6
   "_Fwprep"
                                           6
                                           4
   "fseek"
   " Fspos"
                                           14
   "fflush"
                                           6
   "fflushOne"
                                           6
   "__write"
   "__dwrite"
                                           10
   "__DebugBreak"
                                           2
interrupt
 "DoStuff()": 0x0000e9ee
 Maximum call chain
                                           4 bytes
   "DoStuff()"
                                            4
```

The summary contains the depth of the deepest call chain in each category as well as the sum of the deepts of the deepest call chains in that category.

Each call graph root belongs to a call graph root category to enable convenient calculations in check that directives.

SPECIFYING ADDITIONAL STACK USAGE INFORMATION

To specify additional stack usage information you can use either a stack usage control file (suc) where you specify stack usage control directives or annotate the source code.

You can:

 Specify complete stack usage information (call graph root category, stack usage, and possible calls) for a function, by using the stack usage control directive function. Typically, you do this if stack usage information is missing, for example in an assembler module. In your suc file you can for example write like this:

```
function MyFunc: (CSTACK 32, RSTACK 4),
  calls MyFunc2,
  calls MyFunc3, MyFunc4: (CSTACK 16, RSTACK 4);
function [interrupt] MyInterruptHandler: 44;
See also function directive, page 383.
```

 Exclude certain functions from stack usage analysis, by using the stack usage control directive exclude. In your suc file you can for example write like this:

```
exclude MyFunc5, MyFunc6;
See also exclude directive, page 382.
```

• Specify a list of possible destinations for indirect calls in a function, by using the stack usage control directive possible calls. Use this for functions which are known to perform indirect calls and where you know exactly which functions that might be called in this particular application. In your suc file you can for example write like this:

```
possible calls MyFunc7: MyFunc8, MyFunc9;
```

If the information about which functions that might be called is available at compile time, consider using the #pragma calls directive instead.

See also possible calls directive, page 384 and calls, page 312.

Specify that functions are call graph roots, including an optional call graph root
category, by using the stack usage control directive call graph root or the
#pragma call_graph_root directive. In your suc file you can for example write
like this:

```
call graph root [task]: MyFunc10, MyFunc11;
```

If your interrupt functions have not already been designated as call graph roots by the compiler, you must do so manually. You can do this either by using the #pragma call_graph_root directive in your source code or by specifying a directive in your suc file, for example:

```
call graph root [interrupt]: Irq1Handler, Irq2Handler;
See also call graph root directive, page 381 and call_graph_root, page 312.
```

 Specify a maximum number of iterations through any of the cycles in the recursion nest of which the function is a member. In your suc file you can for example write like this:

```
max recursion depth MyFunc12: 10;
```

Selectively suppress the warning about unmentioned functions referenced by a
module for which you have supplied stack usage information in the stack usage
control file. Use the no calls from directive in your suc file, for example like
this:

```
no calls from [file.r90] to MyFunc13, MyFunc14;
```

For more information, see the chapter *The stack usage control file*, page 381.

LIMITATIONS

Apart from missing or incorrect stack usage information, there are also other sources of inaccuracy in the analysis:

- The linker cannot always identify all functions in object modules that lack stack usage information. In particular, this might be a problem with object modules written in assembly language. You can provide stack usage information for such modules using a stack usage control file, and for assembly language modules you can also annotate the assembler source code with CFI directives to provide stack usage information. See the IAR Assembler User Guide for AVR.
- If you use inline assembler to change the frame size or to perform function calls, this will not be reflected in the analysis.
- Extra space consumed by other sources (the processor, an operating system, etc) is not accounted for.
- The support for C++ is very incomplete. In particular virtual function calls, dynamic objects, and various indirect calls from the standard library (like the functions set up by set_new_handler and register_callback) are not supported at all.
- If you use other forms of function calls, they will not be reflected in the call graph.
- Using multi-file compilation (--mfc) can interfere with using a stack usage control file to specify properties of module-local functions in the involved files.

Note that stack usage analysis produces a worst case result. The program might not actually ever end up in the maximum call chain, by design, or by coincidence.



Stack usage analysis is only a complement to actual measurement. If the result is important, you need to perform independent validation of the results of the analysis.

SITUATIONS WHERE WARNINGS ARE ISSUED

When stack usage analysis is enabled in the linker, warnings will be generated in the following circumstances:

- There is a function without stack usage information.
- There is an indirect call site in the application for which a list of possible called functions has not been supplied.
- There are no known indirect calls, but there is an uncalled function that is not known to be a call graph root.
- The application contains recursion (a cycle in the call graph) for which no maximum recursion depth has been supplied, or which is of a form for which the linker is unable to calculate a reliable estimate of stack usage.
- There are calls to a function declared as a call graph root.
- You have used the stack usage control file to supply stack usage information for functions in a module that does not have such information, and there are functions referenced by that module which have not been mentioned as being called in the stack usage control file.

CALL GRAPH LOG

To help you interpret the results of the stack usage analysis, there is a log output option that produces a simple text representation of the call graph (--log stack usage).

Example output:

```
Program entry:
0 __program_start [350]
  0 __data16_memzero [2]
    2 - [0]
  0 __data16_memcpy [2]
    0 memcpy [2]
      2 - [0]
    2 - [0]
  0 main [350]
    4 ParseObject [52]
      28 GetObject [28]
        34 getc [22]
          38 _Frprep [18]
            44 malloc [12]
              44 __data16_malloc [12]
                48 data16 findmem [8]
                  52 __data16_free [4]
                    56 - [0]
                  52 data16GetMemChunk [2]
                    54 - [0]
              46 - [0]
            44 __read [12]
              54 __DebugBreak [2]
                56 - [0]
        36 - [0]
      34 CreateObject [18]
        40 malloc [12] ***
  4 ProcessObject [326]
    8 ProcessHigh [76]
      34 ProcesMedium [50]
        60 ProcessLow [24]
          84 - [0]
    8 DumpObject [322]
      8 PrintObject [322]
        16 fprintf [314]
          20 _PrintfLarge [310]
      10 - [0]
  4 WriteObject [346]
    28 DumpObject [322] ***
  4 DestroyObject [28]
    28 free [4]
      28 __data16_free [4] ***
      30 - [0]
0 exit [38]
  0 _exit [38]
    4 _Close_all [34]
```

```
8 fclose [30]

14 _Fofree [4]

14 free [4] ***

16 - [0]

14 fflush [24] ***

14 __close [8]

20 __DebugBreak [2] ***

14 remove [8]

20 __DebugBreak [2] ***

8 __write [12] ***

2 __exit [8]

8 __DebugBreak [2] ***

2 - [0]
```

Each line consists of this information:

- The stack usage at the point of call of the function
- The name of the function, or a single '-' to indicate usage in a function at a point with no function call (typically in a leaf function)
- The stack usage along the deepest call chain from that point. If no such value could
 be calculated, "[---]" is output instead. "***" marks functions that have already
 been shown.

Linking your application

- Linking considerations
- Verifying the linked result of code and data placement

Linking considerations



When you set up your project in the IAR Embedded Workbench IDE, a default linker configuration file is automatically used based on your project settings and you can simply link your application. For the majority of all projects it is sufficient to configure the vital parameters that you find in **Project>Options>Linker>Config.**



When you build from the command line, you can use a ready-made linker command file provided with your product package.

The config directory contains ready-made linker configuration files (filename extension xcl). The files contain the information required by XLINK, and are ready to be used as is. The only change, if any, you will normally have to make to the supplied configuration file is to customize it so it fits the target system memory map. If, for example, your application uses additional external RAM, you must also add details about the external RAM memory area.

To edit a linker configuration file, use the editor in the IDE, or any other suitable editor. Do not change the original template file. We recommend that you make a copy in the working directory, and modify the copy instead.

If you find that the default linker configuration file does not meet your requirements, you might want to consider:

- Placing segments
- Placing data
- Setting up stack memory
- Setting up heap memory
- Placing code
- Keeping modules
- Keeping symbols and segments
- Application startup
- Interaction between XLINK and your application
- Producing other output formats than UBROF

PLACING SEGMENTS

The placement of segments in memory is performed by the IAR XLINK Linker.

This section describes the most common linker commands and how to customize the linker configuration file to suit the memory layout of your target system. In demonstrating the methods, fictitious examples are used.

In demonstrating the methods, fictitious examples are used based on this memory layout:

- There is 1 Mbyte addressable memory.
- There is ROM memory in the address ranges 0x0000-0x1FFF, 0x3000-0x4FFF, and 0x10000-0x1FFFF.
- There is RAM memory in the address ranges 0x8000-0xAFFF, 0xD0000-0xFFFF, and 0x20000-0x27FFF.
- There are two addressing modes for data, one for near memory and one for far memory.
- There is one stack and one heap.
- There are two addressing modes for code, one for nearfunc memory and one for farfunc memory.

Note: Even though you have a different memory map, for example if you have additional memory spaces (EEPROM) and additional segments, you can still use the methods described in the following examples.

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 configuration file is to verify that your application code and data do not cross the memory range boundaries, which would lead to application failure.

For the result of each placement directive after linking, inspect the segment map in the list file (created by using the command line option -x).

General hints for placing segments

When you consider where in memory you should place your segments, it is typically a good idea to start placing large segments first, then placing small segments.

In addition, you should consider these aspects:

- Start placing the segments that must be placed on a specific address. This is, for example, often the case with the segment holding the reset vector.
- Then consider placing segments that hold content that requires continuous memory addresses, for example the segments for the stack and heap.

 When placing code and data segments for different addressing modes, make sure to place the segments in size order (the smallest memory type first).

Note: Before the linker places any segments in memory, the linker will first place the absolute segments.

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 0x0000-0x1FFF.

```
-Z (CONST) MYSEGMENTA, MYSEGMENTB=0000-1FFF
```

To place two segments of different types continuous 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=0000-1FFF
```

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

```
-Z (CONST) MYSMALLSEGMENT=0000-01FF
-Z (CONST) MYLARGESEGMENT=0000-1FFF
```



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 $\neg P$ command differs from $\neg Z$ in that it does not necessarily place the segments (or segment parts) sequentially. With $\neg P$ 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=8000-AFFF,D000-FFFF
```

⁻Z (CODE) MYCODE

If your application has an additional RAM area in the memory range 0x6000-0x67FF, you can simply add that to the original definition:

```
-P(DATA)MYDATA=8000-AFFF, D000-FFFF, 6000-67FF
```

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.

Note: Copy initialization segments—BASENAME_I and BASENAME_ID—and dynamic initialization segments must be placed using -Z.

Note: The AVR microcontroller is based on the Harvard architecture—thus code and data have separate memory spaces and require different access mechanisms. For more information, see the chapter *Data storage*.

PLACING DATA

Static memory is memory that contains variables that are global or declared static.

To get a clear understanding about how the data segments work, you must be familiar with the different memory types and the different memory models available in the compiler. For information about these details, see the chapter *Data storage*.

Placing static memory data segments

Depending on their memory attribute, static data is placed in specific segments. For information about the segments used by the compiler, see *Static data memory segments*, page 76.

For example, these commands can be used to place the static data segments:

```
/* First, the segments to be placed in ROM are defined. */
-Z(CONST)NEAR_C=0000-1FFF,3000-4FFF
-Z(CONST)NEAR_C=0000-1FFF,3000-4FFF,10000-1FFFF
-Z(CONST)NEAR_ID,FAR_ID=010000-1FFFF
/* Then, the RAM data segments are placed in memory. */
-Z(DATA)NEAR_I,DATA16_Z,NEAR_N=8000-AFFF
-Z(DATA)FAR_I,FAR_Z,FAR_N=20000-27FFF
```

All the data segments are placed in the area used by on-chip RAM.

Placing located data

A variable that is explicitly placed at an address, for example by using the #pragma location directive or the @ operator, is placed in for example either the NEAR_AC or the NEAR_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 configuration file.

Placing user-defined segments

If you create your own segments by using for example the #pragmalocation directive or the @ operator, these segments must also be defined in the linker configuration file using the -Z or -P segment control directives.

SETTING UP STACK MEMORY

In this example, the data segment for holding the stack is called CSTACK. The system startup code initializes the stack pointer to point to the end of the stack segment.

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

For more information about stack memory, see Stack considerations, page 193.



Stack size allocation in the IDE

Choose **Project>Options**. In the **General Options** category, click the **System** tab.

Add the required stack size in the dedicated text box.



Stack size allocation from the command line

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

The linker configuration file sets up a constant, representing the size of the stack, at the beginning of the file. Specify the appropriate size for your application, in this example 1024 bytes:

-D_..X_CSTACK_SIZE=400 /* 1024 bytes of stack size */

Note that the size is written hexadecimally, but not necessarily with the 0x notation.



Placing the stack segment

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

-Z(DATA)CSTACK+_CSTACK_SIZE=8000-AFFF

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 start of the memory area.

SETTING UP HEAP MEMORY

The heap contains dynamic data allocated by the C function malloc (or a corresponding function) or the C++ operator new.

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

- The linker segments used for the heap, see *Heaps*, page 130
- The steps for allocating the heap size, which differs depending on which build interface you are using
- The steps involved for placing the heap segments in memory.

See also Heap considerations, page 194.

In this example, the data segment for holding the heap is called HEAP.



Heap size allocation in the IDE

Choose **Project>Options**. In the **General Options** category, click the **Heap Configuration** tab.

Add the required heap size in the dedicated text box.



Heap size allocation from the command line

The size of the HEAP segment is defined in the linker configuration file.

The linker configuration file sets up a constant, representing the size of the heap, at the beginning of the file. Specify the appropriate size for your application, in this example 1024 bytes:

```
-D_HEAP_SIZE=400 /* 1024 bytes for heap memory */
```

Note that the size is written hexadecimally, but not necessarily with the 0x notation.

In many linker configuration files provided with IAR Embedded Workbench, these lines are prefixed with the comment character // because the IDE controls the heap size allocation. To make the directive take effect, remove the comment character.

If you use a heap, you should allocate at least 512 bytes for it, to make it work properly.





Placing the heap segment

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

```
-Z(DATA)HEAP+_HEAP_SIZE=8000-AFFF
```

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

PLACING CODE

This section contains descriptions of the segments used for storing code and the interrupt vector table. For information about all segments, see *Summary of segments*, page 365.

Normal code

Depending on their memory attribute, functions are placed in various segments, in this example NEARFUNC and FARFUNC.

Placing the segments is a simple operation in the linker configuration file:

```
-P(CODE)NEARFUNC=0000-1FFF,3000-4FFF
-P(CODE)FARFUNC=0000-1FFF,3000-4FFF,10000-1FFFF
```

Here, the -P linker directive is used for allowing XLINK to split up the segments and pack their contents more efficiently. This is also useful if the memory range is non-continuous.

For information about segments holding normal code, see the chapter *Segment reference*.

Interrupt vectors

The interrupt vector table contains pointers to interrupt routines, including the reset routine. In this example, the table is placed in the segment INTVEC. The linker directive would then look like this:

```
-Z(CONST)INTVEC=0000-00FF
```

For more information about the interrupt vectors, see *Interrupt vectors and the interrupt vector table*, page 65.

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(CONST)DIFUNCT=0000-1FFF,3000-4FFF
```

DIFUNCT must be placed using -z. For more information, see *DIFUNCT*, page 368.

Additional compiler-generated segments

The compiler uses a set of internally generated segments, which are used for storing information that is vital to the operation of your application.

- The SWITCH segment which contains data statements used in the switch library routines. These tables are encoded in such a way as to use as little space as possible.
- The INITTAB segment contains the segment initialization description blocks that
 are used by the __segment_init function which is called by CSTARTUP. This
 table consists of a number of SegmentInitBlock_Type objects. This type is
 declared in the segment_init.h file which is located in the avr\src\lib
 directory.

In the linker configuration file, it can look like this:

-Z(CODE)SWITCH, INITTAB=0-1FFF

KEEPING MODULES

If a module is linked as a program module, it is always kept. That is, it will contribute to the linked application. However, if a module is linked as a library module, it is included only if it is symbolically referred to from other parts of the application that have been included. This is true, even if the library module contains a root symbol. To assure that such a library module is always included, use -A to make all modules in the file be treaded as if they were program modules:

-A file.r90

Use -C to makes all modules in the file be treated as if they were library modules:

-C file.r90

KEEPING SYMBOLS AND SEGMENTS

By default, XLINK removes any segments, segment parts, and global symbols that are not needed by the application. To retain a symbol that does not appear to be needed—or actually, the segment part it is defined in—you can either use the __root attribute on the symbol in your C/C++ source code or ROOT in your assembler source code, or use the XLINK option -g.

For information about included and excluded symbols and segment parts, inspect the map file (created by using the XLINK option -xm).

For more information about the linking procedure for keeping symbols and sections, see *The linking process in detail*, page 73.

APPLICATION STARTUP

By default, the point where the application starts execution is defined by the __program_start label, which is defined to point at the reset vector. The label is also communicated via the debugger information to any debugger.

To change the start point of the application to another label, use the XLINK option -s.

INTERACTION BETWEEN XLINK AND YOUR APPLICATION

Use the XLINK option -D to define symbols that can be used for controlling your application. You can also use symbols to represent the start and end of a continuous memory area that is defined in the linker configuration file.

To change a reference to one symbol to another symbol, use the XLINK command line option -e. This is useful, for example, to redirect a reference from a non-implemented function to a stub function, or to choose one of several different implementations of a certain function.

For information about the addresses and sizes of all global (statically linked) symbols, inspect the entry list in the map file (the XLINK option -xm).

PRODUCING OTHER OUTPUT FORMATS THAN UBROF

XLINK can generate more than 30 industry-standard loader formats, in addition to the proprietary format UBROF which is used by the C-SPY debugger. For a complete list, see the *IAR Linker and Library Tools Reference Guide*. To specify a different output format than the default, use the XLINK option -F. For example:

-F intel-standard

Note that it can be useful to use the XLINK -0 option to produce two output files, one for debugging and one for burning to ROM/flash.

Note also that if you choose to enable debug support using the -r option for certain low-level I/O functionality for mechanisms like file operations on the host computer etc, such debug support might have an impact on the performance and responsiveness of your application. In this case, the debug build will differ from your release build due to the debug modules included.

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

Code or data that is placed in a relocatable segment will have its absolute address 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 configuration 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 more 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 address 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 **Always generate output** in the IDE, or the option –B on the command line, to generate an output file even if a non-fatal error was encountered.

For more information about the listing options and the linker listing, see the *IAR Linker* and *Library Tools Reference Guide*, and the *IDE Project Management and Building Guide*.

MANAGING MULTIPLE MEMORY SPACES

Output formats that do not support more than one memory space—like MOTOROLA and INTEL-HEX—might require up to one output file per memory space. This causes no problems if you are only producing output to one memory space (flash), but if you also

are placing objects in EEPROM or an external ROM in DATA space, the output format cannot represent this, and the linker issues this error message:

Error[e133]: The output format Format cannot handle multiple address spaces. Use format variants (-y -0) to specify which address space is wanted.

To limit the output to flash memory, make a copy of the linker configuration file for the derivative and memory model you are using, and put it in the project directory. Add this line to the file:

```
-y(CODE)
```

To produce output for the other memory space(s), you must generate one output file per memory space (because the output format you chose does not support more than one memory space). Use the XLINK option -0 for this purpose.

For each additional output file, you must specify format, XLINK segment type, and file name. For example:

```
-Omotorola, (DATA) = external_rom.a90
-Omotorola, (XDATA) = eeprom.a90
```

Note: As a general rule, an output file is only necessary if you use non-volatile memory. In other words, output from the data space is only necessary if the data space contains external ROM.

For more information, see the IAR Linker and Library Tools Reference Guide.

The IAR Postlink utility

You can also use the IAR Postlink utility, delivered with the compiler. This application takes as input an object file (of the XLINK simple format) and extracts one or more of its XLINK segment types into one file (which can be in either Intel extended hex format or Motorola S-record format). For example, it can put all code segments into one file, and all EEPROM segments into another.

See the postlink.htm document for more information about IAR Postlink.

Verifying the linked result of code and data placement

The DLIB runtime environment

The DLIB runtime environment describes the runtime environment in which an application executes. In particular, the chapter covers the DLIB runtime library and how you can optimize it for your application.

DLIB can be used with both the C and the C++ languages. CLIB, on the other hand, can only be used with the C language. For more information, see the chapter *The CLIB runtime environment*.

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.

RUNTIME ENVIRONMENT FUNCTIONALITY

The *runtime environment* supports Standard C and C++, including the standard template library. The runtime environment consists of the *runtime library*, which contains the functions defined by the C and the C++ standards, and include files that define the library interface (the system header files).

The runtime library is delivered both as prebuilt libraries and (depending on your product package) as source files, and you can find them in the product subdirectories avr\lib and avr\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 interrupt mask handling
 - Peripheral unit registers and interrupt definitions in include files
 - Special compiler support for accessing strings in flash memory, see AVR-specific library functions, page 360.
- Runtime environment support, that is, startup and exit code and low-level interface to some library functions.

- A floating-point environment (fenv) that contains floating-point arithmetics support, see fenv.h, page 357.
- Special compiler support, for instance functions for switch handling or integer arithmetics.

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

SETTING UP THE RUNTIME ENVIRONMENT

The IAR DLIB runtime environment can be used as is together with the debugger. However, to run the application on hardware, you must adapt the runtime environment. Also, 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.

This is an overview of the steps involved in configuring the most efficient runtime environment for your target hardware:

- Choose which library to use—the DLIB or the CLIB library
 Use the compiler option --clib or --dlib, respectively. For more information about the libraries, see *Library overview*, page 351.
- Choose which runtime library object file to use

 The IDE will automatically choose a runtime library based on your project settings.

 If you build from the command line, you must specify the object file explicitly. See

 Using prebuilt libraries, page 101.
- Choose which predefined runtime library configuration to use—Normal or Full
 You can configure the level of support for certain library functionality, for example,
 locale, file descriptors, and multibyte characters. If you do not specify anything, a
 default library configuration file that matches the library object file is automatically
 used. To specify a library configuration explicitly, use the --dlib_config compiler
 option. See Library configurations, page 117.
- Optimize the size of the runtime library
 - You can specify the formatters used by the functions printf, scanf, and their variants, see *Choosing formatters for printf and scanf*, page 104.
 - You can also specify stack and heap size and placement, see *Setting up stack memory*, page 91, and *Setting up heap memory*, page 92, respectively.
- Include debug support for runtime and I/O debugging
 - The library offers support for mechanisms like redirecting standard input and output to the C-SPY **Terminal I/O** window and accessing files on the host computer, see *Application debug support*, page 107.

· Adapt the library for target hardware

The library uses a set of low-level functions for handling accesses to your target system. To make these accesses work, you must implement your own version of these functions. For example, to make printf write to an LCD display on your board, you must implement a target-adapted version of the low-level function __write, so that it can write characters to the display. To customize such functions, you need a good understanding of the library low-level interface, see *Adapting the library for target hardware*, page 110.

Override library modules

If you have customized the library functionality, you need to make sure your versions of the library modules are used instead of the default modules. This can be done without rebuilding the entire library, see *Overriding library modules*, page 111.

Customize system initialization

It is likely that you need to customize the source code for system initialization, for example, your application might need to initialize memory-mapped special function registers, or omit the default initialization of data segments. You do this by customizing the routine <code>__low_level_init</code>, which is executed before the data segments are initialized. See *System startup and termination*, page 113 and *Customizing system initialization*, page 116.

• Configure your own library configuration files

In addition to the prebuilt library configurations, you can make your own library configuration, but that requires that you *rebuild* the library. This gives you full control of the runtime environment. See *Building and using a customized library*, page 112.

Manage a multithreaded environment

In a multithreaded environment, you must adapt the runtime library to treat all library objects according to whether they are global or local to a thread. See *Managing a multithreaded environment*, page 130.

Check module consistency

You can use runtime model attributes to ensure that modules are built using compatible settings, see *Checking module consistency*, page 136.

Using prebuilt libraries

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

- Type of library
- Processor option (-v)

- Memory model option (--memory_model)
- AVR enhanced core option (--enhanced_core)
- Small flash memory option (--64k_flash)
- 64-bit doubles option (--64bit_doubles)
- Library configuration—Normal or Full.

CHOOSING A LIBRARY



The IDE will include the correct library object file and library configuration file based on the options you select. See the *IDE Project Management and Building Guide* for more information.



If you build your application from the command line, make the following settings:

- Specify which library object file to use on the XLINK command line, like: dllibname.r90
- If you do not specify a library configuration, the default will be used. However, you
 can specify the library configuration explicitly for the compiler:

```
--dlib_config C:\...\dl1ibname.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 avr\lib\dlib.

LIBRARY FILENAME SYNTAX

The names of the libraries are constructed from these elements:

{library}	is dl for the IAR DLIB runtime environment
{target}	is avr
{memModel}	is either t , s , l , or h for Tiny, Small, Large, or Huge memory model, respectively
{core}	is ec_mul or ec_nomul when enhanced core is used depending on whether the MUL instruction is available or not, or xmega if the device is from the xmega family. If neither the enhanced core nor the xmega core is used, this value is not specified.
$\{smallFlash\}$	is sf when the small flash memory is available. When small flash memory is not available, this value is not specified
{64bitDoubles}	is 64 when 64-bit doubles are used. When 32-bit doubles are used, this value is not specified.
$\{lib_config\}$	is one of \mathtt{n} or \mathtt{f} for normal, and full, respectively.

For example, the library dlavr-3s-ec_mul-sf-n.r90 is configured for the Small memory model, for the enhanced core with the MUL instruction available, for the small flash memory, and for the normal library configuration.

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

These are some examples of how to decode a library name:

	Generic	Memory		Small	64-bit	Library
Library	processor option	model				configuration
dlavr-3s-ec_mul-sf-n.r90	-v3	Small	Х	X		Normal
dlavr-3s-ec_mul-64-f.r90	-v3	Small	X		Χ	Full

Table 9: Prebuilt libraries

CUSTOMIZING A PREBUILT LIBRARY WITHOUT REBUILDING

The prebuilt libraries delivered with the compiler can be used as is. However, you can customize parts of a library without rebuilding it.

These items can be customized:

Described in
Choosing formatters for printf and scanf, page 104
System startup and termination, page 113
Standard streams for input and output, page 118
File input and output, page 122
Environment interaction, page 125
Signal and raise, page 126
Time, page 126
Math functions, page 127
Linking your application, page 87

Table 10: Customizable items

For information about how to override library modules, see *Overriding library modules*, page 111.

Choosing formatters for printf and scanf

The linker automatically chooses an appropriate formatter for printf- and scanf-related function based on information from the compiler. If that information is missing or insufficient, for example if printf is used through a function pointer, if the object file is old, etc, then the automatic choice is the Full formatter. In this case you might want to choose a formatter manually.

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, you can optimize these functions even further, see *Configuration symbols for printf and scanf*, page 120.

CHOOSING A PRINTF FORMATTER

The printf function uses a formatter called _Printf. The full 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		Small/	Large/	Full/
		SmallNoMb	LargeNoMb	FullNoMb
Basic specifiers c, d, i, o, p, s, u, X, x, and $%$	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Multibyte support	No	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No
Floating-point specifiers $a,$ and ${\tt A}$	No	No	No	Yes
Floating-point specifiers e, E, f, F, g, and ${\tt G}$	No	No	Yes	Yes
Conversion specifier n	No	No	Yes	Yes
Format flag +, -, #, 0, and space	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Length modifiers h, l, L, s, t, and ${\tt Z}$	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Field width and precision, including *	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
long long support	No	No	Yes	Yes

Table 11: Formatters for printf

For information about how to fine-tune the formatting capabilities even further, see Configuration symbols for printf and scanf, page 120.



Manually specifying the print formatter in the IDE

To specify a formatter manually, choose **Project>Options** and select the **General** Options category. Select the appropriate option on the Library options page.



Manually specifying the printf formatter from the command line

To specify a formatter manually, add one of these lines in the linker configuration file you are using:

```
-e_PrintfFull=_Printf
-e_PrintfFullNoMb=_Printf
-e_PrintfLarge=_Printf
-e_PrintfLargeNoMb=_Printf
_e_PrintfSmall=_Printf
-e_PrintfSmallNoMb=_Printf
```

-e_PrintfTiny=_Printf

-e_PrintfTinyNoMb=_Printf

To override the default AVR-specific printf_P formatter, type any of the following lines in your linker command file:

```
-e_small_write_P=_formatted_write_P
-e_medium_write_P=_formatted_write_P
```

Note: In the IAR Embedded Workbench IDE, you can use **Project>Options>Linker>Extra Options** to override the default formatter for the AVR-specific library routines.

See also *printf P*, page 361.

CHOOSING A SCANF FORMATTER

In a similar way to the printf function, scanf uses a common formatter, called _Scanf. The full version is quite 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	Small/ SmallNoMB	Large/ LargeNoMb	Full/ FullNoMb
Basic specifiers c, d, i, o, p, s, u, X, x, and %	Yes	Yes	Yes
Multibyte support	Yes/No	Yes/No	Yes/No
Floating-point specifiers a, and A	No	No	Yes
Floating-point specifiers e, E, f, F, g, and ${\tt G}$	No	No	Yes
Conversion specifier n	No	No	Yes
Scan set [and]	No	Yes	Yes
Assignment suppressing *	No	Yes	Yes
long long support	No	No	Yes

Table 12: Formatters for scanf

For information about how to fine-tune the formatting capabilities even further, see *Configuration symbols for printf and scanf*, page 120.



Manually specifying the scanf formatter in the IDE

To specify a formatter manually, choose **Project>Options** and select the **General Options** category. Select the appropriate option on the **Library options** page.



Manually specifying the scanf formatter from the command line

To specify a formatter manually, add one of these lines in the linker configuration file you are using:

```
-e_ScanfFull=_Scanf
-e_ScanfFullNoMb=_Scanf
-e_ScanfLarge=_Scanf
-e_ScanfLargeNoMb=_Scanf
_e_ScanfSmall=_Scanf
_e_ScanfSmallNoMb=_Scanf
```

To override the default AVR-specific scanf_P formatter, type the following line in your linker command file:

```
-e_medium_read_P=_formatted_read_P
```

Note: In the IAR Embedded Workbench IDE, you can use

Project>Options>Linker>Extra Options to override the default formatter for the AVR-specific library routines.

See also *scanf P*, page 362.

Application debug support

In addition to the tools that generate debug information, there is a debug version of the library low-level interface (typically, I/O handling and basic runtime support). Using the debug library, your application can perform things like opening a file on the host computer and redirecting stdout to the C-SPY **Terminal I/O** window.

INCLUDING C-SPY DEBUGGING SUPPORT

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 the IDE	Linker command line option	Description
Basic debugging	Debug	-Fubrof	Debug support for C-SPY without
	information for C-SPY		any runtime support

Table 13: Levels of debugging support in runtime libraries

Debugging support	Linker option in the IDE	Linker command line option	Description
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 (Continued)

In the IDE, choose **Project>Options>Linker**. On the **Output** page, select the appropriate **Format** option.

On the command line, use any of the linker options -r or -rt.

THE DEBUG LIBRARY FUNCTIONALITY

The debug library is used for communication between the application being debugged and the debugger itself. The debugger provides runtime services to the application via the low-level DLIB 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 that uses 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 use is producing debug printouts.

The mechanism used for implementing this feature works as follows:

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

^{*} If you build your application project with this level of debugging support, certain functions in the library are replaced by functions that communicate with C-SPY. For more information, see *The debug library functionality*, page 108.

THE C-SPY TERMINAL I/O WINDOW

To make the **Terminal I/O** window available, the application must be linked with support for I/O debugging. 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.

For more information about the **Terminal I/O** window, see the *C-SPY*® *Debugging Guide for AVR*.

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

LOW-LEVEL FUNCTIONS IN THE DEBUG LIBRARY

The debug library contains implementations of the following low-level functions:

Function in DLIB low-level interface	Response by C-SPY	
abort	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	Notifies that the end of the application was reached $\ensuremath{^{*}}$	
lseek	Searches in the associated host file on the host computer	
open	Opens a file on the host computer	
read	Directs stdin, stdout, and stderr to the Terminal I/O window. All other files will read the associated host file	
remove	Writes a message to the $\textbf{Debug}\;\textbf{Log}$ window and returns -1	

Table 14: Functions with special meanings when linked with debug library

Function in DLIB low-level interface	Response by C-SPY
rename	Writes a message to the Debug Log window and returns -1
_ReportAssert	Handles failed asserts *
system	Writes a message to the ${f Debug\ Log}$ window and returns -1
time	Returns the time on the host computer
write	Directs stdin, stdout, and stderr to the Terminal I/O window. All other files will write to the associated host file

Table 14: Functions with special meanings when linked with debug library (Continued)

Note: You should not use the low-level interface functions prefixed with _ or _ directly in your application. Instead you should use the high-level functions that use these functions. For more information, see *Library low-level interface*, page 110.

Adapting the library for target hardware

The library uses a set of low-level functions for handling accesses to your target system. To make these accesses work, you must implement your own version of these functions. These low-level functions are referred to as the *library low-level interface*.

When you have implemented your low-level interface, you must add your version of these functions to your project. For information about this, see *Overriding library modules*, page 111.

LIBRARY LOW-LEVEL INTERFACE

The library uses a set of low-level functions to communicate with the target system. For example, printf and all other standard output functions use the low-level function __write to send the actual characters to an output device. Most of the low-level functions, like __write, have no implementation. Instead, you must implement them yourself to match your hardware.

However, the library contains a debug version of the library low-level interface, where the low-level functions are implemented so that they interact with the host computer via the debugger, instead of with the target hardware. If you use the debug library, your application can perform tasks like writing to the **Terminal I/O** window, accessing files on the host computer, getting the time from the host computer, etc. For more information, see *The debug library functionality*, page 108.

Note that your application should not use the low-level functions directly. Instead you should use the corresponding standard library function. For example, to write to

^{*} The linker option With I/O emulation modules is not required for these functions.

stdout, you should use standard library functions like printf or puts, instead of __write.

The library files that you can override with your own versions are located in the avr\src\lib directory.

The low-level interface is further described in these sections:

- Standard streams for input and output, page 118
- File input and output, page 122
- Signal and raise, page 126
- Time, page 126
- Assert, page 129.

Overriding library modules

To use a library low-level interface that you have implemented, add it to your application. See *Adapting the library for target hardware*, page 110. Or, you might want to override a default library routine with your customized version. In both cases, follow this procedure:

- I Use a template source file—a library source file or another template—and copy it to your project directory.
- **2** Modify the file.
- **3** Add the customized file to your project, like any other source file.

Note: If you have implemented a library low-level interface and added it to a project that you have built with debug support, your low-level functions will be used and not the C-SPY debug support modules. For example, if you replace the debug support module __write with your own version, the C-SPY **Terminal I/O** window will not be supported.

To override the functions in a module, you must provide alternative implementations for all the needed symbols in the overridden module. Otherwise you will get duplicate definition errors.

The library files that you can override with your own versions are located in the avr\src\lib directory.

Building and using a customized library

Building a customized library is a complex process. 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 define your own library configuration with support for locale, file descriptors, multibyte characters, etc.

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.

Note: To build IAR Embedded Workbench projects from the command line, use the IAR Command Line Build Utility (iarbuild.exe). There is also a batch file (build_libs.bat) provided for building the library from the command line.

For information about the build process and the IAR Command Line Build Utility, see the *IDE Project Management and Building Guide*.

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 uses the Full library configuration, see Table 15, *Library configurations*.



In the IDE, modify the generic options in the created library project to suit your application, see *Basic project configuration*, page 48.

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>dlavrCustom.h</code>, which sets up that specific library with the required

library configuration. For more information, see *Customizing a prebuilt library without rebuilding*, page 103.

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 dlavrCustom.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

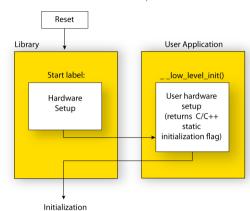
This section describes the runtime environment actions performed during startup and termination of your application.

The code for handling startup and termination is located in the source files cstartup.s90, _exit.s90, and low_level_init.c located in the avr\src\lib directory.

For information about how to customize the system startup code, see *Customizing system initialization*, page 116.

SYSTEM STARTUP

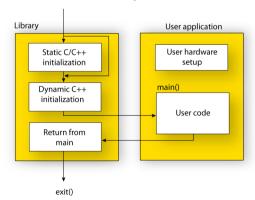
During system startup, an initialization sequence is executed before the main function is entered. This sequence performs initializations required for the target hardware and the C/C++ environment.



For the hardware initialization, it looks like this:

- When the CPU is reset it will start executing at the program entry label __program_start in the system startup code.
- The external data and address buses are enabled if needed.
- The stack pointers are initialized to the end of CSTACK and RSTACK, respectively.
- 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:

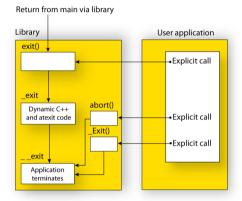


Static and global variables are initialized except for __no_init, __tinyflash, __flash, __farflash, __hugeflash, and __eeprom declared variables. That is, zero-initialized variables are cleared and the values of other initialized variables are copied from ROM to RAM memory. This step is skipped if __low_level_init returns zero. For more information, see *Initialization at system startup*, page 75

- 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:



An application can terminate normally in two different ways:

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

Because the 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 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 *Application debug support*, page 107.

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 before the data segments are initialized. Modifying the file cstartup.s90 directly should be avoided.

The code for handling system startup is located in the source files cstartup.s90 and low_level_init.c, located in the avr\src\lib directory.

Note: Normally, you do not need to customize either of the files cstartup.s90 or _exit.s90.

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 112.

Note: Regardless of whether you modify the routine <code>__low_level_init</code> or the file <code>cstartup.s90</code>, you do not have to rebuild the library.

LOW LEVEL INIT

You can customize the routine __low_level_init, which is called from the system startup code before the data segments are initialized.

The value returned by __low_level_init 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.S90

As noted earlier, you should not modify the file cstartup.s90 if a customized version of __low_level_init is enough for your needs. However, if you do need to modify the file cstartup.s90, 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 111.

Note that you must make sure that the linker uses the start label used in your version of cstartup.s90. For information about how to change the start label used by the linker, read about the -s option in the *IAR Linker and Library Tools Reference Guide*.

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 becomes.

The library functionality is determined by a set of *configuration symbols*. The default values of these symbols are defined in the file DLib_Defaults.h. This read-only file describes the configuration possibilities.

These predefined library configurations are available:

Library configuration	Description
Normal DLIB (default)	No locale interface, C locale, no file descriptor support, no multibyte characters in printf and scanf, and no hexadecimal floating-point numbers in strtod.
Full DLIB	Full locale interface, C locale, file descriptor support, multibyte characters in printf and scanf, and hexadecimal floating-point numbers in strtod.

Table 15: Library configurations

CHOOSING A RUNTIME CONFIGURATION

To choose a runtime configuration, use one of these methods:

Default prebuilt configuration—if you do not specify a library configuration
explicitly you will get the default configuration. A configuration file that matches
the runtime library object file will automatically be used.

- Prebuilt configuration of your choice—to specify a runtime configuration explicitly, use the --dlib_config compiler option. See --dlib config, page 242.
- Your own configuration—you can 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 more information, see *Building and using a customized library*, page
 112.

The prebuilt libraries are based on the default configurations.

Standard streams for input and output

Standard communication channels (streams) 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 low-level 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. For more information about implementing low-level functions, see *Adapting the library for target hardware*, page 110.

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 avr\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 112. 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 *Application debug support*, page 107.

Example of using __write

The code in this example uses memory-mapped I/O to write to an LCD display, whose port is assumed to be located at address 40:

```
#include <stddef.h>
__no_init volatile unsigned char lcdIO @ 40;
size_t __write(int handle,
               const unsigned char *buf,
               size_t bufSize)
 size_t nChars = 0;
  /* Check for the command to flush all handles */
 if (handle == -1)
   return 0;
 }
  /* Check for stdout and stderr
     (only necessary if FILE descriptors are enabled.) */
 if (handle != 1 && handle != 2)
   return -1;
 }
 for (/* Empty */; bufSize > 0; --bufSize)
   lcdIO = *buf;
   ++buf;
    ++nChars;
 }
 return nChars;
```

Note: When DLIB calls __write, DLIB assumes the following interface: a call to __write where buf has the value NULL is a command to flush the stream. When the handle is -1, all streams should be flushed.

Example of using __read

The code in this example uses memory-mapped I/O to read from a keyboard, whose port is assumed to be located at 40:

```
#include <stddef.h>
__no_init volatile unsigned char kbIO @ 40;
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 = kbIO;
   if (c == 0)
     break;
    *buf++ = c:
    ++nChars;
 return nChars;
```

For information about the @ operator, see *Controlling data and function placement in memory*, page 204.

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 104.

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 floating-point numbers
_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 16: 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, 1, t, z, and ${\tt L}$
_DLIB_SCANF_SCANSET	Scanset ([*])
_DLIB_SCANF_WIDTH	Width
_DLIB_SCANF_ASSIGNMENT_SUPPRESSING	Assignment suppressing ([*])

Table 17: Descriptions of scanf configuration symbols

CUSTOMIZING FORMATTING CAPABILITIES

To customize the formatting capabilities, you must;

- I Set up a library project, see *Building and using a customized library*, page 112.
- **2** 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, such as fopen, fclose, fprintf, fputs, etc. All these functions call a small set of low-level functions, each designed to accomplish one particular task; for example, __open opens a file, and __write outputs characters. Before your application can use the library functions for file I/O operations, you must implement the corresponding low-level function to suit your target hardware. For more information, see *Adapting the library for target hardware*, page 110.

Note that file I/O capability in the library is only supported by libraries with the full library configuration, see *Library configurations*, page 117. 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 is 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 18: Low-level I/O files

The low-level 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 application with I/O debug support, C-SPY variants of the low-level I/O functions are linked for interaction with C-SPY. For more information, see *Application debug support*, page 107.

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 at 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 112.

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

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:

```
key=value\0
```

End the string with an extra null character (if you use a C string, this is added automatically). 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 avr\src\lib directory. For information about overriding default library modules, see Overriding library modules, page 111.

THE SYSTEM FUNCTION

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 more information, see *Building and using a customized library*, page 112.

Note: If you link your application with support for I/O debugging, the functions getenv and system are replaced by C-SPY variants. For more information, see *Application debug support*, page 107.

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 avr\src\lib directory. For information about overriding default library modules, see *Overriding library modules*, page 111.

If you decide to rebuild the library, you can find source templates in the library project template. For more information, see *Building and using a customized library*, page 112.

Time

To make the __time32, __time64, and date functions work, you must implement the functions clock, __time32, __time64, and __getzone. Whether you use __time32 or _time64 depends on which interface you use for time t, see *time.h*, page 358.

To implement these functions does not require that you rebuild the library. You can find source templates in the files clock.c, time.c, time64.c, and getzone.c in the avr\src\lib directory. For information about overriding default library modules, see *Overriding library modules*, page 111.

If you decide to rebuild the library, you can find source templates in the library project template. For more information, see *Building and using a customized library*, page 112.

The default implementation of __getzone specifies UTC (Coordinated Universal Time) 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 more information, see *Application debug support*, page 107.

Strtod

The function strtod does not accept hexadecimal floating-point strings in libraries with the normal library configuration. To make strtod accept hexadecimal floating-point strings, you must:

- I Enable the configuration symbol _DLIB_STRTOD_HEX_FLOAT in the library configuration file.
- **2** Rebuild the library, see *Building and using a customized library*, page 112.

Math functions

Some library math functions are also available in size-optimized versions, and in more accurate versions.

SMALLER VERSIONS

The functions cos, exp, log, log2, log10, __iar_Log (a help function for log, log2, and log10), pow, sin, tan, and __iar_Sin (a help function for sin and cos) exist in additional, smaller versions in the library. They are about 20% smaller and about 20% faster than the default versions. The functions handle INF and NaN values. The drawbacks are that they almost always lose some precision and they do not have the same input range as the default versions.

The names of the functions are constructed like:

```
__iar_xxx_small<f|1>
```

where f is used for float variants, 1 is used for long double variants, and no suffix is used for double variants.

To use these functions, the default function names must be redirected to these names when linking, using the following options:

```
-e__iar_sin_small=sin
-e__iar_cos_small=cos
-e__iar_tan_small=tan
-e__iar_log_small=log2
-e__iar_log10_small=log10
-e__iar_exp_small=exp
-e__iar_pow_small=pow
-e__iar_Sin_small=__iar_Sin
-e__iar_Log_small=__iar_Log
```

```
-e__iar_sin_smallf=sinf
-e iar cos smallf=cosf
-e__iar_tan_smallf=tanf
-e__iar_log_smallf=logf
-e__iar_log2_smallf=log2f
-e__iar_log10_smallf=log10f
-e iar exp smallf=expf
-e__iar_pow_smallf=powf
-e__iar_Sin_smallf=__iar_Sinf
-e iar Log smallf= iar Logf
-e iar sin small1=sinl
-e__iar_cos_small1=cos1
-e__iar_tan_small1=tan1
-e__iar_log_small1=log1
-e__iar_log2_small1=log21
-e__iar_log10_small1=log101
-e__iar_exp_smalll=expl
-e__iar_pow_small1=powl
-e__iar_Sin_smalll=__iar_Sinl
-e__iar_Log_smalll=__iar_Logl
```

Note that if you want to redirect any of the functions sin, cos, or __iar_Sin, you must redirect all three functions.

Note that if you want to redirect any of the functions log, log2, log10, or __iar_Log, you must redirect all four functions.

MORE ACCURATE VERSIONS

The functions cos, pow, sin, and tan, and the help functions __iar_Sin and __iar_Pow exist in versions in the library that are more exact and can handle larger argument ranges. The drawback is that they are larger and slower than the default versions.

The names of the functions are constructed like:

```
__iar_xxx_accurate<f|1>
```

where f is used for float variants, 1 is used for long double variants, and no suffix is used for double variants.

To use these functions, the default function names must be redirected to these names when linking, using the following options:

```
-e iar sin accurate=sin
-e__iar_cos_accurate=cos
-e__iar_tan_accurate=tan
-e__iar_pow_accurate=pow
-e__iar_Sin_accurate=__iar_Sin
-e__iar_Pow_accurate=__iar_Pow
-e iar sin accuratef=sinf
-e iar cos accuratef=cosf
-e__iar_tan_accuratef=tanf
-e iar pow accuratef=powf
-e__iar_Sin_accuratef=__iar_Sinf
-e__iar_Pow_accuratef=__iar_Powf
-e__iar_sin_accuratel=sinl
-e iar cos accuratel=cosl
-e__iar_tan_accuratel=tanl
-e__iar_pow_accuratel=powl
-e__iar_Sin_accuratel=__iar_Sinl
-e__iar_Pow_accuratel=__iar_Powl
```

Note that if you want to redirect any of the functions sin, cos, or __iar_Sin, you must redirect all three functions.

Note that if you want to redirect any of the functions pow or __iar_Pow, you must redirect both functions.

Assert

If you linked your application with the option **With I/O emulation modules**, C-SPY will be notified about failed asserts. If this is not the behavior you require, you can 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 avr\src\lib directory. For more information, see *Overriding library modules*, page 111. 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. See *NDEBUG*, page 349.

Heaps

The runtime environment supports heaps in these memory types:

Memory type	Segment name	Memory attribute	Used by default in memory model
tiny	TINY_HEAP	tiny	Tiny
near	NEAR_HEAP	near	Near
far	FAR_HEAP	far	Far
huge	HUGE_HEAP	huge	Huge

Table 19: Heaps and memory types

For information about how to set up the size for each heap, see *Setting up heap memory*, page 92. To use a specific heap, the prefix in the table is the memory attribute to use in front of malloc, free, calloc, and realloc, for example __near_malloc. The default functions will use one of the specific heap variants, depending on project settings such as memory model. For information about how to use a specific heap in C++, see *New and Delete operators*, page 181.

Managing a multithreaded environment

In a multithreaded environment, the standard library must treat all library objects according to whether they are global or local to a thread. If an object is a true global object, any updates of its state must be guarded by a locking mechanism to make sure that only one thread can update it at any given time. If an object is local to a thread, the static variables containing the object state must reside in a variable area local to that thread. This area is commonly named *thread-local storage* (TLS).

There are no prebuilt libraries with support for multithread support, which means you must customize the library by adding the line #define _DLIB_THREAD_SUPPORT 3 in the library configuration file and rebuild your library. See also, *Customizing a prebuilt library without rebuilding*, page 103.

The low-level implementations of locks and TLS are system-specific, and is not included in the DLIB library. If you are using an RTOS, check if it provides some or all of the required functions. Otherwise, you must provide your own.

MULTITHREAD SUPPORT IN THE DLIB LIBRARY

The DLIB library uses two kinds of locks—system locks and file stream locks. The file stream locks are used as guards when the state of a file stream is updated, and are only

needed in the Full library configuration. The following objects are guarded with system locks:

- The heap, in other words when malloc, new, free, delete, realloc, or calloc
 is used.
- The file system (only available in the Full library configuration), but not the file streams themselves. The file system is updated when a stream is opened or closed, in other words when fopen, fclose, fdopen, fflush, or freopen is used.
- The signal system, in other words when signal is used.
- The temporary file system, in other words when tmpnam is used.
- Dynamically initialized function local objects with static storage duration.

These library objects use TLS:

Library objects using TLS	When these functions are used	
Error functions	errno, strerror	
Locale functions	localeconv, setlocale	
Time functions	asctime, localtime, gmtime, mktime	
Multibyte functions	mbrlen, mbrtowc, mbsrtowc, mbtowc, wcrtomb, wcsrtomb, wctomb	
Rand functions	rand, srand	
Miscellaneous functions	atexit, strtok	

Table 20: Library objects using TLS

Note: If you are using printf/scanf (or any variants) with formatters, each individual formatter will be guarded, but the complete printf/scanf invocation will not be guarded.

If one of the C++ variants is used together with a DLIB library with multithread support, the compiler option --guard_calls must be used to make sure that function-static variables with dynamic initializers are not initialized simultaneously by several threads.

ENABLING MULTITHREAD SUPPORT

To configure the runtime environment on the command line, for use with threaded applications, use the linker option --threaded_lib and link with your own customized library.



To configure the runtime environment in the IDE for use with threaded applications, choose **Project>Options>Linker>Extra Options** and specify the linker option --threaded_lib. If you are using C++, you must also choose **Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Extra Options** and specify the compiler option --quard_calls.

To complement the built-in multithreaded support in the library, you must also:

- Implement code for the library's system locks interface
- If file streams are used, implement code for the library's file stream locks interface
 or redirect the interface to the system locks interface (using the linker option -e)
- Implement code that handles thread creation, thread destruction, and TLS access methods for the library
- Modify the linker configuration file accordingly.

You can find the required declaration of functions and definitions of macros in the DLib_Threads.h file, which is included by yvals.h.

Note: If you are using a third-party RTOS, check their guidelines for how to enable multithread support with IAR Systems tools.

System locks interface

This interface must be fully implemented for system locks to work:

The lock and unlock implementation must survive nested calls.

File streams locks interface

This interface is only needed for the Full library configuration. If file streams are used, they can either be fully implemented or they can be redirected to the system locks interface. This interface must be implemented for file streams locks to work:

The lock and unlock implementation must survive nested calls.

DLIB lock usage

The number of locks that the DLIB library assumes exist are:

- _FOPEN_MAX—the maximum number of file stream locks. These locks are only
 used in the Full library configuration, in other words only if both the macro symbols
 _DLIB_FILE_DESCRIPTOR and _FILE_OP_LOCKS are true.
- _MAX_LOCK—the maximum number of system locks.

Note that even if the application uses fewer locks, the DLIB library will initialize and destroy all of the locks above.

For information about the initialization and destruction code, see xsyslock.c.

TLS handling

The DLIB library supports TLS memory areas for two types of threads: the *main thread* (the main function including the system startup and exit code) and *secondary threads*.

The main thread's TLS memory area:

- Is automatically created and initialized by your application's startup sequence
- Is automatically destructed by the application's destruct sequence
- Is located in the segment
- Exists also for non-threaded applications.

Each secondary thread's TLS memory area:

- Must be manually created and initialized
- Must be manually destructed
- Is located in a manually allocated memory area.

If you need the runtime library to support secondary threads, you must override the function:

```
void *__iar_dlib_perthread_access(void *symbp);
```

The parameter is the address to the TLS variable to be accessed—in the main thread's TLS area—and it should return the address to the symbol in the current TLS area.

Two interfaces can be used for creating and destroying secondary threads. You can use the following interface that allocates a memory area on the heap and initializes it. At deallocation, it destroys the objects in the area and then frees the memory.

```
void *__iar_dlib_perthread_allocate(void);
void __iar_dlib_perthread_deallocate(void *);
```

Alternatively, if the application handles the TLS allocation, you can use this interface for initializing and destroying the objects in the memory area:

```
void __iar_dlib_perthread_initialize(void *);
void __iar_dlib_perthread_destroy(void *);
```

These macros can be helpful when you implement an interface for creating and destroying secondary threads:

Macro	Description
IAR_DLIB_PERTHREAD_SIZE	The size needed for the TLS memory area.
IAR_DLIB_PERTHREAD_INIT_SIZE	The initializer size for the TLS memory area. You should initialize the rest of the TLS memory area, up to IAR DLIB PERTHREAD SIZE to zero.
IAR_DLIB_PERTHREAD_SYMBOL_ OFFSET(symbolptr)	The offset to the symbol in the TLS memory area.

Table 21: Macros for implementing TLS allocation

Note that the size needed for TLS variables depends on which DLIB resources your application uses.

This is an example of how you can handle threads:

```
#include <yvals.h>
/* A thread's TLS pointer */
void DLIB TLS MEMORY *TLSp;
/* Are we in a secondary thread? */
int InSecondaryThread = 0;
/* Allocate a thread-local TLS memory
   area and store a pointer to it in TLSp. */
void AllocateTLS()
 TLSp = __iar_dlib_perthread_allocate();
/* Deallocate the thread-local TLS memory area. */
void DeallocateTLS()
  __iar_dlib_perthread_deallocate(TLSp);
/* Access an object in the
   thread-local TLS memory area. */
void _DLIB_TLS_MEMORY *__iar_dlib_perthread_access(
 void _DLIB_TLS_MEMORY *symbp)
 char _DLIB_TLS_MEMORY *p = 0;
 if (InSecondaryThread)
   p = (char _DLIB_TLS_MEMORY *) TLSp;
 else
   p = (char _DLIB_TLS_MEMORY *)
      __segment_begin("__DLIB_PERTHREAD");
 p += __IAR_DLIB_PERTHREAD_SYMBOL_OFFSET(symbp);
 return (void _DLIB_TLS_MEMORY *) p;
```

The TLSp variable is unique for each thread, and must be exchanged by the RTOS or manually whenever a thread switch occurs.

TLS IN THE LINKER CONFIGURATION FILE

If threads are used, the main thread's TLS memory area must be initialized by plain copying because the initializers are used for each secondary thread's TLS memory area as well. This is controlled by the following statement in your linker configuration file:

```
-Q__DLIB_PERTHREAD=__DLIB_PERTHREAD_init
```

Both the DLIB_PERTHREAD segment and the __DLIB_PERTHREAD_init segment must be placed in default memory for RAM and ROM, respectively.

The startup code will copy __DLIB_PERTHREAD_init to DLIB_PERTHREAD.

Checking module consistency

This section introduces the concept of runtime model attributes, a mechanism used by the tools provided by IAR Systems to ensure that modules that are linked into an application are compatible, in other words, are built using compatible settings. The tools use a set of predefined runtime model attributes. You can use these predefined attributes or define your own 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.

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 this table, the object files could (but do not have to) define the two runtime attributes color and taste:

Object file	Color	Taste
file1	blue	not defined
file2	red	not defined

Table 22: Example of runtime model attributes

Object file	Color	Taste
file3	red	*
file4	red	spicy
file5	red	lean

Table 22: Example of runtime model attributes (Continued)

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.

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, if you have a UART that can run in two modes, you can specify a runtime model attribute, for example uart. 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", "mode1"
```

Alternatively, you can also use the rtmodel assembler directive to specify runtime model attributes in your assembler source code. For example:

```
rtmodel "uart", "model"
```

Note that key names that start with two underscores are reserved by the compiler. For more information about the syntax, see *rtmodel*, page 325 and the *IAR Assembler User Guide for AVR*, respectively.

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 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
rt_version	n	This runtime key is always present in all modules generated by the compiler. If a major change in the runtime characteristics occurs, the value of this key changes.
cpu	0-6	Corresponds to the $-v$ option used. For more information, see -v, page 267.
cpu_name	device	Corresponds to the processor device name, for example AT90S2343 or ATmega8515. Note that for the FpSLic device, the value is AT94Kxx.
double_size	32 or 64	The size, in bits, of the double floating-point type. The default size is 32. Use the compiler option64bit_doubles to override the default.
enhanced_core	Enabled	Available if the compiler optionenhanced_core orcpu for a target processor with enhanced core is used.
memory_model	1-4	Corresponds to the used memory model, where the value can be 1, 2, 3, or 4 for Tiny, Small, Large, or Huge, respectively.
no_rampd	Enabled or disabled	Defined for targets with >64 Kbytes of data memory. Disabled if the target processor has a RAMPD register, otherwise enabled.

Table 23: Predefined runtime model attributes

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, see the chapter *Assembler directives* in the *IAR Assembler User Guide for AVR*.

Example

For an example of using the runtime model attribute __rt_version for checking the module consistency as regards the used calling convention, see *Hints for using the default calling convention*, page 156.

The following assembler source code provides a function, myCounter, that counts the number of times it has been called by increasing the register R16. The routine assumes that the application does not use R16 for anything else, that is, the register is locked for usage. To ensure this, a runtime module attribute, __reg_r16, 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_r16", "counter"
module myCounter
public myCounter
rseg CODE:CODE:NOROOT(1)
myCounter: subi r16, -1
ret
end
```

If this module is used in an application that contains modules where the register R16 is not locked, the linker issues an error:

```
Error[e117]: Incompatible runtime models. Module myCounter
specifies that '__reg_r16' must be 'counter', but module part1
has the value 'free'
```

Checking module consistency

The CLIB runtime environment

- Using a prebuilt library
- Input and output
- System startup and termination
- Overriding default library modules
- Customizing system initialization
- C-SPY runtime interface
- Checking module consistency

Note that CLIB does not support any C99 functionality. For example, complex numbers and variable length arrays are not supported. Neither does CLIB support C++.

Note that the legacy CLIB runtime environment is provided for backward compatibility and should not be used for new application projects.

For information about migrating from CLIB to DLIB, see the IAR Embedded Workbench® Migration Guide.

Using a prebuilt library

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

- Type of library
- Processor option (-v)
- Memory model option (--memory_model)
- AVR enhanced core option (--enhanced_core)
- Small flash memory option (--64k_flash)

• 64-bit doubles option (--64bit_doubles).

CHOOSING A LIBRARY

The IDE includes the correct runtime library based on the options you select. See the *IDE Project Management and Building Guide* for more information.

Specify which runtime library object file to use on the XLINK command line, for instance:

cllibname.r90

The CLIB runtime environment includes the C standard library. The linker will include only those routines that are required—directly or indirectly—by your application. For more information about the runtime libraries, see the chapter *Library functions*.

LIBRARY FILENAME SYNTAX

The runtime library names are constructed in this way:

{type}{cpu}{memModel}-{core}-{smallFlash}-{64BitDoubles}.r90

where

- {type} cl for the IAR CLIB Library
- {cpu} is a value from 0 to 6, matching the -v option
- {memModel} is one of t, s, 1, or h for the Tiny, Small, Large, or Huge memory model, respectively
- {smallflash} is sf when the small flash memory is available. When small flash memory is not available, this value is not specified
- {64BitDoubles} is 64 when 64-bit doubles are used. When 32-bit doubles are used, this value is not specified.

These are some examples of how to decode a library name:

Library file	Generic processor option	Memory model	Core	Small flash	64-bit doubles
c10t.r90	-v0	Tiny			
cl1s-64.r90	-v1	Small			X
cl61-ec_mul-64.r90	-v6	Large	X		X

Table 24: Runtime libraries

Input and output

You can customize:

- The functions related to character-based I/O
- The formatters used by printf/sprintf and scanf/sscanf.

CHARACTER-BASED I/O

The functions putchar and getchar are the fundamental C functions for character-based I/O. For any character-based I/O to be available, you must provide definitions for these two functions, using whatever facilities the hardware environment provides.

The creation of new I/O routines is based on these files:

- putchar.c, which serves as the low-level part of functions such as printf
- getchar.c, which serves as the low-level part of functions such as scanf.

The code example below shows how memory-mapped I/O could be used to write to a memory-mapped I/O device:

```
__no_init volatile unsigned char devIO @ 40;
int putchar(int outChar)
{
   devIO = outChar;
   return outChar;
}
```

The exact address is a design decision. For example, it can depend on the selected processor variant.

For information about how to include your own modified version of putchar and getchar in your project build process, see *Overriding library modules*, page 111.

FORMATTERS USED BY PRINTF AND SPRINTF

The printf and sprintf functions use a common formatter, called _formatted_write. There are three variants of the formatter:

```
_large_write
_medium_write
_small_write
```

By default, the linker automatically uses the most appropriate formatter for your application.

_large_write

The _large_write formatter supports the C89 printf format directives.

medium write

The _medium_write formatter has the same format directives as _large_write, except that floating-point numbers are not supported. Any attempt to use a %f, %g, %G, %e, or %E specifier will produce a runtime error:

```
FLOATS? wrong formatter installed!
```

_medium_write is considerably smaller than the large version.

small write

The _small_write formatter works in the same way as _medium_write, except that it supports only the %%, %d, %o, %c, %s, and %x specifiers for integer objects, and does not support field width or precision arguments. The size of _small_write is 10-15% that of _medium_write.



Specifying the printf formatter in the IDE

- Choose Project>Options and select the General Options category. Click the Library Options tab.
- Choose the appropriate Printf formatter option, which can be either Auto, Small, Medium, or Large.



Specifying the printf formatter from the command line

To explicitly specify and override the formatter used by default, add one of the following lines to the linker configuration file:

```
-e_small_write=_formatted_write
-e_medium_write=_formatted_write
-e large write= formatted write
```

Customizing printf

For many embedded applications, sprintf is not required, and even printf with _small_write provides more facilities than are justified, considering the amount of memory it consumes. Alternatively, a custom output routine might be required to support particular formatting needs or non-standard output devices.

For such applications, a much reduced version of the printf function (without sprintf) is supplied in source form in the file intwri.c. This file can be modified to meet your requirements, and the compiled module inserted into the library in place of the original file; see *Overriding library modules*, page 111.

FORMATTERS USED BY SCANF AND SSCANF

As with the printf and sprintf functions, scanf and sscanf use a common formatter, called _formatted_read. There are two variants of the formatter:

```
_large_read
_medium_read
```

By default, the linker automatically uses the most appropriate formatter for your application.

large read

The _large_read formatter supports the C89 scanf format directives.

medium read

The _medium_read formatter has the same format directives as the large version, except that floating-point numbers are not supported. _medium_read is considerably smaller than the large version.



Specifying the scanf formatter in the IDE

- Choose Project>Options and select the General Options category. Click the Library Options tab.
- 2 Choose the appropriate Scanf formatter option, which can be either Auto, Medium or Large.



Specifying the read formatter from the command line

To explicitly specify and override the formatter used by default, add one of the following lines to the linker configuration file:

```
-e_medium_read=_formatted_read
-e_large_read=_formatted_read
```

System startup and termination

This section describes the actions the runtime environment performs during startup and termination of applications.

The code for handling startup and termination is located in the source files cstartup.s90, _exit.s90 and low_level_init.c located in the avr\src\lib directory.

Note: Normally, you do not need to customize either of the files cstartup.s90 or _exit.s90.

SYSTEM STARTUP

When an application is initialized, several steps are performed:

- The custom function __low_level_init is called, giving the application a chance to perform early initializations
- The external data and address buses are enabled if needed
- The stack pointers are initialized to the end of CSTACK and RSTACK, respectively
- Static variables are initialized except for __no_init __tinyflash, __flash, __farflash, __hugeflash, and __eeprom declared variables; this includes clearing zero-initialized memory and copying the ROM image of the RAM memory of the remaining initialized variables
- The main function is called, which starts the application.

Note that the system startup code contains code for more steps than described here. The other steps are applicable to the DLIB runtime environment.

SYSTEM TERMINATION

An application can terminate normally in two different ways:

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

Because the C standard states that the two methods should be equivalent, the cstartup 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 assembler.

When the application is built in debug mode, C-SPY stops when it reaches the special code label ?C EXIT.

An application can also exit by calling the abort function. The default function just calls __exit to halt the system, without performing any type of cleanup.

Overriding default library modules

The IAR CLIB Library contains modules which you probably need to override with your own customized modules, for example for character-based I/O, without rebuilding the entire library. For information about how to override default library modules, see *Overriding library modules*, page 111, in the chapter *The DLIB runtime environment*.

Customizing system initialization

For information about how to customize system initialization, see *Customizing system initialization*, page 116.

C-SPY runtime interface

The low-level debugger interface is used for communication between the application being debugged and the debugger itself. The interface is simple: C-SPY will place breakpoints on certain assembler labels in the application. When code located at the special labels is about to be executed, C-SPY will be notified and can perform an action.

THE DEBUGGER TERMINAL I/O WINDOW

When code at the labels <code>?C_PUTCHAR</code> and <code>?C_GETCHAR</code> is executed, data will be sent to or read from the debugger window.

For the ?C_PUTCHAR routine, one character is taken from the output stream and written. If everything goes well, the character itself is returned, otherwise -1 is returned.

When the label <code>?C_GETCHAR</code> is reached, C-SPY returns the next character in the input field. If no input is given, C-SPY waits until the user types some input and presses the Return key.

To make the Terminal I/O window available, the application must be linked with the XLINK option **With I/O emulation modules** selected. See the *IDE Project Management and Building Guide*.

TERMINATION

The debugger stops executing when it reaches the special label ?C_EXIT.

Checking module consistency

For information about how to check module consistency, see *Checking module consistency*, page 136.

Checking module consistency

Assembler language interface

- Mixing C and assembler
- Calling assembler routines from C
- Calling assembler routines from C++
- Calling convention
- Call frame information

Mixing C and assembler

The IAR C/C++ Compiler for AVR provides several ways to access low-level resources:

- 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.

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 more 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 a 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 when calling a function written in assembler. In many cases, the overhead of the extra instructions is compensated by the work of the optimizer.

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 question is discussed in the section *Calling assembler routines from C*, page 152. The following two are covered in the section *Calling convention*, page 155.

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 165.

The recommended method for mixing C or C++ and assembler modules is described in *Calling assembler routines from C*, page 152, and *Calling assembler routines from C*++, page 154, respectively.

INLINE ASSEMBLER

Inline assembler can be used for inserting assembler instructions directly into a C or C++ function.

The asm extended keyword and its alias __asm both insert assembler instructions. However, when you compile C source code, the asm keyword is not available when the option --strict is used. The __asm keyword is always available.

Note: Not all assembler directives or operators can be inserted using these keywords.

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.

The following example demonstrates the use of the asm keyword. This example also shows the risks of using inline assembler.

```
bool flag;

void Func()
{
  while (!flag)
  {
    asm("IN R0, PIND \n"
        "STS flag, R0");
  }
}
```

Note: Because using symbols from inside the inline assembler code is not properly visible to all parts of the compiler, you must use #pragma required when you reference an external or module-local symbol only from inline assembler code. If you do not, you can get an undefined symbol error when compiling. See *required*, page 324.

Additionally, 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 might 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
- 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 char, and then returns an int:

```
extern int gInt;
extern char gChar;

int Func(int arg1, char arg2)
{
   int locInt = arg1;
   gChar = arg2;
   return locInt;
}

int main()
{
   int locInt = gInt;
   gInt = Func(locInt, gChar);
   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 SKELETON 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:

```
iccavr skeleton.c -lA . -On -e
```

The -1A 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 s90. The -On option means that no optimization will be used and -e enables language extensions. In addition, make sure to use relevant compiler options, usually the same as you use for other C or C++ source files in your project.

The result is the assembler source output file skeleton. s90.

Note: The -1A 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 call frame information**.



On the command line, use the option -1B 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. For more information, see *Call frame information*, page 165.

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 MyRoutine(int);
}
```

In C++, data structures that only use C features are known as PODs ("plain old data structures"), they use the same memory layout as in C. However, we do not recommend that you access non-PODs from assembler routines.

The following example shows how to achieve the equivalent to a non-static member function, which means that the implicit this pointer must be made explicit. It is also possible to "wrap" the call to the assembler routine in a member function. Use an inline member function to remove the overhead of the extra call—this assumes that function inlining is enabled:

```
class MyClass;
extern "C"
{
  void DoIt(MyClass *ptr, int arg);
}
class MyClass
{
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.

The compiler provides two calling conventions—one old, which is used in version 1.x of the compiler, and one new which is the default. This section describes the calling conventions used by the compiler. These items are examined:

- Choosing a calling convention
- Function declarations
- 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.

CHOOSING A CALLING CONVENTION

You can choose between these calling conventions:

- The old calling convention offers a simple assembler interface. It is compatible with
 the calling convention used in version 1.x of the compiler. Even though this
 convention is not used by default, it is recommended for use when mixing C and
 assembler code
- The new calling convention is default. It is more efficient than the old calling convention, but also more complex to understand and subject to change in later versions of the compiler.

To choose another calling convention than the default, use the --version1_calls command line option. You can also declare individual functions to use the old calling convention by using the __version1 function attribute, for example:

```
extern
__version_1 void doit(int arg);
```

For details about the --version1_calls option and the __version1 attribute, see --version1 calls, page 269 and version 1, page 306, respectively.

In the IDE, choose **Use ICCA90 1.x calling convention** on the **Project>C/C++ Compiler>Code** page.



Hints for using the default calling convention

The default calling convention is very complex, and therefore not recommended for use when calling assembler routines. However, if you intend to use it for your assembler routines, you should create a list file and see how the compiler assigns the different parameters to the available registers. For an example, see *Creating skeleton code*, page 152.

If you intend to use the default calling convention, you should *also* specify a value to the runtime model attribute __rt_version using the RTMODEL assembler directive:

```
RTMODEL "__rt_version", "value"
```

The parameter value should have the same value as the one used internally by the compiler. For information about what value to use, see the generated list file. If the calling convention changes in future compiler versions, the runtime model value used internally by the compiler will also change. Using this method gives a module consistency check, because the linker produces errors for mismatches between the values.

For more information about checking module consistency, see *Checking module consistency*, page 136.

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 MyFunction(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 AVR 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.

For both calling conventions, these 14 registers can be used as scratch registers by a function:

```
R0-R3, R16-R23, and R30-R31
```

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.

For both calling conventions, these registers are preserved registers:

```
R4-R15 and R24-R27
```

Note that the registers R4-R15 can be locked from the command line and used for global register variables; see *--lock regs*, page 251 and *regvar*, page 304.

Special registers

For some registers, you must consider certain prerequisites:

- The stack pointer—register y—must at all times point to the last element on the stack. In the eventuality of an interrupt, everything below the point the stack pointer points to, will be destroyed.
- If using the -v4 or -v6 processor option, the RAMPY register is part of the data stack pointer.
- If using a processor option which uses any of the registers EIND, RAMPX, or RAMPZ, these registers are treated as scratch registers.

FUNCTION ENTRANCE

During a function call, the calling function:

- passes the parameters, either in registers or on the stack
- pushes any other parameters on the data stack (CSTACK)

Control is then passed to the called function with the return address being automatically pushed on the return address stack (RSTACK).

The called function:

- stores any local registers required by the function on the data stack
- allocates space for its auto variables and temporary values
- proceeds to run the function itself.

Register parameters versus stack parameters

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.

Hidden parameters

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

 A function returning structures or unions larger than 4 bytes gets an extra hidden parameter, which is a default pointer—depending on the used memory model—pointing to the location where the result should be stored. This pointer must be returned to the callee. • For non-static C++ member functions, the this pointer is passed as the first parameter (but placed after the return structure pointer, if there is one). Note that static member functions do not have a this pointer.

Register parameters

For both calling conventions, the registers available for passing parameters are:

R16-R23

Parameters are allocated to registers using a first-fit algorithm, using parameter alignment requirements according to this table:

Parameters	Alignment	Passed in registers
8-bit values	1	R16, R17, R18, R19, R20, R21, R22, R23
16-bit values	2	R17:R16, R19:R18, R21:R20, R23:R22
24-bit values	4	R18:R17:R16, R22:R21:R20
32-bit values	4	R19:R18:R17:R16,R23:R22:R21:R20
64-bit values	8	R23:R22:R21:R20:R19:R18:R17:R16

Table 25: Registers used for passing parameters

Register assignment using the default calling convention

In the default calling convention, as many parameters as possible are passed in registers. The remaining parameters are passed on the stack. The compiler may change the order of the parameters in order to achieve the most efficient register usage.

The algorithm for assigning parameters to registers is quite complex in the default calling convention. For details, you should create a list file and see how the compiler assigns the different parameters to the available registers, see *Creating skeleton code*, page 152.

Below follows some examples of combinations of register assignment.

A function with the following signature (not C++):

```
void Func(char __far * a, int b, char c, int d)
```

would have a allocated to R18:R17:R16, b to R21:R20 (alignment requirement prevents R20:R19), c to R19 (first fit), and d to R23:R22 (first fit).

Another example:

```
void bar(char a, int b, long c, char d)
```

This would result in a being allocated to R16 (first fit), b to R19:R18 (alignment), c to R23:R22:R21:R20 (first fit), and d to R17 (first fit).

A third example:

```
void baz(char a, char __far * b, int c, int d)
```

This would give, a being allocated to R16, b to R22:R21:R20, c to R19:R18, and d to the stack.

Register assignment using the old calling convention

In the old calling convention, the two left-most parameters are passed in registers if they are scalar and up to 32 bits in size.

This table shows some of the possible combinations:

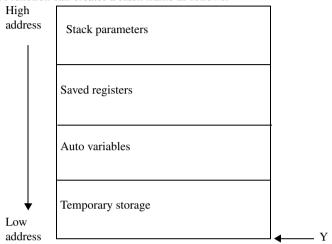
Parameters*	Parameter I	Parameter 2
f(b1,b2,)	R16	R20
f(b1,w2,)	R16	R20, R21
f(w1,11,)	R16, R17	R20, R21, R22, R23
f(11,b2,)	R16, R17, R18, R19	R20
f(11,12,)	R16, R17, R18, R19	R20, R21, R22, R23

Table 26: Passing parameters in registers

^{*} Where b denotes an 8-bit data type, w denotes a 16-bit data type, and 1 denotes a 32-bit data type. If the first and/or second parameter is a 3-byte pointer, it will be passed in R16-R19 or R20-R22 respectively.

Stack parameters and layout

A function call creates a stack frame as follows:



Note that only registers that are used will be saved.

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

For the old calling convention, the registers available for returning values are R16-R19. The default calling convention can use the registers R16-R23 for returning values.

Return values	Passed in registers
8-bit values	R16
16-bit values	R17:R16
24-bit values	R18:R17:R16
32-bit values	R19:R18:R17:R16
64-bit values	R23:R22:R21:R20:R19:R18:R17:R16

Table 27: Registers used for returning values

Note that the size of a returned pointer depends on the memory model in use; appropriate registers are used accordingly.

Stack layout at function exit

Normally, it is the responsibility of the called function to clean the stack. The only exception is for ellipse functions—functions with a variable argument list such as printf—for which it is the responsibility of the caller to clean the stack.

Return address handling

A function written in assembler language should, when finished, return to the caller. At a function call, the return address is automatically stored on the RSTACK (not the CSTACK).

Typically, a function returns by using the RET instruction.

RESTRICTIONS FOR SPECIAL FUNCTION TYPES

Interrupt functions

Interrupt functions differ from ordinary C functions in that:

- If used, flags and scratch registers are saved
- Calls to interrupt functions are made via interrupt vectors; direct calls are not allowed
- No arguments can be passed to an interrupt function
- Interrupt functions return by using the RETI function.

For more information about interrupt functions, see Interrupt functions, page 64.

Monitor functions

A monitor function causes interrupts to be disabled during execution of the function. At function entry, the status register SREG is saved and global interrupts are disabled. At function exit, the global interrupt enable bit (I) is restored in the SREG register, and thereby the interrupt status existing before the function call is also restored.

For more information about monitor functions, see *Monitor functions*, page 65.

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 R17:R16, and the return value is passed back to its caller in the register R17:R16.

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

```
subi R16,FF
sbci R17,FF
```

Example 2

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

```
struct MyStruct
{
  long long mA;
  long long mB;
};
int MyFunction(struct MyStruct x, int y);
```

The calling function must reserve 16 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 R17:R16. The return value is passed back to its caller in the register R17:R16.

Example 3

The function below will return a structure of type struct MyStruct.

```
struct MyStruct
{
  long long mA;
  long long mB;
};
int MyFunction(struct MyStruct x, int y);
```

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 the first suitable register/register pair, which is R16, R17:R16, and R18:R17:R16 for the Tiny, Small, Large, and Huge memory model, respectively. The parameter x is passed in R19:R18, R19:R18, and R21:R20 for the Tiny, Small, Large, and Huge memory model, respectively.

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

struct MyStruct *MyFunction(int x);

In this case, the return value is a scalar, so there is no hidden parameter. The parameter x is passed in R17:R16, and the return value is returned in R16, R17:R16, and R18:R17:R16 for the Tiny, Small, and Large memory model, respectively.

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 AVR 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** (-la) to create an assembler list file.

For more information about the function directives, see the *IAR Assembler User Guide for AVR*.

Call frame information

When you debug an application using C-SPY, you can 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 *IAR Assembler User Guide for AVR*.

CFI DIRECTIVES

The CFI directives 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.

For AVR, the defined resources depend on which processor option you are using. You can find the resources in the list file section CFI Names.

CREATING ASSEMBLER SOURCE WITH CFI SUPPORT

The recommended way to create an assembler language routine that handles call frame information correctly is to start with an assembler language source file created by the compiler.

I Start with suitable C source code, for example:

```
int F(int);
int cfiExample(int i)
{
   return i + F(i);
}
```

2 Compile the C source code, and make sure to create a list file that contains call frame information—the CFI directives.



On the command line, use the option -1A.



In the IDE, choose **Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>List** and make sure the suboption **Include call frame information** is selected.

Using C

- C language overview
- Extensions overview
- IAR C language extensions

C language overview

The IAR C/C++ Compiler for AVR supports the ISO/IEC 9899:1999 standard (including up to technical corrigendum No.3), also known as C99. In this guide, this standard is referred to as *Standard C* and is the default standard used in the compiler. This standard is stricter than C89.

In addition, the compiler also supports the ISO 9899:1990 standard (including all technical corrigenda and addenda), also known as C94, C90, C89, and ANSI C. In this guide, this standard is referred to as *C89*. Use the --c89 compiler option to enable this standard.

The C99 standard is derived from C89, but adds features like these:

- The inline keyword advises the compiler that the function defined immediately
 after the keyword should be inlined
- Declarations and statements can be mixed within the same scope
- A declaration in the initialization expression of a for loop
- The bool data type
- The long long data type
- The complex floating-point type
- C++ style comments
- · Compound literals
- Incomplete arrays at the end of structs
- · Hexadecimal floating-point constants
- Designated initializers in structures and arrays
- The preprocessor operator _Pragma()
- Variadic macros, which are the preprocessor macro equivalents of printf style functions
- VLA (variable length arrays) must be explicitly enabled with the compiler option
 --vla

 Inline assembler using the asm or the __asm keyword, see Inline assembler, page 151.

Note: Even though it is a C99 feature, the IAR C/C++ Compiler for AVR does not support UCNs (universal character names).

Note: CLIB does not support any C99 functionality. For example, complex numbers and variable length arrays are not supported.

Extensions overview

The compiler offers the features of Standard 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.

This is an overview of the available extensions:

• IAR C language extensions

For information about available language extensions, see *IAR C language extensions*, page 169. For more 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 Standard C 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 information about available pragma directives, see the chapter *Pragma directives*.

Preprocessor extensions

The preprocessor of the compiler adheres to Standard C. 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. For more information about using intrinsic functions, see *Mixing C and*

assembler, page 149. For information about available functions, see the chapter *Intrinsic functions*.

• Library functions

The IAR DLIB Library provides the C and C++ library definitions that apply to embedded systems. For more information, see *IAR DLIB Library*, page 353. For information about AVR-specific library functions, see *AVR-specific library functions*, page 360.

Note: Any use of these extensions, except for the pragma directives, makes your source code inconsistent with Standard C.

ENABLING LANGUAGE EXTENSIONS

You can choose different levels of language conformance by means of project options:

Command line	IDE*	Description
strict	Strict	All IAR C language extensions are disabled; errors are issued for anything that is not part of Standard C.
None	Standard	All extensions to Standard C are enabled, but no extensions for embedded systems programming. For information about extensions, see IAR C language extensions, page 169.
-e	Standard with IAR extensions	All IAR C language extensions are enabled.

Table 28: Language extensions

IAR C language extensions

The compiler provides a wide set of C language extensions. To help you to find the extensions required by your application, they are grouped like this in this section:

- Extensions for embedded systems programming—extensions specifically tailored for efficient embedded programming for the specific microcontroller you are using, typically to meet memory restrictions
- Relaxations to Standard C—that is, the relaxation of some minor Standard C issues and also some useful but minor syntax extensions, see Relaxations to Standard C, page 172.

^{*} In the IDE, choose **Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language>Language conformance** and select the appropriate option. Note that language extensions are enabled by default.

EXTENSIONS FOR EMBEDDED SYSTEMS PROGRAMMING

The following language extensions are available both in the C and the C++ programming languages and they 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 features, see *Controlling data and function placement in memory*, page 204, and *location*, page 320.

• Alignment control

Each data type has its own alignment; for more information, see *Alignment*, page 273. If you want to change the alignment the <code>#pragma data_alignment</code> directive available. If you want to check the alignment of an object, use the <code>__ALIGNOF__()</code> 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 called 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 202.

• Bitfields and non-standard types

In Standard C, a bitfield must be of the type int or unsigned int. Using IAR C language extensions, any integer type or enumeration can be used. The advantage is that the struct will sometimes be smaller. For more information, see *Bitfields*, page 276.

• static assert()

The construction static_assert(const-expression, "message"); can be used in C/C++. The construction will be evaluated at compile time and if const-expression is false, a message will be issued including the message string.

• Parameters in variadic macros

Variadic macros are the preprocessor macro equivalents of printf style functions. The preprocessor accepts variadic macros with no arguments, which means if no parameter matches the . . . parameter, the comma is then deleted in the ", ##__VA_ARGS__" macro definition. According to Standard C, the . . . parameter must be matched with at least one argument.

Dedicated segment operators

The compiler supports getting the start address, end address, and size for a segment with these built-in segment operators:

```
__segment_begin Returns the address of the first byte of the named segment.

__segment_end Returns the address of the first byte after the named segment.

__segment_size Returns the size of the named segment in bytes.
```

```
Note: The aliases __segment_begin/__sfb, __segment_end/__sfe, and __segment_size/__sfs can also be used.
```

The operators can be used on named segments defined in the linker configuration file.

These operators behave syntactically as if declared like:

See also *segment*, page 326, and *location*, page 320.

```
void * __segment_begin(char const * segment)
void * __segment_end(char const * segment)
size_t __segment_size(char const * segment)
```

When you use the @ operator or the #pragma location directive to place a data object or a function in a user-defined segment in the linker configuration file, the segment operators can be used for getting the start and end address of the memory range where the segments were placed.

The named <code>segment</code> must be a string literal and it must have been declared earlier with the <code>#pragma segment</code> directive. If the segment was declared with a memory attribute <code>memattr</code>, the type of the <code>__segment_begin</code> operator is a pointer to <code>memattr</code> void. Otherwise, the type is a default pointer to <code>void</code>. Note that you must enable language extensions to use these operators.

Example

```
In this example, the type of the __segment_begin operator is void __near *.
#pragma segment="MYSEGMENT" __near
...
segment_start_address = __segment_begin("MYSEGMENT");
```

RELAXATIONS TO STANDARD C

This section lists and briefly describes the relaxation of some Standard C 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 extensions allow you to first declare the name of an enum and later resolve it by specifying the brace-enclosed list.

Accepting missing semicolon at the end of a struct or union specifier
 A warning—instead of an error—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 Standard C, some operators allow this kind of behavior, while others do not allow it.

• 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 280.

• Taking the address of a register variable

In Standard 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.

• 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 the strict Standard C 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 Standard C mode, a warning is issued.

• A label preceding a }

In Standard 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. The compiler allows this, but issues a warning.

Note that 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

Standard 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. The compiler accepts this expression:

```
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 that contains the name of the current function. 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 244.

• Static functions in function and block scopes

Static functions may be declared in function and block scopes. Their declarations are moved to the file scope.

Numbers scanned according to the syntax for numbers

Numbers are scanned according to the syntax for numbers rather than the pp-number syntax. Thus, 0x123e+1 is scanned as three tokens instead of one valid token. (If the --strict option is used, the pp-number syntax is used instead.)

Using C++

- Overview—EC++ and EEC++
- Enabling support for C++
- EC++ feature descriptions
- EEC++ feature description
- C++ language extensions

Overview—EC++ and EEC++

IAR Systems supports the C++ language. You can choose between the industry-standard Embedded C++ and Extended Embedded C++. *Using C*++ describes what you need to consider when using the C++ language.

Embedded C++ is a proper 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. EC++ offers the same object-oriented benefits as C++, but without some features that can increase code size and execution time in ways that are hard to predict.

EMBEDDED C++

These 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 features added very late before Standard C++ was defined. Embedded C++ thus offers a subset of C++ which is efficient and fully supported by existing development tools.

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
- Multiple and virtual inheritance
- 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 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 support for C++



In the compiler, the default language is C.

To compile files written in Embedded C++, use the --ec++ compiler option. See --ec++, page 244.

To take advantage of *Extended* Embedded C++ features in your source code, use the --eec++ compiler option. See --eec++, page 244.



To enable EC++ or EEC++ in the IDE, choose **Project>Options>**C/C++ **Compiler>Language** and select the appropriate standard.

EC++ feature descriptions

When you write C++ source code for the IAR C/C++ Compiler for AVR, 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.

USING IAR ATTRIBUTES WITH CLASSES

Static data members of C++ classes are treated the same way global variables are, and can have any applicable IAR type, memory, and object attribute.

Member functions are in general treated the same way free functions are, and can have any applicable IAR type, memory, and object attributes. Virtual member functions can only have attributes that are compatible with default function pointers, and constructors and destructors cannot have any such attributes.

The location operator @ and the #pragma location directive can be used on static data members and with all member functions.

Example of using attributes with classes

```
class MyClass
{
public:
    // Locate a static variable in __near memory at address 60
    static __near __no_init int mI @ 60;

    // Locate a static function in __nearfunc memory
    static __nearfunc void F();

    // Locate a function in __nearfunc memory
    __nearfunc void G();

    // Locate a virtual function in __nearfunc memory
    virtual __nearfunc void H();

    // Locate a virtual function into SPECIAL
    virtual void M() const volatile @ "SPECIAL";
};
```

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.

Class memory

To compensate for this limitation, a class can be associated with a *class memory type*. The class memory type changes:

- the this pointer type in all member functions, constructors, and destructors into a pointer to class memory
- the default memory for static storage duration variables—that is, not auto variables—of the class type, into the specified class memory
- the pointer type used for pointing to objects of the class type, into a pointer to class memory.

Example

```
class __far C
public:
                   // Has a this pointer of type C far *
 void MyF();
 void MyF() const; // Has a this pointer of type
                   // C far const *
 C();
                   // Has a this pointer pointing into far
                   // memory
 C(C const &);
                  // Takes a parameter of type C __far
                   // const & (also true of generated copy
                    // constructor)
 int mI;
};
C Ca;
                   // Resides in far memory instead of the
                   // default memory
                   // Resides in near memory, the 'this'
C __near Cb;
                   // pointer still points into far memory
void MyH()
                   // Resides on the stack
 C cd;
}
C *Cp1;
                   // Creates a pointer to far memory
C __near *Cp2; // Creates a pointer to near memory
```

Note: To place the C class in huge memory is not allowed, unless using the huge memory model, because a huge pointer cannot be implicitly converted into a __far pointer.

Whenever a class type associated with a class memory type, like C, must be declared, the class memory type must be mentioned as well:

```
class __far C;
```

Also note that class types associated with different class memories are not compatible types.

```
A built-in operator returns the class memory type associated with a class, __memory_of(class). For instance, __memory_of(C) returns __far.
```

When inheriting, the rule is that it must be possible to convert implicitly a pointer to a subclass into a pointer to its base class. This means that a subclass can have a *more* restrictive class memory than its base class, but not a *less* restrictive class memory.

```
class __far D : public C
{ // OK, same class memory
public:
 void MyG();
 int mJ;
}:
class __near E : public C
{ // OK, near memory is inside far
public:
 void MyG() // Has a this pointer pointing into near memory
   MyF(); // Gets a this pointer into far memory
 int mJ;
};
class F : public C
{ // OK, will be associated with same class memory as C
public:
 void MyG();
 int mJ;
};
```

A new expression on the class will allocate memory in the heap associated with the class memory. A delete expression will naturally deallocate the memory back to the same heap. To override the default new and delete operator for a class, declare

```
void *operator new(size_t);
void operator delete(void *);
```

as member functions, just like in ordinary C++.

For more information about memory types, see *Memory types*, page 54.

FUNCTION TYPES

A function type with extern "C" linkage is compatible with a function that has C++ linkage.

NEW AND DELETE OPERATORS

There are operators for new and delete for each memory that can have a heap, that is, tiny, near, far, and huge memory.

```
// Assumes that there is a heap in both __near and __far memory
void __near *operator new __near(__near_size_t);
void __far *operator new __far (__far_size_t);
void operator delete(void __near *);
void operator delete(void __far *);

// And correspondingly for array new and delete operators
void __near *operator new[] __near(__near_size_t);
void __far *operator new[] __far (__far_size_t);
void operator delete[](void __near *);
void operator delete[](void __far *);
```

Use this syntax if you want to override both global and class-specific operator new and operator delete for any data memory.

Note that there is a special syntax to name the operator new functions for each memory, while the naming for the operator delete functions relies on normal overloading.

New and delete expressions

A new expression calls the operator new function for the memory of the type given. If a class, struct, or union type with a class memory is used, the class memory will determine the operator new function called. For example,

```
void MyF()
 // Calls operator new __huge(__huge_size_t)
 int __huge *p = new __huge int;
 // Calls operator new __near(__near_size_t)
 int __near *q = new int __near;
 // Calls operator new[] __near(__near_size_t)
 int __near *r = new __near int[10];
 // Calls operator new __huge(__huge_size_t)
 class huge S
 };
 S *s = new S;
 // Calls operator delete(void huge *)
 delete p;
 // Calls operator delete(void __near *)
 delete s;
 int huge *t = new far int;
 delete t; // Error: Causes a corrupt heap
```

Note that the pointer used in a delete expression must have the correct type, that is, the same type as that returned by the new expression. If you use a pointer to the wrong memory, the result might be a corrupt heap.

USING STATIC CLASS OBJECTS IN INTERRUPTS

If interrupt functions use static class objects that need to be constructed (using constructors) or destroyed (using destructors), your application will not work properly if the interrupt occurs before the objects are constructed, or, during or after the objects are destroyed.

To avoid this, make sure that these interrupts are not enabled until the static objects have been constructed, and are disabled when returning from main or calling exit. For information about system startup, see *System startup and termination*, page 113.

Function local static class objects are constructed the first time execution passes through their declaration, and are destroyed when returning from main or when calling exit.

USING NEW HANDLERS

To handle memory exhaustion, you can use the set_new_handler function.

New handlers in Embedded C++

If you do not call <code>set_new_handler</code>, or call it with a NULL new handler, and operator new fails to allocate enough memory, it will call abort. The nothrow variant of the new operator will instead return NULL.

If you call set_new_handler with a non-NULL new handler, the provided new handler will be called by operator new if operator new fails to allocate memory. The new handler must then make more memory available and return, or abort execution in some manner. The nothrow variant of operator new will never return NULL in the presence of a new handler.

TEMPLATES

Extended EC++ supports templates according to the C++ standard, but not 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.

DEBUG SUPPORT IN C-SPY

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.

For more information about this, see the C-SPY® Debugging Guide for AVR.

EEC++ feature description

This section describes features that distinguish Extended EC++ from EC++.

TEMPLATES

The compiler supports templates with the syntax and semantics as defined by Standard C++. However, note that the STL (standard template library) delivered with the product is tailored for Extended EC++, see *Extended Embedded C++*, page 176.

Templates and data memory attributes

For data memory attributes to work as expected in templates, two elements of the standard C++ template handling were changed—class template partial specialization matching and function template parameter deduction.

In Extended Embedded C++, the class template partial specialization matching algorithm works like this:

When a pointer or reference type is matched against a pointer or reference to a template parameter type, the template parameter type will be the type pointed to, stripped of any data memory attributes, if the resulting pointer or reference type is the same.

Example

```
// We assume that __far is the memory type of the default
// pointer.
template<typename> class Z {};
template<typename T> class Z<T *> {};

Z<int __near *> Zn; // T = int __near
Z<int __far *> Zf; // T = int
Z<int *> Zd; // T = int
Z<int __huge *> Zh; // T = int __huge
```

In Extended Embedded C++, the function template parameter deduction algorithm works like this:

When function template matching is performed and an argument is used for the deduction; if that argument is a pointer to a memory that can be implicitly converted to a default pointer, do the parameter deduction as if it was a default pointer.

When an argument is matched against a reference, do the deduction as if the argument and the parameter were both pointers.

For templates that are matched using this modified algorithm, it is impossible to get automatic generation of special code for pointers to "small" memory types. For "large" and "other" memory types (memory that cannot be pointed to by a default pointer) it is possible. To make it possible to write templates that are fully memory-aware—in the rare cases where this is useful—use the <code>#pragma basic_template_matching</code> directive in front of the template function declaration. That template function will then match without the modifications described above.

Example

```
// We assume that __far is the memory type of the default
// pointer.
#pragma basic_template_matching
template<typename T> void fun(T *);

void MyF()
{
  fun((int __near *) 0); // T = int __near
}
```

Non-type template parameters

It is allowed to have a reference to a memory type as a template parameter, even if pointers to that memory type are not allowed.

```
extern int __near X;

template<__near int &y>
void Func()
{
    y = 17;
}

void Bar()
{
    Foo<X>();
}
```

The containers in the STL, like vector and map, are memory attribute aware. This means that a container can be declared to reside in a specific memory type which has the following consequences:

- The container itself will reside in the chosen memory
- Allocations of elements in the container will use a heap for the chosen memory
- All references inside it use pointers to the chosen memory.

Example

```
#include <vector>
vector<int> D;
                                   // D placed in default
memory,
                                    // using the default heap,
                                    // uses default pointers
vector<int __near> __near X;
                                   // X placed in near memory,
                                   // heap allocation from
                                   // near, uses pointers to
                                    // near memory
vector<int __huge> __near Y;
                                   // Y placed in near memory,
                                    // heap allocation from
                                    // huge, uses pointers to
                                    // huge memory
```

Note that this is illegal:

```
vector<int __near> __huge Z;
```

Note also that map<key, T>, multimap<key, T>, hash_map<key, T>, and hash_multimap<key, T> all use the memory of T. This means that the value_type of these collections will be pair<key, const T> mem where mem is the memory type of T. Supplying a key with a memory type is not useful.

Note that two containers that only differ by the data memory attribute they use cannot be assigned to each other. Instead, the templated assign member method must be used.

```
#include <vector>
vector<int __near> X;
vector<int __huge> Y;

void MyF()
{
    // The templated assign member method will work
    X.assign(Y.begin(), Y.end());
    Y.assign(X.begin(), X.end());
}
```

The standard template library

The containers in the STL, like vector and map, are memory attribute aware. This means that a container can be declared to reside in a specific memory type which has the following consequences:

- The container itself will reside in the chosen memory
- Allocations of elements in the container will use a heap for the chosen memory
- All references inside it use pointers to the chosen memory.

Example

```
#include <vector>
vector<int> D:
                                     // D placed in default
memory,
                                     // using the default heap,
                                     // uses default pointers
vector<int __near> __near X;
                                     // X placed in near memory,
                                     // heap allocation from
                                     // near, uses pointers to
                                     // near memory
vector<int __far> __near Y;
                                     // Y placed in near memory,
                                     // heap allocation from
                                     // far, uses pointers to
                                     // far memory
Note that this is illegal:
vector<int __near> __far Z;
```

Note also that map<key, T>, multimap<key, T>, hash_map<key, T>, and hash_multimap<key, T> all use the memory of T. This means that the value_type of these collections will be pair<key, const T> mem where mem is the memory type of T. Supplying a key with a memory type is not useful.

Example

Note that two containers that only differ by the data memory attribute they use cannot be assigned to each other. Instead, the templated assign member method must be used.

```
#include <vector>
vector<int __near> X;
vector<int __far> Y;

void MyF()
{
    // The templated assign member method will work
    X.assign(Y.begin(), Y.end());
    Y.assign(X.begin(), X.end());
}
```

VARIANTS OF CAST OPERATORS

In Extended EC++ these additional variants of C++ cast operators can be used:

```
const_cast<to>(from)
static_cast<to>(from)
reinterpret_cast<to>(from)
```

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
```

You must make sure that identifiers in your application do not interfere with identifiers in the runtime library.

C++ language extensions

When you use the compiler in any 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 G(); // According to the 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.
- An anonymous union can be introduced into a containing class by a typedef name.
 It is not necessary to first declare the union. For example:

```
typedef union
{
   int i,j;
} U; // U identifies a reusable anonymous union.

class A
{
public:
   U; // OK -- references to A::i and A::j are allowed.
};
```

In addition, this extension also permits *anonymous classes* and *anonymous structs*, as long as they have no C++ features (for example, no static data members or member functions, and no non-public members) and have no nested types other than other anonymous classes, structs, or unions. For example:

```
struct A
{
   struct
   {
     int i,j;
   }; // OK -- references to A::i and A::j are allowed.
};
```

• The friend class syntax allows nonclass types as well as class types expressed through a typedef without an elaborated type name. For example:

Note: If you use any of these constructions without first enabling language extensions, errors are issued.

C++ language extensions

Application-related considerations

- Stack considerations
- Heap considerations
- Interaction between the tools and your application
- Checksum calculation

Stack considerations

To make your application use stack memory efficiently, there are some considerations to be made.

AVAILABLE STACKS

The compiler uses the internal data stack, CSTACK, for a variety of user program operations. In addition, there is a specific stack for return addresses, RSTACK.

The return address stack

The return address stack is used for storing the return address when a CALL, RCALL, ICALL, or EICALL instruction is executed. Each call will use two or three bytes of return address stack. An interrupt will also place a return address on this stack.

The data segment used for holding the return address stack is called RSTACK.

To determine the size of the return address stack, see *Setting up stack memory*, page 91. Notice however that if the cross-call optimization has been used (-z9 without --no_cross_call), the value can be off by as much as a factor of six depending on how many times the cross-call optimizer has been run (--cross_call_passes). Each cross-call pass adds one level of calls, for example, two cross-call passes might result in a tripled stack usage.

If external SRAM is available, it is possible to place the stack there. However, the external memory is slower than the internal memory so moving the stacks to external memory will normally decrease the system performance; see *--enable_external_bus*, page 245.

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

STACK SIZE CONSIDERATIONS

The required stack size depends heavily on the application's behavior. If the given stack size is too large, RAM will be wasted. If the given stack size is too small, one of two things can happen, depending on where in memory you located your stack:

- Variable storage will be overwritten, leading to undefined behavior
- The stack will fall outside of the memory area, leading to an abnormal termination of your application.

Both alternatives are likely to result in application failure. Because the second alternative is easier to detect, you should consider placing your stack so that it grows toward the end of the memory.

For more information about the stack size, see *Setting up stack memory*, page 91, and *Saving stack space and RAM memory*, page 213.

Heap considerations

The heap contains dynamic data allocated by use of the C function malloc (or a corresponding function) 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, see *Setting up heap memory*, page 92.

HEAP SEGMENTS IN DLIB

To access a heap in a specific memory, use the appropriate memory attribute as a prefix to the standard functions malloc, free, calloc, and realloc, for example:

```
__near_malloc
```

If you use any of the standard functions without a prefix, the function will be mapped to the default memory type near.

Each heap will reside in a segment with the name _HEAP prefixed by a memory attribute, for example NEAR_HEAP.

For information about available heaps, see *Heaps*, page 130.

HEAP SEGMENTS IN CLIB

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 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 AVR microcontroller. 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.

Interaction between the tools and your application

The linking process and the application can interact symbolically in four ways:

- Creating a symbol by using the linker command line option -D. The linker will
 create a public absolute constant symbol that the application can use as a label, as a
 size, as setup for a debugger, etc.
- Using the compiler operators __segment_begin, __segment_end, or __segment_size, or the assembler operators SFB, SFE, or SIZEOF on a named segment. These operators provide access to the start address, end address, and size of a contiguous sequence of segments with the same name
- The command line option -s informs the linker about the start label of the application. It is used by the linker as a root symbol and to inform the debugger where to start execution.

The following lines illustrate how to use -D to create a symbol. If you need to use this mechanism, add these options to your command line like this:

```
-Dmy_symbol=A
-D_..X_HEAP_SIZE=100
```

The linker configuration file can look like this:

```
-Z(DATA)MyHeap+MY_HEAP_SIZE=20000-2FFFF
```

Add these lines to your application source code:

```
#include <stdlib.h>
/* Use symbol defined by an XLINK option to dynamically allocate
an array of elements with specified size. The value takes the
form of a label.
* /
extern int NrOfElements;
typedef char Elements;
Elements *GetElementArray()
 return malloc(sizeof(Elements) * (long) &NrOfElements);
/* Use a symbol defined by an XLINK option, a symbol that in the
 * configuration file was made available to the application.
extern char HeapSize;
/* Declare the section that contains the heap. */
#pragma segment = "MYHEAP"
char *MyHeap()
  /* First get start of statically allocated section, */
 char *p = __segment_begin("MYHEAP");
  /* ...then we zero it, using the imported size. */
  for (int i = 0; i < (int) &HeapSize; ++i)
   p[i] = 0;
 }
 return p;
```

Checksum calculation

To use checksumming to verify the integrity of your application, you must:

- Choose a checksum algorithm by setting the command line option -J, and include source code for the algorithm in your application
- Decide which memory ranges to verify and set up the linker by using the command line option –J, and the source code for it in your application source code.

 Make sure your application refers to the checksum symbol (see -J in the IAR Linker and Library Tools Reference Guide) to ensure that is included.



In the IDE, choose Project>Options>Linker>Checksum.

CALCULATING A CHECKSUM

In this example, a checksum is calculated for ROM memory at 0x8002 up to 0x8FFF and the 2-byte calculated checksum is placed at 0x8000.

ADDING A CHECKSUM FUNCTION TO YOUR SOURCE CODE

To check the value of the generated checksum, it must be compared with a checksum that your application calculated. This means that you must add a function for checksum calculation (that uses the same algorithm as the -J option) to your application source code. Your application must also include a call to this function.

A function for checksum calculation

This function—a slow variant but with small memory footprint—uses the crc16 algorithm:

```
unsigned short SlowCrc16 (unsigned short sum,
                          unsigned char *p,
                          unsigned int len)
 while (len--)
  {
    int i;
    unsigned char byte = *(p++);
    for (i = 0; i < 8; ++i)
      unsigned long oSum = sum;
      sum <<= 1;
      if (byte & 0x80)
        sum |= 1;
      if (oSum & 0x8000)
        sum ^= 0x1021;
      byte <<= 1;
    }
 }
 return sum;
}
```

Example of checksum calculation

This code gives an example of how the checksum can be calculated:

```
/* The checksum calculated
 * (note that it is located on address 0x8000)
extern unsigned short const __checksum;
void TestChecksum()
 unsigned short calc = 0;
 unsigned char zeros[2] = {0, 0};
  /* Run the checksum algorithm */
  calc = SlowCrc16(0,
                  (unsigned char *) checksumStart,
                  (checksumEnd - checksumStart+1)):
  /* Rotate out the answer */
 calc = SlowCrc16(calc, zeros, 2);
  /* Test the checksum */
 if (calc != __checksum)
   abort(); /* Failure */
}
```

THINGS TO REMEMBER

When calculating a checksum, you must remember that:

- Typically, the checksum must be calculated from the lowest to the highest address for every memory range
- Each memory range must be verified in the same order as defined (ABC is not the same as ACB)
- It is OK to have several ranges for one checksum
- If several checksums are used, you should place them in sections with unique names and use unique symbol names
- If the a slow function variant is used, you must make a final call to the checksum calculation with as many bytes (with the value 0x00) as there are bytes in the checksum.
- Never calculate a checksum on a location that contains a checksum.

Efficient coding for embedded applications

- Selecting data types
- Controlling data and function placement in memory
- Controlling compiler optimizations
- Facilitating good code generation

Selecting data types

For efficient treatment of data, you should consider the data types used and the most efficient placement of the variables. This section provides useful information for efficient treatment of data:

- Locating strings in ROM, RAM or flash
- Using efficient data types
- Floating-point types
- Memory model and memory attributes for data
- Using the best pointer type
- Anonymous structs and unions.

LOCATING STRINGS IN ROM, RAM OR FLASH

With the IAR C/C++ Compiler for AVR there are three possible locations for storing strings:

- In external ROM in the data memory space
- In internal RAM in the data memory space
- In flash in the code memory space.

To read more about this, see *Placing code and data—the linker configuration file*, page 74.

Locating strings in flash

This can be done on individual strings or for the whole application/file using the option --string_literals_in_flash. Examples on how to locate individual strings into flash:

```
__flash char str1[] = "abcdef";
__flash char str2[] = "ghi";
__flash char __flash * pVar[] = { str1, str2 };
```

String literals cannot be put in flash automatically, but you can use a local static variable instead:

```
#include <pgmspace.h>
void f (int i)
{
   static __flash char sl[] = "%d cookies\n";
   printf_P(sl, i);
}
```

This does not result in more code compared to allowing string literals in flash.

To use flash strings, you must use alternative library routines that expect flash strings. A few such alternative functions are provided—they are declared in the pgmspace.h header file. They are flash alternatives for some common C library functions with an extension _P. For your own code, you can always use the __flash keyword when passing the strings between functions.

For reference information about the alternative functions, see *AVR-specific library functions*, page 360.

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 small and unsigned data types, (unsigned char and unsigned short) unless your application really requires signed values.
- Bitfields with sizes other than 1 bit should be avoided because they will result in inefficient code compared to bit operations.
- When using arrays, it is more efficient if the type of the index expression matches
 the index type of the memory of the array. For __near this is int.
- Using floating-point types on a microprocessor without a math co-processor is very inefficient, both in terms of code size and execution speed.
- Declaring a pointer parameter to point to const data might open for better optimizations in the calling function.

For information 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 math coprocessor is very inefficient, both in terms of code size and execution speed. Thus, you should consider replacing code that uses floating-point operations with code that uses integers, because these are more efficient.

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.

In the compiler, 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 --64bit_doubles compiler option (Use 64-bit doubles).

Unless the application requires the extra precision that 64-bit floating-point numbers give, we recommend using 32-bit floating-point numbers instead.

By default, 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, the double constant 1.0 is added and the result is converted back to a float:

```
double Test(float a)
{
    return a + 1.0;
}
```

To treat a floating-point constant as a float rather than as a double, add the suffix f to it, for example:

```
double Test(float a)
{
    return a + 1.0f;
}
```

For more information about floating-point types, see *Basic data types—floating-point types*, page 277.

MEMORY MODEL AND MEMORY ATTRIBUTES FOR DATA

For many applications it is sufficient to use the memory model feature to specify the default memory for the data objects. However, for individual objects it might be necessary to specify other memory attributes in certain cases, for example:

- An application where some global variables are accessed from a large number of locations. In this case they can be declared to be placed in memory with a smaller pointer type
- An application where all data, with the exception of one large chunk of data, fits into the region of one of the smaller memory types
- Data that must be placed at a specific memory location.

The IAR C/C++ Compiler for AVR provides memory attributes for placing data objects in the different memory spaces, and for the DATA and CODE space (flash) there are different memory attributes for placing data objects in different memory types, see *Using data memory attributes*, page 54.

Efficient usage of memory type attributes can significantly reduce the application size.

For details about the memory types, see *Memory types*, page 54.

USING THE BEST POINTER TYPE

The generic pointers, pointers declared __generic, can point to all memory spaces, which makes them simple and also tempting to use. However, they carry a cost in that special code is needed before each pointer access to check which memory a pointer points to and taking the appropriate actions. Use the smallest pointer type that you can, and avoid any generic pointers unless necessary.

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 AVR 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 244, for additional information.

In this example, the members in the anonymous union can be accessed, in function F, without explicitly specifying the union name:

```
struct S
{
   char mTag;
   union
   {
     long mL;
     float mF;
   };
} St;

void F(void)
{
   St.mL = 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;
   };
} @ 40;

/* The variables are used here. */
void Test(void)
{
   IOPORT = 0;
   way = 1;
   out = 1;
}
```

This declares an I/O register byte IOPORT at address 40. The I/O register has 2 bits declared, way and out. Note that both the inner structure and the outer union are anonymous.

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 and know which one is best suited for different situations. You can use:

- Memory models
 - Use the different compiler options for memory models to take advantage of the different addressing modes available for the microcontroller and thereby also place data objects in different parts of memory. For more information about memory models, see *Memory models*, page 59, and *Function storage*, page 63, respectively.
- Memory attributes
 - Using IAR-specific keywords or pragma directives, you can override the default placement of functions, variables, and constants. For more information, see *Using function memory attributes*, page 63and *Using data memory attributes*, page 54.
- The @ operator and the #pragma location directive for absolute placement.

 Using the @ operator or the #pragma location directive, you can place individual global and static variables at absolute addresses. For more information, see *Data placement at an absolute location*, page 204.
- The @ operator and the #pragma location directive for segment placement.

 Using the @ operator or the #pragma location directive, you can place individual functions, variables, and constants in named segments. The placement of these segments can then be controlled by linker directives. For more information, see *Data and function placement in segments*, page 206
- Using the --segment option, you can set the default segment for functions, variables, and constants in a particular module. For more information, see --segment, page 264.

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: All declarations of __no_init variables placed at an absolute address are *tentative definitions*. Tentatively defined variables are only kept in the output from the compiler if they are needed in the module being compiled. Such variables will be defined in all modules in which they are used, which will work as long as they are defined in the same way. The recommendation is to place all such declarations in header files that are included in all modules that use the variables

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 @ 0xFF2000;/* OK */
```

The next example contains 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.

This shows 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:

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:

```
/* The extern keyword makes x public. */
extern volatile const __no_init int x @ 0x100;
```

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 following methods can be used for placing data or functions in named segments other than default:

- 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.
- The --segment option can be used for placing variables and functions, which are parts of the whole compilation unit, in named segments.

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 configuration 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 configuration file.

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

Examples of placing variables in named segments

In the following examples, a data object is placed in a user-defined segment. If no memory attribute is specified, the variable will, like any other variable, be treated as if

it is located in the default memory. Note that you must as always ensure that the segment is placed in the appropriate memory area when linking.

```
__no_init int alpha @ "MY_NOINIT"; /* OK */

#pragma location="MY_CONSTANTS"

const int beta = 42; /* OK */

const int gamma @ "MY_CONSTANTS" = 17;/* OK */

int theta @ "MY_ZEROS"; /* OK */

int phi @ "MY_INITED" = 4711; /* OK */
```

The compiler will warn that segments that contain zero-initialized and initialized data must be handled manually. To do this, you must use the linker option -Q to separate the initializers into one separate segment and the symbols to be initialized to a different segment. You must then write source code that copies the initializer segment to the initialized segment, and zero-initialized symbols must be cleared before they are used.

As usual, you can use memory attributes to select a memory for the variable. Note that you must as always ensure that the segment is placed in the appropriate memory area when linking.

```
__near __no_init int alpha @ "MY_NEAR_NOINIT";/* Placed in near*/
```

This example shows incorrect usage:

Examples of placing functions in named segments

```
void f(void) @ "MY_FUNCTIONS";

void g(void) @ "MY_FUNCTIONS"
{
}

#pragma location="MY_FUNCTIONS"
void h(void);
```

Specify a memory attribute to direct the function to a specific memory, and then modify the segment placement in the linker configuration file accordingly:

```
__nearfunc void f(void) @ "MY_NEARFUNC_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. See *optimize*, page 322, 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 253.

Note: Only one object file is generated, and thus all symbols will be part of that object file.

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 241.

OPTIMIZATION LEVELS

The compiler supports different levels of optimizations. This table lists optimizations that are typically performed on each level:

Optimization level	Description
None (Best debug support)	Variables live through their entire scope
Low	Same as above but variables only live for as long as they are needed, not necessarily through their entire scope Dead code elimination Redundant label elimination Redundant branch elimination
Medium	Same as above, and: Live-dead analysis and optimization Code hoisting Register content analysis and optimization Common subexpression elimination Static clustering
High (Balanced)	Same as above, and: Peephole optimization Cross jumping Cross call (when optimizing for size) Function inlining Code motion Type-based alias analysis

Table 29: Compiler optimization levels

Note: Some of the performed optimizations can be individually enabled or disabled. For more information about these, see *Fine-tuning enabled transformations*, page 210.

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.

If you use the optimization level High speed, the --no_size_constraints compiler option relaxes the normal restrictions for code size expansion and enables more aggressive optimizations.

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
- Function inlining
- Code motion
- Type-based alias analysis
- Static clustering
- 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.

For more information about the command line option, see --no cse, page 255.

Function inlining

Function inlining means that a 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 normally reduces execution time, but might increase the code size.

For more information, see *Inlining functions*, page 68.

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 Medium and above, 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 below Medium.

For more information about the command line option, see --no code motion, page 254.

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 application code conforming to standard C or C++ application code, this optimization can reduce code size and execution time. However, non-standard 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.

For more information about the command line option, see --no_tbaa, page 257.

Examble

```
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.

Static clustering

When static clustering is enabled, static and global variables that are defined within the same module are arranged so that variables that are accessed in the same function are stored close to each other. This makes it possible for the compiler to use the same base pointer for several accesses.

Note: This option has no effect at optimization levels None and Low.

For more information about the command line option, see --no clustering, page 253.

Cross call

Common code sequences are extracted to local subroutines. This optimization, which is performed at optimization level High size, 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.

If you want to use cross calls at any other optimization level, use --do_cross_call.

For more information about related command line options, see --no_cross_call, page 254, --do cross call, page 243, and --cross call passes, page 236.

Facilitating good code generation

This section contains hints on how to help the compiler generate good code, for example:

- Using efficient addressing modes
- Helping the compiler optimize
- Generating more useful error message.

WRITING OPTIMIZATION-FRIENDLY SOURCE CODE

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 (non-static). Also avoid taking the address of frequently accessed static variables.

- The compiler is capable of inlining functions, see *Function inlining*, page 210. To maximize the effect of the inlining transformation, it is good practice to place the definitions of small functions called from more than one module in the header file rather than in the implementation file. Alternatively, you can use multi-file compilation. For more information, see *Multi-file compilation units*, page 208.
- Avoid using inline assembler. Instead, try writing the code in C/C++, use intrinsic functions, or write a separate module in assembler language. For more information, see Mixing C and assembler, page 149.

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.

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 valid C, however it is strongly recommended to use the prototyped style, and provide a prototype declaration for each public function in a header that is included both in the compilation unit defining the function and in all compilation units using it.

The compiler will not perform type checking on parameters passed to functions declared using K&R style. Using prototype declarations will also result in more efficient code in some cases, as there is no need for type promotion for these functions.

To make the compiler require that all function definitions use the prototyped style, and that all public functions have been declared before being defined, use the **Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language 1>Require prototypes** compiler option (--require_prototypes).

Prototyped style

In prototyped function declarations, the type for each parameter must be specified.

```
int Test(char, int); /* Declaration */
int Test(char ch, int i) /* Definition */
{
   return i + ch;
}
```

Kernighan & Ritchie style

In K&R style—pre-Standard 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.

For example:

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)
   ;
}
```

Here, the test is always false. On the right hand side, 0x80 is 0x0080, and x0x0080 becomes 0xFF7F. On the left hand side, x0x0080 learner than 255. It also cannot be negative, which means that the integral promoted value can never have the topmost 8 bits set.

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.

For sequences of accesses to variables that you do not want to be interrupted, use the __monitor keyword. This must be done for both write *and* read sequences, otherwise you might end up reading a partially updated variable. Accessing a small-sized volatile variable can be an atomic operation, but 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. For more information, see __*monitor*, page 299.

For more information about the volatile type qualifier and the rules for accessing volatile objects, see *Declaring objects volatile*, page 283.



Protecting the eeprom write mechanism

A typical example of when it can be necessary to use the __monitor keyword is when protecting the eeprom write mechanism, which can be used from two threads (for example, main code and interrupts). Servicing an interrupt during an EEPROM write sequence can in many cases corrupt the written data.

ACCESSING SPECIAL FUNCTION REGISTERS

Specific header files for several AVR devices are included in the IAR product installation. The header files are named iodevice.h and define the processor-specific special function registers (SFRs).

To enable bit definitions in IAR Embedded Workbench, select the option General Options>System>Enable bit definitions in I/O include files.

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. This example is from iom128.h:

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 */
PORTE = 0x12;
/* Bitfield accesses */
PORTE_Bit0 = 1;
```

You can also use the header files as templates when you create new header files for other AVR devices.

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 *Linking overview* 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.

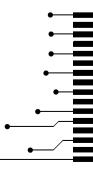
For more information, see __no_init, page 303. Note that to use this keyword, language extensions must be enabled; see -e, page 244. For more information, see also object_attribute, page 322.

Facilitating good code generation

Part 2. Reference information

This part of the IAR C/C++ Compiler User Guide for AVR contains these chapters:

- External interface details
- Compiler options
- Data representation
- Extended keywords
- Pragma directives
- Intrinsic functions
- The preprocessor
- Library functions
- Segment reference
- The stack usage control file
- Implementation-defined behavior for Standard C
- Implementation-defined behavior for C89.





External interface details

- Invocation syntax
- Include file search procedure
- Compiler output
- Diagnostics

Invocation syntax

You can use the compiler either from the IDE or from the command line. See the *IDE Project Management and Building Guide* for information about using the compiler from the IDE.

COMPILER INVOCATION SYNTAX

The invocation syntax for the compiler is:

```
iccavr [options] [sourcefile] [options]
```

For example, when compiling the source file prog.c, use this command to generate an object file with debug information:

```
iccavr prog.c --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 as 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 iccavr command, either before or after the source filename; see *Invocation syntax*, page 221.
- Via environment variables
 - The compiler automatically appends the value of the environment variables to every command line; see *Environment variables*, page 222.
- Via a text file, using the -f option; see -f, page 247.

For general guidelines for the option syntax, an options summary, and a detailed description of each option, see the chapter *Compiler options*.

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</pre>	
	<pre>workbench 7.n\avr\inc;c:\headers</pre>	
QCCAVR	Specifies command line options; for example: QCCAVR=-1A	
	asm.lst	

Table 30: 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 specified in angle brackets or double quotes, 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 -⊥ option, in the order that they were specified, see -*I*, page 249.
- 2 The directories specified using the C_INCLUDE environment variable, if any; see *Environment variables*, page 222.
- 3 The automatically set up library system include directories. See --clib, page 235, --dlib, page 242, and --dlib config, page 242.

 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:

```
iccavr ..\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\src 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 \setminus and / can be used as directory delimiters.

For information about the syntax for including header files, see *Overview of the preprocessor*, page 341.

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 r90.

Optional list files

Various kinds of list files can be specified using the compiler option -1, see -*l*, page 250. By default, these files will have the filename extension lst.

• 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 the standard error stream and displayed on the screen, and printed in an optional list file. For more information about diagnostic messages, see *Diagnostics*, page 225.

• 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 224.

Size information

Information about the generated amount of bytes for functions and data for each memory is directed to the standard output stream 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 31: 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:

filename 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

tag 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 construct that can possibly lead to erroneous behavior in the generated code. Remarks are by default not issued, but can be enabled, see *--remarks*, page 263.

Warning

A diagnostic message that is produced when the compiler finds a potential programming error or omission which is of concern, but which does not prevent completion of the compilation. Warnings can be disabled by use of the command line option --no_warnings, see --no warnings, page 258.

Error

A diagnostic message that is produced when the compiler finds a construct 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 the chapter *Compiler options*, for information about the compiler options that are available for setting severity levels.

See the chapter *Pragma directives*, for information about 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

- Options syntax
- Summary of compiler options
- Descriptions of compiler options

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.



See the online help system 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 222.

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=MyDiagnostics.lst
or
--diagnostics_tables MyDiagnostics.lst
```

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:

```
-lA MyList.1st
```

For example, a long option with an optional parameter followed by a mandatory parameter:

```
--preprocess=n PreprocOutput.1st
```

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 take a file path. The path can be relative or absolute. For example, to generate a listing to the file List.lst in the directory ..\listings\:

```
iccavr prog.c -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:

```
iccavr prog.c -l ..\listings\
```

The produced list file will have the default name ...\listings\prog.lst

• The *current directory* is specified with a period (.). For example:

```
iccavr prog.c -1 .
```

- / can be used instead of \ as the directory delimiter.
- By specifying -, input files and output files can be redirected to the standard input and output stream, respectively. For example:

```
iccavr prog.c -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:

```
iccavr prog.c -l ---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
- --diag_warning=Be0002

Summary of compiler options

This table summarizes the compiler command line options:

Command line option	Description	
64bit_doubles	Forces the compiler to use 64-bit doubles	
64k_flash	Specifies a maximum of 64 Kbytes flash memory	
c89	Specifies the C89 dialect	
char_is_signed	Treats char as signed	
char_is_unsigned	Treats char as unsigned	

Table 32: Compiler options summary

Command line option	Description
clib	Uses the system include files for the CLIB library
cpu	Specifies a specific device
cross_call_passes	Cross call optimization
-D	Defines preprocessor symbols
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
disable_all_program_memory_ load_instructions	Disables the LPM/ELPM instructions
disable_direct_mode	Disables direct addressing mode
disable_library_knowledge	Disables the knowledge about the support routines in the library
disable_mul	Disables the MUL instructions
disable_spm	Disables the SPM instructions
discard_unused_publics	Discards unused public symbols
dlib	Uses the system include files for the DLIB library
dlib_config	Uses the system include files for the DLIB library and determines which configuration of the library to use
do_cross_call	Forces the compiler to run the cross call optimizer.
-e	Enables language extensions
ec++	Specifies Embedded C++
eec++	Specifies Extended Embedded C++
eecr_address	Defines the EECR address
eeprom_size	Specifies the EEPROM size
enable_external_bus	Adds code to enable external data bus
enable_multibytes	Enables support for multibyte characters in source files

Table 32: Compiler options summary (Continued)

Command line option	Description
enable_restrict	Enables the Standard C keyword restrict
enhanced_core	Enables enhanced instruction set
error_limit	Specifies the allowed number of errors before compilation stops
-f	Extends the command line
force_switch_type	Forces the switch type
guard_calls	Enables guards for function static variable initialization
header_context	Lists all referred source files and header files
-I	Specifies include file path
initializers_in_flash	Places aggregate initializers in flash memory
-1	Creates a list file
library_module	Creates a library module
lock_regs	Locks registers
-m	Specifies a memory model
macro_positions_in _diagnostics	Obtains positions inside macros in diagnostic messages
memory_model	Specifies a memory model
mfc	Enables multi-file compilation
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	IAR Embedded Workbench® MISRA C:1998 Reference Guide or the IAR Embedded Workbench® MISRA C:2004 Reference Guide.
module_name	Sets the object module name
no_clustering	Disables static clustering optimizations
no_code_motion	Disables code motion optimization

Table 32: Compiler options summary (Continued)

Command line option	Description
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_rampd	Uses RAMPZ instead of RAMPD
no_size_constraints	Relaxes the normal restrictions for code size expansion when optimizing for speed.
no_static_destruction	Disables destruction of C++ static variables at program exit
no_system_include	Disables the automatic search for system include files
no_tbaa	Disables type-based alias analysis
no_typedefs_in_diagnostics	Disables the use of typedef names in diagnostics
no_ubrof_messages	Minimizes object file size
no_unroll	Disables loop unrolling
no_warnings	Disables all warnings
no_wrap_diagnostics	Disables wrapping of diagnostic messages
-0	Sets the optimization level
-o	Sets the object filename. Alias foroutput.
omit_types	Excludes type information
only_stdout	Uses standard output only
output	Sets the object filename
pending_instantiations	Sets the maximum number of instantiations of a given C++ template.
predef_macros	Lists the predefined symbols.
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. Alias fordebug.
relaxed_fp	Relaxes the rules for optimizing floating-point expressions

Table 32: Compiler options summary (Continued)

Command line option	Description
remarks	Enables remarks
require_prototypes	Verifies that functions are declared before they are defined
root_variables	Specifies variables asroot
-s	Optimizes for speed.
segment	Changes a segment name
separate_cluster_for_ initialized_variables	Separates initialized and non-initialized variables
silent	Sets silent operation
spmcr_address	Defines the SPMCR address
strict	Checks for strict compliance with Standard C/C++
string_literals_in_flash	Puts "string" in thenearflash orfarflash segment
system_include_dir	Specifies the path for system include files
use_c++_inline	Uses C++ inline semantics in C99
-v	Specifies the processor variant
version1_calls	Uses the ICCA90 calling convention
version2_calls	Uses the V2.10-V4.10B calling convention
vla	Enables C99 VLA support
warn_about_c_style_casts	Makes the compiler warn when C-style casts are used in C++ source code
warnings_affect_exit_code	Warnings affect exit code
warnings_are_errors	Warnings are treated as errors
xmcra_address	Specifies where XMCRA is located
-у	Places constants and literals
-z	Optimizes for size
zero_register	Specifies register R15 as the zero register

Table 32: Compiler options summary (Continued)

Descriptions of compiler 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.

--64bit doubles

Syntax --64bit_doubles

Description Use this option to force the compiler to use 64-bit doubles instead of 32-bit doubles

which is the default.

See also Floating-point types, page 201.



Project>Options>General Options>Target

--64k flash

Syntax --64k_flash

Description This option tells the compiler that the intended target processor does not have more than

64 Kbytes program flash memory (small flash), and that the AVR core therefore does not have the RAMPZ register or the ELPM instruction.

This option can only be used together with the -v2, -v3, and -v4 processor options.



Project>Options>General Options>Target (No RAMPZ register)

--c89

Syntax --c89

Description Use this option to enable the C89 C dialect instead of Standard C.

Note: This option is mandatory when the MISRA C checking is enabled.

See also *C language overview*, page 167.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language 1>C dialect>C89

--char_is_signed

Syntax --char_is_signed

Description By default, the compiler interprets the plain char type as unsigned. Use this option to

make the compiler interpret the plain 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 and cannot be used with code that is compiled with this option.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language 2>Plain 'char' is

--char_is_unsigned

Syntax --char_is_unsigned

Description Use this option to make the compiler interpret the plain char type as unsigned. This is

the default interpretation of the plain char type.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language 2>Plain 'char' is

--clib

Syntax --clib

Description Use this option to use the system header files for the CLIB library; the compiler will

automatically locate the files and use them when compiling.

Note: The CLIB library is used by default. To use the DLIB library, use the --dlib or

the --dlib_config option instead.

See also --dlib, page 242 and --dlib config, page 242.

X

To set related options, choose:

Project>Options>General Options>Library Configuration

--cpu

Syntax --cpu=processor

Parameters

processor Specifies a specific device

Description The compiler supports different processor variants. Use this option to select a specific

processor variant for which the code will be generated.

Note that to specify the processor, you can use either the --cpu option or the -v option. The --cpu option is, however, more precise because it contains more information about

the intended target than the more generic -v option.

See also -v, page 267, *Processor configuration*, page 49.

X

To set related options, choose:

Project>Options>General Options>Target>Processor configuration

--cross_call_passes

Syntax --cross_call_passes=N

Parameters

N The number of times to run the cross call optimizer, which can be

1-5.

Description Use this option to run the cross-call optimizer for decreasing the RSTACK usage. The

default is to run it until no more improvements can be made.

Note: Use this option if you have a target processor with a hardware stack or a small

internal return stack segment, RSTACK.

See also --no cross call, page 254.

X

To set related options, choose:

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Optimizations

-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 F00

specify the = sign but nothing after, for example:

-DFOO=



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Preprocessor>Defined symbols

--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|n][s]] {filename|directory|+}

Parameters

i (default) Lists only the names of files

m Lists in makefile style (multiple rules)

n Lists in makefile style (one rule)

s Suppresses system files

+ Gives the same output as -0, but with the filename extension d

See also Rules for specifying a filename or directory as parameters, page 228.

Description

Use this option to make the compiler list the names of all source and header files opened for input into a file with the default filename extension i.

Example

If --dependencies or --dependencies=i is used, the name of each opened input 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 is in makefile style. For each input 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 an input file. For example:

```
foo.r90: c:\iar\product\include\stdio.h
foo.r90: 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:

```
%.r90 : %.c
    $(ICC) $(ICCFLAGS) $< --dependencies=m $*.d</pre>
```

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.



This option is not available in the IDE.

--diag_error

Syntax

--diag_error=tag[,tag,...]

Parameters

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

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

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

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 See Rules for specifying a filename or directory as parameters, page 228.

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.



This option is not available in the IDE.

--disable_all_program_memory_load_instructions

Syntax --disable_all_program_memory_load_instructions

Description Use this option to disable the LPM/ELPM instructions.



To set this option, use: **Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Extra Options**.

--disable_direct_mode

Syntax --disable_direct_mode

Description Use this option to prevent the compiler from generating the direct addressing mode

instructions LDS and STS.

X

To set this option, use: **Project>Options>**C/C++ Compiler>Extra Options.

--disable_library_knowledge

Syntax --disable_library_knowledge

Description Use this option to disable the knowledge about the support routines in the library.

X

To set this option, use: **Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Extra Options**.

--disable_mul

Syntax --disable_mul

Description Use this option to disable the MUL instructions.

X

To set this option, use: **Project>Options>**C/C++ Compiler>Extra Options.

--disable_spm

Syntax --disable_spm

Description Use this option to disable the SPM instruction.

X

To set this option, use: **Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Extra Options**.

--discard_unused_publics

Syntax --discard_unused_publics

Description

Use this option to discard unused public functions and variables when compiling with the --mfc compiler option.

Note: Do not use this option only on parts of the application, as necessary symbols might be removed from the generated output. Use the object attribute __root to keep symbols that are used from outside the compilation unit, for example interrupt handlers. If the symbol does not have the __root attribute and is defined in the library, the library definition will be used instead.

See also

--mfc, page 253 and Multi-file compilation units, page 208.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Discard unused publics

--dlib

Syntax

--dlib

Description

Use this option to use the system header files for the DLIB library; the compiler will automatically locate the files and use them when compiling.

Note: The DLIB library is used by default: To use the CLIB library, use the --clib option instead.

See also

--dlib_config, page 242, --no_system_include, page 256, --system_include_dir, page 266, and --clib, page 235.



To set related options, choose:

Project>Options>General Options>Library Configuration

--dlib_config

Syntax

--dlib_config filename.h|config

Parameters

filename

A DLIB configuration header file, see *Rules for specifying a filename or directory as parameters*, page 228.

config

The default configuration file for the specified configuration

will be used. Choose between:

none, no configuration will be used

normal, the normal library configuration will be used

(default)

full, the full library configuration will be used.

Description

Use this option to specify which library configuration to use, either by specifying an explicit file or by specifying a library configuration—in which case the default file for that library configuration will be used. Make sure that you specify a configuration that corresponds to the library you are using. If you do not specify this option, the default library configuration file will be used.

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 avr\lib. For examples and information about prebuilt runtime libraries, see *Using prebuilt libraries*, page 101.

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 112.

Note: This option only applies to the IAR DLIB runtime environment.



To set related options, choose:

Project>Options>General Options>Library Configuration

--do_cross_call

Syntax

--do_cross_call

Description

Use this option to force the compiler to run the cross call optimizer, regardless of the optimization level. The cross call optimizer is otherwise only run at high size optimization.

See also

-s, page 264.



To set related options, choose:

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Optimizations

-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 option cannot be used at the same time.

See also Enabling language extensions, page 169.

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language 1>Standard with IAR extensions

Note: By default, this option is selected 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++.

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language 1>C++

and

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language 1>C++ dialect>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 176.

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language 1>C++

and

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language 1>C++ dialect>Extended

Embedded C++

--eecr_address

Syntax --eecr_address address

Parameters

address. The value of the EECR address. The default is 0x1C.

Description If you use the -v processor option, the --eecr_address option can be used for

modifying the value of the EECR address.

If you use the --cpu processor option, the --eecr_address option is implicitly set,

which means you should not use these options together.

-v, page 267 and --cpu, page 236.



To set this option, use: **Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Extra Options**.

--eeprom_size

Syntax --eeprom_size=N

N

Parameters

The size of the EEPROM in bytes, 0-65536.

Description Use this option to enable the __eeprom extended keyword by specifying the size of the

built-in EEPROM.

To use the __eeprom extended keyword, language extensions must be enabled.

See also Function storage, page 63, -e, page 244 and language, page 320.



To set related options, choose:

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Code

--enable_external_bus

Syntax --enable_external_bus

Description Use this option to make the compiler add the special __require statement which

makes XLINK include the code in startup. s90 that enables the external data bus. Use

this option if you intend to place RSTACK in external RAM.

Note: The code in cstartup.s90 that enables the external data bus is preferably placed in low_level_init instead.

See also The return address stack, page 193.



Project>Options>General Options>System

--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 2>Enable multibyte support

--enable_restrict

Syntax --enable_restrict

Description Enables the Standard C keyword restrict. This option can be useful for improving

analysis precision during optimization.

X

To set this option, use Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Extra options

--enhanced core

Syntax --enhanced_core

Description Use this option to allow the compiler to generate instructions from the enhanced

instruction set that is available in some AVR devices, for example ATmega161.

The enhanced instruction set consists of these instructions:

MUL
MOVW
MULS
MULSU
FMUL
FMULS
FMULSU
LPM Rd, Z
LPM Rd, Z+
ELPM Rd, Z
ELPM Rd, Z



Project>Options>General Options>Target>Enhanced core

--error limit

Syntax --error_limit=n

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.



This option is not available in the IDE.

-f

Syntax -f filename

Parameters See Rules for specifying a filename or directory as parameters, page 228.

Description Use this option to make the compiler read command line options from the named file,

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**.

--force_switch_type

Syntax --force_switch_type={0|1|2}

Parameters

O Library call with switch table

1 Inline code with switch table

2 Inline compare/jump logic

Description Use this option to set the switch type.



To set this option, use **Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Extra Options**.

--guard_calls

Syntax --guard_calls

Description Use this option to enable guards for function static variable initialization. This option

should be used in a threaded C++ environment.

See also *Managing a multithreaded environment*, page 130.



To set this option, use **Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Extra Options**.

--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.

-1

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 222.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Preprocessor>Additional include directories

--initializers_in_flash

Syntax --initializers_in_flash

Description

Use this option to place aggregate initializers in flash memory. These initializers are otherwise placed in the external segments _C or in the flash segments _F if the compiler option -y was also specified.

An aggregate initializer—an array or a struct—is constant data that is copied to the stack dynamically at runtime, in this case every time a function is entered.

The drawback of placing data in flash memory is that it takes more time to copy it; the advantage is that it does not occupy memory in the data space.

Local variables with aggregate initializers are copied from the segments:

Data	Default	-у	initializers_in_flash
auto aggregates	NEAR_C	NEAR_F	NEAR_F

Table 33: Accessing variables with aggregate initializers

Example

```
void Func ()
{
  char buf[4] = { '1', 'd', 'g', 't' };
  ...
}
```

See also

-y, page 271 and Initialization of local aggregates at function invocation, page 77.



To set related options, choose:

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Code

-1

Syntax -1[a|A|b|B|c|C|D][N][H] {filename|directory}

Parameters

Assembler list file
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 produced with $-1A$, except that no extra compiler generated information (runtime model attributes, call frame information, frame size information) is included *
C or C++ list file
C or C++ list file with assembler source as comments
C or C++ list file with assembler source as comments, but without instruction offsets and hexadecimal byte values
No diagnostics in file
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.

See also Rules for specifying a filename or directory as parameters, page 228.

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

--lock_regs

Syntax --lock regs N

N

Parameters

The number of registers to lock, 0-12.

Description

Use this option to lock registers that are to be used for global register variables. When you use this option, the registers R15 and downwards will be locked.

To maintain module consistency, make sure to lock the same number of registers in all modules.

Note: Locking more than nine registers might cause linking to fail. Because the pre-built libraries delivered with the product do not lock any registers, a library function might potentially use any of the lockable registers. Any such resource conflict between locked registers and compiler-used registers will be reported at link time.

If you need to lock any registers in your code, the library must therefore be rebuilt with the same set of locked registers.



To set related options, choose:

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Code

--macro_positions_in_diagnostics

Syntax --macro_positions_in_diagnostics

Description Use this option to obtain position references inside macros in diagnostic messages. This

is useful for detecting incorrect source code constructs in macros.



To set this option, use **Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Extra Options**.

--memory_model, -m

 $\label{eq:continuous_sym} \textbf{Syntax} \qquad \qquad --\texttt{memory_model=\{tiny|t|small|s|large|l|huge|h}\}$

-m{tiny|t|small|s|large|1<huge|h}

Parameters

tiny, t Specifies the Tiny memory model small, s Specifies the Small memory model large, 1 Specifies the Large memory model huge, h Specifies the Huge memory model

Description Use this option to specify the memory model, for which the code is to be generated.

By default, the compiler generates code for the Tiny memory model for all processor

options except -v4 and -v6 where the Small memory model is the default.

Use the -m or the --memory_model option if you want to generate code for a different

memory model.

Example To generate code for the Large memory model, give the command:

iccavr filename -ml

or:

iccavr filename --memory_model=large

See also *Memory models*, page 59.



To set related options, choose:

Project>Options>General Options>Memory model

--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 enhances

interprocedural optimizations.

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 iccavr myfile1.c myfile2.c myfile3.c --mfc

See also --discard_unused_publics, page 241, --output, -o, page 260, and Multi-file compilation

units, page 208.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Multi-file compilation

--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_clustering

Syntax --no_clustering

Description Use this option to disable static clustering optimizations.

Note: This option has no effect at optimization levels below Medium.

See also Static clustering, page 211.

X

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Optimizations>Enable transformations>Clustering of variables

--no code motion

Syntax --no_code_motion

Description Use this option to disable code motion optimizations.

Note: This option has no effect at optimization levels below Medium.

See also *Code motion*, page 210.

X

 $\label{lem:constraints} Project \!\!>\!\! Options \!\!>\!\! C/C \!\!+\!\!\!+\!\!\! Compiler \!\!>\!\! Optimizations \!\!>\!\! Enable$

transformations>Code motion

--no cross call

Syntax --no_cross_call

Description Use this option to disable the cross-call optimization.

Use this option to disable the cross-call optimization. This is highly recommended if your target processor has a hardware stack or a small internal return stack segment,

RSTACK, because this option reduces the usage of RSTACK.

This optimization is performed at size optimization, level High. Note that, although the optimization can drastically reduce the code size, this optimization increases the

execution time.

See also --cross call passes, page 236, Cross call, page 212.



 $Project \!\!>\!\! Options \!\!>\!\! C/C \!\!+\!\!\!+\!\!\!\!\!+ Compiler \!\!>\!\!\!\!\! Optimizations \!\!>\!\! Enable$

transformations>Cross call

--no_cse

Syntax --no_cse

Description Use this option to disable common subexpression elimination.

Note: This option has no effect at optimization levels below Medium.

See also *Common subexpression elimination*, page 210.

X

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Optimizations>Enable transformations>Common subexpression elimination

--no inline

Syntax --no_inline

Description Use this option to disable function inlining.

See also Inlining functions, page 68.



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 Description of predefined preprocessor symbols, page 342.



This option is not available in the IDE.

--no_rampd

Syntax --no_rampd

Description Use this option to make the compiler use the RAMPZ register instead of RAMPD. This

option corresponds to the instructions LDS and STS.

Note that this option is only useful on processor variants with more than 64 Kbytes data (-v4 and -v6).



To set this option, use **Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Extra Options**.

--no size constraints

Syntax --no_size_constraints

Description Use this option to relax the normal restrictions for code size expansion when optimizing

for high speed.

Note: This option has no effect unless used with -Ohs.

See also Speed versus size, page 209.



To set this option, use **Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Extra Options**.

--no_static_destruction

Syntax --no_static_destruction

Description Normally, the compiler emits code to destroy C++ static variables that require

destruction at program exit. Sometimes, such destruction is not needed.

Use this option to suppress the emission of such code.

See also System termination, page 115.



To set this option, use **Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Extra Options**.

--no_system_include

Syntax --no_system_include

Description By default, the compiler automatically locates the system include files. Use this option

to disable the automatic search for system include files. In this case, you might need to

set up the search path by using the -I compiler option.

See also --dlib, page 242, --dlib config, page 242, and --system include dir, page 266.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Preprocessor>Ignore standard include directories

--no_tbaa

Syntax --no_tbaa

Description Use this option to disable type-based alias analysis.

Note: This option has no effect at optimization levels below High.

See also *Type-based alias analysis*, page 211.

X

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 = "My text string";

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_ubrof_messages

Syntax --no_ubrof_messages

Description

Use this option to minimize the size of your application object file by excluding messages from the UBROF files. A file size decrease of up to 60% can be expected. Note that the XLINK diagnostic messages will, however, be less useful when you use this option.



To set related options, choose:

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Output>No error messages in output files

--no_unroll

Syntax --no_unroll

Description Use this option to disable loop unrolling.

Note: This option has no effect at optimization levels below High.



To set this option, use **Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Extra Options**.

--no_warnings

Syntax --no_warnings

Description By default, the compiler issues warning messages. Use this option to disable all warning

messages.

X

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.

×

This option is not available in the IDE.

-O

Syntax -O[n|1|m|h|hs|hz]

Parameters

n None* (Best debug support)

1 (default) Low* \mathbf{m} Medium

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 is used by default. If only -0 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 208.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Optimizations

--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).

X

This option is not available in the IDE.

--output, -o

Parameters See Rules for specifying a filename or directory as parameters, page 228.

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 r90. Use this option to explicitly

specify a different output filename for the object code output.

X

This option is not available in the IDE.

--pending_instantiations

Syntax --pending_instantiations number

Parameters

number An integer that specifies the limit, where 64 is default. If 0

is used, there is no limit.

Description Use this option to specify the maximum number of instantiations of a given C++

template that is allowed to be in process of being instantiated at a given time. This is

used for detecting recursive instantiations.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Extra Options

--predef_macros

Syntax --predef_macros {filename | directory}

Parameters See Rules for specifying a filename or directory as parameters, page 228.

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.

Note that this option requires that you specify a source file on the command line.



This option is not available in the IDE.

--preinclude

Syntax --preinclude includefile

Parameters See Rules for specifying a filename or directory as parameters, page 228.

Description

Use this option to make the compiler read 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.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Preprocessor>Preinclude file

--preprocess

Syntax --preprocess[=[c][n][1]] {filename|directory}

Parameters

c Preserve comments

n Preprocess only

1 Generate #line directives

See also Rules for specifying a filename or directory as parameters, page 228.

Description Use this o

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

symbol The name of the assembler symbol to be defined

value An 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.

--relaxed_fp

Syntax --relaxed_fp

Description

Use this option to allow the compiler to relax the language rules and perform more aggressive optimization of floating-point expressions. This option improves performance for floating-point expressions that fulfill these conditions:

- The expression consists of both single- and double-precision values
- The double-precision values can be converted to single precision without loss of accuracy
- The result of the expression is converted to single precision.

Note that performing the calculation in single precision instead of double precision might cause a loss of accuracy.

Example

```
float F(float a, float b)
{
  return a + b * 3.0;
}
```

The C standard states that 3.0 in this example has the type double and therefore the whole expression should be evaluated in double precision. However, when the --relaxed_fp option is used, 3.0 will be converted to float and the whole expression can be evaluated in float precision.



To set related options, choose:

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language 2>Floating-point semantics

--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 225.



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.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language 1>Require prototypes

--root variables

Syntax --root_variables

Description

Use this option to apply the __root extended keyword to all global and static variables. This will make sure that the variables are not removed by the IAR XLINK Linker.

Note: The --root_variables option is always available, even if you do not specify the compiler option -e, language extensions.

X

To set related options, choose:

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Code>Force generation of all global and static variables

-S

Syntax -s[2|3|6|9]

Parameters

2 None* (Best debug support)

3 (default) Low*
6 Medium

9 High (Maximum optimization). This corresponds to the -Oh option.

*The most important difference between -s2 and -s3 is that at level 2, all non-static variables will live during their entire scope.

Description

Use this option to make the compiler optimize the code for maximum execution speed. If no optimization option is specified, the optimization level 3 is used by default.

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.

Note: The -s and -z options cannot be used at the same time.

Note: This option is available for backward compatibility. Use -0 instead.

See also -*O*, page 258 and -*z*, page 271



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Optimizations>Speed

--segment

Syntax --segment __memory_attribute=NEWSEGMENTNAME

Description

The compiler places functions and data objects into named segments which are referred to by the IAR XLINK Linker. Use the --segment option to perform one of these operations:

- To place all functions or data objects declared with the __memory_attribute in segments with names that begin with NEWSEGMENTNAME.
- To change the name of the segments SWITCH, INITTAB, CSTACK, RSTACK, and INTVEC to a different name.

This is useful if you want to place your code or data in different address ranges and you find the @ notation, alternatively the #pragma location directive, insufficient. Note

that any changes to the segment names require corresponding modifications in the linker configuration file.

Example

This command places the __near int a; defined variable in the MYDATA_Z segment:

--segment __near=MYDATA

This command names the segment that contains interrupt vectors to MYINTS instead of the default name INTVEC:

--segment intvec=MYINTS

See also

Controlling data and function placement in memory, page 204 and Summary of extended keywords, page 291.



To set this option, use **Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Extra Options**.

--separate_cluster_for_initialized_variables

Syntax

--separate_cluster_for_initialized_variables

Description

Use this option to separate initialized and non-initialized variables when using variable clustering. The option makes the *_ID segments smaller but can generate larger code.



To set this option, use **Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Extra Options**.

--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.

--spmcr_address

Syntax

--spmcr_address address

Parameters

address The SPMCR address, where 0x37 is the default.

Description Use this option to set the SPMCR address.

To set this option, use **Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Extra Options**.

--strict

Syntax --strict

Description By default, the compiler accepts a relaxed superset of Standard C and C++. Use this

option to ensure that the source code of your application instead conforms to strict

Standard C and C++.

Note: The -e option and the --strict option cannot be used at the same time.

See also Enabling language extensions, page 169.

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language 1>Language conformance>Strict

--string_literals_in_flash

Syntax --string_literals_in_flash

Description Use this option to put "string" in the __nearflash or __farflash segment depending

on the processor option.

When this option is used, library functions taking a string literal as a parameter will no

longer be type-compatible. Use the *_P library function variants (for example

printf_P).

See also AVR-specific library functions, page 360.

To set this option, use **Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Extra Options**.

--system_include_dir

Syntax --system_include_dir path

Parameters

path

The path to the system include files, see *Rules for specifying* a filename or directory as parameters, page 228.

Description

By default, the compiler automatically locates the system include files. Use this option to explicitly specify a different path to the system include files. This might be useful if you have not installed IAR Embedded Workbench in the default location.

See also

--dlib_config, page 242, and --no_system_include, page 256.



This option is not available in the IDE.

--use_c++_inline

Syntax

--use_c++_inline

Description

Standard C uses slightly different semantics for the inline keyword than C++ does. Use this option if you want C++ semantics when you are using C.

See also

Inlining functions, page 68



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language 1>C dialect>C99>C++ inline semantics

-V

Syntax

 $-v\{0|1|2|3|4|5|6\}$

Parameters

0 (default)

The code space is physically limited to 8 Kbytes, and the RCALL/RJMP instructions are used for reaching the code space. Interrupt vectors are 2 bytes long. The compiler assumes that the index registers X, Y, and Z are eight bits wide when accessing the built-in SRAM. It also assumes that it is not possible to attach any external memory to the microcontroller and that it therefore should not generate any constant segment in data space (_C segment). Instead the compiler adds an implicit -y command line option. It will also try to place all aggregate initializers in flash memory, that is, the implicit --initializers_in_flash option is also added to the command line. Relative function calls are made.

- The code space is physically limited to 8 Kbytes, and the RCALL/RJMP instructions are used for reaching the code space. Interrupt vectors are 2 bytes long. The compiler assumes that it is possible to have external memory and will therefore generate _C segments. Relative function calls are made.
- The code space is physically limited to 128 Kbytes, and, if possible, the RCALL/RJMP instructions are used for reaching the code space. If that is not possible, CALL/JMP is used. Function calls through function pointers use ICALL/IJMP. 2 bytes are used for all function pointers. Interrupt vectors are 4 bytes long. The compiler assumes that the index registers x, y, and z are eight bits wide when accessing the built-in SRAM. It also assumes that it is not possible to attach any external memory to the microcontroller and that it should therefore not generate any constant segment in data space (_C segment). Instead the compiler adds an implicit -y command line option. It will also try to place all aggregate initializers in flash memory, that is, the implicit --initializers_in_flash option is also added to the command line.
- The code space is physically limited to 128 Kbytes, and, if possible, the RCALL/RJMP instructions are used for reaching the code space. If that is not possible, CALL/JMP is used. Function calls through function pointers use ICALL/IJMP. Two bytes are used for all function pointers. Interrupt vectors are four bytes long. The compiler assumes that it is possible to have external memory and will therefore generate _C segments.
- The code space is physically limited to 128 Kbytes, and, if possible, the RCALL/RJMP instructions are used for reaching the code space. If that is not possible, CALL/JMP is used. Function calls through function pointers use ICALL/IJMP. Two bytes are used for all function pointers. Interrupt vectors are four bytes long. The compiler assumes that it is possible to have external memory and will therefore generate _C segments.
- Allows function calls through farfunc function pointers to cover the entire 8 Mbyte code space by using EICALL/EIJMP. Three bytes are used for function pointers. Interrupt vectors are four bytes long. The compiler assumes that it is possible to have external memory and will therefore generate _C segments.
- Allows function calls through farfunc function pointers to cover the entire 8 Mbyte code space by using EICALL/EIJMP. Three bytes are used for function pointers. Interrupt vectors are four bytes long. The compiler assumes that it is possible to have external memory and will therefore generate _C segments.

Description Use this option to select the processor device for which the code is to be generated.

See also --cpu, page 236 and Processor configuration, page 49.

X

To set related options, choose:

Project>Options>General Options>Processor configuration

--version | calls

Syntax --version1_calls

Description

Use this option to make all functions and function calls use the calling convention of the A90 IAR Compiler, ICCA90, which is described in *Calling convention*, page 155.

To change the calling convention of a single function, use the $__\mathtt{version_1}$ function

type attribute. See __version_1, page 306 for detailed information.

X

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Code>Use ICCA90 1.x calling convention

--version2 calls

Syntax --version2_calls

Description Use this option to select the V2.10-V4.10B calling convention.

See also *Calling convention*, page 155.

X

To set this option, use: **Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Extra Options**.

--vla

Syntax --vla

Description Use this option to enable support for C99 variable length arrays. Such arrays are located

on the heap. This option requires Standard C and cannot be used together with the

--c89 compiler option.

Note: --vla should not be used together with the longjmp library function, as that can

lead to memory leakages.

See also *C language overview*, page 167.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language 1>C dialect>Allow VLA

--warn_about_c_style_casts

Syntax --warn_about_c_style_casts

Description Use this option to make the compiler warn when C-style casts are used in C++ source

code.

X

This option is not available in the IDE.

--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.

X

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 240.

X

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Diagnostics>Treat all warnings as errors

--xmcra_address

Syntax --xmcra_address address

Parameters

address of XMCRA. The default is 0x74.

Description Use this option to specify where XMCRA is located.

X

To set this option, use **Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Extra Options**.

-у

Syntax -y

Description Use this option to override the default placement of constants and literals.

Without this option, constants and literals are placed in an external const segment, segmentbasename_C. With this option, constants and literals will instead be placed in the initialized segmentbasename_I data segments that are copied from the

segmentbasename_ID segments by the system startup code.

Note that -y is implicit in the tiny memory model.

This option can be combined with the option --initializers_in_flash.

See also --initializers_in_flash, page 249

X

To set related options, choose:

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Code

-Z

Syntax -z[2|3|6|9]

Parameters

2 None* (Best debug support)

3 (default) Low*
6 Medium

9 High (Maximum optimization). This corresponds to the -Ohz

option.

*The most important difference between -z2 and -z3 is that at level 2, all non-static variables will live during their entire scope.

Description

Use this option to make the compiler optimize the code for minimum size. If no optimization option is specified, the optimization level 3 is used by default.

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.

Note: The -s and -z options cannot be used at the same time.

Note: This option is available for backward compatibility. Use -0 instead.

See also

-O, page 258 and -s, page 264



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Optimizations>Size

--zero_register

Syntax

--zero_register

Description

Use this option to make the compiler use register R15 as zero register, which means that register R15 is assumed to always contain zero.

This option can in some cases reduce the size of the generated code, especially in the Large memory model. The option might be incompatible with the supplied runtime libraries. The linker will issue a link-time error if any incompatibilities arise.



To set this option, use **Project>Options>**C/C++ Compiler>Extra Options.

Data representation

- Alignment
- Byte order
- Basic data types—integer types
- Basic data types—floating-point types
- Pointer types
- Structure types
- Type qualifiers
- Data types in C++

See the chapter Efficient coding for embedded applications for information about which data types and pointers 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.

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. This means that the compiler might add pad bytes at the end of the structure.

Note that with the #pragma data_alignment directive you can increase the alignment demands on specific variables.

ALIGNMENT ON THE AVR MICROCONTROLLER

The AVR microcontroller does not have any alignment restrictions.

Byte order

The AVR microcontroller stores data in little-endian byte order.

In the little-endian byte order, the *least* significant byte is stored at the lowest address in memory. The *most* significant byte is stored at the highest address.

In the big-endian byte order, the *most* significant byte is stored at the lowest address in memory. The *least* significant byte is stored at the highest address. If you use the big-endian byte order, it might be necessary to use the

#pragma bitfields=reversed directive to be compatible with code for other compilers and I/O register definitions of some devices, see *Bitfields*, page 276.

Basic data types—integer types

The compiler supports both all Standard C basic data types and some additional types.

INTEGER TYPES—AN OVERVIEW

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	1
unsigned short	16 bits	0 to 65535	1
signed int	16 bits	-32768 to 32767	1
unsigned int	16 bits	0 to 65535	1
signed long	32 bits	-2 ³¹ to 2 ³¹ -1	1
unsigned long	32 bits	0 to 2 ³² -I	1
signed long long	64 bits	-2 ⁶³ to 2 ⁶³ -1	1

Table 34: Integer types

Data type	Size	Range	Alignment
unsigned long long	64 bits	0 to 2 ⁶⁴ -1	I

Table 34: Integer types (Continued)

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 LONG LONG TYPE

The long long data type is supported with one restriction:

The CLIB runtime library does not support the long long type.

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.

Note: The IAR CLIB Library has only rudimentary support for wchar_t.

BITFIELDS

In Standard C, int, signed int, and unsigned int can be used as the base type for integer bitfields. In standard C++, and in C when language extensions are enabled in the compiler, any integer or enumeration type can be used as the base type. It is implementation defined whether a plain integer type (char, short, int, etc) results in a signed or unsigned bitfield.

In the IAR C/C++ Compiler for AVR, plain integer types are treated as signed.

Bitfields in expressions are treated as int if int can represent all values of the bitfield. Otherwise, they are treated as the bitfield base type.

Each bitfield is placed into a container of its base type from the least significant bit to the most significant bit. If the last container is of the same type and has enough bits available, the bitfield is placed into this container, otherwise a new container is allocated. This allocation scheme is referred to as the disjoint type bitfield allocation.

If you use the directive #pragma bitfield=reversed, bitfields are placed from the most significant bit to the least significant bit in each container. See *bitfields*, page 311.

Assume this example:

```
struct BitfieldExample
{
  uint32_t a : 12;
  uint16_t b : 3;
  uint16_t c : 7;
  uint8_t d;
};
```

The example in the disjoint types bitfield allocation strategy

To place the first bitfield, a, the compiler allocates a 32-bit container at offset 0 and puts a into the least significant 12 bits of the container.

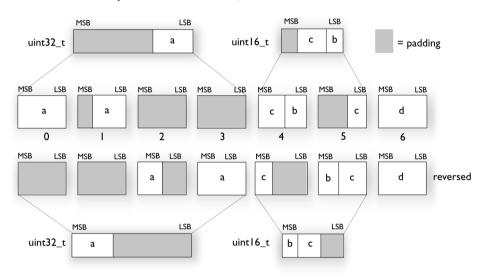
To place the second bitfield, b, a new container is allocated at offset 4, because the type of the bitfield is not the same as that of the previous one. b is placed into the least significant three bits of this container.

The third bitfield, c, has the same type as b and fits into the same container.

The fourth member, d, is allocated into the byte at offset 6. d cannot be placed into the same container as b and c because it is not a bitfield, it is not of the same type, and it would not fit.

When using reverse order, each bitfield is instead placed starting from the most significant bit of its container.

This is the layout of bitfield_example:



Basic data types—floating-point types

In the IAR C/C++ Compiler for AVR, floating-point values are represented in standard IEEE 754 format. The sizes for the different floating-point types are:

Туре	Size if double=32	Size if double=64
float	32 bits	32 bits
double	32 bits (default)	64 bits
long double	32 bits	64 bits

Table 35: Floating-point types

Note: The size of double and long double depends on the --64bit_doubles option, see --64bit_doubles, page 234. The type long double uses the same precision as double.

FLOATING-POINT ENVIRONMENT

Exception flags are not supported. The feraiseexcept function does not raise any exceptions.

32-BIT FLOATING-POINT FORMAT

The representation of a 32-bit floating-point number as an integer is:



The exponent is 8 bits, and the mantissa is 23 bits.

The value of the number is:

The range of the number is at least:

$$\pm 1.18E-38$$
 to $\pm 3.39E+38$

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:



The exponent is 11 bits, and the mantissa is 52 bits.

The value of the number is:

The range of the number is at least:

$$\pm 2.23E-308$$
 to $\pm 1.79E+308$

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.
- Subnormal numbers are used for representing values smaller than what can be represented by normal values. The drawback is that the precision will decrease with smaller values. The exponent is set to 0 to signify that the number is subnormal, even though the number is treated as if the exponent was 1. Unlike normal numbers, subnormal numbers do not have an implicit 1 as the most significant bit (the MSB) of the mantissa. The value of a subnormal number is:

```
(-1)^{S} * 2^{(1-BIAS)} * 0.Mantissa
```

where BIAS is 127 and 1023 for 32-bit and 64-bit floating-point values, respectively.

Note: The IAR CLIB Library does not fully support the special cases of floating-point numbers, such as infinity, NaN, and subnormal numbers. A library function which gets one of these special cases of floating-point numbers as an argument might behave unexpectedly.

Pointer types

The compiler has two basic types of pointers: function pointers and data pointers.

FUNCTION POINTERS

The size of function pointers is always 16 or 24 bits, and they can address the entire memory. The internal representation of a function pointer is the actual address it refers to divided by two.

These function pointers are available:

Keyword	Address range	Pointer size	Description
nearfunc	0-0x1FFFE	16 bits	Can be called from any part of the
			code memory, but must reside in the
			first 128 Kbytes of that space.
farfunc	0-0x7FFFFE	24 bits	No restrictions on code placement.

Table 36: Function pointers

DATA POINTERS

Data pointers have three sizes: 8, 16, or 24 bits. These data pointers are available:

Keyword	Pointer size	Memory space	Index type	Address range
tiny	8 bits	Data	signed char	0x-0xFF

Table 37: Data pointers

Keyword	Pointer size	Memory space	Index type	Address range
near	16 bits	Data	signed int	0x0-0xFFFF
far	24 bits	Data	signed int	0x0-0xFFFFFF (16-bit arithmetics)
huge	24 bits	Data	signed long	0x0-0xFFFFFF
tinyflash	8 bits	Code	signed char	0x0-0xFF
flash	16 bits	Code	signed int	0x0-0xFFFF
farflash	24 bits	Code	signed int	0x0-0xFFFFFF (16-bit arithmetic)
hugeflash	24 bits	Code	signed long	0x0-0xFFFFFF
eeprom	8 bits	EEPROM	signed char	0x0-0xFF
eeprom	16 bits	EEPROM	signed int	0x0-0xFFFF
generic	16 bits 24 bits	Data/Code	signed int signed long	The most significant bit (MSB) determines whethergeneric points to CODE (I) or DATA (0). The small generic pointer is generated for the processor options -v0 and -v1.

Table 37: Data pointers (Continued)

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 pointer type to a smaller integer type is performed by truncation
- Casting a *pointer type* to a larger integer type is performed via casting to the largest possible pointer that fits in the integer
- 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
- Casting from a smaller pointer to a larger pointer is performed by zero extension
- Casting from a larger pointer to a smaller pointer gives an undefined result.

size_t

size_t is the unsigned integer type of the result of the sizeof operator. In the IAR C/C++ Compiler for AVR, the type used for size_t depends on the processor option used:

Generic processor option	Typedef
-v0 and -v1	unsigned int
-v2, -v3, -v4, -v5, and -v6	unsigned long

Table 38: size_t typedef

When using the Large or Huge memory model, the typedef for size_t is unsigned long int.

Note that some data memory types might be able to accommodate larger, or only smaller, objects than the memory pointed to by default pointers. In this case, the type of the result of the sizeof operator could be a larger or smaller unsigned integer type. There exists a corresponding size_t typedef for each memory type, named after the memory type. In other words, __near_size_t for __near memory.

ptrdiff_t

ptrdiff_t is the signed integer type of the result of subtracting two pointers. This table shows the typedef of ptrdiff_t depending on the processor option:

Generic processor option	Typedef
-v0 and -v1	unsigned int
-v2, $-v3$, $-v4$, $-v5$, and $-v6$	unsigned long

Table 39: ptrdif t typedef

Note that subtracting pointers other than default pointers could result in a smaller or larger integer type. In each case, this integer type is the signed integer variant of the corresponding size_t type.

Note: It is sometimes possible to create an object that is so large that the result of subtracting two pointers in that object is negative. See this example:

intptr_t

intptr_t is a signed integer type large enough to contain a void *. In the IAR C/C++ Compiler for AVR, the type used for intptr_t is long int when using the Large or Huge memory model and int in all other cases.

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 OF STRUCTURE TYPES

The struct and union types inherit the alignment requirements of their members. In addition, the size of a struct is 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).

```
struct First
{
   char c;
   short s;
} s:
```

This diagram shows the layout in memory:



The alignment of the structure is 1 byte, and the size is 3 bytes.

Type qualifiers

According to the C standard, volatile and const are type qualifiers.

DECLARING OBJECTS VOLATILE

By declaring an object <code>volatile</code>, the compiler is informed that the value of the object can change beyond the compiler's control. The compiler must also assume that any accesses can have side effects—thus all accesses to the <code>volatile</code> object must be preserved.

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 C 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 underlying type
- Adding a const qualifier to a volatile object will make write accesses to the
 object impossible. However, the object will be placed in RAM as specified by the C
 standard.

However, these rules are not detailed enough to handle the hardware-related requirements. The rules specific to the IAR C/C++ Compiler for AVR are described below.

Rules for accesses

In the IAR C/C++ Compiler for AVR, 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 types.

These object types are treated in a special way:

Type of object	Treated as
Global register variables	Treated as non-triggering volatiles
io declared variables located in $0x\text{-}0x1\text{F}$	An assignment to a bitfield always generates a write access, in some cases also a read access. If only one bit is updated—set or cleared—the sci/cbi instructions are executed.

Table 40: Type of volatile accesses treated in a special way

For all combinations of object types not listed, only the rule that states that all accesses are preserved applies.

DECLARING OBJECTS VOLATILE AND CONST

If you declare a volatile object const, it will be write-protected but it will still be stored in RAM memory as the C standard specifies.

To store the object in read-only memory instead, but still make it possible to access it as a const volatile object, follow this example:

```
/* Header */
extern int const xVar;
#define x (*(int const volatile *) &xVar)
/* Source that uses x */
int DoSomething()
{
   return x;
}
/* Source that defines x */
#pragma segment = "FLASH"
int const xVar @ "FLASH" = 6;
```

The segment FLASH contains the initializers. They must be flashed manually when the application starts up.

Thereafter, the initializers can be reflashed with other values at any time.

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 are allocated in ROM.

If no ROM is available in the DATA memory space, use the compiler option -y to control the placement of constants. For more information, see -y, page 271.

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.

Data types in C++

Extended keywords

- General syntax rules for extended keywords
- Summary of extended keywords
- Descriptions of extended keywords

For information about the address ranges of the different memory areas, see the chapter Segment reference.

General syntax rules for extended keywords

The compiler provides a set of attributes that can be used on functions or data objects to support specific features of the AVR microcontroller. 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 more information about each attribute, see *Descriptions of extended keywords*, page 292. 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*.

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 244.

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 explicitly in your declarations, 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 microcontroller.

Available function memory attributes:

```
__nearfunc, __farfunc
```

Available data memory attributes:

```
__tiny, __near, __far, __huge, __regvar, __eeprom, __tinyflash, __flash, __farflash, __hugeflash, __generic, __io, and __ext_io.
```

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 implicitly used by the compiler. You can specify one memory attribute for each level of pointer indirection.

General type attributes

Available *function type attributes* (affect how the function should be called):

```
__interrupt, __task, __version_1, __version_2, __version_3, __version_4, __x, __x_z, __z, __z_x
```

Available *data type attributes*:

```
, const, volatile
```

You can specify as many type attributes as required for each level of pointer indirection.

Syntax for type attributes used on data objects

Type attributes use almost the same syntax rules as the type qualifiers const and volatile. For example:

```
__near int i;
int __near j;
```

Both i and j are placed in near memory.

Unlike const and volatile, when a type attribute is used before the type specifier in a derived type, the type attribute applies to the object, or typedef itself, except in structure member declarations.

In all cases, if a memory attribute is not specified, an appropriate default memory type is used.

Using a type definition can sometimes make the code clearer:

```
typedef __near int d16_int;
d16_int *q1;
```

d16_int is a typedef for integers in near memory. The variable q1 can point to such integers.

You can also use the #pragma type_attributes directive to specify type attributes for a declaration. The type attributes specified in the pragma directive are applied to the data object or typedef being declared.

```
#pragma type_attribute=__near
int * q2;
```

The variable q2 is placed in near memory.

For more examples of using memory attributes, see *More examples*, page 57.

Syntax for type attributes used 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);
```

To declare a function pointer, use this syntax:

```
int (__nearfunc * fp) (double);
```

After this declaration, the function pointer fp points to near memory.

An easier way of specifying storage is to use type definitions:

```
typedef __nearfunc 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

Normally, object attributes affect the internal functionality of functions and data objects, but not directly how the function is called or how the data is accessed. This means that an object attribute does not normally need to be present in the declaration of an object.

These object attributes are available:

• Object attributes that can be used for variables:

```
__no_alloc, __no_alloc16, __no_alloc_str, __no_alloc_str16, __no_init, __no_runtime_init
```

• Object attributes that can be used for functions and variables:

```
location, @, __root
```

• Object attributes that can be used for functions:

```
__intrinsic, __monitor, __nested, __noreturn, 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 204. For more information about vector, see *vector*, page 329.

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
eeprom	Controls the storage of data objects in code memory space
ext_io	Controls the storage of data objects in I/O memory space Supports I/O instructions; used for SFRs
far	Controls the storage of data objects in data memory space
farflash	Controls the storage of data objects in code memory space
farfunc	Controls the storage of functions in code memory space
flash	Controls the storage of data objects in code memory space
generic	Declares a generic pointer
huge	Controls the storage of data objects in data memory space
hugeflash	Controls the storage of data objects in code memory space
interrupt	Specifies interrupt functions
intrinsic	Reserved for compiler internal use only
io	Controls the storage of data objects in I/O memory space Supports I/O instructions; used for SFRs
monitor	Specifies atomic execution of a function
near	Controls the storage of data objects in data memory space
nearfunc	Controls the storage of functions in code memory space
nested	Implements a nested interrupt
no_alloc, no_alloc16	Makes a constant available in the execution file
no_alloc_str, no_alloc_str16	Makes a string literal available in the execution file
no_init	Places a data object in non-volatile memory
no_runtime_init	Declares initialized variables that are not initialized at runtime.

Table 41: Extended keywords summary

Extended keyword	Description
noreturn	Informs the compiler that the function will not return
raw	Prevents saving used registers in interrupt functions
regvar	Places a data object in a register
root	Ensures that a function or variable is included in the object code even if unused
task	Relaxes the rules for preserving registers
tiny	Controls the storage of data objects in data memory space
tinyflash	Controls the storage of data objects in code memory space
version_1	Specifies the old calling convention; available for backward compatibility
version_2	Specifies the V2.10-V4.10B calling convention
version_4	Specifies the default calling convention
x	Places the first pointer of the parameter list in register $\ensuremath{\mathtt{X}}$
X_Z	Places the first pointer of the parameter list in register $\mathbb X$ and the second one in register $\mathbb Z$
z	Places the first pointer of the parameter list in register $\ensuremath{\mathbb{Z}}$
z_x	Places the first pointer of the parameter list in register ${\mathbb Z}$ and the second one in register ${\mathbb X}$

Table 41: Extended keywords summary (Continued)

Descriptions of extended keywords

This section gives detailed information about each extended keyword.

ee	nr	'n	n
ee	PΙ	U	•

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data

objects, see Type attributes, page 287.

The __eeprom memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by the selected memory model and places individual initialized and non-initialized variables in the built-in EEPROM of the AVR microcontroller. These variables can be used like any other variable and provide a convenient way to access the built-in EEPROM.

You can also override the supplied support functions to make the __eeprom memory attribute access an EEPROM or flash memory that is placed externally but not on the normal data bus, for example on an I2C bus.

Description

To do this, you must write a new EEPROM library routines file and include it in your project. The new file must use the same interface as the eeprom.s90 file in the avr\src\lib directory (visible register use, the same entry points and the same semantics).

Variables declared __eeprom are initialized only when a downloadable linker output file is downloaded to the system, and not every time the system startup code is executed.

You can also use the __eeprom attribute to create a pointer explicitly pointing to an object located in the EEPROM memory.

Storage information

- Memory space: EEPROM memory space
- Address range: 0-0xff (255 bytes) if --eeprom_size <= 256 bytes, and 0-0xffff (64 Kbytes) if --eeprom_size > 256 bytes.
- Maximum object size: 255 bytes if --eeprom_size <= 256 bytes, and 64 Kbytes-1 if --eeprom_size > 256 bytes.
- Pointer size: 1byte if --eeprom_size <= 256 bytes, and 2 bytes if --eeprom_size > 256 bytes.

Example

__eeprom int x;

See also

Memory types, page 54 and --eeprom size, page 245.

__ext_io

Syntax

Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data objects, see *Type attributes*, page 287.

Description

The __ext_io memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by the selected memory model and allows individual objects to be accessed by use of the special I/O instructions in the AVR microcontroller. The __ext_io memory attribute implies that the object is __no_init and volatile.

Your application may access the AVR I/O system by using the memory-mapped internal special function registers (SFRs). To access the AVR I/O system efficiently, the __ext_io memory attribute should be included in the code.

Storage information

- Memory space: Data memory space
- Address range: 0x100-0xFFFF (64 Kbytes)
- Maximum object size: 4 bytes.
- Pointer size: Pointers not allowed.

Example __ext_io int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 54.

__far

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data

objects, see Type attributes, page 287.

Description The __far memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by the

selected memory model and places individual variables and constants in far memory. You can also use the __far attribute to create a pointer explicitly pointing to an object

located in the far memory.

• Memory space: Data memory space

Address range: 0−0xFFFFFF

• Maximum object size: 32 Kbytes-1. An object cannot cross a 64-Kbyte boundary.

• Pointer size: 3 bytes. Arithmetics is only performed on the two lower bytes, except comparison which is always performed on the entire 24-bit address.

Example __far int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 54.

__farflash

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data

objects, see Type attributes, page 287.

Description The __farflash memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by

the selected memory model and places individual variables and constants in flash (code) memory. You can also use the __farflash attribute to create a pointer explicitly

pointing to an object located in the flash (code) memory.

Note: It is preferable to declare flash objects as const. The __farflash memory attribute is only available for AVR chips with more than 64 Kbytes of flash memory.

Storage information • Memory space: Code memory space

● Address range: 0-0xffffff

• Maximum object size: 32 Kbytes-1. An object cannot cross a 64-Kbyte boundary.

• Pointer size: 3 bytes. Arithmetics is only performed on the two lower bytes, except comparison which is always performed on the entire 24-bit address.

Example __farflash int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 54.

__farfunc

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on

functions, see Type attributes, page 287.

Description The __farfunc memory attribute overrides the default storage of functions given by

the selected code model and places individual functions in code memory. You can also use the __farfunc attribute to create a pointer explicitly pointing to a function located

in farcode memory (0-0xffffff).

The default code pointer for the -v5 and -v6 processor options is __farfunc, and it

only affects the size of the function pointers.

Note that pointers with function memory attributes have restrictions in implicit and explicit casts when casting between pointers and also when casting between pointers

and integer types.

It is possible to call a __nearfunc function from a __farfunc function and vice versa.

Only the size of the function pointer is affected.

Storage information • Memory space: Code memory space

Address range: 0-0x7FFFFE (8 Mbytes)

• Pointer size: 3 bytes

Example __farfunc void myfunction(void);

See also Function storage, page 63.

flash

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data

objects, see Type attributes, page 287.

Description

The __flash memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by the selected memory model and places individual variables and constants in flash (code) memory.

Note that it is preferable to declare flash objects as constant. The __flash keyword is available for most AVR processors.

Because the AVR microcontrollers have only a small amount of on-board RAM, this memory should not be wasted on data that could be stored in flash memory (of which there is much more). However, because of the architecture of the processor, a default pointer cannot access the flash memory. The __flash keyword is used to identify that the constant should be stored in flash memory.

A header file called pgmspace.h is installed in the avr\inc directory, to provide some standard C library functions for taking strings stored in flash memory as arguments.

You can also use the __flash attribute to create a pointer explicitly pointing to an object located in the flash (code) memory.

Note: The __flash option cannot be used in a reduced ATtiny core.

Storage information

- Memory space: Code memory space
- Address range: 0-0xffff (64 Kbytes)
- Maximum object size: 32 Kbytes-1.
- Pointer size: 2 bytes.

Example

A program defines a couple of strings that are stored in flash memory:

```
__flash char str1[] = "Message 1";
__flash char str2[] = "Message 2";
```

The program creates a __flash pointer to point to one of these strings, and assigns it to str1:

```
char __flash *msg;
  msg=str1;
```

Using the stropy_P function declared in pgmspace.h, a string in flash memory can be copied to another string in RAM as follows:

```
strcpy_P(dest, msg);
```

See also

Memory types, page 54.

__generic

Syntax

Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data objects, see *Type attributes*, page 287.

Description

The __generic pointer type attribute declares a generic pointer that can point to objects in both code and data space. The size of the generic pointer depends on which processor option is used.

The most significant bit (MSB) determines whether $__$ generic points to Code (MSB=1) or Data (MSB=0).

It is not possible to place objects in a generic memory area, only to point to it. When using generic pointers, make sure that objects that have been declared __far and __huge are located in the range 0x0-0x7FFFFF. Objects may still be placed in the entire data address space, but a generic pointer cannot point to objects in the upper half of the data address space.

The __generic keyword cannot be used with the #pragma type_attribute directive for a pointer.

Access through a __generic pointer is implemented with inline code. Because this type of access is slow and generates a lot of code, __generic pointers should be avoided when possible.

Storage information

- Memory space: Data or code memory space
- Address range: 0-0x7FFF (32 Kbytes) for the processor options -v0 and -v1, 0-07FFFFF (8 Mbytes) for the processor options -v2 to -v6
- Maximum object size: 32 Kbytes-1 if the pointer size is 2 bytes, and 8 Mbytes-1 if the pointer size is 3 bytes.
- Generic pointer size: 1 + 15 bits when the processor options -v0 and -v1 are used.
 1 + 23 bits when the processor options -v2 to -v6 are used.

See also

Memory types, page 54.

__huge

Syntax

Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data objects, see *Type attributes*, page 287.

Description

The __huge memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by the selected memory model and places individual variables and constants in huge memory.

You can also use the __huge attribute to create a pointer explicitly pointing to an object located in the huge memory.

Storage information

Memory space: Data memory space

• Address range: 0-0xfffffff (16 Mbytes)

Maximum object size: 16 Mbytes-1.

• Pointer size: 3 bytes.

Example __huge int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 54.

__hugeflash

Syntax

Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data objects, see *Type attributes*, page 287.

Description

The __hugeflash memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by the selected memory model and places individual variables and constants in flash (code) memory. You can also use the __hugeflash attribute to create a pointer explicitly pointing to an object located in the flash (code) memory.

Note that it is preferable to declare flash objects as constant. The __hugeflash memory attribute is only available for AVR microcontrollers with at least 64 Kbytes of flash memory.

Storage information

• Memory space: Code memory space

• Address range: 0-0x7FFFFF (8 Mbytes)

Maximum object size: 8 Mbytes-1.

• Pointer size: 3 bytes.

Example __hugeflash int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 54.

__interrupt

Syntax

See Syntax for type attributes used on functions, page 289.

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.

Example #pragma vector=0x14

__interrupt void my_interrupt_handler(void);

See also *Interrupt functions*, page 64, *vector*, page 329, and *INTVEC*, page 375.

__intrinsic

Description The __intrinsic keyword is reserved for compiler internal use only.

__io

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data

objects, see Type attributes, page 287.

Description The __io memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by the

selected memory model and places individual variables and constants in I/O memory.

Storage information • Memory space: Data memory space

• Address range: 0-0xFFFF (64 Kbytes)

• Maximum object size: 4 bytes (32 bits).

• Pointer size: Pointers not allowed.

Example __io int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 54.

__monitor

Syntax See Syntax for object attributes, page 290.

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.

See also *Monitor functions*, page 65. For information about related intrinsic functions, see

__disable_interrupt, page 333, __enable_interrupt, page 333, __get_interrupt_state,

page 334, and __set_interrupt_state, page 338, respectively.

__near

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data

objects, see Type attributes, page 287.

Description The __near memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by the

selected memory model and places individual variables and constants in near memory. You can also use the __near attribute to create a pointer explicitly pointing to an object

located in the near memory.

Storage information • Memory space: Data memory space

Address range: 0-0xffff (64 Kbytes)

• Maximum object size: 32 Kbytes-1.

• Pointer size: 2 bytes.

Example __near int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 54.

nearfunc

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on

functions, see *Type attributes*, page 287.

Description The __nearfunc memory attribute overrides the default storage of functions given by

the selected code model and places individual functions in near memory.

Functions declared __nearfunc can be called from the entire code memory area, but

must reside in the first 128 Kbytes of the code memory.

The default for the -v0 to -v4 processor options is $__$ nearfunc, and it only affects the size of the function pointers.

Note that pointers with function memory attributes have restrictions in implicit and explicit casts when casting between pointers and also when casting between pointers and integer types.

It is possible to call a __nearfunc function from a __farfunc function and vice versa. Only the size of the function pointer is affected.

You can also use the __nearfunc attribute to create a pointer explicitly pointing to a function located in CODE memory (0-0xFFFF).

Storage information

Memory space: Code memory space

• Address range: 0-0x1FFFE (128 Kbytes)

Pointer size: 2 bytes

Example __nearfunc void myfunction(void);

See also Function storage, page 63.

__nested

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for type attributes that can be used on functions, see

Type attributes, page 287.

Description Use the __nested keyword to implement a nested interrupt, in other words a new

interrupt can be served inside an interrupt function. A nested interrupt service routine acts like a normal interrupt service routine except that it sets the interrupt enable bit

before any registers are saved.

Example __nested __interrupt void myInterruptFunction()

__no_alloc, __no_alloc16

Syntax See Syntax for object attributes, page 290.

Description Use the __no_alloc or __no_alloc16 object attribute on a constant to make the

constant available in the executable file without occupying any space in the linked

application.

You cannot access the contents of such a constant from your application. You can take its address, which is an integer offset to the segment of the constant. The type of the

```
offset is unsigned long when __no_alloc is used, and unsigned short when __no_alloc16 is used.
__no_alloc const struct MyData my_data @ "XXX" = {...};
no alloc str; no alloc str16, page 302.
```

__no_alloc_str, __no_alloc_str16

Syntax __no_alloc_str(string_literal @ segment)

and

__no_alloc_str16(string_literal @ segment)

where

string_literal The string literal that you want to make available in the

executable file.

segment The name of the segment to place the string literal in.

Description

Example

See also

Use the __no_alloc_str or __no_alloc_str16 operators to make string literals available in the executable file without occupying any space in the linked application.

The value of the expression is the offset of the string literal in the segment. For __no_alloc_str, the type of the offset is unsigned long. For __no_alloc_str16, the type of the offset is unsigned short.

Example

```
#define MYSEG "YYY"
#define X(str) __no_alloc_str(str @ MYSEG)

extern void dbg_printf(unsigned long fmt, ...)
#define DBGPRINTF(fmt, ...) dbg_printf(X(fmt), __VA_ARGS__)

void
foo(int i, double d)
{
    DBGPRINTF("The value of i is: %d, the value of d is: %f",i,d);
}
```

Depending on your debugger and the runtime support, this could produce trace output on the host computer. Note that there is no such runtime support in C-SPY, unless you use an external plugin module.

See also __no_alloc, __no_alloc16, page 301.

__no_init

Syntax See Syntax for object attributes, page 290.

Description Use the __no_init keyword to place a data object in non-volatile memory. This means

that the initialization of the variable, for example at system startup, is suppressed.

Example __no_init int myarray[10];

See also *Non-initialized variables*, page 216.

no runtime init

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for object attributes, see *Object attributes*, page 290.

Description The __no_runtime_init keyword is used for declaring initialized variables for which

the initialization is performed when programming the device. These variables are not

initialized at runtime during system startup.

Note: The __no_runtime_init keyword cannot be used in combination with the

typedef keyword.

Example __no_runtime_init int myarray[10];

__noreturn

Syntax See Syntax for object attributes, page 290.

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.

Note: At optimization levels medium or high, the __noreturn keyword might cause incorrect call stack debug information at any point where it can be determined that the

current function cannot return.

Example __noreturn void terminate(void);

raw

Syntax See Syntax for object attributes, page 290.

Description This keyword prevents saving used registers in interrupt functions.

__regvar

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for type attributes that can be used on data, see *Type*

attributes, page 287.

Description The __regvar extended keyword is used for declaring that a global or static variable

should be placed permanently in the specified register or registers. The registers ${\tt R4-R15}$

can be used for this purpose, provided that they have been locked with the --lock_regs compiler option.

Note:

• An object declared __regvar cannot have an initial value.

• The_regvar option cannot be used in a reduced ATtiny core.

Storage information • Memory space: Data memory space

Address range: 4-F

• Maximum object size: 4 bytes (32 bits).

Pointer size: Pointers not allowed.

Example __regvar __no_init int counter @ 14;

This will create the 16-bit integer variable counter, which will always be available in

R15:R14. At least two registers must be locked.

See also --memory_model, -m, page 252, --lock_regs, page 251, and Preserved registers, page

158.

__root

Syntax See Syntax for object attributes, page 290.

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

For more information about modules, segments, and the link process, see the *IAR Linker* and *Library Tools Reference Guide*.

__task

Syntax

See Syntax for type attributes used on functions, page 289.

Description

This keyword allows functions to relax the rules for preserving registers. Typically, the keyword is used on the start function for a task in an RTOS.

Because a function declared __task can corrupt registers that are needed by the calling function, you should only use __task on functions that do not return or call such a function from assembler code.

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);

__tiny

Syntax

Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data objects, see *Type attributes*, page 287.

Description

The __tiny memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by the selected memory model and places individual variables and constants in tiny memory. You can also use the __tiny attribute to create a pointer explicitly pointing to an object located in the tiny memory.

Storage information

Memory space: Data memory space
 Address range: 0-0xFF (256 bytes)

• Maximum object size: 127 bytes.

• Pointer size: 1 byte.

Example

__tiny int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 54.

__tinyflash

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data

objects, see Type attributes, page 287.

Description The __tinyflash memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by

the selected memory model and places individual variables and constants in flash (code) memory. You can also use the __tinyflash attribute to create a pointer explicitly

pointing to an object located in the flash (code) memory.

Storage information • Memory space: Code memory space

• Address range: 0-0xFF (256 bytes)

• Maximum object size: 127 bytes.

Pointer size: 1 byte.

Example __tinyflash int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 54.

version I

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for type attributes that can be used on functions, see

Type attributes, page 287.

Description The __version_1 keyword is available for backward compatibility of the interface for

calling assembler routines from C. It makes a function use the calling convention of the A90 IAR C Compiler instead of the default calling convention. The __version_1

calling convention is preferred when calling assembler functions from C.

Example __version_1 int func(int arg1, double arg2)

See also *Calling convention*, page 155.

__version_2

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for type attributes that can be used on functions, see

Type attributes, page 287.

Description The __version_2 keyword is available for backward compatibility of the interface for

calling assembler routines from C. The keyword makes a function use the V2.10-V4.10B calling convention instead of the default calling convention.

Example __version_2 int func(int arg1, double arg2)

See also *Calling convention*, page 155.

__version_4

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for type attributes that can be used on functions, see

Type attributes, page 287.

Description The __version_4 keyword specifies the default calling convention.

Example __version_4 int func(int arg1, double arg2)

See also *Calling convention*, page 155.

__x

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for type attributes that can be used on functions, see

Type attributes, page 287.

Description The __x keyword places the first pointer of the parameter list in the register x. This

keyword is used by parts of the runtime library.

Note: This keyword can give very efficient code in a local perspective, but should be used with care because it changes the calling convention and might have a negative

effect on the size of the entire application.

ΧZ

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for type attributes that can be used on functions, see

Type attributes, page 287.

Description The __x_z keyword places the first pointer of the parameter list in the register x and the

second one in register z. This keyword is used by parts of the runtime library.

Note: This keyword can give very efficient code in a local perspective, but should be used with care because it changes the calling convention and might have a negative

effect on the size of the entire application.

__**Z**

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for type attributes that can be used on functions, see

Type attributes, page 287.

Description The __z keyword places the first pointer of the parameter list in the register z. This

keyword is used by parts of the runtime library.

Note: This keyword can give very efficient code in a local perspective, but should be used with care because it changes the calling convention and might have a negative

effect on the size of the entire application.

__**z**_x

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for type attributes that can be used on functions, see

Type attributes, page 287.

Description The __z_x keyword places the first pointer of the parameter list in the register z and the

second one in register x. This keyword is used by parts of the runtime library.

Note: This keyword can give very efficient code in a local perspective, but should be used with care because it changes the calling convention and might have a negative

effect on the size of the entire application.

Pragma directives

- Summary of pragma directives
- Descriptions of pragma directives

Summary of pragma directives

The #pragma directive is defined by Standard C 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.

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
basic_template_matching	Makes a template function fully memory-attribute
	aware.
bitfields	Controls the order of bitfield members.
calls	Lists possible called functions for indirect calls.
call_graph_root	Specifies that the function is a call graph root.
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.
default_function_attributes	Sets default type and object attributes for
	declarations and definitions of functions.
default_variable_attributes	Sets default type and object attributes for
	declarations and definitions of variables.
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.

Table 42: Pragma directives summary

Pragma directive	Description	
diag_warning	Changes the severity level of diagnostic messages.	
error	Signals an error while parsing.	
include_alias	Specifies an alias for an include file.	
inline	Controls inlining of 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.	
object_attribute	Adds object attributes to the declaration or definition of a variable or function.	
optimize	Specifies the type and level of an optimization.	
printf_args	Verifies that a function with a printf-style format string is called with the correct arguments.	
public_equ	Defines a public assembler label and gives it a value.	
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.	
section	This directive is an alias for #pragma segment.	
segment	Declares a segment name to be used by intrinsic functions.	
STDC CX_LIMITED_RANGE	Specifies whether the compiler can use normal complex mathematical formulas or not.	
STDC FENV_ACCESS	Specifies whether your source code accesses the floating-point environment or not.	
STDC FP_CONTRACT	Specifies whether the compiler is allowed to contract floating-point expressions or not.	
vector	Specifies the vector of an interrupt or trap function.	
weak	Makes a definition a weak definition, or creates a weak alias for a function or a variable.	
type_attribute	Adds type attributes to a declaration or to definitions.	

Table 42: Pragma directives summary (Continued)

Note: For portability reasons, see also *Recognized pragma directives (6.10.6)*, page 397.

Descriptions of pragma directives

This section gives detailed information about each pragma directive.

basic_template_matching

Syntax #pragma basic_template_matching

Description Use this pragma directive in front of a template function declaration to make the

function fully memory-attribute aware, in the rare cases where this is useful. That template function will then match the template without the modifications, see *Templates*

and data memory attributes, page 184.

Example #pragma basic_template_matching

template<typename T> void fun(T *);

void MyF()
{
 fun((int __near *) 0); // T = int __near
}

bitfields

Syntax #pragma bitfields={reversed|default}

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.

Example #pragma bitfields=reversed

```
/* Structure that uses reversed bitfields. */
struct S
{
   unsigned char error : 1;
   unsigned char size : 4;
   unsigned short code : 10;
};
#pragma bitfields=default /* Restores to default setting. */
```

See also *Bitfields*, page 276.

calls

Syntax #pragma calls=function[, function...]

Parameters

function Any declared function

Description Use this pragma directive to list the functions that can be indirectly called in the

following statement. This information can be used for stack usage analysis in the linker.

Note: For an accurate result, you must list all possible called functions.

Example void Fun1(), Fun2();

```
void Caller(void (*fp)(void))
{
#pragma calls = Fun1, Fun2
   (*fp)();
}
```

See also Stack usage analysis, page 78

call_graph_root

Syntax #pragma call_graph_root[=category]

Parameters

category A string that identifies an optional call graph root category

Description Use this pragma directive to specify that, for stack usage analysis purposes, the

immediately following function is a call graph root. You can also specify an optional

category. The compiler will usually automatically assign a call graph root category to interrupt and task functions. If you use the #pragma call_graph_root directive on such a function you will override the default category. You can specify any string as a category.

Example #pragma call_graph_root="interrupt"

See also Stack usage analysis, page 78

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=_huge 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 of the start

address than it would otherwise have. This directive 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.

Note: Normally, the size of a variable is a multiple of its alignment. The data_alignment directive only affects the alignment of the variable's start address, and not its size, and can thus be used for creating situations where the size is not a multiple of the alignment.

dataseg

Syntax #pragma dataseg=[__memoryattribute]{SEGMENT_NAME|default}

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 __no_init. The setting remains active until you turn it off

again with the #pragma dataseg=default directive.

__no_init char myBuffer[1000];

#pragma dataseg=default

default function attributes

Syntax #pragma default_function_attributes=[attribute...]

where attribute can be:

type_attribute
object_attribute
@ segment name

Parameters

type_attribute See Type attributes, page 287.

object_attribute See Object attributes, page 290.

@ segment_name See Data and function placement in segments, page 206.

Description

Use this pragma directive to set default segment placement, type attributes, and object attributes for function declarations and definitions. The default settings are only used for declarations and definitions that do not specify type or object attributes or location in some other way.

Specifying a default_function_attributes pragma directive with no attributes, restores the initial state where no such defaults have been applied to function declarations and definitions.

Example

```
/* Place following functions in segment MYSEG" */
#pragma default_function_attributes = @ "MYSEG"
int fun1(int x) { return x + 1; }
int fun2(int x) { return x - 1;
/* Stop placing functions into MYSEG */
#pragma default_function_attributes =
```

has the same effect as:

location, page 320

```
int fun1(int x) @ "MYSEG" { return x + 1; } int fun2(int x) @ "MYSEG" { return x - 1; }
```

See also

object_attribute, page 322

type attribute, page 328

default_variable_attributes

Syntax #pragma default_variable_attributes=[attribute...]

where attribute can be:

type_attribute
object_attribute
@ segment_name

Parameters

type_attribute See Type attributes, page 287.

object_attributes See Object attributes, page 290.

@ segment name

See Data and function placement in segments, page 206.

Description

Use this pragma directive to set default segment placement, type attributes, and object attributes for declarations and definitions of variables with static storage duration. The default settings are only used for declarations and definitions that do not specify type or object attributes or location in some other way.

Specifying a default_variable_attributes pragma with no attributes restores the initial state of no such defaults being applied to variables with static storage duration.

Example

```
/* Place following variables in segment MYSEG" */
#pragma default_variable_attributes = @ "MYSEG"
int var1 = 42;
int var2 = 17;
/* Stop placing variables into MYSEG */
#pragma default_variable_attributes =
```

has the same effect as:

```
int var1 @ "MYSEG" = 42;
int var2 @ "MYSEG" = 17;
```

See also

location, page 320

object_attribute, page 322
type attribute, page 328

diag_default

Syntax #pragma diag_default=tag[,tag,...]

Parameters

The number of a diagnostic message, for example the

message number Pe177.

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 225.

diag_error

Syntax #pragma diag_error=tag[,tag,...]

Parameters

The number of a diagnostic message, for example the

message number Pe177.

diagnostics.

See also *Diagnostics*, page 225.

diag_remark

Syntax #pragma diag_remark=tag[,tag,...]

Parameters

The number of a diagnostic message, for example the

message number Pe177.

Description Use this pragma directive to change the severity level to remark for the specified

diagnostic messages.

See also *Diagnostics*, page 225.

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 225.

diag_warning

Syntax #pragma diag_warning=tag[,tag,...]

Parameters

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 225.

error

Syntax #pragma error message

Parameters

message A string that represents the error message.

Description Use this pragma directive to cause an error message when it is parsed. This mechanism

is different from the preprocessor directive #error, because the $\#pragma\ error$ directive can be included in a preprocessor macro using the $_pragma\ form$ of the

directive and only causes an error if the macro is used.

Example #if FOO_AVAILABLE

#define FOO ...

#else

#define FOO _Pragma("error\"Foo is not available\"")

#endif

If FOO_AVAILABLE is zero, an error will be signaled if the FOO macro is used in actual

source code.

include_alias

Syntax #pragma include_alias ("orig_header" , "subst_header")

#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.

#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 222.

inline

Syntax #pragma inline[=forced|=never]

Parameters

No parameter Has the same effect as the inline keyword.

forced Disables the compiler's heuristics and forces inlining.

never Disables the compiler's heuristics and makes sure that the

function will not be inlined.

Description Use #pragma inline to advise the compiler that the function defined immediately after

the directive should be inlined according to C++ inline semantics.

Specifying #pragma inline=forced will always inline the defined function. If the

compiler fails to inline the function for some reason, for example due to recursion, a

warning message is emitted.

Inlining is normally performed only on the High optimization level. Specifying

#pragma inline=forced will enable inlining of the function also on the Medium

optimization level.

See also *Inlining functions*, page 68.

language

Syntax #pragma language={extended|default|save|restore}

Parameters

extended Enables the IAR Systems language extensions from the first

use of the pragma directive and onward.

default From the first use of the pragma directive and onward,

restores the settings for the IAR Systems language extensions to whatever that was specified by compiler

options.

save | restore Saves and restores, respectively, the IAR Systems language

extensions setting around a piece of source code.

Each use of save must be followed by a matching restore in the same file without any intervening #include directive.

Description Use this pragma directive to control the use of language extensions.

Example At the top of a file that needs to be compiled with IAR Systems extensions enabled:

#pragma language=extended
/* The rest of the file. */

Around a particular part of the source code that needs to be compiled with IAR Systems extensions enabled, but where the state before the sequence cannot be assumed to be the same as that specified by the compiler options in use:

#pragma language=save
#pragma language=extended
/* Part of source code. */
#pragma language=restore

See also -e, page 244 and --strict, page 266.

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 <code>__no_init</code> or <code>const</code>. Alternatively, the directive can take a string specifying a segment for placing either a variable or a function whose declaration follows the pragma directive. Do not place variables that would normally be in different segments (for example, variables declared as <code>__no_init</code> and variables declared as <code>const</code>) in the same named segment.

Example

Controlling data and function placement in memory, page 204 and Placing user-defined segments, page 91.

Note: This still places the variables in DATA memory, and not in CODE.

message

Syntax #pragma message(message)

Parameters

See also

message The message that you want to direct to the standard output stream.

Description

Use this pragma directive to make the compiler print a message to the standard output stream when the file is compiled.

Example #ifdef TESTING

#pragma message("Testing")

#endif

object_attribute

Syntax #pragma object_attribute=object_attribute[object_attribute...]

Parameters For information about object attributes that can be used with this pragma directive, see

Object attributes, page 290.

Description Use this pragma directive to add one or more IAR-specific object attributes to the

declaration or definition of a variable or function. Object attributes affect the actual variable or function and not its type. When you define a variable or function, the union

of the object attributes from all declarations including the definition, is used.

Example #pragma object_attribute=__no_init

char bar;

is equivalent to:

__no_init char bar;

See also General syntax rules for extended keywords, page 287.

optimize

Syntax #pragma optimize=[goal][level][no_optimization...]

Parameters

goal Choose between:

size, optimizes for size

balanced, optimizes balanced between speed and size

speed, optimizes for speed.

no_size_constraints, optimizes for speed, but relaxes the

normal restrictions for code size expansion.

1evel Specifies the level of optimization; choose between none,

low, medium, or high.

no optimization

Disables one or several optimizations; choose between:

no_code_motion, disables code motion

no_cse, disables common subexpression elimination

no_inline, disables function inlining

no_tbaa, disables type-based alias analysis

no_unroll, disables 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 size, balanced, speed, and no_size_constraints 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 SmallAndUsedOften()
{
   /* Do something here. */
}
#pragma optimize=size
int BigAndSeldomUsed()
{
   /* Do something here. */
}
```

See also

Fine-tuning enabled transformations, page 210.

__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 *,...);

void PrintNumbers(unsigned short x)
{
 printf("%d", x); /* Compiler checks that x is an integer */

public_equ

Syntax #pragma public_equ="symbol", value

Parameters

symbol The name of the assembler symbol to be defined (string).

value The value of the defined assembler symbol (integer constant

expression).

Description Use this pragma directive to define a public assembler label and give it a value.

Example #pragma public_equ="MY_SYMBOL",0x123456

See also --public equ, page 262.

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()
```

{
 /* Do something here. */

Even if the copyright string is not used by the application, it will still be included by the linker and available in the output.

See also

Inline assembler, page 151

rtmodel

Syntax

#pragma rtmodel="key","value"

Parameters

"kev"

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 136.

__scanf_args

Syntax #pragma __scanf_args

Description 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
```

segment

Syntax #pragma segment="NAME" [__memoryattribute]

alias

#pragma section="NAME" [__memoryattribute] [align]

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. 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, __segment_end, and __segment_size. All segment declarations for a specific segment must have the same memory type attribute and alignment.

The align and the __memoryattribute parameters are only relevant when used together with the segment operators __segment_begin, __segment_end, and

__segment_size. If you consider using align on an individual variable to achieve a higher alignment, you must instead use the #pragma data_alignment directive.

If an optional memory attribute is used, the return type of the segment operators

__segment_begin and __segment_end is:

void __memoryattribute *.

Note: To place variables or functions in a specific segment, use the #pragma

location directive or the @ operator.

Example #pragma segment="MYNEAR" __near 4

See also Dedicated segment operators, page 171. For more information about segments, see the

chapters Linking overview and Linking your application.

STDC CX LIMITED RANGE

Parameters

ON Normal complex mathematic formulas can be used.

OFF Normal complex mathematic formulas cannot be used.

DEFAULT Sets the default behavior, that is OFF.

Description Use this pragma directive to specify that the compiler can use the normal complex

mathematic formulas for * (multiplication), / (division), and abs.

Note: This directive is required by Standard C. The directive is recognized but has no

effect in the compiler.

STDC FENV ACCESS

Syntax #pragma STDC FENV_ACCESS {ON OFF DEFAULT}

Parameters

ON Source code accesses the floating-point environment. Note

that this argument is not supported by the compiler.

OFF Source code does not access the floating-point environment.

DEFAULT Sets the default behavior, that is OFF.

Description Use this pragma directive to specify whether your source code accesses the

floating-point environment or not.

Note: This directive is required by Standard C.

STDC FP CONTRACT

Syntax #pragma STDC FP_CONTRACT {ON|OFF|DEFAULT}

Parameters

ON The compiler is allowed to contract floating-point

expressions.

OFF The compiler is not allowed to contract floating-point

expressions. Note that this argument is not supported by the

compiler.

DEFAULT Sets the default behavior, that is ON.

Description Use this pragma directive to specify whether the compiler is allowed to contract

floating-point expressions or not. This directive is required by Standard C.

Example #pragma STDC FP_CONTRACT=ON

type_attribute

Syntax #pragma type_attribute=type_attr[type_attr...]

Parameters For information about type attributes that can be used with this pragma directive, see

Type attributes, page 287.

Description Use this pragma directive to specify IAR-specific type attributes, which are not part of

Standard C. 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 __near is defined:

#pragma type_attribute=__near

int x;

This declaration, which uses extended keywords, is equivalent:

__near int x;

See also The chapter Extended keywords.

vector

Syntax #pragma vector=vector1[, vector2, vector3, ...]

Parameters

vectorN The vector number(s) of an interrupt function.

Description Use this pragma directive to specify the vector(s) of an interrupt or trap 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);

weak

Syntax #pragma weak symbol1[=symbol2]

Parameters

symbol1 A function or variable with external linkage.

symbol2 A defined function or variable.

Description This pragma directive can be used in one of two ways:

• To make the definition of a function or variable with external linkage a weak

definition.

 To create a weak alias for another function or variable. You can make more than one alias for the same function or variable.

Example

To make the definition of foo a weak definition, write:

#pragma weak foo

To make NMI_Handler a weak alias for Default_Handler, write:

#pragma weak NMI_Handler=Default_Handler

Descriptions of pragma directives

If NMI_Handler is not defined elsewhere in the program, all references to NMI_Handler will refer to Default_Handler.

Intrinsic functions

- Summary of intrinsic functions
- Descriptions of intrinsic functions

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
delay_cycles	Inserts a time delay
DES_decryption	Decrypts according to Digital Encryption Standard
DES_encryption	Encrypts according to Digital Encryption Standard
disable_interrupt	Disables interrupts
enable_interrupt	Enables interrupts
extended_load_program_memory	Returns one byte from code memory
fractional_multiply_signed	Generates an FMULS instruction
$\begin{tabular}{ll} $\tt_fractional_multiply_signed_wit \\ $\tt h_unsigned \end{tabular}$	Generates an FMULSU instruction
fractional_multiply_unsigned	Generates an FMUL instruction
get_interrupt_state	Returns the interrupt state
indirect_jump_to	Generates an IJMP instruction
insert_opcode	Assigns a value to a processor register
lac	Provides access to the LAC instruction
las	Provides access to the LAS instruction
lat	Provides access to the LAT instruction
load_program_memory	Returns one byte from program memory
multiply_signed	Generates a MULS instruction

Table 43: Intrinsic functions summary

Intrinsic function	Description
multiply_signed_with_unsigned	Generates a MULSU instruction
multiply_unsigned	Generates a MUL instruction
no_operation	Inserts a instruction
require	Sets a constant literal as required
restore_interrupt	Restores the interrupt flag
reverse	Reverses the byte order of a value
save_interrupt	Saves the state of the interrupt flag
set_interrupt_state	Restores the interrupt state
sleep	Inserts a SLEEP instruction
swap_nibbles	Swaps bit 0-3 with bit 4-7
watchdog_reset	Inserts a watchdog reset instruction
xch	Provides access to the XCH instruction

Table 43: Intrinsic functions summary (Continued)

Descriptions of intrinsic functions

This section gives reference information about each intrinsic function.

__delay_cycles

Syntax void __delay_cycles(unsigned long int);

Description Makes the compiler generate code that takes the given amount of cycles to perform, that

is, it inserts a time delay that lasts the specified number of cycles.

The specified value must be a constant integer expression and not an expression that is

evaluated at runtime.

__DES_decryption

Syntax unsigned long long __DES_decryption(unsigned long long data,

unsigned long long key);

where:

data The data to decrypt

key The key to decrypt against

Description Decrypts according to the Digital Encryption Standard (DES). __DES_decryption

performs a DES decryption of data against key and returns the decrypted data.

Note: This intrinsic function is available only for cores with support for the \mathtt{DES}

instruction.

__DES_encryption

Syntax unsigned long long __DES_encryption(unsigned long long data,

unsigned long long key);

where:

data The data to encrypt

key The key to encrypt against

Description Encrypts according to the Digital Encryption Standard (DES). __DES_encryption

performs a DES encryption of data against key and returns the encrypted data.

This intrinsic function is available only for cores with support for the DES instruction.

__disable_interrupt

Syntax void __disable_interrupt(void);

Description Disables interrupts by inserting the instruction.

__enable_interrupt

Syntax void __enable_interrupt(void);

Description Enables interrupts by inserting the instruction.

__extended_load_program_memory

Syntax unsigned char __extended_load_program_memory(unsigned char

__farflash *);

Description Returns one byte from code memory.

Use this intrinsic function to access constant data in code memory.

__fractional_multiply_signed

Syntax signed int __fractional_multiply_signed(signed char, signed

char);

Description Generates an FMULS instruction.

__fractional_multiply_signed_with_unsigned

Syntax signed int __fractional_multiply_signed_with_unsigned(signed

char, unsigned char);

Description Generates an FMULSU instruction.

__fractional_multiply_unsigned

Syntax unsigned int __fractional_multiply_unsigned(unsigned char,

unsigned char);

Description Generates an FMUL instruction.

__get_interrupt_state

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
                              #include "intrinsics.h"
                              void CriticalFn()
                                __istate_t s = __get_interrupt_state();
                                __disable_interrupt();
                                /* Do something here. */
                                __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 before the call of __get_interrupt_state.
 _indirect_jump_to
      Syntax
                              void __indirect_jump_to(unsigned long);
      Description
                              Jumps to the address specified by the argument by using the IJMP or EIJMP instruction,
                              depending on the generic processor option:
                                                     -v0 to -v4
                              IJMP
                                                     -v5 and -v6
                              EIJMP
  _insert_opcode
      Syntax
                              void __insert_opcode(unsigned short);
      Description
                              Inserts a DW unsigned directive.
lac
                              unsigned char __lac(unsigned char, unsigned char *);
      Syntax
      Description
                              Provides access to the LAC (Load And Clear) instruction.
 las
      Syntax
                              unsigned char __las(unsigned char, unsigned char *);
```

Description Provides access to the LAS (Load And Set) instruction.

__lat

Syntax unsigned char __lat(unsigned char, unsigned char *);

Description Provides access to the LAT (Load And Toggle) instruction.

__load_program_memory

Syntax unsigned char __load_program_memory(unsigned char __flash *);

Description Returns one byte from code memory. The constants must be placed within the first 64

Kbytes of memory.

__multiply_signed

Syntax signed int __multiply_signed(signed char, signed char);

Description Generates a MULS instruction.

__multiply_signed_with_unsigned

Syntax signed int __multiply_signed_with_unsigned(signed char, unsigned

char);

Description Generates a MULSU instruction.

__multiply_unsigned

Syntax unsigned int __multiply_unsigned(unsigned char, unsigned char);

Description Generates a MUL instruction.

__no_operation

Syntax void __no_operation(void);

Description Inserts a NOP instruction.

__require

Syntax void __require(void *);

Description Sets a constant literal as required.

One of the prominent features of the IAR XLINK Linker is its ability to strip away anything that is not needed. This is a very good feature because it reduces the resulting code size to a minimum. However, in some situations you may want to be able to explicitly include a piece of code or a variable even though it is not directly used.

The argument to __require could be a variable, a function name, or an exported assembler label. It must, however, be a constant literal. The label referred to will be treated as if it would be used at the location of the __require call.

Example

In this example, the copyright message will be included in the generated binary file even though it is not directly used.

```
#include <intrinsics.h>
char copyright[] = "Copyright 2011 by XXXX";
void main(void)
{
    __require(copyright);
    [... the rest of the program ...]
```

__restore_interrupt

Syntax void __restore_interrupt(unsigned char oldState);

Description Restores the interrupt flag to the specified state.

Note: The value of *oldState* must be the result of a call to the __save_interrupt intrinsic function.

reverse

Syntax unsigned int __reverse(unsigned int);

Description Reverses the byte order of the value given as parameter. Avoid using __reverse in

complex expressions as it might introduce extra register copying.

/* Only on -v2 through -v6 with > 64k flash memory */
void __hugeflash * __reverse(void __hugeflash *);

/* Only on -v2 through -v6 with > 64k flash memory */

__save_interrupt

Syntax unsigned char __save_interrupt(void);

Description Saves the state of the interrupt flag in the byte returned. This value can then be used for

restoring the state of the interrupt flag with the __restore_interrupt intrinsic

function.

Example unsigned char oldState;

oldState = __save_interrupt();
__disable_interrupt();

/* Critical section goes here */
__restore_interrupt(oldState);

__set_interrupt_state

Syntax void __set_interrupt_state(__istate_t);

Description Restores the interrupt state to a value previously returned by the

__get_interrupt_state function.

For information about the __istate_t type, see __get_interrupt_state, page 334.

__sleep

Syntax void __sleep(void);

Description Inserts a SLEEP instruction.

__swap_nibbles

Syntax unsigned char __swap_nibbles(unsigned char);

Description Swaps bit 0-3 with bit 4-7 of the parameter and returns the swapped value.

__watchdog_reset

Syntax void __watchdog_reset(void);

Description Inserts a watchdog reset instruction.

__xch

Syntax unsigned char __xch(unsigned char, unsigned char *);

Description Provides access to the XCH (Exchange) instruction.

Descriptions of intrinsic functions

The preprocessor

- Overview of the preprocessor
- Description of predefined preprocessor symbols
- Descriptions of miscellaneous preprocessor extensions

Overview of the preprocessor

The preprocessor of the IAR C/C++ Compiler for AVR adheres to Standard C. 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 more information, see *Description of predefined preprocessor symbols*, page 342.
- 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 236.
- Preprocessor extensions
 - There are several preprocessor extensions, for example many pragma directives; for more information, see the chapter *Pragma directives*. For information about the corresponding _Pragma operator and the other extensions related to the preprocessor, see *Descriptions of miscellaneous preprocessor extensions*, page 349.
- Preprocessor output
 - Use the option --preprocess to direct preprocessor output to a named file, see --preprocess, page 261.

To specify a path for an include file, use forward slashes:

```
#include "mydirectory/myfile"
```

In source code, use forward slashes:

```
file = fopen("mydirectory/myfile","rt");
```

Note that backslashes can also be used. In this case, use one in include file paths and two in source code strings.

Description of predefined preprocessor symbols

This section lists and describes the preprocessor symbols.

BASE FILE

Description A string that identifies the name of the base source file (that is, not the header file), being

compiled.

See also FILE, page 343, and --no path in file macros, page 255.

__BUILD_NUMBER__

Description 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.

__CORE__

Description An integer that identifies the processor variant in use. The value reflects the setting of

the processor option -vn,

__COUNTER_

Description A macro that expands to a new integer each time it is expanded, starting at zero (0) and

counting up.

__cplusplus

Description 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.

This symbol is required by Standard C.

__CPU__

Description A symbol that identifies the processor variant in use. The value reflects the setting of the

processor option -vn,

__DATE__

Description A string that identifies the date of compilation, which is returned in the form "Mmm dd

yyyy", for example "Oct 30 2014"

This symbol is required by Standard C.

__device__

Description An integer that identifies the processor variant in use. The value reflects the setting of

the --cpu option. *device* corresponds exactly to the device name, except for FpSLic, which uses the predefined symbol __AT94Kxx__. For example, the symbol is

__AT90S2313__ when the --cpu=2313 option is used, and __ATmega163__, when

--cpu=m163 is used.

__DOUBLE__

Description An integer that identifies the size of the data type double. The symbol is defined to 32

or 64, depending on the setting of the option --64bit_doubles.

__embedded_cplusplus

Description 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.

This symbol is required by Standard C.

__FILE__

Description A string that identifies the name of the file being compiled, which can be both the base

source file and any included header file.

This symbol is required by Standard C.

See also BASE FILE, page 342, and --no path in file macros, page 255.

__func__

Description A predefined string identifier that is initialized with 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.

This symbol is required by Standard C.

See also -e, page 244 and PRETTY FUNCTION, page 346.

FUNCTION

Description A predefined string identifier that is initialized with 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 also -e, page 244 and __PRETTY_FUNCTION__, page 346.

__HAS_EEPROM_

Description A symbol that determines whether there is internal EEPROM available or not. When this

symbol is defined, there is internal EEPROM available. When this symbol is not

defined, there is no EEPROM available.

_HAS_EIND__

Description A symbol that determines whether the instruction EIND is available or not. When this

symbol is defined, the instruction EIND is available. When this symbol is not defined,

the EIND instruction is not available.

__HAS_ELPM__

Description A symbol that determines whether the instruction ELPM is available or not. When this

symbol is defined, the instruction ELPM is available. When this symbol is not defined,

the ELPM instruction is not available.

__HAS_ENHANCED_CORE__

Description A symbol that determines whether the enhanced core is used or not. The symbol reflects

the --enhanced_core option and is defined when the enhanced core is used. When

this symbol is not defined, the enhanced core is not used.

__HAS_FISCR__

Description A symbol that determines whether the instruction FISCR is available or not. When this

symbol is defined, the instruction FISCR is available. When this symbol is not defined,

the FISCR instruction is not available.

__HAS_MUL__

Description A symbol that determines whether the instruction MUL is available or not. When this

symbol is defined, the instruction ${\tt MUL}$ is available. When this symbol is not defined, the

MUL instruction is not available.

__HAS_RAMPD__

Description A symbol that determines whether the register RAMPD is available or not. When this

symbol is defined, the register RAMPD is available. When this symbol is not defined, the

RAMPD register is not available.

__HAS_RAMPX__

Description A symbol that determines whether the register RAMPX is available or not. When this

symbol is defined, the register RAMPX is available. When this symbol is not defined, the

RAMPX register is not available.

__HAS_RAMPY__

Description A symbol that determines whether the register RAMPY is available or not. When this

symbol is defined, the register RAMPY is available. When this symbol is not defined, the

RAMPY register is not available.

__HAS_RAMPZ__

Description A symbol that determines whether the register RAMPZ is available or not. When this

symbol is defined, the register RAMPZ is available. When this symbol is not defined, the

RAMPZ register is not available.

IAR SYSTEMS ICC

Description An integer that identifies the IAR compiler platform. The current value is 9. 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.

__ICCAVR__

Description An integer that is set to 1 when the code is compiled with the IAR C/C++ Compiler for

AVR.

__LINE__

Description 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.

This symbol is required by Standard C.

__LITTLE_ENDIAN_

Description An integer that reflects the byte order and is defined to 1 (little-endian).

__MEMORY_MODEL__

Description An integer that identifies the memory model in use. The value reflects the setting of the

--memory_model option and is defined to 1 for the Tiny memory model, 2 for the Small memory model, 3 for the Large memory model, and 4 for the Huge memory model.

__PRETTY_FUNCTION__

Description A predefined string identifier that is initialized with 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 also

-e, page 244 and *func* , page 344.

__STDC__

Description

An integer that is set to 1, which means the compiler adheres to Standard C. This symbol can be tested with #ifdef to detect whether the compiler in use adheres to Standard C.*

This symbol is required by Standard C.

__STDC_VERSION__

Description

An integer that identifies the version of the C standard in use. The symbol expands to 199901L,unless the --c89 compiler option is used in which case the symbol expands to 199409L. This symbol does not apply in EC++ mode.

This symbol is required by Standard C.

SUBVERSION

Description

An integer that identifies the subversion number of the compiler version number, for example 3 in 1.2.3.4.

__TID__

Description

A symbol that expands to the target identifier which contains these parts:

- t, a target identifier, which is unique for each IAR compiler. For the AVR microcontroller, the target identifier is 9.0.
- c, the value of the --cpu or -v option.
- m, the value reflects the setting of the --memory_model option; the value is defined to 1 for Tiny, 2 for Small, 3 for Large, and 4 for Huge.

The __TID__ value is constructed as:

```
((t << 8) | (c << 4) | m)
```

You can extract the values as follows:

```
t = (__TID__ >> 8) & 0x7F; /* target id */
c = (__TID__ >> 4) & 0x0F; /* cpu core */
```

```
m = \__TID\__ \& 0x0F; /* memory model */
```

To find the value of the target identifier for the current compiler, execute:

```
printf("%ld", (__TID__ >> 8) & 0x7F)
```

Note: The use of __TID__ is not recommended. We recommend that you use the symbols __ICCAVR__ and __CORE__ instead.

__TIME__

Description A string that identifies the time of compilation in the form "hh:mm:ss".

This symbol is required by Standard C.

__TIMESTAMP__

Description A string constant that identifies the date and time of the last modification of the current

source file. The format of the string is the same as that used by the asctime standard function (in other words, "Tue Sep 16 13:03:52 2014").

__TINY_AVR__

Description A symbol that determines whether the reduced tiny AVR core is used or not. When this

symbol is defined, the reduced tiny AVR core is used. When this symbol is not defined,

the reduced tiny AVR core is not used.

__VER__

Description 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 of $__{\text{VER}}$ is

334.

__VERSION_I_CALLS__

Description A symbol that expands to 1 if the used calling convention is the old calling convention

used in compiler version 1.x. If zero, the new calling convention is used. For more

information about calling conventions, see Calling convention, page 155.

__XMEGA_CORE__

Description

A symbol that determines whether the xmega core is used or not. When this symbol is defined, the xmega core is used. When this symbol is not defined, the xmega core is not used.

_XMEGA_USB__

Description

A symbol that determines whether the xmega usb core is used or not. When this symbol is defined, the xmega usb core is used. When this symbol is not defined, the xmega usb core is not used.

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 Standard C 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.

See also *Assert*, page 129.

#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 Standard C #error directive is used. This directive is not recognized when the --strict compiler option is used.

Library functions

- Library overview
- IAR DLIB Library
- IAR CLIB Library
- AVR-specific library functions

For detailed reference information about the library functions, see the online help system.

Library overview

The compiler comes with two different libraries.

The IAR DLIB Library is a complete library, compliant with Standard 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, etc.

The IAR CLIB Library is a light-weight library, which is not fully compliant with Standard C. Neither does it fully support floating-point numbers in IEEE 754 format and it does not support C++.

For more information about customization, see the chapter *The DLIB runtime environment* and *The CLIB runtime environment*, respectively.

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 more information about library functions, see the chapter *Implementation-defined* behavior for Standard C 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 project configuration*, page 48. The linker will include only those routines that are required—directly or indirectly—by your application.

ALTERNATIVE MORE ACCURATE LIBRARY FUNCTIONS

The default implementation of cos, sin, tan, and pow is designed to be fast and small. As an alternative, there are versions designed to provide better accuracy. They are named __iar_xxx_accuratef for float variants of the functions and __iar_xxx_accuratel for long double variants of the functions, and where xxx is cos, sin, etc.

To use any of these more accurate versions, use the -e linker option.

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 the following functions and parts are not reentrant because they need static data:

- Heap functions—malloc, free, realloc, calloc, and the C++ operators new and delete
- Locale functions—localeconv, setlocale
- Multibyte functions—mbrlen, mbrtowc, mbsrtowc, mbtowc, wcrtomb, wcsrtomb, wctomb
- Rand functions—rand, srand
- Time functions—asctime, localtime, gmtime, mktime
- The miscellaneous functions atexit, strerror, strtok
- Functions that use files or the heap in some way. This includes scanf, sscanf, getchar, and putchar. In addition, if you are using the options --enable_multibyte and --dlib_config=Full, the printf and sprintf functions (or any variants) can also use the heap.

For the CLIB library, the quest function and functions that use files in some way are non-reentrant. This includes printf, scanf, getchar, and putchar. However, the functions sprintf and sucanf are reentrant.

Functions that can set errno are not reentrant, because an errno value resulting from one of these functions can be destroyed by a subsequent use of the function before it is read. This applies to math and string conversion functions, among others.

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.

THE LONGJMP FUNCTION



A longjmp is in effect a jump to a previously defined setjmp. Any variable length arrays or C++ objects residing on the stack during stack unwinding will not be destroyed. This can lead to resource leaks or incorrect application behavior.

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 Standard C. The library supports most of the hosted functionality, but you must implement some of its base functionality. For additional information, see the chapter *Implementation-defined behavior for Standard C* in this guide.
- Standard C library definitions, for user programs.
- C++ library definitions, for user programs.
- CSTARTUP, the module containing the start-up code, see 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 AVR features. See the chapter Intrinsic functions for more information.
- Special compiler support for accessing strings in flash memory, see AVR-specific library functions, page 360.

In addition, the IAR DLIB Library includes some added C functionality, see *Added C functionality*, page 357.

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 *Using C*.

This table lists the C header files:

Header file	Usage
assert.h	Enforcing assertions when functions execute
complex.h	Computing common complex mathematical functions
ctype.h	Classifying characters
errno.h	Testing error codes reported by library functions
fenv.h	Floating-point exception flags
float.h	Testing floating-point type properties
inttypes.h	Defining formatters for all types defined in 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
tgmath.h	Type-generic mathematical functions
time.h	Converting between various time and date formats
uchar.h	Unicode functionality (IAR extension to Standard C)
wchar.h	Support for wide characters
wctype.h	Classifying wide characters

Table 44: Traditional Standard C header files—DLIB

C++ HEADER FILES

This section lists the C++ header files:

- The C++ library header files
 The header files that constitute the Embedded C++ library.
- The C++ standard template library (STL) header files

 The header files that constitute STL for the Extended Embedded C++ library.
- The C++ C header files

 The C++ header files that provide the resources from the C library.

The C++ library header files

This table lists the header files that can be used in Embedded C++:

Header file	Usage
complex	Defining a class that supports complex arithmetic
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
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 45: C++ header files

The C++ standard template library (STL) header files

The following table lists the standard template library (STL) header files that can be used in Extended Embedded C++:

Header file	Description
algorithm	Defines several common operations on sequences

Table 46: Standard template library header files

Header file	Description
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 46: Standard template library header files (Continued)

Using Standard C libraries in C++

The C++ library works in conjunction with some 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.

This 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 ${\tt stdint.h}$
climits	Testing integer type properties
clocale	Adapting to different cultural conventions
cmath	Computing common mathematical functions
csetjmp	Executing non-local goto statements

Table 47: New Standard C header files—DLIB

Header file	Usage
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 47: 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 memopy, memset, and strcat.

ADDED C FUNCTIONALITY

The IAR DLIB Library includes some added C functionality.

The following include files provide these features:

- fenv.h
- stdio.h
- stdlib.h
- string.h

fenv.h

In fenv.h, trap handling support for floating-point numbers is defined with the functions fegettrapenable and fegettrapdisable. No floating-point status flags are supported.

stdio.h

These functions provide additional I/O functionality:

fdopen Opens a file based on a low-level file descriptor.

fileno Gets the low-level file descriptor from the file descriptor

(FILE*).

__gets Corresponds to fgets on stdin.

getw Gets a wchar_t character from stdin.

putw Puts a wchar_t character to stdout.

string.h

These are the additional functions defined in string.h:

strdup Duplicates a string on the heap.

strcasecmp Compares strings case-insensitive.

strncasecmp Compares strings case-insensitive and bounded.

strnlen Bounded string length.

time.h

There are two interfaces for using time_t and the associated functions time, ctime, difftime, gmtime, localtime, and mktime:

- The 32-bit interface supports years from 1900 up to 2035 and uses a 32-bit integer
 for time_t. The type and function have names like __time32_t, __time32, etc.
 This variant is mainly available for backwards compatibility.
- The 64-bit interface supports years from -9999 up to 9999 and uses a signed long long for time_t. The type and function have names like __time64_t, __time64, etc.

In both interfaces, time_t starts at the year 1970.

The interfaces are defined in the system header file time.h.

An application can use either interface, and even mix them by explicitly using the 32-or 64-bit variants. By default, the library and the header redirect time_t, time etc. to the 32-bit variants. However, to explicitly redirect them to their 64-bit variants, define _DLIB_TIME_USES_64 in front of the inclusion of time.h or ctime.

See also, Time, page 126.

clock_t is represented by a 32-bit integer type.

SYMBOLS USED INTERNALLY BY THE LIBRARY

The following symbols are used by the library, which means that they are visible in library source files, etc:

```
__assignment_by_bitwise_copy_allowed
```

This symbol determines properties for class objects.

```
__constrange()
```

Determines the allowed range for a parameter to an intrinsic function and that the parameter must be of type const.

```
__construction_by_bitwise_copy_allowed
```

This symbol determines properties for class objects.

```
__has_constructor, __has_destructor
```

These symbols determine properties for class objects and they function like the sizeof operator. The symbols are true when a class, base class, or member (recursively) has a user-defined constructor or destructor, respectively.

```
__memory_of
```

Determines the class memory. A class memory determines which memory a class object can reside in. This symbol can only occur in class definitions as a class memory.

Note: The symbols are reserved and should only be used by the library.

Use the compiler option --predef_macros to determine the value for any predefined symbols.

IAR CLIB Library

The IAR CLIB Library provides most of the important C library definitions that apply to embedded systems. These are of the following types:

- Standard C library definitions available for user programs. These are documented in this chapter.
- The system startup code; see the chapter *The CLIB runtime environment* in this guide.
- Runtime support libraries; for example low-level floating-point routines.
- Intrinsic functions, allowing low-level use of AVR features. See the chapter *Intrinsic functions* for more information.

• Special compiler support for accessing strings in flash memory, see *AVR-specific library functions*, page 360.

LIBRARY DEFINITIONS SUMMARY

This table lists the header files specific to the CLIB library:

Header file	Description
assert.h	Assertions
ctype.h*	Character handling
errno.h	Error return values
float.h	Limits and sizes of floating-point types
iccbutl.h	Low-level routines
limits.h	Limits and sizes of integral types
math.h	Mathematics
setjmp.h	Non-local jumps
stdarg.h	Variable arguments
stdbool.h	Adds support for the bool data type in C
stddef.h	Common definitions including size_t, NULL,
	ptrdiff_t, and offsetof
stdio.h	Input/output
stdlib.h	General utilities
string.h	String handling

Table 48: IAR CLIB Library header files

AVR-specific library functions

This section lists the AVR—specific library functions declared in pgmspace.h that allow access to strings in flash memory. The _P functions allow access to strings in flash memory only. The _G functions use the __generic pointer instead, which means that they allow access to both flash and data memory. Both the _P functions and the _G functions are available in both the IAR CLIB Library and the IAR DLIB Library.

^{*} The functions isxxx, toupper, and tolower declared in the header file ctype.h evaluate their argument more than once. This is not according to the ISO/ANSI standard.

memcmp_G

Syntax int memcmp_G(const void *s1, const void __generic *s2, size_t

n);

Description Identical to memcmp except that s2 can be located in flash or data memory.

memcpy_G

Syntax void * memcpy_G(void *s1, const void __generic *s2, size_t n);

Description Identical to memory except that it copies string s2 in flash or data memory to the

location that s1 points to in data memory.

memcpy_P

Syntax void * memcpy_P(void *s1, PGM_P s2, size_t n);

Description Identical to memory except that it copies string s2 in flash memory to the location that

s1 points to in data memory.

printf_P

Syntax int printf_P(PGM_P __format,...);

Description Similar to printf except that the format string is in flash memory, not in data memory.

For information about how to override default formatter, see Manually specifying the

printf formatter from the command line, page 105.

puts_G

Description Identical to puts except that the string to be written can be in flash *or* data memory.

puts_P

Syntax int puts_P(PGM_P __s);

Description Identical to puts except that the string to be written is in flash memory, not in data

memory.

scanf P

Syntax int scanf_P(PGM_P __format,...);

Description Identical to scanf except that the format string is in flash memory, not in data memory.

For information about how to override the default formatter, see Manually specifying the

scanf formatter from the command line, page 107.

sprintf P

Syntax int sprintf_P(char *__s, PGM_P __format,...);

Description Identical to sprintf except that the format string is in flash memory, not in data

memory.

sscanf P

Syntax int sscanf_P(const char *__s, PGM_P __format,...);

Description Identical to sscanf except that the format string is in flash memory, not in data memory.

strcat G

Syntax char *strcat_G(char *s1, const char __generic *s2);

Description Identical to streat except that string s2 can be in flash or data memory.

strcmp_G

Syntax int strcmp_G(const char *s1, const char __generic *s2);

Description Identical to strcmp except that string s2 can be in flash *or* data memory.

strcmp_P

Syntax int strcmp_P(const char *s1, PGM_P s2);

Description Identical to strcmp except that string s2 is in flash memory, not in data memory.

strcpy_G

Syntax char *strcpy_G(char *s1, const char __generic *s2);

Description Identical to stropy except that the string s2 being copied can be in flash or data

memory.

strcpy_P

Syntax char * strcpy_P(char *s1, PGM_P s2);

Description Identical to stropy except that the string s2 being copied is in flash memory, not in data

memory.

strerror P

Syntax PGM_P strerror_P(int errnum);

Description Identical to strerror except that the string returned is in flash memory, not in data

memory.

strlen_G

Syntax size_t strlen_G(const char __generic *s);

Description Identical to strlen except that the string being tested can be in flash *or* data memory.

strlen P

Syntax size_t strlen_P(PGM_P s);

Description Identical to strlen except that the string being tested is in flash memory, not in data

memory.

strncat_G

Syntax char *strncat_G(char *s1, const char __generic *s2, size_t n);

Description Identical to strncmp except that the string s2 can be in flash or data memory.

strncmp_G

Syntax int strncmp_G(const char *s1, const char __generic *s2, size_t

n);

Description Identical to strngmp except that the string s2 can be in flash or data memory.

strncmp_P

Syntax int strncmp_P(const char *s1, PGM_P s2, size_t n);

Description Identical to strncmp except that the string s2 is in flash memory, not in data memory.

strncpy_G

Syntax char *strncpy_G(char *s1, const char __generic *s2, size_t n);

Description Identical to strnepy except that the source string s2 can be in flash or data memory.

strncpy_P

Syntax char * strncpy_P(char *s1, PGM_P s2, size_t n);

Description Identical to strncpy except that the source string s2 is in flash memory, not in data

memory.

Segment reference

- Summary of segments
- Descriptions of segments

For more information about placement of segments, see the chapter *Linking* your application.

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.
CODE	Holds the program code.
CSTACK	Holds the stack used by C or C++ programs.
DIFUNCT	Holds pointers to code, typically C++ constructors, that should be executed by the system startup code before main is called.
EEPROM_I	Holdseeprom static and global initialized variables.
EEPROM_N	Holdsno_initeeprom static and global variables.
FARCODE	Holds program code declaredfarfunc.
FAR_C	Holdsfar constant data.
FAR_F	Holds static and globalfarflash variables.
FAR_HEAP	Holds the heap used for dynamically allocated data in far memory using the DLIB library.
FAR_I	Holdsfar static and global initialized variables.
FAR_ID	Holds initial values forfar static and global variables in FAR_I.
FAR_N	Holdsno_initfar static and global variables.
FAR_Z	Holds zero-initializedfar static and global variables.
HEAP	Holds the heap used for dynamically allocated data using the CLIB library.
HUGE_C	Holdshuge constant data.
HUGE_F	Holds static and globalhugeflash variables.
HUGE_HEAP	Holds the heap used for dynamically allocated data in huge memory using the DLIB library.

Table 49: Segment summary

Segment	Description
HUGE_I	Holdshuge static and global initialized variables.
HUGE_ID	Holds initial values for $__\mathtt{huge}$ static and global variables in $\mathtt{HUGE}_\mathtt{I}.$
HUGE_N	Holdsno_inithuge static and global variables.
HUGE_Z	Holds zero-initializedhuge static and global variables.
INITTAB	Contains compiler-generated table entries that describe the segment initialization that will be performed at system startup.
INTVEC	Contains the reset and interrupt vectors.
NEAR_C	Holdstiny andnear constant data.
NEAR_F	Holds static and globalflash variables.
NEAR_HEAP	Holds the heap used for dynamically allocated data in near memory using the DLIB library.
NEAR_I	Holdsnear static and global initialized variables.
NEAR_ID	Holds initial values fornear static and global variables in <code>NEAR_I</code> .
NEAR_N	Holdsno_initnear static and global variables.
NEAR_Z	Holds zero-initializednear static and global variables.
RSTACK	Holds the internal return stack.
SWITCH	Holds switch tables for all functions.
TINY_F	Holds static and globaltinyflash variables.
TINY_HEAP	Holds the heap used for dynamically allocated data in tiny memory using the DLIB library.
TINY_I	Holdstiny static and global initialized variables.
TINY_ID	Holds initial values for $__\texttt{tiny}$ static and global variables in $\texttt{TINY}_\texttt{I}$.
TINY_N	Holdsno_inittiny static and global variables.
TINY_Z	Holds zero-initialized $__tiny$ static and global variables.

Table 49: 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. For information about these directives, see *Using the -Z command for sequential placement*, page 89 and *Using the -P command for packed placement*, page 89, respectively.

For each segment, the segment memory type is specified, which indicates in which type of memory the segment should be placed; see *Segment memory type*, page 72.

For information about how to define segments in the linker configuration file, see *Linking your application*, page 87.

For more information about the extended keywords mentioned here, see the chapter *Extended keywords*.

CHECKSUM

Description Holds the checksum bytes generated by the linker. This segment also holds the

__checksum symbol. Note that the size of this segment is affected by the linker option

-J.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in ROM memory.

Access type Read-only

CODE

Description Holds __nearfunc program code, except the code for system initialization.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement Flash. This segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0x01FFFE.

Access type Read-only

CSTACK

Description Holds the internal data stack.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement Data. The address range depends on the memory model:

In the Tiny memory model, this segment must be placed within the address range

0x0-0xFF.

In the Small memory model, this segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0xFFFF.

In the Large and Huge memory models, this segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0xffffff. In the Large and Huge memory models, the stack can be a maximum of 64 Kbytes, and CSTACK must not cross a 64-Kbyte boundary.

Access type Read-write

See also Setting up stack memory, page 91 and RSTACK, page 377.

DIFUNCT

Description Holds the dynamic initialization vector used by C++.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement This segment must be placed in the first 64 Kbytes of memory.

Access type Read-only

EEPROM I

Description Holds __eeprom static and global initialized variables initialized by copying from the

segment EEPROM_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 configuration file, the -Z directive must be used.

This segment is not copied to EEPROM during system startup. Instead it is used for

programming the EEPROM during the download of the code.

Segment memory type XDATA

Memory placement This segment must be placed in EEPROM. Use the command line option

--eeprom_size to set the address range for this segment.

Access type Read-only

See also --eeprom size, page 245

EEPROM_N

Description Holds static and global __no_init __eeprom variables.

Segment memory type XDATA

Memory placement This segment must be placed in EEPROM. Use the command line option

--eeprom_size to set the address range for this segment.

Access type Read-only

See also --eeprom size, page 245

FARCODE

Description Holds __farfunc program code. The __farfunc memory attribute is available when

using the -v5 and -v6 options, in which case the __farfunc is implicitly used for all

functions.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement This segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0x7FFFFE in flash memory.

Access type Read-only

FAR C

Description Holds __far constant data. This can include constant variables, string and aggregate

literals, etc.

Note: This segment is located in external ROM. Systems without external ROM cannot

use this segment.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement External ROM. This segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0xFFFFFFF.

Access type Read-only

FAR F

Description Holds the static and global __farflash variables and aggregate initializers.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement Flash. This segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0x7FFFFF.

Access type Read-only

FAR_HEAP

Description Holds the heap used for dynamically allocated data in far memory, in other words data

allocated by far_malloc and far_free, and in C++, new and delete.

Note: This segment is only used when you use the DLIB library.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement Data. This segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0xfffffff.

Access type Read-write

See also Setting up heap memory, page 92 and New and Delete operators, page 181.

FAR I

Description Holds __far static and global initialized variables initialized by copying from the

segment FAR_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 configuration file, the -z directive must be used.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement Data. This segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0xFFFFFF.

Access type Read-write

FAR_ID

Description Holds initial values for __far static and global variables in the FAR_I segment. These

values are copied from FAR_ID to FAR_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 configuration file, the -z directive must be used.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement Flash. This segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0x7FFFFFF.

Access type Read-only

FAR N

Description Holds static and global __no_init __far variables.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement Data. This segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0xfffffff.

Access type Read-write

FAR Z

Description Holds zero-initialized __far static and global variables. The contents of this segment

is declared by the system 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 configuration file, the -z directive must be used.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement Data. This segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0xfffffff.

Access type Read-write

HEAP

Description Holds the heap used for dynamically allocated data, in other words data allocated by

malloc and free.

Note: This segment is only used when you use the CLIB library.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement Data. The address range depends on the memory model.

In the Tiny memory model, this segment must be placed within the address range

 $0 \times 0 - 0 \times FF$.

In the Small memory model, this segment must be placed within the address range

0x0-0xFFFF.

In the Large and Huge memory models, this segment must be placed within the address

range 0x0-0xFFFFFF.

Access type Read-write

See also Setting up heap memory, page 92 and New and Delete operators, page 181.

HUGE C

Description Holds __huge constant data. This can include constant variables, string and aggregate

literals, etc.

Note: This segment is located in external ROM. Systems without external ROM cannot

use this segment.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement External ROM. This segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0xfffffff.

Access type Read-only

HUGE_F

Description Holds the static and global __hugeflash variables and aggregate initializers.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement Flash. This segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0xfFfffff.

Access type Read-only

HUGE HEAP

Description Holds the heap used for dynamically allocated data in huge memory, in other words data

allocated by huge_malloc and huge_free, and in C++, new and delete.

Note: This segment is only used when you use the DLIB library.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement Data. This segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0xfffffff.

Access type Read-write

See also Setting up heap memory, page 92 and New and Delete operators, page 181.

HUGE I

Description Holds __huge static and global initialized variables initialized by copying from the

segment HUGE_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 configuration file, the -z directive must be used.

When the -y compiler option is used, __huge constant data is located in this segment.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement Data. This segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0xfffffff.

Access type Read-write

HUGE_ID

Description Holds initial values for __huge static and global variables in the HUGE_I segment.

These values are copied from HUGE_ID to HUGE_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 configuration file, the -z directive must be used.

CODE Segment memory type

Memory placement Flash. This segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0x7FFFFF.

Access type Read-only

HUGE N

Description Holds static and global __no_init __huge variables.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement Data. This segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0xffffff.

Access type Read-write

HUGE Z

Description Holds zero-initialized __huge static and global variables. The contents of this segment

is declared by the system 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 configuration file, the -Z directive must be used.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement Data. This segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0xffffff.

Read-write Access type

INITTAB

Description Holds compiler-generated table entries that describe the segment initialization which

will be performed at system startup.

Segment memory type CODE Memory placement Flash. This segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0xFFFFF (0x7FFFFFF

if farflash is enabled).

Access type Read-only

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 CODE

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in memory.

Access type Read-only

NEAR_C

Description Holds __tiny and __near constant data. This can include constant variables, string

and aggregate literals, etc. TINY_I is copied from this segment, because TINY_C is not

a possible segment.

Note: This segment is located in external ROM. Systems without external ROM cannot

use this segment.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement External ROM. This segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0xFFFF.

Access type Read-only

NEAR F

Description Holds the static and global __flash variables and aggregate initializers.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement Flash. This segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0xffff.

Access type Read-only

NEAR HEAP

Description Holds the heap used for dynamically allocated data in near memory, in other words data

allocated by near_malloc and near_free, and in C++, new and delete.

Note: This segment is only used when you use the DLIB library.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement Data. This segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0xFFFF.

Access type Read-write

See also Setting up heap memory, page 92 and New and Delete operators, page 181.

NEAR I

Description Holds __near static and global initialized variables initialized by copying from the

segment NEAR_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 configuration file, the -z directive must be used.

When the -y compiler option is used, NEAR C data (near) is located in this segment.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement Data. This segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0xFFFF.

Access type Read-write

NEAR ID

Description Holds initial values for __near static and global variables in the NEAR_I segment.

These values are copied from NEAR_ID to NEAR_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 configuration file, the -Z directive must be used.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement Flash. This segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0x7FFFFF.

Access type Read-only

NEAR N

Description Holds static and global __no_init __near variables.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement Data. This segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0xFFFF.

Access type Read-write

NEAR Z

Description Holds zero-initialized __near static and global variables. The contents of this segment

is declared by the system 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 configuration file, the -z directive must be used.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement Data. This segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0xFFFF.

Access type Read-write

RSTACK

Description Holds the internal return stack.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement Data. This segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0xFFFF.

Access type Read-write

See also *CSTACK*, page 367

SWITCH

Description Holds switch tables for all functions.

The SWITCH segment is for compiler internal use only and should always be defined. The segment allocates, if necessary, jump tables for C/C++ switch statements.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement Flash. This segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0xFFFF. If the

__farflash extended keyword and the --enhanced_core option are used, the segment must be placed within the range 0x0-0x7FFFFF. This segment must not cross

a 64-Kbyte boundary.

Access type Read-only

TINY F

Description Holds the static and global __tinyflash variables and aggregate initializers.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement Flash. This segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0xFF.

Access type Read-only

TINY_HEAP

Description Holds the heap used for dynamically allocated data in tiny memory, in other words data

allocated by tiny_malloc and tiny_free, and in C++, new and delete.

Note: This segment is only used when you use the DLIB library.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement Data. This segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0xFF.

Access type Read-write

See also Setting up heap memory, page 92 and New and Delete operators, page 181.

TINY_I

Description Holds __tiny static and global initialized variables initialized by copying from the

segment TINY_ID at application startup.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the $\neg P$ directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker configuration file, the ${\scriptscriptstyle -Z}$ directive must be used.

When the -y compiler option is used, NEAR_C data is located in this segment.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement Data. This segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0xFF.

Access type Read-write

TINY ID

Description Holds initial values for __tiny static and global variables in the TINY_I segment.

These values are copied from TINY_ID to TINY_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 configuration file, the -Z directive must be used.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement Flash. This segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0x7FFFFF.

Access type Read-only

TINY N

Description Holds static and global __no_init __tiny variables.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement Data. This segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0xFF.

Access type Read-write

TINY_Z

Description Holds zero-initialized __tiny static and global variables. The contents of this segment

is declared by the system 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 configuration file, the -z directive must be used.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement Data. This segment must be placed within the address range 0x0-0xFF.

Access type Read-write

The stack usage control file

- Overview
- Stack usage control directives
- Syntactic components

Before you read this chapter, see Stack usage analysis, page 78.

Overview

A stack usage control file consists of a sequence of directives that control stack usage analysis. You can use C("/*...*/") and C++("//...") comments in these files.

The default filename extension for stack usage control files is suc.

C++ NAMES

You can also use wildcards in function names. "#*" matches any sequence of characters, and "#?" matches a single character.

Stack usage control directives

This section gives detailed reference information about each stack usage control directive.

call graph root directive

Syntax call graph root [category] : func-spec [, func-spec...];

Parameters

category See category, page 385

func-spec See func-spec, page 385

Description Specifies that the listed functions are call graph roots. You can optionally specify a call

graph root category. Call graph roots are listed under their category in the Stack Usage

chapter in the linker map file.

The linker will normally issue a warning for functions needed in the application that are

not call graph roots and which do not appear to be called.

Example call graph root [task]: MyFunc10, MyFunc11;

See also *call graph root*, page 312.

check that directive

Syntax check that expression;

Parameters

expression A boolean expression.

Description You can use the check that directive to compare the results of stack usage analysis

against the sizes of blocks and regions. If the expression evaluates to zero, an error is

emitted.

Three extra operators are available for use only in check that expressions:

maxstack(category, stack) The stack depth of stack in the deepest call chain for

any call graph root function in the category.

totalstack(category, The sum of the stack depths of the deepest call chains

stack)

for each call graph root function in the category.

size("SEGMENT") The size of the segment.

Example check that maxstack("Program entry", CSTACK)

+ totalstack("interrupt", RSTACK)

+ 1K

<= size("CSTACK");

In the example, maxstack is the deepest call chain of the program on the CSTACK stack

plus the total stack usage on the RSTACK stack plus 1024.

See also Stack usage analysis, page 78.

exclude directive

Syntax exclude func-spec [, func-spec...];

Parameters

func-spec See func-spec, page 385

Description Excludes the specified functions, and call trees originating with them, from stack usage

calculations.

Example exclude MyFunc5, MyFunc6;

function directive

Syntax [override] function [category] func-spec : stack-size

[, call-info...];

Parameters

category, page 385

func-spec See func-spec, page 385
call-info See call-info, page 386

stack-size See stack-size, page 387

Description Specifies what the maximum stack usage is in a function and which other functions that

are called from that function.

Normally, an error is issued if there already is stack usage information for the function, but if you start with override, the error will be suppressed and the information

supplied in the directive will be used instead of the previous information.

Example function MyOtherFunc: (CSTACK 8, RSTACK 2);

function [interrupt] MyInterruptHandler: (CSTACK 44, RSTACK 4);

max recursion depth directive

Syntax max recursion depth func-spec : size;

Parameters

func-spec See func-spec, page 385

size See *size*, page 387

Description Specifies the maximum number of iterations through any of the cycles in the recursion

nest of which the function is a member.

A recursion nest is a set of cycles in the call graph where each cycle shares at least one node with another cycle in the nest.

Stack usage analysis will base its result on the max recursion depth multiplied by the stack usage of the deepest cycle in the nest. If the nest is not entered on a point along one of the deepest cycles, no stack usage result will be calculated for such calls.

Example max recursion depth MyFunc12: 10;

no calls from directive

Syntax no calls from module-spec to func-spec [, func-spec...];

Parameters

func-spec See func-spec, page 385

module-spec See module-spec, page 386

Description When you provide stack usage information for some functions in a module without

stack usage information, the linker warns about functions that are referenced from the module but not listed as called. This is primarily to help avoid problems with C runtime

routines, calls to which are generated by the compiler, beyond user control.

If there actually is no call to some of these functions, use the no calls from directive to selectively suppress the warning for the specified functions. You can also disable the

warning entirely (--diag_suppress or

Project>Options>Linker>Diagnostics>Suppress these diagnostics).

Example no calls from [file.r90] to MyFunc13, MyFun14;

possible calls directive

Syntax possible calls calling-func : called-func [, called-func...];

Parameters

calling-func See func-spec, page 385

called-func See func-spec, page 385

Description Specifies an exhaustive list of possible destinations for all indirect calls in one function.

Use this for functions which are known to perform indirect calls and where you know exactly which functions that might be called in this particular application. Consider

using the #pragma calls directive if the information about which functions that might

be called is available when compiling.

Example possible calls MyFunc7: MyFunc8, MyFunc9;

When the function does not perform any calls, the list is empty:

possible calls MyFunc8: ;

See also *calls*, page 312.

Syntactic components

The stack usage control directives use some syntactical components. These are described below.

category

Syntax [name]

Description A call graph root category. You can use any name you like. Categories are not

case-sensitive.

Example category examples:

[interrupt]
[task]

func-spec

Syntax [?] name [module-spec]

Description Specifies the name of a symbol, and for module-local symbols, the name of the module

it is defined in. Normally, if func-spec does not match a symbol in the program, a

warning is emitted. Prefixing with? suppresses this warning.

Example *func-spec* examples:

xFun

MyFun [file.r90]

module-spec

Syntax [name [(name)]]

Description

Specifies the name of a module, and optionally, in parentheses, the name of the library it belongs to. To distinguish between modules with the same name, you can specify:

- The complete path of the file ("D:\C1\test\file.o")
- As many path elements as are needed at the end of the path ("test\file.o")
- Some path elements at the start of the path, followed by "...", followed by some path elements at the end ("D:\...\file.o").

Note that when using multi-file compilation (--mfc), multiple files are compiled into a single module, named after the first file.

Example

module-spec examples:

```
[file.r90]
[file.r90(lib.a)]
["D:\C1\test\file.r90"]
```

name

Description

A name can be either an identifier or a quoted string.

The first character of an identifier must be either a letter or one of the characters "_", "s", or ".". The rest of the characters can also be digits.

A quoted string starts and ends with " and can contain any character. Two consecutive " characters can be used inside a quoted string to represent a single ".

Example

name examples:

```
MyFun
file.r90
"file-1.r90"
```

call-info

Syntax

calls func-spec [, func-spec...][: stack-size]

Description

Specifies one or more called functions, and optionally, the stack size at the calls.

Example call-info examples:

calls MyFunc1 : stack 16

calls MyFunc2, MyFunc3, MyFunc4

stack-size

(CSTACK size, RSTACK size) Syntax

Description Specifies the sizes of a stack frame.

Example stack-size examples:

(CSTACK 16, RSTACK 4)

size

A decimal integer, or 0x followed by a hexadecimal integer. Either alternative can Description

optionally be followed by a suffix indicating a power of two ($\text{K}=2^{10}$, $\text{M}=2^{20}$, $\text{G}=2^{30}$, $\text{T}=2^{40}$, $\text{P}=2^{50}$).

Example size examples:

> 24 0x18 2048 2K

Syntactic components

Implementation-defined behavior for Standard C

• Descriptions of implementation-defined behavior

If you are using C89 instead of Standard C, see *Implementation-defined behavior* for C89, page 405. For a short overview of the differences between Standard C and C89, see *C language overview*, page 167.

The text in this chapter applies to the DLIB library. Because the CLIB library does not follow Standard C, its implementation-defined behavior is not documented. For information about the CLIB library, see *The CLIB runtime* environment, page 141.

Descriptions of implementation-defined behavior

This section follows the same order as the C standard. Each item includes references to the ISO chapter and section (in parenthesis) that explains the implementation-defined behavior.

Note: The IAR Systems implementation adheres to a freestanding implementation of Standard C. This means that parts of a standard library can be excluded in the implementation.

J.3.1 TRANSLATION

Diagnostics (3.10, 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.

White-space characters (5.1.1.2)

At translation phase three, each non-empty sequence of white-space characters is retained.

J.3.2 ENVIRONMENT

The character set (5.1.1.2)

The source character set is the same as the physical source file multibyte character set. By default, the standard ASCII character set is used. However, if you use the __enable multibytes compiler option, the host character set is used instead.

Main (5.1.2.1)

The function called at program startup is called main. No prototype is 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 116.

The effect of program termination (5.1.2.1)

Terminating the application returns the execution to the startup code (just after the call to main).

Alternative ways to define main (5.1.2.2.1)

There is no alternative ways to define the main function.

The argy argument to main (5.1.2.2.1)

The argv argument is not supported.

Streams as interactive devices (5.1.2.3)

The streams stdin, stdout, and stderr are treated as interactive devices.

Signals, their semantics, and the default handling (7.14)

In the DLIB library, the set of supported signals is the same as in Standard C. A raised signal will do nothing, unless the signal function is customized to fit the application.

Signal values for computational exceptions (7.14.1.1)

In the DLIB library, there are no implementation-defined values that correspond to a computational exception.

Signals at system startup (7.14.1.1)

In the DLIB library, there are no implementation-defined signals that are executed at system startup.

Environment names (7.20.4.5)

In the DLIB library, there are no implementation-defined environment names that are used by the getenv function.

The system function (7.20.4.6)

The system function is not supported.

J.3.3 IDENTIFIERS

Multibyte characters in identifiers (6.4.2)

Additional multibyte characters may not appear in identifiers.

Significant characters in identifiers (5.2.4.1, 6.1.2)

The number of significant initial characters in an identifier with or without external linkage is guaranteed to be no less than 200.

J.3.4 CHARACTERS

Number of bits in a byte (3.6)

A byte contains 8 bits.

Execution character set member values (5.2.1)

The values of the members of the execution character set are the values of the ASCII character set, which can be augmented by the values of the extra characters in the host character set.

Alphabetic escape sequences (5.2.2)

The standard alphabetic escape sequences have the values a-7, b-8, f-12, n-10, r-13, t-9, and v-11.

Characters outside of the basic executive character set (6.2.5)

A character outside of the basic executive character set that is stored in a char is not transformed.

Plain char (6.2.5, 6.3.1.1)

A plain char is treated as an unsigned char.

Source and execution character sets (6.4.4.4, 5.1.1.2)

The source character set is the set of legal characters that can appear in source files. By default, the 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. By default, the 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 122.

Integer character constants with more than one character (6.4.4.4)

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.

Wide character constants with more than one character (6.4.4.4)

A wide character constant that contains more than one multibyte character generates a diagnostic message.

Locale used for wide character constants (6.4.4.4)

By default, the C locale is used. If the --enable_multibytes compiler option is used, the default host locale is used instead.

Locale used for wide string literals (6.4.5)

By default, the Clocale is used. If the --enable_multibytes compiler option is used, the default host locale is used instead.

Source characters as executive characters (6.4.5)

All source characters can be represented as executive characters.

J.3.5 INTEGERS

Extended integer types (6.2.5)

There are no extended integer types.

Range of integer values (6.2.6.2)

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.

For information about the ranges for the different integer types, see *Basic data types—integer types*, page 274.

The rank of extended integer types (6.3.1.1)

There are no extended integer types.

Signals when converting to a signed integer type (6.3.1.3)

No signal is raised when an integer is converted to a signed integer type.

Signed bitwise operations (6.5)

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.

J.3.6 FLOATING POINT

Accuracy of floating-point operations (5.2.4.2.2)

The accuracy of floating-point operations is unknown.

Rounding behaviors (5.2.4.2.2)

There are no non-standard values of FLT_ROUNDS.

Evaluation methods (5.2.4.2.2)

There are no non-standard values of FLT EVAL METHOD.

Converting integer values to floating-point values (6.3.1.4)

When an integral value is converted to a floating-point value that cannot exactly represent the source value, the round-to-nearest rounding mode is used (FLT_ROUNDS is defined to 1).

Converting floating-point values to floating-point values (6.3.1.5)

When a floating-point value is converted to a floating-point value that cannot exactly represent the source value, the round-to-nearest rounding mode is used (FLT_ROUNDS is defined to 1).

Denoting the value of floating-point constants (6.4.4.2)

The round-to-nearest rounding mode is used (FLT_ROUNDS is defined to 1).

Contraction of floating-point values (6.5)

Floating-point values are contracted. However, there is no loss in precision and because signaling is not supported, this does not matter.

Default state of FENV_ACCESS (7.6.1)

The default state of the pragma directive FENV_ACCESS is OFF.

Additional floating-point mechanisms (7.6, 7.12)

There are no additional floating-point exceptions, rounding-modes, environments, and classifications.

Default state of FP_CONTRACT (7.12.2)

The default state of the pragma directive FP_CONTRACT is OFF.

J.3.7 ARRAYS AND POINTERS

Conversion from/to pointers (6.3.2.3)

For information about casting of data pointers and function pointers, see *Casting*, page 280.

ptrdiff_t (6.5.6)

For information about ptrdiff_t, see *ptrdiff_t*, page 281.

J.3.8 HINTS

Honoring the register keyword (6.7.1)

User requests for register variables are not honored.

Inlining functions (6.7.4)

User requests for inlining functions increases the chance, but does not make it certain, that the function will actually be inlined into another function. See *Inlining functions*, page 68.

J.3.9 STRUCTURES, UNIONS, ENUMERATIONS, AND BITFIELDS

Sign of 'plain' bitfields (6.7.2, 6.7.2.1)

For information about how a 'plain' int bitfield is treated, see *Bitfields*, page 276.

Possible types for bitfields (6.7.2.1)

All integer types can be used as bitfields in the compiler's extended mode, see -e, page 244.

Bitfields straddling a storage-unit boundary (6.7.2.1)

A bitfield is always placed in one—and one only—storage unit, which means that the bitfield cannot straddle a storage-unit boundary.

Allocation order of bitfields within a unit (6.7.2.1)

For information about how bitfields are allocated within a storage unit, see *Bitfields*, page 276.

Alignment of non-bitfield structure members (6.7.2.1)

The alignment of non-bitfield members of structures is the same as for the member types, see *Alignment*, page 273.

Integer type used for representing enumeration types (6.7.2.2)

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.

J.3.10 QUALIFIERS

Access to volatile objects (6.7.3)

Any reference to an object with volatile qualified type is an access, see *Declaring objects volatile*, page 283.

J.3.11 PREPROCESSING DIRECTIVES

Mapping of header names (6.4.7)

Sequences in header names are mapped to source file names verbatim. A backslash '\' is not treated as an escape sequence. See *Overview of the preprocessor*, page 341.

Character constants in constant expressions (6.10.1)

A character constant in a constant expression that controls conditional inclusion matches the value of the same character constant in the execution character set.

The value of a single-character constant (6.10.1)

A single-character constant may only have a negative value if a plain character (char) is treated as a signed character, see --char is signed, page 235.

Including bracketed filenames (6.10.2)

For information about the search algorithm used for file specifications in angle brackets <>, see *Include file search procedure*, page 222.

Including quoted filenames (6.10.2)

For information about the search algorithm used for file specifications enclosed in quotes, see *Include file search procedure*, page 222.

Preprocessing tokens in #include directives (6.10.2)

Preprocessing tokens in an #include directive are combined in the same way as outside an #include directive.

Nesting limits for #include directives (6.10.2)

There is no explicit nesting limit for #include processing.

Universal character names (6.10.3.2)

Universal character names (UCN) are not supported.

Recognized pragma directives (6.10.6)

In addition to the pragma directives described in the chapter *Pragma directives*, the following directives are recognized and will have an indeterminate effect. If a pragma directive is listed both in the chapter *Pragma directives* and here, the information provided in the chapter *Pragma directives* overrides the information here.

```
alignment
baseaddr
building_runtime
can_instantiate
codeseq
cspy_support
define_type_info
do_not_instantiate
early_dynamic_initialization
function
function_effects
hdrstop
important_typedef
instantiate
keep_definition
library_default_requirements
library_provides
library_requirement_override
memory
module_name
no_pch
once
system_include
warnings
```

Default __DATE__ and __TIME__ (6.10.8)

The definitions for __TIME__ and __DATE__ are always available.

J.3.12 LIBRARY FUNCTIONS

Additional library facilities (5.1.2.1)

Most of the standard library facilities are supported. Some of them—the ones that need an operating system—require a low-level implementation in the application. For more information, see *The DLIB runtime environment*, page 99.

Diagnostic printed by the assert function (7.2.1.1)

The assert () function prints:

filename: linenr expression -- assertion failed

when the parameter evaluates to zero.

Representation of the floating-point status flags (7.6.2.2)

For information about the floating-point status flags, see *fenv.h*, page 357.

Feraiseexcept raising floating-point exception (7.6.2.3)

For information about the feraiseexcept function raising floating-point exceptions, see *Floating-point environment*, page 278.

Strings passed to the setlocale function (7.11.1.1)

For information about strings passed to the setlocale function, see *Locale*, page 122.

Types defined for float_t and double_t (7.12)

The FLT_EVAL_METHOD macro can only have the value 0.

Domain errors (7.12.1)

No function generates other domain errors than what the standard requires.

Return values on domain errors (7.12.1)

Mathematic functions return a floating-point NaN (not a number) for domain errors.

Underflow errors (7.12.1)

Mathematic functions set errno to the macro ERANGE (a macro in errno.h) and return zero for underflow errors.

fmod return value (7.12.10.1)

The fmod function returns a floating-point NaN when the second argument is zero.

The magnitude of remquo (7.12.10.3)

The magnitude is congruent modulo INT_MAX.

signal() (7.14.1.1)

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 126.

NULL macro (7.17)

The NULL macro is defined to 0.

Terminating newline character (7.19.2)

stdout stream functions recognize either newline or end of file (EOF) as the terminating character for a line.

Space characters before a newline character (7.19.2)

Space characters written to a stream immediately before a newline character are preserved.

Null characters appended to data written to binary streams (7.19.2)

No null characters are appended to data written to binary streams.

File position in append mode (7.19.3)

The file position is initially placed at the beginning of the file when it is opened in append-mode.

Truncation of files (7.19.3)

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 122.

File buffering (7.19.3)

An open file can be either block-buffered, line-buffered, or unbuffered.

A zero-length file (7.19.3)

Whether a zero-length file exists depends on the application-specific implementation of the low-level file routines.

Legal file names (7.19.3)

The legality of a filename depends on the application-specific implementation of the low-level file routines.

Number of times a file can be opened (7.19.3)

Whether a file can be opened more than once depends on the application-specific implementation of the low-level file routines.

Multibyte characters in a file (7.19.3)

The encoding of multibyte characters in a file depends on the application-specific implementation of the low-level file routines.

remove() (7.19.4.1)

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 122.

rename() (7.19.4.2)

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 122.

Removal of open temporary files (7.19.4.3)

Whether an open temporary file is removed depends on the application-specific implementation of the low-level file routines.

Mode changing (7.19.5.4)

freopen closes the named stream, then reopens it in the new mode. The streams stdin, stdout, and stderr can be reopened in any new mode.

Style for printing infinity or NaN (7.19.6.1, 7.24.2.1)

The style used for printing infinity or NaN for a floating-point constant is inf and nan (INF and NAN for the F conversion specifier), respectively. The n-char-sequence is not used for nan.

%p in printf() (7.19.6.1, 7.24.2.1)

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.

Reading ranges in scanf (7.19.6.2, 7.24.2.1)

A - (dash) character is always treated as a range symbol.

%p in scanf (7.19.6.2, 7.24.2.2)

The %p conversion specifier, scan pointer, to scanf() reads a hexadecimal number and converts it into a value with the type void *.

File position errors (7.19.9.1, 7.19.9.3, 7.19.9.4)

On file position errors, the functions fgetpos, ftell, and fsetpos store EFPOS in errno.

An n-char-sequence after nan (7.20.1.3, 7.24.4.1.1)

An n-char-sequence after a NaN is read and ignored.

errno value at underflow (7.20.1.3, 7.24.4.1.1)

errno is set to ERANGE if an underflow is encountered.

Zero-sized heap objects (7.20.3)

A request for a zero-sized heap object will return a valid pointer and not a null pointer.

Behavior of abort and exit (7.20.4.1, 7.20.4.4)

A call to abort () or _Exit() will not flush stream buffers, not close open streams, and not remove temporary files.

Termination status (7.20.4.1, 7.20.4.3, 7.20.4.4)

The termination status will be propagated to __exit() as a parameter. exit() and _Exit() use the input parameter, whereas abort uses EXIT_FAILURE.

The system function return value (7.20.4.6)

The system function is not supported.

The time zone (7.23.1)

The local time zone and daylight savings time must be defined by the application. For more information, see *Time*, page 126.

Range and precision of time (7.23)

For information about range and precision, see *time.h*, page 358. The application must supply the actual implementation for the functions time and clock. See *Time*, page 126.

clock() (7.23.2.1)

The application must supply an implementation of the clock function. See *Time*, page 126.

%Z replacement string (7.23.3.5, 7.24.5.1)

By default, ":" is used as a replacement for %z. Your application should implement the time zone handling. See *Time*, page 126.

Math functions rounding mode (F.9)

The functions in math.h honor the rounding direction mode in FLT-ROUNDS.

J.3.13 ARCHITECTURE

Values and expressions assigned to some macros (5.2.4.2, 7.18.2, 7.18.3)

There are always 8 bits in a byte.

MB_LEN_MAX is at the most 6 bytes depending on the library configuration that is used.

For information about sizes, ranges, etc for all basic types, see *Data representation*, page 273.

The limit macros for the exact-width, minimum-width, and fastest minimum-width integer types defined in stdint.h have the same ranges as char, short, int, long, and long long.

The floating-point constant FLT_ROUNDS has the value 1 (to nearest) and the floating-point constant FLT_EVAL_METHOD has the value 0 (treat as is).

The number, order, and encoding of bytes (6.2.6.1)

See Data representation, page 273.

The value of the result of the size of operator (6.5.3.4)

See Data representation, page 273.

J.4 LOCALE

Members of the source and execution character set (5.2.1)

By default, the compiler accepts all one-byte characters in the host's default character set. If the compiler option --enable_multibytes is used, the host multibyte characters are accepted in comments and string literals as well.

The meaning of the additional character set (5.2.1.2)

Any multibyte characters in the extended source character set is translated verbatim into the extended execution character set. It is up to your application with the support of the library configuration to handle the characters correctly.

Shift states for encoding multibyte characters (5.2.1.2)

Using the compiler option --enable_multibytes enables the use of the host's default multibyte characters as extended source characters.

Direction of successive printing characters (5.2.2)

The application defines the characteristics of a display device.

The decimal point character (7.1.1)

The default decimal-point character is a '.'. You can redefine it by defining the library configuration symbol $_{\tt LOCALE_DECIMAL_POINT}$.

Printing characters (7.4, 7.25.2)

The set of printing characters is determined by the chosen locale.

Control characters (7.4, 7.25.2)

The set of control characters is determined by the chosen locale.

Characters tested for (7.4.1.2, 7.4.1.3, 7.4.1.7, 7.4.1.9, 7.4.1.10, 7.4.1.11, 7.25.2.1.2, 7.25.5.1.3, 7.25.2.1.7, 7.25.2.1.9, 7.25.2.1.10, 7.25.2.1.11)

The sets of characters tested are determined by the chosen locale.

The native environment (7.1.1.1)

The native environment is the same as the "C" locale.

Subject sequences for numeric conversion functions (7.20.1, 7.24.4.1)

There are no additional subject sequences that can be accepted by the numeric conversion functions.

The collation of the execution character set (7.21.4.3, 7.24.4.4.2)

The collation of the execution character set is determined by the chosen locale.

Message returned by strerror (7.21.6.2)

The messages returned by the strerror function 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 50: Message returned by strerror()—IAR DLIB library

Implementation-defined behavior for C89

Descriptions of implementation-defined behavior

If you are using Standard C instead of C89, see *Implementation-defined behavior* for Standard C, page 389. For a short overview of the differences between Standard C and C89, see C language overview, page 167.

Descriptions of implementation-defined behavior

The descriptions follow 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 116. To change this behavior for the IAR CLIB runtime environment, see *Customizing system initialization*, page 147.

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 <code>--enable_multibytes</code>, 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. The IAR CLIB Library does not support multibyte characters.

See Locale, page 122.

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. The IAR CLIB Library does not support multibyte characters.

See Locale, page 122.

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—integer types*, page 274, 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 0xFF00 down one step yields 0xFF80.

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 *Basic data types—floating-point types*, page 277, 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

size_t (6.3.3.4, 7.1.1)

See size t, page 281, for information about size_t.

Conversion from/to pointers (6.3.4)

See *Casting*, page 280, for information about casting of data pointers and function pointers.

ptrdiff_t (6.3.6, 7.1.1)

See *ptrdiff t*, page 281, 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—integer types*, page 274, 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. If a pragma directive is listed both in the chapter *Pragma directives* and here, the information provided in the chapter *Pragma directives* overrides the information here.

```
alignment
baseaddr
building runtime
can instantiate
codeseg
cspy_support
define_type_info
do not instantiate
early dynamic initialization
function
function_effects
hdrstop
important_typedef
instantiate
keep_definition
library_default_requirements
library_provides
```

```
library_requirement_override
memory
module_name
no_pch
once
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 126.

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 the file position indicator of an append-mode stream is initially positioned at the beginning or the end of the file, depends on the application-specific implementation of the low-level file routines.

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 122.

The characteristics of the file buffering is that the implementation supports files that are unbuffered, line buffered, or fully buffered.

Whether a zero-length file actually exists depends on the application-specific implementation of the low-level file routines.

Rules for composing valid file names depends on the application-specific implementation of the low-level file routines.

Whether the same file can be simultaneously open multiple times depends on the application-specific implementation of the low-level file routines.

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 122.

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 122.

%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 125.

system() (7.10.4.5)

How the command processor works depends on how you have implemented the system function. See *Environment interaction*, page 125.

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 51: 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 126.

clock() (7.12.2.1)

From where the system clock starts counting depends on how you have implemented the clock function. See *Time*, page 126.

IAR CLIB LIBRARY FUNCTIONS

NULL macro (7.1.6)

The NULL macro is defined to (void *) 0.

Diagnostic printed by the assert function (7.2)

The assert() function prints:

Assertion failed: expression, file Filename, line linenumber

when the parameter evaluates to zero.

Domain errors (7.5.1)

HUGE_VAL, the largest representable value in a double floating-point type, 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 zero (it does not change the integer expression errno).

signal() (7.7.1.1)

The signal part of the library is not supported.

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)

There are no binary streams implemented.

Files (7.9.3)

There are no other streams than stdin and stdout. This means that a file system is not implemented.

remove() (7.9.4.1)

There are no other streams than stdin and stdout. This means that a file system is not implemented.

rename() (7.9.4.2)

There are no other streams than stdin and stdout. This means that a file system is not implemented.

%p in printf() (7.9.6.1)

The argument to a %p conversion specifier, print pointer, to printf() is treated as having the type 'char *'. 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 explicitly as a - character.

File position errors (7.9.9.1, 7.9.9.4)

There are no other streams than stdin and stdout. This means that a file system is not implemented.

Message generated by perror() (7.9.10.4)

perror() is not supported.

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 exit() function does not return.

Environment (7.10.4.4)

Environments are not supported.

system() (7.10.4.5)

The system() function is not supported.

Message returned by strerror() (7.11.6.2)

The messages returned by strerror() depending on the argument are:

Argument	Message
EZERO	no error
EDOM	domain error
ERANGE	range error
<0 >99	unknown error
all others	error No.xx

Table 52: Message returned by strerror()—IAR CLIB library

The time zone (7.12.1)

The time zone function is not supported.

clock() (7.12.2.1)

The clock() function is not supported.

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•	at function entrance
non-lvalue	programming hints for efficient code
of incomplete types	using in inline assembler code

В	in assembler list file (-IA)
	call stack
backtrace information See call frame information	callee-save registers, stored on stack
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