# TMS320C28x Optimizing C/C++ Compiler v6.2.4

# **User's Guide**



Literature Number: SPRU514G December 2013



## **Contents**

Pref	ace		9
1	Intro	uction to the Software Development Tools1	12
	1.1	Software Development Tools Overview	
	1.2	C/C++ Compiler Overview	14
		1.2.1 ANSI/ISO Standard	14
		1.2.2 Output Files	15
		1.2.3 Compiler Interface	15
		1.2.4 Utilities	15
2	Usin	the C/C++ Compiler1	16
	2.1	About the Compiler	17
	2.2	Invoking the C/C++ Compiler	17
	2.3	Changing the Compiler's Behavior with Options	18
		2.3.1 Linker Options	25
		2.3.2 Frequently Used Options	28
		2.3.3 Miscellaneous Useful Options	29
		2.3.4 Run-Time Model Options	31
		2.3.5 Symbolic Debugging and Profiling Options	32
		2.3.6 Specifying Filenames	33
		2.3.7 Changing How the Compiler Interprets Filenames	34
		2.3.8 Changing How the Compiler Processes C Files	34
		2.3.9 Changing How the Compiler Interprets and Names Extensions	34
		2.3.10 Specifying Directories	35
		2.3.11 Assembler Options	36
		2.3.12 Dynamic Linking	37
		2.3.13 Deprecated Options	37
	2.4	Controlling the Compiler Through Environment Variables	
		2.4.1 Setting Default Compiler Options (C2000_C_OPTION)	
		2.4.2 Naming an Alternate Directory (C2000_C_DIR)	
	2.5	Controlling the Preprocessor	39
		2.5.1 Predefined Macro Names	39
		2.5.2 The Search Path for #include Files	
		2.5.3 Generating a Preprocessed Listing File (preproc_only Option)	
		2.5.4 Continuing Compilation After Preprocessing (preproc_with_compile Option)	
		2.5.5 Generating a Preprocessed Listing File with Comments (preproc_with_comment Option) 4	
		2.5.6 Generating a Preprocessed Listing File with Line-Control Information (preproc_with_line Option) . 4	
		2.5.7 Generating Preprocessed Output for a Make Utility (preproc_dependency Option)	
		2.5.8 Generating a List of Files Included with the #include Directive (preproc_includes Option)	
		2.5.9 Generating a List of Macros in a File (preproc_macros Option)	
	2.6	Understanding Diagnostic Messages	
		2.6.1 Controlling Diagnostics	
		2.6.2 How You Can Use Diagnostic Suppression Options	
	2.7	Other Messages	
	2.8	Generating Cross-Reference Listing Information (gen_acp_xref Option)	
	2.9	Generating a Raw Listing File (gen_acp_raw Option)	
	2.10	Using Inline Function Expansion	47

2



#### www.ti.com

		2.10.1 Inlining Intrinsic Operators	47
		2.10.2 Unguarded Definition-Controlled Inlining	
		2.10.3 Guarded Inlining and the INLINE Preprocessor Symbol	
		2.10.4 Inlining Restrictions	50
	2.11	Using Interlist	50
	2.12	Enabling Entry Hook and Exit Hook Functions	52
3	Ontin	mizing Your Code	53
3	3.1	Invoking Optimization	
	3.2	Performing File-Level Optimization (opt_level=3 option)	
	5.2	3.2.1 Controlling File-Level Optimization (std_lib_func_def Options)	
		3.2.2 Creating an Optimization Information File (gen opt info Option)	
	3.3	Performing Program-Level Optimization (program_level_compile andopt_level=3 options)	
	5.5	3.3.1 Controlling Program-Level Optimization (call_assumptions Option)	
		3.3.2 Optimization Considerations When Mixing C/C++ and Assembly	
	3.4	Link-Time Optimization (opt_level=4 Option)	
	J. <del>T</del>	3.4.1 Option Handling	
		3.4.2 Incompatible Types	
	3.5	Special Considerations When Using Optimization	
	3.5	3.5.1 Use Caution With asm Statements in Optimized Code	
		3.5.2 Use the Volatile Keyword for Necessary Memory Accesses	
	3.6	Automatic Inline Expansion (auto_inline Option)	
	3.7	Using the Interlist Feature With Optimization	
	-	Debugging and Profiling Optimized Code	
	3.8	3.8.1 Profiling Optimized Code	
	3.9	Controlling Code Size Versus Speed	
	3.10	Increasing Code-Size Optimizations (opt_for_space Option)	
	3.10	Compiler Support for Generating DMAC Instructions	
	3.11	3.11.1 Automatic Generation of DMAC Instructions	
		3.11.2 Assertions to Specify Data Address Alignment	
		3.11.3 dmac Intrinsic	
	3.12	What Kind of Optimization Is Being Performed?	
	3.12	3.12.1 Cost-Based Register Allocation	
		3.12.1 Cost-Based Register Allocation	
		·	
		·	
		3.12.5 Expression Simplification	
		3.12.6 Inline Expansion of Functions	
		3.12.7 Function Symbol Aliasing	
		3.12.8 Induction Variables and Strength Reduction	
		3.12.9 Loop-Invariant Code Motion	
		3.12.10 Loop Rotation	
		3.12.11 Instruction Scheduling	
		3.12.12 Register Variables	
		3.12.13 Register Tracking/Targeting	
		3.12.14 Tail Merging	
		3.12.15 Autoincrement Addressing	
		3.12.16 Removing Comparisons to Zero	
		3.12.17 RPTB Generation (for FPU Targets Only)	
4		ng C/C++ Code	
	4.1	Invoking the Linker Through the Compiler (-z Option)	
		4.1.1 Invoking the Linker Separately	
		4.1.2 Invoking the Linker as Part of the Compile Step	
		4.1.3 Disabling the Linker (compile_only Compiler Option)	76



	4.2	Linker	Code Optimizations	. 77
		4.2.1	Generating Function Subsections (gen_func_subsections Compiler Option)	. 77
	4.3	Contro	olling the Linking Process	
		4.3.1	Including the Run-Time-Support Library	. 77
		4.3.2	Run-Time Initialization	
		4.3.3	Initialization by the Interrupt Vector	
		4.3.4	Global Object Constructors	
		4.3.5	Specifying the Type of Global Variable Initialization	
		4.3.6	Specifying Where to Allocate Sections in Memory	
		4.3.7		
	4.4	-	g C28x and C2XLP Code	
_		_		
5			ptimizer	
	5.1		ost-Link Optimizer's Role in the Software Development Flow	
	5.2		ving Redundant DP Loads	
	5.3		ng DP Values Across Branches	
	5.4		ng DP Values Across Function Calls	
	5.5	Other I	Post-Link Optimizations	. 86
	5.6	Contro	olling Post-Link Optimizations	. 87
		5.6.1	Excluding Files (-ex Option)	. 87
		5.6.2	Controlling Post-Link Optimization Within an Assembly File	. 87
		5.6.3	Retaining Post-Link Optimizer Output (keep_asm Option)	. 87
		5.6.4	Disable Optimization Across Function Calls (-nf Option )	
		5.6.5	Annotating Assembly with Advice (plink advice only option)	
	5.7		ctions on Using the Post-Link Optimizer	
	5.8		g the Outfile (output_file Option)	
6				
6			x C/C++ Language Implementation	
	6.1		cteristics of TMS320C28x C	
	6.2		cteristics of TMS320C28x C++	
	6.3	•	MISRA-C:2004	
	6.4		ypes	
		6.4.1	Support for 64-Bit Integers	
			C28x long double Floating-Point Type Change	
	6.5	Keywo	ords	
		6.5.1	The const Keyword	
		6.5.2	The cregister Keyword	. 95
		6.5.3	The far Keyword	. 96
		6.5.4	Theinterrupt Keyword	. 98
		6.5.5	The restrict Keyword	. 99
		6.5.6	The volatile Keyword	. 99
	6.6	Access	sing far Memory From C++	101
		6.6.1	Using the Large Memory Model (large_memory_model Option)	101
		6.6.2	Using Intrinsics to Access far Memory in C++	101
	6.7	C++ E	xception Handling	102
	6.8		er Variables and Parameters	
	6.9	_	asm Statement	
	6.10		a Directives	
	0	6.10.1		
		6.10.1		
		6.10.3		
		6.10.4		
		6.10.5	=	
		6.10.6		
		6.10.7	The FAST_FUNC_CALL Pragma	109

#### www.ti.com

		6.10.8 The FUNC_EXT_CALLED Pragma	110
		6.10.9 The FUNCTION_OPTIONS Pragma	111
		6.10.10 The INTERRUPT Pragma	111
		6.10.11 The MUST_ITERATE Pragma	112
		6.10.12 The NO_HOOKS Pragma	113
		6.10.13 The RESET_MISRA Pragma	113
		6.10.14 The RETAIN Pragma	113
		6.10.15 The SET_CODE_SECTION and SET_DATA_SECTION Pragmas	114
		6.10.16 The UNROLL Pragma	115
	6.11	The _Pragma Operator	115
	6.12	Object File Symbol Naming Conventions (Linknames)	116
	6.13	Initializing Static and Global Variables	116
		6.13.1 Initializing Static and Global Variables With the Linker	116
		6.13.2 Initializing Static and Global Variables With the const Type Qualifier	117
	6.14	Changing the ANSI/ISO C Language Mode	117
		6.14.1 Compatibility With K&R C (kr_compatible Option)	118
		6.14.2 Enabling Strict ANSI/ISO Mode and Relaxed ANSI/ISO Mode (strict_ansi andrelaxed_ansi	
		Options)	
		6.14.3 Enabling Embedded C++ Mode (embedded_cpp Option)	120
	6.15	GNU Language Extensions	120
		6.15.1 Extensions	120
		6.15.2 Function Attributes	122
		6.15.3 Variable Attributes	122
		6.15.4 Type Attributes	122
		6.15.5 Built-In Functions	
	6.16	Compiler Limits	122
7	Run-	Time Environment	123
	7.1	Memory Model	124
		7.1.1 Sections	
		7.1.2 C/C++ System Stack	
		7.1.3 Allocating .const/.econst to Program Memory	
		7.1.4 Dynamic Memory Allocation	
		7.1.5 Initialization of Variables	
		7.1.6 Allocating Memory for Static and Global Variables	
		7.1.7 Field/Structure Alignment	
		7.1.8 Character String Constants	
		7.1.9 far Character String Constants	
	7.2	Register Conventions	
		7.2.1 TMS320C28x Register Use and Preservation	
		7.2.2 Status Registers	
	7.3	Function Structure and Calling Conventions	
		7.3.1 How a Function Makes a Call	
		7.3.2 How a Called Function Responds	
		7.3.3 Special Case for a Called Function (Large Frames)	
		7.3.4 Accessing Arguments and Local Variables	
		7.3.5 Allocating the Frame and Accessing 32-Bit Values in Memory	
	7.4	Interfacing C and C++ With Assembly Language	
		7.4.1 Using Assembly Language Modules With C/C++ Code	
		7.4.2 Accessing Assembly Language Functions From C/C++	
		7.4.3 Accessing Assembly Language Variables From C/C++	
		7.4.4 Sharing C/C++ Header Files With Assembly Source	
		7.4.5 Using Inline Assembly Language	
		7.4.6 Using Intrinsics to Access Assembly Language Statements	
		Journal internation to 7 toodoo 7 toodhibry Euriguago Otatoriidina	. 50





	7.5	Interrupt Handling	
		7.5.1 General Points About Interrupts	
		7.5.2 Using C/C++ Interrupt Routines	145
	7.6	Integer Expression Analysis	
		7.6.1 Operations Evaluated With Run-Time-Support Calls	
		7.6.2 C/C++ Code Access to the Upper 16 Bits of 16-Bit Multiply	
	7.7	Floating-Point Expression Analysis	
	7.8	System Initialization	
		7.8.1 Run-Time Stack	
		7.8.2 Automatic Initialization of Variables	
8	Using	g Run-Time-Support Functions and Building Libraries	
	8.1	C and C++ Run-Time Support Libraries	152
		8.1.1 Linking Code With the Object Library	
		8.1.2 Header Files	152
		8.1.3 Modifying a Library Function	
		8.1.4 Support for String Handling	153
		8.1.5 Minimal Support for Internationalization	153
		8.1.6 Allowable Number of Open Files	153
		8.1.7 Library Naming Conventions	154
	8.2	Far Memory Support	154
		8.2.1 Far Versions of Run-Time-Support Functions	154
		8.2.2 Global and Static Variables in Run-Time-Support Functions	154
		8.2.3 Far Dynamic Memory Allocation in C	155
		8.2.4 Far Dynamic Memory Allocation in C++	155
	8.3	The C I/O Functions	157
		8.3.1 High-Level I/O Functions	
		8.3.2 Overview of Low-Level I/O Implementation	
		8.3.3 Device-Driver Level I/O Functions	
		8.3.4 Adding a User-Defined Device Driver for C I/O	166
		8.3.5 The device Prefix	
	8.4	Handling Reentrancy (_register_lock() and _register_unlock() Functions)	169
	8.5	Library-Build Process	
		8.5.1 Required Non-Texas Instruments Software	170
		8.5.2 Using the Library-Build Process	
		8.5.3 Extending mklib	173
9	C++	Name Demangler	174
	9.1	Invoking the C++ Name Demangler	175
	9.2	C++ Name Demangler Options	175
	9.3	Sample Usage of the C++ Name Demangler	176
10	CLA	Compiler	178
	10.1	How to Invoke the CLA Compiler	179
	10.2	CLA C Language Implementation	180
		10.2.1 Characteristics	180
		10.2.2 C Language Restrictions	181
		10.2.3 Memory Model - Sections	
		10.2.4 Function Structure and Calling Conventions	
Α	Glos	sary	183
В		sion History	188



## **List of Figures**

	<b>G</b>	
1-1.	TMS320C28x Software Development Flow	
5-1.	The Post-Link Optimizer in the TMS320C28x Software Development Flow	
7-1.		131
7-2.	,	147
7-3.	·	148
7-4.		149
7-5.	Initialization at Load Time	150
10-1.	CLA Compilation Overview	179
	List of Tables	
2-1.	Processor Options	18
2-1. 2-2.	Optimization Options	
2-2. 2-3.	Advanced Optimization Options	
_		
2-4.	Debug Options	
2-5.	Advanced Debug Options	
2-6.	Include Options	
2-7.	Control Options	
2-8.	Language Options	
2-9.	Parser Preprocessing Options	
2-10.	Predefined Symbols Options	
2-11.	Diagnostics Options	
2-12.	Run-Time Model Options	
2-13.	Entry/Exit Hook Options	
2-14.	Library Function Assumptions Options	22
2-15.	Assembler Options	22
2-16.	File Type Specifier Options	23
2-17.	Directory Specifier Options	23
2-18.	Default File Extensions Options	23
2-19.	Command Files Options	24
2-20.	MISRA-C:2004 Options	24
2-21.	Linker Basic Options	25
2-22.	File Search Path Options	25
2-23.	Command File Preprocessing Options	25
2-24.	Diagnostic Options	25
2-25.	Linker Output Options	26
2-26.	Symbol Management Options	26
2-27.	Run-Time Environment Options	26
2-28.	Link-Time Optimization Options	26
2-29.	Miscellaneous Options	27
2-30.	Linker Options For Dynamic Linking	37
2-31.	Compiler Backwards-Compatibility Options Summary	37
2-32.	Predefined C28x Macro Names	39
2-33.	Raw Listing File Identifiers	46
2-34.	Raw Listing File Diagnostic Identifiers	46
3-1.	Interaction Between Debugging and Optimization Options	55
3-2.	Options That You Can Use Withopt_level=3	55
3-3.	Selecting a File-Level Optimization Option	55





3-4.	Selecting a Level for thegen_opt_info Option	55
3-5.	Selecting a Level for thecall_assumptions Option	56
3-6.	Special Considerations When Using thecall_assumptions Option	57
3-7.	Interaction Between Debugging and Optimization Options	64
4-1.	Initialized Sections Created by the Compiler	80
4-2.	Uninitialized Sections Created by the Compiler	80
6-1.	TMS320C28x C/C++ Data Types	92
6-2.	Valid Control Registers	95
6-3.	GCC Language Extensions	120
7-1.	Summary of Sections and Memory Placement	125
7-2.	Register Use and Preservation Conventions	129
7-3.	FPU Register Use and Preservation Conventions	129
7-4.	Status Register Fields	130
7-5.	Floating-Point Status Register (STF) Fields For FPU Targets Only	130
7-6.	TMS320C28x C/C++ Compiler Intrinsics	138
7-7.	C/C++ Compiler Intrinsics for FPU	143
7-8.	C/C++ Compiler Intrinsics for TMU	143
8-1.	The mklib Program Options	172
10-1.	C/C++ Compiler Intrinsics for CLA.	180
B-1.	Revision History	188



## Read This First

#### **About This Manual**

The TMS320C28x Optimizing C/C++ Compiler User's Guide explains how to use these compiler tools:

- Compiler
- Post-link optimizer
- · Library build utility
- C++ name demangler

The compiler accepts C and C++ code conforming to the International Organization for Standardization (ISO) standards for these languages. The compiler supports the 1989 version of the C language and the 2003 version of the C++ language.

This user's guide discusses the characteristics of the C/C++ compiler. It assumes that you already know how to write C/C++ programs. *The C Programming Language* (second edition), by Brian W. Kernighan and Dennis M. Ritchie, describes C based on the ISO C standard. You can use the Kernighan and Ritchie (hereafter referred to as K&R) book as a supplement to this manual. References to K&R C (as opposed to ISO C) in this manual refer to the C language as defined in the first edition of Kernighan and Ritchie's *The C Programming Language*.

#### **Notational Conventions**

This document uses the following conventions:

Program listings, program examples, and interactive displays are shown in a special typeface.
 Interactive displays use a bold version of the special typeface to distinguish commands that you enter from items that the system displays (such as prompts, command output, error messages, etc.).

Here is a sample of C code:

```
#include <stdio.h>
main()
{    printf("hello, cruel world\n");
}
```

- In syntax descriptions, the instruction, command, or directive is in a **bold typeface** and parameters are
  in an *italic typeface*. Portions of a syntax that are in bold should be entered as shown; portions of a
  syntax that are in italics describe the type of information that should be entered.
- Square brackets ([and]) identify an optional parameter. If you use an optional parameter, you specify
  the information within the brackets. Unless the square brackets are in the bold typeface, do not enter
  the brackets themselves. The following is an example of a command that has an optional parameter:

```
cl2000 [options] [filenames] [--run linker [link options] [object files]]
```

Braces ( { and } ) indicate that you must choose one of the parameters within the braces; you do not
enter the braces themselves. This is an example of a command with braces that are not included in the
actual syntax but indicate that you must specify either the --rom\_model or --ram\_model option:

```
cl2000 --silicon_version=28 --run_linker {--rom_model | --ram_model} filenames

[--output_file= name.out] --library= libraryname
```



Related Documentation www.ti.com

 In assembler syntax statements, column 1 is reserved for the first character of a label or symbol. If the label or symbol is optional, it is usually not shown. If it is a required parameter, it is shown starting against the left margin of the box, as in the example below. No instruction, command, directive, or parameter, other than a symbol or label, can begin in column 1.

symbol .usect "section name", size in bytes[, alignment]

- Some directives can have a varying number of parameters. For example, the .byte directive. This syntax is shown as [, ..., parameter].
- The TMS320C2800™ core is referred to as TMS320C28x or C28x.

#### **Related Documentation**

You can use the following books to supplement this user's guide:

ANSI X3.159-1989, Programming Language - C (Alternate version of the 1989 C Standard), American National Standards Institute

ISO/IEC 9899:1989, International Standard - Programming Languages - C (The 1989 C Standard), International Organization for Standardization

ISO/IEC 14882-2003, International Standard - Programming Languages - C++ (The 2003 C++ Standard), International Organization for Standardization

**The C Programming Language (second edition)**, by Brian W. Kernighan and Dennis M. Ritchie, published by Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1988

**The Annotated C++ Reference Manual**, Margaret A. Ellis and Bjarne Stroustrup, published by Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Reading, Massachusetts, 1990

**C:** A Reference Manual (fourth edition), by Samuel P. Harbison, and Guy L. Steele Jr., published by Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey

**Programming Embedded Systems in C and C++**, by Michael Barr, Andy Oram (Editor), published by O'Reilly & Associates; ISBN: 1565923545, February 1999

Programming in C, Steve G. Kochan, Hayden Book Company

**The C++ Programming Language (second edition)**, Bjarne Stroustrup, published by Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Reading, Massachusetts, 1990

**Tool Interface Standards (TIS) DWARF Debugging Information Format Specification Version 2.0**, TIS Committee, 1995

**DWARF Debugging Information Format Version 3**, DWARF Debugging Information Format Workgroup, Free Standards Group, 2005 (<a href="http://dwarfstd.org">http://dwarfstd.org</a>)

System V ABI specification (http://www.sco.com/developers/gabi/)



#### **Related Documentation From Texas Instruments**

You can use the following books to supplement this user's guide:

- **SPRAAB5** *The Impact of DWARF on TI Object Files.* Describes the Texas Instruments extensions to the DWARF specification.
- SPRU513 TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide describes the assembly language tools (assembler and other tools used to develop assembly language code), assembler directives, macros, common object file format, and symbolic debugging directives for the TMS320C28x device.
- SPRU430— TMS320C28x DSP CPU and Instruction Set Reference Guide describes the central processing unit (CPU) and the assembly language instructions of the TMS320C28x fixed-point digital signal processors (DSPs). It also describes emulation features available on these DSPs.
- <u>SPRU566</u>— *TMS320x28xx, 28xxx Peripheral Reference Guide* describes the peripheral reference guides of the 28x digital signal processors (DSPs).
- SPRUEX3— TI SYS/BIOS Real-time Operating System User's Guide. SYS/BIOS gives application developers the ability to develop embedded real-time software. SYS/BIOS is a scalable real-time kernel. It is designed to be used by applications that require real-time scheduling and synchronization or real-time instrumentation. SYS/BIOS provides preemptive multithreading, hardware abstraction, real-time analysis, and configuration tools.



# Introduction to the Software Development Tools

The TMS320C28x<sup>™</sup> is supported by a set of software development tools, which includes an optimizing C/C++ compiler, an assembler, a linker, and assorted utilities.

This chapter provides an overview of these tools and introduces the features of the optimizing C/C++ compiler. The assembler and linker are discussed in detail in the TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide.

Topic Page

1.1	Software Development Tools Overview	13
1.2	C/C++ Compiler Overview	14



#### 1.1 Software Development Tools Overview

Figure 1-1 illustrates the software development flow. The shaded portion of the figure highlights the most common path of software development for C language programs. The other portions are peripheral functions that enhance the development process.

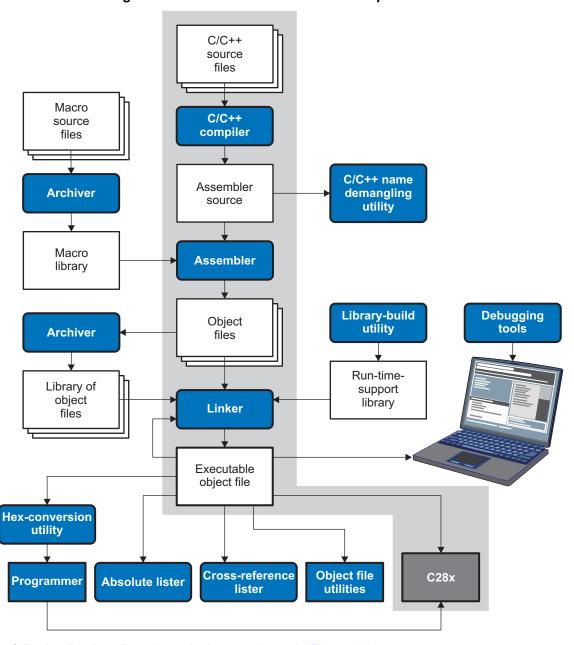


Figure 1-1. TMS320C28x Software Development Flow

The following list describes the tools that are shown in Figure 1-1:

- The compiler accepts C/C++ source code and produces C28x assembly language source code. See Chapter 2.
- The assembler translates assembly language source files into machine language relocatable object files. The TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide explains how to use the assembler.
- The linker combines relocatable object files into a single absolute executable object file. As it creates
  the executable file, it performs relocation and resolves external references. The linker accepts
  relocatable object files and object libraries as input. See Chapter 4. The TMS320C28x Assembly
  Language Tools User's Guide provides a complete description of the linker.



- The **archiver** allows you to collect a group of files into a single archive file, called a *library*. The archiver allows you to modify such libraries by deleting, replacing, extracting, or adding members. One of the most useful applications of the archiver is building a library of object files. The *TMS320C28x* Assembly Language Tools User's Guide explains how to use the archiver.
- The **run-time-support libraries** contain the standard ISO C and C++ library functions, compiler-utility functions, floating-point arithmetic functions, and C I/O functions that are supported by the compiler. See Chapter 8.
  - You can use the **library-build utility** to build your own customized run-time-support library. See Section 8.5. Source code for the standard run-time-support library functions for C and C++ are provided in the self-contained rtssrc.zip file.
- The hex conversion utility converts an object file into other object formats. You can download the
  converted file to an EPROM programmer. The TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide
  explains how to use the hex conversion utility and describes all supported formats.
- The absolute lister accepts linked object files as input and creates .abs files as output. You can
  assemble these .abs files to produce a listing that contains absolute, rather than relative, addresses.
  Without the absolute lister, producing such a listing would be tedious and would require many manual
  operations. The TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide explains how to use the
  absolute lister.
- The cross-reference lister uses object files to produce a cross-reference listing showing symbols, their definitions, and their references in the linked source files. The TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide explains how to use the cross-reference utility.
- The C++ name demangler is a debugging aid that converts names mangled by the compiler back to their original names as declared in the C++ source code. As shown in Figure 1-1, you can use the C++ name demangler on the assembly file that is output by the compiler; you can also use this utility on the assembler listing file and the linker map file. See Chapter 9.
- The **post-link optimizer** removes or modifies assembly language instructions to generate better code. The post-link optimizer must be run with the compiler -plink option. See Chapter 5.
- The **disassembler** decodes object files to show the assembly instructions that they represent. The *TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide* explains how to use the disassembler.
- The main product of this development process is an executable object file that can be executed in a TMS320C28x device.

#### 1.2 C/C++ Compiler Overview

The following subsections describe the key features of the compiler.

#### 1.2.1 ANSI/ISO Standard

The compiler supports both the 1989 and 1999 versions of the C language and the 2003 version of the C++ language. The C and C++ language features in the compiler are implemented in conformance with the following ISO standards:

#### ISO-standard C

The C compiler supports the 1989 version of the C language.

 C89. The compiler conforms to the ISO/IEC 9899:1990 C standard, which was previously ratified as ANSI X3.159-1989. The names "C89" and "C90" refer to the same programming language. "C89" is used in this document.

The C language is also described in the second edition of Kernighan and Ritchie's *The C Programming Language* (K&R).

#### ISO-standard C++

The C/C++ compiler conforms to the C++ Standard ISO/IEC 14882:1998. The language is also described in Ellis and Stroustrup's *The Annotated C++ Reference Manual* (ARM), but this is not the standard. The compiler also supports embedded C++. For a description of *unsupported* C++ features, see Section 6.2.

#### ISO-standard run-time support

The compiler tools come with an extensive run-time library. Library functions conform to the ISO C/C++







library standard unless otherwise stated. The library includes functions for standard input and output, string manipulation, dynamic memory allocation, data conversion, timekeeping, trigonometry, and exponential and hyperbolic functions. Functions for signal handling are not included, because these are target-system specific. For more information, see Chapter 8.

See Section 6.14 for command line options to select the C or C++ standard your code uses.

#### 1.2.2 Output Files

These output files are created by the compiler:

#### COFF object files

Common object file format (COFF) provides basic modular (separately-compiled) compilation features, such as relocations.

#### 1.2.3 Compiler Interface

These features enable interfacing with the compiler:

#### Compiler program

The compiler tools include a compiler program (cl2000) that you use to compile, optimize, assemble, and link programs in a single step. For more information, see Section 2.1

#### Flexible assembly language interface

The compiler has straightforward calling conventions, so you can write assembly and C functions that call each other. For more information, see Chapter 7.

#### 1.2.4 Utilities

These features are compiler utilities:

#### Library-build utility

The library-build utility lets you custom-build object libraries from source for any combination of runtime models. For more information, see Section 8.5.

#### C++ name demangler

The C++ name demangler (dem2000) is a debugging aid that translates each mangled name it detects in compiler-generated assembly code, disassembly output, or compiler diagnostic messages to its original name found in the C++ source code. For more information, see Chapter 9.

#### Hex conversion utility

For stand-alone embedded applications, the compiler has the ability to place all code and initialization data into ROM, allowing C/C++ code to run from reset. The COFF files output by the compiler can be converted to EPROM programmer data files by using the hex conversion utility, as described in the TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide.



# Using the C/C++ Compiler

The compiler translates your source program into machine language object code that the TMS320C28x can execute. Source code must be compiled, assembled, and linked to create an executable object file. All of these steps are executed at once by using the compiler.

Topic Page

2.1	About the Compiler	17
2.2	Invoking the C/C++ Compiler	
2.3	Changing the Compiler's Behavior with Options	18
2.4	Controlling the Compiler Through Environment Variables	38
2.5	Controlling the Preprocessor	39
2.6	Understanding Diagnostic Messages	42
2.7	Other Messages	45
2.8	Generating Cross-Reference Listing Information (gen_acp_xref Option)	45
2.9	Generating a Raw Listing File (gen_acp_raw Option)	46
2.10	Using Inline Function Expansion	47
2.11	Using Interlist	50
2.12	Enabling Entry Hook and Exit Hook Functions	<b>52</b>



www.ti.com About the Compiler

#### 2.1 **About the Compiler**

The compiler lets you compile, assemble, and optionally link in one step. The compiler performs the following steps on one or more source modules:

The **compiler** accepts C/C++ source code and assembly code, and produces object code. You can compile C, C++, and assembly files in a single command. The compiler uses the filename extensions to distinguish between different file types. See Section 2.3.9 for more information.

The linker combines object files to create a static executable or dynamic object file. The linker is optional, so you can compile and assemble many modules independently and link them later. See Chapter 4 for information about linking the files.

#### Invoking the Linker

NOTE: By default, the compiler does not invoke the linker. You can invoke the linker by using the -run linker compiler option. See Section 4.1.1 for details.

For a complete description of the assembler and the linker, see the TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide.

#### 2.2 Invoking the C/C++ Compiler

To invoke the compiler, enter:

cl2000 [options] [filenames] [--run\_linker [link\_options] object files]]

cl2000 Command that runs the compiler and the assembler.

Options that affect the way the compiler processes input files. The options are listed options

in Table 2-7 through Table 2-29.

One or more C/C++ source files, assembly language source files, or object files. filenames --run\_linker Option that invokes the linker. The --run linker option's short form is -z. See

Chapter 4 for more information.

Options that control the linking process. link\_options

Name of the additional object files for the linking process. object files

The arguments to the compiler are of three types:

- Compiler options
- Link options
- **Filenames**

The --run\_linker option indicates linking is to be performed. If the --run\_linker option is used, any compiler options must precede the --run linker option, and all link options must follow the --run linker option.

Source code filenames must be placed before the --run linker option. Additional object file filenames can be placed after the --run linker option.

For example, if you want to compile two files named symtab.c and file.c, assemble a third file named seek.asm, and link to create an executable program called myprogram.out, you will enter:

```
cl2000 -v28 symtab.c file.c seek.asm --run_linker --library=lnk.cmd
       --output_file=myprogram.out
```



#### 2.3 Changing the Compiler's Behavior with Options

Options control the operation of the compiler. This section provides a description of option conventions and an option summary table. It also provides detailed descriptions of the most frequently used options, including options used for type-checking and assembling.

For a help screen summary of the options, enter cl2000 with no parameters on the command line.

The following apply to the compiler options:

- Options are preceded by one or two hyphens.
- Options are case sensitive.
- Options are either single letters or sequences of characters.
- Individual options cannot be combined.
- An option with a required parameter should be specified with an equal sign before the parameter to clearly associate the parameter with the option. For example, the option to undefine a constant can be expressed as --undefine=name. Although not recommended, you can separate the option and the parameter with or without a space, as in --undefine name or -undefinename.
- An option with an optional parameter should be specified with an equal sign before the parameter to clearly associate the parameter with the option. For example, the option to specify the maximum amount of optimization can be expressed as -O=3. You can specify the parameter directly after the option, as in -O3. No space is allowed between the option and the optional parameter, so -O 3 is not accepted.
- Files and options except the --run linker option can occur in any order. The --run linker option must follow all other compile options and precede any link options.

You can define default options for the compiler by using the C2000 C OPTION environment variable. For a detailed description of the environment variable, see Section 2.4.1.

Table 2-7 through Table 2-29 summarize all options (including link options). Use the references in the tables for more complete descriptions of the options.

Option Alias **Effect** Section --silicon version=28 Specifies TMS320C28x architecture. When not specified defaults to Section 2.3.4 -v28 TMS320C27x. --large\_memory\_model Generates large memory model code and allows conditional Section 2.3.4, -ml compilation of 16-bit code with large memory model code Section 6.6.1 --unified memory -mt Generates code for the unified memory model Section 2.3.4 --cla\_support[=cla0|cla1] Specifies TMS320C28x CLA accelerator support Type 0 or Type 1. Section 2.3.4 Default is cla0. --float\_support={fpu32|softlib|fpu64} Specifies use of TMS320C28x 32- or 64-bit hardware floating-point Section 2.3.4 support. The default is softlib. Enables support for the Trigonometric Math Unit (TMU). --tmu\_support[=tmu0] Section 2.3.4

Using this option also enables FPU32 support (as with

--float\_support=fpu32). If this option is used but no value is specified,

Specifies C28x VCU coprocessor support Type 0 or Type 2. Default Section 2.3.4

Table 2-1. Processor Options

Table 2-2. Optimization Options(1)

the default is tmu0.

is vcu0.

Option	Alias	Effect	Section
opt_level=off	-Ooff	Disables all optimization (default)	Section 3.1
opt_level=0	-O0	Optimizes register usage	Section 3.1
opt_level=1	-O1	Uses -O0 optimizations and optimizes locally	Section 3.1
opt_level=2	-O2	Uses -O1 optimizations and optimizes globally	Section 3.1

Note: Machine-specific options (see Table 2-12) can also affect optimization.

--vcu support[=vcu0|vcu2]



## Table 2-2. Optimization Options<sup>(1)</sup> (continued)

Option	Alias	Effect	Section
opt_level=3	-O3	Uses -O2 optimizations and optimizes the file	Section 3.1 Section 3.2
opt_level=4	-04	Uses -O3 optimizations and performs link-time optimization	Section 3.4
opt_for_space=n	-ms	Controls code size on four levels (0, 1, 2, and 3)	Section 3.10
fp_mode={relaxed strict}		Enables or disables relaxed floating-point mode	Section 2.3.3

## Table 2-3. Advanced Optimization Options<sup>(1)</sup>

Option	Alias	Effect	Section
auto_inline=[size]	-oi	Sets automatic inlining size (opt_level=3 only). If size is not specified, the default is 1.	Section 3.6
call_assumptions=0	-op0	Specifies that the module contains functions and variables that are called or modified from outside the source code provided to the compiler	Section 3.3.1
call_assumptions=1	-op1	Specifies that the module contains variables modified from outside the source code provided to the compiler but does not use functions called from outside the source code	Section 3.3.1
call_assumptions=2	-op2	Specifies that the module contains no functions or variables that are called or modified from outside the source code provided to the compiler (default)	Section 3.3.1
call_assumptions=3	-op3	Specifies that the module contains functions that are called from outside the source code provided to the compiler but does not use variables modified from outside the source code	Section 3.3.1
gen_opt_info=0	-on0	Disables the optimization information file	Section 3.2.2
gen_opt_info=1	-on1	Produces an optimization information file	Section 3.2.2
gen_opt_info=2	-on2	Produces a verbose optimization information file	Section 3.2.2
opt_for_speed[= <i>n</i> ]	-mf	Controls the tradeoff between size and speed (0-5 range). If this option is specified without $n$ , the default value is 4. If this option is not specified, the default setting is 2.	Section 3.9
optimizer_interlist	-os	Interlists optimizer comments with assembly statements	Section 3.7
remove_hooks_when_inlining		Removes entry/exit hooks for auto-inlined functions	Section 2.12
single_inline		Inlines functions that are only called once	
aliased_variables	-ma	Assumes called functions create hidden aliases (rare)	Section 3.5.2.2

Note: Machine-specific options (see Table 2-12) can also affect optimization.

## **Table 2-4. Debug Options**

Option	Alias	Effect	Section
symdebug:dwarf	-g	Default behavior. Enables symbolic debugging. The generation of debug information no longer impacts optimization. Therefore, generating debug information is enabled by default. If you explicitly use the -g option but do not specify an optimization level, no optimization is performed.	Section 2.3.5 Section 3.8
symdebug:coff		Enables symbolic debugging using the alternate STABS debugging format.	Section 2.3.5 Section 3.8
symdebug:none		Disables all symbolic debugging	Section 2.3.5 Section 3.8
symdebug:profile_coff		Enables profiling using the alternate STABS debugging format.	Section 2.3.5
symdebug:skeletal		(Deprecated; has no effect.)	
optimize_with_debug	-mn	(Deprecated; has no effect.)	



## **Table 2-5. Advanced Debug Options**

Option	Alias	Effect	Section
symdebug:keep_all_types		Keep unreferenced type information	Section 2.3.5

## **Table 2-6. Include Options**

Option	Alias	Effect	Section
include_path=directory	-I	Defines #include search path	Section 2.5.2.1
preinclude=filename		Includes filename at the beginning of compilation	Section 2.3.3

## **Table 2-7. Control Options**

Option	Alias	Effect	Section
compile_only	-C	Disables linking (negatesrun_linker)	Section 4.1.3
help	-h	Prints (on the standard output device) a description of the options understood by the compiler.	Section 2.3.2
run_linker	-Z	Enables linking	Section 2.3.2
skip_assembler	-n	Compiles only	Section 2.3.2

## **Table 2-8. Language Options**

Option	Alias	Effect	Section
cpp_default	-fg	Processes all source files with a C extension as C++ source files.	Section 2.3.7
embedded_cpp	-pe	Enables embedded C++ mode	Section 6.14.3
exceptions		Enables C++ exception handling	Section 6.7
float_operations_allowed={none  all 32 64}		Restricts the types of floating point operations allowed.	Section 2.3.3
gcc		Enables support for GCC extensions. Equivalent to the relaxed_ansi option.	Section 6.15
gen_acp_raw	-pl	Generates a raw listing file	Section 2.9
gen_acp_xref	-px	Generates a cross-reference listing file	Section 2.8
keep_unneeded_statics		Keeps unreferenced static variables.	Section 2.3.3
kr_compatible	-pk	Allows K&R compatibility. Applies only to C code, not to C++ code. Thestrict_ansi option cannot be used with thekr_compatible option.	Section 6.14.1
multibyte_chars	-pc	Enables support for multibyte character sequences in comments, string literals and character constants. If you use multibyte characters in your source code, enable this option.	
no_inlining	-pi	Disables definition-controlled inlining (butopt_level=3 (or -O3) optimizations still perform automatic inlining)	Section 2.10
no_intrinsics	-pn	Disables intrinsic functions. No compiler-supplied intrinsic functions will be predefined. Intrinsic functions can be enabled or disabled in both strict and relaxed ANSI mode. Theno_intrinsics setting has no effect on thestrict_ansi setting, and vice versa.	
program_level_compile	-pm	Combines source files to perform program-level optimization	Section 3.3
relaxed_ansi	-pr	Enables relaxed mode; ignores strict ISO violations.	Section 6.14.2
rtti	-rtti	Enables C++ run-time type information (RTTI)	_
static_template_instantiation		Instantiate all template entities with internal linkage	_
strict_ansi	-ps	Enables strict ANSI/ISO mode (for C/C++, not for K&R C). In this mode, language extensions that conflict with ANSI/ISO C/C++ are disabled. In strict ANSI/ISO mode, most ANSI/ISO violations are reported as errors. Violations that are considered discretionary may be reported as warnings instead.	Section 6.14.2



## **Table 2-9. Parser Preprocessing Options**

Option	Alias	Effect	Section
preproc_dependency[= <i>filename</i> ]	-ppd	Performs preprocessing only, but instead of writing preprocessed output, writes a list of dependency lines suitable for input to a standard make utility	Section 2.5.7
preproc_includes[=filename]	-ppi	Performs preprocessing only, but instead of writing preprocessed output, writes a list of files included with the #include directive	Section 2.5.8
preproc_macros[= <i>filename</i> ]	-ppm	Performs preprocessing only. Writes list of predefined and user- defined macros to a file with the same name as the input but with a .pp extension.	Section 2.5.9
preproc_only	-ppo	Performs preprocessing only. Writes preprocessed output to a file with the same name as the input but with a .pp extension.	Section 2.5.3
preproc_with_comment	-ррс	Performs preprocessing only. Writes preprocessed output, keeping the comments, to a file with the same name as the input but with a .pp extension.	Section 2.5.5
preproc_with_compile	-рра	Continues compilation after preprocessing	Section 2.5.4
preproc_with_line	-ppl	Performs preprocessing only. Writes preprocessed output with line-control information (#line directives) to a file with the same name as the input but with a .pp extension.	Section 2.5.6

## **Table 2-10. Predefined Symbols Options**

Option	Alias	Effect	Section
define= <i>name</i> [= <i>def</i> ]	-D	Predefines name	Section 2.3.2
undefine= <i>name</i>	-U	Undefines name	Section 2.3.2

## **Table 2-11. Diagnostics Options**

Option	Alias	Effect	Section
compiler_revision		Prints out the compiler release revision and exits	
diag_error= <i>num</i>	-pdse	Categorizes the diagnostic identified by num as an error	Section 2.6.1
diag_remark= <i>num</i>	-pdsr	Categorizes the diagnostic identified by num as a remark	Section 2.6.1
diag_suppress=num	-pds	Suppresses the diagnostic identified by num	Section 2.6.1
diag_warning= <i>num</i>	-pdsw	Categorizes the diagnostic identified by num as a warning	Section 2.6.1
diag_wrap={on off}		Wrap diagnostic messages (default is on)	
display_error_number	-pden	Displays a diagnostic's identifiers along with its text	Section 2.6.1
emit_warnings_as_errors	-pdew	Treat warnings as errors	Section 2.6.1
issue_remarks	-pdr	Issues remarks (nonserious warnings)	Section 2.6.1
no_warnings	-pdw	Suppresses warning diagnostics (errors are still issued)	Section 2.6.1
quiet	-q	Suppresses progress messages (quiet)	
set_error_limit=num	-pdel	Sets the error limit to <i>num</i> . The compiler abandons compiling after this number of errors. (The default is 100.)	Section 2.6.1
super_quiet	-qq	Super quiet mode	
tool_version	-version	Displays version number for each tool	
verbose		Display banner and function progress information	
verbose_diagnostics	-pdv	Provides verbose diagnostics that display the original source with line-wrap	Section 2.6.1
write_diagnostics_file	-pdf	Generates a diagnostics information file. Compiler only option.	Section 2.6.1

## **Table 2-12. Run-Time Model Options**

Option	Alias	Effect	Section
asm_code_fill=value		Specifies assembler fill value for code sections. Default is zero.	Section 2.3.4
asm_data_fill=value		Specifies fill value for data sections. Default is NOP instructions.	Section 2.3.4



## **Table 2-12. Run-Time Model Options (continued)**

Option	Alias	Effect	Section
c2xlp_src_compatible	-m20	Accepts C2xLP assembly instructions	Section 2.3.4
disable_dp_load_opt	-md	Disables DP load optimizations	Section 2.3.4
fp_reassoc={on off}		Enables or disables the reassociation of floating-point arithmetic	Section 2.3.3
gen_func_subsections={on off}	-mo	Puts each function in a separate subsection in the object file	Section 4.2.1
no_fast_branch	-me	Disables generation of fast branch instructions	Section 2.3.4
no_rpt	-mi	Disables generation of RPT instructions	Section 2.3.4
profile:power		Enables power profiling	Section 2.3.5 Section 3.8.1
protect_volatile	-mv	Enables volatile reference protection	Section 2.3.4
rpt_threshold=k		Generates RPT loops that iterate $k$ times or less. (k is a constant between 0 and 256.)	Section 2.3.4
sat_reassoc={on off}		Enables or disables the reassociation of saturating arithmetic. Default issat_reassoc=off.	Section 2.3.3

## Table 2-13. Entry/Exit Hook Options

Option	Alias	Effect	Section
entry_hook[= <i>name</i> ]		Enables entry hooks	Section 2.12
<pre>entry_parm={none name    address}</pre>		Specifies the parameters to the function to theentry_hook option	Section 2.12
exit_hook[= <i>name</i> ]		Enables exit hooks	Section 2.12
exit_parm={none name address}		Specifies the parameters to the function to theexit_hook option	Section 2.12

## **Table 2-14. Library Function Assumptions Options**

Option	Alias	Effect	Section
printf_support={nofloat full  minimal}		Enables support for smaller, limited versions of the printf function family (sprintf, fprintf, etc.) and the scanf function family (sscanf, fscanf, etc.) run-time-support functions.	Section 2.3.3
std_lib_func_defined	-ol1 or -oL1	Informs the optimizer that your file declares a standard library function	Section 3.2.1
std_lib_func_not_defined	-ol2 or -oL2	Informs the optimizer that your file does not declare or alter library functions. Overrides the -ol0 and -ol1 options (default).	Section 3.2.1
std_lib_func_redefined	-ol0 or -oL0	Informs the optimizer that your file alters a standard library function	Section 3.2.1

## Table 2-15. Assembler Options

Option	Alias	Effect	Section
keep_asm	-k	Keeps the assembly language (.asm) file	Section 2.3.11
asm_listing	-al	Generates an assembly listing file	Section 2.3.11
c_src_interlist	-ss	Interlists C source and assembly statements	Section 2.11 Section 3.7
src_interlist	-S	Interlists optimizer comments (if available) and assembly source statements; otherwise interlists C and assembly source statements	Section 2.3.2
absolute_listing	-aa	Enables absolute listing	Section 2.3.11
asm_define= <i>name</i> [= <i>def</i> ]	-ad	Sets the <i>name</i> symbol	Section 2.3.11
asm_dependency	-apd	Performs preprocessing; lists only assembly dependencies	Section 2.3.11
asm_includes	-api	Performs preprocessing; lists only included #include files	Section 2.3.11
asm_remarks	-mw	Enables additional assembly-time checking	Section 2.3.11
asm_undefine= <i>name</i>	-au	Undefines the predefined constant name	Section 2.3.11
cdebug_asm_data	-mg	Produces C-type symbolic debugging for assembly variables	Section 2.3.11



## **Table 2-15. Assembler Options (continued)**

Option	Alias	Effect	Section
copy_file=filename	-ahc	Copies the specified file for the assembly module	Section 2.3.11
cross_reference	-ax	Generates the cross-reference file	Section 2.3.11
flash_prefetch_warn		Assembler warnings for F281X BF flash prefetch issue	Section 2.3.11
include_file=filename	-ahi	Includes the specified file for the assembly module	Section 2.3.11
no_const_clink		Stops generation of .clink directives for const global arrays.	Section 2.3.3
output_all_syms	-as	Puts labels in the symbol table	Section 2.3.11
preproc_asm	-mx	Preprocesses assembly source, expands assembly macros	Section 2.3.11
syms_ignore_case	-ac	Makes case insignificant in assembly source files	Section 2.3.11

## **Table 2-16. File Type Specifier Options**

Option	Alias	Effect	Section
asm_file=filename	-fa	Identifies <i>filename</i> as an assembly source file regardless of its extension. By default, the compiler and assembler treat .asm files as assembly source files.	Section 2.3.7
c_file= <i>filename</i>	-fc	Identifies <i>filename</i> as a C source file regardless of its extension. By default, the compiler treats .c files as C source files.	Section 2.3.7
cpp_file=filename	-fp	Identifies <i>filename</i> as a C++ file, regardless of its extension. By default, the compiler treats .C, .cpp, .cc and .cxx files as a C++ files.	Section 2.3.7
obj_file=filename	-fo	Identifies <i>filename</i> as an object code file regardless of its extension. By default, the compiler and linker treat .obj files as object code files.	Section 2.3.7

## **Table 2-17. Directory Specifier Options**

Option	Alias	Effect	Section
abs_directory=directory	-fb	Specifies an absolute listing file directory. By default, the compiler uses the .obj directory.	Section 2.3.10
asm_directory=directory	-fs	Specifies an assembly file directory. By default, the compiler uses the current directory.	Section 2.3.10
list_directory=directory	-ff	Specifies an assembly listing file and cross-reference listing file directory By default, the compiler uses the .obj directory.	Section 2.3.10
obj_directory=directory	-fr	Specifies an object file directory. By default, the compiler uses the current directory.	Section 2.3.10
output_file=filename	-fe	Specifies a compilation output file name; can override obj_directory.	Section 2.3.10
pp_directory= <i>dir</i>		Specifies a preprocessor file directory. By default, the compiler uses the current directory.	Section 2.3.10
temp_directory=directory	-ft	Specifies a temporary file directory. By default, the compiler uses the current directory.	Section 2.3.10

## **Table 2-18. Default File Extensions Options**

Option	Alias	Effect	Section
asm_extension=[.]extension	-ea	Sets a default extension for assembly source files	Section 2.3.9
c_extension=[.]extension	-ec	Sets a default extension for C source files	Section 2.3.9
cpp_extension=[.]extension	-ер	Sets a default extension for C++ source files	Section 2.3.9
listing_extension=[.]extension	-es	Sets a default extension for listing files	Section 2.3.9
obj_extension=[.]extension	-eo	Sets a default extension for object files	Section 2.3.9



## **Table 2-19. Command Files Options**

	ruble 2 10. Communa 1 nes options		
Option	Alias	Effect	Section
cmd_file=filename	-@	Interprets contents of a file as an extension to the command line. Multiple -@ instances can be used.	Section 2.3.2

## Table 2-20. MISRA-C:2004 Options

Option	Alias	Effect	Section
check_misra[={all required  advisory none  <i>rulespec</i> }]		Enables checking of the specified MISRA-C:2004 rules. Default is all.	Section 2.3.3
misra_advisory={error warning  remark suppress}		Sets the diagnostic severity for advisory MISRA-C:2004 rules	Section 2.3.3
misra_required={error warning  remark suppress}		Sets the diagnostic severity for required MISRA-C:2004 rules	Section 2.3.3



#### 2.3.1 Linker Options

The following tables list the linker options. See Chapter 4 of this document and the *TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide* for details on these options.

#### **Table 2-21. Linker Basic Options**

Option	Alias	Description
run_linker	-Z	Enables linking.
output_file=file	-0	Names the executable output file. The default filename is a.out.
map_file= <i>file</i>	-m	Produces a map or listing of the input and output sections, including holes, and places the listing in <i>filename</i>
stack_size=size	[-]-stack	Sets C system stack size to <i>size</i> words and defines a global symbol that specifies the stack size. Default = 1K words
heap_size=size	[-]-heap	Sets heap size (for the dynamic memory allocation in C) to size words and defines a global symbol that specifies the heap size. Default = 1K words
warn_sections	-w	Displays a message when an undefined output section is created

#### Table 2-22. File Search Path Options

Option	Alias	Description
library=file	-1	Names an archive library or link command file as linker input
search_path=pathname	-I	Alters library-search algorithms to look in a directory named with <i>pathname</i> before looking in the default location. This option must appear before thelibrary option.
priority	-priority	Satisfies unresolved references by the first library that contains a definition for that symbol
reread_libs	-X	Forces rereading of libraries, which resolves back references
disable_auto_rts		Disables the automatic selection of a run-time-support library

#### **Table 2-23. Command File Preprocessing Options**

Option	Alias	Description
define= <i>name</i> = <i>value</i>		Predefines name as a preprocessor macro.
undefine= <i>name</i>		Removes the preprocessor macro name.
disable_pp		Disables preprocessing for command files

#### **Table 2-24. Diagnostic Options**

Option	Alias	Description
diag_error=num		Categorizes the diagnostic identified by <i>num</i> as an error
diag_remark= <i>num</i>		Categorizes the diagnostic identified by num as a remark
diag_suppress=num		Suppresses the diagnostic identified by num
diag_warning= <i>num</i>		Categorizes the diagnostic identified by num as a warning
display_error_number		Displays a diagnostic's identifiers along with its text
emit_warnings_as_errors	-pdew	Treat warnings as errors
issue_remarks		Issues remarks (nonserious warnings)
no_demangle		Disables demangling of symbol names in diagnostics
no_warnings		Suppresses warning diagnostics (errors are still issued)
set_error_limit=count		Sets the error limit to <i>count</i> . The linker abandons linking after this number of errors. (The default is 100.)
verbose_diagnostics		Provides verbose diagnostics that display the original source with line-wrap



## **Table 2-25. Linker Output Options**

Option	Alias	Description
absolute_exe	-a	Produces an absolute, executable object file. This is the default; if neitherabsolute_exe norrelocatable is specified, the linker acts as ifabsolute_exe were specified.
ecc:data_error		Inject specified errors into the output file for testing
ecc:ecc_error		Inject specified errors into the Error Correcting Code (ECC) for testing
mapfile_contents=attribute		Controls the information that appears in the map file.
relocatable	-r	Produces a nonexecutable, relocatable output object file
rom		Creates a ROM object
run_abs	-abs	Produces an absolute listing file
xml_link_info=file		Generates a well-formed XML file containing detailed information about the result of a link

#### **Table 2-26. Symbol Management Options**

Option	Alias	Description
entry_point=symbol	-е	Defines a global symbol that specifies the primary entry point for the executable object file
globalize=pattern		Changes the symbol linkage to global for symbols that match pattern
hide=pattern		Hides symbols that match the specified pattern
localize=pattern		Make the symbols that match the specified pattern local
make_global= <i>symbol</i>	-g	Makes symbol global (overrides -h)
make_static	-h	Makes all global symbols static
no_sym_merge	-b	Disables merge of symbolic debugging information in COFF object files
no_symtable	-S	Strips symbol table information and line number entries from the executable object file
scan_libraries	-scanlibs	Scans all libraries for duplicate symbol definitions
symbol_map= <i>refname=defname</i>		Specifies a symbol mapping; references to the <i>refname</i> symbol are replaced with references to the <i>defname</i> symbol. Thesymbol_map option is now supported when used withopt_level=4.
undef_sym=symbol	-u	Adds symbol to the symbol table as an unresolved symbol
unhide= <i>pattern</i>		Excludes symbols that match the specified pattern from being hidden

## **Table 2-27. Run-Time Environment Options**

Option	Alias	Description
arg_size=size	args	Reserve size bytes for the argc/argv memory area
far_heapsize	-farheap	Sets far heap size (words).
fill_value= <i>value</i>	-f	Sets default fill value for holes within output sections
ram_model	-cr	Initializes variables at load time
rom_model	-C	Autoinitializes variables at run time

## Table 2-28. Link-Time Optimization Options(1)

Option	Alias	Description
keep_asm		Retain any post-link files (.pl) and .absolute listing files (.abs) generated by the ¬plink option. This allows you to view any changes the post-link optimizer makes. (Requires use of -plink)
no_postlink_across_calls	-nf	Disable post-link optimizations across functions. (Requires use of -plink)
plink_advice_only		Annotates assembly code with comments if changes cannot be made safely due to pipeline considerations, such as when float support or VCU support is enabled. (Requires use of -plink)
postlink_exclude	-ex	Exclude files from post-link pass. (Requires use of -plink)

<sup>(1)</sup> See Chapter 5 for details.

Using the C/C++ Compiler



## Table 2-28. Link-Time Optimization Options<sup>(1)</sup> (continued)

Option	Alias	Description
postlink_opt	-plink	Post-link optimizations (only after -z)

## **Table 2-29. Miscellaneous Options**

Option	Alias	Description
disable_clink	-j	Disables conditional linking of COFF object files
linker_help	[-]-help	Displays information about syntax and available options
preferred_order=function		Prioritizes placement of functions
strict_compatibility[=off on]		Performs more conservative and rigorous compatibility checking of input object files. Default is on.



#### 2.3.2 Frequently Used Options

Following are detailed descriptions of options that you will probably use frequently:

--c src interlist

Invokes the interlist feature, which interweaves original C/C++ source with compiler-generated assembly language. The interlisted C statements may appear to be out of sequence. You can use the interlist feature with the optimizer by combining the --optimizer\_interlist and -- c\_src\_interlist options. See Section 3.7. The --c\_src\_interlist option can have a negative performance and/or code size impact.

--cmd file=filename

Appends the contents of a file to the option set. You can use this option to avoid limitations on command line length or C style comments imposed by the host operating system. Use a # or; at the beginning of a line in the command file to include comments. You can also include comments by delimiting them with /\* and \*/. To specify options, surround hyphens with quotation marks. For example, "--"quiet.

You can use the --cmd\_file option multiple times to specify multiple files. For instance, the following indicates that file3 should be compiled as source and file1 and file2 are --cmd\_file files:

cl2000 -v28 --cmd\_file=file1 --cmd\_file=file2 file3

--compile\_only

Suppresses the linker and overrides the --run\_linker option, which specifies linking. The --compile\_only option's short form is -c. Use this option when you have --run\_linker specified in the C2000\_C\_OPTION environment variable and you do not want to link. See Section 4.1.3.

--define=name[=def]

Predefines the constant *name* for the preprocessor. This is equivalent to inserting #define *name def* at the top of each C source file. If the optional[=*def*] is omitted, the *name* is set to 1. The --define option's short form is -D.

If you want to define a quoted string and keep the quotation marks, do one of the following:

- For Windows, use --define=name="\"string def\"". For example, --define=car="\"sedan\""
- For UNIX, use --define=name="string def". For example, --define=car="sedan"
- For Code Composer Studio, enter the definition in a file and include that file with the --cmd\_file option.

--help

Displays the syntax for invoking the compiler and lists available options. If the --help option is followed by another option or phrase, detailed information about the option or phrase is displayed. For example, to see information about debugging options use --help debug.

--include\_path=directory

Adds *directory* to the list of directories that the compiler searches for #include files. The --include\_path option's short form is -I. You can use this option several times to define several directories; be sure to separate the --include\_path options with spaces. If you do not specify a directory name, the preprocessor ignores the --include\_path option. See Section 2.5.2.1.

--keep\_asm

Retains the assembly language output from the compiler or assembly optimizer. Normally, the compiler deletes the output assembly language file after assembly is complete. The --keep\_asm option's short form is -k.

--quiet

Suppresses banners and progress information from all the tools. Only source filenames and error messages are output. The --quiet option's short form is -q.

--run\_linker

Runs the linker on the specified object files. The --run\_linker option and its parameters follow all other options on the command line. All arguments that follow --run\_linker are passed to the linker. The --run\_linker option's short form is -z. See Section 4.1.



**--skip\_assembler** Compiles only. The specified source files are compiled but not

assembled or linked. The --skip\_assembler option's short form is -n. This option overrides --run linker. The output is assembly language output

from the compiler.

**--src\_interlist** Invokes the interlist feature, which interweaves optimizer comments *or* 

C/C++ source with assembly source. If the optimizer is invoked (--opt\_level=n option), optimizer comments are interlisted with the assembly language output of the compiler, which may rearrange code significantly. If the optimizer is not invoked, C/C++ source statements are interlisted with the assembly language output of the compiler, which allows you to inspect the code generated for each C/C++ statement. The --src interlist option implies the --keep asm option. The --src interlist

option's short form is -s.

**--tool\_version** Prints the version number for each tool in the compiler. No compiling

occurs.

**--undefine**=*name* Undefines the predefined constant *name*. This option overrides any --

define options for the specified constant. The --undefine option's short

form is -U.

**--verbose** Displays progress information and toolset version while compiling.

Resets the --quiet option.

#### 2.3.3 Miscellaneous Useful Options

Following are detailed descriptions of miscellaneous options:

--check\_misra={all|required|
 advisory|none|rulespec}

Displays the specified amount or type of MISRA-C documentation. The *rulespec* parameter is a comma-separated list of specifiers. See Section 6.3 for details.

--float\_operations\_allowed= {none|all|32|64}

Restricts the type of floating point operations allowed in the application. The default is all. If set to none, 32, or 64, the application is checked for operations that will be performed at runtime. For example, declared variables that are not used will not cause a diagnostic. The checks are performed after relaxed mode optimizations have been performed, so illegal operations that are completely removed result in no diagnostics.

--fp mode={relaxed|strict}

The default floating-point mode is strict. To enable relaxed floating-point mode use the --fp\_mode=relaxed option. Relaxed floating-point mode causes double-precision floating-point computations and storage to be converted to integers where possible. This behavior does not conform with ISO, but it results in faster code, with some loss in accuracy. The following specific changes occur in relaxed mode:

- Division by a constant is converted to inverse multiplication.
- If the --tmu\_support option is used to enable support for the
  Trigonometric Math Unit (TMU) and relaxed floating-point mode is
  enabled, RTS library calls are replaced with the corresponding TMU
  hardware instructions for the following floating-point operations:
  floating point division, sqrt, sin, cos, atan, and atan2. Note that
  there are algorithmic differences between the TMU hardware
  instructions and the library routines, so the results of operations
  may differ slightly.



--fp\_reassoc={on|off}

Enables or disables the reassociation of floating-point arithmetic. The default value is --fp reassoc=on.

Because floating-point values are of limited precision, and because floating-point operations round, floating-point arithmetic is neither associative nor distributive. For instance, (1 + 3e100) - 3e100 is not equal to 1 + (3e100 - 3e100). If strictly following IEEE 754, the compiler cannot, in general, reassociate floating-point operations. Using --fp\_reassoc=on allows the compiler to perform the algebraic reassociation, at the cost of a small amount of precision for some operations.

When --fp\_reassoc=on, RPT MACF32 instructions may be generated. Because the RPT MACF32 instruction computes two partial sums and adds them together afterward to compute the entire accumulation, the result can vary in precision from a serial floating-point multiply accumulate loop.

--keep unneeded statics

Prevents the compiler from deleting unreferenced static variables. The parser by default remarks about and then removes any unreferenced static variables. The --keep\_unneeded\_statics option keeps the parser from deleting unreferenced static variables and any static functions that are referenced by these variable definitions. Unreferenced static functions will still be removed.

--no\_const\_clink

Tells the compiler to not generate .clink directives for const global arrays. By default, these arrays are placed in a .const subsection and conditionally linked.

--misra\_advisory={error|
 warning|remark|suppress}

Sets the diagnostic severity for advisory MISRA-C:2004 rules.

--misra\_required={error|
 warning|remark|suppress}

Sets the diagnostic severity for required MISRA-C:2004 rules.

--preinclude=filename

Includes the source code of *filename* at the beginning of the compilation. This can be used to establish standard macro definitions. The filename is searched for in the directories on the include search list. The files are processed in the order in which they were specified.

--printf\_support={full|
 nofloat|minimal}

Enables support for smaller, limited versions of the printf function family (sprintf, fprintf, etc.) and the scanf function family (sscanf, fscanf, etc.) run-time-support functions. The valid values are:

- full: Supports all format specifiers. This is the default.
- nofloat: Excludes support for printing and scanning floating-point values. Supports all format specifiers except %a, %A, %f, %F, %g, %G, %e, and %E.
- minimal: Supports the printing and scanning of integer, char, or string values without width or precision flags. Specifically, only the %%, %d, %o, %c, %s, and %x format specifiers are supported

There is no run-time error checking to detect if a format specifier is used for which support is not included. The --printf\_support option precedes the --run\_linker option, and must be used when performing the final link.

--sat\_reassoc={on|off}

Enables or disables the reassociation of saturating arithmetic.



### 2.3.4 Run-Time Model Options

These options are specific to the TMS320C28x toolset. See the referenced sections for more information. TMS320C28x-specific assembler options are listed in Section 2.3.11.

--asm\_code\_fill=value Specifies fill value to fill the holes in code sections created by the

assembler. You can specify a 16-bit value in decimal, octal, or

hexadecimal format.

**--asm\_data\_fill=** value Specifies fill value to fill the holes in data sections created by the

assembler. You can specify a 16-bit value in decimal, octal, or

hexadecimal format.

--c2xlp src compatible Accepts C2xLP assembly instructions and encodes them as

equivalent C28x instructions.

--cla\_support={cla0|cla1} Specifies TMS320C28x Control Law Accelerator (CLA) Type 0 or

Type 1 support. This option is used to compile or assemble code written for the CLA. This option does not require any special library support when linking; the libraries used for C28x with/without FPU

support should be sufficient.

**--disable\_dp\_load\_opt** Disables the compiler from optimizing redundant loads of the DP

register when using DP direct addressing.

--float\_support={fpu32|fpu64} Specifies use of TMS320C28x 32- or 64-bit hardware floating-point

support. Generates large memory model code. Using --

float\_support=fpu32 specifies the C28x architecture with 32-bit hardware floating-point support. Using --float\_support=fpu64 specifies the C28x architecture with 64-bit hardware floating-point support. If

the --tmu\_support option is used to enable support for the

Trigonometric Math Unit, the --float\_support option is automatically

set to fpu32.

**--large\_memory\_model** Generates large memory model code. This forces the compiler to

view the architecture as having a flat 22-bit address space. All pointers are considered to be 22-bit pointers. The main use of -- large\_memory\_model is with C++ code to access memory beyond 16 bits. Also allows conditional compilation of 16-bit code with large memory model. Defines the LARGE MODEL symbol and sets it to

true. For more information, see Section 6.6.1.

**--no\_fast\_branch** Prevents the compiler from generating TMS320C28x fast branch

instructions (BF). Fast branch instructions are generated by the

compiler by default when possible.

**--no\_rpt** Prevents the compiler from generating repeat (RPT) instructions. By

default, repeat instructions are generated for certain memcpy, division, and multiply-accumulate operations. However, repeat

instructions are not interruptible.

**--protect\_volatile**=*num*Enables volatile reference protection. Pipeline conflicts may occur between non-local variables that have been declared volatile. A

between non-local variables that have been declared volatile. A conflict can occur between a write to one volatile variable that is followed by a read from a different volatile variable. The --

protect\_volatile option allows at least *num* instructions to be placed between the two volatile references to ensure the write occurs before the read. The num is optional. If no num is given, the default value is 2. For example, if --protect\_volatile=4 is used, volatile writes and

volatile reads are protected by at least 4 instructions.

The peripheral pipeline protection hardware protects all internal peripherals and XINTF zone 1. If you connect peripherals to Xintf zone 0, 2, 6, 7 then you may need to use the --protect\_volatile option. Hardware protection or using this option is not required for memories.



--rpt threshold=k

Generates RPT loops that iterate k times or less (k is a constant between 0 and 256). Multiple RPT's may be generated for the same loop, if iteration count is more than k and if code size does not increase too much. Using this option when optimizing for code size disables RPT loop generation for loops whose iteration count can be greater than k.

--silicon\_version=28 --unified\_memory Generates code for the TMS320C28x architecture.

Use the --unified\_mempory (-mt) option if your memory map is

configured as a single unified space; this allows the compiler to generate RPT PREAD instructions for most memcpy calls and structure assignments. This also allows MAC instructions to be generated. The --unified\_memory option also allows more efficient data memory instructions to be used to access switch tables.

--tmu\_support[=tmu0]

Enables support for the Trigonometric Math Unit (TMU). Using this option automatically enables FPU32 support (as

with the --float\_support=fpu32 option). When TMU support is enabled, intrinsics are available to perform trigonometric instructions on the TMU. In addition, in relaxed floating point mode, RTS library calls are replaced with the corresponding TMU hardware instructions for the following floating-point operations: floating point division, sqrt, sin, cos, atan, and atan2. Note that there are algorithmic differences between the TMU hardware instructions and the library routines, so

the results of operations may differ slightly.

--vcu\_support[=vcu0|vcu2]

Specifies support for Type 0 or Type 2 of the Viterbi, Complex Math and CRC Unit (VCU). This option is useful only if the source is in assembly code, written for the VCU. The option is ignored for C/C++ code. This option does not need any special library support when linking; the libraries used for C28x with/without VCU support should be sufficient. Also note that there is no VCU Type 1.

be sufficient. Also note that there is no VCU Type 1.

#### 2.3.5 Symbolic Debugging and Profiling Options

The following options are used to select symbolic debugging or profiling:

**--profile:power** Enables power profiling support by inserting NOPs into the frame code.

These NOPs can then be instrumented by the power profiling tooling to track the power usage of functions. If the power profiling tool is not used, this option increases the cycle count of each function because of the NOPs. The --profile:power option also disables optimizations that cannot

be handled by the power-profiler.

**--symdebug:coff** Enables symbolic debugging using the alternate STABS debugging

format. This may be necessary to allow debugging with older debuggers

or custom tools, which do not read the DWARF format.

**--symdebug:dwarf** (Default) Generates directives that are used by the C/C++ source-level

debugger and enables assembly source debugging in the assembler. The --symdebug:dwarf option's short form is -g. See Section 3.8. For more information on the DWARF debug format, see *The DWARF* 

Debugging Standard.

**--symdebug:none** Disables all symbolic debugging output. This option is not recommended;

it prevents debugging and most performance analysis capabilities.



--symdebug:profile coff

Adds the necessary debug directives to the object file which are needed by the profiler to allow function level profiling with minimal impact on optimization (when used). Using --symdebug:coff may hinder some optimizations to ensure that debug ability is maintained, while this option will not hinder optimization.

You can set breakpoints and profile on function-level boundaries in Code Composer Studio, but you cannot single-step through code as with full

debug ability.

--symdebug:skeletal

Deprecated. Has no effect.

See Section 2.3.13 for a list of deprecated symbolic debugging options.

#### 2.3.6 Specifying Filenames

The input files that you specify on the command line can be C source files, C++ source files, assembly source files, or object files. The compiler uses filename extensions to determine the file type.

Extension	File Type
.asm, .abs, or .s* (extension begins with s)	Assembly source
.c	C source
.C	Depends on operating system
.cpp, .cxx, .cc	C++ source
.obj .o* .dll .so	Object

#### NOTE: Case Sensitivity in Filename Extensions

Case sensitivity in filename extensions is determined by your operating system. If your operating system is not case sensitive, a file with a .C extension is interpreted as a C file. If your operating system is case sensitive, a file with a .C extension is interpreted as a C++ file.

For information about how you can alter the way that the compiler interprets individual filenames, see Section 2.3.7. For information about how you can alter the way that the compiler interprets and names the extensions of assembly source and object files, see Section 2.3.10.

You can use wildcard characters to compile or assemble multiple files. Wildcard specifications vary by system; use the appropriate form listed in your operating system manual. For example, to compile all of the files in a directory with the extension .cpp, enter the following:

cl2000 -v28 \*.cpp

#### NOTE: No Default Extension for Source Files is Assumed

If you list a filename called example on the command line, the compiler assumes that the entire filename is example not example.c. No default extensions are added onto files that do not contain an extension.



#### 2.3.7 Changing How the Compiler Interprets Filenames

You can use options to change how the compiler interprets your filenames. If the extensions that you use are different from those recognized by the compiler, you can use the filename options to specify the type of file. You can insert an optional space between the option and the filename. Select the appropriate option for the type of file you want to specify:

--asm\_file=filename for an assembly language source file

--c\_file=filename
 --cpp\_file=filename
 --obj file=filename
 for a C++ source file
 for an object file

For example, if you have a C source file called file.s and an assembly language source file called assy, use the --asm file and --c file options to force the correct interpretation:

```
cl2000 -v28 --c_file=file.s --asm_file=assy
```

You cannot use the filename options with wildcard specifications.

#### 2.3.8 Changing How the Compiler Processes C Files

The --cpp\_default option causes the compiler to process C files as C++ files. By default, the compiler treats files with a .c extension as C files. See Section 2.3.9 for more information about filename extension conventions.

### 2.3.9 Changing How the Compiler Interprets and Names Extensions

You can use options to change how the compiler program interprets filename extensions and names the extensions of the files that it creates. The filename extension options must precede the filenames they apply to on the command line. You can use wildcard specifications with these options. An extension can be up to nine characters in length. Select the appropriate option for the type of extension you want to specify:

**--asm\_extension**=*new extension* for an assembly language file

--c\_extension=new extension for a C source file--cpp\_extension=new extension for a C++ source file

**--listing extension**=*new extension* sets default extension for listing files

**--obj\_extension**=*new extension* for an object file

The following example assembles the file fit.rrr and creates an object file named fit.o:

```
cl2000 -v28 --asm_extension=.rrr --obj_extension=.o fit.rrr
```

The period (.) in the extension is optional. You can also write the example above as:

cl2000 -v28 --asm\_extension=rrr --obj\_extension=o fit.rrr



### 2.3.10 Specifying Directories

By default, the compiler program places the object, assembly, and temporary files that it creates into the current directory. If you want the compiler program to place these files in different directories, use the following options:

**--abs\_directory** Specifies the destination directory for absolute listing files. The default is

to use the same directory as the object file directory. For example:

cl2000 -v28 --abs\_directory=d:\abso\_list

**--asm directory** Specifies a directory for assembly files. For example:

cl2000 -v28 --asm\_directory=d:\assembly

reference listing files. The default is to use the same directory as the

object file directory. For example:

cl2000 -v28 --list\_directory=d:\listing

**--obj\_directory** Specifies a directory for object files. For example:

cl2000 -v28 --obj\_directory=d:\object

**--output\_file**=*filename* Specifies a compilation output file name; can override --obj\_directory . For

example:

cl2000 -v28 output\_file=transfer

**--pp\_directory** Specifies a preprocessor file directory for object files (default is .). For

example:

cl2000 -v28 --pp\_directory=d:\preproc

**--temp directory** Specifies a directory for temporary intermediate files. For example:

cl2000 -v28 --temp\_directory=d:\temp



### 2.3.11 Assembler Options

Following are assembler options that you can use with the compiler. For more information, see the *TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide*.

--absolute\_listing

Generates a listing with absolute addresses rather than section-relative offsets.

--asm define=name[=def]

Predefines the constant *name* for the assembler; produces a .set directive for a constant or an .arg directive for a string. If the optional [=*def*] is omitted, the *name* is set to 1. If you want to define a quoted string and keep the quotation marks, do one of the following:

- For Windows, use --asm\_define=name="\"string def\"". For example: -asm\_define=car="\"sedan\""
- For UNIX, use --asm\_define=name=""string def". For example: --asm\_define=car=' "sedan" '
- For Code Composer Studio, enter the definition in a file and include that file with the --cmd file option.

--asm\_dependency

Performs preprocessing for assembly files, but instead of writing preprocessed output, writes a list of dependency lines suitable for input to a standard make utility. The list is written to a file with the same name as the source file but with a .ppa extension.

--asm includes

Performs preprocessing for assembly files, but instead of writing preprocessed output, writes a list of files included with the #include directive. The list is written to a file with the same name as the source file but with a .ppa extension.

--asm\_listing--asm\_remarks

Produces an assembly listing file.

Enables additional assembly-time checking. A warning is generated if a .bss allocation size is greater than 64 words, or a 16-bit immediate operand value resides outside of the -32 768 to 65 535 range.

--asm\_undefine=name

Undefines the predefined constant *name*. This option overrides any -- asm define options for the specified name.

--cdebug\_asm\_data

Produces C-type symbolic debugging for assembly variables defined in assembly source code using data directives. This support is for basic C types, structures, and arrays.

--copy file=filename

Copies the specified file for the assembly module; acts like a .copy directive. The file is inserted before source file statements. The copied file appears in the assembly listing files.

--cross\_reference --flash\_prefetch\_warn Produces a symbolic cross-reference in the listing file.

Need more information than "Assembler warnings for F281X BF flash prefetch issue."

--include\_file=filename

Includes the specified file for the assembly module; acts like an .include directive. The file is included before source file statements. The included file does not appear in the assembly listing files.

--output\_all\_syms

Puts labels in the symbol table. Label definitions are written to the COFF symbol table for use with symbolic debugging.

--preproc\_asm

Expands macros in an assembly file and assembles the expanded file. Expanding macros helps you to debug the assembly file. The -preproc\_asm option affects only the assembly file. When --preproc\_asm is

used, the compiler first invokes the assembler with the --

large\_memory\_model option to generate the macro-expanded source .exp file. Then the .exp file is assembled to generate the object file. The debugger uses the .exp file for debugging. The .exp file is an intermediate file and any update to this file will be lost. You need to make any updates to the original assembly file.



--syms\_ignore\_case

Makes letter case insignificant in the assembly language source files. For example, --syms\_ignore\_case makes the symbols ABC and abc equivalent. *If you do not use this option, case is significant* (this is the default).

## 2.3.12 Dynamic Linking

The C28x v?.? Code Generation Tools (CGT) support dynamic linking. For details on dynamic linking with the C28x CGT, see the *TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide*.

Table 2-30 provides a brief summary of the linker options that are related to support for the Dynamic Linking Model in the C28x CGT.

Table 2-30. Linker Options For Dynamic Linking

Option	Description
dynamic[=exe]	Specifies that the result of a link will be a lightweight dynamic executable.
dynamic=lib	Specifies that the result of a link will be a dynamic library.
export=symbol	Specifies that symbol is exported by the ELF object that is generated for this link.
fini=symbol	Specifies the symbol name of the termination code for the output file currently being linked.
import=symbol	Specifies that symbol is imported by the ELF object that is generated for this link.
init=symbol	Specifies the symbol name of the initialization code for the output file currently being linked.
rpath=dir	Adds a directory to the beginning of the dynamic library search path.
runpath=dir	Adds a directory to the end of the dynamic library search path.
soname=string	Specifies shared object name to be used to identify this ELF object to the any downstream ELF object consumers.

### 2.3.13 Deprecated Options

Several compiler options have been deprecated. The compiler continues to accept these options, but they are not recommended for use. Future releases of the tools will not support these options. Table 2-31 lists the deprecated options and the options that have replaced them.

Table 2-31. Compiler Backwards-Compatibility Options Summary

Old Option	Effect	Option to Use Instead
-gp	Allowed function-level profiling of optimized code	symdebug:dwarf or -g
-gt	Enabled symbolic debugging using the alternate STABS debugging format	symdebug:coff
-gw	Enabled symbolic debugging using the DWARF debugging format	symdebug:dwarf or -g
symdebug:skeletal	Enabled minimal debugging. Now has no effect.	symdebug:none
optimize_with_debug	Enabled optimization with debugging. Now this is default behavior. Option has no effect.	

Additionally, the --symdebug:profile\_coff option has been added to enable function-level profiling of optimized code with symbolic debugging using the STABS debugging format (the --symdebug:coff or -gt option).

The --opt\_for\_size option has been replaced by the --opt\_for\_space and --opt\_for\_speed options. The --disable\_pcd and --out\_as\_uout options are now obsolete.



#### 2.4 Controlling the Compiler Through Environment Variables

An environment variable is a system symbol that you define and assign a string to. Setting environment variables is useful when you want to run the compiler repeatedly without re-entering options, input filenames, or pathnames.

#### NOTE: C\_OPTION and C\_DIR

The C\_OPTION and C\_DIR environment variables are deprecated. Use the device-specific environment variables instead.

### 2.4.1 Setting Default Compiler Options (C2000\_C\_OPTION)

You might find it useful to set the compiler, assembler, and linker default options using the C2000\_C\_OPTION environment variable. If you do this, the compiler uses the default options and/or input filenames that you name C2000\_C\_OPTION every time you run the compiler.

Setting the default options with these environment variables is useful when you want to run the compiler repeatedly with the same set of options and/or input files. After the compiler reads the command line and the input filenames, it looks for the C2000\_C\_OPTION environment variable and processes it.

The table below shows how to set the C2000\_C\_OPTION environment variable. Select the command for your operating system:

Operating System	Enter
UNIX (Bourne shell)	C2000_C_OPTION=" option <sub>1</sub> [option <sub>2</sub> ]"; export C2000_C_OPTION
Windows	set C2000_C_OPTION= option <sub>1</sub> [;option <sub>2</sub> ]

Environment variable options are specified in the same way and have the same meaning as they do on the command line. For example, if you want to always run quietly (the --quiet option), enable C/C++ source interlisting (the --src\_interlist option), and link (the --run\_linker option) for Windows, set up the C2000 C OPTION environment variable as follows:

```
set C2000_C_OPTION=--quiet --src_interlist --run_linker
```

In the following examples, each time you run the compiler, it runs the linker. Any options following -- run\_linker on the command line or in C2000\_C\_OPTION are passed to the linker. Thus, you can use the C2000\_C\_OPTION environment variable to specify default compiler and linker options and then specify additional compiler and linker options on the command line. If you have set --run\_linker in the environment variable and want to compile only, use the compiler --compile\_only option. These additional examples assume C2000\_C\_OPTION is set as shown above:

For details on compiler options, see Section 2.3. For details on linker options, see the *Linker Description* chapter in the *TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide*.



## 2.4.2 Naming an Alternate Directory (C2000\_C\_DIR)

The linker uses the C2000\_C\_DIR environment variable to name alternate directories that contain object libraries. The command syntaxes for assigning the environment variable are:

Operating System	Enter
UNIX (Bourne shell)	C2000_C_DIR=" pathname <sub>1</sub> ; pathname <sub>2</sub> ;"; export C2000_C_DIR
Windows	set C2000_C_DIR= pathname <sub>1</sub> ; pathname <sub>2</sub> ;

The pathnames are directories that contain input files. The pathnames must follow these constraints:

- Pathnames must be separated with a semicolon.
- Spaces or tabs at the beginning or end of a path are ignored. For example, the space before and after the semicolon in the following is ignored:

```
set C2000_C_DIR=c:\path\one\to\tools ; c:\path\two\to\tools
```

Spaces and tabs are allowed within paths to accommodate Windows directories that contain spaces.
 For example, the pathnames in the following are valid:

```
set C2000_C_DIR=c:\first path\to\tools;d:\second path\to\tools
```

The environment variable remains set until you reboot the system or reset the variable by entering:

Operating System	Enter
UNIX (Bourne shell)	unset C2000_C_DIR
Windows	set C2000_C_DIR=

## 2.5 Controlling the Preprocessor

This section describes specific features that control the preprocessor, which is part of the parser. A general description of C preprocessing is in section A12 of K&R. The C/C++ compiler includes standard C/C++ preprocessing functions, which are built into the first pass of the compiler. The preprocessor handles:

- · Macro definitions and expansions
- #include files
- Conditional compilation
- Various preprocessor directives, specified in the source file as lines beginning with the # character

The preprocessor produces self-explanatory error messages. The line number and the filename where the error occurred are printed along with a diagnostic message.

#### 2.5.1 Predefined Macro Names

The compiler maintains and recognizes the predefined macro names listed in Table 2-32.

Table 2-32. Predefined C28x Macro Names

Macro Name	Description
DATE <sup>(1)</sup>	Expands to the compilation date in the form <i>mmm dd yyyy</i>
FILE <sup>(1)</sup>	Expands to the current source filename
LARGE_MODEL	Defined if large-model code is selected (the -ml option is used); otherwise, it is undefined.
LINE <sup>(1)</sup>	Expands to the current line number
STDC <sup>(1)</sup>	Defined to indicate that compiler conforms to ISO C Standard. See Section 6.1 for exceptions to ISO C conformance.
STDC_VERSION	C standard macro

<sup>(1)</sup> Specified by the ISO standard



Table 2-32. Predefined C28x Macro Names (continued)

Macro Name	Description
TI_COMPILER_VERSION	Defined to a 7-9 digit integer, depending on if X has 1, 2, or 3 digits. The number does not contain a decimal. For example, version 3.2.1 is represented as 3002001. The leading zeros are dropped to prevent the number being interpreted as an octal.
TI_GNU_ATTRIBUTE_SUPPORT	Defined if GCC extensions are enabled (thegcc option is used); otherwise, it is undefined.
TI_STRICT_ANSI_MODE	lem:lem:lem:lem:lem:lem:lem:lem:lem:lem:
TI_STRICT_FP_MODE	Defined to 1 iffp_mode=strict is used (or implied); otherwise, it is undefined.
TIME <sup>(1)</sup>	Expands to the compilation time in the form "hh:mm:ss"
TMS320C2000	Defined for C28x or C27x processor
TMS320C28XX	Defined if target is C28x
TMS320C28XX_FPU32	Expands to 1 (identifies the C28x processor with 32-bit hardware floating-point support).
TMS320C28XX_FPU64	Expands to 1 (identifies the C28x processor with 64-bit hardware floating-point support).
_INLINE	Expands to 1 if optimization is used (opt_level or -O option); undefined otherwise. Regardless of any optimization, always undefined whenno_inlining is used.

You can use the names listed in Table 2-32 in the same manner as any other defined name. For example, printf ( "%s %s" , \_\_TIME\_\_ , \_\_DATE\_\_);

translates to a line such as:

printf ("%s %s" , "13:58:17", "Jan 14 1997");

#### 2.5.2 The Search Path for #include Files

The #include preprocessor directive tells the compiler to read source statements from another file. When specifying the file, you can enclose the filename in double quotes or in angle brackets. The filename can be a complete pathname, partial path information, or a filename with no path information.

- If you enclose the filename in double quotes (" "), the compiler searches for the file in the following directories in this order:
  - 1. The directory of the file that contains the #include directive and in the directories of any files that contain that file.
  - 2. Directories named with the --include path option.
  - 3. Directories set with the C2000 C DIR environment variable.
- If you enclose the filename in angle brackets (< >), the compiler searches for the file in the following directories in this order:
  - 1. Directories named with the --include path option.
  - 2. Directories set with the C2000\_C\_DIR environment variable.

See Section 2.5.2.1 for information on using the --include\_path option. See Section 2.4.2 for more information on input file directories.

#### 2.5.2.1 Changing the #include File Search Path (--include path Option)

The --include\_path option names an alternate directory that contains #include files. The --include\_path option's short form is -I. The format of the --include\_path option is:

--include\_path=directory1 [--include\_path= directory2 ...]

There is no limit to the number of --include\_path options per invocation of the compiler; each -- include\_path option names one *directory*. In C source, you can use the #include directive without specifying any directory information for the file; instead, you can specify the directory information with the --include\_path option. For example, assume that a file called source.c is in the current directory. The file source.c contains the following directive statement:

#include "alt.h"



Assume that the complete pathname for alt.h is:

UNIX /tools/files/alt.h Windows c:\tools\files\alt.h

The table below shows how to invoke the compiler. Select the command for your operating system:

Operating System	Enter
UNIX	cl2000 -v28include_path=/tools/files source.c
Windows	cl2000 -v28include_path=c:\tools\files source.c

#### NOTE: Specifying Path Information in Angle Brackets

If you specify the path information in angle brackets, the compiler applies that information relative to the path information specified with --include\_path options and the C2000\_C\_DIR environment variable.

For example, if you set up C2000\_C\_DIR with the following command:

C2000\_C\_DIR "/usr/include;/usr/ucb"; export C2000\_C\_DIR

or invoke the compiler with the following command:

cl2000 -v28 --include\_path=/usr/include file.c

and file.c contains this line:

#include <sys/proc.h>

the result is that the included file is in the following path:

/usr/include/sys/proc.h

#### 2.5.3 Generating a Preprocessed Listing File (--preproc only Option)

The --preproc\_only option allows you to generate a preprocessed version of your source file with an extension of .pp. The compiler's preprocessing functions perform the following operations on the source file:

- Each source line ending in a backslash (\) is joined with the following line.
- Trigraph sequences are expanded.
- Comments are removed.
- #include files are copied into the file.
- Macro definitions are processed.
- All macros are expanded.
- All other preprocessing directives, including #line directives and conditional compilation, are expanded.

#### 2.5.4 Continuing Compilation After Preprocessing (--preproc with compile Option)

If you are preprocessing, the preprocessor performs preprocessing only; it does not compile your source code. To override this feature and continue to compile after your source code is preprocessed, use the --preproc\_with\_compile option along with the other preprocessing options. For example, use --preproc\_with\_compile with --preproc\_only to perform preprocessing, write preprocessed output to a file with a .pp extension, and compile your source code.

# 2.5.5 Generating a Preprocessed Listing File with Comments (--preproc\_with\_comment Option)

The --preproc\_with\_comment option performs all of the preprocessing functions except removing comments and generates a preprocessed version of your source file with a .pp extension. Use the --preproc\_with\_comment option instead of the --preproc\_only option if you want to keep the comments.



# 2.5.6 Generating a Preprocessed Listing File with Line-Control Information (-preproc with line Option)

By default, the preprocessed output file contains no preprocessor directives. To include the #line directives, use the --preproc\_with\_line option. The --preproc\_with\_line option performs preprocessing only and writes preprocessed output with line-control information (#line directives) to a file named as the source file but with a .pp extension.

## 2.5.7 Generating Preprocessed Output for a Make Utility (--preproc\_dependency Option)

The --preproc\_dependency option performs preprocessing only, but instead of writing preprocessed output, writes a list of dependency lines suitable for input to a standard make utility. If you do not supply an optional filename, the list is written to a file with the same name as the source file but with a .pp extension.

# 2.5.8 Generating a List of Files Included with the #include Directive (--preproc\_includes Option)

The --preproc\_includes option performs preprocessing only, but instead of writing preprocessed output, writes a list of files included with the #include directive. If you do not supply an optional filename, the list is written to a file with the same name as the source file but with a .pp extension.

#### 2.5.9 Generating a List of Macros in a File (--preproc\_macros Option)

The --preproc\_macros option generates a list of all predefined and user-defined macros. If you do not supply an optional filename, the list is written to a file with the same name as the source file but with a .pp extension. Predefined macros are listed first and indicated by the comment /\* Predefined \*/. User-defined macros are listed next and indicated by the source filename.

## 2.6 Understanding Diagnostic Messages

One of the primary functions of the compiler and linker is to report diagnostic messages for the source program. A diagnostic message indicates that something may be wrong with the program. When the compiler or linker detects a suspect condition, it displays a message in the following format:

"file.c", line n: diagnostic severity: diagnostic message

"file.c" The name of the file involved

**line** n: The line number where the diagnostic applies

diagnostic severity The diagnostic message severity (severity category descriptions follow)

diagnostic message The text that describes the problem

Diagnostic messages have a severity, as follows:

- A **fatal error** indicates a problem so severe that the compilation cannot continue. Examples of such problems include command-line errors, internal errors, and missing include files. If multiple source files are being compiled, any source files after the current one will not be compiled.
- An **error** indicates a violation of the syntax or semantic rules of the C/C++ language. Compilation may continue, but object code is not generated.
- A warning indicates something that is likely to be a problem, but cannot be proven to be an error. For
  example, the compiler emits a warning for an unused variable, because although an unused variable
  does not affect program execution, its existence suggests that you might have meant to use it.
  Compilation continues and object code is generated (if no errors are detected).
- A **remark** is less serious than a warning. It may indicate something that is a potential problem in rare cases, or the remark may be strictly informational. Compilation continues and object code is generated (if no errors are detected). By default, remarks are not issued. Use the --issue\_remarks compiler option to enable remarks.



Diagnostics are written to standard error with a form like the following example:

```
"test.c", line 5: error: a break statement may only be used within a loop or switch
    break;
```

By default, the source code line is not printed. Use the --verbose\_diagnostics compiler option to display the source line and the error position. The above example makes use of this option.

The message identifies the file and line involved in the diagnostic, and the source line itself (with the position indicated by the ^ character) follows the message. If several diagnostics apply to one source line, each diagnostic has the form shown; the text of the source line is displayed several times, with an appropriate position indicated each time.

Long messages are wrapped to additional lines, when necessary.

You can use the --display\_error\_number command-line option to request that the diagnostic's numeric identifier be included in the diagnostic message. When displayed, the diagnostic identifier also indicates whether the diagnostic can have its severity overridden on the command line. If the severity can be overridden, the diagnostic identifier includes the suffix -D (for *discretionary*); otherwise, no suffix is present. For example:

```
"Test_name.c", line 7: error #64-D: declaration does not declare anything
    struct {};
    ^
"Test_name.c", line 9: error #77: this declaration has no storage class or type specifier
    xxxxx;
```

Because errors are determined to be discretionary based on the severity in a specific context, an error can be discretionary in some cases and not in others. All warnings and remarks are discretionary.

For some messages, a list of entities (functions, local variables, source files, etc.) is useful; the entities are listed following the initial error message:

In some cases, additional context information is provided. Specifically, the context information is useful when the front end issues a diagnostic while doing a template instantiation or while generating a constructor, destructor, or assignment operator function. For example:

Without the context information, it is difficult to determine to what the error refers.

#### 2.6.1 Controlling Diagnostics

The C/C++ compiler provides diagnostic options to control compiler- and linker-generated diagnostics. The diagnostic options must be specified before the --run\_linker option.

```
--diag_error=num
```

Categorizes the diagnostic identified by *num* as an error. To determine the numeric identifier of a diagnostic message, use the --display\_error\_number option first in a separate compile. Then use --diag\_error=*num* to recategorize the diagnostic as an error. You can only alter the severity of discretionary diagnostics.



**--diag\_remark=** *num* Categorizes the diagnostic identified by *num* as a remark. To determine the

numeric identifier of a diagnostic message, use the --display\_error\_number option first in a separate compile. Then use --diag remark=*num* to

recategorize the diagnostic as a remark. You can only alter the severity of

discretionary diagnostics.

**--diag\_suppress**=*num* Suppresses the diagnostic identified by *num*. To determine the numeric

identifier of a diagnostic message, use the --display\_error\_number option first in a separate compile. Then use --diag\_suppress=*num* to suppress the

diagnostic. You can only suppress discretionary diagnostics.

--diag\_warning=num Categorizes the diagnostic identified by num as a warning. To determine the

numeric identifier of a diagnostic message, use the --display\_error\_number option first in a separate compile. Then use --diag warning=*num* to

recategorize the diagnostic as a warning. You can only alter the severity of

discretionary diagnostics.

--display\_error\_number Displays a diagnostic's numeric identifier along with its text. Use this option in

determining which arguments you need to supply to the diagnostic suppression options (--diag\_suppress, --diag\_error, --diag\_remark, and --diag\_warning). This option also indicates whether a diagnostic is discretionary.

A discretionary diagnostic is one whose severity can be overridden. A discretionary diagnostic includes the suffix -D; otherwise, no suffix is present.

See Section 2.6.

--emit\_warnings\_as\_

errors

Treats all warnings as errors. This option cannot be used with the -no warnings option. The --diag remark option takes precedence over this

option. This option takes precedence over the --diag warning option.

**--issue\_remarks** Issues remarks (nonserious warnings), which are suppressed by default.

--no\_warnings

Suppresses warning diagnostics (errors are still issued).

--set\_error\_limit=num

Sets the error limit to *num*, which can be any decimal value. The compiler

abandons compiling after this number of errors. (The default is 100.)

--verbose\_diagnostics

Provides verbose diagnostics that display the original source with line-wrap

and indicate the position of the error in the source line

--write diagnostics file

Produces a diagnostics information file with the same source file name with an errectors of the write diagnostics file option is not supported by the

*.err* extension. (The --write\_diagnostics\_file option is not supported by the

linker.)

## 2.6.2 How You Can Use Diagnostic Suppression Options

The following example demonstrates how you can control diagnostic messages issued by the compiler. You control the linker diagnostic messages in a similar manner.

```
int one();
int I;
int main()
{
   switch (I){
   case 1;
    return one ();
   break;
   default:
    return 0;
   break;
}
```

If you invoke the compiler with the --quiet option, this is the result:

```
"err.c", line 9: warning: statement is unreachable
"err.c", line 12: warning: statement is unreachable
```



www.ti.com Other Messages

Because it is standard programming practice to include break statements at the end of each case arm to avoid the fall-through condition, these warnings can be ignored. Using the --display error number option, you can find out the diagnostic identifier for these warnings. Here is the result:

```
"err.c", line 9: warning #111-D: statement is unreachable
"err.c", line 12: warning #111-D: statement is unreachable
```

Next, you can use the diagnostic identifier of 111 as the argument to the --diag remark option to treat this warning as a remark. This compilation now produces no diagnostic messages (because remarks are disabled by default).

NOTE: You can suppress any non-fatal errors, but be careful to make sure you only suppress diagnostic messages that you understand and are known not to affect the correctness of your program.

#### 2.7 Other Messages

Other error messages that are unrelated to the source, such as incorrect command-line syntax or inability to find specified files, are usually fatal. They are identified by the symbol >> preceding the message.

#### 2.8 **Generating Cross-Reference Listing Information (--gen\_acp\_xref Option)**

The --gen acp xref option generates a cross-reference listing file that contains reference information for each identifier in the source file. (The --gen acp xref option is separate from --cross reference, which is an assembler rather than a compiler option.) The cross-reference listing file has the same name as the source file with a .crl extension.

The information in the cross-reference listing file is displayed in the following format:

sym-id name X filename line number column number

sym-id	An integer uniquely assigned to each identifier	
name	The identifier name	
X	One of th	e following values:
	D	Definition
	d	Declaration (not a definition)
	M	Modification
	Α	Address taken
	U	Used
	С	Changed (used and modified in a single operation)
	R	Any other kind of reference
	E	Error; reference is indeterminate
filename	The source file	
line number	The line number in the source file	

The column number in the source file

column number



## 2.9 Generating a Raw Listing File (--gen\_acp\_raw Option)

The --gen\_acp\_raw option generates a raw listing file that can help you understand how the compiler is preprocessing your source file. Whereas the preprocessed listing file (generated with the --preproc\_only, --preproc\_with\_comment, --preproc\_with\_line, and --preproc\_dependency preprocessor options) shows a preprocessed version of your source file, a raw listing file provides a comparison between the original source line and the preprocessed output. The raw listing file has the same name as the corresponding source file with an *.rl* extension.

The raw listing file contains the following information:

- · Each original source line
- · Transitions into and out of include files
- Diagnostics
- Preprocessed source line if nontrivial processing was performed (comment removal is considered trivial; other preprocessing is nontrivial)

Each source line in the raw listing file begins with one of the identifiers listed in Table 2-33.

Identifier Definition Ν Normal line of source Χ Expanded line of source. It appears immediately following the normal line of source if nontrivial preprocessing occurs. S Skipped source line (false #if clause) Т Change in source position, given in the following format: L line number filename key Where line number is the line number in the source file. The key is present only when the change is due to entry/exit of an include file. Possible values of key are: 1 = entry into an include file 2 = exit from an include file

Table 2-33. Raw Listing File Identifiers

The --gen\_acp\_raw option also includes diagnostic identifiers as defined in Table 2-34.

Table 2-34. Raw Listing File Diagnostic Identifiers

Diagnostic Identifier	Definition
E	Error
F	Fatal
R	Remark
W	Warning

Diagnostic raw listing information is displayed in the following format:

S filename line number column number diagnostic	
o monario inte namber dela mir namber diagnostio	

S	One of the identifiers in Table 2-34 that indicates the severity of the diagnostic
filename	The source file
line number	The line number in the source file
column number	The column number in the source file
diagnostic	The message text for the diagnostic
Diagnostics ofter the	and of file are indicated as the last line of the file with a column number of $0.00$

Diagnostics after the end of file are indicated as the last line of the file with a column number of 0. When diagnostic message text requires more than one line, each subsequent line contains the same file, line, and column information but uses a lowercase version of the diagnostic identifier. For more information about diagnostic messages, see Section 2.6.



#### 2.10 Using Inline Function Expansion

When an inline function is called, a copy of the C/C++ source code for the function is inserted at the point of the call. This is known as inline function expansion, commonly called *function inlining* or just *inlining*. Inline function expansion can speed up execution by eliminating function call overhead. This is particularly beneficial for very small functions that are called frequently. Function inlining involves a tradeoff between execution speed and code size, because the code is duplicated at each function call site. Large functions that are called frequently are poor candidates for inlining.

Function inlining is triggered by the following situations:

- The use of built-in intrinsic operations. Intrinsic operations look like function calls, and are inlined automatically, even though no function body exists.
- Use of the inline keyword or the equivalent \_\_inline keyword. Functions declared with the inline keyword may be inlined by the compiler if you set --opt\_level=3 or greater. The inline keyword is a suggestion from the programmer to the compiler. Even if your optimization level is high, inlining is still optional for the compiler. The compiler decides whether to inline a function based on the length of the function, the number of times it is called, your --opt\_for\_speed setting, your --opt\_for\_space setting, and any contents of the function that disqualify it from inlining (see Section 2.10.4). Functions can be inlined at --opt\_level=3 if the function body is visible in the same module or if -pm is also used and the function is visible in one of the modules being compiled. Functions may be inlined at link time if the file containing the definition and the call site were both compiled with --opt\_level=4.
- Use of static inline functions. Functions defined as both static and inline are more likely to be inlined.
- When --opt\_level=3 or greater is used, the compiler may automatically inline eligible functions even if
  they are not declared as inline functions. The same list of decision factors listed for functions explicitly
  defined with the inline keyword is used. For more information about automatic function inlining, see
  Section 3.6
- · Definition-controlled inlining with the unguarded inline keyword
- Definition-controlled inlining with the guarded inline keyword

#### NOTE: Function Inlining Can Greatly Increase Code Size

Function inlining increases code size, especially inlining a function that is called in a number of places. Function inlining is optimal for functions that are called only from a small number of places and for small functions.

The semantics of the inline keyword in C code follow the C99 standard. The semantics of the inline keyword in C++ code follow the C++ standard. The inline keyword is supported in relaxed C89 mode, but because it is a language extension that could conflict with a strictly conforming program, the keyword is disabled in strict ANSI C89 mode (when you use the --strict\_ansi compiler option). If you want to define inline functions while in strict ANSI C89 mode, use the alternate keyword inline.

Compiler options that affect inlining are: --opt\_level, --no\_inlining, --auto\_inline, -remove\_hooks\_when\_inlining, --single\_inline, --opt\_for\_space, and -opt\_for\_speed.

#### NOTE: Using the --no\_inlining Option with Level 3 Optimizations

The --no\_inlining option turns off prioritizing inlining for functions declared with the inline keyword. If you use --no inlining with --opt level=3, automatic inlining is still performed.

#### 2.10.1 Inlining Intrinsic Operators

The compiler has built-in function-like operations called intrinsics. Intrinsic operations look like function calls, and can be implemented very efficiently with the target's instruction set.

There are many intrinsic operators for the C28x. All of them are automatically inlined by the compiler. The inlining happens automatically whether or not you use the optimizer. Intrinsic ininling can be disabled with the --no intrinsics compiler option.

For details about intrinsics, and a list of the intrinsics, see Section 7.4.6.



# 2.10.2 Unguarded Definition-Controlled Inlining

The inline keyword specifies that a function is expanded inline at the point at which it is called rather than by using standard calling procedures. The compiler performs inline expansion of functions declared with the inline keyword.

You must invoke the optimizer with any --opt\_level option (--opt\_level=0, --opt\_level=1, --opt\_level=2, or --opt\_level=3) to turn on definition-controlled inlining. Automatic inlining is also turned on when using --opt\_level=3.

The --no\_inlining option turns off definition-controlled inlining. This option is useful when you need a certain level of optimization but do not want definition-controlled inlining.

Example 2-1 shows usage of the inline keyword, where the function call is replaced by the code in the called function.

## Example 2-1. Using the Inline Keyword

```
inline float volume_sphere(float r)
{
    return 4.0/3.0 * PI * r * r * r;
}
int foo(...)
{
    ...
    volume = volume_sphere(radius);
    ...
}
```



## 2.10.3 Guarded Inlining and the \_INLINE Preprocessor Symbol

When declaring a function in a header file as static inline, you must follow additional procedures to avoid a potential code size increase when inlining is turned off with --no inlining or the optimizer is not run.

To prevent a static inline function in a header file from causing an increase in code size when inlining gets turned off, use the following procedure. This allows external-linkage when inlining is turned off; thus, only one function definition will exist throughout the object files.

- Prototype a static inline version of the function. Then, prototype an alternative, nonstatic, externally-linked version of the function. Conditionally preprocess these two prototypes with the \_INLINE preprocessor symbol, as shown in Example 2-2.
- Create an identical version of the function definition in a .c or .cpp file, as shown in Example 2-3.

In the following examples there are two definitions of the strlen function. The first (Example 2-2), in the header file, is an inline definition. This definition is enabled and the prototype is declared as static inline only if \_INLINE is true (\_INLINE is automatically defined for you when the optimizer is used and -- no inlining is not specified).

The second definition (see Example 2-3) for the library, ensures that the callable version of strlen exists when inlining is disabled. Since this is not an inline function, the \_INLINE preprocessor symbol is undefined (#undef) before string.h is included to generate a noninline version of strlen's prototype.

#### Example 2-2. Header File string.h

```
/* string.h vx.xx
                                                  * /
/* Copyright (c) 1993-2006 Texas Instruments Incorporated
/************************
#ifdef _INLINE
#define _IDECL static inline
#define _IDECL extern _CODE_ACCESS
#endif
_IDECL size_t strlen(const char *_string);
#ifdef _INLINE
static inline size_t strlen(const char *string)
        n = (size t)-1;
 size t
 const char *s = string - 1;
 do n++; while (*++s);
 return n
}
#endif
```



Using Interlist www.ti.com

#### Example 2-3. Library Definition File

#### 2.10.4 Inlining Restrictions

The compiler makes decisions about which functions to inline based on the factors mentioned in Section 2.10. In addition, there are several restrictions that can disqualify a function from being inlined by automatic inlining or inline keyword-based inlining.

- Is not defined in the current compilation unit and you are not using -O4 optimization
- Never returns
- Is a recursive or nonleaf function that exceeds the depth limit
- Has a variable-length argument list
- · Has a different number of arguments than the call site
- · Has an argument whose type is incompatible with the corresponding call site argument
- Has a class, struct, or union parameter
- Contains a volatile local variable or argument
- Contains local static variables but is not a static inline function.
- Is not declared inline and contains an asm() statement that is not a comment
- Is the main() function
- Is an interrupt function
- · Is not declared inline and returns void but its return value is needed.
- Is not declared inline and will require too much stack space for local array or structure variables.

Furthermore, inlining should be used for small functions or functions that are called in a few places (though the compiler does not enforce this).

#### NOTE: Excessive Inlining Can Degrade Performance

Excessive inlining can make the compiler dramatically slower and degrade the performance of generated code.

#### 2.11 Using Interlist

The compiler tools include a feature that interlists C/C++ source statements into the assembly language output of the compiler. The interlist feature enables you to inspect the assembly code generated for each C statement. The interlist behaves differently, depending on whether or not the optimizer is used, and depending on which options you specify.

The easiest way to invoke the interlist feature is to use the --c\_src\_interlist option. To compile and run the interlist on a program called function.c, enter:

```
cl2000 -v28 --c_src_interlist function
```



www.ti.com Using Interlist

The --c\_src\_interlist option prevents the compiler from deleting the interlisted assembly language output file. The output assembly file, function.asm, is assembled normally.

When you invoke the interlist feature without the optimizer, the interlist runs as a separate pass between the code generator and the assembler. It reads both the assembly and C/C++ source files, merges them, and writes the C/C++ statements into the assembly file as comments.

Using the --c\_src\_interlist option can cause performance and/or code size degradation.

Example 2-4 shows a typical interlisted assembly file.

For more information about using the interlist feature with the optimizer, see Section 3.7.

#### Example 2-4. An Interlisted Assembly Language File

```
; 1 | int main()
;* FNAME: _main
                            FR SIZE: 0
; *
;* FUNCTION ENVIRONMENT
; *
;* FUNCTION PROPERTIES
                    0 Parameter, 0 Auto, 0 SOE
main:
; 3 | printf("Hello World\n");
;-----
     MOVL XAR4, #SL1 ; |3|
LCR #_printf ; |3|
     ; call occurs [#_printf] ; |3|
; 4 | return 0;
; ***********************
; **********************
     .sect ".const"
     .string "Hello World",10,0
;**********************
; * UNDEFINED EXTERNAL REFERENCES *
.global _printf
```



#### 2.12 Enabling Entry Hook and Exit Hook Functions

An entry hook is a routine that is called upon entry to each function in the program. An exit hook is a routine that is called upon exit of each function. Applications for hooks include debugging, trace, profiling, and stack overflow checking.

Entry and exit hooks are enabled using the following options:

--entry\_hook[=name]

Enables entry hooks. If specified, the hook function is called *name*. Otherwise, the default entry hook function name is entry hook.

--entry\_parm{=name|
 address|none}

Specify the parameters to the hook function. The name parameter specifies that the name of the calling function is passed to the hook function as an argument. In this case the signature for the hook function is: void hook(const char \*name);

The address parameter specifies that the address of the calling function is passed to the hook function. In this case the signature for the hook function is: void hook(void (\*addr)());

The none parameter specifies that the hook is called with no parameters. This is the default. In this case the signature for the hook function is: void hook(void):

--exit hook[=name]

Enables exit hooks. If specified, the hook function is called *name*. Otherwise, the default exit hook function name is exit hook.

--exit\_parm{=name|
 address|none}

Specify the parameters to the hook function. The name parameter specifies that the name of the calling function is passed to the hook function as an argument. In this case the signature for the hook function is: void hook(const char \*name);

The address parameter specifies that the address of the calling function is passed to the hook function. In this case the signature for the hook function is: void hook(void (\*addr)());

The none parameter specifies that the hook is called with no parameters. This is the default. In this case the signature for the hook function is: void hook(void);

The presence of the hook options creates an implicit declaration of the hook function with the given signature. If a declaration or definition of the hook function appears in the compilation unit compiled with the options, it must agree with the signatures listed above.

In C++, the hooks are declared extern "C". Thus you can define them in C (or assembly) without being concerned with name mangling.

Hooks can be declared inline, in which case the compiler tries to inline them using the same criteria as other inline functions.

Entry hooks and exit hooks are independent. You can enable one but not the other, or both. The same function can be used as both the entry and exit hook.

You must take care to avoid recursive calls to hook functions. The hook function should not call any function which itself has hook calls inserted. To help prevent this, hooks are not generated for inline functions, or for the hook functions themselves.

You can use the --remove\_hooks\_when\_inlining option to remove entry/exit hooks for functions that are auto-inlined by the optimizer.

See Section 6.10.12 for information about the NO HOOKS pragma.



# **Optimizing Your Code**

The compiler tools can perform many optimizations to improve the execution speed and reduce the size of C and C++ programs by simplifying loops, rearranging statements and expressions, and allocating variables into registers.

This chapter describes how to invoke different levels of optimization and describes which optimizations are performed at each level. This chapter also describes how you can use the Interlist feature when performing optimization and how you can profile or debug optimized code.

Topic Page

		_
3.1	Invoking Optimization	54
3.2	Performing File-Level Optimization (opt_level=3 option)	<b>55</b>
3.3	Performing Program-Level Optimization (program_level_compile and opt_level=3 options)	56
3.4	Link-Time Optimization (opt_level=4 Option)	58
3.5	Special Considerations When Using Optimization	<b>59</b>
3.6	Automatic Inline Expansion (auto_inline Option)	61
3.7	Using the Interlist Feature With Optimization	61
3.8	Debugging and Profiling Optimized Code	64
3.9	Controlling Code Size Versus Speed	<b>65</b>
3.10	Increasing Code-Size Optimizations (opt_for_space Option)	66
3.11	Compiler Support for Generating DMAC Instructions	67
3.12	What Kind of Optimization Is Being Performed?	70



Invoking Optimization www.ti.com

## 3.1 Invoking Optimization

The C/C++ compiler is able to perform various optimizations. High-level optimizations are performed in the optimizer and low-level, target-specific optimizations occur in the code generator. Use high-level optimization levels, such as --opt\_level=2 and --opt\_level=3, to achieve optimal code.

The easiest way to invoke optimization is to use the compiler program, specifying the --opt\_level=n option on the compiler command line. You can use -On to alias the --opt\_level option. The n denotes the level of optimization (0, 1, 2, 3, and 4), which controls the type and degree of optimization.

#### --opt\_level=off or -Ooff

- Performs no optimization

#### --opt level=0 or -O0

- Performs control-flow-graph simplification
- Allocates variables to registers
- Performs loop rotation
- Eliminates unused code
- Simplifies expressions and statements
- Expands calls to functions declared inline

#### --opt level=1 or -O1

Performs all --opt\_level=0 (-O0) optimizations, plus:

- Performs local copy/constant propagation
- Removes unused assignments
- Eliminates local common expressions

#### --opt level=2 or -O2

Performs all --opt level=1 (-O1) optimizations, plus:

- Performs loop optimizations
- Eliminates global common subexpressions
- Eliminates global unused assignments
- Performs loop unrolling

### --opt\_level=3 or -O3

Performs all --opt level=2 (-O2) optimizations, plus:

- Removes all functions that are never called
- Simplifies functions with return values that are never used
- Inlines calls to small functions
- Reorders function declarations; the called functions attributes are known when the caller is optimized
- Propagates arguments into function bodies when all calls pass the same value in the same argument position
- Identifies file-level variable characteristics
   If you use --opt level=3 (-O3), see Section 3.2 and Section 3.3 for more information.

#### --opt level=4 or -O4

Performs link-time optimization. See Section 3.4 for details.

By default, debugging is enabled and the default optimization level is unaffected by the generation of debug information. However, the optimization level used is affected by whether or not the command line includes the -g option and the --opt\_level option as shown in the following table:



Table 3-1. Interaction Between Debugging and Optimization Options

Optimization	no -g	-g
noopt_level	opt_level=off	opt_level=off
opt_level	opt_level=2	opt_level=2
opt_level=n	optimized as specified	optimized as specified

The levels of optimizations described above are performed by the stand-alone optimization pass. The code generator performs several additional optimizations, particularly processor-specific optimizations. It does so regardless of whether you invoke the optimizer. These optimizations are always enabled, although they are more effective when the optimizer is used.

#### 3.2 Performing File-Level Optimization (--opt\_level=3 option)

The --opt level=3 option (aliased as the -O3 option) instructs the compiler to perform file-level optimization. You can use the --opt level=3 option alone to perform general file-level optimization, or you can combine it with other options to perform more specific optimizations. The options listed in Table 3-2 work with --opt level=3 to perform the indicated optimization:

Table 3-2. Options That You Can Use With --opt\_level=3

If You	Use this Option	See
Have files that redeclare standard library functions	std_lib_func_defined std_lib_func_redefined	Section 3.2.1
Want to create an optimization information file	gen_opt_level=n	Section 3.2.2
Want to compile multiple source files	program_level_compile	Section 3.3

## 3.2.1 Controlling File-Level Optimization (--std\_lib\_func\_def Options)

When you invoke the compiler with the --opt level=3 option, some of the optimizations use known properties of the standard library functions. If your file redeclares any of these standard library functions, these optimizations become ineffective. Use Table 3-3 to select the appropriate file-level optimization option.

Table 3-3. Selecting a File-Level Optimization Option

If Your Source File	Use this Option
Declares a function with the same name as a standard library function	std_lib_func_redefined
Contains but does not alter functions declared in the standard library	std_lib_func_defined
Does not alter standard library functions, but you used thestd_lib_func_redefined orstd_lib_func_defined option in a command file or an environment variable. Thestd_lib_func_not_defined option restores the default behavior of the optimizer.	std_lib_func_not_defined

## 3.2.2 Creating an Optimization Information File (--gen\_opt\_info Option)

When you invoke the compiler with the --opt\_level=3 option, you can use the --gen\_opt\_info option to create an optimization information file that you can read. The number following the option denotes the level (0, 1, or 2). The resulting file has an .nfo extension. Use Table 3-4 to select the appropriate level to append to the option.

Table 3-4. Selecting a Level for the --gen\_opt\_info Option

If you	Use this option
Do not want to produce an information file, but you used thegen_opt_level=1 orgen_opt_level=2 option in a command file or an environment variable. Thegen_opt_level=0 option restores the default behavior of the optimizer.	gen_opt_info=0
Want to produce an optimization information file	gen_opt_info=1
Want to produce a verbose optimization information file	gen_opt_info=2



#### 3.3 Performing Program-Level Optimization (--program\_level\_compile and --opt\_level=3 options)

You can specify program-level optimization by using the --program\_level\_compile option with the -opt\_level=3 option (aliased as -O3) or --opt\_level=4 (-O4). With program-level optimization, all of vour source files are compiled into one intermediate file called a module. The module moves to the optimization and code generation passes of the compiler. Because the compiler can see the entire program, it performs several optimizations that are rarely applied during file-level optimization:

- If a particular argument in a function always has the same value, the compiler replaces the argument with the value and passes the value instead of the argument.
- If a return value of a function is never used, the compiler deletes the return code in the function.
- If a function is not called directly or indirectly by main(), the compiler removes the function.

The --program level compile option requires use of --opt level=3 or higher in order to perform these optimizations.

To see which program-level optimizations the compiler is applying, use the --gen opt level=2 option to generate an information file. See Section 3.2.2 for more information.

In Code Composer Studio, when the --program level compile option is used, C and C++ files that have the same options are compiled together. However, if any file has a file-specific option that is not selected as a project-wide option, that file is compiled separately. For example, if every C and C++ file in your project has a different set of file-specific options, each is compiled separately, even though program-level optimization has been specified. To compile all C and C++ files together, make sure the files do not have file-specific options. Be aware that compiling C and C++ files together may not be safe if previously you used a file-specific option.

#### Compiling Files With the --program\_level\_compile and --keep\_asm Options

NOTE: If you compile all files with the --program level compile and --keep asm options, the compiler produces only one .asm file, not one for each corresponding source file.

#### 3.3.1 Controlling Program-Level Optimization (--call\_assumptions Option)

You can control program-level optimization, which you invoke with --program level compile --opt level=3, by using the --call assumptions option. Specifically, the --call assumptions option indicates if functions in other modules can call a module's external functions or modify a module's external variables. The number following --call\_assumptions indicates the level you set for the module that you are allowing to be called or modified. The --opt level=3 option combines this information with its own file-level analysis to decide whether to treat this module's external function and variable declarations as if they had been declared static. Use Table 3-5 to select the appropriate level to append to the --call assumptions option.

Table 3-5. Selecting a Level for the --call\_assumptions Option

If Your Module	Use this Option
Has functions that are called from other modules and global variables that are modified in other modules	call_assumptions=0
Does not have functions that are called by other modules but has global variables that are modified in other modules	call_assumptions=1
Does not have functions that are called by other modules or global variables that are modified in other modules	call_assumptions=2
Has functions that are called from other modules but does not have global variables that are modified in other modules	call_assumptions=3

In certain circumstances, the compiler reverts to a different --call assumptions level from the one you specified, or it might disable program-level optimization altogether. Table 3-6 lists the combinations of -call assumptions levels and conditions that cause the compiler to revert to other --call assumptions levels.



Table 3-6. Special Considerations When Using the --call\_assumptions Option

If Your Option is	Under these Conditions	Then thecall_assumptions Level
Not specified	Theopt_level=3 optimization level was specified	Defaults tocall_assumptions=2
Not specified	The compiler sees calls to outside functions under the opt_level=3 optimization level	Reverts tocall_assumptions=0
Not specified	Main is not defined	Reverts tocall_assumptions=0
call_assumptions=1 orcall_assumptions=2	No function has main defined as an entry point and functions are not identified by the FUNC_EXT_CALLED pragma	Reverts tocall_assumptions=0
call_assumptions=1 orcall_assumptions=2	No interrupt function is defined	Reverts tocall_assumptions=0
call_assumptions=1 orcall_assumptions=2	Functions are identified by the FUNC_EXT_CALLED pragma	Remainscall_assumptions=1 orcall_assumptions=2
call_assumptions=3	Any condition	Remainscall_assumptions=3

In some situations when you use --program\_level\_compile and --opt\_level=3, you *must* use a --call\_assumptions option or the FUNC\_EXT\_CALLED pragma. See Section 3.3.2 for information about these situations.

## 3.3.2 Optimization Considerations When Mixing C/C++ and Assembly

If you have any assembly functions in your program, you need to exercise caution when using the -program\_level\_compile option. The compiler recognizes only the C/C++ source code and not any
assembly code that might be present. Because the compiler does not recognize the assembly code calls
and variable modifications to C/C++ functions, the --program\_level\_compile option optimizes out those
C/C++ functions. To keep these functions, place the FUNC\_EXT\_CALLED pragma (see Section 6.10.8)
before any declaration or reference to a function that you want to keep.

Another approach you can take when you use assembly functions in your program is to use the --call\_assumptions=n option with the --program\_level\_compile and --opt\_level=3 options (see Section 3.3.1).

In general, you achieve the best results through judicious use of the FUNC\_EXT\_CALLED pragma in combination with --program\_level\_compile --opt\_level=3 and --call\_assumptions=1 or -- call assumptions=2.

If any of the following situations apply to your application, use the suggested solution:

**Situation** — Your application consists of C/C++ source code that calls assembly functions. Those assembly functions do not call any C/C++ functions or modify any C/C++ variables.

**Solution** — Compile with --program\_level\_compile --opt\_level=3 --call\_assumptions=2 to tell the compiler that outside functions do not call C/C++ functions or modify C/C++ variables. See Section 3.3.1 for information about the --call\_assumptions=2 option.

If you compile with the --program\_level\_compile --opt\_level=3 options only, the compiler reverts from the default optimization level (--call\_assumptions=2) to --call\_assumptions=0. The compiler uses --call\_assumptions=0, because it presumes that the calls to the assembly language functions that have a definition in C/C++ may call other C/C++ functions or modify C/C++ variables.

**Situation** — Your application consists of C/C++ source code that calls assembly functions. The assembly language functions do not call C/C++ functions, but they modify C/C++ variables.

**Solution** — Try both of these solutions and choose the one that works best with your code:

- Compile with --program\_level\_compile --opt\_level=3 --call\_assumptions=1.
- Add the volatile keyword to those variables that may be modified by the assembly functions and compile with --program\_level\_compile --opt\_level=3 --call\_assumptions=2.

See Section 3.3.1 for information about the --call assumptions=*n* option.



**Situation** — Your application consists of C/C++ source code and assembly source code. The assembly functions are interrupt service routines that call C/C++ functions; the C/C++ functions that the assembly functions call are never called from C/C++. These C/C++ functions act like main: they function as entry points into C/C++.

**Solution** — Add the volatile keyword to the C/C++ variables that may be modified by the interrupts. Then, you can optimize your code in one of these ways:

- You achieve the best optimization by applying the FUNC\_EXT\_CALLED pragma to all of the
  entry-point functions called from the assembly language interrupts, and then compiling with -program\_level\_compile --opt\_level=3 --call\_assumptions=2. Be sure that you use the pragma
  with all of the entry-point functions. If you do not, the compiler might remove the entry-point
  functions that are not preceded by the FUNC\_EXT\_CALLED pragma.
- Compile with --program\_level\_compile --opt\_level=3 --call\_assumptions=3. Because you do not use the FUNC\_EXT\_CALLED pragma, you must use the --call\_assumptions=3 option, which is less aggressive than the --call\_assumptions=2 option, and your optimization may not be as effective.

Keep in mind that if you use --program\_level\_compile --opt\_level=3 without additional options, the compiler removes the C functions that the assembly functions call. Use the FUNC\_EXT\_CALLED pragma to keep these functions.

## 3.4 Link-Time Optimization (--opt\_level=4 Option)

Link-time optimization is an optimization mode that allows the compiler to have visibility of the entire program. The optimization occurs at link-time instead of compile-time like other optimization levels.

Link-time optimization is invoked by using the --opt\_level=4 option. This option must be used in both the compilation and linking steps. At compile time, the compiler embeds an intermediate representation of the file being compiled into the resulting object file. At link-time this representation is extracted from every object file which contains it, and is used to optimize the entire program.

Link-time optimization provides the same optimization opportunities as program level optimization (Section 3.3), with the following benefits:

- Each source file can be compiled separately. One issue with program-level compilation is that it requires all source files to be passed to the compiler at one time. This often requires significant modification of a customer's build process. With link-time optimization, all files can be compiled separately.
- References to C/C++ symbols from assembly are handled automatically. When doing program-level
  compilation, the compiler has no knowledge of whether a symbol is referenced externally. When
  performing link-time optimization during a final link, the linker can determine which symbols are
  referenced externally and prevent eliminating them during optimization.
- Third party object files can participate in optimization. If a third party vendor provides object files that were compiled with the --opt\_level=4 option, those files participate in optimization along with user-generated files. This includes object files supplied as part of the TI run-time support. Object files that were not compiled with -opt\_level=4 can still be used in a link that is performing link-time optimization. Those files that were not compiled with -opt\_level=4 do not participate in the optimization.
- Source files can be compiled with different option sets. With program-level compilation, all source files
  must be compiled with the same option set. With link-time optimization files can be compiled with
  different options. If the compiler determines that two options are incompatible, it issues an error.

#### 3.4.1 Option Handling

When performing link-time optimization, source files can be compiled with different options. When possible, the options that were used during compilation are used during link-time optimization. For options which apply at the program level, --auto\_inline for instance, the options used to compile the main function are used. If main is not included in link-time optimization, the option set used for the first object file specified on the command line is used. Some options, --opt\_for\_speed for instance, can affect a wide range of optimizations. For these options, the program-level behavior is derived from main, and the local optimizations are obtained from the original option set.



Some options are incompatible when performing link-time optimization. These are usually options which conflict on the command line as well, but can also be options that cannot be handled during link-time optimization.

#### 3.4.2 Incompatible Types

During a normal link, the linker does not check to make sure that each symbol was declared with the same type in different files. This is not necessary during a normal link. When performing link-time optimization, however, the linker must ensure that all symbols are declared with compatible types in different source files. If a symbol is found which has incompatible types, an error is issued. The rules for compatible types are derived from the C and C++ standards.

## 3.5 Special Considerations When Using Optimization

The compiler is designed to improve your ANSI/ISO-conforming C and C++ programs while maintaining their correctness. However, when you write code for optimization, you should note the special considerations discussed in the following sections to ensure that your program performs as you intend.

## 3.5.1 Use Caution With asm Statements in Optimized Code

You must be extremely careful when using asm (inline assembly) statements in optimized code. The compiler rearranges code segments, uses registers freely, and can completely remove variables or expressions. Although the compiler never optimizes out an asm statement (except when it is unreachable), the surrounding environment where the assembly code is inserted can differ significantly from the original C/C++ source code.

It is usually safe to use asm statements to manipulate hardware controls such as interrupt masks, but asm statements that attempt to interface with the C/C++ environment or access C/C++ variables can have unexpected results. After compilation, check the assembly output to make sure your asm statements are correct and maintain the integrity of the program.

#### 3.5.2 Use the Volatile Keyword for Necessary Memory Accesses

The compiler analyzes data flow to avoid memory accesses whenever possible. If you have code that depends on memory accesses exactly as written in the C/C++ code, you must use the volatile keyword to identify these accesses. The compiler does not optimize out any references to volatile variables.

In the following example, the loop waits for a location to be read as 0xFF:

```
unsigned int *ctrl;
while (*ctrl !=0xFF);
```

In this example, \*ctrl is a loop-invariant expression, so the loop is optimized down to a single memory read. To correct this, declare ctrl as:

```
volatile unsigned int *ctrl
```

#### 3.5.2.1 Use Caution When Accessing Aliased Variables

Aliasing occurs when a single object can be accessed in more than one way, such as when two pointers point to the same object or when a pointer points to a named object. Aliasing can disrupt optimization because any indirect reference can refer to another object. The compiler analyzes the code to determine where aliasing can and cannot occur, then optimizes as much as possible while still preserving the correctness of the program. The compiler behaves conservatively.

The compiler assumes that if the address of a local variable is passed to a function, the function might change the local by writing through the pointer, but that it will not make its address available for use elsewhere after returning. For example, the called function cannot assign the local's address to a global variable or return it. In cases where this assumption is invalid, use the -ma compiler option to force the compiler to assume worst-case aliasing. In worst-case aliasing, any indirect reference (that is, using a pointer) can refer to such a variable.



## 3.5.2.2 Use the --aliased\_variables Option to Indicate That the Following Technique Is Used

The compiler, when invoked with optimization, assumes that any variable whose address is passed as an argument to a function will not be subsequently modified by an alias set up in the called function. Examples include:

- · Returning the address from a function
- · Assigning the address to a global

If you use aliases like this in your code, you must use the --aliased\_variables option when you are optimizing your code. For example, if your code is similar to this, use the --aliased\_variables option:

## 3.5.2.3 On FPU Targets Only: Use restrict Keyword to Indicate That Pointers Are Not Aliased

On FPU targets, with --opt\_level=2, the optimizer performs dependency analysis. To help the compiler determine memory dependencies, you can qualify a pointer, reference, or array with the restrict keyword. The restrict keyword is a type qualifier that can be applied to pointers, references, and arrays. Its use represents a guarantee by the programmer that within the scope of the pointer declaration the object pointed to can be accessed only by that pointer. Any violation of this guarantee renders the program undefined. This practice helps the compiler optimize certain sections of code because aliasing information can be more easily determined. This can improve performance and code size, as more FPU operations can be parallelized.

As shown in Example 3-1 and Example 3-2 you can use the restrict keyword to tell the compiler that a and b never point to the same object in foo. Furthermore, the compiler is assured that the objects pointed to by a and b do not overlap in memory.

#### Example 3-1. Use of the restrict Type Qualifier With Pointers

```
void foo(float * restrict a, float * restrict b)
{
   /* foo's code here */
}
```

#### Example 3-2. Use of the restrict Type Qualifier With Pointers

```
void foo(float c[restrict], float d[restrict])
{
   /* foo's code here */
}
```



#### Automatic Inline Expansion (--auto\_inline Option) 3.6

When optimizing with the --opt level=3 option (aliased as -O3), the compiler automatically inlines small functions. A command-line option, --auto inline=size, specifies the size threshold. Any function larger than the size threshold is not automatically inlined. You can use the --auto inline=size option in the following wavs:

- If you set the size parameter to 0 (--auto inline=0), automatic inline expansion is disabled.
- If you set the size parameter to a nonzero integer, the compiler uses this size threshold as a limit to the size of the functions it automatically inlines. The compiler multiplies the number of times the function is inlined (plus 1 if the function is externally visible and its declaration cannot be safely removed) by the size of the function.

The compiler inlines the function only if the result is less than the size parameter. The compiler measures the size of a function in arbitrary units; however, the optimizer information file (created with the -gen\_opt\_level=1 or --gen\_opt\_level=2 option) reports the size of each function in the same units that the -auto inline option uses.

The --auto inline=size option controls only the inlining of functions that are not explicitly declared as inline. If you do not use the --auto inline=size option, the compiler inlines very small functions.

#### **Optimization Level 3 and Inlining**

NOTE: In order to turn on automatic inlining, you must use the --opt level=3 option. If you desire the --opt level=3 optimizations, but not automatic inlining, use --auto inline=0 with the -opt level=3 option.

#### **Inlining and Code Size**

**NOTE:** Expanding functions inline increases code size, especially inlining a function that is called in a number of places. Function inlining is optimal for functions that are called only from a small number of places and for small functions. To prevent increases in code size because of inlining, use the --auto inline=0 and --no inlining options. These options, used together, cause the compiler to inline intrinsics only.

#### 3.7 Using the Interlist Feature With Optimization

You control the output of the interlist feature when compiling with optimization (the --opt level=n or -On option) with the --optimizer interlist and --c src interlist options.

- The --optimizer interlist option interlists compiler comments with assembly source statements.
- The --c src interlist and --optimizer interlist options together interlist the compiler comments and the original C/C++ source with the assembly code.

When you use the --optimizer interlist option with optimization, the interlist feature does not run as a separate pass. Instead, the compiler inserts comments into the code, indicating how the compiler has rearranged and optimized the code. These comments appear in the assembly language file as comments starting with ;\*\*. The C/C++ source code is not interlisted, unless you use the --c src interlist option also.

The interlist feature can affect optimized code because it might prevent some optimization from crossing C/C++ statement boundaries. Optimization makes normal source interlisting impractical, because the compiler extensively rearranges your program. Therefore, when you use the --optimizer interlist option, the compiler writes reconstructed C/C++ statements.

Example 3-4 shows a function that has been compiled with optimization (--opt level=2) and the -optimizer\_interlist option. The assembly file contains compiler comments interlisted with assembly code.

#### Impact on Performance and Code Size

NOTE: The --c src interlist option can have a negative effect on performance and code size.



When you use the --c\_src\_interlist and --optimizer\_interlist options with optimization, the compiler inserts its comments and the interlist feature runs before the assembler, merging the original C/C++ source into the assembly file.

Example 3-5 shows the function from Example 3-4 compiled with the optimization (--opt\_level=2) and the --c\_src\_interlist and --optimizer\_interlist options. The assembly file contains compiler comments and C source interlisted with assembly code.

#### Example 3-3. C Code for Interlist Illustration

```
int copy (char *str, const char *s, int n)
{
   int i;
   for (i = 0; i < n; i ++)
        *str++ = *s++;
}</pre>
```

## Example 3-4. The Function From Example 3-3 Compiled With the -O2 and --optimizer\_interlist Options

```
; *********************
;* FNAME: _copy
                           FR SIZE: 0
; *
;* FUNCTION ENVIRONMENT
; *
;* FUNCTION PROPERTIES
; *
                   0 Parameter, 0 Auto, 0 SOE
;*** 6 ----- if ( n \le 0 ) goto g4;
     CMPB AL,#0 ; |6|
B L2,LEQ ; |6|
     ; branch occurs ; |6|
     ----- #pragma MUST_ITERATE(1, 4294967295, 1)
; * * *
     ----- L$1 = n-1;
: * * *
     ADDB AL,#-1
MOVZ AR6,AL
L1:
; * * *
     -----q3:
     -----*str++ = *s++;
;*** 7
;*** 7
     ----- if ( (--L$1) != (-1) ) goto g3;
     MOV AL,*XAR5++
MOV *XAR4++,AL
BANZ L1,AR6--
                        ; |7|
; |7|
     ; branch occurs ; |7|
     -----g4:
;***
L2:
     LRETR
     ; return occurs
```



# Example 3-5. The Function From Example 3-3 Compiled with the --opt\_level=2, --optimizer\_interlist, and --c\_src\_interlist Options

```
; 2 | int copy (char *str, const char *s, int n)
;*********************
;* FNAME: _copy
                           FR SIZE: 0
; *
;* FUNCTION ENVIRONMENT
; *
;* FUNCTION PROPERTIES
;* FUNCTION PROPERTIES
                    O Parameter, O Auto, O SOE
; **********************
_copy
;* AR4
     assigned to _str
     assigned to _s
;* AR5
;* AL
     assigned to _n
;* AL assigned to _n
;* AR5 assigned to _s
;* AR4 assigned to _str
;* AR6 assigned to L$1
;*** 6 ----- if ( n \le 0 ) goto g4;
;-----
; 4 | int i;
; 6 | for (i = 0; i < n; i++)
;------
    CMPB AL,#0 ; |6|
B L2,LEQ ; |6|
     ; branch occurs ; |6|
                       #pragma MUST_ITERATE(1, 4294967295, 1)
     _____
                       L$1 = n-1;
         AL,#-1
     ADDB
     MOVZ
            AR6,AL
     NOP
L1:
;*** 7 ----- *str++ = *s++;
;*** 7 ----- if ( (--L$1) != (-1) ) goto g3;
;-----
; 7 | *str++ = *s++;
     MOV AL,*XAR5++ ; |7|
MOV *XAR4++,AL ; |7|
BANZ L1,AR6--
     ; branch occurs ; |7|
; * * *
     -----g4:
; * * *
                       return;
L2:
     LRETR
     ; return occurs
```



#### 3.8 Debugging and Profiling Optimized Code

Generating symbolic debugging information no longer affects the ability to optimize code. The same executable code is generated regardless of whether generation of debug information is turned on or off. For this reason, debug information is now generated by default. You do not need to specify the -g option in order to debug your application.

If you do not specify the -g option and allow the default generation of debug information to be used, the default level of optimization is used unless you specify some other optimization level.

The --symdebug:dwarf option no longer disables optimization, because generation of debug information no longer impacts optimization.

If you specify the -g option explicitly but do not specify an optimization level, no optimization is performed. This is because while generating debug information does not affect the ability to optimize code, optimizing code does make it more difficult to debug code. At higher levels of optimization, the compiler's extensive rearrangement of code and the many-to-many allocation of variables to registers often make it difficult to correlate source code with object code for debugging purposes. It is recommended that you perform debugging using the lowest level of optimization possible.

If you specify an --opt\_level (aliased as -O) option, that optimization level is used no matter what type of debugging information you enabled.

The optimization level used if you do not specify the level on the command line is affected by whether or not the command line includes the -g option and the --opt level option as shown in the following table:

 Optimization
 no -g
 -g

 no --opt\_level
 --opt\_level=off
 --opt\_level=off

 --opt\_level
 --opt\_level=2
 --opt\_level=2

 --opt level=n
 optimized as specified
 optimized as specified

Table 3-7. Interaction Between Debugging and Optimization Options

Debug information increases the size of object files, but it does not affect the size of code or data on the target. If object file size is a concern and debugging is not needed, use --symdebug:none to disable the generation of debug information.

The --optimize\_with\_debug and --symdebug:skeletal options have been deprecated and no longer have any effect.

#### 3.8.1 Profiling Optimized Code

To profile optimized code, use optimization (--opt\_level=0 through --opt\_level=3).

If you have a power profiler, use the --profile:power option with the --opt\_level option. The --profile:power option produces instrument code for the power profiler.



#### 3.9 Controlling Code Size Versus Speed

The latest mechanism for controlling the goal of optimizations in the compiler is represented by the -- opt\_for\_speed=*num* option. The *num* denotes the level of optimization (0-5), which controls the type and degree of code size or code speed optimization:

--opt for speed=0

Enables optimizations geared towards improving the code size with a *high* risk of worsening or impacting performance.

· --opt\_for\_speed=1

Enables optimizations geared towards improving the code size with a *medium* risk of worsening or impacting performance.

--opt for speed=2

Enables optimizations geared towards improving the code size with a *low* risk of worsening or impacting performance.

--opt for speed=3

Enables optimizations geared towards improving the code performance/speed with a *low* risk of worsening or impacting code size.

--opt for speed=4

Enables optimizations geared towards improving the code performance/speed with a *medium* risk of worsening or impacting code size.

--opt for speed=5

Enables optimizations geared towards improving the code performance/speed with a *high* risk of worsening or impacting code size.

If you specify the --opt\_for\_speed option without a parameter, the default setting is --opt\_for\_speed=4. If you do not specify the --opt\_for\_speed option, the default setting is 2

The initial mechanism for controlling code space, the --opt\_for\_space option, has the following equivalences with the --opt\_for\_speed option:

opt_for_space	opt_for_speed
none	=4
=0	=3
=1	=2
=2	=1
=3	=0

A fast branch (BF) instruction is generated by default when the --opt\_for\_speed option is used. When --opt\_for\_speed is not used, the compiler generates BF instruction only when the condition code is one of NEQ, EQ, NTC and TC. The reason is that BF with these condition codes can be optimized to SBF. There is a code size penalty to use BF instruction when the condition code is NOT one of NEQ, EQ, NTC and TC.

The --no\_fast\_branch option does not control the BF instruction generated under the -opt\_for\_speed option. That is, --opt\_for\_speed overrides --no\_fast\_branch. The --no\_fast\_branch option affects only the BF instruction generated by default for one of NEQ, EQ, NTC and TC.



#### 3.10 Increasing Code-Size Optimizations (--opt\_for\_space Option)

The --opt\_for\_space option increases the level of code-size optimizations performed by the compiler. These optimizations are done at the expense of performance. The optimizations include procedural abstraction where common blocks of code are replaced with function calls. For example, prolog and epilog code, certain intrinsics, and other common code sequences, can be replaced with calls to functions that are defined in the run-time library. It is necessary to link with the supplied run-time library when using the --opt\_for\_space option. It is not necessary to use optimization to invoke the --opt\_for\_space option.

To illustrate how the --opt\_for\_space option works, the following describes how prolog and epilog code can be replaced. This code is changed to function calls depending on the number of SOE registers, the size of the frame, and whether a frame pointer is used. These functions are defined in each file with the -- opt for space option, as shown below:

```
_prolog_c28x_1
_prolog_c28x_2
_prolog_c28x_3
_epilog_c28x_1
_epilog_c28x_2
```

Example 3-6 provides an example of C code to be compiled with the --opt\_for\_space option. The resulting output is shown in Example 3-7.

## Example 3-6. C Code to Show Code-Size Optimizations

```
extern int x, y, *ptr;
extern int foo();
int main(int a, int b, int c)
{
    ptr[50] = foo();
    y = ptr[50] + x + y + a +b + c;
}
```



## Example 3-7. Example 3-6 Compiled With the --opt\_for\_space Option

```
XAR2
      set
      .global _prolog_c28x_1
      .global _prolog_c28x_2
      .global _prolog_c28x_3
      .global _epilog_c28x_1
      .global _epilog_c28x_2
       .sect ".text"
      .global _main
;********************
;* FNAME: _main
                                FR SIZE: 6
; *
;* FUNCTION ENVIRONMENT
; *
;* FUNCTION PROPERTIES
                     0 Parameter, 0 Auto, 6 SOE
; *
; **********************
_main:
      FFC XAR7,_prolog_c28x_1
MOVZ AR3,AR4
                                ; |5|
      MOVZ
             AR2,AH
                                ; |5|
             AR1,AL
      MOVZ
                                ; |5|
                                ; [6]
              #_foo
      LCR
      ; call occurs [#_foo] ; |6|
              DP,#_ptr
                                 ; |6|
      MOVL
              XAR6,@_ptr
      MOVB
              XAR0, #50
                                 ; |6|
      MOVW
              DP,#_y
              *+XAR6[AR0],AL
                                ; |6|
      MOV
      VOM
              AH,@_y
                                ; |7|
      MOVW
              DP,#_x
              AH,AL
                                 ; |7|
      ADD
              AH,@_x
      ADD
                                 ; |7|
      ADD
              AH,AR3
                                 ; |7|
      ADD
              AH,AR1
                                 ; |7|
                                 ; |7|
      ADD
              AH,AR2
              AL,#0
      MOVB
      MVVM
              DP,#_y
      MOV
               @_y,AH
                                 ; |7|
      FFC
               XAR7,_epilog_c28x_1
      LRETR
      ; return occurs
```

## 3.11 Compiler Support for Generating DMAC Instructions

The C28x compiler supports DMAC instructions, which perform multiply-accumulate operations on two adjacent signed integers at the same time, optionally shifting the products. A multiply-accumulate operation multiplies two numbers and adds that product to an accumulator. That is, it computes  $a = a + (b \times c)$ . There are three levels of DMAC support that require different levels of C-source modification:

- Generate DMAC instructions automatically from C code (see Section 3.11.1).
- Use assertions for data address alignment to enable DMAC instruction generation (see Section 3.11.2).
- Use the \_\_dmac intrinsic (see Section 3.11.3).



## 3.11.1 Automatic Generation of DMAC Instructions

The compiler automatically generates DMAC instructions if the compiler recognizes the C-language statements as a DMAC opportunity and the compiler can verify that the data addresses being operated upon are 32-bit aligned. This is the best scenario, because it requires no code modification aside from data alignment pragmas. The following is an example:

At optimization levels >= -O2, the compiler generates a RPT || DMAC instruction for the example code above if N is a known even constant.

DMAC instructions can also shift the product left by 1 or right by 1 to 6 before accumulation. For example:

```
for (i = 0; i < N; i++) 
 res += (long)src1[i] * src2[i] >> 1; // product shifted right by 1
```

#### 3.11.2 Assertions to Specify Data Address Alignment

In some cases the compiler may recognize a DMAC opportunity in C-language statements but not be able to verify that the data addresses passed to the computation are both 32-bit aligned. In this case, assertions placed in the code can enable the compiler to generate DMAC instructions. The following is an example:

At optimization levels >= -O2, the compiler generates a RPT || DMAC instruction for the example code above if N is a known even constant.

The \_nassert intrinsic generates no code and so is not a compiler intrinsic like those listed in Table 7-6. Instead, it tells the optimizer that the expression declared with the assert function is true. This can be used to give hints to the optimizer about what optimizations might be valid. In this example, \_nassert is used to assert that the data addresses represented by the src1 and src2 pointers are 32-bit aligned. You are responsible for ensuring that only 32-bit aligned data addresses are passed via these pointers. The code will result in a run-time failure if the asserted conditions are not true.

DMAC instructions can also shift the product left by 1 or right by 1 to 6 before accumulation. For example:

```
for (i = 0; i < N; i++)
    res += (long)src1[i] * src2[i] >> 1;    // product shifted right by 1
```



## 3.11.3 \_\_dmac Intrinsic

You can force the compiler to generate a DMAC instruction by using the \_\_dmac intrinsic. In this case, you are fully responsible for ensuring that the data addresses are 32-bit aligned.

```
void __dmac(long *src1, long *src2, long &accum1, long &accum2, int shift);
```

- Src1 and src2 must be 32-bit aligned addresses that point to int arrays.
- Accum1 and accum2 are pass-by-reference longs for the two temporary accumulations. These must be added together after the intrinsic to compute the total sum.
- Shift specifies how far to shift the products prior to each accumulation. Valid shift values are -1 for a
  left shift by 1, 0 for no shift, and 1-6 for a right shift by 1-6, respectively. Note that this argument is
  required, so you must pass 0 if you want no shift.

See Table 7-6 for details about the \_\_dmac intrinsic.

#### Example 1:

```
int src1[2N], src2[2N]; // src1 and src2 are int arrays of at least size 2N
                       // You must ensure that both start on 32-bit
                        // aligned boundaries.
{...}
int i;
long res = 0;
long temp = 0;
for (i=0; i < N; i++)
                                // N does not have to be a known constant
     __dmac(((long *)src1)[i], ((long *)src2)[i], res, temp, 0);
res += temp;
Example 2:
int *src1, *src2;
                    // src1 and src2 are pointers to int arrays of at
                     // least size 2N. User must ensure that both are
                     // 32-bit aligned addresses.
{...}
int i;
long res = 0;
long temp = 0;
long *ls1 = (long *)src1;
long *ls2 = (long *)src2;
for (i=0; i < N; i++) // N does not have to be a known constant
   __dmac(*ls1++, *ls2++, res, temp, 0);
```

In these examples, res holds the final sum of a multiply-accumulate operation on int arrays of length 2\*N, with two computations being performed at a time.

Additionally, an optimization level  $\geq$  -O2 must be used to generate efficient code. Moreover, if there is nothing else in the loop body as in these examples, the compiler generates a RPT || DMAC instruction, further improving performance.



#### 3.12 What Kind of Optimization Is Being Performed?

The TMS320C28x C/C++ compiler uses a variety of optimization techniques to improve the execution speed of your C/C++ programs and to reduce their size.

Following are some of the optimizations performed by the compiler:

Optimization	See
Cost-based register allocation	Section 3.12.1
Alias disambiguation	Section 3.12.1
Branch optimizations and control-flow simplification	Section 3.12.3
Data flow optimizations	Section 3.12.4
Expression simplification	Section 3.12.5
Inline expansion of functions	Section 3.12.6
Function Symbol Aliasing	Section 3.12.7
Induction variable optimizations and strength reduction	Section 3.12.8
Loop-invariant code motion	Section 3.12.9
Loop rotation	Section 3.12.10
Instruction scheduling	Section 3.12.11

C28x-Specific Optimization	See
Register variables	Section 3.12.12
Register tracking/targeting	Section 3.12.13
Tail merging	Section 3.12.14
Autoincrement addressing	Section 3.12.15
Removing comparisons to zero	Section 3.12.16
RPTB generation (for FPU targets only)	Section 3.12.17

### 3.12.1 Cost-Based Register Allocation

The compiler, when optimization is enabled, allocates registers to user variables and compiler temporary values according to their type, use, and frequency. Variables used within loops are weighted to have priority over others, and those variables whose uses do not overlap can be allocated to the same register.

Induction variable elimination and loop test replacement allow the compiler to recognize the loop as a simple counting loop and unroll or eliminate the loop. Strength reduction turns the array references into efficient pointer references with autoincrements.

#### 3.12.2 Alias Disambiguation

C and C++ programs generally use many pointer variables. Frequently, compilers are unable to determine whether or not two or more I values (lowercase L: symbols, pointer references, or structure references) refer to the same memory location. This aliasing of memory locations often prevents the compiler from retaining values in registers because it cannot be sure that the register and memory continue to hold the same values over time.

Alias disambiguation is a technique that determines when two pointer expressions cannot point to the same location, allowing the compiler to freely optimize such expressions.



#### 3.12.3 Branch Optimizations and Control-Flow Simplification

The compiler analyzes the branching behavior of a program and rearranges the linear sequences of operations (basic blocks) to remove branches or redundant conditions. Unreachable code is deleted, branches to branches are bypassed, and conditional branches over unconditional branches are simplified to a single conditional branch.

When the value of a condition is determined at compile time (through copy propagation or other data flow analysis), the compiler can delete a conditional branch. Switch case lists are analyzed in the same way as conditional branches and are sometimes eliminated entirely. Some simple control flow constructs are reduced to conditional instructions, totally eliminating the need for branches.

#### 3.12.4 Data Flow Optimizations

Collectively, the following data flow optimizations replace expressions with less costly ones, detect and remove unnecessary assignments, and avoid operations that produce values that are already computed. The compiler with optimization enabled performs these data flow optimizations both locally (within basic blocks) and globally (across entire functions).

- Copy propagation. Following an assignment to a variable, the compiler replaces references to the
  variable with its value. The value can be another variable, a constant, or a common subexpression.
  This can result in increased opportunities for constant folding, common subexpression elimination, or
  even total elimination of the variable.
- Common subexpression elimination. When two or more expressions produce the same value, the compiler computes the value once, saves it, and reuses it.
- Redundant assignment elimination. Often, copy propagation and common subexpression elimination
  optimizations result in unnecessary assignments to variables (variables with no subsequent reference
  before another assignment or before the end of the function). The compiler removes these dead
  assignments.

#### 3.12.5 Expression Simplification

For optimal evaluation, the compiler simplifies expressions into equivalent forms, requiring fewer instructions or registers. Operations between constants are folded into single constants. For example, a = (b + 4) - (c + 1) becomes a = b - c + 3.

#### 3.12.6 Inline Expansion of Functions

The compiler replaces calls to small functions with inline code, saving the overhead associated with a function call as well as providing increased opportunities to apply other optimizations.

### 3.12.7 Function Symbol Aliasing

The compiler recognizes a function whose definition contains only a call to another function. If the two functions have the same signature (same return value and same number of parameters with the same type, in the same order), then the compiler can make the calling function an alias of the called function.

For example, consider the following:

```
int bbb(int arg1, char *arg2);
int aaa(int n, char *str)
{
   return bbb(n, str);
}
```

For this example, the compiler makes aaa an alias of bbb, so that at link time all calls to function aaa should be redirected to bbb. If the linker can successfully redirect all references to aaa, then the body of function aaa can be removed and the symbol aaa is defined at the same address as bbb.



#### 3.12.8 Induction Variables and Strength Reduction

Induction variables are variables whose value within a loop is directly related to the number of executions of the loop. Array indices and control variables for loops are often induction variables.

Strength reduction is the process of replacing inefficient expressions involving induction variables with more efficient expressions. For example, code that indexes into a sequence of array elements is replaced with code that increments a pointer through the array.

Induction variable analysis and strength reduction together often remove all references to your loop-control variable, allowing its elimination.

#### 3.12.9 Loop-Invariant Code Motion

This optimization identifies expressions within loops that always compute to the same value. The computation is moved in front of the loop, and each occurrence of the expression in the loop is replaced by a reference to the precomputed value.

## 3.12.10 Loop Rotation

The compiler evaluates loop conditionals at the bottom of loops, saving an extra branch out of the loop. In many cases, the initial entry conditional check and the branch are optimized out.

### 3.12.11 Instruction Scheduling

The compiler performs instruction scheduling, which is the rearranging of machine instructions in such a way that improves performance while maintaining the semantics of the original order. Instruction scheduling is used to improve instruction parallelism and hide latencies. It can also be used to reduce code size.

## 3.12.12 Register Variables

The compiler helps maximize the use of registers for storing local variables, parameters, and temporary values. Accessing variables stored in registers is more efficient than accessing variables in memory. Register variables are particularly effective for pointers.

#### 3.12.13 Register Tracking/Targeting

The compiler tracks the contents of registers to avoid reloading values if they are used again soon. Variables, constants, and structure references such as (a.b) are tracked through straight-line code. Register targeting also computes expressions directly into specific registers when required, as in the case of assigning to register variables or returning values from functions.

#### 3.12.14 Tail Merging

If you are optimizing for code size, tail merging can be very effective for some functions. Tail merging finds basic blocks that end in an identical sequence of instructions and have a common destination. If such a set of blocks is found, the sequence of identical instructions is made into its own block. These instructions are then removed from the set of blocks and replaced with branches to the newly created block. Thus, there is only one copy of the sequence of instructions, rather than one for each block in the set.

## 3.12.15 Autoincrement Addressing

For pointer expressions of the form \*p++, the compiler uses efficient C28x autoincrement addressing modes. In many cases, where code steps through an array in a loop such as below, the loop optimizations convert the array references to indirect references through autoincremented register variable pointers.

for (I = 0; I < N; ++I) a(I)...



# 3.12.16 Removing Comparisons to Zero

Because most of the 32-bit instructions and some of the 16-bit instructions can modify the status register when the result of their operation is 0, explicit comparisons to 0 may be unnecessary. The C28x C/C++ compiler removes comparisons to 0 if a previous instruction can be modified to set the status register appropriately.

# 3.12.17 RPTB Generation (for FPU Targets Only)

When the target has hardware floating-point support, some loops can be converted to hardware loops called repeat blocks (RPTB). Normally, a loop looks like this:

```
Label:
...loop body...
SUB loop_count
CMP
B Label
```

The same loop, when converted to a RPTB loop, looks like this:

```
RPTB end_label, loop_count
    ...loop body...
end_label:
```

A repeat block loop is loaded into a hardware buffer and executed for the specified number of iterations. This kind of loop has minimal or zero branching overhead, and can improve performance. The loop count is stored in a special register RB (repeat block register), and the hardware seamlessly decrements the count without any explicit subtractions. Thus, there is no overhead due to the subtract, the compare, and the branch. The only overhead is due to the RPTB instruction that executes once before the loop. The RPTB instruction takes one cycle if the number of iterations is a constant, and 4 cycles otherwise. This overhead is incurred once per loop.

There are limitations on the minimum and maximum loop size for a loop to qualify for becoming a repeat block, due to the presence of the buffer. Also, the loop cannot contain any inner loops or function calls.



# Linking C/C++ Code

The C/C++ compiler and assembly language tools provide two methods for linking your programs:

- You can compile individual modules and link them together. This method is especially useful when you have multiple source files.
- · You can compile and link in one step. This method is useful when you have a single source module.

This chapter describes how to invoke the linker with each method. It also discusses special requirements of linking C/C++ code, including the run-time-support libraries, specifying the type of initialization, and allocating the program into memory. For a complete description of the linker, see the *TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide*.

Topic Page

4.1	Invoking the Linker Through the Compiler (-z Option)	<b>75</b>
4.2	Linker Code Optimizations	<b>77</b>
4.3	Controlling the Linking Process	<b>77</b>
4.4	Linking C28x and C2XLP Code	82



# 4.1 Invoking the Linker Through the Compiler (-z Option)

This section explains how to invoke the linker after you have compiled and assembled your programs: as a separate step or as part of the compile step.

### 4.1.1 Invoking the Linker Separately

This is the general syntax for linking C/C++ programs as a separate step:

cl2000 -v28 --run\_linker {--rom\_model | --ram\_model} filenames

[options] [--output\_file= name.out] --library= library [lnk.cmd]

cl2000 -v28 --run linker The command that invokes the linker. The -v28 is the alias for --

silicon version=28.

--rom\_model | --ram\_model Options that tell the linker to use special conventions defined by the

C/C++ environment. When you use cl2000 -v28 --run\_linker, you must use **--rom\_model** or **--ram\_model**. The --rom\_model option uses automatic variable initialization at run time; the --ram\_model

option uses variable initialization at load time.

filenames Names of object files, linker command files, or archive libraries. The

default extension for all input files is .obj; any other extension must be explicitly specified. The linker can determine whether the input file is an object or ASCII file that contains linker commands. The default output filename is a.out, unless you use the --output\_file option to

name the output file.

options Options affect how the linker handles your object files. Linker options

can only appear after the **--run\_linker** option on the command line, but otherwise may be in any order. (Options are discussed in detail in

the TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide.)

**--output\_file=** *name.out* Names the output file.

--library= library Identifies the appropriate archive library containing C/C++ run-time-

support and floating-point math functions, or linker command files. If you are linking C/C++ code, you must use a run-time-support library. You can use the libraries included with the compiler, or you can create your own run-time-support library. If you have specified a run-time-support library in a linker command file, you do not need this

parameter. The --library option's short form is -l.

*Ink.cmd* Contains options, filenames, directives, or commands for the linker.

When you specify a library as linker input, the linker includes and links only those library members that resolve undefined references. The linker uses a default allocation algorithm to allocate your program into memory. You can use the MEMORY and SECTIONS directives in the linker command file to customize the allocation process. For information, see the *TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide*.

You can link a C/C++ program consisting of object files prog1.obj, prog2.obj, and prog3.obj, with an executable object file filename of prog.out with the command:

cl2000 --silicon\_version=28 --run\_linker --rom\_model prog1 prog2 prog3
 --output\_file=prog.out --library=rts28.lib



# 4.1.2 Invoking the Linker as Part of the Compile Step

This is the general syntax for linking C/C++ programs as part of the compile step:

```
cl2000 -v28 filenames [options] --run_linker {--rom_model | --ram_model} filenames [options] [--output_file= name.ouf] --library= library [lnk.cmd]
```

The **--run\_linker** option divides the command line into the compiler options (the options before --run\_linker) and the linker options (the options following --run\_linker). The --run\_linker option must follow all source files and compiler options on the command line.

All arguments that follow --run\_linker on the command line are passed to the linker. These arguments can be linker command files, additional object files, linker options, or libraries. These arguments are the same as described in Section 4.1.1.

All arguments that precede --run\_linker on the command line are compiler arguments. These arguments can be C/C++ source files, assembly files, or compiler options. These arguments are described in Section 2.2.

You can compile and link a C/C++ program consisting of object files prog1.c, prog2.c, and prog3.c, with an executable object file filename of prog.out with the command:

#### NOTE: Order of Processing Arguments in the Linker

The order in which the linker processes arguments is important. The compiler passes arguments to the linker in the following order:

- 1. Object filenames from the command line
- 2. Arguments following the --run linker option on the command line
- Arguments following the --run\_linker option from the C2000\_C\_OPTION environment variable

#### 4.1.3 Disabling the Linker (--compile only Compiler Option)

You can override the --run\_linker option by using the --compile\_only compiler option. The -run\_linker option's short form is -z and the --compile\_only option's short form is -c.

The --compile\_only option is especially helpful if you specify the --run\_linker option in the C2000\_C\_OPTION environment variable and want to selectively disable linking with the --compile\_only option on the command line.



# 4.2 Linker Code Optimizations

# 4.2.1 Generating Function Subsections (--gen\_func\_subsections Compiler Option)

The compiler translates a source module into an object file. It may place all of the functions into a single code section, or it may create multiple code sections. The benefit of multiple code sections is that the linker may omit unused functions from the executable.

When the linker collects code to be placed into an executable file, it cannot split code sections. If the compiler did not use multiple code sections, and any function in a particular module needs to be linked into the executable, then all functions in that module are linked in, even if they are not used.

An example is a library .obj file that contains a signed divide routine and an unsigned divide routine. If the application requires only signed division, then only the signed divide routine is required for linking. If only one code section was used, both the signed and unsigned routines are linked in since they exist in the same .obj file.

The --gen\_func\_subsections compiler option remedies this problem by placing each function in a file in its own subsection. Thus, only the functions that are referenced in the application are linked into the final executable. This can result in an overall code size reduction.

# 4.3 Controlling the Linking Process

Regardless of the method you choose for invoking the linker, special requirements apply when linking C/C++ programs. You must:

- Include the compiler's run-time-support library
- Specify the type of boot-time initialization
- Determine how you want to allocate your program into memory

This section discusses how these factors are controlled and provides an example of the standard default linker command file. For more information about how to operate the linker, see the linker description in the TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide

#### 4.3.1 Including the Run-Time-Support Library

You must link all C/C++ programs with a run-time-support library. The library contains standard C/C++ functions as well as functions used by the compiler to manage the C/C++ environment. The following sections describe two methods for including the run-time-support library.

# 4.3.1.1 Automatic Run-Time-Support Library Selection

The linker assumes you are using the C and C++ conventions if either the --rom\_model or --ram\_model linker option is specified, or if the link step includes the compile step for a C or C++ file, or if you link against the index library libc.a.

If the linker assumes you are using the C and C++ conventions and the entry point for the program (normally c\_int00) is not resolved by any specified object file or library, the linker attempts to automatically include the most compatible run-time-support library for your program. The run-time-support library chosen by the compiler is searched after any other libraries specified with the --library option on the command line or in the linker command file. If libc.a is explicitly used, the appropriate run-time-support library is included in the search order where libc.a is specified.

You can disable the automatic selection of a run-time-support library by using the --disable\_auto\_rts option.

If the --issue\_remarks option is specified before the --run\_linker option during the linker, a remark is generated indicating which run-time support library was linked in. If a different run-time-support library is desired than the one reported by --issue\_remarks, you must specify the name of the desired run-time-support library using the --library option and in your linker command files when necessary.



#### Example 4-1. Using the --issue remarks Option

```
cl2000 -v28 --issue_remarks main.c --run_linker --rom_model

<Linking>
remark: linking in "libc.a"
remark: linking in "rts2800-eh.lib" in place of "libc.a"
```

#### 4.3.1.2 Manual Run-Time-Support Library Selection

You can bypass automatic library selection by explicitly specifying the desired run-time-support library to use. Use the --library linker option to specify the name of the library. The linker will search the path specified by the --search\_path option and then the C2000\_C\_DIR environment variable for the named library. You can use the --library linker option on the command line or in a command file.

cl2000 -v28 --run linker {--rom model | --ram model | filenames --library= libraryname

#### 4.3.1.3 Library Order for Searching for Symbols

Generally, you should specify the run-time-support library as the last name on the command line because the linker searches libraries for unresolved references in the order that files are specified on the command line. If any object files follow a library, references from those object files to that library are not resolved. You can use the --reread\_libs option to force the linker to reread all libraries until references are resolved. Whenever you specify a library as linker input, the linker includes and links only those library members that resolve undefined references.

By default, if a library introduces an unresolved reference and multiple libraries have a definition for it, then the definition from the same library that introduced the unresolved reference is used. Use the --priority option if you want the linker to use the definition from the first library on the command line that contains the definition.

#### 4.3.2 Run-Time Initialization

You must link all C/C++ programs with code to initialize and execute the program called a bootstrap routine. The bootstrap routine is responsible for the following tasks:

- 1. Set up status and configuration registers
- 2. Set up the stack and secondary system stack
- 3. Process the .cinit run-time initialization table to autoinitialize global variables (when using the -- rom\_model option)
- 4. Call all global object constructors (.pinit)
- 5. Call the function main
- 6. Call exit when main returns

A sample bootstrap routine is \_c\_int00, provided in boot.obj in rts2800.lib. The entry point is usually set to the starting address of the bootstrap routine.

#### NOTE: The \_c\_int00 Symbol

If you use the --ram\_model or --rom\_model link option, \_c\_int00 is automatically defined as the entry point for the program.



# 4.3.3 Initialization by the Interrupt Vector

If your C/C++ program begins running at RESET, you must set up the RESET vector to branch to a suitable bootstrap routine, such as \_c\_int00. You must also make sure the interrupt vectors are included in the project, typically by using the --undef\_sym linker option to make a symbol at the start of the interrupt vector a root linker object.

A sample interrupt vector is provided in vectors.obj in rts2800.lib. For C28x, the first few lines of the vector

```
.def _Reset
.ref _c_int00
_Reset: .vec _c_int00, USE_RETA
```

# 4.3.4 Global Object Constructors

Global C++ variables that have constructors and destructors require their constructors to be called during program initialization and their destructors to be called during program termination. The C++ compiler produces a table of constructors to be called at startup.

Constructors for global objects from a single module are invoked in the order declared in the source code, but the relative order of objects from different object files is unspecified.

Global constructors are called after initialization of other global variables and before the function main is called. Global destructors are invoked during the exit run-time support function, similar to functions registered through atexit.

Section 7.8.2.4 discusses the format of the global constructor table.

# 4.3.5 Specifying the Type of Global Variable Initialization

The C/C++ compiler produces data tables for initializing global variables. Section 7.8.2.1 discusses the format of these initialization tables. The initialization tables are used in one of the following ways:

- Global variables are initialized at run time. Use the --rom model linker option (see Section 7.8.2.2).
- Global variables are initialized at load time. Use the --ram model linker option (see Section 7.8.2.3).

When you link a C/C++ program, you must use either the --rom\_model or --ram\_model option. These options tell the linker to select initialization at run time or load time.

When you compile and link programs, the --rom\_model option is the default. If used, the --rom\_model option must follow the --run\_linker option (see Section 4.1). The following list outlines the linking conventions used with --rom model or --ram model:

- The symbol \_c\_int00 is defined as the program entry point; it identifies the beginning of the C/C++ boot routine in boot.obj. When you use --rom\_model or --ram\_model, \_c\_int00 is automatically referenced, ensuring that boot.obj is automatically linked in from the run-time-support library.
- The initialization output section is padded with a termination record so that the loader (load-time initialization) or the boot routine (run-time initialization) knows when to stop reading the initialization tables.
- When initializing at load time (the --ram model option), the following occur:
  - The linker sets the initialization table symbol to -1. This indicates that the initialization tables are not in memory, so no initialization is performed at run time.
  - The STYP\_COPY flag is set in the initialization table section header. STYP\_COPY is the special
    attribute that tells the loader to perform autoinitialization directly and not to load the initialization
    table into memory. The linker does not allocate space in memory for the initialization table.
- When autoinitializing at run time (--rom\_model option), the linker defines the initialization table symbol as the starting address of the initialization table. The boot routine uses this symbol as the starting point for autoinitialization.



# 4.3.6 Specifying Where to Allocate Sections in Memory

The compiler produces relocatable blocks of code and data. These blocks, called *sections*, are allocated in memory in a variety of ways to conform to a variety of system configurations. See Section 7.1.1 for a complete description of how the compiler uses these sections.

The compiler creates two basic kinds of sections: initialized and uninitialized. Table 4-1 summarizes the initialized sections. Table 4-2 summarizes the uninitialized sections.

Table 4-1. Initialized Sections Created by the Compiler

Name	Contents	Restrictions
.cinit	Tables for explicitly initialized global and static variables.	Program
.const	Global and static const variables that are explicitly initialized and contain string literals. Near string literals are placed in the .const:.string subsection to enable greater link-time placement control.	Low 64K
.econst	Far constant variables. Far string literals are placed in the .econst:.string subsection to enable greater link-time placement control.	Anywhere in data
.pinit	Table of constructors to be called at startup.	Program
.switch	Jump tables for large switch statements.	Program with -mt option Data without -mt option
.text	Executable code and constants.	Program

Table 4-2. Uninitialized Sections Created by the Compiler

Name	Contents	Restrictions
.bss	Global and static variables	Low 64K
.ebss	Far global/static variables	Anywhere in data
.stack	Stack	Low 64K
.sysmem	Memory for malloc functions (heap)	Low 64K
.esysmem	Memory for far_malloc functions	Anywhere in data

The C/C++ run-time environment supports placing the system heap (.esysmem section) in far memory by providing far malloc routines.

When you link your program, you must specify where to allocate the sections in memory. In general, initialized sections are linked into ROM or RAM; uninitialized sections are linked into RAM. With the exception of .text, the initialized and uninitialized sections created by the compiler cannot be allocated into internal program memory.

The linker provides MEMORY and SECTIONS directives for allocating sections. For more information about allocating sections into memory, see the *TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide*.



# 4.3.7 A Sample Linker Command File

Example 4-2 shows a typical linker command file that links a C program. The command file in this example is named lnk.cmd. It links three object files (a.obj, b.obj, and c.obj) and creates a program (prog.out) and a map file (prog.map).

To link the program, enter the following:

```
cl2000 -v28 --run_linker lnk.cmd
```

The MEMORY and possibly the SECTIONS directives, might require modification to work with your system. See the *TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide* for more information on these directives.

#### Example 4-2. Linker Command File

```
a.obj b.obj c.obj
                        /* Input filenames */
--output_file=prog.out
                        /* Options */
--map_file=prog.map
--library=rts2800.lib
                       /* Get run-time support */
                        /* MEMORY directive */
MEMORY
{
  RAM: origin = 100h length = 0100h
  ROM: origin = 01000h length = 0100h
}
SECTIONS
                         /* SECTIONS directive */
{
  .text: > ROM
  .data: > ROM
   .bss:
           > RAM
   .pinit: > ROM
   .cinit: > ROM
  .switch: > ROM
  .const: > RAM
  .stack: > RAM
  .sysmem: > RAM
```



# 4.4 Linking C28x and C2XLP Code

The error in the C28x linker to prevent linking code with a 64-word page size (C28x) and a 128-word page size (C2XLP) has been changed to a warning. It is possible to call a C2XLP assembly function from C28x C/C++ code. One possible way is to replace the call to the C2XLP function with a veneer function that correctly sets up the arguments and call stack for the C2XLP code. For example, to make a call to a C2XLP function expecting five integer arguments, change the C28x code to:

```
extern void foo_veneer(int, int, int, int, int);
void bar()
{
    /* replace the C2XLP call with a veneer call */
    /* foo(1, 2, 3, 4, 5); */
    foo_veneer(1, 2, 3, 4, 5);
}
```

Example 4-3 illustrates how the veneer function might look:

# Example 4-3. Veneer Function for Linking C2xx and C2XLP Code

```
.sect ".text"
        .global _foo_veneer
        .global _foo
_foo_veneer:
        ;save registers
        PUSH AR1:AR0
        PUSH AR3:AR2
        PUSH AR5:AR4
        ;set the size of the C2XLP frame (including args size)
        ADDB SP, #10
        ; push args onto the C2XLP frame
        MOV *-SP[10], AL ; copy arg 1
        MOV *-SP[9], AH ; copy arg 2
        MOV *-SP[8],AR4 ;copy arg 3
        MOV *-SP[7],AR5 ; copy arg 4
        MOV AL, *-SP[19]
        MOV *-SP[6],AL ;copy arg 5
        ; save the return address
        MOV *-SP[5],#_label
        ;set AR1,ARP
        MOV AL, SP
        SUBB AL, #3
        MOV AR1,AL
        NOP *ARP1
        ; jump to C2XLP function
        LB _foo
_label:
        restore register;
        POP AR5:AR4
        POP AR3:AR2
        POP AR1:AR0LRETR
```

Since the veneer function frame will act as the frame for all C2XLP calls, it is necessary to add sufficient size to the frame for any subsequent calls made by the first C2XLP function.

Global variables will be placed in the .bss sections for C28x C/C++ code. A C2XLP .bss section is not guaranteed to begin on a 128-word boundary when linked with C28x code. To avoid this problem, define a new section, change the C2XLP globals to the new section, and update the linker command file to ensure this new section begins at a 128-word boundary.



# Post-Link Optimizer

The TMS320C28x post-link optimizer removes or modifies assembly language instructions to generate better code. The post-link optimizer examines the final addresses of symbols determined by linking and uses this information to make code changes.

Post-link optimization requires the -plink compiler option. The -plink compiler option invokes added passes of the tools that include running the absolute lister and rerunning the assembler and linker. You must use the -plink option following the --run\_linker option.

Topic Page

5.1	The Post-Link Optimizer's Role in the Software Development Flow	84
5.2	Removing Redundant DP Loads	85
5.3	Tracking DP Values Across Branches	<b>85</b>
5.4	Tracking DP Values Across Function Calls	86
5.5	Other Post-Link Optimizations	86
5.6	Controlling Post-Link Optimizations	<b>87</b>
5.7	Restrictions on Using the Post-Link Optimizer	88
5.8	Naming the Outfile (output_file Option)	88



#### 5.1 The Post-Link Optimizer's Role in the Software Development Flow

The post-link optimizer is not part of the normal development flow. Figure 5-1 shows the flow including the post-link optimizer; this flow occurs only when you use the compiler and the -plink option.

C/C++ source files Macro C/C++ source compiler files C/C++ name Assembler **Archiver** demangling source utility Macro **Assembler** library Library-build Object process **Archiver** files Run-time-Assembler Library of support source object library Linker files **Post-link** Absolute lister optimizer Executable object file Debugging tools Hex-conversion utility **EPROM Cross-reference** TMS320C28x programmer lister

Figure 5-1. The Post-Link Optimizer in the TMS320C28x Software Development Flow

As the flow shows, the absolute lister (abs2000) is also part of the post-link optimizing process. The absolute lister outputs the absolute addresses of all globally defined symbols and coff sections. The post-link optimizer takes .abs files as input and uses these addresses to perform optimizations. The output is a .pl file, which is an optimized version of the original .asm file. The flow then reruns the assembler and linker to produce a final output file.

The described flow is supported only when you use the compiler (cl2000 -v28) and the -plink option. If you use a batch file to invoke each tool individually, you must adapt the flow to use the compiler instead. In addition, you must use the --output\_file option to specify an output file name when using the -plink option. See Section 5.8 for more details.



#### For example, replace these lines:

```
cl2000 -v28 file1.asm file1.obj
cl2000 -v28 file2.asm file2.obj
cl2000 -v28 --run_linker file1.obj file2.obj lnk.cmd --output_file=prog.out
with this line:
cl2000 -v28 file1.asm file2.asm --run_linker lnk.cmd --output_file=prog.out -plink
```

The advice only mode is the only post-link optimization support provided for FPU and VCU targets.

# 5.2 Removing Redundant DP Loads

Post-link optimization reduces the difficulty of managing the Data Page (DP) register by removing redundant DP loads. It does this by tracking the current value of the DP and determining whether the address in a MOV DP,#address instruction is located on the same 64-word page to which the DP is currently pointing. If the address can be accessed using the current DP value, the instruction is redundant and can be removed. For example, consider the following code segment:

```
MOVZ DP, #name1
ADD @name1, #10
MOVZ DP, #name2
ADD @name2, #10
```

If name1 and name2 are linked to the same page, the post-link optimizer determines that loading DP with the address of name2 is not necessary, and it comments out the redundant load.

```
MOVZ DP, #name1
ADD @name1, #10
; <<REDUNDANT>> MOVZ DP, #name2
ADD @name2, #10
```

This optimization can be used on C files as well. Even though the compiler manages the DP for all global variable references that are defined within a module, it conservatively emits DP loads for any references to global variables that are externally defined. Using the post-link optimizer can help reduce the number of DP loads in these instances.

Additionally, the --map\_file linker option can be used to generate a listing of symbols sorted by data page to assist with data layout and DP load reduction. For more information, refer to the Linker Description chapter in the *TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide*.

#### 5.3 Tracking DP Values Across Branches

In order to track DP values across branches, the post-link optimizer requires that there are no indirect calls or branches, and all possible branch destinations have labels. If an indirect branch or call is encountered, the post-link optimizer will only track the DP value within a basic block. Branch destinations without labels may cause incorrect output from the post-link optimizer.

If the post-link optimizer encounters indirect calls or branches, it issues the following warning:

```
NO POST LINK OPTIMIZATION DONE ACROSS BRANCHES Branch/Call must have labeled destination
```

This warning is issued so that if the file is a hand written assembly file, you can try to change the indirect call/branch to a direct one to obtain the best optimization from the post linker.



# 5.4 Tracking DP Values Across Function Calls

The post-link optimizer optimizes DP loads after a call to a function if the function is defined in the same file scope. For example, consider the following post-link optimized code:

```
LCR
          #_foo
   MOVB
          AL, #0
; << REDUNDANT>> MOVZ
                      DP,#_g2
   MOV
        @_g2, #20
   LRETR
   .global _foo
_foo:
   MOVZ
         DP, #g1
   MOV
           @_g1, #10
   LRETR
```

The MOVZ DP after the function call to \_foo is removed by the post-link optimizer as the variables \_g1 and \_g2 are in the same page and the function \_foo already set the DP.

In order for the post-link optimizer to optimize across the function calls, the functions should have only one return statement. If you are running the post-link optimizer on hand written assembly that has more that one return statement per function, the post-link optimization output can be incorrect. You can turn off the optimization across function calls by specifying the -nf option after the -plink option.

# 5.5 Other Post-Link Optimizations

An externally defined symbol used as a constant operand forces the assembler to choose a 16-bit encoding to hold the immediate value. Since the post-link optimizer has access to the externally defined symbol value, it replaces a 16-bit encoding with an 8-bit encoding when possible. For example:

```
.ref ext_sym ; externally defined to be 4
:
:
ADD AL, #ext_sym ; assembly will encode ext_sym with 16 bits
```

Since ext\_sym is externally defined, the assembler chooses a 16-bit encoding for ext\_sym. The post-link optimizer changes the encoding of ext\_sym to an 8-bit encoding:

```
.ref ext_sym
:
:
:
; << ADD=>ADDB>> ADD AL,#ext_sym
ADDB AL, #ext_sym
```

Similarly the post-link optimizer attempts to reduce the following 2-word instructions to 1-word instructions:

2-Word Instructions	1-Word Instructions	
ADD ACC, #imm	ADDB ACC, #imm	
ADD AL, #imm	ADDB AL, #imm	
AND AL, #imm	ANDB AL, #imm	
CMP AL, #imm	CMPB AL, #imm	
MOVL XARn, #imm	MOVB XARn, #imm	
OR AL, #imm	ORB AL, #imm	
SUB ACC, #imm	SUBB ACC, #imm	
SUB AL, #imm	SUBB AL, #imm	
XOR AL, #imm	XORB AL, #imm	



# 5.6 Controlling Post-Link Optimizations

There are three ways to control post-link optimizations: by excluding files, by inserting specific comments within an assembly file, and by manually editing the post-link optimization file.

## 5.6.1 Excluding Files (-ex Option)

Specific files can be excluded from the post-link optimization process by using the -ex option. The files to be excluded must follow the -ex option and include file extensions. The -ex option must be used after the -plink option and no other option may follow. For example:

```
cl2000 -v28 file1.asm file2.asm file3.asm --keep_asm --run_linker lnk.cmd -plink -o=prog.out -ex=file3.asm
```

The file3.asm will be excluded from the post-link optimization process.

# 5.6.2 Controlling Post-Link Optimization Within an Assembly File

Within an assembly file, post-link optimizations can be disabled or enabled by using two specially formatted comment statements:

```
;//NOPLINK//
;//PLINK//
```

Assembly statements following the NOPLINK comment are not optimized. Post-link optimization can be reenabled using the //PLINK// comment.

The PLINK and NOPLINK comment format is not case sensitive. There can be white space between the semicolon and PLINK delimiter. The PLINK and NOPLINK comments must appear on a separate line, alone, and must begin in column 1. For example:

```
//PLINK//
```

# 5.6.3 Retaining Post-Link Optimizer Output (--keep\_asm Option)

The --keep\_asm option allows you to retain any post-link files (.pl) and .absolute listing files (.abs) generated by the -plink option. Using the --keep\_asm option lets you view any changes the post-link optimizer makes.

The .pl files contain the commented out statement shown with <<REDUNDANT>> or any improvements to instructions, such as <<ADD=>ADDB>>. The .pl files are assembled and linked again to exclude the commented out lines.

#### 5.6.4 Disable Optimization Across Function Calls (-nf Option )

The -nf option disables the post-link optimization across function calls. The post-link optimizer recognizes the function end by the return statement and assumes there is only one return statement per function. In some hand written assembly code, it is possible to have more than one return statement per function. In such cases, the output of the post-link optimization can be incorrect. You can turn off the optimization across function calls by using the- nf option. This option affects all the files.

# 5.6.5 Annotating Assembly with Advice (--plink\_advice\_only option)

The --plink\_advice\_only option annotates assembly code with comments if changes cannot be made safely due to pipeline considerations, such as when float support or VCU support is enabled.

If you use this option, note that the post-link files (.pl), which contain the generated advice, are retained only if you also use the --keep\_asm option.



# 5.7 Restrictions on Using the Post-Link Optimizer

The following restrictions affect post-link optimization:

- The advice\_only mode is the only post-link optimization support provided for FPU and VCU targets.
- Branches or calls to unlabeled destinations invalidate DP load optimizations. All branch destinations must have labels.
- If the position of the data sections depends on the size of the code sections, the data page layout information used to decide which DP load instructions to remove may no longer be valid.

For example, consider the following link command file:

```
SECTIONS
{
    .text > MEM,
    .mydata > MEM,}
```

A change in the size of the .text section after optimizing causes the .mydata section to shift. Ensuring that all output data sections are aligned on a 64-word boundary removes this shifting issue. For example, consider the following link command file:

```
SECTIONS
{
    .text > MEM,
    .mydata align = 64 > MEM,}
```

# 5.8 Naming the Outfile (--output\_file Option)

When using the -plink option, you must include the --output\_file option. If the output filename is specified in a linker command file, the compiler does not have access to the filename to pass it along to other phases of post-link optimization, and the process will fail. For example:

```
cl2000 -v28 file1.c file2.asm --run_linker --output_file=prog.out lnk.cmd -plink
```

Because the post-link optimization flow uses the absolute lister, abs2000, it must be included in your path.



# TMS320C28x C/C++ Language Implementation

The C/C++ compiler supports the C/C++ language standard that was developed by a committee of the American National Standards Institute (ANSI) and subsequently adopted by the International Standards Organization (IS0).

The C++ language supported by the C28x is defined by the ANSI/ISO/IEC 14882:2003 standard with certain exceptions.

Topic Page

6.1	Characteristics of TMS320C28x C90
6.2	Characteristics of TMS320C28x C++90
6.3	Using MISRA-C:2004 91
6.4	Data Types92
6.5	Keywords 94
6.6	Accessing far Memory From C++
6.7	C++ Exception Handling
6.8	Register Variables and Parameters
6.9	Theasm Statement 103
6.10	Pragma Directives
6.11	The _Pragma Operator
6.12	Object File Symbol Naming Conventions (Linknames)
6.13	Initializing Static and Global Variables
6.14	Changing the ANSI/ISO C Language Mode
6.15	GNU Language Extensions
6.16	Compiler Limits



#### 6.1 Characteristics of TMS320C28x C

The compiler supports the C language as defined by ISO/IEC 9899:1990, which is equivalent to American National Standard for Information Systems-Programming Language C X3.159-1989 standard, commonly referred to as C89, published by the American National Standards Institute. The compiler can also accept many of the language extensions found in the GNU C compiler (see Section 6.15).

The compiler supports some features of C99 (that is, ISO/IEC 9899:1999) in the relaxed C89 mode. See Section 6.14.

The ANSI/ISO standard identifies some features of the C language that are affected by characteristics of the target processor, run-time environment, or host environment. For reasons of efficiency or practicality, this set of features can differ among standard compilers.

Unsupported features of the C library are:

- The run-time library has minimal support for wide and multibyte characters. The type wchar\_t is
  implemented as int. The wide character set is equivalent to the set of values of type char. The library
  includes the header files <wchar.h> and <wctype.h>, but does not include all the functions specified in
  the standard.
- The run-time library includes the header file <locale.h>, but with a minimal implementation. The only
  supported locale is the C locale. That is, library behavior that is specified to vary by locale is hardcoded to the behavior of the C locale, and attempting to install a different locale by way of a call to
  setlocale() will return NULL.

# 6.2 Characteristics of TMS320C28x C++

The C28x compiler supports C++ as defined in the ANSI/ISO/IEC 14882:2003 standard, including these features:

- Complete C++ standard library support, with exceptions noted below.
- Templates
- Exceptions, which are enabled with the --exceptions option: see Section 6.7.
- Run-time type information (RTTI), which can be enabled with the --rtti compiler option.

The exceptions to the standard are as follows:

- The compiler does not support embedded C++ run-time-support libraries.
- The <complex> header and its functions are not included in the library.
- The library supports wide chars (wchar\_t), in that template functions and classes that are defined for char are also available for wchar\_t. For example, wide char stream classes wios, wiostream, wstreambuf and so on (corresponding to char classes ios, iostream, streambuf) are implemented. However, there is no low-level file I/O for wide chars. Also, the C library interface to wide char support (through the C++ headers <cwchar> and <cwctype>) is limited as described above in the C library.
- If the definition of an inline function contains a static variable, and it appears in multiple compilation units (usually because it's a member function of a class defined in a header file), the compiler generates multiple copies of the static variable rather than resolving them to a single definition. The compiler emits a warning (#1369) in such cases.
- Two-phase name binding in templates, as described in [tesp.res] and [temp.dep] of the standard, is not implemented.
- The export keyword for templates is not implemented.
- A typedef of a function type cannot include member function cv-qualifiers.
- A partial specialization of a class member template cannot be added outside of the class definition.



www.ti.com Using MISRA-C:2004

#### 6.3 Using MISRA-C:2004

You can alter your code to work with the MISRA-C:2004 rules. The following enable/disable the rules:

- The --check\_misra option enables checking of the specified MISRA-C:2004 rules.
- The CHECK\_MISRA pragma enables/disables MISRA-C:2004 rules at the source level. This pragma is
  equivalent to using the --check misra option. See Section 6.10.1.
- RESET\_MISRA pragma resets the specified MISRA-C:2004 rules to their state before any CHECK MISRA pragmas were processed. See Section 6.10.13.

The syntax of the option and pragmas is:

```
--check_misra={all|required|advisory|none|rulespec}
#pragma CHECK_MISRA ("{all|required|advisory|none|rulespec}");
#pragma RESET_MISRA ("{all|required|advisory|rulespec}");
```

The *rulespec* parameter is a comma-separated list of these specifiers:

[-]X	Enable (or disable) all rules in topic X.
[-]X-Z	Enable (or disable) all rules in topics X through Z.

[-]X.A Enable (or disable) rule A in topic X.

[-]X.A-C Enable (or disable) rules A through C in topic X.

Example: --check misra=1-5,-1.1,7.2-4

- · Checks topics 1 through 5
- Disables rule 1.1 (all other rules from topic 1 remain enabled)
- · Checks rules 2 through 4 in topic 7

Two options control the severity of certain MISRA-C:2004 rules:

- The --misra required option sets the diagnostic severity for required MISRA-C:2004 rules.
- The --misra advisory option sets the diagnostic severity for advisory MISRA-C:2004 rules.

The syntax for these options is:

```
--misra_advisory={error|warning|remark|suppress}
--misra_required={error|warning|remark|suppress}
```



Data Types www.ti.com

#### 6.4 Data Types

Table 6-1 lists the size, representation, and range of each scalar data type for the C28x compiler. Many of the range values are available as standard macros in the header file limits.h.

Table 6-1. TMS320C28x C/C++ Data Types

			Range	
Туре	Size	Representation	Minimum	Maximum
char, signed char	16 bits	ASCII	-32 768	32 767
unsigned char, _Bool	16 bits	ASCII	0	65 535
short	16 bits	2s complement	-32 768	32 767
unsigned short	16 bits	Binary	0	65 535
int, signed int	16 bits	2s complement	-32 768	32 767
unsigned int	16 bits	Binary	0	65 535
long, signed long	32 bits	2s complement	-2 147 483 648	2 147 483 647
unsigned long	32 bits	Binary	0	4 294 967 295
long long, signed long long	64 bits	2s complement	-9 223 372 036 854 775 808	9 223 372 036 854 775 807
unsigned long long	64 bits	Binary	0	18 446 744 073 709 551 615
enum	16 bits	2s complement	-32 768	32 767
float	32 bits	IEEE 32-bit	1.19 209 290e-38 <sup>(1)</sup>	3.40 282 35e+38
double	32 bits	IEEE 32-bit	1.19 209 290e-38 <sup>(1)</sup>	3.40 282 35e+38
long double	64 bits	IEEE 64-bit	2.22 507 385e-308 <sup>(1)</sup>	1.79 769 313e+308
pointers	16 bits	Binary	0	0xFFFF
far pointers	22 bits	Binary	0	0x3FFFFF

<sup>(1)</sup> Figures are minimum precision.

#### NOTE: TMS320C28x Byte is 16 Bits

By ANSI/ISO C definition, the sizeof operator yields the number of bytes required to store an object. ANSI/ISO further stipulates that when sizeof is applied to char, the result is 1. Since the TMS320C28x char is 16 bits (to make it separately addressable), a byte is also 16 bits. This yields results you may not expect; for example, size of (int) = = 1 (not 2). TMS320C28x bytes and words are equivalent (16 bits). To access data in increments of 8 bits, use the byte() and mov byte() intrinsics described in Section 7.4.6.

# 6.4.1 Support for 64-Bit Integers

The TMS320C28x compiler supports the long long and unsigned long long data types. The range values are available as standard macros in the header file limits.h.

The long long data types are stored in register pairs. In memory they are stored as 64-bit objects at word (32-bit) aligned addresses.

A long long integer constant can have an II or LL suffix. Without the suffix the value of the constant determines the type of the constant.

The formatting rules for long long in C I/O require II in the format string. For example:

```
printf("%lld", 0x0011223344556677);
printf("%llx", 0x0011223344556677);
```

The run-time-support library functions, llabs(), strtoll() and strtoull(), are added.



www.ti.com Data Types

# 6.4.2 C28x long double Floating-Point Type Change

When compiling C/C++ code for the TMS320C28x only, the long double floating point type is now IEEE 64-bit double precision. No other floating-point types have changed formats. C28x floating point types are:

Туре	Format
float	IEEE 32-bit single precision
double	IEEE 32-bit single precision
long double	IEEE 64-bit double precision

When you initialize a long double to a constant, you must use the I or L suffix. The constant is treated as a double type without the suffix and the run-time support double-to-long conversion routine is called for the initialization. This could result in the loss of precision. For example:

```
long double a = 12.34L; /* correctly initializes to double precision */ long double b = 56.78; /* converts single precision value to double precision */
```

The formatting rules for long doubles in C I/O require a capital 'L' in the format string. For example:

```
printf("%Lg", 1.23L);
printf("%Le", 3.45L);
```

In response to the change in the long double type to 64-bit IEEE double-precision format, the C28x calling conventions have changed.

All long double arguments are passed by reference. A long double return value is returned by reference. The first two long double arguments will pass their addresses in XAR4 and XAR5. All other long double arguments will have their addresses passed on the stack. It is necessary to assume that these long double address will be in far memory. Therefore, the called function will always read 32-bits for the addresses of long double arguments.

If a function returns a long double, the function making that call will place the return address in XAR6. For example:

```
long double foo(long double a, long double b, long double c)
{
    long double d = a + b + c;
    return d;
}
long double a = 1.2L;
long double b = 2.2L;
long double c = 3.2L;
long double d;

void bar()
{
    d = foo(a, b, c);
}
```

In function bar(), at the call to foo(), the register values are:

Register	Equals
XAR4	The address of a
XAR5	The address of b
*-SP[2]	The address of c
XAR6	The address of d



Keywords www.ti.com

The run-time-support library has been updated to include the necessary long double arithmetic operations and conversion functions. All C27x/C28x floating-point run-time-support routines have had their names updated. For example, a previous call to the floating point add routine was:

```
LCR F$$ADD
```

#### This has been updated to:

```
LCR FS$$ADD ; single-precision add LCR FD$$ADD ; double-precision add
```

Any C28x routine that calls floating-point arithmetic or conversion routines will need to be recompiled.

#### 6.5 Keywords

The C28x C/C++ compiler supports all of the standard C89 keywords, including const, volatile, and register. It also supports standard C99 keywords, including inline and restrict. It also supports TI extension keywords \_\_cregister, \_\_asm and \_\_interrupt. The compiler supports the restrict keyword for FPU targets; for other targets restrict is ignored. Some keywords are not available in strict ANSI mode.

The following keywords may appear in other target documentation and require the same treatment as the \_\_interrupt and restrict keywords:

- trap
- · reentrant
- cregister

# 6.5.1 The const Keyword

The C/C++ compiler supports the ANSI/ISO standard keyword *const*. This keyword gives you greater optimization and control over allocation of storage for certain data objects. You can apply the const qualifier to the definition of any variable or array to ensure that its value is not altered.

Global objects qualified as const are placed in the .const section. The linker allocates the .const section from ROM or FLASH, which are typically more plentiful than RAM. The const data storage allocation rule has two exceptions:

- If the keyword volatile is also specified in the definition of an object (for example, volatile const int x). Volatile keywords are assumed to be allocated to RAM. (The program is not allowed to modify a const volatile object, but something external to the program might.)
- If the object has automatic storage (function scope).

In both cases, the storage for the object is the same as if the const keyword were not used.

The placement of the const keyword within a definition is important. For example, the first statement below defines a constant pointer p to a modifiable int. The second statement defines a modifiable pointer q to a constant int:

```
int * const p = &x;
const int * q = &x;
```

Using the const keyword, you can define large constant tables and allocate them into system ROM. For example, to allocate a ROM table, you could use the following definition:

```
const int digits[] = \{0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9\};
```



www.ti.com Keywords

# 6.5.2 The cregister Keyword

The compiler extends the C/C++ language by adding the cregister keyword to allow high level language access to control registers.

When you use the cregister keyword on an object, the compiler compares the name of the object to a list of standard control registers for the C28x (see Table 6-2). If the name matches, the compiler generates the code to reference the control register. If the name does not match, the compiler issues an error.

**Table 6-2. Valid Control Registers** 

Register Description	
IER	Interrupt enable register
IFR	Interrupt flag register

The cregister keyword can be used only in file scope. The cregister keyword is not allowed on any declaration within the boundaries of a function. It can only be used on objects of type integer or pointer. The cregister keyword is not allowed on objects of any floating-point type or on any structure or union objects.

The cregister keyword does not imply that the object is volatile. If the control register being referenced is volatile (that is, can be modified by some external control), then the object must be declared with the volatile keyword also.

To use the control registers in Table 6-2, you must declare each register as follows. The c28x.h include file defines all the control registers through this syntax:

#### extern cregister volatile unsigned int register;

Once you have declared the register, you can use the register name directly, though in a limited manner. IFR is read only and can be set only by using the | (OR) operation with an immediate. IFR can be cleared only by using the & (AND) operation with an immediate. For example:

```
IFR |= 0x4;
IFR &= 0x0800
```

The IER register also can be used in an assignment other than OR and AND. Since the C28x architecture has limited instructions to manipulate these registers, the compiler terminates with the following message if illegal use of these registers is found:

```
>>> Illegal use of control register
```

See Example 6-1 for an example that declares and uses control registers.

#### Example 6-1. Define and Use Control Registers

```
extern cregister volatile unsigned int IFR;
extern cregister volatile unsigned int IER;
extern int x;

main()
{
    IER = x;
    IER |= 0x100;
    printf("IER = %x\n", IER);

    IFR &= 0x100;
    IFR |= 0x100;
```



Keywords www.ti.com

#### 6.5.3 The far Keyword

The default address space of the C/C++ compiler is limited to the low 64K of memory. All pointers have a default size of 16 bits. The TMS320C28x supports addressing beyond 16 bits. In C, the compiler can access up to four megawords of data by extending the C language with the use of the far type qualifier. A far pointer has a 22-bit size.

#### Far support in C++

NOTE: The TMS320C/C++ compiler does not support the far keyword in C++. Access to far objects in C++ is available through the use of the large memory model option or through intrinsics. For more information, see Section 6.6.

#### 6.5.3.1 Semantics

Declaring an object far designates that the object be placed in far memory. This is accomplished by reserving space for that object in a different section than the default .bss. Global variables declared far are placed in a section called .ebss. This section can then be linked anywhere in the TMS320C28x data address space. const objects declared far are similarly placed in the .econst section.

Pointers that are declared to point at far objects have a size of 22 bits. They require two memory locations to store and require the XAR registers to perform addressing.

#### **Pointer Distinction**

NOTE: There is a distinction between declaring a pointer that points at far data (far int \*pf) and declaring the pointer itself as far (int\*far fp;).

Only global and static variables can be declared far. Nonstatic variables defined in a function (automatic storage class) cannot be far because these variables are allocated on the stack. The compiler will issue a warning and treat these variables as near.

It is meaningless to declare structure members as far. A structure declared far implies that all of its members are far.



www.ti.com Keywords

#### 6.5.3.2 Syntax

The compiler recognizes far or \_\_far as synonymous keywords. The far keyword acts as a type qualifier. When declaring variables, far is used similarly to the type qualifiers const and volatile. Example 6-2 shows the correct way to declare variables.

#### Example 6-2. Declaring Variables

```
int far sym;
                   // sym is located in far memory.
far int sym;
                   // sym is located in far memory.
struct S far s1;
                   // Likewise for structure s1.
int far *ptr;
                    // This declares a pointer that points to a far int.
                    // The variable ptr is itself near.
int * far ptr;
                   // This declares a pointer to a near int. The variable
                    // ptr, however, is located in far memory.
int far * far ptr; // The pointer and the object it points to are both far.
int far *func();
                   // Function that returns a pointer to a far int.
int far *memcpy_ff(far void *dest, const far void *src, int count);
                   // Function that takes two far pointers as arguments
                    // and returns a far pointer.
int *far func()
                    // ERROR: Declares the function as far. Since the
                    // program address space is flat 22-bit, this has no
                    // meaning. Far applies to data only.
int func();
                   // ERROR: Far only applies to global/static variables.
int far x;
                   // Auto variables on the stack are required to be near
:
int far *ptr
                   // Ok, since the pointer is on the stack, but points
                   // to far
}
struct S
                   // Declaring structure members as far is meaningless,
                   // unless it's a pointer to far. Structure objects
                   // can, of course, be declared far.
int a;
int far b;
int far *ptr;
};
```

# 6.5.3.3 far Run-Time Library Support

The run-time library has been extended to include far versions of most run-time-support functions that have pointers as arguments, return values, or that reference run-time-support global variables. There is also support for managing a far heap. Far run-time-support does not include the C I/O routines or any functions that reference C I/O routines. For more information about far run-time support, see Section 8.2.

# 6.5.3.4 far Pointer Math

The ANSI/ISO standard states that valid pointer operations are assignment of pointers of the same type, adding or subtracting a pointer and an integer, subtracting or comparing two pointers to members of the same array, and assigning or comparing to zero. All other pointer arithmetic is illegal.

These rules apply to far pointers. The result of subtracting two far pointers is a 16-bit integer type. This implies that the compiler does not support pointer subtraction for arrays larger than 64K words in size.



Keywords www.ti.com

#### 6.5.3.5 far String Constants

For information about placing string constants in far memory, see Section 7.1.8 and Section 7.1.9.

#### 6.5.3.6 Allocating .econst to Program Memory

For information about how to copy the .econst section from program to data memory at boot time, see Section 7.1.3.

#### 6.5.4 The \_\_interrupt Keyword

The compiler extends the C/C++ language by adding the interrupt keyword, which specifies that a function is treated as an interrupt function. This keyword is an IRQ interrupt. The alternate keyword. "interrupt", may also be used except in strict ANSI C or C++ modes.

Functions that handle interrupts follow special register-saving rules and a special return seguence. The implementation stresses safety. The interrupt routine does not assume that the C run-time conventions for the various CPU register and status bits are in effect; instead, it re-establishes any values assumed by the run-time environment. When C/C++ code is interrupted, the interrupt routine must preserve the contents of all machine registers that are used by the routine or by any function called by the routine. When you use the interrupt keyword with the definition of the function, the compiler generates register saves based on the rules for interrupt functions and the special return sequence for interrupts.

You can only use the interrupt keyword with a function that is defined to return void and that has no parameters. The body of the interrupt function can have local variables and is free to use the stack or global variables. For example:

```
_interrupt void int_handler()
{
    unsigned int flags;
    . . .
```

The name c int00 is the C/C++ entry point. This name is reserved for the system reset interrupt. This special interrupt routine initializes the system and calls the function main. Because it has no caller, c int00 does not save any registers.

# Hwi Objects and the interrupt Keyword

NOTE: The interrupt keyword must not be used when DSP/BIOS HWI objects or SYS/BIOS Hwi objects are used in conjunction with C functions. The Hwi\_enter/Hwi\_exit macros and the Hwi dispatcher contain this functionality, and the use of the C modifier can cause negative results.



www.ti.com Keywords

# 6.5.5 The restrict Keyword

To help the compiler determine memory dependencies, you can qualify a pointer, reference, or array with the restrict keyword. The restrict keyword is a type qualifier that can be applied to pointers, references, and arrays. Its use represents a guarantee by you, the programmer, that within the scope of the pointer declaration the object pointed to can be accessed only by that pointer. Any violation of this guarantee renders the program undefined. This practice helps the compiler optimize certain sections of code because aliasing information can be more easily determined.

In Example 6-3, the restrict keyword is used to tell the compiler that the function func1 is never called with the pointers a and b pointing to objects that overlap in memory. You are promising that accesses through a and b will never conflict; therefore, a write through one pointer cannot affect a read from any other pointers. The precise semantics of the restrict keyword are described in the 1999 version of the ANSI/ISO C Standard.

The "restrict" keyword is a C99 keyword, and cannot be accepted in strict ANSI C89 mode. Use the "\_\_restrict" keyword if the strict ANSI C89 mode must be used. See Section 6.14.

#### Example 6-3. Use of the restrict Type Qualifier With Pointers

```
void funcl(int * restrict a, int * restrict b)
{
  /* funcl's code here */
}
```

Example 6-4 illustrates using the restrict keyword when passing arrays to a function. Here, the arrays c and d must not overlap, nor may c and d point to the same array.

### Example 6-4. Use of the restrict Type Qualifier With Arrays

```
void func2(int c[restrict], int d[restrict])
{
  int i;

  for(i = 0; i < 64; i++)
  {
    c[i] += d[i];
    d[i] += 1;
  }
}</pre>
```

At this time the restrict keyword is useful only for FPU targets. For non-FPU targets restrict is ignored.

# 6.5.6 The volatile Keyword

The compiler eliminates redundant memory accesses whenever possible, using data flow analysis to figure out when it is legal. However, some memory accesses may be special in some way that the compiler cannot see, and in such cases you must use the volatile keyword to prevent the compiler from optimizing away something important. The compiler does not optimize out any accesses to variables declared volatile. The number and order of accesses of a volatile variable are exactly as they appear in the C/C++ code, no more and no less.

There are different ways to understand how volatile works, but fundamentally it is a hint to the compiler that something it cannot understand is going on, and so the compiler should not try to be over-clever.

Any variable which might be modified by something external to the obvious control flow of the program (such as an interrupt service routine) must be declared volatile. This tells the compiler that an interrupt function might modify the value at any time, so the compiler should not perform optimizations which will change the number or order of accesses of that variable. This is the primary purpose of the volatile keyword. In the following example, the loop intends to wait for a location to be read as 0xFF:

```
unsigned int *ctrl;
while (*ctrl !=0xFF);
```



Keywords www.ti.com

However, in this example, \*ctrl is a loop-invariant expression, so the loop is optimized down to a single-memory read. To get the desired result, define ctrl as:

```
volatile unsigned int *ctrl;
```

Here the \*ctrl pointer is intended to reference a hardware location, such as an interrupt flag.

Volatile must also be used when accessing memory locations that represent memory-mapped peripheral devices. Such memory locations might change value in ways that the compiler cannot predict. These locations might change if accessed, or when some other memory location is accessed, or when some signal occurs.

Volatile must also be used for local variables in a function which calls setjmp, if the value of the local variables needs to remain valid if a longjmp occurs.

# Example 6-5. Volatile for Local Variables With setjmp



# 6.6 Accessing far Memory From C++

Accessing far memory is handled differently with C and C++ code. The following sections describe accessing far memory from C++ using the -ml option or intrinsics. See Section 6.5.3 for information on using the far keyword to access far memory from C code.

# 6.6.1 Using the Large Memory Model (--large\_memory\_model Option)

Since there is no support for the far keyword in C++ code, the large memory model option is provided. The --large\_memory\_model option forces the compiler to view the TMS320C28x architecture as having a flat 22-bit address space. When you compile with the --large\_memory\_model option, all pointers are considered to be 22-bit pointers. There is no 64K word limit on a data type size.

The assembler --large\_memory\_model option is used to allow conditional compilation of 16-bit code with large memory model code. The LARGE\_MODEL symbol is predefined by the assembler and automatically set to false unless the --large\_memory\_model option is used. When compiling for FPU targets, large memory model is assumed. The compiler aborts with an error message if the small model is specified with --float support={fpu32|fpu64}.

The run-time-support libraries support the large memory model through conditional compilation. When compiling the run-time-support libraries, the LARGE\_MODEL symbol must be defined. This symbol is needed if any of the run-time-support functions that pass a size\_t argument or return a size\_t argument are accessed in your code. This symbol is also needed if the run-time-support va\_arg or offsetof() macro is used. Therefore, you should use the --define compiler option (see Section 2.3.2) to predefine the LARGE MODEL symbol when compiling under the large memory model.

# 6.6.2 Using Intrinsics to Access far Memory in C++

The far keyword extends the C language only. There is no support for the far keyword in C++. Intrinsics are provided to allow access to far memory in C++, along with heap management support routines in the C++ run-time-support library if the large memory model is not used. The intrinsics accept a long integer type that represents an address. The return value of the intrinsic is an implicit far pointer that can be dereferenced to provide access to these basic data types: word, long, float, long long, and long double.

- farptr to word (long address)
- farptr to long (long address)
- \_\_farptr\_to\_float (long address)
- farptr to llong (long address)
- \_\_farptr\_to\_ldouble (long address)

There are two methods used for generating long addresses that can access far memory:

- You can use the C++ run-time-support library heap management functions which are provided in the C++ run-time-support library:
  - long far\_calloc (unsigned long num, unsigned long size)
  - long far malloc (unsigned long size)
  - long far realloc (long ptr, unsigned long size)
  - void far\_free (long ptr)

These functions allocate memory in the far heap. The intrinsics can then be used to access that memory. For example:

```
#include <stdlib.h>;
extern int x;
extern long y;
extern float z;

extern void func1 (int a);
extern void func2 (long b);
extern void func3 (float c);

//create a far object on the heap
```

C++ Exception Handling www.ti.com

```
long farint = far_malloc (sizeof (int))
long farlong = far malloc (sizeof (long));
long farfloat = far_malloc (sizeof (float));
//assign a value to the far object
*__farptr_to_word (farint) = 1;
* farptr to word (farint) = x;
*__farptr_to_long (farlong) = 78934;
*__farptr_to_long (farlong) = y;
*__farptr_to_float (farfloat) = 4.56;
*__farptr_to_float (farfloat) = z;
//use far object in expression
x = *\__farprt_to_word (farint) + x;
y = *__farptr_to_long (farlong) + y;
z = *\__farptr\_to\_float (farfloat) + z;
//use as argument to function
func1 (*__farptr_to_word (farint));
func2 (*__farptr_to_long (farlong));
func3 (*__farptr_to_float (farfloat));
//free the far object
far_free (farint);
far_free (farlong);
far_free (farfloat);
```

• The DATA\_SECTION pragma can be used along with inline assembly to place variables in a data section that is linked in far memory. The in-line assembly is used to create a long address to those variables. The intrinsics can then be used to access those variables. For example:

```
#pragma DATA_SECTION (var, ".mydata")
int var;
extern const long var_addr;
asm ("\t .sect .const");
asm ("var_addr .long var");
int x;
x = *__farptr_to_word (var_addr);
```

#### 6.7 C++ Exception Handling

The compiler supports all the C++ exception handling features as defined by the ANSI/ISO 14882 C++ Standard. More details are discussed in *The C++ Programming Language, Third Edition* by Bjarne Stroustrup.

The compiler -- exceptions option enables exception handling. The compiler's default is no exception handling support.

For exceptions to work correctly, all C++ files in the application must be compiled with the --exceptions option, regardless of whether exceptions occur in a particular file. Mixing exception-enabled object files and libraries with object files and libraries that do not have exceptions enabled can lead to undefined behavior.

Exception handling requires support in the run-time-support library, which come in exception-enabled and exception-disabled forms; you must link with the correct form. When using automatic library selection (the default), the linker automatically selects the correct library Section 4.3.1.1. If you select the library manually, you must use run-time-support libraries whose name contains \_eh if you enable exceptions.

Using --exceptions causes the compiler to insert exception handling code. This code will increase the size of the programand execution time, even if no exceptions are thrown.

See Section 8.1 for details on the run-time libraries.



#### 6.8 Register Variables and Parameters

The C/C++ compiler treats register variables (variables defined with the register keyword) differently, depending on whether you use the --opt level (-O) option.

#### Compiling with optimization

The compiler ignores any register definitions and allocates registers to variables and temporary values by using an algorithm that makes the most efficient use of registers.

#### Compiling without optimization

If you use the register keyword, you can suggest variables as candidates for allocation into registers. The compiler uses the same set of registers for allocating temporary expression results as it uses for allocating register variables.

The compiler attempts to honor all register definitions. If the compiler runs out of appropriate registers, it frees a register by moving its contents to memory. If you define too many objects as register variables, you limit the number of registers the compiler has for temporary expression results. This limit causes excessive movement of register contents to memory.

Any object with a scalar type (integral, floating point, or pointer) can be defined as a register variable. The register designator is ignored for objects of other types, such as arrays.

The register storage class is meaningful for parameters as well as local variables. Normally, in a function, some of the parameters are copied to a location on the stack where they are referenced during the function body. The compiler copies a register parameter to a register instead of the stack, which speeds access to the parameter within the function.

For more information about register conventions, see Section 7.2.

#### 6.9 The asm Statement

The C/C++ compiler can embed assembly language instructions or directives directly into the assembly language output of the compiler. This capability is an extension to the C/C++ language implemented through the asm keyword. The asm keyword provides access to hardware features that C/C++ cannot provide.

The alternate keyword, "asm", may also be used except in strict ANSI C mode. It is available in relaxed C and C++ modes.

Using asm is syntactically performed as a call to a function named asm, with one string constant argument:

asm(" assembler text ");

The compiler copies the argument string directly into your output file. The assembler text must be enclosed in double guotes. All the usual character string escape codes retain their definitions. For example, you can insert a .byte directive that contains quotes as follows:

```
__asm("STR: .byte \"abc\"");
```

The inserted code must be a legal assembly language statement. Like all assembly language statements, the line of code inside the quotes must begin with a label, a blank, a tab, or a comment (asterisk or semicolon). The compiler performs no checking on the string; if there is an error, the assembler detects it. For more information about the assembly language statements, see the TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide.

The asm statements do not follow the syntactic restrictions of normal C/C++ statements. Each can appear as a statement or a declaration, even outside of blocks. This is useful for inserting directives at the very beginning of a compiled module.

asm statement does not provide any way to refer to local variables. If your assembly code needs to refer to local variables, you will need to write the entire function in assembly code.

For more information, refer to Section 7.4.5.



Pragma Directives www.ti.com

#### NOTE: Avoid Disrupting the C/C++ Environment With asm Statements

Be careful not to disrupt the C/C++ environment with \_\_asm statements. The compiler does not check the inserted instructions. Inserting jumps and labels into C/C++ code can cause unpredictable results in variables manipulated in or around the inserted code. Directives that change sections or otherwise affect the assembly environment can also be troublesome.

Be especially careful when you use optimization with \_\_asm statements. Although the compiler cannot remove \_\_asm statements, it can significantly rearrange the code order near them and cause undesired results.

#### NOTE: Use Single asm Statement for the RPT Instruction

When adding a C28x RPT instruction, do not use a separate asm statement for RPT and the repeated instruction. The compiler could insert debug directives between asm directives and the assembler does not allow any directives between the RPT and the repeated instruction. For example, to insert a RPT MAC instruction, use the following:

asm("\tRPT #10\n\t||MAC P, \*XAR4++, \*XAR7++");

# 6.10 Pragma Directives

Pragma directives tell the compiler how to treat a certain function, object, or section of code. The C28x C/C++ compiler supports the following pragmas:

- CHECK MISRA (See Section 6.10.1)
- CLINK (See Section 6.10.2)
- CODE\_ALIGN (See Section 6.10.3)
- CODE SECTION (See Section 6.10.4)
- DATA SECTION (See Section 6.10.5)
- diag\_suppress, diag\_remark, diag\_warning, diag\_error, and diag\_default (See Section 6.10.6)
- FAST FUNC CALL (See Section 6.10.7)
- FUNC EXT CALLED (See Section 6.10.8)
- FUNCTION\_OPTIONS (See Section 6.10.9)
- INTERRUPT (See Section 6.10.10)
- MUST ITERATE (See Section 6.10.11)
- NO\_HOOKS (See Section 6.10.12)
- RESET MISRA (See Section 6.10.13)
- RETAIN (See Section 6.10.14)
- SET CODE SECTION (See Section 6.10.15)
- SET DATA SECTION (See Section 6.10.15)
- UNROLL (See Section 6.10.16)

The arguments *func* and *symbol* cannot be defined or declared inside the body of a function. You must specify the pragma outside the body of a function; and the pragma specification must occur before any declaration, definition, or reference to the func or symbol argument. If you do not follow these rules, the compiler issues a warning and may ignore the pragma.

For the pragmas that apply to functions or symbols (except CLINK and RETAIN), the syntax for the pragmas differs between C and C++. In C, you must supply the name of the object or function to which you are applying the pragma as the first argument. In C++, the name is omitted; the pragma applies to the declaration of the object or function that follows it.



www.ti.com Pragma Directives

# 6.10.1 The CHECK\_MISRA Pragma

The CHECK\_MISRA pragma enables/disables MISRA-C:2004 rules at the source level. This pragma is equivalent to using the --check misra option.

The syntax of the pragma in C is:

#pragma CHECK\_MISRA (" {all|required|advisory|none|rulespec} ");

The rulespec parameter is a comma-separated list of specifiers. See Section 6.3 for details.

The RESET MISRA pragma can be used to reset any CHECK MISRA pragmas; see Section 6.10.13.

#### 6.10.2 The CLINK Pragma

The CLINK pragma can be applied to a code or data symbol. It causes a .clink directive to be generated into the section that contains the definition of the symbol. The .clink directive indicates to the linker that the section is eligible for removal during conditional linking. Therefore, if the section is not referenced by any other section in the application that is being compiled and linked, it will not be included in the output file result of the link.

The syntax of the pragma in C/C++ is:

#pragma CLINK (symbol)

The RETAIN pragma has the opposite effect of the CLINK pragma. See Section 6.10.14 for more details.

# 6.10.3 The CODE ALIGN Pragma

The CODE\_ALIGN pragma aligns *func* along the specified alignment. The alignment *constant* must be a power of 2. The CODE\_ALIGN pragma is useful if you have functions that you want to start at a certain boundary.

The syntax of the pragma in C is:

#pragma CODE ALIGN ( func, constant );

The syntax of the pragma in C++ is:

#pragma CODE ALIGN ( constant );

# 6.10.4 The CODE\_SECTION Pragma

The CODE\_SECTION pragma allocates space for the *symbol* in C, or the next symbol declared in C++, in a section named *section name*.

The syntax of the pragma in C is:

#pragma CODE SECTION (symbol, "section name")

The syntax of the pragma in C++ is:

#pragma CODE\_SECTION (" section name ")

The CODE\_SECTION pragma is useful if you have code objects that you want to link into an area separate from the .text section.

The following examples demonstrate the use of the CODE\_SECTION pragma.



Pragma Directives www.ti.com

#### Example 6-6. Using the CODE\_SECTION Pragma C Source File

```
char bufferA[80];
char bufferB[80];
#pragma CODE_SECTION(funcA, "codeA")
char funcA(int i);
char funcB(int i);
void main()
  char c;
  c = funcA(1);
  c = funcB(2);
}
char funcA (int i)
  return bufferA[i];
char funcB (int j)
{
  return bufferB[j];
}
```

# Example 6-7. Generated Assembly Code From Example 6-6

```
.sect ".text"
     .global _main;
; * FNAME: _main
                           FR SIZE: 2
;* FUNCTION ENVIRONMENT
; *
;* FUNCTION PROPERTIES
                    O Parameter, 1 Auto, O SOE
; **********************************
:_main:
     ADDB SP,#2
           AL,#1 ; |12|
#_funcA ; |12|
     MOVB
            ; call occurs [#_funcA] ; |12|
           *-SP[1],AL ; |12|
     VOM
     LCR
            #_funcB
                             ; |13
          ; call occurs [#_funcB] ; |13
     MOV
            *-SP[1],AL ; |13|
     SUBB
           SP,#2
     LRETR
     ; return occurs
     .sect "codeA"
     .global _funcA
FR SIZE: 1
;* FNAME: _funcA
; *
;* FUNCTION ENVIRONMENT
; *
;* FUNCTION PROPERTIES
;*
                    0 Parameter, 1 Auto, 0 SOE
```



www.ti.com Pragma Directives

#### Example 6-7. Generated Assembly Code From Example 6-6 (continued)

```
;*********************
_funcA:
     ADDB
            SP,#1
             MOV
     MOVZ
      ADD
      SUBB
            AL,*+XAR6[0] ; |18|
     MOV
      LRETR
      return occurs
      .sect ".text"
      .global _funcB;
***************
;* FNAME: _funcB
                              FR SIZE: 1
; *
; * FUNCTION ENVIRONMENT
; *
;* FUNCTION PROPERTIES
; *
                      0 Parameter, 1 Auto, 0 SOE
_funcB:
      ADDB
             SP,#1
           *-SP[1],AL ; |22|
AR6,*-SP[1] ; |23|
AR6,#_bufferB ; |23|
SP,#1
      VOM
     MOVZ
      ADD
      SUBB
      MOV
            AL,*+XAR6[0]
                             ; |23|
      LRETR
      ;return occurs
```

#### 6.10.5 The DATA SECTION Pragma

The DATA\_SECTION pragma allocates space for the *symbol* in C, or the next symbol declared in C++, in a section named *section name*.

The syntax of the pragma in C is:

```
#pragma DATA_SECTION ( symbol , " section name ");
```

The syntax of the pragma in C++ is:

```
#pragma DATA_SECTION (" section name ");
```

The DATA\_SECTION pragma is useful if you have data objects that you want to link into an area separate from the .bss section.

Example 6-8 through Example 6-10 demonstrate the use of the DATA SECTION pragma.

#### Example 6-8. Using the DATA SECTION Pragma C Source File

```
#pragma DATA_SECTION(bufferB, "my_sect")
char bufferA[512];
char bufferB[512];
```



Pragma Directives www.ti.com

# Example 6-9. Using the DATA\_SECTION Pragma C++ Source File

```
char bufferA[512];
#pragma DATA_SECTION("my_sect")
char bufferB[512];
```

#### Example 6-10. Using the DATA\_SECTION Pragma Assembly Source File

```
.global _bufferA
.bss _bufferA,512,4
.global _bufferB
_bufferB: .usect "my_sect",512,4
```

# 6.10.6 The Diagnostic Message Pragmas

The following pragmas can be used to control diagnostic messages in the same ways as the corresponding command line options:

Pragma	Option	Description
diag_suppress num	-pds=num[, num <sub>2</sub> , num <sub>3</sub> ]	Suppress diagnostic num
diag_remark num	-pdsr= $num[$ , $num_2$ , $num_3$ ]	Treat diagnostic num as a remark
diag_warning num	-pdsw= $num[, num_2, num_3]$	Treat diagnostic num as a warning
diag_error num	-pdse= $num[, num_2, num_3]$	Treat diagnostic num as an error
diag_default num	n/a	Use default severity of the diagnostic

The syntax of the pragmas in C is:

```
#pragma diag_xxx [=]num[, num<sub>2</sub>, num<sub>3</sub>...]
```

The diagnostic affected (*num*) is specified using either an error number or an error tag name. The equal sign (=) is optional. Any diagnostic can be overridden to be an error, but only diagnostics with a severity of discretionary error or below can have their severity reduced to a warning or below, or be suppressed. The diag\_default pragma is used to return the severity of a diagnostic to the one that was in effect before any pragmas were issued (i.e., the normal severity of the message as modified by any command-line options).

The diagnostic identifier number is output along with the message when the -pden command line option is specified.



www.ti.com Pragma Directives

# 6.10.7 The FAST\_FUNC\_CALL Pragma

The FAST\_FUNC\_CALL pragma, when applied to a function, generates a TMS320C28x FFC instruction to call the function instead of the CALL instruction. Refer to the *TMS320C28x DSP CPU and Instruction Set User's Guide* for more details on the FFC instruction.

The syntax of the pragma in C is:

```
#pragma FAST_FUNC_CALL ( func );
```

The syntax of the pragma in C++ is:

```
#pragma FAST_FUNC_CALL ( func );
```

The FAST\_FUNC\_CALL pragma should be applied only to a call to an assembly function that returns with the LB \*XAR7 instruction. See Section 7.4.1 for information on combining C/C++ and assembly code.

Since this pragma should be applied only to assembly functions, if the compiler finds a definition for *func* in the file scope, it issues a warning and ignores the pragma.

The following example demonstrates the use of the FAST\_FUNC\_CALL pragma.

# Example 6-11. Using the FAST\_FUNC\_CALL Pragma Assembly Function

```
_add_long:
ADD ACC, *-SP[2]
LB *XAR7
```

# Example 6-12. Using the FAST\_FUNC\_CALL Pragma C Source File

```
#pragma FAST_FUNC_CALL (add_long);
long add_long(long, long);

void foo()
{
    long x, y;
    x = 0xffff;
    y = 0xff;
    y = add_long(x, y);
}
```



Pragma Directives www.ti.com

#### Example 6-13. Generated Assembly File

```
;* FNAME: _foo
                                              FR SIZE: 6
;* FUNCTION ENVIRONMENT
; *
;* FUNCTION PROPERTIES
; *
                                 2 Parameter, 4 Auto, 0 SOE
; *********************
_foo:
        ADDB
                   SP.#6
        MOVB
                  ACC, #255
        MOVL
                  XAR6,#65535
                                            ; |8|
                  *-SP[6],ACC
        MOVL
        MOVL *-SP[2],ACC ; |10|
MOVL *-SP[4],XAR6 ; |8|
MOVL ACC,*-SP[4] ; |10|
FFC XAR7,#_add_long ; |10|
; call occurs [#_add_long] ; |10|
MOVL *-SP[6],ACC ; |10|
         SUBB
                    SP,#6
         LRETR
         ; return occurs
```

# 6.10.8 The FUNC\_EXT\_CALLED Pragma

When you use the --program\_level\_compile option, the compiler uses program-level optimization. When you use this type of optimization, the compiler removes any function that is not called, directly or indirectly, by main. You might have C/C++ functions that are called by hand-coded assembly instead of main.

The FUNC\_EXT\_CALLED pragma specifies to the optimizer to keep these C functions or any other functions that these C/C++ functions call. These functions act as entry points into C/C++.

The pragma must appear before any declaration or reference to the function that you want to keep. In C, the argument *func* is the name of the function that you do not want removed. In C++, the pragma applies to the next function declared.

The syntax of the pragma in C is:

```
#pragma FUNC_EXT_CALLED ( func );
```

The syntax of the pragma in C++ is:

```
#pragma FUNC_EXT_CALLED;
```

Except for \_c\_int00, which is the name reserved for the system reset interrupt for C/C++programs, the name of the interrupt (the *func* argument) does not need to conform to a naming convention.

When you use program-level optimization, you may need to use the FUNC\_EXT\_CALLED pragma with certain options. See Section 3.3.2.



www.ti.com Pragma Directives

# 6.10.9 The FUNCTION OPTIONS Pragma

The FUNCTION\_OPTIONS pragma allows you to compile a specific function in a C or C++ file with additional command-line compiler options. The affected function will be compiled as if the specified list of options appeared on the command line after all other compiler options. In C, the pragma is applied to the function specified. In C++, the pragma is applied to the next function.

The syntax of the pragma in C is:

#pragma FUNCTION\_OPTIONS (func, "additional options");

The syntax of the pragma in C++ is:

#pragma FUNCTION\_OPTIONS( "additional options" );

# 6.10.10 The INTERRUPT Pragma

The INTERRUPT pragma enables you to handle interrupts directly with C code. In C, the argument *func* is the name of a function. In C++, the pragma applies to the next function declared.

The syntax of the pragma in C is:

#pragma INTERRUPT ( func );

The syntax of the pragma in C++ is:

# #pragma INTERRUPT ;

Except for \_c\_int00, which is the name reserved for the system reset interrupt for C programs, the name of the interrupt (the *func* argument) does not need to conform to a naming convention.

On the FPU, there are two kinds of interrupts - High Priority Interrupt (HPI) and Low Priority Interrupt (LPI). High priority interrupts use a fast context save and cannot be nested. Low priority interrupts behave like normal C28x interrupts and can be nested.

The kind of interrupt can be specified by way of the interrupt pragma using an optional second argument. The C syntax of the pragma is:

#pragma INTERRUPT ( func , {HPI|LPI} );

The syntax of the pragma in C++ is:

#pragma INTERRUPT ( {HPI|LPI} );

To specify an HPI interrupt use HPI. To specify an LPI interrupt use LPI. On FPU, if no interrupt priority is specified LPI is assumed. Interrupts specified with the interrupt keyword also default to LPI.

#### Hwi Objects and the INTERRUPT Pragma

NOTE:

The INTERRUPT pragma must not be used when DSP/BIOS HWI objects or SYS/BIOS Hwi objects are used in conjunction with C functions. The Hwi\_enter/Hwi\_exit macros and the Hwi dispatcher contain this functionality, and the use of the C modifier can cause negative results.



Pragma Directives www.ti.com

# 6.10.11 The MUST ITERATE Pragma

The MUST\_ITERATE pragma specifies to the compiler certain properties of a loop. You guarantee that these properties are always true. Through the use of the MUST\_ITERATE pragma, you can guarantee that a loop executes a specific number of times. Anytime the UNROLL pragma is applied to a loop, MUST\_ITERATE should be applied to the same loop. For loops the MUST\_ITERATE pragma's third argument, multiple, is the most important and should always be specified.

Furthermore, the MUST\_ITERATE pragma should be applied to any other loops as often as possible. This is because the information provided via the pragma (especially the minimum number of iterations) aids the compiler in choosing the best loops and loop transformations (that is, nested loop transformations). It also helps the compiler reduce code size.

No statements are allowed between the MUST\_ITERATE pragma and the for, while, or do-while loop to which it applies. However, other pragmas, such as UNROLL and PROB\_ITERATE, can appear between the MUST\_ITERATE pragma and the loop.

# 6.10.11.1 The MUST\_ITERATE Pragma Syntax

The syntax of the pragma for C and C++ is:

```
#pragma MUST_ITERATE ( min, max, multiple );
```

The arguments *min* and *max* are programmer-guaranteed minimum and maximum trip counts. The trip count is the number of times a loop iterates. The trip count of the loop must be evenly divisible by *multiple*. All arguments are optional. For example, if the trip count could be 5 or greater, you can specify the argument list as follows:

```
#pragma MUST ITERATE(5);
```

However, if the trip count could be any nonzero multiple of 5, the pragma would look like this:

```
#pragma MUST_ITERATE(5, , 5); /* Note the blank field for max */
```

It is sometimes necessary for you to provide min and multiple in order for the compiler to perform unrolling. This is especially the case when the compiler cannot easily determine how many iterations the loop will perform (that is, the loop has a complex exit condition).

When specifying a multiple via the MUST\_ITERATE pragma, results of the program are undefined if the trip count is not evenly divisible by multiple. Also, results of the program are undefined if the trip count is less than the minimum or greater than the maximum specified.

If no min is specified, zero is used. If no max is specified, the largest possible number is used. If multiple MUST\_ITERATE pragmas are specified for the same loop, the smallest max and largest min are used.

#### 6.10.11.2 Using MUST\_ITERATE to Expand Compiler Knowledge of Loops

Through the use of the MUST\_ITERATE pragma, you can guarantee that a loop executes a certain number of times. The example below tells the compiler that the loop is guaranteed to run exactly 10 times:

```
#pragma MUST_ITERATE(10,10);
for(i = 0; i < trip_count; i++) { ...</pre>
```

In this example, the compiler attempts to generate a loop even without the pragma. However, if MUST\_ITERATE is not specified for a loop such as this, the compiler generates code to bypass the loop, to account for the possibility of 0 iterations. With the pragma specification, the compiler knows that the loop iterates at least once and can eliminate the loop-bypassing code.

MUST\_ITERATE can specify a range for the trip count as well as a factor of the trip count. For example:

```
pragma MUST_ITERATE(8, 48, 8);
for(i = 0; i < trip_count; i++) { ...</pre>
```

This example tells the compiler that the loop executes between 8 and 48 times and that the trip\_count variable is a multiple of 8 (8, 16, 24, 32, 40, 48). The multiple argument allows the compiler to unroll the loop.



www.ti.com Pragma Directives

You should also consider using MUST\_ITERATE for loops with complicated bounds. In the following example:

```
for(i2 = ipos[2]; i2 < 40; i2 += 5)  { ...
```

The compiler would have to generate a divide function call to determine, at run time, the exact number of iterations performed. The compiler will not do this. In this case, using MUST\_ITERATE to specify that the loop always executes eight times allows the compiler to attempt to generate a loop:

```
#pragma MUST_ITERATE(8, 8);
for(i2 = ipos[2]; i2 < 40; i2 += 5) { ...</pre>
```

# 6.10.12 The NO\_HOOKS Pragma

The NO\_HOOKS pragma prevents entry and exit hook calls from being generated for a function.

The syntax of the pragma in C is:

```
#pragma NO_HOOKS ( func );
```

The syntax of the pragma in C++ is:

```
#pragma NO_HOOKS;
```

See Section 2.12 for details on entry and exit hooks.

# 6.10.13 The RESET\_MISRA Pragma

The RESET\_MISRA pragma resets the specified MISRA-C:2004 rules to the state they were before any CHECK\_MISRA pragmas (see Section 6.10.1) were processed. For instance, if a rule was enabled on the command line but disabled in the source, the RESET\_MISRA pragma resets it to enabled. This pragma accepts the same format as the --check\_misra option, except for the "none" keyword.

The syntax of the pragma in C is:

```
#pragma RESET_MISRA (" {all|required|advisory|rulespec} ")
```

The *rulespec* parameter is a comma-separated list of specifiers. See Section 6.3 for details.

#### 6.10.14 The RETAIN Pragma

The RETAIN pragma can be applied to a code or data symbol. It causes a .retain directive to be generated into the section that contains the definition of the symbol. The .retain directive indicates to the linker that the section is ineligible for removal during conditional linking. Therefore, regardless whether or not the section is referenced by another section in the application that is being compiled and linked, it will be included in the output file result of the link.

The syntax of the pragma in C/C++ is:

```
#pragma RETAIN ( symbol)
```

The CLINK pragma has the opposite effect of the RETAIN pragma. See Section 6.10.2 for more details.



Pragma Directives www.ti.com

#### 6.10.15 The SET CODE SECTION and SET DATA SECTION Pragmas

These pragmas can be used to set the section for all declarations below the pragma.

The syntax of the pragmas in C/C++ is:

#pragma SET\_CODE\_SECTION ("section name")

```
#pragma SET DATA SECTION ("section name")
```

In Example 6-14 x and y are put in the section mydata. To reset the current section to the default used by the compiler, a blank parameter should be passed to the pragma. An easy way to think of the pragma is that it is like applying the CODE\_SECTION or DATA\_SECTION pragma to all symbols below it.

#### Example 6-14. Setting Section With SET\_DATA\_SECTION Pragma

```
#pragma SET_DATA_SECTION("mydata")
int x;
int y;
#pragma SET_DATA_SECTION()
```

The pragmas apply to both declarations and definitions. If applied to a declaration and not the definition, the pragma that is active at the declaration is used to set the section for that symbol. Here is an example:

# Example 6-15. Setting a Section With SET\_CODE\_SECTION Pragma

```
#pragma SET_CODE_SECTION("func1")
extern void func1();
#pragma SET_CODE_SECTION()
...
void func1() { ... }
```

In Example 6-15 func1 is placed in section func1. If conflicting sections are specified at the declaration and definition, a diagnostic is issued.

The current CODE\_SECTION and DATA\_SECTION pragmas and GCC attributes can be used to override the SET\_CODE\_SECTION and SET\_DATA\_SECTION pragmas. For example:

#### Example 6-16. Overriding SET DATA SECTION Setting

```
#pragma DATA_SECTION(x, "x_data")
#pragma SET_DATA_SECTION("mydata")
int x;
int y;
#pragma SET_DATA_SECTION()
```

In Example 6-16 x is placed in x\_data and y is placed in mydata. No diagnostic is issued for this case.

The pragmas work for both C and C++. In C++, the pragmas are ignored for templates and for implicitly created objects, such as implicit constructors and virtual function tables.



# 6.10.16 The UNROLL Pragma

No statements are allowed between the UNROLL pragma and the for, while, or do-while loop to which it applies. However, other pragmas, such as MUST\_ITERATE, can appear between the UNROLL pragma and the loop.

The syntax of the pragma for C and C++ is:

#### #pragma UNROLL( n );

If possible, the compiler unrolls the loop so there are n copies of the original loop. The compiler only unrolls if it can determine that unrolling by a factor of n is safe. In order to increase the chances the loop is unrolled, the compiler needs to know certain properties:

- The loop iterates a multiple of *n* times. This information can be specified to the compiler via the multiple argument in the MUST\_ITERATE pragma.
- The smallest possible number of iterations of the loop
- The largest possible number of iterations of the loop

The compiler can sometimes obtain this information itself by analyzing the code. However, sometimes the compiler can be overly conservative in its assumptions and therefore generates more code than is necessary when unrolling. This can also lead to not unrolling at all.

Furthermore, if the mechanism that determines when the loop should exit is complex, the compiler may not be able to determine these properties of the loop. In these cases, you must tell the compiler the properties of the loop by using the MUST\_ITERATE pragma.

Specifying #pragma UNROLL(1); asks that the loop not be unrolled. Automatic loop unrolling also is not performed in this case.

If multiple UNROLL pragmas are specified for the same loop, it is undefined which pragma is used, if any.

#### 6.11 The Pragma Operator

The C28x C/C++ compiler supports the C99 preprocessor \_Pragma() operator. This preprocessor operator is similar to #pragma directives. However, \_Pragma can be used in preprocessing macros (#defines).

The syntax of the operator is:

```
_Pragma (" string_literal ");
```

The argument *string\_literal* is interpreted in the same way the tokens following a #pragma directive are processed. The string\_literal must be enclosed in quotes. A quotation mark that is part of the string\_literal must be preceded by a backward slash.

You can use the \_Pragma operator to express #pragma directives in macros. For example, the DATA\_SECTION syntax:

```
#pragma DATA SECTION( func ," section ");
```

Is represented by the Pragma() operator syntax:

```
_Pragma ("DATA_SECTION( func ,\" section \")")
```

The following code illustrates using Pragma to specify the DATA SECTION pragma in a macro:

```
#define EMIT_PRAGMA(x) _Pragma(#x)
#define COLLECT_DATA(var) EMIT_PRAGMA(DATA_SECTION(var, "mysection"))
COLLECT_DATA(x)
int x;
```



The EMIT\_PRAGMA macro is needed to properly expand the quotes that are required to surround the section argument to the DATA SECTION pragma.

# 6.12 Object File Symbol Naming Conventions (Linknames)

Each externally visible identifier is assigned a unique symbol name to be used in the object file, a socalled linkname. This name is assigned by the compiler according to an algorithm which depends on the name, type, and source language of the symbol. This algorithm may add a prefix to the identifier (typically an underscore), and it may mangle the name.

For COFF, the compiler places an underscore at the beginning of the linknames of C identifiers, so you can safely use identifiers that do not begin with an underscore in your assembly code.

Name mangling encodes the types of the parameters of a function in the linkname for a function. Name mangling only occurs for C++ functions which are not declared 'extern "C". Mangling allows function overloading, operator overloading, and type-safe linking. Be aware that the return value of the function is not encoded in the mangled name, as C++ functions cannot be overloaded based on the return value.

The mangling algorithm used closely follows that described in The Annotated Reference Manual (ARM).

For example, the general form of a C++ linkname for a function named func is:

```
_func__F parmcodes
```

Where parmcodes is a sequence of letters that encodes the parameter types of func.

For this simple C++ source file:

```
int foo(int i){ } //global C++ function
```

This is the resulting assembly code:

```
_foo__Fi
```

The linkname of foo is foo Fi, indicating that foo is a function that takes a single argument of type int. To aid inspection and debugging, a name demangling utility is provided that demangles names into those found in the original C++ source. See Chapter 9 for more information.

# 6.13 Initializing Static and Global Variables

The ANSI/ISO C standard specifies that global (extern) and static variables without explicit initializations must be initialized to 0 before the program begins running. This task is typically done when the program is loaded. Because the loading process is heavily dependent on the specific environment of the target application system, the compiler itself makes no provision for initializing to 0 otherwise uninitialized static storage class variables at run time. It is up to your application to fulfill this requirement.

#### **Initialize Global Objects**

NOTE: You should explicitly initialize all global objects which you expected the compiler would set to zero by default.

# 6.13.1 Initializing Static and Global Variables With the Linker

If your loader does not preinitialize variables, you can use the linker to preinitialize the variables to 0 in the object file. For example, in the linker command file, use a fill value of 0 in the .bss section:

```
SECTIONS
   {
       .bss: \{\} = 0x00;
```

Because the linker writes a complete load image of the zeroed .bss section into the output COFF file, this method can have the unwanted effect of significantly increasing the size of the output file (but not the program).



If you burn your application into ROM, you should explicitly initialize variables that require initialization. The preceding method initializes .bss to 0 only at load time, not at system reset or power up. To make these variables 0 at run time, explicitly define them in your code.

For more information about linker command files and the SECTIONS directive, see the linker description information in the *TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide*.

# 6.13.2 Initializing Static and Global Variables With the const Type Qualifier

Static and global variables of type *const* without explicit initializations are similar to other static and global variables because they might not be preinitialized to 0 (for the same reasons discussed in Section 6.13). For example:

```
const int zero; /* might not be initialized to 0 */
```

However, the initialization of const global and static variables is different because these variables are declared and initialized in a section called .const. For example:

```
const int zero = 0 /* guaranteed to be 0 */
```

This corresponds to an entry in the .const section:

```
.sect .const
_zero
.word 0
```

This feature is particularly useful for declaring a large table of constants, because neither time nor space is wasted at system startup to initialize the table. Additionally, the linker can be used to place the .const section in ROM.

You can use the DATA\_SECTION pragma to put the variable in a section other than .const. For example, the following C code:

```
#pragma DATA_SECTION (var, ".mysect");
    const int zero=0;
```

is compiled into this assembly code:

```
.sect .mysect
_zero
.word 0
```

# 6.14 Changing the ANSI/ISO C Language Mode

The language mode command-line options determine how the compiler interprets your source code. You specify one option to identify which language standard your code follows. You can also specify a separate option to specify how strictly the compiler should expect your code to conform to the standard.

Specify one of the following language options to control the language standard that the compiler expects the source to follow. The options are:

- Kernighan and Ritchie (K&R) C (--kr\_compatible or -pk, see Section 6.14.1.) Does not apply to C++
  code
- Embedded C++ (--embedded cpp or -pe, see Section 6.14.3.)

Use one of the following options to specify how strictly the code conforms to the standard:

- Normal ANSI/ISO mode (default)
- Relaxed ANSI/ISO (--relaxed\_ansi or -pr)
- Strict ANSI/ISO (--strict ansi or -ps)

The default is normal ANSI/ISO mode. Under normal ANSI/ISO mode, most ANSI/ISO violations are emitted as errors. Strict ANSI/ISO violations (those idioms and allowances commonly accepted by C/C++ compilers, although violations with a strict interpretation of ANSI/ISO), however, are emitted as warnings. Language extensions, even those that conflict with ANSI/ISO C, are enabled.



# 6.14.1 Compatibility With K&R C (--kr compatible Option)

The ANSI/ISO C language is a superset of the de facto C standard defined in Kernighan and Ritchie's *The C Programming Language*. K&R C mode does not apply to C++ code, nor does it accept the strict interpretation option. Most programs written for other non-ANSI/ISO compilers correctly compile and run without modification.

There are subtle changes, however, in the language that can affect existing code. Appendix C in *The C Programming Language* (second edition, referred to in this manual as K&R) summarizes the differences between ANSI/ISO C and the first edition's C standard (the first edition is referred to in this manual as K&R C).

To simplify the process of compiling existing C programs with the ANSI/ISO C/C++ compiler, the compiler has a K&R option (--kr\_compatible) that modifies some semantic rules of the language for compatibility with older code. In general, the --kr\_compatible option relaxes requirements that are stricter for ANSI/ISO C than for K&R C. The --kr\_compatible option does not disable any new features of the language such as function prototypes, enumerations, initializations, or preprocessor constructs. Instead, --kr\_compatible simply liberalizes the ANSI/ISO rules without revoking any of the features.

The specific differences between the ANSI/ISO version of C and the K&R version of C are as follows:

• The integral promotion rules have changed regarding promoting an unsigned type to a wider signed type. Under K&R C, the result type was an unsigned version of the wider type; under ANSI/ISO, the result type is a signed version of the wider type. This affects operations that perform differently when applied to signed or unsigned operands; namely, comparisons, division (and mod), and right shift:

```
unsigned short u; int i; if (u < i) /* SIGNED comparison, unless --kr_compatible used */ ^{\prime\prime}
```

 ANSI/ISO prohibits combining two pointers to different types in an operation. In most K&R compilers, this situation produces only a warning. Such cases are still diagnosed when --kr\_compatible is used, but with less severity:

 External declarations with no type or storage class (only an identifier) are illegal in ANSI/ISO but legal in K&R:

```
a; /* illegal unless --kr_compatible used */
```

ANSI/ISO interprets file scope definitions that have no initializers as tentative definitions. In a single
module, multiple definitions of this form are fused together into a single definition. Under K&R, each
definition is treated as a separate definition, resulting in multiple definitions of the same object and
usually an error. For example:

Under ANSI/ISO, the result of these two definitions is a single definition for the object a. For most K&R compilers, this sequence is illegal, because int a is defined twice.

• ANSI/ISO prohibits, but K&R allows objects with external linkage to be redeclared as static:

 Unrecognized escape sequences in string and character constants are explicitly illegal under ANSI/ISO but ignored under K&R:

```
char c = '\q'; /* same as 'q' if --kr_compatible used, error if not */
```

ANSI/ISO specifies that bit fields must be of type int or unsigned. With --kr\_compatible, bit fields can
be legally defined with any integral type. For example:

```
struct s
{
    short f : 2;    /* illegal unless --kr_compatible used */
};
```

K&R syntax allows a trailing comma in enumerator lists:

```
enum { a, b, c, }; /* illegal unless --kr_compatible used */
```



K&R syntax allows trailing tokens on preprocessor directives:

# 6.14.2 Enabling Strict ANSI/ISO Mode and Relaxed ANSI/ISO Mode (--strict\_ansi and -- relaxed\_ansi Options)

The default ANSI/ISO mode is normal mode. Under normal ANSI/ISO mode, most ANSI/ISO violations are emitted as errors. Strict ANSI/ISO violations (those idioms and allowances commonly accepted by C/C++ compilers, although violations with a strict interpretation of ANSI/ISO), however, are emitted as warnings. Language extensions, even those that conflict with ANSI/ISO C, are enabled.

Use the --relaxed\_ansi option to make the compiler accept language extensions that could potentially conflict with a strictly conforming ANSI/ISO C/C++ program. Under strict ANSI mode, these language extensions are suppressed so that the compiler will accept all strictly conforming programs.

Use the --strict\_ansi option when you know your program is a conforming program and it will not compile in relaxed mode. In this mode, language extensions that conflict with ANSI/ISO C/C++ are disabled and the compiler will emit error messages where the standard requires it to do so. Violations that are considered discretionary by the standard may be emitted as warnings instead.

#### **Examples:**

The following is strictly conforming C code, but will not be accepted by the compiler in the relaxed mode. To get the compiler to accept this code, use strict ANSI mode. The compiler will suppress the interrupt keyword language exception, and interrupt may then be used as an identifier in the code.

```
int main()
{
    int interrupt = 0;
    return 0;
}
```

The following is not strictly conforming code. The compiler will not accept this code in strict ANSI mode. To get the compiler to accept it, use relaxed ANSI mode. The compiler will provide the interrupt keyword extension and will accept the code

```
interrupt void isr(void);
int main()
{
    return 0;
}
```

The following code is accepted in all modes. The \_\_interrupt keyword does not conflict with the ANSI/ISO C standard, so it is always available as a language extension.

```
__interrupt void isr(void);
int main()
{
    return 0;
}
```

Relaxed ANSI mode accepts the broadest range of programs. It accepts all TI language extensions, even those which conflict with ANSI/ISO, and ignores some ANSI/ISO violations for which the compiler can do something reasonable. The GCC language extensions described in Section 6.15 are available in relaxed ANSI/ISO mode.



# 6.14.3 Enabling Embedded C++ Mode (--embedded cpp Option)

The compiler supports the compilation of embedded C++. In this mode, some features of C++ are removed that are of less value or too expensive to support in an embedded system. When compiling for embedded C++, the compiler generates diagnostics for the use of omitted features.

Embedded C++ is enabled by compiling with the --embedded cpp option.

Embedded C++ omits these C++ features:

- Templates
- Exception handling
- Run-time type information
- The new cast syntax
- · The keyword mutable
- Multiple inheritance
- Virtual inheritance
- lostream (see below)

Under the standard definition of embedded C++, namespaces and using-declarations are not supported. The C28x compiler nevertheless allows these features under embedded C++ because the C++ run-time-support library makes use of them. Furthermore, these features impose no run-time penalty.

The TMS320C28x compiler defines the \_embedded\_cplusplus macro for embedded C++ compile.

The run-time-support libraries supplied with the compiler can be used to link with a module compiled for embedded C++.

The default run-time support library does not support using iostream under embedded C++. Embedded C++ equivalents of some header files, including iostream, are included in the RTS source file zip distributed with the compiler, but these are not installed by default and will not work without an appropriately-configured library. The compiler does not support embedded C++ run-time-support libraries.

# 6.15 GNU Language Extensions

The GNU compiler collection (GCC) defines a number of language features not found in the ANSI/ISO C and C++ standards. The definition and examples of these extensions (for GCC version 4.7) can be found at the GNU web site. http://gcc.gnu.org/onlinedocs/gcc-4.7.2/gcc/C-Extensions.html#C-Extensions.

Most of these extensions are also available for C++ source code.

#### 6.15.1 Extensions

Most of the GCC language extensions are available in the TI compiler when compiling in relaxed ANSI mode (--relaxed\_ansi) or if the --gcc option is used.

The extensions that the TI compiler supports are listed in Table 6-3, which is based on the list of extensions found at the GNU web site. The shaded rows describe extensions that are not supported.

**Table 6-3. GCC Language Extensions** 

Extensions	Descriptions
Statement expressions	Putting statements and declarations inside expressions (useful for creating smart 'safe' macros)
Local labels	Labels local to a statement expression
Labels as values	Pointers to labels and computed gotos
Nested functions	As in Algol and Pascal, lexical scoping of functions
Constructing calls	Dispatching a call to another function
Naming types <sup>(1)</sup>	Giving a name to the type of an expression
typeof operator	typeof referring to the type of an expression
Generalized Ivalues	Using question mark (?) and comma (,) and casts in Ivalues

<sup>(1)</sup> Feature defined for GCC 3.0; definition and examples at <a href="http://gcc.gnu.org/onlinedocs/gcc-4.7.2/gcc/C-Extensions.html#C-Extensions">http://gcc.gnu.org/onlinedocs/gcc-4.7.2/gcc/C-Extensions.html#C-Extensions</a>



# **Table 6-3. GCC Language Extensions (continued)**

	rabio o o coo Languago Extensiono (commusar)
Extensions	Descriptions
Conditionals	Omitting the middle operand of a ?: expression
long long	Double long word integers and long long int type
Hex floats	Hexadecimal floating-point constants
Complex	Data types for complex numbers
Zero length	Zero-length arrays
Variadic macros	Macros with a variable number of arguments
Variable length	Arrays whose length is computed at run time
Empty structures	Structures with no members
Subscripting	Any array can be subscripted, even if it is not an Ivalue.
Escaped newlines	Slightly looser rules for escaped newlines
Multi-line strings <sup>(1)</sup>	String literals with embedded newlines
Pointer arithmetic	Arithmetic on void pointers and function pointers
Initializers	Non-constant initializers
Compound literals	Compound literals give structures, unions, or arrays as values
Designated initializers	Labeling elements of initializers
Cast to union	Casting to union type from any member of the union
Case ranges	'Case 1 9' and such
Mixed declarations	Mixing declarations and code
Function attributes	Declaring that functions have no side effects, or that they can never return
Attribute syntax	Formal syntax for attributes
Function prototypes	Prototype declarations and old-style definitions
C++ comments	C++ comments are recognized.
Dollar signs	A dollar sign is allowed in identifiers.
Character escapes	The character ESC is represented as \e
Variable attributes	Specifying the attributes of variables
Type attributes	Specifying the attributes of types
Alignment	Inquiring about the alignment of a type or variable
Inline	Defining inline functions (as fast as macros)
Assembly labels	Specifying the assembler name to use for a C symbol
Extended asm	Assembler instructions with C operands
Constraints	Constraints for asm operands
Alternate keywords	Header files can useconst,asm, etc
Explicit reg vars	Defining variables residing in specified registers
Incomplete enum types	Define an enum tag without specifying its possible values
Function names	Printable strings which are the name of the current function
Return address	Getting the return or frame address of a function (limited support)
Other built-ins	Other built-in functions (see Section 6.15.5)
Vector extensions	Using vector instructions through built-in functions
Target built-ins	Built-in functions specific to particular targets
Pragmas	Pragmas accepted by GCC
Unnamed fields	Unnamed struct/union fields within structs/unions
Thread-local	Per-thread variables
Binary constants	Binary constants using the '0b' prefix.
	, ,



Compiler Limits www.ti.com

#### 6.15.2 Function Attributes

The following GCC function attributes are supported: always\_inline, const, constructor, deprecated, format, format arg, malloc, noinline, noreturn, pure, section, unused, used and warn unused result.

The format attribute is applied to the declarations of printf, sprintf, sprintf, vprintf, vsprintf, vsprintf, vsprintf, scanf, fscanf, vscanf, vscanf, vscanf, and sscanf in stdio.h. Thus when GCC extensions are enabled, the data arguments of these functions are type checked against the format specifiers in the format string argument and warnings are issued when there is a mismatch. These warnings can be suppressed in the usual ways if they are not desired.

The malloc attribute is applied to the declarations of malloc, calloc, realloc and memalign in stdlib.h.

#### 6.15.3 Variable Attributes

The following variable attributes are supported: aligned, deprecated, mode, section, transparent\_union, unused, and used.

The used attribute is defined in GCC 4.2 (see <a href="http://gcc.gnu.org/onlinedocs/gcc-4.2.4/gcc/Variable-Attributes">http://gcc.gnu.org/onlinedocs/gcc-4.2.4/gcc/Variable-Attributes</a>).

# 6.15.4 Type Attributes

The following type attributes are supported: aligned, deprecated, transparent union, and unused.

#### 6.15.5 Built-In Functions

The following built-in functions are supported:builtin_abs,builtin_classify_type,builtin_constant_r
builtin_expect,builtin_fabs,builtin_fabsf,builtin_frame_address,builtin_labs,
builtin_memcpy, andbuiltin_return_address.
Thebuiltin_frame_address function always returns zero.
The builtin return address function always returns zero.

#### 6.16 Compiler Limits

Due to the variety of host systems supported by the C/C++ compiler and the limitations of some of these systems, the compiler may not be able to successfully compile source files that are excessively large or complex. In general, exceeding such a system limit prevents continued compilation, so the compiler aborts immediately after printing the error message. Simplify the program to avoid exceeding a system limit.

Some systems do not allow filenames longer than 500 characters. Make sure your filenames are shorter than 500.

The compiler has no arbitrary limits but is limited by the amount of memory available on the host system. On smaller host systems such as PCs, the optimizer may run out of memory. If this occurs, the optimizer terminates and the shell continues compiling the file with the code generator. This results in a file compiled with no optimization. The optimizer compiles one function at a time, so the most likely cause of this is a large or extremely complex function in your source module. To correct the problem, your options are:

- Don't optimize the module in question.
- Identify the function that caused the problem and break it down into smaller functions.
- Extract the function from the module and place it in a separate module that can be compiled without
  optimization so that the remaining functions can be optimized.



# **Run-Time Environment**

This chapter describes the TMS320C28x C/C++ run-time environment. To ensure successful execution of C/C++ programs, it is critical that all run-time code maintain this environment. It is also important to follow the guidelines in this chapter if you write assembly language functions that interface with C/C++ code.

Topic Page

7.1	Memory Model	124
7.2	Register Conventions	129
7.3	Function Structure and Calling Conventions	131
7.4	Interfacing C and C++ With Assembly Language	134
7.5	Interrupt Handling	144
7.6	Integer Expression Analysis	145
7.7	Floating-Point Expression Analysis	146
7.8	System Initialization	146



Memory Model www.ti.com

#### 7.1 **Memory Model**

The C28x compiler treats memory as two linear blocks of program and data memory:

- Program memory contains executable code, initialization records, and switch tables.
- Data memory contains external variables, static variables, and the system stack.

Blocks of code or data generated by a C/C++ program are placed into contiguous blocks in the appropriate memory space.

#### The Linker Defines the Memory Map

NOTE: The linker, not the compiler, defines the memory map and allocates code and data into target memory. The compiler assumes nothing about the types of memory available, about any locations not available for code or data (holes), or about any locations reserved for I/O or control purposes. The compiler produces relocatable code that allows the linker to allocate code and data into the appropriate memory spaces.

For example, you can use the linker to allocate global variables into on-chip RAM or to allocate executable code into external ROM. You can allocate each block of code or data individually into memory, but this is not a general practice (an exception to this is memorymapped I/O, although you can access physical memory locations with C/C++ pointer types).

# 7.1.1 Sections

The compiler produces relocatable blocks of code and data called sections. The sections are allocated into memory in a variety of ways to conform to a variety of system configurations. For more information about sections and allocating them, see the introductory object file information in the TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide.

There are two basic types of sections:

- Initialized sections contain data or executable code. Initialized sections are usually, but not always, read-only. The C/C++ compiler creates the following initialized sections:
  - The .cinit section and the .pinit section contain tables for initializing variables and constants. These are read-only sections.
    - The C28x .cinit record is limited to 16 bits. This limits initialized objects to 64K.
  - The .const section contains near string constants, string literals, switch tables, and data defined with the C/C++ qualifier const (provided the constant is not also defined as volatile and the small memory model is used). This is a read-only section. Near string literals are placed in the .const:.string subsection to enable greater link-time placement control.
  - The .econst section contains string constants and the declaration and initialization of global and static variables (qualified by far const or the use of the large memory model) that are explicitly initialized and placed in far memory. String literals are placed in the .econst:.string subsection to enable greater link-time placement control.
  - The **.switch** section contains tables for switch statements.
  - The .text section contains all the executable code and compiler-generated constants. This section is usually read-only.
- Uninitialized sections reserve space in memory (usually RAM). A program can use this space at run time to create and store variables. The compiler creates the following uninitialized sections:
  - The .bss section reserves space for global and static variables. At boot or load time, the C/C++ boot routine copies data out of the .cinit section (which can be in ROM) and stores it in the .bss section.
  - The .ebss section reserves space for global and static variables defined as far (C only) or when the large memory model is used. At program startup time, the C/C++ boot routine copies data out of the .cinit section (which can be in ROM) and uses it for initializing variables in the .ebss section.
  - The .stack section reserves memory for the C/C++ software stack. This memory is used to pass arguments to functions and to allocate space for local variables.
  - The .sysmem section reserves space for dynamic memory allocation. The reserved space is used



www.ti.com Memory Model

> by dynamic memory allocation routines, such as malloc, calloc, realloc, or new. If a C/C++ program does not use these functions, the compiler does not create the .sysmem section.

The .esysmem section reserves space for dynamic memory allocation. The reserved space is used by far malloc functions. If a C/C++ program does not use far malloc, the compiler does not create the .esysmem section.

The assembler creates the default sections .text. .bss. and .data. You can instruct the compiler to create additional sections by using the CODE SECTION and DATA SECTION pragmas (see Section 6.10.4 and Section 6.10.5).

The linker takes the individual sections from different object files and combines sections that have the same name. The resulting output sections and the appropriate placement in memory for each section are listed in Table 7-1. You can place these output sections anywhere in the address space as needed to meet system requirements.

Section	Type of Memory	Page	Section	Type of Memory	Page
.bss	RAM	1	.esysmem	RAM	1
.cinit	ROM or RAM	0	.pinit	ROM or RAM	0
.const	ROM or RAM	1	.stack	RAM	1
.data	RAM		.switch	ROM or RAM	0, 1
.ebss	RAM		.sysmem	RAM	1
.econst	ROM or RAM	1	.text	ROM or RAM	0

Table 7-1. Summary of Sections and Memory Placement

You can use the SECTIONS directive in the linker command file to customize the section-allocation process. For more information about allocating sections into memory, see the linker description chapter in the TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide.

# 7.1.2 C/C++ System Stack

The C/C++ compiler uses a stack to:

- Allocate local variables
- Pass arguments to functions
- Save the processor status
- Save function return addresses
- Save temporary results

The run-time stack grows up from low addresses to higher addresses. By default, the stack is allocated in the .stack section. (See the run-time-support boot.asm file.) The compiler uses the hardware stack pointer (SP) to manage this stack.

#### Linking the .stack Section

NOTE: The .stack section has to be linked into the low 64K of data memory. The SP is a 16-bit register and cannot access addresses beyond 64K.

For frames that exceed 63 words in size (the maximum reach of the SP offset addressing mode), the compiler uses XAR2 as a frame pointer (FP). Each function invocation creates a new frame at the top of the stack, from which local and temporary variables are allocated. The FP points at the beginning of this frame to access memory locations that can not be referenced directly using the SP.

The stack size is set by the linker. The linker also creates a global symbol, STACK SIZE, and assigns it a value equal to the size of the stack in bytes. The default stack size is 1K words. You can change the size of the stack at link time by using the --stack size linker option.



Memory Model www.ti.com

#### **Stack Overflow**

NOTE:

The compiler provides no means to check for stack overflow during compilation or at run time. A stack overflow disrupts the run-time environment, causing your program to fail. Be sure to allow enough space for the stack to grow. You can use the --entry\_hook option to add code to the beginning of each function to check for stack overflow; see Section 2.12.

# 7.1.3 Allocating .const/.econst to Program Memory

If your system configuration does not support allocating an initialized section such as .const/.econst to data memory, then you have to allocate the .const/.econst section to load in program memory and run in data memory. At boot time, copy the .const/.econst section from program to data memory. The following sequence shows how you can perform this task.

1. Extract boot.asm from the source library:

```
ar2000 -x rts.src boot.asm
```

2. Edit boot.asm and change the CONST\_COPY flag to 1:

```
CONST COPY .set 1
```

3. Assemble boot.asm:

```
cl2000 -v28 boot.asm
```

4. Archive the boot routine into the object library:

```
ar2000 -r rts2800.lib boot.obj
```

For a .const section, link with a linker command file that contains the following entries:

For an .econst section, link with a linker command file that contains the following entries:



www.ti.com Memory Model

In your linker command file, you can substitute the name PROG with the name of a memory area on page 0 and DATA with the name of a memory area on page 1. The rest of the command file must use the names as above. The code in boot asm that is enabled when you change CONST COPY to 1 depends on the linker command file using these names in this manner. To change any of the names, you must edit boot.asm and change the names in the same way.

### 7.1.4 Dynamic Memory Allocation

The run-time-support library supplied with the C28x compiler contains several functions (such as malloc, calloc, and realloc) that allow you to allocate memory dynamically for variables at run time.

Memory is allocated from a global pool, or heap, that is defined in the .sysmem section. You can set the size of the .sysmem section by using the --heap\_size=size option with the linker command. The linker also creates a global symbol, \_\_SYSMEM\_SIZE, and assigns it a value equal to the size of the heap in words. The default size is 1K words. For more information on the --heap size option, see the linker description chapter in the TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide.

If you use any C I/O function, the RTS library allocates an I/O buffer for each file you access. This buffer will be a bit larger than BUFSIZ, which is defined in stdio.h and defaults to 256. Make sure you allocate a heap large enough for these buffers or use setvbuf to change the buffer to a statically-allocated buffer.

Dynamically allocated objects are not addressed directly (they are always accessed with pointers) and the memory pool is in a separate section (.sysmem); therefore, the dynamic memory pool can have a size limited only by the amount of available memory in your system. To conserve space in the .bss section, you can allocate large arrays from the heap instead of defining them as global or static. For example, instead of a definition such as:

```
struct big table[100];
```

Use a pointer and call the malloc function:

```
struct big *table
table = (struct big *)malloc(100*sizeof(struct big));
```

A far memory pool or far heap, is also available through several far run-time-support library functions (such as far malloc, far calloc, and far realloc). The far heap is created by the linker. The linker also creates a global symbol, FAR SYSMEM SIZE, and assigns it a value equal to the size of the far heap in words. The default size is 1k words. You can change the size of the far memory pool, at link time, with the -farheap option. Specify the size of the memory pool as a constant after the -farheap option on the link command line.

#### **Heap Size Restriction**

NOTE: The near heap implementation restricts the size of the heap to 32k words. This constraint does not apply to the far heap.

#### 7.1.5 Initialization of Variables

The C/C++ compiler produces code that is suitable for use as firmware in a ROM-based system. In such a system, the initialization tables in the .cinit section are stored in ROM. At system initialization time, the C/C++ boot routine copies data from these tables (in ROM) to the initialized variables in .bss (RAM).

In situations where a program is loaded directly from an object file into memory and run, you can avoid having the .cinit section occupy space in memory. A loader can read the initialization tables directly from the object file (instead of from ROM) and perform the initialization directly at load time instead of at run time. You can specify this to the linker by using the --ram model link option. For more information, see Section 7.8.

# 7.1.6 Allocating Memory for Static and Global Variables

A unique, contiguous space is allocated for all static variables declared in a C/C++ program. The linker determines the address of the space. The compiler ensures that space for these variables is allocated in multiples of words so that each variable is aligned on a word boundary.



Memory Model www.ti.com

The C/C++ compiler expects global variables to be allocated into data memory. (It reserves space for them in .bss.) Variables declared in the same module are allocated into a single, contiguous block of memory.

# 7.1.7 Field/Structure Alignment

When the compiler allocates space for a structure, it allocates as many words as are needed to hold all of the structure's members and to comply with alignment constraints for each member.

All non-field types are aligned on word boundaries. Fields are allocated as many bits as requested. Adjacent fields are packed into adjacent bits of a word, but they do not overlap words. If a field would overlap into the next word, the entire field is placed into the next word.

Fields are packed as they are encountered; the least significant bits of the structure word are filled first.

# 7.1.8 Character String Constants

In C, a character string constant is used in one of the following ways:

· To initialize an array of characters. For example:

```
char s[] = "abc";
```

When a string is used as an initializer, it is simply treated as an initialized array; each character is a separate initializer. For more information about initialization, see Section 7.8.

• In an expression. For example:

```
strcpy (s, "abc");
```

When a string is used in an expression, the string itself is defined in the .const section with the .string assembler directive, along with a unique label that points to the string; the terminating 0 byte is included. For example, the following lines define the string abc, and the terminating 0 byte (the label SL5 points to the string):

```
.sect ".const"
SL5: .string "abc",0
```

String labels have the form SLn, where n is a number assigned by the compiler to make the label unique. The number begins at 0 and is increased by 1 for each string defined. All strings used in a source module are defined at the end of the compiled assembly language module.

The label SL*n* represents the address of the string constant. The compiler uses this label to reference the string expression.

Because strings are stored in the .const section (possibly in ROM) and shared, it is bad practice for a program to modify a string constant. The following code is an example of incorrect string use:

#### 7.1.9 far Character String Constants

In C, a character string constant can be placed in the .econst section. When initializing a character pointer or using a character in an expression, use the far keyword. For example:

far string constants are placed in the .econst section is the same manner as described in Section 7.1.8. The far string labels have the form FSLn. This method is also used with the large memory model.



www.ti.com Register Conventions

# 7.2 Register Conventions

Strict conventions associate specific registers with specific operations in the C/C++ environment. If you plan to interface an assembly language routine to a C/C++ program, you must understand and follow these register conventions.

The register conventions dictate how the compiler uses registers and how values are preserved across function calls. There are two types of register variable registers, save on entry and save on call. The distinction between these two types of registers is the method by which they are preserved across function calls. It is the called function's responsibility to preserve save-on-entry registers, and the calling function's responsibility to preserve save-on-call registers if you need to preserve that register's value.

# 7.2.1 TMS320C28x Register Use and Preservation

Table 7-2 summarizes how the compiler uses the TMS320C28x registers and shows which registers are defined to be preserved across function calls.

The FPU uses all the C28x registers as well as the registers described in Table 7-3.

**Table 7-2. Register Use and Preservation Conventions** 

Register	Usage	Save on Entry	Save on Call
AL	Expressions, argument passing, and returns 16-bit results from functions	No	Yes
AH	Expressions and argument passing	No	Yes
OP	Data page pointer (used to access global variables)	No	No
PH	Multiply expressions and Temp variables	No	Yes
PL	Multiply expressions and Temp variables	No	Yes
SP	Stack pointer		<sub>(1)</sub> (1)
Γ	Multiply and shift expressions	No	Yes
ΓL	Multiply and shift expressions	No	Yes
KAR0	Pointers and expressions	No	Yes
KAR1	Pointers and expressions	Yes	No
KAR2	Pointers, expressions, and frame pointing (when needed)	Yes	No
KAR3	Pointers and expressions	Yes	No
KAR4	Pointers, expressions, argument passing, and returns 16- and 22-bit pointer values from functions	No	Yes
KAR5	Pointers, expressions, and arguments	No	Yes
KAR6	Pointers and expressions	No	Yes
XAR7	Pointers, expressions, indirect calls and branches (used to implement pointers to functions and switch statements)	No	Yes

The SP is preserved by the convention that everything pushed on the stack is popped off before returning.

Table 7-3. FPU Register Use and Preservation Conventions

Register	Usage	Save on Entry	Save on Call
R0H	Expressions, argument passing, and returns 32-bit float from functions	No	Yes
R1H	Expressions and argument passing	No	Yes
R2H	Expressions and argument passing	No	Yes
R3H	Expressions and argument passing	No	Yes
R4H	Expressions	Yes	No
R5H	Expressions	Yes	No
R6H	Expressions	Yes	No
R7H	Expressions	Yes	No



Register Conventions www.ti.com

#### 7.2.2 Status Registers

Table 7-4 shows all of the status fields used by the compiler. Presumed value is the value the compiler expects in that field upon entry to, or return from, a function; a dash in this column indicates the compiler does not expect a particular value. The modified column indicates whether code generated by the compiler ever modifies this field.

**Table 7-4. Status Register Fields** 

Field	Name	Presumed Value	Modified
ARP	Auxiliary Register Pointer	-	Yes
С	Carry	-	Yes
N	Negative flag	-	Yes
OVM	Overflow mode	O <sup>(1)</sup>	Yes
PAGE0	Direct/stack address mode	O <sup>(1)</sup>	No
PM	Product shift mode	O <sup>(1)</sup>	Yes
SPA	Stack pointer align bit	-	Yes (in interrupts)
SXM	Sign extension mode	-	Yes
TC	Test/control flag	-	Yes
V	Overflow flag	-	Yes
Z	Zero flag	-	Yes

<sup>(1)</sup> The initialization routine that sets up the C run-time environment sets these fields to the presumed value

Table 7-5 shows the additional status fields used by the compiler for FPU Targets.

Table 7-5. Floating-Point Status Register (STF<sup>(1)</sup>) Fields For FPU Targets Only

Field	Name	Presumed Value	Modified
LVF <sup>(2)</sup> (3)	Latched overflow float flag	-	Yes
LUF <sup>(2)</sup> (3)	Latched underflow float flag	-	Yes
NF <sup>(2)</sup>	Negative float flag	-	Yes
ZF <sup>(2)</sup>	Zero float flag	-	Yes
NI <sup>(2)</sup>	Negative integer flag	-	Yes
ZI <sup>(2)</sup>	Zero integer flag bit	-	Yes
TF <sup>(2)</sup>	Test flag bit	-	Yes
RNDF32	Round F32 mode <sup>(4)</sup>	-	Yes
RNDF64	Round F64 mode <sup>(4)</sup>	-	Yes
SHDWS	Shadow mode status	-	Yes

<sup>(1)</sup> Unused STF register bits read 0 and writes are ignored.

All other status register fields are not used and do not affect code generated by the compiler.

<sup>(2)</sup> Specified flags in the STF register can be exported to the ST0 register by way of the MOVST0 instruction.

<sup>(3)</sup> The LVF and LUF flag signals can be connected to the PIE to generate an overflow-and-underflow interrupt. This can be a useful debug tool.

<sup>(4)</sup> If RNDF32 or RNDF64 is 0, mode is round to zero (truncate), otherwise mode is round to nearest (even).



# 7.3 Function Structure and Calling Conventions

The C/C++ compiler imposes a strict set of rules on function calls. Except for special run-time support functions, any function that calls or is called by a C/C++ function must follow these rules. Failure to adhere to these rules can disrupt the C/C++ environment and cause a program to fail.

Figure 7-1 illustrates a typical function call. In this example, parameters that cannot be placed in registers are passed to the function on the stack. The function then allocates local variables and calls another function. This example shows the allocated local frame and argument block for the called function. Functions that have no local variables and do not require an argument block do not allocate a local frame.

The term *argument block* refers to the part of the local frame used to pass arguments to other functions. Parameters are passed to a function by moving them into the argument block rather than pushing them on the stack. The local frame and argument block are allocated at the same time.

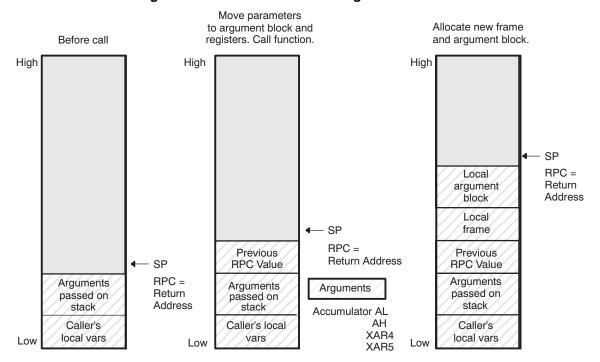


Figure 7-1. Use of the Stack During a Function Call

# 7.3.1 How a Function Makes a Call

A function (parent function) performs the following tasks when it calls another function (child function).

- Any registers whose values are not necessarily preserved by the function being called (registers that are not save-on-entry (SOE) registers), but will be needed after the function returns are saved on the stack
- 2. If the called function returns a structure, the calling function allocates the space for the structure and pass the address of that space to the called function as the first argument.
- 3. Arguments passed to the called function are placed in registers and, when necessary, placed on the stack.

Arguments are placed in registers using the following scheme:

- (a) If the target is FPU and there are any 32-bit float arguments, the first four float arguments are placed in registers R0H-R3H.
- (b) If there are any 64-bit integer arguments (long long), the first is placed in ACC and P (ACC holds the upper 32 bits and P holds the lower 32 bits). All other 64-bit arguments are placed on the stack in reverse order.

If the P register is used for argument passing, then prolog/epilog abstraction is disabled for that function. See Section 3.10 for more information on abstraction.



(c) If there are any 32-bit arguments (longs or floats) the first is placed in the 32-bit ACC (AH/AL). All other 32-bit arguments are placed on the stack in reverse order.

```
func1(long a, long long b, int c, int* d);
    stack ACC/P XAR5, XAR4
```

- (d) Pointer arguments are placed in XAR4 and XAR5. All other pointers are placed on the stack.
- (e) Remaining 16-bit arguments are placed in the order AL, AH, XAR4, XAR5 if they are available.
- 4. Any remaining arguments not placed in registers are pushed on the stack in reverse order. That is, the leftmost argument that is placed on the stack is pushed on the stack last. All 32-bit arguments are aligned to even addresses on the stack.

A structure argument is passed as the address of the structure. The called function must make a local copy.

For a function declared with an ellipsis, indicating that it is called with varying numbers of arguments, the convention is slightly modified. The last explicitly declared argument is passed on the stack so that its stack address can act as a reference for accessing the undeclared arguments.

5. The stack pointer (SP) must be even-aligned by the parent function prior to making a call to the child function. This is done by incrementing the stack pointer by 1, if necessary. If needed, the coder should increment the SP before making the call.

Some examples of function calls that show where arguments are placed are listed below:

- 6. The caller calls the function using the LCR instruction. The RPC register value is pushed on the stack. The return address is then stored in the RPC register.
- 7. The stack is aligned at function boundary.

#### 7.3.2 How a Called Function Responds

A called function (child function) must perform the following tasks:

- 1. If the called function modifies XAR1, XAR2, or XAR3, it must save them, since the calling function assumes that the values of these registers are preserved upon return. If the target is FPU, then in addition to the C28x registers, the called function must save registers R4H, R5H, R6H or R7H, if it modifies any of them. Any other registers may be modified without preserving them.
- 2. The called function allocates enough space on the stack for any local variables, temporary storage area, and arguments to functions that this function might call. This allocation occurs once at the beginning of the function by adding a constant to the SP register.
- 3. The stack is aligned at function boundary.
- 4. If the called function expects a structure argument, it receives a pointer to the structure instead. If writes are made to the structure from within the called function, space for a local copy of the structure must be allocated on the stack and the local structure must be copied from the passes pointer to the structure. If no writes are made to the structure, it can be referenced in the called function indirectly through the pointer argument.

You must be careful to properly declare functions that accept structure arguments, both at the point where they are called (so that the structure argument is passed as an address) and at the point where they are declared (so the function knows to copy the structure to a local copy).

- 5. The called function executes the code for the function.
- 6. The called function returns a value. It is placed in a register using the following convention:



16-bit integer value AL
32-bit integer value ACC
64-bit integer value ACC/P
16- or 22-bit pointer XAR4

If the target is FPU and a 32-bit float value is returned, the called function places this value in R0H.

If the function returns a structure, the caller allocates space for the structure and passes the address of the return space to the called function in XAR4. To return a structure, the called function copies the structure to the memory block pointed by the extra argument.

In this way, the caller can be smart about telling the called function where to return the structure. For example, in the statement s = f(x), where S is a structure and F is a function that returns a structure, the caller can actually make the call as f(&s, x). The function f then copies the return structure directly into s, performing the assignment automatically.

If the caller does not use the return structure value, an address value of 0 can be passed as the first argument. This directs the called function not to copy the return structure.

You must be careful to properly declare functions that return structures both at the point where they are called (so that the extra argument is passed) and at the point where they are declared (so the function knows to copy the result). Returning 64-bit floating-point values (long double) are returned similarly to structures.

- 7. The called function deallocates the frame by subtracting the value that was added to the SP earlier.
- 8. The called function restores the values of all registers saved in Step 1.
- 9. The called function returns using the LRETR instruction. The PC is set to the value in the RPC register. The previous RPC value is popped from the stack and stored in the RPC register.

# 7.3.3 Special Case for a Called Function (Large Frames)

If the space that needs to be allocated on the stack (step 2 in the previous section) is larger than 63 words, additional steps and resources are required to ensure that all local nonregister variables can be accessed. Large frames require using a frame pointer register (XAR2) to reference local non-register variables within the frame. Prior to allocating space on the frame, the frame pointer is set up to point at the first argument on the stack that was passed on to the called function. If no incoming arguments are passed on to the stack, the frame pointer points to the return address of the calling function, which is at the top of the stack upon entry to the called function.

Avoid allocating large amounts of local data when possible. For example, do not declare large arrays within functions.

# 7.3.4 Accessing Arguments and Local Variables

A function accesses its local nonregister variables and its stack arguments indirectly through either the SP or the FP (frame pointer, designated to be XAR2). All local and argument data that can be accessed with the SP use the \*-SP [offset] addressing mode since the SP always points one past the top of the stack and the stack grows toward larger addresses.

#### The PAGE0 Mode Bit Must Be Reset

**NOTE:** Since the compiler uses the \*-SP [offset] addressing mode, the PAGE0 mode bit must be reset (set to 0).

The largest offset available using \*-SP [offset] is 63. If an object is too far away from the SP to use this mode of access, the compiler uses the FP (XAR2). Since FP points at the bottom of the frame, accesses made with the FP use either \*+FP [offset] or \*+FP [AR0/AR1] addressing modes. Since large frames require utilizing XAR2 and possibly an index register, extra code and resources are required to make local accesses.



# 7.3.5 Allocating the Frame and Accessing 32-Bit Values in Memory

Some TMS320C28x instructions read and write 32 bits of memory at once (MOVL, ADDL, etc.). These instructions require that 32-bit objects be allocated on an even boundary. To ensure that this occurs, the compiler takes these steps:

- 1. It initializes the SP to an even boundary.
- 2. Because a call instruction adds 2 to the SP, it assumes that the SP is pointing at an even address.
- 3. It makes sure that the space allocated on the frame totals an even number, so that the SP points to an even address.
- 4. It makes sure that 32-bit objects are allocated to even addresses, relative to the known even address in the SP.
- 5. Because interrupts cannot assume that the SP is odd or even, it aligns the SP to an even address.

For more information on how these instructions access memory, see the *TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide*.

# 7.4 Interfacing C and C++ With Assembly Language

The following are ways to use assembly language with C/C++ code:

- Use separate modules of assembled code and link them with compiled C/C++ modules (see Section 7.4.1).
- Use assembly language variables and constants in C/C++ source (see Section 7.4.3).
- Use inline assembly language embedded directly in the C/C++ source (see Section 7.4.5).
- Use intrinsics in C/C++ source to directly call an assembly language statement (see Section 7.4.6).

# 7.4.1 Using Assembly Language Modules With C/C++ Code

Interfacing C/C++ with assembly language functions is straightforward if you follow the calling conventions defined in Section 7.3, and the register conventions defined in Section 7.2. C/C++ code can access variables and call functions defined in assembly language, and assembly code can access C/C++ variables and call C/C++ functions.

Follow these guidelines to interface assembly language and C:

- All functions, whether they are written in C/C++ or assembly language, must follow the register conventions outlined in Section 7.2.
- Dedicated registers modified by a function must be preserved. Dedicated registers include:

XAR1	R4H (FPU only)
XAR2	R5H (FPU only)
XAR3	R6H (FPU only)
SP	R7H (FPU only)

If the SP is used normally, it does not need to be preserved explicitly. The assembly function is free to use the stack as long as anything that is pushed on the stack is popped back off before the function returns (thus preserving the SP).

Any register that is not dedicated can be used freely without being preserved.

- The stack pointer (SP) must be even-aligned by the parent function prior to making a call to the child function. This is done by incrementing the stack pointer by 1, if necessary. If needed, the coder should increment the SP before making the call.
- The stack is aligned at function boundary.
- Interrupt routines must save all the registers they use. For more information, see Section 7.5.
- When you call a C/C++ function from assembly language, load the designated registers with arguments and push the remaining arguments onto the stack as described in Section 7.3.1.
   When accessing arguments passed in from a C/C++ function, these same conventions apply.
- Longs and floats are stored in memory with the least significant word at the lower address.



- Structures are returned as described in Section 7.3.2.
- No assembly module should use the .cinit section for any purpose other than autoinitialization of global variables. The C/C++ startup routine assumes that the .cinit section consists *entirely* of initialization tables. Disrupting the tables by putting other information in .cinit can cause unpredictable results.
- The compiler prepends an underscore ( \_ ) to the beginning of all identifiers. In assembly language modules, you must use the prefix \_ for all objects that are to be accessible from C/C++. For example, a C/C++ object named x is called \_x in assembly language. For identifiers that are to be used only in an assembly language module or modules, any name that does not begin with an underscore can be safely used without conflicting with a C/C++ identifier.
- The compiler assigns linknames to all external objects. Thus, when you write assembly language code, you must use the same linknames as those assigned by the compiler. See Section 6.12 for details.
- Any object or function declared in assembly language that is accessed or called from C/C++ must be
  declared with the .def or .global directive in the assembly language modifier. This declares the symbol
  as external and allows the linker to resolve references to it.
  - Likewise, to access a C/C++ function or object from assembly language, declare the C/C++ object with the .ref or .global directive in the assembly language module. This creates an undeclared external reference that the linker resolves.
- Because compiled code runs with the PAGE0 mode bit reset, if you set the PAGE0 bit to 1 in your assembly language function, you must set it back to 0 before returning to compiled code.
- If you define a structure in assembly and access it in C using extern struct, the structure should be blocked. The compiler assumes that structure definitions are blocked to optimize the DP load. So the definition should honor this assumption. You can block the structure by specifying the blocking flag in the .usect or .bss directive. See the TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide for more information on these directives.

# 7.4.2 Accessing Assembly Language Functions From C/C++

Functions defined in C++ that will be called from assembly should be defined as extern "C" in the C++ file. Functions defined in assembly that will be called from C++ must be prototyped as extern "C" in C++.

Example 7-1 illustrates a C++ function called main, which calls an assembly language function called asmfunc, Example 7-2. The asmfunc function takes its single argument, adds it to the C++ global variable called gvar, and returns the result.

#### Example 7-1. Calling an Assembly Language Function From a C/C++ Program

#### Example 7-2. Assembly Language Program Called by Example 7-1

```
.global _gvar
.global _asmfunc

_asmfunc:

MOVZ DP,#_gvar
ADDB AL,#5
MOV @_gvar,AL
LRETR
```



In the C++ program in Example 7-1, the extern "C" declaration tells the compiler to use C naming conventions (i.e., no name mangling). When the linker resolves the .global \_asmfunc reference, the corresponding definition in the assembly file will match.

The parameter i is passed in register AL.

# 7.4.3 Accessing Assembly Language Variables From C/C++

It is sometimes useful for a C/C++ program to access variables or constants defined in assembly language. There are several methods that you can use to accomplish this, depending on where and how the item is defined: a variable defined in the .bss section, a variable not defined in the .bss section, or a linker symbol.

# 7.4.3.1 Accessing Assembly Language Global Variables

Accessing variables from the .bss section or a section named with .usect is straightforward:

- 1. Use the .bss or .usect directive to define the variable.
- 2. Use the .def or .global directive to make the definition external.
- 3. Use the appropriate linkname in assembly language.
- 4. In C/C++, declare the variable as extern and access it normally.

Example 7-4 and Example 7-3 show how you can access a variable defined in .bss.

# Example 7-3. Assembly Language Variable Program

```
* Note the use of underscores in the following lines

.bss _var,1 ; Define the variable
.global _var ; Declare it as external
```

# Example 7-4. C Program to Access Assembly Language From Example 7-3

```
extern int var; /* External variable */
var = 1; /* Use the variable */
```

#### 7.4.3.2 Accessing Assembly Language Constants

You can define global constants in assembly language by using the .set directive in combination with either the .def or .global directive, or you can define them in a linker command file using a linker assignment statement. These constants are accessible from C/C++ only with the use of special operators.

For **variables** defined in C/C++ or assembly language, the symbol table contains the *address of the value* contained by the variable. When you access an assembly variable by name from C/C++, the compiler gets the value using the address in the symbol table.

For **assembly constants**, however, the symbol table contains the actual *value* of the constant. The compiler cannot tell which items in the symbol table are addresses and which are values. If you access an assembly (or linker) constant by name, the compiler tries to use the value in the symbol table as an address to fetch a value. To prevent this behavior, you must use the & (address of) operator to get the value. In other words, if x is an assembly language constant, its value in C/C++ is &x.

For more about symbols and the symbol table, refer to the section on "Symbols" in the *TMS320C28x* Assembly Language Tools User's Guide.



You can use casts and #defines to ease the use of these symbols in your program, as in Example 7-5 and Example 7-6.

#### Example 7-5. Accessing an Assembly Language Constant From C

# Example 7-6. Assembly Language Program for Example 7-5

```
_table_size .set 10000 ; define the constant .global _table_size ; make it global
```

Because you are referencing only the symbol's value as stored in the symbol table, the symbol's declared type is unimportant. In Example 7-5, int is used. You can reference linker-defined symbols in a similar manner.

# 7.4.4 Sharing C/C++ Header Files With Assembly Source

You can use the .cdecls assembler directive to share C headers containing declarations and prototypes between C and assembly code. Any legal C/C++ can be used in a .cdecls block and the C/C++ declarations will cause suitable assembly to be generated automatically, allowing you to reference the C/C++ constructs in assembly code. For more information, see the C/C++ header files chapter in the TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide.

# 7.4.5 Using Inline Assembly Language

Within a C/C++ program, you can use the asm statement to insert a single line of assembly language into the assembly language file created by the compiler. A series of asm statements places sequential lines of assembly language into the compiler output with no intervening code. For more information, see Section 6.9.

The asm statement is useful for inserting comments in the compiler output. Simply start the assembly code string with a semicolon (;) as shown below:

```
asm(";*** this is an assembly language comment");
```

#### NOTE: Using the asm Statement

Keep the following in mind when using the asm statement:

- Be extremely careful not to disrupt the C/C++ environment. The compiler does not check or analyze the inserted instructions.
- Avoid inserting jumps or labels into C/C++ code because they can produce unpredictable results by confusing the register-tracking algorithms that the code generator uses.
- Do not change the value of a C/C++ variable when using an asm statement. This is because the compiler does not verify such statements. They are inserted as is into the assembly code, and potentially can cause problems if you are not sure of their effect.
- Do not use the asm statement to insert assembler directives that change the assembly environment.
- Avoid creating assembly macros in C code and compiling with the --symdebug:dwarf (or -g) option. The C environment's debug information and the assembly macro expansion are not compatible.



# 7.4.6 Using Intrinsics to Access Assembly Language Statements

The C28x compiler recognizes a number of intrinsic operators. Intrinsics allow you to express the meaning of certain assembly statements that would otherwise be cumbersome or inexpressible in C/C++. Intrinsics are used like functions; you can use C/C++ variables with these intrinsics, just as you would with any normal function.

The intrinsics are specified with a leading double underscore, and are accessed by calling them as you do a function. For example:

```
long lvar;
int ivar;
unsigned int uivar;
lvar = __mpyxu(ivar, uivar);
```

The intrinsics listed in Table 7-6 are included. They correspond to the indicated TMS320C28x assembly language instruction(s). See the *TMS320C28x CPU* and *Instruction Set Reference Guide* for more information.

Table 7-6. TMS320C28x C/C++ Compiler Intrinsics

Intrinsic	Assembly Instruction(s)	Description
intabs16_sat( int src );	SETC OVM MOV AH, STC ABS ACC MOV dst, AH CLRC OVM	Clear the OVM status bit. Load <i>src</i> into AH. Take absolute value of ACC. Store AH into <i>dst</i> . Clear the OVM status bit.
voidadd( int *m, int b );	ADD * m , b	Add the contents of memory location $m$ to $b$ and store the result in $m$ , in an atomic way.
longaddcu( long src1, unsigned int src2 );	ADDCU ACC, {mem   reg}	The contents of <i>src2</i> and the value of the carry bit are added to ACC. The result is in ACC.
voidaddl( long *m, long b);	ADDL * m, b	Add the contents of memory location $m$ to $b$ and store the result in $m$ , in an atomic way.
unsigned shortaddr32_read_uint16( unsigned long addr );		Return the value stored at a 32-bit address as an unsigned short value. For use with data placed higher than the normal 22-bit address range.
unsigned longaddr32_read_uint32( unsigned long addr);		Return the value stored at a 32-bit address as an unsigned long value. For use with data placed higher than the normal 22-bit address range.
voidaddr32_write_uint16( unsigned long addr , unsigned short val);		Write the unsigned short <i>val</i> to the location specified by <i>addr</i> . For use with data placed higher than the normal 22-bit address range.
voidaddr32_write_uint32( unsigned long addr , unsigned long val);		Write the unsigned long <i>val</i> to the location specified by <i>addr</i> . For use with data placed higher than the normal 22-bit address range.
void <b>and(</b> int * <i>m</i> , int <i>b</i> );	<b>AND</b> * <i>m</i> , <i>b</i>	AND the contents of memory location $m$ to $b$ and store the result in m, in an atomic way.
int &byte( int *array, unsigned int byte_index );	MOVB array [byte_index].LSB, src or MOVB dst, array [byte_index ].LSB	The lowest addressable unit in C28x is 16 bits. Therefore, normally you cannot access 8-bit entities off a memory location. This intrinsic helps access an 8-bit quantity off a memory location, and can be invoked as follows: byte(array,5) = 10; b =byte(array,20);
voiddec( int *m);	DEC * m	Decrement the contents of memory location <i>m</i> in an atomic way.
unsigned intdisable_interrupts( );	PUSH ST1 SETC INTM, DBGM POP reg16	Disable interrupts and return the old value of the interrupt vector.



Table 7-6. TMS320C28x C/C++ Compiler Intrinsics (continued)

Intrinsic	Assembly Instruction(s)	Description
voiddmac( long *src1, long *src2, long &accum1, long &accum2, int shift);	SPM n; the PM value required for shift MOVL ACC, accum1 MOVL P, accum2 MOVL XARX, src1 MOVL XAR7, src2 DMAC ACC:P, *XARX++, *XAR7++	Set the required PM value for shift.  Move accum1 and accum2 into ACC and P.  Move the addresses src1 and src2 into XARx and XAR7.  ACC = ACC + (src1[i+1] * src2[i+1]) << PM P = P + (src1[i] * src2[i]) << PM See Section 3.11.3 for more information.
unsigned intenable_interrupts( );	PUSH ST1 CLRC INTM, DBGM POP reg16	Enable interrupts and return the old value of the interrupt vector.
intflip16(int src);		Reverses order of bits in int src.
longflip32(long src);		Reverses order of bits in long src.
long longflip64(long long src);		Reverses order of bits in long long src.
voidinc( int *m);	INC *m	Increment the contents of memory location <i>m</i> in an atomic way.
long= <b>IQ(</b> long double <i>A</i> , int <i>N</i> <b>)</b> ;		Convert the long double A into the correct IQN value returned as a long type. If both arguments are constants the compiler converts the arguments to the IQ value during compile time. Otherwise a call to the RTS routine,IQ, is made. This intrinsic cannot be used to initialize global variables to the .cinit section.
long $dst = _{\mathbf{N}} \mathbf{Qmpy(} $ long $A$ , long $B$ , int $N$ );		The dst becomes ACC or P, A becomes XT:
If $N == 0$ :	IMPYL {ACC P}, XT, B	The dst is ACC or P. If dst is ACC, the instruction takes 2 cycles. If dst is P, the instruction takes 1 cycle.
If 0 < N < 16:	IMPYL P, XT, B QMPYL ACC, XT, B LSR64 ACC:P, # N	
If 15 < N < 32:	IMPYL P, XT, B QMPYL ACC, XT, B LSL64 ACC:P, #(32- N)	
If N == 32:	QMPYL {ACC P}, XT, B	
If N is a variable:	IMPYL P, XT, B QMPYL ACC, XT, B MOV T, N LSR64 ACC:P, T	
long $dst =IQsat( long A, long max, long min );$	·	The dst becomes ACC. Different code is
If max and min are 22-bit unsigned constants:	MOVL ACC, A MOVL XAR n, # 22bits MINL ACC, P MOVL XAR n, # 22bits MAXL ACC, P	generated based on the value of <i>max</i> and/or <i>min</i> .
If max and min are other constants:	MOVL ACC, A MOV PL, # max lower 16 bits MOV PH, # max upper 16 bits MINL ACC, P MOV PL, # min lower 16 bits MOV PH, # min upper 16 bits MAXL ACC, P	
If max and/or min are variables:	MOVL ACC, A MINL ACC, max MAXL ACC, min	
long $dst = \mathbf{IQxmpy(}long A $ , $long B$ , $int N);$		The <i>dst</i> becomes ACC or P; <i>A</i> becomes XT. Code is generated based on the value of <i>N</i> .
If $N == 0$ :	IMPYL ACC/P, XT, B	The dst is in ACC or P.
If 0 < N < 17:	IMPYL P, XT, B QMPYL ACC, XT, B LSL64 ACC:P, # N	The dst is in ACC.



Table 7-6. TMS320C28x C/C++ Compiler Intrinsics (continued)

Intrinsic	Assembly Instruction(s)	Description
If 0 > N > -17:	QMPYL ACC, XT, B SETC SXM SFR ACC, #abs( <i>N</i> )	The dst is in ACC.
If 16 < N < 32:	IMPYL P, XT, B QMPYL ACC, XT, B ASR64 ACC:P, # N	The <i>dst</i> is in P.
If N == 32:	IMPYL P, XT, B	The dst is in P.
If -16 > N > -33	QMPYL ACC, XT, B SETC SXM SRF ACC, #16 SRF ACC, #abs(//)-16	The dst is in ACC.
If 32 < N < 49:	IMPYL ACC, XT, B LSL ACC, # N-32	The dst is in ACC.
If -32 > N > -49:	QMPYL ACC, XT, B SETC SXM SFR ACC, #16 SFR ACC, #16	The dst is in ACC.
If 48 < N < 65:	IMPYL ACC, XT, B LSL64 ACC:P, #16 LSL64 ACC:P, # N-48	The dst is in ACC.
If -48 > N > -65:	QMPYL ACC, XT, B SETC SXM SFR ACC, #16 SFR ACC, #16	The dst is in ACC.
long longllmax(long long dst, long long src);	MAXL ACC, src.hi32 MAXCUL P, src.lo32	If src > dst, copy src to dst.
long longllmin(long long dst, long long src);	MINL ACC, src.hi32 MINCUL P, src.lo32	If src < dst, copy src to dst
longlmax(long dst, long src);	MAXL ACC, src	If src > dst, copy src to dst.
longlmin(long dst, long src);	MINL ACC, src	If src < dst, copy src to dst
intmax(int dst, int src);	MAX dst, src	If src > dst, copy src to dst
intmin(int dst, int src);	MIN dst, src	If src < dst, copy src to dst
intmov_byte( int *src, unsigned int n );	MOVB AX.LSB,*+XARx[ n ] or	Return the 8-bit <i>n</i> th element of a byte table pointed to by <i>src</i> .
	MOVZ AR0/AR1, @ n MOVB AX.LSB,*XARx[ {AR0 AR1} ]	This intrinsic is provided for backward compatibility. The intrinsicbyte is preferred as it returns a reference. Nothing can be done withmov_byte() that cannot be done withbyte().
longmpy( int src1, int src2 );	MPY ACC, src1, # src2	Move <i>src1</i> to the T register. Multiply T by a 16-bit immediate ( <i>src2</i> ). The result is in ACC.
longmpyb( int src1, uint src2 );	<b>MPYB</b> {ACC   P}, <b>T</b> , <b>#</b> <i>src2</i>	Multiply <i>src1</i> (the T register) by an unsigned 8-bit immediate ( <i>src2</i> ). The result is in ACC or P.
longmpy_mov_t( int src1, int src2, int * dst2 );	MPY ACC, T, src2 MOV @ dst2, T	Multiply src1 (the T register) by src2. The result is in ACC. Move src1 to *dst2.
unsigned longmpyu(unit src2, unit srt2);	MPYU {ACC   P}, T,src2	Multiply <i>src1</i> (the T register) by <i>src2</i> . Both operands are treated as unsigned 16-bit numbers. The result is in ACC or P.
longmpyxu( int src1, uint src2 );	MPYXU ACC, T, {mem reg}	The T register is loaded with <i>src1</i> . The <i>src2</i> is referenced by memory or loaded into a register. The result is in ACC.
long $dst = $ norm32(long $src$ , int * $shift$ );	CSB ACC LSLL ACC, T MOV @ shift, T	Normalize <i>src</i> into <i>dst</i> and update * <i>shift</i> with the number of bits shifted.



Table 7-6. TMS320C28x C/C++ Compiler Intrinsics (continued)

Intrinsic	Assembly Instruction(s)	Description
long long <i>dst</i> = <b>norm64(</b> long long <i>src</i> , int * <i>shift</i> );	CSB ACC LSL64 ACC:P, T MOV @ shift, T CSB ACC LSL64 ACC:P, T MOV TMP16, AH MOV AH, T ADD shift, AH MOV AH, TMP16	Normalize 64-bit <i>src</i> into <i>dst</i> and update * <i>shift</i> with the number of bits shifted.
void <b>or(</b> int * <i>m</i> , int <i>b</i> );	OR * m, b	OR the contents of memory location $m$ to $b$ and store the result in $m$ , in an atomic way.
long <b>_qmpy32(</b> long $src32a$ , long $src32b$ , int $q$ );	CLRC OVM SPM - 1 MOV T, src32a + 1 MPYXU P, T, src32b + 0 MOVP T, src32b + 1 MPYXU P, T, src32a + 0 MPYA P, T, src32a + 1	Extended precision DSP Q math. Different code is generated based on the value of <i>q</i> .
If $q = 31,30$ :	SPM $q$ – 30 SFR ACC, #45 – $q$ ADDL ACC, P	
If $q = 29$ :	SFR ACC, #16 ADDL ACC, P	
If $q = 28$ through 24:	SPM <i>q</i> - 30 SFR ACC, #16 SFR ACC, #29 - <i>q</i> ADDL ACC, P	
If $q = 23$ through 13:	SFR ACC, #16 ADDL ACC, P SFR ACC, #29 - q	
If $q = 12$ through 0:	SFR ACC, #16 ADDL ACC, P SFR ACC, #16 SFR ACC, #13 - q	
longqmpy32by16(long src32, int src16, int q);	CLRC OVM MOV T, src16 + 0 MPYXU P, T, src32 + 0 MPY P, T, src32 + 1	Extended precision DSP Q math. Different code is generated based on the value of <i>q</i> .
If $q = 31, 30$ :	SPM $q$ = 30 SFR ACC, #46 = $q$ ADDL ACC, P	
If $q = 29$ through 14:	SPM 0 SFR ACC, #16 ADDL ACC, P SFR ACC, #30 - q	
If $q = 13$ through 0:	SPM 0 SFR ACC, #16 ADDL ACC, P SFR ACC, #16 SFR ACC, #14 - q	
voidrestore_interrupts(unsigned int val);	PUSH val POP ST1	Restore interrupts and set the interrupt vector to value val.
long _rol( long src );	ROL ACC	Rotate ACC left.
longror( long src );	ROR ACC	Rotate ACC right.
<pre>void * result =rpt_mov_imm(void * dst , int src ,   int count );</pre>	MOV result, dst MOV ARx, dst RPT # count    MOV *XARx++, # src	Move the <i>dst</i> register to the <i>result</i> register.  Move the <i>dst</i> register to a temp (ARx) register Copy the immediate <i>src</i> to the temp register <i>count</i> + 1 times.  The <i>src</i> must be a 16-bit immediate. The <i>cour</i> can be an immediate from 0 to 255 or a variable.



Table 7-6. TMS320C28x C/C++ Compiler Intrinsics (continued)

Intrinsic	Assembly Instruction(s)	Description
far void *result =rpt_mov_imm_far ( far void * dst , int src, int count );	MOVL result, dst MOVL ARx, dst RPT # count    MOVL *XARx++, # src	Move the <i>dst</i> register to the <i>result</i> register. Move the <i>dst</i> register to a temp (XARx) register. Copy the immediate <i>src</i> to the temp register <i>count</i> + 1 times.
		The <i>src</i> must be a 16-bit immediate. The <i>count</i> can be an immediate from 0 to 255 or a variable.
intrpt_norm_inc( long src, int dst, int count );	MOV ARx, dst RPT # count    NORM ACC, ARx++	Repeat the normalize accumulator value <i>count</i> + 1 times.
		The <i>count</i> can be an immediate from 0 to 255 or a variable.
intrpt_norm_dec(long src, int dst, int count);	MOV ARx, dst RPT # count    NORM ACC, ARx	Repeat the normalize accumulator value <i>count</i> + 1 times.  The <i>count</i> can be an immediate from 0 to 255
longrpt_rol(long src, int count);	RPT # count	or a variable.  Repeat the rotate accumulator left <i>count</i> + 1
	ROL ACC	times. The result is in ACC.  The <i>count</i> can be an immediate from 0 to 255 or a variable.
longrpt_ror(long src, int count);	RPT # count	Repeat the rotate accumulator right <i>count</i> + 1 times. The result is in ACC.
	"	The <i>count</i> can be an immediate from 0 to 255 or a variable.
longrpt_subcu(long ds t, int src, int count);	RPT count    SUBCU ACC, src	The <i>src</i> operand is referenced from memory or loaded into a register and used as an operand to the SUBCU instruction. The result is in ACC.
		The <i>count</i> can be an immediate from 0 to 255 or a variable. The instruction repeats <i>count</i> + 1 times.
longsat( long src );	SAT ACC	Load ACC with 32-bit src. The result is in ACC.
longsat32( long src, long limit );	SETC OVM ADDL ACC, {mem P} SUBL ACC, {mem P} SUBL ACC, {mem P} ADDL ACC, {mem P} CLRC OVM	Saturate a 32-bit value to a 32-bit mask. Load ACC with <i>src</i> . Limit value is either referenced from memory or loaded into the P register. The result is in ACC.
longsathigh16(long src, int limit);	SETC OVM ADDL ACC, {mem P}<<16 SUBL ACC, {mem P}<<16 SUBL ACC, {mem P}<<16 ADDL ACC, {mem P}<<16 CLRC OVM SFR ACC, rshift	Saturate a 32-bit value to 16-bits high. Load ACC with <i>src</i> . The <i>limit</i> value is either referenced from memory or loaded into register. The result is in ACC. The result can be right shifted and stored into an int. For example:  ivar=sathigh16(lvar, mask)>>6;
longsatlow16( long src );	SETC OVM MOV T, #0xFFFF CLR SXM; if necessary ADD ACC, T <<15 SUB ACC, T <<15 SUB ACC, T <<15 ADD ACC, T <<15 ADD ACC, T <<15 CLRC OVM	Saturate a 32-bit value to 16-bits low. Load ACC with <i>src</i> . Load T register with #0xFFFF. The result is in ACC.
long _sbbu( long src1 , uint src2 );	SBBU ACC, src2	Subtract <i>src2</i> + logical inverse of C from ACC ( <i>src1</i> ). The result is in ACC.
void <b>sub(</b> int * <i>m</i> , int <i>b</i> );	SUB * m, b	Subtract $b$ from the contents of memory location $m$ and store the result in $m$ , in an atomic way.
longsubcu( long src1, int src2 );	SUBCU ACC, src2	Subtract <i>src2</i> shifted left 15 from ACC ( <i>src1</i> ). The result is in ACC.



Table 7-6. TMS320C28x C/C++ Compiler Intrinsics (continued)

Intrinsic	Assembly Instruction(s)	Description
voidsubl( long * m, long b );	SUBL * m, b	Subtract <i>b</i> from the contents of memory location <i>m</i> and store the result in m, in an atomic way.
void <b>subr(</b> int * <i>m</i> , int <i>b</i> );	SUBR * m, b	Subtract the contents of memory location <i>m</i> from <i>b</i> and store the result in m, in an atomic way.
voidsubrl( long * m , long b );	SUBRL * m, b	Subtract the contents of memory location <i>m</i> from <i>b</i> and store the result in m, in an atomic way.
if (_tbit( int src , int bit ) );	TBIT src , # bit	SET TC status bit if specified bit of src is 1.
void <b>xor(</b> int * <i>m</i> , int <i>b</i> );	XOR * m, b	XOR the contents of memory location $m$ to $b$ and store the result in $m$ , in an atomic way.

Table 7-7. C/C++ Compiler Intrinsics for FPU

Intrinsic	Assembly Instruction(s)	Description
doubleeinvf32( double x );	EINVF32 x	Compute and return 1/x to about 8 bits of precision.
doubleeisqrtf32( double x );	EISQRTF32 X	Find the square root of $1/x$ to about 8 bits of precision.
<pre>voidf32_max_idx( double &amp;dst, double src, double &amp;idx_dst, double idx_src);</pre>	MAXF32 dst, src    MOV32 idx_dst, idx_src	If src>dst, copy src to dst, and copy idx_src to idx_dst.
<pre>voidf32_min_idx( double &amp;dst, double src, double &amp;idx_dst, double idx_src );</pre>	MINF32 dst, src    MOV32 idx_dst, idx_src	If src <dst, and="" copy="" dst,="" idx_dst.<="" idx_src="" src="" td="" to=""></dst,>
intf32toi16r(double src);	F32TOI16R dst, src	Convert double to int and round.
unsigned intf32toui16r(double src);	F32TOUI16R dst, src	Convert double to unsigned int and round.
floatfmax( float x, float y);	MAXF32 dst, src	If src>dst, copy src to dst
floatfmin( float x, float y);	MINF32 dst, src	If src <dst, copy="" dst<="" src="" td="" to=""></dst,>
doublefracf32(double src);	FRACF32 dst, src	Return the fractional portion of src.
doublefsat(double <i>val</i> , double <i>max</i> , double <i>min</i> );	MAXF32 dst, src2 MINF32 dst, src1	Return val if <i>min &lt; val &lt; max</i> . Else return min if value < min. Else return max if val > max.
void <b>swapf(</b> double & $a$ , double & $b$ );	swapf a, b	Swap the contents of a and b.
voidswapff( float &a, float &b);	swapff a, b	Swap the contents of a and b.

The following intrinsics perform hardware instructions using the Trigonometric Math Unit (TMU). These intrinsics are enabled if the --tmu\_support=tmu0 compiler option is used.

Table 7-8. C/C++ Compiler Intrinsics for TMU

Intrinsic	Assembly Instruction(s)	Description
doubledivf32( double num , double denom );	DIVF32 dst, num, denom	Return <i>num</i> divided by <i>denom</i> using the TMU hardware instruction for floating point division.
doublesqrt( double src );	SQRTF32 dst, src	Return the square root of src.
doublesin( double src );	SINF32 dst, src	Return the sine of <i>src</i> radians, where <i>src</i> is provided in radians.
doublecos( double src);	COSF32 dst, src	Return the cosine of <i>src</i> radians, where <i>src</i> is provided in radians.
doubleatan( double src );	ATANF32 dst, src	Return the principal value of the arc tangent of src radians.
doubleatan2( double x , double y );	QUADF32 quadrant, ratio, y, x ATANPUF32 atanpu, ratio ADDF32 atan2pu, atanpu MPY2PIF32 atan2, atan2pu	Return the principal value of the arc tangent plus the quadrant for <i>x</i> , <i>y</i> . The value is returned in radians.



Interrupt Handling www.ti.com

Table 7-8. C/C++ Compiler Intrinsics for TMU (continued)

Intrinsic	Assembly Instruction(s)	Description
doublempy2pif32( double src );	MPY2PIF32 dst, src	Return the result of multiplying <i>src</i> by 2pi. This converts a per unit value to radians. Per unit values are commonly used in control applications to represent normalized radians.
doublediv2pif32( double src );	DIV2PIF32 dst, src	Return the result of multiplying <i>src</i> by 1/2pi (effectively dividing by 2pi). This converts a value in radians to a per unit value.
doublesinpuf32( double src );	SINPUF32 dst, src	Return the sine of <i>src</i> in radians, where <i>src</i> is provided as a per unit value.
doublecospuf32( double src );	COSPUF32 dst, src	Return the cosine of <i>src</i> in radians, where <i>src</i> is provided as a per unit value.
doubleatanpuf32( double src );	ATANPUF32 dst, src	Return the principal value of the arc tangent of <i>src</i> , which is provided as a per unit value.
double $\_$ atan2puf32( double $x$ , double $y$ );	QUADF32 quadrant, ratio, y, x ATANPUF32 atanpu, ratio ADDF32 dst, atanpu	Return the principal value of the arc tangent plus the quadrant value for $y$ , $x$ . The value is returned as a per unit value.
double <b>quadf32(</b> double $ratio$ , double $y$ , double $x$ );	QUADF32 quadrant, ratio, y, x	Return the quadrant value $(0.0, +/-0.25, or +/-0.5)$ and the ratio of $x$ and $y$ , which are provided as per unit values.

# 7.5 Interrupt Handling

As long as you follow the guidelines in this section, you can interrupt and return to C/C++ code without disrupting the C/C++ environment. When the C/C++ environment is initialized, the startup routine does not enable or disable interrupts. If the system is initialized by way of a hardware reset, interrupts are disabled. If your system uses interrupts, you must handle any required enabling or masking of interrupts. Such operations have no effect on the C/C++ environment and are easily incorporated with asm statements or calling an assembly language function.

# 7.5.1 General Points About Interrupts

An interrupt routine can perform any task performed by any other function, including accessing global variables, allocating local variables, and calling other functions.

When you write interrupt routines, keep the following points in mind:

- · An interrupt handling routine cannot have arguments. If any are declared, they are ignored.
- An interrupt handling routine can be called by normal C/C++ code, but it is inefficient to do this because all the registers are saved.
- An interrupt handling routine can handle a single interrupt or multiple interrupts. The compiler does not generate code that is specific to a certain interrupt, except for c\_int00, which is the system reset interrupt. When you enter this routine, you cannot assume that the run-time stack is set up; therefore, you cannot allocate local variables, and you cannot save any information on the run-time stack.
- To associate an interrupt routine with an interrupt, the address of the interrupt function must be placed in the appropriate interrupt vector. You can use the assembler and linker to do this by creating a simple table of interrupt addresses using the .sect assembler directive.
- In assembly language, remember to precede the symbol name with an underscore. For example, refer
  to c\_int00 as \_c\_int00.



# 7.5.2 Using C/C++ Interrupt Routines

If a C/C++ interrupt routine does not call any other functions, only those registers that the interrupt handler uses are saved and restored. However, if a C/C++ interrupt routine does call other functions, these functions can modify unknown registers that the interrupt handler does not use. For this reason, the compiler saves all the save-on-call registers if any other functions are called.

A C/C++ interrupt routine is like any other C/C++ function in that it can have local variables and register variables; however, it should be declared with no arguments and should return void. Interrupt handling functions should not be called directly.

Interrupts can be handled directly with C/C++ functions by using the INTERRUPT pragma or the \_\_interrupt keyword. For information about the INTERRUPT pragma, see Section 6.10.10. For information about the \_\_interrupt keyword, see Section 6.5.4.

# 7.6 Integer Expression Analysis

This section describes some special considerations to keep in mind when evaluating integer expressions.

# 7.6.1 Operations Evaluated With Run-Time-Support Calls

The TMS320C28x does not directly support some C/C++ integer operations. Evaluating these operations is done with calls to run-time-support routines. These routines are hard-coded in assembly language. They are members of the object and source run-time-support libraries (rts2800.lib and rtssrc.zip) in the toolset.

The conventions for calling these routines are modeled on the standard C/C++ calling conventions.

Operation Type	Operations Evaluated With Run-Time-Support Calls
16-bit int	Divide (signed)
	Modulus
32-bit long	Divide (signed)
	Modulus
64-bit long long	Multiply <sup>(1)</sup>
	Divide
	Bitwise AND, OR, and XOR
	Compare

<sup>(1) 64-</sup>bit long long multiplies are inlined if -mf=5 is specified.

# 7.6.2 C/C++ Code Access to the Upper 16 Bits of 16-Bit Multiply

The following methods provide access to the upper 16 bits of a 16-bit multiply in C/C++ language:

Signed-results method:

```
int m1, m2;
int result;
result = ((long) m1 * (long) m2) >> 16;
```

Unsigned-results method:

```
unsigned m1, m2;
unsigned result;
result = ((unsigned long) m1 * (unsigned long) m2) >> 16;
```

#### **Danger of Complicated Expressions**

**NOTE:** The compiler must recognize the structure of the expression for it to return the expected results. Avoid complicated expressions such as the following example:

```
((long)((unsigned)((a*b)+c)<5)*(long)(z*sin(w)>6))>>16
```



# 7.7 Floating-Point Expression Analysis

The C28x C/C++ compiler represents float and double floating-point values as IEEE single-precision numbers. Long double floating-point values are represented as IEEE double-precision numbers. Single-precision floating-point numbers are represented as 32-bit values and double-precision floating-point numbers are represented as 64-bit values.

The run-time-support library, rts2800.lib, contains a set of floating-point math functions that support:

- Addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division
- Comparisons (>, <, >=, <=, ==, !=)</li>
- Conversions from integer or long to floating-point and floating-point to integer or long, both signed and unsigned
- · Standard error handling

The conventions for calling these routines are the same as the conventions used to call the integer operation routines. Conversions are unary operations.

# 7.8 System Initialization

Before you can run a C/C++ program, you must create the C/C++ run-time environment. The C/C++ boot routine performs this task using a function called c\_int00 (or \_c\_int00). The run-time-support source library, rts.src, contains the source to this routine in a module named boot.c (or boot.asm).

To begin running the system, the c\_int00 function can be called by reset hardware. You must link the c\_int00 function with the other object files. This occurs automatically when you use the --rom\_model or --ram\_model link option and include a standard run-time-support library as one of the linker input files.

When C/C++ programs are linked, the linker sets the entry point value in the executable output file to the symbol c int00.

The c int00 function performs the following tasks to initialize the environment:

- 1. Defines a section called .stack for the system stack and sets up the initial stack pointers
- 2. Initializes global variables by copying the data from the initialization tables to the storage allocated for the variables in the .bss section. If you are initializing variables at load time (--ram\_model option), a loader performs this step before the program runs (it is not performed by the boot routine). For more information, see Section 7.8.2.
- 3. Executes the global constructors found in the global constructors table. For more information, see Section 7.8.2.4.
- 4. Calls the function main to run the C/C++ program

You can replace or modify the boot routine to meet your system requirements. However, the boot routine *must* perform the operations listed above to correctly initialize the C/C++ environment.

#### 7.8.1 Run-Time Stack

The run-time stack is allocated in a single continuous block of memory and grows down from low addresses to higher addresses. The SP points to the top of the stack.

The code does not check to see if the run-time stack overflows. Stack overflow occurs when the stack grows beyond the limits of the memory space that was allocated for it. Be sure to allocate adequate memory for the stack.

The stack size can be changed at link time by using the --stack\_size link option on the linker command line and specifying the stack size as a constant directly after the option.



www.ti.com System Initialization

#### 7.8.2 Automatic Initialization of Variables

Some global variables must have initial values assigned to them before a C/C++ program starts running. The process of retrieving these variables' data and initializing the variables with the data is called autoinitialization.

The compiler builds tables in a special section called .cinit that contains data for initializing global and static variables. Each compiled module contains these initialization tables. The linker combines them into a single table (a single .cinit section). The boot routine or a loader uses this table to initialize all the system variables.

#### Initializing Variables

NOTE: In ANSI/ISO C, global and static variables that are not explicitly initialized must be set to 0 before program execution. The C/C++ compiler does not perform any preinitialization of uninitialized variables. Explicitly initialize any variable that must have an initial value of 0.

The easiest method is to have a loader clear the .bss section before the program starts running. Another method is to set a fill value of 0 in the linker control map for the .bss section.

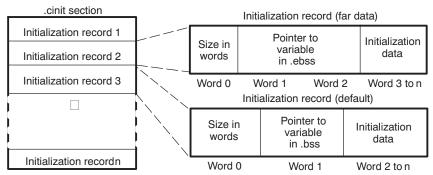
You cannot use these methods with code that is burned into ROM.

Global variables are either autoinitialized at run time or at load time; see Section 7.8.2.2 and Section 7.8.2.3. Also see Section 6.13.

#### 7.8.2.1 Initialization Tables

The tables in the .cinit section consist of variable-size initialization records. Each variable that must be autoinitialized has a record in the .cinit section. Figure 7-2 shows the format of the .cinit section and the initialization records.

Figure 7-2. Format of Initialization Records in the .cinit Section (Default and far Data)



The fields of an initialization record contain the following information:

- The first field of an initialization record contains the size (in words) of the initialization data. A negative value for this field denotes that the variable's address is far.
- The second field contains the starting address of the area within the .bss section where the initialization data must be copied. If the variable is far, the field points to the variable's space in .ebss. For far data the second field requires two words to hold the address.
- The third field contains the data that is copied into the .bss section to initialize the variable. The width of this field is variable.

#### Size of Initialized Variables

NOTE: In the small memory model, the compiler only supports initializing variables that are 64K words or less. In the large memory model, multiple cinit records are generated for objects that are over 32K words in size.



System Initialization www.ti.com

Each variable that must be autoinitialized has an initialization record in the .cinit section.

Example 7-7 shows initialized global variables defined in C. Example 7-8 shows the corresponding initialization table.

#### Example 7-7. Initialized Variables Defined in C

```
int i= 23;
far int j[2] = { 1,2};
```

### Example 7-8. Initialized Information for Variables Defined in Example 7-7

```
.global
                _i
               _i,1,1,0
      .bss
      .global _j
_j:
      .usect .ebss,2,1,0
               ".cinit"
      .sect
      .align
      .field
                   1,16
                   _{i+0,16}
      .field
      .field
                   23,16
                               ; _i @ 0
      .sect
               ".cinit"
      .align 1
      .field
                   -IR_1,16
                   _j+0,32
      .field
      .field
                   1,16
                               ; _j[0] @ 0
      .field
                   2,16
                               ; _j[1] @ 16
IR_1: .set2
```

The .cinit section must contain only initialization tables in this format. When interfacing assembly language modules, do not use the .cinit section for any other purpose.

The table in the .pinit section simply consists of a list of addresses of constructors to be called (see Figure 7-3). The constructors appear in the table after the .cinit initialization.

Figure 7-3. Format of Initialization Records in the .pinit Section

Address of constructor 1

Address of constructor 2

Address of constructor 3

Address of constructor of a co

pinit section.

When you use the --rom\_model or --ram\_model option, the linker combines the .cinit sections from all the C modules and appends a null word to the end of the composite .cinit section. This terminating record appears as a record with a size field of 0 and marks the end of the initialization tables.

Likewise, the --rom\_model or --ram\_model link option causes the linker to combine all of the .pinit sections from all C/C++ modules and append a null word to the end of the composite .pinit section. The boot routine knows the end of the global constructor table when it encounters a null constructor address.

The const-qualified variables are initialized differently; see Section 6.5.1.



www.ti.com System Initialization

#### 7.8.2.2 Autoinitialization of Variables at Run Time

Autoinitializing variables at run time is the default method of autoinitialization. To use this method, invoke the linker with the --rom model option.

Using this method, the .cinit section is loaded into memory along with all the other initialized sections, and global variables are initialized at run time. The linker defines a special symbol called cinit that points to the beginning of the initialization tables in memory. When the program begins running, the C/C++ boot routine copies data from the tables (pointed to by .cinit) into the specified variables in the .bss section. This allows initialization data to be stored in ROM and copied to RAM each time the program starts.

Figure 7-4 illustrates autoinitialization at run time. Use this method in any system where your application runs from code burned into ROM.

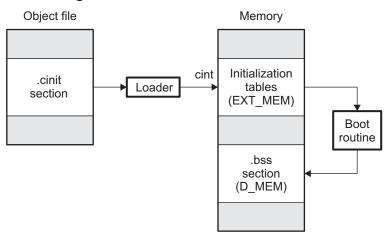


Figure 7-4. Autoinitialization at Run Time

#### 7.8.2.3 Initialization of Variables at Load Time

Initialization of variables at load time enhances performance by reducing boot time and by saving the memory used by the initialization tables. To use this method, invoke the linker with the --ram\_model option.

When you use the --ram\_model link option, the linker sets the STYP\_COPY bit in the .cinit section's header. This tells the loader not to load the .cinit section into memory. (The .cinit section occupies no space in the memory map.) The linker also sets the cinit symbol to -1 (normally, cinit points to the beginning of the initialization tables). This indicates to the boot routine that the initialization tables are not present in memory; accordingly, no run-time initialization is performed at boot time.

A loader (which is not part of the compiler package) must be able to perform the following tasks to use initialization at load time:

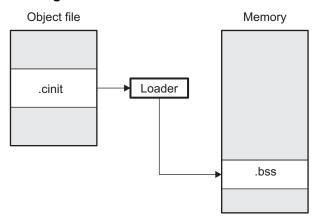
- Detect the presence of the .cinit section in the object file
- Determine that STYP\_COPY is set in the .cinit section header, so that it knows not to copy the .cinit section into memory
- Understand the format of the initialization tables



System Initialization www.ti.com

Figure 7-5 illustrates the initialization of variables at load time.

Figure 7-5. Initialization at Load Time



Regardless of the use of the --rom\_model or --ram\_model options, the .pinit section is always loaded and processed at run time.

# 7.8.2.4 Global Constructors

All global C++ variables that have constructors must have their constructor called before main. The compiler builds a table in a section called .pinit of global constructor addresses that must be called, in order, before main. The linker combines the .pinit section form each input file to form a single table in the .pinit section. The boot routine uses this table to execute the constructors.



# Using Run-Time-Support Functions and Building Libraries

Some of the features of C/C++ (such as I/O, dynamic memory allocation, string operations, and trigonometric functions) are provided as an ANSI/ISO C/C++ standard library, rather than as part of the compiler itself. The TI implementation of this library is the run-time-support library (RTS). The C/C++ compiler implements the ISO standard library except for those facilities that handle exception conditions, signal, and locale issues (properties that depend on local language, nationality, or culture). Using the ANSI/ISO standard library ensures a consistent set of functions that provide for greater portability.

In addition to the ANSI/ISO-specified functions, the run-time-support library includes routines that give you processor-specific commands and direct C language I/O requests. These are detailed in Section 8.1 and Section 8.3.

A library-build utility is provided with the code generation tools that lets you create customized run-time-support libraries. This process is described in Section 8.5 .

Topic Page

8.1	C and C++ Run-Time Support Libraries	<b>152</b>
8.2	Far Memory Support	154
8.3	The C I/O Functions	157
8.4	Handling Reentrancy (_register_lock() and _register_unlock() Functions)	169
8.5	Library-Build Process	170



# 8.1 C and C++ Run-Time Support Libraries

TMS320C28x compiler releases include pre-built run-time support (RTS) libraries that provide all the standard capabilities. Separate libraries are provided for large-memory-model support and C++ exception support. See Section 8.5 for information on the library-naming conventions.

The run-time-support library contains the following:

- ANSI/ISO C/C++ standard library
- C I/O library
- Low-level support functions that provide I/O to the host operating system
- Fundamental arithmetic routines
- System startup routine, c int00
- Compiler helper functions (to support language features that are not directly efficiently expressible in C/C++)

The run-time-support libraries do not contain functions involving signals and locale issues.

The C++ library supports wide chars, in that template functions and classes that are defined for char are also available for wide char. For example, wide char stream classes wios, wiostream, wstreambuf and so on (corresponding to char classes ios, iostream, streambuf) are implemented. However, there is no low-level file I/O for wide chars. Also, the C library interface to wide char support (through the C++ headers <cwchar> and <cwctype>) is limited as described in Section 6.1.

The C++ library included with the compiler is licensed from <u>Dinkumware</u>, <u>Ltd</u>. The Dinkumware C++ library is a fully conforming, industry-leading implementation of the standard C++ library.

TI does not provide documentation that covers the functionality of the C++ library. TI suggests referring to one of the following sources:

- The Standard C++ Library: A Tutorial and Reference, Nicolai M. Josuttis, Addison-Wesley, ISBN 0-201-37926-0
- The C++ Programming Language (Third or Special Editions), Bjarne Stroustrup, Addison-Wesley, ISBN 0-201-88954-4 or 0-201-70073-5
- Dinkumware's reference documentation is provided in the Code Composer Studio installation in the <ccs install dir>\ccsv5\tools\compiler\arm #.#.\docs\dinkum directory.

# 8.1.1 Linking Code With the Object Library

When you link your program, you must specify the object library as one of the linker input files so that references to the I/O and run-time-support functions can be resolved. You can either specify the library or allow the compiler to select one for you. See Section 4.3.1 for further information.

When a library is linked, the linker includes only those library members required to resolve undefined references. For more information about linking, see the *TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide*.

C, C++, and mixed C and C++ programs can use the same run-time-support library. Run-time-support functions and variables that can be called and referenced from both C and C++ will have the same linkage.

#### 8.1.2 Header Files

You must use the header files provided with the compiler run-time support when using functions from C/C++ standard library. Set the C2000\_C\_DIR environment variable to the specific include directory: "include\lib".



# 8.1.3 Modifying a Library Function

You can inspect or modify library functions by unzipping the source file (rtssrc.zip), changing the specific function file, and rebuilding the library. When extracted (with any standard unzip tool on Windows, Linux, or UNIX), this zip file recreates the run-time source tree for the run-time library.

The source for the libraries is included in the rtssrc.zip file for your target. You can use this source to rebuild the rts2800.lib library or to build a new library. See Section 8.5 for details on building.

# 8.1.4 Support for String Handling

The library includes the header files <string.h> and <strings.h>, which provide the following functions for string handling beyond those required.

- · string.h
  - strdup(), which duplicates a string
- strings.h
  - bcmp(), which is equivalent to memcmp()
  - bcopy(), which is equivalent to memmove()
  - bzero(), which replaces memory locations with zero-valued bytes
  - ffs(), which finds the first bit set and returns the index of that bit
  - index(), which is equivalent to strchr()
  - rindex(), which is equivalent to strrchr()
  - strcasecmp() and strncasecmp(), which perform case-insensitive string comparisons

# 8.1.5 Minimal Support for Internationalization

The library includes the header files <locale.h>, <wchar.h>, and <wctype.h>, which provide APIs to support non-ASCII character sets and conventions. Our implementation of these APIs is limited in the following ways:

- The library has minimal support for wide and multibyte characters. The type wchar\_t is implemented as int. The wide character set is equivalent to the set of values of type char. The library includes the header files <wchar.h> and <wctype.h> but does not include all the functions specified in the standard. So-called multibyte characters are limited to single characters. There are no shift states. The mapping between multibyte characters and wide characters is simple equivalence; that is, each wide character maps to and from exactly a single multibyte character having the same value.
- The C library includes the header file <locale.h> but with a minimal implementation. The only supported locale is the C locale. That is, library behavior that is specified to vary by locale is hard-coded to the behavior of the C locale, and attempting to install a different locale via a call to setlocale() will return NULL.

# 8.1.6 Allowable Number of Open Files

In the <stdio.h> header file, the value for the macro FOPEN\_MAX has the value of the macro \_NFILE, which is set to 10. The impact is that you can only have 10 files simultaneously open at one time (including the pre-defined streams - stdin, stdout, stderr).

The C standard requires that the minimum value for the FOPEN\_MAX macro is 8. The macro determines the maximum number of files that can be opened at one time. The macro is defined in the stdio.h header file and can be modified by changing the value of the NFILE macro and recompiling the library.



Far Memory Support www.ti.com

# 8.1.7 Library Naming Conventions

By default, the linker uses automatic library selection to select the correct run-time-support library (see Section 4.3.1.1) for your application. If you select the library manually, you must select the matching library according to the following naming scheme:

rts2800[\_ml][\_fpu32][\_eh].lib

rts2800 Indicates the library is built for C28x support

\_ml Indicates the large memory model.(Small memory model is used by default.)

\_fpu32 Indicates support for FPU targets (Specifying -ml is not necessary as FPU target work

only with the large memory model.)

\_eh Indicates the library has exception handling support

# 8.2 Far Memory Support

As described in Section 6.5.3, *The far Keyword*, the C/C++ compiler extends the C language (not C++) by providing the far keyword. The far keyword is used to access 22 bits of address space.

The run-time-support library is extended to include far versions of the ANSI/ISO routines and far dynamic memory management routines.

The large memory model C++ run-time-support library automatically supports far memory since all pointers are 22 bits.

# 8.2.1 Far Versions of Run-Time-Support Functions

To provide far support to the C run-time library, a far version is defined for most of the run-time-support functions that either have a pointer argument or returns a pointer. In the following example, the atoi() run-time-support function takes a string (pointer to char) argument and returns the integer value represented by the string.

```
#include <stdlib.h>
char * st = "1234";
.
.
.
.
int ival = atoi(st); /* ival is 1234 */
```

The far version of the atoi() function, far\_atoi(), is defined to take a far string (pointer to far char) argument and return the integer value.

```
#include <stdlib.h>
far char * fst = "1234";
.
.
.
.
int ival = far_atoi(fst); /* ival is 1234 */
```

The far version of the run-time-support function performs the same operations except that it accepts or returns pointer to far objects.

#### 8.2.2 Global and Static Variables in Run-Time-Support Functions

The run-time-support library uses several global and static variables. Some of them are for internal use and others are for passing status and other information on to you, as in the case of global variable errno defined in stderr.h. By default, these variables are placed in the .bss section and considered near objects. For more information, see Section 7.1.1.

The C I/O functions do not have corresponding far versions. Also, the functions that use the C I/O functions do not have corresponding far versions.



www.ti.com Far Memory Support

You can place global and static variables in far memory (.ebss section) by defining \_FAR\_RTS (-d\_FAR\_RTS) when building the C run-time library (not C++). The library-build process is described in Section 8.5. To build a library with far mode support, use the gmake command with OPT\_ALL=\_d\_FAR\_RTS, along with other gmake options.

# 8.2.3 Far Dynamic Memory Allocation in C

You can allocate far memory dynamically at run time. The far memory is allocated from a global pool or far heap that is defined in the .esysmem section. For more information about dynamic memory allocation, see Section 7.1.4.

The run-time-support library includes the following functions that allow you to dynamically allocate far memory at run time:

```
far void * far_malloc (unsigned long size);
far void * far_calloc (unsigned long num, unsigned long size);
far void * far_realloc (far void *ptr, unsigned long size);
void far_free (far void *ptr);
long far_free_memory (void);
long far_max_free(void)
```

The following C code allocates memory for 100 far objects and deallocates the memory at the end.

```
#include <stdlib.h>
struct big {
    int a, b;
    char c[80];
};

int main()
{
    far struct big *table;
       table=(far struct big *)far_malloc(100*sizeof(struct big));
    .
    .
    /* use the memory here */
    .
    far_free(table);
    /* exit code here */
}
```

# 8.2.4 Far Dynamic Memory Allocation in C++

In C++ mode the compiler does not support the far keyword. Far intrinsics are provided to access far memory if the large memory model is not used. For more information, see Section 6.6.2. You can dynamically define objects in far memory and access them using the far intrinsics. The data type long is used to hold the far pointer.

The C++ run-time-support library provides the same set of dynamic far memory allocation functions as C run-time-support library. The C++ functions use the data type long to accept as return the far pointers, so that the memory can be accessed using far intrinsics. The C++ dynamic far memory allocation functions are listed below:

```
long std::far_malloc (unsigned long size);
long std::far_calloc (unsigned long num, unsigned long size);
long std::far_realloc* (far void *ptr, unsigned long size);
void std::far free (far void *ptr);
```



Far Memory Support www.ti.com

```
long std::far_free_memory (void);
long std::far_max_free(void)
```

The following C++ code allocates memory for 100 far objects and deallocates the memory at the end.

```
#include <cstdlib>
struct big {
   int a, b;
   char c[80];
};
int main()
    long table;//Note-use of long to hold address.
    table = std::far_malloc(100 * sizeof(struct big));
    /* use the memory here using intrinsic*/
    std::far_free(table);
    /* exit code here */
```

#### **Using far Intrinsics**

**NOTE:** The farmemory.cpp file in rtssrc.zip implements far dynamic memory allocation functions using far intrinsics. You can refer to this file as an example about how to use far intrinsics.



The C I/O Functions www.ti.com

#### 8.3 The C I/O Functions

The C I/O functions make it possible to access the host's operating system to perform I/O. The capability to perform I/O on the host gives you more options when debugging and testing code.

The I/O functions are logically divided into layers: high level, low level, and device-driver level.

With properly written device drivers, the C-standard high-level I/O functions can be used to perform I/O on custom user-defined devices. This provides an easy way to use the sophisticated buffering of the highlevel I/O functions on an arbitrary device.

#### **Debugger Required for Default HOST**

NOTE: For the default HOST device to work, there must be a debugger to handle the C I/O requests; the default HOST device cannot work by itself in an embedded system. To work in an embedded system, you will need to provide an appropriate driver for your system.

# NOTE: C I/O Mysteriously Fails

If there is not enough space on the heap for a C I/O buffer, operations on the file will silently fail. If a call to printf() mysteriously fails, this may be the reason. The heap needs to be at least large enough to allocate a block of size BUFSIZ (defined in stdio.h) for every file on which I/O is performed, including stdout, stdin, and stderr, plus allocations performed by the user's code, plus allocation bookkeeping overhead. Alternately, declare a char array of size BUFSIZ and pass it to setvbuf to avoid dynamic allocation. To set the heap size, use the -heap size option when linking (refer to the Linker Description chapter in the TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide).

#### NOTE: Open Mysteriously Fails

The run-time support limits the total number of open files to a small number relative to general-purpose processors. If you attempt to open more files than the maximum, you may find that the open will mysteriously fail. You can increase the number of open files by extracting the source code from rts.src and editing the constants controlling the size of some of the C I/O data structures. The macro NFILE controls how many FILE (fopen) objects can be open at one time (stdin, stdout, and stderr count against this total). (See also FOPEN MAX.) The macro NSTREAM controls how many low-level file descriptors can be open at one time (the low-level files underlying stdin, stdout, and stderr count against this total). The macro NDEVICE controls how many device drivers are installed at one time (the HOST device counts against this total).

# 8.3.1 High-Level I/O Functions

The high-level functions are the standard C library of stream I/O routines (printf, scanf, fopen, getchar, and so on). These functions call one or more low-level I/O functions to carry out the high-level I/O request. The high-level I/O routines operate on FILE pointers, also called streams.

Portable applications should use only the high-level I/O functions.

To use the high-level I/O functions, include the header file stdio.h, or cstdio for C++ code, for each module that references a C I/O function.



The C I/O Functions www.ti.com

For example, given the following C program in a file named main.c:

```
#include <stdio.h>;

void main()
{
    FILE *fid;

    fid = fopen("myfile","w");
    fprintf(fid,"Hello, world\n");
    fclose(fid);

    printf("Hello again, world\n");
}
```

Issuing the following compiler command compiles, links, and creates the file main.out from the run-time-support library:

```
cl2000 -v28 main.c --run_linker --heap_size=400 --library=rts2800.lib --output_file=main.out
```

# Executing main.out results in

Hello, world

# being output to a file and

Hello again, world

being output to your host's stdout window.



# 8.3.2 Overview of Low-Level I/O Implementation

The low-level functions are comprised of seven basic I/O functions: open, read, write, close, Iseek, rename, and unlink. These low-level routines provide the interface between the high-level functions and the device-level drivers that actually perform the I/O command on the specified device.

The low-level functions are designed to be appropriate for all I/O methods, even those which are not actually disk files. Abstractly, all I/O channels can be treated as files, although some operations (such as Iseek) may not be appropriate. See Section 8.3.3 for more details.

The low-level functions are inspired by, but not identical to, the POSIX functions of the same names.

The low-level functions operate on file descriptors. A file descriptor is an integer returned by open, representing an opened file. Multiple file descriptors may be associated with a file; each has its own independent file position indicator.

# open Open File for I/O

**Syntax** 

#include <file.h>

int open (const char \* path , unsigned flags , int file\_descriptor );

Description

The open function opens the file specified by path and prepares it for I/O.

- The *path* is the filename of the file to be opened, including an optional directory path and an optional device specifier (see Section 8.3.5).
- The flags are attributes that specify how the file is manipulated. The flags are specified using the following symbols:

```
O_RDONLY
          (0x0000)
                    /* open for reading */
O_WRONLY
                    /* open for writing */
          (0x0001)
O RDWR
          (0x0002)
                    /* open for read & write */
                   /* append on each write */
O_APPEND (0x0008)
O CREAT
          (0x0200)
                   /* open with file create */
          (0x0400)
                    /* open with truncation */
O TRUNC
O_BINARY
          (0x8000)
                    /* open in binary mode */
```

Low-level I/O routines allow or disallow some operations depending on the flags used when the file was opened. Some flags may not be meaningful for some devices, depending on how the device implements files.

• The file descriptor is assigned by open to an opened file.

The next available file descriptor is assigned to each new file opened.

#### **Return Value**

```
The function returns one of the following values:
non-negative file descriptor if successful
-1 on failure
```

close — Close File for I/O www.ti.com

close Close File for I/O

Syntax #include <file.h>

int close (int file descriptor);

**Description** The close function closes the file associated with *file\_descriptor*.

The *file\_descriptor* is the number assigned by open to an opened file.

**Return Value** The return value is one of the following:

0 if successful-1 on failure

read Read Characters from a File

Syntax #include <file.h>

int read (int file\_descriptor , char \* buffer , unsigned count );

**Description** The read function reads *count* characters into the *buffer* from the file associated with *file descriptor*.

• The file\_descriptor is the number assigned by open to an opened file.

The buffer is where the read characters are placed.

The count is the number of characters to read from the file.

**Return Value** The function returns one of the following values:

0 if EOF was encountered before any characters were read

# number of characters read (may be less than *count*)

-1 on failure

write Write Characters to a File

Syntax #include <file.h>

int write (int file\_descriptor, const char \* buffer, unsigned count);

**Description**The write function writes the number of characters specified by *count* from the *buffer* to the file associated with *file\_descriptor*.

the file associated with file\_descriptor.

• The file\_descriptor is the number assigned by open to an opened file.

The buffer is where the characters to be written are located.

The count is the number of characters to write to the file.

**Return Value** The function returns one of the following values:

# number of characters written if successful (may be less than *count*)

-1 on failure



#### Iseek Set File Position Indicator

#### Syntax for C

#include <file.h>

off t lseek (int file descriptor, off t offset, int origin);

#### Description

The Iseek function sets the file position indicator for the given file to a location relative to the specified origin. The file position indicator measures the position in characters from the beginning of the file.

- The file\_descriptor is the number assigned by open to an opened file.
- The offset indicates the relative offset from the origin in characters.
- The *origin* is used to indicate which of the base locations the *offset* is measured from. The *origin* must be one of the following macros:

SEEK\_SET (0x0000) Beginning of file

SEEK\_CUR (0x0001) Current value of the file position indicator

SEEK\_END (0x0002) End of file

#### **Return Value**

The return value is one of the following:

# new value of the file position indicator if successful

(off\_t)-1 on failure

#### unlink Delete File

#### **Syntax**

#include <file.h>

int unlink (const char \* path );

#### Description

The unlink function deletes the file specified by *path*. Depending on the device, a deleted file may still remain until all file descriptors which have been opened for that file have been closed. See Section 8.3.3.

The *path* is the filename of the file, including path information and optional device prefix. (See Section 8.3.5.)

#### **Return Value**

The function returns one of the following values:

- 0 if successful
- -1 on failure



rename — Rename File www.ti.com

rename	Rename File		
Syntax for C	#include { <stdio.h>   <file.h>}</file.h></stdio.h>		
	<pre>int rename (const char * old_name , const char * new_name );</pre>		
Syntax for C++	#include { <cstdio>   <file.h>}</file.h></cstdio>		
	<pre>int std::rename (const char * old_name , const char * new_name );</pre>		
Description	The rename function changes the name of a file.		
	The old_name is the current name of the file.		
	The new_name is the new name for the file.		
	NOTE: The optional device specified in the new name must match the device of the old name. If they do not match, a file copy would be required to perform the rename, and rename is not capable of this action.		
Return Value	The function returns one of the following values:		
	0 if successful		
	-1 on failure		
	NOTE: Although rename is a low-level function, it is defined by the C standard and can be used by portable applications.		

#### 8.3.3 Device-Driver Level I/O Functions

At the next level are the device-level drivers. They map directly to the low-level I/O functions. The default device driver is the HOST device driver, which uses the debugger to perform file operations. The HOST device driver is automatically used for the default C streams stdin, stdout, and stderr.

The HOST device driver shares a special protocol with the debugger running on a host system so that the host can perform the C I/O requested by the program. Instructions for C I/O operations that the program wants to perform are encoded in a special buffer named \_CIOBUF\_ in the .cio section. The debugger halts the program at a special breakpoint (C\$\$IO\$\$), reads and decodes the target memory, and performs the requested operation. The result is encoded into \_CIOBUF\_, the program is resumed, and the target decodes the result.

The HOST device is implemented with seven functions, HOSTopen, HOSTclose, HOSTread, HOSTwrite, HOSTlseek, HOSTunlink, and HOSTrename, which perform the encoding. Each function is called from the low-level I/O function with a similar name.

A device driver is composed of seven required functions. Not all function need to be meaningful for all devices, but all seven must be defined. Here we show the names of all seven functions as starting with DEV, but you may chose any name except for HOST.



# DEV\_open

### Open File for I/O

#### **Syntax**

int DEV\_open (const char \* path , unsigned flags , int llv\_fd );

Description

This function finds a file matching path and opens it for I/O as requested by flags.

- The path is the filename of the file to be opened. If the name of a file passed to open has a device prefix, the device prefix will be stripped by open, so DEV\_open will not see it. (See Section 8.3.5 for details on the device prefix.)
- The flags are attributes that specify how the file is manipulated. The flags are specified using the following symbols:

```
(0x0000)
                      /* open for reading */
O RDONLY
O WRONLY
           (0x0001)
                      /* open for writing */
O_RDWR
                      /* open for read & write */
           (0x0002)
O_APPEND
           (0x0008)
                      /* append on each write */
O_CREAT
                      /* open with file create */
           (0 \times 0.200)
O TRUNC
           (0x0400)
                      /* open with truncation */
                      /* open in binary mode */
O BINARY
           (0x8000)
```

See POSIX for further explanation of the flags.

• The *llv\_fd* is treated as a suggested low-level file descriptor. This is a historical artifact; newly-defined device drivers should ignore this argument. This differs from the low-level I/O open function.

This function must arrange for information to be saved for each file descriptor, typically including a file position indicator and any significant flags. For the HOST version, all the bookkeeping is handled by the debugger running on the host machine. If the device uses an internal buffer, the buffer can be created when a file is opened, or the buffer can be created during a read or write.

**Return Value** 

This function must return -1 to indicate an error if for some reason the file could not be opened; such as the file does not exist, could not be created, or there are too many files open. The value of errno may optionally be set to indicate the exact error (the HOST device does not set errno). Some devices might have special failure conditions; for instance, if a device is read-only, a file cannot be opened O WRONLY.

On success, this function must return a non-negative file descriptor unique among all open files handled by the specific device. It need not be unique across devices. Only the low-level I/O functions will see this device file descriptor; the low-level function open will assign its own unique file descriptor.



DEV\_close

Close File for I/O

**Syntax** 

int DEV\_close (int dev\_fd);

Description

This function closes a valid open file descriptor.

On some devices, DEV\_close may need to be responsible for checking if this is the last file descriptor pointing to a file that was unlinked. If so, it is responsible for ensuring that the file is actually removed from the device and the resources reclaimed, if appropriate.

Return Value

This function should return -1 to indicate an error if the file descriptor is invalid in some way, such as being out of range or already closed, but this is not required. The user should not call close() with an invalid file descriptor.

DEV\_read

#### Read Characters from a File

**Syntax** 

int DEV\_read (int dev\_fd , char \* bu , unsigned count );

Description

The read function reads count bytes from the input file associated with dev fd.

- The dev\_fd is the number assigned by open to an opened file.
- The buf is where the read characters are placed.
- The count is the number of characters to read from the file.

**Return Value** 

This function must return -1 to indicate an error if for some reason no bytes could be read from the file. This could be because of an attempt to read from a O\_WRONLY file, or for device-specific reasons.

If count is 0, no bytes are read and this function returns 0.

This function returns the number of bytes read, from 0 to count. 0 indicates that EOF was reached before any bytes were read. It is not an error to read less than count bytes; this is common if the are not enough bytes left in the file or the request was larger than an internal device buffer size.

**DEV\_write** 

#### Write Characters to a File

**Syntax** 

int DEV\_write (int dev\_fd, const char \* buf, unsigned count);

Description

This function writes *count* bytes to the output file.

- The dev\_fd is the number assigned by open to an opened file.
- The buffer is where the write characters are placed.
- The count is the number of characters to write to the file.

Return Value

This function must return -1 to indicate an error if for some reason no bytes could be written to the file. This could be because of an attempt to read from a O\_RDONLY file, or for device-specific reasons.



DEV\_Iseek Set File Position Indicator

Syntax off\_t lseek (int dev\_fd , off\_t offset , int origin );

**Description** This function sets the file's position indicator for this file descriptor as Iseek.

If Iseek is supported, it should not allow a seek to before the beginning of the file, but it should support seeking past the end of the file. Such seeks do not change the size of the file but if it is followed by a write, the file size will increase.

the file, but if it is followed by a write, the file size will increase.

**Return Value** If successful, this function returns the new value of the file position indicator.

This function must return -1 to indicate an error if for some reason no bytes could be written to the file. For many devices, the Iseek operation is nonsensical (e.g. a computer

monitor).

DEV\_unlink Delete File

Syntax int DEV\_unlink (const char \* path );

**Description**Remove the association of the pathname with the file. This means that the file may no longer by opened using this name, but the file may not actually be immediately removed.

Depending on the device, the file may be immediately removed, but for a device which allows open file descriptors to point to unlinked files, the file will not actually be deleted

until the last file descriptor is closed. See Section 8.3.3.

Return Value This function must return -1 to indicate an error if for some reason the file could not be

unlinked (delayed removal does not count as a failure to unlink.)

If successful, this function returns 0.

DEV\_rename Rename File

**Return Value** 

Syntax int DEV\_rename (const char \* old\_name , const char \* new\_name );

**Description** This function changes the name associated with the file.

- The *old name* is the current name of the file.
- The new\_name is the new name for the file.

This function must return -1 to indicate an error if for some reason the file could not be renamed, such as the file doesn't exist, or the new name already exists.

**NOTE:** It is inadvisable to allow renaming a file so that it is on a different device. In general this would require a whole file copy, which may be more

expensive than you expect.

If successful, this function returns 0.



# 8.3.4 Adding a User-Defined Device Driver for C I/O

The function add\_device allows you to add and use a device. When a device is registered with add device, the high-level I/O routines can be used for I/O on that device.

You can use a different protocol to communicate with any desired device and install that protocol using add\_device; however, the HOST functions should not be modified. The default streams stdin, stdout, and stderr can be remapped to a file on a user-defined device instead of HOST by using freopen() as in Example 8-1. If the default streams are reopened in this way, the buffering mode will change to \_IOFBF (fully buffered). To restore the default buffering behavior, call setvbuf on each reopened file with the appropriate value (\_IOLBF for stdin and stdout, \_IONBF for stderr).

The default streams stdin, stdout, and stderr can be mapped to a file on a user-defined device instead of HOST by using freopen() as shown in Example 8-1. Each function must set up and maintain its own data structures as needed. Some function definitions perform no action and should just return.

### Example 8-1. Mapping Default Streams to Device

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <file.h>
#include "mydevice.h"
void main()
{
   add_device("mydevice", _MSA,
           MYDEVICE open, MYDEVICE close,
            MYDEVICE_read, MYDEVICE_write,
            MYDEVICE_lseek, MYDEVICE_unlink, MYDEVICE_rename);
   /* Re-open stderr as a MYDEVICE file
   /*----*/
   if (!freopen("mydevice:stderrfile", "w", stderr))
      puts("Failed to freopen stderr");
      exit(EXIT_FAILURE);
   /* stderr should not be fully buffered; we want errors to be seen as  */
   /* soon as possible. Normally stderr is line-buffered, but this example */
   ^{\prime \star} doesn't buffer stderr at all. This means that there will be one call ^{\star \prime}
   /* to write() for each character in the message.
   /*_____*/
   if (setvbuf(stderr, NULL, _IONBF, 0))
   {
      puts("Failed to setvbuf stderr");
      exit(EXIT_FAILURE);
   /* Try it out!
   /*----*/
   printf("This goes to stdout\n");
   fprintf(stderr, "This goes to stderr\n"); }
```

#### **NOTE: Use Unique Function Names**

The function names open, read, write, close, Iseek, rename, and unlink are used by the low-level routines. Use other names for the device-level functions that you write.



Use the low-level function add\_device() to add your device to the device\_table. The device table is a statically defined array that supports n devices, where n is defined by the macro \_NDEVICE found in stdio.h/cstdio.

The first entry in the device table is predefined to be the host device on which the debugger is running. The low-level routine add\_device() finds the first empty position in the device table and initializes the device fields with the passed-in arguments. For a complete description, see the add\_device function.

# 8.3.5 The device Prefix

A file can be opened to a user-defined device driver by using a device prefix in the pathname. The device prefix is the device name used in the call to add device followed by a colon. For example:

```
FILE *fptr = fopen("mydevice:file1", "r");
int fd = open("mydevice:file2, O_RDONLY, 0);
```

If no device prefix is used, the HOST device will be used to open the file.

### add\_device

#### Add Device to Device Table

#### Syntax for C

#include <file.h>

int add\_device(char \* name,
 unsigned flags ,
 int (\* dopen )(const char \*path, unsigned flags, int llv\_fd),
 int (\* dclose )( int dev\_fd),
 int (\* dread )(intdev\_fd, char \*buf, unsigned count),
 int (\* dwrite )(int dev\_fd, const char \*buf, unsigned count),
 off\_t (\* dlseek )(int dev\_fd, off\_t ioffset, int origin),
 int (\* dunlink )(const char \* path),
 int (\* drename )(const char \*old name, const char \*new name));

# Defined in

lowlev.c in rtssrc.zip

#### **Description**

The add\_device function adds a device record to the device table allowing that device to be used for I/O from C. The first entry in the device table is predefined to be the HOST device on which the debugger is running. The function add\_device() finds the first empty position in the device table and initializes the fields of the structure that represent a device.

To open a stream on a newly added device use fopen() with a string of the format devicename: filename as the first argument.

- The name is a character string denoting the device name. The name is limited to 8 characters.
- The flags are device characteristics. The flags are as follows:
  - **\_SSA** Denotes that the device supports only one open stream at a time
  - **MSA** Denotes that the device supports multiple open streams
  - More flags can be added by defining them in file.h.
- The dopen, dclose, dread, dwrite, dlseek, dunlink, and drename specifiers are function pointers to the functions in the device driver that are called by the low-level functions to perform I/O on the specified device. You must declare these functions with the interface specified in Section 8.3.2. The device driver for the HOST that the TMS320C28x debugger is run on are included in the C I/O library.

#### **Return Value**

The function returns one of the following values:

- 0 if successful
- -1 on failure



#### **Example**

#### Example 8-2 does the following:

- Adds the device *mydevice* to the device table
- Opens a file named test on that device and associates it with the FILE pointer fid
- Writes the string Hello, world into the file
- · Closes the file

Example 8-2 illustrates adding and using a device for C I/O:

#### Example 8-2. Program for C I/O Device

```
#include <file.h>
#include <stdio.h>
/* Declarations of the user-defined device drivers
extern int MYDEVICE_open(const char *path, unsigned flags, int fno);
extern int MYDEVICE_close(int fno);
extern int MYDEVICE_read(int fno, char *buffer, unsigned count);
extern int MYDEVICE_write(int fno, const char *buffer, unsigned count);
extern off_t MYDEVICE_lseek(int fno, off_t offset, int origin);
extern int MYDEVICE_unlink(const char *path);
extern int MYDEVICE_rename(const char *old_name, char *new_name);
main()
{
  FILE *fid;
  add_device("mydevice", _MSA, MYDEVICE_open, MYDEVICE_close, MYDEVICE_read,
           MYDEVICE_write, MYDEVICE_lseek, MYDEVICE_unlink, MYDEVICE_rename);
  fid = fopen("mydevice:test","w");
  fprintf(fid, "Hello, world\n");
  fclose(fid);
}
```



# 8.4 Handling Reentrancy (\_register\_lock() and \_register\_unlock() Functions)

The C standard assumes only one thread of execution, with the only exception being extremely narrow support for signal handlers. The issue of reentrancy is avoided by not allowing you to do much of anything in a signal handler. However, SYS/BIOS applications have multiple threads which need to modify the same global program state, such as the CIO buffer, so reentrancy is a concern.

Part of the problem of reentrancy remains your responsibility, but the run-time-support environment does provide rudimentary support for multi-threaded reentrancy by providing support for critical sections. This implementation does not protect you from reentrancy issues such as calling run-time-support functions from inside interrupts; this remains your responsibility.

The run-time-support environment provides hooks to install critical section primitives. By default, a single-threaded model is assumed, and the critical section primitives are not employed. In a multi-threaded system such as SYS/BIOS, the kernel arranges to install semaphore lock primitive functions in these hooks, which are then called when the run-time-support enters code that needs to be protected by a critical section.

Throughout the run-time-support environment where a global state is accessed, and thus needs to be protected with a critical section, there are calls to the function <code>\_lock()</code>. This calls the provided primitive, if installed, and acquires the semaphore before proceeding. Once the critical section is finished, <code>\_unlock()</code> is called to release the semaphore.

Usually SYS/BIOS is responsible for creating and installing the primitives, so you do not need to take any action. However, this mechanism can be used in multi-threaded applications that do not use the SYS/BIOS locking mechanism.

You should not define the functions \_lock() and \_unlock() functions directly; instead, the installation functions are called to instruct the run-time-support environment to use these new primitives:

```
void _register_lock (void ( *lock)());
void _register_unlock(void (*unlock)());
```

The arguments to \_register\_lock() and \_register\_unlock() should be functions which take no arguments and return no values, and which implement some sort of global semaphore locking:

```
extern volatile sig_atomic_t *sema = SHARED_SEMAPHORE_LOCATION;
static int sema_depth = 0;
static void my_lock(void)
{
    while (ATOMIC_TEST_AND_SET(sema, MY_UNIQUE_ID) != MY_UNIQUE_ID);
    sema_depth++;
}
static void my_unlock(void)
{
    if (!--sema_depth) ATOMIC_CLEAR(sema);
}
```

The run-time-support nests calls to lock(), so the primitives must keep track of the nesting level.



Library-Build Process www.ti.com

# 8.5 Library-Build Process

When using the C/C++ compiler, you can compile your code under a large number of different configurations and options that are not necessarily compatible with one another. Because it would be infeasible to include all possible run-time-support library variants, compiler releases pre-build only a small number of very commonly-used libraries such as rts2800.lib.

To provide maximum flexibility, the run-time-support source code is provided as part of each compiler release. You can build the missing libraries as desired. The linker can also automatically build missing libraries. This is accomplished with a new library build process, the core of which is the executable mklib, which is available beginning with CCS 5.1

# 8.5.1 Required Non-Texas Instruments Software

To use the self-contained run-time-support build process to rebuild a library with custom options, the following are required:

- sh (Bourne shell)
- unzip (InfoZIP unzip 5.51 or later, or equivalent)
   You can download the software from <a href="http://www.info-zip.org">http://www.info-zip.org</a>.
- gmake (GNU make 3.81 or later)

More information is available from GNU at <a href="http://www.gnu.org/software/make">http://www.gnu.org/software/make</a>. GNU make (gmake) is also available in earlier versions of Code Composer Studio. GNU make is also included in some UNIX support packages for Windows, such as the MKS Toolkit, Cygwin, and Interix. The GNU make used on Windows platforms should explicitly report "This program build for Windows32" when the following is executed from the Command Prompt window:

```
gmake -h
```

All three of these programs are provided as a non-optional feature of CCS 5.1. They are also available as part of the optional XDC Tools feature if you are using an earlier version of CCS.

The mklib program looks for these executables in the following order:

- 1. in your PATH
- 2. in the directory getenv("CCS UTILS DIR")/cygwin
- 3. in the directory getenv("CCS\_UTILS\_DIR")/bin
- 4. in the directory getenv("XDCROOT")
- 5. in the directory getenv("XDCROOT")/bin

If you are invoking mklib from the command line, and these executables are not in your path, you must set the environment variable CCS\_UTILS\_DIR such that getenv("CCS\_UTILS\_DIR")/bin contains the correct programs.

# 8.5.2 Using the Library-Build Process

You should normally let the linker automatically rebuild libraries as needed. If necessary, you can run mklib directly to populate libraries. See Section 8.5.2.2 for situations when you might want to do this.

#### 8.5.2.1 Automatic Standard Library Rebuilding by the Linker

The linker looks for run-time-support libraries primarily through the C2000\_C\_DIR environment variable. Typically, one of the pathnames in C2000\_C\_DIR is *your install directory*/lib, which contains all of the prebuilt libraries, as well as the index library libc.a. The linker looks in C2000\_C\_DIR to find a library that is the best match for the build attributes of the application. The build attributes are set indirectly according to the command-line options used to build the application. Build attributes include things like CPU revision. If the library is explicitly named (e.g. rts2800.lib), run-time support looks for that library exactly; otherwise, it uses the index library libc.a to pick an appropriate library.

The index library describes a set of libraries with different build attributes. The linker will compare the build attributes for each potential library with the build attributes of the application and will pick the best fit. For details on the index library, see the archiver chapter in the *TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide*.



www.ti.com Library-Build Process

Now that the linker has decided which library to use, it checks whether the run-time-support library is present in C2000\_C\_DIR. The library must be in exactly the same directory as the index library libc.a. If the library is not present, the linker invokes mklib to build it. This happens when the library is missing, regardless of whether the user specified the name of the library directly or allowed the linker to pick the best library from the index library.

The mklib program builds the requested library and places it in 'lib' directory part of C2000\_C\_DIR in the same directory as the index library, so it is available for subsequent compilations.

Things to watch out for:

- The linker invokes mklib and waits for it to finish before finishing the link, so you will experience a one-time delay when an uncommonly-used library is built for the first time. Build times of 1-5 minutes have been observed. This depends on the power of the host (number of CPUs, etc).
- In a shared installation, where an installation of the compiler is shared among more than one user, it is
  possible that two users might cause the linker to rebuild the same library at the same time. The mklib
  program tries to minimize the race condition, but it is possible one build will corrupt the other. In a
  shared environment, all libraries which might be needed should be built at install time; see
  Section 8.5.2.2 for instructions on invoking mklib directly to avoid this problem.
- The index library must exist, or the linker is unable to rebuild libraries automatically.
- The index library must be in a user-writable directory, or the library is not built. If the compiler
  installation must be installed read-only (a good practice for shared installation), any missing libraries
  must be built at installation time by invoking mklib directly.
- The mklib program is specific to a certain version of a certain library; you cannot use one compiler version's run-time support's mklib to build a different compiler version's run-time support library.

# 8.5.2.2 Invoking mklib Manually

You may need to invoke **mklib** directly in special circumstances:

- The compiler installation directory is read-only or shared.
- You want to build a variant of the run-time-support library that is not pre-configured in the index library **libc.a** or known to mklib. (e.g. a variant with source-level debugging turned on.)

# 8.5.2.2.1 Building Standard Libraries

You can invoke mklib directly to build any or all of the libraries indexed in the index library **libc.a**. The libraries are built with the standard options for that library; the library names and the appropriate standard option sets are known to mklib.

This is most easily done by changing the working directory to be the compiler run-time-support library directory 'lib' and invoking the **mklib** executable there:

mklib --pattern=rts2800.lib

For C28x these libraries can be built:

- rts2800.lib (C/C++ run-time object library)
- rts2800\_ml.lib (C/C++ large memory model run-time object library)
- rts2800 eh.lib (C/C++ run-time object library with exception handling support)
- rts2800 ml eh.lib (C/C++ large memory model run-time object library with exception handling support)
- rts2800\_fpu32.lib (C/C++ run-time object library for FPU targets)
- rts2800 fpu32 eh.lib (C/C++ run-time object library for FPU targets with exception handling support)



Library-Build Process www.ti.com

#### 8.5.2.2.2 Shared or Read-Only Library Directory

If the compiler tools are to be installed in shared or read-only directory, mklib cannot build the standard libraries at link time; the libraries must be built before the library directory is made shared or read-only.

At installation time, the installing user must build all of the libraries which will be used by any user. To build all possible libraries, change the working directory to be the compiler RTS library directory 'lib' and invoke the mklib executable there:

mklib --all

Some targets have many libraries, so this step can take a long time. To build a subset of the libraries, invoke mklib individually for each desired library.

# 8.5.2.2.3 Building Libraries With Custom Options

You can build a library with any extra custom options desired. This is useful for building a debugging version of the library, or with silicon exception workarounds enabled. The generated library is not a standard library, and must not be placed in the 'lib' directory. It should be placed in a directory local to the project which needs it. To build a debugging version of the library rts2800.lib, change the working directory to the 'lib' directory and run the command:

mklib --pattern=rts2800.1ib --name=rts2800\_debug.lib --install\_to=\$Project/Debug -extra\_options="-g"

# 8.5.2.2.4 The mklib Program Option Summary

Run the following command to see the full list of options. These are described in Table 8-1. mklib --help

**Table 8-1. The mklib Program Options** 

Option	Effect	
index=filename	The index library (libc.a) for this release. Used to find a template library for custom builds, and to find the source files (rtssrc.zip). REQUIRED.	
pattern=filename	Pattern for building a library. If neitherextra_options noroptions are specified, the library will be t standard library with the standard options for that library. If eitherextra_options oroptions are specified, the library is a custom library with custom options. REQUIRED unlessall is used.	
all	Build all standard libraries at once.	
install_to=directory	The directory into which to write the library. For a standard library, this defaults to the same directory as the index library (libc.a). For a custom library, this option is REQUIRED.	
compiler_bin_dir= directory	The directory where the compiler executables are. When invoking mklib directly, the executables should be in the path, but if they are not, this option must be used to tell mklib where they are. This option is primarily for use when mklib is invoked by the linker.	
name=filename	File name for the library with no directory part. Only useful for custom libraries.	
options='str'	Options to use when building the library. The default options (see below) are <i>replaced</i> by this string. If this option is used, the library will be a custom library.	
extra_options='st/'	Options to use when building the library. The default options (see below) are also used. If this option is used, the library will be a custom library.	
list_libraries	List the libraries this script is capable of building and exit. ordinary system-specific directory.	
log=filename	Save the build log as filename.	
tmpdir=directory	Use <i>directory</i> for scratch space instead of the ordinary system-specific directory.	
gmake=filename	Gmake-compatible program to invoke instead of "gmake"	
parallel=N	Compile N files at once ("gmake -j N").	
query=filename	Does this script know how to build FILENAME?	
help orh	Display this help.	
quiet orq	Operate silently.	
verbose orv	Extra information to debug this executable.	



www.ti.com Library-Build Process

#### **Examples:**

To build all standard libraries and place them in the compiler's library directory:

mklib --all --index=\$C\_DIR/lib

To build one standard library and place it in the compiler's library directory:

mklib --pattern=rts2800.lib --index=\$C\_DIR/lib

To build a custom library that is just like rts2800.lib, but has symbolic debugging support enabled:

mklib --pattern=rts2800.lib --extra\_options="-g" --index=\$C\_DIR/lib --install\_to=\$Project/Debug -name=rts2800\_debug.lib

# 8.5.3 Extending mklib

The **mklib** API is a uniform interface that allows Code Composer Studio to build libraries without needing to know exactly what underlying mechanism is used to build it. Each library vendor (e.g. the TI compiler) provides a library-specific copy of 'mklib' in the library directory that can be invoked, which understands a standardized set of options, and understands how to build the library. This allows the linker to automatically build application-compatible versions of any vendor's library without needing to register the library in advance, as long as the vendor supports mklib.

### 8.5.3.1 Underlying Mechanism

The underlying mechanism can be anything the vendor desires. For the compiler run-time-support libraries, mklib is just a wrapper which knows how to unpack Makefile from rtssrc.zip and invoke gmake with the appropriate options to build each library. If necessary, mklib can be bypassed and Makefile used directly, but this mode of operation is not supported by TI, and the you are responsible for any changes to Makefile. The format of the Makefile and the interface between mklib and the Makefile is subject to change without notice. The mklib program is the forward-compatible path.

#### 8.5.3.2 Libraries From Other Vendors

Any vendor who wishes to distribute a library that can be rebuilt automatically by the linker must provide:

- An index library (like 'libc.a', but with a different name)
- · A copy of mklib specific to that library
- A copy of the library source code (in whatever format is convenient)

These things must be placed together in one directory that is part of the linker's library search path (specified either in C2000\_C\_DIR or with the linker --search\_path option).

If mklib needs extra information that is not possible to pass as command-line options to the compiler, the vendor will need to provide some other means of discovering the information (such as a configuration file written by a wizard run from inside CCS).

The vendor-supplied mklib must at least accept all of the options listed in Table 8-1 without error, even if they do not do anything.



# C++ Name Demangler

The C++ compiler implements function overloading, operator overloading, and type-safe linking by encoding a function's prototype and namespace in its link-level name. The process of encoding the prototype into the linkname is often referred to as name mangling. When you inspect mangled names, such as in assembly files, disassembler output, or compiler or linker diagnostics, it can be difficult to associate a mangled name with its corresponding name in the C++ source code. The C++ name demangler is a debugging aid that translates each mangled name it detects to its original name found in the C++ source code.

These topics tell you how to invoke and use the C++ name demangler. The C++ name demangler reads in input, looking for mangled names. All unmangled text is copied to output unaltered. All mangled names are demangled before being copied to output.

Topic Page

9.1	Invoking the C++ Name Demangler	175
9.2	C++ Name Demangler Options	175
9.3	Sample Usage of the C++ Name Demangler	176



# 9.1 Invoking the C++ Name Demangler

The syntax for invoking the C++ name demangler is:

dem2000 [options ] [filenames]

**dem2000** Command that invokes the C++ name demangler.

options Options affect how the name demangler behaves. Options can appear anywhere on the

command line. (Options are discussed in Section 9.2.)

filenames Text input files, such as the assembly file output by the compiler, the assembler listing file,

the disassembly file, and the linker map file. If no filenames are specified on the command

line, dem2000 uses standard input.

By default, the C++ name demangler outputs to standard output. You can use the -o file option if you want to output to a file.

# 9.2 C++ Name Demangler Options

The following options apply only to the C++ name demangler:

**-h** Prints a help screen that provides an online summary of the C++ name demangler

options

o file
 Outputs to the given file rather than to standard out
 Specifies that external names do not have a C++ prefix

**-v** Enables verbose mode (outputs a banner)



# 9.3 Sample Usage of the C++ Name Demangler

The examples in this section illustrate the demangling process. Example 9-1 shows a sample C++ program. Example 9-2 shows the resulting assembly that is output by the compiler. In this example, the linknames of all the functions are mangled; that is, their signature information is encoded into their names.

#### Example 9-1. C++ Code

```
int compute(int val, int *err);
int foo(int val, int *err)
{
    static int last_err = 0;
    int result = 0

    if (last_err == 0)
      result = compute(val, &last_err);

    *err = last_err;
    return result;
}
```

# Example 9-2. Resulting Assembly for Example 9-1

```
;***********************
;* FNAME: _foo_FiPi
                                    FR SIZE: 4
;*
;* FUNCTION ENVIRONMENT
; *
;* FUNCTION PROPERTIES
; *
                          O Parameter, 3 Auto, O SOE
_foo_FiPi:
             SP,#4
DP,#_last_err$1
      ADDB
      MOVZ
                *-SP[1],AL
      VOM
               AL,@_last_err$1
      VOM
      VOM
                *-SP[2],AR4
      MOV
                *-SP[3],#0
      BF
               L1,NEQ
      ; branch occurs
      MOVL XAR4,#_last_err$1
      MOV AL,*-SP[1]
LCR #_compute__FiPi
      ; call occurs [#_compute__FiPi]
              *-SP[3],AL
      VOM
L1:
      MOVZ
                AR6,*-SP[2]
      MOV
                *+XAR6[0],*(0:_last_err$1)
                AL,*-SP[3]
      VOM
      SUBB
                SP,#4
      LRETR
      ; return occurs
```

Executing the C++ name demangler demangles all names that it believes to be mangled. Enter:

```
dem2000 -v28 foo.asm
```

The result is shown in Example 9-3. The linknames in Example 9-2 foo() and compute() are demangled.



# Example 9-3. Result After Running the C++ Name Demangler

```
;***********************
;* FNAME: foo(int, int *)
                                     FR SIZE: 4
; *
;* FUNCTION ENVIRONMENT
; *
;* FUNCTION PROPERTIES
; *
                         O Parameter, 3 Auto, O SOE
foo(int, int *):
      ADDB
               SP,#4
      MOVZ
              DP,#_last_err$1
               *-SP[1],AL
      MOV
              AL,@_last_err$1
      MOV
      MOV
               *-SP[2],AR4
               *-SP[3],#0
      VOM
              L1,NEQ
      BF
      ; branch occurs
      MOVL XAR4,#_last_err$1
      MOV AL,*-SP[1]
LCR #compute(int, int *)
      ; call occurs [#compute(int, int *)]
             *-SP[3],AL
L1:
             AR6,*-SP[2]
      MOVZ
      VOM
               *+XAR6[0],*(0:_last_err$1)
               AL,*-SP[3]
      VOM
               SP,#4
      SUBB
      LRETR
      ; return occurs
```



# **CLA Compiler**

The TMS320C28x Software Development toolset also includes support for compiling CLA C code. Because of CLA architecture and programming environment constraints the C language support has some restrictions that are detailed in Section 10.2.2.

As when including CLA assembly, compiled CLA code is linked together with C28x code to create a single executable.

Topic Page

10.1	How to Invoke the CLA Compiler	179
10.2	CLA C Language Implementation	180



# 10.1 How to Invoke the CLA Compiler

The Control Law Accelerator (CLA) compiler is also invoked using the cl2000 command. Files that have a .cla extension are recognized by the compiler as CLA C files. The shell invokes separate CLA versions of the compiler passes to generate CLA-specific code. The --cla\_support option is also required to assemble the output from the CLA code generator.

Support is provided for both Type 0 and Type 1 CLA.

The object files generated by the compile can then be linked with other C28x objects files to create a C28x/CLA program.

To invoke the CLA compiler, enter:

#### cl2000 -v28 --cla\_support=[cla0|cla1] [other options] file.cla

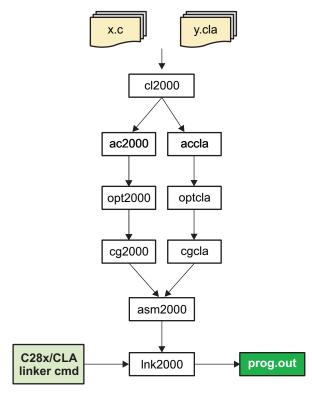


Figure 10-1. CLA Compilation Overview

Important facts about CLA C files:

- Files with .cla extension compile using different parser, optimizer, and code generator.
- cl2000 does not support compiling both .c and .cla files in a single invocation.
- C28X/CLA builds requires linker command file changes to accommodate CLA compiler-generated sections and scratchpad area.



# 10.2 CLA C Language Implementation

The CLA C language implementation requires changes from standard C.

#### 10.2.1 Characteristics

CLA implementation supports C only. The compiler produces an error if compiling for C++ or GCC extensions.

These data types are supported:

- Type char is 16 bits.
- Type short is 16 bits. A char/short should be limited to load/store operations.
- Types int, long, and long long are 32 bits.

Note that the int size for CLA is 32 bits versus 16 bits on C28x. To avoid ambiguity when sharing data between CLA and C28x, it is strongly recommended to use type declarations that include size information (eg. int32, uint16, etc).

- Types float, double, and long double are 32 bits.
- Pointers are 16 bits.

Pointer sizes for CLA are always 16-bits. This differs from C28x in large data model.

#### No 64-bit Types With CLA Compiler

NOTE: The CLA compiler does not support 64-bit types.

CLA accepts the C28x pragmas except for FAST\_FUNC\_CALL.

The C standard library is not supported.

The far and ioport keywords are not recognized.

Access to the 'MMOV32 MSTF, mem32' and 'MMOV32 mem32, MSTF' instructions is provided using the cregister keyword. To access these MSTF instructions include the following declaration:

extern cregister volatile unsigned int MSTF;

The intrinsics listed in Table 10-1 are supported. Additionally, the run-time library functions abs() and fabs() are implemented as intrinsics.

Table 10-1. C/C++ Compiler Intrinsics for CLA

Intrinsic	Assembly Instruction(s)	Description
mdebugstop()	MDEBUGSTOP	Debug stop
meallow()	MEALLOW	Enable write access to EALLOW registers
medis()	MEDIS	Disable write access to EALLOW registers
floatmeinvf32(float x);	MEINVF32 x	Estimate $1/x$ to about 8 bits of precision.
floatmeisqrtf32(float x);	MEISQRTF32 x	Estimate the square root of $1/x$ to about 8 bits of precision.
shortmf32toi16r(float src);	MF32TOI16R dst, src	Convert double to int and round.
unsigned shortmf32toui16r(float src);	MF32TOUI16R dst, src	Convert double to unsigned int and round.
floatmmaxf32( float x, float y);	MMAXF32 dst, src	If src>dst, copy src to dst
floatmminf32( float x, float y);	MMINF32 dst, src	If src <dst, copy="" dst<="" src="" td="" to=""></dst,>
floatmfracf32(float src);	MFRACF32 dst, src	Return the fractional portion of src.
mnop()	MNOP	CLA no operation
msetflg(unsigned short, unsigned short)	MSETFLG flag, value	Set/clear selected flag(s)
voidmswapf(float a, float b);	MSWAPF a, b	Swap the contents of a and b.



# 10.2.2 C Language Restrictions

There are several restrictions to the C language for CLA.

Defining and initializing global/static data is not supported.

Since the CLA code is executed in an interrupt driven environment there is no C system boot sequence. As a result, global/static data initialization must be done during program execution, either by the C28x driver code or within a CLA function.

Variables defined as const can be initialized globally. The compiler creates initialized data sections named .const cla to hold these variables.

- Only two levels of call stack depth is supported. See Section 10.2.4 for details.
- Functions can have up to two arguments.
- Recursive function calls are not supported.
- The use of function pointers is not supported.
- The following operations are currently not supported due to lack of instruction set support making them
  expensive to implement:
  - Integer divide, modulus
  - Unsigned integer compares

# 10.2.3 Memory Model - Sections

The prototype CLA compiler places CLA code into section Cla1Prog as per the current convention used for CLA assembly.

Uninitialized global data is placed in section .bss\_cla.

Initialized const data is placed in section .const cla.

There is no C system heap for CLA (no support for malloc()).

Local variables and compiler temps are expected to be placed into a scratchpad memory area which functions as the CLA C software stack. The CLA compiler will access this memory space directly using the symbols \_\_cla\_scratchpad\_start and \_\_cla\_scratchpad\_end. It is expected that these symbols and the CLA compiler scratchpad memory area is defined and managed in the application's linker command file. A linker command file appropriate for a C28x/CLA target will be provided.

The size of the CLA scratchpad memory can be set by defining a linker symbol and assigning it the appropriately sized value. By convention, this symbol is CLA\_SCRATCHPAD\_SIZE. The purpose of defining this symbol is similar setting the --stack option. It can either be set using the linker --define option or defined in the application's linker command file.

The following is an example of what needs to be added to a linker command file to define the CLA compiler scratchpad memory:

This example defines and sets the CLA\_SCRATCHPAD\_SIZE symbol to 0x100. It is preferable to use the --define linker option so that the value can be changed as needed at compile time. After the size definition, a SECTIONS directive can reference CLA\_SCRATCHPAD\_SIZE to allocate the scratchpad area. In the example, the SECTIONS directive reserves a 0x100 word memory hole to be used as the compiler scratchpad area. The value of CLA\_SCRATCHPAD\_SIZE can be changed based on the application.



# 10.2.4 Function Structure and Calling Conventions

The CLA compiler supports two level of function calls. Functions declared as interrupts can call leaf functions. Leaf functions cannot call other functions. Functions not declared as interrupt are considered leaf functions.

The CLA compiler supports calling functions with up to two arguments. Pointer arguments are passed in MAR0/MAR1. Integer/float arguments are passed in MR0,MR1. Integer and float return value from functions are passed in MR0. Pointer or return by reference value from functions are passed in MAR0. No arguments are placed in memory.

All registers except for MR3 are saved on call. MR3 is saved on entry.

When interfacing with CLA assembly language modules use these calling conventions to interface with compiled CLA code.



# Glossary

- **absolute lister** A debugging tool that allows you to create assembler listings that contain absolute addresses.
- assignment statement— A statement that initializes a variable with a value.
- **autoinitialization** The process of initializing global C variables (contained in the .cinit section) before program execution begins.
- **autoinitialization at run time** An autoinitialization method used by the linker when linking C code. The linker uses this method when you invoke it with the --rom\_model link option. The linker loads the .cinit section of data tables into memory, and variables are initialized at run time.
- **alias disambiguation** A technique that determines when two pointer expressions cannot point to the same location, allowing the compiler to freely optimize such expressions.
- **aliasing** The ability for a single object to be accessed in more than one way, such as when two pointers point to a single object. It can disrupt optimization, because any indirect reference could refer to any other object.
- allocation— A process in which the linker calculates the final memory addresses of output sections.
- **ANSI** American National Standards Institute; an organization that establishes standards voluntarily followed by industries.
- archive library— A collection of individual files grouped into a single file by the archiver.
- **archiver** A software program that collects several individual files into a single file called an archive library. With the archiver, you can add, delete, extract, or replace members of the archive library.
- assembler— A software program that creates a machine-language program from a source file that contains assembly language instructions, directives, and macro definitions. The assembler substitutes absolute operation codes for symbolic operation codes and absolute or relocatable addresses for symbolic addresses.
- **assignment statement** A statement that initializes a variable with a value.
- **autoinitialization** The process of initializing global C variables (contained in the .cinit section) before program execution begins.
- autoinitialization at run time— An autoinitialization method used by the linker when linking C code. The linker uses this method when you invoke it with the --rom\_model link option. The linker loads the .cinit section of data tables into memory, and variables are initialized at run time.
- **big endian** An addressing protocol in which bytes are numbered from left to right within a word. More significant bytes in a word have lower numbered addresses. Endian ordering is hardware-specific and is determined at reset. See also *little endian*
- **block** A set of statements that are grouped together within braces and treated as an entity.
- .bss section— One of the default object file sections. You use the assembler .bss directive to reserve a specified amount of space in the memory map that you can use later for storing data. The .bss section is uninitialized.
- byte— Per ANSI/ISO C, the smallest addressable unit that can hold a character.



Appendix A www.ti.com

- **C/C++ compiler** A software program that translates C source statements into assembly language source statements.
- **code generator** A compiler tool that takes the file produced by the parser or the optimizer and produces an assembly language source file.
- **COFF** Common object file format; a system of object files configured according to a standard developed by AT&T. These files are relocatable in memory space.
- **command file** A file that contains options, filenames, directives, or commands for the linker or hex conversion utility.
- comment— A source statement (or portion of a source statement) that documents or improves readability of a source file. Comments are not compiled, assembled, or linked; they have no effect on the object file.
- **compiler program** A utility that lets you compile, assemble, and optionally link in one step. The compiler runs one or more source modules through the compiler (including the parser, optimizer, and code generator), the assembler, and the linker.
- **configured memory** Memory that the linker has specified for allocation.
- constant— A type whose value cannot change.
- **cross-reference listing** An output file created by the assembler that lists the symbols that were defined, what line they were defined on, which lines referenced them, and their final values.
- .data section— One of the default object file sections. The .data section is an initialized section that contains initialized data. You can use the .data directive to assemble code into the .data section.
- direct call— A function call where one function calls another using the function's name.
- **directives** Special-purpose commands that control the actions and functions of a software tool (as opposed to assembly language instructions, which control the actions of a device).
- disambiguation— See alias disambiguation
- **dynamic memory allocation** A technique used by several functions (such as malloc, calloc, and realloc) to dynamically allocate memory for variables at run time. This is accomplished by defining a large memory pool (heap) and using the functions to allocate memory from the heap.
- **ELF** Executable and Linkable Format; a system of object files configured according to the System V Application Binary Interface specification.
- **emulator** A hardware development system that duplicates the TMS320C28x operation.
- **entry point** A point in target memory where execution starts.
- **environment variable** A system symbol that you define and assign to a string. Environmental variables are often included in Windows batch files or UNIX shell scripts such as .cshrc or .profile.
- **epilog** The portion of code in a function that restores the stack and returns.
- **executable object file** A linked, executable object file that is downloaded and executed on a target system.
- **expression** A constant, a symbol, or a series of constants and symbols separated by arithmetic operators.
- **external symbol** A symbol that is used in the current program module but defined or declared in a different program module.
- **file-level optimization** A level of optimization where the compiler uses the information that it has about the entire file to optimize your code (as opposed to program-level optimization, where the compiler uses information that it has about the entire program to optimize your code).



www.ti.com Appendix A

- **function inlining** The process of inserting code for a function at the point of call. This saves the overhead of a function call and allows the optimizer to optimize the function in the context of the surrounding code.
- **global symbol** A symbol that is either defined in the current module and accessed in another, or accessed in the current module but defined in another.
- high-level language debugging— The ability of a compiler to retain symbolic and high-level language information (such as type and function definitions) so that a debugging tool can use this information.
- **indirect call** A function call where one function calls another function by giving the address of the called function.
- **initialization at load time** An autoinitialization method used by the linker when linking C/C++ code. The linker uses this method when you invoke it with the --ram\_model link option. This method initializes variables at load time instead of run time.
- initialized section— A section from an object file that will be linked into an executable object file.
- input section— A section from an object file that will be linked into an executable object file.
- **integrated preprocessor** A C/C++ preprocessor that is merged with the parser, allowing for faster compilation. Stand-alone preprocessing or preprocessed listing is also available.
- **interlist feature** A feature that inserts as comments your original C/C++ source statements into the assembly language output from the assembler. The C/C++ statements are inserted next to the equivalent assembly instructions.
- **intrinsics** Operators that are used like functions and produce assembly language code that would otherwise be inexpressible in C, or would take greater time and effort to code.
- **ISO** International Organization for Standardization; a worldwide federation of national standards bodies, which establishes international standards voluntarily followed by industries.
- **K&R C** Kernighan and Ritchie C, the de facto standard as defined in the first edition of *The C Programming Language* (K&R). Most K&R C programs written for earlier, non-ISO C compilers should correctly compile and run without modification.
- **label** A symbol that begins in column 1 of an assembler source statement and corresponds to the address of that statement. A label is the only assembler statement that can begin in column 1.
- **linker** A software program that combines object files to form an executable object file that can be allocated into system memory and executed by the device.
- **listing file** An output file, created by the assembler, that lists source statements, their line numbers, and their effects on the section program counter (SPC).
- **little endian** An addressing protocol in which bytes are numbered from right to left within a word. More significant bytes in a word have higher numbered addresses. Endian ordering is hardware-specific and is determined at reset. See also *big endian*
- **loader** A device that places an executable object file into system memory.
- **macro** A user-defined routine that can be used as an instruction.
- **macro call** The process of invoking a macro.
- **macro definition** A block of source statements that define the name and the code that make up a macro.
- macro expansion— The process of inserting source statements into your code in place of a macro call.
- map file— An output file, created by the linker, that shows the memory configuration, section composition, section allocation, symbol definitions and the addresses at which the symbols were defined for your program.



Appendix A www.ti.com

- memory map— A map of target system memory space that is partitioned into functional blocks.
- **name mangling** A compiler-specific feature that encodes a function name with information regarding the function's arguments return types.
- object file— An assembled or linked file that contains machine-language object code.
- **object library** An archive library made up of individual object files.
- **operand** An argument of an assembly language instruction, assembler directive, or macro directive that supplies information to the operation performed by the instruction or directive.
- **optimizer** A software tool that improves the execution speed and reduces the size of C programs.
- **options** Command-line parameters that allow you to request additional or specific functions when you invoke a software tool.
- **output section** A final, allocated section in a linked, executable module.
- **overlay page** A section of physical memory that is mapped into the same address range as another section of memory. A hardware switch determines which range is active.
- **parser** A software tool that reads the source file, performs preprocessing functions, checks the syntax, and produces an intermediate file used as input for the optimizer or code generator.
- **partitioning** The process of assigning a data path to each instruction.
- **pop** An operation that retrieves a data object from a stack.
- pragma— A preprocessor directive that provides directions to the compiler about how to treat a particular statement.
- **preprocessor** A software tool that interprets macro definitions, expands macros, interprets header files, interprets conditional compilation, and acts upon preprocessor directives.
- program-level optimization— An aggressive level of optimization where all of the source files are compiled into one intermediate file. Because the compiler can see the entire program, several optimizations are performed with program-level optimization that are rarely applied during file-level optimization.
- **prolog** The portion of code in a function that sets up the stack.
- **push** An operation that places a data object on a stack for temporary storage.
- **quiet run** An option that suppresses the normal banner and the progress information.
- raw data— Executable code or initialized data in an output section.
- **relocation** A process in which the linker adjusts all the references to a symbol when the symbol's address changes.
- **run-time environment** The run time parameters in which your program must function. These parameters are defined by the memory and register conventions, stack organization, function call conventions, and system initialization.
- **run-time-support functions** Standard ISO functions that perform tasks that are not part of the C language (such as memory allocation, string conversion, and string searches).
- **run-time-support library** A library file, rts.src, that contains the source for the run time-support functions.
- **section** A relocatable block of code or data that ultimately will be contiguous with other sections in the memory map.
- sign extend— A process that fills the unused MSBs of a value with the value's sign bit.
- **simulator** A software development system that simulates TMS320C28x operation.



www.ti.com Appendix A

- **source file** A file that contains C/C++ code or assembly language code that is compiled or assembled to form an object file.
- **stand-alone preprocessor** A software tool that expands macros, #include files, and conditional compilation as an independent program. It also performs integrated preprocessing, which includes parsing of instructions.
- **static variable** A variable whose scope is confined to a function or a program. The values of static variables are not discarded when the function or program is exited; their previous value is resumed when the function or program is reentered.
- storage class— An entry in the symbol table that indicates how to access a symbol.
- **string table** A table that stores symbol names that are longer than eight characters (symbol names of eight characters or longer cannot be stored in the symbol table; instead they are stored in the string table). The name portion of the symbol's entry points to the location of the string in the string table.
- **structure** A collection of one or more variables grouped together under a single name.
- subsection— A relocatable block of code or data that ultimately will occupy continuous space in the memory map. Subsections are smaller sections within larger sections. Subsections give you tighter control of the memory map.
- **symbol** A string of alphanumeric characters that represents an address or a value.
- **symbolic debugging** The ability of a software tool to retain symbolic information that can be used by a debugging tool such as a simulator or an emulator.
- target system— The system on which the object code you have developed is executed.
- .text section— One of the default object file sections. The .text section is initialized and contains executable code. You can use the .text directive to assemble code into the .text section.
- trigraph sequence— A 3-character sequence that has a meaning (as defined by the ISO 646-1983 Invariant Code Set). These characters cannot be represented in the C character set and are expanded to one character. For example, the trigraph ??' is expanded to ^.
- unconfigured memory— Memory that is not defined as part of the memory map and cannot be loaded with code or data.
- uninitialized section— A object file section that reserves space in the memory map but that has no actual contents. These sections are built with the .bss and .usect directives.
- unsigned value— A value that is treated as a nonnegative number, regardless of its actual sign.
- **variable** A symbol representing a quantity that can assume any of a set of values.
- word— A 16-bit addressable location in target memory



# Revision History

Table B-1 lists changes made since the previous version of this document was published.

# **Table B-1. Revision History**

Chapter	Location	Additions / Modifications / Deletions
Using the Compiler	Table 2-1 and Section 2.3.4	Addedtmu_support=tmu0 option. This option also affects the behavior of thefloat_support andfp_mode=relaxed options.
Using the Compiler	Table 2-1 and Section 2.3.4	Added support for Type 2 VCU viavcu_support=vcu2.
Using the Compiler	Table 2-1 and Section 2.3.4	Added support for Type 1 CLA viacla_support=cla1.
Run-Time Environment	Table 7-6 and Table 7-8	Added intrinsics for TMU instructions and for reading from and writing to memory using 32-bit addresses for data placed higher than the usual 22-bit address range.

#### IMPORTANT NOTICE

Texas Instruments Incorporated and its subsidiaries (TI) reserve the right to make corrections, enhancements, improvements and other changes to its semiconductor products and services per JESD46, latest issue, and to discontinue any product or service per JESD48, latest issue. Buyers should obtain the latest relevant information before placing orders and should verify that such information is current and complete. All semiconductor products (also referred to herein as "components") are sold subject to TI's terms and conditions of sale supplied at the time of order acknowledgment.

TI warrants performance of its components to the specifications applicable at the time of sale, in accordance with the warranty in TI's terms and conditions of sale of semiconductor products. Testing and other quality control techniques are used to the extent TI deems necessary to support this warranty. Except where mandated by applicable law, testing of all parameters of each component is not necessarily performed.

TI assumes no liability for applications assistance or the design of Buyers' products. Buyers are responsible for their products and applications using TI components. To minimize the risks associated with Buyers' products and applications, Buyers should provide adequate design and operating safeguards.

TI does not warrant or represent that any license, either express or implied, is granted under any patent right, copyright, mask work right, or other intellectual property right relating to any combination, machine, or process in which TI components or services are used. Information published by TI regarding third-party products or services does not constitute a license to use such products or services or a warranty or endorsement thereof. Use of such information may require a license from a third party under the patents or other intellectual property of the third party, or a license from TI under the patents or other intellectual property of TI.

Reproduction of significant portions of TI information in TI data books or data sheets is permissible only if reproduction is without alteration and is accompanied by all associated warranties, conditions, limitations, and notices. TI is not responsible or liable for such altered documentation. Information of third parties may be subject to additional restrictions.

Resale of TI components or services with statements different from or beyond the parameters stated by TI for that component or service voids all express and any implied warranties for the associated TI component or service and is an unfair and deceptive business practice. TI is not responsible or liable for any such statements.

Buyer acknowledges and agrees that it is solely responsible for compliance with all legal, regulatory and safety-related requirements concerning its products, and any use of TI components in its applications, notwithstanding any applications-related information or support that may be provided by TI. Buyer represents and agrees that it has all the necessary expertise to create and implement safeguards which anticipate dangerous consequences of failures, monitor failures and their consequences, lessen the likelihood of failures that might cause harm and take appropriate remedial actions. Buyer will fully indemnify TI and its representatives against any damages arising out of the use of any TI components in safety-critical applications.

In some cases, TI components may be promoted specifically to facilitate safety-related applications. With such components, TI's goal is to help enable customers to design and create their own end-product solutions that meet applicable functional safety standards and requirements. Nonetheless, such components are subject to these terms.

No TI components are authorized for use in FDA Class III (or similar life-critical medical equipment) unless authorized officers of the parties have executed a special agreement specifically governing such use.

Only those TI components which TI has specifically designated as military grade or "enhanced plastic" are designed and intended for use in military/aerospace applications or environments. Buyer acknowledges and agrees that any military or aerospace use of TI components which have *not* been so designated is solely at the Buyer's risk, and that Buyer is solely responsible for compliance with all legal and regulatory requirements in connection with such use.

TI has specifically designated certain components as meeting ISO/TS16949 requirements, mainly for automotive use. In any case of use of non-designated products, TI will not be responsible for any failure to meet ISO/TS16949.

Products Applications

Audio www.ti.com/audio Automotive and Transportation www.ti.com/automotive Communications and Telecom Amplifiers amplifier.ti.com www.ti.com/communications **Data Converters** dataconverter.ti.com Computers and Peripherals www.ti.com/computers **DLP® Products** www.dlp.com Consumer Electronics www.ti.com/consumer-apps

DSP **Energy and Lighting** dsp.ti.com www.ti.com/energy Clocks and Timers www.ti.com/clocks Industrial www.ti.com/industrial Interface interface.ti.com Medical www.ti.com/medical logic.ti.com Logic Security www.ti.com/security

Power Mgmt power.ti.com Space, Avionics and Defense www.ti.com/space-avionics-defense

Microcontrollers <u>microcontroller.ti.com</u> Video and Imaging <u>www.ti.com/video</u>

RFID <u>www.ti-rfid.com</u>

OMAP Applications Processors <a href="https://www.ti.com/omap">www.ti.com/omap</a> TI E2E Community <a href="https://example.com/omap">e2e.ti.com/omap</a>

Wireless Connectivity <u>www.ti.com/wirelessconnectivity</u>