IAR C/C++ Compiler

Reference Guide

for the 805 I Microcontroller Architecture





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Preface

Welcome to the IAR C/C++ Compiler Reference Guide for 8051. The purpose of this guide is to provide you with detailed reference information that can help you to use the compiler to best suit your application requirements. This guide also gives you suggestions on coding techniques so that you can develop applications with maximum efficiency.

Who should read this guide

Read this guide if you plan to develop an application using the C or C++ language for the 8051 microcontroller and need detailed reference information on how to use the compiler. You should have working knowledge of:

- The architecture and instruction set of the 8051 microcontroller. Refer to the documentation from the chip manufacturer for information about your 8051 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++ Compiler for 8051, you should read *Part 1. Using the compiler* in this guide.

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

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

What this guide contains

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

Part 1. Using the compiler

- Getting started gives the information you need to get started using the compiler for
 efficiently developing your application.
- Understanding memory architecture gives an overview of the 8051 microcontroller memory configuration in terms of the different memory spaces available. The chapter also gives an overview of the concepts related to memory available in the compiler and the linker.
- Data storage describes how to store data in memory, focusing on the different data models and data memory type attributes.
- Functions gives a brief overview of function-related extensions—mechanisms for controlling functions—and describes some of these mechanisms in more detail.
- Banked functions introduces the banking technique; when to use it, what it does, and how it works.
- 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 supported variants of the C language and an
 overview of the compiler extensions, such as extensions to Standard C.
- *Using C++* gives an overview of the two levels of C++ support: The industry-standard EC++ and IAR Extended EC++.
- Efficient coding for embedded applications gives hints about how to write code that compiles to efficient code for an embedded application.

Part 2. Reference information

• External interface details provides reference information about how the compiler interacts with its environment—the invocation syntax, methods for passing options

to the compiler, environment variables, the include file search procedure, and the different types of compiler output. The chapter also describes how the compiler's diagnostic system works.

- *Compiler options* explains how to set options, gives a summary of the options, and contains detailed reference information for each compiler option.
- Data representation describes the available data types, pointers, and structure types.
 This chapter also gives information about type and object attributes.
- Extended keywords gives reference information about each of the 8051-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 8051-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

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

USER AND REFERENCE GUIDES

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

- System requirements and information about how to install and register the IAR Systems products, refer to the booklet *Quick Reference* (available in the product box) and the *Installation and Licensing Guide*.
- Getting started using IAR Embedded Workbench and the tools it provides, see the guide Getting Started with IAR Embedded Workbench®.

- Using the IDE for project management and building, see the IDE Project Management and Building Guide.
- Using the IAR C-SPY® Debugger, see the C-SPY® Debugging Guide for 8051.
- Using the IAR XLINK Linker, the IAR XAR Library Builder, and the IAR XLIB Librarian, see the IAR Linker and Library Tools Reference Guide.
- Programming for the IAR Assembler for 8051, see the IAR Assembler Reference Guide for 8051.
- Using the IAR DLIB Library, see the *DLIB Library Reference information*, available in the online help system.
- Using the IAR CLIB Library, see the IAR C Library Functions Reference Guide, available in the online help system.
- Porting application code and projects created with a previous version of the IAR Embedded Workbench for 8051, see the IAR Embedded Workbench® migration guides.
- Developing safety-critical applications using the MISRA C guidelines, see the IAR Embedded Workbench® MISRA C:2004 Reference Guide or the IAR Embedded Workbench® MISRA C:1998 Reference Guide.

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

THE ONLINE HELP SYSTEM

The context-sensitive online help contains:

- Comprehensive information about debugging using the IAR C-SPY® Debugger
- Reference information about the menus, windows, and dialog boxes in the IDE
- Compiler reference information
- Keyword reference information for the DLIB library functions. To obtain reference
 information for a function, select the function name in the editor window and press
 F1. Note that if you select a function name in the editor window and press F1 while
 using the CLIB library, you will get reference information for the DLIB library.

FURTHER READING

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

- Barr, Michael, and Andy Oram, ed. *Programming Embedded Systems in C and C++*. O'Reilly & Associates.
- Harbison, Samuel P. and Guy L. Steele (contributor). C: A Reference Manual. Prentice Hall.

- Josuttis, Nicolai M. *The C++ Standard Library: A Tutorial and Reference*. Addison-Wesley.
- Kernighan, Brian W. and Dennis M. Ritchie. The C Programming Language. Prentice Hall.
- Labrosse, Jean J. Embedded Systems Building Blocks: Complete and Ready-To-Use Modules in C. R&D Books.
- Lippman, Stanley B. and Josée Lajoie. C++ Primer. Addison-Wesley.
- Mann, Bernhard. C für Mikrocontroller. Franzis-Verlag. [Written in German.]
- Meyers, Scott. Effective C++: 50 Specific Ways to Improve Your Programs and Designs. Addison-Wesley.
- Meyers, Scott. *More Effective C++*. Addison-Wesley.
- Meyers, Scott. Effective STL. Addison-Wesley.
- Stroustrup, Bjarne. *The C++ Programming Language*. Addison-Wesley.
- Stroustrup, Bjarne. *Programming Principles and Practice Using C++*. Addison-Wesley.
- Sutter, Herb. Exceptional C++: 47 Engineering Puzzles, Programming Problems, and Solutions. Addison-Wesley.

WEB SITES

Recommended web sites:

- The IAR Systems web site, www.iar.com, holds application notes and other product information.
- The web site of the C standardization working group, www.open-std.org/jtc1/sc22/wg14.
- The web site of the C++ Standards Committee, www.open-std.org/jtc1/sc22/wg21.
- Finally, the Embedded C++ Technical Committee web site,
 www.caravan.net/ec2plus, 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 8051\doc, the full path to the location is assumed, for example c:\Program Files\IAR Systems\Embedded Workbench 6.n\8051\doc.

TYPOGRAPHIC CONVENTIONS

This guide uses the following typographic conventions:

Style	yle 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]	An optional part of a command with alternatives.	
{a b c}	A mandatory part of a command with alternatives.	
bold	Names of menus, menu commands, buttons, and dialog boxes that	
	appear on the screen.	
italic	 A cross-reference within this guide or to another guide. 	
	• Emphasis.	
	An ellipsis indicates that the previous item can be repeated an arbitrary	
	number of times.	
√ ®	Identifies instructions specific to the IAR Embedded Workbench® IDE	
	interface.	
	Identifies instructions specific to the command line interface.	
	Identifies helpful tips and programming hints.	
P		
<u> </u>	Identifies warnings.	
<u></u>	5	

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 8051	IAR Embedded Workbench®
IAR Embedded Workbench® IDE for 8051	the IDE
IAR C-SPY® Debugger for 805 I	C-SPY, the debugger
IAR C-SPY® Simulator	the simulator
IAR C/C++ Compiler™ for 8051	the compiler

Table 2: Naming conventions used in this guide

Brand name	Generic term
IAR Assembler™ for 8051	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)

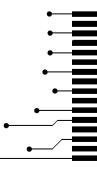
In this guide, 8051 microcontroller refers to all microcontrollers compatible with the 8051 microcontroller architecture.

Document conventions

Part I. Using the compiler

This part of the IAR C/C++ Compiler Reference Guide for 8051 includes these chapters:

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





Getting started

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

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

Next, the compiler is introduced. You will get an overview of the basic settings needed for a project setup, including an overview of the techniques that enable applications to take full advantage of the 8051 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 8051:

- C, the most widely used high-level programming language in the embedded systems industry. You can build freestanding applications that follow these standards:
 - Standard C—also known as C99. Hereafter, this standard is referred to as *Standard C* in this guide.
 - C89—also known as C94, C90, C89, and ANSI C. This standard is required when MISRA C is enabled.
- C++, a modern object-oriented programming language with a full-featured library well suited for modular programming. Any of these standards can be used:
 - Embedded C++ (EC++)—a subset of the C++ programming standard, which is intended for embedded systems programming. It is defined by an industry consortium, the Embedded C++ Technical committee. See the chapter *Using* C++.
 - IAR Extended Embedded C++ (EEC++)—EC++ with additional features such as full template support, namespace support, the new cast operators, as well as the Standard Template Library (STL).

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

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

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

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

It is also possible to implement parts of the application, or the whole application, in assembler language. See the *IAR Assembler Reference Guide for 8051*.

Supported 8051 devices

The IAR C/C++ Compiler for 8051 supports all devices based on the standard 8051 microcontroller architecture. The following extensions are also supported:

- Multiple data pointers (DPTRs). Support for up to eight data pointers is integrated in the code generator
- Extended code memory, up to 16 Mbytes. (Used for example in Maxim (Dallas Semiconductors) DS80C390/DS80C400 devices.)
- Extended data memory, up to 16 Mbytes. (Used for example in the Analog Devices ADuC812 device and in Maxim DS80C390/DS80C400 devices.)
- Maxim DS80C390/DS80C400 devices and similar devices, including support for the extended instruction set, multiple data pointers, and extended stack (a call stack located in xdata memory)
- Mentor Graphics M8051W/M8051EW core and devices based on this, including support for the banked LCALL instruction, banked MOVC A, @A+DPTR, and for placing interrupt service routines in banked memory.

To read more about how to set up your project depending on device you are using, see *Basic project configuration*, page 32.

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 configuration 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 *IDE Project Management and Building Guide*.

COMPILING

In the command line interface, the following line compiles the source file myfile.c into the object file myfile.r51 using the default settings:

```
icc8051 myfile.c
```

You must also specify some critical options, see Basic project configuration, page 32.

LINKING

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

- One or more object files and possibly certain libraries
- The standard library containing the runtime environment and the standard language functions
- A program start label
- A linker configuration 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.r51 myfile2.r51 -s __program_start -f lnk51.xcl
cl-pli-nsid-1e16x01.r51 -o aout.a51 -r
```

In this example, myfile.r51 and myfile2.r51 are object files, lnk51.xcl is the linker configuration file, and cl-pli-nsid-le16x01.r51 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 project configuration

This section gives an overview of the basic settings for the project setup that are needed to make the compiler and linker generate the best code for the 8051 device you are using. You can specify the options either from the command line interface or in the IDE.

You need to make settings for:

- Core
- Data model
- Code model
- Calling convention
- DPTR setup
- Optimization settings
- Runtime environment.

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

CORE

To make the compiler generate optimum code, you should configure it for the 8051 microcontroller you are using.

The IAR C/C++ Compiler for 8051 supports the classic Intel 8051 microcontroller core, the Maxim (Dallas Semiconductor) DS80C390 core, the Mentor Graphics M8051W/M8051EW core, as well as similar devices.



Use the --core={plain|extended1|extended2} option to select the core for which the code will be generated. This option reflects the addressing capability of your target microcontroller. For information about the cores, see *Basic project settings for hardware memory configuration*, page 41.



In the IDE, choose **Project>Options>General Options>Target** and choose the correct core from the **Core** drop-down list. Default options will then be automatically selected, together with device-specific configuration files for the linker and the debugger.

DATA MODEL

One of the characteristics of the 8051 microcontroller is a trade-off in how memory is accessed, between the range from cheap access to small memory areas, up to more expensive access methods that can access external data. For more information, see the chapter *Understanding memory architecture*.

Use the --data_model compiler option to specify (among other things) the default memory placement of static and global variables, which also implies a default memory access method.

CODE MODEL

The compiler supports *code models* that you can set on file- or function-level to specify the default placement of functions, which also implies the default function calling method.

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

CALLING CONVENTION

Use the --calling_convention compiler option to control whether the compiler by default should use a stack model or an overlay model for local data and in which memory the stack or overlay frame should be placed. In other words, whether local variables and parameters should be placed on the stack or via an overlay memory area, and where in memory the stack/memory area should be placed. For more information, see *Choosing a calling convention*, page 62.

DPTR SETUP

Some devices provide up to 8 data pointers. Using them can improve the execution of some library routines.

Use the --dptr compiler option to specify the number of data pointers to use, the size of the data pointers, and where the data pointers should be located. The memory addresses for data pointers are specified in the linker configuration file or in the IDE.

OPTIMIZATION FOR SPEED AND SIZE

The compiler's optimizer performs, among other things, dead-code elimination, constant propagation, inlining, common sub-expression elimination, and precision reduction. It also performs loop optimizations, such as 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 information about compiler optimizations and for more information about efficient coding techniques, see the chapter *Efficient coding for embedded applications*.

RUNTIME ENVIRONMENT

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

Two different sets of runtime libraries are provided:

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

The runtime library contains the functions defined by the C and the C++ standards, and include files that define the library interface (the system header files).

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



Setting up for the runtime environment 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 different configurations which include different levels of support for locale, file descriptors, multibyte characters, et cetera. See *Library configurations*, page 131, 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.



Setting up for the runtime environment from the command line

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

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

```
dl-pli-nlxd-1e16x01.r51
```

A library configuration file that matches the library object file is automatically used. To explicitly specify a library configuration, use the --dlib_config option.

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

```
-I 8051\inc
```

For information about the prebuilt library object files for the IAR DLIB Library, see *Using a prebuilt library*, page 116. Make sure to use the object file that matches your other project options.

For information about the prebuilt object files for the IAR CLIB Library, see *Using a prebuilt library*, page 151. 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 118 (DLIB) and *Input and output*, page 153 (CLIB).
- The size of the stack and the heap, see *The stacks*, page 102, and *The heap*, page 105, respectively.



Building your own library

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

- DLIB and CLIB runtime environment
- Core variant
- Code models
- Data model

- Calling convention
- Stack location
- Constant location
- Number of data pointers
- Data pointer visibility
- Data pointer size
- Data pointer selection method
- Library configuration: Normal.

Only a few of these combinations are delivered as prebuilt runtime libraries. When you need a compiler configuration for which there is no prebuilt library, you can build your own library. This is simple, as the IAR Embedded Workbench IDE provides a library project template which can be used for customizing the runtime environment configuration according to your needs. However, most combinations are not possible.

For detailed information, see Building and using a customized library, page 125.

Special support for embedded systems

This section briefly describes the extensions provided by the compiler to support specific features of the 8051 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 255 for additional information.

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

For more information about the pragma directives, see the chapter Pragma directives.

PREDEFINED SYMBOLS

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

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

SPECIAL FUNCTION TYPES

The special hardware features of the 8051 microcontroller are supported by the compiler's special function types: interrupt, monitor, and task. You can write a complete application without having to write any of these functions in assembler language.

For more information, see *Primitives for interrupts, concurrency, and OS-related programming*, page 74.

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 161.

Special support for embedded systems

Understanding memory architecture

This chapter gives an overview of the 8051 microcontroller memory configuration in terms of the different memory spaces available. To use memory efficiently you also need to be familiar with the concepts related to memory available in the compiler and the linker.

Finally, for each type of supported device you will get a brief overview about basic project settings to get started setting up the tools for the device you are using.

The 8051 microcontroller memory configuration

The 8051 microcontroller has three separate *memory spaces*: code memory, internal data memory, and external data memory.

The different memory spaces are accessed in different ways. Internal data memory can always be efficiently accessed, whereas external data memory and code memory cannot always be accessed in the same efficient way.

CODE MEMORY SPACE

In a classic 8051, the code memory space is a 64-Kbyte address area of ROM memory that is used for storing program code, including all functions and library routines, but also constants. Depending on the device you are using and your hardware design, code memory can be internal (on-chip), external, or both.

For classic 8051/8052 devices, code memory can be expanded with up to 256 banks of additional ROM memory. The compiler uses 2-byte pointers to access the different banks. Silabs C8051F12x and Texas Instruments CC2430 are examples of this device type.

Furthermore, some devices have *extended code memory* which means they can have up to 16 Mbytes of linear code memory (used for example in the Maxim DS80C390/DS80C400 devices). The compiler uses 3-byte pointers to access this area.

Devices based on the Mentor Graphics M8051W/M8051EW core divide their code memory in 16 memory banks where each bank is 64 Kbytes. The compiler uses 3-byte pointers to access the different banks.

INTERNAL DATA MEMORY SPACE

Depending on the device, internal data memory consists of up to 256 bytes of on-chip read and write memory that is used for storing data, typically frequently used variables. In this area, memory accesses uses either the direct addressing mode or the indirect addressing mode of the MOV instruction. However, in the upper area (0x80-0xFF), direct addressing accesses the dedicated SFR area, whereas indirect addressing accesses the IDATA area.

The SFR area, is used for memory-mapped registers, such as DPTR, A, the serial port destination register SBUF, and the user port P0. Standard peripheral units are defined in device-specific I/O header files with the filename extension h. For more information about these files, see *Accessing special function registers*, page 228.

The area between 0x20 and 0x2F is bit-addressable, as well as 0x80, 0x88, 0x90, 0x98...0xF0, and 0xF8. Note that the compiler reserves one byte of the bit-addressable memory for internal use, see *Virtual registers*, page 70.

EXTERNAL DATA MEMORY SPACE

External data can consist of up to 64 Kbytes of read and write memory, which can be addressed only indirectly via the MOVX instruction. For this reason, external memory is slower than internal memory.

Many modern devices provide on-chip XDATA (external data) in the external data memory space. For example, the Texas Instruments CC2430 device has 8 Kbytes on-chip XDATA.

Some devices extend the external data memory space to 16 Mbytes. In this case, the compiler uses 3-byte pointers to access this area.

Run-time model concepts for memory configuration

To use memory efficiently you must be familiar with the basic concepts relating to memory in the compiler and the linker.

COMPILER CONCEPTS

The compiler associates each part of memory area with a *memory type*. By mapping different memories—or part of memories—to memory types, the compiler can generate code that can access data or functions efficiently.

For each memory type, the compiler provides a keyword—a *memory attribute*—that you can use directly in your source code. These attributes let you explicitly specify a memory type for individual objects, which means the object will reside in that memory.

You can specify a default memory type to be used by the compiler by selecting a *data model*. It is possible to override this for individual variables and pointers by using the memory attributes. Conversely, you can select a *code model* for default placement of code.

For detailed information about available data models, memory types and corresponding memory attributes, see *Data models*, page 48 and *Memory types*, page 50, respectively.

LINKER CONCEPTS

The compiler generates a number of *segments*. A segment is a logical entity containing a piece of data or code that should be mapped to a physical location in memory.

The compiler has a number of 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. For example, the segment DATA_Z holds zero-initialized static and global variables.

The IAR XLINK Linker is responsible for placing the segments in the physical memory range, in accordance with the rules specified in the *linker configuration file*.

To read more about segments, see *Placing code and data*, page 93.

Basic project settings for hardware memory configuration

Depending on the device you are using and its memory configuration, there are basic project settings required for:

- Core
- Code model
- Data model
- Calling convention
- DPTR setup.

Not all combinations of these are possible. The following paragraphs provide you with information about which settings that can be used for a specific type of device.



If you make these basic project settings in the IDE, only valid combinations are possible to choose.

CLASSIC 8051/8052 DEVICES

For classic 8051/8052 devices, there are three main categories of hardware memory configurations:

- No external RAM (single chip, with or without external ROM)
- External RAM present (from 0 to 64 Kbytes)
- Banked mode (more than 64 Kbytes of ROM).

A combination of the following compiler settings can be used:

core	code_model	data_model	calling_convention	dptr
plain	near	tiny small	do io	16 24
plain	near banked	tiny small	ir	16 24
plain	near banked	far	pr xr ^{††} er [†]	24
plain	near banked	large	pr xr ^{††} er [†]	16
plain	near banked	generic	do io ir pr xr ^{††} er [†]	16

Table 3: Possible combinations of compiler options for core Plain

† Requires that the extended stack compiler option is used (--extended_stack).
†† Requires that the extended stack compiler option is not used (--extended_stack).

If you use the Banked code model, you can explicitly place individual functions in the root bank by using the __near_func memory attribute.

You can use the __code memory attribute to place constants and strings in the code memory space.

The following memory attributes are available for placing individual data objects in different data memory than default: __sfr, __bit, __bdata, __data, __idata, __pdata, __xdata, __xdata_rom, __ixdata, __generic.

MAXIM (DALLAS SEMICONDUCTOR) 390 AND SIMILAR DEVICES

This type of devices can have memory extended up to 16 Mbytes of external continuous data memory and code memory.

A combination of the following compiler settings can be used:

core	code_model	data_model	calling_convention	dptr
extended1	far	far far_generic large	pr er [†] xr ^{††}	24
extended1	far	tiny small	ir	24

Table 4: Possible combinations of compiler options for core Extended 1

† Requires an extended stack, which means the compiler option --extended_stack must be

used.

†† Requires that the compiler option --extended_stack is not used.

You can use the __far_code and __huge_code memory attributes to place constants and strings in the code memory space.

The following memory attributes are available for placing individual data objects in a non-default data memory: __sfr, __bit, __bdata, __data, __idata, __pdata.

For the Tiny and Large data models also: __xdata, __xdata_rom, __ixdata, __generic.

For the Far Generic data model also: __far, __far_rom, __far22, __far22_rom, __generic, __huge, __huge_rom.

For the Far data model also: __far, __far_rom, __huge, __huge_rom.

Note: Although the compiler supports the code and data memory extension model of the Maxim (Dallas Semiconductor) DS80C390 device, it does *not* support the 40-bit accumulator of the device.

DEVICES BASED ON MENTOR GRAPHICS M8051W/M8051EW CORE

This core and devices based on it, provide an extended addressing mechanism which means you can extend your code memory with up to 16 banks where each bank is 64 Kbytes.

The following combination of compiler settings can be used:

core	code_model	data_model	calling_convention	dptr	
extended2	banked_ext2	large	xdata_reentrant	16	_

Table 5: Possible combinations of compiler options for core Extended 2

The following memory attributes are available for placing individual data objects in different data memory than default: __sfr, __bit, __bdata, __data, __idata, __pdata.

For the Tiny and Large data models also: __xdata, __xdata_rom, __ixdata, __generic.

Using the DPTR register

Some devices have up to 8 data pointers that can be used for speeding up memory accesses. Devices that support extended memory must use 24-bit data pointers, whereas classic devices that do not support extended memory use 16-bit data pointers.

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The compiler supports up to 8 data pointers using the DPTR register. Using the DPTR register can in some cases generate more compact and efficient code. In many applications, the data pointer is a heavily used resource that often has to be saved on the stack or in a register, and later restored. If the application can use more than one data pointer, the overhead can be considerably reduced.

If you use the DPTR register you must specify:

- The number of data pointers to use
- The size of the data pointers
- Where the data pointers are located
- How to select a data pointer.



To set options for the DPTR register in the IAR Embedded Workbench IDE, choose **Project>Options>General Options>Data Pointer**.



On the command line, use the compiler option --dptr to specify the necessary options, see --dptr, page 254.

LOCATION IN MEMORY

Different 8051 devices represent the DPTR register in different ways. One of two methods is used for locating the data pointer register in memory.

Use the one that is supported by the device you are using.

• Shadowed visibility

Means that the same SFR (DPL and DPH) addresses are used for all data pointers; the data pointer select register (DPS) specifies which data pointer is visible at that address.

• Separate visibility

Means that different locations DPL0, DPL1, etc and DPH0, DPH1 etc are used for the different data pointers. If you use this method, the DPS register specifies which data pointer is currently active.

If the data pointers have different locations in memory, these memory locations must be individually specified. For most devices these addresses are set up automatically by IAR Embedded Workbench. If this information is missing for your device, you can easily specify these addresses.

Specifying the location in memory

The memory addresses used for the data pointers are specified in the linker command file.

The following lines exemplifies a setup for a device that uses two 24-bit data pointers located at different addresses:

-D?DPS=86 -D?DPX=93 -D?DPL1=84 -D?DPH1=85 -D?DPX1=95

The symbol ?DPS specifies where the DPS register is located. ?DPX specifies the location of extended byte of the first data pointer. (The low and high address of the first data pointer is always located at the addresses 0x82 and 0x83, respectively.) ?DPL1, ?DPH1, and ?DPX1 specify the location of the second data pointer.

SELECTING THE ACTIVE DATA POINTER

If you are using more than one DPTR, there are two different ways of switching active data pointers: incremental or XOR.

The incrementation method

The *incrementation* method (INC) is the more efficient method, but it is not supported by all 8051 devices. Using this method, the bits in the DPS register can be incremented to select the active data pointer. This is only possible if the contents of the DPS register that is not relevant for the data pointer selection can be destroyed during the switch operation, or if bits that must not be destroyed are guarded by a *dead bit* that prevents the switch operation to overflow into them. The selection bits in the DPS register must also be located in sequence and start with the least significant bit.



Figure 1: Selecting the active data pointer using the INC method

The number of DPTRs that can be used together with the INC method depends on the location of the dead bit. If, for example, four data pointers are available and bit 0 and 1 in the DPS register are used for data pointer selection and bit 2 is a dead bit, the INC method can only be used when all four data pointers are used. If only two of the four data pointers are used, the XOR selection method must be used instead.

If on the other hand bit 0 and 2 are used for data pointer selection and bit 1 is a dead bit, the INC method can be used when two data pointers are used, but if all four data pointers are used, the XOR method must be used instead.

The XOR method

The XOR method is not always as efficient but it can always be used. Only the bits used for data pointer selection are affected by the XOR selection operation. The bits are specified in a bit mask that must be specified if this method is used. The selection bits are marked as a *set bit* in the bit mask. For example, if four data pointers are used and the selection bits are bit 0 and bit 2, the selection mask should be 0×05 (00000101 in binary format).

The XOR data pointer select method can thus always be used regardless of any dead bits, of which bits are used for the selection, or of other bits used in the DPS register.

Note: INC is the default switching method for the Extended1 core. For other cores XOR is the default method. The default mask depends on the number of data pointers specified. Furthermore, it is assumed that the least significant bits are used, for example, if 6 data pointers are used, the default mask will be 0×07 .

Data storage

This chapter gives a brief introduction to the memory layout of the 805 I 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 compiler provides a set of data models and data memory attributes, allowing you to fine-tune the access methods, resulting in smaller code size. The concepts of data models and memory types are described in relation to pointers, structures, Embedded C++ class objects, and non-initialized memory. Finally, detailed information about data storage on the stack and the heap is provided.

Different ways to store data

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

Auto variables

All variables that are local to a function, except those declared static, are stored either in registers or in the local frame of each function. 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.

The local frame can either be allocated at runtime from the stack—stack frame—or be statically allocated at link time—static overlay frame. Functions that use static overlays for their frame are usually not reentrant and do not support recursive calls. For more information, see *Auto variables—stack and static overlay*, page 61.

- Global variables, module-static variables, and local variables declared static
 In this case, the memory is allocated once and for all. The word static in this context means that the amount of memory allocated for this kind of variables does not change while the application is running. For more information, see *Data models*, page 48 and *Memory types*, page 50.
- Dynamically allocated data.

An application can allocate data on the *heap*, where the data remains valid until it is explicitly released back to the system by the application. This type of memory is useful when the number of objects is not known until the application executes. Note that there are potential risks connected with using dynamically allocated data in systems with a limited amount of memory, or systems that are expected to run for a long time. For more information, see *Dynamic memory on the heap*, page 68.

Data models

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 57.

The data model you use might restrict the calling conventions and the location of constants and strings. When you compile non-typed ANSI C or C++ code, including the standard C libraries, the default pointer in the chosen data model must be able to reach all default data objects. Thus, the default pointer must be able to reach variables located on the stack as well as constant and strings objects. Therefore, not all combinations of data model, calling convention, and constant location are permitted, see *Calling conventions and matching data models*, page 63.

SPECIFYING A DATA MODEL

There are six data models: Tiny, Small, Large, Generic, Far Generic, and Far. The data models range from Tiny, which is suitable for applications—with less than 128 bytes of data—to Far, which supports up to 16 Mbytes of data. These models are controlled by the --data_model option. Each model has a default memory type and a default pointer size.

Your project can only use one data model at a time, and the same model must be used by all user modules and all library modules. However, you can override the default memory type for individual data objects by explicitly specifying a memory attribute, see *Using data memory attributes*, page 57.

This table summarizes the different data models:

Data model	Default data memory attribute	Default data pointer	Default in Core
Tiny	data	idata	_
Small	idata	idata	Plain
Large	xdata	xdata	_
Generic	xdata	generic	_

Table 6: Data model characteristics

Data model	Default data memory attribute	Default data pointer	Default in Core
Far Generic	far22	generic	_
Far	far	far	Extended1

Table 6: Data model characteristics (Continued)



See the IDE Project Management and Building 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 248.

The Tiny data model

The Tiny data model uses Tiny memory by default, which is located in the first 128 bytes of the internal data memory space. This memory can be accessed using direct addressing. The advantage is that only 8 bits are needed for pointer storage. The default pointer type passed as a parameter will use one register or one byte on the stack.

The Small data model

The Small data model uses the first 256 bytes of internal data memory by default. This memory can be accessed using 8-bit pointers. The advantage is that only 8 bits are needed for pointer storage. The default pointer type passed as a parameter will use one register or one byte on the stack.

The Large data model

The Large data model uses the first 64 Kbytes of external data memory by default. This memory can be accessed using 16-bit pointers. The default pointer type passed as a parameter will use two register or two bytes on the stack.

The Generic data model

The Generic data model uses 64 Kbytes of the code memory space, 64 Kbytes of the external data memory space, and 256 bytes of the internal data memory space. The default pointer type passed as a parameter will use three registers or 3 bytes on the stack.

The Far Generic data model

The Far Generic data model uses 4 Mbytes of the code memory space, 4 Mbytes of the external data memory space, and 256 bytes of the internal data memory space. The default pointer type passed as a parameter will use three registers or 3 bytes on the stack.

Requires that you use 24-bit data pointers, which you set explicitly using the --dptr compiler option.

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The Far data model

The Far data model uses the 16 Mbytes of the external data memory space. This is the only memory that can be accessed using 24-bit pointers. The default pointer type passed as a parameter will use three registers or 3 bytes on the stack.

Requires that you use 24-bit data pointers, which you set explicitly using the --dptr compiler option.

Memory types

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

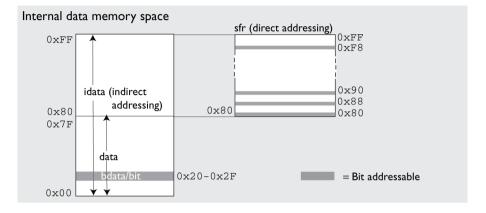
The compiler uses different memory types to access data that is placed in different areas of the memory. There are different methods for reaching memory areas, and they have different costs when it comes to code space, execution speed, and register usage. The access methods range from generic but expensive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

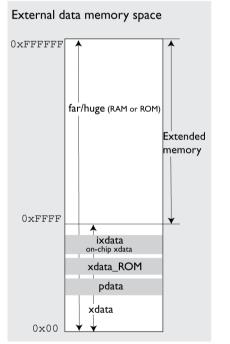
For example, the memory accessed using the xdata addressing method is called xdata memory.

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

For more information about memory access methods, see *Memory access methods*, page 178.

Figure 2, *The memory and associated memory types* illustrates the different memory types and how they are associated with the different parts of memory:





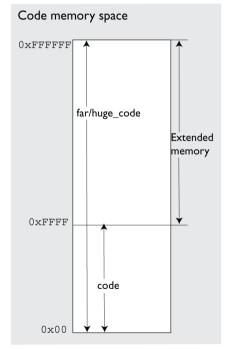


Figure 2: The memory and associated memory types

The following table summarizes the available memory types and their corresponding keywords:

Memory type	Memory space *	Memory type attribute	Address range	Max. object	Pointer type attribute
Data	IDATA	data	0x0-0x7F	128 bytes	idata
SFR	IDATA	sfr	0x80-0xFF	128 bytes	n/a
Idata	IDATA	idata	0x0-0xFF	256 bytes	idata
Bit	IDATA	bit	0x0-0xFF	l bit	n/a
Bdata	IDATA	bdata	0x20-0x2F	16 bytes	n/a
Pdata	XDATA	pdata	0x0-0xFF	256 bytes	pdata
lxdata	XDATA	ixdata	0x0-0xFFFF	64 Kbytes	xdata
Xdata	XDATA	xdata	0x0-0xFFFF	64 Kbytes	xdata
Far	XDATA	far	0x0-0xffffff	64 Kbytes	far
Far22	XDATA	far22	0x0-0x3FFFFF	64 Kbytes	far22
Huge	XDATA	huge	0x0-0xffffff	16 Mbytes	huge
Xdata ROM	XDATA	xdata_rom	0x0-0xFFFF	64 Kbytes	xdata
Far ROM	XDATA	far_rom	0x0-0xffffff	64 Kbytes	far
Far22 ROM	XDATA	far22_rom	0x0-0x3FFFFF	64 Kbytes	far22
Huge ROM	XDATA	huge_rom	0x0-0xffffff	16 Mbytes	huge
Code	CODE	code	0x0-0xffff	64 Kbytes	code
Far code	CODE	far_code	0x0-0xffffff	64 Kbytes	far_code
Far22 code	CODE	far22_code	0x0-0x3FFFFF	64 Kbytes	far22
Huge code	CODE	huge_code	0x0-0xffffff	16 Mbytes	huge_code

Table 7: Memory types and pointer type attributes

All memory types are not always available; for more information, see *Basic project* settings for hardware memory configuration, page 41. For more information about the pointers that can be used, see *Pointer types*, page 281.

MEMORY TYPES FOR INTERNAL DATA MEMORY SPACE

In the internal data memory space, the following memory types are available:

- data
- idata

^{*} In this table, the term IDATA refers at the internal data memory space, XDATA refers at the external data memory space, CODE refers at the code memory space. See The 8051 microcontroller memory configuration, page 39 for more information about the memory spaces.

- bit/bdata
- sfr.

data

The data memory covers the first 128 bytes (0x0-0x7F) of the internal data memory space. To place a variable in this memory, use the __data memory attribute. This means the variable will be directly addressed using MOV A, 10, which is the most compact access to variables possible. The size of such an object is limited to 128 bytes-8 bytes (the register area). This memory is default in the Tiny data model.

idata

The idata memory covers all 256 bytes of internal data memory space (0x0-0xFF). An idata object can be placed anywhere in this range, and the size of such an object is limited to 256 bytes-8 (the register area). To place a variable in this memory, use the __idata memory attribute. Such an object will be accessed with indirect addressing using the following construction MOV RO, H10 and MOV A, @RO, which is slower compared to objects accessed directly in the data memory. Idata memory is default in the Small data model.

bit/bdata

The bit/bdata memory covers the 32-byte bit-addressable memory area (0x20-0x2F and all SFR addresses that start on 0x0 and 0x08) in the internal data memory space. The __bit memory attribute can access individual bits in this area, whereas the __bdata attribute can access 8 bits with the same instruction.

sfr

The sfr memory covers the 128 upper bytes (0x80-0xFF) of the internal data memory space and is accessed using direct addressing. Standard peripheral units are defined in device-specific I/O header files with the filename extension h. For more details about these files, see *Accessing special function registers*, page 228.

Use the __sfr memory attribute to define your own SFR definitions.

MEMORY TYPES FOR EXTERNAL DATA MEMORY SPACE

In the external data memory space, the following memory types are available:

- xdata
- pdata
- ixdata
- far

- far22
- huge
- Memory types for ROM memory in the external data memory space.

xdata

The xdata memory type refers to the 64-Kbyte memory area (0x0-0xFFFF) in the external data memory space. Use the __xdata memory attribute to place an object in this memory area, which will be accessed using MOVX A, @DPTR. This memory type is default in the Large and Generic data models.

pdata

The pdata memory type refers to a 256-byte area placed anywhere in the memory range $0\times0-0\times$ FFFF of the external data memory space. Use the __pdata memory attribute to place an object in this memory area. The object which will be accessed using MOVX A, QRi, which is more efficient compared to using the xdata memory type.

ixdata

Some devices provide on-chip xdata (external data) memory that is accessed faster than normal external data memory.

If available, this on-chip data memory is placed anywhere in the memory range 0x0-0xFFFF of the external data memory space. Use the __ixdata memory attribute to access objects in this on-chip memory.

If used, this memory is enabled in the system startup code (cstartup.s51). You should verify that it is set up according to your requirements.

far

The far memory type refers to the whole 16-Mbyte memory area (0x0-0xFFFFFF) in the external data memory space. Use the __far memory attribute to place an object in this memory area, which will be accessed using MOVX. This memory type is only available when the Far data model is used, and in that case it is used by default.

Note that the size of such an object is limited to 64 Kbytes-1. For details about placement restrictions, see Table 44, *Data pointers*, page 281.

far22

The far22 memory type refers to the lower 4 Mbytes (0x0-0x3FFFFF) of the external data memory space. Use the __far22 memory attribute to place an object in this memory area, which will be accessed using MOVX. This memory type is only available when the Far Generic data model is used, and in that case it is used by default.

Note that the size of such an object is limited to 64 Kbytes-1. For details about placement restrictions, see Table 44, *Data pointers*, page 281.

huge

The huge memory type refers to the whole 16-Mbyte memory area (0x0-0xFFFFFF) in the external data memory space. Use the __huge memory attribute to place an object in this memory area, which will be accessed using MOVX.

The drawback of the huge memory type is that the code generated to access the memory is larger and slower than that of any of the other memory types. In addition, the code uses more processor registers, which may force local variables to be stored on the stack rather than being allocated in registers.

Memory types for ROM memory in the external data memory space

Some devices provide ROM memory in the external data memory space that is accessed in the same way as other external data memory. Depending on where in the 16-Mbyte address space this ROM memory is available, different memory types are associated with the ROM memory:

Memory type	Attribute	Address range	Comments
Xdata ROM	xdata_rom	0x0-0xFFFF	The size of such an object is limited to 64 Kbytes-I, and it cannot cross a 64-Kbyte physical segment boundary.
Far ROM	far_rom	0x0-0xFFFFFF	The size of such an object is limited to 64 Kbytes-I. For details about placement restrictions, see <i>Table 44</i> , <i>Data pointers</i> , page 281.
Far22 ROM	far22_rom	0x0-0x3FFFFF	The size of such an object is limited to 64 Kbytes-1. For details about placement restrictions, see <i>Table 44</i> , <i>Data pointers</i> , page 281.
Huge ROM	huge_rom	0x0-0xFFFFFF	The code generated to access the memory is larger and slower than that of any of the other memory types. In addition, the code uses more processor registers, which may force local variables to be stored on the stack rather than being allocated in registers.

Table 8: Memory types for ROM memory in external data memory space

Use this memory for constants and strings, as this memory can only be read from not written to.

MEMORY TYPES FOR CODE MEMORY SPACE

In the code data memory space, the following memory types are available:

- code
- far code
- far22 code
- huge code.

code

The code memory type refers to the 64-Kbyte memory area (0x0-0xFFFF) in the code memory space. Use the __code memory attribute to place constants and strings in this memory area, which will be accessed using MOVC.

far code

The far code memory type refers to the whole 16-Mbyte memory area (0x0-0xFFFFFFF) in the code memory space. Use the __far_code memory attribute to place constants and strings in this memory area, which will be accessed using MOVC.

Note that the size of such an object is limited to 64 Kbytes-1. For details about placement restrictions, see Table 44, *Data pointers*, page 281.

This memory type is only available when the Far data model is used.

far22 code

The far22 code memory type refers to the lower 4 Mbytes ($0 \times 0 - 0 \times 3$ FFFFF) of the code memory space. Use the __far22_code memory attribute to place constants and strings in this memory area, which will be accessed using MOVC.

Note that the size of such an object is limited to 64 Kbytes-1. For details about placement restrictions, see Table 44, *Data pointers*, page 281.

This memory type is only available when the Far Generic data model is used.

huge code

The huge code memory type refers to the whole 16-Mbyte memory area (0x0-0xFFFFFF) in the external data memory space. Use the __huge_code memory attribute to place an object in this memory area, which will be accessed using MOVC.

The drawback of the huge memory type is that the code generated to access the memory is larger and slower than that of any of the other memory types. In addition, the code uses more processor registers, which may force local variables to be stored on the stack rather than being allocated in registers.

This memory type is only available when the Far data model is used.

USING DATA MEMORY ATTRIBUTES

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

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 255 for additional information.

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

Syntax

The keywords follow the same syntax as the type qualifiers const and volatile. The memory attributes are *type attributes* and therefore they must be specified both when variables are defined and in the declaration, see *General syntax rules for extended keywords*, page 287.

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

```
__idata int i, j;
int idata k, l;
```

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 __idata Byte;
typedef Byte *BytePtr;
Byte aByte;
BytePtr aBytePointer;

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

POINTERS AND MEMORY TYPES

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

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

```
int __idata * MyPtr;
```

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

```
char __idata * __xdata MyPtr2;
```

Differences between pointer types

A pointer must contain information needed to specify a memory location of a certain memory type. In the IAR C/C++ Compiler for 8051, a smaller pointer can be implicitly converted to a pointer of a larger type if they both point to the same type of memory. For example, a __pdata pointer can be implicitly converted to an __xdata pointer. A pointer cannot be implicitly converted to a pointer that points to an incompatible memory area (that is, a code pointer cannot be implicitly converted to a data pointer and vice versa) and a larger pointer cannot be implicitly converted to a smaller pointer if it means that precision is being lost.

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

For more information about pointers, see *Pointer types*, page 281.

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 pdata memory.

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

__pdata struct MyStruct gamma;

This declaration is incorrect:

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

MORE EXAMPLES

The following is a series of examples with descriptions. First, some integer variables are defined and then pointer variables are introduced. Finally, a function accepting a pointer to an integer in xdata memory is declared. The function returns a pointer to an integer in idata memory. It makes no difference whether the memory attribute is placed before or after the data type.

int MyA;	A variable defined in default memory determined by the data model in use.
intxdata MyB;	A variable in xdata memory.
idata int MyC;	A variable in idata memory.
int * MyD;	A pointer stored in default memory. The pointer points to an integer in default memory.
intxdata * MyE;	A pointer stored in default memory. The pointer points to an integer in xdata memory.
<pre>intxdata *idata MyF;</pre>	A pointer stored in idata memory pointing to an integer stored in xdata memory.

```
int __idata * MyFunction(
   int __xdata *);
```

A declaration of a function that takes a parameter which is a pointer to an integer stored in xdata memory. The function returns a pointer to an integer stored in idata memory.

C++ and memory types

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

In non-static member functions, the non-static member variables of a C++ object can be referenced via the this pointer, explicitly or implicitly. The this pointer is of the default data pointer type unless class memory is used, see *Using IAR attributes with Classes*, page 199.

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

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

For more information about C++ classes, see *Using IAR attributes with Classes*, page 199.

Constants and strings

The placement of constants and strings can be handled in one of three ways:

- Constants and strings are copied from ROM (non-volatile memory) to RAM at system initialization
 - Strings and constants will be handled in the same way as initialized variables. This is the default behavior and all prebuilt libraries delivered with the product use this method. If the application only uses a small amount of constants and strings and the microcontroller does not have non-volatile memory in the external data memory space, this method should be selected. Note that this method requires space for constants and strings in both non-volatile and volatile memory.
- Constants are placed in ROM (non-volatile memory) located in the external data memory space
 - Constants and strings are accessed using the same access method as ordinary external data memory. This is the most efficient method but only possible if the microcontroller has non-volatile memory in the external data memory space. To use

this method, you should explicitly declare the constant or string with the memory attribute __xdata_rom, __far22_rom, __far_rom, or __huge_rom. This is also the default behavior if the option --place_constants=data_rom has been used. Note that this option can be used if one of the data models Far, Far Generic, or Large is used.

 Constants and strings are located in code memory and are not copied to data memory.

This method occupies memory in the external data memory space. However, constants and strings located in code memory can only be accessed through the pointers __code, __far22_code, __far_code, __huge_code, or __generic. This method should only be considered if a large amount of strings and constants are used and neither of the other two methods are appropriate. There are some complications when using the runtime library together with this method, see *Placing constants and strings in code memory*.

Placing constants and strings in code memory

If you want to locate constants and strings in the code memory space, you must compile your project with the option --place_constants=code. It is important to note that standard runtime library functions that take constant parameters as input, such as sscanf and sprintf, will still expect to find these parameters in data memory rather than in code memory. Instead, there are some 8051-specific CLIB library functions declared in pamspace. In that allow access to strings in code memory.

Auto variables—stack and static overlay

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 either on the stack or in a static overlay area. 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 or the static overlay area. The stack is dynamically allocated at runtime, whereas the static overlay area is statically allocated at link time. For information about choosing between using the stack or the static overlay area for storing variables, see *Choosing a calling convention*, page 62.

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

CHOOSING A CALLING CONVENTION

The IAR C/C++ Compiler for 8051 provides six different *calling conventions* that control how memory is used for parameters and locally declared variables. You can specify a default calling convention or you can explicitly declare the calling convention for each individual function.

The following table lists the available calling conventions:

Calling convention	Function attribute	Stack pointer	Description
Data overlay	data_overlay		An overlay frame in data memory is used for local data and parameters.
Idata overlay	idata_overlay	==	An overlay frame in idata memory is used for local data and parameters.
Idata reentrant	idata_reentrant	SP	The idata stack is used for local data and parameters.
Pdata reentrant	pdata_reentrant	PSP	An emulated stack located in pdata memory is used for local data and parameters.
Xdata reentran	txdata_reentrant	XSP	An emulated stack located in xdata memory is used for local data and parameters.
Extended stack reentrant	ext_stack_reentrant	ESP:SP	The extended stack is used for local data and parameters.

Table 9: Calling conventions

Only the reentrant models adhere strictly to Standard C. The overlay calling conventions do not allow recursive functions and they are not reentrant, but they adhere to Standard C in all other respects.

Choosing a calling convention also affects how a function calls another function. The compiler handles this automatically, but if you write a function in the assembler language you must know where and how its parameter can be found and how to return correctly. For detailed information, see *Calling convention*, page 167.

Specifying a default calling convention



You can choose a default calling convention by using the command line option --calling_convention=convention, see --calling_convention, page 245.



To specify the calling convention in the IDE, choose **Project>Options>General Options>Target>Calling convention**.

Specifying a calling convention for individual functions

In your source code, you can declare individual functions to use, for example, the Idata reentrant calling convention by using the __idata_reentrant function attribute, for example:

extern __idata_reentrant void doit(int arg);

Calling conventions and matching data models

The choice of calling convention is closely related to the default pointer used by the application (specified by the data model). An application written without specific memory attributes or pragma directives will only work correctly if the default pointer can access the stack or static overlay area used by the selected calling convention.

The following table shows which data models and calling conventions you can combine without having to explicitly type-declare pointers and parameters:

Data model	Default pointer	Calling convention	Memory for stack or overlay frame
Tiny	Idata	Data overlay Idata overlay	Data Idata
		Idata reentrant	Idata
Small	Idata	Data overlay	Data
		Idata overlay	Idata
		Idata reentrant	Idata
Large	Xdata	Pdata reentrant	Pdata
		Xdata reentrant	Xdata
		Extended stack reentrant	Xdata
Generic	Generic	Data overlay	Data
		Idata overlay	Idata
		Idata reentrant	Idata
		Pdata reentrant	Pdata
		Xdata reentrant	Xdata
		Extended stack reentrant	Xdata
Far	Far	Pdata reentrant	Pdata
		Xdata reentrant	Xdata
		Extended stack reentrant	Far
Far Generic	Generic	Pdata reentrant	Pdata
		Xdata reentrant	Xdata
		Extended stack reentrant	Far

Table 10: Data models and calling convention

The compiler will not permit inconsistent default models, but if any functions have been explicitly declared to use a non-default calling convention, you might have to explicitly specify the pointer type when you declare pointers.

Example

```
__idata_reentrant void f(void)
{
   int x;
   int * xp = &x;
}
```

If the above example is compiled using the Small data model, the compilation will succeed. In the example, the pointer xp will be of the default pointer type, which is idata. An idata pointer can be instantiated by the address of the local variable x, located on the idata stack.

If on the other hand the application is compiled using the Large data model, the compilation will fail. The variable x will still be located on the idata stack, but the pointer xp, of the default type, will be an xdata pointer which is incompatible with an idata address. The compiler will generate the following error message:

```
Error[Pe144]: a value of type "int __idata *" cannot be used to
initialize an entity of type "int *"
```

Here, the int * pointer is of the default type, that is, it is in practice int __xdata *. However, if the pointer xp is explicitly declared as an __idata pointer, the application can be successfully compiled using the Large data model. The source code would then look like this:

```
__idata_reentrant void f(void)
{
   int x;
   int __idata * xp = &x;
}
```

Mixing calling conventions

Not all calling conventions can coexist in the same application, and passing local pointers and returning a struct can only be performed in a limited way if you use more than one calling convention.

Only one internal stack—the stack used by, for example, PUSH and CALL instructions—can be used at the same time. Most 8051 devices only support an internal stack located in IDATA. A notable exception is the extended devices which allow the internal stack to be located in XDATA if you use the extended stack option. This means

that the idata reentrant and the extended stack reentrant calling conventions cannot be combined in the same application. Furthermore, the xdata reentrant calling convention cannot be combined with the extended stack reentrant calling convention, because there can be only one stack located in XDATA at the same time.

Mixing calling conventions can also place restrictions on parameters and return values. These restrictions only apply to locally declared pointers passed as parameters and when returning a struct-declared variable. The problem occurs if the default pointer (specified by the data model) cannot refer to the stack implied by the calling convention in use. If the default pointer can refer to an object located on the stack, the calls are not restricted.

Example

```
__xdata_reentrant void foo(int *ptr)
{
    *ptr = 20;
}
__idata_reentrant void bar(void)
{
    int value;
    foo(&value);
}
```

The application will be successfully compiled if the Small data model is used and the variable value will be located on the idata stack. The actual argument &value, referring to the variable value, will become an __idata * pointer when it refers to an object located on the idata stack. The formal argument to the function foo will be of the default pointer type, that is, __idata, which is the same type as the actual argument used when the function is called.

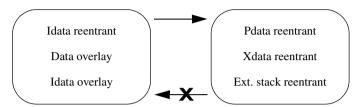
The same reasoning applies to return values of a structure type. The calling function will reserve space on the calling function's stack and pass a hidden parameter to the called function. This hidden parameter is a pointer referring to the location on the caller's stack where the return value should be located.

Applications are thus restricted in how functions using different calling convention can call each other. Functions using a stack which is reachable with the default pointer type can call all other functions regardless of the calling convention used by the called function.

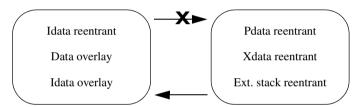
Functions calling other functions

This is how functions can call each other:

Idata default pointer



Xdata/far default pointer



The arrow means that a call is possible. The **X** means that a call is not possible unless the source code has been explicitly type-declared using function attributes or pragma directives.

Figure 3: Function calls between different calling conventions

Thus, if an application is compiled using the Small data model, an __idata_reentrant function can call an __xdata_reentrant function. But an __xdata_reentrant function cannot call an __idata_reentrant function. However, all applications can be explicitly type-declared so that they work as intended.

Using the extended stack excludes the possibility to use the idata and xdata stacks; extended stack reentrant functions can only coexist with pdata reentrant functions. The extended stack is located in xdata memory and can be viewed in the same way as the xdata stack in the context of calling convention compatibility.

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)
- Registers saved by the calling function (caller-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 for the idata and extended stack 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 either directly or indirectly—a *recursive function*—and each invocation can store its own data on the stack.

Potential problems

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

```
int *MyFunction()
{
  int x;
  /* Do something here. */
  return &x; /* Incorrect */
}
```

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

STATIC OVERLAY

Static overlay is a system where local data and function parameters are stored at static locations in memory. Each function is associated with an overlay frame that has a fixed size and contains space for local variables, function parameters and temporary data.

Static overlay can produce very efficient code on the 8051 microcontroller because it has good support for direct addressing. However, the amount of directly accessible memory is limited, so static overlay systems are only suitable for small applications.

There is a problem with the static overlay system, though; it is difficult to support recursive and reentrant applications. In reentrant and recursive systems, several instances of the same function can be alive at the same time, so it is not enough to have one overlay frame for each function; instead the compiler must be able to handle multiple overlay frames for the same function. Therefore, the static overlay system is restricted and does not support recursion or reentrancy.

For information about the function directives used by the static overlay system, see the *IAR Assembler Reference Guide for 8051*.

Dynamic memory on the heap

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

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

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

The compiler supports heaps for 8051 devices with external memory. When the CLIB library is used, the heap can be located in xdata, far22, and far memory. When the DLIB library is used, the heap can also be located in huge memory. The use of heaps is depending on the selected data model. For more information about this, see *The heap*, page 105.

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.

Alternative memory allocation functions

Because the internal memory is very limited on the 8051 microcontroller, the compiler only supports a heap located in the external data memory space. To fully support this heap when you use the CLIB runtime library, additional functions are included in the library:

```
void __xdata *__xdata_malloc(unsigned int)
void __xdata *__xdata_realloc(void __xdata *, unsigned int)
void __xdata *__xdata_calloc(unsigned int, unsigned int)
void __xdata_free(void __xdata *)
void __far *__far_malloc(unsigned int)
void __far *__far_realloc(void __far *, unsigned int)
void __far *__far_calloc(unsigned int, unsigned int)
void __far_free(void __far *)
void __far_22 *__far_22_malloc(unsigned int)
void __far_22 *__far_22_realloc(void __far_22 *, unsigned int)
void __far_22 *__far_22_calloc(unsigned int, unsigned int)
void __far_22_free(void __far_22 *)
```

It is recommended that these alternative functions are used instead of the standard C library functions malloc, calloc, realloc, and free. The __xdata versions of the functions are available when 16-bit data pointers (DPTRs) are used and the __far versions when 24-bit data pointers are used.

The standard functions can be used together with the Far, Far Generic, Generic, and Large data models; they will call the corresponding __xdata or __far alternative function, depending on the size of the DPTRs you are using. However, if the Tiny or Small data model is used, the standard malloc, calloc, realloc, and free functions cannot be used at all. In these cases, you must explicitly use the corresponding alternative functions to use a heap in external memory.

The difference between the alternative __xdata and __far memory allocation functions and the standard functions is the pointer type of the return value and the pointer type of the arguments. The functions malloc, calloc, and realloc return a pointer to the allocated memory area and the free and realloc functions take a pointer argument to a previously allocated area. These pointers must be a pointer of the same type as the memory that the heap is located in, independent of the default memory and pointer attributes.

Note: The corresponding functionality is also available in the DLIB runtime environment.

Virtual registers

The compiler uses a set of virtual registers—located in data memory—to be used like any other registers. A minimum of 8 virtual registers are required by the compiler, but as many as 32 can be used. A larger set of virtual registers makes it possible for the compiler to allocate more variables into registers. However, a larger set of virtual registers also requires a larger data memory area. In the Large data model you should probably use a larger number of virtual registers, for example 32, to help the compiler generate better code.



In the IDE, choose Project>Options>General Options>Target>Number of virtual registers.



On the command line, use the option --nr_virtual_regs to specify the number of virtual registers. See --nr virtual regs, page 265.

You must also allocate the data memory space required for the virtual registers in the linker command file by setting the constant _NR_OF_VIRTUAL_REGISTERS to the same number of registers as set by the --nr_virtual_regs compiler option.

Note: The allocated memory space must be *at least* equal in size to the number of virtual registers used. For example, the linker command file can contain the following lines if 32 virtual registers are used:

```
-D_NR_OF_VIRTUAL_REGISTERS=0x20
-Z(DATA)VREG+_NR_OF_VIRTUAL_REGISTERS=08-7F
```

THE VIRTUAL BIT REGISTER

The compiler reserves one byte of bit-addressable memory to be used internally, for storing locally declared bool variables. The virtual bit register can be located anywhere in the bit-addressable memory area $(0\times20-0\times2F)$. It is recommended that you use the first or last byte in this area.

Specify the location of the virtual bit register in the linker command file by defining ?VB to the appropriate value, for instance:

-D?VB=2F

Virtual registers

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.

For details about extensions related to banked functions, see the chapter Banked functions.

Function-related extensions

In addition to supporting Standard C, the compiler provides several extensions for writing functions in C. Using these, you can:

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

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

For more information about optimizations, see *Efficient coding for embedded applications*, page 213. For information about the available intrinsic functions for accessing hardware operations, see the chapter *Intrinsic functions*.

Code models for function storage

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

- The default memory range for storing the function, which implies a default memory attribute
- The maximum module size
- The maximum application size.

Your project can only use one code model at a time, and the same model must be used by all user modules and all library modules.

These code models are available:

Code model	Default for core	Pointer size	Description
Near	Plain	2 bytes	Supports up to 64 Kbytes ROMable code, can access the entire 16-bit address space
Banked		2 bytes	Supports banked function calls, see Code models for banked systems, page 82. Functions can be explicitly placed in the root bank by using thenear_func memory attribute, seenear_func, page 305.
Banked Extended2	Extended2	3 bytes	Supports banked function calls, see Code models for banked systems, page 82.
Far	Extended1	3 bytes	Supports true 24-bit calls; only to be used for devices with extended code memory and true 24-bit instructions

Table 11: Code models



See the *IDE Project Management and Building 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 247.

Pointers with different sizes have restrictions in implicit and explicit casts between pointers and between pointers and integer types. For information about the restrictions, see *Casting*, page 283.

In the chapter *Assembler language interface*, the generated code is studied in more detail when we describe how to call a C function from assembler language and vice versa.

Primitives for interrupts, concurrency, and OS-related programming

The IAR C/C++ Compiler for 8051 provides the following primitives related to writing interrupt functions, concurrent functions, and OS-related functions:

- The extended keywords __interrupt, __task, 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.

Interrupt service routines

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

The 8051 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 8051 microcontroller documentation from the chip manufacturer. If you want to handle several different interrupts using the same interrupt routine, you can specify several interrupt vectors.

Interrupt vectors and the interrupt vector table

For the 8051 microcontroller, the interrupt vector table always starts at the address 0×03 . The interrupt vector is the offset into the interrupt vector table.

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.

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

Defining an interrupt function—an example

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

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

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

Register banks

The basic 8051 microcontroller supports four register banks. If you have specified a register bank to be used by an interrupt, the registers R0–R7 are not saved on the stack when the interrupt function is entered. Instead the application switches to the bank you have specified and then switches back when the interrupt function exits. This is a useful way to speed up important interrupts.

One register bank, usually bank 0, is used internally by the runtime system of the compiler. You can change the default register bank used by the runtime system by redefining the value of the symbol REGISTER_BANK in the linker command file. Other register banks can be associated with an interrupt routine by using the #pragma register_bank directive.

Note: The bank used by the runtime system of the compiler must not be used for interrupts, and different interrupts that can interrupt each other must not use the same register bank.

Example

```
#pragma register_bank=1
#pragma vector=0xIE0_int
__interrupt void my_interrupt_routine(void)
{
    /* Do something */
}
```

In the linker command file it can look like this:

```
-D?REGISTER_BANK=1 /* Default register bank (0,1,2,3) */
-D_REGISTER_BANK_START=08 /* Start address for default register bank (00,08,10,18) */
-Z(DATA)REGISTERS+8=_REGISTER_BANK_START
```

If you use a register bank together with interrupt routines, the space occupied by the register bank cannot be used for other data.

MONITOR FUNCTIONS

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

To define a monitor function, you can use the __monitor keyword. For more information, see __monitor, page 304.



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

This chapter introduces the banking technique. It is important to know when to use it, what it does, and how it works. More specifically, this chapter contains the following:

- Introduction to the banking system, which introduces the code models available for banked systems, exemplifies standard bank memory layouts, and describes how to set up the compiler and linker
- Writing source code for banked memory, which describes how to write and partition source code and interrupt service routines for banked applications
- Bank switching, which describes this mechanism in detail
- Downloading to memory, which discusses linker output formats suitable for handling banked addresses and methods for downloading to multiple PROMs
- Debugging banked applications, which describes how to set up the C-SPY debugger and gives some hints for debugging.

Note that when you read this chapter, you should already be familiar with the other concepts described in *Part 1. Using the compiler*.

Introduction to the banking system

If you are using an 8051 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 a basic 8051 microcontroller is not sufficient to contain it all.

CODE MODELS FOR BANKED SYSTEMS

The 8051 IAR C/C++ Compiler provides two code models for banking your code allowing for up to 16 Mbytes of ROM memory:

- The Banked code model
 - allows the code memory area of the 8051 microcontroller to be extended with up to 256 banks of additional ROM memory. Each bank can be up to 64 Kbytes, minus the size of a root bank.
- The Banked extended2 code model allows the code memory area of the 8051 microcontroller to be extended with up to 16 banks of additional ROM memory. Each bank can be up to 64 Kbytes. You do not need to reserve space for a traditional root bank.

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 a basic 8051 microcontroller 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 for the CPU, and the remaining banks must be brought into the 64 Kbytes address range before they can be used.

THE MEMORY LAYOUT FOR THE BANKED CODE MODEL

You can place the banked area anywhere in code memory, but there must always be a *root area* for holding the runtime environment code and relay functions for bank switches.

The following illustration shows an example of a 8051 banked code memory layout:

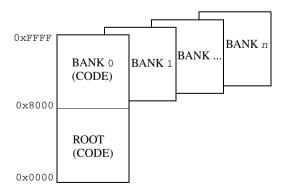


Figure 4: Banked code memory layout (example)

It is practical to place the root area at address 0 and upwards. For information about how to explicitly place functions in the root area, see *Banked versus non-banked function calls*, page 86.

THE MEMORY LAYOUT FOR THE BANKED EXTENDED2 CODE MODEL

Devices based on the Mentor Graphics M8051EW core—which implies that you are using the --core=extended2 compiler option—use a different banked mechanism than the classic 8051 microcontroller.

The following illustration shows an example of a 8051 banked code memory layout:

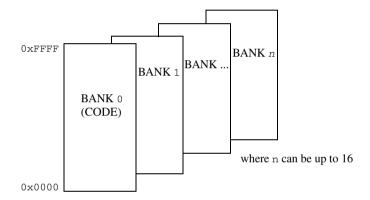


Figure 5: Banked code memory layout for the extended2 core (example)

Bank 0 holds the runtime environment code.

SETTING UP THE COMPILER FOR BANKED MODE



To specify the banked code model in the IAR Embedded Workbench IDE, choose **Project>Options>General Options>Target>Code model**. Choose either **Banked** or, if you are using the **Exteded2** core option, **Banked extended2**.



To compile your modules for banked mode, use the compiler option with the appropriate parameter:

--code_model={banked|banked_ext2}

Note: The Banked code model is available when using the core Plain (classic 8051) and the Banked extended 2 code model is available when using the core Extended2 (for the Mentor Graphics M8051EW core).

SETTING UP THE LINKER FOR BANKED MODE

When linking a banked 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 depends on the size of your root bank which in turn depends on your source code.

The simplest way to set up the code banks for the linker is to use the IAR Embedded Workbench IDE. However, if your hardware memory configuration is very unusual, you can instead use the linker command file to set up the bank system for the linker.



To set code bank options in the IAR Embedded Workbench IDE; choose **Project>Options>General Options>Code Bank**.

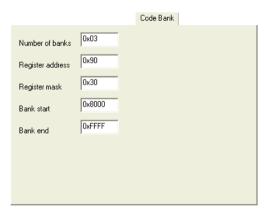


Figure 6: Code Bank setup

Use the text boxes to set up for banking according to your memory configuration.

- I Specify the number of banks in the **Number of banks** text box.
- 2 The bank-switching routine is based on an SFR port being used for the bank switching. By default, P1 is used. To set up a different SFR port, add the required port in the **Register address** text box.
- **3** If the entire SFR is not used for selecting the active bank, specify the appropriate bitmask in the **Register mask** text box to indicate the bits used. For example, specify 0x03 if only bits 0 and 1 are used.
- 4 In the **Bank start** text box, type the start address of the banked area. Correspondingly, type the end address in the **Bank End** text box.



In the predefined linker command file, a set of symbols is predefined:

If the values are not appropriate, you can simply change them to match your hardware memory configuration. However, if the symbols are not appropriate for your configuration, you must adapt them according to your needs.

As a result, you might need to make a few trial passes through the linking process to determine the optimal memory configuration setup.

Writing source code for banked memory

Writing source 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 functions and 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 BANKED_CODE segment. The code contained in a segment part is an indivisible unit, that is, the linker cannot break up a segment part 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.

However, some optimizations require that all segment parts produced from banked functions in the same module (source file) must be linked together as a unit. In this case, the combined size of *all* banked functions in the same module must 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 or the #pragma location directive. See *Data and function placement in segments*, page 218.

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

BANKED VERSUS NON-BANKED FUNCTION CALLS

In the Banked code model, differentiating between the non-banked versus banked function calls 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.

Note: In the Banked extended2 code model, all code is banked which means there is no need to differentiate between non-banked versus 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.

Assuming that you are using the Banked code model, there are two function call sequences:

- Non-banked function calls: The return address and new execution address are 16-bit values. Functions declared __near_func will have non-banked function calls.
- 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, all untyped functions will be located in banked memory. However, it is possible to explicitly declare functions to be non-banked by using the __near_func memory attribute. Such functions will not generate banked calls and will be located in the NEAR_CODE segment instead of in the BANKED_CODE segment. The NEAR_CODE segment must be located in the root bank when no banked call is produced.



It can often be a good idea to place frequently called functions in the root bank, to reduce the overhead of the banked call and return.

Example

In this example you can see how the banked function £1 calls the non-banked function £2:

```
__near_func void f2(void) /* Non-banked function */
{
    / * code here ... */
}

void f1(void) /* Banked function in the Banked code model */
{
    f2();
}
```

The actual call to £2 from within £1 is performed in the same way as an ordinary function call (LCALL).

Note: There is a __banked_func memory attribute available, but you do not need to use it explicitly. The attribute is available for compiler internal use only.

CODE THAT CANNOT BE BANKED

In the Banked code model, code banking is achieved by dividing the address space used for program code into two parts: *non-banked* and *banked* code. In Figure 5, *Banked code memory layout for the extended2 core (example)*, page 83, 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:

- The cstartup routine, located in the CSTART segment
- Interrupt vectors, located in the INTVEC segment
- Interrupt service routines, located in the NEAR_CODE segment
- Segments containing constants. These are all segments ending with _AC, _C, and _N, see the chapter Segment reference
- Segments containing initial values for initialized variables can be located in the root bank or in bank 0 but in no other bank. These are all segments ending with _ID, see the chapter Segment reference
- The assembler-written routines included in the runtime library. They are located in the RCODE segment
- Relay functions, located in the BANK_RELAYS segment
- Bank-switching routines, that is, those routines that will perform the call and return
 to and from banked routines. They are located in the CSTART segment.

Banking is not supported for functions using one of the overlay calling conventions (__data_overlay or __idata_overlay) or for far functions (__far_func) because only one of the function type attributes __far_func and __banked_func can be used as keywords in the system at the same time.

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

Note: Even though interrupt functions cannot be banked, the interrupt routine itself can call a banked function.

Calling banked functions from assembler language

In an assembler language program, calling a C/C++ function located in another bank requires using the same calling convention as the compiler. For information about this calling convention, see *Calling convention*, page 167. To generate an example of a banked function call, use the technique described in the section *Calling assembler routines from C*, page 164.

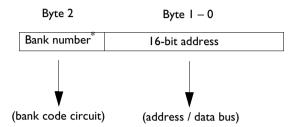
If you are writing banked functions using assembler language, you must also consider the calling convention.

Bank switching

For banked systems written in C or C++, you normally do not need to consider the bank switch mechanism, as the compiler handles this for you. However, if you write banked functions in assembler language it might be necessary to pay attention to the bank switch mechanism in your assembler functions. Also, if you want to use a completely different solution for bank switching, you must implement your own bank-switching routine.

ACCESSING BANKED CODE

To access code that resides 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:



^{*} For the Banked extended2 code model, the upper four bits hold the number of the current bank, whereas the lower four bits hold the number of the next bank.

Figure 7: The 3-byte banked address

For further details of pointer representation, see *Pointer types*, page 281.

The default bank-switching code is available in the supplied assembler language source file iar_banked_code_support.s51, which you can find in the directory 8051\src\lib.

The bank-switching mechanism differs between the two code models.

BANK SWITCHING IN THE BANKED CODE MODEL

The default bank-switching routine is based on an SFR port (P1) being used for the bank switching. When a function—the *caller*—calls another function—the *callee*—a bank switch is performed. The compiler does not know in which bank a function will be placed by the linker.

More precisely, the following actions are performed:

- The caller function performs an LCALL to a relay function located in the root bank.
 The return address—the current PC (the program counter)—is pushed on the idata stack.
- The relay function performs an LCALL to a dispatch function. The relay function contains the address of the callee.
- The call to the dispatch function implies that the current bank number (caller's bank number) is saved on the idata stack. The next bank number is saved in P1 as the current bank. The address of the callee is moved to PC, which means the execution moves to the callee function. In other words, a bank switch has been performed.

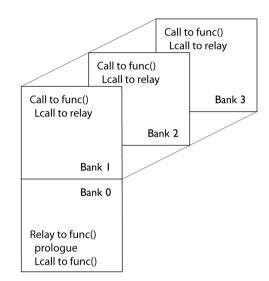


Figure 8, Bank switching in the Banked code model illustrates the actions:

Figure 8: Bank switching in the Banked code model

When the callee function has executed, it performs an ?LCALL to ?BRET. In ?BRET, the bank number of the caller function is popped from the idata stack and then a RET instruction is executed. The execution is now back in the caller function.

BANK SWITCHING IN THE BANKED EXTENDED2 CODE MODEL

The default bank-switching uses the MEX register, the memory extension stack, and the MEXSP register as the stack pointer.

When a function—the *caller*—calls another function—the *callee*—a bank switch is performed. Before the bank switch, the following actions are performed in the caller function:

- The high byte of the 3-byte pointer—described in Figure 7, *The 3-byte banked address*—is placed in the MEX.NB register (the next bank register).
- An LCALL is performed, which implies that the following steps are performed in hardware:
 - The register MEX.CB (the current bank register) is placed on the memory extension stack.
 - The return address, that is the current PC, is placed on the idata stack.
 - The next bank MEX.NB is copied to the current bank MEX.CB.

The two low bytes of the 3-byte pointer is copied to PC, which means the
execution moves to the callee function. In other words, a bank switch has been
performed.

When the callee function has executed, the RET instruction performs the bank-switching procedure in reversed order, which means the execution is back in the caller function.

Note: The memory extension stack is limited to 128 bytes, which means the function call depth cannot exceed that limit.

MODIFYING THE DEFAULT BANK-SWITCHING ROUTINE

The default bank-switching code is available in the supplied assembler language source file iar_banked_code_support.s51, which you can find in the directory 8051\src\lib.

The bank-switching routine is based on an SFR port being used for the bank switching. By default P1 is used. The SFR port is defined in the linker command file by the line:

-D?CBANK=PORTADDRESS

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

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 module in the library.

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 banked system with two 32-Kbytes banks of ROM starting at 0×8000 . If the banked code exceeds 32 Kbytes in size, when you link the project the result will be a single output file where the banked code starts at 0×8000 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



For the Banked code model, the C-SPY debugger supports banked mode debugging. To set banked mode debugging options in the IAR Embedded Workbench IDE, choose **Project>Options**, select the **General Options** category, and click the **Code Bank** tab. Type the appropriate values for the following options:

- Register address specifies the SFR address used as bank register
- Bank start specifies the bank start address
- Bank end specifies the bank end address
- Bank mask specifies the bits used for selecting the active bank
- Number of banks specifies the number of banks available on the hardware.

Banked mode debugging with other debuggers

If your emulator does not support banked mode, one common technique is to divide your source code in smaller parts that do not exceed the size of the bank. You can then compile, link, and debug each part using the Near or Far 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.

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

WHAT IS A SEGMENT?

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

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

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

At compile time, the compiler assigns code and data to the various segments. The IAR XLINK Linker is responsible for placing the segments in the physical memory range, in accordance with the rules specified in the linker configuration file. Ready-made linker configuration files are provided, but, if necessary, they can be modified according to the requirements of your target system and application. It is important to remember that,

from the linker's point of view, all segments are equal; they are simply named parts of memory.

Segment memory type

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

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

Segment memory type	Description
BIT	For bit-addressable data placed in internal RAM
CODE	For executable code
CONST	For data placed in ROM
DATA	For data placed in internal RAM; address $0-75$ is the same as for IDATA, address $80-\mathrm{FF}$ is the SFR area
IDATA	For data placed in internal RAM
XDATA	For data placed in external RAM

Table 12: 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 information about individual 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 configuration file that contains command line options which specify the locations where the segments can be placed, thereby assuring that your application fits on the target chip. To use the same source code with different derivatives, just rebuild the code with the appropriate linker configuration file.

In particular, the linker configuration file specifies:

- The placement of segments in memory
- The maximum stack size
- The maximum heap size (only for the IAR DLIB runtime environment).

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

CUSTOMIZING THE LINKER CONFIGURATION FILE

The config directory contains ready-made linker configuration files for all supported devices (filename extension xc1).



The IDE uses device-specific linker configuration files named after this pattern: lnk51ew_device.xcl, where device is the name of the device.



There is also a basic set of linker configuration files to be used on the command line:

- lnk51.xcl is a basic, default linker configuration file
- lnk51b.xcl supports the banked code model
- lnk51e.xcl supports the extended1 core
- lnk51e2.xcl supports the extended2 core
- lnk51eb.xcl supports the extended1 core and the banked code model
- lnk510.xcl supports the overlay calling conventions.

These files include a device-specific linker configuration file for a generic device. Normally, you do not need to customize this included file.

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 configuration file is to customize it so it fits the target system memory map. If, for example, your application uses additional external RAM, you must add details about the external RAM memory area.

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

Range	Туре
0x0-0xFF	Internal RAM
0x0-0x7FFF	External RAM
0x0-0xffff	ROM

Table 13: 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 configuration 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 of the file and place it in your working directory; modify the copy instead.

The contents of the linker configuration file

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

- The CPU used:
 - -cx51

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 configuration file). Segments can be placed using the -Z and -P options. The former will place the segment parts in the order they are found, while the latter will try to rearrange them to make better use of the memory. The -P option is useful when the memory where the segment should be placed is not continuous. However, if the segment needs to be allocated in both CODE and XDATA memory and needs to be initialized or set to zero at program startup, the -Z option is used.

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

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

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

Using the -Z command for sequential placement

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

The following illustrates how to use the -Z command to place the segment MYSEGMENTA followed by the segment MYSEGMENTB in CONST memory (that is, ROM) in the memory range $0 \times 0 - 0 \times 1$ FFF.

```
-Z (CONST) MYSEGMENTA, MYSEGMENTB=0-1FFF
```

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=0-1FFF
- -Z (CODE) MYCODE

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

```
-Z(CONST)MYSMALLSEGMENT=0-7FF
-Z(CONST)MYLARGESEGMENT=0-1FFF
```

Normally, when you place segments sequentially with the -Z option, each segment is placed entirety into one of the address ranges you have specified. If you use the modifier SPLIT-, each part of the segment is placed separately in sequence, allowing address gaps between different segment parts, for example:

```
-Z(SPLIT-XDATA)FAR Z=10000-1FFFF,20000-2FFFF
```

In most cases, using packed segment placement ($\neg P$) is better. The only case where using $\neg Z$ (SPLIT-type) is better is when the start and end addresses of the segment are important, for example, when the entire segment must be initialized to zero at program startup, and individual segment parts cannot be placed at arbitrary addresses.



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

Using the -P command for packed placement

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

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

```
-P(DATA)MYDATA=0-FF,1000-3FFF
```

If your application has an additional RAM area in the memory range 0xF000-0xF7FF, you can simply add that to the original definition:

```
-P(DATA)MYDATA=0-FF, 1000-3FFF, F000-F7FF
```

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

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

Using the -P command for banked placement

The -P command is useful for banked segment placement, that is, code that should be divided into several different memory banks. 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?CBANK=90
-P(CODE)BANKED_CODE=[_CODEBANK_START-_CODEBANK_END]*4+10000
```

This example divides the segment into four 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
```

For more information about these symbols and how to configure for a banked system, see *Setting up the linker for banked mode*, page 84.

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 the different data models available in the compiler. For information about these details, see the chapter *Data storage*.

STATIC MEMORY SEGMENTS

Static memory is memory that contains variables that are global or declared static, see 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 <code>suffix</code>—for instance, <code>IDATA_Z</code>. 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 <code>IDATA</code> and <code>__idata</code>. The following table summarizes the memory types and the corresponding segment groups:

Memory type	Segment group	Segment memory type	Address range
Data	DATA	DATA	0-7F
SFR	SFR	DATA	80-FF
Idata	IDATA	IDATA	0-FF
Bdata	BDATA	DATA	20-2F
Bit	BIT	BIT	0-FF
Pdata	PDATA	XDATA	0-FF
lxdata	IXDATA	XDATA	0-FFFF
Xdata	XDATA	XDATA	0-FFFF
Far	FAR	XDATA	0-FFFFFF
Far22	FAR22	XDATA	0-3FFFFF
Huge	HUGE	XDATA	0-FFFFFF
Code	CODE	CODE	0-FFFF
Far code	FAR_CODE	CODE	0-FFFFFF
Far22 code	FAR22_CODE	CODE	0-3FFFFF
Huge code	HUGE_CODE	CODE	0-FFFFFF
Xdata ROM	XDATA_ROM	CONST	0-FFFF
Far ROM	FAR_ROM	CONST	0-FFFFFF
Far22 ROM	FAR22_ROM	CONST	0-3FFFFF

Table 14: Memory types with corresponding memory groups

Memory type	Segment group	Segment memory type	Address range
Huge ROM	HUGE_ROM	CONST	0-FFFFFF

Table 14: Memory types with corresponding memory groups (Continued)

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 information about segment memory types, see *Segment memory type*, page 94.

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	Segment group	
Zero-initialized non-located data	BDATA/DATA/IDATA/XDATA/IXDATA/FAR/FAR22/HUGE	Z
Non-zero initialized non-located data	BDATA/DATA/IDATA/XDATA/IXDATA/FAR/FAR22/HUGE	I
Initializers for the above	BDATA/DATA/IDATA/XDATA/IXDATA/FAR/FAR22/HUGE	ID
Initialized located constants	CODE/XDATA_ROM/FAR_CODE/FAR22_CODE/ FAR_ROM/FAR22_ROM/HUGE_CODE/HUGE_ROM	AC
Initialized non-located constants	CODE/XDATA_ROM/FAR_CODE/FAR22_CODE/ FAR_ROM/FAR22_ROM/HUGE_CODE/HUGE_ROM	С
Non-initialized located data	SFR/CODE/FAR_CODE/FAR22_CODE/HUGE_CODE/ BDATA/DATA/IDATA/XDATA/IXDATA/FAR/FAR22 /HUGE	AN
Non-initialized non-located data	BIT/CODE/FAR_CODE/FAR22_CODE/HUGE_CODE/ BDATA/DATA/IDATA/XDATA/IXDATA/FAR/FAR22 /HUGE	N

Table 15: Segment name suffixes

For information about all supported segments, see Summary of segments, page 353.

Examples

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

```
__xdata int j; The xdata variables that are to be initialized to zero when the system starts are placed in the segment XDATA_Z.
```

no_initxdata int j;	The xdata non-initialized variables are placed in the segment ${\tt XDATA_N}$.
xdata int j = 4;	The xdata non-zero initialized variables are placed in the segment ${\tt XDATA_I}$ in RAM, and the corresponding initializer data in the segment ${\tt XDATA_ID}$ in ROM.
xdata_rom const int i = 5;	The xdata_rom initialized constant will be placed in the segment ${\tt XDATA_ROM_C}$.
code const int i = 6;	The initialized constant located in code memory space will be placed in the CODE_C segment.

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:

XDATA_I	0x1000-0x10F2 and 0x1100-0x11E7
XDATA_ID	0x4000-0x41DA

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:

XDATA_I	0x1000-0x10F2 and $0x1100-0x11E7$
XDATA_ID	0x4000-0x40F2 and 0x4100-0x41E7

The ID segment can, for all segment groups, be placed anywhere in the code memory space, because it is not accessed using the corresponding access method. It is only used for initializing the corresponding I segment.

Note that the gap between the ranges will also be copied.

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

Data segments for static memory in the default linker configuration file

The IDATA segments must be placed in the theoretical memory range 0x1-0xFF. In the example below, these segments are placed in the available RAM area 0x30-0x7F. The segment IDATA ID can be placed anywhere in ROM.

The segments in the XDATA segment type must be placed in the theoretical memory range 0x1-0xFFFFFF. In the example below, they are placed in the available RAM area, 0x1-0x7FFF. The segment XDATA_ID can be placed anywhere in ROM.

The default linker configuration file contains the following directives to place the static data segments:

```
//The segments to be placed in ROM are defined:
-Z(CODE)IDATA_ID,XDATA_ID=0-FFFF

//The RAM data segments are placed in memory:
-Z(IDATA)IDATA_I,IDATA_Z,IDATA_N=30-FF
-Z(XDATA)XDATA I,XDATA Z,XDATA N=1-FFFF
```

Note: Segments that contain data that can be pointed to cannot be placed on address 0, because a pointer cannot point at address 0 as that would be a NULL pointer.

THE STACKS

You can configure the compiler to use three different stacks; one of two hardware stacks (supported internally by the processor and used by, for example, the PUSH, POP, CALL, and RET instructions) and two emulated stacks.

Only one hardware stack at a time is supported by the microcontroller. For standard 8051 devices this is the idata stack, located in idata memory. On extended 8051 devices there is an option to instead use an extended hardware stack located in xdata memory. The emulated xdata and pdata stacks have no support in the hardware; they are instead supported by the compiler software.

The stacks are used by functions to store variables and other information that is used locally by functions, see the chapter *Data storage*. They are continuous blocks of memory pointed to by a stack pointer.

The data segment used for holding the stack is one of ISTACK, PSTACK, XSTACK, or EXT_STACK. The system startup code initializes the stack pointer to the beginning or the end of the stack segment, depending on the stack type.

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 boxes.



Stack size allocation from the command line

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

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

-D_stackname_SIZE=size

where stackname can be one of IDATA_STACK, XDATA_STACK, PDATA_STACK, or EXTENDED_STACK.

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 $0 \times$ notation.





Placement of stack segment

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

-Z(IDATA)ISTACK+_IDATA_STACK_SIZE=start-end -Z(XDATA)XSTACK+_XDATA_STACK_SIZE=start-end

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

Idata stack

The idata stack is pointed to by the hardware register SP. The stack grows towards higher addresses and cstartup initializes SP to the beginning of the idata stack segment.

Note: The idata stack and the extended stack cannot exist at the same time.

Example

-Z(IDATA)ISTACK+_IDATA_STACK_SIZE=start-end

Extended stack

On some devices, you can use the option --extended_stack to select the extended stack in xdata memory instead of the idata stack. The extended stack is pointed to by the register pair ?ESP:SP. The ?ESP register is defined in the linker command file. The stack grows towards higher addresses and cstartup initializes the register pair ?ESP:SP to the beginning of the extended stack segment.

Note: The extended stack cannot exist at the same time as an idata stack or xdata stack. It is possible, however, to use both an extended stack and a pdata stack.

Example

-Z(XDATA)EXT_STACK+_EXTENDED_STACK_SIZE=start-end

Pdata stack

The pdata stack is pointed to by an 8-bit emulated stack pointer, PSP, and the stack grows towards lower addresses. The pdata stack must be located in the pdata range of xdata memory. The cstartup module initializes PSP to the end of the stack segment.

Note: The pdata stack can exist in parallel with all other types of stacks.

Example

```
-Z(XDATA)PSTACK+_PDATA_STACK_SIZE=start-end
```

The pdata stack pointer is a segment in itself and must be located in data memory.

Examble

-Z (DATA) PSP=08-7F

Xdata stack

The xdata stack is pointed to by a 16-bit emulated stack pointer, XSP, and the stack grows towards lower addresses. The xdata stack must be located in xdata memory. The cstartup module initializes XSP to the end of the stack segment.

Note: The xdata stack and the extended stack cannot both exist at the same time.

Example

```
-Z(XDATA)XSTACK+_XDATA_STACK_SIZE=start-end
```

The xdata stack pointer is a segment in itself and must be located in data memory.

Example

-Z (DATA) XSP=08-7F

Summary

This table summarizes the different stacks:

Stack	Maximum size	Calling convention	Description
Idata	256 bytes	Idata reentrant	Hardware stack. Grows towards higher memory.
Pdata	256 bytes	Pdata reentrant	Emulated stack. Grows towards lower memory.
Xdata	64 Kbytes	Xdata reentrant	Emulated stack. Grows towards lower memory.
Extended	64 Kbytes	Extended stack reentrant	Hardware stack. Grows towards higher memory. Only for devices that have a stack in the external data memory space.

Table 16: Summary of stacks

The stacks are used in different ways. The idata stack is always used for register spill (or the extended stack if you are using the --extended_stack option). It is also used for parameters, local variables, and the return address when you use the idata or extended stack reentrant calling convention. Devices that support xdata memory can store function parameters, local variables and the return address on the pdata or xdata stack by using the pdata reentrant or xdata reentrant calling convention.



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.

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:

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

Note: Only 8051 devices with external data memory can have a heap.

Heap segments

To access a heap in a specific memory, use the appropriate memory attribute as a prefix to the standard functions malloc, free, calloc, and realloc, for example:

```
__xdata_malloc
```

If you use any of the standard functions without a prefix, the function will be mapped to the default memory type.

Each heap will reside in a segment with the name _HEAP prefixed by a memory attribute, for example XDATA HEAP.

For information about available DLIB heaps, see *Heaps*, page 141.

For information about available CLIB heaps, see *Heaps*, page 159.



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 configuration file.

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

- -D_XDATA_HEAP_SIZE=size
- -D_FAR_HEAP_SIZE=size
- -D_FAR22_HEAP_SIZE=size
- -D_HUGE_HEAP_SIZE=size

Normally, these lines are prefixed with the comment character // because the IDE controls the heap size allocation. To make the directive take effect, remove the comment character.

Specify the appropriate size for your application.





Placement of heap segment

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

```
-Z(XDATA)XDATA_HEAP+_XDATA_HEAP_SIZE=8000-8FFF
```

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



Heap size and standard I/O

If you have excluded FILE descriptors from the DLIB runtime environment, as in the Normal configuration, there are no input and output buffers at all. Otherwise, as in the Full configuration, be aware that the size of the input and output buffers is set to 512 bytes in the stdio library header file. If the heap is too small, I/O will not be buffered, which is considerably slower than when I/O is buffered. If you execute the application using the C-SPY simulator driver, you are not likely to notice the speed penalty, but it is quite noticeable when the application runs on an 8051 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.

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 a segment suffixed either _AC or _AN. The former is used for constant-initialized data, and the latter for items declared as __no_init. The individual segment part of the segment knows its location in the memory space, and it does not have to be specified in the linker configuration file.

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 configuration 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 information about all segments, see *Summary of segments*, page 353.

Note: The symbols used in the following examples for describing memory locations are defined in the linker configuration files.

STARTUP CODE

The segment CSTART contains code used during system setup (cstartup), runtime initialization (cmain), and system termination (cexit). The system setup code should be placed at the location where the chip starts executing code after a reset. For the 8051 microcontroller, this is at the address 0x0, the start of the interrupt vector. Located at address zero there is a jump instruction that jumps to the initializing code in CSTART. In addition, the segments must be placed into one continuous memory space, which means the -P segment directive cannot be used.

In the default linker command file, the following line will place the CSTART segment in code memory and the INTVEC segment at the address 0×0 . The INTVEC segment starts with a jump instruction to the CSTART segment:

```
-Z (CODE) INTVEC=0
-Z (CODE) CSTART=_CODE_START-_CODE_END
```

NORMAL CODE

Functions declared without a memory type attribute are placed in different segments, depending on which code model you are using. The segments are: NEAR_CODE, BANKED_CODE, and FAR_CODE.

Near code

Near code—that is, all user-written code when you use the near code model, or functions explicitly typed with the memory attribute __near_func—is placed in the NEAR_CODE segment.

In the linker command file it can look like this:

```
-Z (CODE) NEAR_CODE=_CODE_START-_CODE_END
```

Banked code

When you use the banked code model, all user-written code is located in the BANKED_CODE segment. Here, the -P linker directive is used for allowing XLINK to split up the segments and pack their contents more efficiently. This is useful here, because the memory range is non-consecutive.

In the linker command file it can look like this:

```
-P(CODE)BANKED_CODE=[_CODEBANK_START-_CODEBANK_END]*4+10000
```

Here four code banks are declared. If for example _CODEBANK_START is 4000 and _CODEBANK_END is 7FFF, the following banks are created: 0x4000-0x7FFF, 0x14000-0x17FFF, 0x24000-0x27FFF, 0x34000-0x37FFF.

Far code

Far code—that is, all user-written code when you use the far code model, or functions explicitly typed with the memory attribute __far_func—is placed in the FAR_CODE segment.

In the linker configuration file it can look like this:

```
-Z(CODE)FAR_CODE=_CODE_START-_CODE_END
-P(CODE)FAR_CODE=[ FAR_CODE_START-_FAR_CODE_END]/10000
```

INTERRUPT VECTORS

The interrupt vector table contains pointers to interrupt routines, including the reset routine. The table is placed in the segment INTVEC. For the 8051 microcontroller, you must place this segment at the address 0×0 . The linker directive would then look like this:

-Z (CODE) INTVEC=0

C++ dynamic initialization

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

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

For example:

-Z(CODE)DIFUNCT=0000-1FFF

For additional information, see DIFUNCT, page 365.

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 configuration file, XLINK will issue a *segment too long* error.

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

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

LINKER MAP FILE

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

- A segment map which lists all segments in 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 more information about the listing options and the linker listing, see the *IAR Linker* and *Library Tools Reference Guide*, and the *IDE Project Management and Building Guide*.

MANAGING MULTIPLE ADDRESS SPACES

Output formats that do not support more than one memory space—like Motorola S-records and Intel hex—may require up to one output file per memory space. This causes no problems if you are only producing output to one memory space (flash memory), but if you also are placing objects in EEPROM or an external ROM in DATA space, the output format cannot represent this, and the linker issues the following error message:

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

To limit the output to flash, make a copy of the linker configuration file for the device you are using, and put it in the project directory. Add the following line at the end of the file:

-y(CODE)

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

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

```
-Omotorola, (XDATA) = external_rom.a51
-Omotorola, (CODE) = eeprom.a51
```

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

Verifying the linked result of code and data placement

The DLIB runtime environment

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

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

Introduction to the runtime environment

The runtime environment is the environment in which your application executes. The runtime environment depends on the target hardware, the software environment, and the application code.

RUNTIME ENVIRONMENT FUNCTIONALITY

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

The runtime library is delivered both as prebuilt libraries and (depending on your product package) as source files, and you can find them in the product subdirectories 8051\lib\dlib and 8051\src\lib\dlib, respectively.

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

- Support for hardware features:
 - Direct access to low-level processor operations by means of *intrinsic* functions, such as functions for interrupt mask handling
 - Peripheral unit registers and interrupt definitions in include files
- Runtime environment support, that is, startup and exit code and low-level interface to some library functions.
- A floating-point environment (fenv) that contains floating-point arithmetics support, see fenv.h, page 345.

 Special compiler support, for instance functions for switch handling or integer arithmetics.

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

SETTING UP THE RUNTIME ENVIRONMENT

The IAR DLIB runtime environment can be used as is together with the debugger. However, to run the application on hardware, you must adapt the runtime environment. Also, to configure the most code-efficient runtime environment, you must determine your application and hardware requirements. The more functionality you need, the larger your code will become.

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

- Choose which library to use—the DLIB or the CLIB library
 Use the compiler option --clib or --dlib, respectively. For more information about the libraries, see *Library overview*, page 339.
- Choose which runtime library object file to use
 The IDE will automatically choose a runtime library based on your project settings.
 If you build from the command line, you must specify the object file explicitly. See Using a prebuilt library, page 116.
- Choose which predefined runtime library configuration to use—Normal or Full (however, the Full configuration is not available for IAR Embedded Workbench® for 8051)
 - You can configure the level of support for certain library functionality, for example, locale, file descriptors, and multibyte characters. If you do not specify anything, a default library configuration file that matches the library object file is automatically used. To specify a library configuration explicitly, use the --dlib_config compiler option. See *Library configurations*, page 131.
- Optimize the size of the runtime library
 - You can specify the formatters used by the functions printf, scanf, and their variants, see *Choosing formatters for printf and scanf*, page 118. You can also specify the size and placement of the stacks and the heaps, see *The stacks*, page 102, and *The heap*, page 105, respectively.
- Choose whether non-static auto variables should be placed on the stack or in a static overlay area.
 - The stack is dynamically allocated at runtime, whereas the static overlay area is statically allocated at link time. See *Auto variables—stack and static overlay*, page 61.

• Include debug support for runtime and I/O debugging

The library offers support for mechanisms like redirecting standard input and output to the C-SPY Terminal I/O window and accessing files on the host computer, see *Application debug support*, page 120

• Adapt the library for target hardware

The library uses a set of low-level functions for handling accesses to your target system. To make these accesses work, you must implement your own version of these functions. For example, to make printf write to an LCD display on your board, you must implement a target-adapted version of the low-level function __write, so that it can write characters to the display. To customize such functions, you need a good understanding of the library low-level interface, see *Adapting the library for target hardware*, page 123.

Override library modules

If you have customized the library functionality, you need to make sure your versions of the library modules are used instead of the default modules. This can be done without rebuilding the entire library, see *Overriding library modules*, page 124.

• Customize system initialization

It is likely that you need to customize the source code for system initialization, for example, your application might need to initialize memory-mapped special function registers, or omit the default initialization of data segments. You do this by customizing the routine <code>__low_level_init</code>, which is executed before the data segments are initialized. See *System startup and termination*, page 126 and *Customizing system initialization*, page 130.

• Configure your own library configuration files

In addition to the prebuilt library configurations, you can make your own library configuration, but that requires that you *rebuild* the library. This gives you full control of the runtime environment. See *Building and using a customized library*, page 125.

Manage a multithreaded environment

In a multithreaded environment, you must adapt the runtime library to treat all library objects according to whether they are global or local to a thread. See *Managing a multithreaded environment*, page 141.

Check module consistency

You can use runtime model attributes to ensure that modules are built using compatible settings, see *Checking module consistency*, page 146.

Using a prebuilt library

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

- DLIB runtime environment
- Core variant
- Stack location
- Code model
- Data model
- Calling convention
- Constant location
- Number of data pointers
- Data pointer visibility
- Data pointer size
- Data pointer selection method.

Note: A DLIB library cannot be built for the Tiny or Small data model.

CHOOSING A LIBRARY



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



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

- Specify which library object file to use on the XLINK command line, for instance: dl-pli-nlxd-1e16x01.r51
- If you do not specify a library configuration, the default will be used. However, you
 can specify the library configuration explicitly for the compiler:

```
--dlib_config C:\...\dl8051Normal.h
```

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

You can find the library object files and the library configuration files in the subdirectory 8051\lib\dlib.

Library filename syntax

The names of the libraries are constructed in this way:

```
 \{lib\} - \{core\} \{stack\} - \{code\_mod\} \{data\_mod\} \{cc\} \{const\_loc\} - \{\#dptrs\} \{dptr\_vis\} \{dptr\_size\} \{dptr\_select\} .r51
```

where

oter
)

Library functions.

{core} is p1 for the classic 8051 devices, e1 for the extended1 devices, or

e2 for the extended2 devices. See Basic project configuration, page

32.

{ stack} is where the machine stack is located; i for an idata stack and e for

an extended stack.

{ code_mod} is n, b, 2, or f for the Near, Banked, Banked_extended2, or Far code

model, respectively. See Code models for function storage, page 73.

{data_mod} is s, 1, g, j, or f for the Small, Large, Generic, Far Generic, or Far

data model, respectively. See *Data models*, page 48.

{cc} is d, o, i, p, x, or e, representing one of the available calling

conventions: data overlay (d), idata overlay (o), idata reentrant (i), pdata reentrant (p), xdata reentrant (x), or extended stack reentrant

(e). See Choosing a calling convention, page 62.

{const_loc} is the location for constants and strings: d or c for data or code,

respectively. See Constants and strings, page 60.

{#dptrs} is a number from 1 to 8 that represents the number of data pointers

used. See *Using the DPTR register*, page 43.

{ dptr_vis} is the DPTR visibility: h (shadowed) or e (separate)

{dptr_size} is the size of the data pointer in use; either 16 or 24.

{dptr_select} is the DPTR selection method and the selection mask if the XOR

selection method is used. In that case the value is \times followed by the mask in hexadecimal representation, for example 01 for 0×01 , resulting in the selection field $\times01$. If the INC selection method is used, the value of the field is inc. See *Using the DPTR register*,

page 43.

CUSTOMIZING A PREBUILT LIBRARY WITHOUT REBUILDING

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

These items can be customized:

Items that can be customized	Described in
Formatters for printf and scanf	Choosing formatters for printf and scanf, page 118
Startup and termination code	System startup and termination, page 126
Low-level input and output	Standard streams for input and output, page 132
File input and output	File input and output, page 135
Low-level environment functions	Environment interaction, page 138
Low-level signal functions	Signal and raise, page 139
Low-level time functions	Time, page 140
Size of heaps, stacks, and segments	Placing code and data, page 93

Table 17: Customizable items

For information about how to override library modules, see *Overriding library modules*, page 124.

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, you can optimize these functions even further, see *Configuration symbols for printf and scanf*, page 134.

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	Tiny	Small	Large	Full
Basic specifiers c, d, i, o, p, s, u, X, x, and $%$	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Table 18: Formatters for printf

Formatting capabilities	Tiny	Small	Large	Full
Multibyte support	No	†	†	†
Floating-point specifiers a, and A	No	No	No	Yes
Floating-point specifiers e, E, f, F, g, and ${\tt G}$	No	No	Yes	Yes
Conversion specifier n	No	No	Yes	Yes
Format flag space, +, -, #, and 0	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Length modifiers h, 1, L, s, t, and $\rm Z$	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Field width and precision, including *	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
long long support	No	No	Yes	Yes

Table 18: Formatters for printf (Continued)

For information about how to fine-tune the formatting capabilities even further, see *Configuration symbols for printf and scanf*, page 134.



Specifying the print formatter in the IDE

To use any other formatter than the default (Large), 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 full formatter _Printf, add one of these lines in the linker configuration file you are using:

```
-e_PrintfTiny=_Printf
-e_PrintfSmall=_Printf
-e_PrintfLarge=_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	Small	Large	Full
Basic specifiers c, d, i, o, p, s, u, X, x, and %	Yes	Yes	Yes
Multibyte support	†	†	†

Table 19: Formatters for scanf

[†] Depends on the library configuration that is used.

Formatting capabilities	Small	Large	Full
Floating-point specifiers a, and A	No	No	Yes
Floating-point specifiers e, E, f, F, g, and ${\tt G}$	No	No	Yes
Conversion specifier n	No	No	Yes
Scan set [and]	No	Yes	Yes
Assignment suppressing *	No	Yes	Yes
long long support	No	No	Yes

Table 19: Formatters for scanf (Continued)

For information about how to fine-tune the formatting capabilities even further, see *Configuration symbols for printf and scanf*, page 134.



Specifying scanf formatter in the IDE

To use any other formatter than the default (Large), 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 full formatter _Scanf, add one of these lines in the linker configuration file you are using:

- -e_ScanfSmall=_Scanf
- -e_ScanfLarge=_Scanf

Application debug support

In addition to the tools that generate debug information, there is a debug version of the DLIB low-level interface (typically, I/O handling and basic runtime support). If your application uses this interface, you can either use the debug version of the interface or you must implement the functionality of the parts that your application uses.

INCLUDING C-SPY DEBUGGING SUPPORT

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

[†] Depends on the library configuration that is used.

This table describes the different levels of debugging support:

Debugging support	Linker option in the 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 20: Levels of debugging support in runtime libraries

^{*} If you build your application project with this level of debug support, certain functions in the library are replaced by functions that communicate with the IAR C-SPY Debugger. For more information, see The debug library functionality, page 121.



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



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

THE DEBUG LIBRARY FUNCTIONALITY

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

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

The mechanism used for implementing this feature works as follows:

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

THE C-SPY TERMINAL I/O WINDOW

To make the Terminal I/O window available, the application must be linked with support for I/O debugging. This means that when the functions __read or __write are called to perform I/O operations on the streams stdin, stdout, or stderr, data will be sent to or read from the C-SPY Terminal I/O window.

Note: The Terminal I/O window is not opened automatically just because __read or __write is called; you must open it manually.

For more information about the Terminal I/O window, see the *C-SPY® Debugging Guide for 8051*.

Speeding up terminal output

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

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

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

```
-e__write_buffered=__write
```

LOW-LEVEL FUNCTIONS IN THE DEBUG LIBRARY

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

Function in DLIB low-level interface	Response by C-SPY
abort	Notifies that the application has called abort *
clock	Returns the clock on the host computer
close	Closes the associated host file on the host computer

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

Function in DLIB low-level interface	Response by C-SPY
exit	Notifies that the end of the application was reached *
open	Opens a file on the host computer
read	Directs stdin, stdout, and stderr to the Terminal I/O window. All other files will read the associated host file
remove	Writes a message to the Debug Log window and returns -1
rename	Writes a message to the Debug Log window and returns -1
_ReportAssert	Handles failed asserts *
lseek	Searches in the associated host file on the host computer
system	Writes a message to the Debug Log window and returns -1
time	Returns the time on the host computer
write	Directs stdin, stdout, and stderr to the Terminal I/O window. All other files will write to the associated host file

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

Note: You should not use these low-level functions in your application. Instead you should use the high-level functions that use these functions to perform their actions. For more information, see *Library low-level interface*, page 123.

Adapting the library for target hardware

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

When you have implemented your low-level interface, you must add your version of these functions to your project. For information about this, see *Overriding library modules*, page 124.

LIBRARY LOW-LEVEL INTERFACE

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

However, the library contains a debug version of the library low-level interface, where the low-level functions are implemented so that they interact with the host computer via

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

the debugger, instead of with the target hardware. If you use the debug library, your application can perform tasks like writing to the Terminal I/O window, accessing files on the host computer, getting the time from the host computer, etc. For more information, see *The debug library functionality*, page 121.

Note that your application should not use the low-level functions directly. Instead you should use the corresponding standard library function. For example, to write to stdout, you should use standard library functions like printf or puts, instead of __write.

The library files that you can override with your own versions are located in the 8051\src\lib directory.

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

- Standard streams for input and output, page 132
- File input and output, page 135
- Signal and raise, page 139
- Time, page 140
- Assert, page 141.

Overriding library modules

To use a library low-level interface that you have implemented, add it to your application. See *Adapting the library for target hardware*, page 123. Or, you might want to override a default library routine with your customized version. In both cases, follow this procedure:

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

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

The library files that you can override with your own versions are located in the 8051\src\lib directory.

Building and using a customized library

Building a customized library is a complex process. Therefore, consider carefully whether it is really necessary. You must build your own library when:

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

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.

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

SETTING UP A LIBRARY PROJECT

The IDE provides a library project template which can be used for customizing the runtime environment configuration. This library template uses the Normal library configuration, see Table 22, *Library configurations*, page 131.



In the IDE, modify the generic options in the created library project to suit your application, see *Basic project configuration*, page 32.

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.



It is easiest to build customized runtime libraries in the IDE. It is however, also possible to build them using the compiler and linker from the command line.

MODIFYING THE LIBRARY FUNCTIONALITY

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

The library functionality is determined by a set of *configuration symbols*. The default values of these symbols are defined in the file <code>DLib_Defaults.h</code>. This read-only file describes the configuration possibilities. Your library also has its own library configuration file <code>dl8051libraryname.h</code> (where <code>libraryname</code> is either <code>Tiny</code>, <code>Normal</code>, or <code>Full</code>), which sets up that specific library with the required library configuration. For more information, see Table 17, <code>Customizable items</code>, page 118.

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 d180511ibraryname.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.s51, cmain.s51, cexit.s51, and low_level_init.c located in the 8051\src\lib\dlib\dlib directory.

For information about how to customize the system startup code, see *Customizing system initialization*, page 130.

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:

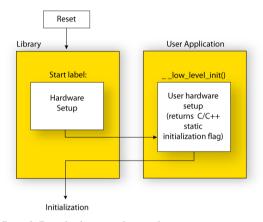


Figure 9: Target hardware initialization phase

- When the CPU is reset it will jump to the program entry label __program_start
 in the system startup code.
- The register bank switch register is initialized to the number specified by the symbol ?REGISTER BANK in the linker command file
- If the idata stack is used, the stack pointer, SP, is initialized to the beginning of the ISTACK segment. If the extended stack is used, the extended stack pointer ?ESP: SP is initialized to the beginning of the EXT_STACK segment
- If the xdata reentrant calling convention is available, the xdata stack pointer, XSP, is initialized to the end of the XSTACK segment
- If the pdata reentrant calling convention is available, the pdata stack pointer, PSP, is initialized to the end of the PSTACK segment
- If code banking is used, the bank register is initialized to zero
- The PDATA page is initialized
- If multiple data pointers are available, the DPTR selector register is initialized and the first data pointer (dptr0) is set to be the active data pointer
- The function __low_level_init is called if you defined it, giving the application a chance to perform early initializations.

User application

Static C/C++
initialization

Dynamic C++
initialization

User code

Return from
main

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

Figure 10: C/C++ initialization phase

exit()

- 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 information, see *Initialized data*, page 101
- 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:

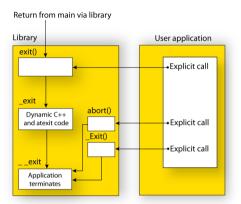


Figure 11: System termination phase

An application can terminate normally in two different ways:

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

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

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

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

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

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

C-SPY interface to system termination

If your project is linked with the XLINK options **With runtime control modules** or **With I/O emulation modules**, the normal __exit and abort functions are replaced with special ones. C-SPY will then recognize when those functions are called and can take appropriate actions to simulate program termination. For more information, see *Application debug support*, page 120.

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 cmain before the data segments are initialized. Modifying the file cstartup.s51 directly should be avoided.

The code for handling system startup is located in the source files cstartup.s51 and low_level_init.c, located in the 8051\src\lib\dlib directory.

Note: Normally, you do not need to customize either of the files cmain.s51 or cexit.s51.



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 125.

Note: Regardless of whether you modify the routine __low_level_init or the file cstartup.s51, you do not have to rebuild the library.

LOW LEVEL INIT

A skeleton low-level initialization file—low_level_init.c—is supplied with the product as part of the prebuilt runtime environment. The only limitation using this file is that static initialized variables cannot be used within the file, as variable initialization has not been performed 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.S51

As noted earlier, you should not modify the file cstartup.s51 if a customized version of __low_level_init is enough for your needs. However, if you do need to modify the file cstartup.s51, 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 124.

Note that you must make sure that the linker uses the start label used in your version of cstartup.s51. For information about how to change the start label used by the linker, read about the -s option in the *IAR Linker and Library Tools Reference Guide*.

Library configurations

It is possible to configure the level of support for, for example, locale, file descriptors, multibyte characters.

The runtime library configuration is defined in the *library configuration file*. It contains information about what functionality is part of the runtime environment. The configuration file is used for tailoring a build of a runtime library, and tailoring the system header files used when compiling your application. The less functionality you need in the runtime environment, the smaller it becomes.

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

These predefined library configurations are available:

Library configuration	Description
Normal DLIB (default)	No locale interface, C locale, no file descriptor support, no multibyte
	characters in ${\tt printf}$ and ${\tt scanf},$ and no hexadecimal floating-point numbers in ${\tt strtod}.$
Customized DLIB	User-defined library settings

Table 22: Library configurations

CHOOSING A RUNTIME CONFIGURATION

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

- Default prebuilt configuration—if you do not specify a library configuration explicitly you will get the default configuration. A configuration file that matches the runtime library object file will automatically be used.
- Prebuilt configuration of your choice—to specify a runtime configuration explicitly, use the --dlib_config compiler option. See --dlib config, page 253.

Your own configuration—you can define your own configurations, which means
that you must modify the configuration file. Note that the library configuration file
describes how a library was built and thus cannot be changed unless you rebuild the
library. For more information, see *Building and using a customized library*, page
125.

The prebuilt libraries are based on the default configurations, see Table 22, *Library configurations*.

Standard streams for input and output

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

There are 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 8051\src\lib\dlib 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 125. Note that customizing the low-level routines for input and output does not require you to rebuild the library.

Note: If you write your own variants of __read or __write, special considerations for the C-SPY runtime interface are needed, see *Application debug support*, page 120.

Example of using __write

The code in this example uses memory-mapped I/O to write to an LCD display, whose port is assumed to be located at address 0x99:

```
{
    size_t nChars = 0;

    /* Check for the command to flush all handles */
    if (handle == -1)
    {
        return 0;
    }

    /* Check for stdout and stderr
        (only necessary if FILE descriptors are enabled.) */
    if (handle != 1 && handle != 2)
    {
        return -1;
    }

    for (/* Empty */; bufSize > 0; --bufSize)
    {
        lcdIO = *buf;
        ++buf;
        ++nChars;
    }

    return nChars;
}
```

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

Example of using __read

The code in this example uses memory-mapped I/O to read from a keyboard, whose port is assumed to be located at 0x99:

```
{
    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 216.*

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 118.

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 z

Table 23: Descriptions of printf configuration symbols

Printf configuration symbols	Includes support for
_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 23: Descriptions of printf configuration symbols (Continued)

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

Scanf configuration symbols	Includes support for
_DLIB_SCANF_MULTIBYTE	Multibyte characters
_DLIB_SCANF_LONG_LONG	Long long (11 qualifier)
_DLIB_SCANF_SPECIFIER_FLOAT	Floating-point numbers
_DLIB_SCANF_SPECIFIER_N	Output count (%n)
_DLIB_SCANF_QUALIFIERS	Qualifiers h, j, 1, t, z, and ${\tt L}$
_DLIB_SCANF_SCANSET	Scanset ([*])
_DLIB_SCANF_WIDTH	Width
_DLIB_SCANF_ASSIGNMENT_SUPPRESSING	Assignment suppressing ([*])

Table 24: Descriptions of scanf configuration symbols

CUSTOMIZING FORMATTING CAPABILITIES

To customize the formatting capabilities, you must;

- I Set up a library project, see *Building and using a customized library*, page 125.
- **2** Define the configuration symbols according to your application requirements.

File input and output

The library contains a large number of powerful functions for file I/O operations, such as fopen, fclose, fprintf, fputs, etc. All these functions call a small set of low-level functions, each designed to accomplish one particular task; for example, __open opens a file, and __write outputs characters. Before your application can use the library functions for file I/O operations, you must implement the corresponding low-level function to suit your target hardware. For more information, see *Adapting the library for target hardware*, page 123.

Note that file I/O capability in the library is only supported by libraries with the full library configuration, see *Library configurations*, page 131. In other words, file I/O is

supported when the configuration symbol __DLIB_FILE_DESCRIPTOR is enabled. If not enabled, functions taking a FILE * argument cannot be used.

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

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

Table 25: Low-level I/O files

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

Note: If you link your application with I/O debug support, C-SPY variants of the low-level I/O functions are linked for interaction with C-SPY. For more information, see *Application debug support*, page 120.

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
- 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 125.

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

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 8051\src\lib\dlib\dlib\driectory. For information about overriding default library modules, see *Overriding library modules*, page 124.

THE SYSTEM FUNCTION

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

If you decide to rebuild the library, you can find source templates in the library project template. For more information, see *Building and using a customized library*, page 125.

Note: If you link your application with support for I/O debugging, the functions getenv and system are replaced by C-SPY variants. For more information, see *Application debug support*, page 120.

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 8051\src\lib\dlib dlib directory. For information about overriding default library modules, see *Overriding library modules*, page 124.

If you decide to rebuild the library, you can find source templates in the library project template. For more information, see *Building and using a customized library*, page 125.

Time

To make the __time32 and date functions work, you must implement the functions clock, __time32, and __getzone.

To implement these functions does not require that you rebuild the library. You can find source templates in the files clock.c, time.c, and getzone.c in the 8051\src\lib\dlib\dlib directory. For information about overriding default library modules, see *Overriding library modules*, page 124.

If you decide to rebuild the library, you can find source templates in the library project template. For more information, see *Building and using a customized library*, page 125.

The default implementation of __getzone specifies UTC (Coordinated Universal Time) as the time zone.

Note: If you link your application with support for I/O debugging, the functions clock and time are replaced by C-SPY variants that return the host clock and time respectively. For more information, see *Application debug support*, page 120.

Strtod

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

- Enable the configuration symbol _DLIB_STRTOD_HEX_FLOAT in the library configuration file.
- **2** Rebuild the library, see *Building and using a customized library*, page 125.

Pow

The DLIB runtime library contains an alternative power function with extended precision, powXp. The lower-precision pow function is used by default. To use the powXp function instead, link your application with the linker option -epowXp=pow.

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 8051\src\lib\dlib\dlib\dlib\directory. For more information, see *Building and using a customized library*, page 125. To turn off assertions, you must define the symbol NDEBUG.



In the IDE, this symbol NDEBUG is by default defined in a Release project and *not* defined in a Debug project. If you build from the command line, you must explicitly define the symbol according to your needs. See *NDEBUG*, page 337.

Heaps

The runtime environment supports heaps in these memory types:

Memory type	Segment name	Extended keyword	Used by default in data model
Xdata	XDATA_HEAP	xdata	Large
Far22	FAR22_HEAP	far22	Far Generic
Far	FAR_HEAP	far	Far
Huge	HUGE_HEAP	huge	

Table 26: Heaps and memory types

See *The heap*, page 105 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 __xdata_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*, page 203.

Managing a multithreaded environment

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

There are three possible scenarios, and you need to consider which one that applies to you:

- If you are using an RTOS that supports the multithreading provided by the DLIB library, the RTOS and the DLIB library will handle multithreading which means you do not need to adapt the DLIB library.
- If you are using an RTOS that does not support or only partly supports the
 multithreading provided by the DLIB library, you probably need to adapt both the
 RTOS and the DLIB library.
- If you are not using an RTOS, you must adapt the DLIB library to get support for multithreading.

MULTITHREAD SUPPORT IN THE DLIB LIBRARY

The DLIB library uses two kinds of locks—system locks and file stream locks. The file stream locks are used as guards when the state of a file stream is updated, and are only needed in the Full library configuration. The following library objects are guarded with system locks:

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

These library objects use TLS:

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

Table 27: Library objects using TLS

ENABLING MULTITHREAD SUPPORT

To enable multithread support in the library, you must:

- Implement code for the library's system locks interface
- If file streams are used, implement code for the library's file stream locks interface or redirect the interface to the system locks interface (using the linker option -e)
- Implement source code that handles thread creation, thread destruction, and TLS access methods for the library
- Modify the linker configuration file accordingly
- If any of the C++ variants are used, use the compiler option --guard_calls. Otherwise, function static variables with dynamic initializers might be initialized simultaneously by several threads.

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

System locks interface

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

The lock and unlock implementation must survive nested calls.

File streams locks interface

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

The lock and unlock implementation must survive nested calls.

DLIB lock usage

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

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

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

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

TLS handling

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

The main thread's TLS memory area:

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

Each secondary thread's TLS memory area:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Table 28: Macros for implementing TLS allocation

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

This is an example of how you can handle threads:

```
#include <yvals.h>

/* A thread's TLS pointer */
void _DLIB_TLS_MEMORY *TLSp;

/* Are we in a secondary thread? */
int InSecondaryThread = 0;

/* Allocate a thread-local TLS memory
    area and store a pointer to it in TLSp. */
void AllocateTLS()
{
    TLSp = __iar_dlib_perthread_allocate();
}

/* Deallocate the thread-local TLS memory area. */
void DeallocateTLS()
{
    __iar_dlib_perthread_deallocate(TLSp);
}
```

```
/* Access an object in the
   thread-local TLS memory area. */
void _DLIB_TLS_MEMORY *__iar_dlib_perthread_access(
   void _DLIB_TLS_MEMORY *symbp)
{
   char _DLIB_TLS_MEMORY *p = 0;
   if (InSecondaryThread)
      p = (char _DLIB_TLS_MEMORY *) TLSp;
   else
      p = (char _DLIB_TLS_MEMORY *)
      __segment_begin("__DLIB_PERTHREAD");

   p += __IAR_DLIB_PERTHREAD_SYMBOL_OFFSET(symbp);
   return (void _DLIB_TLS_MEMORY *) p;
}
```

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

CHANGES IN THE LINKER CONFIGURATION FILE

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

```
-Q__DLIB_PERTHREAD=__DLIB_PERTHREAD_init
```

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

Finally, the startup code must copy __DLIB_PERTHREAD_init to DLIB PERTHREAD.

Checking module consistency

This section introduces the concept of runtime model attributes, a mechanism used by the IAR compiler, assembler, 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, it is possible to write a module that only supports separate registers. If you write a routine that supports separate DPTR registers, you can check that the routine is not used in an application built for shadowed DPTR.

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 29: 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 324.

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

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

For syntax information, see the IAR Assembler Reference Guide for 8051.

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

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

PREDEFINED RUNTIME ATTRIBUTES

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

Runtime model attribute	Value	Description
calling_convention	data_overlay, idata_overlay, idata_reentrant, pdata_reentrant xdata_reentrant or ext_stack_reentrant	Corresponds to the calling convention used in the project.
code_model	near, banked, banked_ext2, or far	Corresponds to the code model used in the project.
core	plain, extended1, or extended2	Corresponds to the core variant option used in the project.
data_model	<pre>tiny, small, large, generic, far_generic or far</pre>	Corresponds to the data , model used in the project.
dptr_size	16 or 24	Corresponds to the size of the data pointers used in your application.
dptr_visibility	separate or shadowed	Corresponds to the data pointer visibility.
extended_stack	enabled or disabled	Corresponds to the extended stack option.
location_for_constants	code, data_rom , or data	Corresponds to the option for specifying the default location for constants.

Table 30: Runtime model attributes

Runtime model attribute	Value	Description
number_of_dptrs	a number from 1–8	Corresponds to the number of data pointers available in your application.
rt_version	n	This runtime key is always present in all modules generated by the 8051 IAR C/C++ Compiler. If a major change in the runtime characteristics occurs, the value of this key changes.

Table 30: Runtime model attributes (Continued)

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

If you are using assembler routines in the C or C++ code, see the chapter *Assembler directives* in the *IAR Assembler Reference Guide for 8051*.

Examples

For an example of using the runtime model attribute __rt_version for checking the module consistency as regards the used calling convention, see *Hints for using a calling convention*, page 168.

The following assembler source code provides a function that counts the number of times it has been called by increasing the register R4. The routine assumes that the application does not use R4 for anything else, that is, the register has been locked for usage. To ensure this, a runtime module attribute, __reg_r4, has been 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.

myCounter:	rtmodel module public rseg inc ret	"reg_r4", "counter" myCounter myCounter CODE:CODE:NOROOT(1) R4
	endmod end	

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

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

USER-DEFINED RUNTIME MODEL ATTRIBUTES

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

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

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

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 CLIB runtime environment can only be used with the C language. DLIB can be used with both the C and the C++ languages. see the chapter *The DLIB runtime environment*.

For information about migrating from CLIB to DLIB, see the 8051 IAR Embedded Workbench Migration Guide.

Using a prebuilt library

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

- Core variant
- Stack location
- Code model
- Data model
- Calling convention
- Constant location

- Number of data pointers
- Data pointer visibility
- Data pointer size
- Data pointer selection method.

The number of possible combinations is high, but not all combinations are equally likely to be useful. For this reason, only a subset of all possible runtime libraries is delivered prebuilt with the product. The larger variants of the prebuilt libraries are also provided for the DLIB library type. These are the libraries using the data models Large or Far. If you need a library which is not delivered prebuilt, you must build it yourself, see *Building and using a customized library*, page 125.

CHOOSING A LIBRARY



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



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

```
cl-pli-nsid-1e16x01.r51
```

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

Library filename syntax

The runtime library names are constructed in this way:

```
 \{lib\} - \{core\} \{stack\} - \{code\_mod\} \{data\_mod\} \{cc\} \{const\_loc\} - \{\#dptrs\} \{dptr\_vis\} \{dptr\_size\} \{dptr\_select\} .r51
```

where

{1ib}	is c1 for the IAR CLIB runtime environment. See the chapter <i>Library functions</i> .
{core}	is p1 for the classic 8051 devices, e1 for the extended1 devices, or e2 for the extended2 devices. See <i>Basic project configuration</i> , page 32.
{stack}	is where the machine stack is located; i for an idata stack and e for an extended stack. All non-Maxim (Dallas Semiconductor) 390/400 devices should use i, Maxim 390/400 devices can also use e.

{ code_mod} is n, b, 2, or f for the Near, Banked, Banked_extended2, or Far code model, respectively. See *Code models for function storage*, page 73.

{data_mod}	is s , 1, g , j , or f for the Small, Large, Generic, Far Generic, or Far data model, respectively. See <i>Data models</i> , page 48.
{cc}	is d, o, i, p, x, or e, representing one of the available calling conventions: data overlay (d), idata overlay (o), idata reentrant (i), pdata reentrant (p), xdata reentrant (x), or extended stack reentrant (e). See <i>Choosing a calling convention</i> , page 62.
{const_loc}	is the location for constants and strings: d or c for data or code, respectively. See <i>Constants and strings</i> , page 60.
{#dptrs}	is a number from 1 to 8 that represents the number of data pointers used. See $\textit{Using the DPTR register}$, page 43.
{dptr_vis}	is the DPTR visibility: h (shadowed) or e (separate)
{dptr_size}	is the size of the data pointer in use; either 16 or 24.
{dptr_select}	is the DPTR selection method and the selection mask if the XOR selection method is used. In that case the value is \times followed by the mask in hexadecimal representation, for example 01 for 0 \times 01, resulting in the selection field \times 01. If the INC selection method is used, the value of the field is inc. See <i>Using the DPTR register</i> , page 43.

Input and output

You can customize:

- The functions related to character-based I/O
- The formatters used by printf/sprintf and scanf/sscanf. For information about how to choose a formatter for the 8051-specific functions printf_P and scanf_P, see 8051-specific CLIB functions, page 348.

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:

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 124.

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 configuration 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 124.

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

- 1 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 configuration 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.s51, cmain.s51, cexit.s51, and low_level_init.c located in the 8051\src\lib directory.

Note: Normally, you do not need to customize either of the files cmain.s51 or cexit.s51.

SYSTEM STARTUP

When an application is initialized, a number of steps are performed.

For the hardware initialization, it looks like this:

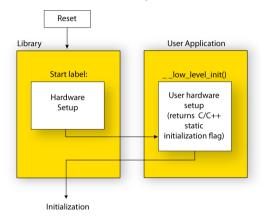


Figure 12: Target hardware initialization phase

- When the cpu is reset a jump will be performed to the program entry label __program_start in the system startup code
- If the idata stack is used, the stack pointer, SP, is initialized to the beginning of the ISTACK segment. If the extended stack is used, the extended stack pointer ?ESP: SP is initialized to the beginning of the EXT_STACK segment
- If the xdata reentrant calling convention is available, the xdata stack pointer, XSP, is
 initialized to the end of the XSTACK segment
- If the pdata reentrant calling convention is available, the pdata stack pointer, PSP, is
 initialized to the end of the PSTACK segment
- If code banking is used, the bank register is initialized to zero
- The register bank switch register is initialized to the number specified in the linker command file (?REGISTER_BANK)
- The PDATA page is initialized
- If multiple data pointers are available, the DPTR selector register is initialized and the first data pointer (dptr0) is set to be the active data pointer
- The custom function __low_level_init is called, giving the application a chance to perform early initializations

Static C/C++ initialization

Dynamic C++ initialization

Return from main

exit()

For the C initialization, it looks like this:

Figure 13: C initialization phase

- 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 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 124, in the chapter *The DLIB runtime environment*.

Customizing system initialization

For information about how to customize system initialization, see *Customizing system initialization*, page 130.

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 ?C_PUTCHAR and ?C_GETCHAR 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 *IDE Project Management and Building Guide*.

TERMINATION

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

Heaps

The runtime environment supports heaps in these memory types:

Memory type	Segment name	Extended keyword	Used by default in data model
Xdata	XDATA_HEAP	xdata	Large
Far22	FAR22_HEAP	far22	Far Generic
Far	FAR_HEAP	far	Far

Table 31: CLIB heaps and memory types

See *The heap*, page 105 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.

Checking module consistency

For information about how to check module consistency, see *Checking module consistency*, page 146.

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 8051 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 functions are called in the different code models, which memory access methods that correspond to the supported memory types, and how you can implement support for call frame information in your assembler routines for use in the C-SPY® Call Stack window.

Mixing C and assembler

The IAR C/C++ Compiler for 8051 provides several ways to access low-level resources:

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

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

INTRINSIC FUNCTIONS

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

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

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

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

MIXING C AND ASSEMBLER MODULES

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

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

This causes some overhead in the form of a function call and return instruction sequences, and the compiler will regard some registers as scratch registers. However, the compiler will also assume that all scratch registers are destroyed 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 question is discussed in the section *Calling assembler routines from C*, page 164. The following two are covered in the section *Calling convention*, page 167.

The section on memory access methods, page 178, covers how data in memory is accessed.

The answer to the final question is that the call stack can be displayed when you run assembler code in the debugger. However, the debugger requires information about the *call frame*, which must be supplied as annotations in the assembler source file. For more information, see *Call frame information*, page 181.

The recommended method for mixing C or C++ and assembler modules is described in *Calling assembler routines from C*, page 164, and *Calling assembler routines from C*++, page 166, respectively.

INLINE ASSEMBLER

It is possible to insert assembler code directly into a C or C++ function. The asm and __asm keywords both insert 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.

```
__no_init __bit bool flag;

void foo(void)
{
   while (!flag)
   {
      asm("MOV C,0x98.0"); /* SCON.R1 */
      asm("MOV flag,C");
   }
}
```

In this example, the assignment of 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
- Auto 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:

```
icc8051 skeleton.c -1A .
```

The -lA option creates an assembler language output file including C or C++ source lines as assembler comments. The . (period) specifies that the assembler file should be named in the same way as the C or C++ module (skeleton), but with the filename extension s51. Also remember to specify the code model, data model, and calling convention you are using, a low level of optimization, and -e for enabling language extensions.

The result is the assembler source output file skeleton. s51.

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 subortion Include call frame information. On the



Compiler>List and deselect the suboption Include call frame information. On the command line, use the option -1B instead of -1A. 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 181.

Calling assembler routines from C++

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

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

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

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

In C++, data structures that only use C features are known as PODs ("plain old data structures"), and use the same memory layout as in C. However, the layout is not defined and might change between compiler versions, so 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 conventions used by the compiler. These items are examined:

- Choosing a calling convention
- Function declarations

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

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

CHOOSING A CALLING CONVENTION

The compiler supports different calling conventions that control how memory is used for parameters and locally declared variables. You can specify a default calling convention or you can explicitly declare the calling convention for each function.

The compiler supports six different calling conventions:

- Data overlay
- Idata overlay
- Idata reentrant
- Pdata reentrant
- Xdata reentrant
- Extended stack reentrant.

For information about choosing a specific calling convention and when to use a specific calling convention, see *Auto variables—stack and static overlay*, page 61.



Hints for using a calling convention

The calling convention can be very complex and if you intend to use it for your assembler routines, you should create a list file and see how the compiler assigns the different parameters to the available registers. For an example, see *Creating skeleton code*, page 164.

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

```
RTMODEL "__rt_version"="value"
```

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

For more information about checking module consistency, see *Checking module consistency*, page 146.

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 8051 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 scratch registers for all calling conventions: A, B, R0-R5, and the carry flag.

In addition, the DPTR register (or the first DPTR register if there are more than one) is a scratch register for all calling conventions except the xdata reentrant calling convention and for banked routines. The DPTR register is also considered to be a scratch register if a function is called indirectly, that is, via a function pointer.

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 all calling conventions, all registers that are not scratch registers are preserved registers. These are R6, R7, all virtual registers (V0–Vn) used by the application, the bit register VB, and the DPTR register in the xdata reentrant calling convention and for banked functions. However, the DPTR register (or the first DPTR register if there are more than one) is not a preserved register if the function is called indirectly.

Note: If you are using multiple DPTR registers, all except the first one are *always* preserved.

Special registers

For some registers, you must consider certain prerequisites:

- In the Banked code model, the default bank-switching routine uses the SFR port P1
 as a bank switch register. For more details, see Bank switching in the Banked code
 model, page 89.
- In the Banked extended2 code model, the default bank-switching routine uses the MEX1 register and the memory extension stack. For more details, see Bank switching in the Banked extended2 code model, page 90.

FUNCTION ENTRANCE

Parameters can be passed to a function using one of the following basic methods: in registers, on the stack, or in the overlay frame. It is much more efficient to use registers than to take a detour via memory, so all calling conventions are 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 or overlay frame. The parameters are also passed on the stack or overlay frame—depending on calling convention—in these cases:

- Structure types: struct, union, and classes
- Unnamed parameters to variable length (variadic) functions; in other words, functions declared as foo (param1, ...), for example printf.

Note: Interrupt functions cannot take any parameters.

Hidden parameters

In addition to the parameters visible in a function declaration and definition and independently of the used calling convention there can be hidden parameters:

- If the function returns a structure, the memory location where to store the structure is passed as the last function parameter. The size of the hidden pointer depends on the calling convention used.
- If the function is a non-static Embedded C++ member function, then the this pointer is passed as the first parameter. The reason for the requirement that the member function must be non-static is that static member methods do not have a this pointer.

Register parameters

Independently of the used calling convention, the five registers R1-R5 are available for register parameters. Each register can contain an 8-bit value and a combination of the registers can contain larger values. Bit parameters are passed in register B, starting with B.0, B.1, etc. If more than eight bit parameters are required, up to eight more are passed in the VB register.

The parameters can be passed in the following registers and register combinations:

Parameters	Passed in registers
1-bit values	B.0, B.1, B.2, B.3, B.4, B.5, B.6, B.7, VB.0, VB.1, VB.2, VB.3, VB.4, VB.5, VB.6, or VB.7
8-bit values	R1, R2, R3, R4, or R5
16-bit values	R3:R2 or R5:R4
24-bit values	R3:R2:R1
32-bit values	R5:R4:R3:R2

Table 32: 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 first available register or registers. Should there be no suitable register available, the

parameter is passed on the stack or overlay frame—depending on used calling convention.

Stack parameters and layout

Stack parameters are stored in memory starting at the location pointed to by the stack pointer specified by the calling convention. The first stack parameter is stored directly after the location pointed to by the stack pointer. The next one is stored directly after the first one, etc.

The idata and extended stacks grow towards a higher address and the pdata and xdata stacks grow towards a lower address.

When the stack parameters have been pushed on the stack, just before the LCALL instruction is executed, the stack looks like this:

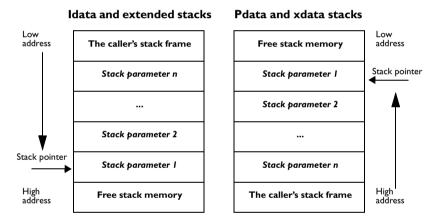


Figure 14: 8051 stacks

Note:

- Static overlay functions do not use a stack. Instead non-register parameters are stored on the overlay frame.
- For banked function calls in the Banked extended2 code model, the most significant byte of the return address is pushed on the memory extension stack.
 The two lower bytes are pushed on the idata stack. For more details, see Bank switching in the Banked extended2 code model, page 90.

FUNCTION EXIT

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

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

Registers used for returning values

For all calling conventions, scalar return values are passed in registers or in the carry bit. The following registers or register combinations are used for the return value:

Return values	Passed in registers
1-bit values	Carry
8-bit values	R1
16-bit values	R3:R2
24-bit values	R3:R2:R1
32-bit values	R5:R4:R3:R2

Table 33: Registers used for returning values

Returning structures

If a structure is returned, the caller passes a pointer to a location where the called function should store the result. The pointer is passed as an implicit last argument to the function. The called function returns the pointer to the returned value in the same way as for other scalar results.

The location is allocated by the caller on the caller's stack—which depends on the current calling convention—and the called function refers to this location with a default pointer. The default pointer being used depends on the data model. For more information, see *Choosing a calling convention*, page 62.

Stack layout at function exit

It is the responsibility of the calling function to clean the stack.

For banked function calls, the return address passed on the stack, can be 3 bytes instead of 2 bytes. For more information, see *Bank switching*, page 88.

Return address handling

A function written in assembler language should, when finished, return to the caller. The location of a function's return address will vary with the calling convention of the function:

Calling convention	Location of return address	Returns using †
Data overlay	The 8051 call stack located in idata memory	Assembler-written exit routine
Idata overlay	The 8051 call stack located in idata memory	Assembler-written exit routine
Idata reentrant	The 8051 call stack located in idata memory	Assembler-written exit routine
Pdata reentrant	Moves the return address from the call stack to the emulated pdata stack. However, very simple pdata reentrant routines use the idata stack instead. Interrupt routines always use the idata stack for the return address.	Assembler-written exit routine
Xdata reentrant	Moves the return address from the call stack to the emulated xdata stack. However, very simple xdata reentrant routines use the idata stack instead. Interrupt routines always use the idata stack for the return address.	Assembler-written exit routine
Extended stack reentrant	The extended call stack located in external memory,	Assembler-written exit routine

Table 34: Registers used for returning values

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 pair R3:R2, and the return value is passed back to its caller in the register pair.

[†] Functions declared __monitor return in the same way as normal functions, depending on used calling convention. Interrupt routines always returns using the RETI instruction.

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
        CODE: CODE: NOROOT
rseq
        A,#1
mov
add
        A,R2
        R2,A
wow
clr
        Α
        A,R3
addc
        R3,A
mov
ret
end
```

Example 2

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

```
struct MyStruct
{
    short a;
    short b;
    short c;
    short d;
    short e;
};
int MyFunction(struct MyStruct x, int y);
```

The calling function must reserve ten bytes on the top of the stack and copy the contents of the struct to that location. The character parameter y is passed in the register R1. The return value is passed back to its caller in the register pair R3:R2.

Example 3

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

```
struct MyStruct
{
   int mA;
};
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 last parameter. The parameter \times will be passed in the register pair R3:R2 because \times is the first parameter and R3:R2 the first available register pair in the set used for 16-bit register parameters.

The hidden parameter is passed as a second argument to the function. The size of the argument depends on the size of the pointer that refers to the temporary stack location where the return value will be stored. For example, if the function uses the idata or pdata reentrant calling convention, the 8-bit pointer will be located in register R1. If instead the xdata reentrant calling convention is used, the 16-bit pointer will be passed in the register pair R5:R4. If the extended stack reentrant calling convention is used the pointer is passed on the stack, when some of the registers required to pass a 24-bit value (R3:R2:R1) are already occupied.

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

```
struct MyStruct *MyFunction(int x);
```

In this case, the return value is a scalar, so there is no hidden parameter. The parameter x is passed in R3:R2, and the return value is returned in R1, R3:R2, or R3:R2:R1 depending on the data model used.

FUNCTION DIRECTIVES

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.

Note: This type of directive is primarily intended to support static overlay.

For more information about the function directives, see the *IAR Assembler Reference Guide for 8051*.

Calling functions

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

ASSEMBLER INSTRUCTIONS USED FOR CALLING FUNCTIONS

This section presents the assembler instructions that can be used for calling and returning from functions on the 8051 microcontroller.

The normal function calling instruction is the LCALL instruction:

LCALL label

The location that the called function should return to (that is, the location immediately after this instruction) is stored on the idata call stack, unless the extended stack is used in which case the location is stored on the extended stack.

The following sections illustrates how the different code models perform function calls.

Near and Far code model

A direct call using these code models is simply:

```
LCALL function
```

Note: function is a 16-bit address in the Near code model and a 24-bit address in the Far code model.

When a function returns control to the caller, the RET instruction is used.

When a function call is made via a function pointer in the Near code model, the following assembler code is generated:

```
MOV DPL, #(func&0xFF) ; Low function address to DPL
MOV DPH, #((func>>8)&0xFF) ; High function address to DPH
LCALL ?CALL_IND ; Call library function in which
; the function call is made
```

When a function call is made via a function pointer in the Far code model, the following assembler code is generated:

```
MOV DPL,#(func&0xFF); Low function address to DPL MOV DPH,#((func>>8)&0xFF); High function address to DPH MOV DPX,#((func>>16)&0xFF); Highest function address to DPX LCALL ?CALL_IND; Call library function in which; the function call is made
```

Banked code model

In the Banked code model, a direct call translates to the following assembler code:

```
LCALL ??function?relay
```

The call will also generate a relay function ??function?relay which has a 2-byte address:

A banked indirect function call translates to the following assembler code:

```
MOV DPL,#(??function?relay&0xFF)
MOV DPH,#((??function?relay>>8)&0xFF)
LCALL ?CALL_IND ; Call library function in which
; the function call is made
```

Banked extended2 code model

When using the Banked extended2 code model, a direct call translates to the following assembler code:

```
MOV ?MEX1,((function>>16)&0xFF)
LCALL (function&0xFFFF)
```

An indirect function call looks like this:

```
MOV R1,(function&0xFF)
MOV R2,((function>>8)&0xFF)
MOV R3,((function>>16)&0xFF)
MOV DPL,R1
MOV DPH,R2
LCALL ?CALL_IND_EXT2 ; Call library function in which ; the function call is made
```

Memory access methods

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

You should be familiar with the 8051 instruction set, in particular the different addressing modes used by the instructions that can access memory.

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

- Accessing a global variable
- Accessing memory using a pointer. (This method is used when accessing local data.)

DATA ACCESS METHOD

The data memory is the first 128 bytes of the internal data memory. This memory can be accessed using both direct and indirect addressing modes.

Examples

Accessing the global variable x:

```
MOV A,x
```

Access through a pointer, where R0 contains a pointer referring to x:

MOV A, @RO

IDATA ACCESS METHOD

The idata memory consists of the whole internal data memory. This memory can only be accessed using the indirect addressing mode.

Examples

Accessing the global variable x:

```
MOV R0, \#x; R0 is loaded with the address of x MOV A, @R0
```

Access through a pointer, where R0 contains a pointer referring to x:

MOV A, @RO

PDATA ACCESS METHOD

The pdata memory consists of a 256-byte block of external memory (xdata memory). The data page that should be used—the high byte of the 2-byte address—can be specified in the linker command file by redefining the symbols <code>_PDATAO_START</code> and <code>_PDATAO_END</code>. The SFR register that contains the value of the data page can also be specified in the linker command file by changing the definition of the <code>?PBANK</code> symbol. Pdata accesses can only be made using the indirect addressing mode.

Examples

Accessing the global variable x:

MOV R0, #x

Access through a pointer, where R0 contains a pointer referring to x:

MOVX A, @RO

XDATA ACCESS METHOD

The xdata memory consists of up to 64 Kbytes of the external memory. Xdata accesses can only be made using the indirect addressing mode with the DPTR register:

MOV DPTR, #X

MOV A, @A+DPTR

FAR22, FAR, AND HUGE ACCESS METHODS

The far22, far, and huge memories consist of up to 16 Mbytes of external memory (extended xdata memory). Memory accesses are performed using 3-byte data pointers in the same way as the xdata accesses. A far22 or far pointer is restricted to a 2-byte offset; this restricts the maximum data object size to 64 Kbytes. The huge pointer has no restrictions; it is a 3-byte pointer with a 3-byte offset.

Examples using the xdata, far, or huge access method

Accessing the global variable x:

MOV DPTR, #x MOVX A,@DPTR

Access through a pointer, where DPTR contains a pointer referring to x:

MOVX A, @DPTR

GENERIC ACCESS METHODS

The generic access methods only apply to pointers.

In the Generic data model:

- a __generic attribute applied to a non-pointer data object it will be interpreted as __xdata
- the default pointer is __generic but the default data memory attribute is __xdata.

In the Far Generic data model:

- a __generic attribute applied to a non-pointer data object it will be interpreted as __far22
- the default pointer is __generic but the default data memory attribute is __far22.

A generic pointer is 3 bytes in size. The most significant byte reveals if the pointer points to internal data, external data, or code memory.

Generic pointers are very flexible and easy to use, but this flexibility comes at the price of reduced execution speed and increased code size. Use generic pointers with caution and only in controlled environments.

The register triplets R3:R2:R1 and R6:R5:R4 are used for accessing and manipulating generic pointers.

Accesses to and manipulation of generic pointers are often performed by library routines. If, for example, the register triplet R3:R2:HR1 contains a generic pointer to the char variable x, the value of the variable is loaded into register A with a call to the library routine ?C_GPRT_LOAD. This routine decodes the memory that should be accessed and loads the contents into register A.

Call frame information

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

If you want the call stack to be available when debugging a routine written in assembler language, you must supply equivalent debug information in your assembler source using the assembler directive CFI. This directive is described in detail in the *IAR Assembler Reference Guide for 8051*.

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. The cstartup routine and the assembler version of __low_level_init both include basic call frame information sufficient to trace the call chain, but do not attempt to trace the values of registers in calling functions. The common definitions for the call frame information used by these routines can be found in the file iar_cfi.h, which is provided as source code. These definitions can serve as an introduction and guide to providing call frame information for your own assembler routines.

For an example of a complete implementation of call frame information, you may write a C function and study the assembler language output file. See *Calling assembler routines from C*, page 164.

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	
A, B, PSW, DPS	Resources located in SFR memory space	
DPLO, DPHO, DPXO	Parts of the ordinary DPTR register (DPX0 only if a 3-byte DPTR is used)	
DPL1-DPL7	The low part for additional DPTR registers	
DPH1-DPH7	The high part for additional DPTR registers	
DPX1-DPX7	The extra part for additional ${\tt DPTR}$ registers if 3-byte ${\tt DPTRs}$ are used	
R0-R7	Register ${\tt R0-\!R7}.$ The locations for these registers might change at runtime	
VB	Virtual register for holding 8-bit variables	
V0-V31	Virtual registers located in DATA memory space	
SP	Stack pointer to the stack in IDATA memory	
ESP	Extended stack pointer to the stack in XDATA memory	
ESP16	A concatenation of ESP and SP where SP contains the low byte and ESP the high byte $ \\$	
PSP	Stack pointer to the stack in PDATA memory	
XSP	Stack pointer to the stack in XDATA memory	
?RET_EXT	Third byte of the return address (for the Far code model)	
?RET_HIGH	High byte of the return address	
?RET_LOW	Low byte of the return address	
?RET	A concatenation of <code>?RET_LOW, ?RET_HIGH</code> and—if the Far code model is used— <code>?RET_EXT</code>	
C, BR0, BR1, BR2, BR3, BR4, BR5, BR6, BR7, BR8, BR9, BR10, BR11, BR12, BR13, BR14, BR15	Bit registers	

Table 35: Resources for call-frame information

You should track at least ?RET, so that you can find your way back into the call stack. Track R0-R7, V0-V31, and all available stack pointers to see the values of local variables.

If your application uses more than one register bank, you must track PSW.

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
RTMODEL "__SystemLibrary", "CLib"
RTMODEL "__calling_convention", "xdata_reentrant"
RTMODEL "__code_model", "near"
RTMODEL "__core", "plain"
RTMODEL "__data_model", "large"
RTMODEL "__dptr_size", "16"
RTMODEL " extended stack", "disabled"
RTMODEL "__location_for_constants", "data"
RTMODEL "__number_of_dptrs", "1"
RTMODEL " rt version", "1"
RSEG DOVERLAY: DATA: NOROOT (0)
RSEG IOVERLAY: IDATA: NOROOT(0)
RSEG ISTACK: IDATA: NOROOT (0)
RSEG PSTACK: XDATA: NOROOT (0)
RSEG XSTACK: XDATA: NOROOT (0)
EXTERN ?FUNC_ENTER_XDATA
EXTERN ?FUNC_LEAVE_XDATA
EXTERN ?V0
```

```
PUBLIC cfiExample
FUNCTION cfiExample, 021203H
ARGFRAME XSTACK, 0, STACK
LOCFRAME XSTACK, 9, STACK
CFI Names cfiNames0
CFI StackFrame CFA SP SP IDATA
CFI StackFrame CFA PSP16 PSP16 XDATA
CFI StackFrame CFA XSP16 XSP16 XDATA
CFI StaticOverlayFrame CFA IOVERLAY IOVERLAY
CFI StaticOverlayFrame CFA_DOVERLAY DOVERLAY
CFI Resource `PSW.CY`:1, `B.BR0`:1, `B.BR1`:1, `B.BR2`:1,
             `B.BR3`:1
CFI Resource `B.BR4`:1, `B.BR5`:1, `B.BR6`:1, `B.BR7`:1,
             `VB.BR8`:1
CFI Resource `VB.BR9`:1, `VB.BR10`:1, `VB.BR11`:1,
             `VB.BR12`:1
CFI Resource `VB.BR13`:1, `VB.BR14`:1, `VB.BR15`:1, VB:8,
            B:8, A:8
CFI Resource PSW:8, DPL0:8, DPH0:8, R0:8, R1:8, R2:8,
            R3:8, R4:8, R5:8
CFI Resource R6:8, R7:8, V0:8, V1:8, V2:8, V3:8, V4:8,
             V5:8, V6:8, V7:8
CFI Resource V8:8, V9:8, V10:8, V11:8, V12:8, V13:8,
            V14:8, V15:8
CFI Resource V16:8, V17:8, V18:8, V19:8, V20:8, V21:8,
            V22:8, V23:8
CFI Resource SP:8, PSPH:8, PSPL:8, PSP16:16, XSPH:8,
             XSPL:8, XSP16:16
CFI VirtualResource ?RET:16, ?RET_HIGH:8, ?RET_LOW:8
CFI ResourceParts PSP16 PSPH, PSPL
CFI ResourceParts XSP16 XSPH, XSPL
CFI ResourceParts ?RET_HIGH, ?RET_LOW
CFI EndNames cfiNames0
CFI Common cfiCommon0 Using cfiNames0
CFI CodeAlign 1
CFI DataAlign -1
CFI ReturnAddress ?RET CODE
CFI CFA DOVERLAY Used
CFI CFA_IOVERLAY Used
CFI CFA_SP SP+-2
CFI CFA_PSP16 PSP16+0
CFI CFA_XSP16 XSP16+0
CFI 'PSW.CY' SameValue
CFI `B.BR0` SameValue
CFI `B.BR1` SameValue
```

```
CFI 'B.BR3' SameValue
CFI `B.BR4` SameValue
CFI `B.BR5` SameValue
CFI `B.BR6` SameValue
CFI `B.BR7` SameValue
CFI 'VB.BR8' SameValue
CFI 'VB.BR9' SameValue
CFI 'VB.BR10' SameValue
CFI 'VB.BR11' SameValue
CFI 'VB.BR12' SameValue
CFI 'VB.BR13' SameValue
CFI `VB.BR14` SameValue
CFI `VB.BR15` SameValue
CFI VB SameValue
CFI B Undefined
CFI A Undefined
CFI PSW SameValue
CFI DPL0 SameValue
CFI DPH0 SameValue
CFI R0 Undefined
CFI R1 Undefined
CFI R2 Undefined
CFI R3 Undefined
CFI R4 Undefined
CFI R5 Undefined
CFI R6 SameValue
CFI R7 SameValue
CFI V0 SameValue
CFI V1 SameValue
CFI V2 SameValue
CFI V3 SameValue
CFI V4 SameValue
CFI V5 SameValue
CFI V6 SameValue
CFI V7 SameValue
CFI V8 SameValue
CFI V9 SameValue
CFI V10 SameValue
CFI V11 SameValue
CFI V12 SameValue
CFI V13 SameValue
CFI V14 SameValue
CFI V15 SameValue
CFI V16 SameValue
CFI V17 SameValue
CFI V18 SameValue
```

CFI `B.BR2` SameValue

```
CFI V19 SameValue
        CFI V20 SameValue
        CFI V21 SameValue
        CFI V22 SameValue
        CFI V23 SameValue
        CFI PSPH Undefined
        CFI PSPL Undefined
        CFI XSPH Undefined
        CFI XSPL Undefined
        CFI ?RET Concat
        CFI ?RET_HIGH Frame (CFA_SP, 2)
        CFI ?RET LOW Frame (CFA SP, 1)
        CFI EndCommon cfiCommon0
        EXTERN F
        FUNCTION F,0202H
        ARGFRAME ISTACK, 0, STACK
        ARGFRAME PSTACK, 0, STACK
        ARGFRAME XSTACK, 9, STACK
        ARGFRAME IOVERLAY, 0, STATIC
        ARGFRAME DOVERLAY, 0, STATIC
        RSEG NEAR_CODE: CODE: NOROOT (0)
cfiExample:
        CFI Block cfiBlock0 Using cfiCommon0
        CFI Function cfiExample
        CODE
        FUNCALL cfiExample, F
        LOCFRAME ISTACK, 0, STACK
        LOCFRAME PSTACK, 0, STACK
        LOCFRAME XSTACK, 9, STACK
        LOCFRAME IOVERLAY, 0, STATIC
        LOCFRAME DOVERLAY, 0, STATIC
        ARGFRAME ISTACK, 0, STACK
        ARGFRAME PSTACK, 0, STACK
        ARGFRAME XSTACK, 9, STACK
        ARGFRAME IOVERLAY, 0, STATIC
        ARGFRAME DOVERLAY, 0, STATIC
        VOM
               A, \#-0x9
        LCALL ?FUNC_ENTER_XDATA
        CFI DPH0 load(1, XDATA, add(CFA_XSP16, literal(-1)))
        CFI DPL0 load(1, XDATA, add(CFA_XSP16, literal(-2)))
        CFI ?RET_HIGH load(1, XDATA, add(CFA_XSP16, literal(-3)))
        CFI ?RET_LOW load(1, XDATA, add(CFA_XSP16, literal(-4)))
        CFI R7 load(1, XDATA, add(CFA_XSP16, literal(-5)))
        CFI V1 load(1, XDATA, add(CFA_XSP16, literal(-6)))
```

```
CFI V0 load(1, XDATA, add(CFA_XSP16, literal(-7)))
CFI VB load(1, XDATA, add(CFA_XSP16, literal(-8)))
CFI R6 load(1, XDATA, add(CFA_XSP16, literal(-9)))
CFI CFA_SP SP+0
CFI CFA_XSP16 add(XSP16, 9)
MOV
        A,R2
        R6,A
MOV
        A,R3
MOV
        R7,A
MOV
        F
LCALL
MOV
        ?V0 + 0.R2
MOV
        ?V0 + 1,R3
MOV
        A,R6
ADD
        A, ?V0 + 0
MOV
        R2,A
MOV
        A,R7
        A, ?V0 + 1
ADDC
MOV
        R3,A
MOV
        R7,#0x2
LJMP
        ?FUNC_LEAVE_XDATA
CFI EndBlock cfiBlock0
END
```

Note: The header file <code>iar_cfi.h</code> contains the macros <code>CFI_NAMES</code> and <code>CFI_COMMON</code>, which declare a typical names block and a typical common block. These two macros declare several resources, both concrete and virtual.

Call frame information

Using C

This chapter gives an overview of the compiler's support for the C language. The chapter also gives a brief overview of the IAR C language extensions.

C language overview

The IAR C/C++ Compiler for 8051 supports the ISO/IEC 9899:1999 standard (including up to technical corrigendum No.3), also known as C99. In this guide, this standard is referred to as *Standard C* and is the default standard used in the compiler. This standard is stricter than C89.

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

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

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

Note: Even though it is a C99 feature, the IAR C/C++ Compiler for 8051 does not support UCNs (universal character names).

Inline assembler

Inline assembler can be used for inserting assembler instructions in the generated function.

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

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

The syntax is:

```
asm ("string");
```

The string can be a valid assembler instruction or a data definition assembler directive, but not a comment. You can write several consecutive inline assembler instructions, for example:

where \n (new line) separates each new assembler instruction. Note that you can define and use local labels in inline assembler instructions.

For more information about inline assembler, see *Mixing C and assembler*, page 161.

Extensions overview

The compiler offers the features of Standard C and a wide set of extensions, ranging from features specifically tailored for efficient programming in the embedded industry to the relaxation of some minor standards issues.

This is an overview of the available extensions:

• IAR C language extensions

For information about available language extensions, see *IAR C language extensions*, page 192. For more information about the extended keywords, see the chapter *Extended keywords*. For information about C++, the two levels of support for the language, and C++ language extensions; see the chapter *Using C++*.

Pragma directives

The #pragma directive is defined by Standard C and is a mechanism for using vendor-specific extensions in a controlled way to make sure that the source code is still portable.

The compiler provides a set of predefined pragma directives, which can be used for controlling the behavior of the compiler, for example how it allocates memory, whether it allows extended keywords, and whether it outputs warning messages. Most pragma directives are preprocessed, which means that macros are substituted in a pragma directive. The pragma directives are always enabled in the compiler. For several of them there is also a corresponding C/C++ language extension. For information about available pragma directives, see the chapter *Pragma directives*.

Preprocessor extensions

The preprocessor of the compiler adheres to Standard C. The compiler also makes several preprocessor-related extensions available to you. For more information, see the chapter *The preprocessor*.

Intrinsic functions

The intrinsic functions provide direct access to low-level processor operations and can be very useful in, for example, time-critical routines. The intrinsic functions compile into inline code, either as a single instruction or as a short sequence of instructions. For more information about using intrinsic functions, see *Mixing C and assembler*, page 161. For information about available functions, see the chapter *Intrinsic functions*.

• Library functions

The IAR DLIB Library provides the C and C++ library definitions that apply to embedded systems. For more information, see *IAR DLIB Library*, page 341.

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

ENABLING LANGUAGE EXTENSIONS

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

Command line	IDE*	Description
strict	Strict	All IAR C language extensions are disabled; errors are issued for anything that is not part of Standard C.
None	Standard	All extensions to Standard C are enabled, but no extensions for embedded systems programming. For information about extensions, see IAR C language extensions, page 192.
-е	Standard with IAR extensions	All IAR C language extensions are enabled.

Table 36: Language extensions

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

IAR C language extensions

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

- Extensions for embedded systems programming—extensions specifically tailored for efficient embedded programming for the specific microcontroller you are using, typically to meet memory restrictions
- Relaxations to Standard C—that is, the relaxation of some minor Standard C issues
 and also some useful but minor syntax extensions, see Relaxations to Standard C,
 page 194.

EXTENSIONS FOR EMBEDDED SYSTEMS PROGRAMMING

The following language extensions are available both in the C and the C++ programming languages and they are well suited for embedded systems programming:

Memory attributes, type attributes, and object attributes
 For information about the related concepts, the general syntax rules, and for reference information, see the chapter Extended keywords.

function placement in memory, page 216, and location, page 320.

- Placement at an absolute address or in a named segment
 The @ operator or the directive #pragma location can be used for placing global and static variables at absolute addresses, or placing a variable or function in a named segment. For more information about using these features, see Controlling data and
- Alignment control

Each data type has its own alignment; for more information, see *Alignment*, page 275. If you want to change the alignment, the pragma data_alignment directive is available. If you want to check 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 called anonymous unions. The compiler allows a similar feature for both structs and unions in the C programming language. For more information, see *Anonymous structs and unions*, page 214.

• Bitfields and non-standard types

In Standard C, a bitfield must be of the type int or unsigned int. Using IAR C language extensions, any integer type or enumeration can be used. The advantage is that the struct will sometimes be smaller. For more information, see *Bitfields*, page 277.

static_assert()

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

• Parameters in variadic macros

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

Dedicated segment operators

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

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

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

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

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

These operators behave syntactically as if declared like:

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

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

The named segment must be a string literal and it 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.

Example

```
In this example, the type of the __segment_begin operator is void __huge *.
#pragma segment="MYSEGMENT" __huge
...
segment_start_address = __segment_begin("MYSEGMENT");
See also segment, page 325, and location, page 320.
```

RELAXATIONS TO STANDARD C

This section lists and briefly describes the relaxation of some Standard C issues and also some useful but minor syntax extensions:

Arrays of incomplete types

An array can have an incomplete struct, union, or enum type as its element type. The types must be completed before the array is used (if it is), or by the end of the compilation unit (if it is not).

- Forward declaration of enum types
 - The extensions allow you to first declare the name of an enum and later resolve it by specifying the brace-enclosed list.
- Accepting missing semicolon at the end of a struct or union specifier
 A warning—instead of an error—is issued if the semicolon at the end of a struct or union specifier is missing.
- Null and void

In operations on pointers, a pointer to void is always implicitly converted to another type if necessary, and a null pointer constant is always implicitly converted to a null pointer of the right type if necessary. In Standard C, some operators allow this kind of behavior, while others do not allow it.

• Casting pointers to integers in static initializers

In an initializer, a pointer constant value can be cast to an integral type if the integral type is large enough to contain it. For more information about casting pointers, see *Casting*, page 283.

- Taking the address of a register variable
 - In Standard C, it is illegal to take the address of a variable specified as a register variable. The compiler allows this, but a warning is issued.
- long float means double

The type long float is accepted as a synonym for double.

• Repeated typedef declarations

Redeclarations of typedef that occur in the same scope are allowed, but a warning is issued.

• Mixing pointer types

Assignment and pointer difference is allowed between pointers to types that are interchangeable but not identical; for example, unsigned char * and char *. This includes pointers to integral types of the same size. A warning is issued.

Assignment of a string constant to a pointer to any kind of character is allowed, and no warning is issued.

• Non-top level const

Assignment of pointers is allowed in cases where the destination type has added type qualifiers that are not at the top level (for example, int ** to int const **). Comparing and taking the difference of such pointers is also allowed.

• Non-lvalue arrays

A non-lvalue array expression is converted to a pointer to the first element of the array when it is used.

• Comments at the end of preprocessor directives

This extension, which makes it legal to place text after preprocessor directives, is enabled unless the strict Standard C mode is used. The purpose of this language extension is to support compilation of legacy code; we do *not* recommend that you write new code in this fashion.

• An extra comma at the end of enum lists

Placing an extra comma is allowed at the end of an enum list. In strict Standard C mode, a warning is issued.

• A label preceding a }

In Standard C, a label must be followed by at least one statement. Therefore, it is illegal to place the label at the end of a block. The compiler allows this, but issues a warning.

Note that this also applies to the labels of switch statements.

• Empty declarations

An empty declaration (a semicolon by itself) is allowed, but a remark is issued (provided that remarks are enabled).

• Single-value initialization

Standard C requires that all initializer expressions of static arrays, structs, and unions are enclosed in braces.

Single-value initializers are allowed to appear without braces, but a warning is issued. The compiler accepts this expression:

```
struct str
{
   int a;
} x = 10;
```

• Declarations in other scopes

External and static declarations in other scopes are visible. In the following example, the variable y can be used at the end of the function, even though it should only be visible in the body of the if statement. A warning is issued.

```
int test(int x)
{
   if (x)
   {
     extern int y;
     y = 1;
   }
   return y;
}
```

• Expanding function names into strings with the function as context

Use any of the symbols __func__ or __FUNCTION__ inside a function body to make the symbol expand into a string that contains the name of the current function. Use the symbol __PRETTY_FUNCTION__ to also include the parameter types and return type. The result might, for example, look like this if you use the __PRETTY_FUNCTION__ symbol:

```
"void func(char)"
```

These symbols are useful for assertions and other trace utilities and they require that language extensions are enabled, see -e, page 255.

• Static functions in function and block scopes

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

• Numbers scanned according to the syntax for numbers

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

Using C++

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

Overview

Embedded C++ is a proper subset of the C++ programming language which is intended for embedded systems programming. It was defined by an industry consortium, the Embedded C++ Technical Committee. Performance and portability are particularly important in embedded systems development, which was considered when defining the language. EC++ offers the same object-oriented benefits as C++, but without some features that can increase code size and execution time in ways that are hard to predict.

EMBEDDED C++

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 features added very late before Standard C++ was defined. Embedded C++ thus offers a subset of C++ which is efficient and fully supported by existing development tools.

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

- Templates
- Multiple and virtual inheritance
- Exception handling
- Runtime type information

- New cast syntax (the operators dynamic_cast, static_cast, reinterpret_cast, and const_cast)
- Namespaces
- The mutable attribute.

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

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

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

EXTENDED EMBEDDED C++

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

- Full template support
- Namespace support
- The mutable attribute
- The cast operators static_cast, const_cast, and reinterpret_cast.

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

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

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

Enabling support for C++



In the compiler, the default language is C.

To compile files written in Embedded C++, you must use the --ec++ compiler option. See --ec++, page 255.

To take advantage of *Extended* Embedded C++ features in your source code, you must use the --eec++ compiler option. See --eec++, page 255.

For EC++ and EEC++, you must also use the IAR DLIB runtime library.



To enable EC++ or EEC++ in the IDE, choose **Project>Options>**C/C++ **Compiler>Language** and select the appropriate standard.

EC++ feature descriptions

When you write C++ source code for the IAR C/C++ Compiler for 8051, you must be aware of some benefits and some possible quirks when mixing C++ features—such as classes, and class members—with IAR language extensions, such as IAR-specific attributes.

USING IAR ATTRIBUTES WITH CLASSES

Static data members of C++ classes are treated the same way global variables are, and can have any applicable IAR type, memory, and object attribute.

Member functions are in general treated the same way free functions are, and can have any applicable IAR type, memory, and object attributes. Virtual member functions can only have attributes that are compatible with default function pointers, and constructors and destructors cannot have any such attributes.

The location operator @ and the #pragma location directive can be used on static data members and with all member functions.

Example

```
class MyClass
{
public:
    // Locate a static variable in xdata memory at address 60
    static __xdata __no_init int mI @ 60;

    // Locate a static function in __near_func (code) memory
    static __near_func void F();

    // Locate a function in __near_func memory
    __near_func void G();

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

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

The this pointer

The this pointer used for referring to a class object or calling a member function of a class object will by default have the data memory attribute for the default data pointer type. This means that such a class object can only be defined to reside in memory from which pointers can be implicitly converted to a default data pointer. This restriction might also apply to objects residing on a stack, for example temporary objects and auto objects.

Class memory

To compensate for this limitation, a class can be associated with a *class memory type*. The class memory type changes:

- the this pointer type in all member functions, constructors, and destructors into a pointer to class memory
- the default memory for static storage duration variables—that is, not auto variables—of the class type, into the specified class memory
- the pointer type used for pointing to objects of the class type, into a pointer to class memory.

Example

```
class __xdata C
public:
             // Has a this pointer of type C __xdata *
 void MyF();
 void MyF() const; // Has a this pointer of type
                 // C xdata const *
                  // Has a this pointer pointing into Xdata
 C();
                 // memory
 // const & (also true of generated copy
                  // constructor)
 int mI;
};
C Ca;
                 // Resides in xdata memory instead of the
                 // default memory
                 // Resides in pdata memory, the 'this'
C __pdata Cb;
                  // pointer still points into Xdata memory
void MyH()
                 // Resides on the stack
 C cd;
}
C *Cp1;
                  // Creates a pointer to xdata memory
                 // Creates a pointer to pdata memory
C __pdata *Cp2;
```

Note: To place the C class in huge memory is not allowed because a huge pointer cannot be implicitly converted into a __xdata pointer.

Whenever a class type associated with a class memory type, like C, must be declared, the class memory type must be mentioned as well:

```
class __xdata 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 __xdata.

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 __xdata D : public C
{ // OK, same class memory
public:
 void MvG();
 int mJ;
}:
class __pdata E : public C
{ // OK, pdata memory is inside xdata
public:
 void MyG() // Has a this pointer pointing into pdata memory
   MyF(); // Gets a this pointer into xdata memory
 int mJ;
};
class F : public C
{ // OK, will be associated with same class memory as C
public:
 void MyG();
 int mJ;
};
```

Note that the following is not allowed because huge is not inside far memory:

```
class __huge G:public C
{
};
```

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++.

If a pointer to class memory cannot be implicitly casted into a default pointer type, no temporaries can be created for that class, for instance if you have an xdata default pointer, the following example will not work:

```
class __idata Foo {...}
void some_fun (Foo arg) {...}
Foo another_fun (int x) {...}
```

For more information about memory types, see Memory types, page 50.

FUNCTION TYPES

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

Example

NEW AND DELETE OPERATORS

There are operators for new and delete for each memory that can have a heap, that is, xdata, far, and huge memory.

```
#include <stddef.h>

// Assumes that there is a heap in both __xdata and __far memory
#if __DATA_MODEL__ >= 4

void __far *operator new __far(__far_size_t);

void operator delete(void __far *);
#else

void __xdata *operator new __xdata (__xdata_size_t);

void operator delete(void __xdata *);
#endif
```

```
// And correspondingly for array new and delete operators
#if __DATA_MODEL__ >= 4
void __far *operator new[] __far(__far_size_t);
void operator delete[](void __far *);
#else
void __xdata *operator new[] __xdata (__xdata_size_t);
void operator delete[](void __xdata *);
#endif
```

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 __far(__far_size_t)
 int __far *p = new __far int;
 // Calls operator new __far(__far_size_t)
  int __far *q = new int __far;
 // Calls operator new[] __far(__far_size_t)
  int __far *r = new __far int[10];
 // Calls operator new __huge(__huge_size_t)
 class huge S
  {
 };
 S *s = new S;
 // Calls operator delete(void __far *)
 delete p;
  // Calls operator delete(void __huge *)
 delete s;
 int __huge *t = new __far int;
 delete t; // Error: Causes a corrupt heap
}
```

Note that the pointer used in a delete expression must have the correct type, that is, the same type as that returned by the new expression. If you use a pointer to the wrong memory, the result might be a corrupt heap.

USING STATIC CLASS OBJECTS IN INTERRUPTS

If interrupt functions use static class objects that need to be constructed (using constructors) or destroyed (using destructors), your application will not work properly if the interrupt occurs before the objects are constructed, or after the objects are destroyed.

To avoid this, make sure that these interrupts are not enabled until the static objects have been constructed, and are disabled when returning from main or calling exit. For information about system startup, see *System startup and termination*, page 126.

Function local static class objects are constructed the first time execution passes through their declaration, and are destroyed when returning from main or when calling exit.

USING NEW HANDLERS

To handle memory exhaustion, you can use the set_new_handler function.

If you do not call <code>set_new_handler</code>, or call it with a NULL new handler, and operator new fails to allocate enough memory, it will call abort. The nothrow variant of the new operator will instead return NULL.

If you call <code>set_new_handler</code> with a non-NULL new handler, the provided new handler will be called by <code>operator</code> new if <code>operator</code> new fails to allocate memory. The new handler must then make more memory available and return, or abort execution in some manner. The <code>nothrow</code> variant of <code>operator</code> new will never return NULL in the presence of a new handler.

TEMPLATES

Extended EC++ supports templates according to the C++ standard, but not the export keyword. The implementation uses a two-phase lookup which means that the keyword typename must be inserted wherever needed. Furthermore, at each use of a template, the definitions of all possible templates must be visible. This means that the definitions of all templates must be in include files or in the actual source file.

DEBUG SUPPORT IN C-SPY

C-SPY® has built-in display support for the STL containers. The logical structure of containers is presented in the watch views in a comprehensive way that is easy to understand and follow. For more information about displaying STL containers in the C-SPY debugger, see the *C-SPY® Debugging Guide for 8051*.

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 small number of items at first.

EEC++ feature description

This section describes features that distinguish Extended EC++ from EC++.

TEMPLATES

Templates and data memory attributes

For data memory attributes to work as expected in templates, two elements of the standard C++ template handling were changed—class template partial specialization matching and function template parameter deduction.

In Extended Embedded C++, the class template partial specialization matching algorithm works like this:

When a pointer or reference type is matched against a pointer or reference to a template parameter type, the template parameter type will be the type pointed to, stripped of any data memory attributes, if the resulting pointer or reference type is the same.

Example

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.

Example

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.

Example

```
// We assume that __pdata is the memory type of the default
// pointer.
#pragma basic_template_matching
template<typename T> void fun(T *);

void MyF()
{
   fun((int __pdata *) 0); // T = int __pdata
}
```

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 __no_init __sfr int X @0xf2;

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

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

The standard template library

vector<int __far22> __huge Z;

The STL (standard template library) delivered with the product is tailored for Extended EC++, see *Extended Embedded C*++, page 198.

The containers in the STL, like vector and map, are memory attribute aware. This means that a container can be declared to reside in a specific memory type which has the following consequences:

- The container itself will reside in the chosen memory
- Allocations of elements in the container will use a heap for the chosen memory
- All references inside it use pointers to the chosen memory.

Example

```
#include <vector>
vector<int> D;
                                    // D placed in default
memory,
                                     // using the default heap,
                                     // uses default pointers
vector<int __far22> __far22 X;
                                    // X placed in far22 memory,
                                     // heap allocation from
                                    // far22, uses pointers to
                                    // far22 memory
vector<int __huge> __far22 Y;
                                    // Y placed in far22 memory,
                                     // heap allocation from
                                     // Huge, uses pointers to
                                     // Huge memory
Note that this is illegal:
```

Note also that map<key, T>, multimap<key, T>, hash_map<key, T>, and hash_multimap<key, T> all use the memory of T. This means that the value_type of these collections will be pair<key, const T> mem where mem is the memory type of T. Supplying a key with a memory type is not useful.

Example

Note that two containers that only differ by the data memory attribute they use cannot be assigned to each other. Instead, the templated assign member method must be used.

```
#include <vector>
vector<int __far> X;
vector<int __huge> Y;

void MyF()
{
    // The templated assign member method will work
    X.assign(Y.begin(), Y.end());
    Y.assign(X.begin(), X.end());
}
```

VARIANTS OF CAST OPERATORS

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

```
const_cast<to>(from)
static_cast<to>(from)
reinterpret_cast<to>(from)
```

MUTABLE

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

NAMESPACE

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

THE STD NAMESPACE

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

```
#define std
```

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

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:
    __near_func void F();
};

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

C++ language extensions

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

- Default arguments can be specified for function parameters not only in the top-level function declaration, which is according to the standard, but also in typedef declarations, in pointer-to-function function declarations, and in pointer-to-member function declarations.
- In a function that contains a non-static local variable and a class that contains a
 non-evaluated expression (for example a sizeof expression), the expression can
 reference the non-static local variable. However, a warning is issued.
- An anonymous union can be introduced into a containing class by a typedef name.
 It is not necessary to first declare the union. For example:

```
typedef union
{
   int i,j;
} U; // U identifies a reusable anonymous union.

class A
{
public:
   U; // OK -- references to A::i and A::j are allowed.
}:
```

In addition, this extension also permits *anonymous classes* and *anonymous structs*, as long as they have no C++ features (for example, no static data members or member functions, and no non-public members) and have no nested types other than other anonymous classes, structs, or unions. For example:

```
struct A
{
   struct
   {
     int i,j;
   }; // OK -- references to A::i and A::j are allowed.
}.
```

• The friend class syntax allows nonclass types as well as class types expressed through a typedef without an elaborated type name. For example:

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

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
- Facilitating good code generation.

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.
- Declaring a pointer parameter to point to const data might open for better optimizations in the calling function.

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

FLOATING-POINT TYPES

Using floating-point types on a microprocessor without a math coprocessor is very inefficient, both in terms of code size and execution speed. Thus, you should consider replacing code that uses floating-point operations with code that uses integers, because these are more efficient.

The compiler only supports 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.

For more information about floating-point types, see *Floating-point types*, page 279.

USING THE BEST POINTER TYPE

The generic pointers can point to all memory spaces, which makes them simple and also tempting to use. However, they carry a cost in that special code is needed before each pointer access to check which memory a pointer points to and taking the appropriate actions. Use the smallest pointer type you can, and avoid any generic pointers unless necessary.

ANONYMOUS STRUCTS AND UNIONS

When a structure or union is declared without a name, it becomes anonymous. The effect is that its members will only be seen in the surrounding scope.

Anonymous structures are part of the C++ language; however, they are not part of the C standard. In the IAR C/C++ Compiler for 8051 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 255, 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;
   };
} @ 0x90;

/* The variables are used here. */
void Test(void)
{
   IOPORT = 0;
   way = 1;
   out = 1;
}
```

This declares an I/O register byte IOPORT at address 0x90. The I/O register has 2 bits declared, Way and Out. Note that both the inner structure and the outer union are anonymous.

Anonymous structures and unions are implemented in terms of objects named after the first field, with a prefix _A_ to place the name in the implementation part of the namespace. In this example, the anonymous union will be implemented through an object named _A_IOPORT.

Controlling data and function placement in memory

The compiler provides different mechanisms for controlling placement of functions and data objects in memory. To use memory efficiently, you should be familiar with these mechanisms 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. For more information about data and code models, see *Data models*, page 48, and *Code models for function storage*, page 73, respectively.

Memory attributes

Use memory attributes to override the default addressing mode and placement of individual functions and data objects. For more information about memory attributes for data and functions, see *Using data memory attributes*, page 57, and *Code models for function storage*, page 73, respectively.

• Calling convention

The compiler provides six different *calling conventions* that control how memory is used for parameters and locally declared variables. You can specify a default calling convention or you can explicitly declare the calling convention for each individual function. To read more, see *Choosing a calling convention*, page 62.

Virtual registers

In larger data models, fine-tuning the number of virtual registers can result in more efficient code; see *Virtual registers*, page 70.

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 to conform to external requirements, for example to populate interrupt vectors or other hardware tables. Note that it is not possible to use this notation for absolute placement of individual functions.

• The @ operator and the #pragma location directive for segment placement

Use the @ operator or the #pragma location directive to place groups of functions
or global and static variables in named segments, without having explicit control of
each object. The variables must be declared either __no_init or const. The
segments can, for example, be placed in specific areas of memory, or initialized or
copied in controlled ways using the segment begin and end operators. This is also
useful if you want an interface between separately linked units, for example an
application project and a boot loader project. Use named segments when absolute
control over the placement of individual variables is not needed, or not useful.

At compile time, data and functions are placed in different segments, see *Data segments*, page 98, and *Code segments*, page 107, 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 configuration file, see *Placing segments in memory*, page 94.

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 the const keyword (with initializers).

To place a variable at an absolute address, the argument to the @ operator and the #pragma location directive should be a literal number, representing the actual address

Note: All declarations of variables placed at an absolute address are *tentative definitions*. Tentatively defined variables are only kept in the output from the compiler if they are needed in the module being compiled. Such variables will be defined in all modules in which they are used, which will work as long as they are defined in the same way. The recommendation is to place all such declarations in header files that are included in all modules that use the variables.

Examples

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

```
__no_init volatile char alpha @ 0xFF20;/* OK */
```

The next example contains two const declared objects. The first one is not initialized, and the second one is initialized to a specific value. Both objects are placed in ROM. This is useful for configuration parameters, which are accessible from an external

interface. Note that in the second case, the compiler is not obliged to actually read from the variable, because the value is known.

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

This example shows incorrect usage:

C++ considerations

In C++, module scoped const variables are static (module local), whereas in C they are global. This means that each module that declares a certain const variable will contain a separate variable with this name. If you link an application with several such modules all containing (via a header file), for instance, the declaration:

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

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

```
/* The extern keyword makes x public. */
extern volatile const __no_init int x @ 0x100;
```

Note: C++ static member variables can be placed at an absolute address just like any other static variable.

DATA AND FUNCTION PLACEMENT IN SEGMENTS

The @ operator, alternatively the #pragma location directive, can be used for placing individual variables or individual functions in named segments other than the default one. The named segment can either be a predefined segment, or a user-defined segment. The variables must be declared either __no_init or const. If declared const, they can have initializers.

C++ static member variables can be placed in named segments just like any other static variable.

If you use your own segments, in addition to the predefined segments, the segments must also be defined in the linker configuration file using the -z or the -P segment control directives.

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

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

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

Examples of placing variables in named segments

In the following examples, a data object is placed in a user-defined segment. The variable will be treated as if it is located in the default memory. Note that you must place the segment accordingly in the linker configuration file.

```
__no_init int alpha @ "MY_NOINIT"; /* OK */

#pragma location="MY_CONSTANTS"

const int beta; /* OK */

const int gamma @ "MY CONSTANTS" = 3;/* OK */
```

As usual, you can use memory attributes to direct the variable to a non-default memory (and then also place the segment accordingly in the linker configuration file):

```
__idata __no_init int alpha @ "MY_IDATA_NOINIT";/* Placed in idata*/
```

This example shows incorrect usage:

Examples of placing functions in named segments

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

void g(void) @ "MY_FUNCTIONS"
{
}

#pragma location="MY_FUNCTIONS"
void h(void);
```

Specify a memory attribute to direct the function to a specific memory, and then modify the segment placement in the linker configuration file accordingly:

```
__near_func void f(void) @ "MY_NEARFUNC_FUNCTIONS";
```

CONSTANTS AND STRINGS IN CODE MEMORY

If you are using the CLIB runtime environment and you locate constants and strings in code memory using the option --place_constants=code, you should consider using the 8051-specific CLIB library functions declared in pgmspace.h that allow access to strings in code memory; see 8051-specific CLIB functions, page 348.

Controlling compiler optimizations

The compiler performs many transformations on your application to generate the best possible code. Examples of such transformations are storing values in registers instead of memory, removing superfluous code, reordering computations in a more efficient order, and replacing arithmetic operations by cheaper operations.

The linker should also be considered an integral part of the compilation system, because some optimizations are performed by the linker. For instance, all unused functions and variables are removed and not included in the final output.

SCOPE FOR PERFORMED OPTIMIZATIONS

You can decide whether optimizations should be performed on your whole application or on individual files. By default, the same types of optimizations are used for an entire project, but you should consider using different optimization settings for individual files. For example, put code that must execute very quickly into a separate file and compile it for minimal execution time, and the rest of the code for minimal code size. This will give a small program, which is still fast enough where it matters.

You can also exclude individual functions from the performed optimizations. The #pragma optimize directive allows you to either lower the optimization level, or specify another type of optimization to be performed. See *optimize*, page 321, 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 260.

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 252.



Multi-file compilation should not be used with any of the banked code models; see *Writing source code for banked memory*, page 85.

OPTIMIZATION LEVELS

The compiler supports different levels of optimizations. This table lists optimizations that are typically performed on each level:

Optimization level	Description
None (Best debug support)	Variables live through their entire scope
Low	Same as above but variables only live for as long as they are needed, not necessarily through their entire scope, and: Dead code elimination Redundant label elimination Redundant branch elimination
Medium	Same as above, and: Live-dead analysis and optimization Code hoisting Register content analysis and optimization Common subexpression elimination
High (Balanced)	Same as above, and: Peephole optimization Cross jumping Cross call (when optimizing for size) Loop unrolling Function inlining Code motion Type-based alias analysis

Table 37: Compiler optimization levels

Note: Some of the performed optimizations can be individually enabled or disabled. For more information about these, see *Fine-tuning enabled transformations*, page 222.

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.

For more information about the command line option, see --no cse, page 261.

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 efficient 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.

To disable loop unrolling, use the command line option --no_unroll, see --no_unroll, page 264.

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 the resulting code might be difficult to debug.

The compiler heuristically decides which functions to inline. Different heuristics are used when optimizing for speed, size, or when balancing between size and speed. Normally, code size does not increase when optimizing for size. To control the heuristics for individual functions, use the #pragma inline directive or the Standard C inline keyword.

If you do not want to disable inlining for a whole module, use #pragma inline=never on an individual function instead.

Note: This option has no effect at optimization levels None, Low, and Medium.

For more information about the command line option, see *--no_inline*, page 262. For information about the pragma directive, see *inline*, page 318.

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.

For more information about the command line option, see --no code motion, page 261.

Type-based alias analysis

When two or more pointers reference the same memory location, these pointers are said to be *aliases* for each other. The existence of aliases makes optimization more difficult because it is not necessarily known at compile time whether a particular value is being changed.

Type-based alias analysis optimization assumes that all accesses to an object are performed using its declared type or as a char type. This assumption lets the compiler detect whether pointers can reference the same memory location or not.

Type-based alias analysis is performed at optimization level High. For application code conforming to standard C or C++ application code, this optimization can reduce code size and execution time. However, non-standard C or C++ code might result in the compiler producing code that leads to unexpected behavior. Therefore, it is possible to turn this optimization off.

Note: This option has no effect at optimization levels None, Low, and Medium.

For more information about the command line option, see --no tbaa, page 263.

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.

Facilitating good code generation

This section contains hints on how to help the compiler generate good code, for example:

- Using efficient addressing modes
- Helping the compiler optimize
- · Generating more useful error message.

WRITING OPTIMIZATION-FRIENDLY SOURCE CODE

The following is a list of programming techniques that will, when followed, enable the compiler to better optimize the application.

- Local variables—auto variables and parameters—are preferred over static or global variables. The reason is that the optimizer must assume, for example, that called functions can modify non-local variables. When the life spans for local variables end, the previously occupied memory can then be reused. Globally declared variables will occupy data memory during the whole program execution.
- Avoid taking the address of local variables using the & operator. This is inefficient
 for two main reasons. First, the variable must be placed in memory, and thus cannot
 be placed in a processor register. This results in larger and slower code. Second, the
 optimizer can no longer assume that the local variable is unaffected over function
 calls.
- Module-local variables—variables that are declared static—are preferred over global variables (non-static). Also avoid taking the address of frequently accessed static variables.
- The compiler is capable of inlining functions, see Function inlining, page 223. To maximize the effect of the inlining transformation, it is good practice to place the definitions of small functions called from more than one module in the header file rather than in the implementation file. Alternatively, you can use multi-file compilation. For more information, see Multi-file compilation units, page 220.
- 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 information, see Mixing C and assembler, page 161.

SAVING STACK SPACE AND RAM MEMORY

The following is a list of programming techniques that will, when followed, save memory and stack space:

- If stack space is limited, avoid long call chains and recursive functions.
- Avoid using large non-scalar types, such as structures, as parameters or return type.
 To save stack space, you should instead pass them as pointers or, in C++, as references.
- Use the smallest possible data type (and signed data types only when necessary)
- Declare variables with a short life span as auto variables. When the life spans for
 these variables end, the previously occupied memory can then be reused. Globally
 declared variables will occupy data memory during the whole program execution.
 Be careful with auto variables, though, as the stack size can exceed its limits.

CALLING CONVENTIONS

The compiler supports several calling conventions, using different types of stacks. Try to use the smallest possible calling convention. The data overlay, idata overlay, and idata reentrant calling conventions generate the most efficient code. Pdata reentrant and extended stack reentrant functions add some overhead and xdata reentrant functions even more.

Because the xdata stack pointer and the extended stack pointer are larger than 8 bits, they must be updated using two instructions. To make the system interrupt safe, interrupts must be disabled while the stack pointer is updated. This generates an overhead if you are using an xdata or extended stack.

Normally, it is enough to use the default calling convention. However, in some cases it is better to explicitly declare functions of another calling convention, for example:

- Some large and stack-intensive functions do not fit within the limited restrictions of a smaller calling convention. This function can then be declared to be of a larger calling convention
- A large system that uses a limited number of small and important routines can have these declared with a smaller calling convention for efficiency.

Note: Some restrictions apply when you mix different calling conventions. See *Mixing calling conventions*, page 64.

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—pre-Standard C—it is not possible to declare a function prototyped. Instead, an empty parameter list is used in the function declaration. Also, the definition looks different.

For example:

INTEGER TYPES AND BIT NEGATION

In some situations, the rules for integer types and their conversion lead to possibly confusing behavior. Things to look out for are assignments or conditionals (test expressions) involving types with different size, and logical operations, especially bit negation. Here, *types* also includes types of constants.

In some cases there might be warnings (for example, for constant conditional or pointless comparison), in others just a different result than what is expected. Under certain circumstances the compiler might warn only at higher optimizations, for example, if the compiler relies on optimizations to identify some instances of constant conditionals. In this example an 8-bit character, a 16-bit integer, and two's complement is assumed:

```
void F1(unsigned char c1)
{
   if (c1 == ~0x80)
    ;
}
```

Here, the test is always false. On the right hand side, 0x80 is 0x0080, and ~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.

For sequences of accesses to variables that you do not want to be interrupted, use the __monitor keyword. This must be done for both write *and* read sequences, otherwise you might end up reading a partially updated variable. Accessing a small-sized volatile variable can be an atomic operation, but you should not rely on it unless you continuously study the compiler output. It is safer to use the __monitor keyword to ensure that the sequence is an atomic operation. For more information, see __monitor, page 304.

For more information about the volatile type qualifier and the rules for accessing volatile objects, see *Declaring objects volatile*, page 284.



Protecting the eeprom write mechanism

A typical example of when it can be necessary to use the __monitor keyword is when protecting the eeprom write mechanism, which can be used from two threads (for example, main code and interrupts). Servicing an interrupt during an EEPROM write sequence can in many cases corrupt the written data.

ACCESSING SPECIAL FUNCTION REGISTERS

Specific header files for several 8051 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 io8051.h:

```
no init volatile union
 unsigned char PSW:
 struct
   unsigned char P: 1:
   unsigned char F1: 1;
   unsigned char OV: 1;
   unsigned char RS0 : 1;
   unsigned char RS1 : 1;
   unsigned char F0 : 1;
   unsigned char AC : 1;
   unsigned char CY: 1;
 } PSW_bit;
} @ 0xD0;
/* 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.
 * /
void Test()
  /* Whole register access */
 PSW = 0x12;
  /* Bitfield accesses */
 PSW_bit.AC = 1;
 PSW_bit.RS0 = 0;
}
```

You can also use the header files as templates when you create new header files for other 8051 devices. For information about the @ operator, see *Located data*, page 107.

NON-INITIALIZED VARIABLES

Normally, the runtime environment will initialize all global and static variables when the application is started.

The compiler supports the declaration of variables that will not be initialized, using the __no_init type modifier. They can be specified either as a keyword or using the #pragma object_attribute directive. The compiler places such variables in a separate segment, according to the specified memory keyword. See the chapter *Placing code and data* for more information.

For __no_init, the const keyword implies that an object is read-only, rather than that the object is stored in read-only memory. It is not possible to give a __no_init object an initial value.

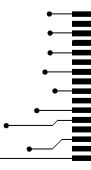
Variables declared using the __no_init keyword could, for example, be large input buffers or mapped to special RAM that keeps its content even when the application is turned off.

For information about the __no_init keyword, see page 305. Note that to use this keyword, language extensions must be enabled; see -e, page 255. For information about the #pragma object_attribute, see page 321.

Part 2. Reference information

This part of the IAR C/C++ Compiler Reference Guide for 8051 contains these chapters:

- External interface details
- Compiler options
- Data representation
- Extended keywords
- Pragma directives
- Intrinsic functions
- The preprocessor
- Library functions
- Segment reference
- Implementation-defined behavior.





External interface details

This chapter provides reference information about how the compiler interacts with its environment. The chapter briefly lists and describes the invocation syntax, methods for passing options to the tools, environment variables, the include file search procedure, and finally the different types of compiler output.

Invocation syntax

You can use the compiler either from the IDE or from the command line. See the *IDE Project Management and Building Guide* for information about using the compiler from the IDE.

COMPILER INVOCATION SYNTAX

The invocation syntax for the compiler is:

```
icc8051 [options] [sourcefile] [options]
```

For example, when compiling the source file prog.c, use this command to generate an object file with debug information:

```
icc8051 prog.c --debug
```

The source file can be a C or C++ file, typically with the filename extension c or cpp, respectively. If no filename extension is specified, the file to be compiled must have the extension c.

Generally, the order of options on the command line, both relative to each other and to the source filename, is *not* significant. There is, however, one exception: when you use the -I option, the directories are searched in the same order as they are specified on the command line.

If you run the compiler from the command line without any arguments, the compiler version number and all available options including brief descriptions are directed to stdout and displayed on the screen.

PASSING OPTIONS

There are three different ways of passing options to the compiler:

Directly from the command line
 Specify the options on the command line after the icc8051 command, either before or after the source filename; see *Invocation syntax*, page 233.

Via environment variables

The compiler automatically appends the value of the environment variables to every command line; see *Environment variables*, page 234.

• Via a text file, using the -f option; see -f, page 257.

For general guidelines for the option syntax, an options summary, and a detailed description of each option, see the *Compiler options* chapter.

ENVIRONMENT VARIABLES

These environment variables can be used with the compiler:

Environment variable Description

C_INCLUDE	Specifies directories to search for include files; for example:	
	<pre>C_INCLUDE=c:\program files\iar systems\embedded</pre>	
	<pre>workbench 6.n\8051\inc;c:\headers</pre>	
QCCX51	Specifies command line options; for example: $QCCX51 = -1A$ asm.lst	

Table 38: Compiler environment variables

Include file search procedure

This is a detailed description of the compiler's #include file search procedure:

- If the name of the #include file is an absolute path specified in angle brackets or double quotes, that file is opened.
- If the compiler encounters the name of an #include file in angle brackets, such as:

```
#include <stdio.h>
```

it searches these directories for the file to include:

- 1 The directories specified with the -⊥ option, in the order that they were specified, see -*I*, page 258.
- 2 The directories specified using the C_INCLUDE environment variable, if any; see *Environment variables*, page 234.
- 3 The automatically set up library system include directories. See --clib, page 246, --dlib, page 252, and --dlib_config, page 253.
- 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:

```
icc8051 ..\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.

For information about the syntax for including header files, see *Overview of the preprocessor*, page 333.

Compiler output

The compiler can produce the following output:

• A linkable object file

The object files produced by the compiler use a proprietary format called UBROF, which stands for Universal Binary Relocatable Object Format. By default, the object file has the filename extension r51.

Optional list files

Various kinds of list files can be specified using the compiler option -1, see -*l*, page 258. By default, these files will have the filename extension 1st.

• Optional preprocessor output files

A preprocessor output file is produced when you use the --preprocess option; by default, the file will have the filename extension i.

Diagnostic messages

Diagnostic messages are directed to the standard error stream and displayed on the screen, and printed in an optional list file. For more information about diagnostic messages, see *Diagnostics*, page 237.

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 236.

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 39: Error return codes

Diagnostics

This section describes the format of the diagnostic messages and explains how diagnostic messages are divided into different levels of severity.

MESSAGE FORMAT

All diagnostic messages are issued as complete, self-explanatory messages. A typical diagnostic message from the compiler is produced in the form:

filename, linenumber level[tag]: message

with these elements:

The name of the source file in which the issue was encountered

1 Inenumber The line number at which the compiler detected the issue

1evel The level of seriousness of the issue

A unique tag that identifies the diagnostic message

message An explanation, possibly several lines long

Diagnostic messages are displayed on the screen, as well as printed in the optional list file.

Use the option --diagnostics_tables to list all possible compiler diagnostic messages.

SEVERITY LEVELS

The diagnostic messages are divided into different levels of severity:

Remark

A diagnostic message that is produced when the compiler finds a source code construct that can possibly lead to erroneous behavior in the generated code. Remarks are by default not issued, but can be enabled, see *--remarks*, page 269.

Warning

A diagnostic message that is produced when the compiler finds a potential programming error or omission which is of concern, but which does not prevent completion of the compilation. Warnings can be disabled by use of the command line option --no_warnings, see page 264.

Error

A diagnostic message that is produced when the compiler finds a construct which clearly violates the C or C++ language rules, such that code cannot be produced. An error will produce a non-zero exit code.

Fatal error

A diagnostic message that is produced when the compiler finds a condition that not only prevents code generation, but which makes further processing of the source code pointless. After the message is issued, compilation terminates. A fatal error will produce a non-zero exit code.

SETTING THE SEVERITY LEVEL

The diagnostic messages can be suppressed or the severity level can be changed for all diagnostics messages, except for fatal errors and some of the regular errors.

See *Summary of compiler options*, page 242, for information about the compiler options that are available for setting severity levels.

See the chapter *Pragma directives*, for information about the pragma directives that are available for setting severity levels.

INTERNAL ERROR

An internal error is a diagnostic message that signals that there was a serious and unexpected failure due to a fault in the compiler. It is produced using this form:

```
Internal error: message
```

where *message* is an explanatory message. If internal errors occur, they should be reported to your software distributor or IAR Systems Technical Support. Include enough information to reproduce the problem, typically:

- The product name
- The version number of the compiler, which can be seen in the header of the list files generated by the compiler
- Your license number
- The exact internal error message text
- The source file of the application that generated the internal error
- A list of the options that were used when the internal error occurred.

Compiler options

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.



See the *IDE Project Management and Building 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 233.

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:

```
-1A MyList.1st
```

For example, a long option with an optional parameter followed by a mandatory parameter:

```
--preprocess=n PreprocOutput.1st
```

Rules for specifying a filename or directory as parameters

These rules apply for options taking a filename or directory as parameters:

Options that take a filename as a parameter can optionally take a file path. The path
can be relative or absolute. For example, to generate a listing to the file List.lst
in the directory ...listings.

```
icc8051 prog.c -l ..\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:

```
icc8051 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:

```
icc8051 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:

```
icc8051 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:

```
icc8051 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
```

⁻⁻diag_warning=Be0002

Summary of compiler options

This table summarizes the compiler command line options:

Command line option	Description
calling_convention	Specifies the calling convention
c89	Specifies the C89 dialect
char_is_signed	Treats char as signed
char_is_unsigned	Treats char as unsigned
clib	Uses the system include files for the CLIB library
code_model	Specifies the code model
core	Specifies a CPU core
-D	Defines preprocessor symbols
data_model	Specifies the data model
debug	Generates debug information
dependencies	Lists file dependencies
diag_error	Treats these as errors
diag_remark	Treats these as remarks
diag_suppress	Suppresses these diagnostics
diag_warning	Treats these as warnings
diagnostics_tables	Lists all diagnostic messages
discard_unused_publics	Discards unused public symbols
dlib	Uses the system include files for the DLIB library
dlib_config	Uses the system include files for the DLIB library and determines which configuration of the library to use
dptr	Enables support for multiple data pointers
-e	Enables language extensions
ec++	Specifies Embedded C++
eec++	Specifies Extended Embedded C++
enable_multibytes	Enables support for multibyte characters in source files
error_limit	Specifies the allowed number of errors before compilation stops
extended_stack	Specifies use of an extended stack

Table 40: Compiler options summary

Command line option	Description
-f	Extends the command line
guard_calls	Enables guards for function static variable initialization
has_cobank	Informs the compiler that the device has COBANK bits in the bank selection register for constants
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
macro_positions_in _diagnostics	Obtains positions inside macros in diagnostic messages
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
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_static_destruction	Disables destruction of C++ static variables at program exit
no_system_include	Disables the automatic search for system include files
no_tbaa	Disables type-based alias analysis

Table 40: Compiler options summary (Continued)

Command line option	Description
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
nr_virtual_regs	Sets the work area size
-0	Sets the optimization level
-0	Sets the object filename. Alias foroutput.
omit_types	Excludes type information
only_stdout	Uses standard output only
output	Sets the object filename
place_constants	Specifies the location of constants and strings
predef_macros	Lists the predefined symbols.
preinclude	Includes an include file before reading the source file
preprocess	Generates preprocessor output
public_equ	Defines a global named assembler label
-r	Generates debug information. Alias fordebug.
relaxed_fp	Relaxes the rules for optimizing floating-point expressions
remarks	Enables remarks
require_prototypes	Verifies that functions are declared before they are defined
rom_mon_bp_padding	Enables setting breakpoints on all C statements when debugging using the generic ROM-monitor.
silent	Sets silent operation
strict	Checks for strict compliance with Standard C/C++
system_include_dir	Specifies the path for system include files
use_c++_inline	Uses C++ inline semantics in C99
vla	Enables C99 VLA support
warnings_affect_exit_code	Warnings affect exit code
warnings_are_errors	Warnings are treated as errors

Table 40: Compiler options summary (Continued)

Descriptions of compiler options

The following section gives detailed reference information about each compiler option.



Note that if you use the options page **Extra Options** to specify specific command line options, the IDE does not perform an instant check for consistency problems like conflicting options, duplication of options, or use of irrelevant options.

--calling_convention

Syntax --calling_convention=convention

Parameters convention is one of:

data_overlay|do
idata_overlay|io
idata_reentrant|ir
pdata_reentrant|pr
xdata_reentrant|xr
ext_stack_reentrant|er

Description Use this option to specify the default calling convention for a module. All runtime

modules in an application must use the same calling convention. However, note that it

is possible to override this for individual functions, by using keywords.

See also *Choosing a calling convention*, page 62.



Project>Options>General Options>Target>Calling convention

--c89

Syntax --c89

Description Use this option to enable the C89 C dialect instead of Standard C.

Note: This option is mandatory when the MISRA C checking is enabled.

See also *C language overview*, page 189.

X

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language>C dialect>C89

--char_is_signed

Syntax --char_is_signed

Description By default, the compiler interprets the plain char type as unsigned. Use this option to

make the compiler interpret the plain char type as signed instead. This can be useful when you, for example, want to maintain compatibility with another compiler.

Note: The runtime library is compiled without the --char_is_signed option and cannot be used with code that is compiled with this option.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language>Plain 'char' is

--char_is_unsigned

Syntax --char_is_unsigned

Description Use this option to make the compiler interpret the plain char type as unsigned. This is

the default interpretation of the plain char type.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language>Plain 'char' is

--clib

Syntax --clib

Description Use this option to use the system header files for the CLIB library; the compiler will

automatically locate the files and use them when compiling.

Note: The CLIB library is used by default for C projects; to use the DLIB library, use

the --dlib or the --dlib_config option instead.

See also --dlib, page 252 and --dlib config, page 253.



To set related options, choose:

Project>Options>General Options>Library Configuration

--code_model

Parameters

near | n Allows for up to 64 Kbytes of ROM; default for the core variant Plain.

banked b Allows for up to I Mbyte of ROM via up to sixteen 64-Kbyte banks

and one root bank; supports banked 24-bit calls.

banked_ext2 | b2 Allows for up to 16 Mbytes of ROM via up to sixteen I-Mbyte banks;

supports banked 24-bit calls. Default for the core variant Extended2. $\label{eq:core_prop}$

 $far \mid f$ Allows for up to 16 Mbytes of ROM and supports true 24-bit calls.

Default for the core variant Extended I.

Description Use this option to select the code model for which the code is to be generated. If you do

not select a code model, the compiler uses the default code model. Note that all modules

of your application must use the same code model.

See also *Code models for function storage*, page 73.



Project>Options>General Options>Target>Code model

--core

Syntax --core={plain|pl|extended1|e1|extended2|e2}

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 Plain core as default. Note that all modules of your application must use the same core.

The compiler supports the different 8051 microcontroller cores and derivatives based on these cores. The object code that the compiler generates for the different cores is not binary compatible.



Project>Options>General Options>Target>Core

-D

Syntax -D symbol[=value]

Parameters

symbol The name of the preprocessor symbol value The value of the preprocessor symbol

Description

Use this option to define a preprocessor symbol. If no value is specified, 1 is used. This option can be used one or more times on the command line.

The option -D has the same effect as a #define statement at the top of the source file:

-Dsymbol

is equivalent to:

#define symbol 1

To get the equivalence of:

#define FOO

specify the = sign but nothing after, for example:

-DFOO=



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Preprocessor>Defined symbols

--data model

Syntax --data model=

{tiny|t|small|s|large|1|far|f|far_generic|fg|generic|g}

Parameters

tiny|t Default memory attribute __data

Default pointer attribute __idata

small|s Default memory attribute __idata

> Default pointer attribute __idata Default for the core variant Plain

large | 1 Default memory attribute __xdata

Default pointer attribute __xdata

Default for the core variant Extended2

far | f Default memory attribute __far

Default pointer attribute __far Default for the core variant Extended I

Default pointer attribute __generic

Default pointer attribute __generic

Description Use this option to select the data model, which means a default placement of data

objects. If you do not select a data model, the compiler uses the default data model. Note

that all modules of your application must use the same data model.

See also Data models, page 48.



Project>Options>General Options>Target>Data model

--debug, -r

Syntax --debug

-r

Description

Use the --debug or -r option to make the compiler include information in the object

modules required by the IAR C-SPY® Debugger and other symbolic debuggers.

Note: Including debug information will make the object files larger than otherwise.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Output>Generate debug information

--dependencies

Syntax --dependencies[=[i|m]] {filename|directory}

Parameters

i (default) Lists only the names of files

m Lists in makefile style

For information about specifying a filename or a directory, see *Rules for specifying a*

filename or directory as parameters, page 240.

Description Use this option to make the compiler list the names of all source and header files opened

for input into a file with the default filename extension i.

Example

If --dependencies or --dependencies=i is used, the name of each opened input file, including the full path, if available, is output on a separate line. For example:

```
c:\iar\product\include\stdio.h
d:\myproject\include\foo.h
```

If --dependencies=m is used, the output is in makefile style. For each input file, one line containing a makefile dependency rule is produced. Each line consists of the name of the object file, a colon, a space, and the name of an input file. For example:

```
foo.r51: c:\iar\product\include\stdio.h
foo.r51: 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 Pe117

Description

Use this option to reclassify certain diagnostic messages as errors. An error indicates a violation of the C or C++ language rules, of such severity that object code will not be generated. The exit code will be non-zero. This option may be used more than once on the command line.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Diagnostics>Treat these as errors

--diag_remark

Syntax --diag_remark=tag[,tag,...]

Parameters

tag The number of a diagnostic message, for example the message

number Pe177

Description Use this option to reclassify certain diagnostic messages as remarks. A remark is the

least severe type of diagnostic message and indicates a source code construction that may cause strange behavior in the generated code. This option may be used more than

once on the command line.

Note: By default, remarks are not displayed; use the --remarks option to display

them.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Diagnostics>Treat these as remarks

--diag_suppress

Syntax --diag_suppress=tag[,tag,...]

Parameters

tag The number of a diagnostic message, for example the message

number Pe117

Description Use this option to suppress certain diagnostic messages. These messages will not be

displayed. This option may be used more than once on the command line.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Diagnostics>Suppress these diagnostics

--diag_warning

Syntax --diag_warning=tag[,tag,...]

Parameters

tag The number of a diagnostic message, for example the message

number Pe826

Description Use this option to reclassify certain diagnostic messages as warnings. A warning

indicates an error or omission that is of concern, but which will not cause the compiler

to stop before compilation is completed. This option may be used more than once on the command line.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Diagnostics>Treat these as warnings

--diagnostics_tables

Syntax --diagnostics_tables {filename | directory}

Parameters For information about specifying a filename or a directory, see *Rules for specifying a*

filename or directory as parameters, page 240.

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.

--discard_unused_publics

Syntax --discard_unused_publics

Description Use this option to discard unused public functions and variables when compiling with

the --mfc compiler option.

Note: Do not use this option only on parts of the application, as necessary symbols

might be removed from the generated output.

See also --mfc, page 260 and Multi-file compilation units, page 220.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Discard unused publics

--dlib

Syntax --dlib

Description Use this option to use the system header files for the DLIB library; the compiler will

automatically locate the files and use them when compiling.

To use the CLIB library, use the --clib option instead.

See also

--dlib_config, page 253, --no_system_include, page 263, --system_include_dir, page 271, and --clib, page 246.



To set related options, choose:

Project>Options>General Options>Library Configuration

--dlib_config

Syntax --dlib_config filename.h|config

Parameters

filename A DLIB configuration header file. For information about specifying

a filename, see Rules for specifying a filename or directory as

parameters, page 240.

config The default configuration file for the specified configuration will be

used. Choose between:

none, no configuration will be used

tiny, the tiny library configuration will be used

normal, the normal library configuration will be used (default)

full, the full library configuration will be used.

Description

Use this option to specify which library configuration to use, either by specifying an explicit file or by specifying a library configuration—in which case the default file for that library configuration will be used. Make sure that you specify a configuration that corresponds to the library you are using. If you do not specify this option, the default library configuration file will be used.

All prebuilt runtime libraries are delivered with corresponding configuration files. You can find the library object files and the library configuration files in the directory 8051\lib\dlib. For examples and information about prebuilt runtime libraries, see *Using a prebuilt library*, page 116.

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 125.

Note: This option only applies to the IAR DLIB runtime environment.



To set related options, choose:

Project>Options>General Options>Library Configuration

--dptr

Syntax --dptr={[size][,number][,visibility][,select]}

Parameters

 $size=16 \mid 24$ The pointer size in bits. For the Extended I core, the

default value is 24, for the other cores it is 16.

 $\textit{number=}1\,|\,2\,|\,3\,|\,4\,|\,5\,|\,6\,|\,7\,|\,8 \qquad \quad \text{The number of data pointers (DPTR registers)}. \text{ For the}$

Extended1 core, the default value is 2, for all other cores

it is 1.

visibility=separate

shadowed

If you are using 2 or more data pointers, the $\mathtt{DPTR0}$ register can either hide (shadow) the other registers, making them unavailable to the compiler, or they can all be visible in separate special function registers. The default

visibility is separate.

select=inc|xor(mask)

Specifies the method for selecting the active data pointer. XOR uses the ORL or ANL instruction to set the active pointer in the data pointer selection register. The bits used are specified in a bit mask. For example, if four data pointers are used and the selection bits are bit 0 and bit 2, the mask should be 0×05 (00000101 in binary format).

Default (0x01) for the Plain core.

INC increments the bits in the data pointer selection register to select the active data pointer. See Selecting the active data pointer, page 45. Default for the Extended 1

core.

Description

Use this option to enable support for more than one data pointer; a feature in many 8051 devices. You can specify the number of pointers, the size of the pointers, whether they are visible or not, and the method for switching between them.

To use multiple DPTRs, you must specify the location of the DPTR registers and the data pointer selection register (?DPS), either in the linker command file or in the IAR Embedded Workbench IDE.

Example

To use two 16-bit data pointers, use:

--dptr=2,16

In this case, the default value separate is used for DPTR visibility and xor(0x01) is used for DPTR selection.

To use four 24-bit pointers, all of them visible in separate registers, to be switched between using the XOR method, use:

```
--dptr=24,4,separate,xor(0x05)
or
--dptr=24 --dptr=4 --dptr=separate --dptr=xor(0x05)
```

See also

Code models for function storage, page 73.



Project>Options>General Options>Target>Data Pointer

-е

Syntax -e

Description In the command line version of the compiler, language extensions are disabled by

default. If you use language extensions such as extended keywords and anonymous structs and unions in your source code, you must use this option to enable them.

Note: The -e option and the --strict option cannot be used at the same time.

See also Enabling language extensions, page 191.

X

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language>Standard with IAR extensions

Note: By default, this option is selected in the IDE.

--ec++

Syntax --ec++

Description In the compiler, the default language is C. If you use Embedded C++, you must use this

option to set the language the compiler uses to Embedded C++.

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 198.



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.

X

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.

X

This option is not available in the IDE.

--extended_stack

Syntax --extended_stack

Description Use this option to enable the extended stack that is available if you use an 8051 extended

device. This option is set by default if the extended stack reentrant calling convention is used. For all other calling conventions, the extended stack option is not set by default.

Note: The extended stack option cannot be used with the idata or xdata stacks, and by implication, neither with the idata reentrant or xdata reentrant calling conventions.

See also

Code models for function storage, page 73.



Project>Options>General Options>Target>Do not use extended stack

-f

Syntax -f filename

Parameters For information about specifying a filename, see Rules for specifying a filename or

directory as parameters, page 240.

Descriptions Use this option to make the compiler read command line options from the named file,

with the default filename extension xcl.

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**.

--guard_calls

Syntax --guard_calls

Description Use this option to enable guards for function static variable initialization. This option

should be used in a threaded C++ environment.

See also *Managing a multithreaded environment*, page 141.



To set this option, use **Project>Options>**C/C++ **Compiler>**Extra **Options**.

--has cobank

Syntax --has_cobank

Description Use this option to inform the compiler that the device you are using has COBANK bits

in the bank selection register for constants. In particular, this is important if it is a Silicon

Laboratories C8051F120 device.



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.

X

This option is not available in the IDE.

-I

Syntax -I path

Parameters

path The search path for #include files

Description Use this option to specify the search paths for #include files. This option can be used

more than once on the command line.

See also *Include file search procedure*, page 234.



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 (default) Assembler list file

Α		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 *
С		C or C++ list file
С	(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
Н		Include source lines from header files in output. Without this option, only source lines from the primary source file are included

* This makes the list file less useful as input to the assembler, but more useful for reading by a human.

For information about specifying a filename or a directory, see *Rules for specifying a filename or directory as parameters*, page 240.

Description

Use this option to generate an assembler or C/C++ listing to a file. Note that this option can be used one or more times on the command line.



To set related options, choose:

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>List

--library_module

Syntax --library_module

Description

Use this option to make the compiler generate a library module rather than a program module. A program module is always included during linking. A library module will only be included if it is referenced in your program.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Output>Module type>Library Module

--macro positions in diagnostics

Syntax --macro_positions_in_diagnostics

Description Use this option to obtain position references inside macros in diagnostic messages. This

is useful for detecting incorrect source code constructs in macros.



To set this option, use **Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Extra Options**.

--mfc

Syntax --mfc

Description Use this option to enable *multi-file compilation*. This means that the compiler compiles

one or several source files specified on the command line as one unit, which enhances

interprocedural optimizations.

Note: The compiler will generate one object file per input source code file, where the first object file contains all relevant data and the other ones are empty. If you want only the first file to be produced, use the -o compiler option and specify a certain output file.

icc8051 myfile1.c myfile2.c myfile3.c --mfc Example

See also --discard unused publics, page 252, --output, -o, page 266, and Multi-file compilation

units, page 220.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Multi-file compilation

--migration_preprocessor_extensions

Syntax --migration_preprocessor_extensions

> 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 Standard C, but it will also reject some code that does conform to the standard.

Description

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.

X

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Output>Object module name

--no_code_motion

Syntax --no_code_motion

Description Use this option to disable code motion optimizations.

Note: This option has no effect at optimization levels below Medium.

See also *Code motion*, page 223.

X

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Optimizations>Enable transformations>Code motion

--no_cse

Syntax --no_cse

Description Use this option to disable common subexpression elimination.

Note: This option has no effect at optimization levels below Medium.

See also *Common subexpression elimination*, page 222.

X

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Optimizations>Enable transformations>Common subexpression elimination

--no inline

Syntax --no_inline

Description Use this option to disable function inlining.

Note: This option has no effect at optimization levels below High.

See also Function inlining, page 223.

X

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 334.

X

This option is not available in the IDE.

--no_static_destruction

Syntax --no_static_destruction

Description Normally, the compiler emits code to destroy C++ static variables that require

destruction at program exit. Sometimes, such destruction is not needed.

Use this option to suppress the emission of such code.

X

To set this option, use **Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Extra Options**.

--no_system_include

Syntax --no_system_include

Description By default, the compiler automatically locates the system include files. Use this option

to disable the automatic search for system include files. In this case, you might need to

set up the search path by using the -I compiler option.

See also --dlib, page 252, --dlib config, page 253, and --system include dir, page 271.

X

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Preprocessor>Ignore standard include directories

--no_tbaa

Syntax --no_tbaa

Description Use this option to disable type-based alias analysis.

Note: This option has no effect at optimization levels below High.

See also *Type-based alias analysis*, page 224.

X

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Optimizations>Enable transformations>Type-based alias analysis

--no_typedefs_in_diagnostics

Syntax --no_typedefs_in_diagnostics

Description Use this option to disable the use of typedef names in diagnostics. Normally, when a

type is mentioned in a message from the compiler, most commonly in a diagnostic message of some kind, the typedef names that were used in the original declaration are

used whenever they make the resulting text shorter.

Example typedef int (*MyPtr)(char const *);

MyPtr p = "foo";

will give an error message like this:

 ${\tt Error[Pe144]:}$ 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.

Note: This option has no effect at optimization levels below High.

See also Loop unrolling, page 222.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Optimizations>Enable transformations>Loop unrolling

--no_warnings

Syntax --no_warnings

Description By default, the compiler issues warning messages. Use this option to disable all warning

messages.



This option is not available in the IDE.

--no_wrap_diagnostics

Syntax --no_wrap_diagnostics

Description By default, long lines in diagnostic messages are broken into several lines to make the message easier to read. Use this option to disable line wrapping of diagnostic messages.

X

This option is not available in the IDE.

--nr_virtual_regs

Syntax --nr_virtual_regs=n

Parameter

The size of the work area; a value between 8 and 32.

Description Use this option to specify the size of the work area. The virtual registers are located in

data memory.

See also *Virtual registers*, page 70.



Project>Options>General Options>Target>Number of virtual registers

-0

Syntax -O[n|1|m|h|hs|hz]

Parameters

n None* (Best debug support)

 $\begin{array}{ll} 1 \text{ (default)} & \text{Low*} \\ \\ \text{m} & \text{Medium} \end{array}$

h High, balanced
hs High, favoring speed
hz High, favoring size

*The most important difference between None and Low is that at None, all non-static variables will live during their entire scope.

Description

Use this option to set the optimization level to be used by the compiler when optimizing the code. If no optimization option is specified, the optimization level Low is used by default. If only −○ is used without any parameter, the optimization level High balanced is used.

A low level of optimization makes it relatively easy to follow the program flow in the debugger, and, conversely, a high level of optimization makes it relatively hard.

See also Controlling compiler optimizations, page 220.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Optimizations

--omit_types

Syntax --omit_types

Description By default, the compiler includes type information about variables and functions in the

object output. Use this option if you do not want the compiler to include this type information in the output, which is useful when you build a library that should not contain type information. The object file will then only contain type information that is a part of a symbol's name. This means that the linker cannot check symbol references for type correctness.



To set this option, use **Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Extra Options**.

--only_stdout

Syntax --only_stdout

Description

Use this option to make the compiler use the standard output stream (stdout) also for messages that are normally directed to the error output stream (stderr).



This option is not available in the IDE.

--output, -o

Parameters For information about specifying a filename or a directory, see *Rules for specifying a*

filename or directory as parameters, page 240.

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 r51. Use this option to explicitly

specify a different output filename for the object code output.



This option is not available in the IDE.

--place_constants

Syntax --place_constants={data|data_rom|code}

Parameters

data (default) Copies constants and strings from code memory to data memory.

The specific data memory depends on the default data model.

data_rom Places constants and strings in xdata or far memory, depending on

the data model, in a range where ROM is located. In the xdata data model the objects are placed in xdata memory and in the far data model they are placed in far memory. In the rest of the data models,

the data_rom modifier is not allowed.

code Places constants and strings in code memory. In this case, the

prebuilt runtime libraries cannot be used as is.

Description Use this option to specify the default location for constants and strings. The default

location can be overridden for individual constants and strings by use of keywords.

If you locate constants and strings in code memory, you might want to use some 8051-specific CLIB library function variants that allow access to strings in code

memory.

See also Constants and strings, page 60 and 8051-specific CLIB functions, page 348.



Project>Options>General Options>Target>Location for constants and strings

--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 240.

Description Use this option to list the predefined symbols. When using this option, make sure to also

use the same options as for the rest of your project.

If a filename is specified, the compiler stores the output in that file. If a directory is specified, the compiler stores the output in that directory, in a file with the predef

filename extension.

Note that this option requires that you specify a source file on the command line.

X

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 240.

Description Use this option to make the compiler read the specified include file before it starts to

read the source file. This is useful if you want to change something in the source code

for the entire application, for instance if you want to define a new symbol.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Preprocessor>Preinclude file

--preprocess

Syntax --preprocess[=[c][n][1]] {filename|directory}

Parameters

C Preserve comments

n Preprocess only

1 Generate #line directives

For information about specifying a filename or a directory, see Rules for specifying a

filename or directory as parameters, page 240.

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.

--relaxed_fp

Syntax

--relaxed_fp

Description

Use this option to allow the compiler to relax the language rules and perform more aggressive optimization of floating-point expressions. This option improves performance for floating-point expressions that fulfill these conditions:

- The expression consists of both single- and double-precision values
- The double-precision values can be converted to single precision without loss of accuracy
- The result of the expression is converted to single precision.

Note that performing the calculation in single precision instead of double precision might cause a loss of accuracy.

Example

```
float F(float a, float b)
{
   return a + b * 3.0;
}
```

The C standard states that 3.0 in this example has the type double and therefore the whole expression should be evaluated in double precision. However, when the --relaxed_fp option is used, 3.0 will be converted to float and the whole expression can be evaluated in float precision.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language>Relaxed floating-point precision

--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 237.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Diagnostics>Enable remarks

--require_prototypes

Syntax

--require_prototypes

Description

Use this option to force the compiler to verify that all functions have proper prototypes. Using this option means that code containing any of the following will generate an error:

- A function call of a function with no declaration, or with a Kernighan & Ritchie C declaration
- A function definition of a public function with no previous prototype declaration
- An indirect function call through a function pointer with a type that does not include a prototype.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language>Require prototypes

--rom_mon_bp_padding

Syntax

--rom_monitor_bp_padding

Description

Use this option to enable setting breakpoints on all C statements when using the generic C-SPY ROM-monitor debugger.

When the C-SPY ROM-monitor sets a breakpoint, it replaces the original instruction with the 3-byte instruction LCALL monitor. For those cases where the original instruction has a different size than three bytes, the compiler will insert extra NOP instructions (pads) to ensure that all jumps to this destination are correctly aligned.

Note: This mechanism is only supported for breakpoints that you set on C-statement level. For breakpoints in assembler code, you have to add pads manually.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Code>Padding for ROM-monitor breakpoints

--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

Syntax --strict

Description By default, the compiler accepts a relaxed superset of Standard C and C++. Use this

option to ensure that the source code of your application instead conforms to strict

Standard C and C++.

Note: The -e option and the --strict option cannot be used at the same time.

See also Enabling language extensions, page 191.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language>Language conformance>Strict

--system_include_dir

Syntax --system_include_dir path

Parameters

path The path to the system include files. For information about

specifying a path, see Rules for specifying a filename or directory as

parameters, page 240.

Description By default, the compiler automatically locates the system include files. Use this option

to explicitly specify a different path to the system include files. This might be useful if

you have not installed IAR Embedded Workbench in the default location.

See also --dlib, page 252, --dlib config, page 253, and --no system include, page 263.



This option is not available in the IDE.

--use c++ inline

Syntax --use_c++_inline

Description Standard C uses slightly different semantics for the inline keyword than C++ does.

Use this option to get C++ semantics when compiling a Standard C source code file.

The main difference in semantics is that in Standard C you cannot in general simply supply an inline definition in a header file. You need to supply an external definition in one of the compilation units, possibly by designating the inline definition as being external in that compilation unit.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language>C dialect>C99>C++ inline semantics

--vla

Syntax --vla

Description Use this option to enable support for C99 variable length arrays. This option requires

Standard C and cannot be used together with the --c89 compiler option.

X

Note: --vla should not be used together with the longjmp library function, as that can lead to memory leakages.

See also *C language overview*, page 189.

×

Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Language>C dialect>Allow VLA

--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 251.



Project>Options>C/C++ Compiler>Diagnostics>Treat all warnings as errors

Descriptions of compiler options

Data representation

This chapter describes the data types, pointers, and structure types supported by the compiler.

See the chapter Efficient coding for embedded applications for information about which data types 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.

All data types must have a size that is a multiple of their alignment. Otherwise, only the first element of an array would be guaranteed to be placed in accordance with the alignment requirements. This means that the compiler might add pad bytes at the end of the structure.

Note that with the #pragma data_alignment directive you can increase the alignment demands on specific variables.

ALIGNMENT ON THE 8051 MICROCONTROLLER

The 8051 microcontrollers have no alignment requirements, thus the alignment in the IAR C/C++ Compiler for 8051 is 1.

Basic data types

The compiler supports both all Standard 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	1
unsigned short	16 bits	0 to 65535	1
signed int	16 bits	-32768 to 32767	1
unsigned int	16 bits	0 to 65535	1
signed long	32 bits	-2 ³¹ to 2 ³¹ -1	1
unsigned long	32 bits	0 to 2 ³² -I	1
signed long long	32 bits	-2 ³¹ to 2 ³¹ -1	1
unsigned long long	32 bits	0 to 2 ³² -I	I

Table 41: Integer types

Signed variables are represented using the two's complement form.

Bool

The bool data type is supported by default in the C++ language. If you have enabled language extensions, the bool type can also be used in C source code if you include the file stdbool.h. This will also enable the boolean values false and true.

The enum type

The compiler will use the smallest type required to hold enum constants, preferring signed rather than unsigned.

When IAR Systems language extensions are enabled, and in C++, the enum constants and types can also be of the type long or unsigned 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:

```
/* Disables usage of the char type for enum */
enum Cards{Spade1, Spade2,
```

DontUseChar=257};

The char type

The char type is by default unsigned in the compiler, but the --char_is_signed compiler option allows you to make it signed. Note, however, that the library is compiled with the char type as unsigned.

The wchar_t type

The wchar_t data type is an integer type whose range of values can represent distinct codes for all members of the largest extended character set specified among the supported locals.

The wchar_t data type is supported by default in the C++ language. To use the wchar_t type also in C source code, you must include the file stddef.h from the runtime library.

Note: The IAR CLIB Library has only rudimentary support for wchar_t.

Bitfields

In Standard C, int, signed int, and unsigned int can be used as the base type for integer bitfields. In standard C++, and in C when language extensions are enabled in the compiler, any integer or enumeration type can be used as the base type. It is implementation-defined whether a plain integer type (char, short, int, etc) results in a signed or unsigned bitfield.

In the IAR C/C++ Compiler for 8051, plain integer types are treated as signed.

Bitfields in expressions are treated as int if int can represent all values of the bitfield. Otherwise, they are treated as the bitfield base type. Note that bitfields containing 1-bit fields will be very compact if declared in bdata memory. The fields will also be very efficient to access.

Each bitfield is placed into a container of its base type from the least significant bit to the most significant bit. If the last container is of the same type and has enough bits available, the bitfield is placed into this container, otherwise a new container is allocated.

If you use the directive #pragma bitfield=reversed, bitfields are placed from the most significant bit to the least significant bit in each container. See *bitfields*, page 313.

Example

Assume this example:

```
struct BitfieldExample
{
  uint32_t a : 12;
  uint16_t b : 3;
  uint16_t c : 7;
  uint8_t d;
};
```

To place the first bitfield, a, the compiler allocates a 32-bit container at offset 0 and puts a into the least significant 12 bits of the container.

To place the second bitfield, b, a new container is allocated at offset 4, because the type of the bitfield is not the same as that of the previous one. b is placed into the least significant three bits of this container.

The third bitfield, c, has the same type as b and fits into the same container.

The fourth member, d, is allocated into the byte at offset 6. d cannot be placed into the same container as b and c because it is not a bitfield, it is not of the same type, and it would not fit.

When using reverse order, each bitfield is instead placed starting from the most significant bit of its container.

MSB LSB MSB LSB a С b uint32_t uint I 6_t = padding MSB LSB LSB LSB MSB LSB MSB MSB LSB MSB MSB LSB MSB LSB a a С b С d 3 2 5 MSB LSB MSB LSB MSB LSB MSB LSB MSB LSB MSB MSB LSB LSB d reversed С Ь a a c LSB LSB MSB uint32_t uint I 6_t b С

This is the layout of bitfield_example:

Figure 15: Layout of bitfield_example

FLOATING-POINT TYPES

In the IAR C/C++ Compiler for 8051, 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 42: Floating-point types

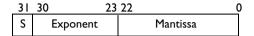
The compiler does not support subnormal numbers. All operations that should produce subnormal numbers will instead generate zero.

Floating-point environment

Exception flags are not supported. The feraiseexcept function does not raise any exceptions.

32-bit floating-point format

The representation of a 32-bit floating-point number as an integer is:



The exponent is 8 bits, and the mantissa is 23 bits.

The value of the number is:

The range of the number is at least:

```
±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.

Note: The IAR CLIB Library does not fully support the special cases of floating-point numbers, such as infinity and NaN. 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

Code pointers have two sizes: 16 or 24 bits. The following function pointers are available:

Pointer	Size	Address range	Description
near_func	2 bytes	0-0xFFFF	Uses an LCALL/LJMP instruction to call the function.
banked_func	2 bytes	0-0xffffff	Calls a relay function which performs the bank switch and jumps to the banked function. Uses ?BRET to return from the function. See Bank switching in the Banked code model, page 89.
banked_func_ext2	3 bytes	0-0xffffff	Uses the MEX1 register and the memory extension stack. See Bank switching in the Banked extended2 code model, page 90.
far_func	3 bytes	0-0xffffff	Uses an extended LCALL/LJMP instruction supporting a 24-bit destination address to call the function. (These instructions are only available in some devices.)

Table 43: Function pointers

DATA POINTERS

Data pointers have three sizes: 8, 16, or 24 bits. The 8-bit pointer is used for data, bdata, idata or pdata memory, the 16-bit pointer is used for xdata or 16-bit code memory, and the 24-bit pointer is used for extended memories and for the generic pointer type.

The following data pointers are available:

Pointer	Address range	Pointer size	Index type	Description
idata	0-0xFF	l byte	signed char	Indirectly accessed data memory, accessed using MOV A, @Ri
pdata	0-0xFF	I byte	signed char	Parameter data, accessed using ${\tt MOVX}$ A , ${\tt @Ri}$

Table 44: Data pointers

Pointer	Address range	Pointer size	Index type	Description
xdata	0-0xFFFF	2 bytes	signed short	Xdata memory, accessed using MOVX A, @DPTR
generic	0-0xffff	3 bytes	signed short	The most significant byte identifies whether the pointer points to code or data memory
far22*	0-0x3FFFFF	3 bytes	signed short	Far 22 x data memory, accessed using ${\tt MOVX}$
far*	0-0xffffff	3 bytes	signed short	Far xdata memory, accessed using MOVX
huge	0-0xffffff	3 bytes	signed long	Huge xdata memory
code	0-0xFFFF	2 bytes	signed short	Code memory, accessed using ${\tt MOVC}$
far22_code	*0-0x3FFFFF	3 bytes	signed short	Far22 code memory, accessed using MOVC
far_code*	0-0xffffff	3 bytes	signed short	Far code memory, accessed using MOVC
huge_code	0-0xFFFFFF	3 bytes	signed long	Huge code memory, accessed using MOVC
far22_rom*	0-0x3FFFFF	3 bytes	signed short	Far22 code memory, accessed using MOVC
far_rom*	0-0xFFFFFF	3 bytes	signed short	Far code memory, accessed using MOVC
huge_rom	0-0xffffff	3 bytes	signed long	Huge code memory, accessed using MOVC

Table 44: Data pointers (Continued)

Generic pointers

A generic pointer can access objects located in both data and code memory. These pointers are 3 bytes in size. The most significant byte reveals which memory type the object is located in and the remaining bits specify the address in that memory.

^{*} The far22 and far pointer types have an index type that is smaller than the pointer size, which means pointer arithmetic will only be performed on the lower 16 bits. This restricts the placement of the object that the pointer points at. That is, the object can only be placed within 64-Kbyte pages.

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 from a smaller pointer to a larger pointer is performed by truncation
- Casting from a larger pointer to a smaller pointer is performed by zero extension.

size t

size_t is the unsigned integer type required to hold the maximum size of an object. In the IAR C/C++ Compiler for 8051, the size of size_t is equal to the size of the unsigned type corresponding to the signed index type of the data pointer in use. The index type of data pointers is described in Table 44, *Data pointers*, page 281.

Note that for the Small data model, this is formally a violation of the standard; the size of size_t should actually be 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++ Compiler for 8051, the size of ptrdiff_t is equal to the size of the index type of the data pointer in use. The index type of data pointers is described in Table 44, *Data pointers*, page 281. When two pointers of different types are subtracted, the index type of the largest type determines the size.

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++ Compiler for 8051, the size of intptr_t is 32 bits and the type is signed long.

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.

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 16: Structure layout

The alignment of the structure is 1 byte, and the size is 3 bytes.

Type qualifiers

According to the C standard, volatile and const are type qualifiers.

DECLARING OBJECTS VOLATILE

By declaring an object volatile, the compiler is informed that the value of the object can change beyond the compiler's control. The compiler must also assume that any

accesses can have side effects—thus all accesses to the volatile object must be preserved.

There are three main reasons for declaring an object volatile:

- Shared access; the object is shared between several tasks in a multitasking environment
- Trigger access; as for a memory-mapped SFR where the fact that an access occurs has an effect
- Modified access; where the contents of the object can change in ways not known to the compiler.

Definition of access to volatile objects

The C standard defines an abstract machine, which governs the behavior of accesses to volatile declared objects. In general and in accordance to the abstract machine:

- The compiler considers each read and write access to an object declared volatile as an access
- The unit for the access is either the entire object or, for accesses to an element in a composite object—such as an array, struct, class, or union—the element. For example:

```
char volatile a;
a = 5;    /* A write access */
a += 6;    /* First a read then a write access */
```

- An access to a bitfield is treated as an access to the underlying type
- Adding a const qualifier to a volatile object will make write accesses to the
 object impossible. However, the object will be placed in RAM as specified by the C
 standard.

However, these rules are not detailed enough to handle the hardware-related requirements. The rules specific to the IAR C/C++ Compiler for 8051 are described below.

Rules for accesses

In the IAR C/C++ Compiler for 8051, accesses to volatile declared objects are subject to these rules:

- All accesses are preserved
- All accesses are complete, that is, the whole object is accessed
- All accesses are performed in the same order as given in the abstract machine
- All accesses are atomic, that is, they cannot be interrupted.

The compiler adheres to these rules for 8-bit accesses of volatile declared objects in any data memory (RAM), and 1-bit accesses of volatile declared objects located in bit-addressable sfr memory or in bdata memory. For all other combinations, only the rule that states that all accesses are preserved applies.

DECLARING OBJECTS VOLATILE AND CONST

If you declare a volatile object const, it will be write-protected but it will still be stored in RAM memory as the C standard specifies.

To store the object in read-only memory instead, but still make it possible to access it as a const volatile object, declare it with one of these memory attributes: __code, __far_code, __far_rom, __far22_code, __far22_rom, __huge_code, __huge_rom, or __xdata_rom.

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 memories using the memory attributes __code, __far_code, and __huge_code are allocated in ROM. For all other memory attributes, the objects are allocated in RAM and initialized by the runtime system at startup.

In C++, objects that require runtime initialization cannot be placed in ROM.

Data types in C++

In C++, all plain C data types are represented in the same way as described earlier in this chapter. However, if any Embedded C++ features are used for a type, no assumptions can be made concerning the data representation. This means, for example, that it is not supported to write assembler code that accesses class members.

Extended keywords

This chapter describes the extended keywords that support specific features of the 8051 microcontroller and the general syntax rules for the keywords. Finally the chapter gives a detailed description of each keyword.

For information about the address ranges of the different memory areas, see the chapter Segment reference.

General syntax rules for extended keywords

To understand the syntax rules for the extended keywords, it is important to be familiar with some related concepts.

The compiler provides a set of attributes that can be used on functions or data objects to support specific features of the 8051 microcontroller. There are two types of attributes—type attributes and object attributes:

- Type attributes affect the *external functionality* of the data object or function
- Object attributes affect the *internal functionality* of the data object or function.

The syntax for the keywords differs slightly depending on whether it is a type attribute or an object attribute, and whether it is applied to a data object or a function.

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

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 255 for more 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 explicitly in your declarations, or use the pragma directive #pragma type_attribute.

Type attributes can be further divided into *memory type attributes* and *general type attributes*. Memory type attributes are referred to as simply *memory attributes* in the rest of the documentation.

Memory attributes

A memory attribute corresponds to a certain logical or physical memory in the microcontroller.

- Available function memory attributes: __banked_func, __far_func, and __near_func
- Available data memory attributes: __bdata, __bit, __code, __data, __far, __far_code, __far_rom, __far22, __far22_code, __far22_rom, __generic, __huge, __huge_code, __huge_rom, __idata, __ixdata, __pdata, __sfr, __xdata, and __xdata_rom.

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:
 - __data_overlay, __ext_stack_reentrant, __idata_overlay,
 __idata_reentrant, __interrupt, __monitor, __pdata_reentrant,
 __task, and __xdata_reentrant
- Data type attributes: const and volatile.

You can specify as many type attributes as required for each level of pointer indirection.

For more information about the type qualifiers const and volatile, see *Type qualifiers*, page 284.

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 $__{\mathtt{data}}$ type attribute to the variables \mathtt{i} and \mathtt{j} ; in other words, the variable \mathtt{i} and \mathtt{j} is placed in data memory. However, note that an

individual member of a struct or union cannot have a type attribute. The variables k and 1 behave in the same way:

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

Note that the attribute affects both identifiers.

This declaration of i and j is equivalent with the previous one:

```
#pragma type_attribute=__data
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 59.

An easier way of specifying storage is to use type definitions. These two declarations are equivalent:

```
typedef char __data Byte;
typedef Byte *BytePtr;
Byte b;
BytePtr bp;
and
__data char b;
char __data *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 farfunc 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

Normally, object attributes affect the internal functionality of functions and data objects, but not directly how the function is called or how the data is accessed. This means that an object attribute does not normally need to be present in the declaration of an object.

These object attributes are available:

- Object attributes that can be used for variables: __no_init
- Object attributes that can be used for functions and variables: location, @, and __root
- Object attributes that can be used for functions: __intrinsic, __noreturn, and vector.

You can specify as many object attributes as required for a specific function or data object.

For more information about location and @, see *Controlling data and function placement in memory, page 216*. For more information about vector, see *vector*, page 328.

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_func	Controls the storage of functions
banked_func_ext2	Controls the storage of functions
bdata	Controls the storage of data objects
bit	Controls the storage of data objects
code	Controls the storage of data objects
data	Controls the storage of data objects
data_overlay	Controls the storage of auto data objects
ext_stack_reentrant	Controls the storage of auto data objects
far	Controls the storage of data objects
far_code	Controls the storage of constant data objects
far_func	Controls the storage of functions
far_rom	Controls the storage of constant data objects
far22	Controls the storage of data objects
far22_code	Controls the storage of constant data objects
far22_rom	Controls the storage of constant data objects

Table 45: Extended keywords summary

Extended keyword	Description
generic	Pointer type attribute
huge	Controls the storage of data objects
huge_code	Controls the storage of constant data objects
huge_rom	Controls the storage of constant data objects
idata	Controls the storage of data objects
idata_overlay	Controls the storage of auto data objects
idata_reentrant	Controls the storage of auto data objects
ixdata	Controls the storage of data objects
interrupt	Supports interrupt functions
intrinsic	Reserved for compiler internal use only
monitor	Supports atomic execution of a function
near_func	Controls the storage of functions
no_init	Supports non-volatile memory
noreturn	Informs the compiler that the function will not return
overlay_near_func	Reserved for compiler internal use only
pdata	Controls the storage of data objects
pdata_reentrant	Controls the storage of auto data objects
root	Ensures that a function or variable is included in the object code even if unused
sfr	Controls the storage of data objects
task	Relaxes the rules for preserving registers
xdata	Controls the storage of data objects
xdata_reentrant	Controls the storage of auto data objects
xdata_rom	Controls the storage of constant data objects
	(2

Table 45: Extended keywords summary (Continued)

Descriptions of extended keywords

These sections give detailed information about each extended keyword.

__banked_func

Syntax

Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on functions, see *Type attributes*, page 287.

Description

The __banked_func memory attribute overrides the default storage of functions given by the selected code model and places individual functions in memory where they are called using banked 24-bit calls. You can also use the __banked_func attribute to create a pointer explicitly pointing to an object located in the banked memory.

Storage information

Memory space: Code memory space

Address range: 0-0xffffff
 Maximum size: 64 Kbytes

Pointer size: 2 bytesFunction size: bank size

Note: This keyword is only available when the Banked code model is used, and in this case functions are by default __banked_func. There are some exceptions, see *Code that cannot be banked*, page 87. Overlay and extended stack functions cannot be banked. This means that you cannot combine the __banked_func keyword with the __data_overlay or __idata_overlay, and __ext_stack_reentrant keywords.

Example

__banked_func void myfunction(void);

See also

Banked functions, page 81.

banked func ext2

Syntax

Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on functions, see *Type attributes*, page 287.

Description

The __banked_func_ext2 memory attribute overrides the default storage of functions given by the selected code model and places individual functions in memory where they are called using banked 24-bit calls. You can also use the __banked_func_ext2 attribute to create a pointer explicitly pointing to an object located in the banked memory.

Storage information

Memory space: Code memory space

Address range: 0-0xfffffffMaximum size: 64 Kbytes

• Pointer size: 3 bytes

Function size: bank size

Note: This keyword is only available when the Banked extended2 code model is used, and in this case all functions are by default __banked_func_ext2. Such functions require the Xdata reentrant calling convention.

See also Banked functions, page 81.

bdata

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data

objects, see Type attributes, page 287.

Description The __bdata memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by the

selected data model and places individual variables and constants in bdata memory.

Note: There are no __bdata pointers. Bdata memory is referred to by __idata

pointers.

Storage information • Memory space: Internal data memory space

• Address range: 0x20-0x2F

• Maximum object size: 16 bytes.

• Pointer size: 1 byte, __idata pointer

Example __bdata int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 50.

__bit

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data

objects, see Type attributes, page 287.

Description The __bit memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by the

selected data model and places individual variables and constants in bit addressable

memory. You cannot create a pointer to bit memory.

Storage information • Memory space: Internal data memory space

Address range: 0x20-0x2F
Maximum object size: 1 bit

Pointer size: N/A

Example __bit int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 50.

__code

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data

objects, see Type attributes, page 287.

Description The __code memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by the

selected data model and places individual constants and strings in code memory. You can also use the __code attribute to create a pointer explicitly pointing to an object

located in the code memory.

Storage information • Memory space: Code memory space

• Address range: 0x0-0xffff

• Maximum object size: 64 Kbytes

Pointer size: 2 bytes

Example __code int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 50.

data

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data

objects, see Type attributes, page 287.

Description The __data memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by the

selected data model and places individual variables and constants in data memory.

Note: There are no __data pointers. Data memory is referred to by __idata pointers.

Storage information • Memory space: Internal data memory space

• Address range: 0x0-0x7F

Maximum object size: 64 Kbytes

• Pointer size: 1 byte, __idata pointer

Example __data int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 50.

__data_overlay

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for type attributes that can be used on functions, see

Type attributes, page 287.

Description The __data_overlay keyword places parameters and auto variables in the data

overlay memory area.

Note: This keyword is only available when the Tiny or Small data model is used.

Example __data_overlay void foo(void);

See also *Auto variables—stack and static overlay*, page 61.

__ext_stack_reentrant

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for type attributes that can be used on functions, see

Type attributes, page 287.

Description The __ext_stack_reentrant keyword places parameters and auto variables on the

extended stack.

Note: This keyword can only be used when the --extended_stack option has been

specified.

See also Auto variables—stack and static overlay, page 61, Extended stack, page 104, and

--extended_stack, page 256.

__far

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data

objects, see *Type attributes*, page 287.

Description The __far memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by the

selected data model and places individual variables and constants in far memory. You can also use the __far attribute to create a pointer explicitly pointing to an object

located in the far memory.

Note: This memory attribute is only available when the Far data model is used.

Storage information • Memory space: External data memory space

• Address range: 0-0xffffff

• Maximum object size: 64 Kbytes. An object cannot cross a 64-Kbyte boundary.

• Pointer size: 3 bytes. Arithmetics is only performed on the two lower bytes, except comparison which is always performed on the entire 24-bit address.

Example __far int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 50.

__far_code

Syntax

Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data objects, see *Type attributes*, page 287.

Description

The __far_code memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by the selected data model and places individual constants and strings in far code memory. You can also use the __far_code attribute to create a pointer explicitly pointing to an object located in the far code memory.

Note: This memory attribute is only available when the Far code model is used.

Storage information

- Memory space: Code memory space
- Address range: 0-0xffffff
- Maximum object size: 64 Kbytes. An object cannot cross a 64-Kbyte boundary.
- Pointer size: 3 bytes. Arithmetics is only performed on the two lower bytes, except comparison which is always performed on the entire 24-bit address.

Example __far_code int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 50.

__far_func

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on

functions, see Type attributes, page 287.

Description The __far_func memory attribute overrides the default storage of functions given by

the selected code model and places individual functions in far memory—memory where the function is called using true 24-bit calls. You can also use the __far_func attribute

to create a pointer explicitly pointing to an object located in the far memory.

Note: This memory attribute is only available when the Far code model is used.

Storage information

• Memory space: Code memory space

• Address range: 0-0xffffff

• Maximum size: 65535 bytes. A function cannot cross a 64-Kbyte boundary.

Pointer size: 3 bytes

Example __far_func void myfunction(void);

See also *Code models for function storage*, page 73.

__far_rom

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data

objects, see Type attributes, page 287.

Description The __far_rom memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by the

selected data model and places individual constants and strings in ROM located in the far memory range. You can also use the __far_rom attribute to create a pointer explicitly pointing to an object located in the far_rom memory.

Note: This memory attribute is only available when the Far data model is used.

Storage information

- Memory space: External data memory space
- Address range: 0-0xffffff
- Maximum object size: 64 Kbytes. An object cannot cross a 64-Kbyte boundary.
- Pointer size: 3 bytes. Arithmetics is only performed on the two lower bytes, except comparison which is always performed on the entire 24-bit address.

Example __far_rom int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 50.

__far22

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data

objects, see Type attributes, page 287.

Description

The __far22 memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by the selected data model and places individual variables and constants in far22 memory. You can also use the __far22 attribute to create a pointer explicitly pointing to an object located in the far22 memory.

Note: This memory attribute is only available when the Far Generic data model is used.

Storage information

- Memory space: External data memory space
- Address range: 0-0x3FFFFF
- Maximum object size: 64 Kbytes. 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 22-bit address.

Example

__far22 int x;

See also

Memory types, page 50.

far22 code

Syntax

Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data objects, see *Type attributes*, page 287.

Description

The __far22_code memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by the selected data model and places individual constants and strings in far22 code memory. You can also use the __far22_code attribute to create a pointer explicitly pointing to an object located in the far22 code memory.

Note: This memory attribute is only available when the Far Generic code model is used.

Storage information

- Memory space: Code memory space
- Address range: 0-0x3FFFFF
- Maximum object size: 64 Kbytes. 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 22-bit address.

Example

__far22_code int x;

See also

Memory types, page 50.

far22 rom

Syntax Follows the g

Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data objects, see *Type attributes*, page 287.

Description

The __far22_rom memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by the selected data model and places individual constants and strings in ROM located in the far22 memory range. You can also use the __far22_rom attribute to create a pointer explicitly pointing to an object located in the far22_rom memory.

Note: This memory attribute is only available when the Far Generic data model is used.

Storage information

• Memory space: External data memory space

Address range: 0-0x3FFFFF

- Maximum object size: 64 Kbytes. 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 22-bit address.

Example __far22_rom int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 50.

__generic

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for type attributes that can be used on data, see *Type*

attributes, page 287.

Description The __generic pointer attribute specifies a generic pointer that can access data in the

internal data memory space, external data memory space, or the code memory space.

If a variable is declared with this keyword, it will be located in the external data memory

space.

Note: This memory attribute is not available when the Far data model is used.

Example __int __generic * ptr;

See also *Generic pointers*, page 282.

__huge

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data

objects, see Type attributes, page 287.

Description The __huge memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by the

selected data model and places individual variables and constants in huge memory. You can also use the __huge attribute to create a pointer explicitly pointing to an object

located in the huge memory.

Note: This memory attribute is only available when the Far data model is used.

Storage information

• Memory space: External data memory space

Address range: 0-0xffffff

Maximum object size: 16 Mbytes

• Pointer size: 3 bytes

Example __huge int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 50.

__huge_code

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data

objects, see Type attributes, page 287.

Description The __huge_code memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by

the selected data model and places individual constants and strings in huge code memory. You can also use the __huge_code attribute to create a pointer explicitly

pointing to an object located in the huge code memory.

Note: This memory attribute is only available when the Far code model is used.

Storage information • Memory space: Code memory space

● Address range: 0-0xffffff

Maximum object size: 16 Mbytes

Pointer size: 3 bytes

Example __huge_code int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 50.

__huge_rom

Syntax

Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data objects, see *Type attributes*, page 287.

Description

The __huge_rom memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by the selected data model and places individual constants and strings in ROM located in the far memory range. You can also use the __huge_rom attribute to create a pointer explicitly pointing to an object located in the huge_rom memory.

Note: This memory attribute is only available when the Far data model is used.

Storage information

• Memory space: External data memory space

Address range: 0-0xffffff

• Maximum object size: 16 Mbytes

 Pointer size: 2 bytes. Arithmetics is only performed on the two lower bytes, except comparison which is always performed on the entire 24-bit address.

Example __huge_rom int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 50.

__idata

Syntax

Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data objects, see *Type attributes*, page 287.

Description

The __idata memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by the selected data model and places individual variables and constants in idata memory. You can also use the __idata attribute to create a pointer explicitly pointing to an object located in the idata memory.

Storage information

Memory space: Internal data memory space

● Address range: 0x0-0xFF

• Maximum object size: 256 bytes

Pointer size: 1 byte

Example __idata int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 50.

__idata_overlay

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for type attributes that can be used on functions, see

Type attributes, page 287.

Description The __idata_overlay keyword places parameters and auto variables in the idata

overlay memory area.

Note: This keyword is only available when the Tiny or Small data model is used.

Example __idata_overlay void foo(void);

See also *Auto variables—stack and static overlay*, page 61.

__idata_reentrant

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for type attributes that can be used on functions, see

Type attributes, page 287.

Description The __idata_reentrant keyword places parameters and auto variables on the idata

stack.

Note: This keyword can only be used when the --extended_stack option has been

specified.

Example __idata_reentrant void foo(void);

See also Auto variables—stack and static overlay, page 61, Extended stack, page 104, and

--extended_stack, page 256.

__ixdata

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data

objects, see *Type attributes*, page 287.

Description The __ixdata memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by the

selected data model and places individual variables and constants in data memory.

The __ixdata memory attribute requires a devices that supports on-chip external data

(xdata).

Note: There are no __ixdata pointers. Data memory is referred to by __idata

pointers.

Storage information

• Memory space: External data memory space

• Address range: 0x0-0xffff

Maximum object size: 64 Kbytes

• Pointer size: 1 byte, __idata pointer

Example __ixdata int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 50.

__interrupt

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for type attributes that can be used on functions, see

Type attributes, page 287.

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=0x13

__interrupt void my_interrupt_handler(void);

See also Interrupt functions, page 75, vector, page 328, INTVEC, page 378.

__intrinsic

Description The __intrinsic keyword is reserved for compiler internal use only.

__monitor

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for type attributes that can be used on functions, see

Type attributes, page 287.

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 76. For information about the intrinsic functions, see

__disable_interrupt, page 329, __enable_interrupt, page 330, __get_interrupt_state,

page 330, and __set_interrupt_state, page 331, respectively.

__near_func

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on

functions, see Type attributes, page 287.

Description The __near_func memory attribute overrides the default storage of functions given by

the selected code model and places individual functions in near memory.

In the Banked code model, use the __near_func attribute to explicitly place a function

in the root area.

Storage information • Memory space: Code memory space

• Address range: 0-0xffff

Maximum size: 64 Kbytes

Pointer size: 2 bytes

See also *Code models for function storage*, page 73.

__no_init

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for object attributes, see *Object attributes*, page 290.

Description Use the __no_init keyword to place a data object in non-volatile memory. This means

that the initialization of the variable, for example at system startup, is suppressed.

Example __no_init int myarray[10];

__noreturn

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for object attributes, see *Object attributes*, page 290.

Description The __noreturn keyword can be used on a function to inform the compiler that the

function will not return. If you use this keyword on such functions, the compiler can optimize more efficiently. Examples of functions that do not return are about and exit.

__overlay_near_func

Description The __overlay_near_func keyword is reserved for compiler internal use only.

__pdata

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data

objects, see Type attributes, page 287.

Description The __pdata memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by the

selected data model and places individual variables and constants in pdata memory. You can also use the __pdata attribute to create a pointer explicitly pointing to an object

located in the pdata memory.

Storage information • Memory space: External data memory space

• Address range: 0x0-0xFF

• Maximum object size: 256 bytes

Pointer size: 1 byte

Example __pdata int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 50.

__pdata_reentrant

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for type attributes that can be used on functions, see

Type attributes, page 287.

Description The __pdata_reentrant keyword places parameters and auto variables on the pdata

stack.

See also Auto variables—stack and static overlay, page 61, Extended stack, page 104, and

--extended stack, page 256.

__root

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for object attributes, see *Object attributes*, page 290.

Description A function or variable with the __root attribute is kept whether or not it is referenced

from the rest of the application, provided its module is included. Program modules are

always included and library modules are only included if needed.

Example __root int myarray[10];

See also For more information about modules, segments, and the link process, see the IAR Linker

and Library Tools Reference Guide.

__sfr

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data

objects, see Type attributes, page 287.

Description The __sfr memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by the

selected data model and places individual variables and constants in SFR memory. You

cannot create a pointer to an object located in SFR memory.

• Memory space: Internal data memory space

Address range: 0x80-0xFF, direct addressing

Maximum object size: 128 bytes

Pointer size: N/A

Example __sfr int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 50.

task

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for type attributes that can be used on functions, see

Type attributes, page 287.

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Description

This keyword allows functions to relax the rules for preserving registers. Typically, the keyword is used on the start function for a task in an RTOS.

By default, functions save the contents of used preserved registers on the stack upon entry, and restore them at exit. Functions that are declared __task do not save all registers, and therefore require less stack space.

Because a function declared __task can corrupt registers that are needed by the calling function, you should only use __task on functions that do not return or call such a function from assembler code.

The function main can be declared __task, unless it is explicitly called from the application. In real-time applications with more than one task, the root function of each task can be declared task.

Example

__task void my_handler(void);

__xdata

Syntax

Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data objects, see *Type attributes*, page 287.

Description

The __xdata memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by the selected data model and places individual variables and constants in xdata memory. You can also use the __xdata attribute to create a pointer explicitly pointing to an object located in the xdata memory.

Storage information

Memory space: External data memory space

• Address range: 0-0xffff (64 Kbytes)

Maximum object size: 64 Kbytes

Pointer size: 2 bytes

Example __xdata int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 50.

__xdata_reentrant

Syntax

Follows the generic syntax rules for type attributes that can be used on functions, see *Type attributes*, page 287.

Description The __xdata_reentrant keyword places parameters and auto variables on the xdata

stack.

See also Auto variables—stack and static overlay, page 61, Extended stack, page 104, and

--extended stack, page 256.

__xdata_rom

Syntax Follows the generic syntax rules for memory type attributes that can be used on data

objects, see Type attributes, page 287.

Description The __xdata_rom memory attribute overrides the default storage of variables given by

the selected data model and places individual constants and strings in ROM located in the xdata memory range. You can also use the __xdata_rom attribute to create a pointer

explicitly pointing to an object located in the xdata rom memory.

Storage information • Memory space: External data memory space

• Address range: 0-0xFFFF (64 Kbytes)

• Maximum object size: 64 Kbytes

• Pointer size: 2 bytes

Example __xdata_rom int x;

See also *Memory types*, page 50.

Descriptions of extended keywords

Pragma directives

This chapter describes the pragma directives of the compiler.

The #pragma directive is defined by Standard C and is a mechanism for using vendor-specific extensions in a controlled way to make sure that the source code is still portable.

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

The pragma directives are always enabled in the compiler.

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
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
error	Signals an error while parsing
include_alias	Specifies an alias for an include file
inline	Controls inlining of a function
language	Controls the IAR Systems language extensions

Table 46: 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
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
section	This directive is an alias for #pragma segment
segment	Declares a segment name to be used by intrinsic functions
STDC CX_LIMITED_RANGE	Specifies whether the compiler can use normal complex mathematical formulas or not
STDC FENV_ACCESS	Specifies whether your source code accesses the floating-point environment or not.
STDC FP_CONTRACT	Specifies whether the compiler is allowed to contract floating-point expressions or not.
type_attribute	Changes the declaration and definitions of a variable or function
vector	Specifies the vector of an interrupt function

Table 46: Pragma directives summary (Continued)

Note: For portability reasons, see also *Recognized pragma directives* (6.10.6), page 396, and the 8051 IAR Embedded Workbench® Migration Guide.

Descriptions of pragma directives

This section gives detailed information about each pragma directive.

basic_template_matching

Syntax #pragma basic_template_matching

Description Use this pragma directive in front of a template function declaration to make the

function fully memory-attribute aware, in the rare cases where this is useful. That template function will then match the template without the modifications, see *Templates*

and data memory attributes, page 206.

// pointer.

#pragma basic_template_matching
template<typename T> void fun(T *);

void MyF()
{
 fun((int __pdata *) 0); // T = int __pdata
}

bitfields

Syntax #pragma bitfields={reversed|default}

Parameters

reversed Bitfield members are placed from the most significant bit to the

least significant bit.

default Bitfield members are placed from the least significant bit to the

most significant bit.

Description Use this pragma directive to control the order of bitfield members.

Example #pragma bitfields=reversed
 /* Structure that uses reversed bitfields. */
 struct S
 {
 unsigned char error : 1;
 unsigned char size : 4;
 unsigned short code : 10;
 };
 #pragma bitfields=default /* Restores to default setting. */

See also

Bitfields, page 277.

constseg

Parameters

__memoryattribute An optional memory attribute denoting in what memory the

segment will be placed; if not specified, default memory is used.

SEGMENT_NAME A user-defined segment name; cannot be a segment name

predefined for use by the compiler and linker.

default Uses the default segment for constants.

Description

Use this pragma directive to place constant variables in a named segment. The segment name cannot be a segment name predefined for use by the compiler and linker. The setting remains active until you turn it off again with the #pragma constseg=default directive.

A constant placed in a named segment with the #pragma constseg directive must be located in ROM memory. This is the case when constants are located in code or data_rom. Otherwise, the memory where the segment should reside must be explicitly specified using the appropriate memory attribute.

Note: Non-initialized constant segments located in data memory can be placed in a named segment with the #pragma dataseg directive.

Example

```
#pragma constseg=__xdata_rom MY_CONSTANTS
const int factorySettings[] = {42, 15, -128, 0};
#pragma constseg=default
```

data_alignment

Syntax #pragma data_alignment=expression

Parameters

expression A constant which must be a power of two (1, 2, 4, etc.).

Description

Use this pragma directive to give a variable a higher (more strict) alignment of the start address than it would otherwise have. This directive can be used on variables with static and automatic storage duration.

When you use this directive on variables with automatic storage duration, there is an upper limit on the allowed alignment for each function, determined by the calling convention used.

Note: Normally, the size of a variable is a multiple of its alignment. The data_alignment directive only affects the alignment of the variable's start address, and not its size, and can thus be used for creating situations where the size is not a multiple of the alignment.

dataseg

Parameters

__memoryattribute An optional memory attribute denoting in what memory the

segment will be placed; if not specified, default memory is used.

 ${\it SEGMENT_NAME} \qquad \qquad {\it A user-defined segment name; cannot be a segment name}$

predefined for use by the compiler and linker.

default Uses the default segment.

Description Use this pragma directive to place variables in a named segment. The segment name

cannot be a segment name predefined for use by the compiler and linker. The variable will not be initialized at startup, and can for this reason not have an initializer, which means it must be declared <code>__no_init</code>. The setting remains active until you turn it off

again with the $\mbox{\tt\#pragma}$ constseg=default directive.

Example #pragma dataseg=__xdata 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 237.

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 237.

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 237.

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 237.

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 237.

error

Syntax #pragma error message

Parameters

message A string that represents the error message.

Description Use this pragma directive to cause an error message when it is parsed. This mechanism

is different from the preprocessor directive #error, because the #pragma error directive can be included in a preprocessor macro using the _Pragma form of the

directive and only causes an error if the macro is used.

Example #if FOO_AVAILABLE

#define FOO ...

#else

#define FOO _Pragma("error\"Foo is not available\"")

#endif

If FOO_AVAILABLE is zero, an error will be signaled if the FOO macro is used in actual source code.

include alias

Syntax #pragma include_alias ("orig_header" , "subst_header")

#pragma include_alias (<orig_header> , <subst_header>)

Parameters

orig_header The name of a header file for which you want to create an alias.

subst_header The alias for the original header file.

Description Use this pragma directive to provide an alias for a header file. This is useful for

substituting one header file with another, and for specifying an absolute path to a relative

file.

This pragma directive must appear before the corresponding #include directives and

subst_header must match its corresponding #include directive exactly.

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 234.

inline

Syntax #pragma inline[=forced|=never]

Parameters

No parameter Has the same effect as the inline keyword.

forced Disables the compiler's heuristics and forces inlining.

never Disables the compiler's heuristics and makes sure that the function

will not be inlined.

Description Use #pragma inline to advise the compiler that the function whose declaration

follows immediately after the directive should be expanded inline into the body of the calling function. Whether the inlining actually occurs is subject to the compiler's

heuristics.

#pragma inline is similar to the C++ keyword inline. The difference is that the compiler uses C++ inline semantics for the #pragma inline directive, but uses the Standard C semantics for the inline keyword.

Specifying #pragma inline=never disables the compiler's heuristics and makes sure that the function will not be inlined.

Specifying #pragma inline=forced will force the compiler to treat the function declared immediately after the directive as a candidate for inlining, regardless of the compiler's heuristics. If the compiler fails to inline the candidate function for some reason, for example due to recursion, a warning message is emitted.

Inlining is normally performed only on the High optimization level. Specifying #pragma inline=forced will enable inlining of the function in question also on the Medium optimization level.

See also

Function inlining, page 223.

language

Syntax #pragma language={extended|default|save|restore}

Parameters

extended Enables the IAR Systems language extensions from the first use of

the pragma directive and onward.

default From the first use of the pragma directive and onward, restores

the settings for the IAR Systems language extensions to whatever

that was specified by compiler options.

save restore Saves and restores, respectively, the IAR Systems language

extensions setting around a piece of source code.

Each use of save must be followed by a matching restore in the

same file without any intervening #include directive.

Description Use this pragma directive to control the use of language extensions.

Example I At the top of a file that needs to be compiled with IAR Systems extensions enabled:

#pragma language=extended
/* The rest of the file. */

Example 2

Around a particular part of the source code that needs to be compiled with IAR Systems extensions enabled, but where the state before the sequence cannot be assumed to be the same as that specified by the compiler options in use:

```
#pragma language=save
#pragma language=extended
/* Part of source code. */
#pragma language=restore
```

See also

-e, page 255 and --strict, page 271.

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 variables must be declared either <code>__no_init</code> or <code>const</code>. Alternatively, the directive can take a string specifying a segment for placing either a variable or a function whose declaration follows the pragma directive. Do not place variables that would normally be in different segments (for example, variables declared as <code>__no_init</code> and variables declared as <code>const</code>) in the same named segment.

Example

See also

Controlling data and function placement in memory, page 216.

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

Parameters For information about object attributes that can be used with this pragma directive, see

Object attributes, page 290.

Description Use this pragma directive to declare a variable or a function with an object attribute. This

directive affects the definition of the identifier that follows immediately after the directive. The object is modified, not its type. Unlike the directive #pragma

type_attribute that specifies the storing and accessing of a variable or function, it is

not necessary to specify an object attribute in declarations.

Example #pragma object_attribute=__no_init

char bar;

See also General syntax rules for extended keywords, page 287.

optimize

Syntax #pragma optimize=[goal][level][no_optimization...]

Parameters

goal Choose between:

balanced, optimizes balanced between speed and size

size, optimizes for size speed, optimizes for speed.

1evel Specifies the level of optimization; choose between none, low, medium, or high.

no_optimization Disables one or several optimizations; choose between:

no_code_motion, disables code motion

no_cse, disables common subexpression elimination

no_inline, disables function inlining no_tbaa, disables type-based alias analysis no_unroll, disables loop unrolling.

Description

Use this pragma directive to decrease the optimization level, or to turn off some specific optimizations. This pragma directive only affects the function that follows immediately after the directive.

The parameters 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 SmallAndUsedOften()
{
   /* Do something here. */
}

#pragma optimize=size
int BigAndSeldomUsed()
{
   /* Do something here. */
}
```

__printf_args

Syntax

#pragma __printf_args

Description

Use this pragma directive on a function with a printf-style format string. For any call to that function, the compiler verifies that the argument to each conversion specifier (for example %d) is syntactically correct.

Example

```
#pragma __printf_args
int printf(char const *,...);

void PrintNumbers(unsigned short x)
{
   printf("%d", x); /* Compiler checks that x is an integer */
}
```

register_bank

Syntax

#pragma register_bank=(0|1|2|3)

Parameters

0 | 1 | 2 | 3

The number of the register bank to be used.

Description

Use this pragma directive to specify the register bank to be used by the interrupt function declared after the pragma directive.

When a register bank has been specified, the interrupt function switches to the specified register bank. Because of this, registers R0–R7 do not have to be individually saved on the stack. The result is a smaller and faster interrupt prolog and epilog.

The memory occupied by the used register banks cannot be used for other data.

Note: Interrupts that can interrupt each other cannot use the same register bank, because that can result in registers being unintentionally destroyed.

If no register bank is specified, the default bank will be used by the interrupt function.

Example:

```
#pragma register_bank=2
__interrupt void my_handler(void);
```

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

"kev"

A text string that specifies the runtime model attribute.

"value"

A text string that specifies the value of the runtime model attribute. Using the special value * is equivalent to not defining the

attribute at all.

Description

Use this pragma directive to add a runtime model attribute to a module, which can be used by the linker to check consistency between modules.

This pragma directive is useful for enforcing consistency between modules. All modules that are linked together and define the same runtime attribute key must have the same value for the corresponding key, or the special value *. It can, however, be useful to state explicitly that the module can handle any runtime model.

A module can have several runtime model definitions.

Note: The predefined compiler runtime model attributes start with a double underscore. To avoid confusion, this style must not be used in the user-defined attributes.

Example

```
#pragma rtmodel="I2C","ENABLED"
```

The linker will generate an error if a module that contains this definition is linked with a module that does not have the corresponding runtime model attributes defined.

See also

Checking module consistency, page 146.

__scanf_args

Syntax #pragma __scanf_args

Description

Use this pragma directive on a function with a scanf-style format string. For any call to that function, the compiler verifies that the argument to each conversion specifier (for example %d) is syntactically correct.

Example

segment

Syntax #pragma segment="NAME" [__memoryattribute] [align]

alias

#pragma section="NAME" [__memoryattribute] [align]

Parameters

NAME The name of the segment.

__memoryattribute An optional memory attribute identifying the memory the segment

will be placed in; if not specified, default memory is used.

align Specifies an alignment for the segment part. The value must be a

constant integer expression to the power of two.

Description

Use this pragma directive to define a segment name that can be used by the segment operators __segment_begin, __segment_end, and __segment_size. All segment declarations for a specific segment must have the same memory type attribute and alignment.

If an optional memory attribute is used, the return type of the segment operators

__segment_begin and __segment_end is:

void __memoryattribute *.

Example #pragma segment="MYHUGE" __huge 4

See also Dedicated segment operators, page 193. For more information about segments and

segment parts, see the chapter Placing code and data.

STDC CX_LIMITED_RANGE

Syntax #pragma STDC CX_LIMITED_RANGE {ON OFF | DEFAULT}

Parameters

ON Normal complex mathematic formulas can be used.

OFF Normal complex mathematic formulas cannot be used.

DEFAULT Sets the default behavior, that is OFF.

Description Use this pragma directive to specify that the compiler can use the normal complex

mathematic formulas for x (multiplication), / (division), and abs.

Note: This directive is required by Standard C. The directive is recognized but has no

effect in the compiler.

STDC FENV ACCESS

Parameters

ON Source code accesses the floating-point environment. Note that

this argument is not supported by the compiler.

OFF Source code does not access the floating-point environment.

DEFAULT Sets the default behavior, that is OFF.

Description Use this pragma directive to specify whether your source code accesses the

floating-point environment or not.

Note: This directive is required by Standard C.

STDC FP_CONTRACT

Syntax #pragma STDC FP_CONTRACT {ON|OFF|DEFAULT}

Parameters

ON The compiler is allowed to contract floating-point expressions.

OFF The compiler is not allowed to contract floating-point expressions.

Note that this argument is not supported by the compiler.

DEFAULT Sets the default behavior, that is ON.

Description Use this pragma directive to specify whether the compiler is allowed to contract

floating-point expressions or not. This directive is required by Standard C.

Example #pragma STDC_FP_CONTRACT=ON

type_attribute

Syntax #pragma type_attribute=type_attribute[,type_attribute,...]

Parameters For information about type attributes that can be used with this pragma directive, see

Type attributes, page 287.

Description Use this pragma directive to specify IAR-specific *type attributes*, which are not part of

Standard C. Note however, that a given type attribute might not be applicable to all kind

of objects.

This directive affects the declaration of the identifier, the next variable, or the next

function that follows immediately after the pragma directive.

Example In this example, an int object with the memory attribute __xdata is defined:

#pragma type_attribute=__xdata

int x;

This declaration, which uses extended keywords, is equivalent:

__xdata int x;

See also See the chapter *Extended keywords* for more information.

vector

Syntax #pragma vector=vector1[, vector2, vector3, ...]

Parameters

vectorN The vector number(s) of an interrupt function.

Description Use this pragma directive to specify the vector(s) of an interrupt or trap function whose

declaration follows the pragma directive. Note that several vectors can be defined for

each function.

Example #pragma vector=0x13

__interrupt void my_handler(void);

Intrinsic functions

This chapter gives reference information about the intrinsic functions, a predefined set of functions available in the compiler.

The intrinsic functions provide direct access to low-level processor operations and can be very useful in, for example, time-critical routines. The intrinsic functions compile into inline code, either as a single instruction or as a short sequence of instructions.

Summary of intrinsic functions

To use intrinsic functions in an application, include the header file intrinsics.h.

Note that the intrinsic function names start with double underscores, for example:

__disable_interrupt

This table summarizes the intrinsic functions:

Intrinsic function	Description
disable_interrupt	Disables interrupts
enable_interrupt	Enables interrupts
get_interrupt_state	Returns the interrupt state
no_operation	Inserts a NOP instruction
parity	Indicates the parity of the argument
set_interrupt_state	Restores the interrupt state
tbac	Atomic read, modify, write instruction

Table 47: Intrinsic functions summary

Descriptions of intrinsic functions

This section gives reference information about each intrinsic function.

__disable_interrupt

Syntax void __disable_interrupt(void);

Description Disables interrupts by clearing bit 7 in the interrupt enable (IE) register.

__enable_interrupt

Syntax void __enable_interrupt(void);

Description Enables interrupts by setting bit 7 in the interrupt enable (IE) register.

__get_interrupt_state

Syntax __istate_t __get_interrupt_state(void);

Description Returns the global interrupt state. The return value can be used as an argument to the

__set_interrupt_state intrinsic function, which will restore the interrupt state.

Example #include "intrinsics.h"

```
void CriticalFn()
{
    __istate_t s = __get_interrupt_state();
    __disable_interrupt();

    /* Do something here. */
    __set_interrupt_state(s);
}
```

The advantage of using this sequence of code compared to using

__disable_interrupt and __enable_interrupt is that the code in this example will not enable any interrupts disabled before the call of __get_interrupt_state.

__no_operation

Syntax void __no_operation(void);

Description Inserts a NOP instruction.

__parity

Syntax char __parity(char);

Description Indicates the parity of the char argument; that is, whether the argument contains an

even or an odd number of bits set to 1. If the number is even, 0 is returned and if the

number is odd, 1 is returned.

__set_interrupt_state

Syntax void __set_interrupt_state(__istate_t);

Descriptions Restores the interrupt state to a value previously returned by the

 $__\texttt{get_interrupt_state}$ function.

For information about the <code>__istate_t</code> type, see <code>__get_interrupt_state</code>, page 330.

__tbac

Syntax bool __tbac(bool bitvar);

Description Use this intrinsic function to create semaphores or similar mutual-exclusion functions.

It takes a single bit variable *bitvar* and uses the JBC assembler instruction to carry out an atomic read, modify, and write instruction (test bit and clear). The function returns

the original value of bitvar (0 or 1) and resets bitvar to 0.

Note: To use the bool type in C source code, see *Bool*, page 276.

Descriptions of intrinsic functions

The preprocessor

This chapter gives a brief overview of the preprocessor, including reference information about the different preprocessor directives, symbols, and other related information.

Overview of the preprocessor

The preprocessor of the IAR C/C++ Compiler for 8051 adheres to Standard C. The compiler also makes these preprocessor-related features available to you:

• Predefined preprocessor symbols

These symbols allow you to inspect the compile-time environment, for example the time and date of compilation. For more information, see *Descriptions of predefined preprocessor symbols*, page 334.

- 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 248.
- Preprocessor extensions

There are several preprocessor extensions, for example many pragma directives; for more information, see the chapter *Pragma directives* in this guide. For information about the corresponding _Pragma operator and the other extensions related to the preprocessor, see *Descriptions of miscellaneous preprocessor extensions*, page 337.

Preprocessor output

Use the option --preprocess to direct preprocessor output to a named file, see --preprocess, page 268.

To specify a path for an include file, use forward slashes:

```
#include "mydirectory/myfile"
```

In source code, use forward slashes:

```
file = fopen("mydirectory/myfile","rt");
```

Note that backslashes can also be used. In this case, use one in include file paths and two in source code strings.

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 335, and _no_path_in_file_macros, page 262.
BUILD_NUMBER	A unique integer that identifies the build number of the compiler currently in use.
CALLING_CONVENTION	An integer that identifies the calling convention in use. The value reflects the <code>calling_convention</code> option and is defined to 0 for data overlay, 1 for idata overlay, 2 for idata reentrant, 3 for pdata reentrant, 4 for xdata reentrant, and 5 for extended stack reentrant. These symbolic names can be used when testing the <code>CALLING_CONVENTION</code> symbol: <code>CC_DO</code> , <code>CC_IO</code> , <code>CC_IR</code> , <code>CC_PR</code> , <code>CC_XR</code> , or <code>CC_ER</code> .
CODE_MODEL	An integer that identifies the code model in use. The symbol reflects thecode_model option and is defined to 1 for Near, 2 for Banked, 3 for Far, and 4 for the Banked extended2 code model. These symbolic names can be used when testing theCODE_MODEL symbol:CM_NEAR,CM_BANKED,CM_FAR, orCM_BANKED_EXT2
CONSTANT_LOCATION	An integer that identifies the default placement of constants and strings. The value reflects the $place_constants$ option and is defined to 0 for Data, 1 for Data ROM, and 2 for Code.
CORE	An integer that identifies the chip core in use. The symbol reflects thecore option and is defined to 1 for Plain, 2 for Extended1, and 3 for the Extended2 core. These symbolic names can be used when testing the CORE symbol:CORE_PLAIN, CORE_EXTENDED1, orCORE_EXTENDED2

Table 48: Predefined symbols

Predefined symbol	Identifies
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 to 0 for Tiny, 1 for Small, 2 for Large, 3 for Generic, 4 for Far, and 5 for the Far Generic data model. These symbolic names can be used when testing theDATA_MODEL symbol:DM_TINY,DM_SMALL,DM_LARGE,DM_GENERIC,DM_FAR, orDM_FAR_GENERIC
DATE	A string that identifies the date of compilation, which is returned in the form "Mmm dd yyyy", for example "Oct 30 2010". *
DOUBLE	An integer that identifies the size of the data type double. The symbol is defined to 32.
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.*
EXTENDED_DPTR	An integer that is set to $\ensuremath{\mathbb{1}}$ when 24-bit data pointers are used. Otherwise, when 16-bit data pointers are used, the symbol is undefined.
EXTENDED_STACK	An integer that is set to $\ensuremath{\mathbb{1}}$ when the extended stack is used. Otherwise, when the extended stack is not used, the symbol is undefined.
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 334, and _no_path_in_file_macros, page 262.*

Table 48: Predefined symbols (Continued)

Predefined symbol	Identifies
func	A string that identifies the name of the function in which the symbol is used. This is useful for assertions and other trace utilities. The symbol requires that language extensions are enabled, see -e, page 255. See alsoPRETTY_FUNCTION, page 336.
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 255. See alsoPRETTY_FUNCTION, page 336.
IAR_SYSTEMS_ICC	An integer that identifies the IAR compiler platform. The current value is 8. 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.
ICC8051	An integer that is set to 1 when the code is compiled with the IAR C/C++ Compiler for 8051.
INC_DPSEL_SELECT	An integer that is set to 1 when the INC method is used for selecting the active data pointer. Otherwise, when the XOR method is used, the symbol is undefined.
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.*
NUMBER_OF_DPTRS	An integer that identifies to the number of data pointers being used; a value between 1 and 8 .
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 255. See alsofunc, page 336.
STDC	An integer that is set to 1, which means the compiler adheres to Standard C. This symbol can be tested with $\#ifdef$ to detect whether the compiler in use adheres to Standard C.*

Table 48: Predefined symbols (Continued)

Predefined symbol	Identifies
STDC_VERSION	An integer that identifies the version of the C standard in use. The symbol expands to 199901L,unless thec89 compiler option is used in which case the symbol 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.
XOR_DPSEL_SELECT	An integer that is set to 1 when the XOR method is used for selecting the active data pointer. Otherwise, when the INC method is used, the symbol is undefined.

Table 48: 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 Standard C directives.

NDEBUG

Description

This preprocessor symbol determines whether any assert macros you have written in your application shall be included or not in the built application.

If this symbol is not defined, all assert macros are evaluated. If the symbol is defined, all assert macros are excluded from the compilation. In other words, if the symbol is:

- **defined**, the assert code will *not* be included
- not defined, the assert code will be included

This means that if you write any assert code and build your application, you should define this symbol to exclude the assert code from the final application.

^{*} This symbol is required by Standard C.

Note that the assert macro is defined in the assert.h standard include file.

See also *Assert*, page 141.



In the IDE, the NDEBUG symbol is automatically defined if you build your application in the Release build configuration.

#warning message

Syntax #warning message

where message can be any string.

Description Use this preprocessor directive to produce messages. Typically, this is useful for

assertions and other trace utilities, similar to the way the Standard C #error directive is used. This directive is not recognized when the --strict compiler option is used.

Library functions

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.

Library overview

The compiler provides two different libraries:

- IAR DLIB Library is a complete library, compliant with Standard C and C++. This
 library also supports floating-point numbers in IEEE 754 format and it can be
 configured to include different levels of support for locale, file descriptors,
 multibyte characters, et cetera.
- IAR CLIB Library is a light-weight library, which is not fully compliant with Standard C. Neither does it fully support floating-point numbers in IEEE 754 format or does it support C++.

Note that different customization methods are normally needed for these two libraries. For more 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 more 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 project configuration*, page 32. The linker will include only those routines that are required—directly or indirectly—by your application.

ALTERNATIVE MORE ACCURATE LIBRARY FUNCTIONS

The default implementation of cos, sin, tan, and pow is designed to be fast and small. As an alternative, there are versions designed to provide better accuracy. They are named __iar_xxx_accuratef for float variants of the functions and __iar_xxx_accuratel for long double variants of the functions, and where xxx is cos, sin, etc.

To use any of these more accurate versions, use the -e linker option.

REENTRANCY

A function that can be simultaneously invoked in the main application and in any number of interrupts is reentrant. A library function that uses statically allocated data is therefore not reentrant.

Most parts of the DLIB library are reentrant, but the following functions and parts are not reentrant because they need static data:

- Heap functions—malloc, free, realloc, calloc, and the C++ operators new and delete
- Locale functions—localeconv, setlocale
- Multibyte functions—mbrlen, mbrtowc, mbsrtowc, mbtowc, wcrtomb, wcsrtomb, wctomb
- Rand functions—rand, srand
- Time functions—asctime, localtime, gmtime, mktime
- The miscellaneous functions atexit, strerror, strtok
- Functions that use files or the heap in some way. This includes printf, sprintf, scanf, sscanf, getchar, and putchar.

For the CLIB library, the qsort function and functions that use files in some way are non-reentrant. This includes printf, scanf, getchar, and putchar. However, the functions sprintf and sscanf are reentrant.

Functions that can set errno are not reentrant, because an errno value resulting from one of these functions can be destroyed by a subsequent use of the function before it is read. This applies to math and string conversion functions, among others.

Remedies for this are:

- Do not use non-reentrant functions in interrupt service routines
- Guard calls to a non-reentrant function by a mutex, or a secure region, etc.

THE LONGJMP FUNCTION



A longjmp is in effect a jump to a previously defined setjmp. Any variable length arrays or C++ objects residing on the stack during stack unwinding will not be destroyed. This can lead to resource leaks or incorrect application behavior.

IAR DLIB Library

The IAR DLIB Library provides most of the important C and C++ library definitions that apply to embedded systems. These are of the following types:

- Adherence to a free-standing implementation of Standard C. The library supports
 most of the hosted functionality, but you must implement some of its base
 functionality. For additional information, see the chapter *Implementation-defined*behavior in this guide.
- Standard C library definitions, for user programs.
- C++ library definitions, for user programs.
- CSTARTUP, the module containing the start-up code, see the chapter The DLIB runtime environment in this guide.
- Runtime support libraries; for example low-level floating-point routines.
- Intrinsic functions, allowing low-level use of 8051 features. See the chapter *Intrinsic functions* for more information.

In addition, the IAR DLIB Library includes some added C functionality, see *Added C functionality*, page 345.

C HEADER FILES

This section lists the header files specific to the DLIB library C definitions. Header files may additionally contain target-specific definitions; these are documented in the chapter *Using C*.

This table lists the C header files:

Header file	Usage
assert.h	Enforcing assertions when functions execute
complex.h	Computing common complex mathematical functions

Table 49: Traditional Standard C header files—DLIB

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Header file	Usage
ctype.h	Classifying characters
errno.h	Testing error codes reported by library functions
fenv.h	Floating-point exception flags
float.h	Testing floating-point type properties
inttypes.h	Defining formatters for all types defined in stdint.h
iso646.h	Using Amendment I—iso646.h standard header
limits.h	Testing integer type properties
locale.h	Adapting to different cultural conventions
math.h	Computing common mathematical functions
setjmp.h	Executing non-local goto statements
signal.h	Controlling various exceptional conditions
stdarg.h	Accessing a varying number of arguments
stdbool.h	Adds support for the bool data type in C.
stddef.h	Defining several useful types and macros
stdint.h	Providing integer characteristics
stdio.h	Performing input and output
stdlib.h	Performing a variety of operations
string.h	Manipulating several kinds of strings
tgmath.h	Type-generic mathematical functions
time.h	Converting between various time and date formats
uchar.h	Unicode functionality (IAR extension to Standard C)
wchar.h	Support for wide characters
wctype.h	Classifying wide characters

Table 49: Traditional Standard C header files—DLIB (Continued)

C++ HEADER FILES

This section lists the C++ header files.

Embedded C++

This table lists the Embedded C++ header files:

Header file	Usage
complex	Defining a class that supports complex arithmetic

Table 50: Embedded C++ header files

Header file	Usage
fstream	Defining several I/O stream classes that manipulate external files
iomanip	Declaring several I/O stream manipulators that take an argument
ios	Defining the class that serves as the base for many I/O streams classes
iosfwd	Declaring several I/O stream classes before they are necessarily defined
iostream	Declaring the I/O stream objects that manipulate the standard streams
istream	Defining the class that performs extractions
new	Declaring several functions that allocate and free storage
ostream	Defining the class that performs insertions
sstream	Defining several I/O stream classes that manipulate string containers
streambuf	Defining classes that buffer I/O stream operations
string	Defining a class that implements a string container
strstream	Defining several I/O stream classes that manipulate in-memory character sequences

Table 50: Embedded C++ header files (Continued)

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

Table 51: Standard template library header files

Header file	Description
utility	Defines several utility components
vector	A vector sequence container

Table 51: Standard template library header files (Continued)

Using Standard C libraries in C++

The C++ library works in conjunction with some of the header files from the Standard C library, sometimes with small alterations. The header files come in two forms—new and traditional—for example, cassert and assert.h.

This table shows the new header files:

Header file	Usage
cassert	Enforcing assertions when functions execute
ccomplex	Computing common complex mathematical functions
cctype	Classifying characters
cerrno	Testing error codes reported by library functions
cfenv	Floating-point exception flags
cfloat	Testing floating-point type properties
cinttypes	Defining formatters for all types defined in $\mathtt{stdint.h}$
ciso646	Using Amendment I—iso646.h standard header
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
ctgmath	Type-generic mathematical functions
ctime	Converting between various time and date formats

Table 52: New Standard C header files—DLIB

Header file	Usage
cwchar	Support for wide characters
cwctype	Classifying wide characters

Table 52: New Standard C header files—DLIB (Continued)

LIBRARY FUNCTIONS AS INTRINSIC FUNCTIONS

Certain C library functions will under some circumstances be handled as intrinsic functions and will generate inline code instead of an ordinary function call, for example memcpy, memset, and strcat.

ADDED C FUNCTIONALITY

The IAR DLIB Library includes some added C functionality.

The following include files provide these features:

- fenv.h
- stdio.h
- stdlib.h
- string.h

fenv.h

In fenv.h, trap handling support for floating-point numbers is defined with the functions fegettrapenable and fegettrapdisable.

stdio.h

These functions provide additional I/O functionality:

fdopen	Opens a file based on a low-level file descriptor.
fileno	Gets the low-level file descriptor from the file descriptor (FILE*).
gets	Corresponds to fgets on stdin.
getw	Gets a wchar_t character from stdin.
putw	Puts a wchar_t character to stdout.
ungetchar	Corresponds to ungetc on stdout.
write_array	Corresponds to fwrite on stdout.

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string.h

These are the additional functions defined in string.h:

strdup Duplicates a string on the heap.

strcasecmp Compares strings case-insensitive.

strncasecmp Compares strings case-insensitive and bounded.

strnlen Bounded string length.

SYMBOLS USED INTERNALLY BY THE LIBRARY

The following symbols are used by the library, which means that they are visible in library source files, etc:

```
__assignment_by_bitwise_copy_allowed
```

This symbol determines properties for class objects.

```
__constrange()
```

Determines the allowed range for a parameter to an intrinsic function and that the parameter must be of type const.

```
__construction_by_bitwise_copy_allowed
```

This symbol determines properties for class objects.

```
__has_constructor, __has_destructor
```

These symbols determine properties for class objects and they function like the sizeof operator. The symbols are true when a class, base class, or member (recursively) has a user-defined constructor or destructor, respectively.

```
__memory_of
```

Determines the class memory. A class memory determines which memory a class object can reside in. This symbol can only occur in class definitions as a class memory.

Note: The symbols are reserved and should only be used by the library.

Use the compiler option --predef_macros to determine the value for any predefined symbols.

IAR CLIB Library

The IAR CLIB Library provides most of the important C library definitions that apply to embedded systems. These are of the following types:

- Standard C library definitions available for user programs. These are documented in this chapter.
- The system startup code; see the chapter *The CLIB runtime environment* in this guide.
- Runtime support libraries; for example low-level floating-point routines.
- Intrinsic functions, allowing low-level use of 8051 features. See the chapter *Intrinsic functions* for more information.

LIBRARY DEFINITIONS SUMMARY

This table lists the header files specific to the CLIB library:

Header file	Description
assert.h	Assertions
ctype.h*	Character handling
errno.h	Error return values
float.h	Limits and sizes of floating-point types
iccbutl.h	Low-level routines
limits.h	Limits and sizes of integral types
math.h	Mathematics
setjmp.h	Non-local jumps
stdarg.h	Variable arguments
stdbool.h	Adds support for the $bool$ data type in C
stddef.h	<pre>Common definitions including size_t, NULL, ptrdiff_t, and offsetof</pre>
stdio.h	Input/output
stdlib.h	General utilities
string.h	String handling

Table 53: IAR CLIB Library header files

^{*} The functions isxxx, toupper, and tolower declared in the header file ctype. h evaluate their argument more than once. This is not according to the ISO/ANSI standard.

805 I-specific CLIB functions

This section lists the 8051-specific CLIB library functions declared in pgmspace.h that allow access to strings in code memory.

SPECIFYING READ AND WRITE FORMATTERS

You can override default formatters for the functions printf_P and scanf_P by editing the linker configuration file. Note that it is not possible to use the IDE for overriding the default formatter for the 8051-specific library routines.

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

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

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

```
-e_medium_read_P=_formatted_read_P
```

Note: In the descriptions below, PGM_VOID_P is a symbol that expands to void const __code * or void const __far_code *, depending on the data model; and PGM_P is a symbol that expands to char const __code * or char const __far_code *, depending on the data model.

memcmp_P

Syntax void * memcmp_P(const void *s1, PGM_VOID_P s2, size_t n);

Description Identical to memorp except that string s2 is in code memory, not in data memory.

memcpy_P

Syntax void * memcpy_P(void *s1, PGM_VOID_P s2, size_t n);

Description Identical to memcpy except that it copies string s2 in code memory to string s2 in data

memory.

printf_P

Syntax int printf_P(PGM_P __format,...);

Description Similar to printf except that the format string is in code memory, not in data memory.

For information about how to override default formatter, see Specifying read and write

formatters, page 348.

puts_P

Syntax int puts_P(PGM_P __s);

Description Identical to puts except that the string to be written is in code memory, not in data

memory.

scanf P

Syntax int scanf_P(PGM_P __format,...);

Description Identical to scanf except that the format string is in code memory, not in data memory.

For information about how to override the default formatter, see Specifying read and

write formatters, page 348.

sprintf_P

Syntax int sprintf_P(char *__s, PGM_P __format,...);

Description Identical to sprintf except that the format string is in code memory, not in data

memory.

sscanf P

Syntax int sscanf_P(const char *__s, PGM_P __format,...);

Description Identical to sscanf except that the format string is in code memory, not in data memory.

strcat_P

Syntax char * strcat_P(char *s1, PGM_P s2);

Description Identical to streat except that the source string s2 is in code memory, not in data

memory.

strcmp_P

Syntax int strcmp_P(const char *s1, PGM_P s2);

Description Identical to strcmp except that string s2 is in code memory, not in data memory.

strcpy_P

Syntax char * strcpy_P(char *s1, PGM_P s2);

Description Identical to stropy except that the string s2 being copied is in code memory, not in data

memory.

strerror P

Syntax
PGM_P strerror_P(int errnum);

Description Identical to strerror except that the string returned is in code memory, not in data

memory.

strlen P

Syntax size_t strlen_P(PGM_P s);

Description Identical to strlen except that the string being tested is in code memory, not in data

memory.

strncat P

Syntax char * strncat_P(char *s1, PGM_P s2, size_t n);

Description Identical to strncat except that the source string s2 is in code memory, not in data

memory.

strncmp_P

Syntax int strncmp_P(const char *s1, PGM_P s2, size_t n);

Description Identical to strncmp except that the string s2 is in code memory, not in data memory.

strncpy_P

Syntax char * strncpy_P(char *s1, PGM_P s2, size_t n);

Description Identical to strncpy except that the source string s2 is in code memory, not in data

memory.

Segment reference

The compiler places code and data into named segments which are referred to by the IAR XLINK Linker. Details about the segments are required for programming assembler language modules, and are also useful when interpreting the assembler language output from the compiler.

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

Summary of segments

The table below lists the segments that are available in the compiler:

Segment	Description
BANKED_CODE	Holds code declaredbanked_func.
BANKED_CODE_EXT2_AC	Holds located constant data, when using the Banked extended 2 code model. $ \\$
BANKED_CODE_EXT2_AN	Holds located uninitialized data, when using the Banked extended2 code model.
BANKED_CODE_EXT2_C	Holds constant data, when using the Banked extended2 code model.
BANKED_CODE_EXT2_N	Holdsno_init static and global variables, when using the Banked extended2 code model.
BANKED_CODE_INTERRU PTS_EXT2	Holdsinterrupt functions when compiling for the extended2 core.
BANKED_EXT2	Holds springboard functions when compiling for the extended2 core.
BANK_RELAYS	Holds relay functions for bank switching when compiling for the Banked code model.
BDATA_AN	Holdsbdata located uninitialized data.
BDATA_I	Holdsbdata static and global initialized variables.
BDATA_ID	Holds initial values forbdata static and global variables in BDATA_I.
BDATA_N	Holdsno_initbdata static and global variables.
BDATA_Z	Holds zero-initializedbdata static and global variables.

Table 54: Segment summary

Segment	Description
BIT_N	Holdsno_initbit static and global variables.
BREG	Holds the compiler's virtual bit register.
CHECKSUM	Holds the checksum generated by the linker.
CODE_AC	Holdscode located constant data.
CODE_C	Holdscode constant data.
CODE_N	Holdsno_initcode static and global variables.
CSTART	Holds the startup code.
DATA_AN	Holdsdata located uninitialized data.
DATA_I	Holdsdata static and global initialized variables.
DATA_ID	Holds initial values fordata static and global variables in DATA_I.
DATA_N	Holdsno_initdata static and global variables.
DATA_Z	Holds zero-initializeddata static and global variables.
DIFUNCT	Holds pointers to code, typically C++ constructors, that should be executed by the system startup code before main is called.
DOVERLAY	Holds the static data overlay area.
EXT_STACK	Holds the Maxim (Dallas Semiconductor) 390/400 extended data stack.
FAR_AN	Holdsfar located uninitialized data.
FAR_CODE	Holds code declaredfar_func.
FAR_CODE_AC	Holdsfar_code located constant data.
FAR_CODE_C	Holdsfar_code constant data.
FAR_CODE_N	Holdsno_initfar_code static and global variables.
FAR_HEAP	Holds the heap used for dynamically allocated data in far
	memory.
FAR_I	Holdsfar static and global initialized variables.
FAR_ID	Holds initial values forfar static and global variables in FAR_I.
FAR_N	Holdsno_initfar static and global variables.
FAR_ROM_AC	Holdsfar_rom located constant data.
FAR_ROM_C	Holdsfar_rom constant data.
FAR_Z	Holds zero-initializedfar static and global variables.
FAR22_AN	Holdsfar22 located uninitialized data.

Table 54: Segment summary (Continued)

Segment	Description
FAR22_CODE	Holds code declaredfar22_code.
FAR22_CODE_AC	Holdsfar22_code located constant data.
FAR22_CODE_C	Holdsfar22_code constant data.
FAR22_CODE_N	Holdsno_initfar22_code static and global variables.
FAR22_HEAP	Holds the heap used for dynamically allocated data in far22 memory.
FAR22_I	Holdsfar22 static and global initialized variables.
FAR22_ID	Holds initial values forfar22 static and global variables in FAR22_I.
FAR22_N	Holdsno_initfar22 static and global variables.
FAR22_ROM_AC	Holdsfar22_rom located constant data.
FAR22_ROM_C	Holdsfar22_rom constant data.
FAR22_Z	Holds zero-initializedfar22 static and global variables.
HUGE_AN	Holdshuge located uninitialized data.
HUGE_CODE_AC	Holdshuge_code located constant data.
HUGE_CODE_C	Holdshuge_code constant data.
HUGE_CODE_N	Holdsno_inithuge_code static and global variables.
HUGE_HEAP	Holds the heap used for dynamically allocated data in huge memory.
HUGE_I	Holdshuge static and global initialized variables.
HUGE_ID	Holds initial values forhuge static and global variables in HUGE_I.
HUGE_N	Holdsno_inithuge static and global variables.
HUGE_ROM_AC	Holdshuge_rom located constant data.
HUGE_ROM_C	Holdshuge_rom constant data.
HUGE_Z	Holds zero-initializedhuge static and global variables.
IDATA_AN	Holdsidata located uninitialized data.
IDATA_I	Holdsidata static and global initialized variables.
IDATA_ID	Holds initial values foridata static and global variables in IDATA_I.
IDATA_N	Holdsno_initidata static and global variables.
IDATA_Z	Holds zero-initializedidata static and global variables.

Table 54: Segment summary (Continued)

Segment	Description
INTVEC	Contains the reset and interrupt vectors.
INTVEC_EXT2	Contains the reset and interrupt vectors when the core is Extended2.
IOVERLAY	Holds the static idata overlay area.
ISTACK	Holds the internal data stack.
IXDATA_AN	Holdsixdata located uninitialized data.
IXDATA_I	Holdsixdata static and global initialized variables.
IXDATA_ID	Holds initial values for <code>ixdata</code> static and global variables in <code>IXDATA_I</code> .
IXDATA_N	Holdsno_initixdata static and global variables.
IXDATA_Z	Holds zero-initializedixdata static and global variables.
NEAR_CODE	Holds code declarednear_func.
PDATA_AN	Holdspdata located uninitialized data.
PDATA_I	Holdspdata static and global initialized variables.
PDATA_ID	Holds initial values forpdata static and global variables in PDATA_I.
PDATA_N	Holdsno_initpdata static and global variables.
PDATA_Z	Holds zero-initializedpdata static and global variables.
PSP	Holds the stack pointer to the pdata stack.
PSTACK	Holds the pdata stack.
RCODE	Holds code declarednear_func.
SFR_AN	Holdssfr located uninitialized data.
VREG	Contains the compiler's virtual register area.
XDATA_AN	Holdsxdata located uninitialized data.
XDATA_HEAP	Holds the heap used for dynamically allocated data.
XDATA_I	Holdsxdata static and global initialized variables.
XDATA_ID	Holds initial values forxdata static and global variables in XDATA_I.
XDATA_N	Holdsno_initxdata static and global variables.
XDATA_ROM_AC	Holdsxdata_rom located constant data.
XDATA_ROM_C	Holdsxdata_rom constant data.
XDATA_Z	Holds zero-initializedxdata static and global variables.
XSP	Holds the stack pointer to the xdata stack.

Table 54: Segment summary (Continued)

Segment	Description
XSTACK	Holds the xdata stack.

Table 54: 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 12, *XLINK segment memory types*, page 94.

For information about the -Z and the -P directives, see the *IAR Linker and Library Tools Reference Guide*.

For information about how to define segments in the linker configuration file, see *Customizing the linker configuration file*, page 95.

For more information about the extended keywords mentioned here, see the chapter *Extended keywords*.

BANKED_CODE

Description Holds program code declared __banked_func, which is the default in the Banked code

model.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in the code memory space.

Access type Read-only

BANKED_CODE_EXT2_AC

Description Holds located constant data, when using the Banked extended2 code model. The

segment also holds default-declared initialized located const objects if the compiler

option --place_constants=code has been specified.

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.

BANKED CODE EXT2 AN

Description Holds __no_init located data, when using the Banked extended2 code model. Unless

the option --place_constants=code or --place_constants=data_rom has been specified, the segment also holds located non-initialized objects declared __data 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.

BANKED CODE EXT2 C

Description Holds constant data, when using the Banked extended 2 code model. This can include

constant variables, string and aggregate literals, etc.

This segment also holds default-declared non-located constant data and strings if the

compiler option --place_constants=code has been specified.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement 0F0000-0FFFFF

Access type Read/write

See also --output, -o, page 266

BANKED_CODE_EXT2_N

Description Holds static and global __no_init variables, when using the Banked extended2 code

model.

This segment also holds default-declared non-located constant data and strings if the

compiler option --place_constants=code has been specified.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement 0F0000-0FFFFF

Access type Read/write

See also --output, -o, page 266

BANKED_CODE_INTERRUPTS_EXT2

Description Holds __interrupt functions when compiling for the extended2 core.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in the code memory space but must be located in

the same bank as the segment INTVEC_EXT2.

Access type Read/write

BANKED_EXT2

Description Holds the springboard functions, that is functions that need to be copied to every bank

when compiling for the extended2 core.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement 10000

Access type Read-only

BANK_RELAYS

Description Holds the relay functions that are used for bank switching when compiling for the

extended2 core and the Banked extended2 code model.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere within 0x0-0xFFFF, but must be located in the

root bank.

Access type Read-only

BDATA AN

Description Holds __no_init __bdata located data.

specified in the linker command file.

BDATA I

Description Holds __bdata static and global initialized variables initialized by copying from the

segment BDATA_ID at application startup.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker configuration file, the -z directive must be used.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement 0x20-0x2F

Access type Read/write

BDATA ID

Description Holds initial values for __bdata static and global variables in the BDATA_I segment.

These values are copied from BDATA_ID to BDATA_I at application startup.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker configuration file, the -Z directive must be used.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in the code memory space.

Access type Read-only

BDATA_N

Description Holds static and global __no_init __bdata variables.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement 0x20-0x2F

Access type Read-only

BDATA Z

Description Holds zero-initialized __bdata static and global variables. The contents of this segment

is declared by the system startup code.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker configuration file, the -z directive must be used.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement 0x20-0x2F

Access type Read/write

BIT_N

Description Holds static and global __no_init __bit variables.

Segment memory type BIT

Memory placement 0x00-0x7F

Access type Read-only

BREG

Description Holds the compiler's virtual bit register.

Segment memory type BIT

Memory placement $0 \times 00 - 0 \times 7F$

Access type Read/write

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

CODE AC

Description Holds __code located constant data. The segment also holds const objects if the

compiler option --place_constants=code has been specified.

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.

CODE_C

Description Holds __code constant data. This can include constant variables, string and aggregate

literals, etc. The segment also holds constant data and strings if the compiler option

--place_constants=code has been specified.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement 0-0xFFFF

Access type Read-only

See also --output, -o, page 266

CODE_N

Description Holds static and global __no_init __code variables. The segment also holds constant

data and strings if the compiler option --place_constants=code has been specified.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement 0-0xffff

Access type Read-only

See also --output, -o, page 266

CSTART

Description Holds the startup code.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the $\neg P$ directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker configuration file, the -Z directive must be used.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement This segment must be placed at the address where the microcontroller starts executing

after reset, which for the 8051 microcontroller is at the address 0x0.

Access type Read-only

DATA AN

Description Holds __no_init __data located data. Unless the option

--place_constants=code or --place_constants=data_rom has been specified, the segment also holds located non-initialized objects declared __data const and, in the Tiny data model, default-declared located non-initialized constant objects.

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.

DATA_I

Description Holds __data static and global initialized variables initialized by copying from the

segment DATA_ID at application startup.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker configuration file, the -z directive must be used.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement $0 \times 0 - 0 \times 7F$

Access type Read/write

DATA ID

Description Holds initial values for __data static and global variables in the DATA_I segment.

These values are copied from DATA ID to DATA I at application startup.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker configuration file, the -Z directive must be used.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in memory.

Access type Read-only

DATA N

Description Holds static and global __no_init __data variables.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement $0 \times 0 - 0 \times 7F$

Access type Read/write

DATA Z

Description Holds zero-initialized __data static and global variables. The contents of this segment

is declared by the system startup code.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker configuration file, the -z directive must be used.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement 0x0-0x7F

Access type Read/write

DIFUNCT

Description Holds the dynamic initialization vector used by C++.

Segment memory type CONST

Memory placement In the Small data model, this segment must be placed in the first 64 Kbytes of memory.

In other data models, this segment can be placed anywhere in memory.

Access type Read-only

DOVERLAY

Description Holds the static overlay area for functions called using the data overlay calling

convention.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement 0x0-0x7F

Access type Read/write

EXT_STACK

Description Holds the extended data stack.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement $0 \times 0 - 0 \times 7 F$

Access type Read/write

See also The stacks, page 102.

FAR AN

Description Holds __no_init __far located data. Unless the option --place_constants=code

or --place_constants=data_rom has been specified, the segment also holds located non-initialized objects declared __far const and, in the Far data model,

default-declared located non-initialized constant objects.

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.

FAR CODE

Description Holds application code declared __far_func.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement This segment must be placed in the code memory space.

Access type Read-only

FAR_CODE_AC

Description Holds __far_code located constant data. In the Far data model, the segment also holds

default-declared initialized located const objects, if the compiler option

--place_constants=code has been specified.

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.

FAR_CODE_C

Description Holds __far_code constant data. This can include constant variables, string and

aggregate literals, etc. In the Far data model, the segment also holds default-declared non-initialized constant data, if the compiler option --place_constants=code has

been specified.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in the code memory space.

Access type Read-only

See also --output, -o, page 266

FAR_CODE_N

Description Holds static and global __no_init __far_code variables. In the Far data model, the

segment also holds default-declared non-initialized constant data, if the compiler option

--place_constants=code has been specified.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in the code memory space.

Access type Read-only

See also --output, -o, page 266

FAR_HEAP

Description Holds the heap used for dynamically allocated data in far memory, in other words data

allocated by far_malloc and far_free, and in C++, new and delete.

Segment memory type XDATA

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in external data memory.

Access type Read/write

See also The heap, page 105 and New and Delete operators, page 203.

FAR_I

Description Holds __far static and global initialized variables initialized by copying from the

segment FAR_ID at application startup.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker configuration file, the -Z directive must be used.

Segment memory type XDATA

Memory placement This segment must be placed in the external data memory space.

Access type Read-only

FAR ID

Description Holds initial values for __far static and global variables in the FAR_I segment. These

values are copied from FAR ID to FAR I at application startup.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker configuration file, the -Z directive must be used.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in the code memory space.

Access type Read-only

FAR N

Description Holds static and global __no_init __far variables. Unless the option

data model, default-declared non-initialized constant objects.

Segment memory type CONST

Memory placement This segment must be placed in the external data memory space.

Access type Read-only

FAR_ROM_AC

Description Holds __far_rom located constant data. In the Far data model, the segment also holds

default-declared initialized located const objects if the compiler option

--place_constants=data_rom has been specified.

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.

FAR_ROM_C

Description Holds __far_rom constant data. This can include constant variables, string and

aggregate literals, etc. In the Far data model, the segment also holds default-declared

non-located constant data and strings if the compiler option --place_constants=data_rom has been specified.

Segment memory type CONST

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in the external data memory space.

Access type Read-only

See also --output, -o, page 266

FAR Z

Description Holds zero-initialized __far static and global variables. The contents of this segment

is declared by the system startup code. Unless the option --place_constants=code or --place_constants=data_rom has been specified, the segment also holds

non-initialized or zero-initialized __far constants.

In the Far data model, the segment also holds default-declared zero-initialized constant

objects unless the option --place_constants=code or --place_constants=data_rom has been specified.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker configuration file, the -z directive must be used.

Segment memory type XDATA

Memory placement This segment must be placed in the external data memory space.

Access type Read/write

See also --output, -o, page 266

FAR22 AN

Description Holds __no_init __far22 located data.

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.

FAR22_CODE

Description Holds application code declared __far22_code.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement 0x0-0x3FFFFF

Access type Read-only

FAR22 CODE AC

Description Holds __far22_code located constant data.

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.

FAR22_CODE_C

Description Holds __far22_code constant data. This can include constant variables, string and

aggregate literals, etc.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement 0x0-0x3FFFFF

Access type Read-only

See also --output, -o, page 266

FAR22_CODE_N

Description Holds static and global __no_init __far22_code variables.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement 0x0-0x3FFFFF

Access type Read-only

See also --output, -o, page 266

FAR22 HEAP

Description Holds the heap used for dynamically allocated data in far22 memory, in other words data

allocated by far22_malloc and far22_free, and in C++, new and delete.

Segment memory type XDATA

Memory placement 0x0-0x3FFFFF

Access type Read/write

See also The heap, page 105 and New and Delete operators, page 203.

FAR22 I

Description Holds __far22 static and global initialized variables initialized by copying from the

segment FAR22_ID at application startup.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker configuration file, the -z directive must be used.

Segment memory type XDATA

Memory placement 0x0-0x3FFFFF

Access type Read-only

FAR22 ID

Description Holds initial values for __far22 static and global variables in the FAR22_I segment.

These values are copied from FAR22_ID to FAR22_I at application startup.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker configuration file, the -Z directive must be used.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement 0x0-0x3FFFFF

Access type Read-only

FAR22 N

Description Holds static and global __no_init __far22 variables.

Segment memory type CONST

Memory placement 0x0-0x3FFFFF

Access type Read-only

FAR22_ROM_AC

Description Holds __far22_rom located constant data.

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.

FAR22_ROM_C

Description Holds __far22_rom constant data. This can include constant variables, string and

aggregate literals, etc.

Segment memory type CONST

Memory placement 0x0-0x3FFFFF

Access type Read-only

See also --output, -o, page 266

FAR22 Z

Description Holds zero-initialized __far22 static and global variables. The contents of this segment

is declared by the system startup code.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker configuration file, the -Z directive must be used.

Segment memory type XDATA

Memory placement 0x0-0x3FFFFF

Access type Read/write

See also --output, -o, page 266

HUGE AN

Description Holds __no_init __huge located data. Also holds located non-initialized objects

declared __huge const unless the option --place_constants=code or

--place_constants=data_rom has been specified.

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.

HUGE_CODE_AC

Description Holds __huge_code located constant data.

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.

HUGE_CODE_C

Description Holds __huge_code constant data. This can include constant variables, string and

aggregate literals, etc.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in the code memory space.

Access type Read-only

HUGE_CODE_N

Description Holds static and global __no_init __huge_code variables.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in the code memory space.

Access type Read-only

HUGE_HEAP

Description Holds the heap used for dynamically allocated data in huge memory, in other words data

allocated by huge_malloc and huge_free, and in C++, new and delete.

Segment memory type XDATA

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in the external data memory space.

Access type Read/write

See also The heap, page 105 and New and Delete operators, page 203.

HUGE I

Description Holds __huge static and global initialized variables initialized by copying from the

segment HUGE_ID at application startup.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker configuration file, the -z directive must be used.

XDATA Segment memory type

This segment can be placed anywhere in the external data memory space. Memory placement

Read/write Access type

HUGE ID

Description Holds initial values for __huge static and global variables in the HUGE_I segment.

These values are copied from HUGE_ID to HUGE_I at application startup.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker configuration file, the -Z directive must be used.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in the code memory space.

Access type Read-only

HUGE N

Holds static and global __no_init __huge variables. Description

> Unless the option --place_constants=code or --place_constants=data_rom has been specified, the segment also holds non-initialized objects declared __huge

const.

XDATA Segment memory type

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in the external data memory space.

Read-only Access type

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HUGE_ROM_AC

Description Holds __huge_rom located constant data.

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.

HUGE_ROM_C

Description Holds __huge_rom constant data. This can include constant variables, string and

aggregate literals, etc.

Segment memory type CONST

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in the external data memory space.

Access type Read-only

HUGE_Z

Description Holds zero-initialized __huge static and global variables. The contents of this segment

is declared by the system startup code. Unless the option $--place_constants=code$ or $--place_constants=data_rom$ has been specified, the segment also holds

non-initialized or zero-initialized __huge constants.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker configuration file, the -z directive must be used.

Segment memory type XDATA

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in the external data memory space.

Access type Read/write

IDATA_AN

Description Holds __no_init __idata located data. Unless the option

--place_constants=code or --place_constants=data_rom has been specified, the segment also holds located non-initialized objects declared __idata const and, in

the small data model, default-declared located non-initialized constant objects.

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.

IDATA I

Description Holds __idata static and global initialized variables initialized by copying from the

segment IDATA_ID at application startup.

Unless the option --place_constants=code or --place_constants=data_rom has been specified, the segment also holds initialized objects declared __idata const

and, in the small data model, default-declared initialized constant objects.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker configuration file, the -Z directive must be used.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement 0-0xFF

Access type Read-only

IDATA ID

Description Holds initial values for __idata static and global variables in the IDATA_I segment.

These values are copied from IDATA_ID to IDATA_I at application startup.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker configuration file, the -Z directive must be used.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in the code memory space.

Access type Read-only

IDATA_N

Description Holds static and global __no_init __idata variables.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement 0-0xFF

Access type Read/write

IDATA Z

Description Holds zero-initialized __idata static and global variables. The contents of this segment

is declared by the system startup code.

Also holds, in the small data model, default-declared zero-initialized constant objects

 $unless \ the \ option \ -- \verb|place_constants=code| \ or \ -- \verb|place_constants=data_rom|$

has been specified.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker configuration file, the -z directive must be used.

Segment memory type IDATA

Memory placement 0x0-0xFF

Access type Read/write

INTVEC

Description Holds the interrupt vector table generated by the use of the __interrupt extended

keyword in combination with the #pragma vector directive.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement 0x0

Access type Read-only

INTVEC_EXT2

Description When compiling for the extended2 core, this segment holds the interrupt vector table

generated by the use of the __interrupt extended keyword in combination with the

#pragma vector directive.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in the code memory space but must be located in

the same bank as the segment BANKED_CODE_INTERRUPTS_EXT2.

Access type Read-only

IOVERLAY

Description Holds the static overlay area for functions called using the idata overlay calling

convention.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement 0x0-0xFF

Access type Read/write

ISTACK

Description Holds the internal data stack.

Segment memory type IDATA

Memory placement 0x0-0xFF

Access type Read/write

See also *The stacks*, page 102.

IXDATA AN

Description Holds __no_init __ixdata located data.

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.

IXDATA_I

Description Holds __ixdata static and global initialized variables initialized by copying from the

segment IXDATA_ID at application startup.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker configuration file, the -z directive must be used.

Segment memory type XDATA

Memory placement 0-0xFFFF

Access type Read-only

IXDATA ID

Description Holds initial values for __ixdata static and global variables in the IXDATA_I segment.

These values are copied from IXDATA_ID to IXDATA_I at application startup.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker configuration file, the -Z directive must be used.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in the code memory space.

Access type Read-only

IXDATA N

Description Holds static and global __no_init __ixdata variables.

Segment memory type XDATA

Memory placement 0-0xFFFF

Access type Read/write

IXDATA Z

Description Holds zero-initialized __ixdata static and global variables. The contents of this

segment is declared by the system startup code.

Also holds, in the small data model, default-declared zero-initialized constant objects unless the option --place_constants=code or --place_constants=data_rom

has been specified.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker configuration file, the -z directive must be used.

Segment memory type XDATA

Memory placement 0x0-0xFFFF

Access type Read-only

NEAR_CODE

Description Holds program code declared __near_func.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement 0-0xFFFF

Access type Read-only

PDATA AN

Description Holds __no_init __pdata located data.

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.

PDATA I

Description Holds __pdata static and global initialized variables initialized by copying from the

segment PDATA_ID at application startup.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker configuration file, the -Z directive must be used.

Segment memory type XDATA

Memory placement 0-0xnnFF (xdata memory)

0-0xnnnnFF (far memory)

This segment must be placed in one 256-byte page of xdata or far memory. Thus, nn can be anything from 00 to FFF (xdata) and nnnn can be anything from 0000 to FFFF (far).

Access type Read/write

PDATA ID

Description Holds initial values for __pdata static and global variables in the PDATA_I segment.

These values are copied from PDATA_ID to PDATA_I at application startup.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker configuration file, the -z directive must be used.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in the code memory space.

Access type Read-only

PDATA_N

Description Holds static and global __no_init __pdata variables.

Segment memory type XDATA

Memory placement 0-0xnnFF (xdata memory)

0-0xnnnnFF (far memory)

This segment must be placed in one 256-byte page of xdata or far memory. Thus, nn can be anything from 00 to FFF (xdata) and nnnn can be anything from 0000 to FFFF (far).

Access type Read/write

PDATA Z

Description Holds zero-initialized __pdata static and global variables. The contents of this segment

is declared by the system startup code.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker configuration file, the -z directive must be used.

Segment memory type XDATA

Memory placement 0-0xnnFF (xdata memory)

0-0xnnnnFF (far memory)

This segment must be placed in one 256-byte page of xdata or far memory. Thus, nn can be anything from 00 to FFF (xdata) and nnnn can be anything from 0000 to FFFF (far).

Access type Read/write

PSP

Description Holds the stack pointers to the pdata stack.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement 0-0x7F

Access type Read/write

See also System startup, page 127.

PSTACK

Description Holds the parameter data stack.

Segment memory type XDATA

Memory placement 0-0xnnFF (xdata memory)

0-0xnnnnFF (far memory)

This segment must be placed in one 256-byte page of xdata or far memory. Thus, nn can be anything from 00 to FF (xdata) and nnnn can be anything from 0000 to FFFF (far).

Access type Read/write

See also *The stacks*, page 102.

RCODE

Description Holds assembler-written runtime library code.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in the code memory space.

Access type Read-only

SFR AN

Description Holds __no_init __sfr located data.

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.

VREG

Description Holds the compiler's virtual register area.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement 0-0x7FF

Access type Read/write

XDATA AN

Description Holds __no_init __xdata located data.

Unless the option --place_constants=code or --place_constants=data_rom has been specified, the segment also holds located non-initialized objects declared __xdata const and, in the large data model, default-declared located non-initialized constant objects.

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.

XDATA_HEAP

Description Holds the heap used for dynamically allocated data in xdata memory, in other words data

allocated by xdata_malloc and xdata_free, and in C++, new and delete.

Segment memory type XDATA

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in the external data memory space.

Access type Read/write

See also The heap, page 105 and New and Delete operators, page 203.

XDATA_I

Description Holds __xdata static and global initialized variables initialized by copying from the

segment XDATA_ID at application startup.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker configuration file, the -Z directive must be used.

Segment memory type XDATA

Memory placement 0-0xffff

Access type Read/write

XDATA_ID

Description Holds initial values for __xdata static and global variables in the XDATA_I segment.

These values are copied from XDATA_ID to XDATA_I at application startup.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker configuration file, the -z directive must be used.

Segment memory type CODE

Memory placement This segment can be placed anywhere in the code memory space.

Access type Read-only

XDATA N

Description Holds static and global __no_init __xdata variables.

Unless the option --place_constants=code or --place_constants=data_rom has been specified, the segment also holds non-initialized objects declared __xdata const and, in the Large data model, default-declared non-initialized constant objects.

Segment memory type XDATA

Memory placement 0-0xFFFF

Access type Read/write

XDATA ROM AC

Description Holds __xdata_rom located constant data. In the Large data model, the segment also

holds default-declared initialized located const objects if the compiler option

--place_constants=data_rom has been specified. See --place_constants, page 267.

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.

XDATA_ROM_C

Description Holds __xdata_rom constant data. This can include constant variables, string and

aggregate literals, etc.

Segment memory type CONST

Memory placement 0-0xFFFF

Access type Read-only

XDATA_Z

Description Holds zero-initialized __huge static and global variables. The contents of this segment

is declared by the system startup code. In the Large data model, the segment also holds

default-declared zero-initialized constant objects unless the option

--place_constants=code or --place_constants=data_rom has been specified.

This segment cannot be placed in memory by using the -P directive for packed placement, because the contents must be continuous. Instead, when you define this

segment in the linker configuration file, the -z directive must be used.

Segment memory type XDATA

Memory placement 0-0xFFFF

Access type Read/write

See also --output, -o, page 266

XSP

Description Holds the stack pointers to the xdata stack.

Segment memory type DATA

Memory placement 0-0x7F

Access type Read/write

See also System startup, page 127.

XSTACK

Description Holds the xdata stack.

Segment memory type XDATA

Memory placement 0-0FFFF

Access type Read/write

See also *The stacks*, page 102.

Implementation-defined behavior

This chapter describes how IAR Systems handles the implementation-defined areas of the C language.

Note: The IAR Systems implementation adheres to a freestanding implementation of Standard C. This means that parts of a standard library can be excluded in the implementation.

The text in this chapter applies to the DLIB library. Because the CLIB library does not follow Standard C, its implementation-defined behavior is not documented. For information about the CLIB library, see *The CLIB runtime* environment, page 151.

Descriptions of implementation-defined behavior

This section follows the same order as the C standard. Each item includes references to the ISO chapter and section (in parenthesis) that explains the implementation-defined behavior.

J.3.1 Translation

Diagnostics (3.10, 5.1.1.3)

Diagnostics are produced in the form:

filename, linenumber level[tag]: message

where filename is the name of the source file in which the error was encountered, linenumber is the line number at which the compiler detected the error, level is the level of seriousness of the message (remark, warning, error, or fatal error), tag is a unique tag that identifies the message, and message is an explanatory message, possibly several lines.

White-space characters (5.1.1.2)

At translation phase three, each non-empty sequence of white-space characters is retained.

J.3.2 Environment

The character set (5.1.1.2)

The source character set is the same as the physical source file multibyte character set. By default, the standard ASCII character set is used. However, if you use the --enable_multibytes compiler option, the host character set is used instead.

Main (5.1.2.1)

The function called at program startup is called main. No prototype is declared for main, and the only definition supported for main is:

```
int main(void)
```

To change this behavior for the IAR DLIB runtime environment, see *Customizing* system initialization, page 130.

The effect of program termination (5.1.2.1)

Terminating the application returns the execution to the startup code (just after the call to main).

Alternative ways to define main (5.1.2.2.1)

There is no alternative ways to define the main function.

The argy argument to main (5.1.2.2.1)

The argv argument is not supported.

Streams as interactive devices (5.1.2.3)

The streams stdin, stdout, and stderr are treated as interactive devices.

Signals, their semantics, and the default handling (7.14)

In the DLIB library, the set of supported signals is the same as in Standard C. A raised signal will do nothing, unless the signal function is customized to fit the application.

Signal values for computational exceptions (7.14.1.1)

In the DLIB library, there are no implementation-defined values that correspond to a computational exception.

Signals at system startup (7.14.1.1)

In the DLIB library, there are no implementation-defined signals that are executed at system startup.

Environment names (7.20.4.5)

In the DLIB library, there are no implementation-defined environment names that are used by the geteny function.

The system function (7.20.4.6)

The system function is not supported.

J.3.3 Identifiers

Multibyte characters in identifiers (6.4.2)

Additional multibyte characters may not appear in identifiers.

Significant characters in identifiers (5.2.4.1, 6.1.2)

The number of significant initial characters in an identifier with or without external linkage is guaranteed to be no less than 200.

J.3.4 Characters

Number of bits in a byte (3.6)

A byte contains 8 bits.

Execution character set member values (5.2.1)

The values of the members of the execution character set are the values of the ASCII character set, which can be augmented by the values of the extra characters in the host character set.

Alphabetic escape sequences (5.2.2)

The standard alphabetic escape sequences have the values a-7, b-8, f-12, n-10, r-13, t-9, and v-11.

Characters outside of the basic executive character set (6.2.5)

A character outside of the basic executive character set that is stored in a char is not transformed.

Plain char (6.2.5, 6.3.1.1)

A plain char is treated as an unsigned char.

Source and execution character sets (6.4.4.4, 5.1.1.2)

The source character set is the set of legal characters that can appear in source files. By default, the source character set is the standard ASCII character set. However, if you use the command line option --enable_multibytes, the source character set will be the host computer's default character set.

The execution character set is the set of legal characters that can appear in the execution environment. By default, the execution character set is the standard ASCII character set.

However, if you use the command line option --enable_multibytes, the execution character set will be the host computer's default character set. The IAR DLIB Library needs a multibyte character scanner to support a multibyte execution character set. See *Locale*, page 136.

Integer character constants with more than one character (6.4.4.4)

An integer character constant that contains more than one character will be treated as an integer constant. The value will be calculated by treating the leftmost character as the most significant character, and the rightmost character as the least significant character, in an integer constant. A diagnostic message will be issued if the value cannot be represented in an integer constant.

Wide character constants with more than one character (6.4.4.4)

A wide character constant that contains more than one multibyte character generates a diagnostic message.

Locale used for wide character constants (6.4.4.4)

By default, the C locale is used. If the --enable_multibytes compiler option is used, the default host locale is used instead.

Locale used for wide string literals (6.4.5)

By default, the C locale is used. If the --enable_multibytes compiler option is used, the default host locale is used instead.

Source characters as executive characters (6.4.5)

All source characters can be represented as executive characters.

J.3.5 Integers

Extended integer types (6.2.5)

There are no extended integer types.

Range of integer values (6.2.6.2)

The representation of integer values are in the two's complement form. The most significant bit holds the sign; 1 for negative, 0 for positive and zero.

For information about the ranges for the different integer types, see *Basic data types*, page 276.

The rank of extended integer types (6.3.1.1)

There are no extended integer types.

Signals when converting to a signed integer type (6.3.1.3)

No signal is raised when an integer is converted to a signed integer type.

Signed bitwise operations (6.5)

Bitwise operations on signed integers work the same way as bitwise operations on unsigned integers; in other words, the sign-bit will be treated as any other bit.

J.3.6 Floating point

Accuracy of floating-point operations (5.2.4.2.2)

The accuracy of floating-point operations is unknown.

Rounding behaviors (5.2.4.2.2)

There are no non-standard values of FLT ROUNDS.

Evaluation methods (5.2.4.2.2)

There are no non-standard values of FLT_EVAL_METHOD.

Converting integer values to floating-point values (6.3.1.4)

When an integral value is converted to a floating-point value that cannot exactly represent the source value, the round-to-nearest rounding mode is used (FLT_ROUNDS is defined to 1).

Converting floating-point values to floating-point values (6.3.1.5)

When a floating-point value is converted to a floating-point value that cannot exactly represent the source value, the round-to-nearest rounding mode is used (FLT_ROUNDS is defined to 1).

Denoting the value of floating-point constants (6.4.4.2)

The round-to-nearest rounding mode is used (FLT_ROUNDS is defined to 1).

Contraction of floating-point values (6.5)

Floating-point values are contracted. However, there is no loss in precision and because signaling is not supported, this does not matter.

Default state of FENV_ACCESS (7.6.1)

The default state of the pragma directive FENV_ACCESS is OFF.

Additional floating-point mechanisms (7.6, 7.12)

There are no additional floating-point exceptions, rounding-modes, environments, and classifications.

Default state of FP_CONTRACT (7.12.2)

The default state of the pragma directive FP_CONTRACT is OFF.

J.3.7 Arrays and pointers

Conversion from/to pointers (6.3.2.3)

For information about casting of data pointers and function pointers, see *Casting*, page 283.

ptrdiff_t (6.5.6)

For information about ptrdiff_t, see *ptrdiff_t*, page 283.

J.3.8 Hints

Honoring the register keyword (6.7.1)

User requests for register variables are not honored.

Inlining functions (6.7.4)

User requests for inlining functions increases the chance, but does not make it certain, that the function will actually be inlined into another function. See the pragma directive *inline*, page 318.

J.3.9 Structures, unions, enumerations, and bitfields

Sign of 'plain' bitfields (6.7.2, 6.7.2.1)

For information about how a 'plain' int bitfield is treated, see *Bitfields*, page 277.

Possible types for bitfields (6.7.2.1)

All integer types can be used as bitfields in the compiler's extended mode, see -e, page 255.

Bitfields straddling a storage-unit boundary (6.7.2.1)

A bitfield is always placed in one—and one only—storage unit, which means that the bitfield cannot straddle a storage-unit boundary.

Allocation order of bitfields within a unit (6.7.2.1)

For information about how bitfields are allocated within a storage unit, see *Bitfields*, page 277.

Alignment of non-bitfield structure members (6.7.2.1)

The alignment of non-bitfield members of structures is the same as for the member types, see *Alignment*, page 275.

Integer type used for representing enumeration types (6.7.2.2)

The chosen integer type for a specific enumeration type depends on the enumeration constants defined for the enumeration type. The chosen integer type is the smallest possible.

J.3.10 Qualifiers

Access to volatile objects (6.7.3)

Any reference to an object with volatile qualified type is an access, see *Declaring objects volatile*, page 284.

J.3.11 Preprocessing directives

Mapping of header names (6.4.7)

Sequences in header names are mapped to source file names verbatim. A backslash '\' is not treated as an escape sequence. See *Overview of the preprocessor*, page 333.

Character constants in constant expressions (6.10.1)

A character constant in a constant expression that controls conditional inclusion matches the value of the same character constant in the execution character set.

The value of a single-character constant (6.10.1)

A single-character constant may only have a negative value if a plain character (char) is treated as a signed character, see --char is signed, page 246.

Including bracketed filenames (6.10.2)

For information about the search algorithm used for file specifications in angle brackets <>, see *Include file search procedure*, page 234.

Including quoted filenames (6.10.2)

For information about the search algorithm used for file specifications enclosed in quotes, see *Include file search procedure*, page 234.

Preprocessing tokens in #include directives (6.10.2)

Preprocessing tokens in an #include directive are combined in the same way as outside an #include directive.

Nesting limits for #include directives (6.10.2)

There is no explicit nesting limit for #include processing.

Universal character names (6.10.3.2)

Universal character names (UCN) are not supported.

Recognized pragma directives (6.10.6)

In addition to the pragma directives described in the chapter *Pragma directives*, the following directives are recognized and will have an indeterminate effect. If a pragma directive is listed both in the *Pragma directives* chapter and here, the information provided in the *Pragma directives* chapter overrides the information here.

alignment

```
baseaddr
building runtime
can_instantiate
codeseq
cspy_support
define_type_info
do_not_instantiate
early_dynamic_initialization
function
hdrstop
important_typedef
instantiate
keep_definition
memory
module_name
no_pch
once
public_equ
system_include
warnings
```

Default __DATE__ and __TIME__ (6.10.8)

The definitions for __TIME__ and __DATE__ are always available.

J.3.12 Library functions

Additional library facilities (5.1.2.1)

Most of the standard library facilities are supported. Some of them—the ones that need an operating system—requires a low-level implementation in the application. For more information, see *The DLIB runtime environment*, page 113.

Diagnostic printed by the assert function (7.2.1.1)

The assert () function prints:

filename: linenr expression -- assertion failed

when the parameter evaluates to zero.

Representation of the floating-point status flags (7.6.2.2)

For information about the floating-point status flags, see *fenv.h*, page 345.

Feraiseexcept raising floating-point exception (7.6.2.3)

For information about the feraiseexcept function raising floating-point exceptions, see *Floating-point environment*, page 279.

Strings passed to the setlocale function (7.11.1.1)

For information about strings passed to the setlocale function, see *Locale*, page 136.

Types defined for float t and double t (7.12)

The FLT_EVAL_METHOD macro can only have the value 0.

Domain errors (7.12.1)

No function generates other domain errors than what the standard requires.

Return values on domain errors (7.12.1)

Mathematic functions return a floating-point NaN (not a number) for domain errors.

Underflow errors (7.12.1)

Mathematic functions set errno to the macro ERANGE (a macro in errno .h) and return zero for underflow errors.

fmod return value (7.12.10.1)

The fmod function returns a floating-point NaN when the second argument is zero.

The magnitude of remquo (7.12.10.3)

The magnitude is congruent modulo INT_MAX.

signal() (7.14.1.1)

The signal part of the library is not supported.

Note: Low-level interface functions exist in the library, but will not perform anything. Use the template source code to implement application-specific signal handling. See *Signal and raise*, page 139.

NULL macro (7.17)

The NULL macro is defined to 0.

Terminating newline character (7.19.2)

stdout stream functions recognize either newline or end of file (EOF) as the terminating character for a line.

Space characters before a newline character (7.19.2)

Space characters written to a stream immediately before a newline character are preserved.

Null characters appended to data written to binary streams (7.19.2)

No null characters are appended to data written to binary streams.

File position in append mode (7.19.3)

The file position is initially placed at the beginning of the file when it is opened in append-mode.

Truncation of files (7.19.3)

Whether a write operation on a text stream causes the associated file to be truncated beyond that point, depends on the application-specific implementation of the low-level file routines. See *File input and output*, page 135.

File buffering (7.19.3)

An open file can be either block-buffered, line-buffered, or unbuffered.

A zero-length file (7.19.3)

Whether a zero-length file exists depends on the application-specific implementation of the low-level file routines.

Legal file names (7.19.3)

The legality of a filename depends on the application-specific implementation of the low-level file routines.

Number of times a file can be opened (7.19.3)

Whether a file can be opened more than once depends on the application-specific implementation of the low-level file routines.

Multibyte characters in a file (7.19.3)

The encoding of multibyte characters in a file depends on the application-specific implementation of the low-level file routines.

remove() (7.19.4.1)

The effect of a remove operation on an open file depends on the application-specific implementation of the low-level file routines. See *File input and output*, page 135.

rename() (7.19.4.2)

The effect of renaming a file to an already existing filename depends on the application-specific implementation of the low-level file routines. See *File input and output*, page 135.

Removal of open temporary files (7.19.4.3)

Whether an open temporary file is removed depends on the application-specific implementation of the low-level file routines.

Mode changing (7.19.5.4)

freopen closes the named stream, then reopens it in the new mode. The streams stdin, stdout, and stderr can be reopened in any new mode.

Style for printing infinity or NaN (7.19.6.1, 7.24.2.1)

The style used for printing infinity or NaN for a floating-point constant is inf and nan (INF and NAN for the F conversion specifier), respectively. The n-char-sequence is not used for nan.

%p in printf() (7.19.6.1, 7.24.2.1)

The argument to a *p conversion specifier, print pointer, to printf() is treated as having the type void *. The value will be printed as a hexadecimal number, similar to using the *x conversion specifier.

Reading ranges in scanf (7.19.6.2, 7.24.2.1)

A - (dash) character is always treated as a range symbol.

%p in scanf (7.19.6.2, 7.24.2.2)

The p conversion specifier, scan pointer, to p reads a hexadecimal number and converts it into a value with the type p void p.

File position errors (7.19.9.1, 7.19.9.3, 7.19.9.4)

On file position errors, the functions fgetpos, ftell, and fsetpos store EFPOS in errno.

An n-char-sequence after nan (7.20.1.3, 7.24.4.1.1)

An n-char-sequence after a NaN is read and ignored.

errno value at underflow (7.20.1.3, 7.24.4.1.1)

errno is set to ERANGE if an underflow is encountered.

Zero-sized heap objects (7.20.3)

A request for a zero-sized heap object will return a valid pointer and not a null pointer.

Behavior of abort and exit (7.20.4.1, 7.20.4.4)

A call to $\mathtt{abort}()$ or $\mathtt{_Exit}()$ will not flush stream buffers, not close open streams, and not remove temporary files.

Termination status (7.20.4.1, 7.20.4.3, 7.20.4.4)

The termination status will be propagated to __exit() as a parameter. exit() and _Exit() use the input parameter, whereas abort uses EXIT_FAILURE.

The system function return value (7.20.4.6)

The system function is not supported.

The time zone (7.23.1)

The local time zone and daylight savings time must be defined by the application. For more information, see *Time*, page 140.

Range and precision of time (7.23)

The implementation uses signed long for representing clock_t and time_t, based at the start of the year 1970. This gives a range of approximately plus or minus 69 years in seconds. However, the application must supply the actual implementation for the functions time and clock. See *Time*, page 140.

clock() (7.23.2.1)

The application must supply an implementation of the clock function. See *Time*, page 140.

%Z replacement string (7.23.3.5, 7.24.5.1)

By default, ":" is used as a replacement for %z. Your application should implement the time zone handling. See *Time*, page 140.

Math functions rounding mode (F.9)

The functions in math.h honor the rounding direction mode in FLT-ROUNDS.

J.3.13 Architecture

Values and expressions assigned to some macros (5.2.4.2, 7.18.2, 7.18.3)

There are always 8 bits in a byte.

MB_LEN_MAX is at the most 6 bytes depending on the library configuration that is used.

For information about sizes, ranges, etc for all basic types, see *Data representation*, page 275.

The limit macros for the exact-width, minimum-width, and fastest minimum-width integer types defined in stdint.h have the same ranges as char, short, int, long, and long long.

The floating-point constant FLT_ROUNDS has the value 1 (to nearest) and the floating-point constant FLT_EVAL_METHOD has the value 0 (treat as is).

The number, order, and encoding of bytes (6.2.6.1)

See Data representation, page 275.

The value of the result of the size of operator (6.5.3.4)

See Data representation, page 275.

J.4 Locale

Members of the source and execution character set (5.2.1)

By default, the compiler accepts all one-byte characters in the host's default character set. If the compiler option --enable_multibytes is used, the host multibyte characters are accepted in comments and string literals as well.

The meaning of the additional character set (5.2.1.2)

Any multibyte characters in the extended source character set is translated verbatim into the extended execution character set. It is up to your application with the support of the library configuration to handle the characters correctly.

Shift states for encoding multibyte characters (5.2.1.2)

Using the compiler option --enable_multibytes enables the use of the host's default multibyte characters as extended source characters.

Direction of successive printing characters (5.2.2)

The application defines the characteristics of a display device.

The decimal point character (7.1.1)

The default decimal-point character is a '.'. You can redefine it by defining the library configuration symbol _LOCALE_DECIMAL_POINT.

Printing characters (7.4, 7.25.2)

The set of printing characters is determined by the chosen locale.

Control characters (7.4, 7.25.2)

The set of control characters is determined by the chosen locale.

Characters tested for (7.4.1.2, 7.4.1.3, 7.4.1.7, 7.4.1.9, 7.4.1.10, 7.4.1.11, 7.25.2.1.2, 7.25.5.1.3, 7.25.2.1.7, 7.25.2.1.9, 7.25.2.1.10, 7.25.2.1.11)

The sets of characters tested are determined by the chosen locale.

The native environment (7.1.1.1)

The native environment is the same as the "C" locale.

Subject sequences for numeric conversion functions (7.20.1, 7.24.4.1)

There are no additional subject sequences that can be accepted by the numeric conversion functions

The collation of the execution character set (7.21.4.3, 7.24.4.4.2)

The collation of the execution character set is determined by the chosen locale.

Message returned by strerror (7.21.6.2)

The messages returned by the strerror function depending on the argument is:

Argument	Message
EZERO	no error
EDOM	domain error
ERANGE	range error
EFPOS	file positioning error
EILSEQ	multi-byte encoding error
<0 >99	unknown error
all others	error nnn

Table 55: Message returned by strerror()—IAR DLIB library

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