# IAR C/C++ Compilers

Reference Guide

for the Renesas
78K0/78K0S and 78K0R
Microcontroller Subfamilies





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# **Preface**

Welcome to the IAR C/C++ Compilers Reference Guide for 78K. The purpose of this guide is to provide you with detailed reference information that can help you to use the compilers to best suit your application requirements. This guide also gives you suggestions on coding techniques so that you can develop applications with maximum efficiency.

Because of important differences in architecture between the 78K0 and 78K0S microcontroller cores and the 78K0R microcontroller core, IAR Embedded Workbench for Renesas' 78K Microcontroller Subfamilies includes two separate compilers: the 78K0/78K0S Compiler and the 78K0R Compiler. In those cases where the compilers behave the same way, both will be referred to together as the IAR C/C++ Compilers for 78K in this guide.

# Who should read this guide

Read this guide if you plan to develop an application using the C or C++ language for the 78K microcontroller and need detailed reference information on how to use the compilers. You should have working knowledge of:

- The architecture and instruction set of the 78K microcontroller. Refer to the documentation from Renesas for information about the 78K microcontroller
- The C or C++ programming language
- Application development for embedded systems
- The operating system of your host computer.

# How to use this guide

When you start using the IAR C/C++ Compilers for 78K, you should read *Part 1. Using the compilers* in this guide.

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

If you are new to using the IAR Systems build tools, we recommend that you first study the *IAR Embedded Workbench*® *IDE User Guide*. This guide contains a product

overview, tutorials that can help you get started, conceptual and user information about the IDE and the IAR C-SPY® Debugger, and corresponding reference information.

# What this guide contains

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

# Part 1. Using the compilers

- Getting started gives the information you need to get started using the compiler for efficiently developing your application.
- Data storage describes how to store data in memory, focusing on the memory types.
   For the 78K0R core, the concept of data models is introduced.
- Functions gives a brief overview of function-related extensions—mechanisms for controlling functions—and describes some of these mechanisms in more detail.
- Placing code and data describes the concept of segments, introduces the linker command file, and describes how code and data are placed in memory.
- The DLIB runtime environment describes the DLIB runtime environment in which
  an application executes. It covers how you can modify it by setting options,
  overriding default library modules, or building your own library. The chapter also
  describes system initialization introducing the file cstartup, how to use modules
  for locale, and file I/O.
- 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 levels of C++ support: The industry-standard EC++ and IAR Extended EC++.
- Efficient coding for embedded applications gives hints about how to write code that compiles to efficient code for an embedded application.

## Part 2. Reference information

- External interface details provides reference information about how the compiler
  interacts with its environment—the invocation syntax, methods for passing options
  to the compiler, environment variables, the include file search procedure, and the
  different types of compiler output. The chapter also describes how the compiler's
  diagnostic system works.
- Compiler options explains how to set options, gives a summary of the options, and contains detailed reference information for each compiler option.

- *Data representation* describes the available data types, pointers, and structure types. This chapter also gives information about type and object attributes.
- Compiler extensions gives a brief overview of the compiler extensions to the ISO/ANSI C standard. More specifically the chapter describes the available C language extensions.
- Extended keywords gives reference information about each of the 78K-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 78K-specific low-level features.
- *The preprocessor* gives a brief overview of the preprocessor, including reference information about the different preprocessor directives, symbols, and other related information.
- Library functions gives an introduction to the C or C++ library functions, and summarizes the header files.
- Segment reference gives reference information about the compiler's use of segments.
- *Implementation-defined behavior* describes how the compiler handles the implementation-defined areas of the C language standard.

# Other documentation

The complete set of IAR Systems development tools for the 78K microcontroller is described in a series of guides. For information about:

- Using the IDE and the IAR C-SPY Debugger®, refer to the *IAR Embedded Workbench*® *IDE User Guide*
- Programming for the 78K IAR Assembler, refer to the IAR Assemblers Reference Guide for 78K
- Using the IAR XLINK Linker, the IAR XAR Library Builder, and the IAR XLIB Librarian, refer to the IAR Linker and Library Tools Reference Guide
- Using the IAR DLIB Library functions, refer to the online help system
- Using the IAR CLIB Library functions, refer to the *IAR C Library Functions Reference Guide*, available from the online help system.
- Porting application code and projects created with a previous IAR Embedded Workbench for 78K, refer to the 78K IAR Embedded Workbench Migration Guide
- Using the MISRA-C:1998 rules or the MISRA-C:2004 rules, refer to the IAR Embedded Workbench® MISRA C:1998 Reference Guide or the IAR Embedded Workbench® MISRA C:2004 Reference Guide, respectively.

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

#### **FURTHER READING**

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

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

We recommend that you visit these web sites:

- The Renesas web site, www.renesas.com, contains information and news about the 78K microcontrollers.
- The IAR Systems web site, www.iar.com, holds application notes and other product information.
- Finally, the Embedded C++ Technical Committee web site,
   www.caravan.net/ec2plus, contains information about the Embedded C++ standard.

# **Document conventions**

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

When referring to a directory in your product installation, for example 78k\doc, the full path to the location is assumed, for example c:\Program Files\IAR Systems\Embedded Workbench  $6.n\78k\doc$ .

# **TYPOGRAPHIC CONVENTIONS**

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

Table 1: Typographic conventions used in this guide

# **NAMING CONVENTIONS**

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

Brand name	Generic term
IAR Embedded Workbench® for 78K	IAR Embedded Workbench®
IAR Embedded Workbench® IDE for 78K	the IDE
IAR C-SPY® Debugger for 78K	C-SPY, the debugger
IAR C-SPY® Simulator	the simulator
IAR C/C++ Compiler™ for 78K	the compiler

Table 2: Naming conventions used in this guide

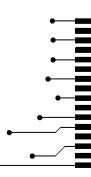
Brand name	Generic term
IAR Assembler™ for 78K	the assembler
IAR XLINK™ Linker	XLINK, the linker
IAR XAR Library builder™	the library builder
IAR XLIB Librarian™	the librarian
IAR DLIB Library™	the DLIB library
IAR CLIB Library™	the CLIB library

Table 2: Naming conventions used in this guide (Continued)

# Part I. Using the compilers

This part of the IAR C/C++ Compilers Reference Guide for 78K includes these chapters:

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





# **Getting started**

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

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

Next, the compilers are introduced. You will get an overview of the basic settings needed for a project setup, including an overview of the techniques that enable applications to take full advantage of the 78K microcontroller. In the following chapters, these techniques are studied in more detail.

# IAR language overview

There are two high-level programming languages you can use with the IAR C/C++ Compiler for 78K:

- C, the most widely used high-level programming language in the embedded systems industry. Using the IAR C/C++ Compiler for 78K, you can build freestanding applications that follow the standard ISO 9899:1990. This standard is commonly known as ANSI C.
- C++, a modern object-oriented programming language with a full-featured library well suited for modular programming. IAR Systems supports two levels of the C++ language:
  - Embedded C++ (EC++), a subset of the C++ programming standard, which is intended for embedded systems programming. It is defined by an industry consortium, the Embedded C++ Technical committee. See the chapter *Using* C++.
  - IAR Extended Embedded C++, with additional features such as full template support, namespace support, the new cast operators, as well as the Standard Template Library (STL).

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

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

It is also possible to implement parts of the application, or the whole application, in assembler language. See the *IAR Assemblers Reference Guide for 78K*.

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

# Supported 78K devices

The IAR C/C++ Compilers for 78K supports all devices based on the standard Renesas 78K0/78K0S and 78K0R microcontroller cores. The support has been implemented in the form of separate compiler executable files for the 78K0 and 78K0S cores on the one hand and the 78K0R core on the other. This affects a number of compiler features, from the command line needed for compiling, to concepts like data models.

Except for those cases where the compilers behave differently, both compilers will be referred to as the IAR C/C++ Compilers for 78K in this guide. When the compilers behave differently, the denotation 78K0 and 78K0S cores includes the 78K0 core without the DIV/MUL instructions, unless otherwise specified.

# **Building applications—an overview**

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

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

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





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

## **COMPILING**

In the command line interface, the following line compiles the source file myfile.c into the object file myfile.r26 using the default settings:

The 78K0/78K0S compiler: icc78k myfile.c

The 78K0R compiler: icc78k0r myfile.c

You must also specify some critical options, see *Basic settings for project configuration*, page 6.

#### LINKING

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

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

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

```
xlink myfile.r26 myfile2.r26 -s __program_start -f lnk.xcl
cl78ks1.r26 -o aout.hex -FIntel-extended
```

In this example, myfile.r26 and myfile2.r26 are object files, lnk.xcl is the linker command file, and cl78ksl.r26 is the runtime library. The option -s specifies the label where the application starts. The option -o specifies the name of the output file, and the option -r is used for specifying the output format UBROF, which can be used for debugging in C-SPY®.

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

# **Basic settings for project configuration**

This section gives an overview of the basic settings for the project setup that are needed to make the compiler generate the best code for the 78K device you are using. You can specify the options either from the command line interface or in the IDE.

The basic settings are:

- Processor core
- Code model
- Data model (78K0R only)
- Optimization settings
- Runtime environment.

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

## **PROCESSOR CORE**

The IAR C/C++ Compilers for 78K support these processor cores of the 78K series:

Processor core	Description
78K0_basic	78K0 core without the DIV/MUL instructions
78K0 (default)	78K0 core with the <code>DIV/MUL</code> instructions
78K0R	78K0R core
78K0S	78K0S core

Table 3: Processor cores



See the Embedded Workbench® IDE online help system for information about specifying the processor core in the IAR Embedded Workbench IDE.



Use the --core=[78k0\_basic|78k0|78k0r|78k0s] option to specify the processor core for your project; see *--core*, page 156.

# **CODE MODEL**

The IAR C/C++ Compilers for 78K use two *code models* each, that you can set on file-or function-level to control which function calls are generated by default. Two of these can be used with the 78K0/78K0S Compiler and two with the 78K0R Compiler. The code models are:

#### 78K0/78K0S

- The standard code model has an upper limit of 64 Kbytes
- The banked code model can use the banking mechanism and access a 16-Mbyte address space.

# **78K0R**

- The *near* code model has an upper limit of 64 Kbytes
- The far code model can access the entire 1 Mbyte memory.

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

# **DATA MODEL (78K0R ONLY)**

The 78K0R IAR C/C++ Compiler use two *data models*, to make it easier to write code for applications with different data requirements. The data models are:

- The *near* data model can access data in the highest 64 Kbytes of data memory
- The far data model can address data in the entire 1 Mbytes of data memory.

For detailed information about the data models, see the *Data storage* chapter.

Note: The 78K0/78K0S Compiler does not use data models.

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

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

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

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

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

# **RUNTIME ENVIRONMENT**

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

Two different sets of runtime libraries are provided:

- The IAR DLIB Library, which supports ISO/ANSI C and C++. This library also supports floating-point numbers in IEEE 754 format and it can be configured to include different levels of support for locale, file descriptors, multibyte characters, et cetera.
- The IAR CLIB Library is a light-weight library, which is not fully compliant with ISO/ANSI C. Neither does it fully support floating-point numbers in IEEE 754 format or does it support Embedded C++. (This library is used by default for C projects).

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

For detailed information about the runtime environments, see the chapters *The DLIB* runtime environment and *The CLIB runtime environment*, respectively.

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



# Choosing a runtime library in the IDE

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

Note that for the DLIB library there are two different configurations—Normal and Full—which include different levels of support for locale, file descriptors, multibyte characters, et cetera. See *Library configurations*, page 55, for more information.

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



# Choosing runtime environment from the command line

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

Command line	Description	
-I 78k\inc	Specifies the include path to device-specific I/O definition files.	
-I 78k\inc\{clib dlib}	Specifies the library-specific include path. Use clib or dlib depending on which library you are using.	
libraryfile.r26	Specifies the library object file	
clib	Uses CLIB-specific floating-point types (for the IAR CLIB Library only)	
dlib_config C:\\configfile.h	Specifies the library configuration file (for the IAR DLIB Library only)	

Table 4: Command line options for specifying library and dependency files

For a list of all prebuilt library object files for the IAR DLIB Library, see Table 17, *Prebuilt libraries*, page 57. The table also shows how the object files correspond to the dependent project options, and the corresponding configuration files. Make sure to use the object file that matches your other project options.

For a list of all prebuilt object files for the IAR CLIB Library, see Table 28, *Runtime libraries*, page 84. The table also shows how the object files correspond to the dependent project options. 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 59 (DLIB) and *Input and output*, page 85 (CLIB).
- The size of the stack and the heap, see *The stack*, page 46, and *The heap*, page 47, respectively.

# Special support for embedded systems

This section briefly describes the extensions provided by the compiler to support specific features of the 78K 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 the memory type for individual variables as well as for declaring special function types.



By default, language extensions are enabled in the IDE.

The command line option -e makes the extended keywords available, and reserves them so that they cannot be used as variable names. See, -e, page 164 for additional information.

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

#### PRAGMA DIRECTIVES

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

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

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

#### PREDEFINED SYMBOLS

With the predefined preprocessor symbols, you can inspect your compile-time environment, for example the code model and the processor type.

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

#### **SPECIAL FUNCTION TYPES**

The special hardware features of the 78K microcontroller are supported by the compiler's special function types: interrupt and monitor. You can write a complete application without having to write any of these functions in assembler language.

For detailed information, see *Primitives for interrupts, concurrency, and OS-related programming*, page 23.

#### **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 91.

# **Data storage**

This chapter gives a brief introduction to the memory layout of the 78K microcontroller and the fundamental ways data can be stored in memory: on the stack, in static (global) memory, or in heap memory. For efficient memory usage, the compilers provide data models and data memory attributes, allowing you to fine-tune the access methods, resulting in smaller code size. The concepts of data models and memory types are described in relation to pointers, structures, Embedded C++ class objects, and non-initialized memory. Finally, detailed information about data storage on the stack and the heap is provided.

# Introduction

The 78K microcontroller family can be divided into two main groups, the 78K0 and 78K0S cores and the 78K0R core. The 78K0R core has larger natural addressing capabilities than the other cores.

The 78K0 and 78K0S cores have 64 Kbytes of continuous memory, ranging from 0x0000 to 0xFFFF. The 78K0R core has 1 Mbyte of memory, ranging from 0x00000 to 0xFFFFF.

Different types of physical memory can be placed in the memory range. A typical application will have both read-only memory (ROM) and read-write memory (RAM). In addition, some parts of the memory range contain processor control registers and peripheral units.

All 78K microcontrollers can access memory in different ways. The access methods range from a generic but expensive method that can access the full memory space, to a cheap method that can access the short address memory area.

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

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

- Auto variables.
  - All variables that are local to a function, except those declared static, are stored on the stack. These variables can be used as long as the function executes. When the function returns to its caller, the memory space is no longer valid.
- Global variables and local variables declared static.

In this case, the memory is allocated once and for all. The word static in this context means that the amount of memory allocated for this kind of variables does not change while the application is running. For more information, see *Data models (78K0R only)*, page 12 and *Memory types*, page 13.

• Dynamically allocated data.

An application can allocate data on the *heap*, where the data it remains valid until it is explicitly released back to the system by the application. This type of memory is useful when the number of objects is not known until the application executes. Note that there are potential risks connected with using dynamically allocated data in systems with a limited amount of memory, or systems that are expected to run for a long time. For more information, see *Dynamic memory on the heap*, page 20.

# Data models (78K0R only)

The IAR C/C++ Compiler for 78K0R supports the concept of data models, to make it easier to write code for applications with different data requirements.

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

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

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

Your project can only use one data model at a time, and the same model must be used by all user modules and all library modules. However, you can override the default memory type for individual data objects and pointers by explicitly specifying a memory attribute, see *Using data memory attributes*, page 14.

This table summarizes the different data models:

Data model name	Default memory and pointer attribute	Placement of data
Near (default)	near	The highest 64 Kbytes
Far	far	The entire I Mbyte of memory

Table 5: Data model characteristics



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



Use the --data\_model option to specify the data model for your project; see --data model, page 157.

#### The Near data model

The Near data model places data in the highest 64 Kbytes of memory. This memory can be accessed using 2-byte pointers, which means that only 16 bits are needed for pointer storage. The default pointer type passed as a parameter will use one 16-bit register or 2 bytes on the stack.

#### The Far data model

The Far data model places data in the first 1 Mbyte of memory. This is the only memory that can be accessed using 3-byte pointers. The default pointer type passed as a parameter will use 4 bytes on the stack.

# **Memory types**

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

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

For example, the memory accessible using the near memory access method is called memory of near type, or simply near memory.

In each data model, there is a default memory type that your application will use. However, it is possible to specify—for individual variables or pointers—a different memory type. 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.

#### SHORT ADDRESS AREA

The short addressable area—saddr memory—consists of 256 bytes of data memory in the address range 0xFE20-0xFF1F (78K0 and 78K0S) or 0xFFE20-0xFFF1F (78K0R).

A saddr object can only be placed in saddr memory. By using objects of this type, the code generated by the compiler to access them is minimized. This means a smaller footprint for the application, and faster execution at run-time.

#### **NEAR**

The near memory consists of 64 Kbytes of data memory. In hexadecimal notation, this is the address range 0x0000-0xffff (78K0 and 78K0S) or 0xf0000-0xfffff (78K0R).

A near object can only be placed in near memory.

# FAR (78K0R ONLY)

Only the 78K0R core has far memory, consisting of the whole 1 Mbytes of data memory. In hexadecimal notation, this is the address range 0x00000-0xFFFFFF.

A far object can only be placed in far memory, and the size of such an object is limited to 64 Kbytes.

#### **SFR**

The special function register (SFR) area is located in the address range 0xFF00-0xFFFF (78K0 and 78K0S) or 0xFFF00-0xFFFFF (78K0R).

Special function registers are defined in the device-specific header files.

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

The compilers provide *extended keywords* which can be used as *data memory attributes*. These keywords let you override the default memory type for individual data objects and pointers, 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 type	Keyword	Address range	Pointer size
Saddr	saddr	0xFE20-0xFF1F (78K0 and 78K0S) 0xFFE20-0xFFF1F (78K0R)	16 bits
Near (default)	near	0x0000-0xffff (78K0 and 78K0S) 0xF0000-0xfffff (78K0R)	16 bits
Far	far	0x00000-0xfffff (78K0R only)	24 bits
SFR	sfr	0xFF00-0xFFFF (78K0 and 78K0S) 0xFFF00-0xFFFFF (78K0R)	n/a

Table 6: Memory types and their corresponding keywords

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 164 for additional information.

For reference information about each keyword, see *Descriptions of extended keywords*, page 208.

# **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 203.

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

```
__saddr int i, j;
int __saddr 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 __near Byte;
typedef Byte *BytePtr;
Byte AByte;
BytePtr ABytePointer;

/* Defines directly */
__near char AByte;
char __near *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. There are two types of pointers—near and far—that point to data objects located in near and far memory, respectively. However, the far pointer (and far memory) is only available for the 78K0R Compiler. Because saddr memory is a part of near memory, near pointers can also manage data objects located in saddr memory.

**Note:** Because there is only one pointer type in the 78K0/78K0S Compiler, there is no practical use for explicitly declaring a pointer as near by using the \_\_near keyword when writing for the 78K0/78K0S Compiler.

## 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 saddr memory.

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

This declaration is incorrect:

```
struct MyStruct
{
  int mAlpha;
  __saddr int mBeta; /* Incorrect */
}:
```

# **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 near memory is declared. The function returns a pointer to an integer in near memory. It makes no difference whether the memory attribute is placed before or after the data type. To read the following examples, start from the left and add one qualifier at each step

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

# C++ and memory types

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

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

All restrictions that apply to the default pointer type also apply to the this pointer. This means that it must be possible to convert a pointer to the object to the default pointer type. Also note that for non-static member functions—unless class memory is used, see *Classes*, page 111—the this pointer will be of the default data pointer type.

In the Near data model, this means that objects of classes with a member function can only be placed in the default memory type (\_\_near).

#### Example

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

```
// A class definition (may be placed in a header file)
class MyClass
{
public:
    int mAlpha;
    int mBeta;

    __saddr static int mGamma;
};

// Needed definitions (should be placed in a source file)
    __saddr int MyClass::mGamma;

// An object of class type MyClass
    __near MyClass Delta;
```

# Auto variables—on the stack

Variables that are defined inside a function—and not declared static—are named *auto variables* by the C standard. A few of these variables are placed in processor registers; the rest are placed on the stack. From a semantic point of view, this is equivalent. The main differences are that accessing registers is faster, and that less memory is required compared to when variables are located on the stack.

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

## THE STACK

The stack can contain:

• Local variables and parameters not stored in registers

- Temporary results of expressions
- The return value of a function (unless it is passed in registers)
- Processor state during interrupts
- Processor registers that should be restored before the function returns (callee-save registers).

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

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

# **Advantages**

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

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

# Potential problems

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

```
int *MyFunction()
{
  int x;
  /* Do something 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—functions that call themselves either directly or indirectly—are used.

# Dynamic memory on the heap

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

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

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

The 78K0R Compiler supports heaps in both near memory and far memory. For more information about this, see *The heap*, page 64.

# **Potential problems**

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

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

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

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

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

# **Functions**

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

# **Function-related extensions**

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

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

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

For more information about optimizations, see *Writing efficient code*, page 135. For information about the available intrinsic functions for accessing hardware operations, see the chapter *Intrinsic functions*.

# Code models and memory attributes for function storage

By means of *code models*, the compilers control how code is generated for an application.

The compilers support two code models each. If you do not specify a code model, the compiler will use the one of the code models as default. Your project can only use one code model at a time, and the same model must be used by all user modules and all library modules. All code models produce code that is ROMable.

These code models are available:

Code model name	Description
Standard (default)	Non-banked function calls. 78K0/78K0S only.
Banked	Banked function calls. 78K0/78K0S only.
Near (default)	Function calls reach the first 64 Kbytes of memory. 78K0R only.

Table 7: Code models

Code model name	Description
Far	Function calls reach the entire I Mbyte memory. 78K0R only.

Table 7: Code models

For further information about the banked code model, see *Banked functions* (78K0/78K0S only), page 27.



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



Use the --code\_model option to specify the code model for your project; see --code\_model, page 155.

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

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

Function memory	Address range	Pointer size	Description
attribute	Address range	rolliter size	Description
callt	0-0x0FFFF	2 bytes	The function can be called from any segment.
callf	0x0800- 0x0FFF	2 bytes	The function can be called from any segment. 78K0 only.
non_banked	*	2 bytes	The function can be called from any segment. Default in the standard code model. 78K0/78K0S only.
banked	0-0xffffff	3 bytes	The function can be called from any segment.  Default in the banked code model.  78K0/78K0S only.
near_func	0-0x0FFFF	2 bytes	The function can be called from any segment. This is the default attribute in the 78K0R Compiler. 78K0R only.
far_func	0-0xfffff	3 bytes	The function can be called from any segment. 78K0R only.

Table 8: Function memory attributes

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 186.

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

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

The IAR C/C++ Compilers for 78K provide the following primitives related to writing interrupt functions, concurrent functions, and OS-related functions:

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

## INTERRUPT FUNCTIONS

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

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

The 78K 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 78K microcontroller documentation from the chip manufacturer. The interrupt vector is the offset into the interrupt vector table. If you want to handle several different interrupts using the same interrupt function, you can specify several interrupt vectors. For the 78K microcontroller, the interrupt vector table always starts at the address  $0 \times 0$ .

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

For 78K0 and 78K0R, the #pragma bank=n directive (where n can be 0-3) can be used for context switching (using another register bank) when executing the interrupt function. Note that this is not possible for 78K0S.

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

```
#pragma bank = 2
#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.

If a vector is specified in the definition of an interrupt function, the processor interrupt vector table is populated. It is also possible to define an interrupt function without a vector. This is useful if an application is capable of populating or changing the interrupt vector table at runtime. See the chip manufacturer's 78K microcontroller documentation for more information about the interrupt vector table.

#### MONITOR FUNCTIONS

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

To define a monitor function, you can use the \_\_monitor keyword. For reference information, see *monitor*, page 211.



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();
}
```

# Example of implementing a semaphore in C++

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

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

```
#include <intrinsics.h>
/* Class for controlling critical blocks. */
class Mutex
public:
 Mutex()
    // Get hold of current interrupt state.
   mState = __get_interrupt_state();
    // Disable all interrupts.
    __disable_interrupt();
 ~Mutex()
   // Restore the interrupt state.
    __set_interrupt_state(mState);
private:
  istate t mState;
class Tick
{
public:
 // Function to read the tick count safely.
 static long GetTick()
   long t;
    // Enter a critical block.
    {
     Mutex m;
     // Get the tick count safely,
      t = smTickCount;
```

```
}
  // and return it.
  return t;
}

private:
  static volatile long smTickCount;
};

volatile long Tick::smTickCount = 0;

extern void DoStuff();

void MyMain()
{
  static long nextStop = 100;

  if (Tick::GetTick() >= nextStop)
  {
    nextStop += 100;
    DoStuff();
}
```

# C++ AND SPECIAL FUNCTION TYPES

C++ member functions can be declared using special function types. However, there is one restriction:

Interrupt member functions must be static. When a non-static member function is called, it must be applied to an object. When an interrupt occurs and the interrupt function is called, there is no object available to apply the member function to.

# Banked functions (78K0/78K0S only)

This section introduces the banking technique available for the 78K0/78K0S Compiler. It is important to know when to use it, what it does, and how it works. The section also describes how to write and partition source code and ISRs (interrupt service routines) for banked applications, including the associated compiler and linker command file configuration. Finally, the section also discusses linker output formats suitable for banked addresses, and methods of downloading to multiple PROMs.

**Note:** When you read this section, you should be familiar with the other concepts described in *Part 1. Using the compilers* in this book.

## THE 78K0/78K0S BANKING SYSTEM

If you are using a 78K microcontroller with a natural address range of 64 Kbytes of memory, it has a 16-bit addressing capability. *Banking* is a technique for extending the amount of memory that can be accessed by the processor beyond the limit set by the size of the natural addressing scheme of the processor. In other words, more code can be accessed.

Banked memory is used in projects which require such a large amount of executable code that the natural 64 Kbytes address range of the 78K0/78K0S cores is not sufficient to contain it all.

**Note:** Because the 78K0R core has a natural address range of 1 Mbyte of memory and does not need to use banking, the 78K0R compiler has no support for the mechanism.

## **USING THE BANKED CODE MODEL**

When you create a banked application, you must be aware of the associated compiler and linker command file configuration.

**Note:** These options are not available for the 78K0R Compiler.

# Compiler options for banked mode

To compile your modules for banked mode, use the **Banked** code model option (--code\_model banked). To bank an individual function when using the non-banked code model, declare the function with the \_\_banked attribute.

## Linker options for banked mode

When linking an application, you must place your code segments into banks corresponding to the available physical banks in your hardware. However, the physical bank size and location is dependent upon the size of your root bank which in turn is dependent on your source code.

As a result, you may need to make a few trial passes through the linking process to determine the optimal memory usage.

# Example: banked placement using the -P command

The -P linker command is useful for banked segment placement. For instance, if your banked code uses the ROM memory area 0x8000-0x9FFF, the linker directives would look like this:

```
// First some defines for the banks
-D_CODEBANK_START=8000
-D_CODEBANK_END=9FFF
-D_CODEBANK_BANKS=4
-P(CODE)MYBANKEDCODESEGMENT=[_CODEBANK_START-_CODEBANK_END]*_CODEBANK_BANKS+10000
```

This divides the segment into segment parts which are located at the addresses:

```
8000-9FFF //Bank number 0
18000-19FFF //Bank number 1
28000-29FFF //Bank number 2
38000-39FFF //Bank number 3
```

# The bank switching routine

The bank switching routine is based on an SFR port being used for the bank switching. The SFR port is defined in the linker command file by the line:

```
-D_BANK_REG=PORTADDRESS
```

As long as you use this solution, the only thing you must do is to define the appropriate SFR port address.

#### **HOW BANKING WORKS**

The banked code model available for the 78K0/78K0S Compiler allows the code memory area to be extended with up to 256 banks of additional ROM memory. Your hardware must provide these additional physical memory banks, as well as the logic required to decode the high address bits which represent the *bank number*.

Because the 78KO and 78KOS cores cannot handle more than 64 Kbytes of memory at any single time, the extended memory range introduced by banking implies that special care must be taken. Only one bank at a time is visible, and the remaining banks must be brought into the 64 Kbytes address range before they can be used.

This memory map shows an example of a banked code memory area:

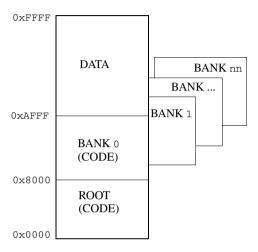


Figure 1: Banked code memory layout (example)

You can place the banked area anywhere in code memory, but there must always be a *root area* for holding the runtime environment code. It is practical to place the root area at address 0 and upwards.

To access code residing in one of the memory banks, the compiler keeps track of the bank number of a banked function by maintaining a 3-byte pointer to it, which has the following form:

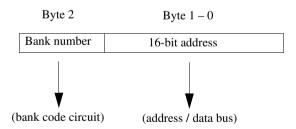


Figure 2: The 3-byte banked address

# **Bank switching**

For a bank switch, the following actions are performed:

- The current bank number is saved on the stack
- The new bank number—byte 2 of the 3-byte pointer—is written to the SFR port
- Your hardware decodes the bank number to select the appropriate ROM bank
- A call to the address located in byte 0 and 1 of the 3-byte pointer is performed.

For further details, see *The bank switching routine*, page 34.

#### Code that cannot be banked

Code banking is achieved by dividing the address space used for program code into two parts: non-banked and banked code. In Figure 1, Banked code memory layout (example), page 30, the part that contains the non-banked code is referred to as the root bank. There must always be a certain amount of code that is non-banked. For example, interrupt service routines must always be available, as interrupts can occur at any time.

The following selected parts must be located in non-banked memory:

- Interrupt and call table vectors
- Interrupt service routines
- Functions declared \_\_callf and \_\_callt
- The CSTARTUP routine
- Segments containing constants and initial values for initialized variables (the segments CODE, CONST, DIFUNCT, FCODE, NEAR\_ID, RCODE, SADDR\_ID, and SWITCH)
- Selected parts of the runtime library, such as routines for arithmetic support and setjmp/longjmp
- Bank-switching routines, that is, those routines that will perform the mapping from internal memory to banked memory.

Code located in non-banked memory will always be available to the processor, and will always be located at the same internal address.

**Note:** In addition, code compiled for the 78K0R core cannot be banked.

#### WRITING SOURCE CODE FOR BANKED MEMORY

Writing code to be used in banked memory is not much different from writing code for standard memory, but there are a few issues to be aware of. These primarily concern partitioning your code into source modules so that they can be most efficiently placed into banks by the linker, and the distinction between banked versus non-banked code.

# C/C++ language considerations

From the C/C++ language standpoint, any arbitrary C/C++ program can be compiled for banked memory. The only restriction is the size of the function, as it cannot be larger than the size of a bank

#### Bank size and code size

Each banked C/C++ source function that you compile will generate a separate *segment part*, and all segment parts generated from banked functions will be located in the BCODE linker segment. The code contained in a segment part is an *indivisible unit*, as well as source files which contain several functions. The linker cannot break up a code contained in indivisible units and place part of it in one bank and part of it in another bank. Thus, the code produced from a banked function must always be smaller than the bank size.

This means that you have to consider the size of each C/C++ source file so that the generated code will fit into your banks. If any of your code segments is larger than the specified bank size, the linker will issue an error.

If you need to specify the location of any code individually, you can rename the code segment for each function to a distinct name that will allow you to refer to it individually. To assign a function to a specific segment, use the @ operator, the #pragma location directive, or the #pragma segment directive.

For more information about segments, see the chapter *Placing code and data*.

#### Banked versus non-banked function calls

Differentiating between the non-banked versus banked function calls for the 78K0/78K0S Compiler is important because non-banked function calls are faster and take up less code space than banked function calls. Therefore, it is useful to be familiar with which types of function declarations that result in non-banked function calls.

In this context, a *function call* is the sequence of machine instructions generated by the compiler whenever a function in your C/C++ source code calls another C/C++ function or library routine. This also includes saving the return address and then sending the new execution address to the hardware.

The 78K0/78K0S Compiler has two function call sequences:

- Non-banked function calls: The return address and new execution address are 16-bit (2 bytes) values. Non-banked function calls are default in the standard code model.
- Banked function calls: The return address and new execution address are 24-bit (3 bytes) values (default in the banked code model)

In the banked code model, banked function calls are generated by default. However, when it is known that both the calling and the called function reside in the same physical bank, it is not necessary to switch bank. This means, a more efficient banked function call, without actual bank switching, can be generated by the compiler. In the following situations, banked function calls without actual bank switching, is generated:

- Both the calling and the called function are defined in the same source file.
- Functions defined static. This is because the purpose of the static keyword is to
  prevent the function from being called from outside the module in which it is
  defined. The exception to this rule is the case in which the address of the function is
  known by a function in another module, which then calls the static function
  indirectly via that address.

Functions declared using the \_\_non\_banked memory attribute are located in the non-banked ROOT area, which means the functions can be called with non-banked function calls. For functions that are frequently called, it can be recommended to place them in the ROOT area.

## Example of a non-banked function call in the banked code model

In this example we assume that f1() will call f2(). They are defined in separate source modules. Then the definition of f2() would look like:

```
__non_banked void f2(void) /* simple void function example */
{
   /* code here...*/
}
```

The function prototype for £2() in the module where £1() will call £2() would be:

```
extern __non_banked void f2(void);
```

The actual call to £2() from within £1() would be exactly as any other function, for example:

```
void f1(void)
{
   f2();
```

## Interrupt, callf, and callt functions in banked mode

The code for interrupt service routines, and functions declared using the extended keywords \_\_callf and \_\_callt are by default non-banked. This means that these functions are located in the CODE segment. The compiler handles this automatically.

# Calling banked functions from assembler language

In an assembler language program, calling a C/C++ function located in another bank requires using the same protocol as the compiler. For information about this protocol, see *Calling convention*, page 97. To generate an example of a banked function call, use the technique described in the section *Calling assembler routines from C*, page 94.

## THE BANK SWITCHING ROUTINE

A non-banked function call reserves the register HL if a function pointer is used. A banked call reserves the registers HL and E, which means that there is one 8-bit register fewer to be used as a register parameter. Thus, the cost for parameter passing for banked and non-banked functions cannot be compared in an easy way. However, the cost for different ways of calling a banked function can be compared.

There are two different ways to call a banked function. If the compiler knows that the called banked function is located in the same bank as the calling function, there is no need to switch banks and save the old bank, and as a result—provided some other conditions are also fulfilled—it uses the fast switching routine <code>?FAR\_FAST\_CALL\_L07</code> and the corresponding <code>FAR\_FAST\_RETURN\_L07</code>. These are faster than if you had to save/restore the old bank and switch to a new bank.

The fast version of the switching routine can only be used if both the calling and the called function are banked and located in the same file (which means that the compiler knows they are located in the same bank). If they are located in different files or if the calling function is non-banked, the compiler must preserve the current bank before switching to the bank of the called function.

This is what a standard bank switch looks like:

Standard bank switching code		Clock cycles
?FAR_CALL_L07:		
xch	a, d	2
mov	a, BANK_REG	5
xch	a, d	2
push	de	4
xch	a, e	2
mov	BANK_REG, a	5
xch	a, e	2

Table 9: Standard bank switching cost in cycles

Standard bank switching code		Clock cycles
movw	de, #FAR_RETURN_L07	6
push	de	4
push	hl	4
ret		6
FAR_RETURN_L07:		
pop	hl	4
xch	a, h	2
mov	BANK_REG, a	5
xch	a, h	2
ret		6
		Total 61

Table 9: Standard bank switching cost in cycles (Continued)

This is what a fast bank switch looks like:

Fast bank switching c	ode	Clock cycles
?FAR_FAST_CALL	_L07:	
xch	a, e	2
mov	d, a	2
xch	a, e	2
push	de	4
movw	de, #FAR_FAST_RETURN_L07	6
push	đe	4
push	hl	4
ret		6
FAR_FAST_RETUR	N_L07:	
pop	hl	4
ret		6
	Tota	l 40

Table 10: Fast bank switching cost in cycles

This is the calling overhead for banked functions. It does not take into account the cost of initializing register and stack parameters.

# Modifying the default bank switching routine

The default bank switching code is available in the supplied assembler language source file L07.s26, which you can find in the directory 78k\src\lib.

However, if you only use a small number of banks, you can use only certain bits of the port and use the rest of the port for something else. This is not explicitly supported by the compiler, but you can do it by modifying the L07.s26 file.

After you have modified the file, reassemble it and replace the object module in the runtime library you are using. Simply include it in your application project and it will be used instead of the standard routine in the library.

If you want to use a completely different solution for bank switching, you must implement your own bank switching routine.

#### **DOWNLOADING TO MEMORY**

There is a wide choice of devices and memories to use, and depending on what your banked mode system looks like, different actions might be needed. For instance, the memory might be a single memory circuit with more than 64 Kbytes capacity, or several smaller memory circuits. The memory circuits can be, for instance, EPROM or flash memory.





By default, the linker generates output in the Intel-extended format, but you can easily change this to use any available format required by the tools you are using. If you are using the IAR Embedded Workbench IDE, the default output format depends on the used build configuration—Release or Debug.

When you download the code into physical memory, special considerations might be needed. For instance, assume a 78K0 or 78K0S banked system with two 16-Kbyte banks of ROM starting at  $0\times8000$ . If the banked code exceeds 16 Kbytes in size, when you link the project the result will be a single output file where the banked code starts at  $0\times8000$  and crosses the upper bank limit. A modern EPROM programmer does not require downloading one file to one EPROM at a time, it handles the download automatically by splitting the file and downloading it. However, older types of programmers do not always support relocation, or are unable to ignore the high byte of the 3-byte address. This means that you have to edit the file manually to set the high bytes of each address to 0 so that the programmer can locate them properly.

# **DEBUGGING BANKED APPLICATIONS**



The C-SPY® Debugger supports banked mode debugging for the 78K0 and 78K0S cores. To set banked mode debugging options in the IAR Embedded Workbench IDE, choose **Project>Options**, select the **General Options** category, and click the **Target** tab. Type the appropriate values for the following options:

- Reg. address specifies the SFR address used as bank register
- **Bank Address** specifies the bank start address
- No. of banks specifies the number of banks
- Bank size (Kbytes) specifies the size of the banks.

# Banked mode debugging with other debuggers

If your emulator does not support banked mode, one common technique is to isolate a subset of your application's functions that interact (one bank full or less). Then compile, link, and debug these functions as a group using the 78K0/78K0S *standard* code model. Repeat this procedure for various groupings of functions. Then, when you actually test the final banked system on target hardware, many C/C++ programming-related issues will already have been resolved.

Banked functions (78K0/78K0S only)

# Placing code and data

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

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

# Segments and memory

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

## WHAT IS A SEGMENT?

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

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

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

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

# Segment memory type

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

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

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

Table 11: XLINK segment memory types

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

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

# Placing segments in memory

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

In particular, the linker command file specifies:

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

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

#### CUSTOMIZING THE LINKER COMMAND FILE

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

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

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

Range	Туре
0x0000-0x7FFF	ROM
0x8000-0x9FFF	ROM (banked code)
0xA000-0xFFFF	RAM

Table 12: Memory layout of a target system (example)

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

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

#### The contents of the linker command file

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

- The CPU used:
  - -c78000

This specifies your target microcontroller.

- Definitions of constants used in the file. These are defined using the XLINK option

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

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

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

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

## Using the -Z command for sequential placement

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

must put segments in a specific order. Typical segments that should be located in consecutive chunks are segments that hold the application code.

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 0x0000-0x7FFF.

```
-Z (CONST) MYSEGMENTA, MYSEGMENTB=0000-7FFF
```

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

```
-Z (CONST) MYSEGMENTA=0000-7FFF
```

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

```
-Z (CONST)MYSMALLSEGMENT=6000-66FF
```





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

# Using the -P command for packed placement

The -P command differs from -Z in that it does not necessarily place the segments (or segment parts) sequentially. With -P it is possible to put segment parts into holes left by earlier placements. Typical segments that are suitable for this are segments that do not need to be located in consecutive chunks, such as segments that hold constants, switch tables, et cetera.

The following example illustrates how the XLINK  $\neg P$  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=A000-AFFF,D000-DFFF
```

If your application has an additional RAM area in the memory range 0xE000-0xFFFF, you can simply add that to the original definition:

```
-P(DATA)MYDATA=A000-AFFF,E000-FFFF
```

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

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

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

# Using the -P command for banked placement (78K0/78K0S only)

For an example of using the -P command for banked segment placement, that is, code that should be divided into several different memory banks, see *Example: banked placement using the -P command*, page 29.

# **Data segments**

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

To get a clear understanding about how the data segments work, you must be familiar with the different memory types (and, for 78K0R, the different data models) available in the compilers. If you need to refresh these details, see the chapter *Data storage*.

#### STATIC MEMORY SEGMENTS

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

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

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

- The segment naming
- How the memory types correspond to segment groups and the segments that are part
  of the segment groups
- Restrictions for segments holding initialized data
- The placement and size limitation of the segments of each group of static memory segments.

# Segment naming

The names of the segments consist of two parts—the segment group name and a *suffix*—for instance, 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. The following table summarizes the memory types and the corresponding segment groups:

Memory type	Segment group	Memory range
Near	NEAR	0x0000-0xffff (78K0 and 78K0S) 0xf0000-0xfffff (78K0R)
Far (78K0R only)	FAR	0x00000-0xFFFFF
Saddr	SADDR	0xFE20-0xFF1F (78K0 and 78K0S) 0xFFE20-0xFFF1F (78K0R)

Table 13: Memory types with corresponding segment groups

Some of the declared data is placed in non-volatile memory, for example ROM, and some of the data is placed in RAM. For this reason, it is also important to know the XLINK segment memory type of each segment. For more details about segment memory types, see *Segment memory type*, page 40.

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

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

Table 14: Segment name suffixes

For a list of all supported segments, see Summary of segments, page 253.

# Examples

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

```
__near int j; The near variables that are to be initialized to zero
    when the system starts are placed in the segment
    NEAR_Z.

__no_init __near int j; The near non-initialized variables are placed in the segment NEAR_N.

__near int j = 4; The near non-zero initialized variables are placed in the segment NEAR_I in RAM, and the corresponding initializer data in the segment NEAR_ID in ROM.
```

#### Initialized data

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

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

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

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

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

NEAR_I	0x1000-0x10FF and $0x1200-0x12FF$
NEAR_ID	0x4000-0x41FF

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

NEAR_I	0x1000-0x10FF and 0x1200-0x12FF
NEAR_ID	0x4000-0x40FF and 0x4200-0x42FF

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

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

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

The default linker command file for the 78K0 and 78K0S cores contains these directives to place the static data segments:

```
//First, the segments to be placed in ROM are defined:
-Z(CODE)NEAR_ID,SADDR_ID=1000-7FFF
-P(CODE)CONST,SWITCH=0080-7FFF

//Then, the RAM data segments are placed in memory:
-Z(DATA)NEAR_I,NEAR_Z=FB00-FE1F
-Z(DATA)WRKSEG,SADDR_I,SADDR_Z,SADDR_N=FE20-FEDF
-P(DATA)NEAR_N=FB00-FE1F
```

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

#### THE STACK

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

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

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



## Stack size allocation in the IDE

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

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



#### Stack size allocation from the command line

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

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

```
-D_CSTACK_SIZE=size
```

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

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





# Placement of stack segment

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

```
-Z (DATA) CSTACK+_CSTACK_SIZE=FB00-FE1F
```

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



#### Stack size considerations

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

**Note:** The maximum size of the internal data stack is equal to the size of available near memory, in other words up to 64 Kbytes, irrespective of which code model that you are using.

#### THE HEAP

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

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

- Linker segments used for the heap (which differs between the DLIB and the CLIB runtime environment for the 78K0R Compiler)
- Allocating the heap size, which differs depending on which build interface you are using
- Placing the heap segments in memory.

## Heap segments in DLIB for 78K0R

To access a heap in a specific memory when using the DLIB runtime environment with the 78K0R Compiler, 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 information about available heaps, see *Heaps*, page 76.

### Heap segments for 78K0/78K0S and in CLIB for 78K0R

When using the CLIB runtime environment with the 78K0R Compiler and always when using the 78K0/78K0S Compiler, the memory allocated to the heap is placed in the segment HEAP, which is only included in the application if dynamic memory allocation is actually used.



### Heap size allocation in the IDE

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

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



### Heap size allocation from the command line

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

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

```
-D_NEAR_HEAP_SIZE=size
-D FAR HEAP SIZE=size
```

**Note:** Normally, these lines are prefixed with the comment character //. To make the directive take effect, remove the comment character.

Specify the appropriate size for your application.





# Placement of heap segment

The actual heap segments are allocated in the memory area available for the heaps:

- -Z(DATA)HEAP+\_HEAP\_SIZE=A000-FE1F
- -Z(DATA)NEAR\_HEAP+\_NEAR\_HEAP\_SIZE=F1F00-FFE1F
- -Z(DATA)FAR\_HEAP+\_FAR\_HEAP\_SIZE=[80000-EFFFF]/10000

The /10000 syntax divides the address range into 0x10000-byte pages. See the *IAR Linker and Library Tools Reference Guide* for more information.

**Note:** These ranges do not specify the size of the heap; they specify the range of the available memory.



### Heap size and standard I/O

If your DLIB runtime environment is configured to use FILE descriptors, as in the Full configuration, input and output buffers for file handling will be allocated. In that case,

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 78K 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, for example 1 Kbyte.

#### 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 either the NEAR\_A or FAR\_A (78K0R) segment. The individual segment part of the segment knows its location in the memory space, and it does not have to be specified in the linker command file.

### **USER-DEFINED SEGMENTS**

If you create your own segments using the #pragma location directive or the @ operator, these segments must also be defined in the linker command file using the -Z or -P segment control directives.

# **Code segments**

This section contains descriptions of the segments used for storing code, and the interrupt vector table. For a complete list of all segments, see *Summary of segments*, page 253.

#### STARTUP CODE

The segment RCODE contains code used during system setup (cstartup) and the runtime library code. The system setup code should be placed at the location where the chip starts executing code after a reset. For the 78K microcontroller, this is at the address  $0 \times 0.080$  (78KO and 78KOS) or  $0 \times 0.000$  (78KOR).

In the default linker command file, one of these lines will place the RCODE segment:

-P(CODE)RCODE=0080-1FFF -P(CODE)RCODE=000C0-07FFF

#### **NORMAL CODE**

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

### **Default code location**

Standard code—that is, all user-written code when you use the standard (78K0/78K0S) or near (78K0R) code model, as well as functions declared \_\_callt and \_\_interrupt—is placed in the CODE segment.

In the default linker command file it can look like this:

-Z(CODE)CODE=01000-07FFF

# Banked code (78K0/78K0S only)

When you use the banked code model, all user-written code is by default located in the BCODE segment. Here, the -P linker directive is used for distributing the banked code across the different code banks.

In the linker command file it can look like this:

```
-P(CODE)BCODE=[_CODEBANK_START-_CODEBANK_END]*_CODEBANK_BANKS+10000
```

Note the use of the linker defines \_CODEBANK\_START, \_CODEBANK\_END, and \_CODEBANK\_BANKS to define the bank start address, bank end address, and the number of banks, respectively. This defines could, for example, look like this:

```
-D_CODEBANK_START=8000
```

You must also define the SFR register address for code bank switching:

-D\_CODEBANK\_REG=FF00

# Far code (78K0R only)

When you use the Far code model, all user-written code is by default located in the XCODE segment.

In the default linker command file it can look like this:

```
-Z (CODE) XCODE=[08000-EFFFF]/10000
```

**Note:** The /10000 syntax divides the address range into 0x10000-byte pages. See the *IAR Linker and Library Tools Reference Guide* for more information.

<sup>-</sup>D\_CODEBANK\_END=9FFF

<sup>-</sup>D\_CODEBANK\_BANKS=4

# **CALLF DECLARED FUNCTIONS (78K0 ONLY)**

All functions that you declare using the extended keyword \_\_callf are located in the segment FCODE. This segment is restricted to the memory area 0x0800-0x0FFF, which means the linker directive would look like this:

-Z(CODE)FCODE=0800-0FFF

### INTERRUPT AND CALLT VECTORS

The interrupt vector table contains pointers to interrupt routines, including the reset routine. The table is placed in the segment INTVEC. You must place this segment in the address range  $0\times0-0\times003$ F (78K0/78K0S) or  $0\times0-0\times0007$ F (78K0R). The linker directive for 78K0/78K0S would then look like this:

-Z(CODE)INTVEC=0000-003F

The vectors for \_\_callt declared functions are located in the segment CLTVEC. You must place this segment in the address range  $0\times0040-0\times007F$  (78K0/78K0S) or  $0\times00080-0\times000BF$  (78K0R). The linker directive for a 78K0/78K0S project would then look like this:

-Z (CONST) CLTVEC=0040-007F

The \_\_interrupt and \_\_callt declared functions are located in the code segment CODE, see *Normal code*, page 49.

#### 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=0000-7FFF

For additional information, see *DIFUNCT*, page 257.

# Verifying the linked result of code and data placement

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

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

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

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

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

### **LINKER MAP FILE**

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

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





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

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

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

# The DLIB runtime environment

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

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

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

Note that the DLIB runtime environment is the default when you use the C++ language; DLIB can be used with both C and the C++ languages. CLIB on the other hand can only be used with the C language. For information about the CLIB runtime environment, 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. The IAR DLIB runtime environment can be used as is together with the debugger. However, to be able to run the application on hardware, you must adapt the runtime environment.

This section gives an overview of:

- The runtime environment and its components
- Library selection.

#### RUNTIME ENVIRONMENT FUNCTIONALITY

The runtime environment supports ISO/ANSI C and C++ including the standard template library. The runtime environment consists of the runtime library, which

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contains the functions defined by these standards, and include files that define the library interface.

The runtime library is delivered both as prebuilt libraries and (depending on your product package) as source files, and you can find them in the product subdirectories 78k\lib and 78k\src\lib, respectively.

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

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

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

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

#### LIBRARY SELECTION

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

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

- Setting library options, for example, for choosing scanf input and printf output formatters, and for specifying the size of the stack and the heap
- Overriding certain library functions, for example cstartup.s26, with your own customized versions
- Choosing the level of support for certain standard library functionality, for example, locale, file descriptors, and multibyte characters, by choosing a *library* configuration: normal or full.

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

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

### SITUATIONS THAT REQUIRE LIBRARY BUILDING

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

You must build your own library when:

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

For information about how to build a customized library, see *Building and using a customized library*, page 62.

### LIBRARY CONFIGURATIONS

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

These DLIB library configurations are available:

Library configuration	Description
Normal DLIB	No locale interface, C locale, no file descriptor support, no multibyte characters in printf and scanf, and no 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

You can also define your own configurations, which means that you must modify the configuration file. Note that the library configuration file describes how a library was built and thus cannot be changed unless you rebuild the library. For further information, see *Building and using a customized library*, page 62.

The prebuilt libraries are based on the default configurations, see Table 17, *Prebuilt libraries*, page 57. There is also a ready-made library project template that you can use if you want to rebuild the runtime library.

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

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

This table describes the different levels of debugging support:

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

Table 16: Levels of debugging support in runtime libraries

If you build your application project with the XLINK options **With runtime control modules** or **With I/O emulation modules**, certain functions in the library are replaced by functions that communicate with the IAR C-SPY Debugger. For further information, see *C-SPY runtime interface*, page 77.



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

# Using a prebuilt library

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

- Code model
- Data model (78K0R only)
- Processor core
- Library configuration—Normal or Full.

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Library object file	Code model	Data model	Processor core	Library configuration
d178ks0n.r26	Standard	_	78K0_basic	Normal
d178ks0f.r26	Standard	_	78K0_basic	Full
d178ks1n.r26	Standard	_	78K0	Normal
d178ks1f.r26	Standard	_	78K0	Full
d178ks2n.r26	Standard	_	78K0S	Normal
d178ks2f.r26	Standard	_	78K0S	Full
d178kb0n.r26	Banked	_	78K0_basic	Normal
d178kb0f.r26	Banked	_	78K0_basic	Full
d178kb1n.r26	Banked	_	78K0	Normal
d178kb1f.r26	Banked	_	78K0	Full
d178kb2n.r26	Banked	_	78K0S	Normal
d178kb2f.r26	Banked	_	78K0S	Full
dl78knn3n.r26	Near	Near	78K0R	Normal
dl78knn3f.r26	Near	Near	78K0R	Full
dl78knf3n.r26	Near	Far	78K0R	Normal
dl78knf3f.r26	Near	Far	78K0R	Full
d178kfn3n.r26	Far	Near	78K0R	Normal
d178kfn3f.r26	Far	Near	78K0R	Full
dl78kff3n.r26	Far	Far	78K0R	Normal
d178kff3f.r26	Far	Far	78K0R	Full

Table 17: Prebuilt libraries

The names of the libraries are constructed in this way:

<library><cpu><code\_model><data\_model><core><lib\_conf>.r26

#### where

- <1ibrary> is d1 for the IAR DLIB runtime environment
- <cpu> is 78k
- <code\_mode1> is one of s, b, n, or f for standard, banked, near, and far code, respectively
- <data\_model> is one of n or f for the near and far data model, respectively. This applies only to the 78K0R Compiler
- <core> is one of 0, 1, 2, or 3, for 78K0\_basic, 78K0, 78K0S, and 78K0R respectively

• <1ib\_conf> is one of n or f for normal and full, respectively.

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



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



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

- Specify which library object file to use on the XLINK command line, for instance: d178ks1n.r26
- Specify the include paths for the compiler and assembler:
  - -I 78k\inc\dlib
- Specify the library configuration file for the compiler:
  - --dlib\_config C:\...\dl78ks1n.h

You can find the library object files and the library configuration files in the subdirectory 78k\lib\dlib.

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

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

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

These items can be customized:

Items that can be customized	Described in
Formatters for printf and scanf	Choosing formatters for printf and scanf, page 59
Startup and termination code	System startup and termination, page 64
Low-level input and output	Standard streams for input and output, page 67
File input and output	File input and output, page 71
Low-level environment functions	Environment interaction, page 74
Low-level signal functions	Signal and raise, page 75
Low-level time functions	Time, page 75

Table 18: Customizable items

Items that can be customized	Described in
Size of heaps, stacks, and segments	Placing code and data, page 39

Table 18: Customizable items (Continued)

For a description about how to override library modules, see *Overriding library modules*, page 61.

# Choosing formatters for printf and scanf

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

**Note:** If you rebuild the library, it is possible to optimize these functions even further, see *Configuration symbols for printf and scanf*, page 70.

### **CHOOSING PRINTF FORMATTER**

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

This table summarizes the capabilities of the different formatters:

Formatting capabilities	$\_{\bf PrintfFull}$	_PrintfLarge	_PrintfSmall	_PrintfTiny
Basic specifiers c, d, i, o, p, s, u, X,	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
x, and $%$				
Multibyte support	†	†	†	No
Floating-point specifiers $a,$ and ${\tt A}$	Yes	No	No	No
Floating-point specifiers e, E, f, F, g, and $G$	Yes	Yes	No	No
Conversion specifier n	Yes	Yes	No	No
Conversion specifier 11	163	163	140	140
Format flag space, $+$ , $-$ , $\#$ , and $0$	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Length modifiers $h,l,\mathtt{L},\mathtt{s},\mathtt{t},\mathtt{and}\mathtt{Z}$	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Field width and precision, including $\mbox{^{*}}$	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
long long support	Yes	Yes	No	No

Table 19: Formatters for printf

For information about how to fine-tune the formatting capabilities even further, see *Configuration symbols for printf and scanf*, page 70.

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



## Specifying the print formatter in the IDE

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



### Specifying printf formatter from the command line

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

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

### **CHOOSING SCANF FORMATTER**

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

This table summarizes the capabilities of the different formatters:

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

Table 20: Formatters for scanf

For information about how to fine-tune the formatting capabilities even further, see *Configuration symbols for printf and scanf*, page 70.

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



# Specifying scanf formatter in the IDE

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



### Specifying scanf formatter from the command line

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

-e\_ScanfLarge=\_Scanf
-e\_ScanfSmall=\_Scanf

# **Overriding library modules**

The library contains modules which you probably need to override with your own customized modules, for example functions for character-based I/O and cstartup. This can be done without rebuilding the entire library. This section describes the procedure for including your version of the module in the application project build process. The library files that you can override with your own versions are located in the 78k\src\lib directory.

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



# Overriding library modules using the IDE

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

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

# **>\_**

# Overriding library modules from the command line

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

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

```
icc78k library_module.c
```

This creates a replacement object module file named 1ibrary\_module.r26.

**Note:** The code model, include paths, and the library configuration file must be the same for <code>library\_module</code> as for the rest of your code.

**4** Add *library\_module.r26* to the XLINK command line, either directly or by using an extended linker command file, for example:

```
xlink library_module.r26 d178ks0n.r26
```

Make sure that <code>library\_module.r26</code> is placed before the library on the command line. This ensures that your module is used instead of the one in the library.

Run XLINK to rebuild your application.

This will use your version of <code>library\_module.r26</code>, instead of the one in the library. For information about the XLINK options, see the <code>IAR Linker</code> and <code>Library Tools Reference Guide</code>.

# Building and using a customized library

In some situations, see *Situations that require library building*, page 55, it is necessary to rebuild the library. In those cases you must:

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

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

Information about the build process and the IAR Command Line Build Utility, see the IAR Embedded Workbench® IDE User 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 has Full library configuration, see Table 15, *Library configurations*, page 55.



In the IDE, modify the generic options in the created library project to suit your application, see *Basic settings for project configuration*, page 6.

**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 DLib\_defaults.h. This read-only file describes the configuration possibilities. Your library also has its own library configuration file d178kcustom.h, which sets up that specific library with full library configuration. For more information, see Table 18, *Customizable items*, page 58.

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 d178kCustom.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.s26, cexit\_dlib.s26, and low\_level\_init.c located in the 78k\src\lib directory.

For information about how to customize the system startup code, see *Customizing* system initialization, page 66.

#### SYSTEM STARTUP

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

For the hardware initialization, it looks like this:

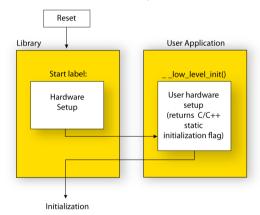


Figure 3: Target hardware initialization phase

- When the CPU is reset it will jump to the program entry label \_\_program\_start in the system startup code.
- The function \_\_low\_level\_init is called if you defined it, giving the application
  a chance to perform early initializations.

Library

User application

User hardware setup

Dynamic C++ initialization

User code

Return from main

exit()

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

Figure 4: C/C++ initialization phase

- Static and global variables are initialized. 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 details, see *Initialized data*, page 45
- Static C++ objects are constructed
- The main function is called, which starts the application.

### SYSTEM TERMINATION

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

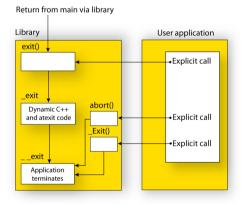


Figure 5: System termination phase

An application can terminate normally in two different ways:

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

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

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

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

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

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

#### C-SPY interface to system termination

If your project is linked with the XLINK options **With runtime control modules** or **With I/O emulation modules**, the normal \_\_exit and abort functions are replaced with special ones. C-SPY will then recognize when those functions are called and can take appropriate actions to simulate program termination. For more information, see *C-SPY runtime interface*, page 77.

# **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.s26 before the data segments are initialized. Modifying the file cstartup directly should be avoided.

The code for handling system startup is located in the source files cstartup.s26 and low\_level\_init.c, located in the 78k\src\lib directory.

Note: Normally, you do not need to customize cexit.s26.



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 62.

**Note:** Regardless of whether you modify the routine \_\_low\_level\_init or the file cstartup.s26, you do not have to rebuild the library.

### LOW LEVEL INIT

A skeleton low-level initialization file is supplied with the product: low\_level\_init.c. Note that static initialized variables cannot be used within the file, because variables have not been initialized at this point.

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.

#### **MODIFYING THE FILE CSTARTUP.S26**

As noted earlier, you should not modify the file cstartup.s26 if a customized version of \_\_low\_level\_init is enough for your needs. However, if you do need to modify the file cstartup.s26, 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 61.

Note that you must make sure that the linker uses the same start label as used in your version of cstartup.s26. 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*.

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

# IMPLEMENTING LOW-LEVEL CHARACTER INPUT AND OUTPUT

To implement low-level functionality of the stdin and stdout streams, you must write the functions \_\_read and \_\_write, respectively. You can find template source code for these functions in the 78k\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 62. Note that customizing the low-level routines for input and output does not require you to rebuild the library.

**Note:** If you write your own variants of \_\_read or \_\_write, special considerations for the C-SPY runtime interface are needed, see *C-SPY runtime interface*, page 77.

# Example of using \_\_write

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

```
#include <stddef.h>
__no_init volatile unsigned char lcdIO @ 0x8000;
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: A call to \_\_write where buf has the value NULL is a command to flush the handle.

### Example of using \_\_read

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

```
#include <stddef.h>
__no_init volatile unsigned char kbIO @ 0x8000;
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 126.

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# 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 59.

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 21: Descriptions of printf configuration symbols

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

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

Table 22: Descriptions of scanf configuration symbols

### **CUSTOMIZING FORMATTING CAPABILITIES**

To customize the formatting capabilities, you must set up a library project, see *Building and using a customized library*, page 62. Define the configuration symbols according to your application requirements.

# File input and output

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

Note that file I/O capability in the library is only supported by libraries with full library configuration, see *Library configurations*, page 55. In other words, file I/O is supported when the configuration symbol \_\_DLIB\_FILE\_DESCRIPTOR is enabled. If not enabled, functions taking a FILE \* argument cannot be used.

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

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

Table 23: Low-level I/O files

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

**Note:** If you link your library with I/O debugging support, C-SPY variants of the low-level I/O functions are linked for interaction with C-SPY. For more information, see *Debug support in the runtime library*, page 56.

# Locale

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

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

The DLIB library can be used in two main modes:

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

### LOCALE SUPPORT IN PREBUILT LIBRARIES

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

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

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

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

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

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

# Locale configuration symbols

The configuration symbol \_DLIB\_FULL\_LOCALE\_SUPPORT, which is defined in the library configuration file, determines whether a library has support for a locale interface or not. The locale configuration symbols \_LOCALE\_USE\_LANG\_REGION and \_ENCODING\_USE\_ENCODING define all the supported locales and encodings:

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

If you want to customize the locale support, you simply define the locale configuration symbols required by your application. For more information, see *Building and using a customized library*, page 62.

**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 getenv and system.

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

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

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

```
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 78k\src\lib directory. For information about overriding default library modules, see Overriding library modules, page 61.

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

If you decide to rebuild the library, you can find source templates in the library project template. For further information, see *Building and using a customized library*, page 62.

**Note:** If you link your application with support for I/O debugging, the functions getenv and system are replaced by C-SPY variants. For further information, see *Debug support in the runtime library*, page 56.

# 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 78k\src\lib directory. For information about overriding default library modules, see *Overriding library modules*, page 61.

If you decide to rebuild the library, you can find source templates in the library project template. For further information, see *Building and using a customized library*, page 62.

# Time

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

This does not require that you rebuild the library. You can find source templates in the files clock.c and time.c, and getzone.c in the 78k\src\lib directory. For information about overriding default library modules, see *Overriding library modules*, page 61.

If you decide to rebuild the library, you can find source templates in the library project template. For further information, see *Building and using a customized library*, page 62.

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

**Note:** If you link your application with support for I/O debugging, the functions clock and time are replaced by C-SPY variants that return the host clock and time respectively. For further information, see *C-SPY runtime interface*, page 77.

# **Strtod**

The function strtod does not accept hexadecimal floating-point strings in libraries with the normal library configuration. To make a library do so, you must rebuild the library, see *Building and using a customized library*, page 62. Enable the configuration symbol \_DLIB\_STRTOD\_HEX\_FLOAT in the library configuration file.

# **Assert**

If you linked your application with support for runtime debugging, C-SPY will be notified about failed asserts. If this is not the behavior you require, you must add the source file xreportassert.c to your application project. Alternatively, you can rebuild the library. The \_\_ReportAssert function generates the assert notification. You can find template code in the 78k\src\lib directory. For further information, see Building and using a customized library, page 62. 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.

# **Heaps**

The runtime environment supports heaps in these memory types for the 78K0R Compiler:

Memory type	Segment name	Memory attribute	Used by default in data model
Near	NEAR_HEAP	near	Near
Far	FAR_HEAP	far	Far

Table 24: Heaps and memory types

See *The heap*, page 47 for information about how to set the size for each heap. 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 data model. For information about how to use a specific heap in C++, see *New and Delete operators* (78K0R only), page 114.

# Hardware support

Some 78K microcontrollers have a hardware multiplier/divider unit. To include runtime support for this unit, use the sample library code provided in the 78k\src\lib\hw\_multiply\_division\_units directory



In the IDE, select the **Use Hardware Multiplier/Divider Unit** option on the **Project Options>General Options>Library Configuration** page. If the currently selected 78K device does not have a hardware multiplier/divider unit, this option will not be available.

# **C-SPY** runtime interface

To include support for runtime and I/O debugging, you must link your application with the XLINK options **With runtime control modules** or **With I/O emulation modules**, see *Debug support in the runtime library*, page 56.

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

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

Table 25: Functions with special meanings when linked with debug info

### LOW-LEVEL DEBUGGER RUNTIME INTERFACE

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

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

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

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 options for C-SPY runtime interface. 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.

### THE DEBUGGER TERMINAL I/O WINDOW

To make the Terminal I/O window available, the application must be linked with support for I/O debugging, see *Debug support in the runtime library*, page 56. This means that when the functions \_\_read or \_\_write are called to perform I/O operations on the streams stdin, stdout, or stderr, data will be sent to or read from the C-SPY Terminal I/O window.

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

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

# Speeding up terminal output

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

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

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

```
-e__write_buffered=__write
```

# **Checking module consistency**

This section introduces the concept of runtime model attributes, a mechanism used by the IAR compilers, assemblers, and linker to ensure that modules are built using compatible settings.

When developing an application, it is important to ensure that incompatible modules are not used together. For example, in the compiler, the floating-point format is incompatible between the CLIB library and the DLIB library. If you write a routine that

only works for the DLIB library, it is possible to check that the routine is not used in an application built using the CLIB library.

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

### **RUNTIME MODEL ATTRIBUTES**

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

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

### Example

In 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
file3	red	*
file4	red	spicy
file5	red	lean

Table 26: Example of runtime model attributes

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:

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

For detailed syntax information, see *rtmodel*, page 229.

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

```
rtmodel "color", "red"
```

For detailed syntax information, see the IAR Assemblers Reference Guide for 78K.

**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 compilers. These can be included in assembler code or in mixed C/C++ and assembler code.

Runtime model attribute	Value	Description
code_model	standard, banked, near, <b>or</b> far	Corresponds to the code model used in the project.
data_model	near <b>or</b> far	Corresponds to the data model used in the project. 78K0R only.
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.

Table 27: 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, refer to the chapter *Assembler directives* in the *IAR Assemblers Reference Guide for 78K*.

### **Examples**

The following assembler source code provides a function that increases the register E to count the number of times it was called. The routine assumes that the application does not use E for anything else, that is, the register is locked for usage. To ensure this, a runtime module attribute, \_\_reg\_e, 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.

```
module myCounter
public myCounter
rseg CODE:CODE:NOROOT(1)
rtmodel "__reg_e", "counter"
myCounter: inc E
ret
endmod
end
```

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

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

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

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

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

```
#pragma rtmodel="uart", "model"
```

Checking module consistency

## The CLIB runtime environment

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

The standard library uses a small set of low-level input and output routines for character-based I/O. This chapter describes how the low-level routines can be replaced by your own version. The chapter also describes how you can choose printf and scanf formatters.

The chapter then describes system initialization and termination. It presents how an application can control what happens before the start function main is called, and the method for how you can customize the initialization. Finally, the C-SPY® runtime interface is covered.

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 78K IAR Embedded Workbench Migration Guide.

## **Runtime environment**

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 detailed reference information about the runtime libraries, see the chapter *Library functions*.

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

- Code model
- Data model
- Processor core.

These prebuilt libraries are available:

Library object file	Code model	Data model	Processor core
c178ks0.r26	Standard	_	78K0_basic
c178ks1.r26	Standard	_	78K0
c178ks2.r26	Standard	_	78K0S
c178kb0.r26	Banked	_	78K0_basic
c178kb1.r26	Banked	_	78K0
c178kb2.r26	Banked	_	78K0S
c178knn3.r26	Near	Near	78K0R
c178knf3.r26	Near	Far	78K0R
c178kfn3.r26	Far	Near	78K0R
c178kff3.r26	Far	Far	78K0R

Table 28: Runtime libraries

The runtime library names are constructed in this way:

<type><cpu><code\_model><data\_model><core>.r26

#### where

- <type> c1 for the IAR CLIB Library
- < cpu> is 78k
- <code\_model> is one of s, b, n, or f for standard, banked, near, and far code, respectively
- <data\_model> is one of n or f for the near and far data model, respectively.
   This applies only to the 78K0R Compiler
- <core> is one of 0, 1, 2, or 3, for 78K0\_basic, 78K0, 78K0S, and 78K0R respectively.



The IDE includes the correct runtime library based on the options you select. See the *IAR Embedded Workbench® IDE User Guide* for additional information.



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

c178ks1.r26

## 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 @ 0x8000;
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 61.

#### FORMATTERS USED BY PRINTF AND SPRINTF

The printf and sprintf functions use a common formatter, called \_formatted\_write. The full version of \_formatted\_write is very large, and provides facilities not required in many embedded applications. To reduce the memory consumption, two smaller, alternative versions are also provided in the standard C library.

#### medium write

The \_medium\_write formatter has the same functions as \_formatted\_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 _formatted_write.
```

#### 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 \_formatted\_write.



#### Specifying the printf formatter in the IDE

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



### Specifying the printf formatter from the command line

To use the \_small\_write or \_medium\_write formatter, add the corresponding line in the linker command file:

```
-e_small_write=_formatted_write
or
-e_medium_write=_formatted_write
```

To use the full version, remove the line.

## **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 61.

#### FORMATTERS USED BY SCANF AND SSCANF

Similar to the printf and sprintf functions, scanf and sscanf use a common formatter, called \_formatted\_read. The full version of \_formatted\_read is very large, and provides facilities that are not required in many embedded applications. To reduce the memory consumption, an alternative smaller version is also provided.

#### medium read

The \_medium\_read formatter has the same functions as the full version, except that floating-point numbers are not supported. \_medium\_read is considerably smaller than the full version.



#### Specifying the scanf formatter in the IDE

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



#### Specifying the read formatter from the command line

To use the \_medium\_read formatter, add this line in the linker command file:

-e\_medium\_read=\_formatted\_read

To use the full version, remove the line.

## 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.s26 and low\_level\_init.c, located in the 78k\src\lib directory.

#### SYSTEM STARTUP

When an application is initialized, several steps are performed:

- The custom function \_\_low\_level\_init is called if you defined it, giving the
  application a chance to perform early initializations
- Static variables are initialized; 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 ISO/ANSI 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 61, in the chapter *The DLIB runtime environment*.

## **Customizing system initialization**

For information about how to customize system initialization, see *Customizing system initialization*, page 66.

## **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 ?C\_GETCHAR 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 *IAR Embedded Workbench*® *IDE User 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 78.

Checking module consistency

# Assembler language interface

When you develop an application for an embedded system, there might be situations where you will find it necessary to write parts of the code in assembler, for example when using mechanisms in the 78K microcontroller that require precise timing and special instruction sequences.

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

Finally, the chapter covers how you can implement support for call frame information in your assembler routines for use in the C-SPY® Call Stack window.

## Mixing C and assembler

The IAR C/C++ Compilers for 78K provide 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 compilers provide 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 detailed information about the available intrinsic functions, see the chapter *Intrinsic functions*.

#### **MIXING C AND ASSEMBLER MODULES**

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

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

This causes some overhead in the form of a CALL and a RET instruction, and the compiler will regard some registers as scratch registers. However, the compiler will also assume that all scratch registers are destroyed by an inline assembler instruction. In many cases, the overhead of the extra instructions can be removed by 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 issue is discussed in the section *Calling assembler routines from C*, page 94. The following two are covered in the section *Calling convention*, page 97.

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 104.

The recommended method for mixing C or C++ and assembler modules is described in *Calling assembler routines from C*, page 94, and *Calling assembler routines from C*++, page 96, respectively.

#### **INLINE ASSEMBLER**

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

```
char sFlag;
void Foo()
{
  while (!Flag)
  {
    asm("MOV A,0xFF30");
    asm("MOV Flag,A");
  }
}
```

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

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

Inline assembler sequences have no well-defined interface with the surrounding code generated from your C or C++ code. This makes the inline assembler code fragile, and will possibly also become a maintenance problem if you upgrade the compiler in the future. There are also several limitations to using inline assembler:

- The compiler's various optimizations will disregard any effects of the inline sequences, which will not be optimized at all
- In general, assembler directives will cause errors or have no meaning. Data definition directives will however work as expected
- Alignment cannot be controlled; this means, for example, that DC16 directives might be misaligned

- · Auto variables cannot be accessed
- Static variables cannot be accessed
- Labels cannot be declared.

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;
   gInt = 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 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:

```
icc78k skeleton.c -lA .
```

The <code>-lA</code> 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 s26. Also remember to specify the code model and processor core you are using (and for the 78K0R Compiler, the data model), a low level of optimization, and <code>-e</code> for enabling language extensions.

The result is the assembler source output file skeleton.s26.

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



Compiler>List and deselect the suboption Include call frame information. On the command line, use the option -lb instead of -la. Note that CFI information must be included in the source code to make the C-SPY Call Stack window work.

#### The output file

The output file contains the following important information:

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

The CFI directives describe the call frame information needed by the Call Stack window in the debugger. For more information, see *Call frame information*, page 104.

## 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);
}
```

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

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.

This section describes the calling convention used by the compilers. In the 78K0/78K0S Compiler, the default calling convention behaves slightly differently in the standard

code model compared in to the banked code model. These differences are also pointed out in this section.

These items are examined:

- 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.

#### **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 78K CPU registers are divided into three separate sets, which are described in this section.

#### Scratch registers

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

The following registers are used as scratch registers:

- The registers AX and HL, and, in 78K0R, CS and ES.
- Registers that are used as register parameters and for returning values by a function
- For banked functions, the register DE is also used as scratch register.

#### **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 non-banked functions, the registers BC, and DE are preserved registers. For banked functions, the register BC is a preserved register.

#### **Special registers**

The stack pointer register must at all times point to or below the last element on the stack. If an interrupt occurs, everything below the point the stack pointer points to will be destroyed.

#### **FUNCTION ENTRANCE**

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

available, the remaining parameters are passed on the stack. The parameters are also passed on the stack in these cases:

- Structure types: struct, union, and classes, except structs and unions of sizes 1, 2,
   and 4
- Unnamed parameters to variable length (variadic) functions; in other words, functions declared as foo (param1, ...), for example printf.

This means, basically, that any 3-byte object and objects greater than 4 bytes are passed on the stack. For more details, see Table 29, *Registers used for passing parameters*.

#### Hidden parameters

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

If the function returns a structure, a pointer to the allocated space is passed as a hidden parameter. Hidden parameters are treated as ordinary parameters.

#### Register parameters

The registers available for passing parameters are AX, BC, and DE, in that order. The register DE is not available for banked functions.

Parameters	Passed in registers
8-bit values	A, B, C, X, D, E
16-bit values	AX, BC, DE
24-bit values	C: AX (78K0/78K0S) Passed on the stack (78K0R)
32-bit values	BC:AX

Table 29: Registers used for passing parameters

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

#### Stack parameters and layout

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

divisible by two, etc. Objects on the stack are stored with alignment 2, which means that 1-byte objects (char) will occupy 2 bytes.

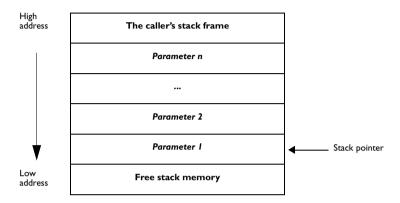


Figure 6: Stack image after the function call

#### **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

The registers available for returning values are A, B, C, and X.

Return values	Passed in registers
8-bit values	A
16-bit values	AX
24-bit values	C: AX (78K0/78K0S) A: HL (78K0R)
32-bit values	BC:AX

Table 30: Registers used for returning values

#### Stack layout at function exit

It is the responsibility of the called function to clean the stack before function exit, in other words, responsible for cleaning the pushed parameters before returning.

There is one exception to this rule; the *caller* cleans the stack if the called function is a ...(variable argument list) function, for example int printf (char const \*, ...)

#### Return address handling

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

```
CALL func
```

Typically, a function returns by using the RET instruction, for example:

```
RET
```

There are two exceptions to this rule:

- For interrupt functions, the instruction RETI is used for a function return
- For the break interrupt, BRK instruction, the instruction RETB is used for a function return.

#### **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 AX, and the return value is passed back to its caller in the register AX.

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

```
name return
rseg CODE:CODE
incw AX
ret
end
```

#### Example 2

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

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

The calling function must reserve 8 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 AX. The return value is passed back to its caller in the register AX.

#### Example 3

The function below will return a structure of type struct.

```
struct MyStruct
{
  int mA;
  char mC;
};
struct MyStruct MyFunction(int x);
```

It is the responsibility of the calling function to allocate a memory location for the return value and pass a pointer to it as a hidden first parameter. If you are using the near data model, the pointer to the location where the return value should be stored is passed in AX. The caller assumes that these registers remain untouched. The parameter x is passed in BC.

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 pointer, so there is no hidden parameter. The parameter x is passed in AX, and the return value is returned in AX.

#### **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 78K does not use static overlay, because it has no use for it.

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

For reference information about the function directives, see the *IAR Assemblers Reference Guide for 78K*.

### 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 Assemblers Reference Guide for 78K*.

#### **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.

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

Resource	Description
CFA	The call frames of the regular stack and of the interrupt stack, respectively
A, B, C, D, E, H, L, X	Normal registers
CS_REG	Bit 16–19 in the code address space (78K0R only)
ES_REG	Bit 16-19 in the data address space (78K0R only)

Table 31: Call frame information resources defined in a names block

Resource	Description
SP	The stack pointer for 78K0/78K0S
?SP20	The stack pointer for 78K0R
?RET	For non-banked return addresses, and part of banked return addresses (a 16-bit address for 78K0/78K0S, a 20-bit address for 78K0R)
?RET8	For the bank number in banked return addresses, otherwise undefined (an 8-bit address—78K0/78K0S only)
?RET24	A concatenation of ?RET and ?RET8 used for banked return addresses (a 24-bit address—78K0/78K0S only)
W0-W127	The wrkseg area

Table 31: Call frame information resources defined in a names block (Continued)

#### 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.

For the source code in this example, the list file looks like this:

```
NAME Cfi

PUBLIC cfiExample
FUNCTION cfiExample,021203H
ARGFRAME CSTACK, 0, STACK
LOCFRAME CSTACK, 2, STACK

CFI Names cfiNames0
CFI StackFrame CFA SP DATA
```

```
CFI Resource A:8, X:8, B:8, C:8, D:8, E:8, H:8, L:8
        CFI VirtualResource ?RET24:24
        CFI Resource ?RET8:8, SP:16
        CFI EndNames cfiNames0
       CFI Common cfiCommon0 Using cfiNames0
        CFI CodeAlign 1
       CFI DataAlign 1
       CFI ReturnAddress ?RET24 CODE
       CFI CFA SP+2
       CFI A Undefined
       CFI X Undefined
       CFI B SameValue
       CFT C SameValue
       CFI D SameValue
       CFI E SameValue
       CFI H Undefined
       CFI L Undefined
       CFI ?RET24 add(load(2, DATA, sub(CFA, 2)), mul(65536,
            ?RET8))
        CFI ?RET8 SameValue
        CFI EndCommon cfiCommon0
        EXTERN F
        FUNCTION F,0202H
        ARGFRAME CSTACK, 2, STACK
       RSEG CODE: CODE: NOROOT (0)
cfiExample:
        CFI Block cfiBlock0 Using cfiCommon0
        CFI Function cfiExample
        FUNCALL cfiExample, F
        LOCFRAME CSTACK, 2, STACK
        ARGFRAME CSTACK, 2, STACK
        PUSH
                 DE
       CFI E Frame(CFA, -4)
       CFI D Frame (CFA, -3)
       CFI CFA SP+4
       MOVW
                DE, AX
       MVVOM
                AX,DE
                F
       CALL
       XCH
                A,X
       ADD
                 A,E
       XCH
                 A,X
       ADDC
                A,D
       POP
                 DE
       CFI E SameValue
```

CFI D SameValue CFI CFA SP+2 RET

CFI EndBlock cfiBlock0

END

Call frame information

## Using C++

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

#### **Overview**

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

#### STANDARD EMBEDDED C++

The following C++ features are supported:

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

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

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

- Templates
- Multiple and virtual inheritance
- Exception handling

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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



In the compiler, the default language is C. To be able to compile files written in Embedded C++, you must use the --ec++ compiler option. See --ec++, page 164. You must also use the IAR DLIB runtime library.

To take advantage of *Extended* Embedded C++ features in your source code, you must use the --eec++ compiler option. See --eec++, page 164.



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

## **Feature descriptions**

When you write C++ source code for the IAR C/C++ Compilers for 78K, you must be aware of some benefits and some possible quirks when mixing C++ features—such as classes, and class members—with IAR language extensions, such as IAR-specific attributes.

#### **CLASSES**

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

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

The location operator @ can be used on static data members and on any type of function members.

For further information about attributes, see *Type qualifiers*, page 189.

#### Example

```
class MyClass
{
public:
    // Locate a static variable in saddr memory at address FFD0
    static __saddr __no_init int mI @ FFD0;

    // Locate a static function in far memory
    static __far void F();

    // Locate a function in far memory
    __far void G();
```

```
// Locate a virtual function in far memory
virtual __far void H();

// Locate a virtual function into SPECIAL
virtual void M() const volatile @ "SPECIAL";
```

#### The this pointer (78K0R only)

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 (78K0R only)

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

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 13.

#### **FUNCTION TYPES**

A function type with extern "C" linkage is compatible with a function that has C++ linkage.

#### Example

#### **NEW AND DELETE OPERATORS (78K0R ONLY)**

For the 78K0R Compiler, there are operators for new and delete for each memory that can have a heap, that is, near and far memory.

```
// Assumes that there is a heap in both __near and __far memory
void __far *operator new __far(__far_size_t);
void __near *operator new __near (__near_size_t);
void operator delete(void __far *);
void operator delete(void __near *);
```

```
// And correspondingly for array new and delete operators
void __far *operator new[] __far(__far_size_t);
void __near *operator new[] __near (__near_size_t);
void operator delete[](void __far *);
void operator delete[](void __near *);
```

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 __near(__near_size_t)
 int __near *p = new __near 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 __far(__far_size_t)
 class far S
 };
 S *s = new S;
 // Calls operator delete(void __near *)
 delete p;
  // Calls operator delete(void __far *)
 delete s;
 int __far *t = new __near 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.

#### **TEMPLATES**

Extended EC++ supports templates according to the C++ standard, except for the support of the export keyword. The implementation uses a two-phase lookup which means that the keyword typename must be inserted wherever needed. Furthermore, at each use of a template, the definitions of all possible templates must be visible. This means that the definitions of all templates must be in include files or in the actual source file.

#### Templates and data memory attributes (78K0R only)

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.

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 #pragma basic\_template\_matching directive in front of the template function declaration. That template function will then match without the modifications described above.

#### Examble

```
// 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.

#### Example

```
extern int __sfr X;

template<__sfr int &y>
void Foo()
{
   y = 17;
}

void Bar()
{
   Foo<X>();
}
```

#### The standard template library

The STL (standard template library) delivered with the product is tailored for Extended EC++, as described in *Extended Embedded C*++, page 110.

In the 78K0R Compiler, 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

```
// 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 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());
}
```

#### STL and the IAR C-SPY® Debugger

C-SPY has built-in display support for the STL containers. The logical structure of containers is presented in the watch views in a comprehensive way that is easy to understand and follow.



**Note:** To be able to watch STL containers with many elements in a comprehensive way, the **STL container expansion** option—available by choosing **Tools>Options>Debugger**—is set to display only a few items at first.

#### **VARIANTS OF CASTS**

In Extended EC++ these additional C++ cast variants can be used:

```
const_cast<t2>(t), static_cast<t2>(t), reinterpret_cast<t2>(t).
```

#### **MUTABLE**

The mutable attribute is supported in Extended EC++. A mutable symbol can be changed even though the whole class object is const.

#### **NAMESPACE**

The namespace feature is only supported in *Extended* EC++. This means that you can use namespaces to partition your code. Note, however, that the library itself is not placed in the std namespace.

#### THE STD NAMESPACE

The std namespace is not used in either standard EC++ or in Extended EC++. If you have code that refers to symbols in the std namespace, simply define std as nothing; for example:

```
#define std
```

You must make sure that identifiers in your application do not interfere with identifiers in the runtime library.

#### POINTER TO MEMBER FUNCTIONS

A pointer to a member function can only contain a default function pointer, or a function pointer that can implicitly be casted to a default function pointer. To use a pointer to a member function, make sure that all functions that should be pointed to reside in the default memory or a memory contained in the default memory.

#### Example

```
class X
{
public:
    __far_func void F();
};

void (__far_func X::*PMF)(void) = &X::F;
```

#### USING INTERRUPTS AND EC++ DESTRUCTORS

If interrupts are enabled and the interrupt functions use static class objects that need to be destroyed, there might be problems if the interrupt occurs during or after the application exits. If an interrupt occurs after the static class object was destroyed, the application will not work properly.

To avoid this, make sure that interrupts are disabled when returning from main or when calling exit or abort. To do this, call the intrinsic function \_\_disable\_interrupt.

## C++ language extensions

When you use the compiler in C++ mode and enable IAR language extensions, the following C++ language extensions are available in the compiler:

• In a friend declaration of a class, the class keyword can be omitted, for example:

• Constants of a scalar type can be defined within classes, for example:

According to the standard, initialized static data members should be used instead.

• In the declaration of a class member, a qualified name can be used, for example:

```
struct A
{
  int A::F(); // Possible when using IAR language extensions
  int G(); // According to standard
}:
```

• It is permitted to use an implicit type conversion between a pointer to a function with C linkage (extern "C") and a pointer to a function with C++ linkage (extern "C++"), for example:

According to the standard, the pointer must be explicitly converted.

• If the second or third operands in a construction that contains the ? operator are string literals or wide string literals (which in C++ are constants), the operands can be implicitly converted to char \* or wchar\_t \*, for example:

```
bool X;
//language extensions
char const *P2 = X ? "abc" : "def"; //According to standard
```

- Default arguments can be specified for function parameters not only in the top-level function declaration, which is according to the standard, but also in typedef declarations, in pointer-to-function function declarations, and in pointer-to-member function declarations.
- In a function that contains a non-static local variable and a class that contains a non-evaluated expression (for example a sizeof expression), the expression can reference the non-static local variable. However, a warning is issued.

**Note:** If you use any of these constructions without first enabling language extensions, errors are issued.

C++ language extensions

# Efficient coding for embedded applications

For embedded systems, the size of the generated code and data is very important, because using smaller external memory or on-chip memory can significantly decrease the cost and power consumption of a system.

The topics discussed are:

- Selecting data types
- Controlling data and function placement in memory
- Controlling compiler optimizations
- Writing efficient code.

As a part of this, the chapter also demonstrates some of the more common mistakes and how to avoid them, and gives a catalog of good coding techniques.

## Selecting data types

For efficient treatment of data, you should consider the data types used and the most efficient placement of the variables.

#### **USING EFFICIENT DATA TYPES**

The data types you use should be considered carefully, because this can have a large impact on code size and code speed.

- Use 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.

- 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 details about representation of supported data types, pointers, and structures types, see the chapter *Data representation*.

#### FLOATING-POINT TYPES

Using floating-point types on a microprocessor without a 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 compilers only support the 32-bit floating-point format. The 64-bit floating-point format is not supported. The double type will be treated as a float type.

#### **ALIGNMENT OF ELEMENTS IN A STRUCTURE**

The 78K microcontroller requires that data in memory must be aligned. Each element in a structure must be aligned according to its specified type requirements. This means that the compiler might need to insert *pad bytes* to keep the alignment at 2 (unless the option --disable\_data\_alignment is used).

There are two reasons why this can be considered a problem:

- Due to external demands; for example, network communication protocols are usually specified in terms of data types with no padding in between
- You need to save data memory.

For information about alignment requirements, see *Alignment*, page 181.

There are three ways to solve the problem:

- If you are using the CLIB runtime environment, use the **Disable data alignment** (--disable\_data\_alignment) option. This is an easy way to remove the problem with the drawback that each access to an unaligned element in the structure will use more code. It is also a drawback that the option must be used on all files in the project, and that all data types are affected. It cannot be used with the DLIB environment. For more information, see --disable data alignment, page 161.
- Use the #pragma pack directive for a tighter layout of the structure. The drawback is that each access to an unaligned element in the structure will use more code.
- Write your own customized functions for packing and unpacking structures. This is
  a more portable way, which will not produce any more code apart from your

functions. The drawback is the need for two views on the structure data—packed and unpacked.

For further details about the #pragma pack directive, see pack, page 227.

#### **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++ Compilers for 78K 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 164, for additional information.

#### Example

In this example, the members in the anonymous union can be accessed, in function f, without explicitly specifying the union name:

```
struct S
{
   char 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 __sfr volatile
union
{
   unsigned char IOPORT;
   struct
   {
      unsigned char Way: 1;
      unsigned char Out: 1;
   };
} @ 0xFF00;

/* Here the variables are used*/
void Test(void)
{
   IOPORT = 0;
   Way = 1;
   Out = 1;
}
```

This declares an I/O register byte IOPORT at address 0. 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 compilers provide different mechanisms for controlling placement of functions and data objects in memory. To use memory efficiently, you should be familiar with these mechanisms to know which one is best suited for different situations. You can use:

#### Code and data models

Use the different compiler options for code and data models, respectively, to take advantage of the different addressing modes available for the microcontroller and thereby also place functions and data objects in different parts of memory. To read more about data and code models, see *Data models (78K0R only)*, page 12, and *Code models and memory attributes for function storage*, page 21, respectively.

#### • Memory attributes

Use memory attributes to override the default addressing mode and placement of individual functions and data objects. To read more about memory attributes for data and functions, see *Using data memory attributes*, page 14, and *Using function memory attributes*, page 22, respectively.

- The @ operator and the #pragma location directive for absolute placement

  Use the @ operator or the #pragma location directive to place individual global and static variables at absolute addresses. The variables must be declared either \_\_no\_init or const. This is useful for individual data objects that must be located at a fixed address, for example variables with external requirements, or for populating any hardware tables similar to interrupt vector tables. Note that it is not possible to use this notation for absolute placement of individual functions.
- The @ operator and the #pragma location directive for segment placement

  Use the @ operator or the #pragma location directive to place groups of functions or global and static variables in named segments, without having explicit control of each object. The variables must be declared either \_\_no\_init or const. The segments can, for example, be placed in specific areas of memory, or initialized or copied in controlled ways using the segment begin and end operators. This is also useful if you want an interface between separately linked units, for example an application project and a boot loader project. Use named segments when absolute control over the placement of individual variables is not needed, or not useful.
- The --code\_segment option
   Use the --code\_segment option to place functions in named segments, which is useful, for example, if you want to direct them to different fast or slow memories. To read more about the --code\_segment option, see--code segment, page 156.

At compile time, data and functions are placed in different segments as described in *Data segments*, page 43, and *Code segments*, page 49, respectively. At link time, one of the most important functions of the linker is to assign load addresses to the various segments used by the application. All segments, except for the segments holding absolute located data, are automatically allocated to memory according to the specifications of memory ranges in the linker command file, as described in *Placing segments in memory*, page 40.

#### 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. The absolute location must fulfill the alignment requirement for the variable that should be located.

**Note:** A variable placed in an absolute location should be defined in an include file, to be included in every module that uses the variable. An unused definition in a module will be ignored. A normal extern declaration—one that does not use an absolute placement directive—can refer to a variable at an absolute address; however, optimizations based on the knowledge of the absolute address cannot be performed.

#### **Examples**

In this example, a \_\_no\_init declared variable is placed at an absolute address. This is useful for interfacing between multiple processes, applications, etc:

```
__no_init volatile char alpha @ 0x2000;/* OK */
```

These examples contain two const declared objects. The first one is not initialized, and the second one is initialized to a specific value. Both objects are placed in ROM. This is useful for configuration parameters, which are accessible from an external interface. Note that in the second case, the compiler is not obliged to actually read from the variable, because the value is known.

In the first case, the value is not initialized by the compiler; the value must be set by other means. The typical use is for configurations where the values are loaded to ROM separately, or for special function registers that are read-only.

These examples show incorrect usage:

#### C++ considerations

In C++, module scoped const variables are static (module local), whereas in C they are global. This means that each module that declares a certain const variable will contain

a separate variable with this name. If you link an application with several such modules all containing (via a header file), for instance, the declaration:

```
volatile const __no_init int x @ 0x100;  /* Bad in C++ */
```

the linker will report that more than one variable is located at address 0x100.

To avoid this problem and make the process the same in C and C++, you should declare these variables extern, for example:

```
/* 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

This method 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 --code\_segment option can be used for placing 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 command file using the -z or the -p segment control directives.

**Note:** Take care when explicitly placing a variable or function in a predefined segment other than the one used by default. This is useful in some situations, but incorrect placement can result in anything from error messages during compilation and linking to a malfunctioning application. Carefully consider the circumstances; there might be strict requirements on the declaration and use of the function or variable.

The location of the segments can be controlled from the linker command file.

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

#### Examples of placing variables in named segments

In the following three examples, a data object is placed in a user-defined segment. The segment will be allocated in default memory depending on the used data model.

To override the default segment allocation, you can explicitly specify a memory attribute other than the default:

#### Examples of placing functions in named segments

```
void f(void) @ "FUNCTIONS";

void g(void) @ "FUNCTIONS"
{
}

#pragma location="FUNCTIONS"
void h(void);
```

To override the default segment allocation, you can explicitly specify a memory attribute other than the default:

```
__far_func void f(void) @ "FUNCTIONS";
```

## **Controlling compiler optimizations**

The compiler performs many transformations on your application to generate the best possible code. Examples of such transformations are storing values in registers instead of memory, removing superfluous code, reordering computations in a more efficient order, and replacing arithmetic operations by cheaper operations.

The linker should also be considered an integral part of the compilation system, because some optimizations are performed by the linker. For instance, all unused functions and variables are removed and not included in the final output.

#### **SCOPE FOR PERFORMED OPTIMIZATIONS**

You can decide whether optimizations should be performed on your whole application or on individual files. By default, the same types of optimizations are used for an entire project, but you should consider using different optimization settings for individual files. For example, put code that must execute very quickly into a separate file and compile it for minimal execution time, and the rest of the code for minimal code size. This will give a small program, which is still fast enough where it matters.

You can also exclude individual functions from the performed optimizations. The #pragma optimize directive allows you to either lower the optimization level, or specify another type of optimization to be performed. Refer to *optimize*, page 226, 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 168.

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 163.

#### **OPTIMIZATION LEVELS**

The compiler supports different levels of optimizations. This table lists the optimizations that are performed on each level:

Optimization level	Description
None (Best debug support)	Variables live through their entire scope
	Dead code elimination
	Redundant label elimination
	Redundant branch elimination
Low	Same as above but variables only live for as long as they are needed, not necessarily through their entire scope

Table 32: Compiler optimization levels

Optimization level	Description
Medium	Same as above
	Live-dead analysis and optimization
	Code hoisting
	Register content analysis and optimization
	Instruction scheduling (when optimizing for speed - 78K0R)
	Common subexpression elimination
High (Balanced)	Same as above
	Peephole optimization
	Cross jumping
	Cross call (when optimizing for size)
	Loop unrolling
	Function inlining
	Code motion
	Type-based alias analysis

Table 32: Compiler optimization levels (Continued)

**Note:** Some of the performed optimizations can be individually enabled or disabled. For more information about these, see *Fine-tuning enabled transformations*, page 132.

A high level of optimization might result in increased compile time, and will most likely also make debugging more difficult, because it is less clear how the generated code relates to the source code. For example, at the low, medium, and high optimization levels, variables do not live through their entire scope, which means processor registers used for storing variables can be reused immediately after they were last used. Due to this, the C-SPY Watch window might not be able to display the value of the variable throughout its scope. At any time, if you experience difficulties when debugging your code, try lowering the optimization level.

#### **SPEED VERSUS SIZE**

At the high optimization level, the compiler balances between size and speed optimizations. However, it is possible to fine-tune the optimizations explicitly for either size or speed. They only differ in what thresholds that are used; speed will trade size for speed, whereas size will trade speed for size. Note that one optimization sometimes enables other optimizations to be performed, and an application might in some cases become smaller even when optimizing for speed rather than size.

#### FINE-TUNING ENABLED TRANSFORMATIONS

At each optimization level you can disable some of the transformations individually. To disable a transformation, use either the appropriate option, for instance the command

line option --no\_inline, alternatively its equivalent in the IDE **Function inlining**, or the #pragma optimize directive. These transformations can be disabled individually:

- Common subexpression elimination
- Loop unrolling
- Function inlining
- Code motion
- Type-based alias analysis

#### Common subexpression elimination

Redundant re-evaluation of common subexpressions is by default eliminated at optimization levels **Medium** and **High**. This optimization normally reduces both code size and execution time. However, the resulting code might be difficult to debug.

**Note:** This option has no effect at optimization levels **None** and **Low**.

To read more about the command line option, see --no cse, page 170.

#### Loop unrolling

Loop unrolling means that the code body of a loop, whose number of iterations can be determined at compile time, is duplicated. Loop unrolling reduces the loop overhead by amortizing it over several iterations.

This optimization is most effective for smaller loops, where the loop overhead can be a substantial part of the total loop body.

Loop unrolling, which can be performed at optimization level **High**, normally reduces execution time, but increases code size. The resulting code might also be difficult to debug.

The compiler heuristically decides which loops to unroll. Only relatively small loops where the loop overhead reduction is noticeable will be unrolled. Different heuristics are used when optimizing for speed, size, or when balancing between size and speed.

**Note:** This option has no effect at optimization levels **None**, **Low**, and **Medium**.

For information about the related pragma directive, see *unroll*, page 231. To disable loop unrolling, use the command line option --no\_unroll, see --no unroll, page 173.

#### **Function inlining**

Function inlining means that a simple function, whose definition is known at compile time, is integrated into the body of its caller to eliminate the overhead of the call. This optimization, which is performed at optimization level **High**, normally reduces

execution time, but increases code size. The resulting code might also be difficult to debug.

The compiler decides which functions to inline. Different heuristics are used when optimizing for speed, size, or when balancing between size and speed.

**Note:** This option has no effect at optimization levels **None**, **Low**, and **Medium**.

To read more about the command line option, see --no inline, page 171.

#### Code motion

Evaluation of loop-invariant expressions and common subexpressions are moved to avoid redundant re-evaluation. This optimization, which is performed at optimization level **High**, normally reduces code size and execution time. The resulting code might however be difficult to debug.

**Note:** This option has no effect at optimization levels **None**, and **Low**.

#### Type-based alias analysis

When two or more pointers reference the same memory location, these pointers are said to be *aliases* for each other. The existence of aliases makes optimization more difficult because it is not necessarily known at compile time whether a particular value is being changed.

Type-based alias analysis optimization assumes that all accesses to an object are performed using its declared type or as a char type. This assumption lets the compiler detect whether pointers can reference the same memory location or not.

Type-based alias analysis is performed at optimization level **High**. For ISO/ANSI standard-conforming C or C++ application code, this optimization can reduce code size and execution time. However, non-standard-conforming C or C++ code might result in the compiler producing code that leads to unexpected behavior. Therefore, it is possible to turn this optimization off.

**Note:** This option has no effect at optimization levels **None**, **Low**, and **Medium**.

To read more about the command line option, see --no tbaa, page 172.

#### Example

```
short F(short *p1, long *p2)
{
    *p2 = 0;
    *p1 = 1;
    return *p2;
}
```

With type-based alias analysis, it is assumed that a write access to the short pointed to by p1 cannot affect the long value that p2 points to. Thus, it is known at compile time that this function returns 0. However, in non-standard-conforming C or C++ code these pointers could overlap each other by being part of the same union. If you use explicit casts, you can also force pointers of different pointer types to point to the same memory location.

## Writing efficient code

This section contains general programming hints on how to implement functions to make your applications robust, but at the same time facilitate compiler optimizations.

#### WRITING OPTIMIZATION-FRIENDLY CODE

This is a list of programming techniques that will, when followed, enable the compiler to better optimize the application:

- Local variables—auto variables and parameters—are preferred over static or global variables. The reason is that the optimizer must assume, for example, that called functions can modify non-local variables. When the life spans for local variables end, the previously occupied memory can then be reused. Globally declared variables will occupy data memory during the whole program execution.
- Avoid taking the address of local variables using the & operator. This is inefficient
  for two main reasons. First, the variable must be placed in memory, and thus cannot
  be placed in a processor register. This results in larger and slower code. Second, the
  optimizer can no longer assume that the local variable is unaffected over function
  calls.
- Module-local variables—variables that are declared static—are preferred over global variables. Also avoid taking the address of frequently accessed static variables.
- The compilers are capable of inlining functions. This means that instead of calling a function, the compiler inserts the content of the function at the location where the function was called. The result is a faster, but often larger, application. Also, inlining might enable further optimizations. The compiler often inlines small functions declared static. The use of the #pragma inline directive and the C++ keyword inline gives you fine-grained control, and it is the preferred method compared to the traditional way of using preprocessor macros. This feature can be disabled using the --no\_inline command line option; see --no inline, page 171.
- Avoid using inline assembler. Instead, try writing the code in C or C++, use intrinsic functions, or write a separate module in assembler language. For more details, see *Mixing C and assembler*, page 91.

#### SAVING STACK SPACE AND RAM MEMORY

This 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 included in the C standard; however, it is recommended to use the prototyped style, since it makes it easier for the compiler to find problems in the code. Using the prototyped style will also make it possible to generate more efficient code, since type promotion (implicit casting) is not needed. The K&R style is only supported for compatibility reasons.

To make the compiler verify that all functions have proper prototypes, use the compiler option **Require prototypes** (--require\_prototypes).

#### **Prototyped style**

In prototyped function declarations, the type for each parameter must be specified.

```
int Test(char, int); /* Declaration */
int Test(char ch, int i) /* Definition */
{
   return i + ch;
}
```

#### Kernighan & Ritchie style

In K&R style—traditional pre-ISO/ANSI C—it is not possible to declare a function prototyped. Instead, an empty parameter list is used in the function declaration. Also, the definition looks different.

#### 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 ~0x0080 becomes 0xFF7F. On the left hand side, c1 is an 8-bit unsigned character, so it cannot be larger 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. To read more about the volatile type qualifier, see *Declaring objects volatile*, page 189.

A sequence that accesses a volatile declared variable must also not be interrupted. Use the \_\_monitor keyword in interruptible code to ensure this. This must be done for both write and read sequences, otherwise you might end up reading a partially updated variable. This is true for all variables of all sizes. Accessing a small-sized variable can be an atomic operation, but this is not guaranteed and you should not rely on it unless you continuously study the compiler output. It is safer to use the \_\_monitor keyword to ensure that the sequence is an atomic operation.

#### **ACCESSING SPECIAL FUNCTION REGISTERS**

Specific header files for several 78K devices are included in the IAR product installation. The header files are named iodevice. h and define the processor-specific special function registers (SFRs).

**Note:** Each header file contains one section used by the compiler, and one section used by the assembler.

SFRs with bitfields are declared in the header file. This example is from io78f0058.h:

```
// SFR bits (default names)
//-----
typedef struct
 unsigned char no0:1;
 unsigned char no1:1;
 unsigned char no2:1;
 unsigned char no3:1;
 unsigned char no4:1;
 unsigned char no5:1;
 unsigned char no6:1;
 unsigned char no7:1;
} __BITS8;
//----
// SFR declarations
//----
extern __sfr __no_init volatile union { unsigned char TOCO;
BITS8 TOCO bit; } @ 0xFF4E;
//-----
// SFR bit declarations
//-----
#define TOE0 TOC0_bit.no0
#define LVR0 TOC0_bit.no2
```

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 */
TOC0 = 0x12;
/* Bitfield accesses */
TOE0 = 1;
LVS0 = 0;
```

You can also use the header files as templates when you create new header files for other 78K devices. For details about the @ operator, see *Located data*, page 49.

#### **NON-INITIALIZED VARIABLES**

Normally, the runtime environment will initialize all global and static variables when the application is started.

The compilers support the declaration of variables that will not be initialized, using the \_\_no\_init type modifier. They can be specified either as a keyword or using the #pragma object\_attribute directive. The compiler places such variables in a separate segment, according to the specified memory keyword. See the chapter *Placing code and data* for more information.

For \_\_no\_init, the const keyword implies that an object is read-only, rather than that the object is stored in read-only memory. It is not possible to give a \_\_no\_init object an initial value.

Variables declared using the \_\_no\_init keyword could, for example, be large input buffers or mapped to special RAM that keeps its content even when the application is turned off.

For information about the \_\_no\_init keyword, see page 213. Note that to use this keyword, language extensions must be enabled; see -e, page 164. For information about the #pragma object\_attribute, see page 226.

Writing efficient code

# Part 2. Reference information

This part of the IAR C/C++ Compilers Reference Guide for 78K contains these chapters:

- External interface details
- Compiler options
- Data representation
- Compiler extensions
- Extended keywords
- Pragma directives
- Intrinsic functions
- The preprocessor
- Library functions
- Segment reference
- Implementation-defined behavior.



## **External interface details**

This chapter provides reference information about how the compilers interact with their environment. The chapter briefly lists and describes the invocation syntax, methods for passing options to the tools, environment variables, the include file search procedure, and finally the different types of compiler output.

## **Invocation syntax**

You can use the compiler either from the IDE or from the command line. Refer to the *IAR Embedded Workbench*® *IDE User Guide* for information about using the compiler from the IDE.

#### **COMPILER INVOCATION SYNTAX**

The invocation syntax for the compiler is:

```
icc78k [options] [sourcefile] [options]
```

For example, when compiling the source file prog.c, use this command to generate an object file with debug information:

```
icc78k 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 that they are specified on the command line.

If you run the compiler from the command line without any arguments, the compiler version number and all available options including brief descriptions are directed to stdout and displayed on the screen.

#### **PASSING OPTIONS**

There are three different ways of passing options to the compiler:

Directly from the command line
 Specify the options on the command line after the icc78k command, either before or after the source filename; see *Invocation syntax*, page 143.

Via environment variables

The compiler automatically appends the value of the environment variables to every command line; see *Environment variables*, page 144.

• Via a text file, using the -f option; see -f, page 165.

For general guidelines for the option syntax, an options summary, and a detailed description of each option, see the *Compiler options* chapter.

#### **ENVIRONMENT VARIABLES**

These environment variables can be used with the compilers:

#### 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 5.n\78k\inc;c:\headers</pre>	
QCC78K	Specifies command line options; for example: $QCC78K=-1A$ asm.lst	

Table 33: Compiler environment variables

### Include file search procedure

This is a detailed description of the #include file search procedure of the compilers:

- If the name of the #include file is an absolute path, that file is opened.
- If the compiler encounters the name of an #include file in angle brackets, such as:

```
#include <stdio.h>
```

it searches these directories for the file to include:

- 1 The directories specified with the -I option, in the order that they were specified, see -I, page 167.
- 2 The directories specified using the C\_INCLUDE environment variable, if any, see *Environment variables*, page 144.
- 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:

```
icc78k ..\src\src.c -I..\include -I..\debugconfig
```

Then the following directories are searched in the order listed below for the file config.h, which in this example is located in the dir\debugconfig directory:

dir\include Current file is src.h.

dir\src File including current file (src.c).

dir\include As specified with the first -I option.

dir\debugconfig As specified with the second -I option.

Use angle brackets for standard header files, like stdio.h, and double quotes for files that are part of your application.

**Note:** Both \ and / can be used as directory delimiters.

## **Compiler output**

The compilers 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 x26.

Optional list files

Various kinds of list files can be specified using the compiler option -1, see -*l*, page 167. 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. To read more about diagnostic messages, see *Diagnostics*, page 146.

#### • 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 146.

#### 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 34: Error return codes

## **Diagnostics**

This section describes the format of the diagnostic messages and explains how diagnostic messages are divided into different levels of severity.

#### **MESSAGE FORMAT**

All diagnostic messages are issued as complete, self-explanatory messages. A typical diagnostic message from the compiler is produced in the form:

```
filename, linenumber level[tag]: message
```

with these elements:

The name of the source file in which the issue was encountered

1 Inenumber The line number at which the compiler detected the issue

1evel The level of seriousness of the issue

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 construction that can possibly lead to erroneous behavior in the generated code. Remarks are by default not issued, but can be enabled, see *--remarks*, page 177.

#### Warning

A diagnostic message that is produced when the compiler finds a programming error or omission which is of concern, but not so severe as to prevent the completion of compilation. Warnings can be disabled by use of the command line option --no\_warnings, see page 173.

#### **Error**

A diagnostic message that is produced when the compiler finds a construction which clearly violates the C or C++ language rules, such that code cannot be produced. An error will produce a non-zero exit code.

#### Fatal error

A diagnostic message that is produced when the compiler finds a condition that not only prevents code generation, but which makes further processing of the source code pointless. After the message is issued, compilation terminates. A fatal error will produce a non-zero exit code.

#### SETTING THE SEVERITY LEVEL

The diagnostic messages can be suppressed or the severity level can be changed for all diagnostics messages, except for fatal errors and some of the regular errors.

See *Summary of compiler options*, page 152, for a description of the compiler options that are available for setting severity levels.

See the chapter *Pragma directives*, for a description of the pragma directives that are available for setting severity levels.

#### **INTERNAL ERROR**

An internal error is a diagnostic message that signals that there was a serious and unexpected failure due to a fault in the compiler. It is produced using this form:

Internal error: message

where *message* is an explanatory message. If internal errors occur, they should be reported to your software distributor or IAR Systems Technical Support. Include enough information to reproduce the problem, typically:

- The product name
- The version number of the compiler, which can be seen in the header of the list files generated by the compiler
- Your license number
- The exact internal error message text
- The source file of the application that generated the internal error
- A list of the options that were used when the internal error occurred.

# **Compiler options**

This chapter describes the syntax of compiler options and the general syntax rules for specifying option parameters, and gives detailed reference information about each option.

## **Options syntax**

Compiler options are parameters you can specify to change the default behavior of the compiler. You can specify options from the command line—which is described in more detail in this section—and from within the IDE.



Refer to the *IAR Embedded Workbench*® *IDE User Guide* for information about the compiler options available in the IDE and how to set them.

#### TYPES OF OPTIONS

There are two *types of names* for command line options, *short* names and *long* names. Some options have both.

- A short option name consists of one character, and it can have parameters. You specify it with a single dash, for example -e
- A long option name consists of one or several words joined by underscores, and it can have parameters. You specify it with double dashes, for example --char\_is\_signed.

For information about the different methods for passing options, see *Passing options*, page 143.

#### **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 also take a path. The path can be relative or absolute. For example, to generate a listing to the file List.lst in the directory ..\listings\:

```
icc78k 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:

```
icc78k prog.c -1 ..\listings\
```

The produced list file will have the default name ..\listings\prog.lst

• The current directory is specified with a period (.). For example:

```
icc78k 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:

```
icc78k 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:

```
icc78k prog.c -1 ---r
```

• For options that accept multiple arguments of the same type, the arguments can be provided as a comma-separated list (without a space), for example:

```
--diag_warning=Be0001,Be0002
```

Alternatively, the option can be repeated for each argument, for example:

```
--diag warning=Be0001
```

<sup>--</sup>diag\_warning=Be0002

## Summary of compiler options

This table summarizes the compiler command line options:

Command line option	Description
aggressive_inlining	Inlines larger functions at high speed and
	balanced optimization levels
char_is_signed	Treats char as signed
clib	Uses the legacy CLIB library floating-point types
code_model	Specifies the code model
code_segment	Changes the default segment for functions
core	Specifies a CPU core
-D	Defines preprocessor symbols
data_model	Specifies the data model (78K0R only)
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_data_alignment	Disables word alignment for data
discard_unused_publics	Discards unused public symbols
dlib_config	Determines the library configuration file
-е	Enables language extensions
ec++	Enables Embedded C++ syntax
eec++	Enables Extended Embedded C++ syntax
enable_multibytes	Enables support for multibyte characters in source files
error_limit	Specifies the allowed number of errors before compilation stops
-f	Extends the command line
generate_callt_runtime_library _calls	Generatescallt runtime-library calls

Table 35: Compiler options summary

Command line option	Description
generate_far_runtime_library _calls	Generatesfar runtime library calls (78K0R only)
header_context	Lists all referred source files and header files
-I	Specifies include file path
-1	Creates a list file
library_module	Creates a library module
mfc	Enables multi file compilation
migration_preprocessor _extensions	Extends the preprocessor
misrac1998	Enables error messages specific to MISRA-C:1998. See the IAR Embedded Workbench® MISRA C:1998 Reference Guide.
misrac2004	Enables error messages specific to MISRA-C:2004. See the IAR Embedded Workbench® MISRA C:2004 Reference Guide.
misrac_verbose	Enables verbose logging of MISRA C checking. See the IAR Embedded Workbench® MISRA C:1998 Reference Guide or the IAR Embedded Workbench® MISRA C:2004 Reference Guide.
module_name	Sets the object module name
near_const_location	Specifies near constants to be writable or mirrored from ROM (78K0R only)
no_code_motion	Disables code motion optimization
no_cse	Disables common subexpression elimination
no_inline	Disables function inlining
no_path_in_file_macros	Removes the path from the return value of the symbolsFILE andBASE_FILE
no_tbaa	Disables type-based alias analysis
no_typedefs_in_diagnostics	Disables the use of typedef names in diagnostics
no_unroll	Disables loop unrolling
no_warnings	Disables all warnings
no_wrap_diagnostics	Disables wrapping of diagnostic messages
-0	Sets the optimization level

Table 35: Compiler options summary (Continued)

Command line option	Description
-0	Sets the object filename
omit_types	Excludes type information
only_stdout	Uses standard output only
output	Sets the object filename
predef_macros	Lists the predefined symbols.
preinclude	Includes an include file before reading the source file
preprocess	Generates preprocessor output
public_equ	Defines a global named assembler label
-r	Generates debug information
remarks	Enables remarks
require_prototypes	Verifies that functions are declared before they are defined
silent	Sets silent operation
strict_ansi	Checks for strict compliance with ISO/ANSI C
warnings_affect_exit_code	Warnings affects exit code
warnings_are_errors	Warnings are treated as errors
workseg_area	Enables a short address work segment area with an optional size

Table 35: Compiler options summary (Continued)

## **Descriptions of options**

The following section gives detailed reference information about each compiler option.



Note that if you use the options page **Extra Options** to specify specific command line options, the IDE does not perform an instant check for consistency problems like conflicting options, duplication of options, or use of irrelevant options.

## --aggressive\_inlining

Syntax

--aggressive\_inlining

Description

Use this option to inline larger functions at the optimization levels High balanced and High speed.



To set this option, use **Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Extra Options**.

# --char\_is\_signed

Syntax --char\_is\_signed

Description

By default, the compiler interprets the char type as unsigned. Use this option to make the compiler interpret the char type as signed instead. This can be useful when you, for example, want to maintain compatibility with another compiler.

**Note:** The runtime library is compiled without the --char\_is\_signed option. If you use this option, you might get type mismatch warnings from the linker, because the library uses unsigned char.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language>Plain 'char' is

#### --clib

Syntax --clib

Description This option enables legacy CLIB library floating-point types. This option must be used

if you are using the CLIB library from the command line.

X

This option is not available in the IDE.

#### --code\_model

 $\label{eq:code_model} \textbf{Syntax} \qquad \qquad --\texttt{code}\_\texttt{model} = \{\texttt{standard} \, \big| \, \texttt{s} \, \big| \, \texttt{banked} \, \big| \, \texttt{b} \, \big| \, \texttt{near} \, \big| \, \texttt{n} \, \big| \, \texttt{far} \, \big| \, \texttt{f} \}$ 

**Parameters** 

standard (default for 78K0/78K0S) Non-banked function calls. 78K0/78K0S only.

banked Banked function calls. 78K0/78K0S only.

near (default for 78K0R) Function calls reach the first 64 Kbytes of memory.

78K0R only.

Far Function calls reach the entire I Mbyte memory. 78K0R

only.

Description Use this option to select the code model for which the code will be generated. If you do

not select a code model option, the compiler uses the default code model. Note that all

modules of your application must use the same code model.

See also

Code models and memory attributes for function storage, page 21.



#### Project>Options>General Options>Target>Code model

# --code\_segment

Syntax --code\_segment=segment\_name

Description

By default, the compiler places functions into a code segment determined by the code model. Use the <code>--code\_segment</code> option to by default place all functions in a segment with the name <code>segment\_name</code>. You can then assign this segment to a fixed address in the linker command file. (The segment name is case-sensitive.)

This is useful if you want to place your code in a different address range and you find the @ notation, alternatively the #pragma location directive, insufficient. Note that any changes to the segment name requires corresponding modifications in the linker command file.

**Note:** This option only applies to functions that are placed in default memory, either explicitly or implicitly. If you use a function memory attribute that explicitly places the function in another segment than the default segment, that function will not be affected by the --code\_segment option.

See also

For information about the different methods for controlling placement of code, see *Controlling data and function placement in memory*, page 126.



#### Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Output>Code segment

#### --core

Syntax --core={78k0\_basic|78k0|78k0s|78k0r}

**Parameters** 

78K0\_basic 78K0 core without the DIV/MUL instructions

78K0 (default) 78K0 core with the DIV/MUL instructions

78K0S **78K0S core** 78K0R **78K0R core** 

Description

Use this option to select the processor core for which the code will be generated. If you do not use the option to specify a core, the compiler uses the 78K0 core by default. Note that all modules of your application must use the same core option.

The compiler supports the different 78K microcontroller cores and devices based on these cores.



## Project>Options>General Options>Target>Core

-D

Syntax -D symbol[=value]

**Parameters** 

symbolThe name of the preprocessor symbolvalueThe value of the preprocessor symbol

Description

Use this option to define a preprocessor symbol. If no value is specified, 1 is used. This option can be used one or more times on the command line.

The option -D has the same effect as a #define statement at the top of the source file:

-Dsymbol

is equivalent to:

#define symbol 1

To get the equivalence of:

#define FOO

specify the = sign but nothing after, for example:

-DFOO=



#### **Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Preprocessor>Defined symbols**

#### --data model

Syntax --data\_model={near|n|far|f}

**Parameters** 

near (default) Data is by default placed in the highest 64

Kbytes of memory

far Data is by default placed in the entire I Mbyte of

memory

Description Use this option to select the data model for which the code will be generated. If you do

not select a data model option, the compiler uses the default data model. Note that all

modules of your application must use the same data model.

See also Data models (78K0R only), page 12.



#### Project>Options>General Options>Target>Data model

# --debug, -r

Syntax --debug

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

**Parameters** 

i (default) Lists only the names of files

m Lists in makefile style

For information about specifying a filename or a directory, see *Rules for specifying a* 

filename or directory as parameters, page 150.

Description Use this option to make the compiler list all source and header files opened by the

compilation into a file with the default filename extension i.

Example If --dependencies or --dependencies=i is used, the name of each opened source

file, including the full path, if available, is output on a separate line. For example:

c:\iar\product\include\stdio.h
d:\myproject\include\foo.h

If --dependencies=m is used, the output uses makefile style. For each source file, one line containing a makefile dependency rule is produced. Each line consists of the name of the object file, a colon, a space, and the name of a source file. For example:

```
foo.r26: c:\iar\product\include\stdio.h
foo.r26: d:\myproject\include\foo.h
```

An example of using --dependencies with a popular make utility, such as gmake (GNU make):

I Set up the rule for compiling files to be something like:

That is, in addition to producing an object file, the command also produces a dependency file in makefile style (in this example, using the extension .d).

**2** Include all the dependency files in the makefile using, for example:

```
-include $(sources:.c=.d)
```

Because of the dash (-) it works the first time, when the .d files do not yet exist.



This option is not available in the IDE.

# --diag\_error

Syntax

--diag\_error=tag[,tag,...]

**Parameters** 

tag

The number of a diagnostic message, for example the message number  $\ensuremath{\mathtt{Pe}117}$ 

Description

Use this option to reclassify certain diagnostic messages as errors. An error indicates a violation of the C or C++ language rules, of such severity that object code will not be generated. The exit code will be non-zero. This option may be used more than once on the command line.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Diagnostics>Treat these as errors

## --diag\_remark

Syntax --diag\_remark=tag[,tag,...]

**Parameters** 

tag The number of a diagnostic message, for example the message

number Pe177

Description Use this option to reclassify certain diagnostic messages as remarks. A remark is the

least severe type of diagnostic message and indicates a source code construction that may cause strange behavior in the generated code. This option may be used more than

once on the command line.

Note: By default, remarks are not displayed; use the --remarks option to display

them.



#### Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Diagnostics>Treat these as remarks

# --diag\_suppress

Syntax --diag\_suppress=tag[,tag,...]

**Parameters** 

tag The number of a diagnostic message, for example the message

number Pe117

Description Use this option to suppress certain diagnostic messages. These messages will not be

displayed. This option may be used more than once on the command line.



#### Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Diagnostics>Suppress these diagnostics

# --diag\_warning

Syntax --diag\_warning=tag[,tag,...]

**Parameters** 

tag The number of a diagnostic message, for example the message

number Pe826

**Description** Use this option to reclassify certain diagnostic messages as warnings. A warning

indicates an error or omission that is of concern, but which will not cause the compiler

to stop before compilation is completed. This option may be used more than once on the command line.



#### Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Diagnostics>Treat these as warnings

## --diagnostics\_tables

Syntax --diagnostics\_tables {filename | directory}

Parameters For information about specifying a filename or a directory, see *Rules for specifying a* 

filename or directory as parameters, page 150.

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\_data\_alignment

Syntax --disable\_data\_alignment

Description This option disables word alignment for data objects. It can only be used together with

the CLIB runtime environment.

Note that accessing an object that is not aligned at its correct alignment requires code that is both larger and slower than the code needed to access the same kind of object when aligned correctly. If there are many accesses to such fields in the program, it is usually better to construct the correct values in a struct that is not packed, and access this instead.

Note that accessing a misaligned object is slower than accessing a correctly aligned object. If speed is of the highest importance, consider constructing the values in a struct that is not packed, and access this instead.

#### Examples

#### Example I

This example declares a structure without using the --disable\_data\_alignment option:

```
struct First
{
   char alpha;
   short beta;
};
```

In this example, the structure First is not packed and has the following memory layout:



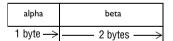
Note that one pad byte has been added.

#### Example 2

This example declares a similar structure using the --disable\_data\_alignment option:

```
struct FirstPacked
{
  char alpha;
  short beta;
};
```

In this example, the structure FirstPacked is packed and has the following memory layout:





Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Code>Byte alignment of data.

# --discard\_unused\_publics

Syntax --discard\_unused\_publics

Description Use this option to discard unused public functions and variables from the compilation

unit. This enhances interprocedural optimizations such as inlining, cross call, and cross jump by limiting their scope to public functions and variables that are actually used.

This option is only useful when *all* source files are compiled as one unit, which means that the --mfc compiler option is used.

**Note:** Do not use this option only on parts of the application, as necessary symbols might be removed from the generated output.

See also --mfc, page 168 and Multi-file compilation units, page 131.



#### Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Discard unused publics

# --dlib\_config

Syntax --dlib\_config filename

Parameters For information about specifying a filename, see *Rules for specifying a filename or* 

directory as parameters, page 150.

Description Each runtime library has a corresponding library configuration file. Use this option to specify the library configuration file for the compiler. Make sure that you specify a

configuration file that corresponds to the library you are using.

All prebuilt runtime libraries are delivered with corresponding configuration files. You can find the library object files and the library configuration files in the directory 78k\lib. For examples and a list of prebuilt runtime libraries, see *Using a prebuilt library*, page 56.

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 62.

**Note:** This option only applies to the IAR DLIB runtime environment.

X

To set related options, choose:

Project>Options>General Options>Library Configuration

**-е** 

Syntax -e

Description In the command line version of the compiler, language extensions are disabled by

default. If you use language extensions such as extended keywords and anonymous structs and unions in your source code, you must use this option to enable them.

**Note:** The -e option and the --strict\_ansi option cannot be used at the same time.

See also The chapter *Compiler extensions*.

X

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language>Allow IAR extensions

**Note:** By default, this option is enabled in the IDE.

--ec++

Syntax --ec++

Description In the compiler, the default language is C. If you use Embedded C++, you must use this

option to set the language the compiler uses to Embedded C++.

X

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language>Embedded C++

--eec++

Syntax --eec++

Description In the compiler, the default language is C. If you take advantage of Extended Embedded

C++ features like namespaces or the standard template library in your source code, you must use this option to set the language the compiler uses to Extended Embedded C++.

See also Extended Embedded C++, page 110.

Proje

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language>Extended Embedded C++

# --enable\_multibytes

Syntax --enable\_multibytes

Description

By default, multibyte characters cannot be used in C or C++ source code. Use this option to make multibyte characters in the source code be interpreted according to the host computer's default setting for multibyte support.

Multibyte characters are allowed in C and C++ style comments, in string literals, and in character constants. They are transferred untouched to the generated code.



#### Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language>Enable multibyte support

#### --error limit

Syntax --error\_limit=n

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 For information about specifying a filename, see Rules for specifying a filename or

directory as parameters, page 150.

Descriptions 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**.

# --generate\_callt\_runtime\_library\_calls

Syntax --generate\_callt\_runtime\_library\_calls

Description

Use this option to generate \_\_callt runtime library calls, which means the CALLT instruction is used when calling the most frequently used runtime library routines. This

will reduce code size.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Code>Enable callt runtime library calls.

# --generate\_far\_runtime\_library\_calls

Syntax --generate\_far\_runtime\_library\_calls

Description Use this option to generate \_\_far runtime library calls to assembler support routines.

This option can be used together with the corresponding assembler option to move the support routines from near to far memory when building a customized library. Note that

the startup code will still be located in near memory.

This option sets the runtime model attribute \_\_far\_rt\_calls to true.

**Note:** This option overrides the option

--generate\_callt\_runtime\_library\_calls.



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.



-I

Syntax -I path

**Parameters** 

path The search path for #include files

Description Use this option to specify the search paths for #include files. This option can be used

more than once on the command line.

See also *Include file search procedure*, page 144.



## Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Preprocessor>Additional include directories

-1

Syntax -1[a|A|b|B|c|C|D][N][H] {filename|directory}

**Parameters** 

a	Assembler list file
A	Assembler list file with C or C++ source as comments
b	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 $^{*}$
В	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 $^{\ast}$
C	C or C++ list file

C C or C++ list file

C (default) C or C++ list file with assembler source as comments

D C or C++ list file with assembler source as comments, but without

instruction offsets and hexadecimal byte values

N No diagnostics in file

Include source lines from header files in output. Without this option, only source lines from the primary source file are included

<sup>\*</sup> This makes the list file less useful as input to the assembler, but more useful for reading by a human.

For information about specifying a filename or a directory, see *Rules for specifying a filename or directory as parameters*, page 150.

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.

X

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Output>Module type>Library Module

--mfc

Syntax --mfc

Description Use this option to enable *multi-file compilation*. This means that the compiler compiles

one or several source files specified on the command line as one unit, which makes interprocedural optimizations such as inlining, cross call, and cross jump possible.

**Note:** The compiler will generate one object file per input source code file, where the first object file contains all relevant data and the other ones are empty. If you want only the first file to be produced, use the -o compiler option and specify a certain output file.

Example icc78k myfile1.c myfile2.c myfile3.c --mfc

See also --discard\_unused\_publics, page 163, -o, --output, page 174, and Multi-file compilation

units, page 131.

\*

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Multi-file compilation

# --migration\_preprocessor\_extensions

Syntax

--migration preprocessor extensions

Description

If you need to migrate code from an earlier IAR Systems C or C/C++ compiler, you might want to use this option. Use this option to use the following in preprocessor expressions:

- Floating-point expressions
- Basic type names and sizeof
- All symbol names (including typedefs and variables).

**Note:** If you use this option, not only will the compiler accept code that does not conform to the ISO/ANSI C standard, but it will also reject some code that *does* conform to the standard.

**Important!** Do not depend on these extensions in newly written code, because support for them might be removed in future compiler versions.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language>Enable IAR migration preprocessor extensions

# --module\_name

Syntax --module\_name=name

**Parameters** 

name An explicit object module name

Description

Normally, the internal name of the object module is the name of the source file, without a directory name or extension. Use this option to specify an object module name explicitly.

This option is useful when several modules have the same filename, because the resulting duplicate module name would normally cause a linker error; for example, when the source file is a temporary file generated by a preprocessor.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Output>Object module name

# --near\_const\_location

Syntax --near\_const\_location [RAM|ROM0|ROM1]

**Parameters** 

RAM Constants are located in RAM, in the range 0xF0000-0xFFFFF

ROMO Constants are located in ROM, in the range 0x00000-0x0FFFF, and are

mirrored by hardware to RAM, in the range 0xF0000-0xFFFFF

ROM1 Constants are located in ROM, in the range 0x10000-0x1FFFFF, and are

mirrored by hardware to RAM, in the range 0xF0000-0xFFFFF

Description Use this option to specify the location for \_\_near declared constants and strings: in

RAM or mirrored from ROM. 78K0R only.

For a detailed description of how this works and of the available memory ranges, see the

chip manufacturer's documentation.

## --no code motion

Syntax --no\_code\_motion

Description Use this option to disable code motion optimizations. These optimizations, which are

performed at the optimization levels Medium and High, normally reduce code size and

execution time. However, the resulting code might be difficult to debug.

**Note:** This option has no effect at optimization levels below Medium.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Optimizations>Enable transformations>Code motion

--no\_cse

Syntax --no\_cse

Description Use this option to disable common subexpression elimination. At the optimization

levels Medium and High, the compiler avoids calculating the same expression more than once. This optimization normally reduces both code size and execution time. However,

the resulting code might be difficult to debug.

Note: This option has no effect at optimization levels below Medium.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Optimizations>Enable transformations>Common subexpression elimination

## --no inline

Syntax --no\_inline

Description Use this option to disable function inlining. Function inlining means that a simple

function, whose definition is known at compile time, is integrated into the body of its

caller to eliminate the overhead of the call.

This optimization, which is performed at optimization level High, normally reduces execution time and increases code size. The resulting code might also be difficult to

debug.

The compiler heuristically decides which functions to inline. Different heuristics are

used when optimizing for speed than for size.

**Note:** This option has no effect at optimization levels below High.



**Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Optimizations>Enable transformations>Function inlining** 

# --no\_path\_in\_file\_macros

Syntax --no\_path\_in\_file\_macros

Description Use this option to exclude the path from the return value of the predefined preprocessor

symbols \_\_FILE\_\_ and \_\_BASE\_FILE\_\_.

See also Descriptions of predefined preprocessor symbols, page 238.



## --no tbaa

Syntax --no\_tbaa

Description Use this option to disable type-based alias analysis. When this options is not used, the

compiler is free to assume that objects are only accessed through the declared type or

through unsigned char.

See also *Type-based alias analysis*, page 134.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Optimizations>Enable transformations>Type-based alias analysis

# --no\_typedefs\_in\_diagnostics

Syntax --no\_typedefs\_in\_diagnostics

Description Use this option to disable the use of typedef names in diagnostics. Normally, when a

type is mentioned in a message from the compiler, most commonly in a diagnostic message of some kind, the typedef names that were used in the original declaration are

used whenever they make the resulting text shorter.

Example typedef int (\*MyPtr)(char const \*);

MyPtr p = "foo";

will give an error message like this:

Error[Pe144]: a value of type "char \*" cannot be used to initialize an entity of type "MyPtr"

If the --no\_typedefs\_in\_diagnostics option is used, the error message will be like this:

Error[Pe144]: a value of type "char \*" cannot be used to initialize an entity of type "int (\*)(char const \*)"



To set this option, use **Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Extra Options**.

#### --no\_unroll

Syntax --no\_unroll

Description Use this option to disable loop unrolling. Loop unrolling means that the code body of a

small loop, whose number of iterations can be determined at compile time, is duplicated

to reduce the loop overhead.

This optimization normally reduces execution time, but increases code size. Thus, when optimizing for speed, you might want to disable unrolling to avoid increased code size.

Also, loop unrolling might make the resulting code difficult to debug.

Note: This option has no effect at optimization levels below High.

See also Loop unrolling, page 133.

X

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Optimizations>Enable transformations>Loop unrolling

# --no\_warnings

Syntax --no\_warnings

Description By default, the compiler issues warning messages. Use this option to disable all warning

messages.

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.

X

-0

Syntax -O[n|1|m|h|hs|hz]

**Parameters** 

None\* (Best debug support)

 $\begin{array}{ll} 1 \text{ (default)} & \text{Low*} \\ \\ \text{m} & \text{Medium} \end{array}$ 

h High, balanced
hs High, favoring speed
hz High, favoring size

\*The most important difference between None and Low is that at None, all non-static variables will live during their entire scope.

Description

Use this option to set the optimization level to be used by the compiler when optimizing the code. If no optimization option is specified, the optimization level Low is used by default. If only −○ is used without any parameter, the optimization level High balanced is used.

A low level of optimization makes it relatively easy to follow the program flow in the debugger, and, conversely, a high level of optimization makes it relatively hard.

See also

Controlling compiler optimizations, page 130.



#### Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Optimizations

# -o, --output

Syntax -o {filename | directory}

--output {filename | directory}

Parameters For information about specifying a filename or a directory, see *Rules for specifying a* 

filename or directory as parameters, page 150.

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 r26. Use this option to explicitly

specify a different output filename for the object code output.



## --omit types

Syntax --omit\_types

Description

By default, the compiler includes type information about variables and functions in the object output. Use this option if you do not want the compiler to include this type information in the output, which is useful when you build a library that should not contain type information. The object file will then only contain type information that is a part of a symbol's name. This means that the linker cannot check symbol references for type correctness.



To set this option, use **Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Extra Options**.

# --only\_stdout

Syntax --only\_stdout

Description

Use this option to make the compiler use the standard output stream (stdout) also for messages that are normally directed to the error output stream (stderr).



This option is not available in the IDE.

#### --output, -o

--output {filename | directory} Syntax

-o {filename|directory}

**Parameters** For information about specifying a filename or a directory, see Rules for specifying a

filename or directory as parameters, page 150.

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 r26. Use this option to explicitly

specify a different output filename for the object code output.



## --predef\_macros

Syntax --predef\_macros {filename | directory}

Parameters For information about specifying a filename, see *Rules for specifying a filename or* 

directory as parameters, page 150.

Description Use this option to list the predefined symbols. When using this option, make sure to also

use the same options as for the rest of your project.

If a filename is specified, the compiler stores the output in that file. If a directory is specified, the compiler stores the output in that directory, in a file with the predef

filename extension.



This option is not available in the IDE.

# --preinclude

Syntax --preinclude includefile

Parameters For information about specifying a filename, see *Rules for specifying a filename or* 

directory as parameters, page 150.

Description Use this option to make the compiler include the specified include file before it starts to

read the source file. This is useful if you want to change something in the source code

for the entire application, for instance if you want to define a new symbol.



#### Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Preprocessor>Preinclude file

# --preprocess

Syntax --preprocess[=[c][n][1]] {filename|directory}

**Parameters** 

Preserve commentsPreprocess only

1 Generate #line directives

For information about specifying a filename or a directory, see *Rules for specifying a filename or directory as parameters*, page 150.

Description

Use this option to generate preprocessed output to a named file.



#### Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Preprocessor>Preprocessor output to file

# --public\_equ

Syntax --public\_equ symbol[=value]

**Parameters** 

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.

# -r, --debug

**Syntax** -r

--debug

Description Use the -r or the --debug option to make the compiler include information in the

object modules required by the IAR C-SPY Debugger and other symbolic debuggers.

**Note:** Including debug information will make the object files larger than otherwise.



#### Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Output>Generate debug information

#### --remarks

Syntax --remarks

Description The least severe diagnostic messages are called remarks. A remark indicates a source

> code construct that may cause strange behavior in the generated code. By default, the compiler does not generate remarks. Use this option to make the compiler generate

remarks.

See also

Severity levels, page 147.



#### Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Diagnostics>Enable remarks

# --require\_prototypes

Syntax

--require\_prototypes

Description

Use this option to force the compiler to verify that all functions have proper prototypes. Using this option means that code containing any of the following will generate an error:

- A function call of a function with no declaration, or with a Kernighan & Ritchie C declaration
- A function definition of a public function with no previous prototype declaration
- An indirect function call through a function pointer with a type that does not include a prototype.

**Note:** This option only applies to functions in the C standard library.



#### Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language>Require prototypes

## --silent

Syntax

--silent

Description

By default, the compiler issues introductory messages and a final statistics report. Use this option to make the compiler operate without sending these messages to the standard output stream (normally the screen).

This option does not affect the display of error and warning messages.



This option is not available in the IDE.

#### --strict ansi

Syntax

--strict ansi

Description

By default, the compiler accepts a relaxed superset of ISO/ANSI C/C++, see *Minor language extensions*, page 199. Use this option to ensure that the program conforms to the ISO/ANSI C/C++ standard.

**Note:** The -e option and the --strict\_ansi option cannot be used at the same time.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language>Language conformances>Strict ISO/ANSI

# --warnings\_affect\_exit\_code

Syntax --warnings\_affect\_exit\_code

Description By default, the exit code is not affected by warnings, because only errors produce a non-zero exit code. With this option, warnings will also generate a non-zero exit code.



This option is not available in the IDE.

# --warnings\_are\_errors

Syntax --warnings\_are\_errors

Description Use this option to make the compiler treat all warnings as errors. If the compiler

encounters an error, no object code is generated. Warnings that have been changed into

remarks are not treated as errors.

**Note:** Any diagnostic messages that have been reclassified as warnings by the option --diag\_warning or the #pragma diag\_warning directive will also be treated as

errors when --warnings\_are\_errors is used.

See also diag\_warning, page 223.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Diagnostics>Treat all warnings as errors

# --workseg\_area

Syntax --workseg\_area[=size]

Description Specifies the space reserved in saddr memory for the WRKSEG segment, which is used as the *register* variable work area. If the parameter *size* is omitted, the size is by default

20. The maximum value is 128.

The most frequently used parameters and auto variables are stored in this area, up to the

maximum size specified. There is an overhead involved in saving and restoring the work area at each function entry and exit. This overhead can be omitted if the function is

declared with the \_\_no\_save function attribute.

Avoid using the workseg area for functions that are called between a setjmp function call and its corresponding longjmp call, as the workseg area will likely become corrupt.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Code>Short address work area.

# **Data representation**

This chapter describes the data types, pointers, and structure types supported by the compilers.

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.

A structure type will have the same alignment as the structure member with the most strict alignment. To decrease the alignment requirements on the structure and its members, use the #pragma pack directive.

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. For more information about pad bytes, see *Packed structure types*, page 188.

Note that with the  $\#pragma\ data\_alignment\ directive\ you\ can\ increase\ the\ alignment\ demands\ on\ specific\ variables.$ 

#### **ALIGNMENT ON THE 78K MICROCONTROLLER**

The 78K microcontroller can access memory using 8- or 16-bit operations. However, when a 16-bit access is performed, the data must be located at an even address. The compiler ensures this by assigning an alignment to every data type, ensuring that the 78K microcontroller can read the data. In this case, the word assembler instruction MOVW will be used

For byte alignment, use the option **Disable alignment of data object** (--disable\_data\_alignment). In this case, the instruction MOV will be used.

# **Basic data types**

The compilers support both all ISO/ANSI C basic data types and some additional types.

#### **INTEGER TYPES**

This table gives the size and range of each integer data type:

Data type	Size	Range	Alignment
bool	8 bits	0 to I	I
char	8 bits	0 to 255	1
signed char	8 bits	-128 to 127	1
unsigned char	8 bits	0 to 255	1
signed short	16 bits	-32768 to 32767	2
unsigned short	16 bits	0 to 65535	2
signed int	16 bits	-32768 to 32767	2
unsigned int	16 bits	0 to 65535	2
signed long	32 bits	-2 <sup>31</sup> to 2 <sup>31</sup> -1	2
unsigned long	32 bits	0 to 2 <sup>32</sup> -1	2

Table 36: Integer types

Signed variables are represented using the two's complement form.

#### Bool

The bool data type is supported by default in the C++ language. If you have enabled language extensions, the bool type can also be used in C source code if you include the file stdbool.h. This will also enable the boolean values false and true.

#### The enum type

The compilers 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 compilers, 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 ISO/ANSI C, int and unsigned int can be used as the base type for integer bitfields. In the IAR C/C++ Compilers for 78K, any integer type can be used as the base type when language extensions are enabled.

Bitfields in expressions will have the same data type as the integer base type.

By default, the compiler places bitfield members from the least significant to the most significant bit in the container type.

If you use the directive #pragma bitfields=reversed, the bitfield members are placed from the most significant to the least significant bit.

#### **FLOATING-POINT TYPES**

In the IAR C/C++ Compilers for 78K, floating-point values are represented in standard IEEE 754 format. The sizes for the different floating-point types are:

Туре	Size	Range (+/-)	Exponent	Mantissa
float	32 bits	±1.18E-38 to ±3.39E+38	8 bits	23 bits
double	32 bits	±1.18E-38 to ±3.39E+38	8 bits	23 bits
long double	32 bits	±1.18E-38 to ±3.39E+38	8 bits	23 bits

Table 37: Floating-point types

Exception flags for floating-point values are supported, and they are defined in the feny. h file.

#### 32-bit floating-point format

The representation of a 32-bit floating-point number as an integer is:

31	30	23 22		0
S	Exponent		Mantissa	

The exponent is 8 bits, and the mantissa is 23 bits.

The value of the number is:

The range of the number is:

```
±1.18E-38 to ±3.39E+38
```

The precision of the float operators (+, -, \*, and /) is approximately 7 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 denormalized,

even though the number is treated as if the exponent was 1. Unlike normal numbers, denormalized numbers do not have an implicit 1 as the most significant bit (the MSB) of the mantissa. The value of a denormalized 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. These function pointers are available:

Pointer attribute	Pointer size	Default in code model	Description
non_banked	2 bytes	Standard	Can address the entire 64 Kbyte memory space. 78K0/78K0S only.
banked	3 bytes (uses 4 bytes of memory)	Banked	Must be used for banked functions. 78K0/78K0S only.
near_func	2 bytes	Near	Can address the first 64 Kbytes of memory. 78K0R only.
far_func	3 bytes	Far	Can address the entire I Mbyte memory space. 78K0R only.

Table 38: Function pointers

#### **DATA POINTERS**

The size of data pointers is always 16 or 24 bits. These data pointers are available:

Pointer	Pointer	Address range	Description
attribute	size	Address range	
saddr	2 bytes	0xFE20-0xFF1F (78K0/78K0S)	Short address area
		0xffE20-0xfff1f (78K0R)	

Table 39: Data pointers

Pointer attribute	Pointer size	Address range	Description
near	,	0x0000-0xfffff (78K0/78K0S) 0xf0000-0xfffff (78K0R)	Entire 64 Kbytes address area (78K0/78K0S) or the highest 64 Kbytes (78K0R)
far	3 bytes	0x00000-0xfffff	Entire I Mbyte address area. 78K0R only.

Table 39: Data pointers (Continued)

**Note:** It is not possible to point to an SFR object.

#### **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 by zero extension
- Casting a data pointer to a function pointer and vice versa is illegal
- Casting a function pointer to an integer type gives an undefined result
- Casting a \_\_near pointer to a \_\_saddr pointer is a no-operation.
- Casting a \_\_near pointer to a \_\_far pointer is performed by extension with 0xF0000.
- Casting a \_\_far pointer to a \_\_near pointer is an illegal operation.

#### size t

size\_t is the unsigned integer type required to hold the maximum size of an object. In the IAR C/C++ Compilers for 78K, the size of size\_t is 16 bits.

#### ptrdiff\_t

ptrdiff\_t is the type of the signed integer required to hold the difference between two pointers to elements of the same array. In the IAR C/C++ Compilers for 78K, the size of ptrdiff\_t is 16 bits.

**Note:** Subtracting the start address of an object from the end address can yield a negative value, because the object can be larger than what the ptrdiff\_t can represent. See this example:

#### intptr\_t

intptr\_t is a signed integer type large enough to contain a void \*. In the IAR C/C++ Compilers for 78K, the size of intptr\_t is 32 bits.

#### uintptr t

uintptr\_t is equivalent to intptr\_t, with the exception that it is unsigned.

# Structure types

The members of a struct are stored sequentially in the order in which they are declared: the first member has the lowest memory address.

#### **ALIGNMENT**

The struct and union types have the same alignment as the member with the highest alignment requirement. The size of a struct is also adjusted to allow arrays of aligned structure objects.

#### **GENERAL LAYOUT**

Members of a struct are always allocated in the order specified in the declaration. Each member is placed in the struct according to the specified alignment (offsets).

#### Example

```
struct First
{
   char c;
   short s;
} s;
```

This diagram shows the layout in memory:

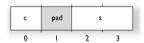


Figure 7: Structure layout

The alignment of the structure is 2 bytes, and a pad byte must be inserted to give short s the correct alignment.

#### **PACKED STRUCTURE TYPES**

The #pragma pack directive is used for relaxing the alignment requirements of the members of a structure. This changes the layout of the structure. The members are placed in the same order as when declared, but there might be less pad space between members.

Note that accessing an object that is not correctly aligned requires code that is both larger and slower. If such structure members are accessed many times, it is usually better to construct the correct values in a struct that is not packed, and access this struct instead.

Special care is also needed when creating and using pointers to misaligned members. For direct access to misaligned members in a packed struct, the compiler will emit the correct (but slower and larger) code when needed. However, when a misaligned member is accessed through a pointer to the member, the normal (smaller and faster) code is used. In the general case, this will not work.

#### Example

This example declares a packed structure:

```
#pragma pack(1)
struct S
{
   char c;
   short s;
};
#pragma pack()
```

In this example, the structure S has this memory layout:

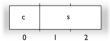


Figure 8: Packed structure layout

This example declares a new non-packed structure, S2, that contains the structure s declared in the previous example:

```
struct S2
{
   struct S s;
   long 1;
};
```

S2 has this memory layout



Figure 9: Packed structure layout

The structure S will use the memory layout, size, and alignment described in the previous example. The alignment of the member 1 is 2, which means that alignment of the structure S2 will become 2.

For more information, see Alignment of elements in a structure, page 124.

# Type qualifiers

According to the ISO/ANSI C standard, volatile and const are type qualifiers.

#### **DECLARING OBJECTS VOLATILE**

There are three main reasons for declaring an object volatile:

- Shared access; the object is shared between several tasks in a multitasking environment
- Trigger access; as for a memory-mapped SFR where the fact that an access occurs has an effect
- Modified access; where the contents of the object can change in ways not known to the compiler.

# Definition of access to volatile objects

The ISO/ANSI standard defines an abstract machine, which governs the behavior of accesses to volatile declared objects. In general and in accordance to the abstract machine, the compiler:

• Considers each read and write access to an object declared volatile as an access

• The unit for the access is either the entire object or, for accesses to an element in a composite object—such as an array, struct, class, or union—the element. For example:

```
char volatile a;
a = 5;  /* A write access */
a += 6;  /* First a read then a write access */
```

An access to a bitfield is treated as an access to the underlaying type.

However, these rules are not detailed enough to handle the hardware-related requirements. The rules specific to the IAR C/C++ Compilers for 78K are described below.

#### Rules for accesses

In the IAR C/C++ Compilers for 78K, 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 compilers adhere to these rules for all 8-bit data types. Variables declared volatile and \_\_sfr can be accessed using bit access unless they are also declared \_\_nobitaccess.

For all other object types, only the rule that all accesses are preserved applies.

#### **DECLARING OBJECTS CONST**

The const type qualifier is used for indicating that a data object, accessed directly or via a pointer, is non-writable. A pointer to const declared data can point to both constant and non-constant objects. It is good programming practice to use const declared pointers whenever possible because this improves the compiler's possibilities to optimize the generated code and reduces the risk of application failure due to erroneously modified data.

Static and global objects declared const and located in far memory are allocated in ROM. const declared saddr objects are allocated in RAM and initialized by the runtime system at startup. const declared near objects are allocated in ROM (78K0 and 78K0S) or according to the option --near\_const\_location (78K0R).

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++

# **Compiler extensions**

This chapter gives a brief overview of the compiler extensions to the ISO/ANSI C standard. All extensions can also be used for the C++ programming language. More specifically the chapter describes the available C language extensions.

# Compiler extensions overview

The compilers offer the standard features of ISO/ANSI C and a wide set of extensions, ranging from features specifically tailored for efficient programming in the embedded industry to the relaxation of some minor standards issues.

You can find the extensions available as:

#### • C/C++ language extensions

For a summary of available language extensions, see *C language extensions*, page 194. For reference information about the extended keywords, see the chapter *Extended keywords*. For information about C++, the two levels of support for the language, and C++ language extensions; see the chapter *Using C++*.

#### · Pragma directives

The #pragma directive is defined by the ISO/ANSI C standard and is a mechanism for using vendor-specific extensions in a controlled way to make sure that the source code is still portable.

The compilers provide a set of predefined pragma directives, which can be used for controlling the behavior of the compiler, for example how it allocates memory, whether it allows extended keywords, and whether it outputs warning messages. Most pragma directives are preprocessed, which means that macros are substituted in a pragma directive. The pragma directives are always enabled in the compiler. For several of them there is also a corresponding C/C++ language extension. For a list of available pragma directives, see the chapter *Pragma directives*.

#### Preprocessor extensions

The preprocessor of the compiler adheres to the ISO/ANSI standard. The compiler also makes several preprocessor-related extensions available to you. For more information, see the chapter *The preprocessor*.

#### • Intrinsic functions

The intrinsic functions provide direct access to low-level processor operations and can be very useful in, for example, time-critical routines. The intrinsic functions compile into inline code, either as a single instruction or as a short sequence of

instructions. To read more about using intrinsic functions, see *Mixing C and assembler*, page 91. For a list of available functions, see the chapter *Intrinsic functions*.

Library functions

The IAR DLIB Library provides most of the important C and C++ library definitions that apply to embedded systems. The library also provides some extensions, partly taken from the C99 standard. For more information, see *IAR DLIB Library*, page 245.

**Note:** Any use of these extensions, except for the pragma directives, makes your application inconsistent with the ISO/ANSI C standard.

#### **ENABLING LANGUAGE EXTENSIONS**



In the IDE, language extensions are enabled by default.



For information about how to enable and disable language extensions from the command line, see the compiler options -e, page 164, and --strict\_ansi, page 178.

# C language extensions

This section gives a brief overview of the C language extensions available in the compilers. The compilers provide a wide set of extensions, so to help you to find the extensions required by your application, the extensions are grouped according to their expected usefulness. In short, this means:

- Important language extensions—extensions specifically tailored for efficient embedded programming, typically to meet memory restrictions
- Useful language extensions—features considered useful and typically taken from related standards, such as C99 and C++
- Minor language extensions, that is, the relaxation of some minor standards issues and also some useful but minor syntax extensions.

#### IMPORTANT LANGUAGE EXTENSIONS

The following language extensions available both in the C and the C++ programming languages are well suited for embedded systems programming:

- Memory attributes, type attributes, and object attributes
   For information about the related concepts, the general syntax rules, and for reference information, see the chapter Extended keywords.
- Placement at an absolute address or in a named segment

  The @ operator or the directive #pragma location can be used for placing global and static variables at absolute addresses, or placing a variable or function in a named

segment. For more information about using these primitives, see *Controlling data* and function placement in memory, page 126, and location, page 225.

#### Alignment

Each data type has its own alignment, for more details, see *Alignment*, page 181. If you want to change the alignment, the #pragma pack and #pragma data\_alignment directives are available. If you want to use the alignment of an object, use the \_\_ALIGNOF\_\_() operator.

The \_\_ALIGNOF\_\_ operator is used for accessing the alignment of an object. It takes one of two forms:

- \_\_ALIGNOF\_\_ (type)
- \_\_ALIGNOF\_\_ (expression)

In the second form, the expression is not evaluated.

Anonymous structs and unions

C++ includes a feature named anonymous unions. The compilers allow a similar feature for both structs and unions in the C programming language. For more information, see *Anonymous structs and unions*, page 125.

Bitfields and non-standard types

In ISO/ANSI C, a bitfield must be of type int or unsigned int. Using IAR Systems language extensions, any integer type or enumeration can be used. The advantage is that the struct will sometimes be smaller. This matches G.5.8 in the appendix of the ISO standard, *ISO Portability Issues*. For more information, see *Bitfields*, page 183.

• Dedicated segment operators \_\_segment\_begin and \_\_segment\_end

The syntax for these operators is:

```
void * __segment_begin(segment)
void * __segment_end(segment)
```

These operators return the address of the first byte of the named <code>segment</code> and the first byte <code>after</code> the named <code>segment</code>, respectively. This can be useful if you use the @operator or the <code>#pragmalocation</code> directive to place a data object or a function in a user-defined segment.

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

```
In this example, the type of the \_\_segment_begin operator is void \_\_far *.
```

```
#pragma segment="MYSEGMENT" __far
...
segment_start_address = __segment_begin("MYSECTION");
```

See also segment, page 230, and location, page 225.

#### **USEFUL LANGUAGE EXTENSIONS**

This section lists and briefly describes useful extensions, that is, useful features typically taken from related standards, such as C99 and C++:

#### Inline functions

The #pragma inline directive, alternatively the inline keyword, advises the compiler that the function whose declaration follows immediately after the directive should be inlined. This is similar to the C++ keyword inline. For more information, see *inline*, page 224.

Mixing declarations and statements

It is possible to mix declarations and statements within the same scope. This feature is part of the C99 standard and C++.

• Declaration in for loops

It is possible to have a declaration in the initialization expression of a for loop, for example:

```
for (int i = 0; i < 10; ++i)
{
   /* Do something here. */
}</pre>
```

This feature is part of the C99 standard and C++.

• The bool data type

To use the bool type in C source code, you must include the file stdbool.h. This feature is part of the C99 standard and C++. (The bool data type is supported by default in C++.)

• C++ style comments

C++ style comments are accepted. A C++ style comment starts with the character sequence // and continues to the end of the line. For example:

```
// The length of the bar, in centimeters.
int length;
```

This feature is copied from the C99 standard and C++.

#### Inline assembler

Inline assembler can be used for inserting assembler instructions in the generated function. This feature is part of the C99 standard and C++.

The asm and \_\_asm extended keywords both insert an assembler instruction. However, when compiling C source code, the asm keyword is not available when the option --strict\_ansi is used. The \_\_asm keyword is always available.

Note: Not all assembler directives or operators can be inserted using this keyword.

The syntax is:

```
asm ("string");
```

The string can be a valid assembler instruction or a data definition assembler directive, but not a comment. You can write several consecutive inline assembler instructions, for example:

where  $\n$  (new line) separates each new assembler instruction. Note that you can define and use local labels in inline assembler instructions.

For more information about inline assembler, see Mixing C and assembler, page 91.

## **Compound literals**

To create compound literals you can use this syntax:

```
/* Create a pointer to an anonymous array */
int *p = (int []) {1, 2, 3};

/* Create a pointer to an anonymous structX */
structX *px = &(structX) {5, 6, 7};
```

#### Note:

- A compound literal can be modified unless it is declared const
- Compound literals are not supported in Embedded C++ and Extended EC++.
- This feature is part of the C99 standard.

#### Incomplete arrays at end of structs

The last element of a struct can be an incomplete array. This is useful for allocating a chunk of memory that contains both the structure and a fixed number of elements of the array. The number of elements can vary between allocations.

This feature is part of the C99 standard.

**Note:** The array cannot be the only member of the struct. If that was the case, then the size of the struct would be zero, which is not allowed in ISO/ANSI C.

#### Example

The incomplete array will be aligned in the structure just like any other member of the structure. For more information about structure alignment, see *Structure types*, page 187.

## **Hexadecimal floating-point constants**

Floating-point constants can be given in hexadecimal style. The syntax is  $0 \times MANT_D \{+ \mid -\} EXP$ , where MANT is the mantissa in hexadecimal digits, including an optional. (decimal point), and EXP is the exponent with decimal digits, representing an exponent of 2. This feature is part of the C99 standard.

#### Examples

```
0x1p0 is 1
0xA.8p2 is 10.5*2<sup>2</sup>
```

#### Designated initializers in structures and arrays

Any initialization of either a structure (struct or union) or an array can have a designation. A designation consists of one or more designators followed by an initializer. A designator for a structure is specified as .elementname and for an array [constant index expression]. Using designated initializers is not supported in C++.

## Examples

This definition shows a struct and its initialization using designators:

```
struct
 int i;
 int j;
 int k:
 int 1;
 short array[10];
u =
 .1 = 6,
                /* initialize 1 to 6 */
             /* initialize j to 6 */
 .j = 6,
                /* initialize k to 8 */
 .array[7] = 2, /* initialize element 7 to 2 */
  .array[3] = 2, /* initialize element 3 to 2 */
                /* array[4] = 5 */
  .k = 4
                /* reinitialize k to 4 */
};
```

Note that a designator specifies the destination element of the initialization. Note also that if one element is initialized more than once, it is the last initialization that will be used.

To initialize an element in a union other than the first, do like this:

```
union
{
  int i;
  float f;
} y = {.f = 5.0};
```

To set the size of an array by initializing the last element, do like this:

```
char array[] = \{[10] = 'a'\};
```

#### MINOR LANGUAGE EXTENSIONS

This section lists and briefly describes minor extensions, that is, the relaxation of some standards issues and also some useful but minor syntax extensions:

• Arrays of incomplete types

An array can have an incomplete struct, union, or enum type as its element type. The types must be completed before the array is used (if it is), or by the end of the compilation unit (if it is not).

• Forward declaration of enum types

The IAR Systems language extensions allow that you first declare the name of an enum and later resolve it by specifying the brace-enclosed list.

• Missing semicolon at end of struct or union specifier

A warning is issued if the semicolon at the end of a struct or union specifier is missing.

• Null and void

In operations on pointers, a pointer to void is always implicitly converted to another type if necessary, and a null pointer constant is always implicitly converted to a null pointer of the right type if necessary. In ISO/ANSI C, some operators allow such things, while others do not allow them.

• Casting pointers to integers in static initializers

In an initializer, a pointer constant value can be cast to an integral type if the integral type is large enough to contain it. For more information about casting pointers, see *Casting*, page 186.

• Taking the address of a register variable

In ISO/ANSI C, it is illegal to take the address of a variable specified as a register variable. The compiler allows this, but a warning is issued.

• Duplicated size and sign specifiers

Should the size or sign specifiers be duplicated (for example, short short or unsigned unsigned), an error is issued.

• long float means double

The type long float is accepted as a synonym for double.

• Repeated typedef declarations

Redeclarations of typedef that occur in the same scope are allowed, but a warning is issued.

• Mixing pointer types

Assignment and pointer difference is allowed between pointers to types that are interchangeable but not identical; for example, unsigned char \* and char \*. This includes pointers to integral types of the same size. A warning is issued.

Assignment of a string constant to a pointer to any kind of character is allowed, and no warning is issued.

• Non-top level const

Assignment of pointers is allowed in cases where the destination type has added type qualifiers that are not at the top level (for example, int \*\* to int const \*\*). Comparing and taking the difference of such pointers is also allowed.

• Non-lvalue arrays

A non-lvalue array expression is converted to a pointer to the first element of the array when it is used.

• Comments at the end of preprocessor directives

This extension, which makes it legal to place text after preprocessor directives, is enabled, unless strict ISO/ANSI mode is used. The purpose of this language extension is to support compilation of legacy code; we do *not* recommend that you write new code in this fashion.

• An extra comma at the end of enum lists

Placing an extra comma is allowed at the end of an enum list. In strict ISO/ANSI mode, a warning is issued.

• A label preceding a }

In ISO/ANSI C, a label must be followed by at least one statement. Therefore, it is illegal to place the label at the end of a block. The compiler issues a warning.

**Note:** This also applies to the labels of switch statements.

• Empty declarations

An empty declaration (a semicolon by itself) is allowed, but a remark is issued (provided that remarks are enabled).

• Single-value initialization

ISO/ANSI C requires that all initializer expressions of static arrays, structs, and unions are enclosed in braces.

Single-value initializers are allowed to appear without braces, but a warning is issued. 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, with the function name as context. Use the symbol \_\_PRETTY\_FUNCTION\_\_ to also include the parameter types and return type. The result might, for example, look like this if you use the \_\_PRETTY\_FUNCTION\_\_ symbol:

```
"void func(char)"
```

These symbols are useful for assertions and other trace utilities and they require that language extensions are enabled, see -e, page 164.

# **Extended keywords**

This chapter describes the extended keywords that support specific features of the 78K microcontrollers and the general syntax rules for the keywords. Finally the chapter gives a detailed description of each keyword.

For information about the address ranges of the different memory areas, see the chapter Segment reference.

# General syntax rules for extended keywords

To understand the syntax rules for the extended keywords, it is important to be familiar with some related concepts.

The compilers provide a set of attributes that can be used on functions or data objects to support specific features of the 78K 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.

**Note:** Some of the keywords described in this chapter cannot be used with both the 78K0/78K0S Compiler and the 78K0R Compiler. This is mentioned in the descriptions of the individual keywords.

For information about how to use attributes to modify data, see the chapter *Data storage*. For information about how to use attributes to modify functions, see the chapter *Functions*. For detailed information about each attribute, see *Descriptions of extended keywords*, page 208.

**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 164 for additional information.

#### **TYPE ATTRIBUTES**

Type attributes define how a function is called, or how a data object is accessed. This means that if you use a type attribute, it must be specified both when a function or data object is defined and when it is declared.

You can either place the type attributes directly in your source code, or use the pragma directive #pragma type\_attribute.

Type attributes can be further divided into *memory type attributes* and *general type attributes*. Memory type attributes are referred to as simply *memory attributes* in the rest of the documentation.

#### **Memory attributes**

A memory attribute corresponds to a certain logical or physical memory in the microcontroller.

- Available function memory attributes: \_\_callf, \_\_near\_func, \_\_far\_func, \_\_banked, and \_\_non\_banked
- Available data memory attributes: \_\_near, \_\_far, \_\_saddr, and \_\_sfr

Data objects, functions, and destinations of pointers or C++ references always have a memory attribute. If no attribute is explicitly specified in the declaration or by the pragma directive #pragma type\_attribute, an appropriate default attribute is used. You can specify one memory attribute for each level of pointer indirection.

## General type attributes

These general type attributes are available:

- Function type attributes affect how the function should be called: \_\_interrupt, \_\_no\_save, \_\_V2\_call, and \_\_V3\_call
- Data type attributes: const, \_\_no\_bit\_access, and volatile

You can specify as many type attributes as required for each level of pointer indirection.

To read more about the type qualifiers const and volatile, see *Type qualifiers*, page 189.

#### Syntax for type attributes used on data objects

In general, type attributes for data objects follow the same syntax as the type qualifiers const and volatile.

The following declaration assigns the  $\__far$  type attribute to the variables i and j; in other words, the variable i and j is placed in far memory. The variables k and l behave in the same way:

```
__far int i, j;
int __far k, l;
```

Note that the attribute affects both identifiers.

This declaration of i and j is equivalent with the previous one:

```
#pragma type_attribute=__far
int i, j;
```

The advantage of using pragma directives for specifying keywords is that it offers you a method to make sure that the source code is portable. Note that the pragma directive has no effect if a memory attribute is already explicitly declared.

For more examples of using memory attributes, see More examples, page 17.

An easier way of specifying storage is to use type definitions. These two declarations are equivalent:

```
typedef char __far Byte;
typedef Byte *BytePtr;
Byte b;
BytePtr bp;
and
__far char b;
char __far *bp;
```

Note that #pragma type\_attribute can be used together with a typedef declaration.

# Syntax for type attributes on data pointers

The syntax for declaring pointers using type attributes follows the same syntax as the type qualifiers const and volatile:

#### Syntax for type attributes on functions

The syntax for using type attributes on functions differs slightly from the syntax of type attributes on data objects. For functions, the attribute must be placed either in front of the return type, or in parentheses, for example:

```
__interrupt void my_handler(void);
or
void (__interrupt my_handler)(void);
This declaration of my_handler is equivalent with the previous one:
#pragma type_attribute=__interrupt
void my_handler(void);
```

#### Syntax for type attributes on function pointers

To declare a function pointer, use this syntax:

```
int (__far_func * fp) (double);
```

After this declaration, the function pointer fp points to far memory.

An easier way of specifying storage is to use type definitions:

```
typedef __far_func void FUNC_TYPE(int);
typedef FUNC_TYPE *FUNC_PTR_TYPE;
FUNC_TYPE func();
FUNC_PTR_TYPE funcptr;
```

Note that #pragma type\_attribute can be used together with a typedef declaration.

## **OBJECT ATTRIBUTES**

Object attributes affect the internal functionality of functions and data objects, but not how the function is called or how the data is accessed. This means that an object attribute does not need to be present in the declaration of an object.

These object attributes are available:

- Object attributes that can be used for variables: \_\_no\_init
- Object attributes that can be used for functions and variables: location, @, and \_\_root
- Object attributes that can be used for functions: \_\_intrinsic, \_\_monitor, and \_\_noreturn.

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 126. For more information about vector, see *vector*, page 231.

## 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		
banked	Controls the storage of functions. 78K0/78K0S only		
callf	Controls the storage of functions. 78K0 only		
callt	Controls the storage of functions		
far	Controls the storage of data objects. 78K0R only		
far_func	Controls the storage of functions. 78K0R only		
interrupt	Supports interrupt functions		
intrinsic	Reserved for compiler internal use only		
monitor	Supports atomic execution of a function		
near	Controls the storage of data objects		
near_func	Controls the storage of functions. 78K0R only		
no_bit_access	Inhibits the use of bit instructions when accessing individual bits of the object		
no_init	Supports non-volatile memory		
non_banked	Controls the storage of functions. 78K0/78K0S only		
noreturn	Informs the compiler that the function will not return		

Table 40: Extended keywords summary

Extended keyword	Description
no_save	Specifies a function to not save and restore the workseg area that it has used
root	Ensures that a function or variable is included in the object code even if unused
saddr	Controls the storage of data objects
sfr	Controls the storage of data objects
V2_call	Specifies a calling convention compatible with version 2 of the compiler. 78K0/78K0S only
V3_call	Specifies a calling convention compatible with version 3 of the compiler. 78K0/78K0S only

Table 40: Extended keywords summary (Continued)

# **Descriptions of extended keywords**

These sections give detailed information about each extended keyword.

## banked

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on

functions, see Type attributes, page 204.

Description

The \_\_banked memory attribute overrides the default storage of functions given by the selected code model and places individual functions in banked memory, which means a

CALL instruction will be used at function calls. You can also use the \_\_banked attribute to create a pointer explicitly pointing to an object located in the banked memory.

The function can be called from any XLINK segment.

Storage information • Address range: 0-0xffffff (16 Mbytes)

• Maximum size: 16 Mbytes.

Pointer size: 3 bytes

**Note:** This keyword cannot be used with the 78K0R Compiler. If you have 78K0/78K0S code containing this keyword that you need to compile using the 78K0R Compiler, you can compile it if you—as a workaround—define the following:

#define \_\_banked \_\_far\_func

**Example** \_\_banked void myfunction(void);

See also

Banked functions (78K0/78K0S only), page 27.

# \_\_callf

Syntax

Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on

functions, see Type attributes, page 204.

Description

The \_\_callf memory attribute overrides the default storage of functions given by the selected code model and specifies that individual functions are called with a CALLF instruction. The function can be placed in any XLINK segment.

Storage information

Address range: 0x0800-0x0FFF (2 Kbytes)

• Maximum size: 2048 Kbytes.

Pointer size: 2 bytes

**Note:** This keyword can only be used with the 78K0 core. If you have 78K0 source code containing this keyword that you need to compile for the 78K0R or 78K0S core, you can compile it if you as a workaround define the following:

#define \_\_callf \_\_near\_func

Example

\_\_callf void myfunction(void);

# \_\_callt

Syntax

Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on functions, see *Type attributes*, page 204.

Description

The \_\_callt memory attribute overrides the default storage of functions given by the selected code model and specifies that individual functions are called with a vectored CALLT instruction. The function can be placed in any XLINK segment.

Storage information

Address range: 0-0xffff (64 Kbytes)

• Maximum size: 65535 bytes.

Pointer size: 2 bytes

Example

\_\_callt void myfunction(void);

## \_\_far

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data

objects, see Type attributes, page 204.

Description The \_\_far memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by the

selected data model and places individual variables and constants in far memory (78K0R only). You can also use the \_\_far attribute to create a pointer explicitly

pointing to an object located in far memory.

Storage information • Address range: 0-FFFFF (1 Mbyte)

• Maximum object size: 65535 bytes. 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.

Note: This keyword can only be used with the 78K0R Compiler.

Example \_\_far int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 13.

# far func

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on

functions, see Type attributes, page 204.

Description The \_\_far\_func memory attribute overrides the default storage of functions given by

the selected code model and places individual functions in farfunc memory. You can also use the <code>\_\_far\_func</code> attribute to create a pointer explicitly pointing to an object located

in farfunc memory.

Storage information • Address range: 0-0xfffff (1 Mbyte)

• Maximum size: 65535 bytes. An object cannot cross a 64-Kbyte boundary.

Pointer size: 3 bytes

**Note:** This keyword can *only* be used with the 78K0R Compiler.

## \_\_interrupt

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for type attributes that can be used on functions, see

Type attributes, page 204.

**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 23, *vector*, page 231, *INTVEC*, page 260.

## \_\_intrinsic

**Description** The \_\_intrinsic keyword is reserved for compiler internal use only.

# \_\_monitor

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for object attributes that can be used on functions, see

Object attributes, page 206.

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 24. Read also about the intrinsic functions *disable interrupt*,

page 234, enable interrupt, page 234, get interrupt state, page 234, and

set interrupt state, page 235.

#### \_\_near

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data

objects, see Type attributes, page 204.

Description The \_\_near memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by the

selected data 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 near memory.

 $\textbf{Storage information} \qquad \textbf{ } \bullet \quad Address \; range: 0 \times 0000 - 0 \times \texttt{FFFF} \; (78K0 \; and \; 78K0S)$ 

0xF0000-0xFFFFF (78K0R)

• Maximum object size: 65535 bytes.

• Pointer size: 2 bytes.

Example \_\_near int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 13.

# \_\_near\_func

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on

functions, see Type attributes, page 204.

Description The \_\_near\_func memory attribute overrides the default storage of functions given by

the selected code model and places individual functions in nearfunc memory. You can also use the \_\_near\_func attribute to create a pointer explicitly pointing to an object

located in nearfunc memory.

Storage information • Address range: 0-0xffff (64 Kbytes)

Maximum size: 65535 bytes.

• Pointer size: 2 bytes

Note: This keyword can *only* be used with the 78K0R Compiler.

# \_\_no\_bit\_access

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for type attributes that can be used on data, see *Type* 

attributes, page 204.

Description For data objects declared \_\_no\_bit\_access, the use of bit instructions is suppressed

individual bits of the object are accessed.

# \_\_no\_init

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for object attributes, see *Object attributes*, page 206.

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];

# \_\_non\_banked

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on

functions, see Type attributes, page 204.

Description

The \_\_non\_banked memory attribute overrides the default storage of functions given by the selected code model and places individual functions in non-banked memory,

which means a standard CALL instruction will be used at function calls. You can also use the \_\_non\_banked attribute to create a pointer explicitly pointing to an object located

in non-banked memory.

Functions in non-banked memory can be called from any XLINK segment. For a banked application, this memory attribute can be useful for functions that must reside in

non-banked memory, for instance, interrupt functions.

Storage information

Address range: 0-0xffff (64 Kbytes)

Maximum size: 65535 bytes.

Pointer size: 2 bytes

**Note:** This keyword cannot be used with the 78K0R Compiler. If you have 78K0/78K0S source code containing this keyword that you need to compile using the 78K0R Compiler, you can compile it if you as a workaround define the following:

#define \_\_non\_banked \_\_near\_func

**Example** \_\_non\_banked void myfunction(void);

#### \_\_noreturn

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for object attributes, see *Object attributes*, page 206.

Description The \_\_noreturn keyword can be used on a function to inform the compiler that the

function will not return. If you use this keyword on such functions, the compiler can optimize more efficiently. Examples of functions that do not return are about and exit.

**Example** \_\_noreturn void terminate(void);

#### \_\_no\_save

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for type attributes that can be used on functions, see

Type attributes, page 204.

Description Functions that are declared \_\_no\_save will not save and restore the workseg area that

it has used.

Functions normally save the used area of the WRKSEG segment on the stack. The \_\_no\_save keyword cases the function not to save this information when the

--workseg\_area option is used.

This keyword has not effect unless the --workseg\_area option is used.

#### root

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for object attributes, see *Object attributes*, page 206.

Description A function or variable with the \_\_root attribute is kept whether or not it is referenced

from the rest of the application, provided its module is included. Program modules are

always included and library modules are only included if needed.

Example \_\_root int myarray[10];

See also To read more about modules, segments, and the link process, see the *IAR Linker and* 

Library Tools Reference Guide.

## \_\_saddr

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data

objects, see Type attributes, page 204.

Description The \_\_saddr memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by the

selected data model and places individual variables and constants in saddr memory. You can also use the \_\_saddr attribute to create a pointer explicitly pointing to an object

located in saddr memory.

 $\textbf{Storage information} \qquad \quad \bullet \quad Address \ range: \texttt{0xFE20-0xFF1F} \ (78K0 \ and \ 78K0S)$ 

0xffE20-0xfff1f (78K0R)

• Maximum object size: 256 bytes.

• Pointer size: 2 bytes.

**Example** \_\_saddr int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 13.

## \_\_sfr

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data

objects, see Type attributes, page 204.

Description The \_\_sfr memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by the

selected data model and places individual variables and constants in the sfr area.

Storage information • Address range: 0xFF00-0xFFFF (78K0 and 78K0S)

0xfff00-0xfffff (78K0R)

• Maximum object size: Typically, 256 bytes (varies with the device).

Pointer size: n/a

Example \_\_saddr int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 13.

\_\_V2\_call

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for type attributes that can be used on functions, see

Type attributes, page 204.

Description Functions that are declared \_\_v2\_call uses the same calling convention as used in

version 2.x of the compiler.

Note: This keyword cannot be used with the 78K0R Compiler.

See also *Calling convention*, page 97.

\_\_V3\_call

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for type attributes that can be used on functions, see

Type attributes, page 204.

Description Functions that are declared \_\_v3\_call uses the same calling convention as used in

version 3.x of the compiler.

Note: This keyword cannot be used with the 78K0R Compiler.

See also *Calling convention*, page 97.

# **Pragma directives**

This chapter describes the pragma directives of the compilers.

The #pragma directive is defined by the ISO/ANSI C standard and is a mechanism for using vendor-specific extensions in a controlled way to make sure that the source code is still portable.

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

The pragma directives are always enabled in the compiler.

# Summary of pragma directives

This table lists the pragma directives of the compiler that can be used either with the #pragma preprocessor directive or the \_Pragma() preprocessor operator:

Pragma directive	Description	
bank	Specifies the register bank number of the immediately following interrupt function. 78K0 and 78K0R cores only.	
basic_template_matching	Makes a template function fully memory-attribute aware	
bitfields	Controls the order of bitfield members	
constseg	Places constant variables in a named segment	
data_alignment	Gives a variable a higher (more strict) alignment	
dataseg	Places variables in a named segment	
diag_default	Changes the severity level of diagnostic messages	
diag_error	Changes the severity level of diagnostic messages	
diag_remark	Changes the severity level of diagnostic messages	
diag_suppress	Suppresses diagnostic messages	
diag_warning	Changes the severity level of diagnostic messages	
include_alias	Specifies an alias for an include file	
inline	Inlines a function	
language	Controls the IAR Systems language extensions	

Table 41: Pragma directives summary

Pragma directive	Description	
location	Specifies the absolute address of a variable, or places groups of functions or variables in named segments	
message	Prints a message	
object_attribute	Changes the definition of a variable or a function	
optimize	Specifies the type and level of an optimization	
pack	Specifies the alignment of structures and union members	
printf_args	Verifies that a function with a printf-style format string is called with the correct arguments	
required	Ensures that a symbol that is needed by another symbol is included in the linked output	
rtmodel	Adds a runtime model attribute to the module	
scanf_args	Verifies that a function with a scanf-style format string is called with the correct arguments	
segment	Declares a segment name to be used by intrinsic functions	
type_attribute	Changes the declaration and definitions of a variable or function	
unroll	Unrolls loops	
vector	Specifies the vector of an interrupt function	

Table 41: Pragma directives summary (Continued)

**Note:** For portability reasons, see also *Recognized pragma directives (6.8.6)*, page 273, and the 78K IAR Embedded Workbench Migration Guide.

# Descriptions of pragma directives

This section gives detailed information about each pragma directive.

# bank

Syntax	#pragma bank= <i>bank</i> _	number
Parameters	bank_number	A constant integer expression that denotes one of the register
		banks 0-3.

Description Use this pragma directive to declare an interrupt function that switches to another

register bank before starting the execution of the function. The #pragma bank directive controls the register bank number (0-3) of the immediately following interrupt function.

**Note:** This pragma directive cannot be used in code written for the 78K0S core.

Example For an example, see *Interrupt functions*, page 23.

See also Banked functions (78K0/78K0S only), page 27.

# 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 described in

Templates and data memory attributes (78K0R only), page 116.

Example #pragma basic\_template\_matching

template<typename T> void fun(T \*);

fun((int \_\_near \*) 0); /\* Template parameter T becomes

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.

By default, the compiler places bitfield members from the least significant bit to the most significant bit in the container type. Use the #pragma bitfields=reversed directive to place the bitfield members from the most significant to the least significant

bit. This setting remains active until you turn it off again with the #pragma

bitfields=default directive.

See also *Bitfields*, page 183.

#### constseg

Syntax #pragma constseg=[\_\_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 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=\_\_saddr 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.

multiple of the alignment.

# dataseg

**Parameters** 

\_\_memoryattribute An optional memory attribute denoting in what memory the

segment will be placed; if not specified, default memory is used.

SEGMENT\_NAME A user-defined segment name; cannot be a segment name

predefined for use by the compiler and linker.

default Uses the default segment.

Description Use this pragma directive to place variables in a named segment. The segment name

cannot be a segment name predefined for use by the compiler and linker. The variable will not be initialized at startup, and can for this reason not have an initializer, which means it must be declared \_\_no\_init. The setting remains active until you turn it off

again with the #pragma constseg=default directive.

**Example** #pragma dataseg=\_\_saddr MY\_SEGMENT

\_\_no\_init char myBuffer[1000];

#pragma dataseg=default

# diag\_default

Syntax #pragma diag\_default=tag[,tag,...]

**Parameters** 

tag The number of a diagnostic message, for example the message

number Pe117.

Description Use this pragma directive to change the severity level back to the default, or to the

severity level defined on the command line by any of the options --diag\_error, --diag\_remark, --diag\_suppress, or --diag\_warnings, for the diagnostic

messages specified with the tags.

See also *Diagnostics*, page 146.

# diag\_error

Syntax #pragma diag\_error=tag[,tag,...]

**Parameters** 

tag The number of a diagnostic message, for example the message

number Pe117.

Description Use this pragma directive to change the severity level to error for the specified

diagnostics.

See also Diagnostics, page 146.

diag\_remark

Syntax #pragma diag\_remark=tag[,tag,...]

**Parameters** 

tag 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 146.

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 146.

# diag\_warning

Syntax #pragma diag\_warning=tag[,tag,...]

**Parameters** 

tag The number of a diagnostic message, for example the message

number Pe826.

Description Use this pragma directive to change the severity level to warning for the specified

diagnostic messages.

See also *Diagnostics*, page 146.

# include\_alias

#pragma include\_alias (<orig\_header> , <subst\_header>)

**Parameters** 

orig\_header The name of a header file for which you want to create an alias.

subst\_header The alias for the original header file.

Description Use this pragma directive to provide an alias for a header file. This is useful for

substituting one header file with another, and for specifying an absolute path to a relative

file.

This pragma directive must appear before the corresponding #include directives and

subst\_header must match its corresponding #include directive exactly.

Example #pragma include\_alias (<stdio.h> , <C:\MyHeaders\stdio.h>)

#include <stdio.h>

This example will substitute the relative file stdio.h with a counterpart located

according to the specified path.

See also *Include file search procedure*, page 144.

#### inline

Syntax #pragma inline[=forced]

**Parameters** 

forced Disables the compiler's heuristics and forces inlining.

Description

Use this pragma directive to advise the compiler that the function whose declaration follows immediately after the directive should be inlined—that is, expanded into the body of the calling function. Whether the inlining actually occurs is subject to the compiler's heuristics.

This is similar to the C++ keyword inline, but has the advantage of being available in C code.

Specifying #pragma inline=forced disables the compiler's heuristics and forces inlining. If the inlining fails for some reason, for example if it cannot be used with the function type in question (like printf), an error message is emitted.

**Note:** Because specifying #pragma inline=forced disables the compiler's heuristics, including the inlining heuristics, the function declared immediately after the directive will not be inlined on optimization levels None or Low. No error or warning message will be emitted.

# language

Syntax #pragma language={extended|default}

**Parameters** 

extended Turns on the IAR Systems language extensions and turns off the

--strict\_ansi command line option.

default Uses the language settings specified by compiler options.

Description Use this pragma directive to enable the compiler language extensions or for using the

language settings specified on the command line.

## location

Syntax #pragma location={address|NAME}

**Parameters** 

address The absolute address of the global or static variable for which you

want an absolute location.

NAME A user-defined segment name; cannot be a segment name

predefined for use by the compiler and linker.

Description Use this pragma directive to specify the location—the absolute address—of the global

or static variable whose declaration follows the pragma directive. The variable must be declared either \_\_no\_init or const. Alternatively, the directive can take a string specifying a segment for placing either a variable or a function whose declaration

follows the pragma directive.

Example #pragma location=0xFF20

#pragma location="foo"

char PORT1; /\* PORT1 is located in segment foo \*/

/\* A better way is to use a corresponding mechanism \*/

#define FLASH \_Pragma("location=\"FLASH\"")

. . .

FLASH int i; /\* i is placed in the FLASH segment \*/

See also Controlling data and function placement in memory, page 126.

## message

Syntax #pragma message(message)

**Parameters** 

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 a list of object attributes that can be used with this pragma directive, see *Object* 

attributes, page 206.

Description Use this pragma directive to declare a variable or a function with an object attribute. This

directive affects the definition of the identifier that follows immediately after the directive. The object is modified, not its type. Unlike the directive #pragma

type\_attribute that specifies the storing and accessing of a variable or function, it is

not necessary to specify an object attribute in declarations.

char bar;

See also General syntax rules for extended keywords, page 203.

# optimize

Syntax #pragma optimize=param[ param...]

**Parameters** 

optimizes for size, or optimizes for speed

no\_code\_motion Turns off code motion

no\_cse Turns off common subexpression elimination

no\_inline Turns off function inlining

no\_tbaa Turns off type-based alias analysis

no\_unroll Turns off loop unrolling

Description Use this pragma directive to decrease the optimization level, or to turn off some specific

optimizations. This pragma directive only affects the function that follows immediately

after the directive.

The parameters speed, size, and balanced only have effect on the high optimization level and only one of them can be used as it is not possible to optimize for speed and size at the same time. It is also not possible to use preprocessor macros embedded in this pragma directive. Any such macro will not be expanded by the preprocessor.

**Note:** If you use the #pragma optimize directive to specify an optimization level that is higher than the optimization level you specify using a compiler option, the pragma directive is ignored.

#### Example

```
#pragma optimize=speed
int small_and_used_often()
{
    ...
}

#pragma optimize=size no_inline
int big_and_seldom_used()
{
    ...
}
```

# pack

Syntax

```
#pragma pack(n)
#pragma pack()
#pragma pack({push|pop}[,name] [,n])
```

#### **Parameters**

Sets an optional structure alignment; one of: 1, 2, 4, 8, or 16

Empty list Restores the structure alignment to default push Sets a temporary structure alignment

pop Restores the structure alignment from a temporarily pushed alignment

name An optional pushed or popped alignment label

#### Description

Use this pragma directive to specify the maximum alignment of struct and union members.

The #pragma pack directive affects declarations of structures following the pragma directive to the next #pragma pack or end of file.

**Note:** This can result in significantly larger and slower code when accessing members of the structure.

See also

Structure types, page 187.

# \_\_printf\_args

Syntax #pragma \_\_printf\_args

Description Use this pragma directive on a function with a printf-style format string. For any call to

that function, the compiler verifies that the argument to each conversion specifier (for

example %d) is syntactically correct.

Example #pragma \_\_printf\_args

```
int printf(char const *,...);
```

```
/* Function call */
printf("%d",x); /* Compiler checks that x is a double */
```

# required

Syntax #pragma required=symbol

**Parameters** 

symbol Any statically linked function or variable.

Description

Use this pragma directive to ensure that a symbol which is needed by a second symbol is included in the linked output. The directive must be placed immediately before the second symbol.

Use the directive if the requirement for a symbol is not otherwise visible in the application, for example if a variable is only referenced indirectly through the segment it resides in.

Example

```
const char copyright[] = "Copyright by me";
```

```
#pragma required=copyright
int main()
{
   /* 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.

#### rtmodel

Syntax #pragma rtmodel="key","value"

**Parameters** 

" key" A text string that specifies the runtime model attribute.

" value" A text string that specifies the value of the runtime model attribute.

Using the special value \* is equivalent to not defining the attribute at

all.

Description

Use this pragma directive to add a runtime model attribute to a module, which can be used by the linker to check consistency between modules.

This pragma directive is useful for enforcing consistency between modules. All modules that are linked together and define the same runtime attribute key must have the same value for the corresponding key, or the special value \*. It can, however, be useful to state explicitly that the module can handle any runtime model.

A module can have several runtime model definitions.

**Note:** The predefined compiler runtime model attributes start with a double underscore. To avoid confusion, this style must not be used in the user-defined attributes.

Example

#pragma rtmodel="I2C","ENABLED"

The linker will generate an error if a module that contains this definition is linked with a module that does not have the corresponding runtime model attributes defined.

See also

Example

Checking module consistency, page 78.

# \_\_scanf\_args

Syntax #pragma \_\_scanf\_args

**Description** Use this

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.

#pragma \_\_scanf\_args

```
int printf(char const *,...);

/* Function call */
scanf("%d",x); /* Compiler checks that x is a double */
```

### segment

**Parameters** 

NAME The name of the segment

\_\_memoryattribute An optional memory attribute identifying the memory the segment

will be placed in; if not specified, default memory is used.

align Specifies an alignment for the segment part. The value must be a

constant integer expression to the power of two.

Description Use this pragma directive to define a segment name that can be used by the segment

operators  $\_\_{\tt segment\_begin}$  and  $\_\_{\tt segment\_end}.$  All segment declarations for a

specific segment must have the same memory type attribute and alignment.

If an optional memory attribute is used, the return type of the segment operators

 $\_\_$ segment $\_$ begin and  $\_\_$ segment $\_$ end is:

void \_\_memoryattribute \*.

Example #pragma segment="MYSADDR" \_\_saddr 4

See also Important language extensions, page 194. For more information about segments and

segment parts, see the chapter Placing code and data.

# type\_attribute

Syntax #pragma type\_attribute=type\_attribute[,type\_attribute,...]

Parameters For a list of type attributes that can be used with this pragma directive, see *Type* 

attributes, page 204.

Description Use this pragma directive to specify IAR-specific *type attributes*, which are not part of

the ISO/ANSI C language standard. Note however, that a given type attribute might not

be applicable to all kind of objects.

This directive affects the declaration of the identifier, the next variable, or the next

function that follows immediately after the pragma directive.

Example In this example, an int object with the memory attribute \_\_saddr is defined:

#pragma type\_attribute=\_\_saddr

int x;

This declaration, which uses extended keywords, is equivalent:

```
saddr int x;
```

See also

See the chapter Extended keywords for more details.

#### unroll

Syntax #pragma unroll=n

**Parameters** 

n

The number of loop bodies in the unrolled loop, a constant integer.

Description

Use this pragma directive to specify that the loop following immediately after the directive should be unrolled and that the unrolled loop should have *n* copies of the loop body. The pragma directive can only be placed immediately before a for, do, or while loop, whose number of iterations can be determined at compile time.

Normally, unrolling is most effective for relatively small loops. However, in some cases, unrolling larger loops can be beneficial if it exposes opportunities for further optimizations between the unrolled loop iterations, for example common subexpression elimination or dead code elimination.

The #pragma unroll directive can be used to force a loop to be unrolled if the unrolling heuristics are not aggressive enough. The pragma directive can also be used to reduce the aggressiveness of the unrolling heuristics; #pragma unroll = 1 will prevent the unrolling of a loop.

Example

```
#pragma unroll=4
for (i = 0; i < 64; ++i)
{
  foo(i * k; (i + 1) * k);
}</pre>
```

See also

Loop unrolling, page 133.

#### vector

Syntax #pragma vector=vector1[, vector2, vector3, ...]

**Parameters** 

vector

The vector number(s) of an interrupt function.

Description Use this pragma directive to specify the vector(s) of an interrupt function whose

declaration follows the pragma directive. Note that several vectors can be defined for

each function.

Example! #pragma vector=0x14

\_\_interrupt void my\_handler(void);

# **Intrinsic functions**

This chapter gives reference information about the intrinsic functions, a predefined set of functions available in the compilers.

The intrinsic functions provide direct access to low-level processor operations and can be very useful in, for example, time-critical routines. The intrinsic functions compile into inline code, either as a single instruction or as a short sequence of instructions.

# **Summary of intrinsic functions**

To use intrinsic functions in an application, include the header file intrinsics.h.

Note that the intrinsic function names start with double underscores, for example:

\_\_disable\_interrupt

This table summarizes the intrinsic functions:

Intrinsic function	Description
break	Inserts a BRK instruction
disable_interrupt	Disables interrupts
enable_interrupt	Enables interrupts
get_interrupt_state	Returns the interrupt state
halt	Inserts a halt/no-operation instruction pair
no_operation	Inserts a NOP instruction
set_interrupt_state	Restores the interrupt state
stop	Inserts a stop/no-operation instruction pair

Table 42: Intrinsic functions summary

# **Descriptions of intrinsic functions**

This section gives reference information about each intrinsic function.

### \_\_break

Syntax void \_\_break(void);

Description Inserts a BRK instruction. This function cannot be used with the 78K0S processor core.

# \_\_disable\_interrupt

Syntax void \_\_disable\_interrupt(void);

**Description** Disables interrupts by inserting the DI instruction.

# \_\_enable\_interrupt

Syntax void \_\_enable\_interrupt(void);

Description Enables interrupts by inserting the EI instruction.

# \_\_get\_interrupt\_state

Syntax \_\_istate\_t \_\_get\_interrupt\_state(void);

Description Returns the global interrupt state. The return value can be used as an argument to the

\_\_set\_interrupt\_state intrinsic function, which will restore the interrupt state.

\_\_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.

# \_\_halt

Syntax void \_\_halt(void);

Description Inserts a halt/no-operation instruction pair.

# \_\_no\_operation

Syntax void \_\_no\_operation(void);

**Description** Inserts a NOP instruction.

# \_\_set\_interrupt\_state

Syntax void \_\_set\_interrupt\_state(\_\_istate\_t);

Descriptions 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 234.

# \_\_stop

Syntax void \_\_stop(void);

**Description** Inserts a stop/no-operation instruction pair.

Descriptions of intrinsic functions

# The preprocessor

This chapter gives a brief overview of the preprocessor, including reference information about the different preprocessor directives, symbols, and other related information.

# Overview of the preprocessor

The preprocessor of the IAR C/C++ Compilers for 78K adheres to the ISO/ANSI standard. The compiler also makes these preprocessor-related features available to you:

- Predefined preprocessor symbols
  - These symbols allow you to inspect the compile-time environment, for example the time and date of compilation. For details, see *Descriptions of predefined preprocessor symbols*, page 238.
- 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 157.
- Preprocessor extensions
  - There are several preprocessor extensions, for example many pragma directives; for more information, see the chapter *Pragma directives* in this guide. Read also about the corresponding \_Pragma operator and the other extensions related to the preprocessor, see *Descriptions of miscellaneous preprocessor extensions*, page 240.
- Preprocessor output
  - Use the option --preprocess to direct preprocessor output to a named file, see --preprocess, page 176.

Some parts listed by the ISO/ANSI standard are implementation-defined, for example the character set used in the preprocessor directives and inclusion of bracketed and quoted filenames. To read more about this, see *Preprocessing directives*, page 273.

# **Descriptions of predefined preprocessor symbols**

This table describes the predefined preprocessor symbols:

Predefined symbol	Identifies
BASE_FILE	A string that identifies the name of the base source file (that is, not the header file), being compiled. See alsoFILE, page 239, and _no_path_in_file_macros, page 171.
BUILD_NUMBER	A unique integer that identifies the build number of the compiler currently in use. The build number does not necessarily increase with a compiler that is released later.
CODE_MODEL	An integer that identifies the code model in use. The symbol reflects thecode_model option and is defined toCODE_MODEL_STANDARD,CODE_MODEL_BANKED,CODE_MODEL_NEAR, orCODE_MODEL_FAR These symbolic names can be used when testing theCODE_MODEL symbol.
CORE	An integer that identifies the chip core in use. The symbol reflects thecore option and is defined to78K0_BASIC,78K0,78K0S, or78K0R These symbolic names can be used when testing theCORE symbol.
cplusplus	An integer which is defined when the compiler runs in any of the C++ modes, otherwise it is undefined. When defined, its value is 199711L. This symbol can be used with #ifdef to detect whether the compiler accepts C++ code. It is particularly useful when creating header files that are to be shared by C and C++ code.*
DATA_MODEL	An integer that identifies the data model in use. The symbol reflects thedata_model option and is defined toDATA_MODEL_NEAR orDATA_MODEL_FAR  These symbolic names can be used when testing theDATA_MODEL symbol.
DATE	A string that identifies the date of compilation, which is returned in the form "Mmm dd yyyy", for example "Oct $$ 30 $$ 2008". $^*$

Table 43: Predefined symbols

Predefined symbol	Identifies
embedded_cplusplus	An integer which is defined to 1 when the compiler runs in any of the C++ modes, otherwise the symbol is undefined. This symbol can be used with #ifdef to detect whether the compiler accepts C++ code. It is particularly useful when creating header files that are to be shared by C and C++ code.*
FILE	A string that identifies the name of the file being compiled, which can be both the base source file and any included header file. See alsoBASE_FILE, page 238, and _no_path_in_file_macros, page 171.*
func	A string that identifies the name of the function in which the symbol is used. This is useful for assertions and other trace utilities. The symbol requires that language extensions are enabled, see -e, page 164. See alsoPRETTY_FUNCTION, page 240.
FUNCTION	A string that identifies the name of the function in which the symbol is used. This is useful for assertions and other trace utilities. The symbol requires that language extensions are enabled, see -e, page 164. See alsoPRETTY_FUNCTION, page 240.
IAR_SYSTEMS_ICC	An integer that identifies the IAR compiler platform. The current value is 7. Note that the number could be higher in a future version of the product. This symbol can be tested with #ifdef to detect whether the code was compiled by a compiler from IAR Systems.
ICC78K	An integer that is set to $1$ when the code is compiled with one of the IAR C/C++ Compilers for 78K, and otherwise to $0$ .
LINE	An integer that identifies the current source line number of the file being compiled, which can be both the base source file and any included header file.*
LITTLE_ENDIAN	An integer that identifies the byte order of the microcontroller. For the 78K microcontroller families, the value of this symbol is defined to $1$ , which means that the byte order is little-endian.

Table 43: Predefined symbols (Continued)

Predefined symbol	Identifies
PRETTY_FUNCTION	A string that identifies the function name, including parameter types and return type, of the function in which the symbol is used, for example "void func(char)". This symbol is useful for assertions and other trace utilities. The symbol requires that language extensions are enabled, see -e, page 164. See alsofunc, page 239.
STDC	An integer that is set to 1, which means the compiler adheres to the ISO/ANSI C standard. This symbol can be tested with $\#ifdef$ to detect whether the compiler in use adheres to ISO/ANSI C.*
STDC_VERSION	An integer that identifies the version of ISO/ANSI C standard in use. The symbols expands to $199409L$ . This symbol does not apply in EC++ mode.*
SUBVERSION	An integer that identifies the subversion number of the compiler version number, for example 3 in 1.2.3.4.
TIME	A string that identifies the time of compilation in the form "hh:mm:ss". $^{*}$
VER	An integer that identifies the version number of the IAR compiler in use. The value of the number is calculated in this way: (100 * the major version number + the minor version number). For example, for compiler version 3.34, 3 is the major version number and 34 is the minor version number. Hence, the value ofVER is 334.

Table 43: Predefined symbols (Continued)

# Descriptions of miscellaneous preprocessor extensions

This section gives reference information about the preprocessor extensions that are available in addition to the predefined symbols, pragma directives, and ISO/ANSI directives.

#### **NDEBUG**

Description

This preprocessor symbol determines whether any assert macros you have written in your application shall be included or not in the built application.

<sup>\*</sup> This symbol is required by the ISO/ANSI standard.

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.

# \_Pragma()

Syntax \_Pragma("string")

where string follows the syntax of the corresponding pragma directive.

Description This preprocessor operator is part of the C99 standard and can be used, for example, in

defines and is equivalent to the #pragma directive.

Note: The -e option—enable language extensions—does not have to be specified.

Example #if NO\_OPTIMIZE

#define NOOPT \_Pragma("optimize=none")

#else

#define NOOPT

#endif

See also See the chapter *Pragma directives*.

# #warning message

Syntax #warning message

where message can be any string.

**Description** Use this preprocessor directive to produce messages. Typically, this is useful for

assertions and other trace utilities, similar to the way the ISO/ANSI standard #error

directive is used.

# \_\_VA\_ARGS\_\_

```
Syntax
                       #define P(...) __VA_ARGS__
                       #define P(x, y, ...) x + y + __VA_ARGS__
                       __VA_ARGS__ will contain all variadic arguments concatenated, including the
                       separating commas.
Description
                       Variadic macros are the preprocessor macro equivalents of printf style functions.
                       __VA_ARGS__ is part of the C99 standard.
Example
                       #if DEBUG
                         #define DEBUG_TRACE(S, ...) printf(S, __VA_ARGS__)
                       #else
                          #define DEBUG_TRACE(S, ...)
                       #endif
                       /* Place your own code here */
                       DEBUG_TRACE("The value is:%d\n",value);
                       will result in:
                       printf("The value is:%d\n",value);
```

# **Library functions**

This chapter gives an introduction to the C and C++ library functions. It also lists the header files used for accessing library definitions.

For detailed reference information about the library functions, see the online help system.

# Introduction

The compilers provide two different libraries:

- IAR DLIB Library is a complete ISO/ANSI C and C++ library. This library also supports floating-point numbers in IEEE 754 format and it can be configured to include different levels of support for locale, file descriptors, multibyte characters, et cetera.
- IAR CLIB Library is a light-weight library, which is not fully compliant with ISO/ANSI C. Neither does it fully support floating-point numbers in IEEE 754 format or Embedded C++.

Note that different customization methods are normally needed for these two libraries. For additional information, 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 additional information about library functions, see the chapter *Implementation-defined behavior* in this guide.

#### **HEADER FILES**

Your application program gains access to library definitions through header files, which it incorporates using the #include directive. The definitions are divided into several different header files, each covering a particular functional area, letting you include just those that are required.

It is essential to include the appropriate header file before making any reference to its definitions. Failure to do so can cause the call to fail during execution, or generate error or warning messages at compile time or link time.

### **LIBRARY OBJECT FILES**

Most of the library definitions can be used without modification, that is, directly from the library object files that are supplied with the product. For information about how to choose a runtime library, see *Basic settings for project configuration*, page 6. The linker will include only those routines that are required—directly or indirectly—by your application.

#### REENTRANCY

A function that can be simultaneously invoked in the main application and in any number of interrupts is reentrant. A library function that uses statically allocated data is therefore not reentrant.

Most parts of the DLIB library are reentrant, but these functions and parts are not reentrant because they need static data:

- Heap functions—malloc, free, realloc, calloc, and the C++ operators new and delete
- Time functions—asctime, localtime, gmtime, mktime
- Multibyte functions—mbrlen, mbrtowc, mbsrtowc, wcrtomb, wcsrtomb, wctomb
- The miscellaneous functions setlocale, rand, atexit, strerror, strtok
- Functions that use files in some way. This includes printf, scanf, getchar, and putchar. The functions sprintf and sscanf are not included.

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. The functions sprintf and sucanf are not included.

Some functions also share the same storage for errno. These functions are not reentrant, since an errno value resulting from one of these functions can be destroyed by a subsequent use of the function before it is read. Among these functions are:

```
exp, exp10, ldexp, log, log10, pow, sqrt, acos, asin, atan2, cosh, sinh, strtod, strtol, strtoul
```

#### Remedies for this are:

- Do not use non-reentrant functions in interrupt service routines
- Guard calls to a non-reentrant function by a mutex, or a secure region, etc.

# IAR DLIB Library

The IAR DLIB Library provides most of the important C and C++ library definitions that apply to embedded systems. These are of the following types:

- Adherence to a free-standing implementation of the ISO/ANSI standard for the programming language C. For additional information, see the chapter Implementation-defined behavior in this guide.
- Standard C library definitions, for user programs.
- Embedded C++ library definitions, for user programs.
- CSTARTUP, the module containing the start-up code. It is described in the chapter
   *The DLIB runtime environment* in this guide.
- Runtime support libraries; for example low-level floating-point routines.
- Intrinsic functions, allowing low-level use of 78K features. See the chapter Intrinsic functions for more information.

In addition, the IAR DLIB Library includes some added C functionality, partly taken from the C99 standard, see *Added C functionality*, page 248.

#### **C HEADER FILES**

This section lists the header files specific to the DLIB library C definitions. Header files may additionally contain target-specific definitions; these are documented in the chapter *Compiler extensions*.

The following table lists the C header files:

Header file	Usage
assert.h	Enforcing assertions when functions execute
ctype.h	Classifying characters
errno.h	Testing error codes reported by library functions
float.h	Testing floating-point type properties
inttypes.h	Defining formatters for all types defined in $\mathtt{stdint.h}$
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

Table 44: Traditional standard C header files—DLIB

Header file	Usage
stdbool.h	Adds support for the bool data type in C.
stddef.h	Defining several useful types and macros
stdint.h	Providing integer characteristics
stdio.h	Performing input and output
stdlib.h	Performing a variety of operations
string.h	Manipulating several kinds of strings
time.h	Converting between various time and date formats
wchar.h	Support for wide characters
wctype.h	Classifying wide characters

Table 44: Traditional standard C header files—DLIB (Continued)

#### C++ HEADER FILES

This section lists the C++ header files.

#### Embedded C++

The following table lists the Embedded C++ header files:

Header file	Usage
complex	Defining a class that supports complex arithmetic
exception	Defining several functions that control exception handling
fstream	Defining several I/O stream classes that manipulate external files
iomanip	Declaring several I/O stream manipulators that take an argument
ios	Defining the class that serves as the base for many I/O streams classes
iosfwd	Declaring several I/O stream classes before they are necessarily defined
iostream	Declaring the I/O stream objects that manipulate the standard streams
istream	Defining the class that performs extractions
new	Declaring several functions that allocate and free storage
ostream	Defining the class that performs insertions
sstream	Defining several I/O stream classes that manipulate string containers
stdexcept	Defining several classes useful for reporting exceptions
streambuf	Defining classes that buffer I/O stream operations
string	Defining a class that implements a string container
strstream	Defining several I/O stream classes that manipulate in-memory character sequences

Table 45: Embedded C++ header files

The following table lists additional C++ header files:

Header file	Usage
fstream.h	Defining several I/O stream classes that manipulate external files
iomanip.h	Declaring several I/O stream manipulators that take an argument
iostream.h	Declaring the I/O stream objects that manipulate the standard streams
new.h	Declaring several functions that allocate and free storage

Table 46: Additional Embedded C++ header files—DLIB

### Extended Embedded C++ standard template library

The following table lists the Extended EC++ standard template library (STL) header files:

Header file	Description
algorithm	Defines several common operations on sequences
deque	A deque sequence container
functional	Defines several function objects
hash_map	A map associative container, based on a hash algorithm
hash_set	A set associative container, based on a hash algorithm
iterator	Defines common iterators, and operations on iterators
list	A doubly-linked list sequence container
map	A map associative container
memory	Defines facilities for managing memory
numeric	Performs generalized numeric operations on sequences
queue	A queue sequence container
set	A set associative container
slist	A singly-linked list sequence container
stack	A stack sequence container
utility	Defines several utility components
vector	A vector sequence container

Table 47: Standard template library header files

### Using standard C libraries in C++

The C++ library works in conjunction with 15 of the header files from the standard C library, sometimes with small alterations. The header files come in two forms—new and traditional—for example, cassert and assert.h.

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The following table shows the new header files:

Header file	Usage
cassert	Enforcing assertions when functions execute
cctype	Classifying characters
cerrno	Testing error codes reported by library functions
cfloat	Testing floating-point type properties
cinttypes	Defining formatters for all types defined in ${\tt stdint.h}$
climits	Testing integer type properties
clocale	Adapting to different cultural conventions
cmath	Computing common mathematical functions
csetjmp	Executing non-local goto statements
csignal	Controlling various exceptional conditions
cstdarg	Accessing a varying number of arguments
cstdbool	Adds support for the bool data type in C.
cstddef	Defining several useful types and macros
cstdint	Providing integer characteristics
cstdio	Performing input and output
cstdlib	Performing a variety of operations
cstring	Manipulating several kinds of strings
ctime	Converting between various time and date formats
cwchar	Support for wide characters
cwctype	Classifying wide characters

Table 48: New standard C header files—DLIB

#### LIBRARY FUNCTIONS AS INTRINSIC FUNCTIONS

Certain C library functions will under some circumstances be handled as intrinsic functions and will generate inline code instead of an ordinary function call, for example memcpy, memset, and strcat.

#### ADDED C FUNCTIONALITY

The IAR DLIB Library includes some added C functionality, partly taken from the C99 standard.

The following include files provide these features:

- ctype.h
- inttypes.h

- math.h
- stdbool.h
- stdint.h
- stdio.h
- stdlib.h
- wchar.h
- wctype.h

#### ctype.h

In ctype.h, the C99 function isblank is defined.

#### inttypes.h

This include file defines the formatters for all types defined in stdint.h to be used by the functions printf, scanf, and all their variants.

#### math.h

In math.h all functions exist in a float variant and a long double variant, suffixed by f and 1 respectively. For example, sinf and sinl.

The following C99 macro symbols are defined:

HUGE\_VALF, HUGE\_VALL, INFINITY, NAN, FP\_INFINITE, FP\_NAN, FP\_NORMAL, FP\_SUBNORMAL, FP\_ZERO, MATH\_ERRNO, MATH\_ERREXCEPT, math\_errhandling.

The following C99 macro functions are defined:

fpclassify, signbit, isfinite, isinf, isnan, isnormal, isgreater, isless, islessequal, islessgreater, isunordered.

The following C99 type definitions are added:

float\_t, double\_t.

#### stdbool.h

This include file makes the bool type available if the **Allow IAR extensions** (-e) option is used.

#### stdint.h

This include file provides integer characteristics.

#### stdio.h

In stdio.h, the following C99 functions are defined:

vscanf, vfscanf, vsscanf, vsnprintf, snprintf

The functions printf, scanf, and all their variants have added functionality from the C99 standard. For reference information about these functions, see the library reference available from the **Help** menu.

The following functions providing I/O functionality for libraries built without FILE support are definded:

```
__write_array Corresponds to fwrite on stdout.
```

#### stdlib.h

In stdlib.h, the following C99 functions are defined:

```
_Exit, llabs, lldiv, strtoll, strtoull, atoll, strtof, strtold.
```

The function strtod has added functionality from the C99 standard. For reference information about this functions, see the library reference available from the **Help** menu.

The \_\_qsortbb1 function is defined; it provides sorting using a bubble sort algorithm. This is useful for applications that have a limited stack.

#### wchar.h

In wchar.h, the following C99 functions are defined:

vfwscanf, vswscanf, vwscanf, wcstof, wcstolb.

#### wctype.h

In wctype.h, the C99 function iswblank is defined.

# 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. It is described in 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 78K features. See the chapter *Intrinsic functions* for more information.

#### LIBRARY DEFINITIONS SUMMARY

This following 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
fenv.h	Floating-point exception flags
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 $\mathtt{size\_t}$ , $\mathtt{NULL}$ ,
	ptrdiff_t, and offsetof
stdio.h	Input/output
stdlib.h	General utilities
string.h	String handling

Table 49: IAR CLIB Library header files

<sup>\*</sup> The functions is xxxx, toupper, and to lower declared in the header file ctype. h evaluate their argument more than once. This is not according to the ISO/ANSI standard.

# **S**egment reference

The compilers place code and data into named segments which are referred to by the IAR XLINK Linker. Details about the segments are required for programming assembler language modules, and are also useful when interpreting the assembler language output from the compilers.

For more information about segments, see the chapter Placing code and data.

# **Summary of segments**

The table below lists the segments that are available in the compilers:

Segment	Description
BCODE	Holds all banked program code for the 78K0 and 78K0S cores.
CHECKSUM	Holds the checksum generated by the linker.
CLTVEC	Holds the call table vectors generated by use of the $\_\_callt$ extended keyword.
CODE	Holds the program code.
CONST	Holds const declared variables. 78K0/78K0S only.
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.
FAR_A	Holdsfar located data. 78K0R only.
FAR_CONST	Holds const declaredfar variables. 78KOR only.
FAR_HEAP	Holds the heap used for dynamically allocated far data. Requires the DLIB environment. $78K0R$ only.
FAR_I	Holdsfar static and global initialized variables. 78K0R only.
FAR_ID	Holds initial values forfar static and global variables in FAR_I. 78KOR only.
FAR_N	Holdsno_initfar static and global variables. 78K0R only.
FAR_Z	Holds zero-initializedfar static and global variables. 78K0R only.
FCODE	Holds program code declared with the extended keyword $\_\_callf$ . 78K0 only.

Table 50: Segment summary

Segment	Description
HEAP	Holds the heap used for dynamically allocated data. 78K0/78K0S and 78K0R when using the CLIB environment.
INTVEC	Contains the reset and interrupt vectors.
NEAR_A	Holdsnear located data.
NEAR_CONST	Holds const declarednear variables. 78KOR only.
NEAR_HEAP	Holds the heap used for dynamically allocated $\_\_near$ data. Requires the DLIB environment. 78K0R only.
NEAR_I	Holdsnear static and global initialized variables.
NEAR_ID	Holds initial values fornear static and global variables in NEAR_I.
NEAR_N	Holdsno_initnear static and global variables.
NEAR_Z	Holds zero-initializednear static and global variables.
RCODE	Holds the C/C++ startup and run-time library code.
SADDR_A	Holdssaddr located data.
SADDR_I	Holdssaddr static and global initialized variables.
SADDR_ID	Holds initial values for $\_\_saddr$ static and global variables in SADDR_I.
SADDR_N	Holdsno_initsaddr static and global variables.
SADDR_Z	Holds zero-initializedsaddr static and global variables.
SWITCH	Holds switch tables.
WRKSEG	Holds the short address working area; an extra register variable area.
XCODE	Holds program code declared with the attribute $\_\_far\_func.78K0R$ only.

Table 50: Segment summary (Continued)

# **Descriptions of segments**

This section gives reference information about each segment.

The segments are placed in memory by the segment placement linker directives -Z and -P, for sequential and packed placement, respectively. Some segments cannot use packed placement, as their contents must be continuous.

In each description, the segment memory type—CODE, CONST, or DATA—indicates whether the segment should be placed in ROM or RAM memory; see Table 11, *XLINK segment memory types*, page 40.

For information about the -2 and the -P directives, see the IAR Linker and Library Tools Reference Guide.

For information about how to define segments in the linker command file, see

Customizing the linker command file, page 40.

For detailed information about the extended keywords mentioned here, see the chapter

Extended keywords.

#### **BCODE**

Description Holds all banked program code for the 78K0 and 78K0S cores. This means:

• All code not declared \_\_non\_banked in the banked code model.

All code declared \_\_banked in the standard code model.

Place this segment in memory using the -P segment control directive.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement For information about segment placement, see Banked code (78K0/78K0S only), page

50.

Access type Read-only

### **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 CONST

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in ROM memory.

Access type Read-only

#### **CLTVEC**

Description Holds call table vectors generated by use of the \_\_callt keyword.

Place this segment in memory using the -Z or -P segment control directives.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement 0x00040-0x000FF (78K0 and 78K0S)

 $0 \times 00080 - 0 \times 000BF (78K0R)$ 

Access type Read-only

#### CODE

Description Default segment for program code.

This segment holds user program code declared with the \_\_non\_banked

(78K0/78K0S), \_\_near\_func (78K0R), \_\_interrupt, or \_\_callt attribute. Place

this segment in memory using the -Z or -P segment control directive.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement 0x00000-0x0FFFF

Access type Read-only

### **CONST**

Description Holds const declared variables for the 78K0 and 78K0S cores, except for those

variables declared const \_\_saddr.

Place this segment in memory using the -P segment control directives.

Segment memory type CONST

Memory placement 0x00000-0x0FFFF

Access type Read-only

### **CSTACK**

Description Holds the internal data stack.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement 0x00000-0x0FFFF (78K0 and 78K0S)

0xF0000-0xFFFFF (78K0R)

Access type Read/write

See also *The stack*, page 46.

#### **DIFUNCT**

Description Holds the dynamic initialization vector used by C++.

Segment memory type CONST

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in memory.

Access type Read-only

# FAR A

Description Holds \_\_far located data that is declared \_\_no\_init or const. Also holds located

constants that are not explicitly declared \_\_near when the Near data model is being

used.

Located means being placed at an absolute location using the @ operator or the #pragma location directive. Because the location is known, this segment does not need to be

specified in the linker command file.

This segment only applies to the 78K0R core.

### **FAR CONST**

Description This segment holds \_\_far constant data for the 78K0R core that is not placed at an

absolute location.

Place this segment in memory using the -Z or -P segment control directive.

Segment memory type FARCONST

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in memory.

Access type Read-only

# FAR\_HEAP

Description When the DLIB runtime environment is being used, this segment 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.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in memory.

Access type Read/write

See also The heap, page 47 and New and Delete operators (78K0R only), page 114.

# 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 command file, the -Z directive must be used.

**Note:** This segment only applies to the 78K0R core.

Segment memory type FARDATA

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in memory, but it must start at the same offset

from a 64-Kbyte offset as FAR\_ID.

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 command file, the -Z directive must be used.

**Note:** This segment only applies to the 78K0R core.

Segment memory type FARCONST

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in memory, but it must start at the same offset

from a 64-Kbyte offset as FAR\_I.

Access type Read-only

# FAR N

Description Holds static and global \_\_no\_init \_\_far variables.

**Note:** This segment only applies to the 78K0R core.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in memory.

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 command file, the -Z directive must be used.

**Note:** This segment only applies to the 78K0R core.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in memory.

Access type Read/write

#### **FCODE**

Description Holds program code for the 78K0 core, declared with the attribute \_\_callf. Place this

segment in memory using the -Z or -P segment control directives.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement 0x00800-0x00FFF

Access type Read-only

#### **HEAP**

Description Holds the heap used for dynamically allocated data for the 78K0 and 78K0S cores,

and—if the CLIB runtime environment is used—the 78K0R core. In other words data

allocated by malloc and free, and in C++, new and delete.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement 0x00000-0x0FFFF

Access type Read/write

See also The heap, page 47.

### INTVEC

Description Holds the interrupt vector table generated by the use of the \_\_interrupt extended

keyword.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement  $0 \times 00000 - 0 \times 0003 F$  (78K0 and 78K0S)

 $0 \times 000000 - 0 \times 0007 F (78K0R)$ 

Access type Read-only

# **NEAR\_A**

Description Holds \_\_near located data that is declared \_\_no\_init. Located constants are placed

here only if they are explicitly declared \_\_near.

Located means being placed at an absolute location using the @ operator or the #pragma location directive. Because the location is known, this segment does not need to be

specified in the linker command file.

# **NEAR\_CONST**

Description This segment holds \_\_near constant data for the 78K0R core that is not placed at an

absolute location.

Place this segment in memory using the -Z or -P segment control directive.

Segment memory type CONST

Memory placement 0x00000-0x0FFFF

Access type Read-only

# **NEAR HEAP**

Description When the DLIB runtime environment is being used, this segment 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.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement 0xF0000-0xFFFFF

Access type Read/write

See also The heap, page 47 and New and Delete operators (78K0R only), page 114.

# **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 command file, the -Z directive must be used.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement 0x00000-0x0FFFF (78K0 and 78K0S)

0xF0000-0xFFFFF (78K0R)

Access type Read/write

### **NEAR ID**

Description Holds initial values for \_\_near static and global variables in theNEAR\_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 command file, the -z directive must be used.

Segment memory type CONST

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in memory.

Access type Read-only

### **NEAR N**

Description Holds static and global \_\_no\_init \_\_near variables.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement 0x00000-0x0FFFF (78K0 and 78K0S)

0xF0000-0xFFFFF (78K0R)

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 command file, the -z directive must be used.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement 0x00000-0x0FFFF (78K0 and 78K0S)

0xF0000-0xFFFFF (78K0R)

Access type Read/write

## **RCODE**

**Description** Holds startup and runtime library code.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement 0x00000-0x0FFFF

Access type Read-only

## SADDR\_A

Description Holds \_\_saddr located data declared \_\_no\_init or const.

Located means being placed at an absolute location using the @ operator or the #pragma location directive. Because the location is known, this segment does not need to be

specified in the linker command file.

## SADDR I

Description Holds \_\_saddr static and global initialized variables initialized by copying from the

segment SADDR\_ID at application startup.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker command file, the -z directive must be used.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement 0x0FE20-0x0FF1F (78K0 and 78K0S)

 $\texttt{0xffe20-0xfff1f}\ (78K0R)$ 

Access type Read/write

## SADDR\_ID

Description Holds initial values for \_\_saddr static and global variables in the SADDR\_I segment.

These values are copied from SADDR\_ID to SADDR\_I at application startup.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker command file, the -Z directive must be used.

Segment memory type CONST

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in memory.

Access type Read-only

## SADDR N

Description Holds static and global \_\_no\_init \_\_saddr variables. Variables defined using the

\_\_no\_init object attribute will be placed in this segment.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement 0x0FE20-0x0FF1F (78K0 and 78K0S)

0xFFE20-0xFFF1F(78K0R)

Access type Read/write

## SADDR Z

Description Holds zero-initialized \_\_saddr 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 command file, the -Z directive must be used.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement 0x0FE20-0x0FF1F (78K0 and 78K0S)

 $0 \times FFE20 - 0 \times FFF1F (78K0R)$ 

Access type Read/write

## **SWITCH**

Description Holds switch tables.

Segment memory type CONST

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in memory.

Access type Read-only

## **WRKSEG**

Description Holds the short address working area when the option --workseg\_area option is used.

Extra register variable area.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement 0x0FE20-0x0FF1F (78K0 and 78K0S)

 $0 \times FFE20 - 0 \times FFF1F (78K0R)$ 

Access type Read/write

## **XCODE**

Description Holds \_\_far\_func declared program code for the 78K0R core.

This segment holds user application code declared with the attribute \_\_far\_func.

Place this segment in memory using the -Z or -P segment control directive.

Segment memory type FARCODE

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in memory.

Access type Read-only

Descriptions of segments

# Implementation-defined behavior

This chapter describes how the compilers handle the implementation-defined areas of the C language.

ISO 9899:1990, the International Organization for Standardization standard - Programming Languages - C (revision and redesign of ANSI X3.159-1989, American National Standard), changed by the ISO Amendment 1:1994, Technical Corrigendum 1, and Technical Corrigendum 2, contains an appendix called Portability Issues. The ISO appendix lists areas of the C language that ISO leaves open to each particular implementation.

Note: The compilers adhere to a freestanding implementation of the ISO standard for the C programming language. This means that parts of a standard library can be excluded in the implementation.

## Descriptions of implementation-defined behavior

This section follows the same order as the ISO appendix. Each item covered includes references to the ISO chapter and section (in parenthesis) that explains the implementation-defined behavior.

#### **Translation**

#### Diagnostics (5.1.1.3)

Diagnostics are produced in the form:

filename, linenumber level[tag]: message

where filename is the name of the source file in which the error was encountered, linenumber is the line number at which the compiler detected the error, level is the level of seriousness of the message (remark, warning, error, or fatal error), tag is a unique tag that identifies the message, and message is an explanatory message, possibly several lines.

#### **Environment**

## Arguments to main (5.1.2.2.2.1)

The function called at program startup is called main. No prototype was declared for main, and the only definition supported for main is:

int main(void)

To change this behavior for the IAR DLIB runtime environment, see *Customizing system initialization*, page 66. To change this behavior for the IAR CLIB runtime environment, see *Customizing system initialization*, page 88.

#### Interactive devices (5.1.2.3)

The streams stdin and stdout are treated as interactive devices.

#### **Identifiers**

## Significant characters without external linkage (6.1.2)

The number of significant initial characters in an identifier without external linkage is 200.

## Significant characters with external linkage (6.1.2)

The number of significant initial characters in an identifier with external linkage is 200.

## Case distinctions are significant (6.1.2)

Identifiers with external linkage are treated as case-sensitive.

#### Characters

## Source and execution character sets (5.2.1)

The source character set is the set of legal characters that can appear in source files. The default source character set is the standard ASCII character set. However, if you use the command line option --enable\_multibytes, the source character set will be the host computer's default character set.

The execution character set is the set of legal characters that can appear in the execution environment. The default execution character set is the standard ASCII character set. However, if you use the command line option --enable\_multibytes, the execution character set will be the host computer's default character set. The IAR DLIB Library

needs a multibyte character scanner to support a multibyte execution character set. The IAR CLIB Library does not support multibyte characters.

See Locale, page 72.

#### 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++ Compilers—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 72.

## Range of 'plain' char (6.2.1.1)

A 'plain' char has the same range as an unsigned char.

## **Integers**

#### Range of integer values (6.1.2.5)

The representation of integer values are in the two's complement form. The most significant bit holds the sign; 1 for negative, 0 for positive and zero.

See *Basic data types*, page 182, for information about the ranges for the different integer types.

## **Demotion of integers (6.2.1.2)**

Converting an integer to a shorter signed integer is made by truncation. If the value cannot be represented when converting an unsigned integer to a signed integer of equal length, the bit-pattern remains the same. In other words, a large enough value will be converted into a negative value.

## Signed bitwise operations (6.3)

Bitwise operations on signed integers work the same way as bitwise operations on unsigned integers; in other words, the sign-bit will be treated as any other bit.

## Sign of the remainder on integer division (6.3.5)

The sign of the remainder on integer division is the same as the sign of the dividend.

## Negative valued signed right shifts (6.3.7)

The result of a right-shift of a negative-valued signed integral type preserves the sign-bit. For example, shifting <code>0xff00</code> down one step yields <code>0xff80</code>.

## Floating point

#### Representation of floating-point values (6.1.2.5)

The representation and sets of the various floating-point numbers adheres to IEEE 854–1987. A typical floating-point number is built up of a sign-bit (s), a biased exponent (e), and a mantissa (m).

See *Floating-point types*, page 184, 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 186, for information about size\_t.

## Conversion from/to pointers (6.3.4)

See *Casting*, page 186, for information about casting of data pointers and function pointers.

See *ptrdiff* t, page 186, for information about the ptrdiff\_t.

## Registers

## Honoring the register keyword (6.5.1)

User requests for register variables are not honored.

## Structures, unions, enumerations, and bitfields

## Improper access to a union (6.3.2.3)

If a union gets its value stored through a member and is then accessed using a member of a different type, the result is solely dependent on the internal storage of the first member.

## Padding and alignment of structure members (6.5.2.1)

See the section *Basic data types*, page 182, for information about the alignment requirement for data objects.

## Sign of 'plain' bitfields (6.5.2.1)

A 'plain' int bitfield is treated as a signed int bitfield. All integer types are allowed as bitfields.

#### Allocation order of bitfields within a unit (6.5.2.1)

Bitfields are allocated within an integer from least-significant to most-significant bit.

## Can bitfields straddle a storage-unit boundary (6.5.2.1)

Bitfields cannot straddle a storage-unit boundary for the chosen bitfield integer type.

## Integer type chosen to represent enumeration types (6.5.2.2)

The chosen integer type for a specific enumeration type depends on the enumeration constants defined for the enumeration type. The chosen integer type is the smallest possible.

## **Qualifiers**

## Access to volatile objects (6.5.3)

Any reference to an object with volatile qualified type is an access.

## **Declarators**

#### Maximum numbers of declarators (6.5.4)

The number of declarators is not limited. The number is limited only by the available memory.

#### **Statements**

#### Maximum number of case statements (6.6.4.2)

The number of case statements (case values) in a switch statement is not limited. The number is limited only by the available memory.

## **Preprocessing directives**

## Character constants and conditional inclusion (6.8.1)

The character set used in the preprocessor directives is the same as the execution character set. The preprocessor recognizes negative character values if a 'plain' character is treated as a signed character.

## Including bracketed filenames (6.8.2)

For file specifications enclosed in angle brackets, the preprocessor does not search directories of the parent files. A parent file is the file that contains the #include directive. Instead, it begins by searching for the file in the directories specified on the compiler command line.

## Including quoted filenames (6.8.2)

For file specifications enclosed in quotes, the preprocessor directory search begins with the directories of the parent file, then proceeds through the directories of any grandparent files. Thus, searching begins relative to the directory containing the source file currently being processed. If there is no grandparent file and the file is not found, the search continues as if the filename was enclosed in angle brackets.

## Character sequences (6.8.2)

Preprocessor directives use the source character set, except for escape sequences. Thus, to specify a path for an include file, use only one backslash:

```
#include "mydirectory\myfile"
Within source code, two backslashes are necessary:
file = fopen("mydirectory\\myfile", "rt");
```

## Recognized pragma directives (6.8.6)

In addition to the pragma directives described in the chapter *Pragma directives*, the following directives are recognized and will have an indeterminate effect:

```
alignment
baseaddr
building_runtime
can_instantiate
codeseg
cspy_support
define type info
```

```
do_not_instantiate
early dynamic initialization
function
hdrstop
important_typedef
instantiate
keep_definition
memory
module_name
no_pch
once
__printf_args
public_equ
__scanf_args
section
STDC
system_include
warnings
```

## **Default \_\_DATE\_\_ and \_\_TIME\_\_ (6.8.8)**

The definitions for \_\_TIME\_\_ and \_\_DATE\_\_ are always available.

## IAR DLIB Library functions

The information in this section is valid only if the runtime library configuration you have chosen supports file descriptors. See the chapter *The DLIB runtime environment* for more information about runtime library configurations.

## NULL macro (7.1.6)

The NULL macro is defined to 0.

## Diagnostic printed by the assert function (7.2)

The assert () function prints:

filename: linenr expression -- assertion failed

when the parameter evaluates to zero.

## Domain errors (7.5.1)

NaN (Not a Number) will be returned by the mathematic functions on domain errors.

#### Underflow of floating-point values sets errno to ERANGE (7.5.1)

The mathematics functions set the integer expression errno to ERANGE (a macro in errno.h) on underflow range errors.

## fmod() functionality (7.5.6.4)

If the second argument to fmod() is zero, the function returns NaN; errno is set to EDOM.

## signal() (7.7.1.1)

The signal part of the library is not supported.

**Note:** Low-level interface functions exist in the library, but will not perform anything. Use the template source code to implement application-specific signal handling. See *Signal and raise*, page 75.

## Terminating newline character (7.9.2)

stdout stream functions recognize either newline or end of file (EOF) as the terminating character for a line.

## Blank lines (7.9.2)

Space characters written to the stdout stream immediately before a newline character are preserved. There is no way to read the line through the stdin stream that was written through the stdout stream.

## Null characters appended to data written to binary streams (7.9.2)

No null characters are appended to data written to binary streams.

#### Files (7.9.3)

Whether a write operation on a text stream causes the associated file to be truncated beyond that point, depends on the application-specific implementation of the low-level file routines. See *File input and output*, page 71.

#### 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 71.

## 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 71.

#### %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 74.

## system() (7.10.4.5)

How the command processor works depends on how you have implemented the system function. See *Environment interaction*, page 74.

## 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 75.

## clock() (7.12.2.1)

From where the system clock starts counting depends on how you have implemented the clock function. See *Time*, page 75.

## 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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