

PRU Assembly Language Tools v2.3

User's Guide



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Read This First

About This Manual

The *PRU Assembly Language Tools User's Guide* explains how to use the following Texas Instruments Code Generation object file tools:

- Assembler
- Archiver
- Linker
- Library information archiver
- Absolute lister
- Cross-reference lister
- Disassembler
- Object file display utility
- Name utility
- Strip utility
- Hex conversion utility

How to Use This Manual

This book helps you learn how to use the Texas Instruments object file and assembly language tools designed specifically for the PRU 32-bit devices. This book consists of four parts:

- **Introductory information**, consisting of [Chapter 1](#) through [Chapter 3](#), gives you an overview of the object file and assembly language development tools. [Chapter 2](#), in particular, explains object modules and how they can be managed to help your PRU application load and run. It is highly recommended that developers become familiar with what object modules are and how they are used before using the assembler and linker.
- **Assembler description**, consisting of [Chapter 4](#) through [Chapter 6](#), contains detailed information about using the assembler. [Chapter 4](#) and [Chapter 5](#) explain how to invoke the assembler and discuss source statement format, valid constants and expressions, assembler output, and assembler directives. [Chapter 6](#) focuses on the macro language.
- **Linker and other object file tools description**, consisting of [Chapter 7](#) through [Chapter 12](#), describes in detail each of the tools provided with the assembler to help you create executable object files. [Chapter 7](#) provides details about using the archiver to create object libraries. [Chapter 8](#) explains how to invoke the linker, how the linker operates, and how to use linker directives. [Chapter 11](#) provides a brief overview of some of the object file utilities that can be useful in examining the content of object files as well as removing symbol and debug information to reduce the size of a given object file. [Chapter 12](#) explains how to use the hex conversion utility.
- **Additional Reference material**, consisting of [Appendix A](#) through [Appendix D](#), provides supplementary information including symbolic debugging directives used by the PRU C/C++ compiler. It also provides hex utility examples. A description of the XML link information file and a glossary are also provided.

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 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:

```
clpru [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:

```
clpru --run_linker {--rom_model | --ram_model} filenames [--output_file= name.out]  
--library= libraryname
```

- In assembler syntax statements, The leftmost character position, 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 can have multiple parameters. This syntax is shown as [, ..., *parameter*].

```
.byte parameter1[ , ... , parametern]
```

- Other symbols and abbreviations used throughout this document include the following:

Symbol	Definition
B, b	Suffix — binary integer
H, h	Suffix — hexadecimal integer
LSB	Least significant bit
MSB	Most significant bit
0x	Prefix — hexadecimal integer
Q, q	Suffix — octal integer

Related Documentation From Texas Instruments

See the following resources for further information about the TI Code Generation Tools:

- Texas Instruments Wiki: [Compiler topics](#)
- Texas Instruments E2E Community: [Compiler forum](#)

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

SPRUHV7 — PRU Optimizing C/C++ Compiler User's Guide. Describes the PRU C/C++ compiler. This C/C++ compiler accepts ANSI standard C/C++ source code and produces assembly language source code for the PRU device.

Texas Instruments Wiki — Programmable Realtime Unit Software Development. Provides information about software development for the PRU device and Programmable Realtime Unit SubSystem (PRUSS).

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Introduction to the Software Development Tools

The PRU 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.

The PRU is supported by the following assembly language development tools:

- Assembler
- Archiver
- Linker
- Library information archiver
- Absolute lister
- Cross-reference lister
- Object file display utility
- Disassembler
- Name utility
- Strip utility
- Hex conversion utility

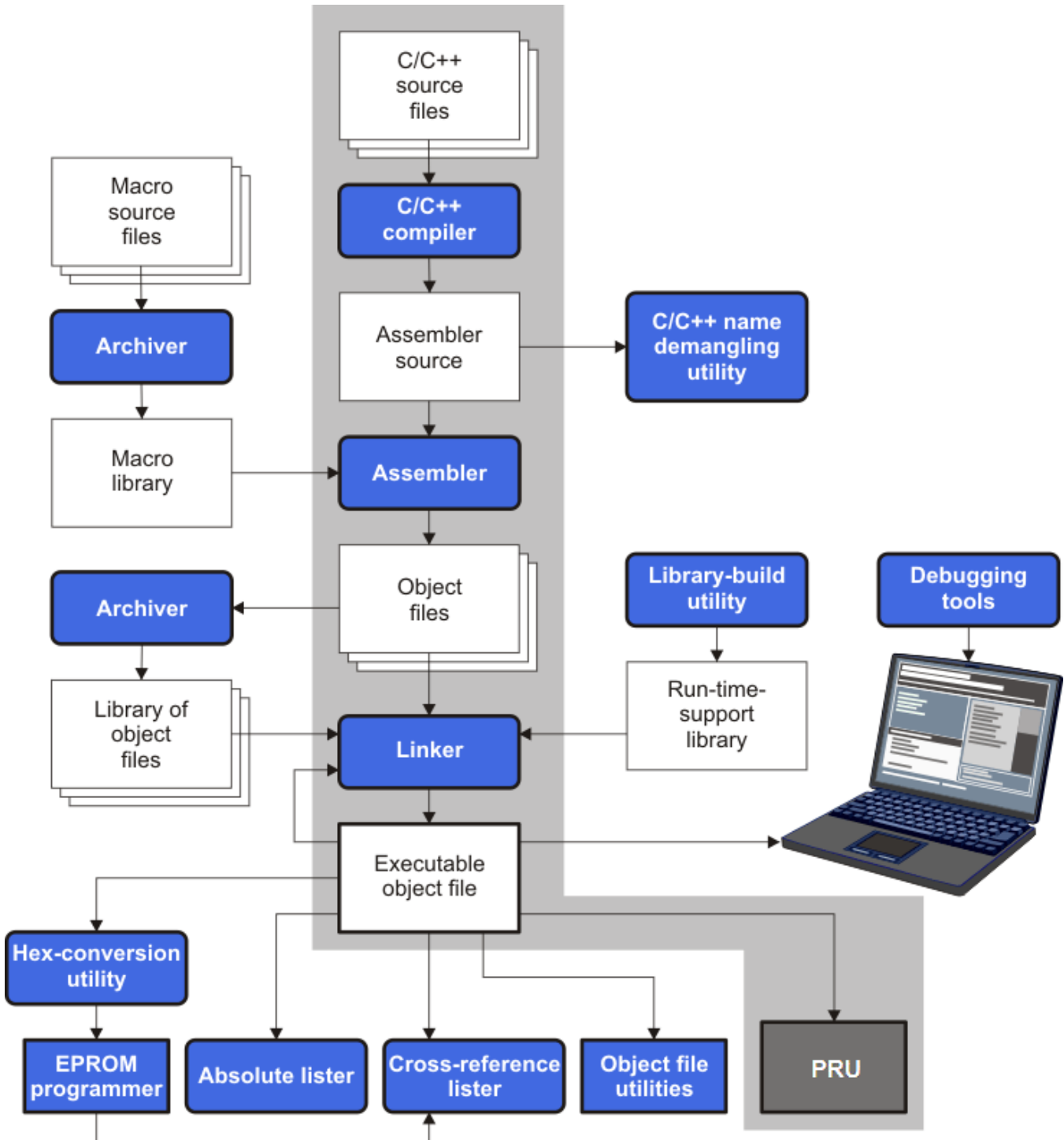
This chapter shows how these tools fit into the general software tools development flow and gives a brief description of each tool. For convenience, it also summarizes the C/C++ compiler and debugging tools. For detailed information on the compiler and debugger, and for complete descriptions of the PRU, refer to the books listed in *Related Documentation From Texas Instruments*.

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1.1 Software Development Tools Overview

Figure 1-1 shows the PRU software development flow. The shaded portion highlights the most common development path; the other portions are optional. The other portions are peripheral functions that enhance the development process.

Figure 1-1. PRU Software Development Flow



1.2 Tools Descriptions

The following list describes the tools that are shown in [Figure 1-1](#):

- The **C/C++ compiler** accepts C/C++ source code and produces PRU machine code object modules. See the *PRU Optimizing C/C++ Compiler User's Guide* for more information. A **shell program**, an **optimizer**, and an **interlist utility** are included in the installation:
 - The shell program enables you to compile, assemble, and link source modules in one step.
 - The optimizer modifies code to improve the efficiency of C/C++ programs.
 - The interlist utility interlists C/C++ source statements with assembly language output to correlate code produced by the compiler with your source code.
- The **assembler** translates assembly language source files into machine language object modules. Source files can contain instructions, assembler directives, and macro directives. You can use assembler directives to control the assembly process, including the source listing format, data alignment, and section content. See [Chapter 4](#) through [Chapter 6](#).
- The **linker** combines object files into a single object module. It performs symbolic relocation and resolves external references. The linker accepts relocatable object modules (created by the assembler) as input. It also accepts archiver library members and output modules created by a previous linker run. Link directives allow you to combine object file sections, bind sections or symbols to addresses or within memory ranges, and define global symbols. See [Chapter 8](#).
- The **archiver** allows you to collect a group of files into a single archive file, called a library. The most common use of the archiver is to collect a group of object files into an object library. The linker extracts object library members to resolve external references during the link. You can also use the archiver to collect several macros into a macro library. The assembler searches the library and uses the members that are called as macros by the source file. The archiver allows you to modify a library by deleting, replacing, extracting, or adding members. See [Section 7.1](#).
- The **library information archiver** allows you to create an index library of several object file library variants, which is useful when several variants of a library with different options are available. Rather than refer to a specific library, you can link against the index library, and the linker will choose the best match from the indexed libraries. See [Section 7.5](#) for more information about using the archiver to manage the content of a library.
- You can use the **library-build utility** to build your own customized run-time-support library. See the *PRU Optimizing C/C++ Compiler User's Guide* for more information.
- The **hex conversion utility** converts object files to TI-Tagged, ASCII-Hex, Intel, Motorola-S, or Tektronix object format. Converted files can be downloaded to an EPROM programmer. See [Chapter 12](#).
- The **absolute lister** uses linked object files to create .abs files. These files can be assembled to produce a listing of the absolute addresses of object code. See [Chapter 9](#).
- The **cross-reference lister** uses object files to produce a cross-reference listing showing symbols, their definition, and their references in the linked source files. See [Chapter 10](#).
- The main product of this development process is a executable object file that can be executed on a **PRU** device. You can use one of several debugging tools to refine and correct your code. Available products include:
 - An XDS emulator

In addition, the following utilities are provided to help examine or manage the content of a given object file:

- The **object file display utility** prints the contents of object files and object libraries in either human readable or XML formats. See [Section 11.1](#).
- The **disassembler** decodes the machine code from object modules to show the assembly instructions that it represents. See [Section 11.2](#).
- The **name utility** prints a list of symbol names for objects and functions defined or referenced in an object file or object archive. See [Section 11.3](#).
- The **strip utility** removes symbol table and debugging information from object files and object libraries. See [Section 11.4](#).

Introduction to Object Modules

The assembler creates object modules from assembly code, and the linker creates executable object files from object modules. These executable object files can be executed by a PRU device.

Object modules make modular programming easier because they encourage you to think in terms of *blocks* of code and data when you write an assembly language program. These blocks are known as sections. Both the assembler and the linker provide directives that allow you to create and manipulate sections.

This chapter focuses on the concept and use of sections in assembly language programs.

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2.1 Object File Format Specification

The object files created by the assembler and linker conform to the ELF (Executable and Linking Format) binary format. The ELF object files generated by the assembler and linker conform to the December 17, 2003 snapshot of the [System V generic ABI \(or gABI\)](#). This specification is currently maintained by SCO.

2.2 Executable Object Files

The linker produces executable object modules. An executable object module has the same format as object files that are used as linker input. The sections in an executable object module, however, have been combined and placed in target memory, and the relocations are all resolved.

To run a program, the data in the executable object module must be transferred, or loaded, into target system memory. See [Chapter 3](#) for details about loading and running programs.

2.3 Introduction to Sections

The smallest unit of an object file is a *section*. A section is a block of code or data that occupies contiguous space in the memory map. Each section of an object file is separate and distinct.

ELF format executable object files contain *segments*. An ELF segment is a meta-section. It represents a contiguous region of target memory. It is a collection of *sections* that have the same property, such as writable or readable. An ELF loader needs the segment information, but does not need the section information. The ELF standard allows the linker to omit ELF section information entirely from the executable object file.

Object files usually contain three default sections:

.text section	Contains executable code ⁽¹⁾
.data section	Usually contains initialized data
.bss section	Usually reserves space for uninitialized variables

The assembler and linker allow you to create, name, and link other kinds of sections. The .text, .data, and .bss sections are archetypes for how sections are handled.

There are two basic types of sections:

Initialized sections	Contain data or code. The .text and .data sections are initialized; user-named sections created with the .sect assembler directive are also initialized.
Uninitialized sections	Reserve space in the memory map for uninitialized data. The .bss section is uninitialized; user-named sections created with the .usect assembler directive are also uninitialized.

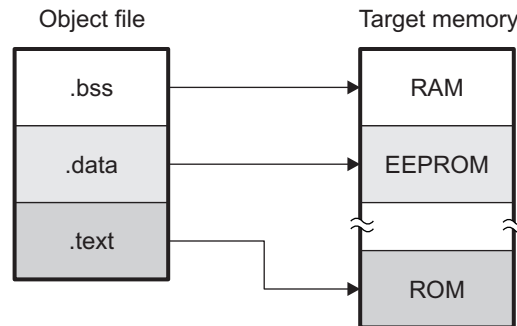
Several assembler directives allow you to associate various portions of code and data with the appropriate sections. The assembler builds these sections during the assembly process, creating an object file organized as shown in [Figure 2-1](#).

One of the linker's functions is to relocate sections into the target system's memory map; this function is called *placement*. Because most systems contain several types of memory, using sections can help you use target memory more efficiently. All sections are independently relocatable; you can place any section into any allocated block of target memory. For example, you can define a section that contains an initialization routine and then allocate the routine in a portion of the memory map that contains ROM. For information on section placement, see the "Specifying Where to Allocate Sections in Memory" section of the *PRU Optimizing C/C++ Compiler User's Guide*.

⁽¹⁾ Some targets allow content other than text, such as constants, in .text sections.

Figure 2-1 shows the relationship between sections in an object file and a hypothetical target memory.

Figure 2-1. Partitioning Memory Into Logical Blocks



2.3.1 Special Section Names

You can use the `.sect` and `.usect` directives to create any section name you like, but certain sections are treated in a special manner by the linker and the compiler's run-time support library. If you create a section with the same name as a special section, you should take care to follow the rules for that special section.

A few common special sections are:

- `.text` -- Used for program code.
- `.bss` -- Used for uninitialized objects (global variables).
- `.data` -- Used for initialized non-const objects (global variables).
- `.const` -- Used for initialized const objects (string constants, variables declared `const`).
- `.cinit` -- Used to initialize C global variables at startup.
- `.stack` -- Used for the function call stack.
- `.systemem` - Used for the dynamic memory allocation pool.

For more information on sections, see the "Specifying Where to Allocate Sections in Memory" section of the *PRU Optimizing C/C++ Compiler User's Guide*.

2.4 How the Assembler Handles Sections

The assembler identifies the portions of an assembly language program that belong in a given section. The assembler has the following directives that support this function:

- `.bss`
- `.data`
- `.sect`
- `.text`
- `.usect`

The `.bss` and `.usect` directives create *uninitialized sections*; the `.text`, `.data`, and `.sect` directives create *initialized sections*.

You can create subsections of any section to give you tighter control of the memory map. Subsections are created using the `.sect` and `.usect` directives. Subsections are identified with the base section name and a subsection name separated by a colon; see [Section 2.4.6](#).

Default Sections Directive

NOTE: If you do not use any of the sections directives, the assembler assembles everything into the `.text` section.

2.4.1 Uninitialized Sections

Uninitialized sections reserve space in PRU memory; they are usually placed in RAM. These sections have no actual contents in the object file; they simply reserve memory. A program can use this space at run time for creating and storing variables.

Uninitialized data areas are built by using the following assembler directives.

- The `.bss` directive reserves space in the `.bss` section.
- The `.usect` directive reserves space in a specific uninitialized user-named section.

Each time you invoke the `.bss` or `.usect` directive, the assembler reserves additional space in the `.bss` or the user-named section. The syntax is:

	<code>.bss</code> <i>symbol</i> , <i>size in bytes</i> [, <i>alignment</i> [, <i>bank offset</i>]]
<i>symbol</i>	<code>.usect</code> " <i>section name</i> ", <i>size in bytes</i> [, <i>alignment</i> [, <i>bank offset</i>]]

<i>symbol</i>	points to the first byte reserved by this invocation of the <code>.bss</code> or <code>.usect</code> directive. The <i>symbol</i> corresponds to the name of the variable that you are reserving space for. It can be referenced by any other section and can also be declared as a global symbol (with the <code>.global</code> directive).
<i>size in bytes</i>	is an absolute expression (see Section 4.8). The <code>.bss</code> directive reserves <i>size in bytes</i> bytes in the <code>.bss</code> section. The <code>.usect</code> directive reserves <i>size in bytes</i> bytes in <i>section name</i> . For both directives, you must specify a size; there is no default value.
<i>alignment</i>	is an optional parameter. It specifies the minimum alignment in bytes required by the space allocated. The default value is byte aligned; this option is represented by the value 1. The value must be a power of 2.
<i>bank offset</i>	is an optional parameter. It ensures that the space allocated to the symbol occurs on a specific memory bank boundary. The <i>bank offset</i> measures the number of bytes to offset from the alignment specified before assigning the symbol to that location.
<i>section name</i>	specifies the user-named section in which to reserve space. See Section 2.4.3 .

Initialized section directives (`.text`, `.data`, and `.sect`) change which section is considered the *current* section (see [Section 2.4.2](#)). However, the `.bss` and `.usect` directives *do not* change the current section; they simply escape from the current section temporarily. Immediately after a `.bss` or `.usect` directive, the assembler resumes assembling into whatever the current section was before the directive. The `.bss` and `.usect` directives can appear anywhere in an initialized section without affecting its contents.

The `.usect` directive can also be used to create uninitialized subsections. See [Section 2.4.6](#) for more information on creating subsections.

2.4.2 Initialized Sections

Initialized sections contain executable code or initialized data. The contents of these sections are stored in the object file and placed in PRU memory when the program is loaded. Each initialized section is independently relocatable and may reference symbols that are defined in other sections. The linker automatically resolves these references. The following directives tell the assembler to place code or data into a section. The syntaxes for these directives are:

<code>.text</code>
<code>.data</code>
<code>.sect</code> " <i>section name</i> "

The `.sect` directive can also be used to create initialized subsections. See [Section 2.4.6](#), for more information on creating subsections.

2.4.3 User-Named Sections

User-named sections are sections that *you* create. You can use them like the default `.text`, `.data`, and `.bss` sections, but each section with a distinct name is kept distinct during assembly.

For example, repeated use of the `.text` directive builds up a single `.text` section in the object file. This `.text` section is allocated in memory as a single unit. Suppose there is a portion of executable code (perhaps an initialization routine) that you want the linker to place in a different location than the rest of `.text`. If you assemble this segment of code into a user-named section, it is assembled separately from `.text`, and you can use the linker to allocate it into memory separately. You can also assemble initialized data that is separate from the `.data` section, and you can reserve space for uninitialized variables that is separate from the `.bss` section.

These directives let you create user-named sections:

- The `.usect` directive creates uninitialized sections that are used like the `.bss` section. These sections reserve space in RAM for variables.
- The `.sect` directive creates initialized sections, like the default `.text` and `.data` sections, that can contain code or data. The `.sect` directive creates user-named sections with relocatable addresses.

The syntaxes for these directives are:

```
symbol    .usect "section name", size in bytes[, alignment[, bank offset]]
          .sect "section name"
```

The maximum number of sections is $2^{32}-1$ (4294967295).

The *section name* parameter is the name of the section. For the `.usect` and `.sect` directives, a section name can refer to a subsection; see [Section 2.4.6](#) for details.

Each time you invoke one of these directives with a new name, you create a new user-named section. Each time you invoke one of these directives with a name that was already used, the assembler resumes assembling code or data (or reserves space) into the section with that name. *You cannot use the same names with different directives.* That is, you cannot create a section with the `.usect` directive and then try to use the same section with `.sect`.

2.4.4 Current Section

The assembler adds code or data to one section at a time. The section the assembler is currently filling is the *current section*. The `.text`, `.data`, and `.sect` directives change which section is considered the current section. When the assembler encounters one of these directives, it stops assembling into the current section (acting as an implied end of current section command). The assembler sets the designated section as the current section and assembles subsequent code into the designated section until it encounters another `.text`, `.data`, or `.sect` directive.

If one of these directives sets the current section to a section that already has code or data in it from earlier in the file, the assembler resumes adding to the end of that section. The assembler generates only one contiguous section for each given section name. This section is formed by concatenating all of the code or data which was placed in that section.

2.4.5 Section Program Counters

The assembler maintains a separate program counter for each section. These program counters are known as *section program counters*, or *SPCs*.

An SPC represents the current address within a section of code or data. Initially, the assembler sets each SPC to 0. As the assembler fills a section with code or data, it increments the appropriate SPC. If you resume assembling into a section, the assembler remembers the appropriate SPC's previous value and continues incrementing the SPC from that value.

The assembler treats each section as if it began at address 0; the linker relocates the symbols in each section according to the final address of the section in which that symbol is defined. See [Section 2.7](#) for information on relocation.

2.4.6 Subsections

A subsection is created by creating a section with a colon in its name. Subsections are logical subdivisions of larger sections. Subsections are themselves sections and can be manipulated by the assembler and linker.

The assembler has no concept of subsections; to the assembler, the colon in the name is not special. The subsection `.text:rts` would be considered completely unrelated to its parent section `.text`, and the assembler will not combine subsections with their parent sections.

Subsections are used to keep parts of a section as distinct sections so that they can be separately manipulated. For instance, by placing each function and object in a uniquely-named subsection, the linker gets a finer-grained view of the section for memory placement and unused-function elimination.

By default, when the linker sees a SECTION directive in the linker command file like `.text`, it will gather `.text` and all subsections of `.text` into one large output section named `.text`. You can instead use the SECTION directive to control the subsection independently. See [Section 8.5.5.1](#) for an example.

You can create subsections in the same way you create other user-named sections: by using the `.sect` or `.usect` directive.

The syntaxes for a subsection name are:

```
symbol    .usect "section_name:subsection_name",size in bytes[, alignment[, bank offset] ]
          .sect "section_name:subsection_name"
```

A subsection is identified by the base section name followed by a colon and the name of the subsection. The subsection name may not contain any spaces.

A subsection can be allocated separately or grouped with other sections using the same base name. For example, you create a subsection called `_func` within the `.text` section:

```
.sect ".text:_func"
```

Using the linker's SECTIONS directive, you can allocate `.text:_func` separately, or with all the `.text` sections.

You can create two types of subsections:

- Initialized subsections are created using the `.sect` directive. See [Section 2.4.2](#).
- Uninitialized subsections are created using the `.usect` directive. See [Section 2.4.1](#).

Subsections are placed in the same manner as sections. See [Section 8.5.5](#) for information on the SECTIONS directive.

2.4.7 Using Sections Directives

[Figure 2-2](#) shows how you can build sections incrementally, using the sections directives to swap back and forth between the different sections. You can use sections directives to begin assembling into a section for the first time, or to continue assembling into a section that already contains code. In the latter case, the assembler simply appends the new code to the code that is already in the section.

The format in [Figure 2-2](#) is a listing file. [Figure 2-2](#) shows how the SPCs are modified during assembly. A line in a listing file has four fields:

Field 1	contains the source code line counter.
Field 2	contains the section program counter.
Field 3	contains the object code.
Field 4	contains the original source statement.

See [Section 4.10](#) for more information on interpreting the fields in a source listing.

As Figure 2-3 shows, the file in Figure 2-2 creates the following sections:

- .text** contains six 32-bit words of object code.
- .data** contains seven words of initialized data.
- .bss** reserves ten bytes in memory.
- newvars** is a user-named section created with the .usect directive; it reserves eight bytes in memory.

The second column shows the object code that is assembled into these sections; the first column shows the source statements that generated the object code.

Figure 2-3. Object Code Generated by the File in Figure 2-2

Line numbers	Object code	Section
19	2404D2E1	.text
20	0501E1E1	
21	6F00E1FF	
36	240D80E3	
37	0501E3E3	
38	6F00E3FF	
5	00000011	.data
5	00000022	
5	00000033	
14	00000123	
26	000000AA	
26	000000BB	
26	000000CC	
10	No data - ten bytes reserved	.bss
30	No data - eight bytes reserved	newvars
31		

2.5 How the Linker Handles Sections

The linker has two main functions related to sections. First, the linker uses the sections in object files as building blocks; it combines input sections to create output sections in an executable output module. Second, the linker chooses memory addresses for the output sections; this is called *placement*. Two linker directives support these functions:

- The *MEMORY* directive allows you to define the memory map of a target system. You can name portions of memory and specify their starting addresses and their lengths.
- The *SECTIONS* directive tells the linker how to combine input sections into output sections and where to place these output sections in memory.

Subsections let you manipulate the placement of sections with greater precision. You can specify the location of each subsection with the linker's *SECTIONS* directive. If you do not specify a subsection, the subsection is combined with the other sections with the same base section name. See [Section 8.5.5.1](#).

It is not always necessary to use linker directives. If you do not use them, the linker uses the target processor's default placement algorithm described in [Section 8.7](#). When you *do* use linker directives, you must specify them in a linker command file.

Refer to the following sections for more information about linker command files and linker directives:

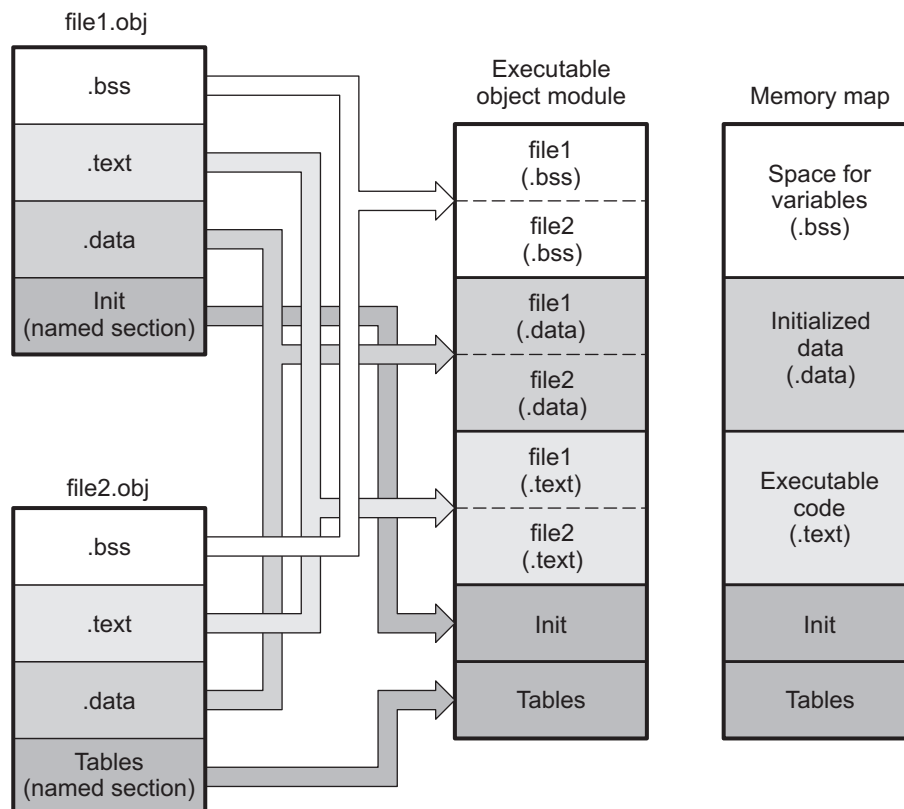
- [Section 8.5, Linker Command Files](#)
- [Section 8.5.4, The MEMORY Directive](#)
- [Section 8.5.5, The SECTIONS Directive](#)
- [Section 8.7, Default Placement Algorithm](#)

2.5.1 Combining Input Sections

[Figure 2-4](#) provides a simplified example of the process of linking two files together.

Note that this is a simplified example, so it does not show all the sections that will be created or the actual sequence of the sections. See [Section 8.7](#) for the actual default memory placement map for PRU.

Figure 2-4. Combining Input Sections to Form an Executable Object Module



In [Figure 2-4](#), `file1.obj` and `file2.obj` have been assembled to be used as linker input. Each contains the `.text`, `.data`, and `.bss` default sections; in addition, each contains a user-named section. The executable object module shows the combined sections. The linker combines the `.text` section from `file1.obj` and the `.text` section from `file2.obj` to form one `.text` section, then combines the two `.data` sections and the two `.bss` sections, and finally places the user-named sections at the end. The memory map shows the combined sections to be placed into memory.

2.5.2 Placing Sections

Figure 2-4 illustrates the linker's default method for combining sections. Sometimes you may not want to use the default setup. For example, you may not want all of the `.text` sections to be combined into a single `.text` section. Or you may want a user-named section placed where the `.data` section would normally be allocated. Most memory maps contain various types of memory (RAM, ROM, EPROM, FLASH, etc.) in varying amounts; you may want to place a section in a specific type of memory.

For further explanation of section placement within the memory map, see the discussions in [Section 8.5.4](#) and [Section 8.5.5](#). See [Section 8.7](#) for the actual default memory allocation map for PRU.

2.6 Symbols

An object file contains a symbol table that stores information about *external symbols* in the object file. The linker uses this table when it performs relocation. See [Section 2.7](#).

An object file symbol is a named 32-bit integer value, usually representing an address. A symbol can represent such things as the starting address of a function, variable, or section.

An object file symbol can also represent an absolute integer, such as the size of the stack. To the linker, this integer is an unsigned value, but the integer may be treated as signed or unsigned depending on how it is used. The range of legal values for an absolute integer is 0 to $2^{32}-1$ for unsigned treatment and -2^{31} to $2^{31}-1$ for signed treatment.

Symbols can be bound as *global symbols*, *local symbols*, or *weak symbols*. The linker handles symbols differently based on their binding. For example, the linker does not allow multiple global definitions of a symbol, but local symbols can be defined in multiple object files (but only once per object file). The linker does not resolve references to local symbols in different object files, but it does resolve references to global symbols in any other object file.

A *global symbol* is defined in the same manner as any other symbol; that is, it appears as a label or is defined by a directive, such as `.set`, `.equ`, `.bss`, or `.usect`. If a global symbol is defined more than once, the linker issues a multiple-definition error. (The assembler can provide a similar multiple-definition error for local symbols.)

A *weak symbol* is a symbol that is used in the current module but is defined in another module. The linker resolves this symbol's definition at link time. Weak symbols are similar to global symbols, except that if one object file contains a weak symbol, and another object file contains a global symbol with the same name, the global symbol is used to resolve references. A weak reference may be unresolved at link time, in which case the address is treated as 0. Therefore, for weak references, application code must test to make sure `&var` is not zero before attempting to read the contents. See [Section 2.6.2](#) for more about weak symbols.

In general, common symbols (see [.common directive](#)) are preferred over weak symbols.

See [Section 4.7](#) for information about assembler symbols.

2.6.1 External Symbols

External symbols are symbols that are visible to other object modules. Because they are visible across object modules, they may be defined in one file and referenced in another file. You can use the `.def`, `.ref`, or `.global` directive to identify a symbol as external:

.def	The symbol is defined in the current file and may be used in another file.
.ref	The symbol is referenced in the current file, but defined in another file.
.global	The symbol can be either of the above. The assembler chooses either <code>.def</code> or <code>.ref</code> as appropriate for each symbol.

The following code fragments illustrate the use of the `.global` directive.

```
x: .word y

.global x ; acts as .def of x
.global y ; acts as .ref of y
```

Because `x` is defined in this module, the assembler treats `".global x"` as `".def x"`, and other modules can refer to `x`. Because `y` is not defined in this module, the assembler treats `".global y"` as `".ref y"`. The symbol `y` must be defined in another module.

Both the symbols `x` and `y` are external symbols and are placed in the object file's symbol table; `x` as a defined symbol, and `y` as an undefined symbol. When the object file is linked with other object files, the entry for `x` will be used to resolve references to `x` in other files. The entry for `y` causes the linker to look through the symbol tables of other files for `y`'s definition.

The linker attempts to match all references with corresponding definitions. If the linker cannot find a symbol's definition, it prints an error message about the unresolved reference. This type of error prevents the linker from creating an executable object module.

An error also occurs if the same symbol is defined more than once.

2.6.2 Weak Symbols

The linker processes absolute symbols that are defined with "weak" binding differently from absolute symbols that are defined with global binding (the default). Instead of including a weak absolute symbol in the output file's symbol table by default (as it would for a global absolute symbol), the linker only includes a weak absolute symbol in the output of a "final" link if the symbol is required to resolve an otherwise unresolved reference.

This weak symbol handling allows you to associate addresses with symbols known to have been pre-loaded (such as function addresses in system memory) and then link the current application against a pre-loaded memory image. If such symbols are defined as weak absolute symbols, the linker can minimize the number of symbols it includes in the output file's symbol table by omitting those that are not needed to resolve references. Reducing the size of the output file's symbol table reduces the time required to link, especially if there are a large number of pre-loaded symbols to link against. This feature is particularly helpful for OpenCL applications.

You can define a weak absolute symbol using either assembly or the linker command file.

Using Assembly: To define a weak absolute symbol in an input object file, the source file can be written in assembly. Use the `.weak` and `.set` directives in combination as shown in the following example, which defines a weak absolute symbol `"ext_addr_sym"`:

```
ext_addr_sym    .weak    ext_addr_sym
                .set     0x12345678
```

Assemble the source file that defines weak symbols, and include the resulting object file in the link. The `"ext_addr_sym"` in this example is available as a weak absolute symbol in a final link. It is a candidate for removal if the symbol is not referenced elsewhere in the application. See [.weak directive](#).

Using the Linker Command File: To define a weak symbol in a linker command file, use the "weak" operator in an assignment expression to designate that the symbol as eligible for removal from the output file's symbol table if it is not referenced. In a linker command file, an assignment expression outside a `MEMORY` or `SECTIONS` directive can be used to define a weak linker-defined absolute symbol. For example, you can define `"ext_addr_sym"` as follows:

```
weak(ext_addr_sym) = 0x12345678;
```

If the linker command file is used to perform the final link, then `"ext_addr_sym"` is presented to the linker as a weak absolute symbol; it will not be included in the resulting output file if the symbol is not referenced. See [Section 8.6.2](#).

If there are multiple definitions of the same absolute symbol, the linker uses certain rules to determine which definition takes precedence. Some definitions may have weak binding and others may have strong binding. "Strong" in this context means that the symbol has *not* been given a weak binding by either of the two methods described above. Some definitions may come from an input object file (that is, using assembly directives) and others may come from an assignment statement in a linker command file.

The linker uses the following guidelines to determine which definition is used when resolving references to a symbol:

- A strongly bound symbol always takes precedence over a weakly bound symbol.
- If two symbols are both strongly bound or both weakly bound, a symbol defined in a linker command file takes precedence over a symbol defined in an input object file.
- If two symbols are both strongly bound and both are defined in an input object file, the linker provides a symbol redefinition error and halts the link process.

2.6.3 The Symbol Table

The assembler generates an entry in the symbol table for each `.ref`, `.def`, or `.global` directive in [Section 2.6.1](#)). These are external symbols, which are visible to other object modules.

The assembler also creates special symbols that point to the beginning of each section.

The assembler does not usually create symbol table entries for any symbols other than those described above, because the linker does not use them. For example, labels ([Section 4.7.2](#)) are not included in the symbol table unless they are declared with the `.global` directive. For informational purposes, there are entries in the symbol table for each symbol in a program.

2.7 Symbolic Relocations

The assembler treats each section as if it began at address 0. Of course, all sections cannot actually begin at address 0 in memory, so the linker must relocate sections. Relocations are symbol-relative rather than section-relative.

The linker can *relocate* sections by:

- Allocating them into the memory map so that they begin at the appropriate address as defined with the linker's `MEMORY` directive
- Adjusting symbol values to correspond to the new section addresses
- Adjusting references to relocated symbols to reflect the adjusted symbol values

The linker uses *relocation entries* to adjust references to symbol values. The assembler creates a relocation entry each time a relocatable symbol is referenced. The linker then uses these entries to patch the references after the symbols are relocated. [Example 2-1](#) contains a code fragment for a PRU device for which the assembler generates relocation entries.

Example 2-1. Code That Generates Relocation Entries

```

1          *****
2          **      Generating Relocation Entries      **
3          *****
4          .ref X
5          .def Y
6 00000000 .text
7 00000000 E0921003 ADDS R1, R2, R3
8 00000004 0A000001 BEQ Y
9 00000008 E1C410BE STRH R1, [R4, #14]
10 0000000c EAFFFFFB! B X ; generates a relocation entry
11 00000010 E0821003 Y: ADD R1, R2, R3

```

The relocation generated for 'Y' would actually refer to the symbol 'Y' and resolve the value for 'Y' in the opcode based on where the definition of 'Y' ends up.

2.8 Loading a Program

The linker creates an executable object file which can be loaded in several ways, depending on your execution environment. These methods include using Code Composer Studio or the hex conversion utility. For details, see [Section 3.1](#).

Program Loading and Running

Even after a program is written, compiled, and linked into an executable object file, there are still many tasks that need to be performed before the program does its job. The program must be loaded onto the target, memory and registers must be initialized, and the program must be set to running.

Some of these tasks need to be built into the program itself. *Bootstrapping* is the process of a program performing some of its own initialization. Many of the necessary tasks are handled for you by the compiler and linker, but if you need more control over these tasks, it helps to understand how the pieces are expected to fit together.

This chapter will introduce you to the concepts involved in program loading, initialization, and startup.

This chapter does not cover *dynamic loading*.

This chapter currently provides examples for the C6000 device family. Refer to your device documentation for various device-specific aspects of bootstrapping.

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3.1 Loading

A program needs to be placed into the target device's memory before it may be executed. *Loading* is the process of preparing a program for execution by initializing device memory with the program's code and data. A *loader* might be another program on the device, an external agent (for example, a debugger), or the device might initialize itself after power-on, which is known as *bootstrap loading*, or *bootloading*.

The loader is responsible for constructing the *load image* in memory before the program starts. The load image is the program's code and data in memory before execution. What exactly constitutes loading depends on the environment, such as whether an operating system is present. This section describes several loading schemes for bare-metal devices. This section is not exhaustive.

A program may be loaded in the following ways:

- **A debugger running on a connected host workstation.** In a typical embedded development setup, the device is subordinate to a host running a debugger such as Code Composer Studio (CCS). The device is connected with a communication channel such as a JTAG interface. CCS reads the program and writes the load image directly to target memory through the communications interface.
- **Another program running on the device.** The running program can create the load image and transfer control to the loaded program. If an operating system is present, it may have the ability to load and run programs.
- **"Burning" the load image onto an EPROM module.** The hex converter (hexpru) can assist with this by converting the executable object file into a format suitable for input to an EPROM programmer. The EPROM is placed onto the device itself and becomes a part of the device's memory. See [Chapter 12](#) for details.
- **Bootstrap loading from a dedicated peripheral, such as an I²C peripheral.** The device may require a small program called a bootloader to perform the loading from the peripheral. The hex converter can assist in creating a bootloader.

3.1.1 Load and Run Addresses

Consider an embedded device for which the program's load image is burned onto EPROM/ROM. Variable data in the program must be writable, and so must be located in writable memory, typically RAM. However, RAM is *volatile*, meaning it will lose its contents when the power goes out. If this data must have an initial value, that initial value must be stored somewhere else in the load image, or it would be lost when power is cycled. The initial value must be copied from the non-volatile ROM to its run-time location in RAM before it is used. See [Section 8.8](#) for ways this is done.

The *load address* is the location of an object in the load image.

The *run address* is the location of the object as it exists during program execution.

An *object* is a chunk of memory. It represents a section, segment, function, or data.

The load and run addresses for an object may be the same. This is commonly the case for program code and read-only data, such as the `.const` section. In this case, the program can read the data directly from the load address. Sections that have no initial value, such as the `.bss` section, do not have load data and are considered to have load and run addresses that are the same. If you specify different load and run addresses for an uninitialized section, the linker provides a warning and ignores the load address.

The load and run addresses for an object may be different. This is commonly the case for writable data, such as the `.data` section. The `.data` section's starting contents are placed in ROM and copied to RAM. This often occurs during program startup, but depending on the needs of the object, it may be deferred to sometime later in the program as described in [Section 3.5](#).

Symbols in assembly code and object files almost always refer to the run address. When you look at an address in the program, you are almost always looking at the run address. The load address is rarely used for anything but initialization.

The load and run addresses for a section are controlled by the linker command file and are recorded in the object file metadata.

The load address determines where a loader places the raw data for the section. Any references to the section (such as references to labels in it) refer to its run address. The application must copy the section from its load address to its run address before the first reference of the symbol is encountered at run time; this does *not* happen automatically simply because you specify a separate run address. For examples that specify load and run addresses, see [Section 8.5.6.1](#).

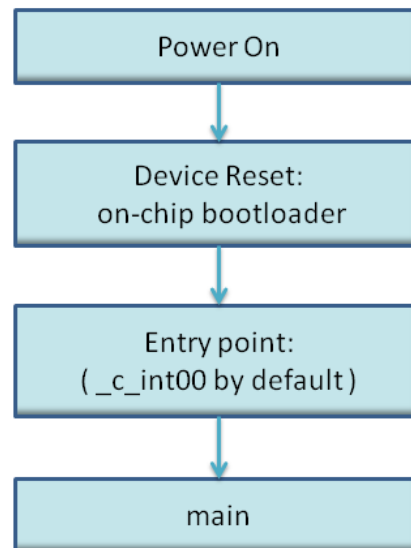
ELF format executable object files contain *segments*. See [Section 2.3](#) for information about sections and segments.

3.1.2 Bootstrap Loading

The details of bootstrap loading (bootloading) vary a great deal between devices. Not every device supports every bootloading mode, and using the bootloader is optional. This section discusses various bootloading schemes to help you understand how they work. Refer to your device's data sheet to see which bootloading schemes are available and how to use them.

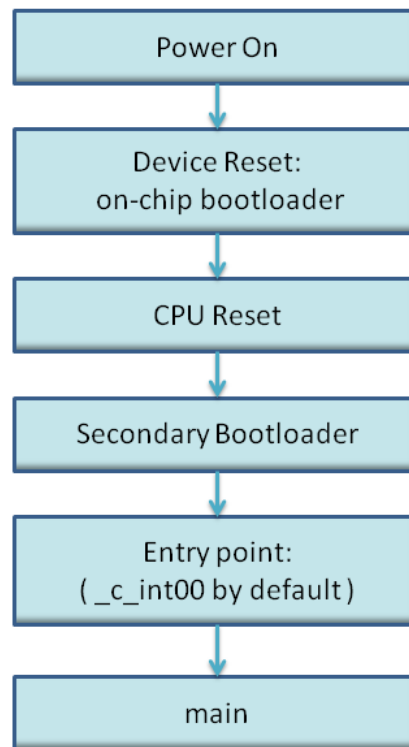
A typical embedded system uses bootloading to initialize the device. The program code and data may be stored in ROM or FLASH memory. At power-on, an on-chip bootloader (the *primary bootloader*) built into the device hardware starts automatically.

Figure 3-1. Bootloading Sequence (Simplified)



The primary bootloader is typically very small and copies a limited amount of memory from a dedicated location in ROM to a dedicated location in RAM. (Some bootloaders support copying the program from an I/O peripheral.) After the copy is completed, it transfers control to the program.

For many programs, the primary bootloader is not capable of loading the entire program, so these programs supply a more capable secondary bootloader. The primary bootloader loads the secondary bootloader and transfers control to it. Then, the secondary bootloader loads the rest of the program and transfers control to it. There can be any number of layers of bootloaders, each loading a more capable bootloader to which it transfers control.

Figure 3-2. Bootloading Sequence with Secondary Bootloader


3.1.2.1 Boot, Load, and Run Addresses

The *boot address* of a bootloaded object is where its raw data exists in ROM before power-on.

The boot, load, and run addresses for an object may all be the same; this is commonly the case for `.const` data. If they are different, the object's contents must be copied to the correct location before the object may be used.

The boot address may be different than the load address. The bootloader is responsible for copying the raw data to the load address.

The boot address is not controlled by the linker command file or recorded in the object file; it is strictly a convention shared by the bootloader and the program.

3.1.2.2 Primary Bootloader

The detailed operation of the primary bootloader is device-specific. Some devices have complex capabilities such as booting from an I/O peripheral or configuring memory controller parameters.

3.1.2.3 Secondary Bootloader

The hex converter assumes the secondary bootloader is of a particular format. The hex converter's model bootloader uses a *boot table*. You can use whatever format you want, but if you follow this model, the hex converter can create the boot table automatically.

3.1.2.4 Boot Table

The input for the model secondary bootloader is the *boot table*. The boot table contains records that instruct the secondary bootloader to copy blocks of data contained in the table to specified destination addresses. The hex conversion utility automatically builds the boot table for the secondary bootloader. Using the utility, you specify the sections you want to initialize, the boot table location, and the name of the section containing the secondary bootloader routine and where it should be located. The hex conversion utility builds a complete image of the table and adds it to the program.

The boot table is target-specific. For C6000, the format of the boot table is simple. A header record contains a 4-byte field that indicates where the boot loader should branch after it has completed copying data. After the header, each section that is to be included in the boot table has the following contents:

- 4-byte field containing the size of the section
- 4-byte field containing the destination address for the copy
- the raw data
- 0 to 3 bytes of trailing padding to make the next field aligned to 4 bytes

More than one section can be entered; a termination block containing an all-zero 4-byte field follows the last section.

3.1.2.5 Bootloader Routine

The bootloader routine is a normal function, except that it executes before the C environment is set up. For this reason, it can't use the C stack, and it can't call any functions that have yet to be loaded!

The following sample code is for C6000 and is from *Creating a Second-Level Bootloader for FLASH Bootloading on TMS320C6000 Platform With Code Composer Studio* (SPRA999).

Example 3-1. Sample Secondary Bootloader Routine

```

; ===== boot_c671x.s62 =====
; global EMIF symbols defined for the c671x family
        .include      boot_c671x.h62
        .sect ".boot_load"
        .global _boot

_boot:
;*****
;* DEBUG LOOP - COMMENT OUT B FOR NORMAL OPERATION
;*****
zero B1
_myloop: ; [!B1] B _myloop
        nop 5
_myloopend: nop
;*****
;* CONFIGURE EMIF
;*****
        ;*****
        ; *EMIF_GCTL = EMIF_GCTL_V;
        ;*****
        mvkl  EMIF_GCTL, A4
||      mvkl  EMIF_GCTL_V, B4
        mvkh  EMIF_GCTL, A4
||      mvkh  EMIF_GCTL_V, B4
        stw  B4, *A4
;*****
        ; *EMIF_CE0 = EMIF_CE0_V
        ;*****
        mvkl  EMIF_CE0, A4
||      mvkl  EMIF_CE0_V, B4
        mvkh  EMIF_CE0, A4
||      mvkh  EMIF_CE0_V, B4
        stw  B4, *A4

```


Example 3-1. Sample Secondary Bootloader Routine (continued)

```

;*****
; *EMIF_CE1 = EMIF_CE1_V (setup for 8-bit async)
;*****
    mvkl    EMIF_CE1,A4
||    mvkl    EMIF_CE1_V,B4
    mvkh    EMIF_CE1,A4
||    mvkh    EMIF_CE1_V,B4
    stw     B4,*A4
;*****
; *EMIF_CE2 = EMIF_CE2_V (setup for 32-bit async)
;*****
    mvkl    EMIF_CE2,A4
||    mvkl    EMIF_CE2_V,B4
    mvkh    EMIF_CE2,A4
||    mvkh    EMIF_CE2_V,B4
    stw     B4,*A4
;*****
; *EMIF_CE3 = EMIF_CE3_V (setup for 32-bit async)
;*****
||    mvkl    EMIF_CE3,A4
||    mvkl    EMIF_CE3_V,B4      ;
    mvkh    EMIF_CE3,A4
||    mvkh    EMIF_CE3_V,B4
    stw     B4,*A4
;*****
; *EMIF_SDRAMCTL = EMIF_SDRAMCTL_V
;*****
||    mvkl    EMIF_SDRAMCTL,A4
||    mvkl    EMIF_SDRAMCTL_V,B4  ;
    mvkh    EMIF_SDRAMCTL,A4
||    mvkh    EMIF_SDRAMCTL_V,B4
    stw     B4,*A4
;*****
; *EMIF_SDRAMTIM = EMIF_SDRAMTIM_V
;*****
||    mvkl    EMIF_SDRAMTIM,A4
||    mvkl    EMIF_SDRAMTIM_V,B4  ;
    mvkh    EMIF_SDRAMTIM,A4
||    mvkh    EMIF_SDRAMTIM_V,B4
    stw     B4,*A4
;*****
; *EMIF_SDRAMEXT = EMIF_SDRAMEXT_V
;*****
||    mvkl    EMIF_SDRAMEXT,A4
||    mvkl    EMIF_SDRAMEXT_V,B4  ;
    mvkh    EMIF_SDRAMEXT,A4
||    mvkh    EMIF_SDRAMEXT_V,B4
    stw     B4,*A4
;*****
; copy sections
;*****
    mvkl    COPY_TABLE, a3 ; load table pointer
    mvkh    COPY_TABLE, a3
    ldw     *a3++, b1      ; Load entry point
copy_section_top:
    ldw     *a3++, b0      ; byte count
    ldw     *a3++, a4      ; ram start address
    nop     3
[!b0]     b    copy_done    ; have we copied all sections?
          nop     5
copy_loop:
    ldb     *a3++,b5
    sub     b0,1,b0        ; decrement counter
[ b0]     b     copy_loop  ; setup branch if not done

```

Example 3-1. Sample Secondary Bootloader Routine (continued)

```

[!b0]    b    copy_section_top
         zero a1
[!b0]    and  3,a3,a1
         stb  b5,*a4++
[!b0]    and  -4,a3,a5    ; round address up to next multiple of 4
[ a1]    add  4,a5,a3    ; round address up to next multiple of 4
;*****
; jump to entry point
;*****
copy_done:
         b    .S2 b1
         nop  5
  
```

3.2 Entry Point

The entry point is the address at which the execution of the program begins. This is the address of the startup routine. The startup routine is responsible for initializing and calling the rest of the program. For a C/C++ program, the startup routine is usually named `_c_int00` (see [Section 3.3.1](#)). After the program is loaded, the value of the entry point is placed in the PC register and the CPU is allowed to run.

The object file has an entry point field. For a C/C++ program, the linker will fill in `_c_int00` by default. You can select a custom entry point; see [Section 8.4.12](#). The device itself cannot read the entry point field from the object file, so it has to be encoded in the program somewhere.

- If you are using a bootloader, the boot table includes an entry point field. When it finishes running, the bootloader branches to the entry point.
- If you are using a hosted debugger, such as CCS, the debugger may explicitly set the program counter (PC) to the value of the entry point.

3.3 Run-Time Initialization

After the load image is in place, the program can run. The subsections that follow describe bootstrap initialization of a C/C++ program. An assembly-only program may not need to perform all of these steps.

3.3.1 The `_c_int00` Function

The function `_c_int00` is the *startup routine* (also called the *boot routine*) for C/C++ programs. It performs all the steps necessary for a C/C++ program to initialize itself.

The name `_c_int00` means that it is the interrupt handler for interrupt number 0, RESET, and that it sets up the C environment. Its name need not be exactly `_c_int00`, but the linker sets `_c_int00` as the entry point for C programs by default. The compiler's run-time-support library provides a default implementation of `_c_int00`.

The startup routine is responsible for performing the following actions:

1. Switch to user mode and sets up the user mode stack
2. Set up status and configuration registers
3. Set up the stack and secondary system stack
4. Process special binit copy table, if present.
5. Process the run-time initialization table to autoinitialize global variables (when using the `--rom_model` option)
6. Call all global constructors
7. Call the function `main`
8. Call `exit` when `main` returns

3.3.2 Variable Initialization

Initialized read-write variables are collected into dedicated section(s) of the object file, for example `.data`. The section contains an image of its initial state upon program startup.

There are two models for loading such sections. In the *RAM model* (`--ram_model`), an external agent such as a loader is responsible for getting the data from the executable file to its location in read-write memory. This is the typical direct-initialization model used in OS-based systems or, in some instances, boot-loaded systems.

The other model, called the *ROM model* (`--rom_model`), is intended for bare-metal embedded systems that must be capable of cold starts without the support of an OS or other loader. Any data needed to initialize the program must reside in persistent offline storage (ROM), and get copied into its RAM location upon startup. The TI tools implement this by leveraging the copy table capability. The initialization mechanism is conceptually similar to copy tables, but differs slightly in the details.

Figure 3-3 shows the conceptual operation of variable initialization under the ROM model. In this model, the linker *removes* the data from sections that contain initialized variables. The sections become uninitialized sections, allocated into RAM at their run-time address (much like `.bss`). The linker encodes the initialization data into a special section called `.cinit` (for C Initialization), where the startup code from the run-time library decodes and copies it to its run address.

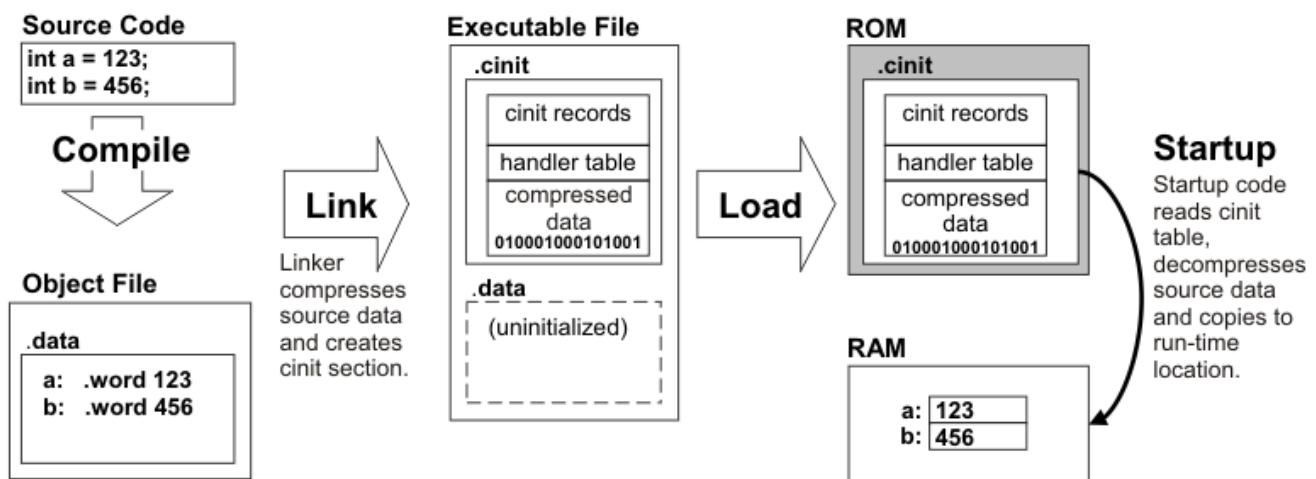


Figure 3-3. ROM-Based Variable Initialization Via `cinit`

Like copy tables, the source data in the `.cinit` tables may or may not be compressed. If it is compressed, the encoding and decoding scheme is identical to that of copy tables so that the handler tables and decompression handlers can be shared.

The `.cinit` section contains some or all of the following items:

- The **cinit table**, consisting of cinit records, which are similar to copy records.
- The **handler table**, consisting of pointers to decompression routines. The handler table and handlers are shared by initialization and copy tables.
- The **source data**, consisting of compressed or uncompressed data used to initialize variables.

These items may be in any order.

Figure 3-4 is a schematic depiction of the .cinit section.

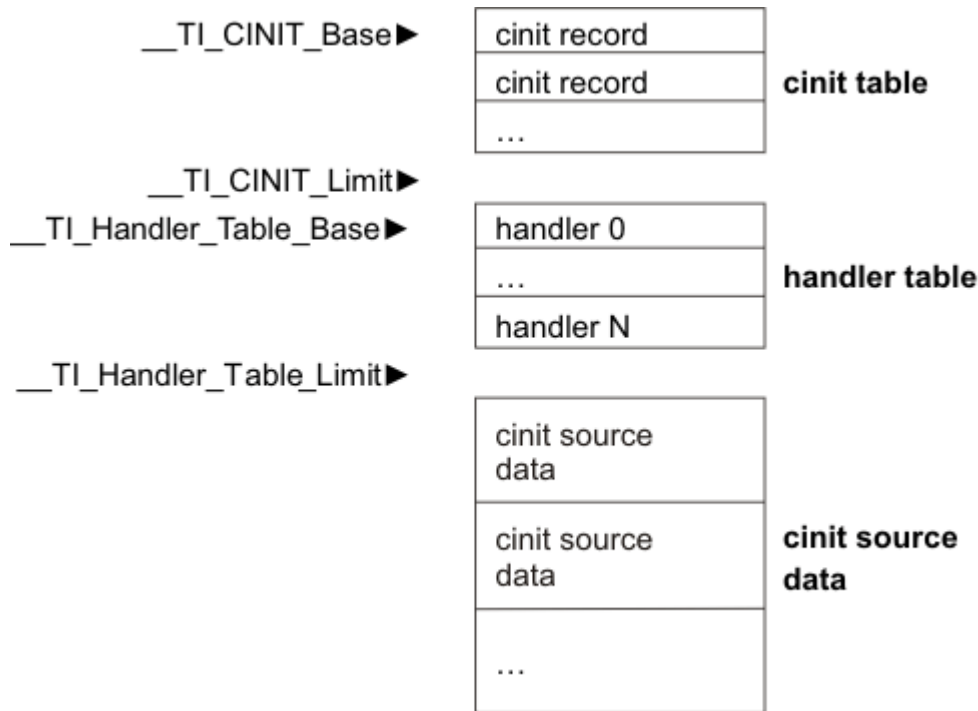


Figure 3-4. The .cinit Section

The .cinit section has the section type SHT_TI_INITINFO which identifies it as being in this format. Tools should rely on the section type and not on the name .cinit.

Two special symbols are defined to delimit the cinit table: `__TI_CINIT_Base` points to the cinit table, and `__TI_CINIT_Limit` points one byte past the end of the table. The startup code references the table using these symbols.

Records in the cinit table have the following format:

```
typedef struct
{
    uint32 source_data;
    uint32 dest;
} CINIT_RECORD;
```

- The **source_data** field points to the source data in the cinit section.
- The **dest** field points to the destination address. Unlike copy table records, cinit records do not contain a size field; the size is always encoded in the source data.

The source data has the same format as compressed copy table source data, and the handlers have the same interface. In addition to the RLE and LZSS formats, there are two additional formats defined for cinit records: uncompressed, and zero-initialized.

- The explicit **uncompressed** format is required because unlike a copy table record, there is no overloaded size field in a cinit record. The size field is always encoded into the source data, even when no compression is used. The encoding is as follows:

handler index	padding	size	data
1 byte	3 bytes	4 bytes	size bytes

The encoded data includes a size field, which is aligned on the next 4-byte boundary following the handler index. The size field specifies how many bytes are in the data payload, which begins immediately following the size field. The initialization operation copies *size* bytes from the data field to

the destination address. The TI run-time library contains a handler called `__TI_decompress_none` for the uncompressed format.

- The **zero-initialization** format is a compact format used for the common case of variables whose initial value is zero. The encoding is as follows:

handler index	padding	size
1 byte	3 bytes	4 bytes

The size field is aligned on the next 4-byte boundary following the handler index. The initialization operation fills *size* consecutive bytes at the destination address with zero. The TI run-time library contains a handler called `__TI_zero_init` for this format.

As an optimization, the linker is free to coalesce initializations of adjacent objects into single `.cinit` records if they can be profitably encoded using the same format. This is typically significant for zero-initialized objects.

3.3.3 Copy Tables

The RTS function `copy_in` can be used at run-time to move code and data around, usually from its load address to its run address. This function reads size and location information from copy tables. The linker automatically generates several kinds of copy tables. Refer to [Section 8.8](#).

You can create and control code overlays with copy tables. See [Section 8.8.4](#) for details and examples.

Using copy tables is similar to performing run-time relocations as described in [Section 3.5](#), however copy tables require a specific table format.

3.3.3.1 BINIT

The BINIT (boot-time initialization) copy table is special in that the target will automatically perform the copying at auto-initialization time. Refer to [Section 8.8.4.2](#) for more about the BINIT copy table name. The BINIT copy table is copied before `.cinit` processing.

3.3.3.2 CINIT

EABI `.cinit` tables are special kinds of copy tables. Refer to [Section 3.3.2](#) for information about using the `.cinit` section with the ROM model for variable initialization.

3.4 Arguments to main

Some programs expect arguments to `main` (`argc`, `argv`) to be valid. Normally this isn't possible for an embedded program, but the TI runtime does provide a way to do it. The user must allocate an `.args` section of an appropriate size using the `--args` linker option. It is the responsibility of the loader to populate the `.args` section. It is not specified how the loader determines which arguments to pass to the target. The format of the arguments is the same as an array of pointers to `char` on the target.

See [Section 8.4.4](#) for information about allocating memory for argument passing.

3.5 Run-Time Relocation

At times you may want to load code into one area of memory and move it to another area before running it. For example, you may have performance-critical code in an external-memory-based system. The code must be loaded into external memory, but it would run faster in internal memory. Because internal memory is limited, you might swap in different speed-critical functions at different times.

The linker provides a way to handle this. Using the `SECTIONS` directive, you can optionally direct the linker to allocate a section twice: first to set its load address and again to set its run address. Use the `load` keyword for the load address and the `run` keyword for the run address. See [Section 3.1.1](#) for more about load and run addresses. If a section is assigned two addresses at link time, all labels defined in the section are relocated to refer to the run-time address so that references to the section (such as branches) are correct when the code runs.

If you provide only one allocation (either load or run) for a section, the section is allocated only once and loads and runs at the same address. If you provide both allocations, the section is actually allocated as if it were two separate sections of the same size.

Uninitialized sections (such as .bss) are not loaded, so the only significant address is the run address. The linker allocates uninitialized sections only once; if you specify both run and load addresses, the linker warns you and ignores the load address.

For a complete description of run-time relocation, see [Section 8.5.6](#).

3.6 Additional Information

See the following sections and documents for additional information:

[Section 8.4.4](#), "Allocate Memory for Use by the Loader to Pass Arguments (--arg_size Option)"

[Section 8.4.12](#), "Define an Entry Point (--entry_point Option)"

[Section 8.5.6.1](#), "Specifying Load and Run Addresses"

[Section 8.8](#), "Linker-Generated Copy Tables"

[Section 8.10.1](#), "Run-Time Initialization"

[Chapter 12](#), "Hex Conversion Utility Description"

"Run-Time Initialization" and "System Initialization" sections in the *PRU Optimizing C/C++ Compiler User's Guide*

Creating a Second-Level Bootloader for FLASH Bootloading on TMS320C6000 Platform With Code Composer Studio ([SPRA999](#)).

Assembler Description

The PRU assembler translates assembly language source files into machine language object files. These files are object modules, which are discussed in [Chapter 2](#). Source files can contain the following assembly language elements:

- | | |
|--------------------------------|---|
| Assembler directives | described in Chapter 5 |
| Macro directives | described in Chapter 6 |
| Assembly language instructions | described in the <i>PRU Family User's Guide</i> . |

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4.1 Assembler Overview

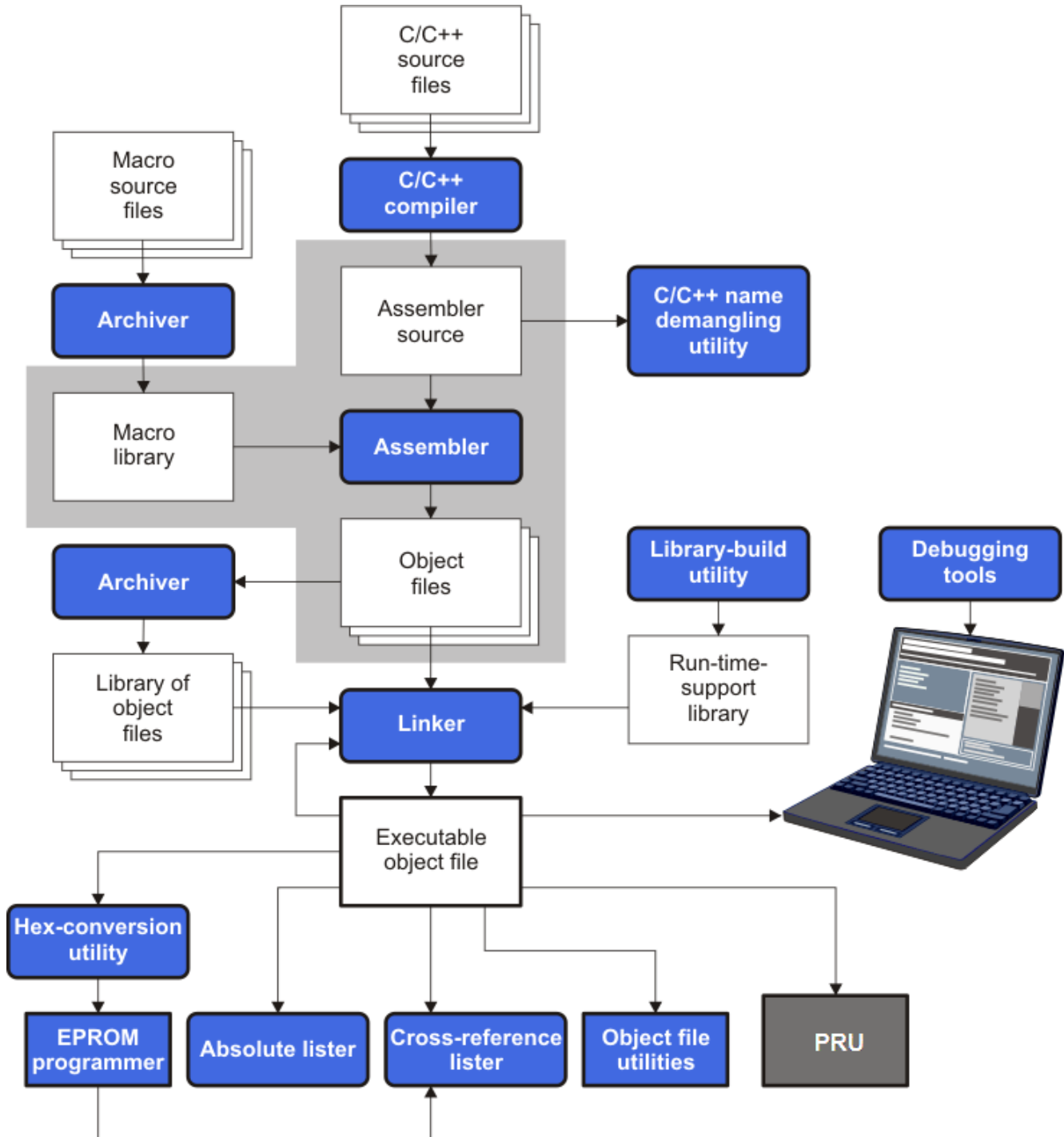
The 2-pass assembler does the following:

- Processes the source statements in a text file to produce a relocatable object file
- Produces a source listing (if requested) and provides you with control over this listing
- Allows you to divide your code into sections and maintain a section program counter (SPC) for each section of object code
- Defines and references global symbols and appends a cross-reference listing to the source listing (if requested)
- Allows conditional assembly
- Supports macros, allowing you to define macros inline or in a library

4.2 The Assembler's Role in the Software Development Flow

Figure 4-1 illustrates the assembler's role in the software development flow. The shaded portion highlights the most common assembler development path. The assembler accepts assembly language source files as input, both those you create and those created by the PRU C/C++ compiler.

Figure 4-1. The Assembler in the PRU Software Development Flow



4.3 Invoking the Assembler

To invoke the assembler, enter the following:

```
clpru input file [options]
```

clpru is the command that invokes the assembler through the compiler. The compiler considers any file with an .asm extension to be an assembly file and invokes the assembler.

input file names the assembly language source file.

options identify the assembler options that you want to use. Options are case sensitive and can appear anywhere on the command line following the command. Precede each option with one or two hyphens as shown.

The valid assembler options are listed in [Table 4-1](#).

Table 4-1. PRU Assembler Options

Option	Alias	Description
--absolute_listing	-aa	Creates an absolute listing. When you use --absolute_listing , the assembler does not produce an object file. The --absolute_listing option is used in conjunction with the absolute lister.
--asm_define=name[=def]	-ad	Sets the <i>name</i> symbol. This is equivalent to defining <i>name</i> with a .set directive in the case of a numeric value or with an .asg directive otherwise. If <i>value</i> is omitted, the symbol is set to 1. See Section 4.7.5 .
--asm_dependency	-apd	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	-api	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	-al	Produces a listing file with the same name as the input file with a .lst extension.
--asm_listing_cross_reference	-ax	Produces a cross-reference table and appends it to the end of the listing file; it also adds cross-reference information to the object file for use by the cross-reference utility. If you do not request a listing file but use the --asm_listing_cross_reference option, the assembler creates a listing file automatically, naming it with the same name as the input file with a .lst extension.
--asm_undefine=name	-au	Undefines the predefined constant <i>name</i> , which overrides any --asm_define options for the specified constant.
--cmd_file=filename	-@	Appends the contents of a file to the command line. You can use this option to avoid limitations on command line length imposed by the host operating system. Use an asterisk or a semicolon (* or ;) at the beginning of a line in the command file to include comments. Comments that begin in any other column must begin with a semicolon. Within the command file, filenames or option parameters containing embedded spaces or hyphens must be surrounded with quotation marks. For example: "this-file.asm"
--code_address_listing_unit={ byte word }		Selects the unit to use for the code section program counter field in the assembler listing file. The default unit is bytes. Note that this option applies to code sections, but not to data sections. See Section 4.10 .
--endian={ big little }		Specify the endianness of both code and data. If not specified, defaults to --endian=little . For more information, see the <i>PRU Optimizing C/C++ Compiler User's Guide</i> .
--include_file=filename	-ahi	Includes the specified file for the assembly module. The file is included before source file statements. The included file does not appear in the assembly listing files.
--include_path=pathname	-I	Specifies a directory where the assembler can find files named by the .copy, .include, or .mlib directives. There is no limit to the number of directories you can specify in this manner; each pathname must be preceded by the --include_path option. See Section 4.4.1 .
--quiet	-q	Suppresses the banner and progress information (assembler runs in quiet mode).
--symdebug:dwarf or --symdebug:none	-g	(DWARF is on by default) Enables assembler source debugging in the C source debugger. Line information is output to the object module for every line of source in the assembly language source file. You cannot use this option on assembly code that contains .line directives. See Section 4.11 .

4.4 Naming Alternate Directories for Assembler Input

The `.copy`, `.include`, and `.mlib` directives tell the assembler to use code from external files. The `.copy` and `.include` directives tell the assembler to read source statements from another file, and the `.mlib` directive names a library that contains macro functions. [Chapter 5](#) contains examples of the `.copy`, `.include`, and `.mlib` directives. The syntax for these directives is:

```
.copy ["filename"]
.include ["filename"]
.mlib ["filename"]
```

The *filename* names a copy/include file that the assembler reads statements from or a macro library that contains macro definitions. If *filename* begins with a number the double quotes are required. Quotes are recommended so that there is no issue in dealing with path information that is included in the filename specification or path names that include white space. The filename may be a complete pathname, a partial pathname, or a filename with no path information.

The assembler searches for the file in the following locations in the order given:

1. The directory that contains the current source file. The current source file is the file being assembled when the `.copy`, `.include`, or `.mlib` directive is encountered.
2. Any directories named with the `--include_path` option
3. Any directories named with the `PRU_A_DIR` environment variable
4. Any directories named with the `PRU_A_DIR` environment variable

Because of this search hierarchy, you can augment the assembler's directory search algorithm by using the `--include_path` option (described in [Section 4.4.1](#)) or the `PRU_A_DIR` environment variable (described in [Section 4.4.2](#)). The `PRU_A_DIR` environment variable is discussed in the *PRU Optimizing C/C++ Compiler User's Guide*.

4.4.1 Using the `--include_path` Assembler Option

The `--include_path` assembler option names an alternate directory that contains copy/include files or macro libraries. The format of the `--include_path` option is as follows:

```
clpru --include_path= pathname source filename [other options]
```

There is no limit to the number of `--include_path` options per invocation; each `--include_path` option names one pathname. In assembly source, you can use the `.copy`, `.include`, or `.mlib` directive without specifying path information. If the assembler does not find the file in the directory that contains the current source file, it searches the paths designated by the `--include_path` options.

For example, assume that a file called `source.asm` is in the current directory; `source.asm` contains the following directive statement:

```
.copy "copy.asm"
```

Assume the following paths for the `copy.asm` file:

```
UNIX:           /tools/files/copy.asm
Windows:       c:\tools\files\copy.asm
```

You could set up the search path with the commands shown below:

Operating System	Enter
UNIX (Bourne shell)	<code>clpru --include_path=/tools/files source.asm</code>
Windows	<code>clpru --include_path=c:\tools\files source.asm</code>

The assembler first searches for `copy.asm` in the current directory because `source.asm` is in the current directory. Then the assembler searches in the directory named with the `--include_path` option.

4.4.2 Using the PRU_A_DIR Environment Variable

An environment variable is a system symbol that you define and assign a string to. The assembler uses the `PRU_A_DIR` environment variable to name alternate directories that contain `copy/include` files or macro libraries.

The assembler looks for the `PRU_A_DIR` environment variable and then reads and processes it. If the assembler does not find the `PRU_A_DIR` variable, it then searches for `PRU_C_DIR`. The processor-specific variables are useful when you are using Texas Instruments tools for different processors at the same time.

See the *PRU Optimizing C/C++ Compiler User's Guide* for details on `PRU_C_DIR`.

The command syntax for assigning the environment variable is as follows:

Operating System	Enter
UNIX (Bourne Shell)	<code>PRU_A_DIR=" pathname₁; pathname₂; . . ."; export PRU_A_DIR</code>
Windows	<code>set PRU_A_DIR= pathname₁; pathname₂; . . .</code>

The *pathnames* are directories that contain `copy/include` files or macro libraries. 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 PRU_A_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 PRU_A_DIR=c:\first path\to\tools;d:\second path\to\tools
```

In assembly source, you can use the `.copy`, `.include`, or `.mlib` directive without specifying path information. If the assembler does not find the file in the directory that contains the current source file or in directories named by the `--include_path` option, it searches the paths named by the environment variable.

For example, assume that a file called `source.asm` contains these statements:

```
.copy "copy1.asm"
.copy "copy2.asm"
```

Assume the following paths for the files:

UNIX: `/tools/files/copy1.asm` and `/dsys/copy2.asm`
 Windows: `c:\tools\files\copy1.asm` and `c:\dsys\copy2.asm`

You could set up the search path with the commands shown below:

Operating System	Enter
UNIX (Bourne shell)	<code>PRU_A_DIR="/dsys"; export PRU_A_DIR clpru --include_path=/tools/files source.asm</code>
Windows	<code>PRU_A_DIR=c:\dsys clpru --include_path=c:\tools\files source.asm</code>

The assembler first searches for `copy1.asm` and `copy2.asm` in the current directory because `source.asm` is in the current directory. Then the assembler searches in the directory named with the `--include_path` option and finds `copy1.asm`. Finally, the assembler searches the directory named with `PRU_A_DIR` and finds `copy2.asm`.

The environment variable remains set until you reboot the system or reset the variable by entering one of these commands:

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

4.5 Source Statement Format

Each line in a PRU assembly input file can be empty, a comment, an assembler directive, a macro invocation, or an assembly instruction.

Assembly language source statements can contain four ordered fields (label, mnemonic, operand list, and comment). The general syntax for source statements is as follows:

`[label[:]]mnemonic [operand list[:comment]]`

Following are examples of source statements:

```

SYM1      .set      2           ; Symbol SYM1 = 2
Begin:    LDI       R0, SYM1    ; Load R0 with 2
          .word    016h        ; Initialize word (016h)
  
```

The PRU assembler reads an unlimited number of characters per line. Source statements that extend beyond 400 characters in length (including comments) are truncated in the listing file.

Follow these guidelines:

- All statements must begin with a label, a blank, an asterisk, or a semicolon.
- Labels are optional for most statements; if used, they must begin in column 1.
- One or more space or tab characters must separate each field.
- Comments are optional. Comments that begin in column 1 can begin with an asterisk or a semicolon (* or ;), but comments that begin in any other column *must* begin with a semicolon.

NOTE: A mnemonic cannot begin in column 1 or it will be interpreted as a label. Mnemonic opcodes and assembler directive names without the . prefix are valid label names. Remember to always use whitespace before the mnemonic, or the assembler will think the identifier is a new label definition.

The following sections describe each of the fields.

4.5.1 Label Field

A label must be a legal identifier (see [Section 4.7.1](#)) placed in column 1. Every instruction may optionally have a label. Many directives allow a label, and some require a label.

A label can be followed by a colon (:). The colon is not treated as part of the label name. If you do not use a label, the first character position must contain a blank, a semicolon, or an asterisk.

When you use a label on an assembly instruction or data directive, an *assembler symbol* ([Section 4.7](#)) with the same name is created. Its value is the current value of the *section program counter* (SPC, see [Section 2.4.5](#)). This symbol represents the address of that instruction. In the following example, the `.word` directive is used to create an array of 3 words. Because a label was used, the assembly symbol `Start` refers to the first word, and the symbol will have the value 40h.

```

    9          * Assume some code was assembled
   10 00000040 0000000A Start: .word 0Ah,3,7
      00000044 00000003
      00000048 00000007
  
```

A label on a line by itself is a valid statement. When a label appears on a line by itself, it points to the instruction on the next line (the SPC is not incremented):

```

    1 00000000          Here:
    2 00000000 00000003          .word 3
  
```

A label on a line by itself is equivalent to writing:

```
Here: .equ $ ; $ provides the current value of the SPC
```

If you do not use a label, the character in column 1 must be a blank, an asterisk, or a semicolon.

4.5.2 Mnemonic Field

The mnemonic field follows the label field. The mnemonic field cannot start in column 1; if it does, it is interpreted as a label. There is one exception: the parallel bars (||) of the mnemonic field can start in column 1. The mnemonic field contains one of the following items:

- Machine-instruction mnemonic (such as ADD, SBBO, STR)
- Assembler directive (such as `.data`, `.list`, `.equ`)
- Macro directive (such as `.macro`, `.var`, `.mexit`)
- Macro invocation

4.5.3 Operand Field

The operand field follows the mnemonic field and contains zero or more comma-separated operands. An operand can be one of the following:

- an immediate operand (usually a constant or symbol) (see [Section 4.6](#) and [Section 4.7](#))
- a register operand
- a memory reference operand
- an expression that evaluates to one of the above (see [Section 4.8](#))

An *immediate operand* is encoded directly in the instruction. The value of an immediate operand must be a *constant expression*. Most instructions with an immediate operand require an *absolute constant expression*, such as 1234. Some instructions (such as a call instruction) allow a *relocatable constant expression*, such as a symbol defined in another file. (See [Section 4.8](#) for details about types of expressions.)

A *register operand* is a special pre-defined symbol that represents a CPU register.

A *memory reference operand* uses one of several memory addressing modes to refer to a location in memory. Memory reference operands use a special target-specific syntax defined in the appropriate *CPU and Instruction Set Reference Guide*.

You must separate operands with commas. Not all operand types are supported for all operands. See the description of the specific instruction in the *CPU and Instruction Set Reference Guide* for your device.

4.5.3.1 Immediate Values as Operands

You use immediate values as operands primarily with instructions. In some cases, you can use immediate values with the operands of directives. For instance, you can use immediate values with the `.byte` directive to load values into the current section.

The `#` sign may not be used in instructions or directives to identify immediate values. Doing so causes a syntax error.

See [Chapter 5](#) for more information on the syntax and usage of directives.

4.5.4 Comment Field

A comment can begin in any column and extends to the end of the source line. A comment can contain any ASCII character, including blanks. Comments are printed in the assembly source listing, but they do not affect the assembly.

A source statement that contains only a comment is valid. If it begins in column 1, it can start with a semicolon (`;`) or an asterisk (`*`). Comments that begin anywhere else on the line must begin with a semicolon. The asterisk identifies a comment only if it appears in column 1.

4.6 Literal Constants

A *literal constant* (also known as a *literal* or in some other documents as an *immediate value*) is a value that represents itself, such as 12, 3.14, or "hello".

The assembler supports several types of literals:

- Binary integer literals
- Octal integer literals
- Decimal integer literals
- Hexadecimal integer literals
- Character literals
- Character string literals
- Floating-point literals

Error checking for invalid or incomplete literals is performed.

4.6.1 Integer Literals

The assembler maintains each integer literal internally as a 32-bit signless quantity. Literals are considered unsigned values, and are not sign extended. For example, the literal `00FFh` is equal to `00FF` (base 16) or 255 (base 10); it *does not* equal `-1`, which is `0FFFFFFFh` (base 16). Note that if you store `0FFh` in a `.byte` location, the bits will be exactly the same as if you had stored `-1`. It is up to the reader of that location to interpret the signedness of the bits.

4.6.1.1 Binary Integer Literals

A binary integer literal is a string of up to 32 binary digits (0s and 1s) followed by the suffix `B` (or `b`). Binary literals of the form `"0[bB][10]+"` are also supported. If fewer than 32 digits are specified, the assembler right justifies the value and fills the unspecified bits with zeros. These are examples of valid binary literals:

<code>00000000B</code>	Literal equal to 0_{10} or 0_{16}
<code>0100000b</code>	Literal equal to 32_{10} or 20_{16}
<code>01b</code>	Literal equal to 1_{10} or 1_{16}
<code>11111000B</code>	Literal equal to 248_{10} or $0F8_{16}$
<code>0b00101010</code>	Literal equal to 42_{10} or $2A_{16}$
<code>0B101010</code>	Literal equal to 42_{10} or $2A_{16}$

4.6.1.2 Octal Integer Literals

An octal integer literal is a string of up to 11 octal digits (0 through 7) followed by the suffix Q (or q). Octal literals may also begin with a 0, contain no 8 or 9 digits, and end with no suffix. These are examples of valid octal literals:

10Q	Literal equal to 8_{10} or 8_{16}
054321	Literal equal to 22737_{10} or $58D1_{16}$
100000Q	Literal equal to 32768_{10} or 8000_{16}
226q	Literal equal to 150_{10} or 96_{16}

4.6.1.3 Decimal Integer Literals

A decimal integer literal is a string of decimal digits ranging from -2147 483 648 to 4 294 967 295. These are examples of valid decimal integer literals:

1000	Literal equal to 1000_{10} or $3E8_{16}$
-32768	Literal equal to $-32\,768_{10}$ or -8000_{16}
25	Literal equal to 25_{10} or 19_{16}
4815162342	Literal equal to 4815162342_{10} or $11F018BE6_{16}$

4.6.1.4 Hexadecimal Integer Literals

A hexadecimal integer literal is a string of up to eight hexadecimal digits followed by the suffix H (or h) or preceded by 0x. A *hexadecimal literal must begin with a decimal value (0-9) if it is indicated by the H or h suffix.*

Hexadecimal digits include the decimal values 0-9 and the letters A-F or a-f. If fewer than eight hexadecimal digits are specified, the assembler right-justifies the bits.

These are examples of valid hexadecimal literals:

78h	Literal equal to 120_{10} or 0078_{16}
0x78	Literal equal to 120_{10} or 0078_{16}
0Fh	Literal equal to 15_{10} or $000F_{16}$
37ACh	Literal equal to 14252_{10} or $37AC_{16}$

4.6.1.5 Character Literals

A character literal is a single character enclosed in *single* quotes. The characters are represented internally as 8-bit ASCII characters. Two consecutive single quotes are required to represent each single quote that is part of a character literal. A character literal consisting only of two single quotes is valid and is assigned the value 0. These are examples of valid character literals:

'a'	Defines the character literal <i>a</i> and is represented internally as 61_{16}
'C'	Defines the character literal <i>C</i> and is represented internally as 43_{16}
''	Defines the character literal <i>'</i> and is represented internally as 27_{16}
"	Defines a null character and is represented internally as 00_{16}

Notice the difference between character *literals* and character *string literals* (Section 4.6.2 discusses character strings). A character literal represents a single integer value; a string is a sequence of characters.

4.6.2 Character String Literals

A character string is a sequence of characters enclosed in *double* quotes. Double quotes that are part of character strings are represented by two consecutive double quotes. The maximum length of a string varies and is defined for each directive that requires a character string. Characters are represented internally as 8-bit ASCII characters.

These are examples of valid character strings:

"sample program" defines the 14-character string *sample program*.
 "PLAN "C"" defines the 8-character string *PLAN "C"*.

Character strings are used for the following:

- Filenames, as in .copy "filename"
- Section names, as in .sect "section name"
- Data initialization directives, as in .byte "charstring"
- Operands of .string directives

4.6.3 Floating-Point Literals

A floating-point literal is a string of decimal digits followed by a required decimal point, an optional fractional portion, and an optional exponent portion. The syntax for a floating-point number is:

[+|-] *nnn* . [*nnn*] [**E**e [+|-] *nnn*]

Replace *nnn* with a string of decimal digits. You can precede *nnn* with a + or a -. You must specify a decimal point. For example, 3.e5 is valid, but 3e5 is not valid. The exponent indicates a power of 10. These are examples of valid floating-point literals:

```
3.0
3.14
3.
-0.314e13
+314.59e-2
```

The assembler syntax does not support all C89-style float literals nor C99-style hexadecimal constants, but the \$strtod built-in mathematical function supports both. If you want to specify a floating-point literal using one of those formats, use \$strtod. For example:

```
$strtod( ".3" )
$strtod( "0x1.234p-5" )
```

You cannot directly use NaN, Inf, or -Inf as floating-point literals. Instead, use \$strtod to express these values. The "NaN" and "Inf" strings are handled case-insensitively. See [Section 4.9.1](#) for built-in functions.

4.7 Assembler Symbols

An assembler symbol is a named 32-bit signless integer value, usually representing an address or absolute integer. A symbol can represent such things as the starting address of a function, variable, or section. The name of a symbol must be a legal identifier. The identifier becomes a symbolic representation of the symbol's value, and may be used in subsequent instructions to refer to the symbol's location or value.

Some assembler symbols become external symbols, and are placed in the object file's symbol table. A symbol is valid only within the module in which it is defined, unless you use the .global directive or the .def directive to declare it as an *external symbol* (see [.global directive](#)).

See [Section 2.6](#) for more about symbols and the symbol tables in object files.

4.7.1 Identifiers

Identifiers are names used as labels, registers, symbols, and substitution symbols. An identifier is a string of alphanumeric characters, the dollar sign, and underscores (A-Z, a-z, 0-9, \$, and `_`). The first character in an identifier cannot be a number, and identifiers cannot contain embedded blanks. The identifiers you define are case sensitive; for example, the assembler recognizes ABC, Abc, and abc as three distinct identifiers.

4.7.2 Labels

An identifier used as a label becomes an assembler symbol, which represent an address in the program. Labels within a file must be unique.

NOTE: A mnemonic cannot begin in column 1 or it will be interpreted as a label. Mnemonic opcodes and assembler directive names without the `.` prefix are valid label names. Remember to always use whitespace before the mnemonic, or the assembler will think the identifier is a new label definition.

4.7.3 Local Labels

Local labels are special labels whose scope and effect are temporary. A local label can be defined in two ways:

- `$n`, where `n` is a decimal digit in the range 0-9. For example, `$4` and `$1` are valid local labels. See [Example 4-1](#).
- `name?`, where `name` is any legal identifier as described above. The assembler replaces the question mark with a period followed by a unique number. When the source code is expanded, *you will not see the unique number in the listing file*. Your label appears with the question mark as it did in the source definition.

You cannot declare these types of labels as global.

Normal labels must be unique (they can be declared only once), and they can be used as constants in the operand field. Local labels, however, can be undefined and defined again. Local labels cannot be defined by directives.

A local label can be undefined or reset in one of these ways:

- By using the `.newblock` directive
- By changing sections (using a `.sect`, `.text`, or `.data` directive)
- By entering an include file (specified by the `.include` or `.copy` directive)
- By leaving an include file (specified by the `.include` or `.copy` directive)

Example 4-1. Local Labels of the Form `$n`

This is an example of code that declares and uses a local label legally:

```

QBEQ $1, r14, 0
ADD r14, r14, 1
$1:
.newblock

QBEQ $1, r15, 0
ADD r15, r15, 1
$1:
JMP r3.w2
  
```

The following code uses a local label illegally:

```

QBEQ $1, r14, 0
ADD r14, r14, 1
$1:
QBEQ $1, r15, 0
  
```

Example 4-1. Local Labels of the Form \$n (continued)

```

    ADD  r15, r15, 1
$1:
    JMP  r3.w2
  
```

The \$1 label is not undefined before being reused by the second branch instruction. Therefore, \$1 is redefined, which is illegal.

Local labels are especially useful in macros. If a macro contains a normal label and is called more than once, the assembler issues a multiple-definition error. If you use a local label and `.newblock` within a macro, however, the local label is used and reset each time the macro is expanded.

Up to ten local labels of the \$n form can be in effect at one time. Local labels of the form name? are not limited. After you undefine a local label, you can define it and use it again. Local labels do not appear in the object code symbol table.

For more information about using labels in macros see [Section 6.6](#).

4.7.4 Symbolic Constants

A symbolic constant is a symbol with a value that is an absolute constant expression (see [Section 4.8](#)). By using symbolic constants, you can assign meaningful names to constant expressions. The `.set` and `.struct/.tag/.endstruct` directives enable you to set symbolic constants (see [Define Assembly-Time Constant](#)). Once defined, symbolic constants *cannot* be redefined.

If you use the `.set` directive to assign a value to a symbol, the symbol becomes a symbolic constant and may be used where a constant expression is expected. For example:

```

shift3      .set    3
            LDI    R0, shift3
  
```

You can also use the `.set` directive to assign symbolic constants for other symbols, such as register names. In this case, the symbolic constant becomes a synonym for the register:

```

AuxR1      .set    R1
            LBBO  &AuxR1, R2, 0, 4
  
```

The following example shows how the `.set` directive can be used with the `.struct`, `.tag`, and `.endstruct` directives. It creates the symbolic constants `K`, `maxbuf`, `item`, `value`, `delta`, and `i_len`.

```

K          .set    1024                ;constant definitions
maxbuf     .set    2*K

item       .struct                ;item structure definition
           .int    value            ;constant offsets value = 0
           .int    delta            ;constant offsets delta = 1
i_len      .endstruct

array      .tag    item              ;array declaration
           .bss   array, i_len*K
  
```

The assembler also has many predefined symbolic constants; these are discussed in [Section 4.7.6](#).

4.7.5 Defining Symbolic Constants (--asm_define Option)

The `--asm_define` option equates a constant value or a string with a symbol. The symbol can then be used in place of a value in assembly source. The format of the `--asm_define` option is as follows:

```
clpru --asm_define=name[=value]
```

The *name* is the name of the symbol you want to define. The *value* is the constant or string value you want to assign to the symbol. If the *value* is omitted, the symbol 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 ="\ value \"`". For example, `--asm_define=car="\sedan\"`
- For UNIX, use `--asm_define= name =" value "`". For example, `--asm_define=car="sedan"`
- For Code Composer, enter the definition in a file and include that file with the `--cmd_file` (or `-@`) option.

Once you have defined the name with the `--asm_define` option, the symbol can be used with assembly directives and instructions as if it had been defined with the `.set` directive. For example, on the command line you enter:

```
clpru --asm_define=SYM1=1 --asm_define=SYM2=2 --asm_define=SYM3=3 --asm_define=SYM4=4 value.asm
```

Since you have assigned values to SYM1, SYM2, SYM3, and SYM4, you can use them in source code. [Example 4-2](#) shows how the `value.asm` file uses these symbols without defining them explicitly.

Within assembler source, you can test the symbol defined with the `--asm_define` option with these directives:

Type of Test	Directive Usage
Existence	<code>.if \$isdefed(" name ")</code>
Nonexistence	<code>.if \$isdefed(" name ") = 0</code>
Equal to value	<code>.if name = value</code>
Not equal to value	<code>.if name != value</code>

The argument to the `$isdefed` built-in function must be enclosed in quotes. The quotes cause the argument to be interpreted literally rather than as a substitution symbol.

Example 4-2. Using Symbolic Constants Defined on Command Line

```
IF_4: .if      SYM4 = SYM2 * SYM2
      .byte   SYM4          ; Equal values
      .else
      .byte   SYM2 * SYM2  ; Unequal values
      .endif

IF_5: .if      SYM1 <= 10
      .byte   10           ; Less than / equal
      .else
      .byte   SYM1         ; Greater than
      .endif

IF_6: .if      SYM3 * SYM2 != SYM4 + SYM2
      .byte   SYM3 * SYM2 ; Unequal value
      .else
      .byte   SYM4 + SYM4 ; Equal values
      .endif

IF_7: .if      SYM1 = SYM2
      .byte   SYM1
      .elseif SYM2 + SYM3 = 5
      .byte   SYM2 + SYM3
      .endif
```

4.7.6 Predefined Symbolic Constants

The assembler has several types of predefined symbols.

\$, the dollar-sign character, represents the current value of the section program counter (SPC).

In addition, the following predefined processor symbolic constants are available:

Table 4-2. PRU Processor Symbolic Constants

Macro Name	Description
__PRU__	Always set to 1.
__PRU_V0__	Set to 1 if the silicon version is 0; otherwise, set to 0.
__PRU_V1__	Set to 1 if the silicon version is 1; otherwise, set to 0.
__PRU_V2__	Set to 1 if the silicon version is 2; otherwise, set to 0.
__PRU_V3__	Set to 1 if the silicon version is 3; otherwise, set to 0.
__TI_EABI__	Always set to 1.
__BIG_ENDIAN__	Set to 1 if big-endian mode is selected (the --endian=big option is used); otherwise, set to 0.
__LITTLE_ENDIAN__	Set to 1 if little-endian mode is selected (the default or the --endian=little option is used); otherwise, set to 0.

4.7.7 Registers

The names of PRU registers are register symbols, including R0-R15. There are no register aliases for the PRU registers.

Register symbols can be entered as all uppercase or all lowercase characters. For example, R13 could also be entered as r13.

Control register symbols can be entered in all upper-case or all lower-case characters.

See the "Register Conventions" section of the *PRU Optimizing C/C++ Compiler User's Guide* for details about the registers and their uses.

4.7.8 Substitution Symbols

Symbols can be assigned a string value. This enables you to create aliases for character strings by equating them to symbolic names. Symbols that represent character strings are called substitution symbols. When the assembler encounters a substitution symbol, its string value is substituted for the symbol name. Unlike symbolic constants, substitution symbols can be redefined.

A string can be assigned to a substitution symbol anywhere within a program; for example:

```
.asg "R2", stack-pointer
    ; Assigns the string R2 to the substitution symbol stack-pointer.

.asg "0x20", block2
    ; Assigns the string 0x20 to the substitution symbol block2.

ADD    stack-pointer, stack-pointer, block2
    ; Adds the value in SP to 0x20 and stores the result in SP.
```

When you are using macros, substitution symbols are important because macro parameters are actually substitution symbols that are assigned a macro argument. The following code shows how substitution symbols are used in macros:

```
sign_extend_32_8 .macro dest, src
    .newblock
    MOV dest, src
        ; zero extends src into dest
    QBBC $1, dest, 7
    FILL &dest.b1, 3
$1:
    .endm
```

See [Chapter 6](#) for more information about macros.

4.8 Expressions

Nearly all values and operands in assembly language are *expressions*, which may be any of the following:

- a literal constant
- a register
- a register pair
- a memory reference
- a symbol
- a built-in function invocation
- a mathematical or logical operation on one or more expressions

This section defines several types of expressions that are referred to throughout this document. Some instruction operands accept limited types of expressions. For example, the `.if` directive requires its operand be an absolute constant expression with an integer value. Absolute in the context of assembly code means that the value of the expression must be known at assembly time.

A *constant expression* is any expression that does not in any way refer to a register or memory reference. An *immediate operand* will usually not accept a register or memory reference. It must be given a constant expression. Constant expressions may be any of the following:

- a literal constant
- an address constant expression
- a symbol whose value is a constant expression
- a built-in function invocation on a constant expression
- a mathematical or logical operation on one or more constant expressions

An *address constant expression* is a special case of a constant expression. Some immediate operands that require an address value can accept a symbol plus an addend; for example, some branch instructions. The symbol must have a value that is an address, and it may be an external symbol. The addend must be an absolute constant expression with an integer value. For example, a valid address constant expression is `"array+4"`.

A constant expression may be absolute or relocatable. *Absolute* means known at assembly time. *Relocatable* means constant, but not known until link time. External symbols are relocatable, even if they refer to a symbol defined in the same module.

An *absolute constant expression* may not refer to any external symbols anywhere in the expression. In other words, an absolute constant expression may be any of the following:

- a literal constant
- an absolute address constant expression
- a symbol whose value is an absolute constant expression
- a built-in function invocation whose arguments are all absolute constant expressions
- a mathematical or logical operation on one or more absolute constant expressions

A *relocatable constant expression* refers to at least one external symbol. Such expressions may contain at most one external symbol. A relocatable constant expression may be any of the following:

- an external symbol
- a relocatable address constant expression
- a symbol whose value is a relocatable constant expression
- a built-in function invocation with any arguments that are relocatable constant expressions
- a mathematical or logical operation on one or more expressions, at least one of which is a relocatable constant expression

In some cases, the value of a relocatable address expression may be known at assembly time. For example, a relative displacement branch may branch to a label defined in the same section.

4.8.1 Mathematical and Logical Operators

The operands of a mathematical or logical operator must be well-defined expressions. That is, you must use the correct number of operands and the operation must make sense. For example, you cannot take the XOR of a floating-point value. In addition, well-defined expressions contain only symbols or assembly-time constants that have been defined before they occur in the directive's expression.

Three main factors influence the order of expression evaluation:

Parentheses	Expressions enclosed in parentheses are always evaluated first. $8 / (4 / 2) = 4$, but $8 / 4 / 2 = 1$ You <i>cannot</i> substitute braces ({ }) or brackets ([]) for parentheses.
Precedence groups	Operators, listed in Table 4-3 , are divided into nine precedence groups. When parentheses do not determine the order of expression evaluation, the highest precedence operation is evaluated first. $8 + 4 / 2 = 10$ ($4 / 2$ is evaluated first)
Left-to-right evaluation	When parentheses and precedence groups do not determine the order of expression evaluation, the expressions are evaluated from left to right, except for Group 1, which is evaluated from right to left. $8 / 4 * 2 = 4$, but $8 / (4 * 2) = 1$

[Table 4-3](#) lists the operators that can be used in expressions, according to precedence group.

Table 4-3. Operators Used in Expressions (Precedence)

Group ⁽¹⁾	Operator	Description ⁽²⁾
1	+ - ~ !	Unary plus Unary minus 1s complement Logical NOT
2	* / %	Multiplication Division Modulo
3	+ -	Addition Subtraction
4	<< >>	Shift left Shift right
5	< <= > >=	Less than Less than or equal to Greater than Greater than or equal to
6	=[= !=	Equal to Not equal to
7	&	Bitwise AND
8	^^	Bitwise exclusive OR (XOR)
9		Bitwise OR

⁽¹⁾ Group 1 operators are evaluated right to left. All other operators are evaluated left to right.

⁽²⁾ Unary + and - have higher precedence than the binary forms.

The assembler checks for overflow and underflow conditions when arithmetic operations are performed during assembly. It issues a warning (the "value truncated" message) whenever an overflow or underflow occurs. The assembler *does not* check for overflow or underflow in multiplication.

4.8.2 Relational Operators and Conditional Expressions

The assembler supports relational operators that can be used in any expression; they are especially useful for conditional assembly. Relational operators include the following:

=	Equal to	!=	Not equal to
<	Less than	<=	Less than or equal to
>	Greater than	>=	Greater than or equal to

Conditional expressions evaluate to 1 if true and 0 if false and can be used only on operands of equivalent types; for example, absolute value compared to absolute value, but not absolute value compared to relocatable value.

4.8.3 Well-Defined Expressions

Some assembler directives, such as `.if`, require well-defined absolute constant expressions as operands. Well-defined expressions contain only symbols or assembly-time constants that have been defined before they occur in the directive's expression. In addition, they must use the correct number of operands and the operation must make sense. The evaluation of a well-defined expression must be unambiguous.

This is an example of a well-defined expression:

```
1000h+X
```

where X was previously defined as an absolute symbol.

4.8.4 Relocatable Symbols and Legal Expressions

All legal expressions can be reduced to one of two forms:

relocatable symbol ± *absolute symbol*

or

absolute value

Unary operators can be applied only to absolute values; they cannot be applied to relocatable symbols. Expressions that cannot be reduced to contain only one relocatable symbol are illegal.

[Table 4-4](#) summarizes valid operations on absolute, relocatable, and external symbols. An expression cannot contain multiplication or division by a relocatable or external symbol. An expression cannot contain unresolved symbols that are relocatable to other sections.

Symbols that have been defined as global with the `.global` directive can also be used in expressions; in [Table 4-4](#), these symbols are referred to as *external*.

Table 4-4. Expressions With Absolute and Relocatable Symbols

If A is... and	If B is... , then	A + B is... and	A - B is...
absolute	absolute	absolute	absolute
absolute	relocatable	relocatable	illegal
absolute	external	external	illegal
relocatable	absolute	relocatable	relocatable
relocatable	relocatable	illegal	absolute ⁽¹⁾
relocatable	external	illegal	illegal
external	absolute	external	external
external	relocatable	illegal	illegal
external	external	illegal	illegal

⁽¹⁾ A and B must be in the same section; otherwise, adding relocatable symbols to relocatable symbols is illegal.

4.8.5 Expression Examples

Following are examples of expressions that use relocatable and absolute symbols. These examples use four symbols that are defined in the same section:

```

        .global extern_1 ; Defined in an external module
intern_1: .word 'D'      ; Relocatable, defined in current
                ; module
LAB1:      .set 2        ; LAB1 = 2
intern_2   ; Relocatable, defined in current
                ; module
intern_3   ; Relocatable, defined in current
                ; module

```

- **Example 1**

The statements in this example use an absolute symbol, LAB1, which is defined to have a value of 2. The first statement loads the value 51 into R0. The second statement loads the value 27 into R0.

```

LDI R0, LAB1 + ((4+3) * 7) ; R0 = 51
                        ; 2 + ((7) * 7)
                        ; 2 + (49) = 51

LDI R0, LAB1 + 4 + (3*7) ; R0 = 27
                        ; 2 + 4 + (21) = 27

```

- **Example 2**

The first statement in the following example is valid; the statements that follow it are invalid.

```

LDI R1, intern_1 - 10      ; Legal

LDI R1, 10-intern_1       ; Can't negate reloc. symbol
LDI R1, -(intern_1)       ; Can't negate reloc. symbol
LDI R1, intern_1/10       ; / isn't additive operator
LDI R1, intern_1 + intern_2 ; Multiple relocatables

```

- **Example 3**

The first statement below is legal; although intern_1 and intern_2 are relocatable, their difference is absolute because they are in the same section. Subtracting one relocatable symbol from another reduces the expression to *relocatable symbol + absolute value*. The second statement is illegal because the sum of two relocatable symbols is not an absolute value.

```

LDR R1, intern_1 - intern_2 + intern_3 ; Legal

LDR R1, intern_1 + intern_2 + intern_3 ; Illegal

```

- **Example 4**

A relocatable symbol's placement in the expression is important to expression evaluation. Although the statement below is similar to the first statement in the previous example, it is illegal because of left-to-right operator precedence; the assembler attempts to add intern_1 to extern_3.

```

LDR R1, intern_1 + intern_3 - intern_2 ; Illegal

```

4.9 Built-in Functions and Operators

The assembler supports built-in mathematical functions and built-in addressing operators.

The built-in substitution symbol functions are discussed in [Section 6.3.2](#).

4.9.1 Built-In Math and Trigonometric Functions

The assembler supports built-in functions for conversions and various math computations. [Table 4-5](#) describes the built-in functions. The *expr* must be a constant value.

Table 4-5. Built-In Mathematical Functions

Function	Description
\$acos (<i>expr</i>)	Returns the arccosine of <i>expr</i> as a floating-point value
\$asin (<i>expr</i>)	Returns the arcsine of <i>expr</i> as a floating-point value
\$atan (<i>expr</i>)	Returns the arctangent of <i>expr</i> as a floating-point value
\$atan2 (<i>expr</i> , <i>y</i>)	Returns the arctangent of <i>expr</i> as a floating-point value in range $[-\pi, \pi]$
\$ceil (<i>expr</i>)	Returns the smallest integer not less than <i>expr</i>
\$cos (<i>expr</i>)	Returns the cosine of <i>expr</i> as a floating-point value
\$cosh (<i>expr</i>)	Returns the hyperbolic cosine of <i>expr</i> as a floating-point value
\$cvf (<i>expr</i>)	Converts <i>expr</i> to a floating-point value
\$cvi (<i>expr</i>)	converts <i>expr</i> to integer value
\$exp (<i>expr</i>)	Returns the exponential function e^{expr}
\$fabs (<i>expr</i>)	Returns the absolute value of <i>expr</i> as a floating-point value
\$floor (<i>expr</i>)	Returns the largest integer not greater than <i>expr</i>
\$fmod (<i>expr</i> , <i>y</i>)	Returns the remainder of $expr1 \div expr2$
\$int (<i>expr</i>)	Returns 1 if <i>expr</i> has an integer value; else returns 0. Returns an integer.
\$ldexp (<i>expr</i> , <i>expr2</i>)	Multiplies <i>expr</i> by an integer power of 2. That is, $expr1 \times 2^{expr2}$
\$log (<i>expr</i>)	Returns the natural logarithm of <i>expr</i> , where $expr > 0$
\$log10 (<i>expr</i>)	Returns the base 10 logarithm of <i>expr</i> , where $expr > 0$
\$max (<i>expr1</i> , <i>expr2</i>)	Returns the maximum of two values
\$min (<i>expr1</i> , <i>expr2</i>)	Returns the minimum of two values
\$pow (<i>expr1</i> , <i>expr2</i>)	Returns <i>expr1</i> raised to the power of <i>expr2</i>
\$round (<i>expr</i>)	Returns <i>expr</i> rounded to the nearest integer
\$sgn (<i>expr</i>)	Returns the sign of <i>expr</i> .
\$sin (<i>expr</i>)	Returns the sine of <i>expr</i>
\$sinh (<i>expr</i>)	Returns the hyperbolic sine of <i>expr</i> as a floating-point value
\$sqrt (<i>expr</i>)	Returns the square root of <i>expr</i> , $expr \geq 0$, as a floating-point value
\$strtod (<i>str</i>)	Converts a character string to a double precision floating-point value. The string contains a properly-formatted C99-style floating-point literal.
\$tan (<i>expr</i>)	Returns the tangent of <i>expr</i> as a floating-point value
\$tanh (<i>expr</i>)	Returns the hyperbolic tangent of <i>expr</i> as a floating-point value
\$trunc (<i>expr</i>)	Returns <i>expr</i> rounded toward 0

4.10 Source Listings

A source listing shows source statements and the object code they produce. To obtain a listing file, invoke the assembler with the `--asm_listing` option (see [Section 4.3](#)).

Two banner lines, a blank line, and a title line are at the top of each source listing page. Any title supplied by the `.title` directive is printed on the title line. A page number is printed to the right of the title. If you do not use the `.title` directive, the name of the source file is printed. The assembler inserts a blank line below the title line.

Each line in the source file produces at least one line in the listing file. This line shows a source statement number, an SPC value, the object code assembled, and the source statement. [Figure 4-2](#) shows these in an actual listing file.

Field 1: Source Statement Number

Line number

The source statement number is a decimal number. The assembler numbers source lines as it encounters them in the source file; some statements increment the line counter but are not listed. (For example, `.title` statements and statements following a `.nolist` are not listed.) The difference between two consecutive source line numbers indicates the number of intervening statements in the source file that are not listed.

Include file letter

A letter preceding the line number indicates the line is assembled from the include file designated by the letter.

Nesting level number

A number preceding the line number indicates the nesting level of macro expansions or loop blocks.

Field 2: Section Program Counter

This field contains the SPC value, which is hexadecimal. All sections (`.text`, `.data`, `.bss`, and named sections) maintain separate SPCs. Some directives do not affect the SPC and leave this field blank.

The `--code_address_listing_unit={ byte | word }` assembler option changes the unit used for the code section program counter field in the assembler listing file. By default bytes are used. Note that this option applies to code sections, but not to data sections.

Field 3: Object Code

This field contains the hexadecimal representation of the object code. All machine instructions and directives use this field to list object code. This field also indicates the relocation type associated with an operand for this line of source code. If more than one operand is relocatable, this column indicates the relocation type for the first operand. The characters that can appear in this column and their associated relocation types are listed below:




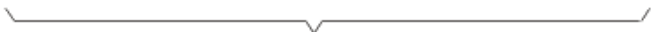
!	undefined external reference
'	<code>.text</code> relocatable
+	<code>.sect</code> relocatable
"	<code>.data</code> relocatable
-	<code>.bss</code> , <code>.usect</code> relocatable
%	relocation expression

Field 4: Source Statement Field

This field contains the characters of the source statement as they were scanned by the assembler. The assembler accepts a maximum line length of 200 characters. Spacing in this field is determined by the spacing in the source statement.

Figure 4-2 shows an assembler listing with each of the four fields identified.

Figure 4-2. Example Assembler Listing

Include file 	Line number 	<pre> 1 2 3 4sign_extend_32_8 .macro dest, src 5 .newblock 6 MOV dest, src 7 QBBC \$1, dest, 7 8 FILL &dest.b1, 3 9\$1: 10 .endm 11 12 13 .global sign_extend 14 00000000 sign_extend 15 00000000 sign_extend_32_8 R14, R14.b0 1 .newblock 1 00000000 000000100E0EEE MOV R14, R14.b0 1 00000004 000000C907EE02 QBBC \$1, R14, 7 1 00000008 0000002EFF012E FILL &R14.b1, 3 1 \$1: 16 0000000c 00000020C30000 JMP R3.w2 </pre>			
					
		Field 1 Field 2 Field 3	Field 4		

4.11 Debugging Assembly Source

By default, when you compile an assembly file, the assembler provides symbolic debugging information that allows you to step through your assembly code in a debugger rather than using the Disassembly window in Code Composer Studio. This enables you to view source comments and other source-code annotations while debugging. The default has the same behavior as using the `--symdebug:dwarf` option. You can disable the generation of debugging information by using the `--symdebug:none` option.

The `.asmfunc` and `.endasmfunc` (see [.asmfunc directive](#)) directives enable you to use C characteristics in assembly code that makes the process of debugging an assembly file more closely resemble debugging a C/C++ source file.

The `.asmfunc` and `.endasmfunc` directives allow you to name certain areas of your code, and make these areas appear in the debugger as C functions. Contiguous sections of assembly code that are not enclosed by the `.asmfunc` and `.endasmfunc` directives are automatically placed in assembler-defined functions named with this syntax:

`$ filename : starting source line : ending source line $`

If you want to view your variables as a user-defined type in C code, the types must be declared and the variables must be defined in a C file. This C file can then be referenced in assembly code using the `.ref` directive (see [.ref directive](#)). [Example 4-3](#) shows the `cvars.c` C program that defines a variable, `svar`, as the structure type `X`. The `svar` variable is then referenced in the `addfive.asm` assembly program in [Example 4-4](#) and 5 is added to `svar`'s second data member.

Compile both source files with the `--symdebug:dwarf` option (`-g`) and link them as follows:

```
clpru --symdebug:dwarf cvars.c addfive.asm --run_linker --library=lnk.cmd --
library=rtspruv3_le.lib
--output_file=addfive.out
```

When you load this program into a symbolic debugger, `addfive` appears as a C function. You can monitor the values in `svar` while stepping through `main` just as you would any regular C variable.

Example 4-3. Viewing Assembly Variables as C Types C Program

```
typedef struct {
    int m1;
    int m2;
} X;
X svar = { 1, 2 };
```

Example 4-4. Assembly Program for [Example 4-3](#)

```
-----
; Tell assembler we're referencing "svar", which is defined in another file (cvars.c).
;-----
    .ref svar
;-----
; addfive() - Add five to the second data member of svar
;-----
    .sect ".text:addfive"
    .global addfive

addfive: .asmfunc
        LDI    r0, svar+4
        LBBO  &r1, r0, 0, 4
        ADD   r1, r1, 0x05
        SBBO  &r1, r0, 0, 4
        JMP   r3.w2

        .endasmfunc
```

4.12 Cross-Reference Listings

A cross-reference listing shows symbols and their definitions. To obtain a cross-reference listing, invoke the assembler with the `--asm_listing_cross_reference` option (see [Section 4.3](#)) or use the `.option` directive with the X operand (see [Select Listing Options](#)). The assembler appends the cross-reference to the end of the source listing. [Example 4-5](#) shows the four fields contained in the cross-reference listing.

Example 4-5. An Assembler Cross-Reference Listing

LABEL	VALUE	DEFN	REF		
__BIG_ENDIAN__	00000000	0			
__LITTLE_ENDIAN__	00000001	0			
__PRU_V0__	00000000	0			
__PRU_V1__	00000000	0			
__PRU_V2__	00000000	0			
__PRU_V3__	00000000	0			
__PRU__	00000001	0			
__TI_ASSEMBLER_VERSION_QUAL_ID__	00003760	0			
__TI_ASSEMBLER_VERSION_QUAL__	00000049	0			
__TI_ASSEMBLER_VERSION__	001e8868	0			
__TI_EABI__	00000001	0			
aloop	00000010'	38	38	38	
buffer	00000000-	10			
coeff	00000000"	5			
gptr	REF		14	14	40
inbuf	00000001-	31			
ivals	00000010"	26			
ll	00000004'	21	21	21	
ptr	0000000c"	14			
var2	00000000-	30			

Label	column contains each symbol that was defined or referenced during the assembly.
Value	column contains an 8-digit hexadecimal number (which is the value assigned to the symbol) <i>or</i> a name that describes the symbol's attributes. A value may also be preceded by a character that describes the symbol's attributes. Table 4-6 lists these characters and names.
Definition	(DEFN) column contains the statement number that defines the symbol. This column is blank for undefined symbols.
Reference	(REF) column lists the line numbers of statements that reference the symbol. A blank in this column indicates that the symbol was never used.

Table 4-6. Symbol Attributes

Character or Name	Meaning
REF	External reference (global symbol)
UNDF	Undefined
'	Symbol defined in a .text section
"	Symbol defined in a .data section
+	Symbol defined in a .sect section
-	Symbol defined in a .bss or .usect section

Assembler Directives

Assembler directives supply data to the program and control the assembly process. Assembler directives enable you to do the following:

- Assemble code and data into specified sections
- Reserve space in memory for uninitialized variables
- Control the appearance of listings
- Initialize memory
- Assemble conditional blocks
- Define global variables
- Specify libraries from which the assembler can obtain macros
- Examine symbolic debugging information

This chapter is divided into two parts: the first part ([Section 5.1](#) through [Section 5.11](#)) describes the directives according to function, and the second part ([Section 5.12](#)) is an alphabetical reference.

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5.1 Directives Summary

Table 5-1 through Table 5-15 summarize the assembler directives.

Besides the assembler directives documented here, the PRU software tools support the following directives:

- Macro directives are discussed in [Chapter 6](#); they are not discussed in this chapter.
- The C compiler uses directives for symbolic debugging. Unlike other directives, symbolic debugging directives are not used in most assembly language programs. [Appendix A](#) discusses these directives; they are not discussed in this chapter.

Labels and Comments Are Not Shown in Syntaxes

NOTE: Most source statements that contain a directive can also contain a label and a comment. Labels begin in the first column (only labels and comments can appear in the first column), and comments must be preceded by a semicolon, or an asterisk if the comment is the only element in the line. To improve readability, labels and comments are not shown as part of the directive syntax here. See the detailed description of each directive for using labels with directives.

Table 5-1. Directives that Control Section Use

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	See
.bss <i>symbol, size in bytes[, alignment [, bank offset]]</i>	Reserves <i>size</i> bytes in the .bss (uninitialized data) section	.bss topic
.data	Assembles into the .data (initialized data) section	.data topic
.sect " <i>section name</i> "	Assembles into a named (initialized) section	.sect topic
.text	Assembles into the .text (executable code) section	.text topic
<i>symbol</i> .usect " <i>section name</i> ", <i>size in bytes</i> [, <i>alignment</i> [, <i>bank offset</i>]]	Reserves <i>size</i> bytes in a named (uninitialized) section	.usect topic

Table 5-2. Directives that Affect Unused Section Elimination

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	See
.retain " <i>section name</i> "	Instructs the linker to include the current or specified section in the linked output file, regardless of whether the section is referenced or not	.retain topic
.retainrefs " <i>section name</i> "	Instructs the linker to include any data object that references the current or specified section.	.retain topic

Table 5-3. Directives that Initialize Values (Data and Memory)

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	See
.bits <i>value</i> ₁ [, ... , <i>value</i> _{<i>n</i>}]	Initializes one or more successive bits in the current section	.bits topic
.byte <i>value</i> ₁ [, ... , <i>value</i> _{<i>n</i>}]	Initializes one or more successive bytes in the current section	.byte topic
.char <i>value</i> ₁ [, ... , <i>value</i> _{<i>n</i>}]	Initializes one or more successive bytes in the current section	.char topic
.cstring { <i>expr</i> ₁ " <i>string</i> ₁ "}[, ... , { <i>expr</i> _{<i>n</i>} " <i>string</i> _{<i>n</i>} "}]	Initializes one or more text strings	.string topic
.double <i>value</i> ₁ [, ... , <i>value</i> _{<i>n</i>}]	Initializes one or more 64-bit, IEEE double-precision, floating-point constants	.double topic
.field <i>value</i> [, <i>size</i>]	Initializes a field of <i>size</i> bits (1-32) with <i>value</i>	.field topic
.float <i>value</i> ₁ [, ... , <i>value</i> _{<i>n</i>}]	Initializes one or more 32-bit, IEEE single-precision, floating-point constants	.float topic
.half <i>value</i> ₁ [, ... , <i>value</i> _{<i>n</i>}]	Initializes one or more 16-bit integers (halfword)	.half topic
.int <i>value</i> ₁ [, ... , <i>value</i> _{<i>n</i>}]	Initializes one or more 32-bit integers	.int topic
.long <i>value</i> ₁ [, ... , <i>value</i> _{<i>n</i>}]	Initializes one or more 32-bit integers	.long topic
.short <i>value</i> ₁ [, ... , <i>value</i> _{<i>n</i>}]	Initializes one or more 16-bit integers (halfword)	.short topic

Table 5-3. Directives that Initialize Values (Data and Memory) (continued)

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	See
.string { <i>expr</i> ₁ " <i>string</i> ₁ "}, ..., { <i>expr</i> _{<i>n</i>} " <i>string</i> _{<i>n</i>} "}	Initializes one or more text strings	.string topic
.ubyte <i>value</i> ₁ [, ... , <i>value</i> _{<i>n</i>}]	Initializes one or more successive unsigned bytes in the current section	.ubyte topic
.uchar <i>value</i> ₁ [, ... , <i>value</i> _{<i>n</i>}]	Initializes one or more successive unsigned bytes in the current section	.uchar topic
.uhalf <i>value</i> ₁ [, ... , <i>value</i> _{<i>n</i>}]	Initializes one or more unsigned 16-bit integers (halfword)	.uhalf topic
.uint <i>value</i> ₁ [, ... , <i>value</i> _{<i>n</i>}]	Initializes one or more unsigned 32-bit integers	.uint topic
.ulong <i>value</i> ₁ [, ... , <i>value</i> _{<i>n</i>}]	Initializes one or more unsigned 32-bit integers	.long topic
.ushort <i>value</i> ₁ [, ... , <i>value</i> _{<i>n</i>}]	Initializes one or more unsigned 16-bit integers (halfword)	.short topic
.uword <i>value</i> ₁ [, ... , <i>value</i> _{<i>n</i>}]	Initializes one or more unsigned 32-bit integers	.uword topic
.word <i>value</i> ₁ [, ... , <i>value</i> _{<i>n</i>}]	Initializes one or more 32-bit integers	.word topic

Table 5-4. Directives that Perform Alignment and Reserve Space

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	See
.align [<i>size in bytes</i>]	Aligns the SPC on a boundary specified by <i>size in bytes</i> , which must be a power of 2; defaults to byte boundary	.align topic
.bes <i>size</i>	Reserves <i>size</i> bytes in the current section; a label points to the end of the reserved space	.bes topic
.space <i>size</i>	Reserves <i>size</i> bytes in the current section; a label points to the beginning of the reserved space	.space topic

Table 5-5. Directives that Format the Output Listing

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	See
.drlist	Enables listing of all directive lines (default)	.drlist topic
.drnolist	Suppresses listing of certain directive lines	.drnolist topic
.fclist	Allows false conditional code block listing (default)	.fclist topic
.fcnolist	Suppresses false conditional code block listing	.fcnolist topic
.length [<i>page length</i>]	Sets the page length of the source listing	.length topic
.list	Restarts the source listing	.list topic
.mlist	Allows macro listings and loop blocks (default)	.mlist topic
.mno list	Suppresses macro listings and loop blocks	.mno list topic
.nolist	Stops the source listing	.nolist topic
.option <i>option</i> ₁ [, <i>option</i> ₂ , . . .]	Selects output listing options; available options are A, B, H, M, N, O, R, T, W, and X	.option topic
.page	Ejects a page in the source listing	.page topic
.sslist	Allows expanded substitution symbol listing	.sslist topic
.ssnolist	Suppresses expanded substitution symbol listing (default)	.ssnolist topic
.tab <i>size</i>	Sets tab to <i>size</i> characters	.tab topic
.title " <i>string</i> "	Prints a title in the listing page heading	.title topic
.width [<i>page width</i>]	Sets the page width of the source listing	.width topic

Table 5-6. Directives that Reference Other Files

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	See
.copy [" <i>filename</i> "]	Includes source statements from another file	.copy topic
.include [" <i>filename</i> "]	Includes source statements from another file	.include topic
.m lib [" <i>filename</i> "]	Specifies a macro library from which to retrieve macro definitions	.m lib topic

Table 5-7. Directives that Affect Symbol Linkage and Visibility

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	See
.common <i>symbol, size in bytes</i> [, <i>alignment</i>] .common <i>symbol, structure tag</i> [, <i>alignment</i>]	Defines a common symbol for a variable.	.common topic
.def <i>symbol₁</i> [, ... , <i>symbol_n</i>]	Identifies one or more symbols that are defined in the current module and that can be used in other modules	.def topic
.global <i>symbol₁</i> [, ... , <i>symbol_n</i>]	Identifies one or more global (external) symbols	.global topic
.ref <i>symbol₁</i> [, ... , <i>symbol_n</i>]	Identifies one or more symbols used in the current module that are defined in another module	.ref topic
.symdepend <i>dst symbol name</i> [, <i>src symbol name</i>]	Creates an artificial reference from a section to a symbol	.symdepend topic
.weak <i>symbol name</i>	Identifies a symbol used in the current module that is defined in another module	.weak topic

Table 5-8. Directives that Enable Conditional Assembly

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	See
.if <i>condition</i>	Assembles code block if the <i>condition</i> is true	.if topic
.else	Assembles code block if the <i>.if condition</i> is false. When using the <i>.if</i> construct, the <i>.else</i> construct is optional.	.else topic
.elseif <i>condition</i>	Assembles code block if the <i>.if condition</i> is false and the <i>.elseif condition</i> is true. When using the <i>.if</i> construct, the <i>.elseif</i> construct is optional.	.elseif topic
.endif	Ends <i>.if</i> code block	.endif topic
.loop [<i>count</i>]	Begins repeatable assembly of a code block; the loop count is determined by the <i>count</i> .	.loop topic
.break [<i>end condition</i>]	Ends <i>.loop</i> assembly if <i>end condition</i> is true. When using the <i>.loop</i> construct, the <i>.break</i> construct is optional.	.break topic
.endloop	Ends <i>.loop</i> code block	.endloop topic

Table 5-9. Directives that Define Structure Types

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	See
.cstruct	Acts like <i>.struct</i> , but adds padding and alignment like that which is done to C structures	.cstruct topic
.cunion	Acts like <i>.union</i> , but adds padding and alignment like that which is done to C unions	.cunion topic
.emember	Sets up C-like enumerated types in assembly code	Section 5.9
.endenum	Sets up C-like enumerated types in assembly code	Section 5.9
.endstruct	Ends a structure definition	.struct topic
.endunion	Ends a union definition	.cunion topic , .union topic
.enum	Sets up C-like enumerated types in assembly code	Section 5.9
.union	Begins a union definition	.union topic
.sassign	Map a defined structure onto the PRU registers	.sassign topic
.struct	Begins structure definition	.struct topic
.tag	Assigns structure attributes to a label	.struct topic

Table 5-10. Directives that Define Symbols

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	See
.asg [" <i>character string</i> "], <i>substitution symbol</i>	Assigns a character string to <i>substitution symbol</i> . Substitution symbols created with <i>.asg</i> can be redefined.	.asg topic
.define [" <i>character string</i> "], <i>substitution symbol</i>	Assigns a character string to <i>substitution symbol</i> . Substitution symbols created with <i>.define</i> cannot be redefined.	.asg topic
<i>symbol</i> .equ <i>value</i>	Equates <i>value</i> with <i>symbol</i>	.equ topic

Table 5-10. Directives that Define Symbols (continued)

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	See
<code>.elfsym name, SYM_SIZE(size)</code>	Provides ELF symbol information	.elfsym topic
<code>.eval expression , substitution symbol</code>	Performs arithmetic on a numeric <i>substitution symbol</i>	.eval topic
<code>.newblock</code>	Undefines local labels	.newblock topic
<code>symbol .set value</code>	Equates <i>value</i> with <i>symbol</i>	.set topic
<code>.unasg symbol</code>	Turns off assignment of <i>symbol</i> as a substitution symbol	.unasg topic
<code>.undefine symbol</code>	Turns off assignment of <i>symbol</i> as a substitution symbol	.unasg topic

Table 5-11. Directives that Create or Affect Macros

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	See
<code>macname .macro [parameter₁][, ... , parameter_n]</code>	Begin definition of macro named <i>macname</i>	.macro topic
<code>.endm</code>	End macro definition	.endm topic
<code>.mexit</code>	Go to <code>.endm</code>	Section 6.2
<code>.mlib filename</code>	Identify library containing macro definitions	.mlib topic
<code>.var</code>	Adds a local substitution symbol to a macro's parameter list	.var topic

Table 5-12. Directives that Control Diagnostics

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	See
<code>.emsg string</code>	Sends user-defined error messages to the output device; produces no <code>.obj</code> file	.emsg topic
<code>.mmsg string</code>	Sends user-defined messages to the output device	.mmsg topic
<code>.wmsg string</code>	Sends user-defined warning messages to the output device	.wmsg topic

Table 5-13. Directives that Perform Assembly Source Debug

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	See
<code>.asmfunc</code>	Identifies the beginning of a block of code that contains a function	.asmfunc topic
<code>.endasmfunc</code>	Identifies the end of a block of code that contains a function	.endasmfunc topic

Table 5-14. Directives that Are Used by the Absolute Lister

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	See
<code>.setsect</code>	Produced by absolute lister; sets a section	Chapter 9
<code>.setsym</code>	Produced by the absolute lister; sets a symbol	Chapter 9

Table 5-15. Directives that Perform Miscellaneous Functions

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	See
<code>.cdecls [options ,]"filename"[, "filename2"[, ...]</code>	Share C headers between C and assembly code	.cdecls topic
<code>.end</code>	Ends program	.end topic

In addition to the assembly directives that you can use in your code, the C/C++ compiler produces several directives when it creates assembly code. These directives are to be used only by the compiler; do not attempt to use these directives.

- DWARF directives listed in [Section A.1](#)
- The **.battr** directive is used to encode build attributes for the object file.
- The **.bound** directive is used internally.
- The **.comdat** directive is used internally.
- The **.compiler_opts** directive indicates that the assembly code was produced by the compiler, and which build model options were used for this file.

5.2 Directives that Define Sections

These directives associate portions of an assembly language program with the appropriate sections:

- The **.bss** directive reserves space in the `.bss` section for uninitialized variables.
- The **.data** directive identifies portions of code in the `.data` section. The `.data` section usually contains initialized data.
- The **.retain** directive can be used to indicate that the current or specified section must be included in the linked output. Thus even if no other sections included in the link reference the current or specified section, it is still included in the link.
- The **.retainrefs** directive can be used to force sections to refer to the specified section.
- The **.sect** directive defines an initialized named section and associates subsequent code or data with that section. A section defined with `.sect` can contain code or data.
- The **.text** directive identifies portions of code in the `.text` section. The `.text` section usually contains executable code.
- The **.usect** directive reserves space in an uninitialized named section. The `.usect` directive is similar to the `.bss` directive, but it allows you to reserve space separately from the `.bss` section.

[Chapter 2](#) discusses these sections in detail.

[Example 5-1](#) shows how you can use sections directives to associate code and data with the proper sections. This is an output listing; column 1 shows line numbers, and column 2 shows the SPC values. (Each section has its own program counter, or SPC.) When code is first placed in a section, its SPC equals 0. When you resume assembling into a section after other code is assembled, the section's SPC resumes counting as if there had been no intervening code.

The directives in [Example 5-1](#) perform the following tasks:

.text	initializes words with the values 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8.
.data	initializes words with the values 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, and 16.
var_defs	initializes words with the values 17 and 18.
.bss	reserves 19 bytes.
xy	reserves 20 bytes.

The `.bss` and `.usect` directives do not end the current section or begin new sections; they reserve the specified amount of space, and then the assembler resumes assembling code or data into the current section.

Example 5-1. Sections Directives

```

1          *****
2          *      Start assembling into the .text section      *
3          *****
4 00000000          .text
5 00000000 00000001          .word 1,2
   00000004 00000002
6 00000008 00000003          .word 3,4
   0000000c 00000004
7
8          *****
9          *      Start assembling into the .data section      *
10         *****
11 00000000 .data
12 00000000 00000009          .word 9, 10
   00000004 0000000A
13 00000008 0000000B          .word 11, 12
   0000000c 0000000C
14
15         *****
16         *      Start assembling into a named,
17         *      initialized section, var_defs
18         *      *****
19 00000000          .sect "var_defs"
20 00000000 00000011          .word 17, 18
   00000004 00000012
21
22         *****
23         *      Resume assembling into the .data section      *
24         *****
25 00000010 .data
26 00000010 0000000D          .word 13, 14
   00000014 0000000E
27 00000000          .bss sym, 19      ; Reserve space in .bss
28 00000018 0000000F          .word 15, 16      ; Still in .data
   0000001c 00000010
29
30         *****
31         *      Resume assembling into the .text section      *
32         *****
33 00000010          .text
34 00000010 00000005          .word 5, 6
   00000014 00000006
35 00000000          usym          .usect "xy", 20 ; Reserve space in xy
36 00000018 00000007          .word 7,8          ; Still in .text
   0000001c 00000008

```

5.3 Directives that Initialize Values

Several directives assemble values for the current section. For example:

- The **.byte** and **.char** directives place one or more 8-bit values into consecutive bytes of the current section. These directives are similar to **.word**, **.int**, and **.long**, except that the width of each value is restricted to 8 bits.
- The **.double** directive calculates the double-precision (64-bit) IEEE floating-point representation of one or more floating-point values and stores them in two consecutive words in the current section. The **.double** directive automatically aligns to the double-word boundary.
- The **.field** directive places a single value into a specified number of bits in the current word. With **.field**, you can pack multiple fields into a single word; the assembler does not increment the SPC until a word is filled. If a field will not fit in the space remaining in the current word, **.field** will insert zeros to fill the current word and then place the field in the next word. See the [.field topic](#).

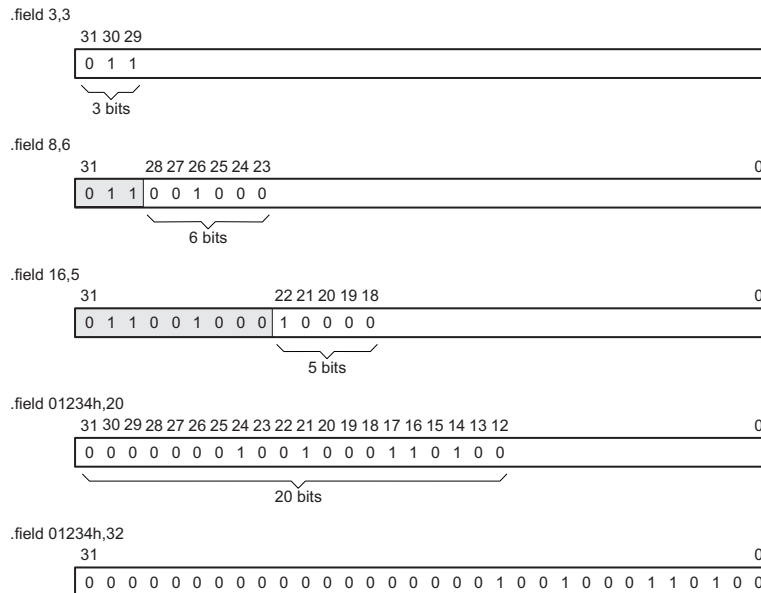
Figure 5-1 shows how fields are packed into a word. Using the following assembled code, notice that the SPC does not change for the first three fields (the fields are packed into the same word):

```

1 00000000 60000000      .field 3, 3
2 00000000 64000000      .field 8, 6
3 00000000 64400000      .field 16, 5
4 00000004 01234000      .field 01234h, 20
5 00000008 00001234      .field 01234h, 32

```

Figure 5-1. The .field Directive



- The **.float** directive calculates the single-precision (32-bit) IEEE floating-point representation of a single floating-point value and stores it in a word in the current section that is aligned to a word boundary.
- The **.half** and **.short** directives place one or more 16-bit values into consecutive 16-bit fields (halfwords) in the current section. The **.half** and **.short** directives automatically align to a short (2-byte) boundary.
- The **.int**, **.long**, and **.word** directives place one or more 32-bit values into consecutive 32-bit fields (words) in the current section. The **.int**, **.long**, and **.word** directives automatically align to a word boundary.
- The **.string** and **.cstring** directives place 8-bit characters from one or more character strings into the current section. The **.string** and **.cstring** directives are similar to **.byte**, placing an 8-bit character in each consecutive byte of the current section. The **.cstring** directive adds a NUL character needed by C; the **.string** directive does not add a NUL character.
- The **.ubyte**, **.uchar**, **.uhalf**, **.uint**, **.ulong**, **.ushort**, and **.uword** directives are provided as unsigned versions of their respective signed directives. These directives are used primarily by the C/C++ compiler to support unsigned types in C/C++.

Directives that Initialize Constants When Used in a .struct/.endstruct Sequence

NOTE: The **.bits**, **.byte**, **.char**, **.int**, **.long**, **.word**, **.double**, **.half**, **.short**, **.ubyte**, **.uchar**, **.uhalf**, **.uint**, **.ulong**, **.ushort**, **.uword**, **.string**, **.float**, and **.field** directives do not initialize memory when they are part of a **.struct/ .endstruct** sequence; rather, they define a member's size. For more information, see the **.struct/.endstruct** directives.

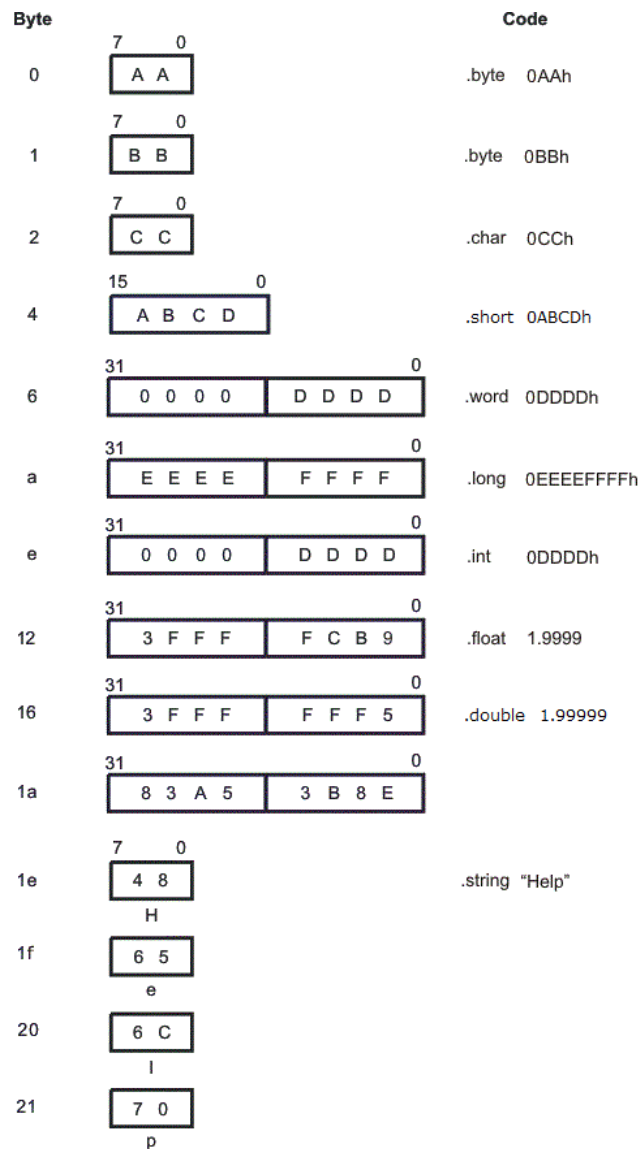
Figure 5-2 compares the .byte, .char, .short, .int, .long, .float, .double, .word, and .string directives using the following assembled code:

```

1 00000000 AA                .byte    0AAh, 0BBh
   00000001 BB
2 00000002 CC                .char    0CCh
3 00000004 ABCD              .short   0ABCDh
4 00000006 0000DDDD          .word    0DDDDh
5 0000000a EEEEEFFF          .long    0EEEEFFFh
6 0000000e 0000DDDD          .int     0DDDDh
7 00000012 3FFFfCB9          .float   1.9999
8 00000016 3FFFFFF5          .double  1.99999
   0000001a 83A53B8E
9 0000001e 48                .string  "Help"
   0000001f 65
   00000020 6C
   00000021 70

```

Figure 5-2. Initialization Directives



5.4 Directives that Perform Alignment and Reserve Space

These directives align the section program counter (SPC) or reserve space in a section:

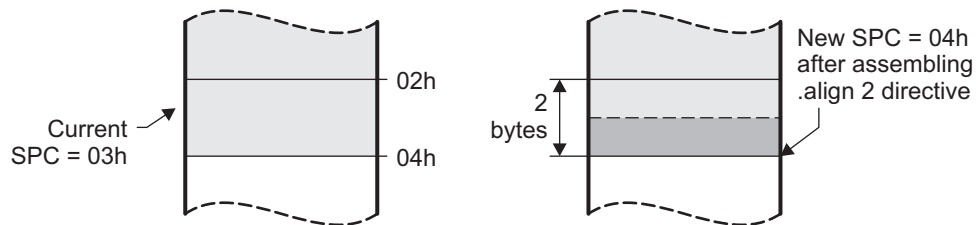
- The **.align** directive aligns the SPC at a 1-byte to 32K-byte boundary. This ensures that the code following the directive begins on the byte value that you specify. If the SPC is already aligned at the selected boundary, it is not incremented. Operands for the **.align** directive must equal a power of 2 between 2^0 and 2^{15} , inclusive.

Figure 5-3 demonstrates the **.align** directive. Using the following assembled code:

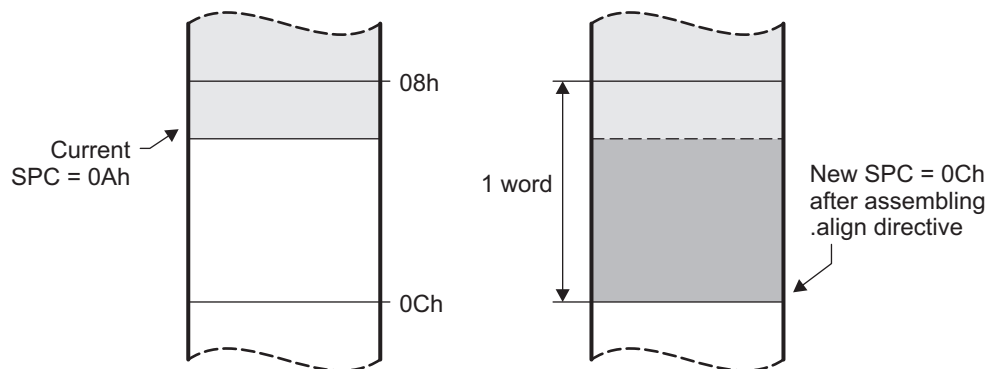
```

1 00000000 40000000      .field 2,3
2 00000000 4000000B     .field 11, 21
3                          .align 2
4 00000004 45           .string "Errcnt"
   00000005 72
   00000006 72
   00000007 63
   00000008 6E
   00000009 74
5                          .align
6 0000000c 04           .byte 4
    
```

Figure 5-3. The **.align** Directive



(a) Result of **.align 2**



(b) Result of **.align** without an argument

- The **.bes** and **.space** directives reserve a specified number of bytes in the current section. The assembler fills these reserved bytes with 0s. You can reserve a specified number of words by multiplying the number of bytes by 4.
 - When you use a label with **.space**, it points to the *first* byte that contains reserved bits.
 - When you use a label with **.bes**, it points to the *last* byte that contains reserved bits.

Figure 5-4 shows how the `.space` and `.bes` directives work for the following assembled code:

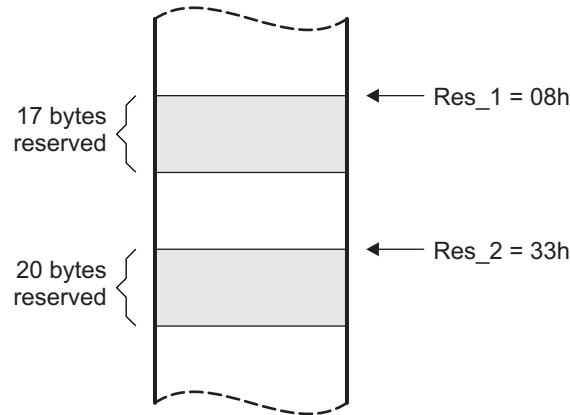
```

1
2 00000000 00000100          .word 100h, 200h
   00000004 00000200
3 00000008          Res_1:  .space 17
4 0000001c 0000000F          .word 15
5 00000033          Res_2:  .bes 20
6 00000034 BA          .byte 0BAh

```

`Res_1` points to the first byte in the space reserved by `.space`. `Res_2` points to the last byte in the space reserved by `.bes`.

Figure 5-4. The `.space` and `.bes` Directives



5.5 Directives that Format the Output Listings

These directives format the listing file:

- The `.drlist` directive causes printing of the directive lines to the listing; the `.drnolist` directive turns it off for certain directives. You can use the `.drnolist` directive to suppress the printing of the following directives. You can use the `.drlist` directive to turn the listing on again.

<code>.asg</code>	<code>.eval</code>	<code>.length</code>	<code>.mnolist</code>	<code>.var</code>
<code>.break</code>	<code>.fclist</code>	<code>.mlist</code>	<code>.sslist</code>	<code>.width</code>
<code>.emsg</code>	<code>.fcnolist</code>	<code>.mmsg</code>	<code>.ssnolist</code>	<code>.wmsg</code>

- The source code listing includes false conditional blocks that do not generate code. The `.fclist` and `.fcnolist` directives turn this listing on and off. You can use the `.fclist` directive to list false conditional blocks exactly as they appear in the source code. You can use the `.fcnolist` directive to list only the conditional blocks that are actually assembled.
- The `.length` directive controls the page length of the listing file. You can use this directive to adjust listings for various output devices.
- The `.list` and `.nolist` directives turn the output listing on and off. You can use the `.nolist` directive to prevent the assembler from printing selected source statements in the listing file. Use the `.list` directive to turn the listing on again.
- The source code listing includes macro expansions and loop blocks. The `.mlist` and `.mnolist` directives turn this listing on and off. You can use the `.mlist` directive to print all macro expansions and loop blocks to the listing, and the `.mnolist` directive to suppress this listing.

- The **.option** directive controls certain features in the listing file. This directive has the following operands:
 - A** turns on listing of all directives and data, and subsequent expansions, macros, and blocks.
 - B** limits the listing of `.byte` and `.char` directives to one line.
 - H** limits the listing of `.half` and `.short` directives to one line.
 - M** turns off macro expansions in the listing.
 - N** turns off listing (performs `.nolist`).
 - O** turns on listing (performs `.list`).
 - R** resets the B, H, M, T, and W directives (turns off the limits of B, H, M, T, and W).
 - T** limits the listing of `.string` directives to one line.
 - W** limits the listing of `.word` and `.int` directives to one line.
 - X** produces a cross-reference listing of symbols. You can also obtain a cross-reference listing by invoking the assembler with the `--asm_listing_cross_reference` option (see [Section 4.3](#)).
- The **.page** directive causes a page eject in the output listing.
- The source code listing includes substitution symbol expansions. The **.sslist** and **.ssnolist** directives turn this listing on and off. You can use the `.sslist` directive to print all substitution symbol expansions to the listing, and the `.ssnolist` directive to suppress this listing. These directives are useful for debugging the expansion of substitution symbols.
- The **.tab** directive defines tab size.
- The **.title** directive supplies a title that the assembler prints at the top of each page.
- The **.width** directive controls the page width of the listing file. You can use this directive to adjust listings for various output devices.

5.6 Directives that Reference Other Files

These directives supply information for or about other files that can be used in the assembly of the current file:

- The **.copy** and **.include** directives tell the assembler to begin reading source statements from another file. When the assembler finishes reading the source statements in the copy/include file, it resumes reading source statements from the current file. The statements read from a copied file are printed in the listing file; the statements read from an included file are *not* printed in the listing file.
- The **.def** directive identifies a symbol that is defined in the current module and that can be used in another module. The assembler includes the symbol in the symbol table.
- The **.global** directive declares a symbol external so that it is available to other modules at link time. (For more information about global symbols, see [Section 2.6.1](#)). The `.global` directive does double duty, acting as a `.def` for defined symbols and as a `.ref` for undefined symbols. The linker resolves an undefined global symbol reference only if the symbol is used in the program. The `.global` directive declares a 16-bit symbol.
- The **.mlib** directive supplies the assembler with the name of an archive library that contains macro definitions. When the assembler encounters a macro that is not defined in the current module, it searches for it in the macro library specified with `.mlib`.
- The **.ref** directive identifies a symbol that is used in the current module but is defined in another module. The assembler marks the symbol as an undefined external symbol and enters it in the object symbol table so the linker can resolve its definition. The `.ref` directive forces the linker to resolve a symbol reference.
- The **.symdepend** directive creates an artificial reference from the section defining the source symbol name to the destination symbol. The `.symdepend` directive prevents the linker from removing the section containing the destination symbol if the source symbol section is included in the output module.
- The **.weak** directive identifies a symbol that is used in the current module but is defined in another module. It is equivalent to the `.ref` directive, except that the reference has weak linkage.

5.7 Directives that Enable Conditional Assembly

Conditional assembly directives enable you to instruct the assembler to assemble certain sections of code according to a true or false evaluation of an expression. Two sets of directives allow you to assemble conditional blocks of code:

- The **.if/.elseif/.else/.endif** directives tell the assembler to conditionally assemble a block of code according to the evaluation of an expression.

.if <i>condition</i>	marks the beginning of a conditional block and assembles code if the <i>.if condition</i> is true.
[.elseif <i>condition</i>]	marks a block of code to be assembled if the <i>.if condition</i> is false and the <i>.elseif condition</i> is true.
.else	marks a block of code to be assembled if the <i>.if condition</i> is false and any <i>.elseif conditions</i> are false.
.endif	marks the end of a conditional block and terminates the block.
- The **.loop/.break/.endloop** directives tell the assembler to repeatedly assemble a block of code according to the evaluation of an expression.

.loop [<i>count</i>]	marks the beginning of a repeatable block of code. The optional expression evaluates to the loop count.
.break [<i>end condition</i>]	tells the assembler to assemble repeatedly when the <i>.break end condition</i> is false and to go to the code immediately after <i>.endloop</i> when the expression is true or omitted.
.endloop	marks the end of a repeatable block.

The assembler supports several relational operators that are useful for conditional expressions. For more information about relational operators, see [Section 4.8.2](#).

5.8 Directives that Define Union or Structure Types

These directives set up specialized types for later use with the *.tag* directive, allowing you to use symbolic names to refer to portions of a complex object. The types created are analogous to the struct and union types of the C language.

The *.struct*, *.union*, *.cstruct*, and *.cunion* directives group related data into an aggregate structure which is more easily accessed. These directives do not allocate space for any object. Objects must be separately allocated, and the *.tag* directive must be used to assign the type to the object.

```

type   .struct           ; structure tag definition
X      .int
Y      .int
T_LEN  .endstruct

COORD  .tag type         ; declare COORD (coordinate)

COORD  .space T_LEN     ; actual memory allocation
      LDR R0, COORD.Y   ; load member Y of structure
      ; COORD into register R0.
  
```

The *.cstruct* and *.cunion* directives guarantee that the data structure will have the same alignment and padding as if the structure were defined in analogous C code. This allows structures to be shared between C and assembly code. See [Chapter 13](#). For *.struct* and *.union*, element offset calculation is left up to the assembler, so the layout may be different than *.cstruct* and *.cunion*.

The *.sassign* directive allows you to map a defined structure onto the PRU registers.

5.9 Directives that Define Enumerated Types

These directives set up specialized types for later use in expressions allowing you to use symbolic names to refer to compile-time constants. The types created are analogous to the enum type of the C language. This allows enumerated types to be shared between C and assembly code. See [Chapter 13](#).

See [Section 13.2.10](#) for an example of using .enum.

5.10 Directives that Define Symbols at Assembly Time

Assembly-time symbol directives equate meaningful symbol names to constant values or strings.

- The **.asg** directive assigns a character string to a substitution symbol. The value is stored in the substitution symbol table. When the assembler encounters a substitution symbol, it replaces the symbol with its character string value. Substitution symbols created with .asg can be redefined.

```
.asg "10, 20, 30, 40", coefficients
    ; Assign string to substitution symbol.
.byte coefficients
    ; Place the symbol values 10, 20, 30, and 40
    ; into consecutive bytes in current section.
```

- The **.define** directive assigns a character string to a substitution symbol. The value is stored in the substitution symbol table. When the assembler encounters a substitution symbol, it replaces the symbol with its character string value. Substitution symbols created with .define cannot be redefined.
- The **.eval** directive evaluates a well-defined expression, translates the results into a character string, and assigns the character string to a substitution symbol. This directive is most useful for manipulating counters:

```
.asg 1, x ; x = 1
.loop ; Begin conditional loop.
.byte x*10h ; Store value into current section.
.break x = 4 ; Break loop if x = 4.
.eval x+1, x ; Increment x by 1.
.endloop ; End conditional loop.
```

- The **.set** and **.equ** directives set a constant value to a symbol. The symbol is stored in the symbol table and cannot be redefined; for example:

```
bval .set 0100h ; Set bval = 0100h
.long bval, bval*2, bval+12
    ; Store the values 0100h, 0200h, and 010Ch
    ; into consecutive words in current section.
```

The .set and .equ directives produce no object code. The two directives are identical and can be used interchangeably.

- The **.unasg** directive turns off substitution symbol assignment made with .asg.
- The **.undefine** directive turns off substitution symbol assignment made with .define.
- The **.var** directive allows you to use substitution symbols as local variables within a macro.

5.11 Miscellaneous Directives

These directives enable miscellaneous functions or features:

- The **.asmfunc** and **.endasmfunc** directives mark function boundaries. These directives are used with the compiler `--symdebug:dwarf (-g)` option to generate debug information for assembly functions.
- The **.cdecls** directive enables programmers in mixed assembly and C/C++ environments to share C headers containing declarations and prototypes between C and assembly code.
- The **.end** directive terminates assembly. If you use the **.end** directive, it should be the last source statement of a program. This directive has the same effect as an end-of-file character.
- The **.group**, **.gmember**, and **.endgroup** directives define an ELF group section to be shared by several sections.
- The **.newblock** directive resets local labels. Local labels are symbols of the form `$n`, where `n` is a decimal digit. They are defined when they appear in the label field. Local labels are temporary labels that can be used as operands for jump instructions. The **.newblock** directive limits the scope of local labels by resetting them after they are used. See [Section 4.7.3](#) for information on local labels.

These three directives enable you to define your own error and warning messages:

- The **.emsg** directive sends error messages to the standard output device. The **.emsg** directive generates errors in the same manner as the assembler, incrementing the error count and preventing the assembler from producing an object file.
- The **.mmsg** directive sends assembly-time messages to the standard output device. The **.mmsg** directive functions in the same manner as the **.emsg** and **.wmsg** directives but does not set the error count or the warning count. It does not affect the creation of the object file.
- The **.wmsg** directive sends warning messages to the standard output device. The **.wmsg** directive functions in the same manner as the **.emsg** directive but increments the warning count rather than the error count. It does not affect the creation of the object file.

For more information about using the error and warning directives in macros, see [Section 6.7](#).

5.12 Directives Reference

The remainder of this chapter is a reference. Generally, the directives are organized alphabetically, one directive per topic. Related directives (such as `.if/.else/.endif`), however, are presented together in one topic.

.align

Align SPC on the Next Boundary

Syntax

`.align [size in bytes]`

Description

The **.align** directive aligns the section program counter (SPC) on the next boundary, depending on the *size in bytes* parameter. The *size* can be any power of 2, although only certain values are useful for alignment. An operand of 1 aligns the SPC on the next byte boundary, and this is the default if no *size in bytes* is given. The *size in bytes* must equal a power of 2; the value must be between 1 and 32,768, inclusive. The assembler assembles words containing null values (0) up to the next size in bytes boundary:

1	aligns SPC to byte boundary
2	aligns SPC to halfword boundary
4	aligns SPC to word boundary
8	aligns SPC to doubleword boundary
128	aligns SPC to page boundary

Using the `.align` directive has two effects:

- The assembler aligns the SPC on an x-byte boundary *within* the current section.
- The assembler sets a flag that forces the linker to align the section so that individual alignments remain intact when a section is loaded into memory.

Example

This example shows several types of alignment, including `.align 2`, `.align 8`, and a default `.align`.

```

1 00000000 04          .byte 4
2                          .align 2
3 00000002 45          .string "Errorcnt"
  00000003 72
  00000004 72
  00000005 6F
  00000006 72
  00000007 63
  00000008 6E
  00000009 74

4                          .align
5 0000000c 60000000    .field 3,3
6 0000000c 6A000000    .field 5,4
7                          .align 2
8 0000000c 6A006000    .field 3,3
9                          .align 8
10 00000010 50000000   .field 5,4
11                          .align
12 00000014 04         .byte 4

```

.asg/.define/.eval *Assign a Substitution Symbol*

Syntax

```
.asg "character string",substitution symbol
.define "character string",substitution symbol
.eval expression,substitution symbol
```

Description

The **.asg** and **.define** directives assign character strings to substitution symbols. Substitution symbols are stored in the substitution symbol table. The **.asg** directive can be used in many of the same ways as the **.set** directive, but while **.set** assigns a constant value (which cannot be redefined) to a symbol, **.asg** assigns a character string (which can be redefined) to a substitution symbol.

- The assembler assigns the *character string* to the substitution symbol.
- The *substitution symbol* must be a valid symbol name. The substitution symbol is up to 128 characters long and must begin with a letter. Remaining characters of the symbol can be a combination of alphanumeric characters, the underscore (`_`), and the dollar sign (`$`).

The **.define** directive functions in the same manner as the **.asg** directive, except that **.define** disallows creation of a substitution symbol that has the same name as a register symbol or mnemonic. It does not create a new symbol name space in the assembler, rather it uses the existing substitution symbol name space. The **.define** directive is used to prevent corruption of the assembly environment when converting C/C++ headers. See [Chapter 13](#) for more information about using C/C++ headers in assembly source.

The **.eval** directive performs arithmetic on substitution symbols, which are stored in the substitution symbol table. This directive evaluates the *expression* and assigns the string value of the result to the substitution symbol. The **.eval** directive is especially useful as a counter in **.loop/.endloop** blocks.

- The *expression* is a well-defined alphanumeric expression in which all symbols have been previously defined in the current source module, so that the result is an absolute expression.
- The *substitution symbol* must be a valid symbol name. The substitution symbol is up to 128 characters long and must begin with a letter. Remaining characters of the symbol can be a combination of alphanumeric characters, the underscore (`_`), and the dollar sign (`$`).

See the [.unasg/.undefine topic](#) for information on turning off a substitution symbol.

Example

This example shows how .asg and .eval can be used.

```

1                                     .sslist ; show expanded sub. symbols
2                                     ; using .asg and .eval
3
4                                     .asg R2, STACKPTR
5                                     .asg &, AND
6
7 00000000 E28DD018                 ADD STACKPTR, STACKPTR, 280 AND 255
#                                     ADD R2, R2, 280 & 255
8 00000004 E28DD018                 ADD STACKPTR, STACKPTR, 280 & 255
#                                     ADD R2, R2, 280 & 255
9
10                                    .asg 0, x
11                                    .loop 5
12                                    .eval x+1, x
13                                    .word x
14                                    .endloop
1                                     .eval x+1, x
#                                     .eval 0+1, x
1 00000008 00000001                 .word x
#                                     .word 1
1                                     .eval x+1, x
#                                     .eval 1+1, x
1 0000000c 00000002                 .word x
#                                     .word 2
1                                     .eval x+1, x
#                                     .eval 2+1, x
1 00000010 00000003                 .word x
#                                     .word 3
1                                     .eval x+1, x
#                                     .eval 3+1, x
1 00000014 00000004                 .word x
#                                     .word 4
1                                     .eval x+1, x
#                                     .eval 4+1, x
1 00000018 00000005                 .word x
#                                     .word 5

```


.bits***Initialize Bits***

Syntax**.bits** *value*₁[, ... , *value*_{*n*}]**Description**

The **.bits** directive places one or more values into consecutive bits of the current section.

The **.bits** directive is similar to the **.field** directive (see [.field topic](#)). However, the **.bits** directive does not allow you to specify the number of bits to fill or increment the SPC.

.bss *Reserve Space in the .bss Section*

Syntax `.bss symbol, size in bytes[, alignment]`

Description

The **.bss** directive reserves space for variables in the .bss section. This directive is usually used to allocate space in RAM.

- The *symbol* is a required parameter. It defines a symbol that points to the first location reserved by the directive. The symbol name must correspond to the variable that you are reserving space for.
- The *size in bytes* is a required parameter; it must be an absolute constant expression. The assembler allocates size bytes in the .bss section. There is no default size.
- The *alignment* is an optional parameter that ensures that the space allocated to the symbol occurs on the specified boundary. The boundary indicates must be set to a power of 2 between 2^0 and 2^{15} , inclusive. If the SPC is already aligned at the specified boundary, it is not incremented.

For more information about sections, see [Chapter 2](#).

Example

In this example, the .bss directive allocates space for two variables, TEMP and ARRAY. The symbol TEMP points to four bytes of uninitialized space (at .bss SPC = 0). The symbol ARRAY points to 100 bytes of uninitialized space (at .bss SPC = 04h). Symbols declared with the .bss directive can be referenced in the same manner as other symbols and can also be declared external.

```

1          *****
2          ** Start assembling into the .text section. **
3          *****
4 00000000          .text
5 00000000 E3A00000          LDI    R0, 0
6
7          *****
8          ** Allocate 4 bytes in .bss for TEMP. **
9          *****
10 00000000 Var_1: .bss    TEMP, 4
11
12          *****
13          ** Still in .text. **
14          *****
15 00000004 E2801056          ADD    R1, R0, 56h
16
17          *****
18          ** Allocate 100 bytes in .bss for the symbol **
19          ** named ARRAY. **
20          *****
21          *****
22 00000004          .bss    ARRAY, 100, 4
23
24          *****
25          ** Assemble more code into .text. **
26          *****
27 0000000c E1A0F00E          JMP    R3.w2
28
29          *****
30          ** Declare external .bss symbols. **
31          *****
32          .global ARRAY, TEMP
33          .end

```

.byte/.ubyte/.char/.uchar Initialize Byte

Syntax

```
.byte value1[, ... , valuen ]
.ubyte value1[, ... , valuen ]
.char value1[, ... , valuen ]
.uchar value1[, ... , valuen ]
```

Description

The **.byte**, **.ubyte**, **.char**, and **.uchar** directives place one or more values into consecutive bytes of the current section. A *value* can be one of the following:

- An expression that the assembler evaluates and treats as an 8-bit signed number
- A character string enclosed in double quotes. Each character in a string represents a separate value, and values are stored in consecutive bytes. The entire string *must* be enclosed in quotes.

The first byte occupies the eight least significant bits of a full 32-bit word. The second byte occupies bits eight through 15 while the third byte occupies bits 16 through 23. The assembler truncates values greater than eight bits.

If you use a label, it points to the location of the first byte that is initialized.

When you use these directives in a **.struct/.endstruct** sequence, they define a member's size; they do not initialize memory. For more information, see the [.struct/.endstruct/.tag](#) topic.

Example

In this example, 8-bit values (10, -1, abc, and a) are placed into consecutive bytes in memory with **.byte**. Also, 8-bit values (8, -3, def, and b) are placed into consecutive bytes in memory with **.char**. The label STRX has the value 0h, which is the location of the first initialized byte. The label STRY has the value 6h, which is the first byte initialized by the **.char** directive.

```
1 00000000          .space 100h
2 00000100 0A      STRX  .byte 10, -1, "abc", 'a'
   00000101 FF
   00000102 61
   00000103 62
   00000104 63
   00000105 61
3 00000106 08      STRY  .char 8, -3, "def", 'b'
   00000107 FD
   00000108 64
   00000109 65
   0000010a 66
   0000010b 62
```

.cdecls *Share C Headers Between C and Assembly Code*

Syntax

Single Line:

```
.cdecls [options ,] " filename "[, " filename2 "[,...]]
```

Syntax

Multiple Lines:

```
.cdecls [options]  
  
%{  
/*-----*/  
/* C/C++ code - Typically a list of #includes and a few defines */  
/*-----*/  
%}
```

Description

The **.cdecls** directive allows programmers in mixed assembly and C/C++ environments to share C headers containing declarations and prototypes between the C and assembly code. Any legal C/C++ can be used in a **.cdecls** block and the C/C++ declarations cause suitable assembly to be generated automatically, allowing you to reference the C/C++ constructs in assembly code; such as calling functions, allocating space, and accessing structure members; using the equivalent assembly mechanisms. While function and variable definitions are ignored, most common C/C++ elements are converted to assembly, for instance: enumerations, (non-function-like) macros, function and variable prototypes, structures, and unions.

The **.cdecls** options control whether the code is treated as C or C++ code; and how the **.cdecls** block and converted code are presented. Options must be separated by commas; they can appear in any order:

C	Treat the code in the .cdecls block as C source code (default).
CPP	Treat the code in the .cdecls block as C++ source code. This is the opposite of the C option.
NOLIST	Do not include the converted assembly code in any listing file generated for the containing assembly file (default).
LIST	Include the converted assembly code in any listing file generated for the containing assembly file. This is the opposite of the NOLIST option.
NOWARN	Do not emit warnings on STDERR about C/C++ constructs that cannot be converted while parsing the .cdecls source block (default).
WARN	Generate warnings on STDERR about C/C++ constructs that cannot be converted while parsing the .cdecls source block. This is the opposite of the NOWARN option.

In the single-line format, the options are followed by one or more filenames to include. The filenames and options are separated by commas. Each file listed acts as if **#include "filename"** was specified in the multiple-line format.

In the multiple-line format, the line following **.cdecls** must contain the opening **.cdecls** block indicator **%{**. Everything after the **%{**, up to the closing block indicator **%}**, is treated as C/C++ source and processed. Ordinary assembler processing then resumes on the line following the closing **%}**.

The text within **%{** and **%}** is passed to the C/C++ compiler to be converted into assembly language. Much of C language syntax, including function and variable definitions as well as function-like macros, is not supported and is ignored during the conversion. However, all of what traditionally appears in C header files is supported, including function and variable prototypes; structure and union declarations; non-function-like macros; enumerations; and **#defines**.

The resulting assembly language is included in the assembly file at the point of the `.cdecls` directive. If the `LIST` option is used, the converted assembly statements are printed in the listing file.

The assembly resulting from the `.cdecls` directive is treated similarly to a `.include` file. Therefore the `.cdecls` directive can be nested within a file being copied or included. The assembler limits nesting to ten levels; the host operating system may set additional restrictions. The assembler precedes the line numbers of copied files with a letter code to identify the level of copying. An A indicates the first copied file, B indicates a second copied file, etc.

The `.cdecls` directive can appear anywhere in an assembly source file, and can occur multiple times within a file. However, the C/C++ environment created by one `.cdecls` is **not** inherited by a later `.cdecls`; the C/C++ environment starts new for each `.cdecls`.

See [Chapter 13](#) for more information on setting up and using the `.cdecls` directive with C header files.

Example

In this example, the `.cdecls` directive is used call the C header.h file.

C header file:

```
#define WANT_ID 10
#define NAME "John\n"

extern int a_variable;
extern float cvt_integer(int src);

struct myCstruct { int member_a; float member_b; };

enum status_enum { OK = 1, FAILED = 256, RUNNING = 0 };
```

Source file:

```
.cdecls C,LIST,"myheader.h"

size: .int $sizeof(myCstruct)
aoffset: .int myCstruct.member_a
boffset: .int myCstruct.member_b
okvalue: .int status_enum.OK
failval: .int status_enum.FAILED
        .if $defined(WANT_ID)
id      .cstring NAME
        .endif
```

Listing File:

```

1          .cdecls C,LIST,"myheader.h"
A 1          ; -----
A 2          ; Assembly Generated from C/C++ Source Code
A 3          ; -----
A 4
A 5          ; ===== MACRO DEFINITIONS =====
A 6          .define "10",WANT_ID
A 7          .define "" "John\n""",NAME
A 8
A 9          ; ===== TYPE DEFINITIONS =====
A 10         status_enum      .enum
A 11         00000001 OK        .emember 1
A 12         00000100 FAILED    .emember 256
A 13         00000000 RUNNING   .emember 0
A 14         .endenum
A 15
A 16         myCstruct        .struct 0,4
A 17         ; struct size=(8 bytes|64 bits), alignment=4
A 18         00000000 member_a  .field 32
A 19         ; int member_a - offset 0 bytes, size (4 bytes|32 bits)
A 20         00000004 member_b  .field 32
A 21         ; float member_b - offset 4 bytes, size (4 bytes|32 bits)
A 22         00000008          .endstruct
A 23         ; final size=(8 bytes|64 bits)
A 24
A 25         ; ===== EXTERNAL FUNCTIONS =====
A 26         .global _cvt_integer
A 27
A 28         ; ===== EXTERNAL VARIABLES =====
A 29         .global _a_variable
2 00000000 00000008 size:      .int $sizeof(myCstruct)
3 00000004 00000000 aoffset: .int myCstruct.member_a
4 00000008 00000004 boffset:  .int myCstruct.member_b
5 0000000c 00000001 okvalue:  .int status_enum.OK
6 00000010 00000100 failval:  .int status_enum.FAILED
7          .if $defined(WANT_ID)
8 00000014 0000004A id        .cstring NAME
00000015 0000006F
00000016 00000068
00000017 0000006E
00000018 0000000A
00000019 00000000
9          .endif

```

.common
Create a Common Symbol
Syntax

```
.common symbol,size in bytes[, alignment]
```

```
.common symbol,structure tag[, alignment]
```

Description

The **.common** directive creates a common symbol in a common block, rather than placing the variable in a memory section.

This directive is used by the compiler when the `--common` option is enabled (the default), which causes uninitialized file scope variables to be emitted as common symbols. The benefit of common symbols is that generated code can remove unused variables that would otherwise increase the size of the `.bss` section. (Uninitialized variables of a size larger than 32 bytes are separately optimized through placement in separate subsections that can be omitted from a link.) This optimization happens for C/C++ code by default unless you use the `--common=off` compiler option.

- The *symbol* is a required parameter. It defines a name for the symbol created by this directive. The symbol name must correspond to the variable that you are reserving space for.
- The *size in bytes* is a required parameter; it must be an absolute expression. The assembler allocates size bytes in the section used for common symbols. There is no default size.
- A *structure tag* can be used in place of a size to specify a structure created with the `.struct` directive. Either a size or a structure tag is required for this argument.
- The *alignment* is an optional parameter that ensures that the space allocated to the symbol occurs on the specified boundary. The boundary must be set to a power of 2 between 2^0 and 2^{15} , inclusive. If the SPC is already aligned at the specified boundary, it is not incremented.

Common symbols are symbols that are placed in the symbol table of an ELF object file. They represent an uninitialized variable. Common symbols do not reference a section. (In contrast, initialized variables need to reference a section that contains the initialized data.) The value of a common symbol is its required alignment; it has no address and stores no address. While symbols for an uninitialized common block can appear in executable object files, common symbols may only appear in relocatable object files. Common symbols are preferred over weak symbols. See the section on the "Symbol Table" in the System V ABI specification for more about common symbols.

When object files containing common symbols are linked, space is reserved in an uninitialized section for each common symbol. A symbol is created in place of the common symbol to refer to its reserved location.

.copy/.include**Copy Source File****Syntax**

```
.copy "filename"
.include "filename"
```

Description

The **.copy** and **.include** directives tell the assembler to read source statements from a different file. The statements that are assembled from a copy file are printed in the assembly listing. The statements that are assembled from an included file are *not* printed in the assembly listing, regardless of the number of **.list/.nolist** directives assembled.

When a **.copy** or **.include** directive is assembled, the assembler:

1. Stops assembling statements in the current source file
2. Assembles the statements in the copied/included file
3. Resumes assembling statements in the main source file, starting with the statement that follows the **.copy** or **.include** directive

The *filename* is a required parameter that names a source file. It is enclosed in double quotes and must follow operating system conventions.

You can specify a full pathname (for example, /320tools/file1.asm). If you do not specify a full pathname, the assembler searches for the file in:

1. The directory that contains the current source file
2. Any directories named with the **--include_path** assembler option
3. Any directories specified by the PRU_A_DIR environment variable
4. Any directories specified by the PRU_A_DIR environment variable

For more information about the **--include_path** option and PRU_A_DIR, see [Section 4.4](#). For more information about PRU_A_DIR, see the *PRU Optimizing C/C++ Compiler User's Guide*.

The **.copy** and **.include** directives can be nested within a file being copied or included. The assembler limits nesting to 32 levels; the host operating system may set additional restrictions. The assembler precedes the line numbers of copied files with a letter code to identify the level of copying. A indicates the first copied file, B indicates a second copied file, etc.

Example 1

In this example, the **.copy** directive is used to read and assemble source statements from other files; then, the assembler resumes assembling into the current file.

The original file, `copy.asm`, contains a **.copy** statement copying the file `byte.asm`. When `copy.asm` assembles, the assembler copies `byte.asm` into its place in the listing (note listing below). The copy file `byte.asm` contains a **.copy** statement for a second file, `word.asm`.

When it encounters the **.copy** statement for `word.asm`, the assembler switches to `word.asm` to continue copying and assembling. Then the assembler returns to its place in `byte.asm` to continue copying and assembling. After completing assembly of `byte.asm`, the assembler returns to `copy.asm` to assemble its remaining statement.

copy.asm (source file)	byte.asm (first copy file)	word.asm (second copy file)
<code>.space 29</code>	<code>** In byte.asm</code>	<code>** In word.asm</code>
<code>.copy "byte.asm"</code>	<code>.byte 32,1+ 'A'</code>	<code>.word 0ABCDh, 56q</code>
<code>** Back in original file</code>	<code>.copy "word.asm"</code>	
<code>.string "done"</code>	<code>** Back in byte.asm</code>	
	<code>.byte 67h + 3q</code>	

Listing file:

```

1 00000000          .space 29
2                  .copy "byte.asm"
A 1                ** In byte.asm
A 2 0000001d 20     .byte 32,1+ 'A'
   0000001e 42
A 3                .copy "word.asm"
B 1                ** In word.asm
B 2 00000020 0000ABCD .word 0ABCDh, 56q
   00000024 0000002E
A 4                ** Back in byte.asm
A 5 00000028 6A     .byte 67h + 3q
   3
   4                ** Back in original file
   5 00000029 64     .string "done"
   0000002a 6F
   0000002b 6E
   0000002c 65
    
```

Example 2

In this example, the `.include` directive is used to read and assemble source statements from other files; then, the assembler resumes assembling into the current file. The mechanism is similar to the `.copy` directive, except that statements are not printed in the listing file.

include.asm (source file)	byte2.asm (first copy file)	word2.asm (second copy file)
<pre> .space 29 .include "byte2.asm" ** Back in original file .string "done" </pre>	<pre> ** In byte2.asm .byte 32,1+ 'A' .include "word2.asm" ** Back in byte2.asm .byte 67h + 3q </pre>	<pre> ** In word2.asm .word 0ABCDh, 56q </pre>

Listing file:

```

1 00000000          .space 29
2                  .include "byte2.asm"
3
4                  ** Back in original file
5 00000029 64     .string "done"
   0000002a 6F
   0000002b 6E
   0000002c 65
    
```

.cstruct/.cunion/.endstruct/.endunion/.tag *Declare C Structure Type*

Syntax

```

[stag]    .cstruct|.cunion  [expr]
[mem0]  element           [expr0]
[mem1]  element           [expr1]
          :                 :
          :                 :
[memn]  .tag stag         [exprn]
[memN]  element           [exprN]
[size]    .endstruct|.endunion
label    .tag                stag
  
```

Description

The **.cstruct** and **.cunion** directives have been added to support ease of sharing of common data structures between assembly and C code. The **.cstruct** and **.cunion** directives can be used exactly like the existing **.struct** and **.union** directives except that they are guaranteed to perform data layout matching the layout used by the C compiler for C struct and union data types.

In particular, the **.cstruct** and **.cunion** directives force the same alignment and padding as used by the C compiler when such types are nested within compound data structures.

The **.endstruct** directive terminates the structure definition. The **.endunion** directive terminates the union definition.

The **.tag** directive gives structure characteristics to a *label*, simplifying the symbolic representation and providing the ability to define structures that contain other structures. The **.tag** directive does not allocate memory. The structure tag (*stag*) of a **.tag** directive must have been previously defined.

Following are descriptions of the parameters used with the **.struct**, **.endstruct**, and **.tag** directives:

- The *stag* is the structure's tag. Its value is associated with the beginning of the structure. If no *stag* is present, the assembler puts the structure members in the global symbol table with the value of their absolute offset from the top of the structure. The *stag* is optional for **.struct**, but is required for **.tag**.
- The *element* is one of the following descriptors: **.byte**, **.char**, **.int**, **.long**, **.word**, **.double**, **.half**, **.short**, **.string**, **.float**, and **.field**. All of these except **.tag** are typical directives that initialize memory. Following a **.struct** directive, these directives describe the structure element's size. They do not allocate memory. A **.tag** directive is a special case because *stag* must be used (as in the definition of *stag*).
- The *expr* is an optional expression indicating the beginning offset of the structure. The default starting point for a structure is 0.
- The *expr_{n/N}* is an optional expression for the number of elements described. This value defaults to 1. A **.string** element is considered to be one byte in size, and a **.field** element is one bit.
- The *mem_{n/N}* is an optional label for a member of the structure. This label is absolute and equates to the present offset from the beginning of the structure. A label for a structure member cannot be declared global.
- The *size* is an optional label for the total size of the structure.

Example

This example illustrates a structure in C that will be accessed in assembly code.

```

typedef struct STRUCT1
; {      int i0;      /* offset 0 */
;      short s0;     /* offset 4 */
; } struct1;        /* size 8, alignment 4 */
;
; typedef struct STRUCT2
; {      struct1 st1; /* offset 0 */
;      short s1;     /* offset 8 */
; } struct2;        /* size 12, alignment 4 */
;
; The structure will get the following offsets once the C compiler lays out the structure
; elements according to the C standard rules:
;
; offsetof(struct1, i0) = 0
; offsetof(struct1, s0) = 4
; sizeof(struct1)      = 8
; offsetof(struct2, s1) = 0
; offsetof(struct2, il) = 8
; sizeof(struct2)      = 12
;
; Attempts to replicate this structure in assembly using the .struct/.union directives will not
; create the correct offsets because the assembler tries to use the most compact arrangement:

```

```

struct1      .struct
i0           .int           ; bytes 0-3
s0           .short        ; bytes 4-5
struct1len  .endstruct     ; size 6, alignment 4

struct2      .struct
st1         .tag struct1   ; bytes 0-5
s1          .short        ; bytes 6-7
endstruct2  .endstruct     ; size 8, alignment 4

```

```

.sect "data1"
.word struct1.i0      ; 0
.word struct1.s0      ; 4
.word struct1len      ; 6

```

```

.sect "data2"
.word struct2.st1     ; 0
.word struct2.s1     ; 6
.word endstruct2     ; 8

```

```

;
; The .cstruct/.cunion directives calculate offsets in the same manner as the C compiler. The resulting
; assembly structure can be used to access the elements of the C structure. Compare the difference
; in the offsets of those structures defined via .struct above and the offsets for the C code.

```

```

cstruct1     .cstruct
i0           .int           ; bytes 0-3
s0           .short        ; bytes 4-5
cstruct1len .endstruct     ; size 8, alignment 4

cstruct2     .cstruct
st1         .tag cstruct1   ; bytes 0-7
s1          .short        ; bytes 8-9
cendstruct2 .endstruct     ; size 12, alignment 4

```

```

.sect "data3"
.word cstruct1.i0, struct1.i0 ; 0
.word cstruct1.s0, struct1.s0 ; 4
.word cstruct1len, struct1len ; 8

```

```

.sect "data4"
.word cstruct2.st1, struct2.st1 ; 0
.word cstruct2.s1, struct2.s1 ; 8
.word cendstruct2, endstruct2 ; 12

```

.data *Assemble Into the .data Section*

Syntax `.data`

Description The `.data` directive sets `.data` as the current section; the lines that follow will be assembled into the `.data` section. The `.data` section is normally used to contain tables of data or preinitialized variables.

For more information about sections, see [Chapter 2](#).

Example In this example, code is assembled into the `.data` section.

```

1          *****
2          **          Reserve space in .data.          **
3          *****
4 00000000          .data
5 00000000          .space 0CCh
6
7          *****
8          **          Assemble into .data.          **
9          *****
10 000000cc      Table: .data
11 000000cc FFFFFFFF      .word  -1      ; Assemble 32-bit
12                                     ; constant into .data.
13
14 000000d0 FF          .byte  0FFh      ; Assemble 8-bit
15                                     ; constant into .data.
16

```


.drlist/.drnolist **Control Listing of Directives**

Syntax

.drlist
.drnolist

Description

Two directives enable you to control the printing of assembler directives to the listing file: The **.drlist** directive enables the printing of all directives to the listing file. The **.drnolist** directive suppresses the printing of the following directives to the listing file. The **.drnolist** directive has no affect within macros.

- | | | |
|-----------|-------------|-------------|
| • .asg | • .fcnolist | • .ssnolist |
| • .break | • .mlist | • .var |
| • .emsg | • .mmsg | • .wmsg |
| • .eval | • .mnolist | |
| • .fclist | • .sslist | |

By default, the assembler acts as if the **.drlist** directive had been specified.

Example

This example shows how **.drnolist** inhibits the listing of the specified directives.

Source file:

```
.asg 0, x
.loop 2
.eval x+1, x
.endloop

.drnolist

.asg 1, x
.loop 3
.eval x+1, x
.endloop
```

Listing file:

```

3          .asg 0, x
4          .loop 2
5          .eval x+1, x
6          .endloop
1          .eval 0+1, x
1          .eval 1+1, x

7
8          .drnolist
12         .loop 3
13         .eval x+1, x
14         .endloop
```

.elfsym
ELF Symbol Information

Syntax
.elfsym *name*, SYM_SIZE(*size*)
Description

The .elfsym directive provides additional information for symbols in the ELF format. This directive is designed to convey different types of information, so the *type*, *data* pair is used to represent each type. Currently, this directive only supports the SYM_SIZE type.

SYM_SIZE indicates the allocation size (in bytes) of the symbol indicated by *name*.

Example

This example shows the use of the ELF symbol information directive.

```

.sect      ".examp"
.alignment 4
.elfsym    ex_sym, SYM_SIZE(4)
ex_sym:
.word     0

```


.emsg/.mmsg/.wmsg *Define Messages*

Syntax

```
.emsg string
.mmsg string
.wmsg string
```

Description

These directives allow you to define your own error and warning messages. When you use these directives, the assembler tracks the number of errors and warnings it encounters and prints these numbers on the last line of the listing file.

The **.emsg** directive sends an error message to the standard output device in the same manner as the assembler. It increments the error count and prevents the assembler from producing an object file.

The **.mmsg** directive sends an assembly-time message to the standard output device in the same manner as the **.emsg** and **.wmsg** directives. It does not, however, set the error or warning counts, and it does not prevent the assembler from producing an object file.

The **.wmsg** directive sends a warning message to the standard output device in the same manner as the **.emsg** directive. It increments the warning count rather than the error count, however. It does not prevent the assembler from producing an object file.

Example

This example sends the message ERROR -- MISSING PARAMETER to the standard output device.

Source file:

```
MSG_EX .macro parm1
        .if    $symlen(parm1) = 0
        .emsg "ERROR -- MISSING PARAMETER"
        .else
            ADD    parm1, r7, r8
        .endif
    .endm

MSG_EX R0

MSG_EX
```

Listing file:

```

1          MSG_EX .macro  parm1
2          .if    $symlen(parm1) = 0
3          .emsg  "ERROR -- MISSING PARAMETER"
4          .else
5          ADD    parm1, r7, r8
6          .endif
7          .endm
8
9 00000000          MSG_EX R0
1         .if    $symlen(parm1) = 0
1         .emsg  "ERROR -- MISSING PARAMETER"
1         .else
1         ADD    R0, r7, r8
1         .endif
10
11 00000004          MSG_EX
1         .if    $symlen(parm1) = 0
1         .emsg  "ERROR -- MISSING PARAMETER"
***** USER ERROR ***** - : ERROR -- MISSING PARAMETER
1         .else
1         ADD    parm1, r7, r8
1         .endif

1 Error, No Warnings
```

In addition, the following messages are sent to standard output by the assembler:

```
*** ERROR!   line 11:  ***** USER ERROR ***** - : ERROR -- MISSING PARAMETER
               .emsg   "ERROR -- MISSING PARAMETER"   ]]
```

```
1 Error, No Warnings
Errors in source - Assembler Aborted
```

.end

End Assembly

Syntax

.end

Description

The **.end** directive is optional and terminates assembly. The assembler ignores any source statements that follow a **.end** directive. If you use the **.end** directive, it must be the last source statement of a program.

This directive has the same effect as an end-of-file character. You can use **.end** when you are debugging and you want to stop assembling at a specific point in your code.

Ending a Macro

NOTE: Do not use the **.end** directive to terminate a macro; use the **.endm** macro directive instead.

Example

This example shows how the **.end** directive terminates assembly. Any source statements that follow the **.end** directive are ignored by the assembler.

Source file:

```
.text
.bss dflag, 1
.bss array, 100

.copy globals.def

LDI r4, array
LDI r5, offst
LDI r3, dflag
LBBO &r0, r4, r5, 4
SBBO &r0, r3, 0, 4
.end
LDI r4, offst
SBBO &r0, r4, 0, 4
```

.fclist/.fcnoilist **Control Listing of False Conditional Blocks**

Syntax

.fclist
.fcnoilist

Description

Two directives enable you to control the listing of false conditional blocks:

The **.fclist** directive allows the listing of false conditional blocks (conditional blocks that do not produce code).

The **.fcnoilist** directive suppresses the listing of false conditional blocks until a **.fclist** directive is encountered. With **.fcnoilist**, only code in conditional blocks that are actually assembled appears in the listing. The **.if**, **.elseif**, **.else**, and **.endif** directives do not appear.

By default, all conditional blocks are listed; the assembler acts as if the **.fclist** directive had been used.

Example

This example shows the assembly language and listing files for code with and without the conditional blocks listed.

Source file:

```
AAA    .set 1
BBB    .set 0
       .fclist

       .if  AAA
ADD    R0, R0, 1024
       .else
ADD    R0, R0, 1024*10
       .endif

       .fcnoilist

       .if  AAA
ADD    R0, R0, 1024
       .else
ADD    R0, R0, 1024*10
       .endif
```

Listing file:

```
1          00000001  AAA    .set 1
2          00000000  BBB    .set 0
3                               .fclist
4
5                               .if  AAA
6 00000000  E2800B01  ADD    R0, R0, 1024
7                               .else
8                               ADD    R0, R0, 1024*10
9                               .endif
10
11                               .fcnoilist
12
14 00000004  E2800B01  ADD    R0, R0, 1024
```

.field *Initialize Field*

Syntax `.field value[, size in bits]`

Description The `.field` directive initializes a multiple-bit field within a single word (32 bits) of memory. This directive has two operands:

- The *value* is a required parameter; it is an expression that is evaluated and placed in the field. The value must be absolute.
- The *size in bits* is an optional parameter; it specifies a number from 1 to 32, which is the number of bits in the field. The default size is . If you specify a value that cannot fit in *size in bits*, the assembler truncates the value and issues a warning message. For example, `.field 3,1` causes the assembler to truncate the value 3 to 1; the assembler also prints the message:

```
*** WARNING! line 21: W0001: Field value truncated to 1
        .field 3, 1
```

Successive `.field` directives pack values into the specified number of bits starting at the current word. Fields are packed starting at the most significant part of the word, moving toward the least significant part as more fields are added. If the assembler encounters a field size that does not fit into the current word, it writes out the word, and begins packing fields into the next word.

The `.field` directive is similar to the `.bits` directive (see the [.bits topic](#)). However, the `.bits` directive does not allow you to specify the number of bits in the field and does not automatically increment the SPC when a word boundary is reached.

Use the `.align` directive to force the next `.field` directive to begin packing a new word.

If you use a label, it points to the byte that contains the specified field.

When you use `.field` in a `.struct/.endstruct` sequence, `.field` defines a member's size; it does not initialize memory. For more information, see the [.struct/.endstruct/.tag topic](#).

Example This example shows how fields are packed into a word. The SPC does not change until a word is filled and the next word is begun.

```
1          *****
2          **      Initialize a 14-bit field.  **
3          *****
4 00000000 2AF00000          .field 0ABCh, 14
5
6          *****
7          **      Initialize a 5-bit field   **
8          **      in the same word.        **
9          *****
10 00000000 2AF14000 L_F:   .field 0Ah, 5
11
12          *****
13          **      Write out the word.      **
14          *****
15          .align 4
16
17          *****
18          **      Initialize a 4-bit field.  **
19          **      This fields starts a new word. **
20          *****
21 00000004 C0000000 x:     .field 0Ch, 4
22
23          *****
24          **      32-bit relocatable field  **
25          **      in the next word.        **
26          *****
27 00000008 00000004'          .field x
28
```

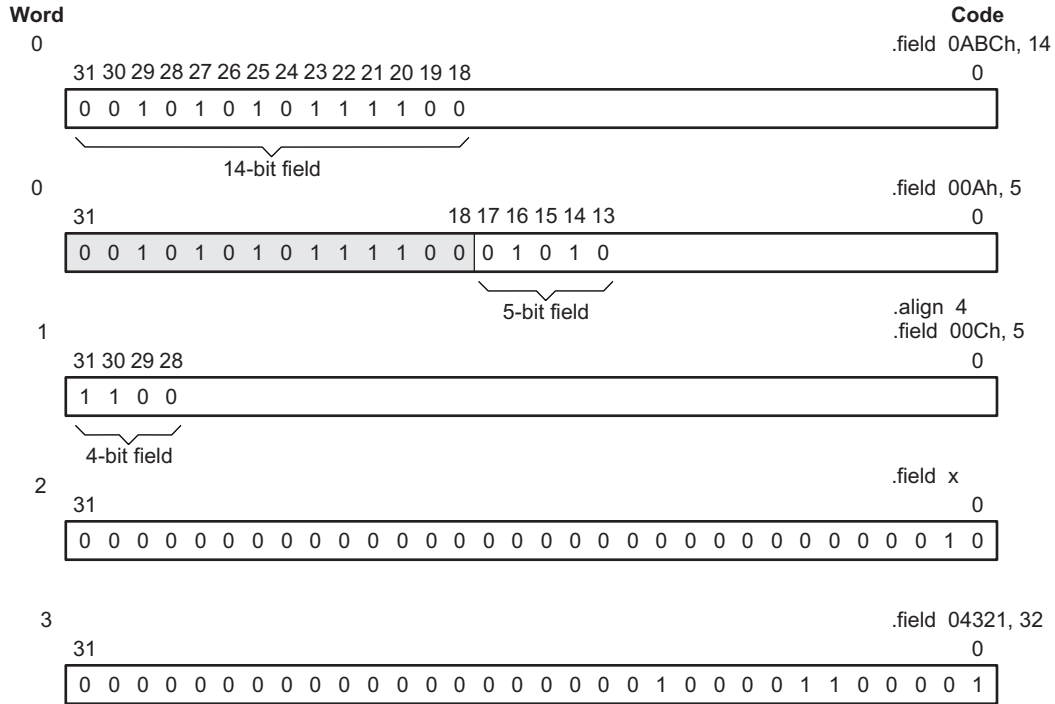
```

29          *****
30          **  Initialize a 32-bit field.  **
31          *****
32 0000000c 00004321          .field 04321h, 32

```

Figure 5-6 shows how the directives in this example affect memory.

Figure 5-6. The .field Directive



.global/.def/.ref**Identify Global Symbols****Syntax**

```
.global symbol1[, ... , symboln]
```

```
.def symbol1[, ... , symboln]
```

```
.ref symbol1[, ... , symboln]
```

Description

Three directives identify global symbols that are defined externally or can be referenced externally:

The **.def** directive identifies a symbol that is defined in the current module and can be accessed by other files. The assembler places this symbol in the symbol table.

The **.ref** directive identifies a symbol that is used in the current module but is defined in another module. The linker resolves this symbol's definition at link time.

The **.global** directive acts as a **.ref** or a **.def**, as needed.

A *global symbol* is defined in the same manner as any other symbol; that is, it appears as a label or is defined by the **.set**, **.equ**, **.bss**, or **.usect** directive. If a global symbol is defined more than once, the linker issues a multiple-definition error. (The assembler can provide a similar multiple-definition error for local symbols.) The **.ref** directive always creates a symbol table entry for a symbol, whether the module uses the symbol or not; **.global**, however, creates an entry only if the module actually uses the symbol.

A symbol can be declared global for either of two reasons:

- If the symbol is *not defined in the current module* (which includes macro, copy, and include files), the **.global** or **.ref** directive tells the assembler that the symbol is defined in an external module. This prevents the assembler from issuing an unresolved reference error. At link time, the linker looks for the symbol's definition in other modules.
- If the symbol is *defined in the current module*, the **.global** or **.def** directive declares that the symbol and its definition can be used externally by other modules. These types of references are resolved at link time.

Example

This example shows four files. The file1.lst and file2.lst refer to each other for all symbols used; file3.lst and file4.lst are similarly related.

The **file1.lst** and **file3.lst** files are equivalent. Both files define the symbol INIT and make it available to other modules; both files use the external symbols X, Y, and Z. Also, file1.lst uses the **.global** directive to identify these global symbols; file3.lst uses **.ref** and **.def** to identify the symbols.

The **file2.lst** and **file4.lst** files are equivalent. Both files define the symbols X, Y, and Z and make them available to other modules; both files use the external symbol INIT. Also, file2.lst uses the **.global** directive to identify these global symbols; file4.lst uses **.ref** and **.def** to identify the symbols.

file1.lst

```

1           ; Global symbol defined in this file
2           .global INIT
3           ; Global symbols defined in file2.lst
4           .global X, Y, Z
5 00000000   INIT:
6 00000000 E2800056   ADD     R0, R0, 56h
7 00000004 00000000!   .word  X
8           ;
9           ;
10          ;
11          .end

```

file2.lst

```

1           ; Global symbols defined in this file
2           .global X, Y, Z
3           ; Global symbol defined in file1.lst
4           .global INIT
5           00000001 X:       .set    1
6           00000002 Y:       .set    2
7           00000003 Z:       .set    3
8 00000000 00000000!       .word   INIT
9           ;               .
10          ;               .
11          ;               .
12          .end

```

file3.lst

```

1           ; Global symbols defined in this file
2           .def    INIT
3           ; Global symbol defined in file4.lst
4           .ref    X, Y, Z
5 00000000      INIT:
6 00000000 E2800056      ADD    R0, R0, 56
7 00000004 00000000!   .word   X
8           ;               .
9           ;               .
10          ;               .
11          .end

```

file4.lst

```

1           ; Global symbols defined in this file
2           .def    X, Y, Z
3           ; Global symbol defined in file3.lst
4           .ref    INIT
5           00000001 X:       .set    1
6           00000002 Y:       .set    2
7           00000003 Z:       .set    3
8 00000000 00000000!   .word   INIT
9           ;               .
10          ;               .
11          ;               .
12          .end

```

.group/.gmember/.endgroup *Define Common Data Section*

Syntax

```
.group group section name group type  
.gmember section name  
.endgroup
```

Description

Three directives instruct the assembler to make certain sections members of an ELF group section (see the ELF specification for more information on group sections).

The **.group** directive begins the group declaration. The *group section name* designates the name of the group section. The *group type* designates the type of the group. The following types are supported:

0x0	Regular ELF group
0x1	COMDAT ELF group

Duplicate COMDAT (common data) groups are allowed in multiple modules; the linker keeps only one. Creating such duplicate groups is useful for late instantiation of C++ templates and for providing debugging information.

The **.gmember** directive designates *section name* as a member of the group.

The **.endgroup** directive ends the group declaration.

.half/.short/.uhalf/.ushort Initialize 16-Bit Integers

Syntax

```
.half value1[, ... , valuen ]
.short value1[, ... , valuen ]
.uhalf value1[, ... , valuen ]
.ushort value1[, ... , valuen ]
```

Description

The **.half** and **.short** directives place one or more values into consecutive halfwords in the current section. A *value* can be either:

- An expression that the assembler evaluates and treats as a 16-bit signed or unsigned number
- A character string enclosed in double quotes. Each character in a string represents a separate value and is stored alone in the least significant eight bits of a 16-bit field, which is padded with 0s.

The assembler truncates values greater than 16 bits.

If you use a label with **.half** or **.short**, it points to the location where the assembler places the first byte.

These directives perform a halfword (16-bit) alignment before data is written to the section. This guarantees that data resides on a 16-bit boundary.

When you use **.half** or **.short** in a **.struct/.endstruct** sequence, they define a member's size; they do not initialize memory. For more information, see the [.struct/.endstruct/.tag topic](#).

Example

In this example, **.half** is used to place 16-bit values (10, -1, abc, and a) into consecutive halfwords in memory; **.short** is used to place 16-bit values (8, -3, def, and b) into consecutive halfwords in memory. The label STRN has the value 100ch, which is the location of the first initialized halfword for **.short**.

```
1 00000000                .space 100h * 16
2 00001000 000A          .half 10, -1, "abc", 'a'
   00001002 FFFF
   00001004 0061
   00001006 0062
   00001008 0063
   0000100a 0061
3 0000100c 0008          STRN .short 8, -3, "def", 'b'
   0000100e FFFD
   00001010 0064
   00001012 0065
   00001014 0066
   00001016 0062
```

.if/.elseif/.else/.endif Assemble Conditional Blocks

Syntax

```
.if condition
[.elseif condition]
[.else]
.endif
```

Description These directives provide conditional assembly:

The **.if** directive marks the beginning of a conditional block. The *condition* is a required parameter.

- If the expression evaluates to true (nonzero), the assembler assembles the code that follows the expression (up to a **.elseif**, **.else**, or **.endif**).
- If the expression evaluates to false (0), the assembler assembles code that follows a **.elseif** (if present), **.else** (if present), or **.endif** (if no **.elseif** or **.else** is present).

The **.elseif** directive identifies a block of code to be assembled when the **.if** expression is false (0) and the **.elseif** expression is true (nonzero). When the **.elseif** expression is false, the assembler continues to the next **.elseif** (if present), **.else** (if present), or **.endif** (if no **.elseif** or **.else** is present). The **.elseif** is optional in a conditional block, and more than one **.elseif** can be used. If an expression is false and there is no **.elseif**, the assembler continues with the code that follows a **.else** (if present) or a **.endif**.

The **.else** directive identifies a block of code that the assembler assembles when the **.if** expression and all **.elseif** expressions are false (0). The **.else** directive is optional in the conditional block; if an expression is false and there is no **.else** statement, the assembler continues with the code that follows the **.endif**. The **.elseif** and **.else** directives can be used in the same conditional assembly block.

The **.endif** directive terminates a conditional block.

See [Section 4.8.2](#) for information about relational operators.

Example This example shows conditional assembly:

```

1          00000001 SYM1  .set    1
2          00000002 SYM2  .set    2
3          00000003 SYM3  .set    3
4          00000004 SYM4  .set    4
5
6          If_4:  .if     SYM4 = SYM2 * SYM2
7 00000000 04    .byte   SYM4          ; Equal values
8              .else
9              .byte   SYM2 * SYM2    ; Unequal values
10             .endif
11
12          If_5:  .if     SYM1 <= 10
13 00000001 0A    .byte   10          ; Less than / equal
14              .else
15              .byte   SYM1          ; Greater than
16             .endif
17
18          If_6:  .if     SYM3 * SYM2 != SYM4 + SYM2
19              .byte   SYM3 * SYM2    ; Unequal value
20              .else
21 00000002 08    .byte   SYM4 + SYM4    ; Equal values
22             .endif
23
24          If_7:  .if     SYM1 = SYM2
25              .byte   SYM1
26              .elseif  SYM2 + SYM3 = 5
27 00000003 05    .byte   SYM2 + SYM3
28             .endif
```

.int/.uint/.long/.ulong/.word/.uword *Initialize 32-Bit Integers*

Syntax

```
.int value1[, ... , valuen ]
.uint value1[, ... , valuen ]
.long value1[, ... , valuen ]
.ulong value1[, ... , valuen ]
.word value1[, ... , valuen ]
.uword value1[, ... , valuen ]
```

Description The **.int**, **.uint**, **.word**, and **.uword** directives place one or more values into consecutive words in the current section. Each value is placed in a 32-bit word by itself and is aligned on a word boundary. A *value* can be either:

- An expression that the assembler evaluates and treats as a 32-bit signed or unsigned number
- A character string enclosed in double quotes. Each character in a string represents a separate value and is stored alone in the least significant eight bits of a 32-bit field, which is padded with 0s.

A value can be either an absolute or a relocatable expression. If an expression is relocatable, the assembler generates a relocation entry that refers to the appropriate symbol; the linker can then correctly patch (relocate) the reference. This allows you to initialize memory with pointers to variables or labels.

If you use a label with these directives, it points to the first word that is initialized.

When you use these directives in a **.struct/.endstruct** sequence, they define a member's size; they do not initialize memory. See the [.struct/.endstruct/.tag](#) topic.

Example 1 This example uses the **.int** directive to initialize words.

```
1 00000000                .space 73h
2 00000000                .bss   PAGE, 128
3 00000080                .bss   SYMPTR, 4
4 00000074 E3A00056 INST: LDI   R0, 056h
5 00000078 0000000A      .int   10, SYMPTR, -1, 35 + 'a', INST, "abc"
   0000007c 00000080-
   00000080 FFFFFFFF
   00000084 00000084
   00000088 00000074'
   0000008c 00000061
   00000090 00000062
   00000094 00000063
```

Example 2 This example shows how the **.long** directive initializes words. The symbol **DAT1** points to the first word that is reserved.

```
1 00000000 0000ABCD DAT1: .long  0ABCDh, 'A' + 100h, 'g', 'o'
   00000004 00000141
   00000008 00000067
   0000000c 0000006F
2 00000010 00000000'      .long  DAT1, 0AABBCCDDh
   00000014 AABBCCDD
3 00000018                DAT2:
```

Example 3 In this example, the **.word** directive is used to initialize words. The symbol **WORDX** points to the first word that is reserved.

```
1 00000000 00000C80 WORDX: .word  3200, 1 + 'AB', -0AFh, 'X'
   00000004 00004242
   00000008 FFFFFFF51
   0000000c 00000058
```

.length/.width
Set Listing Page Size
Syntax

.length [*page length*]

.width [*page width*]

Description

Two directives allow you to control the size of the output listing file.

The **.length** directive sets the page length of the output listing file. It affects the current and following pages. You can reset the page length with another **.length** directive.

- Default length: 60 lines. If you do not use the **.length** directive or if you use the **.length** directive without specifying the *page length*, the output listing length defaults to 60 lines.
- Minimum length: 1 line
- Maximum length: 32 767 lines

The **.width** directive sets the page width of the output listing file. It affects the next line assembled and the lines following. You can reset the page width with another **.width** directive.

- Default width: 132 characters. If you do not use the **.width** directive or if you use the **.width** directive without specifying a *page width*, the output listing width defaults to 132 characters.
- Minimum width: 80 characters
- Maximum width: 200 characters

The width refers to a full line in a listing file; the line counter value, SPC value, and object code are counted as part of the width of a line. Comments and other portions of a source statement that extend beyond the page width are truncated in the listing.

The assembler does not list the **.width** and **.length** directives.

Example

The following example shows how to change the page length and width.

```
*****
**      Page length = 65 lines      **
**      Page width = 85 characters  **
*****
        .length    65
        .width     85

*****
**      Page length = 55 lines      **
**      Page width = 100 characters **
*****
        .length    55
        .width     100
```

.list/.nolist
Start/Stop Source Listing
Syntax

```
.list
.nolist
```

Description

Two directives enable you to control the printing of the source listing:

The **.list** directive allows the printing of the source listing.

The **.nolist** directive suppresses the source listing output until a **.list** directive is encountered. The **.nolist** directive can be used to reduce assembly time and the source listing size. It can be used in macro definitions to suppress the listing of the macro expansion.

The assembler does not print the **.list** or **.nolist** directives or the source statements that appear after a **.nolist** directive. However, it continues to increment the line counter. You can nest the **.list/.nolist** directives; each **.nolist** needs a matching **.list** to restore the listing.

By default, the source listing is printed to the listing file; the assembler acts as if the **.list** directive had been used. However, if you do not request a listing file when you invoke the assembler by including the **--asm_listing** option on the command line (see [Section 4.3](#)), the assembler ignores the **.list** directive.

Example

This example shows how the **.copy** directive inserts source statements from another file. The first time this directive is encountered, the assembler lists the copied source lines in the listing file. The second time this directive is encountered, the assembler does not list the copied source lines, because a **.nolist** directive was assembled. The **.nolist**, the second **.copy**, and the **.list** directives do not appear in the listing file. Also, the line counter is incremented, even when source statements are not listed.

Source file:

```
.copy "copy2.asm"
* Back in original file
NOP
.nolist
.copy "copy2.asm"
.list
* Back in original file
.string "Done"
```

Listing file:

```
1 .copy "copy2.asm"
A 1 * In copy2.asm (copy file)
A 2 00000000 00000020 .word 32, 1 + 'A'
00000004 00000042
2 * Back in original file
3 00000008 E1A00000 NOP
7 * Back in original file
8 00000014 44 .string "Done"
00000015 6F
00000016 6E
00000017 65
```

.loop/.endloop/.break Assemble Code Block Repeatedly

Syntax

```
.loop [count]  
.break [end-condition]  
.endloop
```

Description

Three directives allow you to repeatedly assemble a block of code:

The **.loop** directive begins a repeatable block of code. The optional *count* operand, if used, must be a well-defined integer expression. The *count* indicates the number of loops to be performed (the loop count). If *count* is omitted, it defaults to 1024. The loop will be repeated count number of times, unless terminated early by a **.break** directive.

The optional **.break** directive terminates a **.loop** early. You may use **.loop** without using **.break**. The **.break** directive terminates a **.loop** only if the *end-condition* expression is true (evaluates to nonzero). If the optional *end-condition* operand is omitted, it defaults to true. If *end-condition* is true, the assembler stops repeating the **.loop** body immediately; any remaining statements after **.break** and before **.endloop** are not assembled. The assembler resumes assembling with the statement after the **.endloop** directive. If *end-condition* is false (evaluates to 0), the loop continues.

The **.endloop** directive marks the end of a repeatable block of code. When the loop terminates, whether by a **.break** directive with a true *end-condition* or by performing the loop count number of iterations, the assembler stops repeating the loop body and resumes assembling with the statement after the **.endloop** directive.

Example

This example illustrates how these directives can be used with the **.eval** directive. The code in the first six lines expands to the code immediately following those six lines.

```

1          .eval      0,x
2          COEF      .loop
3          .word      x*100
4          .eval      x+1, x
5          .break     x = 6
6          .endloop

1 00000000 00000000 .word      0*100
1          .eval      0+1, x
1          .break     1 = 6
1 00000004 00000064 .word      1*100
1          .eval      1+1, x
1          .break     2 = 6
1 00000008 000000C8 .word      2*100
1          .eval      2+1, x
1          .break     3 = 6
1 0000000c 0000012C .word      3*100
1          .eval      3+1, x
1          .break     4 = 6
1 00000010 00000190 .word      4*100
1          .eval      4+1, x
1          .break     5 = 6
1 00000014 000001F4 .word      5*100
1          .eval      5+1, x
1          .break     6 = 6

```

.macro/.endm
Define Macro
Syntax

```

macname .macro [parameter1 [, ... , parametern]
           model statements or macro directives
           .endm

```

Description

The **.macro** and **.endm** directives are used to define macros.

You can define a macro anywhere in your program, but you must define the macro before you can use it. Macros can be defined at the beginning of a source file, in an `.include/.copy` file, or in a macro library.

<i>macname</i>	names the macro. You must place the name in the source statement's label field.
.macro	identifies the source statement as the first line of a macro definition. You must place .macro in the opcode field.
[<i>parameters</i>]	are optional substitution symbols that appear as operands for the .macro directive.
<i>model statements</i>	are instructions or assembler directives that are executed each time the macro is called.
<i>macro directives</i>	are used to control macro expansion.
.endm	marks the end of the macro definition.

Macros are explained in further detail in [Chapter 6](#).

.mlib *Define Macro Library*

Syntax `.mlib "filename"`

Description The `.mlib` directive provides the assembler with the *filename* of a macro library. A macro library is a collection of files that contain macro definitions. The macro definition files are bound into a single file (called a library or archive) by the archiver.

Each file in a macro library contains one macro definition that corresponds to the name of the file. The *filename* of a macro library member must be the same as the macro name, and its extension must be `.asm`. The filename must follow host operating system conventions; it can be enclosed in double quotes. You can specify a full pathname (for example, `c:\320tools\macs.lib`). If you do not specify a full pathname, the assembler searches for the file in the following locations in the order given:

1. The directory that contains the current source file
2. Any directories named with the `--include_path` assembler option
3. Any directories specified by the `PRU_A_DIR` environment variable
4. Any directories specified by the `PRU_A_DIR` environment variable

See [Section 4.4](#) for more information about the `--include_path` option.

A `.mlib` directive causes the assembler to open the library specified by *filename* and create a table of the library's contents. The assembler stores names of individual library members in the opcode table as library entries. This redefines any existing opcodes or macros with the same name. If one of these macros is called, the assembler extracts the library entry and loads it into the macro table. The assembler expands the library entry as it does other macros, but it does not place the source code in the listing. Only macros called from the library are extracted, and they are extracted only once.

Example The code creates a macro library that defines two macros, `inc4.asm` and `dec4.asm`. The file `inc4.asm` contains the definition of `inc4` and `dec4.asm` contains the definition of `dec4`.

<code>inc4.asm</code>	<code>dec4.asm</code>
<pre>* Macro for incrementing inc4 .macro reg1, reg2, reg3, reg4 Add reg1, reg1, 1 ADD reg2, reg2, 1 ADD reg3, reg3, 1 ADD reg4, reg4, 1 .endm</pre>	<pre>* Macro for decrementing dec4 .macro reg1, reg2, reg3, reg4 SUB reg1, reg1, 1 SUB reg2, reg2, 1 SUB reg3, reg3, 1 SUB reg4, reg4, 1 .endm</pre>

Use the archiver to create a macro library:

```
armar -a mac inc4.asm dec4.asm
ar32 -a mac inc4.asm dec4.asm
```

Now you can use the `.mlib` directive to reference the macro library and define the `inc4.asm` and `dec4.asm` macros:

```

1          .mlib    "mac.lib"
2          ; Macro call
3 00000000          inc4  R7, R6, R5, R4
1          00000000 E2877001          ADD    R7, R7, 1
1          00000004 E2866001          ADD    R6, R6, 1
1          00000008 E2855001          ADD    R5, R5, 1
1          0000000c E2844001          ADD    R4, R4, 1
4
5          ; Macro call
6 00000010          dec4  R0, R1, R2, R3
1          00000010 E2400001          SUB    R0, R0, 1
1          00000014 E2411001          SUB    R1, R1, 1
1          00000018 E2422001          SUB    R2, R2, 1
1          0000001c E2433001          SUB    R3, R3, 1
```

.mlist/.mnoist **Start/Stop Macro Expansion Listing**

Syntax

.mlist
.mnoist

Description

Two directives enable you to control the listing of macro and repeatable block expansions in the listing file:

The **.mlist** directive allows macro and **.loop/.endloop** block expansions in the listing file.

The **.mnoist** directive suppresses macro and **.loop/.endloop** block expansions in the listing file.

By default, the assembler behaves as if the **.mlist** directive had been specified.

See [Chapter 6](#) for more information on macros and macro libraries. See the [.loop/.break/.endloop](#) topic for information on conditional blocks.

Example

This example defines a macro named STR_3. The first time the macro is called, the macro expansion is listed (by default). The second time the macro is called, the macro expansion is not listed, because a **.mnoist** directive was assembled. The third time the macro is called, the macro expansion is again listed because a **.mlist** directive was assembled.

```

1          STR_3 .macro  P1, P2, P3
2          .string ":p1:", ":p2:", ":p3:"
3          .endm
4
5 00000000          STR_3 "as", "I", "am"    ; Invoke STR_3 macro.
1 00000000 3A          .string ":p1:", ":p2:", ":p3:"
   00000001 70
   00000002 31
   00000003 3A
   00000004 3A
   00000005 70
   00000006 32
   00000007 3A
   00000008 3A
   00000009 70
   0000000a 33
   0000000b 3A
6          .mnoist          ; Suppress expansion.
7 0000000c          STR_3 "as", "I", "am"    ; Invoke STR_3 macro.
8          .mlist          ; Show macro expansion.
9 00000018          STR_3 "as", "I", "am"    ; Invoke STR_3 macro.
1 00000018 3A          .string ":p1:", ":p2:", ":p3:"
   00000019 70
   0000001a 31
   0000001b 3A
   0000001c 3A
   0000001d 70
   0000001e 32
   0000001f 3A
   00000020 3A
   00000021 70
   00000022 33
   00000023 3A

```

.newblock *Terminate Local Symbol Block*

Syntax

.newblock

Description

The **.newblock** directive undefines any local labels currently defined. Local labels, by nature, are temporary; the **.newblock** directive resets them and terminates their scope.

A local label is a label in the form $\$n$, where n is a single decimal digit, or $name?$, where $name$ is a legal symbol name. Unlike other labels, local labels are intended to be used locally, and cannot be used in expressions. They can be used only as operands in 8-bit jump instructions. Local labels are not included in the symbol table.

After a local label has been defined and (perhaps) used, you should use the **.newblock** directive to reset it. The **.text**, **.data**, and **.sect** directives also reset local labels. Local labels that are defined within an include file are not valid outside of the include file.

See [Section 4.7.3](#) for more information on the use of local labels.

Example

```

1
2
3
4sign_extend_32_8 .macro dest, src
5    .newblock
6    MOV dest, src
7    QBBC $1, dest, 7
8    FILL &dest.b1, 3
9$1:
10   .endm
11
12
13 .global sign_extend
14 00000000          sign_extend
15 00000000          sign_extend_32_8 R14, R14.b0
1   .newblock
1   00000000 000000100E0EEE      MOV R14, R14.b0
1   00000004 000000C907EE02     QBBC $1, R14, 7
1   00000008 0000002EFF012E     FILL &R14.b1, 3
1   $1:
16 0000000c 00000020C30000     JMP R3.w2

```

.option
Select Listing Options
Syntax
.option *option*₁[, *option*₂, . . .]

Description

The **.option** directive selects options for the assembler output listing. The *options* must be separated by commas; each option selects a listing feature. These are valid options:

- A** turns on listing of all directives and data, and subsequent expansions, macros, and blocks.
- B** limits the listing of `.byte` and `.char` directives to one line.
- H** limits the listing of `.half` and `.short` directives to one line.
- L** limits the listing of `.long` directives to one line.
- M** turns off macro expansions in the listing.
- N** turns off listing (performs `.nolist`).
- O** turns on listing (performs `.list`).
- R** resets any B, H, M, T, and W (turns off the limits of B, H, M, T, and W).
- T** limits the listing of `.string` directives to one line.
- W** limits the listing of `.word` and `.int` directives to one line.
- X** produces a cross-reference listing of symbols. You can also obtain a cross-reference listing by invoking the assembler with the `--asm_listing_cross_reference` option (see [Section 4.3](#)).

Options *are not* case sensitive.

Example

This example shows how to limit the listings of the `.byte`, `.char`, `.int`, `.long`, `.word`, and `.string` directives to one line each.

```

1          ****
2          ** Limit the listing of .byte, .char, .int, .long, **
3          ** .word, and .string directives to 1 line each. **
4          ****
5          .option B, W, T
6 00000000 BD          .byte  -'C', 0B0h, 5
7 00000003 BC          .char  -'D', 0C0h, 6
8 00000008 0000000A    .int   10, 35 + 'a', "abc"
9 0000001c AABBCDD     .long  0AABBCDDh, 536 + 'A'
10 00000024 000015AA   .word  5546, 78h
11 0000002c 45         .string "Extended Registers"
12
13          ****
14          **          Reset the listing options.          **
15          ****
16          .option R
17 0000003e BD          .byte  -'C', 0B0h, 5
   0000003f B0
   00000040 05
18 00000041 BC          .char  -'D', 0C0h, 6
   00000042 C0
   00000043 06
19 00000044 0000000A    .int   10, 35 + 'a', "abc"
   00000048 00000084
   0000004c 00000061
   00000050 00000062
   00000054 00000063
20 00000058 AABBCDD     .long  0AABBCDDh, 536 + 'A'
   0000005c 00000259
21 00000060 000015AA   .word  5546, 78h
   00000064 00000078
22 00000068 45         .string "Extended Registers"
   00000069 78

```

```

0000006a 74
0000006b 65
0000006c 6E
0000006d 64
0000006e 65
0000006f 64
00000070 20
00000071 52
00000072 65
00000073 67
00000074 69
00000075 73
00000076 74
00000077 65
00000078 72
00000079 73
  
```

.page *Eject Page in Listing*

Syntax `.page`

Description The **.page** directive produces a page eject in the listing file. The **.page** directive is not printed in the source listing, but the assembler increments the line counter when it encounters the **.page** directive. Using the **.page** directive to divide the source listing into logical divisions improves program readability.

Example This example shows how the **.page** directive causes the assembler to begin a new page of the source listing.

Source file:

```

Source file (generic)
    .title    "**** Page Directive Example ****"
;           .
;           .
;           .
    .page
  
```

Listing file:

```

PRU Assembler    Version x.xx      Day   Time   Year
Copyright (c) 2012-2014 Texas Instruments Incorporated
**** Page Directive Example ****                                PAGE    1

    2              ;           .
    3              ;           .
    4              ;           .
PRU Assembler    Version x.xx      Day   Time   Year
Copyright (c) 2012-2014 Texas Instruments Incorporated
**** Page Directive Example ****                                PAGE    2
  
```

No Errors, No Warnings

.retain / .retainrefs **Conditionally Retain Sections In Object Module Output**

Syntax

```
.retain["section name"]
```

```
.retainrefs["section name"]
```

Description

The **.retain** directive indicates that the current or specified section is not eligible for removal via conditional linking. You can also override conditional linking for a given section with the `--retain` linker option. You can disable conditional linking entirely with the `--unused_section_elimination=off` linker option.

The **.retainrefs** directive indicates that any sections that refer to the current or specified section are not eligible for removal via conditional linking.

The *section name* identifies the section. If the directive is used without a section name, it applies to the current initialized section. If the directive is applied to an uninitialized section, the section name is required. The section name must be enclosed in double quotes. A section name can contain a subsection name in the form *section name:subsection name*.

The linker assumes that all sections by default are eligible for removal via conditional linking. (However, the linker does automatically retain the `.reset` section.) The `.retain` directive is useful for overriding this default conditional linking behavior for sections that you want to keep included in the link, even if the section is not referenced by any other section in the link. For example, you could apply a `.retain` directive to an interrupt function that you have written in assembly language, but which is not referenced from any normal entry point in the application.

.sassign *Map defined structure onto PRU registers*

Syntax *label .sassign structure, start_reg, structure*

Description The **.sassign** directive is used to map a defined structure onto the PRU registers. The *label* is a symbol that can be used to reference the mapped structure.

The *start_reg* is the first register into which the structure is placed. An **.sassign** directive can begin at any register boundary. If the structure requires more than 32 bits of storage, multiple registers will be used as needed. Some structures require specific alignments due to how their fields are arranged within the structure. The assembler generates an error if the structure alignment requirements can not be met with the specified starting register. This argument is required.

The *structure* is a type of structure that has been previously defined using the **.struct** directive. This argument is required.

Example This example causes a structure of type MyStruct to be mapped to registers beginning at R4. The structure can be referenced with the MyName1 label.

```
MyName1    .sassign R4, MyStruct
```

.sect *Assemble Into Named Section*

Syntax `.sect " section name "`
`.sect " section name " [{RO|RW}] [{ALLOC|NOALLOC}]`

Description The `.sect` directive defines a named section that can be used like the default `.text` and `.data` sections. The `.sect` directive sets *section name* to be the current section; the lines that follow are assembled into the *section name* section.

The *section name* identifies the section. The section name must be enclosed in double quotes. A section name can contain a subsection name in the form *section name : subsection name*. See [Chapter 2](#) for more information about sections.

The sections can be marked read-only (RO) or read-write (RW). Also, the sections can be marked for allocation (ALLOC) or no allocation (NOALLOC). These attributes can be specified in any order, but only one attribute from each set can be selected. RO conflicts with RW, and ALLOC conflicts with NOALLOC. If conflicting attributes are specified the assembler generates an error, for example:

```
"t.asm", ERROR! at line 1:[E0000] Attribute RO cannot be combined with attr RW
.sect "illegal_sect",RO,RW
```

Example This example defines two special-purpose sections, `Sym_Defs` and `Vars`, and assembles code into them.

```

1          *****
2          **          Begin assembling into .text section.          **
3          *****
4 00000000          .text
5 00000000 E3A00078          LDI      R0, 78h
6 00000004 E2801078          ADD      R1, R0, 78h
7          *****
8          **          Begin assembling into Sym_Defs section.          **
9          *****
10 00000000          .sect   "Sym_Defs"
11 00000000 3D4CCCCD          .float  0.05          ; Assembled into Sym_Defs
12 00000004 000000AA X:      .word  0AAh          ; Assembled into Sym_Defs
13 00000008 E2833028          ADD      R3, R3, 28h ; Assembled into Sym_Defs
14          *****
15          **          Begin assembling into Vars section.          **
16          *****
17 00000000          .sect   "Vars"
18          00000010 WORD_LEN .set   16
19          00000020 DWORD_LEN .set   WORD_LEN * 2
20          00000008 BYTE_LEN .set   WORD_LEN / 2
21          *****
22          **          Resume assembling into .text section.          **
23          *****
24 00000008          .text
25 00000008 E2802042          ADD      R2, R0, 42h ; Assembled into .text
26 0000000c 03          .byte   3, 4          ; Assembled into .text
27          0000000d 04
28          *****
29          **          Resume assembling into Vars section.          **
30          *****
31 00000000          .sect   "Vars"
32 00000000 000D0000          .field  13, WORD_LEN
33 00000000 000D0A00          .field  0Ah, BYTE_LEN
34 00000004 00000008          .field  10q, DWORD_LEN

```


.set/.equ *Define Assembly-Time Constant*

Syntax

```
symbol .set value
symbol .equ value
```

Description

The **.set** and **.equ** directives equate a constant value to a **.set** symbol. The symbol can then be used in place of a value in assembly source. This allows you to equate meaningful names with constants and other values. The **.set** and **.equ** directives are identical and can be used interchangeably.

- The *symbol* is a label that must appear in the label field.
- The *value* must be a well-defined expression, that is, all symbols in the expression must be previously defined in the current source module.

Undefined external symbols and symbols that are defined later in the module cannot be used in the expression. If the expression is relocatable, the symbol to which it is assigned is also relocatable.

The value of the expression appears in the object field of the listing. This value is not part of the actual object code and is not written to the output file.

Symbols defined with **.set** or **.equ** can be made externally visible with the **.def** or **.global** directive (see the [.global/.def/.ref topic](#)). In this way, you can define global absolute constants.

Example This example shows how symbols can be assigned with **.set** and **.equ**.

```

1          *****
2          **   Equate symbol AUX_R1 to register AR1 and use   **
3          **           it instead of the register.           **
4          *****
5          00000001 AUX_R1 .set   R1
6 00000000 E3A01056      LDI   AUX_R1, 56h
7
8          *****
9          **   Set symbol index to an integer expression.   **
10         **           and use it as an immediate operand.   **
11         *****
12         00000035 INDEX .equ   100/2 +3
13 00000004 E2810035      ADD   R0, AUX_R1, INDEX
14
15         *****
16         **   Set symbol SYMTAB to a relocatable expression. **
17         **           and use it as a relocatable operand.   **
18         *****
19 00000008 0000000A LABEL .word  10
20         00000009' SYMTAB .set   LABEL + 1
21
22         *****
23         **   Set symbol NSYMS equal to the symbol INDEX   **
24         **           INDEX and use it as you would INDEX.   **
25         *****
26         00000035 NSYMS .set   INDEX
27 0000000c 00000035      .word  NSYMS

```

.space/.bes
Reserve Space
Syntax

```
[label] .space size in bytes
```

```
[label] .bes size in bytes
```

Description

The **.space** and **.bes** directives reserve the number of bytes given by *size in bytes* in the current section and fill them with 0s. The section program counter is incremented to point to the word following the reserved space.

When you use a label with the **.space** directive, it points to the *first* byte reserved. When you use a label with the **.bes** directive, it points to the *last* byte reserved.

Example

This example shows how memory is reserved with the **.space** and **.bes** directives.

```

1          *****
2          ** Begin assembling into the .text section. **
3          *****
4 00000000          .text
5
6          *****
7          ** Reserve 0F0 bytes in the .text section. **
8          *****
9 00000000          .space 0F0h
10 000000f0 00000100 .word 100h, 200h
    000000f4 00000200
11
12         *****
13         ** Begin assembling into the .data section. **
14         *****
14 00000000          .data
15 00000000 49          .string "In .data"
    00000001 6E
    00000002 20
    00000003 2E
    00000004 64
    00000005 61
    00000006 74
    00000007 61
16
17         *****
18         ** Reserve 100 bytes in the .data section; RES_1 **
19         ** points to the first byte that contains **
20         ** reserved bytes. **
21         *****
21 00000008          RES_1: .space 100
22 0000006c 0000000F          .word 15
23 00000070 00000008"          .word RES_1
24
25         *****
26         ** Reserve 20 bits in the .data section; RES_2 **
27         ** points to the last byte that contains **
28         ** reserved bytes. **
29         *****
30 00000087          RES_2: .bes 20
31 00000088 00000036          .word 36h
32 0000008c 00000087"          .word RES_2
    
```

.sslist/.ssnolist **Control Listing of Substitution Symbols**

Syntax

.sslist
.ssnolist

Description

Two directives allow you to control substitution symbol expansion in the listing file:

The **.sslist** directive allows substitution symbol expansion in the listing file. The expanded line appears below the actual source line.

The **.ssnolist** directive suppresses substitution symbol expansion in the listing file.

By default, all substitution symbol expansion in the listing file is suppressed; the assembler acts as if the **.ssnolist** directive had been used.

Lines with the pound (#) character denote expanded substitution symbols.

Example

This example shows code that, by default, suppresses the listing of substitution symbol expansion, and it shows the **.sslist** directive assembled, instructing the assembler to list substitution symbol code expansion.

Default listing file without .sslist:

```

1      .asg r14, ARG1
2      .asg r15, ARG2
3
4 00000000 0000005100EE02      QBEQ $1, ARG1, 0
5 00000004 0000000101EEEE      ADD  r14, ARG1, 1
6$1:
7      .newblock
8
9 00000008 0000005100EF02      QBEQ $1, ARG2, 0
10 0000000c 0000000101EFEF      ADD  r15, ARG2, 1
11 00000010
12 00000010 00000020C30000      JMP  r3.w2

```

Listing with .sslist added:

```

1      .sslist
2
3      .asg r14, ARG1
4      .asg r15, ARG2
5
6 00000000 0000005100EE02      QBEQ $1, ARG1, 0
#      QBEQ $1, r14, 0
7 00000004 0000000101EEEE      ADD  r14, ARG1, 1
#      ADD  r14, r14, 1
8$1:
9      .newblock
10
11 00000008 0000005100EF02      QBEQ $1, ARG2, 0
#      QBEQ $1, r15, 0
12 0000000c 0000000101EFEF      ADD  r15, ARG2, 1
#      ADD  r15, r15, 1
13 00000010
14 00000010 00000020C30000      JMP  r3.w2

```

.string/.cstring
Initialize Text
Syntax

```
.string {expr1 | "string1" } [, ... , {exprn | "stringn" } ]
```

```
.cstring {expr1 | "string1" } [, ... , {exprn | "stringn" } ]
```

Description

The **.string** and **.cstring** directives place 8-bit characters from a character string into the current section. The *expr* or *string* can be one of the following:

- An expression that the assembler evaluates and treats as an 8-bit signed number.
- A character string enclosed in double quotes. Each character in a string represents a separate value, and values are stored in consecutive bytes. The entire string *must* be enclosed in quotes.

The **.cstring** directive adds a NUL character needed by C; the **.string** directive does not add a NUL character. In addition, **.cstring** interprets C escapes (`\a \b \f \n \r \t \v \<octal>`).

The assembler truncates any values that are greater than eight bits. Operands must fit on a single source statement line.

If you use a label, it points to the location of the first byte that is initialized.

When you use **.string** and **.cstring** in a **.struct/.endstruct** sequence, the directive only defines a member's size; it does not initialize memory. For more information, see the [.struct/.endstruct/.tag](#) topic.

Example

In this example, 8-bit values are placed into consecutive bytes in the current section.

```

1 00000000 41          Str_Ptr:  .string  "ABCD"
   00000001 42
   00000002 43
   00000003 44
2 00000004 41          .string  41h, 42h, 43h, 44h
   00000005 42
   00000006 43
   00000007 44
3 00000008 41          .string  "Austin", "Houston", "Dallas"
   00000009 75
   0000000a 73
   0000000b 74
   0000000c 69
   0000000d 6E
   0000000e 48
   0000000f 6F
   00000010 75
   00000011 73
   00000012 74
   00000013 6F
   00000014 6E
   00000015 44
   00000016 61
   00000017 6C
   00000018 6C
   00000019 61
   0000001a 73
4 0000001b 30          .string  36 + 12
```

.struct/.endstruct/.tag Declare Structure Type

Syntax	[<i>stag</i>]	.struct	[<i>expr</i>]
	[<i>mem</i> ₀]	<i>element</i>	[<i>expr</i> ₀]
	[<i>mem</i> ₁]	<i>element</i>	[<i>expr</i> ₁]
	.	.	.
	.	.	.
	.	.	.
	[<i>mem</i> _{<i>n</i>}]	.tag <i>stag</i>	[<i>expr</i> _{<i>n</i>}]
	.	.	.
	.	.	.
	.	.	.
	[<i>mem</i> _{<i>N</i>}]	<i>element</i>	[<i>expr</i> _{<i>N</i>}]
	[<i>size</i>]	.endstruct	
	<i>label</i>	.tag	<i>stag</i>

Description

The **.struct** directive assigns symbolic offsets to the elements of a data structure definition. This allows you to group similar data elements together and let the assembler calculate the element offset. This is similar to a C structure or a Pascal record. The **.struct** directive does not allocate memory; it merely creates a symbolic template that can be used repeatedly.

The **.endstruct** directive terminates the structure definition.

The **.tag** directive gives structure characteristics to a *label*, simplifying the symbolic representation and providing the ability to define structures that contain other structures. The **.tag** directive does not allocate memory. The structure tag (*stag*) of a **.tag** directive must have been previously defined.

Following are descriptions of the parameters used with the **.struct**, **.endstruct**, and **.tag** directives:

- The *stag* is the structure's tag. Its value is associated with the beginning of the structure. If no *stag* is present, the assembler puts the structure members in the global symbol table with the value of their absolute offset from the top of the structure. The *stag* is optional for **.struct**, but is required for **.tag**.
- The *expr* is an optional expression indicating the beginning offset of the structure. The default starting point for a structure is 0.
- The *mem*_{*n*} is an optional label for a member of the structure. This label is absolute and equates to the present offset from the beginning of the structure. A label for a structure member cannot be declared global.
- The *element* is one of the following descriptors: **.byte**, **.char**, **.int**, **.long**, **.word**, **.double**, **.half**, **.short**, **.string**, **.float**, **.field**, and **.tag**. All of these except **.tag** are typical directives that initialize memory. Following a **.struct** directive, these directives describe the structure element's size. They do not allocate memory. The **.tag** directive is a special case because *stag* must be used (as in the definition of *stag*).
- The *expr*_{*n*} is an optional expression for the number of elements described. This value defaults to 1. A **.string** element is considered to be one byte in size, and a **.field** element is one bit.
- The *size* is an optional label for the total size of the structure.

Directives that Can Appear in a .struct/.endstruct Sequence

NOTE: The only directives that can appear in a **.struct/.endstruct** sequence are element descriptors, conditional assembly directives, and the **.align** directive, which aligns the member offsets on word boundaries. Empty structures are illegal.

The following examples show various uses of the .struct, .tag, and .endstruct directives.

Example 1

```

1REAL_REC .struct
2      0000000000000000 NOM      .int
3      0000000000000004 DEN      .int
4      0000000000000008 REAL_LEN .endstruct
5
6 00000000      .bss REAL, REAL_LEN
7
8 00000000 000000240000E0! LDI r0, REAL
9 00000004 000000F1042084 LBBO &r4, r0, REAL_REC.DEN,
   $sizeof(REAL_REC.DEN)
10 00000008 00000000E4E1E1 ADD r1, r1, r4
11

```

Example 2

```

12CPLX_REC .struct
13      0000000000000000 REALI   .tag REAL_REC
14      0000000000000008 IMAGI   .tag REAL_REC
15      0000000000000010 CPLX_LEN .endstruct
16
17 00000000      .data
18COMPLEX .tag CPLX_REC
19 00000000      COMPLEX .space CPLX_LEN
20
21 0000000c      .text
22
23 0000000c 000000240000E0! LDI r0, COMPLEX.REALI.NOM
24 00000010 000000F1002084 LBBO &r4, r0, 0, $sizeof(REAL_REC.NOM)
25 00000014 00000000E4E1E1 ADD r1, r1, r4
26

```

Example 3

```

27 .struct
28
29      0000000000000000 X .int
30      0000000000000004 Y .int
31      0000000000000008 Z .int
32
33      000000000000000C .endstruct
34

```

Example 4

```

35BIT_REC .struct
36      0000000000000000 STREAM  .string 64
37      0000000000000040 BIT7    .field 7
38      0000000000000040 BIT8    .field 9
39      0000000000000042 BIT10   .field 10
40      0000000000000044 X_INT   .int
41      0000000000000048 BIT_LEN .endstruct
42

```

.symdepend/.weak *Affect Symbol Linkage and Visibility*

Syntax

```
.symdepend dst symbol name[, src symbol name]  
.weak symbol name
```

Description

These directives are used to affect symbol linkage and visibility.

The **.symdepend** directive creates an artificial reference from the section defining *src symbol name* to the symbol *dst symbol name*. This prevents the linker from removing the section containing *dst symbol name* if the section defining *src symbol name* is included in the output module. If *src symbol name* is not specified, a reference from the current section is created.

The **.weak** directive identifies a symbol that is used in the current module but is defined in another module. The linker resolves this symbol's definition at link time. Instead of including a weak symbol in the output file's symbol table by default (as it would for a global symbol), the linker only includes a weak symbol in the output of a "final" link if the symbol is required to resolve an otherwise unresolved reference. See [Section 2.6.2](#) for details about how weak symbols are handled by the linker.

The **.weak** directive is equivalent to the **.ref** directive, except that the reference has weak linkage.

A global *symbol* is defined in the same manner as any other symbol; that is, it appears as a label or is defined by the **.set**, **.equ**, **.bss**, or **.usect** directive. If a global symbol is defined more than once, the linker issues a multiple-definition error. (The assembler can provide a similar multiple-definition error for local symbols.) The **.weak** directive always creates a symbol table entry for a symbol, whether the module uses the symbol or not; **.symdepend**, however, creates an entry only if the module actually uses the symbol.

A symbol can be declared global in either of the following ways:

- If the symbol is *not defined in the current module* (which includes macro, copy, and include files), use the **.weak** directive to tell the assembler that the symbol is defined in an external module. This prevents the assembler from issuing an unresolved reference error. At link time, the linker looks for the symbol's definition in other modules.
- If the symbol is *defined in the current module*, use the **.symdepend** directive to declare that the symbol and its definition can be used externally by other modules. These types of references are resolved at link time.

For example, use the **.weak** and **.set** directives in combination as shown in the following example, which defines a weak absolute symbol "ext_addr_sym":

```
ext_addr_sym    .weak    ext_addr_sym  
                .set     0x12345678
```

If you assemble such assembly source and include the resulting object file in the link, the "ext_addr_sym" in this example is available as a weak absolute symbol in a final link. It is a candidate for removal if the symbol is not referenced elsewhere in the application.

.tab *Define Tab Size*
Syntax `.tab size`
Description The **.tab** directive defines the tab size. Tabs encountered in the source input are translated to *size* character spaces in the listing. The default tab size is eight spaces.

Example In this example, each of the lines of code following a **.tab** statement consists of a single tab character followed by an NOP instruction.

Source file:

```

; default tab size
NOP
NOP
NOP
    .tab 4
NOP
NOP
NOP
    .tab 16
NOP
NOP
NOP

```

Listing file:

```

1          ; default tab size
2 00000000 E1A00000      NOP
3 00000004 E1A00000      NOP
4 00000008 E1A00000      NOP
5
7 0000000c E1A00000      NOP
8 00000010 E1A00000      NOP
9 00000014 E1A00000      NOP
10
12 00000018 E1A00000      NOP
13 0000001c E1A00000      NOP
14 00000020 E1A00000      NOP

```

.text *Assemble Into the .text Section*

Syntax
.text
Description

The **.text** sets `.text` as the current section. Lines that follow this directive will be assembled into the `.text` section, which usually contains executable code. The section program counter is set to 0 if nothing has yet been assembled into the `.text` section. If code has already been assembled into the `.text` section, the section program counter is restored to its previous value in the section.

The `.text` section is the default section. Therefore, at the beginning of an assembly, the assembler assembles code into the `.text` section unless you use a `.data` or `.sect` directive to specify a different section.

For more information about sections, see [Chapter 2](#).

Example

This example assembles code into the `.text` and `.data` sections.

```

;*****
;** Begin assembling into .text section. **
;*****
    .text
    ADD r0, r0, r1

;*****
;** Begin assembling into .data section. **
;*****
    .data
    .byte  0Ch, 0Dh

;*****
;** Resume assembling into .text section.**
;*****
    .text
    .string "QUIT"
  
```

.title	Define Page Title
Syntax	.title "string"
Description	<p>The .title directive supplies a title that is printed in the heading on each listing page. The source statement itself is not printed, but the line counter is incremented.</p> <p>The <i>string</i> is a quote-enclosed title of up to 64 characters. If you supply more than 64 characters, the assembler truncates the string and issues a warning:</p> <pre>*** WARNING! line x: W0001: String is too long - will be truncated</pre> <p>The assembler prints the title on the page that follows the directive and on subsequent pages until another .title directive is processed. If you want a title on the first page, the first source statement must contain a .title directive.</p>
Example	<p>In this example, one title is printed on the first page and a different title is printed on succeeding pages.</p> <p>Source file:</p> <pre> .title "**** Fast Fourier Transforms ****" ; ; ; .title "**** Floating-Point Routines ****" .page </pre> <p>Listing file:</p> <pre> PRU Assembler Version x.xx Day Time Year Copyright (c) 2012-2014 Texas Instruments Incorporated **** Fast Fourier Transforms **** PAGE 1 2 ; . 3 ; . 4 ; . PRU Assembler Version x.xx Day Time Year Copyright (c) 2012-2014 Texas Instruments Incorporated **** Floating-Point Routines **** PAGE 2 </pre> <p>No Errors, No Warnings</p>

.union/.endunion/.tag *Declare Union Type*

Syntax

```
[stag]   .union   [expr]
[mem0]  element  [expr0]
[mem1]  element  [expr1]
.        .        .
.        .        .
.        .        .
[memn]  .tag stag  [exprn]
.        .        .
.        .        .
[memN]  element  [exprN]
[size]   .endunion
label    .tag     stag
```

Description

The **.union** directive assigns symbolic offsets to the elements of alternate data structure definitions to be allocated in the same memory space. This enables you to define several alternate structures and then let the assembler calculate the element offset. This is similar to a C union. The **.union** directive does not allocate any memory; it merely creates a symbolic template that can be used repeatedly.

A **.struct** definition can contain a **.union** definition, and **.structs** and **.unions** can be nested.

The **.endunion** directive terminates the union definition.

The **.tag** directive gives structure or union characteristics to a *label*, simplifying the symbolic representation and providing the ability to define structures or unions that contain other structures or unions. The **.tag** directive does not allocate memory. The structure or union tag of a **.tag** directive must have been previously defined.

Following are descriptions of the parameters used with the **.struct**, **.endstruct**, and **.tag** directives:

- The *utag* is the union's tag. Its value is associated with the beginning of the union. If no *utag* is present, the assembler puts the union members in the global symbol table with the value of their absolute offset from the top of the union. In this case, each member must have a unique name.
- The *expr* is an optional expression indicating the beginning offset of the union. Unions default to start at 0. This parameter can only be used with a top-level union. It cannot be used when defining a nested union.
- The *mem_{n/N}* is an optional label for a member of the union. This label is absolute and equates to the present offset from the beginning of the union. A label for a union member cannot be declared global.
- The *element* is one of the following descriptors: **.byte**, **.char**, **.int**, **.long**, **.word**, **.double**, **.half**, **.short**, **.string**, **.float**, and **.field**. An element can also be a complete declaration of a nested structure or union, or a structure or union declared by its tag. Following a **.union** directive, these directives describe the element's size. They do not allocate memory.
- The *expr_{n/N}* is an optional expression for the number of elements described. This value defaults to 1. A **.string** element is considered to be one byte in size, and a **.field** element is one bit.
- The *size* is an optional label for the total size of the union.

Directives that Can Appear in a .union/.endunion Sequence

NOTE: The only directives that can appear in a .union/.endunion sequence are element descriptors, structure and union tags, and conditional assembly directives. Empty structures are illegal.

These examples show unions with and without tags.

Example 1

```

1          .global employid
2          xample      .union                ; utag
3          0000 ival    .word                ; member1 = int
4          0000 fval    .float               ; member2 = float
5          0000 sval    .string              ; member3 = string
6          0002 real_len .endunion          ; real_len = 2
7
8 000000          .bss employid, real_len ;allocate memory
9
10          employid  .tag xample           ; name an instance
11 000000 0000-    ADD  employid.fval, A   ; access union element

```

Example 2

```

1
2          ; utag
3          0000 x      .long                ; member1 = long
4          0000 y      .float               ; member2 = float
5          0000 z      .word                ; member3 = word
6          0002 size_u .endunion          ; real_len = 2
7

```

.usect	Reserve Uninitialized Space
Syntax	<i>symbol .usect "section name", size in bytes[, alignment[, bank offset]]</i>
Description	<p>The .usect directive reserves space for variables in an uninitialized, named section. This directive is similar to the .bss directive; both simply reserve space for data and that space has no contents. However, .usect defines additional sections that can be placed anywhere in memory, independently of the .bss section.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The <i>symbol</i> points to the first location reserved by this invocation of the .usect directive. The symbol corresponds to the name of the variable for which you are reserving space. • The <i>section name</i> must be enclosed in double quotes. This parameter names the uninitialized section. A section name can contain a subsection name in the form <i>section name : subsection name</i>. • The <i>size in</i> is an expression that defines the number of that are reserved in <i>section name</i>. • The <i>alignment</i> is an optional parameter that ensures that the space allocated to the symbol occurs on the specified boundary. The boundary can be set to any power of 2. • The <i>bank offset</i> is an optional parameter that ensures that the space allocated to the symbol occurs on a specific memory bank boundary. The bank offset value measures the number of bytes to offset from the alignment specified before assigning the symbol to that location. <p>Initialized sections directives (.text, .data, and .sect) tell the assembler to pause assembling into the current section and begin assembling into another section. A .usect or .bss directive encountered in the current section is simply assembled, and assembly continues in the current section.</p> <p>Variables that can be located contiguously in memory can be defined in the same specified section; to do so, repeat the .usect directive with the same section name and the subsequent symbol (variable name).</p> <p>For more information about sections, see Chapter 2.</p>
Example	<p>This example uses the .usect directive to define two uninitialized, named sections, var1 and var2. The symbol ptr points to the first byte reserved in the var1 section. The symbol array points to the first byte in a block of 100 bytes reserved in var1, and dflag points to the first byte in a block of 50 bytes in var1. The symbol vec points to the first byte reserved in the var2 section.</p>

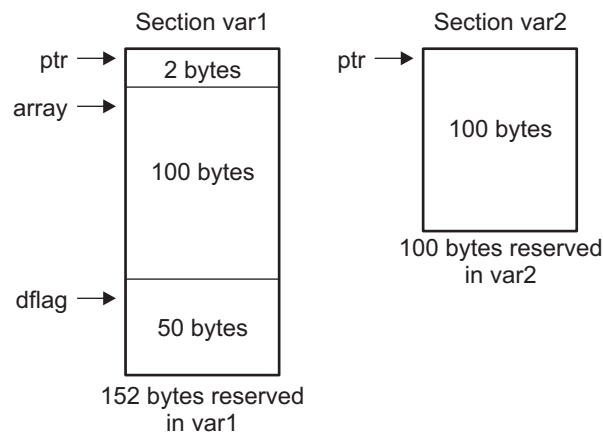
Figure 5-8 shows how this example reserves space in two uninitialized sections, var1 and var2.

```

1          *****
2          **          Assemble into the .text section.          **
3          *****
4 00000000          .text
5 00000000 E3A01003          LDI          R1, 03h
6
7          *****
8          **          Reserve 1 byte in the var1 section.          **
9          *****
10 00000000 ptr          .usect "var1", 1
11
12          *****
13          **          Reserve 100 bytes in the var1 section.          **
14          *****
15 00000001 array          .usect "var1", 100
16
17 00000004 E281001F          ADD          R0, R1, 037 ; Still in .text
18
19          *****
20          **          Reserve 50 bytes in the var1 section.          **
21          *****
22 00000065 dflag          .usect "var1", 50
23
24 00000008 E2812064          ADD          R2, R1, dflag - array ; Still in .text
25
26          *****
27          **          Reserve 100 bytes in the var2 section.          **
28          *****
29 00000000 vec          .usect "var2", 100
30
31 0000000c E0824000          ADD          R4, R2, R0 ; Still in .text
32          *****
33          **          Declare a .usect symbol to be external.          **
34          *****
35          .global array

```

Figure 5-8. The .usect Directive



.unasg/.undefine **Turn Off Substitution Symbol**

Syntax

```
.unasg symbol
.undefine symbol
```

Description

The **.unasg** and **.undefine** directives remove the definition of a substitution symbol created using **.asg** or **.define**. The named *symbol* will be removed from the substitution symbol table from the point of the **.undefine** or **.unasg** to the end of the assembly file. See [Section 4.7.8](#) for more information on substitution symbols.

These directives can be used to remove from the assembly environment any C/C++ macros that may cause a problem. See [Chapter 13](#) for more information about using C/C++ headers in assembly source.

.var **Use Substitution Symbols as Local Variables**

Syntax

```
.var sym1 [, sym2 , ... , symn ]
```

Description

The **.var** directive allows you to use substitution symbols as local variables within a macro. With this directive, you can define up to 32 local macro substitution symbols (including parameters) per macro.

The **.var** directive creates temporary substitution symbols with the initial value of the null string. These symbols are not passed in as parameters, and they are lost after expansion.

See [Section 4.7.8](#) for more information on substitution symbols. See [Chapter 6](#) for information on macros.

Macro Language Description

The PRU assembler supports a macro language that enables you to create your own instructions. This is especially useful when a program executes a particular task several times. The macro language lets you:

- Define your own macros and redefine existing macros
- Simplify long or complicated assembly code
- Access macro libraries created with the archiver
- Define conditional and repeatable blocks within a macro
- Manipulate strings within a macro
- Control expansion listing

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6.1 Using Macros

Programs often contain routines that are executed several times. Instead of repeating the source statements for a routine, you can define the routine as a macro, then call the macro in the places where you would normally repeat the routine. This simplifies and shortens your source program.

If you want to call a macro several times but with different data each time, you can assign parameters within a macro. This enables you to pass different information to the macro each time you call it. The macro language supports a special symbol called a *substitution symbol*, which is used for macro parameters. See [Section 6.3](#) for more information.

Using a macro is a 3-step process.

- Step 1. **Define the macro.** You must define macros before you can use them in your program. There are two methods for defining macros:
 - a. Macros can be defined at the beginning of a *source file* or in a copy/include file. See [Section 6.2, Defining Macros](#), for more information.
 - b. Macros can also be defined in a *macro library*. A macro library is a collection of files in archive format created by the archiver. Each member of the archive file (macro library) may contain one macro definition corresponding to the member name. You can access a macro library by using the `.mlib` directive. For more information, see [Section 6.4](#).
- Step 2. **Call the macro.** After you have defined a macro, call it by using the macro name as a mnemonic in the source program. This is referred to as a *macro call*.
- Step 3. **Expand the macro.** The assembler expands your macros when the source program calls them. During expansion, the assembler passes arguments by variable to the macro parameters, replaces the macro call statement with the macro definition, then assembles the source code. By default, the macro expansions are printed in the listing file. You can turn off expansion listing by using the `.mnlst` directive. For more information, see [Section 6.8](#).

When the assembler encounters a macro definition, it places the macro name in the opcode table. This redefines any previously defined macro, library entry, directive, or instruction mnemonic that has the same name as the macro. This allows you to expand the functions of directives and instructions, as well as to add new instructions.

6.2 Defining Macros

You can define a macro anywhere in your program, but you must define the macro before you can use it. Macros can be defined at the beginning of a source file or in a `.copy/.include` file (see [Copy Source File](#)); they can also be defined in a macro library. For more information about macro libraries, see [Section 6.4](#).

Macro definitions can be nested, and they can call other macros, but all elements of the macro must be defined in the same file. Nested macros are discussed in [Section 6.9](#).

A macro definition is a series of source statements in the following format:

```

macname  .macro [parameter1] [, ... , parametern]
           model statements or macro directives
           [.mexit]
           .endm

```

macname names the macro. You must place the name in the source statement's label field. Only the first 128 characters of a macro name are significant. The assembler places the macro name in the internal opcode table, replacing any instruction or previous macro definition with the same name.

.macro is the directive that identifies the source statement as the first line of a macro definition. You must place `.macro` in the opcode field.

*parameter*₁,
*parameter*_{*n*} are optional substitution symbols that appear as operands for the `.macro` directive. Parameters are discussed in [Section 6.3](#).

<i>model statements</i>	are instructions or assembler directives that are executed each time the macro is called.
<i>macro directives</i>	are used to control macro expansion.
.mexit	is a directive that functions as a <i>goto .endm</i> . The <i>.mexit</i> directive is useful when error testing confirms that macro expansion fails and completing the rest of the macro is unnecessary.
.endm	is the directive that terminates the macro definition.

If you want to include comments with your macro definition but *do not* want those comments to appear in the macro expansion, use an exclamation point to precede your comments. If you *do* want your comments to appear in the macro expansion, use an asterisk or semicolon. See [Section 6.7](#) for more information about macro comments.

[Example 6-1](#) shows the definition, call, and expansion of a macro.

Example 6-1. Macro Definition, Call, and Expansion

Macro definition: The following code defines a macro, `add3`, with four parameters:

```

1          *
2
3          *      add3
4          *
5          *      ADDR = P1 + P2 + P3
6
7          add3  .macro P1, P2, P3, ADDR
8
9              ADD  ADDR, P1, P2
10             ADD  ADDR, ADDR, P3
11             .endm
    
```

Macro call: The following code calls the `add3` macro with four arguments:

```

12
13 00000000          add3 R1, R2, R3, R0
    
```

Macro expansion: The following code shows the substitution of the macro definition for the macro call. The assembler substitutes `R1`, `R2`, `R3`, and `R0` for the `P1`, `P2`, `P3`, and `ADDR` parameters of `add3`.

```

1
1      00000000 E0810002          ADD  R0, R1, R2
1      00000004 E0800003          ADD  R0, R0, R3
    
```

6.3 Macro Parameters/Substitution Symbols

If you want to call a macro several times with different data each time, you can assign parameters within the macro. The macro language supports a special symbol, called a *substitution symbol*, which is used for macro parameters.

Macro parameters are substitution symbols that represent a character string. These symbols can also be used outside of macros to equate a character string to a symbol name (see [Section 4.7.8](#)).

Valid substitution symbols can be up to 128 characters long and *must begin with a letter*. The remainder of the symbol can be a combination of alphanumeric characters, underscores, and dollar signs.

Substitution symbols used as macro parameters are local to the macro they are defined in. You can define up to 32 local substitution symbols (including substitution symbols defined with the `.var` directive) per macro. For more information about the `.var` directive, see [Section 6.3.6](#).

During macro expansion, the assembler passes arguments by variable to the macro parameters. The character-string equivalent of each argument is assigned to the corresponding parameter. Parameters without corresponding arguments are set to the null string. If the number of arguments exceeds the number of parameters, the last parameter is assigned the character-string equivalent of all remaining arguments.

If you pass a list of arguments to one parameter or if you pass a comma or semicolon to a parameter, you must surround these terms with quotation marks.

At assembly time, the assembler replaces the macro parameter/substitution symbol with its corresponding character string, then translates the source code into object code.

[Example 6-2](#) shows the expansion of a macro with varying numbers of arguments.

Example 6-2. Calling a Macro With Varying Numbers of Arguments

Macro definition:

```

Parms    .macro      a,b,c
;        a = :a:
;        b = :b:
;        c = :c:
        .endm
  
```

Calling the macro:

<pre> Parms 100,label ; a = 100 ; b = label ; c = "" </pre>	<pre> Parms 100,label,x,y ; a = 100 ; b = label ; c = x,y </pre>
<pre> Parms 100, , x ; a = 100 ; b = "" ; c = x </pre>	<pre> Parms "100,200,300",x,y ; a = 100,200,300 ; b = x ; c = y </pre>
<pre> Parms ""string"",x,y ; a = "string" ; b = x ; c = y </pre>	

6.3.1 Directives That Define Substitution Symbols

You can manipulate substitution symbols with the **.asg** and **.eval** directives.

- The **.asg** directive assigns a character string to a substitution symbol.

For the **.asg** directive, the quotation marks are optional. If there are no quotation marks, the assembler reads characters up to the first comma and removes leading and trailing blanks. In either case, a character string is read and assigned to the *substitution symbol*. The syntax of the **.asg** directive is:

```
.asg["]character string["], substitution symbol
```

[Example 6-3](#) shows character strings being assigned to substitution symbols.

Example 6-3. The **.asg** Directive

```
.asg R2, stack_ptr ; stack pointer
```

- The **.eval** directive performs arithmetic on numeric substitution symbols.

The **.eval** directive evaluates the *expression* and assigns the string value of the result to the *substitution symbol*. If the expression is not well defined, the assembler generates an error and assigns the null string to the symbol. The syntax of the **.eval** directive is:

```
.eval well-defined expression , substitution symbol
```

[Example 6-4](#) shows arithmetic being performed on substitution symbols.

Example 6-4. The **.eval** Directive

```
.asg 1,counter
.loop 100
.word counter
.eval counter + 1,counter
.endloop
```

In [Example 6-4](#), the **.asg** directive could be replaced with the **.eval** directive (**.eval 1, counter**) without changing the output. In simple cases like this, you can use **.eval** and **.asg** interchangeably. However, you must use **.eval** if you want to calculate a *value* from an expression. While **.asg** only assigns a character string to a substitution symbol, **.eval** evaluates an expression and then assigns the character string equivalent to a substitution symbol.

See [Assign a Substitution Symbol](#) for more information about the **.asg** and **.eval** assembler directives.

6.3.2 Built-In Substitution Symbol Functions

The following built-in substitution symbol functions enable you to make decisions on the basis of the string value of substitution symbols. These functions always return a value, and they can be used in expressions. Built-in substitution symbol functions are especially useful in conditional assembly expressions. Parameters of these functions are substitution symbols or character-string constants.

In the function definitions shown in [Table 6-1](#), *a* and *b* are parameters that represent substitution symbols or character-string constants. The term *string* refers to the string value of the parameter. The symbol *ch* represents a character constant.

Table 6-1. Substitution Symbol Functions and Return Values

Function	Return Value
\$symlen (<i>a</i>)	Length of string <i>a</i>
\$symcmp (<i>a,b</i>)	< 0 if <i>a</i> < <i>b</i> ; 0 if <i>a</i> = <i>b</i> ; > 0 if <i>a</i> > <i>b</i>
\$firstch (<i>a,ch</i>)	Index of the first occurrence of character constant <i>ch</i> in string <i>a</i>
\$lastch (<i>a,ch</i>)	Index of the last occurrence of character constant <i>ch</i> in string <i>a</i>
\$isdefed (<i>a</i>)	1 if string <i>a</i> is defined in the symbol table 0 if string <i>a</i> is not defined in the symbol table
\$ismember (<i>a,b</i>)	Top member of list <i>b</i> is assigned to string <i>a</i> 0 if <i>b</i> is a null string
\$iscons (<i>a</i>)	1 if string <i>a</i> is a binary constant 2 if string <i>a</i> is an octal constant 3 if string <i>a</i> is a hexadecimal constant 4 if string <i>a</i> is a character constant 5 if string <i>a</i> is a decimal constant
\$isname (<i>a</i>)	1 if string <i>a</i> is a valid symbol name 0 if string <i>a</i> is not a valid symbol name
\$isreg (<i>a</i>) ⁽¹⁾	1 if string <i>a</i> is a valid predefined register name 0 if string <i>a</i> is not a valid predefined register name

⁽¹⁾ For more information about predefined register names, see [Section 4.7.6](#).

[Example 6-5](#) shows built-in substitution symbol functions.

Example 6-5. Using Built-In Substitution Symbol Functions

```
.asg  label, ADDR                ; ADDR = label
.if   ($symcmp(ADDR, "label") = 0) ; evaluates to true
LDI   R4, ADDR
.endif
.asg  "x,y,z" , list             ; list = x,y,z
.if   ($ismember(ADDR,list))    ; ADDR = x, list = y,z
SUB   R4, R4, 4                 ; sub x
.endif
```

6.3.3 Recursive Substitution Symbols

When the assembler encounters a substitution symbol, it attempts to substitute the corresponding character string. If that string is also a substitution symbol, the assembler performs substitution again. The assembler continues doing this until it encounters a token that is not a substitution symbol or until it encounters a substitution symbol that it has already encountered during this evaluation.

In [Example 6-6](#), the x is substituted for z; z is substituted for y; and y is substituted for x. The assembler recognizes this as infinite recursion and ceases substitution.

Example 6-6. Recursive Substitution

```
.asg "x",z ; declare z and assign z = "x"
.asg "z",y ; declare y and assign y = "z"
.asg "y",x ; declare x and assign x = "y"
LDI R0, x

* LDI R0, x ; recursive expansion
```

6.3.4 Forced Substitution

In some cases, substitution symbols are not recognizable to the assembler. The forced substitution operator, which is a set of colons surrounding the symbol, enables you to force the substitution of a symbol's character string. Simply enclose a symbol with colons to force the substitution. Do not include any spaces between the colons and the symbol. The syntax for the forced substitution operator is:

```
:symbol:
```

The assembler expands substitution symbols surrounded by colons before expanding other substitution symbols.

You can use the forced substitution operator only inside macros, and you cannot nest a forced substitution operator within another forced substitution operator.

Example 6-7 shows how the forced substitution operator is used.

Example 6-7. Using the Forced Substitution Operator

```

1          force .macro
2          .asg  0,x
3          .loop 8
4          AUX:x: .set  x
5          .eval x+1,x
6          .endloop
7          .endm
8
9 00000000          force
1          .asg  0,x
1          .loop 8
1          AUX:x: .set  x
1          .eval x+1,x
1          .endloop
2          00000000 AUX0 .set  0
2          .eval 0+1,x
2          00000001 AUX1 .set  1
2          .eval 1+1,x
2          00000002 AUX2 .set  2
2          .eval 2+1,x
2          00000003 AUX3 .set  3
2          .eval 3+1,x
2          00000004 AUX4 .set  4
2          .eval 4+1,x
2          00000005 AUX5 .set  5
2          .eval 5+1,x
2          00000006 AUX6 .set  6
2          .eval 6+1,x
2          00000007 AUX7 .set  7
2          .eval 7+1,x
    
```

6.3.5 Accessing Individual Characters of Subscripted Substitution Symbols

In a macro, you can access the individual characters (substrings) of a substitution symbol with subscripted substitution symbols. You must use the forced substitution operator for clarity.

You can access substrings in two ways:

- `:symbol (well-defined expression)`:

This method of subscripting evaluates to a character string with one character.

- `:symbol (well-defined expression1, well-defined expression2)`:

In this method, expression₁ represents the substring's starting position, and expression₂ represents the substring's length. You can specify exactly where to begin subscripting and the exact length of the resulting character string. *The index of substring characters begins with 1, not 0.*

[Example 6-8](#) and [Example 6-9](#) show built-in substitution symbol functions used with subscripted substitution symbols. In [Example 6-8](#), subscripted substitution symbols redefine the ADD instruction so that it handles short immediate values. In [Example 6-9](#), the subscripted substitution symbol is used to find a substring strg1 beginning at position start in the string strg2. The position of the substring strg1 is assigned to the substitution symbol pos.

Example 6-8. Using Subscripted Substitution Symbols to Redefine an Instruction

```

ADDX    .macro    dst, imm
        .var      TMP
        .asg      :imm(1):, TMP
        .if       $symcmp(TMP, "#") = 0
        ADD       dst, dst, imm
        .else
        .emsg     "Bad Macro Parameter"
        .endif
        .endm

ADDX    R9, 100           ; macro call
ADDX    R9, R8           ; macro call
  
```

Example 6-9. Using Subscripted Substitution Symbols to Find Substrings

```

substr  .macro    start, strg1, strg2, pos
        .var      LEN1, LEN2, I, TMP
        .if       $symlen(start) = 0
        .eval     1, start
        .endif
        .eval     0, pos
        .eval     1, i
        .eval     $symlen(strg1), LEN1
        .eval     $symlen(strg2), LEN2
        .loop
        .break    I = (LEN2 - LEN1 + 1)
        .asg      ":strg2(I, LEN1):", TMP
        .eval     i, pos
        .break
        .else
        .eval     I + 1, i
        .endif
        .endloop
        .endm

        .asg      0, pos
        .asg      "ar1 ar2 ar3 ar4", regs
        substr    1, "ar2", regs, pos
        .word     pos
  
```

6.3.6 Substitution Symbols as Local Variables in Macros

If you want to use substitution symbols as local variables within a macro, you can use the `.var` directive to define up to 32 local macro substitution symbols (including parameters) per macro. The `.var` directive creates temporary substitution symbols with the initial value of the null string. These symbols are not passed in as parameters, and they are lost after expansion.

```
.var sym1 [,sym2, ... ,symn]
```

The `.var` directive is used in [Example 6-8](#) and [Example 6-9](#).

6.4 Macro Libraries

One way to define macros is by creating a macro library. A macro library is a collection of files that contain macro definitions. You must use the archiver to collect these files, or members, into a single file (called an archive). Each member of a macro library contains one macro definition. The files in a macro library must be unassembled source files. The macro name and the member name must be the same, and the macro filename's extension must be .asm. For example:

Macro Name	Filename in Macro Library
simple	simple.asm
add3	add3.asm

You can access the macro library by using the `.mlib` assembler directive (described in [Define Macro Library](#)). The syntax is:

```
.mlib filename
```

When the assembler encounters the `.mlib` directive, it opens the library named by filename and creates a table of the library's contents. The assembler enters the names of the individual members within the library into the opcode tables as library entries; this redefines any existing opcodes or macros that have the same name. If one of these macros is called, the assembler extracts the entry from the library and loads it into the macro table.

The assembler expands the library entry the same way it expands other macros. See [Section 6.1](#) for how the assembler expands macros. You can control the listing of library entry expansions with the `.mlist` directive. For information about the `.mlist` directive, see [Section 6.8](#) and [Start/Stop Macro Expansion Listing](#). Only macros that are actually called from the library are extracted, and they are extracted only once.

You can use the archiver to create a macro library by including the desired files in an archive. A macro library is no different from any other archive, except that the assembler expects the macro library to contain macro definitions. The assembler expects *only* macro definitions in a macro library; putting object code or miscellaneous source files into the library may produce undesirable results. For information about creating a macro library archive, see [Section 7.1](#).

6.5 Using Conditional Assembly in Macros

The conditional assembly directives are `.if/.elseif/.else/.endif` and `.loop/.break/.endloop`. They can be nested within each other up to 32 levels deep. The format of a conditional block is:

```
.if well-defined expression
[.elseif well-defined expression]
[.else]
.endif
```

The `.elseif` and `.else` directives are optional in conditional assembly. The `.elseif` directive can be used more than once within a conditional assembly code block. When `.elseif` and `.else` are omitted and when the `.if` expression is false (0), the assembler continues to the code following the `.endif` directive. See [Assemble Conditional Blocks](#) for more information on the `.if/.elseif/.else/.endif` directives.

The `.loop/.break/.endloop` directives enable you to assemble a code block repeatedly. The format of a repeatable block is:

```
.loop [well-defined expression]
[.break [well-defined expression]]
.endloop
```

The **.loop** directive's optional *well-defined expression* evaluates to the loop count (the number of loops to be performed). If the expression is omitted, the loop count defaults to 1024 unless the assembler encounters a **.break** directive with an expression that is true (nonzero). See [Assemble Conditional Blocks Repeatedly](#) for more information on the **.loop/.break/.endloop** directives.

The **.break** directive and its expression are optional in repetitive assembly. If the expression evaluates to false, the loop continues. The assembler breaks the loop when the **.break** expression evaluates to true or when the **.break** expression is omitted. When the loop is broken, the assembler continues with the code after the **.endloop** directive. For more information, see [Section 5.7](#).

[Example 6-10](#), [Example 6-11](#), and [Example 6-12](#) show the **.loop/.break/.endloop** directives, properly nested conditional assembly directives, and built-in substitution symbol functions used in a conditional assembly code block.

Example 6-10. The **.loop/.break/.endloop** Directives

```
.asg    1,x
.loop

.break  (x == 10) ; if x == 10, quit loop/break with expression

.eval   x+1,x
.endloop
```

Example 6-11. Nested Conditional Assembly Directives

```
.asg    1,x
.loop

.if     (x == 10) ; if x == 10, quit loop
.break  (x == 10) ; force break
.endif

.eval   x+1,x
.endloop
```

Example 6-12. Built-In Substitution Symbol Functions in a Conditional Assembly Code Block

```
.fcno list
*
*Double Add or Subtract
*
DBL     .macro ABC, dsth, dstl, srch, srcl ; add or subtract double

        .if     $symcmp(ABC, "+")
        ADD     dstl, dstl, srcl          ; add double
        ADC     dsth, dsth, srch

        .elseif $symcmp(ABC, "-")
        SUB     dstl, dstl, srcl          ; subtract double
        SUBC    dsth, dsth, srch

        .else
        .emsg   "Incorrect Operator Parameter"

        .endif

        .endm

*Macro Call
DBL     -, R4, R5, R6, R7
```

6.6 Using Labels in Macros

All labels in an assembly language program must be unique. This includes labels in macros. If a macro is expanded more than once, its labels are defined more than once. *Defining a label more than once is illegal.* The macro language provides a method of defining labels in macros so that the labels are unique. Simply follow each label with a question mark, and the assembler replaces the question mark with a period followed by a unique number. When the macro is expanded, *you do not see the unique number in the listing file.* Your label appears with the question mark as it did in the macro definition. You cannot declare this label as global. See [Section 4.7.3](#) for more about labels.

The syntax for a unique label is:

label ?

unique label generation in a macro. The maximum label length is shortened to allow for the unique suffix. For example, if the macro is expanded fewer than 10 times, the maximum label length is 126 characters. If the macro is expanded from 10 to 99 times, the maximum label length is 125. The label with its unique suffix is shown in the cross-listing file. To obtain a cross-listing file, invoke the assembler with the `--cross_reference` option (see [Section 4.3](#)).

Example 6-13. Unique Labels in a Macro

```

1
2
3
4sign_extend_32_8 .macro dest, src
5    MOV  dest, src
6    QBBC $1, dest, 7
7    FILL &dest.b1, 3
8end?:
9    .endm
10
11
12 .global sign_extend
13 00000000          sign_extend
14 00000000          sign_extend_32_8 R14, R14.b0
1 00000000 000000100E0EEE    MOV  R14, R14.b0
1 00000004 000000C907EE02    QBBC $1, R14, 7
1 00000008 0000002EFF012E    FILL &R14.b1, 3
1    end?
15 0000000c 00000020C30000    JMP  R3.w2

```

6.7 Producing Messages in Macros

The macro language supports three directives that enable you to define your own assembly-time error and warning messages. These directives are especially useful when you want to create messages specific to your needs. The last line of the listing file shows the error and warning counts. These counts alert you to problems in your code and are especially useful during debugging.

- .emsg** sends error messages to the listing file. The `.emsg` directive generates errors in the same manner as the assembler, incrementing the error count and preventing the assembler from producing an object file.
- .mmsg** sends assembly-time messages to the listing file. The `.mmsg` directive functions in the same manner as the `.emsg` directive but does not set the error count or prevent the creation of an object file.
- .wmsg** sends warning messages to the listing file. The `.wmsg` directive functions in the same manner as the `.emsg` directive, but it increments the warning count and does not prevent the generation of an object file.

Macro comments are comments that appear in the definition of the macro *but do not show up in the expansion of the macro*. An exclamation point in column 1 identifies a macro comment. If you want your comments to appear in the macro expansion, precede your comment with an asterisk or semicolon.

[Example 6-14](#) shows user messages in macros and macro comments that do not appear in the macro expansion.

For more information about the `.emsg`, `.mmsg`, and `.wmsg` assembler directives, see [Define Messages](#).

Example 6-14. Producing Messages in a Macro

```

1          MUL_I .macro x,y
2              .if ($symlen(x) ==0)
3                  .emsg "ERROR -- Missing Parameter"
4                  .mexit
5              .elseif ($symlen(y) == 0)
6                  .emsg "ERROR -- Missing Parameter"
7                  .mexit
8              .else
9                  ...
10             .endif
11             .endm
12
13
14
15 00000000    MUL_I 50, 51
1          .if ($symlen(x) ==0)
1              .emsg "ERROR -- Missing Parameter"
1              .mexit
1          .elseif ($symlen(y) == 0)
1              .emsg "ERROR -- Missing Parameter"
1              .mexit
1          .else
1              ...
1          .endif
16
17 0000000c    MUL_I
1          .if ($symlen(x) ==0)
1              .emsg "ERROR -- Missing Parameter"
1          ***** USER ERROR ***** - : ERROR -- Missing Parameter
1              .mexit
1 Error, No Warnings
    
```

6.8 Using Directives to Format the Output Listing

Macros, substitution symbols, and conditional assembly directives may hide information. You may need to see this hidden information, so the macro language supports an expanded listing capability.

By default, the assembler shows macro expansions and false conditional blocks in the list output file. You may want to turn this listing off or on within your listing file. Four sets of directives enable you to control the listing of this information:

- **Macro and loop expansion listing**

.mlist expands macros and `.loop/.endloop` blocks. The `.mlist` directive prints all code encountered in those blocks.

.mnolist suppresses the listing of macro expansions and `.loop/ .endloop` blocks.

For macro and loop expansion listing, `.mlist` is the default.

- **False conditional block listing**

.fclist causes the assembler to include in the listing file all conditional blocks that do not generate code (false conditional blocks). Conditional blocks appear in the listing exactly as they appear in the source code.

.fcnolist suppresses the listing of false conditional blocks. Only the code in conditional blocks that actually assemble appears in the listing. The `.if`, `.elseif`, `.else`, and `.endif` directives do not appear in the listing.

For false conditional block listing, `.fclist` is the default.

- **Substitution symbol expansion listing**

.sslist expands substitution symbols in the listing. This is useful for debugging the expansion of substitution symbols. The expanded line appears below the actual source line.

.ssnolist turns off substitution symbol expansion in the listing.

For substitution symbol expansion listing, `.ssnolist` is the default.

- **Directive listing**

.drlist causes the assembler to print to the listing file all directive lines.

.drnolist suppresses the printing of certain directives in the listing file. These directives are `.asg`, `.eval`, `.var`, `.sslist`, `.mlist`, `.fclist`, `.ssnolist`, `.mnolist`, `.fcnolist`, `.emsg`, `.wmsg`, `.mmsg`, `.length`, `.width`, and `.break`.

For directive listing, `.drlist` is the default.

6.9 Using Recursive and Nested Macros

The macro language supports recursive and nested macro calls. This means that you can call other macros in a macro definition. You can nest macros up to 32 levels deep. When you use recursive macros, you call a macro from its own definition (the macro calls itself).

When you create recursive or nested macros, you should pay close attention to the arguments that you pass to macro parameters because the assembler uses dynamic scoping for parameters. This means that the called macro uses the environment of the macro from which it was called.

Example 6-15 shows nested macros. The `y` in the `in_block` macro hides the `y` in the `out_block` macro. The `x` and `z` from the `out_block` macro, however, are accessible to the `in_block` macro.

Example 6-15. Using Nested Macros

```

in_block .macro y,a
        .
        ; visible parameters are y,a and x,z from the calling macro
        .endm

out_block .macro x,y,z
        .
        ; visible parameters are x,y,z
        .
        in_block x,y ; macro call with x and y as arguments
        .
        .
        .endm
        out_block ; macro call
  
```

recursive and `fact` macros. The `fact` macro produces assembly code necessary to calculate the factorial of `n`, where `n` is an immediate value. The result is placed in data memory address `loc`. The `fact` macro accomplishes this by calling `fact1`, which calls itself recursively.

Example 6-16. Using Recursive Macros

```

fact .macro N, R26 ; N is an integer constant. Register R26 address = N!
    .if N < 2 ; 0! = 1! = 1
        LDI R26, 1

    .else
        LDI R26, N ; N >= 2 so, store N in R26.
        .eval -1, N ; Decrement N, and do the factorial of N - 1.
        fact1 ; Call fact with current environment.
    .endm

fact1 .macro
    .if N > 1
        LDI R28, N ; N > 1 so, store N in R0
        MOV R29, R26 ; hardware multiplier result register is R26
        XIN 0, &R26, 4
        .eval N - 1, N ; Decrement position.
        fact1 ; Recursive call.

    .endif

    .endm
  
```

6.10 Macro Directives Summary

The directives listed in [Table 6-2](#) through [Table 6-6](#) can be used with macros. The `.macro`, `.mexit`, `.endm` and `.var` directives are valid only with macros; the remaining directives are general assembly language directives.

Table 6-2. Creating Macros

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	See	
		Macro Use	Directive
<code>.endm</code>	End macro definition	Section 6.2	<code>.endm</code>
<code>macname .macro [parameter₁][, ... , parameter_n]</code>	Define macro by <i>macname</i>	Section 6.2	<code>.macro</code>
<code>.mexit</code>	Go to <code>.endm</code>	Section 6.2	Section 6.2
<code>.mlib filename</code>	Identify library containing macro definitions	Section 6.4	<code>.mlib</code>

Table 6-3. Manipulating Substitution Symbols

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	See	
		Macro Use	Directive
<code>.asg ["character string"], substitution symbol</code>	Assign character string to substitution symbol	Section 6.3.1	<code>.asg</code>
<code>.eval well-defined expression, substitution symbol</code>	Perform arithmetic on numeric substitution symbols	Section 6.3.1	<code>.eval</code>
<code>.var sym₁ [, sym₂ , ... , sym_n]</code>	Define local macro symbols	Section 6.3.6	<code>.var</code>

Table 6-4. Conditional Assembly

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	See	
		Macro Use	Directive
<code>.break [well-defined expression]</code>	Optional repeatable block assembly	Section 6.5	<code>.break</code>
<code>.endif</code>	End conditional assembly	Section 6.5	<code>.endif</code>
<code>.endloop</code>	End repeatable block assembly	Section 6.5	<code>.endloop</code>
<code>.else</code>	Optional conditional assembly block	Section 6.5	<code>.else</code>
<code>.elseif well-defined expression</code>	Optional conditional assembly block	Section 6.5	<code>.elseif</code>
<code>.if well-defined expression</code>	Begin conditional assembly	Section 6.5	<code>.if</code>
<code>.loop [well-defined expression]</code>	Begin repeatable block assembly	Section 6.5	<code>.loop</code>

Table 6-5. Producing Assembly-Time Messages

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	See	
		Macro Use	Directive
<code>.emsg</code>	Send error message to standard output	Section 6.7	<code>.emsg</code>
<code>.mmsg</code>	Send assembly-time message to standard output	Section 6.7	<code>.mmsg</code>
<code>.wmsg</code>	Send warning message to standard output	Section 6.7	<code>.wmsg</code>

Table 6-6. Formatting the Listing

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	See	
		Macro Use	Directive
<code>.fclist</code>	Allow false conditional code block listing (default)	Section 6.8	<code>.fclist</code>
<code>.fcnolist</code>	Suppress false conditional code block listing	Section 6.8	<code>.fcnolist</code>
<code>.mlist</code>	Allow macro listings (default)	Section 6.8	<code>.mlist</code>
<code>.mno list</code>	Suppress macro listings	Section 6.8	<code>.mno list</code>
<code>.sslist</code>	Allow expanded substitution symbol listing	Section 6.8	<code>.sslist</code>
<code>.ssnolist</code>	Suppress expanded substitution symbol listing (default)	Section 6.8	<code>.ssnolist</code>

Archiver Description

The PRU archiver lets you combine several individual files into a single archive file. For example, you can collect several macros into a macro library. The assembler searches the library and uses the members that are called as macros by the source file. You can also use the archiver to collect a group of object files into an object library. The linker includes in the library the members that resolve external references during the link. The archiver allows you to modify a library by deleting, replacing, extracting, or adding members.

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7.1 Archiver Overview

You can build libraries from any type of files. Both the assembler and the linker accept archive libraries as input; the assembler can use libraries that contain individual source files, and the linker can use libraries that contain individual object files.

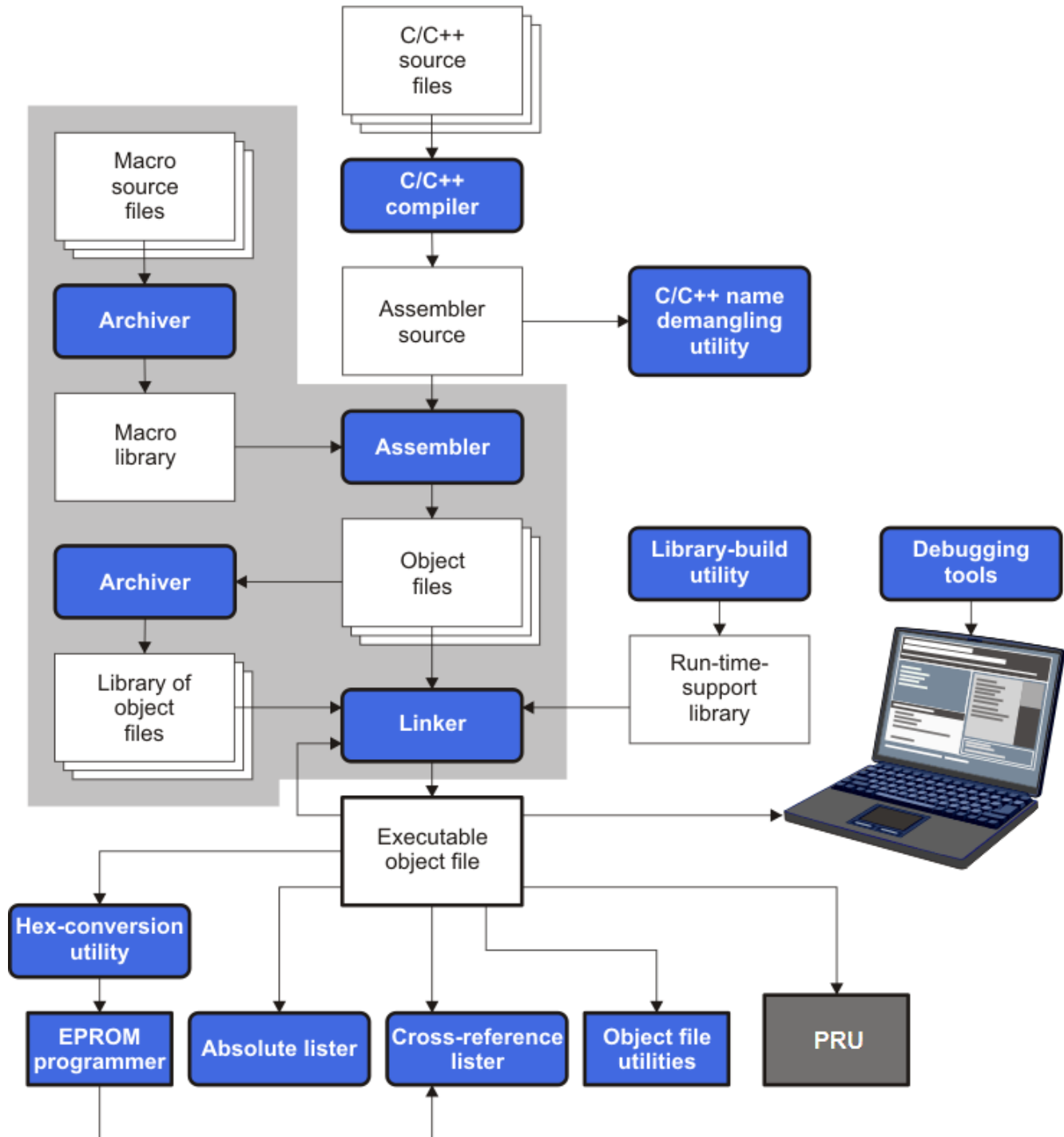
One of the most useful applications of the archiver is building libraries of object modules. For example, you can write several arithmetic routines, assemble them, and use the archiver to collect the object files into a single, logical group. You can then specify the object library as linker input. The linker searches the library and includes members that resolve external references.

You can also use the archiver to build macro libraries. You can create several source files, each of which contains a single macro, and use the archiver to collect these macros into a single, functional group. You can use the `.mlib` directive during assembly to specify that macro library to be searched for the macros that you call. [Chapter 6](#) discusses macros and macro libraries in detail, while this chapter explains how to use the archiver to build libraries.

7.2 The Archiver's Role in the Software Development Flow

Figure 7-1 shows the archiver's role in the software development process. The shaded portion highlights the most common archiver development path. Both the assembler and the linker accept libraries as input.

Figure 7-1. The Archiver in the PRU Software Development Flow



7.3 Invoking the Archiver

To invoke the archiver, enter:

```
arpru[-]command [options] libname [filename1 ... filenamen]
```

arpru	is the command that invokes the archiver.
[-]command	tells the archiver how to manipulate the existing library members and any specified. A command can be preceded by an optional hyphen. You must use one of the following commands when you invoke the archiver, but you can use only one command per invocation. The archiver commands are as follows: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> @ uses the contents of the specified file instead of command line entries. You can use this command to avoid limitations on command line length imposed by the host operating system. Use a ; at the beginning of a line in the command file to include comments. (See Example 7-1 for an example using an archiver command file.) a adds the specified files to the library. This command does not replace an existing member that has the same name as an added file; it simply <i>appends</i> new members to the end of the archive. d deletes the specified members from the library. r replaces the specified members in the library. If you do not specify filenames, the archiver replaces the library members with files of the same name in the current directory. If the specified file is not found in the library, the archiver adds it instead of replacing it. t prints a table of contents of the library. If you specify filenames, only those files are listed. If you do not specify any filenames, the archiver lists all the members in the specified library. x extracts the specified files. If you do not specify member names, the archiver extracts all library members. When the archiver extracts a member, it simply copies the member into the current directory; it <i>does not</i> remove it from the library.
options	In addition to one of the <i>commands</i> , you can specify options. To use options, combine them with a command; for example, to use the a command and the s option, enter -as or as. The hyphen is optional for archiver options only. These are the archiver options: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -q (quiet) suppresses the banner and status messages. -s prints a list of the global symbols that are defined in the library. (This option is valid only with the a, r, and d commands.) -u replaces library members only if the replacement has a more recent modification date. You must use the r command with the -u option to specify which members to replace. -v (verbose) provides a file-by-file description of the creation of a new library from an old library and its members.
libname	names the archive library to be built or modified. If you do not specify an extension for <i>libname</i> , the archiver uses the default extension <i>.lib</i> .
filenames	names individual files to be manipulated. These files can be existing library members or new files to be added to the library. When you enter a filename, you must enter a complete filename including extension, if applicable.

Naming Library Members

NOTE: It is possible (but not desirable) for a library to contain several members with the same name. If you attempt to delete, replace, or extract a member whose name is the same as another library member, the archiver deletes, replaces, or extracts the first library member with that name.

7.4 Archiver Examples

The following are examples of typical archiver operations:

- If you want to create a library called `function.lib` that contains the files `sine.obj`, `cos.obj`, and `flt.obj`, enter:

```
arpru -a function sine.obj cos.obj flt.obj
```

The archiver responds as follows:

```
==> new archive 'function.lib' ==> building new archive 'function.lib'
```

- You can print a table of contents of `function.lib` with the `-t` command, enter:

```
arpru -t function
```

The archiver responds as follows:

FILE NAME	SIZE	DATE
sine.obj	300	Wed Jun 15 10:00:24 2011
cos.obj	300	Wed Jun 15 10:00:30 2011
flt.obj	300	Wed Jun 15 09:59:56 2011

- If you want to add new members to the library, enter:

```
arpru -as function atan.obj
```

The archiver responds as follows:

```
==> symbol defined: '_sin'
==> symbol defined: '$sin'
==> symbol defined: '_cos'
==> symbol defined: '$cos'
==> symbol defined: '_tan'
==> symbol defined: '$tan'
==> symbol defined: '_atan'
==> symbol defined: '$atan'
==> building archive 'function.lib'
```

Because this example does not specify an extension for the libname, the archiver adds the files to the library called `function.lib`. If `function.lib` does not exist, the archiver creates it. (The `-s` option tells the archiver to list the global symbols that are defined in the library.)

- If you want to modify a library member, you can extract it, edit it, and replace it. In this example, assume there is a library named `macros.lib` that contains the members `push.asm`, `pop.asm`, and `swap.asm`.

```
arpru -x macros push.asm
```

The archiver makes a copy of `push.asm` and places it in the current directory; it does not remove `push.asm` from the library. Now you can edit the extracted file. To replace the copy of `push.asm` in the library with the edited copy, enter:

```
arpru -r macros push.asm
```

- If you want to use a command file, specify the command filename after the `-@` command. For example:

```
arpru -@modules.cmd
```

The archiver responds as follows:

```
==> building archive 'modules.lib'
```

Example 7-1 is the `modules.cmd` command file. The `r` command specifies that the filenames given in the command file replace files of the same name in the `modules.lib` library. The `-u` option specifies that these files are replaced only when the current file has a more recent revision date than the file that is in the library.

Example 7-1. Archiver Command File

```

; Command file to replace members of the
;   modules library with updated files
; Use r command and u option:
ru
; Specify library name:
modules.lib
; List filenames to be replaced if updated:
align.asm
bss.asm
data.asm
text.asm
sect.asm
copy.asm
double.asm
drnolist.asm
emsg.asm
end.asm

```

7.5 Library Information Archiver Description

Section 7.1 explains how to use the archiver to create libraries of object files for use in the linker of one or more applications. You can have multiple versions of the same object file libraries, each built with different sets of build options. For example, you might have different versions of your object file library for big and little endian, for different architecture revisions, or for different ABIs depending on the typical build environments of client applications. However, if you have several versions of a library, it can be cumbersome to keep track of which version of the library needs to be linked in for a particular application.

When several versions of a single library are available, the library information archiver can be used to create an index library of all of the object file library versions. This index library is used in the linker in place of a particular version of your object file library. The linker looks at the build options of the application being linked, and uses the specified index library to determine which version of your object file library to include in the linker. If one or more compatible libraries were found in the index library, the most suitable compatible library is linked in for your application.

7.5.1 Invoking the Library Information Archiver

To invoke the library information archiver, enter:

```
libinfopru [options] -o=libname libname1 [libname2 ... libnamen]
```

libinfopru	is the command that invokes the library information archiver.
<i>options</i>	changes the default behavior of the library information archiver. These options are:
-o libname	specifies the name of the index library to create or update. This option is required.
-u	updates any existing information in the index library specified with the <code>-o</code> option instead of creating a new index.
<i>libnames</i>	names individual object file libraries to be manipulated. When you enter a <code>libname</code> , you must enter a complete filename including extension, if applicable.

7.5.2 Library Information Archiver Example

Consider these object file libraries that all have the same members, but are built with different build options:

Object File Library Name	Build Options
mylib_pruv1_le.lib	--silicon_version=1 --endian=little
mylib_pruv1_be.lib	--silicon_version=1 --endian=big
mylib_pruv2_le.lib	--silicon_version=2 --endian=little
mylib_pruv2_be.lib	--silicon_version=2 --endian=big
mylib_pruv3_le.lib	--silicon_version=3 --endian=little
mylib_pruv3_be.lib	--silicon_version=3 --endian=big
mylib_pruv4_le.lib	--silicon_version=4 --endian=little
mylib_pruv4_be.lib	--silicon_version=4 --endian=big

Using the library information archiver, you can create an index library called `mylib.lib` from the above libraries:

```
libinfo -o mylib.lib mylib_pruv3_be.lib mylib_pruv2_be.lib
mylib_pruv1_be.lib
```

You can now specify `mylib.lib` as a library for the linker of an application. The linker uses the index library to choose the appropriate version of the library to use. If the `--issue_remarks` option is specified before the `--run_linker` option, the linker reports which library was chosen.

- **Example 1** (little endian):

7.5.3 Listing the Contents of an Index Library

The archiver's `-t` option can be used on an index library to list the archives indexed by an index library:

```
arpru t mylib.lib
```

SIZE	DATE	FILE NAME
119	Mon Apr 23 12:45:22 2007	mylib_pruv3_le.lib.libinfo
119	Mon Apr 23 12:45:22 2007	mylib_pruv3_be.lib.libinfo
119	Mon Apr 23 12:45:22 2007	mylib_pruv2_le.lib.libinfo
119	Mon Apr 23 12:45:22 2007	mylib_pruv2_be.lib.libinfo
119	Mon Apr 23 12:45:22 2007	mylib_pruv1_le.lib.libinfo
119	Mon Apr 23 12:45:22 2007	mylib_pruv1_be.lib.libinfo
0	Mon Apr 23 12:45:22 2007	__TI__\$LIBINFO

The indexed object file libraries have an additional `.libinfo` extension in the archiver listing. The `__TI__$LIBINFO` member is a special member that designates `mylib.lib` as an index library, rather than a regular library.

If the archiver's `-d` command is used on an index library to delete a `.libinfo` member, the linker will no longer choose the corresponding library when the index library is specified.

Using any other archiver option with an index library, or using `-d` to remove the `__TI__$LIBINFO` member, results in undefined behavior, and is not supported.

7.5.4 Requirements

You must follow these requirements to use library index files:

- At least one application object file must appear on the linker command line before the index library.
- Each object file library specified as input to the library information archiver must only contain object file members that are built with the same build options.
- The linker expects the index library and all of the libraries it indexes to be in a single directory.

Linker Description

The PRU linker creates executable modules by combining object modules. This chapter describes the linker options, directives, and statements used to create executable modules. Object libraries, command files, and other key concepts are discussed as well.

The concept of sections is basic to linker operation; [Chapter 2](#) includes a detailed discussion of sections.

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8.1 Linker Overview

The PRU linker allows you to allocate output sections efficiently in the memory map. As the linker combines object files, it performs the following tasks:

- Allocates sections into the target system's configured memory
- Relocates symbols and sections to assign them to final addresses
- Resolves undefined external references between input files

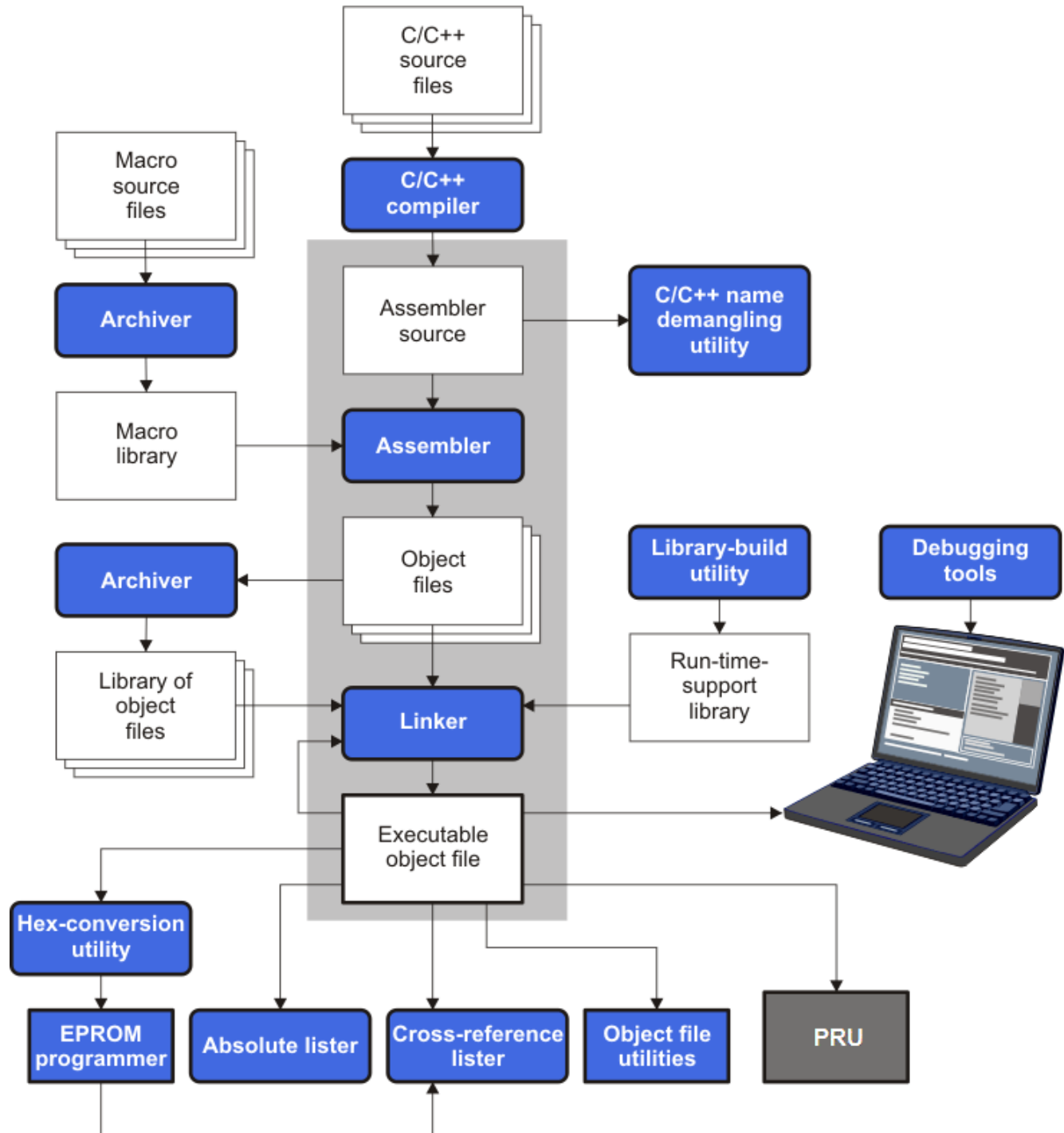
The linker command language controls memory configuration, output section definition, and address binding. The language supports expression assignment and evaluation. You configure system memory by defining and creating a memory model that you design. Two powerful directives, MEMORY and SECTIONS, allow you to:

- Allocate sections into specific areas of memory
- Combine object file sections
- Define or redefine global symbols at link time

8.2 The Linker's Role in the Software Development Flow

Figure 8-1 illustrates the linker's role in the software development process. The linker accepts several types of files as input, including object files, command files, libraries, and partially linked files. The linker creates an executable object module that can be downloaded to one of several development tools or executed by a PRU device.

Figure 8-1. The Linker in the PRU Software Development Flow



8.3 Invoking the Linker

The general syntax for invoking the linker is:

```
clpru --run_linker [options] filename1 .... filenamen
```

clpru --run_linker	is the command that invokes the linker. The --run_linker option's short form is -Z.
<i>options</i>	can appear anywhere on the command line or in a linker command file. (Options are discussed in Section 8.4 .)
<i>filename</i> ₁ , <i>filename</i> _n	can be object files, linker command files, or archive libraries. The default extension for all input files is <i>.obj</i> ; 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 <i>a.out</i> , unless you use the --output_file option to name the output file.

There are two methods for invoking the linker:

- Specify options and filenames on the command line. This example links two files, file1.obj and file2.obj, and creates an output module named link.out.

```
clpru --run_linker file1.obj file2.obj --output_file=link.out
```

- Put filenames and options in a linker command file. Filenames that are specified inside a linker command file must begin with a letter. For example, assume the file linker.cmd contains the following lines:

```
--output_file=link.out file1.obj file2.obj
```

Now you can invoke the linker from the command line; specify the command filename as an input file:

```
clpru --run_linker linker.cmd
```

When you use a command file, you can also specify other options and files on the command line. For example, you could enter:

```
clpru --run_linker --map_file=link.map linker.cmd file3.obj
```

The linker reads and processes a command file as soon as it encounters the filename on the command line, so it links the files in this order: file1.obj, file2.obj, and file3.obj. This example creates an output file called link.out and a map file called link.map.

For information on invoking the linker for C/C++ files, see [Section 8.10](#).

8.4 Linker Options

Linker options control linking operations. They can be placed on the command line or in a command file. Linker options must be preceded by a hyphen (-). Options can be separated from arguments (if they have them) by an optional space.

Table 8-1. Basic Options Summary

Option	Alias	Description	Section
--run_linker	-z	Enables linking	Section 8.3
--output_file	-o	Names the executable output module. The default filename is a.out.	Section 8.4.23
--map_file	-m	Produces a map or listing of the input and output sections, including holes, and places the listing in <i>filename</i>	Section 8.4.18
--stack_size	-stack	Sets C system stack size to <i>size</i> and defines a global symbol that specifies the stack size. Default = 256 bytes	Section 8.4.29
--heap_size	-heap	Sets heap size (for the dynamic memory allocation in C) to <i>size</i> and defines a global symbol that specifies the heap size. Default = 256 bytes	Section 8.4.14

Table 8-2. File Search Path Options Summary

Option	Alias	Description	Section
--library	-l	Names an archive library or link command <i>filename</i> as linker input	Section 8.4.16
--search_path	-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 the --library option.	Section 8.4.16.1
--priority	-priority	Satisfies unresolved references by the first library that contains a definition for that symbol	Section 8.4.16.3
--reread_libs	-x	Forces rereading of libraries, which resolves back references	Section 8.4.16.3
--disable_auto_rts		Disables the automatic selection of a run-time-support library	Section 8.4.8

Table 8-3. Command File Preprocessing Options Summary

Option	Alias	Description	Section
--define		Predefines <i>name</i> as a preprocessor macro.	Section 8.4.10
--undefine		Removes the preprocessor macro <i>name</i> .	Section 8.4.10
--disable_pp		Disables preprocessing for command files	Section 8.4.10

Table 8-4. Diagnostic Options Summary

Option	Alias	Description	Section
--diag_error		Categorizes the diagnostic identified by <i>num</i> as an error	Section 8.4.7
--diag_remark		Categorizes the diagnostic identified by <i>num</i> as a remark	Section 8.4.7
--diag_suppress		Suppresses the diagnostic identified by <i>num</i>	Section 8.4.7
--diag_warning		Categorizes the diagnostic identified by <i>num</i> as a warning	Section 8.4.7
--display_error_number		Displays a diagnostic's identifiers along with its text	Section 8.4.7
--emit_warnings_as_errors	-pdew	Treats warnings as errors	Section 8.4.7
--issue_remarks		Issues remarks (nonserious warnings)	Section 8.4.7
--no_demangle		Disables demangling of symbol names in diagnostics	Section 8.4.20
--no_warnings		Suppresses warning diagnostics (errors are still issued)	Section 8.4.7
--set_error_limit		Sets the error limit to <i>num</i> . The linker abandons linking after this number of errors. (The default is 100.)	Section 8.4.7
--verbose_diagnostics		Provides verbose diagnostics that display the original source with line-wrap	Section 8.4.7

Table 8-5. Linker Output Options Summary

Option	Alias	Description	Section
--absolute_exe	-a	Produces an absolute, executable module. This is the default; if neither --absolute_exe nor --relocatable is specified, the linker acts as if --absolute_exe were specified.	Section 8.4.3.1
--ecc={ on off }		Enable linker-generated Error Correcting Codes (ECC). The default is off.	Section 8.4.11 Section 8.5.9
--ecc:data_error		Inject the specified errors into the output file for testing	Section 8.4.11 Section 8.5.9
--ecc:ecc_error		Inject the specified errors into the Error Correcting Code (ECC) for testing	Section 8.4.11 Section 8.5.9
--mapfile_contents		Controls the information that appears in the map file.	Section 8.4.19
--relocatable	-r	Produces a nonexecutable, relocatable output module	Section 8.4.3.2
--rom	-r	Create a ROM object	
--run_abs	-abs	Produces an absolute listing file	Section 8.4.27
--xml_link_info		Generates a well-formed XML <i>file</i> containing detailed information about the result of a link	Section 8.4.34

Table 8-6. Symbol Management Options Summary

Option	Alias	Description	Section
--entry_point	-e	Defines a global symbol that specifies the primary entry point for the output module	Section 8.4.12
--globalize		Changes the symbol linkage to global for symbols that match <i>pattern</i>	Section 8.4.17
--hide		Hides global symbols that match <i>pattern</i>	Section 8.4.15
--localize		Changes the symbol linkage to local for symbols that match <i>pattern</i>	Section 8.4.17
--make_global	-g	Makes <i>symbol</i> global (overrides -h)	Section 8.4.17.1
--make_static	-h	Makes all global symbols static	Section 8.4.17.1
--no_syntable	-s	Strips symbol table information and line number entries from the output module	Section 8.4.22
--retain		Retains a list of sections that otherwise would be discarded	Section 8.4.26
--scan_libraries	-scanlibs	Scans all libraries for duplicate symbol definitions	Section 8.4.28
--symbol_map		Maps symbol references to a symbol definition of a different name	Section 8.4.31
--undef_sym	-u	Places an unresolved external <i>symbol</i> into the output module's symbol table	Section 8.4.32
--unhide		Reveals (un-hides) global symbols that match <i>pattern</i>	Section 8.4.15

Table 8-7. Run-Time Environment Options Summary

Option	Alias	Description	Section
--arg_size	--args	Allocates memory to be used by the loader to pass arguments	Section 8.4.4
--fill_value	-f	Sets default fill values for holes within output sections; <i>fill_value</i> is a 32-bit constant	Section 8.4.13
--ram_model	-cr	Initializes variables at load time	Section 8.4.25
--rom_model	-c	Autoinitializes variables at run time	Section 8.4.25

Table 8-8. Link-Time Optimization Options Summary

Option	Alias	Description	Section
--cinit_compression [= <i>compression_kind</i>]		Specifies the type of compression to apply to the C auto initialization data. The default if this option is used with no kind specified is lzss for Lempel-Ziv-Storer-Szymanski compression. Alternately, specify --cinit_compression= <i>rl</i> to use Run Length Encoded compression, which generally provides less efficient compression.	Section 8.4.5
--compress_dwarf		Aggressively reduces the size of DWARF information from input object files	Section 8.4.6

Table 8-8. Link-Time Optimization Options Summary (continued)

Option	Alias	Description	Section
--copy_compression [=compression_kind]		Compresses data copied by linker copy tables	Section 8.4.5
--unused_section_elimination		Eliminates sections that are not needed in the executable module; on by default	Section 8.4.9

Table 8-9. Miscellaneous Options Summary

Option	Alias	Description	Section
--linker_help	-help	Displays information about syntax and available options	–
--preferred_order		Prioritizes placement of functions	Section 8.4.24
--strict_compatibility		Performs more conservative and rigorous compatibility checking of input object files	Section 8.4.30
--zero_init		Controls preinitialization of uninitialized variables. Default is on.	Section 8.4.35

8.4.1 Wildcards in File, Section, and Symbol Patterns

The linker allows file, section, and symbol names to be specified using the asterisk (*) and question mark (?) wildcards. Using * matches any number of characters and using ? matches a single character. Using wildcards can make it easier to handle related objects, provided they follow a suitable naming convention.

For example:

```
mp3*.obj      /* matches anything .obj that begins with mp3      */
task?.o*     /* matches task1.obj, task2.obj, taskX.o55, etc. */

SECTIONS
{
    .fast_code: { *.obj(*fast*) }          > FAST_MEM
    .str_code : { rts*.lib<str*.obj>(.text) } > S1ROM
}
```

8.4.2 Specifying C/C++ Symbols with Linker Options

The link-time symbol is the same as the C/C++ identifier name. The compiler *does not* prepend an underscore to the beginning of C/C++ identifiers.

See [Section 8.6.1](#) for information about referring to linker symbols in C/C++ code.

8.4.3 Relocation Capabilities (--absolute_exe and --relocatable Options)

The linker performs relocation, which is the process of adjusting all references to a symbol when the symbol's address changes ([Section 2.7](#)).

The linker supports two options (--absolute_exe and --relocatable) that allow you to produce an absolute or a relocatable output module. The linker also supports a third option (-ar) that allows you to produce an executable, relocatable output module.

When the linker encounters a file that contains no relocation or symbol table information, it issues a warning message (but continues executing). Relinking an absolute file can be successful only if each input file contains no information that needs to be relocated (that is, each file has no unresolved references and is bound to the same virtual address that it was bound to when the linker created it).

8.4.3.1 Producing an Absolute Output Module (--absolute_exe option)

When you use the --absolute_exe option without the --relocatable option, the linker produces an *absolute, executable output module*. Absolute files contain *no* relocation information. Executable files contain the following:

- Special symbols defined by the linker (see [Section 8.5.10.4](#))

- An header that describes information such as the program entry point
- No unresolved references

The following example links file1.obj and file2.obj and creates an absolute output module called a.out:

```
clpru --run_linker --absolute_exe file1.obj file2.obj
```

The --absolute_exe and --relocatable Options

NOTE: If you do not use the --absolute_exe or the --relocatable option, the linker acts as if you specified --absolute_exe.

8.4.3.2 Producing a Relocatable Output Module (--relocatable option)

When you use the --relocatable option, the linker retains relocation entries in the output module. If the output module is relocated (at load time) or relinked (by another linker execution), use --relocatable to retain the relocation entries.

The linker produces a file that is not executable when you use the --relocatable option without the --absolute_exe option. A file that is not executable does not contain special linker symbols or an optional header. The file can contain unresolved references, but these references do not prevent creation of an output module.

This example links file1.obj and file2.obj and creates a relocatable output module called a.out:

```
clpru --run_linker --relocatable file1.obj file2.obj
```

The output file a.out can be relinked with other object files or relocated at load time. (Linking a file that will be relinked with other files is called partial linking. For more information, see [Section 8.9](#).)

8.4.3.3 Producing an Executable, Relocatable Output Module (-ar Option)

If you invoke the linker with both the --absolute_exe and --relocatable options, the linker produces an *executable, relocatable* object module. The output file contains the special linker symbols, an optional header, and all resolved symbol references; however, the relocation information is retained.

This example links file1.obj and file2.obj to create an executable, relocatable output module called xr.out:

```
clpru --run_linker -ar file1.obj file2.obj --output_file=xr.out
```

8.4.4 Allocate Memory for Use by the Loader to Pass Arguments (--arg_size Option)

The --arg_size option instructs the linker to allocate memory to be used by the loader to pass arguments from the command line of the loader to the program. The syntax of the --arg_size option is:

--arg_size= *size*

The *size* is the number of bytes to be allocated in target memory for command-line arguments.

By default, the linker creates the __c_args__ symbol and sets it to -1. When you specify --arg_size=*size*, the following occur:

- The linker creates an uninitialized section named .args of *size* bytes.
- The __c_args__ symbol contains the address of the .args section.

The loader and the target boot code use the .args section and the __c_args__ symbol to determine whether and how to pass arguments from the host to the target program. See the *PRU Optimizing C/C++ Compiler User's Guide* for information about the loader.

8.4.5 Compression (--cinit_compression and --copy_compression Option)

By default, the linker does not compress data. These two options specify compression through the linker.

The --cinit_compression option specifies the compression type the linker applies to the C autoinitialization data. The default is lzss.

Overlays can be managed by using linker-generated copy tables. To save ROM space the linker can compress the data copied by the copy tables. The compressed data is decompressed during copy. The `--copy_compression` option controls the compression of the copy data tables.

The syntax for the options are:

`--cinit_compression[=compression_kind]`

`--copy_compression[=compression_kind]`

The *compression_kind* can be one of the following types:

- **off**. Don't compress the data.
- **rle**. Compress data using Run Length Encoding.
- **lzss**. Compress data using Lempel-Ziv Storer and Symanski compression (the default if *nocompression_kind* is specified).

See [Section 8.8.5](#) for more information about compression.

8.4.6 Compress DWARF Information (`--compress_dwarf` Option)

The `--compress_dwarf` option aggressively reduces the size of DWARF information by eliminating duplicate information from input object files. The `--compress_dwarf` option eliminates duplicate information that could not be removed through the use of ELF COMDAT groups. (See the ELF specification for information on COMDAT groups.)

8.4.7 Control Linker Diagnostics

The linker uses certain C/C++ compiler options to control linker-generated diagnostics. The diagnostic options must be specified before the `--run_linker` option.

<code>--diag_error=num</code>	Categorize the diagnostic identified by <i>num</i> as an error. To find the numeric identifier of a diagnostic message, use the <code>--display_error_number</code> option first in a separate link. Then use <code>--diag_error=num</code> to recategorize the diagnostic as an error. You can only alter the severity of discretionary diagnostics.
<code>--diag_remark=num</code>	Categorize the diagnostic identified by <i>num</i> as a remark. To find the numeric identifier of a diagnostic message, use the <code>--display_error_number</code> option first in a separate link. Then use <code>--diag_remark=num</code> to recategorize the diagnostic as a remark. You can only alter the severity of discretionary diagnostics.
<code>--diag_suppress=num</code>	Suppress the diagnostic identified by <i>num</i> . To find the numeric identifier of a diagnostic message, use the <code>--display_error_number</code> option first in a separate link. Then use <code>--diag_suppress=num</code> to suppress the diagnostic. You can only suppress discretionary diagnostics.
<code>--diag_warning=num</code>	Categorize the diagnostic identified by <i>num</i> as a warning. To find the numeric identifier of a diagnostic message, use the <code>--display_error_number</code> option first in a separate link. Then use <code>--diag_warning=num</code> to recategorize the diagnostic as a warning. You can only alter the severity of discretionary diagnostics.
<code>--display_error_number</code>	Display 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 (<code>--diag_suppress</code> , <code>--diag_error</code> , <code>--diag_remark</code> , and <code>--diag_warning</code>). 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 <code>-D</code> ; otherwise, no suffix is present. See the <i>PRU Optimizing C/C++ Compiler User's Guide</i> for more information on understanding diagnostic messages.
<code>--emit_warnings_as_errors</code>	Treat all warnings as errors. This option cannot be used with the <code>--no_warnings</code> option. The <code>--diag_remark</code> option takes precedence over this option. This option takes precedence over the <code>--diag_warning</code> option.
<code>--issue_remarks</code>	Issue remarks (nonserious warnings), which are suppressed by default.

--no_warnings	Suppress warning diagnostics (errors are still issued).
--set_error_limit=num	Set the error limit to <i>num</i> , which can be any decimal value. The linker abandons linking after this number of errors. (The default is 100.)
--verbose_diagnostics	Provide verbose diagnostics that display the original source with line-wrap and indicate the position of the error in the source line

8.4.8 Automatic Library Selection (**--disable_auto_rts Option**)

The `--disable_auto_rts` option disables the automatic selection of a run-time-support (RTS) library. See the *PRU Optimizing C/C++ Compiler User's Guide* for details on the automatic selection process.

8.4.9 Do Not Remove Unused Sections (**--unused_section_elimination Option**)

In order to minimize the foot print, the ELF linker does not include a section that is not needed to resolve any references in the final executable. Use `--unused_section_elimination=off` to disable this optimization. The syntax for the option is:

--unused_section_elimination[=*on*|*off*]

The linker default behavior is equivalent to `--unused_section_elimination=on`.

8.4.10 Linker Command File Preprocessing (**--disable_pp, --define and --undefine Options**)

The linker preprocesses linker command files using a standard C preprocessor. Therefore, the command files can contain well-known preprocessing directives such as `#define`, `#include`, and `#if / #endif`.

Three linker options control the preprocessor:

--disable_pp	Disables preprocessing for command files
--define=name[=<i>val</i>]	Predefines <i>name</i> as a preprocessor macro
--undefine=name	Removes the macro <i>name</i>

The compiler has `--define` and `--undefine` options with the same meanings. However, the linker options are distinct; only `--define` and `--undefine` options specified after `--run_linker` are passed to the linker. For example:

```
clpru --define=FOO=1 main.c --run_linker --define=BAR=2 lnk.cmd
```

The linker sees only the `--define` for BAR; the compiler only sees the `--define` for FOO.

When one command file `#include`s another, preprocessing context is carried from parent to child in the usual way (that is, macros defined in the parent are visible in the child). However, when a command file is invoked other than through `#include`, either on the command line or by the typical way of being named in another command file, preprocessing context is **not** carried into the nested file. The exception to this is `--define` and `--undefine` options, which apply globally from the point they are encountered. For example:

```
--define GLOBAL
#define LOCAL

#include "incfile.cmd" /* sees GLOBAL and LOCAL */
nestfile.cmd         /* only sees GLOBAL */
```

Two cautions apply to the use of `--define` and `--undefine` in command files. First, they have global effect as mentioned above. Second, since they are not actually preprocessing directives themselves, they are subject to macro substitution, probably with unintended consequences. This effect can be defeated by quoting the symbol name. For example:

```
--define MYSYM=123
--undefine MYSYM /* expands to --undefine 123 (!) */
--undefine "MYSYM" /* ahh, that's better */
```

The linker uses the same search paths to find `#include` files as it does to find libraries. That is, `#include` files are searched in the following places:

1. If the `#include` file name is in quotes (rather than `<brackets>`), in the directory of the current file

2. In the list of directories specified with `--library` options or environment variables (see [Section 8.4.16](#))

There are two exceptions: relative pathnames (such as `../name`) always search the current directory; and absolute pathnames (such as `/usr/tools/name`) bypass search paths entirely.

The linker provides the built-in macro definitions listed in [Table 8-10](#). The availability of these macros within the linker is determined by the command-line options used, not the build attributes of the files being linked. If these macros are not set as expected, confirm that your project's command line uses the correct compiler option settings.

Table 8-10. Predefined PRU Macro Names

Macro Name	Description
<code>__DATE__</code>	Expands to the compilation date in the form <i>mmm dd yyyy</i>
<code>__FILE__</code>	Expands to the current source filename
<code>__PRU__</code>	Always defined
<code>__PRU_V0__</code>	Defined to 1 if <code>--silicon_version=0</code> ; otherwise it is undefined.
<code>__PRU_V1__</code>	Defined to 1 if <code>--silicon_version=1</code> ; otherwise it is undefined.
<code>__PRU_V2__</code>	Defined to 1 if <code>--silicon_version=2</code> ; otherwise it is undefined.
<code>__PRU_V3__</code>	Defined to 1 if <code>--silicon_version=3</code> ; otherwise it is undefined.
<code>__PRU_V4__</code>	Defined to 1 if <code>--silicon_version=4</code> ; otherwise it is undefined.
<code>__TI_COMPILER_VERSION__</code>	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.
<code>__TI_EABI__</code>	Defined to 1 if EABI is enabled; otherwise, it is undefined.
<code>__TIME__</code>	Expands to the compilation time in the form <i>"hh:mm:ss"</i>

8.4.11 Error Correcting Code Testing (`--ecc Options`)

Error Correcting Codes (ECC) can be generated and placed in separate sections through the linker command file.

To enable ECC support, include `--ecc=on` as a linker option on the command line. By default ECC generation is off, even if the ECC directive and ECC specifiers are used in the linker command file. This allows you to fully configure ECC in the linker command file while still being able to quickly turn the code generation on and off via the command line. See [Section 8.5.9](#) for details on linker command file syntax to configure ECC support.

ECC uses extra bits to allow errors to be detected and/or corrected by a device. The ECC support provided by the linker is compatible with the ECC support in TI Flash memory on various TI devices. TI Flash memory uses a modified Hamming(72,64) code, which uses 8 parity bits for every 64 bits. Check the documentation for your Flash memory to see if ECC is supported. (ECC for read-write memory is handled completely in hardware at run time.)

After enabling ECC with the `--ecc=on` option, you can use the following command-line options to test ECC by injecting bit errors into the linked executable. These options let you specify an address where an error should appear and a bitmask of bits in the code/data at that address to flip. You can specify the address of the error absolutely or as an offset from a symbol. When a data error is injected, the ECC parity bits for the data are calculated as if the error were not present. This simulates bit errors that might actually occur and tests ECC's ability to correct different levels of errors.

The `--ecc:data_error` option injects errors into the load image at the specified location. The syntax is:

```
--ecc:data_error=(symbol+offset|address)[,page],bitmask
```

The *address* is the location of the minimum addressable unit where the error is to be injected. A *symbol+offset* can be used to specify the location of the error to be injected with a signed offset from that symbol. The *page* number is needed to make the location non-ambiguous if the address occurs on multiple memory pages. The *bitmask* is a mask of the bits to flip; its width should be the width of an addressable unit.

For example, the following command line flips the least-significant bit in the byte at the address 0x100, making it inconsistent with the ECC parity bits for that byte:

```
clpru test.c --ecc:data_error=0x100,0x01 -z -o test.out
```

The following command flips two bits in the third byte of the code for main():

```
clpru test.c --ecc:data_error=main+2,0x42 -z -o test.out
```

The **--ecc:ecc_error option** injects errors into the ECC parity bits that correspond to the specified location. Note that the `ecc_error` option can therefore only specify locations inside ECC input ranges, whereas the `data_error` option can also specify errors in the ECC output memory ranges. The syntax is:

```
--ecc:ecc_error=(symbol+offset|address)[,page],bitmask
```

The parameters for this option are the same as for `--ecc:data_error`, except that the *bitmask* must be exactly 8 bits. Mirrored copies of the affected ECC byte will also contain the same injected error.

An error injected into an ECC byte with `--ecc:ecc_error` may cause errors to be detected at run time in any of the 8 data bytes covered by that ECC byte.

For example, the following command flips every bit in the ECC byte that contains the parity information for the byte at 0x200:

The linker disallows injecting errors into memory ranges that are neither an ECC range nor the input range for an ECC range. The compiler can only inject errors into initialized sections.

8.4.12 Define an Entry Point (--entry_point Option)

The memory address at which a program begins executing is called the *entry point*. When a loader loads a program into target memory, the program counter (PC) must be initialized to the entry point; the PC then points to the beginning of the program.

The linker can assign one of four values to the entry point. These values are listed below in the order in which the linker tries to use them. If you use one of the first three values, it must be an external symbol in the symbol table.

- The value specified by the `--entry_point` option. The syntax is:
--entry_point= *global_symbol*
 where *global_symbol* defines the entry point and must be defined as an external symbol of the input files. The external symbol name of C or C++ objects may be different than the name as declared in the source language; refer to the *PRU Optimizing C/C++ Compiler User's Guide*.
- The value of symbol `_c_int00` (if present). The `_c_int00` symbol *must* be the entry point if you are linking code produced by the C compiler.
- The value of symbol `main` (if present)
- 0 (default value)

This example links `file1.obj` and `file2.obj`. The symbol `begin` is the entry point; `begin` must be defined as external in `file1` or `file2`.

```
clpru --run_linker --entry_point=begin file1.obj file2.obj
```

See [Section 8.6.1](#) for information about referring to linker symbols in C/C++ code.

8.4.13 Set Default Fill Value (--fill_value Option)

The `--fill_value` option fills the holes formed within output sections. The syntax for the option is:

```
--fill_value= value
```

The argument *value* is a 32-bit constant (up to eight hexadecimal digits). If you do not use `--fill_value`, the linker uses 0 as the default fill value.

This example fills holes with the hexadecimal value ABCDABCD:

```
clpru --run_linker --fill_value=0xABCDABCD file1.obj file2.obj
```

8.4.14 Define Heap Size (`--heap_size` Option)

The C/C++ compiler uses an uninitialized section called `.system` for the C run-time memory pool used by `malloc()`. You can set the size of this memory pool at link time by using the `--heap_size` option. The syntax for the `--heap_size` option is:

`--heap_size= size`

The *size* must be a constant. This example defines a 4K byte heap:

```
clpru --run_linker --heap_size=0x1000 /* defines a 4k heap (.system section)*/
```

The linker creates the `.system` section only if there is a `.system` section in an input file.

The linker also creates a global symbol `__TI_SYSMEM_SIZE` and assigns it a value equal to the size of the heap. The default size is 256 bytes. See [Section 8.6.1](#) for information about referring to linker symbols in C/C++ code.

8.4.15 Hiding Symbols

Symbol hiding prevents the symbol from being listed in the output file's symbol table. While localization is used to prevent name space clashes in a link unit, symbol hiding is used to obscure symbols which should not be visible outside a link unit. Such symbol's names appear only as empty strings or "no name" in object file readers. The linker supports symbol hiding through the `--hide` and `--unhide` options.

The syntax for these options are:

`--hide=' pattern '`

`--unhide=' pattern '`

The *pattern* is a string with optional wildcards `?` or `*`. Use `?` to match a single character and use `*` to match zero or more characters.

The `--hide` option hides global symbols with a linkname matching the *pattern*. It hides symbols matching the *pattern* by changing the name to an empty string. A global symbol that is hidden is also localized.

The `--unhide` option reveals (un-hides) global symbols that match the *pattern* that are hidden by the `--hide` option. The `--unhide` option excludes symbols that match *pattern* from symbol hiding provided the *pattern* defined by `--unhide` is more restrictive than the *pattern* defined by `--hide`.

These options have the following properties:

- The `--hide` and `--unhide` options can be specified more than once on the command line.
- The order of `--hide` and `--unhide` has no significance.
- A symbol is matched by only one *pattern* defined by either `--hide` or `--unhide`.
- A symbol is matched by the most restrictive *pattern*. *Pattern A* is considered more restrictive than *Pattern B*, if *Pattern A* matches a narrower set than *Pattern B*.
- It is an error if a symbol matches *patterns* from `--hide` and `--unhide` and one does not supersede the other. *Pattern A* supersedes *pattern B* if *A* can match everything *B* can and more. If *Pattern A* supersedes *Pattern B*, then *Pattern B* is said to more restrictive than *Pattern A*.
- These options affect final and partial linking.

In map files these symbols are listed under the Hidden Symbols heading.

8.4.16 Alter the Library Search Algorithm (--library Option, --search_path Option, and PRU_C_DIR Environment Variable)

Usually, when you want to specify a file as linker input, you simply enter the filename; the linker looks for the file in the current directory. For example, suppose the current directory contains the library object.lib. If this library defines symbols that are referenced in the file file1.obj, this is how you link the files:

```
clpru --run_linker file1.obj object.lib
```

If you want to use a file that is not in the current directory, use the --library linker option. The --library option's short form is -l. The syntax for this option is:

--library=[pathname] filename

The *filename* is the name of an archive, an object file, or linker command file. You can specify up to 128 search paths.

The --library option is not required when one or more members of an object library are specified for input to an output section. For more information about allocating archive members, see [Section 8.5.5.5](#).

You can augment the linker's directory search algorithm by using the --search_path linker option or the environment variable. The linker searches for object libraries and command files in the following order:

1. It searches directories named with the --search_path linker option. The --search_path option must appear before the --library option on the command line or in a command file.
2. It searches directories named with PRU_C_DIR.
3. If PRU_C_DIR is not set, it searches directories named with the assembler's PRU_A_DIR environment variable.
4. It searches the current directory.

8.4.16.1 Name an Alternate Library Directory (--search_path Option)

The --search_path option names an alternate directory that contains input files. The --search_path option's short form is -I. The syntax for this option is:

--search_path= pathname

The *pathname* names a directory that contains input files.

When the linker is searching for input files named with the --library option, it searches through directories named with --search_path first. Each --search_path option specifies only one directory, but you can have several --search_path options per invocation. When you use the --search_path option to name an alternate directory, it must precede any --library option used on the command line or in a command file.

For example, assume that there are two archive libraries called r.lib and lib2.lib that reside in ld and ld2 directories. The table below shows the directories that r.lib and lib2.lib reside in, how to set environment variable, and how to use both libraries during a link. Select the row for your operating system:

Operating System	Enter
UNIX (Bourne shell)	clpru --run_linker f1.obj f2.obj --search_path=/ld --search_path=/ld2 --library=r.lib --library=lib2.lib
Windows	clpru --run_linker f1.obj f2.obj --search_path=\ld --search_path=\ld2 --library=r.lib --library=lib2.lib

8.4.16.2 Name an Alternate Library Directory (PRU_C_DIR Environment Variable)

An environment variable is a system symbol that you define and assign a string to. The linker uses an environment variable named PRU_C_DIR to name alternate directories that contain object libraries. The command syntaxes for assigning the environment variable are:

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

The *pathnames* are directories that contain input files. Use the --library linker option on the command line or in a command file to tell the linker which library or linker command file to search for. 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 PRU_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 PRU_C_DIR=c:\first path\to\tools;d:\second path\to\tools
```

In the example below, assume that two archive libraries called r.lib and lib2.lib reside in ld and ld2 directories. The table below shows how to set the environment variable, and how to use both libraries during a link. Select the row for your operating system:

Operating System	Invocation Command
UNIX (Bourne shell)	PRU_C_DIR="/ld ;ld2"; export PRU_C_DIR; clpru --run_linker f1.obj f2.obj --library=r.lib --library=lib2.lib
Windows	PRU_C_DIR=ld;ld2 clpru --run linker f1.obj f2.obj --library=r.lib --library=lib2.lib

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

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

The assembler uses an environment variable named PRU_A_DIR to name alternate directories that contain copy/include files or macro libraries. If PRU_C_DIR is not set, the linker searches for object libraries in the directories named with PRU_C_DIR. For information about PRU_C_DIR, see [Section 4.4.2](#). For more information about object libraries, see [Section 8.6.3](#).

8.4.16.3 Exhaustively Read and Search Libraries (--reread_libs and --priority Options)

There are two ways to exhaustively search for unresolved symbols:

- Reread libraries if you cannot resolve a symbol reference (--reread_libs).
- Search libraries in the order that they are specified (--priority).

The linker normally reads input files, including archive libraries, only once when they are encountered on the command line or in the command file. When an archive is read, any members that resolve references to undefined symbols are included in the link. If an input file later references a symbol defined in a previously read archive library, the reference is not resolved.

With the --reread_libs option, you can force the linker to reread all libraries. The linker rereads libraries until no more references can be resolved. Linking using --reread_libs may be slower, so you should use it only as needed. For example, if a.lib contains a reference to a symbol defined in b.lib, and b.lib contains a reference to a symbol defined in a.lib, you can resolve the mutual dependencies by listing one of the libraries twice, as in:

```
clpru --run_linker --library=a.lib --library=b.lib --library=a.lib
```

or you can force the linker to do it for you:

```
clpru --run_linker --reread_libs --library=a.lib --library=b.lib
```

The --priority option provides an alternate search mechanism for libraries. Using --priority causes each unresolved reference to be satisfied by the first library that contains a definition for that symbol. For example:

```
objfile  references A
lib1     defines B
lib2     defines A, B; obj defining A references B
% clpru --run_linker objfile lib1 lib2
```

Under the existing model, objfile resolves its reference to A in lib2, pulling in a reference to B, which resolves to the B in lib2.

Under --priority, objfile resolves its reference to A in lib2, pulling in a reference to B, but now B is resolved by searching the libraries in order and resolves B to the first definition it finds, namely the one in lib1.

The --priority option is useful for libraries that provide overriding definitions for related sets of functions in other libraries without having to provide a complete version of the whole library.

For example, suppose you want to override versions of malloc and free defined in the rtspruv3_le.lib without providing a full replacement for . Using --priority and linking your new library before rtspruv3_le.lib guarantees that all references to malloc and free resolve to the new library.

The --priority option is intended to support linking programs with SYS/BIOS where situations like the one illustrated above occur.

8.4.17 Change Symbol Localization

Symbol localization changes symbol linkage from global to local (static). This is used to obscure global symbols in a library which should not be visible outside the library, but must be global because they are accessed by several modules in the library. The linker supports symbol localization through the `--localize` and `--globalize` linker options.

The syntax for these options are:

`--localize=' pattern '`

`--globalize=' pattern '`

The *pattern* is a string with optional wildcards `?` or `*`. Use `?` to match a single character and use `*` to match zero or more characters.

The `--localize` option changes the symbol linkage to local for symbols matching the *pattern*.

The `--globalize` option changes the symbol linkage to global for symbols matching the *pattern*. The `--globalize` option only affects symbols that are localized by the `--localize` option. The `--globalize` option excludes symbols that match the pattern from symbol localization, provided the pattern defined by `--globalize` is more restrictive than the pattern defined by `--localize`.

See [Section 8.4.2](#) for information about using C/C++ identifiers in linker options such as `--localize` and `--globalize`.

These options have the following properties:

- The `--localize` and `--globalize` options can be specified more than once on the command line.
- The order of `--localize` and `--globalize` options has no significance.
- A symbol is matched by only one pattern defined by either `--localize` or `--globalize`.
- A symbol is matched by the most restrictive pattern. Pattern A is considered more restrictive than Pattern B, if Pattern A matches a narrower set than Pattern B.
- It is an error if a symbol matches patterns from `--localize` and `--globalize` and if one does not supersede other. Pattern A supersedes pattern B if A can match everything B can, and some more. If Pattern A supersedes Pattern B, then Pattern B is said to more restrictive than Pattern A.
- These options affect final and partial linking.

In map files these symbols are listed under the Localized Symbols heading.

8.4.17.1 Make All Global Symbols Static (`--make_static` Option)

The `--make_static` option makes all global symbols static. Static symbols are not visible to externally linked modules. By making global symbols static, global symbols are essentially hidden. This allows external symbols with the same name (in different files) to be treated as unique.

The `--make_static` option effectively nullifies all `.global` assembler directives. All symbols become local to the module in which they are defined, so no external references are possible. For example, assume `file1.obj` and `file2.obj` both define global symbols called `EXT`. By using the `--make_static` option, you can link these files without conflict. The symbol `EXT` defined in `file1.obj` is treated separately from the symbol `EXT` defined in `file2.obj`.

```
clpru --run_linker --make_static file1.obj file2.obj
```

The `--make_static` option makes all global symbols static. If you have a symbol that you want to remain global and you use the `--make_static` option, you can use the `--make_global` option to declare that symbol to be global. The `--make_global` option overrides the effect of the `--make_static` option for the symbol that you specify. The syntax for the `--make_global` option is:

`--make_global= global_symbol`

8.4.18 Create a Map File (--map_file Option)

The syntax for the --map_file option is:

--map_file= *filename*

The linker map describes:

- Memory configuration
- Input and output section allocation
- Linker-generated copy tables
- The addresses of external symbols after they have been relocated
- Hidden and localized symbols

The map file contains the name of the output module and the entry point; it can also contain up to three tables:

- A table showing the new memory configuration if any nondefault memory is specified (memory configuration). The table has the following columns; this information is generated on the basis of the information in the MEMORY directive in the linker command file:
 - **Name.** This is the name of the memory range specified with the MEMORY directive.
 - **Origin.** This specifies the starting address of a memory range.
 - **Length.** This specifies the length of a memory range.
 - **Unused.** This specifies the total amount of unused (available) memory in that memory area.
 - **Attributes.** This specifies one to four attributes associated with the named range:
 - R specifies that the memory can be read.
 - W specifies that the memory can be written to.
 - X specifies that the memory can contain executable code.
 - I specifies that the memory can be initialized.

For more information about the MEMORY directive, see [Section 8.5.4](#).

- A table showing the linked addresses of each output section and the input sections that make up the output sections (section placement map). This table has the following columns; this information is generated on the basis of the information in the SECTIONS directive in the linker command file:
 - **Output section.** This is the name of the output section specified with the SECTIONS directive.
 - **Origin.** The first origin listed for each output section is the starting address of that output section. The indented origin value is the starting address of that portion of the output section.
 - **Length.** The first length listed for each output section is the length of that output section. The indented length value is the length of that portion of the output section.
 - **Attributes/input sections.** This lists the input file or value associated with an output section. If the input section could not be allocated, the map file will indicate this with "FAILED TO ALLOCATE".

For more information about the SECTIONS directive, see [Section 8.5.5](#).

- A table showing each external symbol and its address sorted by symbol name.
- A table showing each external symbol and its address sorted by symbol address.

The following example links file1.obj and file2.obj and creates a map file called map.out:

```
clpru --run_linker file1.obj file2.obj --map_file=map.out
```

[Example 8-23](#) shows an example of a map file.

8.4.19 Managing Map File Contents (`--mapfile_contents` Option)

The `--mapfile_contents` option assists with managing the content of linker-generated map files. The syntax for the `--mapfile_contents` option is:

`--mapfile_contents= filter[, filter]`

When the `--map_file` option is specified, the linker produces a map file containing information about memory usage, placement information about sections that were created during a link, details about linker-generated copy tables, and symbol values.

The `--mapfile_contents` option provides a mechanism for you to control what information is included in or excluded from a map file. When you specify `--mapfile_contents=help` from the command line, a help screen listing available filter options is displayed. The following filter options are available:

Attribute	Description	Default State
copytables	Copy tables	On
entry	Entry point	On
load_addr	Display load addresses	Off
memory	Memory ranges	On
modules	Module view	On
sections	Sections	On
sym_defs	Defined symbols per file	Off
sym_dp	Symbols sorted by data page	On
sym_name	Symbols sorted by name	On
sym_runaddr	Symbols sorted by run address	On
all	Enables all attributes	
none	Disables all attributes	

The `--mapfile_contents` option controls display filter settings by specifying a comma-delimited list of display attributes. When prefixed with the word `no`, an attribute is disabled instead of enabled. For example:

```
--mapfile_contents=copytables,noentry
--mapfile_contents=all,nocopytables
--mapfile_contents=none,entry
```

By default, those sections that are currently included in the map file when the `--map_file` option is specified are included. The filters specified in the `--mapfile_contents` options are processed in the order that they appear in the command line. In the third example above, the first filter, `none`, clears all map file content. The second filter, `entry`, then enables information about entry points to be included in the generated map file. That is, when `--mapfile_contents=none,entry` is specified, the map file contains *only* information about entry points.

The `load_addr` and `sym_defs` attributes are both disabled by default.

If you turn on the `load_addr` filter, the map file includes the load address of symbols that are included in the symbol list in addition to the run address (if the load address is different from the run address).

You can use the `sym_defs` filter to include information sorted on a file by file basis. You may find it useful to replace the `sym_name`, `sym_dp`, and `sym_runaddr` sections of the map file with the `sym_defs` section by specifying the following `--mapfile_contents` option:

```
--mapfile_contents=nosym_name,nosym_dp,nosym_runaddr,sym_defs
```

By default, information about global symbols defined in an application are included in tables sorted by name, data page, and run address. If you use the `--mapfile_contents=sym_defs` option, static variables are also listed.

8.4.20 Disable Name Demangling (`--no_demangle`)

By default, the linker uses demangled symbol names in diagnostics. For example:

```
undefined symbol          first referenced in file
ANewClass::getValue()    test.obj
```

The `--no_demangle` option disables the demangling of symbol names in diagnostics. For example:

```
undefined symbol          first referenced in file
_ZN9ANewClass8getValueEv test.obj
```

8.4.21 Merging of Symbolic Debugging Information

By default, the linker eliminates duplicate entries of symbolic debugging information. Such duplicate information is commonly generated when a C program is compiled for debugging. For example:

```
-[ header.h ]-
typedef struct
{
    <define some structure members>
} XYZ;

-[ f1.c ]-
#include "header.h"
...

-[ f2.c ]-
#include "header.h"
...
```

When these files are compiled for debugging, both `f1.obj` and `f2.obj` have symbolic debugging entries to describe type `XYZ`. For the final output file, only one set of these entries is necessary. The linker eliminates the duplicate entries automatically.

8.4.22 Strip Symbolic Information (`--no_symtable` Option)

The `--no_symtable` option creates a smaller output module by omitting symbol table information and line number entries. The `--no_sym_table` option is useful for production applications when you do not want to disclose symbolic information to the consumer.

This example links `file1.obj` and `file2.obj` and creates an output module, stripped of line numbers and symbol table information, named `nosym.out`:

```
clpru --run_linker --output_file=nosym.out --no_symtable file1.obj file2.obj
```

Using the `--no_symtable` option limits later use of a symbolic debugger.

Stripping Symbolic Information

NOTE: The `--no_symtable` option is deprecated. To remove symbol table information, use the `strip` utility as described in [Section 11.4](#).

8.4.23 Name an Output Module (--output_file Option)

The linker creates an output module when no errors are encountered. If you do not specify a filename for the output module, the linker gives it the default name a.out. If you want to write the output module to a different file, use the --output_file option. The syntax for the --output_file option is:

```
--output_file= filename
```

The *filename* is the new output module name.

This example links file1.obj and file2.obj and creates an output module named run.out:

```
clpru --run_linker --output_file=run.out file1.obj file2.obj
```

8.4.24 Prioritizing Function Placement (--preferred_order Option)

The compiler prioritizes the placement of a function relative to others based on the order in which --preferred_order options are encountered during the linker invocation. The syntax is:

```
--preferred_order=function specification
```

Refer to the *PRU Optimizing C/C++ Compiler User's Guide* for details on the program cache layout tool, which is impacted by --preferred_option.

8.4.25 C Language Options (--ram_model and --rom_model Options)

The --ram_model and --rom_model options cause the linker to use linking conventions that are required by the C compiler.

- The --ram_model option tells the linker to initialize variables at load time.
- The --rom_model option tells the linker to autoinitialize variables at run time.

For more information, see [Section 8.10](#) and [Section 3.3.2](#).

8.4.26 Retain Discarded Sections (--retain Option)

When --unused_section_elimination is on, the ELF linker does not include a section in the final link if it is not needed in the executable to resolve references. The --retain option tells the linker to retain a list of sections that would otherwise not be retained. This option accepts the wildcards '*' and '?'. When wildcards are used, the argument should be in quotes. The syntax for this option is:

```
--retain=sym_or_scn_spec
```

The --retain option take one of the following forms:

- **--retain= symbol_spec**
 Specifying the symbol format retains sections that define *symbol_spec*. For example, this code retains sections that define symbols that start with init:

```
--retain='init*'
```

 You cannot specify --retain='*'.
- **--retain= file_spec(sc_n_spec[, sc_n_spec, ...])**
 Specifying the file format retains sections that match one or more *sc_n_spec* from files matching the *file_spec*. For example, this code retains .intvec sections from all input files:

```
--retain='*(.int*)'
```

 You can specify --retain='(*)' to retain all sections from all input files. However, this does not prevent sections from library members from being optimized out.

- retain=** *ar_spec*<*mem_spec*, [*mem_spec*, ...]>(*scn_spec*[, *scn_spec*, ...])
 Specifying the archive format retains sections matching one or more *scn_spec* from members matching one or more *mem_spec* from archive files matching *ar_spec*. For example, this code retains the .text sections from printf.obj in the rtspruv3_le.lib library:

```
--retain=rtspruv3_le.lib<printf.obj>(.text)
```

 If the library is specified with the --library option (--library=rtspruv3_le.lib) the library search path is used to search for the library. You cannot specify '*<*>(*)'.

8.4.27 Create an Absolute Listing File (--run_abs Option)

The --run_abs option produces an output file for each file linked. These files are named with the input filenames and an extension of .abs. Header files, however, do not generate a corresponding .abs file.

8.4.28 Scan All Libraries for Duplicate Symbol Definitions (--scan_libraries)

The --scan_libraries option scans all libraries during a link looking for duplicate symbol definitions to those symbols that are actually included in the link. The scan does not consider absolute symbols or symbols defined in COMDAT sections. The --scan_libraries option helps determine those symbols that were actually chosen by the linker over other existing definitions of the same symbol in a library.

The library scanning feature can be used to check against unintended resolution of a symbol reference to a definition when multiple definitions are available in the libraries.

8.4.29 Define Stack Size (--stack_size Option)

The PRU C/C++ compiler uses an uninitialized section, .stack, to allocate space for the run-time stack. You can set the size of this section in bytes at link time with the --stack_size option. The syntax for the --stack_size option is:

--stack_size= *size*

The *size* must be a constant and is in bytes. This example defines a 4K byte stack:

```
clpru --run_linker --stack_size=0x1000 /* defines a 4K heap (.stack section)*/
```

If you specified a different stack size in an input section, the input section stack size is ignored. Any symbols defined in the input section remain valid; only the stack size is different.

When the linker defines the .stack section, it also defines a global symbol, __TI_STACK_SIZE, and assigns it a value equal to the size of the section. The default software stack size is . See [Section 8.6.1](#) for information about referring to linker symbols in C/C++ code.

8.4.30 Enforce Strict Compatibility (--strict_compatibility Option)

The linker performs more conservative and rigorous compatibility checking of input object files when you specify the --strict_compatibility option. Using this option guards against additional potential compatibility issues, but may signal false compatibility errors when linking in object files built with an older toolset, or with object files built with another compiler vendor's toolset. To avoid issues with legacy libraries, the --strict_compatibility option is turned off by default.

8.4.31 Mapping of Symbols (--symbol_map Option)

Symbol mapping allows a symbol reference to be resolved by a symbol with a different name. Symbol mapping allows functions to be overridden with alternate definitions. This feature can be used to patch in alternate implementations, which provide patches (bug fixes) or alternate functionality. The syntax for the --symbol_map option is:

--symbol_map= *refname=defname*

For example, the following code makes the linker resolve any references to foo by the definition foo_patch:

```
--symbol_map='foo=foo_patch'
```

8.4.32 Introduce an Unresolved Symbol (`--undef_sym` Option)

The `--undef_sym` option introduces the linkname for an unresolved symbol into the linker's symbol table. This forces the linker to search a library and include the member that defines the symbol. The linker must encounter the `--undef_sym` option *before* it links in the member that defines the symbol. The syntax for the `--undef_sym` option is:

`--undef_sym= symbol`

For example, suppose a library named `rtspruv3_le.lib` contains a member that defines the symbol `symtab`; none of the object files being linked reference `symtab`. However, suppose you plan to relink the output module and you want to include the library member that defines `symtab` in this link. Using the `--undef_sym` option as shown below forces the linker to search `rtspruv3_le.lib` for the member that defines `symtab` and to link in the member.

```
clpru --run_linker --undef_sym=symtab file1.obj file2.obj rtspruv3_le.lib
```

If you do not use `--undef_sym`, this member is not included, because there is no explicit reference to it in `file1.obj` or `file2.obj`.

8.4.33 Display a Message When an Undefined Output Section Is Created (`--warn_sections`)

In a linker command file, you can set up a `SECTIONS` directive that describes how input sections are combined into output sections. However, if the linker encounters one or more input sections that do not have a corresponding output section defined in the `SECTIONS` directive, the linker combines the input sections that have the same name into an output section with that name. By default, the linker does not display a message to tell you that this occurred.

You can use the `--warn_sections` option to cause the linker to display a message when it creates a new output section.

For more information about the `SECTIONS` directive, see [Section 8.5.5](#). For more information about the default actions of the linker, see [Section 8.7](#).

8.4.34 Generate XML Link Information File (`--xml_link_info` Option)

The linker supports the generation of an XML link information file through the `--xml_link_info=file` option. This option causes the linker to generate a well-formed XML file containing detailed information about the result of a link. The information included in this file includes all of the information that is currently produced in a linker generated map file. See [Appendix B](#) for specifics on the contents of the generated XML file.

8.4.35 Zero Initialization (`--zero_init` Option)

The C and C++ standards require that global and static variables that are not explicitly initialized must be set to 0 before program execution. The C/C++ compiler supports preinitialization of uninitialized variables by default. To turn this off, specify the linker option `--zero_init=off`.

The syntax for the `--zero_init` option is:

`--zero_init[={on|off}]`

Disabling Zero Initialization Not Recommended

NOTE: In general, this option it is not recommended. If you turn off zero initialization, automatic initialization of uninitialized global and static objects to zero will not occur. You are then expected to initialize these variables to zero in some other manner.

8.5 Linker Command Files

Linker command files allow you to put linker options and directives in a file; this is useful when you invoke the linker often with the same options and directives. Linker command files are also useful because they allow you to use the MEMORY and SECTIONS directives to customize your application. You must use these directives in a command file; you cannot use them on the command line.

Linker command files are ASCII files that contain one or more of the following:

- Input filenames, which specify object files, archive libraries, or other command files. (If a command file calls another command file as input, this statement must be the *last* statement in the calling command file. The linker does not return from called command files.)
- Linker options, which can be used in the command file in the same manner that they are used on the command line
- The MEMORY and SECTIONS linker directives. The MEMORY directive defines the target memory configuration (see [Section 8.5.4](#)). The SECTIONS directive controls how sections are built and allocated (see [Section 8.5.5](#).)
- Assignment statements, which define and assign values to global symbols

To invoke the linker with a command file, enter the `clpru --run_linker` command and follow it with the name of the command file:

```
clpru --run_linker command_filename
```

The linker processes input files in the order that it encounters them. If the linker recognizes a file as an object file, it links the file. Otherwise, it assumes that a file is a command file and begins reading and processing commands from it. Command filenames are case sensitive, regardless of the system used.

[Example 8-1](#) shows a sample linker command file called `link.cmd`.

Example 8-1. Linker Command File

```
a.obj           /* First input filename      */
b.obj           /* Second input filename     */
--output_file=prog.out /* Option to specify output file */
--map_file=prog.map   /* Option to specify map file  */
```

The sample file in [Example 8-1](#) contains only filenames and options. (You can place comments in a command file by delimiting them with `/*` and `*/`.) To invoke the linker with this command file, enter:

```
clpru --run_linker link.cmd
```

You can place other parameters on the command line when you use a command file:

```
clpru --run_linker --relocatable link.cmd c.obj d.obj
```

The linker processes the command file as soon as it encounters the filename, so `a.obj` and `b.obj` are linked into the output module before `c.obj` and `d.obj`.

You can specify multiple command files. If, for example, you have a file called `names.lst` that contains filenames and another file called `dir.cmd` that contains linker directives, you could enter:

```
clpru --run_linker names.lst dir.cmd
```

One command file can call another command file; this type of nesting is limited to 16 levels. If a command file calls another command file as input, this statement must be the *last* statement in the calling command file.

Blanks and blank lines are insignificant in a command file except as delimiters. This also applies to the format of linker directives in a command file. [Example 8-2](#) shows a sample command file that contains linker directives.

Example 8-2. Command File With Linker Directives

```

a.obj b.obj c.obj          /* Input filenames      */
--output_file=prog.out    /* Options          */
--map_file=prog.map

MEMORY                    /* MEMORY directive */
{
  FAST_MEM:  origin = 0x0100  length = 0x0100
  SLOW_MEM:  origin = 0x7000  length = 0x1000
}

SECTIONS                  /* SECTIONS directive */
{
  .text: > SLOW_MEM
  .data: > SLOW_MEM
  .bss:  > FAST_MEM
}

```

For more information, see [Section 8.5.4](#) for the MEMORY directive, and [Section 8.5.5](#) for the SECTIONS directive.

8.5.1 Reserved Names in Linker Command Files

The following names (in both uppercase and lowercase) are reserved as keywords for linker directives. Do not use them as symbol or section names in a command file.

In addition, any section names used by the TI tools are reserved from being used as the prefix for other names, unless the section will be a subsection of the section name used by the TI tools. For example, section names may not begin with .debug.

8.5.2 Constants in Linker Command Files

You can specify constants with either of two syntax schemes: the scheme used for specifying decimal, octal, or hexadecimal constants (but not binary constants) used in the assembler (see [Section 4.6](#)) or the scheme used for integer constants in C syntax.

Examples:

Format	Decimal	Octal	Hexadecimal
Assembler format	32	40q	020h
C format	32	040	0x20

8.5.3 Accessing Files and Libraries from a Linker Command File

Many applications use custom linker command files (or LCFs) to control the placement of code and data in target memory. For example, you may want to place a specific data object from a specific file into a specific location in target memory. This is simple to do using the available LCF syntax to reference the desired object file or library. However, a problem that many developers run into when they try to do this is a linker generated "file not found" error when accessing an object file or library from inside the LCF that has been specified earlier in the command-line invocation of the linker. Most often, this error occurs because the syntax used to access the file on the linker command-line does not match the syntax that is used to access the same file in the LCF.

Consider a simple example. Imagine that you have an application that requires a table of constants called "app_coefs" to be defined in a memory area called "DDR". Assume also that the "app_coefs" data object is defined in a .data section that resides in an object file, app_coefs.obj. app_coefs.obj is then included in the object file library app_data.lib. In your LCF, you can control the placement of the "app_coefs" data object as follows:

```
SECTIONS
{
    ...
    .coefs: { app_data.lib<app_coefs.obj>( .data) } > DDR
    ...
}
```

Now assume that the app_data.lib object library resides in a sub-directory called "lib" relative to where you are building the application. In order to gain access to app_data.lib from the build command-line, you can use a combination of the `-i` and `-l` options to set up a directory search path which the linker can use to find the app_data.lib library:

The `-i` option adds the lib sub-directory to the directory search path and the `-l` option instructs the linker to look through the directories in the directory search path to find the app_data.lib library. However, if you do not update the reference to app_data.lib in mylnk.cmd, the linker will fail to find the app_data.lib library and generate a "file not found" error. The reason is that when the linker encounters the reference to app_data.lib inside the SECTIONS directive, there is no `-l` option preceding the reference. Therefore, the linker tries to open app_data.lib in the current working directory.

In essence, the linker has a few different ways of opening files:

- If there is a path specified, the linker will look for the file in the specified location. For an absolute path, the linker will try to open the file in the specified directory. For a relative path, the linker will follow the specified path starting from the current working directory and try to open the file at that location.
- If there is no path specified, the linker will try to open the file in the current working directory.
- If a `-l` option precedes the file reference, then the linker will try to find and open the referenced file in one of the directories in the directory search path. The directory search path is set up via `-i` options and environment variables (like `C_DIR` and `.`).

As long as a file is referenced in a consistent manner on the command line and throughout any applicable LCFs, the linker will be able to find and open your object files and libraries.

Returning to the earlier example, you can insert a `-l` option in front of the reference to app_data.lib in mylnk.cmd to ensure that the linker will find and open the app_data.lib library when the application is built:

```
SECTIONS
{
    ...
    .coefs: { -l app_data.lib<app_coefs.obj>( .data) } > DDR
    ...
}
```

Another benefit to using the `-l` option when referencing a file from within an LCF is that if the location of the referenced file changes, you can modify the directory search path to incorporate the new location of the file (using `-i` option on the command line, for example) without having to modify the LCF.

8.5.4 The MEMORY Directive

The linker determines where output sections are allocated into memory; it must have a model of target memory to accomplish this. The MEMORY directive allows you to specify a model of target memory so that you can define the types of memory your system contains and the address ranges they occupy. The linker maintains the model as it allocates output sections and uses it to determine which memory locations can be used for object code.

The memory configurations of PRU systems differ from application to application. The MEMORY directive allows you to specify a variety of configurations. After you use MEMORY to define a memory model, you can use the SECTIONS directive to allocate output sections into defined memory.

For more information, see [Section 2.5](#).

8.5.4.1 Default Memory Model

If you do not use the MEMORY directive, the linker uses a default memory model that is based on the PRU architecture. This model assumes that the full 32-bit address space (2^{32} locations) is present in the system and available for use. For more information about the default memory model, see [Section 8.7](#).

8.5.4.2 MEMORY Directive Syntax

The MEMORY directive identifies ranges of memory that are physically present in the target system and can be used by a program. Each range has several characteristics:

- Name
- Starting address
- Length
- Optional set of attributes
- Optional fill specification

When you use the MEMORY directive, be sure to identify all memory ranges that are available for the program to access at run time. Memory defined by the MEMORY directive is configured; any memory that you do not explicitly account for with MEMORY is unconfigured. The linker does not place any part of a program into unconfigured memory. You can represent nonexistent memory spaces by simply not including an address range in a MEMORY directive statement.

The MEMORY directive is specified in a command file by the word MEMORY (uppercase), followed by a list of memory range specifications enclosed in braces. The MEMORY directive in [Example 8-3](#) defines a system that has 4K bytes of fast external memory at address 0x0000 0000, 2K bytes of slow external memory at address 0x0000 1000 and 4K bytes of slow external memory at address 0x1000 0000. It also demonstrates the use of memory range expressions as well as start/end/size address operators (see [Example 8-4](#)).

Example 8-3. The MEMORY Directive

```

/*****
/*      Sample command file with MEMORY directive      */
/*****
file1.obj   file2.obj           /*      Input files      */
--output_file=prog.out        /*      Options       */

MEMORY
{
    FAST_MEM (RX): origin = 0x00000000 length = 0x00001000 CREGISTER=2
    SLOW_MEM (RW): origin = 0x00001000 length = 0x00000800
    EXT_MEM (RX):  origin = 0x10000000 length = 0x00001000

```

The general syntax for the MEMORY directive is:

MEMORY

```
{
    name 1 [( attr )] : origin = expression , length = expression [CREGISTER = constant] [, fill =
    constant]
    .
    .
    name n [( attr )] : origin = expression , length = expression [, fill = constant]
}
```

name	names a memory range. A memory name can be one to 64 characters; valid characters include A-Z, a-z, \$, ., and _. The names have no special significance to the linker; they simply identify memory ranges. Memory range names are internal to the linker and are not retained in the output file or in the symbol table. All memory ranges must have unique names and must not overlap.
attr	specifies one to four attributes associated with the named range. Attributes are optional; when used, they must be enclosed in parentheses. Attributes restrict the allocation of output sections into certain memory ranges. If you do not use any attributes, you can allocate any output section into any range with no restrictions. Any memory for which no attributes are specified (including all memory in the default model) has all four attributes. Valid attributes are: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> R specifies that the memory can be read. W specifies that the memory can be written to. X specifies that the memory can contain executable code. I specifies that the memory can be initialized.
origin	specifies the starting address of a memory range; enter as <i>origin</i> , <i>org</i> , or <i>o</i> . The value, specified in bytes, is a 32-bit integer constant expression, which can be decimal, octal, or hexadecimal.
length	specifies the length of a memory range; enter as <i>length</i> , <i>len</i> , or <i>l</i> . The value, specified in bytes, is a 32-bit integer constant expression, which can be decimal, octal, or hexadecimal.
CREGISTER	The CREGISTER specifier associates a PRU constant table entry with a memory range.
R	That constant table entry is then used when the memory name is specified with the "cregister" type attribute in C code. See the "Type Attributes" section of the <i>PRU Optimizing C/C++ Compiler User's Guide</i> (SPRUHV7).
fill	specifies a fill character for the memory range; enter as <i>fill</i> or <i>f</i> . Fills are optional. The value is an integer constant and can be decimal, octal, or hexadecimal. The fill value is used to fill areas of the memory range that are not allocated to a section. (See Section 8.5.9.3 for virtual filling of memory ranges when using Error Correcting Code (ECC).)

Filling Memory Ranges

NOTE: If you specify fill values for large memory ranges, your output file will be very large because filling a memory range (even with 0s) causes raw data to be generated for all unallocated blocks of memory in the range.

The following example specifies a memory range with the R and W attributes and a fill constant of 0FFFFFFh:

```
MEMORY
{
    RFILE (RW) : o = 0x0020, l = 0x1000, f = 0xFFFF
}
```

The following example uses the CREGISTER specifier:

```
MEMORY
{
    PRU_MEM_0 : org = 0x00000000 len = 0x00002000 CREGISTER=24
    PRU_MEM_1 : org = 0x00002000 len = 0x00002000 CREGISTER=25
}
```

The use of the CREGISTER specifier in the linker command file allows the cregister type attribute to be used in C code as follows:

```
int x __attribute__((register("PRU_MEM_0", near), peripheral));
```

Linker command files normally use the MEMORY directive in conjunction with the SECTIONS directive to control placement of output sections. For more information about the SECTIONS directive, see [Section 8.5.5](#).

8.5.4.3 Expressions and Address Operators

Memory range origin and length can use expressions of integer constants with the following operators:

Binary operators: * / % + - << >> == =
 < <= > >= & | && ||

Unary operators: - ~ !

Expressions are evaluated using standard C operator precedence rules.

No checking is done for overflow or underflow, however, expressions are evaluated using a larger integer type.

Preprocess directive #define constants can be used in place of integer constants. Global symbols cannot be used in Memory Directive expressions.

Three address operators reference memory range properties from prior memory range entries:

START(MR)	Returns start address for previously defined memory range MR.
SIZE(MR)	Returns size of previously defined memory range MR.
END(MR)	Returns end address for previously defined memory range MR.

Example 8-4. Origin and Length as Expressions

```

/*****
/*      Sample command file with MEMORY directive      */
/*****
file1.obj file2.obj          /*      Input files      */
--output_file=prog.out      /*      Options      */
#define ORIGIN 0x00000000
#define BUFFER 0x00000200
#define CACHE 0x0001000

MEMORY
{
    FAST_MEM (RX): origin = ORIGIN + CACHE length = 0x00001000 + BUFFER
    SLOW_MEM (RW): origin = end(FAST_MEM) length = 0x00001800 - size(FAST_MEM)
    EXT_MEM  (RX): origin = 0x10000000    length = size(FAST_MEM) - CACHE

```

8.5.5 The SECTIONS Directive

After you use MEMORY to specify the target system's memory model, you can use SECTIONS to allocate output sections into specific named memory ranges or into memory that has specific attributes. For example, you could allocate the .text and .data sections into the area named FAST_MEM and allocate the .bss section into the area named SLOW_MEM.

The SECTIONS directive controls your sections in the following ways:

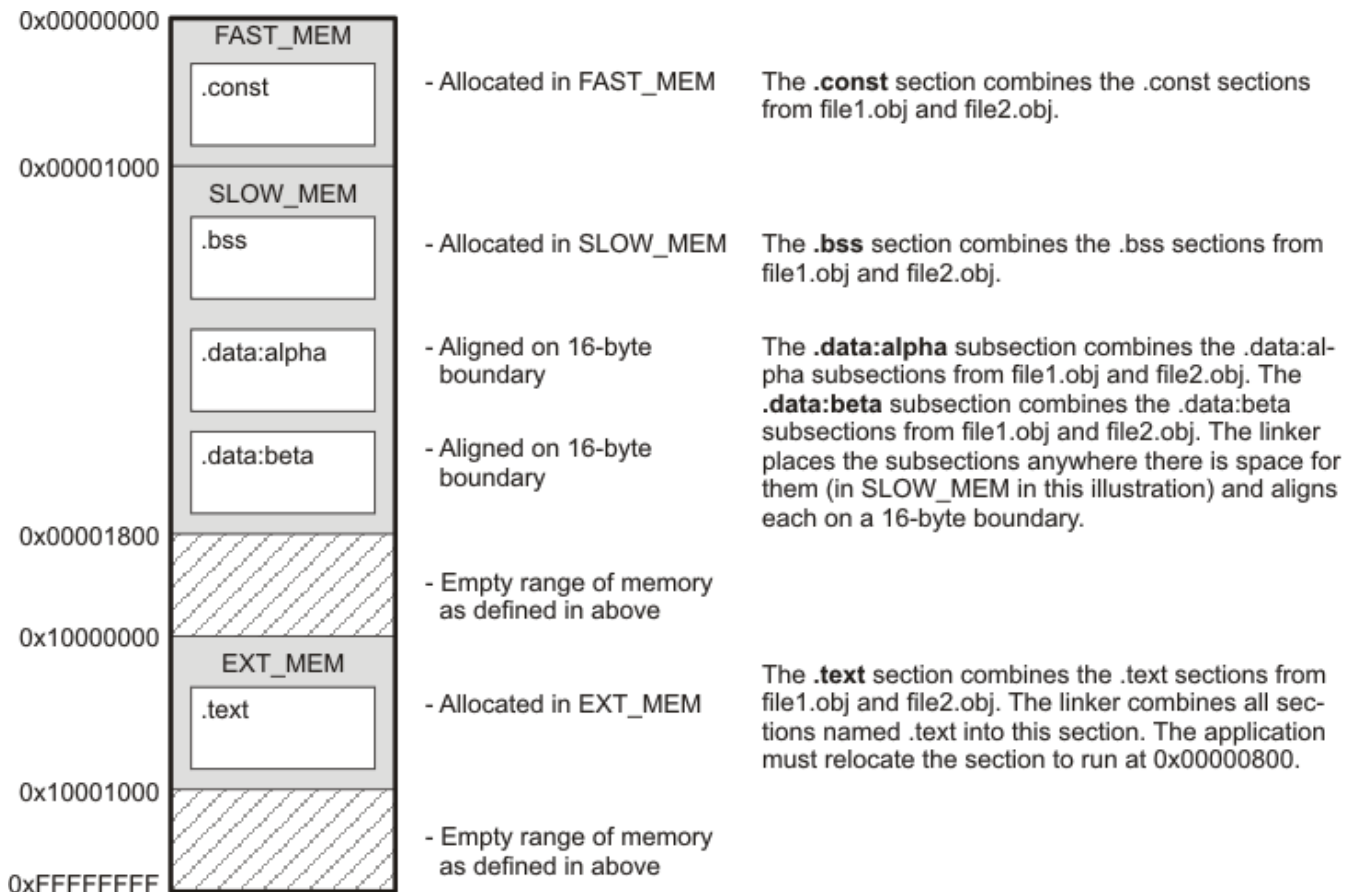
- Describes how input sections are combined into output sections
- Defines output sections in the executable program
- Allows you to control where output sections are placed in memory in relation to each other and to the entire memory space (Note that the memory placement order is *not* simply the sequence in which sections occur in the SECTIONS directive.)
- Permits renaming of output sections

For more information, see [Section 2.5](#), [Section 2.7](#), and [Section 2.4.6](#). Subsections allow you to manipulate sections with greater precision.

If you do not specify a SECTIONS directive, the linker uses a default algorithm for combining and allocating the sections. [Section 8.7](#) describes this algorithm in detail.

Figure 8-2 shows the output sections defined by the SECTIONS directive in Example 8-5 (.text, .const, .bss, .data:alpha, and .data:beta) and shows how these sections are allocated in memory using the MEMORY directive given in Example 8-3.

Figure 8-2. Section Placement Defined by Example 8-5



8.5.5.2 Section Allocation and Placement

The linker assigns each output section two locations in target memory: the location where the section will be loaded and the location where it will be run. Usually, these are the same, and you can think of each section as having only a single address. The process of locating the output section in the target's memory and assigning its address(es) is called placement. For more information about using separate load and run placement, see Section 8.5.6.

If you do not tell the linker how a section is to be allocated, it uses a default algorithm to place the section. Generally, the linker puts sections wherever they fit into configured memory. You can override this default placement for a section by defining it within a SECTIONS directive and providing instructions on how to allocate it.

You control placement by specifying one or more allocation parameters. Each parameter consists of a keyword, an optional equal sign or greater-than sign, and a value optionally enclosed in parentheses. If load and run placement are separate, all parameters following the keyword LOAD apply to load placement, and those following the keyword RUN apply to run placement. The allocation parameters are:

Binding	allocates a section at a specific address. .text: load = 0x1000
Named memory	allocates the section into a range defined in the MEMORY directive with the specified name (like SLOW_MEM) or attributes. .text: load > SLOW_MEM

- Alignment** uses the `align` or `palign` keyword to specify the section must start on an address boundary.
`.text: align = 0x100`
- Blocking** uses the `block` keyword to specify the section must fit between two address aligned to the blocking factor. If a section is too large, it starts on an address boundary.
`.text: block(0x100)`

For the load (usually the only) allocation, use a greater-than sign and omit the load keyword:

```
.text: > SLOW_MEM
.text: {...} > SLOW_MEM
.text: > 0x4000
```

If more than one parameter is used, you can string them together as follows:

```
.text: > SLOW_MEM align 16
```

Or if you prefer, use parentheses for readability:

```
.text: load = (SLOW_MEM align(16))
```

You can also use an input section specification to identify the sections from input files that are combined to form an output section. See [Section 8.5.5.3](#).

Additional information about controlling the order in which code and data are placed in memory is provided in the [FAQ topic on section placement](#).

8.5.5.2.1 Binding

You can set the starting address for an output section by following the section name with an address:

```
.text: 0x00001000
```

This example specifies that the `.text` section must begin at location `0x1000`. The binding address must be a 32-bit constant.

Output sections can be bound anywhere in configured memory (assuming there is enough space), but they cannot overlap. If there is not enough space to bind a section to a specified address, the linker issues an error message.

Binding is Incompatible With Alignment and Named Memory

NOTE: You cannot bind a section to an address if you use alignment or named memory. If you try to do this, the linker issues an error message.

8.5.5.2.2 Named Memory

You can allocate a section into a memory range that is defined by the `MEMORY` directive (see [Section 8.5.4](#)). This example names ranges and links sections into them:

```
MEMORY
{
    SLOW_MEM (RIX) : origin = 0x00000000, length = 0x00001000
    FAST_MEM (RWIX) : origin = 0x03000000, length = 0x00000300
}

SECTIONS
{
    .text : > SLOW_MEM
    .data : > FAST_MEM ALIGN(128)
    .bss : > FAST_MEM
}
```

In this example, the linker places `.text` into the area called `SLOW_MEM`. The `.data` and `.bss` output sections are allocated into `FAST_MEM`. You can align a section within a named memory range; the `.data` section is aligned on a 128-byte boundary within the `FAST_MEM` range.

Similarly, you can link a section into an area of memory that has particular attributes. To do this, specify a set of attributes (enclosed in parentheses) instead of a memory name. Using the same MEMORY directive declaration, you can specify:

```
SECTIONS
{
    .text: > (X) /* .text --> executable memory */
    .data: > (RI) /* .data --> read or init memory */
    .bss : > (RW) /* .bss --> read or write memory */
}
```

In this example, the .text output section can be linked into either the SLOW_MEM or FAST_MEM area because both areas have the X attribute. The .data section can also go into either SLOW_MEM or FAST_MEM because both areas have the R and I attributes. The .bss output section, however, must go into the FAST_MEM area because only FAST_MEM is declared with the W attribute.

You cannot control where in a named memory range a section is allocated, although the linker uses lower memory addresses first and avoids fragmentation when possible. In the preceding examples, assuming no conflicting assignments exist, the .text section starts at address 0. If a section must start on a specific address, use binding instead of named memory.

8.5.5.2.3 Controlling Placement Using The HIGH Location Specifier

The linker allocates output sections from low to high addresses within a designated memory range by default. Alternatively, you can cause the linker to allocate a section from high to low addresses within a memory range by using the HIGH location specifier in the SECTION directive declaration. You might use the HIGH location specifier in order to keep RTS code separate from application code, so that small changes in the application do not cause large changes to the memory map.

For example, given this MEMORY directive:

```
MEMORY
{
    RAM          : origin = 0x0200, length = 0x0800
    FLASH       : origin = 0x1100, length = 0xEEE0
    RESET       : origin = 0xFFFFE, length = 0x0002
}
```

and an accompanying SECTIONS directive:

```
SECTIONS
{
    .bss      : {} > RAM
    .system  : {} > RAM
    .stack   : {} > RAM (HIGH)
}
```

The HIGH specifier used on the .stack section placement causes the linker to attempt to allocate .stack into the higher addresses within the RAM memory range. The .bss and .system sections are allocated into the lower addresses within RAM. [Example 8-6](#) illustrates a portion of a map file that shows where the given sections are allocated within RAM for a typical program.

Example 8-6. Linker Placement With the HIGH Specifier

.bss	0	00000200	00000270	UNINITIALIZED	
		00000200	0000011a	rtsxxx.lib	: defs.obj (.bss)
		0000031a	00000088		: trgdrv.obj (.bss)
		000003a2	00000078		: lowlev.obj (.bss)
		0000041a	00000046		: exit.obj (.bss)
		00000460	00000008		: memory.obj (.bss)
		00000468	00000004		: _lock.obj (.bss)
		0000046c	00000002		: fopen.obj (.bss)
		0000046e	00000002	hello.obj	(.bss)
.systemem	0	00000470	00000120	UNINITIALIZED	
		00000470	00000004	rtsxxx .lib	: memory.obj (.systemem)
.stack	0	000008c0	00000140	UNINITIALIZED	
		000008c0	00000002	rtsxxx .lib	: boot.obj (.stack)

As shown in [Example 8-6](#), the .bss and .systemem sections are allocated at the lower addresses of RAM (0x0200 - 0x0590) and the .stack section is allocated at address 0x08c0, even though lower addresses are available.

Without using the HIGH specifier, the linker allocation would result in the code shown in [Example 8-7](#)

The HIGH specifier is ignored if it is used with specific address binding or automatic section splitting (>> operator).

Example 8-7. Linker Placement Without HIGH Specifier

.bss	0	00000200	00000270	UNINITIALIZED	
		00000200	0000011a	rtsxxx.lib	: defs.obj (.bss)
		0000031a	00000088		: trgdrv.obj (.bss)
		000003a2	00000078		: lowlev.obj (.bss)
		0000041a	00000046		: exit.obj (.bss)
		00000460	00000008		: memory.obj (.bss)
		00000468	00000004		: _lock.obj (.bss)
		0000046c	00000002		: fopen.obj (.bss)
		0000046e	00000002	hello.obj	(.bss)
.stack	0	00000470	00000140	UNINITIALIZED	
		00000470	00000002	rtsxxx.lib	: boot.obj (.stack)
.systemem	0	000005b0	00000120	UNINITIALIZED	
		000005b0	00000004	rtsxxx.lib	: memory.obj (.systemem)

8.5.5.2.4 Alignment and Blocking

You can tell the linker to place an output section at an address that falls on an n-byte boundary, where n is a power of 2, by using the align keyword. For example, the following code allocates .text so that it falls on a 32-byte boundary:

```
.text: load = align(32)
```

Blocking is a weaker form of alignment that allocates a section anywhere *within* a block of size n. The specified block size must be a power of 2. For example, the following code allocates .bss so that the entire section is contained in a single 128-byte or begins on that boundary:

```
bss: load = block(0x0080)
```

You can use alignment or blocking alone or in conjunction with a memory area, but alignment and blocking cannot be used together.

8.5.5.2.5 Alignment With Padding

As with `align`, you can tell the linker to place an output section at an address that falls on an `n`-byte boundary, where `n` is a power of 2, by using the `palign` keyword. In addition, `palign` ensures that the size of the section is a multiple of its placement alignment restrictions, padding the section size up to such a boundary, as needed.

For example, the following code lines allocate `.text` on a 2-byte boundary within the `PMEM` area. The `.text` section size is guaranteed to be a multiple of 2 bytes. Both statements are equivalent:

```
.text: palign(2) {} > PMEM

.text: palign = 2 {} > PMEM
```

If the linker adds padding to an initialized output section then the padding space is also initialized. By default, padding space is filled with a value of 0 (zero). However, if a fill value is specified for the output section then any padding for the section is also filled with that fill value. For example, consider the following section specification:

```
.mytext: palign(8), fill = 0xffffffff {} > PMEM
```

In this example, the length of the `.mytext` section is before the `palign` operator is applied. The contents of `.mytext` are as follows:

```
addr content
----
0000 0x1234
0002 0x1234
0004 0x1234
```

After the `palign` operator is applied, the length of `.mytext` is 8 bytes, and its contents are as follows:

```
addr content
----
0000 0x1234
0002 0x1234
0004 0x1234
0006 0xffff
```

The size of `.mytext` has been bumped to a multiple of 8 bytes and the padding created by the linker has been filled with `0xff`.

The fill value specified in the linker command file is interpreted as a 16-bit constant. If you specify this code:

```
.mytext: palign(8), fill = 0xff {} > PMEM
```

The fill value assumed by the linker is `0x00ff`, and `.mytext` will then have the following contents:

```
addr content
----
0000 0x1234
0002 0x1234
0004 0x1234
0006 0x00ff
```

If the `palign` operator is applied to an uninitialized section, then the size of the section is bumped to the appropriate boundary, as needed, but any padding created is not initialized.

The `palign` operator can also take a parameter of `power2`. This parameter tells the linker to add padding to increase the section's size to the next power of two boundary. In addition, the section is aligned on that power of 2 as well. For example, consider the following section specification:

```
.mytext: palign(power2) {} > PMEM
```

Assume that the size of the `.mytext` section is 120 bytes and `PMEM` starts at address `0x10020`. After applying the `palign(power2)` operator, the `.mytext` output section will have the following properties:

name	addr	size	align
.mytext	0x00010080	0x80	128

8.5.5.3 Specifying Input Sections

An input section specification identifies the sections from input files that are combined to form an output section. In general, the linker combines input sections by concatenating them in the order in which they are specified. However, if alignment or blocking is specified for an input section, all of the input sections within the output section are ordered as follows:

- All aligned sections, from largest to smallest
- All blocked sections, from largest to smallest
- All other sections, from largest to smallest

The size of an output section is the sum of the sizes of the input sections that it comprises.

[Example 8-8](#) shows the most common type of section specification; note that no input sections are listed.

Example 8-8. The Most Common Method of Specifying Section Contents

```
SECTIONS
{
    .text:
    .data:
    .bss:
}
```

In [Example 8-8](#), the linker takes all the `.text` sections from the input files and combines them into the `.text` output section. The linker concatenates the `.text` input sections in the order that it encounters them in the input files. The linker performs similar operations with the `.data` and `.bss` sections. You can use this type of specification for any output section.

You can explicitly specify the input sections that form an output section. Each input section is identified by its filename and section name. If the filename is hyphenated (or contains special characters), enclose it within quotes:

```
SECTIONS
{
    .text :           /* Build .text output section          */
    {
        f1.obj(.text) /* Link .text section from f1.obj          */
        f2.obj(sec1)  /* Link sec1 section from f2.obj           */
        "f3-new.obj"  /* Link ALL sections from f3-new.obj       */
        f4.obj(.text,sec2) /* Link .text and sec2 from f4.obj        */
        f5.obj(.task??) /* Link .task00, .task01, .taskXX, etc. from f5.obj */
        f6.obj(*_ctable) /* Link sections ending in "_ctable" from f6.obj */
        X*.obj(.text) /* Link .text section for all files starting with */
                       /* "X" and ending in ".obj"                */
    }
}
```

It is not necessary for input sections to have the same name as each other or as the output section they become part of. If a file is listed with no sections, *all* of its sections are included in the output section. If any additional input sections have the same name as an output section but are not explicitly specified by the `SECTIONS` directive, they are automatically linked in at the end of the output section. For example, if the linker found more `.text` sections in the preceding example and these `.text` sections *were not* specified anywhere in the `SECTIONS` directive, the linker would concatenate these extra sections after `f4.obj(sec2)`.

The specifications in [Example 8-8](#) are actually a shorthand method for the following:

```
SECTIONS
{
    .text: { *(.text) }
    .data: { *(.data) }
    .bss:  { *(.bss) }
}
```

The specification `*(.text)` means *the unallocated .text sections from all input files*. This format is useful if:

- You want the output section to contain all input sections that have a specified name, but the output section name is different from the input sections' name.
- You want the linker to allocate the input sections before it processes additional input sections or commands within the braces.

The following example illustrates the two purposes above:

```
SECTIONS
{
  .text : {
        abc.obj(xqt)
        *(.text)
      }
  .data : {
        *(.data)
        fil.obj(table)
      }
}
```

In this example, the `.text` output section contains a named section `xqt` from file `abc.obj`, which is followed by all the `.text` input sections. The `.data` section contains all the `.data` input sections, followed by a named section `table` from the file `fil.obj`. This method includes all the unallocated sections. For example, if one of the `.text` input sections was already included in another output section when the linker encountered `*(.text)`, the linker could not include that first `.text` input section in the second output section.

Each input section acts as a prefix and gathers longer-named sections. For example, the pattern `*(.data)` matches `.dataspecial`. This mechanism enables the use of subsections, which are described in the following section.

8.5.5.4 Using Multi-Level Subsections

Subsections can be identified with the base section name and one or more subsection names separated by colons. For example, `A:B` and `A:B:C` name subsections of the base section `A`. In certain places in a linker command file specifying a base name, such as `A`, selects the section `A` as well as any subsections of `A`, such as `A:B` or `A:C:D`.

A name such as `A:B` can specify a (sub)section of that name as well as any (multi-level) subsections beginning with that name, such as `A:B:C`, `A:B:OTHER`, etc. All subsections of `A:B` are also subsections of `A`. `A` and `A:B` are supersections of `A:B:C`. Among a group of supersections of a subsection, the nearest supersection is the supersection with the longest name. Thus, among `{A, A:B}` the nearest supersection of `A:B:C:D` is `A:B`. With multiple levels of subsections, the constraints are the following:

1. When specifying **input** sections within a file (or library unit) the section name selects an input section of the same name and any subsections of that name.
2. Input sections that are not explicitly allocated are allocated in an existing **output** section of the same name or in the nearest existing supersection of such an output section. An exception to this rule is that during a partial link (specified by the `--relocatable` linker option) a subsection is allocated only to an existing output section of the same name.
3. If no such output section described in 2) is defined, the input section is put in a **newly created output** section with the same name as the base name of the input section

Consider linking input sections with the following names:

europa:north:norway	europa:central:france	europa:south:spain
europa:north:sweden	europa:central:germany	europa:south:italy
europa:north:finland	europa:central:denmark	europa:south:malta
europa:north:iceland		

This SECTIONS specification allocates the input sections as indicated in the comments:

```
SECTIONS {
    nordic: {*(europe:north)
            *(europe:central:denmark)} /* the nordic countries */
    central: {*(europe:central)} /* france, germany */
    therest: {*(europe)} /* spain, italy, malta */
}
```

This SECTIONS specification allocates the input sections as indicated in the comments:

```
SECTIONS {
    islands: {*(europe:south:malta)
             *(europe:north:iceland)} /* malta, iceland */
    europe:north:finland : {} /* finland */
    europe:north : {} /* norway, sweden */
    europe:central : {} /* germany, denmark */
    europe:central:france: {} /* france */

    /* (italy, spain) go into a linker-generated output section "europe" */
}
```

Upward Compatibility of Multi-Level Subsections

NOTE: Existing linker commands that use the existing single-level subsection features and which do not contain section names containing multiple colon characters continue to behave as before. However, if section names in a linker command file or in the input sections supplied to the linker contain multiple colon characters, some change in behavior could be possible. You should carefully consider the impact of the rules for multiple levels to see if it affects a particular system link.

8.5.5.5 Specifying Library or Archive Members as Input to Output Sections

You can specify one or more members of an object library or archive for input to an output section. Consider this SECTIONS directive:

Example 8-9. Archive Members to Output Sections

```
SECTIONS
{
    boot > BOOT1
    {
        -l rtsXX.lib<boot.obj> (.text)
        -l rtsXX.lib<exit.obj> strcpy.obj (.text)
    }

    .rts > BOOT2
    {
        -l rtsXX.lib (.text)
    }

    .text > RAM
    {
        * (.text)
    }
}
```

In [Example 8-9](#), the .text sections of boot.obj, exit.obj, and strcpy.obj are extracted from the run-time-support library and placed in the .boot output section. The remainder of the run-time-support library object that is referenced is allocated to the .rts output section. Finally, the remainder of all other .text sections are to be placed in section .text.

An archive member or a list of members is specified by surrounding the member name(s) with angle brackets < and > after the library name. Any object files separated by commas or spaces from the specified archive file are legal within the angle brackets.

The `--library` option (which normally implies a library path search be made for the named file following the option) listed before each library in [Example 8-9](#) is optional when listing specific archive members inside < >. Using < > implies that you are referring to a library.

To collect a set of the input sections from a library in one place, use the `--library` option within the `SECTIONS` directive. For example, the following collects all the `.text` sections from `rtspruv3_le.lib` into the `.rtstest` section:

```
SECTIONS
{
    .rtstest { -l rtspruv3_le.lib(.text) } > RAM
}
```

SECTIONS Directive Effect on `--priority`

NOTE: Specifying a library in a `SECTIONS` directive causes that library to be entered in the list of libraries that the linker searches to resolve references. If you use the `--priority` option, the first library specified in the command file will be searched first.

8.5.5.6 Allocation Using Multiple Memory Ranges

The linker allows you to specify an explicit list of memory ranges into which an output section can be allocated. Consider the following example:

```
MEMORY
{
    P_MEM1 : origin = 0x02000, length = 0x01000
    P_MEM2 : origin = 0x04000, length = 0x01000
    P_MEM3 : origin = 0x06000, length = 0x01000
    P_MEM4 : origin = 0x08000, length = 0x01000
}
SECTIONS
{
    .text : { } > P_MEM1 | P_MEM2 | P_MEM4
}
```

The `|` operator is used to specify the multiple memory ranges. The `.text` output section is allocated as a whole into the first memory range in which it fits. The memory ranges are accessed in the order specified. In this example, the linker first tries to allocate the section in `P_MEM1`. If that attempt fails, the linker tries to place the section into `P_MEM2`, and so on. If the output section is not successfully allocated in any of the named memory ranges, the linker issues an error message.

With this type of `SECTIONS` directive specification, the linker can seamlessly handle an output section that grows beyond the available space of the memory range in which it is originally allocated. Instead of modifying the linker command file, you can let the linker move the section into one of the other areas.

8.5.5.7 Automatic Splitting of Output Sections Among Non-Contiguous Memory Ranges

The linker can split output sections among multiple memory ranges for efficient allocation. Use the >> operator to indicate that an output section can be split, if necessary, into the specified memory ranges:

```
MEMORY
{
    P_MEM1 : origin = 0x2000, length = 0x1000
    P_MEM2 : origin = 0x4000, length = 0x1000
    P_MEM3 : origin = 0x6000, length = 0x1000
    P_MEM4 : origin = 0x8000, length = 0x1000
}
SECTIONS
{
    .text: { *(.text) } >> P_MEM1 | P_MEM2 | P_MEM3 | P_MEM4
}
```

In this example, the >> operator indicates that the .text output section can be split among any of the listed memory areas. If the .text section grows beyond the available memory in P_MEM1, it is split on an input section boundary, and the remainder of the output section is allocated to P_MEM2 | P_MEM3 | P_MEM4.

The | operator is used to specify the list of multiple memory ranges.

You can also use the >> operator to indicate that an output section can be split within a single memory range. This functionality is useful when several output sections must be allocated into the same memory range, but the restrictions of one output section cause the memory range to be partitioned. Consider the following example:

```
MEMORY
{
    RAM : origin = 0x1000, length = 0x8000
}
SECTIONS
{
    .special: { f1.obj(.text) } load = 0x4000
    .text: { *(.text) } >> RAM
}
```

The .special output section is allocated near the middle of the RAM memory range. This leaves two unused areas in RAM: from 0x1000 to 0x4000, and from the end of f1.obj(.text) to 0x8000. The specification for the .text section allows the linker to split the .text section around the .special section and use the available space in RAM on either side of .special.

The >> operator can also be used to split an output section among all memory ranges that match a specified attribute combination. For example:

```
MEMORY
{
    P_MEM1 (RWX) : origin = 0x1000, length = 0x2000
    P_MEM2 (RWI) : origin = 0x4000, length = 0x1000
}
SECTIONS
{
    .text: { *(.text) } >> (RW)
}
```

The linker attempts to allocate all or part of the output section into any memory range whose attributes match the attributes specified in the SECTIONS directive.

This SECTIONS directive has the same effect as:

```
SECTIONS
{
.text: { *(.text) } >> P_MEM1 | P_MEM2
}
```

Certain sections should not be split:

- Certain sections created by the compiler, including
 - The .cinit section, which contains the autoinitialization table for C/C++ programs
 - The .pinit section, which contains the list of global constructors for C++ programs
- An output section with an input section specification that includes an expression to be evaluated. The expression may define a symbol that is used in the program to manage the output section at run time.
- An output section that has a START(), END(), OR SIZE() operator applied to it. These operators provide information about a section's load or run address, and size. Splitting the section may compromise the integrity of the operation.
- The run allocation of a UNION. (Splitting the load allocation of a UNION is allowed.)

If you use the >> operator on any of these sections, the linker issues a warning and ignores the operator.

8.5.6 Placing a Section at Different Load and Run Addresses

At times, you may want to load code into one area of memory and run it in another. For example, you may have performance-critical code in slow external memory. The code must be loaded into slow external memory, but it would run faster in fast external memory.

The linker provides a simple way to accomplish this. You can use the SECTIONS directive to direct the linker to allocate a section twice: once to set its load address and again to set its run address. For example:

```
.fir: load = SLOW_MEM, run = FAST_MEM
```

Use the *load* keyword for the load address and the *run* keyword for the run address.

See [Section 3.5](#) for an overview on run-time relocation.

The application must copy the section from its load address to its run address; this does *not* happen automatically when you specify a separate run address. (The TABLE operator instructs the linker to produce a copy table; see [Section 8.8.4.1](#).)

8.5.6.1 Specifying Load and Run Addresses

The load address determines where a loader places the raw data for the section. Any references to the section (such as labels in it) refer to its run address. See [Section 3.1.1](#) for an overview of load and run addresses.

If you provide only one allocation (either load or run) for a section, the section is allocated only once and loads and runs at the same address. If you provide both allocations, the section is allocated as if it were two sections of the same size. This means that both allocations occupy space in the memory map and cannot overlay each other or other sections. (The `UNION` directive provides a way to overlay sections; see [Section 8.5.7.2](#).)

If either the load or run address has additional parameters, such as alignment or blocking, list them after the appropriate keyword. Everything related to allocation after the keyword `load` affects the load address until the keyword `run` is seen, after which, everything affects the run address. The load and run allocations are completely independent, so any qualification of one (such as alignment) has no effect on the other. You can also specify run first, then load. Use parentheses to improve readability.

The examples that follow specify load and run addresses.

In this example, `align` applies only to load:

```
.data: load = SLOW_MEM, align = 32, run = FAST_MEM
```

The following example uses parentheses, but has effects that are identical to the previous example:

```
.data: load = (SLOW_MEM align 32), run = FAST_MEM
```

The following example aligns `FAST_MEM` to 32 bits for run allocations and aligns all load allocations to 16 bits:

```
.data: run = FAST_MEM, align 32, load = align 16
```

For more information on run-time relocation see [Section 3.5](#).

Uninitialized sections (such as `.bss`) are not loaded, so their only significant address is the run address. The linker allocates uninitialized sections only once: if you specify both run and load addresses, the linker warns you and ignores the load address. Otherwise, if you specify only one address, the linker treats it as a run address, regardless of whether you call it load or run.

This example specifies load and run addresses for an uninitialized section:

```
.bss: load = 0x1000, run = FAST_MEM
```

A warning is issued, load is ignored, and space is allocated in `FAST_MEM`. All of the following examples have the same effect. The `.bss` section is allocated in `FAST_MEM`.

```
.dbss: load = FAST_MEM
.bss: run = FAST_MEM
.bss: > FAST_MEM
```

8.5.7 Using GROUP and UNION Statements

Two SECTIONS statements allow you to organize or conserve memory: GROUP and UNION. Grouping sections causes the linker to allocate them contiguously in memory. Unioning sections causes the linker to allocate them to the same run address.

8.5.7.1 Grouping Output Sections Together

The SECTIONS directive's GROUP option forces several output sections to be allocated contiguously and in the order listed, unless the UNORDERED operator is used. For example, assume that a section named term_rec contains a termination record for a table in the .data section. You can force the linker to allocate .data and term_rec together:

Example 8-10. Allocate Sections Together

```
SECTIONS
{
  .text          /* Normal output section      */
  .bss           /* Normal output section      */
  GROUP 0x00001000 : /* Specify a group of sections */
  {
    .data        /* First section in the group  */
    term_rec     /* Allocated immediately after .data */
  }
}
```

You can use binding, alignment, or named memory to allocate a GROUP in the same manner as a single output section. In the preceding example, the GROUP is bound to address 0x1000. This means that .data is allocated at 0x1000, and term_rec follows it in memory.

You Cannot Specify Addresses for Sections Within a GROUP

NOTE: When you use the GROUP option, binding, alignment, or allocation into named memory can be specified for the group only. You cannot use binding, named memory, or alignment for sections within a group.

8.5.7.2 Overlaying Sections With the UNION Statement

For some applications, you may want to allocate more than one section that occupies the same address during run time. For example, you may have several routines you want in fast external memory at different stages of execution. Or you may want several data objects that are not active at the same time to share a block of memory. The UNION statement within the SECTIONS directive provides a way to allocate several sections at the same run-time address.

In [Example 8-11](#), the .bss sections from file1.obj and file2.obj are allocated at the same address in FAST_MEM. In the memory map, the union occupies as much space as its largest component. The components of a union remain independent sections; they are simply allocated together as a unit.

Example 8-11. The UNION Statement

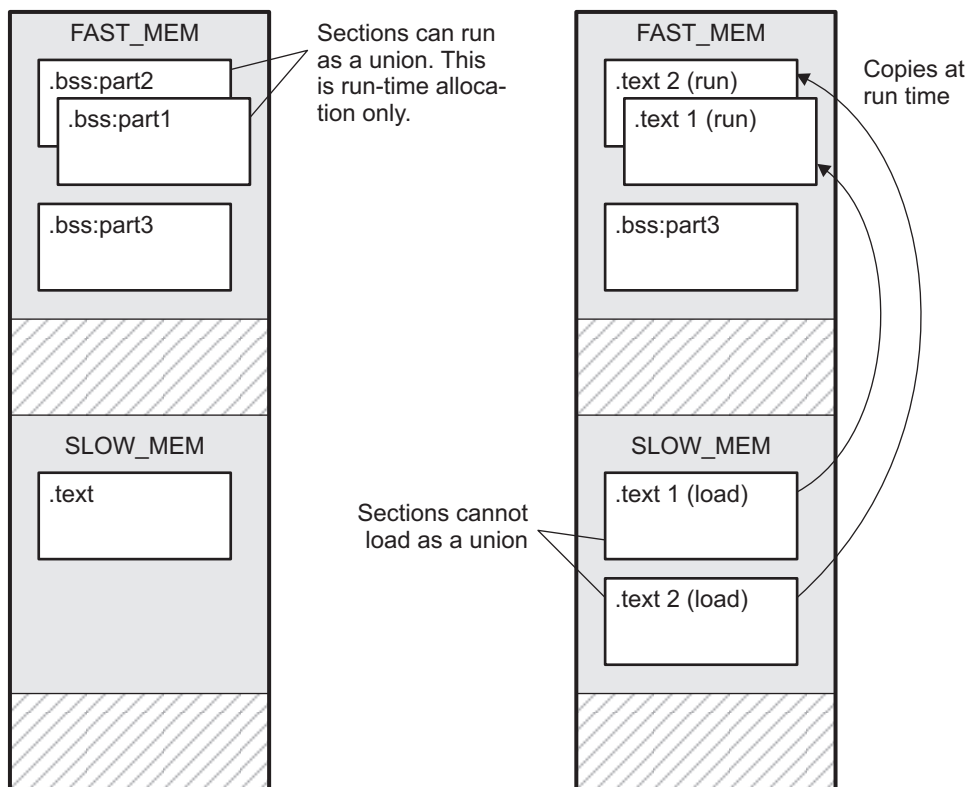
```
SECTIONS
{
  .text: load = SLOW_MEM
  UNION: run = FAST_MEM
  {
    .bss:part1: { file1.obj(.bss) }
    .bss:part2: { file2.obj(.bss) }
  }
  .bss:part3: run = FAST_MEM { globals.obj(.bss) }
}
```

Allocation of a section as part of a union affects only its *run* address. Under no circumstances can sections be overlaid for loading. If an initialized section is a union member (an initialized section, such as `.text`, has raw data), its load allocation *must* be separately specified. See [Example 8-12](#). (There is an exception to this rule when combining an initialized section with uninitialized sections; see [Section 8.5.7.3](#).)

Example 8-12. Separate Load Addresses for UNION Sections

```
UNION run = FAST_MEM
{
    .text:part1: load = SLOW_MEM, { file1.obj(.text) }
    .text:part2: load = SLOW_MEM, { file2.obj(.text) }
}
```

Figure 8-3. Memory Allocation Shown in [Example 8-11](#) and [Example 8-12](#)



Since the `.text` sections contain raw data, they cannot *load* as a union, although they can be *run* as a union. Therefore, each requires its own load address. If you fail to provide a load allocation for an initialized section within a UNION, the linker issues a warning and allocates load space anywhere it can in configured memory.

Uninitialized sections are not loaded and do not require load addresses.

The UNION statement applies only to allocation of run addresses, so it is meaningless to specify a load address for the union itself. For purposes of allocation, the union is treated as an uninitialized section: any one allocation specified is considered a run address, and if both run and load addresses are specified, the linker issues a warning and ignores the load address.

8.5.7.3 Using Memory for Multiple Purposes

One way to reduce an application's memory requirement is to use the same range of memory for multiple purposes. You can first use a range of memory for system initialization and startup. Once that phase is complete, the same memory can be repurposed as a collection of uninitialized data variables or a heap. To implement this scheme, use the following variation of the UNION statement to allow one section to be initialized and the remaining sections to be uninitialized.

Generally, an initialized section (one with raw data, such as .text) in a union must have its load allocation specified separately. However, one and only one initialized section in a union can be allocated at the union's run address. By listing it in the UNION statement with no load allocation at all, it will use the union's run address as its own load address.

For example:

```
UNION run = FAST_MEM
{ .cinit .bss }
```

In this example, the .cinit section is an initialized section. It will be loaded into FAST_MEM at the run address of the union. In contrast, .bss is an uninitialized section. Its run address will also be that of the union.

8.5.7.4 Nesting UNIONS and GROUPS

The linker allows arbitrary nesting of GROUP and UNION statements with the SECTIONS directive. By nesting GROUP and UNION statements, you can express hierarchical overlays and groupings of sections. [Example 8-13](#) shows how two overlays can be grouped together.

Example 8-13. Nesting GROUP and UNION Statements

```
SECTIONS
{
  GROUP 0x1000 : run = FAST_MEM
  {
    UNION:
    {
      mysect1: load = SLOW_MEM
      mysect2: load = SLOW_MEM
    }
    UNION:
    {
      mysect3: load = SLOW_MEM
      mysect4: load = SLOW_MEM
    }
  }
}
```

For this example, the linker performs the following allocations:

- The four sections (mysect1, mysect2, mysect3, mysect4) are assigned unique, non-overlapping load addresses. This assignment is determined by the particular load allocations given for each section.
- Sections mysect1 and mysect2 are assigned the same run address in FAST_MEM.
- Sections mysect3 and mysect4 are assigned the same run address in FAST_MEM.
- The run addresses of mysect1/mysect2 and mysect3/mysect4 are allocated contiguously, as directed by the GROUP statement (subject to alignment and blocking restrictions).

To refer to groups and unions, linker diagnostic messages use the notation:

GROUP_*n* UNION_*n*

where *n* is a sequential number (beginning at 1) that represents the lexical ordering of the group or union in the linker control file without regard to nesting. Groups and unions each have their own counter.

8.5.7.5 Checking the Consistency of Allocators

The linker checks the consistency of load and run allocations specified for unions, groups, and sections. The following rules are used:

- Run allocations are only allowed for top-level sections, groups, or unions (sections, groups, or unions that are not nested under any other groups or unions). The linker uses the run address of the top-level structure to compute the run addresses of the components within groups and unions.
- The linker does not accept a load allocation for UNIONS.
- The linker does not accept a load allocation for uninitialized sections.
- In most cases, you must provide a load allocation for an initialized section. However, the linker does not accept a load allocation for an initialized section that is located within a group that already defines a load allocator.
- As a shortcut, you can specify a load allocation for an entire group, to determine the load allocations for every initialized section or subgroup nested within the group. However, a load allocation is accepted for an entire group only if all of the following conditions are true:
 - The group is initialized (that is, it has at least one initialized member).
 - The group is not nested inside another group that has a load allocator.
 - The group does not contain a union containing initialized sections.
- If the group contains a union with initialized sections, it is necessary to specify the load allocation for each initialized section nested within the group. Consider the following example:

```
SECTIONS
{
  GROUP: load = SLOW_MEM, run = SLOW_MEM
  {
    .text1:
    UNION:
    {
      .text2:
      .text3:
    }
  }
}
```

The load allocator given for the group does not uniquely specify the load allocation for the elements within the union: `.text2` and `.text3`. In this case, the linker issues a diagnostic message to request that these load allocations be specified explicitly.

8.5.7.6 Naming UNIONS and GROUPS

You can give a name to a UNION or GROUP by entering the name in parentheses after the declaration. For example:

```
GROUP(BSS_SYSMEM_STACK_GROUP)
{
  .bss :{}
  .sysmem :{}
  .stack :{}
} load=D_MEM, run=D_MEM
```

The name you defined is used in diagnostics for easy identification of the problem LCF area. For example:

```
warning: LOAD placement ignored for "BSS_SYSMEM_STACK_GROUP": object is uninitialized
```

```
UNION(TEXT_CINIT_UNION)
{
  .const :{}load=D_MEM, table(table1)
  .pinit :{}load=D_MEM, table(table1)
}run=P_MEM
```

```
warning:table(table1) operator ignored: table(table1) has already been applied to a section
in the "UNION(TEXT_CINIT_UNION)" in which ".pinit" is a descendant
```

8.5.8 Special Section Types (DSECT, COPY, NOLOAD, and NOINIT)

You can assign the following special types to output sections: DSECT, COPY, NOLOAD, and NOINIT. These types affect the way that the program is treated when it is linked and loaded. You can assign a type to a section by placing the type after the section definition. For example:

```
SECTIONS
{
  sec1: load = 0x00002000, type = DSECT {f1.obj}
  sec2: load = 0x00004000, type = COPY {f2.obj}
  sec3: load = 0x00006000, type = NOLOAD {f3.obj}
  sec4: load = 0x00008000, type = NOINIT {f4.obj}
}
```

- The DSECT type creates a dummy section with the following characteristics:
 - It is not included in the output section memory allocation. It takes up no memory and is not included in the memory map listing.
 - It can overlay other output sections, other DSECTs, and unconfigured memory.
 - Global symbols defined in a dummy section are relocated normally. They appear in the output module's symbol table with the same value they would have if the DSECT had actually been loaded. These symbols can be referenced by other input sections.
 - Undefined external symbols found in a DSECT cause specified archive libraries to be searched.
 - The section's contents, relocation information, and line number information are not placed in the output module.

In the preceding example, none of the sections from f1.obj are allocated, but all the symbols are relocated as though the sections were linked at address 0x2000. The other sections can refer to any of the global symbols in sec1.

- A COPY section is similar to a DSECT section, except that its contents and associated information are written to the output module. The .cinit section that contains initialization tables for the PRU C/C++ compiler has this attribute under the run-time initialization model.
- A NOLOAD section differs from a normal output section in one respect: the section's contents, relocation information, and line number information are not placed in the output module. The linker allocates space for the section, and it appears in the memory map listing.
- A NOINIT section is not C auto-initialized by the linker. It is your responsibility to initialize this section as needed.

8.5.9 Configuring Error Correcting Code (ECC) with the Linker

Error Correcting Codes (ECC) can be generated and placed in separate sections through the linker command file. ECC uses extra bits to allow errors to be detected and/or corrected by a device. To enable ECC generation, you must include `--ecc=on` as a linker option on the command line. By default ECC generation is off, even if the ECC directive and ECC specifiers are used in the linker command file. This allows you to fully configure ECC in the linker command file while still being able to quickly turn the code generation on and off via the command line.

The ECC support provided by the linker is compatible with the ECC support in TI Flash memory on various TI devices. TI Flash memory uses a modified Hamming(72,64) code, which uses 8 parity bits for every 64 bits. Check the documentation for your Flash memory to see if ECC is supported. (ECC for read-write memory is handled completely in hardware at run time.)

You can control the details of ECC generation using the ECC specifier in the memory map ([Section 8.5.9.1](#)) and the ECC directive ([Section 8.5.9.2](#)).

See [Section 8.4.11](#) for command-line options that introduce bit errors into code that has a corresponding ECC section or into the ECC parity bits themselves. Use these options to test ECC error handling code.

ECC can be generated during linking. The ECC data is included in the resulting object file, alongside code and data, as a data section located at the appropriate address. No extra ECC generation step is required after compilation, and the ECC can be uploaded to the device along with everything else.

8.5.9.1 Using the ECC Specifier in the Memory Map

To generate ECC, add a separate memory range to your memory map to hold ECC data and to indicate which memory range contains the Flash data that corresponds to this ECC data. If you have multiple memory ranges for Flash data, you should add a separate ECC memory range for each Flash data range.

The definition of an ECC memory range can also provide parameters for how to generate the ECC data.

The memory map for a device supporting Flash ECC may look something like this:

```
MEMORY {
    VECTORS      : origin=0x00000000 length=0x000020
    FLASH0      : origin=0x00000020 length=0x17FFE0
    FLASH1      : origin=0x00180000 length=0x180000
    STACKS      : origin=0x08000000 length=0x000500
    RAM         : origin=0x08000500 length=0x03FB00
    ECC_VEC     : origin=0xf0400000 length=0x000004 ECC={ input_range=VECTORS }
    ECC_FLAO    : origin=0xf0400004 length=0x02FFFC ECC={ input_range=FLASH0 }
    ECC_FLAI    : origin=0xf0430000 length=0x030000 ECC={ input_range=FLASH1 }
}
```

The specification syntax for ECC memory ranges is as follows:

```
MEMORY {
    <memory specifier1> : <memory attributes> [ vfill=<fill value> ]
    <memory specifier2> : <memory attributes> ECC = {
        input_range = <memory specifier1>
        [ algorithm = <algorithm name> ]
        [ fill = [ true, false ] ]
    }
}
```

The "ECC" specifier attached to the ECC memory ranges indicates the data memory range that the ECC range covers. The ECC specifier supports the following parameters:

<code>input_range = <range></code>	The data memory range covered by this ECC data range. Required.
<code>algorithm = <ECC alg name></code>	The name of an ECC algorithm defined later in the command file using the ECC directive. Optional if only one algorithm is defined. (See Section 8.5.9.2 .)
<code>fill = true false</code>	Whether to generate ECC data for holes in the initialized data of the input range. The default is "true". Using <code>fill=false</code> produces behavior similar to the <code>nowECC</code> tool. The input range can be filled normally or using a virtual fill (see Section 8.5.9.3).

8.5.9.2 Using the ECC Directive

In addition to specifying ECC memory ranges in the memory map, the linker command file must specify parameters for the algorithm that generates ECC data. You might need multiple ECC algorithm specifications if you have multiple Flash devices.

Each TI device supporting Flash ECC has exactly one set of valid values for these parameters. The linker command files provided with Code Composer Studio include the ECC parameters necessary for ECC support on the Flash memory accessible by the device. Documentation is provided here for completeness.

You specify algorithm parameters with the top-level ECC directive in the linker command file. The specification syntax is as follows:

```
ECC {
    <algorithm name> : parity_mask = <8-bit integer>
                    mirroring   = [ F021, F035 ]
                    address_mask = <32-bit mask>
}
```

For example:

```
MEMORY {
    FLASH0 : origin=0x00000020 length=0x17FFE0
    ECC_FL A0 : origin=0xf0400004 length=0x02FFFC ECC={ input_range=FLASH0 algorithm=F021 }
}

ECC { F021 : parity_mask = 0xfc
      mirroring = F021 }
```

This ECC directive accepts the following attributes:

<i>algorithm_name</i>	Specify the name you would like to use for referencing the algorithm.
<i>address_mask = <32-bit mask></i>	This mask determines which bits of the address of each 64-bit piece of memory are used in the calculation of the ECC byte for that memory. Default is 0xffffffff, so that all bits of the address are used. (Note that the ECC algorithm itself ignores the lowest bits, which are always zero for a correctly-aligned input block.)
<i>parity_mask = <8-bit mask></i>	This mask determines which ECC bits encode even parity and which bits encode odd parity. Default is 0, meaning that all bits encode even parity.
<i>mirroring = F021 F035</i>	This setting determines the order of the ECC bytes and their duplication pattern for redundancy. Default is F021.

8.5.9.3 Using the VFILL Specifier in the Memory Map

Normally, specifying a fill value for a MEMORY range creates initialized data sections to cover any previously uninitialized areas of memory. To generate ECC data for an entire memory range, the linker either needs to have initialized data in the entire range, or needs to know what value uninitialized memory areas will have at run time.

In cases where you want to generate ECC for an entire memory range, but do not want to initialize the entire range by specifying a fill value, you can use the "vfill" specifier instead of a "fill" specifier to virtually fill the range:

```
MEMORY {
    FLASH : origin=0x0000 length=0x4000 vfill=0xffffffff
}
```

The vfill specifier is functionally equivalent to omitting a fill specifier, except that it allows ECC data to be generated for areas of the input memory range that remain uninitialized. This has the benefit of reducing the size of the resulting object file.

The vfill specifier has no effect other than in ECC data generation. It cannot be specified along with a fill specifier, since that would introduce ambiguity.

If fill is specified in the ECC specifier, but vfill is not specified, vfill defaults to 0xff.

8.5.10 Assigning Symbols at Link Time

Linker assignment statements allow you to define external (global) symbols and assign values to them at link time. You can use this feature to initialize a variable or pointer to an allocation-dependent value. See [Section 8.6.1](#) for information about referring to linker symbols in C/C++ code.

8.5.10.1 Syntax of Assignment Statements

The syntax of assignment statements in the linker is similar to that of assignment statements in the C language:

<i>symbol</i>	=	<i>expression</i> ;	assigns the value of expression to symbol
<i>symbol</i>	+=	<i>expression</i> ;	adds the value of expression to symbol
<i>symbol</i>	-=	<i>expression</i> ;	subtracts the value of expression from symbol
<i>symbol</i>	*=	<i>expression</i> ;	multiplies symbol by expression
<i>symbol</i>	/=	<i>expression</i> ;	divides symbol by expression

The symbol should be defined externally. If it is not, the linker defines a new symbol and enters it into the symbol table. The expression must follow the rules defined in [Section 8.5.10.3](#). Assignment statements *must* terminate with a semicolon.

The linker processes assignment statements *after* it allocates all the output sections. Therefore, if an expression contains a symbol, the address used for that symbol reflects the symbol's address in the executable output file.

For example, suppose a program reads data from one of two tables identified by two external symbols, Table1 and Table2. The program uses the symbol `cur_tab` as the address of the current table. The `cur_tab` symbol must point to either Table1 or Table2. You could accomplish this in the assembly code, but you would need to reassemble the program to change tables. Instead, you can use a linker assignment statement to assign `cur_tab` at link time:

```
prog.obj          /* Input file                               */
cur_tab = Table1; /* Assign cur_tab to one of the tables */
```

8.5.10.2 Assigning the SPC to a Symbol

A special symbol, denoted by a dot (`.`), represents the current value of the section program counter (SPC) during allocation. The SPC keeps track of the current location within a section. The linker's `.` symbol is analogous to the assembler's `$` symbol. The `.` symbol can be used only in assignment statements within a `SECTIONS` directive because `.` is meaningful only during allocation and `SECTIONS` controls the allocation process. (See [Section 8.5.5](#).)

The `.` symbol refers to the current run address, not the current load address, of the section.

For example, suppose a program needs to know the address of the beginning of the `.data` section. By using the `.global` directive (see [Identify Global Symbols](#)), you can create an external undefined variable called `Dstart` in the program. Then, assign the value of `.` to `Dstart`:

```
SECTIONS
{
    .text:    {}
    .data:    {Dstart = .;}
    .bss :    {}
}
```

This defines `Dstart` to be the first linked address of the `.data` section. (`Dstart` is assigned *before* `.data` is allocated.) The linker relocates all references to `Dstart`.

A special type of assignment assigns a value to the `.` symbol. This adjusts the SPC within an output section and creates a hole between two input sections. Any value assigned to `.` to create a hole is relative to the beginning of the section, not to the address actually represented by the `.` symbol. Holes and assignments to `.` are described in [Section 8.5.11](#).

8.5.10.3 Assignment Expressions

These rules apply to linker expressions:

- Expressions can contain global symbols, constants, and the C language operators listed in [Table 8-11](#).
- All numbers are treated as long (32-bit) integers.
- Constants are identified by the linker in the same way as by the assembler. That is, numbers are recognized as decimal unless they have a suffix (H or h for hexadecimal and Q or q for octal). C language prefixes are also recognized (0 for octal and 0x for hex). Hexadecimal constants must begin with a digit. No binary constants are allowed.
- Symbols within an expression have only the value of the symbol's *address*. No type-checking is performed.
- Linker expressions can be absolute or relocatable. If an expression contains *any* relocatable symbols (and 0 or more constants or absolute symbols), it is relocatable. Otherwise, the expression is absolute. If a symbol is assigned the value of a relocatable expression, it is relocatable; if it is assigned the value of an absolute expression, it is absolute.

The linker supports the C language operators listed in [Table 8-11](#) in order of precedence. Operators in the same group have the same precedence. Besides the operators listed in [Table 8-11](#), the linker also has an align operator that allows a symbol to be aligned on an n-byte boundary within an output section (n is a power of 2). For example, the following expression aligns the SPC within the current section on the next 16-byte boundary. Because the align operator is a function of the current SPC, it can be used only in the same context as `.`—that is, within a SECTIONS directive.

```
. = align(16);
```

Table 8-11. Groups of Operators Used in Expressions (Precedence)

Group 1 (Highest Precedence)		Group 6	
!	Logical NOT	&	Bitwise AND
~	Bitwise NOT		
-	Negation		
Group 2		Group 7	
*	Multiplication		Bitwise OR
/	Division		
%	Modulus		
Group 3		Group 8	
+	Addition	&&	Logical AND
-	Subtraction		
Group 4		Group 9	
>>	Arithmetic right shift		Logical OR
<<	Arithmetic left shift		
Group 5		Group 10 (Lowest Precedence)	
==	Equal to	=	Assignment
!=	Not equal to	+=	A += B is equivalent to A = A + B
>	Greater than	-=	A -= B is equivalent to A = A - B
<	Less than	*=	A *= B is equivalent to A = A * B
<=	Less than or equal to	/=	A /= B is equivalent to A = A / B
>=	Greater than or equal to		

8.5.10.4 Symbols Automatically Defined by the Linker

The linker automatically defines the following symbols for C/C++ support when the `--ram_model` or `--rom_model` option is used.

<code>__TI_STACK_END</code>	is assigned the end of the <code>.stack</code> size.
<code>__TI_STACK_SIZE</code>	is assigned the size of the <code>.stack</code> section for.
<code>__TI_SYSTEMEM_SIZE</code>	is assigned the size of the <code>.systemem</code> section.

These linker-defined symbols can be accessed in any assembly language module if they are declared with a `.global` directive (see [Identify Global Symbols](#)).

See [Section 8.6.1](#) for information about referring to linker symbols in C/C++ code.

8.5.10.5 Why the Dot Operator Does Not Always Work

The dot operator (`.`) is used to define symbols at link-time with a particular address inside of an output section. It is interpreted like a PC. Whatever the current offset within the current section is, that is the value associated with the dot. Consider an output section specification within a `SECTIONS` directive:

```
outsect:
{
    s1.obj(.text)
    end_of_s1 = .;
    start_of_s2 = .;
    s2.obj(.text)
    end_of_s2 = .;
}
```

This statement creates three symbols:

- `end_of_s1`—the end address of `.text` in `s1.obj`
- `start_of_s2`—the start address of `.text` in `s2.obj`
- `end_of_s2`—the end address of `.text` in `s2.obj`

Suppose there is padding between `s1.obj` and `s2.obj` created as a result of alignment. Then `start_of_s2` is not really the start address of the `.text` section in `s2.obj`, but it is the address before the padding needed to align the `.text` section in `s2.obj`. This is due to the linker's interpretation of the dot operator as the current PC. It is also true because the dot operator is evaluated independently of the input sections around it.

Another potential problem in the above example is that `end_of_s2` may not account for any padding that was required at the end of the output section. You cannot reliably use `end_of_s2` as the end address of the output section. One way to get around this problem is to create a dummy section immediately after the output section in question. For example:

```
GROUP
{
    outsect:
    {
        start_of_outsect = .;
        ...
    }
    dummy: { size_of_outsect = . - start_of_outsect; }
}
```

8.5.10.6 Address and Dimension Operators

Six operators allow you to define symbols for load-time and run-time addresses and sizes:

LOAD_START(<i>sym</i>) START(<i>sym</i>)	Defines <i>sym</i> with the load-time start address of related allocation unit
LOAD_END(<i>sym</i>) END(<i>sym</i>)	Defines <i>sym</i> with the load-time end address of related allocation unit
LOAD_SIZE(<i>sym</i>) SIZE(<i>sym</i>)	Defines <i>sym</i> with the load-time size of related allocation unit
RUN_START(<i>sym</i>)	Defines <i>sym</i> with the run-time start address of related allocation unit
RUN_END(<i>sym</i>)	Defines <i>sym</i> with the run-time end address of related allocation unit
RUN_SIZE(<i>sym</i>)	Defines <i>sym</i> with the run-time size of related allocation unit

Linker Command File Operator Equivalencies --

NOTE: LOAD_START() and START() are equivalent, as are LOAD_END()/END() and LOAD_SIZE()/SIZE(). The LOAD names are recommended for clarity.

These address and dimension operators can be associated with several different kinds of allocation units, including input items, output sections, GROUPs, and UNIONs. The following sections provide some examples of how the operators can be used in each case.

These symbols defined by the linker can be accessed at runtime using the `_symval` operator, which is essentially a cast operation. For example, suppose your linker command file contains the following:

```
.text: RUN_START(text_run_start), RUN_SIZE(text_run_size) { *(.text) }
```

Your C program can access these symbols as follows:

```
extern char text_run_start, text_run_size;

printf(".text load start is %lx\n", _symval(&text_run_start));
printf(".text load size is %lx\n", _symval(&text_run_size));
```

See [Section 8.6.1](#) for more information about referring to linker symbols in C/C++ code.

8.5.10.6.1 Input Items

Consider an output section specification within a SECTIONS directive:

```
outsect:
{
    s1.obj(.text)
    end_of_s1 = .;
    start_of_s2 = .;
    s2.obj(.text)
    end_of_s2 = .;
}
```

This can be rewritten using the START and END operators as follows:

```
outsect:
{
    s1.obj(.text) { END(end_of_s1) }
    s2.obj(.text) { START(start_of_s2), END(end_of_s2) }
}
```

The values of `end_of_s1` and `end_of_s2` will be the same as if you had used the dot operator in the original example, but `start_of_s2` would be defined after any necessary padding that needs to be added between the two `.text` sections. Remember that the dot operator would cause `start_of_s2` to be defined before any necessary padding is inserted between the two input sections.

The syntax for using these operators in association with input sections calls for braces `{ }` to enclose the operator list. The operators in the list are applied to the input item that occurs immediately before the list.

8.5.10.6.2 Output Section

The START, END, and SIZE operators can also be associated with an output section. Here is an example:

```
outsect: START(start_of_outsect), SIZE(size_of_outsect)
{
    <list of input items>
}
```

In this case, the SIZE operator defines `size_of_outsect` to incorporate any padding that is required in the output section to conform to any alignment requirements that are imposed.

The syntax for specifying the operators with an output section does not require braces to enclose the operator list. The operator list is simply included as part of the allocation specification for an output section.

8.5.10.6.3 GROUPs

Here is another use of the START and SIZE operators in the context of a GROUP specification:

```
GROUP
{
    outsect1: { ... }
    outsect2: { ... }
} load = ROM, run = RAM, START(group_start), SIZE(group_size);
```

This can be useful if the whole GROUP is to be loaded in one location and run in another. The copying code can use `group_start` and `group_size` as parameters for where to copy from and how much is to be copied.

8.5.10.6.4 UNIONS

The RUN_SIZE and LOAD_SIZE operators provide a mechanism to distinguish between the size of a UNION's load space and the size of the space where its constituents are going to be copied before they are run. Here is an example:

```
UNION: run = RAM, LOAD_START(union_load_addr),
      LOAD_SIZE(union_ld_sz), RUN_SIZE(union_run_sz)
{
    .text1: load = ROM, SIZE(text1_size) { f1.obj(.text) }
    .text2: load = ROM, SIZE(text2_size) { f2.obj(.text) }
}
```

Here `union_ld_sz` is going to be equal to the sum of the sizes of all output sections placed in the union. The `union_run_sz` value is equivalent to the largest output section in the union. Both of these symbols incorporate any padding due to blocking or alignment requirements.

8.5.11 Creating and Filling Holes

The linker provides you with the ability to create areas *within output sections* that have nothing linked into them. These areas are called *holes*. In special cases, uninitialized sections can also be treated as holes. This section describes how the linker handles holes and how you can fill holes (and uninitialized sections) with values.

8.5.11.1 Initialized and Uninitialized Sections

There are two rules to remember about the contents of output sections. An output section contains either:

- Raw data for the *entire* section
- No raw data

A section that has raw data is referred to as *initialized*. This means that the object file contains the actual memory image contents of the section. When the section is loaded, this image is loaded into memory at the section's specified starting address. The `.text` and `.data` sections *always* have raw data if anything was assembled into them. Named sections defined with the `.sect` assembler directive also have raw data.

By default, the `.bss` section (see [Reserve Space in the .bss Section](#)) and sections defined with the `.usect` directive (see [Reserve Uninitialized Space](#)) have no raw data (they are *uninitialized*). They occupy space in the memory map but have no actual contents. Uninitialized sections typically reserve space in fast external memory for variables. In the object file, an uninitialized section has a normal section header and can have symbols defined in it; no memory image, however, is stored in the section.

8.5.11.2 Creating Holes

You can create a hole in an initialized output section. A hole is created when you force the linker to leave extra space between input sections within an output section. When such a hole is created, *the linker must supply raw data for the hole*.

Holes can be created only *within* output sections. Space can exist *between* output sections, but such space is not a hole. To fill the space between output sections, see [Section 8.5.4.2](#).

To create a hole in an output section, you must use a special type of linker assignment statement within an output section definition. The assignment statement modifies the SPC (denoted by `.`) by adding to it, assigning a greater value to it, or aligning it on an address boundary. The operators, expressions, and syntaxes of assignment statements are described in [Section 8.5.10](#).

The following example uses assignment statements to create holes in output sections:

```
SECTIONS
{
  outsect:
  {
    file1.obj(.text)
    . += 0x0100 /* Create a hole with size 0x0100 */
    file2.obj(.text)
    . = align(16); /* Create a hole to align the SPC */
    file3.obj(.text)
  }
}
```

The output section `outsect` is built as follows:

1. The `.text` section from `file1.obj` is linked in.
2. The linker creates a 256-byte hole.
3. The `.text` section from `file2.obj` is linked in after the hole.
4. The linker creates another hole by aligning the SPC on a 16-byte boundary.
5. Finally, the `.text` section from `file3.obj` is linked in.

All values assigned to the `.` symbol within a section refer to the *relative address within the section*. The linker handles assignments to the `.` symbol as if the section started at address 0 (even if you have specified a binding address). Consider the statement `. = align(16)` in the example. This statement effectively aligns the `file3.obj .text` section to start on a 16-byte boundary within `outsect`. If `outsect` is ultimately allocated to start on an address that is not aligned, the `file3.obj .text` section will not be aligned either.

The `.` symbol refers to the current run address, not the current load address, of the section.

Expressions that decrement the `.` symbol are illegal. For example, it is invalid to use the `-=` operator in an assignment to the `.` symbol. The most common operators used in assignments to the `.` symbol are `+=` and `align`.

If an output section contains all input sections of a certain type (such as `.text`), you can use the following statements to create a hole at the beginning or end of the output section.

```
.text: { . += 0x0100; } /* Hole at the beginning */
.data: { *(.data)
        . += 0x0100; } /* Hole at the end */
```

Another way to create a hole in an output section is to combine an uninitialized section with an initialized section to form a single output section. *In this case, the linker treats the uninitialized section as a hole and supplies data for it.* The following example illustrates this method:

```
SECTIONS
{
  outsect:
  {
    file1.obj(.text)
    file1.obj(.bss) /* This becomes a hole */
  }
}
```

Because the `.text` section has raw data, all of `outsect` must also contain raw data. Therefore, the uninitialized `.bss` section becomes a hole.

Uninitialized sections become holes only when they are combined with initialized sections. If several uninitialized sections are linked together, the resulting output section is also uninitialized.

8.5.11.3 Filling Holes

When a hole exists in an initialized output section, the linker must supply raw data to fill it. The linker fills holes with a 32-bit fill value that is replicated through memory until it fills the hole. The linker determines the fill value as follows:

1. If the hole is formed by combining an uninitialized section with an initialized section, you can specify a fill value for the uninitialized section. Follow the section name with an = sign and a 32-bit constant. For example:

```
SECTIONS
{
  outsect:
  {
    file1.obj(.text)
    file2.obj(.bss)= 0xFF00FF00 /* Fill this hole with 0xFF00FF00 */
  }
}
```

2. You can also specify a fill value for all the holes in an output section by supplying the fill value after the section definition:

```
SECTIONS
{
  outsect:fill = 0xFF00FF00 /* Fills holes with 0xFF00FF00 */
  {
    . += 0x0010; /* This creates a hole */
    file1.obj(.text)
    file1.obj(.bss) /* This creates another hole */
  }
}
```

3. If you do not specify an initialization value for a hole, the linker fills the hole with the value specified with the `--fill_value` option (see [Section 8.4.13](#)). For example, suppose the command file `link.cmd` contains the following `SECTIONS` directive:

```
SECTIONS { .text: { . = 0x0100; } /* Create a 100 word hole */ }
```

Now invoke the linker with the `--fill_value` option:

```
clpru --run_linker --fill_value=0xFFFFFFFF link.cmd
```

This fills the hole with `0xFFFFFFFF`.

4. If you do not invoke the linker with the `--fill_value` option or otherwise specify a fill value, the linker fills holes with 0s.

Whenever a hole is created and filled in an initialized output section, the hole is identified in the link map along with the value the linker uses to fill it.

8.5.11.4 Explicit Initialization of Uninitialized Sections

You can force the linker to initialize an uninitialized section by specifying an explicit fill value for it in the `SECTIONS` directive. This causes the entire section to have raw data (the fill value). For example:

```
SECTIONS
{
  .bss: fill = 0x12341234 /* Fills .bss with 0x12341234 */
}
```

Filling Sections

NOTE: Because filling a section (even with 0s) causes raw data to be generated for the entire section in the output file, your output file will be very large if you specify fill values for large sections or holes.

8.6 Linker Symbols

This section provides information about using and resolving linker symbols.

8.6.1 Using Linker Symbols in C/C++ Applications

Linker symbols have a name and a value. The value is a 32-bit unsigned integer, even if it represents a pointer value on a target that has pointers smaller than 32 bits.

The most common kind of symbol is generated by the compiler for each function and variable. The value represents the target address where that function or variable is located. When you refer to the symbol by name in the linker command file or in an assembly file, you get that 32-bit integer value.

However, in C and C++ names mean something different. If you have a variable named `x` that contains the value `Y`, and you use the name `"x"` in your C program, you are actually referring to the contents of variable `x`. If `"x"` is used on the right-hand side of an expression, the compiler fetches the value `Y`. To realize this variable, the compiler generates a linker symbol named `x` with the value `&x`. Even though the C/C++ variable and the linker symbol have the same name, they don't represent the same thing. In C, `x` is a variable name with the address `&x` and content `Y`. For linker symbols, `x` is an address, and that address contains the value `Y`.

Because of this difference, there are some tricks to referring to linker symbols in C code. The basic technique is to cause the compiler to create a "fake" C variable or function and take its address. The details differ depending on the type of linker symbol.

Linker symbols that represent a function address: In C code, declare the function as an extern function. Then, refer to the value of the linker symbol using the same name. This works because function pointers "decay" to their address value when used without adornment. For example:

```
extern void _c_int00(void);

printf("_c_int00 %lx\n", (unsigned long)&_c_int00);
```

Suppose your linker command file defines the following linker symbol:

```
func_sym=printf+100;
```

Your C application can refer to this symbol as follows:

```
extern void func_sym(void);

printf("func_sym %lx\n", _symval(&func_sym)); /* these two are equivalent */
printf("func_sym %lx\n", (unsigned long)&func_sym);
```

Linker symbols that represent a data address: In C code, declare the variable as an extern variable. Then, refer to the value of the linker symbol using the `&` operator. Because the variable is at a valid data address, we know that a data pointer can represent the value.

Suppose your linker command file defines the following linker symbols:

```
data_sym=.data+100;
xyz=12345
```

Your C application can refer to these symbols as follows:

```
extern char data_sym;
extern int xyz;

printf("data_sym %lx\n", _symval(&data_sym)); /* these two are equivalent */
printf("data_sym %p\n", &data_sym);

myvar = &xyz;
```


Linker symbols for an arbitrary address: In C code, declare this as an extern symbol. The type does not matter. If you are using GCC extensions, declare it as "extern void". If you are not using GCC extensions, declare it as "extern char". Then, refer to the value of the linker symbol mySymbol as `_symval(&mySymbol)`. You must use the `_symval` operator, which is equivalent to a cast, because the 32-bit value of the linker symbol could be wider than a data pointer. The compiler treats `_symval(&mySymbol)` in a special way that can represent all 32 bits, even when pointers are 16 bits. Targets that have 32-bit pointers can usually use `&mySymbol` instead of the `_symval` operator. However, the portable way to access such linker symbols across TI targets is to use `_symval(&mySymbol)`.

Suppose your linker command file defines the following linker symbol:

```
abs_sym=0x12345678;
```

Your C application can refer to this symbol as follows:

```
extern char abs_sym;

printf("abs_sym %lx\n", _symval(&abs_sym));
```

8.6.2 Declaring Weak Symbols

In a linker command file, an assignment expression outside a MEMORY or SECTIONS directive can be used to define a linker-defined symbol. To define a weak symbol in a linker command file, use the "weak" operator in an assignment expression to designate that the symbol is eligible for removal from the output file's symbol table if it is not referenced. For example, you can define "ext_addr_sym" as follows:

```
weak(ext_addr_sym) = 0x12345678;
```

When the linker command file is used to perform the final link, then "ext_addr_sym" is presented to the linker as a weak absolute symbol; it will not be included in the resulting output file if the symbol is not referenced.

See [Section 2.6.2](#) for details about how weak symbols are handled by the linker.

8.6.3 Resolving Symbols with Object Libraries

An object library is a partitioned archive file that contains object files as members. Usually, a group of related modules are grouped together into a library. When you specify an object library as linker input, the linker includes any members of the library that define existing unresolved symbol references. You can use the archiver to build and maintain libraries. [Section 7.1](#) contains more information about the archiver.

Using object libraries can reduce link time and the size of the executable module. Normally, if an object file that contains a function is specified at link time, the file is linked whether the function is used or not; however, if that same function is placed in an archive library, the file is included only if the function is referenced.

The order in which libraries are specified is important, because the linker includes only those members that resolve symbols that are undefined at the time the library is searched. The same library can be specified as often as necessary; it is searched each time it is included. Alternatively, you can use the `--reread_libs` option to reread libraries until no more references can be resolved (see [Section 8.4.16.3](#)). A library has a table that lists all external symbols defined in the library; the linker searches through the table until it determines that it cannot use the library to resolve any more references.

The following examples link several files and libraries, using these assumptions:

- Input files f1.obj and f2.obj both reference an external function named *clrscr*.
- Input file f1.obj references the symbol *origin*.
- Input file f2.obj references the symbol *fillclr*.
- Member 0 of library libc.lib contains a definition of *origin*.
- Member 3 of library liba.lib contains a definition of *fillclr*.
- Member 1 of both libraries defines *clrscr*.

If you enter:

```
clpru --run_linker f1.obj f2.obj liba.lib libc.lib
```

then:

- Member 1 of liba.lib satisfies the f1.obj and f2.obj references to *clrscr* because the library is searched and the definition of *clrscr* is found.
- Member 0 of libc.lib satisfies the reference to *origin*.
- Member 3 of liba.lib satisfies the reference to *fillclr*.

If, however, you enter:

```
clpru --run_linker f1.obj f2.obj libc.lib liba.lib
```

then the references to *clrscr* are satisfied by member 1 of libc.lib.

If none of the linked files reference symbols defined in a library, you can use the `--undef_sym` option to force the linker to include a library member. (See [Section 8.4.32](#).) The next example creates an undefined symbol *rout1* in the linker's global symbol table:

```
clpru --run_linker --undef_sym=rout1 libc.lib
```

If any member of libc.lib defines *rout1*, the linker includes that member.

Library members are allocated according to the SECTIONS directive default allocation algorithm; see [Section 8.5.5](#).

[Section 8.4.16](#) describes methods for specifying directories that contain object libraries.

8.7 Default Placement Algorithm

The MEMORY and SECTIONS directives provide flexible methods for building, combining, and allocating sections. However, any memory locations or sections you choose *not* to specify must still be handled by the linker. The linker uses algorithms to build and allocate sections in coordination with any specifications you do supply.

If you do not use the MEMORY and SECTIONS directives, the linker allocates output sections as though the memory map and section definitions were as shown in [Example 8-14](#) were specified.

Example 8-14. Default Allocation for PRU Devices

```

{
  RAM      : origin = 0x00000000, length = 0xFFFFFFFF
}

SECTIONS
{
  .text : ALIGN(4)  {} > RAM
  .const: ALIGN(4)  {} > RAM
  .data : ALIGN(4)  {} > RAM
  .bss  : ALIGN(4)  {} > RAM
  .cinit: ALIGN(4)  {} > RAM      /* -c option only */
  .pinit: ALIGN(4)  {} > RAM      /* -c option only */
}

```

Also see [Section 2.5.1](#) for information about default memory allocation.

All .text input sections are concatenated to form a .text output section in the executable output file, and all .data input sections are combined to form a .data output section.

If you use a SECTIONS directive, the linker performs *no part* of this default allocation. Instead, allocation is performed according to the rules specified by the SECTIONS directive and the general algorithm described next in [Section 8.7.1](#).

8.7.1 How the Allocation Algorithm Creates Output Sections

An output section can be formed in one of two ways:

Method 1 As the result of a SECTIONS directive definition

Method 2 By combining input sections with the same name into an output section that is not defined in a SECTIONS directive

If an output section is formed as a result of a SECTIONS directive, this definition completely determines the section's contents. (See [Section 8.5.5](#) for examples of how to define an output section's content.)

If an output section is formed by combining input sections not specified by a SECTIONS directive, the linker combines all such input sections that have the same name into an output section with that name. For example, suppose the files f1.obj and f2.obj both contain named sections called Vectors and that the SECTIONS directive does not define an output section for them. The linker combines the two Vectors sections from the input files into a single output section named Vectors, allocates it into memory, and includes it in the output file.

By default, the linker does not display a message when it creates an output section that is not defined in the SECTIONS directive. You can use the --warn_sections linker option (see [Section 8.4.33](#)) to cause the linker to display a message when it creates a new output section.

After the linker determines the composition of all output sections, it must allocate them into configured memory. The MEMORY directive specifies which portions of memory are configured. If there is no MEMORY directive, the linker uses the default configuration as shown in [Example 8-14](#). (See [Section 8.5.4](#) for more information on configuring memory.)

8.7.2 Reducing Memory Fragmentation

The linker's allocation algorithm attempts to minimize memory fragmentation. This allows memory to be used more efficiently and increases the probability that your program will fit into memory. The algorithm comprises these steps:

1. Each output section for which you supply a specific binding address is placed in memory at that address.
2. Each output section that is included in a specific, named memory range or that has memory attribute restrictions is allocated. Each output section is placed into the first available space within the named area, considering alignment where necessary.
3. Any remaining sections are allocated in the order in which they are defined. Sections not defined in a SECTIONS directive are allocated in the order in which they are encountered. Each output section is placed into the first available memory space, considering alignment where necessary.

If you want to control the order in which code and data are placed in memory, see the [FAQ topic on section placement](#).

8.8 Linker-Generated Copy Tables

The linker supports extensions to the linker command file syntax that enable the following:

- Make it easier for you to copy objects from load-space to run-space at boot time
- Make it easier for you to manage memory overlays at run time
- Allow you to split GROUPs and output sections that have separate load and run addresses

8.8.1 Using Copy Tables for Boot Loading

In some embedded applications, there is a need to copy or download code and/or data from one location to another at boot time before the application actually begins its main execution thread. For example, an application may have its code and/or data in FLASH memory and need to copy it into on-chip memory before the application begins execution.

One way to develop such an application is to create a copy table in assembly code that contains three elements for each block of code or data that needs to be moved from FLASH to on-chip memory at boot time:

- The load address
- The run address
- The size

The process you follow to develop such an application might look like this:

1. Build the application to produce a .map file that contains the load and run addresses of each section that has a separate load and run placement.
2. Edit the copy table (used by the boot loader) to correct the load and run addresses as well as the size of each block of code or data that needs to be moved at boot time.
3. Build the application again, incorporating the updated copy table.
4. Run the application.

This process puts a heavy burden on you to maintain the copy table (by hand, no less). Each time a piece of code or data is added or removed from the application, you must repeat the process in order to keep the contents of the copy table up to date.

8.8.2 Using Built-in Link Operators in Copy Tables

You can avoid some of this maintenance burden by using the `LOAD_START()`, `RUN_START()`, and `SIZE()` operators that are already part of the linker command file syntax. For example, instead of building the application to generate a `.map` file, the linker command file can be annotated:

```
SECTIONS
{
    .flashcode: { app_tasks.obj(.text) }
        load = FLASH, run = PMEM,
        LOAD_START(_flash_code_ld_start),
        RUN_START(_flash_code_rn_start),
        SIZE(_flash_code_size)
    ...
}
```

In this example, the `LOAD_START()`, `RUN_START()`, and `SIZE()` operators instruct the linker to create three symbols:

Symbol	Description
<code>_flash_code_ld_start</code>	Load address of <code>.flashcode</code> section
<code>_flash_code_rn_start</code>	Run address of <code>.flashcode</code> section
<code>_flash_code_size</code>	Size of <code>.flashcode</code> section

These symbols can then be referenced from the copy table. The actual data in the copy table will be updated automatically each time the application is linked. This approach removes step 1 of the process described in [Section 8.8.1](#).

While maintenance of the copy table is reduced markedly, you must still carry the burden of keeping the copy table contents in sync with the symbols that are defined in the linker command file. Ideally, the linker would generate the boot copy table automatically. This would avoid having to build the application twice *and* free you from having to explicitly manage the contents of the boot copy table.

For more information on the `LOAD_START()`, `RUN_START()`, and `SIZE()` operators, see [Section 8.5.10.6](#).

8.8.3 Overlay Management Example

Consider an application that contains a memory overlay that must be managed at run time. The memory overlay is defined using a `UNION` in the linker command file as illustrated in [Example 8-15](#):

Example 8-15. Using a UNION for Memory Overlay

```
SECTIONS
{
    ...
    UNION
    {
        GROUP
        {
            .task1: { task1.obj(.text) }
            .task2: { task2.obj(.text) }

        } load = ROM, LOAD_START(_task12_load_start), SIZE(_task12_size)

        GROUP
        {
            .task3: { task3.obj(.text) }
            .task4: { task4.obj(.text) }

        } load = ROM, LOAD_START(_task34_load_start), SIZE(_task_34_size)
    } run = RAM, RUN_START(_task_run_start)
    ...
}
```

The application must manage the contents of the memory overlay at run time. That is, whenever any services from `.task1` or `.task2` are needed, the application must first ensure that `.task1` and `.task2` are resident in the memory overlay. Similarly for `.task3` and `.task4`.

To affect a copy of `.task1` and `.task2` from ROM to RAM at run time, the application must first gain access to the load address of the tasks (`_task12_load_start`), the run address (`_task_run_start`), and the size (`_task12_size`). Then this information is used to perform the actual code copy.

8.8.4 Generating Copy Tables With the `table()` Operator

The linker supports extensions to the linker command file syntax that enable you to do the following:

- Identify any object components that may need to be copied from load space to run space at some point during the run of an application
- Instruct the linker to automatically generate a copy table that contains (at least) the load address, run address, and size of the component that needs to be copied
- Instruct the linker to generate a symbol specified by you that provides the address of a linker-generated copy table. For instance, [Example 8-15](#) can be written as shown in [Example 8-16](#):

Example 8-16. Produce Address for Linker Generated Copy Table

```
SECTIONS
{
    ...

    UNION
    {
        GROUP
        {
            .task1: { task1.obj(.text) }
            .task2: { task2.obj(.text) }

        } load = ROM, table(_task12_copy_table)

        GROUP
        {
            .task3: { task3.obj(.text) }
            .task4: { task4.obj(.text) }

        } load = ROM, table(_task34_copy_table)

    } run = RAM
    ...
}
```

Using the `SECTIONS` directive from [Example 8-16](#) in the linker command file, the linker generates two copy tables named: `_task12_copy_table` and `_task34_copy_table`. Each copy table provides the load address, run address, and size of the `GROUP` that is associated with the copy table. This information is accessible from application source code using the linker-generated symbols, `_task12_copy_table` and `_task34_copy_table`, which provide the addresses of the two copy tables, respectively.

Using this method, you need not worry about the creation or maintenance of a copy table. You can reference the address of any copy table generated by the linker in C/C++ or assembly source code, passing that value to a general purpose copy routine, which will process the copy table and affect the actual copy.

8.8.4.1 The table() Operator

You can use the `table()` operator to instruct the linker to produce a copy table. A `table()` operator can be applied to an output section, a `GROUP`, or a `UNION` member. The copy table generated for a particular `table()` specification can be accessed through a symbol specified by you that is provided as an argument to the `table()` operator. The linker creates a symbol with this name and assigns it the address of the copy table as the value of the symbol. The copy table can then be accessed from the application using the linker-generated symbol.

Each `table()` specification you apply to members of a given `UNION` must contain a unique name. If a `table()` operator is applied to a `GROUP`, then none of that `GROUP`'s members may be marked with a `table()` specification. The linker detects violations of these rules and reports them as warnings, ignoring each offending use of the `table()` specification. The linker does not generate a copy table for erroneous `table()` operator specifications.

Copy tables can be generated automatically; see [Section 8.8.4](#).

8.8.4.2 Boot-Time Copy Tables

The linker supports a special copy table name, `BINIT` (or `binit`), that you can use to create a boot-time copy table. This table is handled before the `.cinit` section is used to initialize variables at startup. For example, the linker command file for the boot-loaded application described in [Section 8.8.2](#) can be rewritten as follows:

```
SECTIONS
{
    .flashcode: { app_tasks.obj(.text) }
    load = FLASH, run = PMEM,
    table(BINIT)
    ...
}
```

For this example, the linker creates a copy table that can be accessed through a special linker-generated symbol, `__binit__`, which contains the list of all object components that need to be copied from their load location to their run location at boot-time. If a linker command file does not contain any uses of `table(BINIT)`, then the `__binit__` symbol is given a value of -1 to indicate that a boot-time copy table does not exist for a particular application.

You can apply the `table(BINIT)` specification to an output section, `GROUP`, or `UNION` member. If used in the context of a `UNION`, only one member of the `UNION` can be designated with `table(BINIT)`. If applied to a `GROUP`, then none of that `GROUP`'s members may be marked with `table(BINIT)`. The linker detects violations of these rules and reports them as warnings, ignoring each offending use of the `table(BINIT)` specification.

8.8.4.3 Using the table() Operator to Manage Object Components

If you have several pieces of code that need to be managed together, then you can apply the same `table()` operator to several different object components. In addition, if you want to manage a particular object component in multiple ways, you can apply more than one `table()` operator to it. Consider the linker command file excerpt in [Example 8-17](#):

Example 8-17. Linker Command File to Manage Object Components

```

SECTIONS
{
  UNION
  {
    .first: { a1.obj(.text), b1.obj(.text), c1.obj(.text) }
           load = EMEM, run = PMEM, table(BINIT), table(_first_ctbl)

    .second: { a2.obj(.text), b2.obj(.text) }
            load = EMEM, run = PMEM, table(_second_ctbl)
  }

  .extra: load = EMEM, run = PMEM, table(BINIT)
  ...
}

```

In this example, the output sections `.first` and `.extra` are copied from external memory (EMEM) into program memory (PMEM) at boot time while processing the BINIT copy table. After the application has started executing its main thread, it can then manage the contents of the overlay using the two overlay copy tables named: `_first_ctbl` and `_second_ctbl`.

8.8.4.4 Linker-Generated Copy Table Sections and Symbols

The linker creates and allocates a separate input section for each copy table that it generates. Each copy table symbol is defined with the address value of the input section that contains the corresponding copy table.

The linker generates a unique name for each overlay copy table input section. For example, `table(_first_ctbl)` would place the copy table for the `.first` section into an input section called `.ovly:_first_ctbl`. The linker creates a single input section, `.binit`, to contain the entire boot-time copy table.

[Example 8-18](#) illustrates how you can control the placement of the linker-generated copy table sections using the input section names in the linker command file.

Example 8-18. Controlling the Placement of the Linker-Generated Copy Table Sections

```

SECTIONS
{
  UNION
  {
    .first: { a1.obj(.text), b1.obj(.text), c1.obj(.text) }
           load = EMEM, run = PMEM, table(BINIT), table(_first_ctbl)

    .second: { a2.obj(.text), b2.obj(.text) }
            load = EMEM, run = PMEM, table(_second_ctbl)
  }

  .extra: load = EMEM, run = PMEM, table(BINIT)
  ...
  .ovly: { } > BMEM
  .binit: { } > BMEM
}

```

For the linker command file in [Example 8-18](#), the boot-time copy table is generated into a `.binit` input section, which is collected into the `.binit` output section, which is mapped to an address in the BMEM memory area. The `_first_ctbl` is generated into the `.ovly:_first_ctbl` input section and the `_second_ctbl` is generated into the `.ovly:_second_ctbl` input section. Since the base names of these input sections match the name of the `.ovly` output section, the input sections are collected into the `.ovly` output section, which is then mapped to an address in the BMEM memory area.

If you do not provide explicit placement instructions for the linker-generated copy table sections, they are allocated according to the linker's default placement algorithm.

The linker does not allow other types of input sections to be combined with a copy table input section in the same output section. The linker does not allow a copy table section that was created from a partial link session to be used as input to a succeeding link session.

8.8.4.5 Splitting Object Components and Overlay Management

It is possible to split sections that have separate load and run placement instructions. The linker can access both the load address and run address of every piece of a split object component. Using the `table()` operator, you can tell the linker to generate this information into a copy table. The linker gives each piece of the split object component a `COPY_RECORD` entry in the copy table object.

For example, consider an application which has seven tasks. Tasks 1 through 3 are overlaid with tasks 4 through 7 (using a `UNION` directive). The load placement of all of the tasks is split among four different memory areas (LMEM1, LMEM2, LMEM3, and LMEM4). The overlay is defined as part of memory area PMEM. You must move each set of tasks into the overlay at run time before any services from the set are used.

You can use `table()` operators in combination with splitting operators, `>>`, to create copy tables that have all the information needed to move either group of tasks into the memory overlay as shown in [Example 8-19](#).

Example 8-19. Creating a Copy Table to Access a Split Object Component

```
SECTIONS
{
    UNION
    {
        .task1to3: { *(.task1), *(.task2), *(.task3) }
                load >> LMEM1 | LMEM2 | LMEM4, table(_task13_ctbl)

        GROUP
        {
            .task4: { *(.task4) }
            .task5: { *(.task5) }
            .task6: { *(.task6) }
            .task7: { *(.task7) }

        } load >> LMEM1 | LMEM3 | LMEM4, table(_task47_ctbl)

    } run = PMEM
    ...
    .ovly: > LMEM4
}
```

Example 8-20 illustrates a possible driver for such an application.

Example 8-20. Split Object Component Driver

```

#include <cpy_tbl.h>

extern far COPY_TABLE task13_ctbl;
extern far COPY_TABLE task47_ctbl;

extern void task1(void);
...
extern void task7(void);

main()
{
    ...
    copy_in(&task13_ctbl);
    task1();
    task2();
    task3();
    ...

    copy_in(&task47_ctbl);
    task4();
    task5();
    task6();
    task7();
    ...
}

```

You must declare a COPY_TABLE object as *far* to allow the overlay copy table section placement to be independent from the other sections containing data objects (such as .bss).

The contents of the .task1to3 section are split in the section's load space and contiguous in its run space. The linker-generated copy table, _task13_ctbl, contains a separate COPY_RECORD for each piece of the split section .task1to3. When the address of _task13_ctbl is passed to copy_in(), each piece of .task1to3 is copied from its load location into the run location.

The contents of the GROUP containing tasks 4 through 7 are also split in load space. The linker performs the GROUP split by applying the split operator to each member of the GROUP in order. The copy table for the GROUP then contains a COPY_RECORD entry for every piece of every member of the GROUP. These pieces are copied into the memory overlay when the _task47_ctbl is processed by copy_in().

The split operator can be applied to an output section, GROUP, or the load placement of a UNION or UNION member. The linker does not permit a split operator to be applied to the run placement of either a UNION or of a UNION member. The linker detects such violations, emits a warning, and ignores the offending split operator usage.

8.8.5 Compression

When automatically generating copy tables, the linker provides a way to compress the load-space data. This can reduce the read-only memory foot print. This compressed data can be decompressed while copying the data from load space to run space.

You can specify compression in two ways:

- The linker command line option `--copy_compression=compression_kind` can be used to apply the specified compression to any output section that has a `table()` operator applied to it.
- The `table()` operator accepts an optional compression parameter. The syntax is: .

table(name , compression= compression_kind)

The *compression_kind* can be one of the following types:

- **off**. Don't compress the data.
- **rle**. Compress data using Run Length Encoding.
- **lzss**. Compress data using Lempel-Ziv-Storer-Szymanski compression.

A `table()` operator without the compression keyword uses the compression kind specified using the command line option `--copy_compression`.

When you choose compression, it is not guaranteed that the linker will compress the load data. The linker compresses load data only when such compression reduces the overall size of the load space. In some cases even if the compression results in smaller load section size the linker does not compress the data if the decompression routine offsets for the savings.

For example, assume RLE compression reduces the size of section1 by 30 bytes. Also assume the RLE decompression routine takes up 40 bytes in load space. By choosing to compress section1 the load space is increased by 10 bytes. Therefore, the linker will not compress section1. On the other hand, if there is another section (say section2) that can benefit by more than 10 bytes from applying the same compression then both sections can be compressed and the overall load space is reduced. In such cases the linker compresses both the sections.

You cannot force the linker to compress the data when doing so does not result in savings.

You cannot compress the decompression routines or any member of a GROUP containing `.cinit`.

8.8.5.1 Compressed Copy Table Format

The copy table format is the same irrespective of the *compression_kind*. The size field of the copy record is overloaded to support compression. [Figure 8-4](#) illustrates the compressed copy table layout.

Figure 8-4. Compressed Copy Table

Rec size	Rec cnt		
		Load address	Run address Size (0 if load data is compressed)

In [Figure 8-4](#), if the size in the copy record is non-zero it represents the size of the data to be copied, and also means that the size of the load data is the same as the run data. When the size is 0, it means that the load data is compressed.

8.8.5.2 Compressed Section Representation in the Object File

The linker creates a separate input section to hold the compressed data. Consider the following `table()` operation in the linker command file.

```
SECTIONS
{
    .task1: load = ROM, run = RAM, table(_task1_table)
}
```

The output object file has one output section named `.task1` which has different load and run addresses. This is possible because the load space and run space have identical data when the section is not compressed.

Alternatively, consider the following:

```
SECTIONS
{
    .task1: load = ROM, run = RAM, table(_task1_table, compression=rle)
}
```

If the linker compresses the .task1 section then the load space data and the run space data are different. The linker creates the following two sections:

- **.task1** : This section is uninitialized. This output section represents the run space image of section task1.
- **.task1.load** : This section is initialized. This output section represents the load space image of the section task1. This section usually is considerably smaller in size than .task1 output section.

The linker allocates load space for the .task1.load input section in the memory area that was specified for load placement for the .task1 section. There is only a single load section to represent the load placement of .task1 - .task1.load. If the .task1 data had not been compressed, there would be two allocations for the .task1 input section: one for its load placement and another for its run placement.

8.8.5.3 Compressed Data Layout

The compressed load data has the following layout:

-bit index	Compressed data
------------	-----------------

The first bits of the load data are the handler index. This handler index is used to index into a handler table to get the address of a handler function that knows how to decode the data that follows. The handler table is a list of 32-bit function pointers as shown in [Figure 8-5](#).

Figure 8-5. Handler Table

`__TI_Handler_Table_Base:`

32-bit handler address 1
⋮
32-bit handler address N

`__TI_Handler_Table_Limit:`

The linker creates a separate output section for the load and run space. For example, if .task1.load is compressed using RLE, the handler index points to an entry in the handler table that has the address of the run-time-support routine `__TI_decompress_rle()`.

8.8.5.4 Run-Time Decompression

During run time you call the run-time-support routine `copy_in()` to copy the data from load space to run space. The address of the copy table is passed to this routine. First the routine reads the record count. Then it repeats the following steps for each record:

1. Read load address, run address and size from record.
2. If size is zero go to step 5.
3. Call `memcpy` passing the run address, load address and size.
4. Go to step 1 if there are more records to read.
5. Read the first from the load address.
6. Read the handler address from `(&__TI_Handler_Base)[index]`.
7. Call the handler and pass load address + 1 and run address.
8. Go to step 1 if there are more records to read.

The routines to handle the decompression of load data are provided in the run-time-support library.

8.8.5.5 Compression Algorithms

The following subsections provide information about decompression algorithms for the RLE and LZSS formats. To see example decompression algorithms, refer to the following functions in the Run-Time Support library:

- **RLE:** The `__TI_decompress_rle()` function in the `copy_decompress_rle.c` file.
- **LZSS:** The `__TI_decompress_lzss()` function in the `copy_decompress_lzss.c` file.

Run Length Encoding (RLE):

-bit index	Initialization data compressed using run length encoding
------------	--

The data following the -bit index is compressed using run length encoded (RLE) format. PRU uses a simple run length encoding that can be decompressed using the following algorithm:

1. Read the first , Delimiter (D).
2. Read the next (B).
3. If $B \neq D$, copy B to the output buffer and go to step 2.
4. Read the next (L).
 - a. If $L == 0$, then length is either a value, or we've reached the end of the data, read next (L).
 - b. Else if $L > 0$ and $L < 4$, copy D to the output buffer L times. Go to step 2.
 - c. Else, length is -bit value (L).
5. Read the next (C); C is the repeat character.
6. Write C to the output buffer L times; go to step 2.
7. End of processing.

The PRU run-time support library has a routine `__TI_decompress_rle()` to decompress data compressed using RLE. The first argument to this function is the address pointing to the after the -bit index. The second argument is the run address from the C auto initialization record.

Lempel-Ziv-Storer-Szymanski Compression (LZSS):

-bit index	Data compressed using LZSS
------------	----------------------------

The data following the 8-bit index is compressed using LZSS compression. The PRU run-time-support library has the routine `__TI_decompress_lzss()` to decompress the data compressed using LZSS. The first argument to this function is the address pointing to the after the -bit Index, and the second argument is the run address from the C auto initialization record.

8.8.6 Copy Table Contents

To use a copy table generated by the linker, you must know the contents of the copy table. This information is included in a run-time-support library header file, `cpy_tbl.h`, which contains a C source representation of the copy table data structure that is generated by the linker.

For each object component that is marked for a copy, the linker creates a `COPY_RECORD` object for it. Each `COPY_RECORD` contains at least the following information for the object component:

- The load address
- The run address
- The size

The linker collects all `COPY_RECORD`s that are associated with the same copy table into a `COPY_TABLE` object. The `COPY_TABLE` object contains the size of a given `COPY_RECORD`, the number of `COPY_RECORD`s in the table, and the array of `COPY_RECORD`s in the table. For instance, in the `BNIT` example in [Section 8.8.4.2](#), the `.first` and `.extra` output sections will each have their own `COPY_RECORD` entries in the `BNIT` copy table. The `BNIT` copy table will then look like this:

```

/*****
/* Copy Record Data Structure
*****/
typedef struct copy_record
{
    unsigned int load_addr;
    unsigned int run_addr;
    unsigned int size;
} COPY_RECORD;

/*****
/* Copy Table Data Structure
*****/
typedef struct copy_table
{
    unsigned short rec_size;
    unsigned short num_recs;
    COPY_RECORD recs[1];
} COPY_TABLE;
  
```

8.8.7 General Purpose Copy Routine

The `cpy_tbl.h` file also contains a prototype for a general-purpose copy routine, `copy_in()`, which is provided as part of the run-time-support library. The `copy_in()` routine takes a single argument: the address of a linker-generated copy table. The routine then processes the copy table data object and performs the copy of each object component specified in the copy table.

The `copy_in()` function definition is provided in the `cpy_tbl.c` run-time-support source file shown in [Example 8-21](#).

Example 8-21. Run-Time-Support `cpy_tbl.c` File

```

/*****
/* cpy_tbl.c v#####
/* Copyright (c) 2014 Texas Instruments Incorporated
/*
/* General purpose copy routine. Given the address of a linker-generated
/* COPY_TABLE data structure, effect the copy of all object components
/* that are designated for copy via the corresponding LCF table() operator.
*****/
#include <cpy_tbl.h>
#include <string.h>

typedef void (*handler_fptr)(const unsigned char *in, unsigned char *out)
#define HANDLER_TABLE __TI_Handler_Table_Base
#pragma WEAK(HANDLER_TABLE)
  
```

Example 8-21. Run-Time-Support `cpy_tbl.c` File (continued)

```
extern unsigned short HANDLER_TABLE;

/*****
/* COPY_IN()
*****/
void copy_in(COPY_TABLE *tp)
{
    unsigned short i;

    for (i = 0; i < tp->num_recs; i++)
    {
        COPY_RECORD crp = tp->recs[i];
        unsigned char *ld_addr = (unsigned char *)crp.load_addr;
        unsigned char *rn_addr = (unsigned char *)crp.run_addr;

        if (crp.size)
        {
            /*-----*/
            /* Copy record has a non-zero size so the data is not compressed. */
            /* Just copy the data. */
            /*-----*/
            memcpy(rn_addr, ld_addr, crp.size);
        }
        else if (HANDLER_TABLE)
        {
            unsigned char index = *((unsigned char *)ld_addr++);
            handler_fptr hndl = (handler_fptr>(&HANDLER_TABLE)[index];
            (*hndl)((const unsigned char *)ld_addr, (unsigned char *)rn_addr);
        }
    }
}
```

8.9 Partial (Incremental) Linking

An output file that has been linked can be linked again with additional modules. This is known as *partial linking* or *incremental linking*. Partial linking allows you to partition large applications, link each part separately, and then link all the parts together to create the final executable program.

Follow these guidelines for producing a file that you will relink:

- The intermediate files produced by the linker *must* have relocation information. Use the `--relocatable` option when you link the file the first time. (See [Section 8.4.3.2](#).)
- Intermediate files *must* have symbolic information. By default, the linker retains symbolic information in its output. Do not use the `--no_sym_table` option if you plan to relink a file, because `--no_sym_table` strips symbolic information from the output module. (See [Section 8.4.22](#).)
- Intermediate link operations should be concerned only with the formation of output sections and not with allocation. All allocation, binding, and MEMORY directives should be performed in the final link. Since the ELF object file format is used, input sections are not combined into output sections during a partial link unless a matching SECTIONS directive is specified in the link step command file.
- If the intermediate files have global symbols that have the same name as global symbols in other files and you want them to be treated as static (visible only within the intermediate file), you must link the files with the `--make_static` option (see [Section 8.4.17.1](#)).
- If you are linking C code, do not use `--ram_model` or `--rom_model` until the final linker. Every time you invoke the linker with the `--ram_model` or `--rom_model` option, the linker attempts to create an entry point. (See [Section 8.4.25](#) and [Section 3.3.2](#).)

The following example shows how you can use partial linking:

Step 1: Link the file file1.com; use the `--relocatable` option to retain relocation information in the output file tempout1.out.

```
clpru --run_linker --relocatable --output_file=tempout1 file1.com
```

file1.com contains:

```
SECTIONS
{
    ss1: {
        f1.obj
        f2.obj
        .
        .
        .
        fn.obj
    }
}
```

Step 2: Link the file file2.com; use the `--relocatable` option to retain relocation information in the output file tempout2.out.

```
clpru --run_linker --relocatable --output_file=tempout2 file2.com
```

file2.com contains:

```
SECTIONS
{
    ss2: {
        g1.obj
        g2.obj
        .
        .
        .
        gn.obj
    }
}
```

Step 3: Link tempout1.out and tempout2.out.

```
clpru --run_linker --map_file=final.map --
output_file=final.out tempout1.out tempout2.out
```

8.10 Linking C/C++ Code

The C/C++ compiler produces assembly language source code that can be assembled and linked. For example, a C program consisting of modules prog1, prog2, etc., can be assembled and then linked to produce an executable file called prog.out:

```
clpru --run_linker --rom_model --
output_file prog.out prog1.obj prog2.obj ... rtspruv3_le.lib
```

The `--rom_model` option tells the linker to use special conventions that are defined by the C/C++ environment.

The archive libraries shipped by TI contain C/C++ run-time-support functions.

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.

For more information about the PRU C/C++ language, including the run-time environment and run-time-support functions, see the *PRU Optimizing C/C++ Compiler User's Guide*.

8.10.1 Run-Time Initialization

All C/C++ programs must be linked with code to initialize and execute the program, called a *bootstrap* routine, also known as the *boot.obj* object module. The symbol `_c_int00` is defined as the program entry point and is the start of the C boot routine in *boot.obj*; referencing `_c_int00` ensures that *boot.obj* is automatically linked in from the run-time-support library. When a program begins running, it executes *boot.obj* first. The *boot.obj* symbol contains code and data for initializing the run-time environment and performs the following tasks:

- Changes from system mode to user mode
- Sets up the user mode stack
- Processes the run-time *.cinit* initialization table and autoinitializes global variables (when the linker is invoked with the `--rom_model` option)
- Calls `main`

The run-time-support object libraries contain *boot.obj*. You can:

- Use the archiver to extract *boot.obj* from the library and then link the module in directly.
- Include the appropriate run-time-support library as an input file (the linker automatically extracts *boot.obj* when you use the `--ram_model` or `--rom_model` option).

8.10.2 Object Libraries and Run-Time Support

The *PRU Optimizing C/C++ Compiler User's Guide* describes additional run-time-support functions that are included in *rts.src*. If your program uses any of these functions, you must link the appropriate run-time-support library with your object files.

You can also create your own object libraries and link them. The linker includes and links only those library members that resolve undefined references.

8.10.3 Setting the Size of the Stack and Heap Sections

The C/C++ language uses two uninitialized sections called *.system* and *.stack* for the memory pool used by the `malloc()` functions and the run-time stacks, respectively. You can set the size of these by using the `--heap_size` or `--stack_size` option and specifying the size of the section as a 4-byte constant immediately after the option. If the options are not used, the default size of the heap is 256 bytes and the default size of the stack is 256 bytes.

See [Section 8.4.14](#) for setting heap sizes [Section 8.4.29](#) for setting stack sizes.

8.10.4 Initializing and Autoinitializing 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. See [Section 3.3.2](#) for details.

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. See [Section 3.3.2](#) for details.

8.11 Linker Example

This example links three object files named demo.obj, ctrl.obj, and tables.obj and creates a program called demo.out.

Assume that target memory has the following program memory configuration:

Address Range	Contents
0x00000000 to 0x00001000	SLOW_MEM
0x00001000 to 0x00002000	FAST_MEM
0x08000000 to 0x08000400	EEPROM

The output sections are constructed in the following manner:

- Executable code, contained in the .text sections of demo.obj, fft.obj, and tables.obj, is linked into program memory ROM.
- Variables, contained in the var_defs section of demo.obj, are linked into data memory in block FAST_MEM_2.
- Tables of coefficients in the .data sections of demo.obj, tables.obj, and fft.obj are linked into FAST_MEM_1. A hole is created with a length of 100 and a fill value of 0x07A1C.
- The xy section from demo.obj, which contains buffers and variables, is linked by default into page 1 of the block STACK, since it is not explicitly linked.
- Executable code, contained in the .text sections of demo.obj, ctrl.obj, and tables.obj, must be linked into FAST_MEM.
- A table of coefficients, contained in the .data section of tables.obj, must be linked into EEPROM. The remainder of block FLASH must be initialized to the value 0xFF00FF00.
- A set of variables, contained in the .bss section of ctrl.obj, must be linked into SLOW_MEM and preinitialized to 0x00000100.
- The .bss sections of demo.obj and tables.obj must be linked into SLOW_MEM.

[Example 8-22](#) shows the linker command file for this example. [Example 8-23](#) shows the map file.

Example 8-22. Linker Command File, demo.cmd

```

/*****
/****          Specify Link Options          ****
/*****
--entry_point SETUP          /* Define the program entry point */
--output_file=demo.out      /* Name the output file          */
--map_file=demo.map         /* Create an output map file   */
/*****
/****          Specify the Input Files      ****
/*****
demo.obj
ctrl.obj
tables.obj
/*****
/****          Specify the Memory Configurations ****
/*****
MEMORY
{
  FAST_MEM : org = 0x00000000 len = 0x00001000 /* PROGRAM MEMORY (ROM) */
  SLOW_MEM : org = 0x00001000 len = 0x00001000 /* DATA MEMORY (RAM) */
  EEPROM   : org = 0x08000000 len = 0x00000400 /* COEFFICIENTS (EEPROM) */
}
/*****
/*          Specify the Output Sections    */
/*****
SECTIONS
{
  .text : {} > FAST_MEM /* Link all .text sections into ROM */
  .data : /* Link .data sections */
  {
    tables.obj(.data)
    . = 0x400; /* Create hole at end of block */
  } > EEPROM, fill = 0xFF00FF00 /* Fill and link into EEPROM */
  ctrl_vars: /* Create sections for ctrl variables */
  {
    ctrl.obj(.bss)
  } > SLOW_MEM, fill = 0x00000100 /* Fill with 0x100 and link into RAM */
  .bss : {} > SLOW_MEM /* Link remaining .bss sections into RAM */
}
/*****
/****          End of Command File          ****
/*****

```

Invoke the linker by entering the following command:

```
clpru --run_linker demo.cmd
```

This creates the map file shown in [Example 8-23](#) and an output file called demo.out that can be run on a PRU device.

Example 8-23. Output Map File, demo.map

```

OUTPUT FILE NAME:    <demo.out>
ENTRY POINT SYMBOL: "SETUP"  address: 000000d4

MEMORY CONFIGURATION

      name      origin      length      attributes      fill
      -----      -
FAST_MEM  00000000  000001000      RWIX
SLOW_MEM  00001000  000001000      RWIX
EEPROM    08000000  000000400      RWIX

SECTION ALLOCATION MAP

output
section  page      origin      length      attributes/
-----  -
.text    0      00000020  00000138
          00000020  000000a0      ctrl.obj (.text)
          000000c0  00000000      tables.obj (.text)
          000000c0  00000098      demo.obj (.text)

.data    0      08000000  00000400
          08000000  00000168      tables.obj (.data)
          08000168  00000298      --HOLE-- [fill = ff00ff00]
          08000400  00000000      ctrl.obj (.data)
          08000400  00000000      demo.obj (.data)

ctrl_var 0      00001000  00000500
          00001000  00000500      ctrl.obj (.bss) [fill = 00000100]

.bss     0      00001500  00000100  UNINITIALIZED
          00001500  00000100      demo.obj (.bss)
          00001600  00000000      tables.obj (.bss)

GLOBAL SYMBOLS
address  name
-----  -
000000d4 SETUP
00000020 clear
000000b8 set
000000c0 x42
000000d4 SETUP

[4 symbols]
    
```

Absolute Lister Description

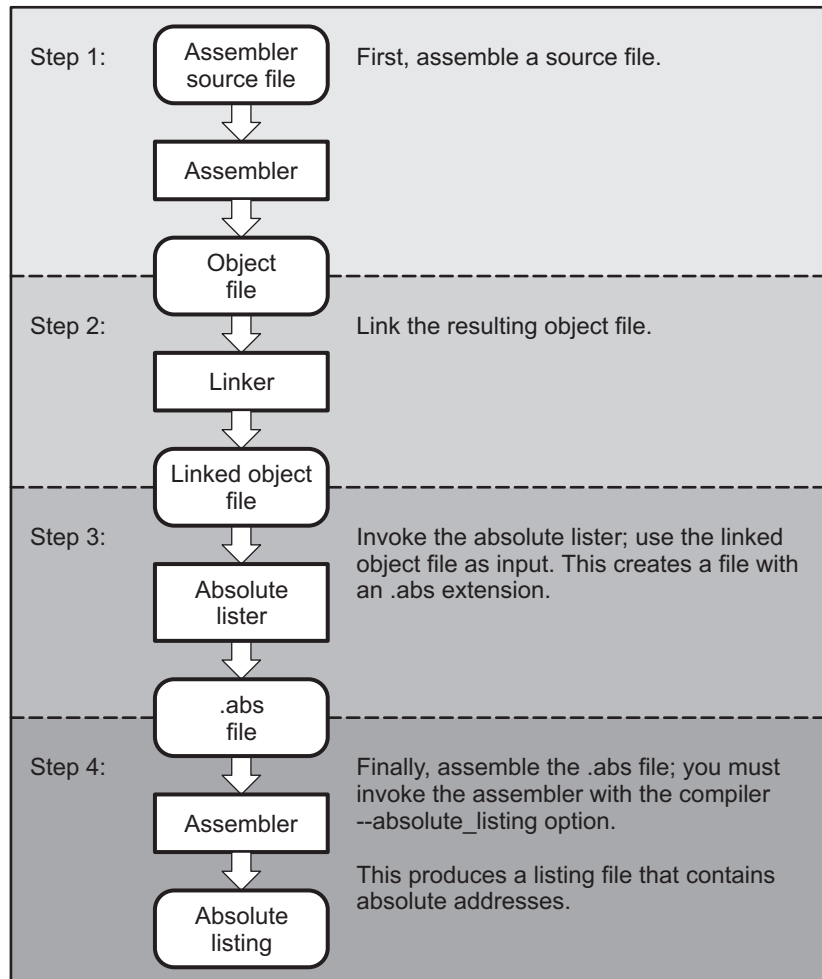
The PRU absolute lister is a debugging tool that accepts linked object files as input and creates .abs files as output. These .abs files can be assembled to produce a listing that shows the absolute addresses of object code. Manually, this could be a tedious process requiring many operations; however, the absolute lister utility performs these operations automatically.

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9.1 Producing an Absolute Listing

Figure 9-1 illustrates the steps required to produce an absolute listing.

Figure 9-1. Absolute Lister Development Flow



9.2 Invoking the Absolute Lister

The syntax for invoking the absolute lister is:

```
abspru [-options] input file
```

abspru	is the command that invokes the absolute lister.
<i>options</i>	<p>identifies the absolute lister options that you want to use. Options are not case sensitive and can appear anywhere on the command line following the command. Precede each option with a hyphen (-). The absolute lister options are as follows:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -e enables you to change the default naming conventions for filename extensions on assembly files, C source files, and C header files. The valid options are: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ea [.]<i>asmext</i> for assembly files (default is .asm) • ec [.]<i>cext</i> for C source files (default is .c) • eh [.]<i>hext</i> for C header files (default is .h) • ep [.]<i>pext</i> for CPP source files (default is cpp) <p>The . in the extensions and the space between the option and the extension are optional.</p> -q (quiet) suppresses the banner and all progress information.
<i>input file</i>	names the linked object file. If you do not supply an extension, the absolute lister assumes that the input file has the default extension .out. If you do not supply an input filename when you invoke the absolute lister, the absolute lister prompts you for one.

The absolute lister produces an output file for each file that was linked. These files are named with the input filenames and an extension of .abs. Header files, however, do not generate a corresponding .abs file.

Assemble these files with the `--absolute_listing` assembler option as follows to create the absolute listing:

```
clpru --absolute_listing filename .abs
```

The `-e` options affect both the interpretation of filenames on the command line and the names of the output files. They should always precede any filename on the command line.

The `-e` options are useful when the linked object file was created from C files compiled with the debugging option (`--symdebug:dwarf` compiler option). When the debugging option is set, the resulting linked object file contains the name of the source files used to build it. In this case, the absolute lister does not generate a corresponding .abs file for the C header files. Also, the .abs file corresponding to a C source file uses the assembly file generated from the C source file rather than the C source file itself.

For example, suppose the C source file `hello.csr` is compiled with the debugging option set; the debugging option generates the assembly file `hello.s`. The `hello.csr` file includes `hello.hsr`. Assuming the executable file created is called `hello.out`, the following command generates the proper .abs file:

```
abspru -ea s -ec csr -eh hsr hello.out
```

An .abs file is not created for `hello.hsr` (the header file), and `hello.abs` includes the assembly file `hello.s`, not the C source file `hello.csr`.

9.3 Absolute Lister Example

This example uses three source files. The files `module1.asm` and `module2.asm` both include the file `globals.def`.

module1.asm

```
.text
.bss dflag, 1
.bss array, 100

.copy globals.def

LDI r4, array
LDI r5, offst
LDI r3, dflag
LBBO &r0, r4, r5, 4
SBBO &r0, r3, 0, 4
```

module2.asm

```
.text
.bss offst, 1

.copy globals.def
LDI r4, offst
SBBO &r0, r4, 0, 4
```

globals.def

```
.global array
.global offst
.global dflag
```

The following steps create absolute listings for the files `module1.asm` and `module2.asm`:

Step 1: First, assemble `module1.asm` and `module2.asm`:

```
clpru module1
clpru module2
```

This creates two object files called `module1.obj` and `module2.obj`.

Step 2: Next, link `module1.obj` and `module2.obj` using the following linker command file, called `bttest.cmd`:

```
module1.obj
module2.obj

--unused_section_elimination=off
--output_file=bttest.out

MEMORY
{
    PAGE 0:
        P_MEM : org = 0x00000008    len = 0x0003FFF8

    PAGE 1:
        D_MEM : org = 0x00000008    len = 0x0000FFF8
}

/* SPECIFY THE SECTIONS ALLOCATION INTO MEMORY */

SECTIONS
{
    .data      : {} > D_MEM, PAGE 1
    .bss       : {} > D_MEM, PAGE 1
    .text      : {} > P_MEM, PAGE 0
}
```


Invoke the linker:

```
clpru --run_linker bttest.cmd
```

This command creates an executable object file called `bttest.out`; use this file as input for the absolute lister.

Step 3: Now, invoke the absolute lister:

```
abspru bttest.out
```

This command creates two files called `module1.abs` and `module2.abs`:

module1.abs:

```
.compiler_opts_source "module1.asm"
.nolist
array .setsym      000000009h
dflag .setsym      000000008h
offst .setsym      00000006dh
      .setsect     ".text",000000008h
      .setsect     ".bss",000000008h
      .setsect     ".debug_info",000000000h
      .setsect     ".debug_line",000000000h
      .list
      .text
      .copy        "module1.asm"
```

module2.abs:

```
.compiler_opts_source "module2.asm"
.nolist
array .setsym      000000009h
dflag .setsym      000000008h
offst .setsym      00000006dh
      .setsect     ".text",00000001ch
      .setsect     ".bss",00000006dh
      .setsect     ".debug_info",0000000c0h
      .setsect     ".debug_line",00000003eh
      .setsect     ".debug_aranges",000000000h
      .setsect     ".debug_pubnames",000000000h
      .list
      .text
      .copy        "module2.asm"
```

These files contain the following information that the assembler needs for Step 4:

- They contain `.setsym` directives, which equate values to global symbols. Both files contain global equates for the symbol `dflag`. The symbol `dflag` was defined in the file `globals.def`, which was included in `module1.asm` and `module2.asm`.
- They contain `.setsect` directives, which define the absolute addresses for sections.
- They contain `.copy` directives, which defines the assembly language source file to include. The `.setsym` and `.setsect` directives are useful only for creating absolute listings, not normal assembly.

Step 4: Finally, assemble the `.abs` files created by the absolute lister (remember that you must use the `--absolute_listing` option when you invoke the assembler):

```
clpru --absolute_listing module1.abs
clpru --absolute_listing module2.abs
```

This command sequence creates two listing files called `module1.lst` and `module2.lst`; no object code is produced. These listing files are similar to normal listing files; however, the addresses shown are absolute addresses.

The absolute listing files created are `module1.lst` (see [Example 9-1](#)) and `module2.lst` (see [Example 9-2](#)).

Example 9-1. module1.lst

```

PRU Assembler Unix v2.1.0 Thu Jun 26 21:23:57 2014

Tools Copyright (c) 2012-2014 Texas Instruments Incorporated
module1.asm                                     PAGE      1

      1 00000000                                .text
      2 00000000                                .bss dflag, 1
      3 00000001                                .bss array, 100
      4
      5      .copy globals.def
A     1      .global array
A     2      .global offst
A     3      .global dflag
      6
      7 00000000 000000240000E4!                LDI r4, array
      8 00000004 000000240000E5!                LDI r5, offst
      9 00000008 000000240000E3!                LDI r3, dflag
     10 0000000c 000000F0E52480                LBBO &r0, r4, r5, 4
     11 00000010 000000E1002380                SBBO &r0, r3, 0, 4
     12

No Assembly Errors, No Assembly Warnings

```

Example 9-2. module2.lst

```

PRU Assembler Unix v2.1.0 Thu Jun 26 21:24:22 2014

Tools Copyright (c) 2012-2014 Texas Instruments Incorporated
module2.asm                                     PAGE      1

      1 00000000                                .text
      2 00000000                                .bss offst, 1
      3
      4      .copy globals.def
A     1      .global array
A     2      .global offst
A     3      .global dflag
      5 00000000 000000240000E4!                LDI r4, offst
      6 00000004 000000E1002480                SBBO &r0, r4, 0, 4

No Assembly Errors, No Assembly Warnings

```

Cross-Reference Lister Description

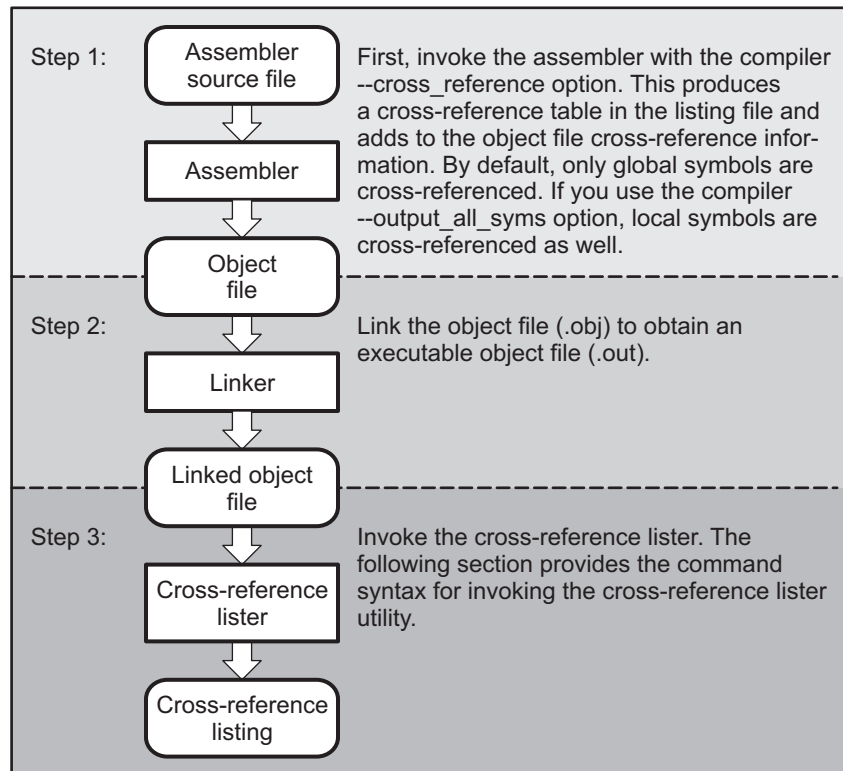
The PRU cross-reference lister is a debugging tool. This utility accepts linked object files as input and produces a cross-reference listing as output. This listing shows symbols, their definitions, and their references in the linked source files.

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10.1 Producing a Cross-Reference Listing

Figure 10-1 illustrates the steps required to produce a cross-reference listing.

Figure 10-1. The Cross-Reference Lister Development Flow



10.2 Invoking the Cross-Reference Lister

To use the cross-reference utility, the file must be assembled with the correct options and then linked into an executable file. Assemble the assembly language files with the `--cross_reference` option. This option creates a cross-reference listing and adds cross-reference information to the object file. By default, the assembler cross-references only global symbols, but if the assembler is invoked with the `--output_all_syms` option, local symbols are also added. Link the object files to obtain an executable file.

To invoke the cross-reference lister, enter the following:

```
xrefpru [options] [input filename] [output filename]
```

xrefpru	is the command that invokes the cross-reference utility.
<i>options</i>	identifies the cross-reference lister options you want to use. Options are not case sensitive and can appear anywhere on the command line following the command.
-l	(lowercase L) specifies the number of lines per page for the output file. The format of the <code>-l</code> option is <code>-l<i>num</i></code> , where <i>num</i> is a decimal constant. For example, <code>-l30</code> sets the number of lines per page in the output file to 30. The space between the option and the decimal constant is optional. The default is 60 lines per page.
-q	suppresses the banner and all progress information (run quiet).
<i>input filename</i>	is a linked object file. If you omit the input filename, the utility prompts for a filename.
<i>output filename</i>	is the name of the cross-reference listing file. If you omit the output filename, the default filename is the input filename with an <code>.xrf</code> extension.

10.3 Cross-Reference Listing Example

These terms defined appear in the cross-reference listing in [Example 10-1](#):

Symbol	Name of the symbol listed
Filename	Name of the file where the symbol appears
RTYP	The symbol's reference type in this file. The possible reference types are: STAT The symbol is defined in this file and is not declared as global. EDEF The symbol is defined in this file and is declared as global. EREF The symbol is not defined in this file but is referenced as global. UNDF The symbol is not defined in this file and is not declared as global.
AsmVal	This hexadecimal number is the value assigned to the symbol at assembly time. A value may also be preceded by a character that describes the symbol's attributes. Table 10-1 lists these characters and names.
LnkVal	This hexadecimal number is the value assigned to the symbol after linking.
DefLn	The statement number where the symbol is defined.
RefLn	The line number where the symbol is referenced. If the line number is followed by an asterisk (*), then that reference can modify the contents of the object. A blank in this column indicates that the symbol was never used.

Table 10-1. Symbol Attributes in Cross-Reference Listing

Character	Meaning
'	Symbol defined in a .text section
"	Symbol defined in a .data section
+	Symbol defined in a .sect section
-	Symbol defined in a .bss or .usect section

[Example 10-1](#) is an example of cross-reference listing.

Example 10-1. Cross-Reference Listing

```

File:  bttest.out           Wed Nov 13 17:07:42 xxxx           Page:  1
=====
Symbol: array
Filename      RTYP      AsmVal      LnkVal      DefLn      RefLn      RefLn      RefLn
-----
module1.asm   EDEF      -00000001   00001001    3          1A         5
=====
Symbol: array_a
Filename      RTYP      AsmVal      LnkVal      DefLn      RefLn      RefLn      RefLn
-----
module1.asm   STAT      '00000004   00000004    5          9
=====
Symbol: dflag
Filename      RTYP      AsmVal      LnkVal      DefLn      RefLn      RefLn      RefLn
-----
module1.asm   EDEF      -00000000   00001000    2          3A         4
=====
Symbol: dflag_a
Filename      RTYP      AsmVal      LnkVal      DefLn      RefLn      RefLn      RefLn
-----
module1.asm   STAT      '00000000   00000000    4          11
=====
Symbol: offst
Filename      RTYP      AsmVal      LnkVal      DefLn      RefLn      RefLn      RefLn
-----
module1.asm   EREF      00000000    00001068    2A         6
    
```

Example 10-1. Cross-Reference Listing (continued)

module2.asm	EDEF	-00000000	00001068	2	2A	3	
=====							
Symbol: offst_a							
Filename	RTYP	AsmVal	LnkVal	DefLn	RefLn	RefLn	RefLn
-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
module1.asm	STAT	'00000008	00000008	6	10		
module2.asm	STAT	'00000000	00000020	3	6		
=====							

Object File Utilities

This chapter describes how to invoke the following utilities:

- The **object file display utility** prints the contents of object files, executable files, and/or archive libraries in both text and XML formats.
- The **disassembler** accepts object files and executable files as input and produces an assembly listing as output. This listing shows assembly instructions, their opcodes, and the section program counter values.
- The **name utility** prints a list of names defined and referenced in an object file, executable files, and/or archive libraries.
- The **strip utility** removes symbol table and debugging information from object and executable files.

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11.1 Invoking the Object File Display Utility

The object file display utility, *ofdpru*, prints the contents of object files (.obj), executable files (.out), and/or archive libraries (.lib) in both text and XML formats. Hidden symbols are listed as *no name*, while localized symbols are listed like any other local symbol.

To invoke the object file display utility, enter the following:

```
ofdpru [options] input filename [input filename]
```

ofdpru	is the command that invokes the object file display utility.
<i>input filename</i>	names the object file (.obj), executable file (.out), or archive library (.lib) source file. The filename must contain an extension.
<i>options</i>	identify the object file display utility options that you want to use. Options are not case sensitive and can appear anywhere on the command line following the command. Precede each option with a hyphen.
-cg	Prints function stack usage and callee information in XML format. While the XML output may be accessed by a developer, this option was primarily designed to be used by tools such as Code Composer Studio to display an application's worst case stack usage.
--dwarf_display=attributes	Controls the DWARF display filter settings by specifying a comma-delimited list of <i>attributes</i> . When prefixed with <i>no</i> , an attribute is disabled instead of enabled. Examples: --dwarf_display=nodabbrev,nodline --dwarf_display=all,nodabbrev --dwarf_display=none,dinfo,types The ordering of attributes is important (see --obj_display). The list of available display attributes can be obtained by invoking <i>ofdpru --dwarf_display=help</i> .
--dynamic_info	Outputs dynamic linking information.
-g	Appends DWARF debug information to program output.
-h	Displays help
-o=filename	Sends program output to <i>filename</i> rather than to the screen.
--obj_display attributes	Controls the object file display filter settings by specifying a comma-delimited list of <i>attributes</i> . When prefixed with <i>no</i> , an attribute is disabled instead of enabled. Examples: --obj_display=rawdata,nostrings --obj_display=all,norawdata --obj_display=none,header The ordering of attributes is important. For instance, in "--obj_display=none,header", <i>ofdpru</i> disables all output, then re-enables file header information. If the attributes are specified in the reverse order, (header,none), the file header is enabled, the all output is disabled, including the file header. Thus, nothing is printed to the screen for the given files. The list of available display attributes can be obtained by invoking <i>ofdpru --obj_display=help</i> .
-v	Prints verbose text output.
-x	Displays output in XML format.
--xml_indent=num	Sets the number of spaces to indent nested XML tags.

If an archive file is given as input to the object file display utility, each object file member of the archive is processed as if it was passed on the command line. The object file members are processed in the order in which they appear in the archive file.

If the object file display utility is invoked without any options, it displays information about the contents of the input files on the console screen.

Object File Display Format

NOTE: The object file display utility produces data in a text format by default. This data is not intended to be used as input to programs for further processing of the information. XML format should be used for mechanical processing.

11.2 Invoking the Disassembler

The disassembler, *dispru*, examines the output of the assembler or linker. This utility accepts an object file or executable file as input and writes the disassembled object code to standard output or a specified file.

To invoke the disassembler, enter the following:

```
dispru [options] input filename[.] [output filename]
```

dispru	is the command that invokes the disassembler.
<i>options</i>	identifies the name utility options you want to use. Options are not case sensitive and can appear anywhere on the command line following the invocation. Precede each option with a hyphen (-). The name utility options are as follows: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -1 disassembles all sections, processes .cinit sections -a disables printing of address along with label names within instructions. -b displays data as bytes instead of words. -d disables display of data sections. -e displays integer values in hexadecimal. -h shows the current help screen. -i disassembles data sections as text. -I disassembles text sections as data. -q (quiet mode) suppresses the banner and all progress information. -qq (super quiet mode) suppresses all headers. -s suppresses printing of address and data words. -t suppresses the display of text sections in the listing. -y (aliased as <code>--copy_talbes</code>) displays copy tables and the sections copied. The table information is dumped first, then each record followed by its load and run data.
<i>input filename</i> [.ext]	is the name of the input file. If the optional extension is not specified, the file is searched for in this order: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <i>infile</i> 2. <i>infile.out</i>, an executable file 3. <i>infile.obj</i>, an object file
<i>output filename</i>	is the name of the optional output file to which the disassembly will be written. If an output filename is not specified, the disassembly is written to standard output.

As shown in [Example 11-1](#), the disassembler can produce disassembly from an object file, in this case memcpy32.obj. The first two lines are entered on the command line.

Example 11-1. Disassembly From memcpy32.asm

```

TEXT Section .text, 0x180 bytes at 0x0
000000:          C_MEMCPY:
000000: E3520000      CMP          R2, 0
000004: 012FFF1E      BXEQ        R14
000008: E92D4001      STMFD      R13!, {R0, R14}
00000c: E3110003      TST        R1, 3
000010: 1A00002B      BNE        0x000000C4
000014: E3100003      TST        R0, 3
000018: 1A00002F      BNE        0x000000DC
00001c: E3520010      CMP        R2, 16
000020: 3A000008      BCC        0x00000048
000024: E92D0010      STMFD      R13!, {R4}
000028: E2422010      SUB        R2, R2, 16

```

Example 11-2 provides an example of how the output would appear if a copy record refers to different load and run sections and the `--copy_table` option is used.

Example 11-2. Partial Copy Record Output With Different Load and Run Address

```

COPY TABLE: _data2_ctbl, 0x30 at 0x5E10, 1 record(s)

_data2_ctbl[0]: load addr=0x200158, size=0x12B, encoding=lzss

DATA Section .data2_scn.load, 0x12B bytes at 0x200158
200158:          $d:
200158: 020f0000          .word 0x020f0000
20015c: beef0003          .word 0xbeef0003
.
.

_data2_ctbl[0]: run addr=0x52A0, size=0x960

DATA Section .data1_scn, 0x960 bytes at 0x52A0
0052a0:          data1:
0052a0:          $d:
0052a0:          .data1_scn:
0052a0: 0000beef          .word 0x0000beef
0052a4: 0000beef          .word 0x0000beef
.
.
    
```

11.3 Invoking the Name Utility

The name utility, *nmpru*, prints the list of names defined and referenced in an object file, executable file, or archive library. It also prints the symbol value and an indication of the kind of symbol. Hidden symbols are listed as `" "`.

To invoke the name utility, enter the following:

```
nmpru [-options] [input filenames]
```

nmpru	is the command that invokes the name utility.
<i>input filename</i>	is an object file (.obj), executable file (.out), or archive library (.lib).
<i>options</i>	identifies the name utility options you want to use. Options are not case sensitive and can appear anywhere on the command line following the invocation. Precede each option with a hyphen (-). The name utility options are as follows:
-a	prints all symbols.
-f	prepends file name to each symbol.
-g	prints only global symbols.
-h	shows the current help screen.
-l	produces a detailed listing of the symbol information.
-n	sorts symbols numerically rather than alphabetically.
-o file	outputs to the given file.
-p	causes the name utility to not sort any symbols.
-q	(quiet mode) suppresses the banner and all progress information.
-r	sorts symbols in reverse order.
-s	lists symbols in the dynamic symbol table for an ELF object module.
-u	only prints undefined symbols.

11.4 Invoking the Strip Utility

The strip utility, *strippru*, removes symbol table and debugging information from object and executable files.

To invoke the strip utility, enter the following:

```
strippru [-p] input filename [input filename]
```

strippru is the command that invokes the strip utility.

input filename is an object file (.obj) or an executable file (.out).

options identifies the strip utility options you want to use. Options are not case sensitive and can appear anywhere on the command line following the invocation. Precede each option with a hyphen (-). The strip utility option is as follows:

-o *filename* writes the stripped output to filename.

-p removes all information not required for execution. This option causes more information to be removed than the default behavior, but the object file is left in a state that cannot be linked. This option should be used only with executable (.out) files.

When the strip utility is invoked without the -o option, the input object files are replaced with the stripped version.

Hex Conversion Utility Description

The PRU assembler and linker create object files which are in binary formats that encourage modular programming and provide powerful and flexible methods for managing code segments and target system memory.

Most EPROM programmers do not accept object files as input. The hex conversion utility converts an object file into one of several standard ASCII hexadecimal formats, suitable for loading into an EPROM programmer. The utility is also useful in other applications requiring hexadecimal conversion of an object file (for example, when using debuggers and loaders).

The hex conversion utility can produce these output file formats:

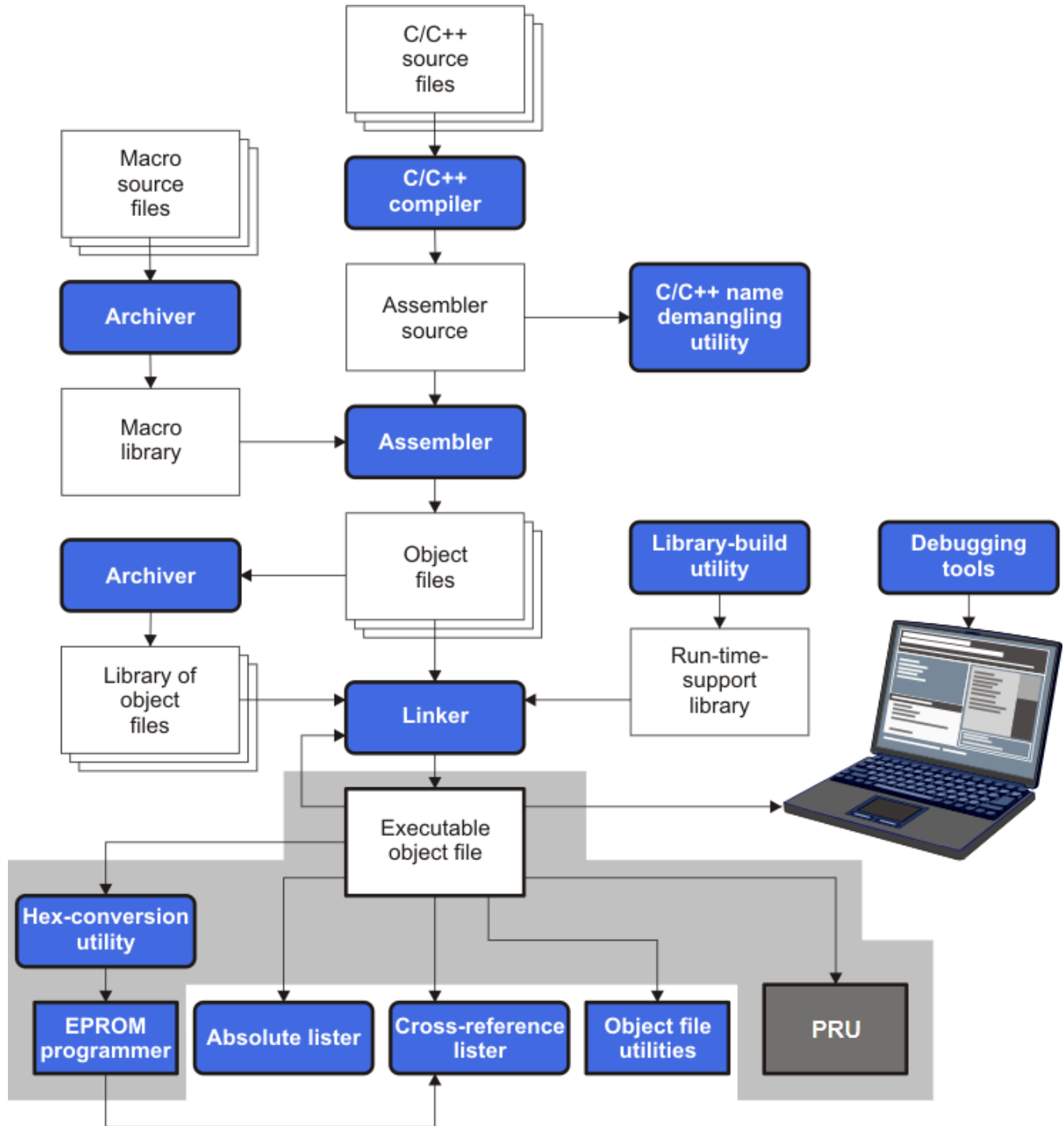
- ASCII-Hex, supporting 16-bit addresses
- Extended Tektronix (Tektronix)
- Intel MCS-86 (Intel)
- Motorola Exorciser (Motorola-S), supporting 16-bit addresses
- Texas Instruments SDSMAC (TI-Tagged), supporting 16-bit addresses
- Texas Instruments TI-TXT format, supporting 16-bit addresses
- C arrays

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12.1 The Hex Conversion Utility's Role in the Software Development Flow

Figure 12-1 highlights the role of the hex conversion utility in the software development process.

Figure 12-1. The Hex Conversion Utility in the PRU Software Development Flow



12.2 Invoking the Hex Conversion Utility

There are two basic methods for invoking the hex conversion utility:

- **Specify the options and filenames on the command line.** The following example converts the file `firmware.out` into TI-Tagged format, producing two output files, `firm.lsb` and `firm.msb`.

```
hexpru -t firmware -o firm.lsb -o firm.msb
```

- **Specify the options and filenames in a command file.** You can create a file that stores command line options and filenames for invoking the hex conversion utility. The following example invokes the utility using a command file called `hexutil.cmd`:

```
hexpru hexutil.cmd
```

In addition to regular command line information, you can use the hex conversion utility `ROMS` and `SECTIONS` directives in a command file.

12.2.1 Invoking the Hex Conversion Utility From the Command Line

To invoke the hex conversion utility, enter:

```
hexpru [options] filename
```

hexpru	is the command that invokes the hex conversion utility.
options	<p>supplies additional information that controls the hex conversion process. You can use options on the command line or in a command file. Table 12-1 lists the basic options.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All options are preceded by a hyphen and are not case sensitive. • Several options have an additional parameter that must be separated from the option by at least one space. • Options with multi-character names must be spelled exactly as shown in this document; no abbreviations are allowed. • Options are not affected by the order in which they are used. The exception to this rule is the <code>--quiet</code> option, which must be used before any other options.
filename	names an object file or a command file (for more information, see Section 12.2.2).

Table 12-1. Basic Hex Conversion Utility Options

Option	Alias	Description	See
General Options			
<code>--exclude={fname(sname) sname}</code>	<code>-exclude</code>	If the filename (<i>fname</i>) is omitted, all sections matching <i>sname</i> will be excluded.	Section 12.8
<code>--fill=value</code>	<code>-fill</code>	Fill holes with <i>value</i>	Section 12.10.2
<code>--help</code>	<code>-options, -h</code>	Display the syntax for invoking the utility and list available options. If the option is followed by another option or phrase, detailed information about that option or phrase is displayed.	Section 12.2.2
<code>--image</code>	<code>-image</code>	Select image mode	Section 12.10.1
<code>--linkerfill</code>	<code>-linkerfill</code>	Include linker fill sections in images	--
<code>--map=filename</code>	<code>-map</code>	Generate a map file	Section 12.5.2
<code>--memwidth=value</code>	<code>-memwidth</code>	Define the system memory word width (default bits)	Section 12.4.2
<code>--outfile=filename</code>	<code>-o</code>	Specify an output filename	Section 12.9
<code>--quiet</code>	<code>-q</code>	Run quietly (when used, it must appear <i>before</i> other options)	Section 12.2.2
<code>--romwidth=value</code>	<code>-romwidth</code>	Specify the ROM device width (default depends on format used). This option is ignored for the TI-TXT and TI-Tagged formats.	Section 12.4.3
<code>--zero</code>	<code>-zero, -z</code>	Reset the address origin to 0 in image mode	Section 12.10.3

Table 12-1. Basic Hex Conversion Utility Options (continued)

Option	Alias	Description	See
Diagnostic Options			
--diag_error= <i>id</i>		Categorizes the diagnostic identified by <i>id</i> as an error	Section 12.13
--diag_remark= <i>id</i>		Categorizes the diagnostic identified by <i>id</i> as a remark	Section 12.13
--diag_suppress= <i>id</i>		Suppresses the diagnostic identified by <i>id</i>	Section 12.13
--diag_warning= <i>id</i>		Categorizes the diagnostic identified by <i>id</i> as a warning	Section 12.13
--display_error_number		Displays a diagnostic's identifiers along with its text	Section 12.13
--issue_remarks		Issues remarks (nonserious warnings)	Section 12.13
--no_warnings		Suppresses warning diagnostics (errors are still issued)	Section 12.13
--set_error_limit= <i>count</i>		Sets the error limit to <i>count</i> . The linker abandons linking after this number of errors. (The default is 100.)	Section 12.13
Output Options			
--array		Select array output format	Section 12.11
--ascii	-a	Select ASCII-Hex	Section 12.14.1
--intel	-i	Select Intel	Section 12.14.2
--motorola=1	-m1	Select Motorola-S1	Section 12.14.3
--motorola=2	-m2	Select Motorola-S2	Section 12.14.3
--motorola=3	-m3	Select Motorola-S3 (default -m option)	Section 12.14.3
--tektronix	-x	Select Tektronix (default format when no output option is specified)	Section 12.14.4
--ti_tagged	-t	Select TI-Tagged	Section 12.14.5
--ti_txt		Select TI-Txt	Section 12.14.6
Load Image Options			
--load_image		Select load image	Section 12.7
--section_name_prefix= <i>string</i>		Specify the section name prefix for load image object files	Section 12.7

12.2.2 Invoking the Hex Conversion Utility With a Command File

A command file is useful if you plan to invoke the utility more than once with the same input files and options. It is also useful if you want to use the ROMS and SECTIONS hex conversion utility directives to customize the conversion process.

Command files are ASCII files that contain one or more of the following:

- **Options and filenames.** These are specified in a command file in exactly the same manner as on the command line.
- **ROMS directive.** The ROMS directive defines the physical memory configuration of your system as a list of address-range parameters. (See [Section 12.5.](#))
- **SECTIONS directive.** The hex conversion utility SECTIONS directive specifies which sections from the object file are selected. (See [Section 12.6.](#))
- **Comments.** You can add comments to your command file by using the `/*` and `*/` delimiters. For example:

```
/* This is a comment. */
```

To invoke the utility and use the options you defined in a command file, enter:

```
hexpru command_filename
```

You can also specify other options and files on the command line. For example, you could invoke the utility by using both a command file and command line options:

```
hexpru firmware.cmd --map=firmware.mxp
```

The order in which these options and filenames appear is not important. The utility reads all input from the command line and all information from the command file before starting the conversion process. However, if you are using the `-q` option, *it must appear as the first option on the command line or in a command file.*

The `--help` option 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 options associated with generating a boot table use `--help boot`.

The `--quiet` option suppresses the hex conversion utility's normal banner and progress information.

- Assume that a command file named `firmware.cmd` contains these lines:

```
firmware.out      /* input file */
--ti-tagged       /* TI-Tagged */
--outfile=firm.lsb /* output file */
--outfile=firm.msb /* output file */
```

You can invoke the hex conversion utility by entering:

```
hexpru firmware.cmd
```

- This example shows how to convert a file called `appl.out` into eight hex files in Intel format. Each output file is one byte wide and 4K bytes long.

```
appl.out          /* input file */
--intel           /* Intel format */
--map=appl.mxp    /* map file */
```

```
ROMS
{
  ROW1: origin=0x00000000 len=0x4000 romwidth=8
        files={ appl.u0 appl.u1 appl.u2 appl.u3 }
  ROW2: origin=0x00004000 len=0x4000 romwidth=8
        files={ appl.u4 appl.u5 appl.u6 appl.u7 }
}
```

```
SECTIONS
{
  .text, .data, .cinit, .sect1, .const:
}
```

12.3 Linking with an ARM Executable

The hexpru tool can be used to convert a PRU executable into an ARM object file that can be linked in with an ARM project. The PRU code and data are converted to ARM data. The ARM application can reference symbols in the PRU file. This is useful for bare metal projects that are not running a high level operating system like Linux.

The files for this example are provided in the PRU compiler's "example" directory. The resulting executable exposes the shared_buf and local_data symbols.

```
clpru -o3 test.c -z AM3359_PRU.cmd -o pru.out
```

To convert the executable to an ARM object file, use the PRU_to_ARM.cmd file as follows:

```
hexpru pru.out -o pru.obj PRU_to_ARM.cmd
```

The resulting pru.obj file can be linked with the dummy ARM application as follows:

```
armcl arm.c pru0.obj -z dummy_ARM.cmd -o arm.out
```

12.4 Understanding Memory Widths

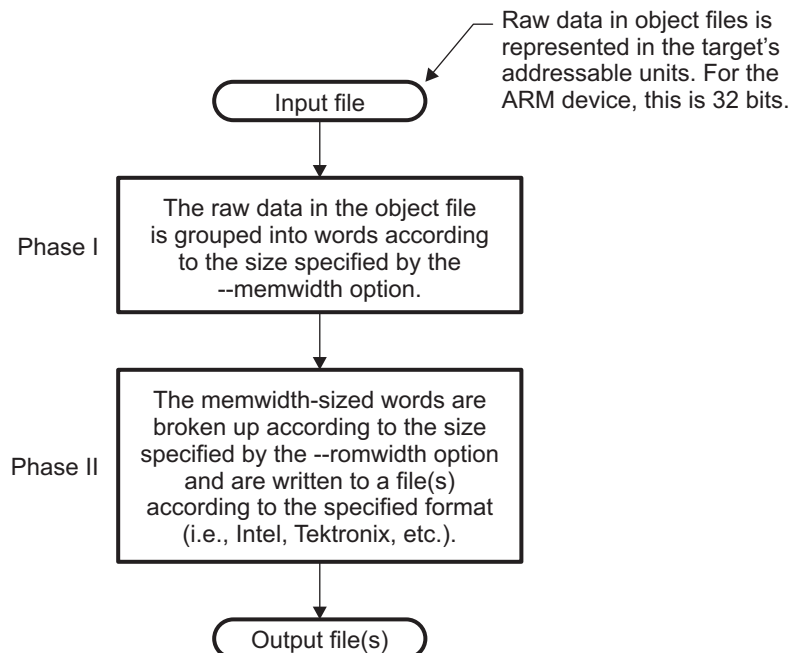
The hex conversion utility makes your memory architecture more flexible by allowing you to specify memory and ROM widths. To use the hex conversion utility, you must understand how the utility treats word widths. Three widths are important in the conversion process:

- Target width
- Memory width
- ROM width

The terms target word, memory word, and ROM word refer to a word of such a width.

Figure 12-2 illustrates the separate and distinct phases of the hex conversion utility's process flow.

Figure 12-2. Hex Conversion Utility Process Flow



12.4.1 Target Width

Target width is the unit size (in bits) of the target processor's word. The width is fixed for each target and cannot be changed. The PRU targets have a width of 32 bits.

12.4.2 Specifying the Memory Width

Memory width is the physical width (in bits) of the memory system. Usually, the memory system is physically the same width as the target processor width: a 32-bit processor has a 32-bit memory architecture. However, some applications require target words to be broken into multiple, consecutive, and narrower memory words.

By default, the hex conversion utility sets memory width to the target width (in this case, 32 bits).

You can change the memory width (except for TI-TXT format) by:

- Using the **--memwidth** option. This changes the memory width value for the entire file.
- Setting the **memwidth** parameter of the ROMS directive. This changes the memory width value for the address range specified in the ROMS directive and overrides the **--memwidth** option for that range. See [Section 12.5](#).

For both methods, use a value that is a power of 2 greater than or equal to 8.

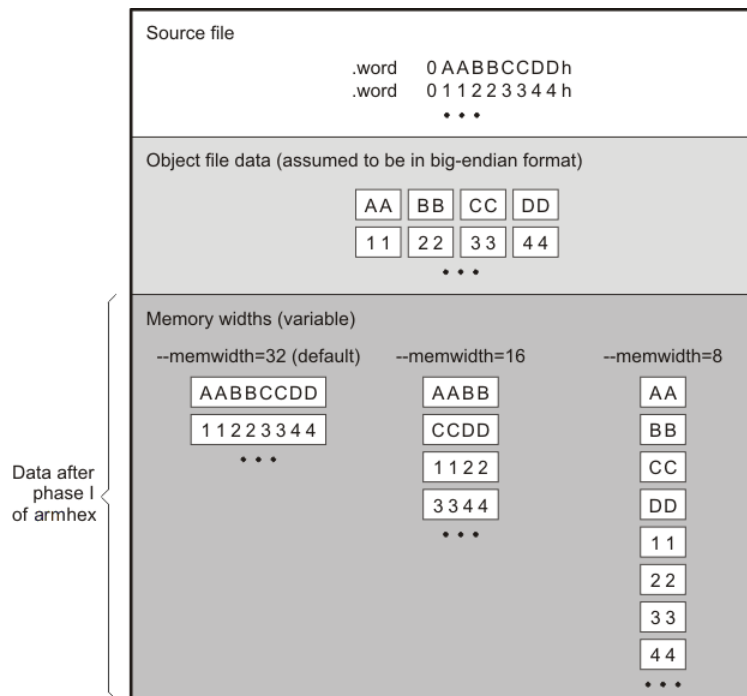
You should change the memory width default value of 16 only when you need to break single target words into consecutive, narrower memory words.

TI-TXT Format is 8 Bits Wide

NOTE: You cannot change the memory width of the TI-TXT format. The TI-TXT hex format supports an 8-bit memory width only.

[Figure 12-3](#) demonstrates how the memory width is related to object file data.

Figure 12-3. Object File Data and Memory Widths



12.4.3 Partitioning Data Into Output Files

ROM width determines how the hex conversion utility partitions the data into output files. ROM width specifies the physical width (in bits) of each ROM device and corresponding output file (usually one byte or eight bits). After the object file data is mapped to the memory words, the memory words are broken into one or more output files. The number of output files is determined by the following formulas:

- If memory width \geq ROM width:

$$\text{number of files} = \text{memory width} \div \text{ROM width}$$

- If memory width < ROM width:
number of files = 1

For example, for a memory width of 32, you could specify a ROM width value of 32 and get a single output file containing 32-bit words. Or you can use a ROM width value of 16 to get two files, each containing 16 bits of each word.

The default ROM width that the hex conversion utility uses depends on the output format:

- All hex formats except TI-Tagged are configured as lists of 8-bit bytes; the default ROM width for these formats is 8 bits.
- TI-Tagged is a 16-bit format; the default ROM width for TI-Tagged is 16 bits.

The TI-Tagged Format is 16 Bits Wide

NOTE: You cannot change the ROM width of the TI-Tagged format. The TI-Tagged format supports a 16-bit ROM width only.

TI-TXT Format is 8 Bits Wide

NOTE: You cannot change the ROM width of the TI-TXT format. The TI-TXT hex format supports only an 8-bit ROM width.

You can change ROM width (except for TI-Tagged and TI-TXT formats) by:

- Using the **--romwidth** option. This option changes the ROM width value for the entire object file.
- Setting the **romwidth** parameter of the ROMS directive. This parameter changes the ROM width value for a specific ROM address range and overrides the --romwidth option for that range. See [Section 12.5](#).

For both methods, use a value that is a power of 2 greater than or equal to 8.

If you select a ROM width that is wider than the natural size of the output format, the utility simply writes multibyte fields into the file. The --romwidth option is ignored for the TI-TXT and TI-Tagged formats.

[Figure 12-4](#) illustrates how the object file data, memory, and ROM widths are related to one another.

Memory width and ROM width are used only for grouping the object file data; they do not represent values. Thus, the byte ordering of the object file data is maintained throughout the conversion process. To refer to the partitions within a memory word, the bits of the memory word are always numbered from right to left as follows:

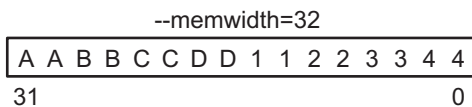
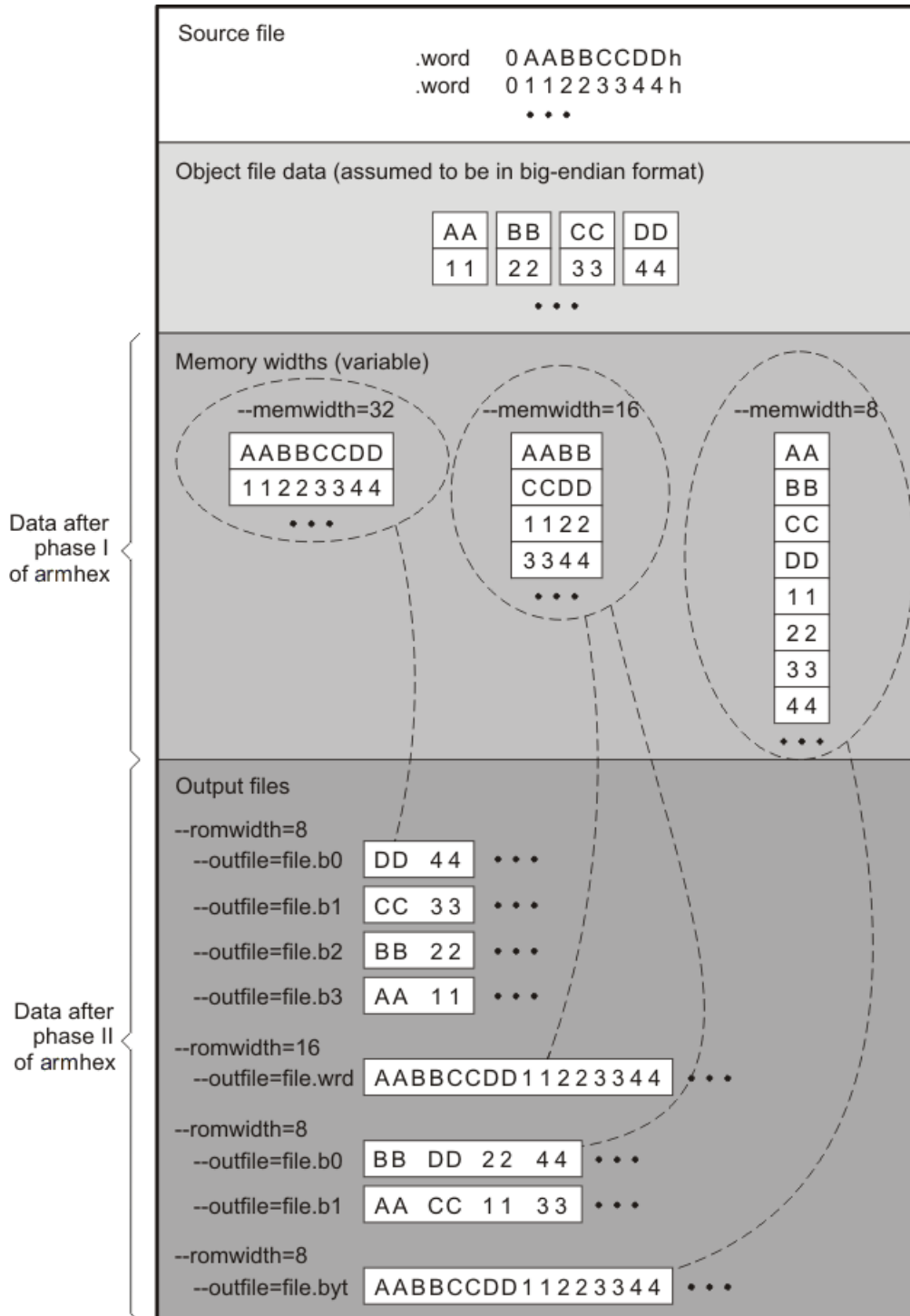


Figure 12-4. Data, Memory, and ROM Widths



12.5 The ROMS Directive

The ROMS directive specifies the physical memory configuration of your system as a list of address-range parameters.

Each address range produces one set of files containing the hex conversion utility output data that corresponds to that address range. Each file can be used to program one single ROM device.

The ROMS directive is similar to the MEMORY directive of the PRU linker: both define the memory map of the target address space. Each line entry in the ROMS directive defines a specific address range. The general syntax is:

```

ROMS
{
    romname :    [origin=value,] [length=value,] [romwidth=value,]
                 [memwidth=value,] [fill=value]
                 [files={ filename1, filename2, ...}]
    romname :    [origin=value,] [length=value,] [romwidth=value,]
                 [memwidth=value,] [fill=value]
                 [files={ filename1, filename2, ...}]
    ...
}

```

ROMS begins the directive definition.

romname identifies a memory range. The name of the memory range can be one to eight characters in length. The name has no significance to the program; it simply identifies the range, except when the output is for a load image in which case it denotes the section name. (Duplicate memory range names are allowed.)

origin specifies the starting address of a memory range. It can be entered as origin, org, or o. The associated value must be a decimal, octal, or hexadecimal constant. If you omit the origin value, the origin defaults to 0. The following table summarizes the notation you can use to specify a decimal, octal, or hexadecimal constant:

Constant	Notation	Example
Hexadecimal	0x prefix or h suffix	0x77 or 077h
Octal	0 prefix	077
Decimal	No prefix or suffix	77

length specifies the length of a memory range as the physical length of the ROM device. It can be entered as length, len, or l. The value must be a decimal, octal, or hexadecimal constant. If you omit the length, it defaults to the length of the entire address space.

romwidth specifies the physical ROM width of the range in bits (see [Section 12.4.3](#)). Any value you specify here overrides the --romwidth option. The value must be a decimal, octal, or hexadecimal constant that is a power of 2 greater than or equal to 8.

memwidth specifies the memory width of the range in bits (see [Section 12.4.2](#)). Any value you specify here overrides the --memwidth option. The value must be a decimal, octal, or hexadecimal constant that is a power of 2 greater than or equal to 8. *When using the memwidth parameter, you must also specify the paddr parameter for each section in the SECTIONS directive.* (See [Section 12.6](#).)

fill specifies a fill value to use for the range. In image mode, the hex conversion utility uses this value to fill any holes between sections in a range. A hole is an area between the input sections that comprises an output section that contains no actual code or data. The fill value must be a decimal, octal, or hexadecimal constant with a width equal to the target width. Any value you specify here overrides the --fill option. When using fill, you must also use the --image command line option. (See [Section 12.10.2](#).)

files identifies the names of the output files that correspond to this range. Enclose the list of names in curly braces and order them from *least significant* to *most significant* output file, where the bits of the memory word are numbered from right to left. The number of file names must equal the number of output files that the range generates. To calculate the number of output files, see [Section 12.4.3](#). The utility warns you if you list too many or too few filenames.

Unless you are using the `--image` option, all of the parameters that define a range are optional; the commas and equal signs are also optional. A range with no origin or length defines the entire address space. In image mode, an origin and length are required for all ranges.

Ranges must not overlap and must be listed in order of ascending address.

12.5.1 When to Use the ROMS Directive

If you do not use a ROMS directive, the utility defines a single default range that includes the entire address space. This is equivalent to a ROMS directive with a single range without origin or length.

Use the ROMS directive when you want to:

- **Program large amounts of data into fixed-size ROMs.** When you specify memory ranges corresponding to the length of your ROMs, the utility automatically breaks the output into blocks that fit into the ROMs.
- **Restrict output to certain segments.** You can also use the ROMS directive to restrict the conversion to a certain segment or segments of the target address space. The utility does not convert the data that falls outside of the ranges defined by the ROMS directive. Sections can span range boundaries; the utility splits them at the boundary into multiple ranges. If a section falls completely outside any of the ranges you define, the utility does not convert that section and issues no messages or warnings. Thus, you can exclude sections without listing them by name with the `SECTIONS` directive. However, if a section falls partially in a range and partially in unconfigured memory, the utility issues a warning and converts only the part within the range.
- **Use image mode.** When you use the `--image` option, you must use a ROMS directive. Each range is filled completely so that each output file in a range contains data for the whole range. Holes before, between, or after sections are filled with the fill value from the ROMS directive, with the value specified with the `--fill` option, or with the default value of 0.

12.5.2 An Example of the ROMS Directive

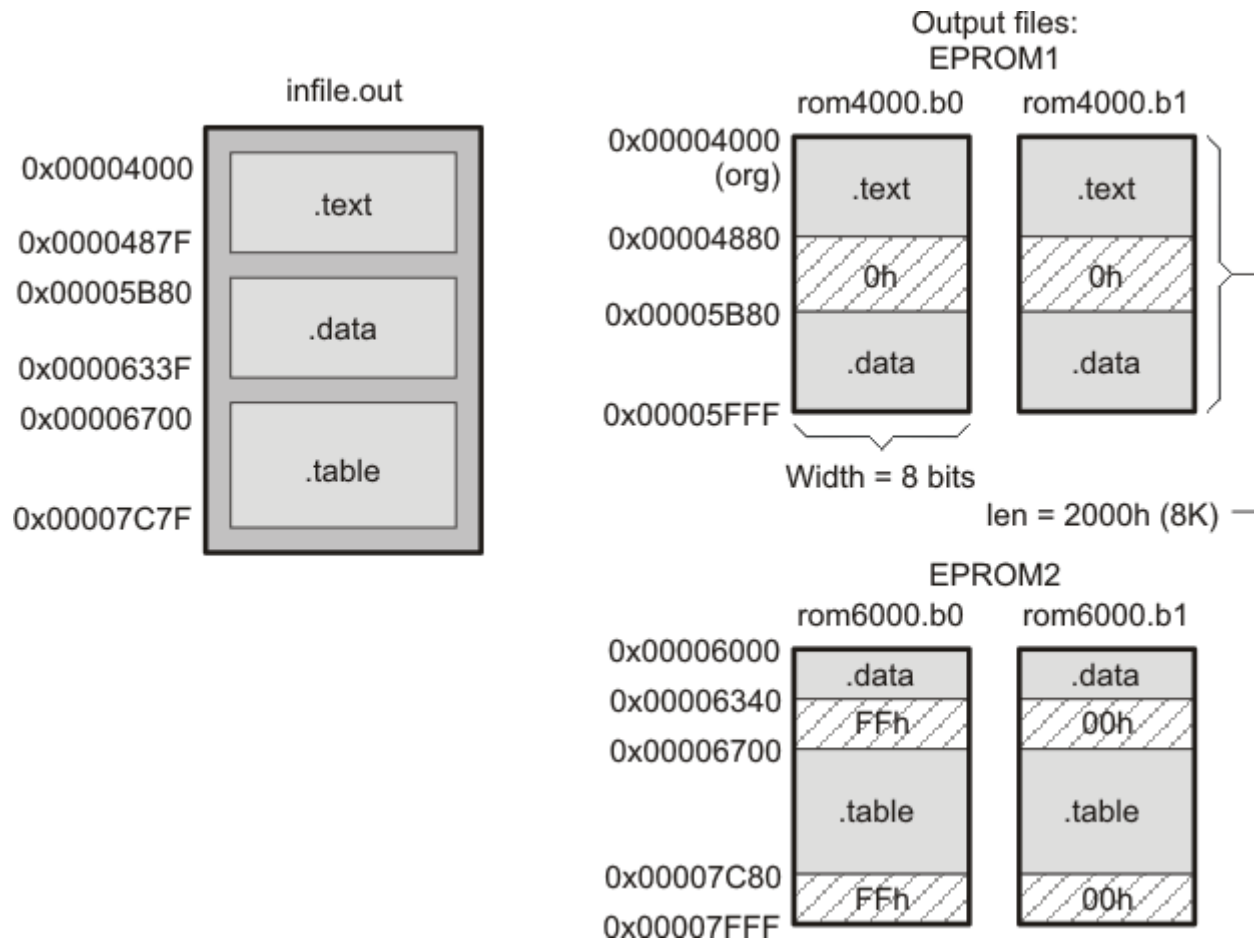
The ROMS directive in [Example 12-1](#) shows how 16K bytes of 16-bit memory could be partitioned for two 8K-byte 8-bit EPROMs. [Figure 12-5](#) illustrates the input and output files.

Example 12-1. A ROMS Directive Example

```
infile.out
--image
--memwidth 16

ROMS
{
  EPROM1: org = 0x00004000, len = 0x2000, romwidth = 8
         files = { rom4000.b0, rom4000.b1}
  EPROM2: org = 0x00006000, len = 0x2000, romwidth = 8,
         fill = 0xFF00FF00,
         files = { rom6000.b0, rom6000.b1}
}
```


Figure 12-5. The infile.out File Partitioned Into Four Output Files



The map file (specified with the `--map` option) is advantageous when you use the ROMS directive with multiple ranges. The map file shows each range, its parameters, names of associated output files, and a list of contents (section names and fill values) broken down by address. [Example 12-2](#) is a segment of the map file resulting from the example in [Example 12-1](#).

Example 12-2. Map File Output From Example 12-1 Showing Memory Ranges

```
-----
00004000..00005fff Page=0 Width=8 "EPROM1"
-----
OUTPUT FILES:  rom4000.b0  [b0..b7]
                rom4000.b1  [b8..b15]
CONTENTS: 00004000..0000487f .text
           00004880..00005b7f FILL = 00000000
           00005b80..00005fff .data
-----
00006000..00007fff Page=0 Width=8 "EPROM2"
-----
OUTPUT FILES:  rom6000.b0  [b0..b7]
                rom6000.b1  [b8..b15]
CONTENTS: 00006000..0000633f .data
           00006340..000066ff FILL = ff00ff00
           00006700..00007c7f .table
           00007c80..00007fff FILL = ff00ff00
-----
```

EPROM1 defines the address range from 0x00004000 through 0x00005FFF with the following sections:

This section ...	Has this range ...
.text	0x00004000 through 0x0000487F
.data	0x00005B80 through 0x00005FFF

The rest of the range is filled with 0h (the default fill value), converted into two output files:

- rom4000.b0 contains bits 0 through 7
- rom4000.b1 contains bits 8 through 15

EPROM2 defines the address range from 0x00006000 through 0x00007FFF with the following sections:

This section ...	Has this range ...
.data	0x00006000 through 0x0000633F
.table	0x00006700 through 0x00007C7F

The rest of the range is filled with 0xFF00FF00 (from the specified fill value). The data from this range is converted into two output files:

- rom6000.b0 contains bits 0 through 7
- rom6000.b1 contains bits 8 through 15

12.6 The *SECTIONS* Directive

You can convert specific sections of the object file by name with the hex conversion utility *SECTIONS* directive. You can also specify those sections that you want to locate in ROM at a different address than the *load* address specified in the linker command file. If you:

- Use a *SECTIONS* directive, the utility converts only the sections that you list in the directive and ignores all other sections in the object file.
- Do not use a *SECTIONS* directive, the utility converts all initialized sections that fall within the configured memory.

Uninitialized sections are *never* converted, whether or not you specify them in a *SECTIONS* directive.

Sections Generated by the C/C++ Compiler

NOTE: The PRU C/C++ compiler automatically generates these sections:

- **Initialized sections:** .text, .const, .cinit, and .switch
 - **Uninitialized sections:** .bss, .stack, and .systemem
-

Use the *SECTIONS* directive in a command file. (See [Section 12.2.2](#).) The general syntax is:

SECTIONS

```
{
  oname(sname)[:] [paddr=value]
  oname(sname)[:] [paddr= boot]
  oname(sname)[:] [boot]
  ...
}
```

SECTIONS begins the directive definition.

oname identifies the object filename the section is located within. The filename is optional when only a single input file is given, but required otherwise.

sname identifies a section in the input file. If you specify a section that does not exist, the utility issues a warning and ignores the name.

paddr=value	specifies the physical ROM address at which this section should be located. This value overrides the section load address given by the linker. This value must be a decimal, octal, or hexadecimal constant. It can also be the word boot (to indicate a boot table section for use with a boot loader). <i>If your file contains multiple sections, and if one section uses a paddr parameter, then all sections must use a paddr parameter.</i>
boot	configures a section for loading by a boot loader. This is equivalent to using paddr=boot . Boot sections have a physical address determined by the location of the boot table. The origin of the boot table is specified with the --bootorg option.

For more similarity with the linker's SECTIONS directive, you can use colons after the section names (in place of the equal sign on the boot keyboard). For example, the following statements are equivalent:

```
SECTIONS { .text: .data: boot }
SECTIONS { .text: .data = boot }
```

In the example below, the object file contains six initialized sections: .text, .data, .const, .coeff, and .tables. Suppose you want only .text and .data to be converted. Use a SECTIONS directive to specify this:

```
SECTIONS { .text: .data: }
```

To configure both of these sections for boot loading, add the boot keyword:

```
SECTIONS { .text = boot .data = boot }
```

12.7 The Load Image Format (--load_image Option)

A load image is an object file which contains the load addresses and initialized sections of one or more executable files. The load image object file can be used for ROM masking or can be relinked in a subsequent link step.

12.7.1 Load Image Section Formation

The load image sections are formed by collecting the initialized sections from the input executables. There are two ways the load image sections are formed:

- **Using the ROMS Directive.** Each memory range that is given in the ROMS directive denotes a load image section. The romname is the section name. The origin and length parameters are required. The memwidth, romwidth, and files parameters are invalid and are ignored.

When using the ROMS directive and the load_image option, the --image option is required.

- **Default Load Image Section Formation.** If no ROMS directive is given, the load image sections are formed by combining contiguous initialized sections in the input executables. Sections with gaps smaller than the target word size are considered contiguous.

The default section names are image_1, image_2, ... If another prefix is desired, the --section_name_prefix=prefix option can be used.

12.7.2 Load Image Characteristics

All load image sections are initialized data sections. In the absence of a ROMS directive, the load/run address of the load image section is the load address of the first input section in the load image section. If the SECTIONS directive was used and a different load address was given using the paddr parameter, this address will be used.

The load image format always creates a single load image object file. The format of the load image object file is determined based on the input files. The file is not marked executable and does not contain an entry point. The default load image object file name is ti_load_image.obj. This can be changed using the --outfile option. Only one --outfile option is valid when creating a load image, all other occurrences are ignored.

Concerning Load Image Format

NOTE: These options are invalid when creating a load image:

- --memwidth
- --romwidth
- --zero
- --byte

If a boot table is being created, either using the SECTIONS directive or the --boot option, the ROMS directive must be used.

12.8 Excluding a Specified Section

The --exclude *section_name* option can be used to inform the hex utility to ignore the specified section. If a SECTIONS directive is used, it overrides the --exclude option.

For example, if a SECTIONS directive containing the section name *mysect* is used and an --exclude *mysect* is specified, the SECTIONS directive takes precedence and *mysect* is not excluded.

The --exclude option has a limited wildcard capability. The * character can be placed at the beginning or end of the name specifier to indicate a suffix or prefix, respectively. For example, --exclude sect* disqualifies all sections that begin with the characters sect.

If you specify the --exclude option on the command line with the * wildcard, use quotes around the section name and wildcard. For example, --exclude"sect*". Using quotes prevents the * from being interpreted by the hex conversion utility. If --exclude is in a command file, do not use quotes.

If multiple object files are given, the object file in which the section to be excluded can be given in the form *oname(sname)*. If the object filename is not provided, all sections matching the section name are excluded. Wildcards cannot be used for the filename, but can appear within the parentheses.

12.9 Assigning Output Filenames

When the hex conversion utility translates your object file into a data format, it partitions the data into one or more output files. When multiple files are formed by splitting memory words into ROM words, *filenames are always assigned in order from least to most significant*, where bits in the memory words are numbered from right to left. This is true, regardless of target or endian ordering.

The hex conversion utility follows this sequence when assigning output filenames:

1. **It looks for the ROMS directive.** If a file is associated with a range in the ROMS directive and you have included a list of files (*files = { . . . }*) on that range, the utility takes the filename from the list.

For example, assume that the target data is 32-bit words being converted to four files, each eight bits wide. To name the output files using the ROMS directive, you could specify:

```
ROMS
{
    RANGE1: romwidth=8, files={ xyz.b0 xyz.b1 xyz.b2 xyz.b3 }
}
```

The utility creates the output files by writing the least significant bits to xyz.b0 and the most significant bits to xyz.b3.

2. **It looks for the --outfile options.** You can specify names for the output files by using the --outfile option. If no filenames are listed in the ROMS directive and you use --outfile options, the utility takes the filename from the list of --outfile options. The following line has the same effect as the example above using the ROMS directive:

```
--outfile=xyz.b0 --outfile=xyz.b1 --outfile=xyz.b2 --outfile=xyz.b3
```

If both the ROMS directive and --outfile options are used together, the ROMS directive overrides the --outfile options.

3. **It assigns a default filename.** If you specify no filenames or fewer names than output files, the utility assigns a default filename. A default filename consists of the base name from the input file plus a 2- to 3-character extension. The extension has three parts:

- a. A format character, based on the output format (see [Section 12.14](#)):

a for ASCII-Hex
i for Intel
m for Motorola-S
t for TI-Tagged
x for Tektronix

- b. The range number in the ROMS directive. Ranges are numbered starting with 0. If there is no ROMS directive, or only one range, the utility omits this character.

- c. The file number in the set of files for the range, starting with 0 for the least significant file.

For example, assume a.out is for a 32-bit target processor and you are creating Intel format output. With no output filenames specified, the utility produces four output files named a.i0, a.i1, a.i2, a.i3.

If you include the following ROMS directive when you invoke the hex conversion utility, you would have eight output files:

```
ROMS
{
  range1: o = 0x00001000 l = 0x1000
  range2: o = 0x00002000 l = 0x1000
}
```

These output files ...	Contain data in these locations ...
a.i00, a.i01, a.i02, a.i03	0x00001000 through 0x00001FFF
a.i10, a.i11, a.i12, a.i13	0x00002000 through 0x00002FFF

12.10 Image Mode and the --fill Option

This section points out the advantages of operating in image mode and describes how to produce output files with a precise, continuous image of a target memory range.

12.10.1 Generating a Memory Image

With the --image option, the utility generates a memory image by completely filling all of the mapped ranges specified in the ROMS directive.

An object file consists of blocks of memory (sections) with assigned memory locations. Typically, all sections are not adjacent: there are holes between sections in the address space for which there is no data. When such a file is converted *without* the use of image mode, the hex conversion utility bridges these holes by using the address records in the output file to skip ahead to the start of the next section. In other words, there may be discontinuities in the output file addresses. Some EPROM programmers do not support address discontinuities.

In image mode, there are no discontinuities. Each output file contains a continuous stream of data that corresponds exactly to an address range in target memory. Any holes before, between, or after sections are filled with a fill value that you supply.

An output file converted by using image mode still has address records, because many of the hexadecimal formats require an address on each line. However, in image mode, these addresses are always contiguous.

Defining the Ranges of Target Memory

NOTE: If you use image mode, you must also use a ROMS directive. In image mode, each output file corresponds directly to a range of target memory. You must define the ranges. If you do not supply the ranges of target memory, the utility tries to build a memory image of the entire target processor address space. This is potentially a huge amount of output data. To prevent this situation, the utility requires you to explicitly restrict the address space with the ROMS directive.

12.10.2 Specifying a Fill Value

The --fill option specifies a value for filling the holes between sections. The fill value must be specified as an integer constant following the --fill option. The width of the constant is assumed to be that of a word on the target processor. For example, specifying --fill=0xFFFF results in a fill pattern of 0x0000FFFF. The constant value is not sign extended.

The hex conversion utility uses a default fill value of 0 if you do not specify a value with the fill option. *The --fill option is valid only when you use --image; otherwise, it is ignored.*

12.10.3 Steps to Follow in Using Image Mode

- Step 1:** Define the ranges of target memory with a ROMS directive. See [Section 12.5](#).
- Step 2:** Invoke the hex conversion utility with the --image option. You can optionally use the --zero option to reset the address origin to 0 for each output file. If you do not specify a fill value with the ROMS directive and you want a value other than the default of 0, use the --fill option.

12.11 Array Output Format

The --array option causes the output to be generated in C array format. In this format, data contained in initialized sections of an executable file are defined as C arrays. Output arrays may be compiled along with a host program and used to initialize the target at runtime.

Arrays are formed by collecting the initialized sections from the input executable. There are two ways arrays are formed:

- **With the ROMS directive.** Each memory range that is given in the ROMS directive denotes an array. The *romname* is used as the array name. The *origin* and *length* parameters of the ROM directive are required. The *memwidth*, *romwidth*, and *files* parameters are invalid and are ignored.
- **No ROMS directive (default).** If no ROMS directive is given, arrays are formed by combining initialized sections within each page, beginning with the first initialized section. Arrays will reflect any gaps that exist between sections.

The default names for the arrays generated for `test.out` are `test_image_0` and `test_image_1`. The --array:name_prefix option can be used to override the default prefix for array names. For example, use --array:name_prefix=myarray to cause the names for the arrays to be `myarray_0` and `myarray_1`.

The default data type for page0 array elements is `uint32_t`. However, if the --array:page0_type_size=8 option is used, page0 array elements have a data type of `uint8_t`. The data type for page1 array elements is always `uint8_t`.

12.12 Controlling the ROM Device Address

The hex conversion utility output address field corresponds to the ROM device address. The EPROM programmer burns the data into the location specified by the hex conversion utility output file address field. The hex conversion utility offers some mechanisms to control the starting address in ROM of each section. However, many EPROM programmers offer direct control of the location in ROM in which the data is burned.

The address field of the hex-conversion utility output file is controlled by the following items, which are listed from low to high priority:

1. **The linker command file.** By default, the address field of the hex conversion utility output file is the load address (as given in the linker command file).
2. **The `paddr` parameter of the `SECTIONS` directive.** When the `paddr` parameter is specified for a section, the hex conversion utility bypasses the section load address and places the section in the address specified by `paddr`.
3. **The `--zero` option.** When you use the `--zero` option, the utility resets the address origin to 0 for each output file. Since each file starts at 0 and counts upward, any address records represent offsets from the beginning of the file (the address within the ROM) rather than actual target addresses of the data. You must use the `--zero` option in conjunction with the `--image` option to force the starting address in each output file to be zero. If you specify the `--zero` option without the `--image` option, the utility issues a warning and ignores the `--zero` option.
4. **The `--byte` option.** Some EPROM programmers may require the output file address field to contain a byte count rather than a word count. If you use the `--byte` option, the output file address increments once for each byte. For example, if the starting address is 0h, the first line contains eight words, and you use no `--byte` option, the second line would start at address 8 (8h). If the starting address is 0h, the first line contains eight words, and you use the `--byte` option, the second line would start at address 16 (010h). The data in both examples are the same; `--byte` affects only the calculation of the output file address field, not the actual target processor address of the converted data.

The `--byte` option causes the address records in an output file to refer to byte locations within the file, whether the target processor is byte-addressable or not.

12.13 Control Hex Conversion Utility Diagnostics

The hex conversion utility uses certain C/C++ compiler options to control hex-converter-generated diagnostics.

--diag_error=<i>id</i>	Categorizes the diagnostic identified by <i>id</i> as an error. To determine the numeric identifier of a diagnostic message, use the <code>--display_error_number</code> option first in a separate link. Then use <code>--diag_error=<i>id</i></code> to recategorize the diagnostic as an error. You can only alter the severity of discretionary diagnostics.
--diag_remark=<i>id</i>	Categorizes the diagnostic identified by <i>id</i> as a remark. To determine the numeric identifier of a diagnostic message, use the <code>--display_error_number</code> option first in a separate link. Then use <code>--diag_remark=<i>id</i></code> to recategorize the diagnostic as a remark. You can only alter the severity of discretionary diagnostics.
--diag_suppress=<i>id</i>	Suppresses the diagnostic identified by <i>id</i> . To determine the numeric identifier of a diagnostic message, use the <code>--display_error_number</code> option first in a separate link. Then use <code>--diag_suppress=<i>id</i></code> to suppress the diagnostic. You can only suppress discretionary diagnostics.
--diag_warning=<i>id</i>	Categorizes the diagnostic identified by <i>id</i> as a warning. To determine the numeric identifier of a diagnostic message, use the <code>--display_error_number</code> option first in a separate link. Then use <code>--diag_warning=<i>id</i></code> 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 (<code>--diag_suppress</code> , <code>--diag_error</code> , <code>--diag_remark</code> , and <code>--diag_warning</code>). 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 <code>-D</code> ; otherwise, no suffix is present. See the <i>PRU Optimizing C/C++ Compiler User's Guide</i> for more information on understanding diagnostic messages.
--issue_remarks	Issues remarks (nonserious warnings), which are suppressed by default.
--no_warnings	Suppresses warning diagnostics (errors are still issued).
--set_error_limit=<i>count</i>	Sets the error limit to <i>count</i> , which can be any decimal value. 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 and indicate the position of the error in the source line

12.14 Description of the Object Formats

The hex conversion utility has options that identify each format. Table 12-2 specifies the format options. They are described in the following sections.

- You should use only one of these options on the command line. If you use more than one option, the last one you list overrides the others.
- The default format is Tektronix (--tektronix option).

Table 12-2. Options for Specifying Hex Conversion Formats

Option	Alias	Format	Address Bits	Default Width
--ascii	-a	ASCII-Hex	16	8
--intel	-i	Intel	32	8
--motorola=1	-m1	Motorola-S1	16	8
--motorola=2	-m2	Motorola-S2	24	8
--motorola=3	-m3	Motorola-S3	32	8
--ti-tagged	-t	TI-Tagged	16	16
--ti_txt		TI_TXT	8	8
--tektronix	-x	Tektronix	32	8

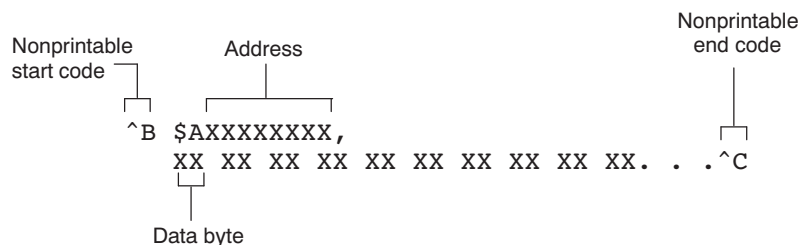
Address bits determine how many bits of the address information the format supports. Formats with 16-bit addresses support addresses up to 64K only. The utility truncates target addresses to fit in the number of available bits.

The **default width** determines the default output width of the format. You can change the default width by using the --romwidth option or by using the romwidth parameter in the ROMS directive. You cannot change the default width of the TI-Tagged format, which supports a 16-bit width only.

12.14.1 ASCII-Hex Object Format (--ascii Option)

The ASCII-Hex object format supports 16-bit addresses. The format consists of a byte stream with bytes separated by spaces. Figure 12-6 illustrates the ASCII-Hex format.

Figure 12-6. ASCII-Hex Object Format



The file begins with an ASCII STX character (ctrl-B, 02h) and ends with an ASCII ETX character (ctrl-C, 03h). Address records are indicated with \$XXXXXXXX, in which XXXXXXXX is a 8-digit (16-bit) hexadecimal address. The address records are present only in the following situations:

- When discontinuities occur
- When the byte stream does not begin at address 0

You can avoid all discontinuities and any address records by using the --image and --zero options. This creates output that is simply a list of byte values.

12.14.2 Intel MCS-86 Object Format (--intel Option)

The Intel object format supports 16-bit addresses and 32-bit extended addresses. Intel format consists of a 9-character (4-field) prefix (which defines the start of record, byte count, load address, and record type), the data, and a 2-character checksum suffix.

The 9-character prefix represents three record types:

Record Type	Description
00	Data record
01	End-of-file record
04	Extended linear address record

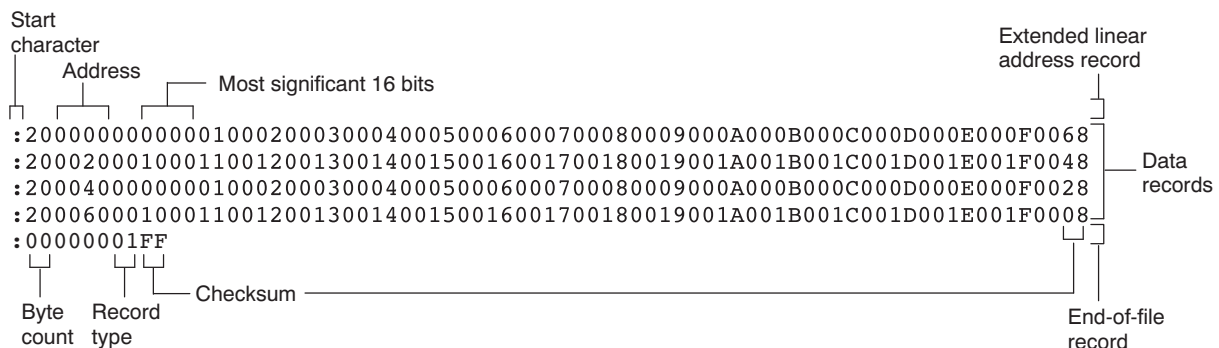
Record type 00, the data record, begins with a colon (:) and is followed by the byte count, the address of the first data byte, the record type (00), and the checksum. The address is the least significant 16 bits of a 32-bit address; this value is concatenated with the value from the most recent 04 (extended linear address) record to create a full 32-bit address. The checksum is the 2s complement (in binary form) of the preceding bytes in the record, including byte count, address, and data bytes.

Record type 01, the end-of-file record, also begins with a colon (:), followed by the byte count, the address, the record type (01), and the checksum.

Record type 04, the extended linear address record, specifies the upper 16 address bits. It begins with a colon (:), followed by the byte count, a dummy address of 0h, the record type (04), the most significant 16 bits of the address, and the checksum. The subsequent address fields in the data records contain the least significant bytes of the address.

Figure 12-7 illustrates the Intel hexadecimal object format.

Figure 12-7. Intel Hexadecimal Object Format



12.14.6 TI-TXT Hex Format (--ti_txt Option)

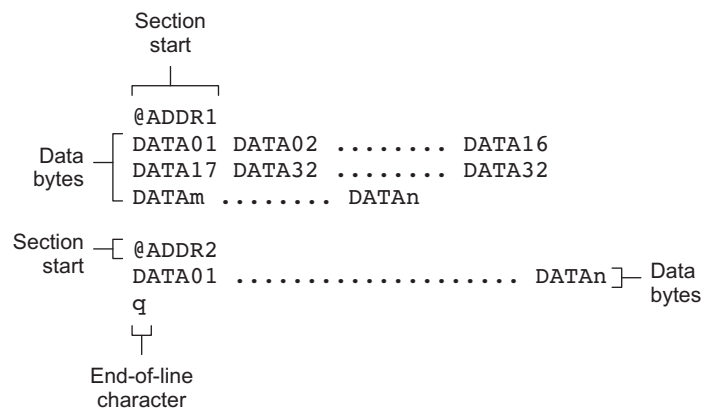
The TI-TXT hex format supports 16-bit hexadecimal data. It consists of section start addresses, data byte, and an end-of-file character. These restrictions apply:

- The number of sections is unlimited.
- Each hexadecimal start address must be even.
- Each line must have 16 data bytes, except the last line of a section.
- Data bytes are separated by a single space.
- The end-of-file termination tag q is mandatory.

The data record contains the following information:

Item	Description
@ADDR	Hexadecimal start address of a section
DATAn	Hexadecimal data byte
q	End-of-file termination character

Figure 12-11. TI-TXT Object Format



Example 12-3. TI-TXT Object Format

```
@F000
31 40 00 03 B2 40 80 5A 20 01 D2 D3 22 00 D2 E3
21 00 3F 40 E8 FD 1F 83 FE 23 F9 3F
@FFFE
00 F0
Q
```

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.

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13.1 Overview of the `.cdecls` Directive

The `.cdecls` directive allows programmers in mixed assembly and C/C++ environments to share C headers containing declarations and prototypes between the 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. This allows the programmer to reference the C/C++ constructs in assembly code — calling functions, allocating space, and accessing structure members — using the equivalent assembly mechanisms. While function and variable definitions are ignored, most common C/C++ elements are converted to assembly: enumerations, (non function-like) macros, function and variable prototypes, structures, and unions.

See the [.cdecls directive](#) description for details on the syntax of the `.cdecls` assembler directive.

The `.cdecls` directive can appear anywhere in an assembly source file, and can occur multiple times within a file. However, the C/C++ environment created by one `.cdecls` is **not** inherited by a later `.cdecls`; the C/C++ environment starts over for each `.cdecls` instance.

For example, the following code causes the warning to be issued:

```
.cdecls C,NOLIST
%{
    #define ASMTEST 1
}%

.cdecls C,NOLIST
%{
    #ifndef ASMTEST
        #warn "ASMTEST not defined!" /* will be issued */
    #endif
}%
```

Therefore, a typical use of the `.cdecls` block is expected to be a single usage near the beginning of the assembly source file, in which all necessary C/C++ header files are included.

Use the compiler `--include_path=path` options to specify additional include file paths needed for the header files used in assembly, as you would when compiling C files.

Any C/C++ errors or warnings generated by the code of the `.cdecls` are emitted as they normally would for the C/C++ source code. C/C++ errors cause the directive to fail, and any resulting converted assembly is not included.

C/C++ constructs that cannot be converted, such as function-like macros or variable definitions, cause a comment to be output to the converted assembly file. For example:

```
; ASM HEADER WARNING - variable definition 'ABCD' ignored
```

The prefix `ASM HEADER WARNING` appears at the beginning of each message. To see the warnings, either the `WARN` parameter needs to be specified so the messages are displayed on `STDERR`, or else the `LIST` parameter needs to be specified so the warnings appear in the listing file, if any.

Finally, note that the converted assembly code does not appear in the same order as the original C/C++ source code and C/C++ constructs may be simplified to a normalized form during the conversion process, but this should not affect their final usage.

13.2 Notes on C/C++ Conversions

The following sections describe C and C++ conversion elements that you need to be aware of when sharing header files with assembly source.

13.2.1 Comments

Comments are consumed entirely at the C level, and do not appear in the resulting converted assembly file.

13.2.2 Conditional Compilation (#if/#else/#ifdef/etc.)

Conditional compilation is handled entirely at the C level during the conversion step. Define any necessary macros either on the command line (using the compiler `--define=name=value` option) or within a `.cdecls` block using `#define`. The `#if`, `#ifdef`, etc. C/C++ directives are **not** converted to assembly `.if`, `.else`, `.elseif`, and `.endif` directives.

13.2.3 Pragmas

Pragmas found in the C/C++ source code cause a warning to be generated as they are not converted. They have no other effect on the resulting assembly file. See [the .cdecls topic](#) for the `WARN` and `NOWARN` parameter discussion for where these warnings are created.

13.2.4 The #error and #warning Directives

These preprocessor directives are handled completely by the compiler during the parsing step of conversion. If one of these directives is encountered, the appropriate error or warning message is emitted. These directives are not converted to `.emsg` or `.wmsg` in the assembly output.

13.2.5 Predefined symbol __ASM_HEADER__

The C/C++ macro `__ASM_HEADER__` is defined in the compiler while processing code within `.cdecls`. This allows you to make changes in your code, such as not compiling definitions, during the `.cdecls` processing.

Be Careful With the __ASM_HEADER__ Macro

NOTE: You must be very careful not to use this macro to introduce any changes in the code that could result in inconsistencies between the code processed while compiling the C/C++ source and while converting to assembly.

13.2.6 Usage Within C/C++ asm() Statements

The `.cdecls` directive is not allowed within C/C++ `asm()` statements and will cause an error to be generated.

13.2.7 The #include Directive

The C/C++ `#include` preprocessor directive is handled transparently by the compiler during the conversion step. Such `#includes` can be nested as deeply as desired as in C/C++ source. The assembly directives `.include` and `.copy` are not used or needed within a `.cdecls`. Use the command line `--include_path` option to specify additional paths to be searched for included files, as you would for C compilation.

13.2.8 Conversion of #define Macros

Only object-like macros are converted to assembly. Function-like macros have no assembly representation and so cannot be converted. Pre-defined and built-in C/C++ macros are not converted to assembly (i.e., `__FILE__`, `__TIME__`, `__TI_COMPILER_VERSION__`, etc.). For example, this code is converted to assembly because it is an object-like macro:

```
#define NAME Charley
```

This code is not converted to assembly because it is a function-like macro:

```
#define MAX(x,y) (x>y ? x : y)
```

Some macros, while they are converted, have no functional use in the containing assembly file. For example, the following results in the assembly substitution symbol `FOREVER` being set to the value `while(1)`, although this has no useful use in assembly because `while(1)` is not legal assembly code.

```
#define FOREVER while(1)
```

Macro values are **not** interpreted as they are converted. For example, the following results in the assembler substitution symbol `OFFSET` being set to the literal string value `5+12` and **not** the value `17`. This happens because the semantics of the C/C++ language require that macros are evaluated in context and not when they are parsed.

```
#define OFFSET 5+12
```

Because macros in C/C++ are evaluated in their usage context, C/C++ printf escape sequences such as `\n` are not converted to a single character in the converted assembly macro. See [Section 13.2.11](#) for suggestions on how to use C/C++ macro strings.

Macros are converted using the `.define` directive (see [Section 13.4.2](#)), which functions similarly to the `.asg` assembler directive. The exception is that `.define` disallows redefinitions of register symbols and mnemonics to prevent the conversion from corrupting the basic assembly environment. To remove a macro from the assembly scope, `.undef` can be used following the `.cdecls` that defines it (see [Section 13.4.3](#)).

The macro functionality of `#` (stringize operator) is only useful within functional macros. Since functional macros are not supported by this process, `#` is not supported either. The concatenation operator `##` is only useful in a functional context, but can be used degenerately to concatenate two strings and so it is supported in that context.

13.2.9 The #undef Directive

Symbols undefined using the `#undef` directive before the end of the `.cdecls` are not converted to assembly.

13.2.10 Enumerations

Enumeration members are converted to `.enum` elements in assembly. For example:

```
enum state { ACTIVE=0x10, SLEEPING=0x01, INTERRUPT=0x100, POWEROFF, LAST};
```

is converted to the following assembly code:

```
state      .enum
ACTIVE     .emember 16
SLEEPING   .emember 1
INTERRUPT  .emember 256
POWEROFF   .emember 257
LAST       .emember 258
           .endenum
```

The members are used via the pseudo-scoping created by the `.enum` directive.

The usage is similar to that for accessing structure members, `enum_name.member`.

This pseudo-scoping is used to prevent enumeration member names from corrupting other symbols within the assembly environment.

13.2.11 C Strings

Because C string escapes such as `\n` and `\t` are not converted to hex characters `0x0A` and `0x09` until their use in a string constant in a C/C++ program, C macros whose values are strings cannot be represented as expected in assembly substitution symbols. For example:

```
#define MSG "\tHI\n"
```

becomes, in assembly:

```
.define """\tHI\n"",MSG ; 6 quoted characters! not 5!
```

When used in a C string context, you expect this statement to be converted to 5 characters (tab, H, I, newline, NULL), but the `.string` assembler directive does not know how to perform the C escape conversions.

You can use the `.cstring` directive to cause the escape sequences and NULL termination to be properly handled as they would in C/C++. Using the above symbol `MSG` with a `.cstring` directive results in 5 characters of memory being allocated, the same characters as would result if used in a C/C++ string context. (See [Section 13.4.7](#) for the `.cstring` directive syntax.)

13.2.12 C/C++ Built-In Functions

The C/C++ built-in functions, such as `sizeof()`, are not translated to their assembly counterparts, if any, if they are used in macros. Also, their C expression values are not inserted into the resulting assembly macro because macros are evaluated in context and there is no active context when converting the macros to assembly.

Suitable functions such as `$sizeof()` are available in assembly expressions. However, as the basic types such as `int/char/float` have no type representation in assembly, there is no way to ask for `$sizeof(int)`, for example, in assembly.

13.2.13 Structures and Unions

C/C++ structures and unions are converted to assembly `.struct` and `.union` elements. Padding and ending alignments are added as necessary to make the resulting assembly structure have the same size and member offsets as the C/C++ source. The primary purpose is to allow access to members of C/C++ structures, as well as to facilitate debugging of the assembly code. For nested structures, the assembly `.tag` feature is used to refer to other structures/unions.

The alignment is also passed from the C/C++ source so that the assembly symbol is marked with the same alignment as the C/C++ symbol. (See [Section 13.2.3](#) for information about pragmas, which may attempt to modify structures.) Because the alignment of structures is stored in the assembly symbol, built-in assembly functions like `$sizeof()` and `$alignof()` can be used on the resulting structure name symbol.

When using unnamed structures (or unions) in typedefs, such as:

```
typedef struct { int a_member; } mystrname;
```

This is really a shorthand way of writing:

```
struct temporary_name { int a_member; };
typedef temporary_name mystrname;
```

The conversion processes the above statements in the same manner: generating a temporary name for the structure and then using `.define` to output a typedef from the temporary name to the user name. You should use your *mystrname* in assembly the same as you would in C/C++, but do not be confused by the assembly structure definition in the list, which contains the temporary name. You can avoid the temporary name by specifying a name for the structure, as in:

```
typedef struct a_st_name { ... } mystrname;
```

If a shorthand method is used in C to declare a variable with a particular structure, for example:

```
extern struct a_name { int a_member; } a_variable;
```

Then after the structure is converted to assembly, a `.tag` directive is generated to declare the structure of the external variable, such as:

```
_a_variable .tag a_st_name
```

This allows you to refer to `_a_variable.a_member` in your assembly code.

13.2.14 Function/Variable Prototypes

Non-static function and variable prototypes (not definitions) will result in a `.global` directive being generated for each symbol found.

See [Section 13.3.1](#) for C++ name mangling issues.

Function and variable definitions will result in a warning message being generated (see the `WARN/NOWARN` parameter discussion for where these warnings are created) for each, and they will not be represented in the converted assembly.

The assembly symbol representing the variable declarations will not contain type information about those symbols. Only a `.global` will be issued for them. Therefore, it is your responsibility to ensure the symbol is used appropriately.

See [Section 13.2.13](#) for information on variables names which are of a structure/union type.

13.2.15 C Constant Suffixes

The C constant suffixes u, l, and f are passed to the assembly unchanged. The assembler will ignore these suffixes if used in assembly expressions.

13.2.16 Basic C/C++ Types

Only complex types (structures and unions) in the C/C++ source code are converted to assembly. Basic types such as int, char, or float are not converted or represented in assembly beyond any existing .int, .char, .float, etc. directives that previously existed in assembly.

Typedefs of basic types are therefore also not represented in the converted assembly.

13.3 Notes on C++ Specific Conversions

The following sections describe C++ specific conversion elements that you need to be aware of when sharing header files with assembly source.

13.3.1 Name Mangling

Symbol names may be mangled in C++ source files. When mangling occurs, the converted assembly will use the mangled names to avoid symbol name clashes. You can use the demangler (dempru) to demangle names and identify the correct symbols to use in assembly.

To defeat name mangling in C++ for symbols where polymorphism (calling a function of the same name with different kinds of arguments) is not required, use the following syntax:

```
extern "C" void somefunc(int arg);
```

The above format is the short method for declaring a single function. To use this method for multiple functions, you can also use the following syntax:

```
extern "C"
{
    void somefunc(int arg);
    int  anotherfunc(int arg);
    ...
}
```

13.3.2 Derived Classes

Derived classes are only partially supported when converting to assembly because of issues related to C++ scoping which does not exist in assembly. The greatest difference is that base class members do not automatically become full (top-level) members of the derived class. For example:

```
-----
class base
{
    public:
        int b1;
};

class derived : public base
{
    public:
        int d1;
}
```

In C++ code, the class derived would contain both integers b1 and d1. In the converted assembly structure "derived", the members of the base class must be accessed using the name of the base class, such as derived.__b_base.b1 rather than the expected derived.b1.

A non-virtual, non-empty base class will have __b_ prepended to its name within the derived class to signify it is a base class name. That is why the example above is derived.__b_base.b1 and not simply derived.base.b1.

13.3.3 Templates

No support exists for templates.

13.3.4 Virtual Functions

No support exists for virtual functions, as they have no assembly representation.

13.4 Special Assembler Support

13.4.1 Enumerations (*.enum/.emember/.endenum*)

The following directives support a pseudo-scoping for enumerations:

```

ENUM_NAME      .enum
MEMBER1        .emember [value]
MEMBER2        .emember [value]
...
                .endenum
  
```

The **.enum** directive begins the enumeration definition and **.endenum** terminates it.

The enumeration name (*ENUM_NAME*) cannot be used to allocate space; its size is reported as zero.

The format to use the value of a member is *ENUM_NAME.MEMBER*, similar to a structure member usage.

The **.emember** directive optionally accepts the value to set the member to, just as in C/C++. If not specified, the member takes a value one more than the previous member. As in C/C++, member names cannot be duplicated, although values can be. Unless specified with **.emember**, the first enumeration member will be given the value 0 (zero), as in C/C++.

The **.endenum** directive cannot be used with a label, as structure **.endstruct** directives can, because the **.endenum** directive has no value like the **.endstruct** does (containing the size of the structure).

Conditional compilation directives (*.if/.else/.elseif/.endif*) are the only other non-enumeration code allowed within the *.enum/.endenum* sequence.

13.4.2 The *.define* Directive

The **.define** directive functions in the same manner as the **.asg** directive, except that **.define** disallows creation of a substitution symbol that has the same name as a register symbol or mnemonic. It does not create a new symbol name space in the assembler, rather it uses the existing substitution symbol name space. The syntax for the directive is:

```
.define substitution string , substitution symbol name
```

The **.define** directive is used to prevent corruption of the assembly environment when converting C/C++ headers.

13.4.3 The *.undefine/.unasg* Directives

The **.undef** directive is used to remove the definition of a substitution symbol created using **.define** or **.asg**. This directive will remove the named symbol from the substitution symbol table from the point of the **.undef** to the end of the assembly file. The syntax for these directives is:

```
.undefine substitution symbol name
```

```
.unasg substitution symbol name
```

This can be used to remove from the assembly environment any C/C++ macros that may cause a problem.

Also see [Section 13.4.2](#), which covers the **.define** directive.

13.4.4 The `$defined()` Built-In Function

The `$defined` directive returns true/1 or false/0 depending on whether the name exists in the current substitution symbol table or the standard symbol table. In essence `$defined` returns TRUE if the assembler has any user symbol in scope by that name. This differs from `$isdefed` in that `$isdefed` only tests for NON-substitution symbols. The syntax is:

`$defined(substitution symbol name)`

A statement such as `.if $defined(macroname)` is then similar to the C code `"#ifdef macroname"`.

See [Section 13.4.2](#) and [Section 13.4.3](#) for the use of `.define` and `.undef` in assembly.

13.4.5 The `$sizeof` Built-In Function

The assembly built-in function `$sizeof()` can be used to query the size of a structure in assembly. It is an alias for the already existing `$structsz()`. The syntax is:

`$sizeof(structure name)`

The `$sizeof` function can then be used similarly to the C built-in function `sizeof()`.

The assembler's `$sizeof()` built-in function cannot be used to ask for the size of basic C/C++ types, such as `$sizeof(int)`, because those basic type names are not represented in assembly. Only complex types are converted from C/C++ to assembly.

Also see [Section 13.2.12](#), which notes that this conversion does not happen automatically if the C/C++ `sizeof()` built-in function is used within a macro.

13.4.6 Structure/Union Alignment and `$alignof()`

The assembly `.struct` and `.union` directives take an optional second argument which can be used to specify a minimum alignment to be applied to the symbol name. This is used by the conversion process to pass the specific alignment from C/C++ to assembly.

The assembly built-in function `$alignof()` can be used to report the alignment of these structures. This can be used even on assembly structures, and the function will return the minimum alignment calculated by the assembler.

13.4.7 The `.cstring` Directive

You can use the `.cstring` directive to cause the escape sequences and NULL termination to be properly handled as they would in C/C++.

```
.cstring "String with C escapes.\nWill be NULL terminated.\012"
```

See [Section 13.2.11](#) for more information on the `.cstring` directive.

Symbolic Debugging Directives

The assembler supports several directives that the PRU C/C++ compiler uses for symbolic debugging.

These directives are not meant for use by assembly-language programmers. They require arguments that can be difficult to calculate manually, and their usage must conform to a predetermined agreement between the compiler, the assembler, and the debugger. This appendix documents these directives for informational purposes only.

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A.1 DWARF Debugging Format

A subset of the DWARF symbolic debugging directives are always listed in the assembly language file that the compiler creates for program analysis purposes. To list the complete set used for full symbolic debug, invoke the compiler with the `--symdebug:dwarf` option, as shown below:

```
clpru --symdebug:dwarf --keep_asm input_file
```

The `--keep_asm` option instructs the compiler to retain the generated assembly file.

To disable the generation of all symbolic debug directives, invoke the compiler with the `-symdebug:none` option:

```
clpru --symdebug:none --keep_asm input_file
```

The DWARF debugging format consists of the following directives:

- The **.dwtag** and **.dwendtag** directives define a Debug Information Entry (DIE) in the `.debug_info` section.
- The **.dwattr** directive adds an attribute to an existing DIE.
- The **.dwpsn** directive identifies the source position of a C/C++ statement.
- The **.dwcie** and **.dwentry** directives define a Common Information Entry (CIE) in the `.debug_frame` section.
- The **.dwfde** and **.dwentry** directives define a Frame Description Entry (FDE) in the `.debug_frame` section.
- The **.dwcfi** directive defines a call frame instruction for a CIE or FDE.

A.2 Debug Directive Syntax

[Table A-1](#) is an alphabetical listing of the symbolic debugging directives. For information on the C/C++ compiler, refer to the *PRU Optimizing C/C++ Compiler User's Guide*.

Table A-1. Symbolic Debugging Directives

Label	Directive	Arguments
	.dwattr	<i>DIE label</i> , <i>DIE attribute name (DIE attribute value)</i> [, <i>DIE attribute name (attribute value)</i> [, ...]
	.dwcfi	<i>call frame instruction opcode</i> [, <i>operand</i> [, <i>operand</i>]]
<i>CIE label</i>	.dwcie	<i>version</i> , <i>return address register</i>
	.dwentry	
	.dwendtag	
	.dwfde	<i>CIE label</i>
	.dwpsn	" <i>filename</i> " , <i>line number</i> , <i>column number</i>
<i>DIE label</i>	.dwtag	<i>DIE tag name</i> , <i>DIE attribute name (DIE attribute value)</i> [, <i>DIE attribute name (attribute value)</i> [, ...]

XML Link Information File Description

The PRU linker supports the generation of an XML link information file via the `--xml_link_info file` option. This option causes the linker to generate a well-formed XML file containing detailed information about the result of a link. The information included in this file includes all of the information that is currently produced in a linker-generated map file.

As the linker evolves, the XML link information file may be extended to include additional information that could be useful for static analysis of linker results.

This appendix enumerates all of the elements that are generated by the linker into the XML link information file.

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B.1 XML Information File Element Types

These element types will be generated by the linker:

- **Container elements** represent an object that contains other elements that describe the object. Container elements have an id attribute that makes them accessible from other elements.
- **String elements** contain a string representation of their value.
- **Constant elements** contain a 32-bit unsigned long representation of their value (with a 0x prefix).
- **Reference elements** are empty elements that contain an idref attribute that specifies a link to another container element.

In [Section B.2](#), the element type is specified for each element in parentheses following the element description. For instance, the <link_time> element lists the time of the link execution (string).

B.2 Document Elements

The root element, or the document element, is **<link_info>**. All other elements contained in the XML link information file are children of the <link_info> element. The following sections describe the elements that an XML information file can contain.

B.2.1 Header Elements

The first elements in the XML link information file provide general information about the linker and the link session:

- The **<banner>** element lists the name of the executable and the version information (string).
- The **<copyright>** element lists the TI copyright information (string).
- The **<link_time>** is a timestamp representation of the link time (unsigned 32-bit int).
- The **<output_file>** element lists the name of the linked output file generated (string).
- The **<entry_point>** element specifies the program entry point, as determined by the linker (container) with two entries:
 - The **<name>** is the entry point symbol name, if any (string).
 - The **<address>** is the entry point address (constant).

Example B-1. Header Element for the hi.out Output File

```
<banner>PRU Linker           Version x.xx </banner>
<copyright>Copyright (c) 2012-2014 Texas Instruments Incorporated</copyright>
<link_time>0x43dfd8a4</link_time>
<output_file>hi.out</output_file>
<entry_point>
  <name>_c_int00</name>
  <address>0xaf80</address>
</entry_point>
```

B.2.2 Input File List

The next section of the XML link information file is the input file list, which is delimited with a **<input_file_list>** container element. The **<input_file_list>** can contain any number of **<input_file>** elements.

Each **<input_file>** instance specifies the input file involved in the link. Each **<input_file>** has an **id** attribute that can be referenced by other elements, such as an **<object_component>**. An **<input_file>** is a container element enclosing the following elements:

- The **<path>** element names a directory path, if applicable (string).
- The **<kind>** element specifies a file type, either archive or object (string).
- The **<file>** element specifies an archive name or filename (string).
- The **<name>** element specifies an object file name, or archive member name (string).

Example B-2. Input File List for the *hi.out* Output File

```

<input_file_list>
  <input_file id="f1-1">
    <kind>object</kind>
    <file>hi.obj</file>
    <name>hi.obj</name>
  </input_file>
  <input_file id="f1-2">
    <path>/tools/lib/</path>
    <kind>archive</kind>
    <file>rtsxxx.lib</file>
    <name>boot.obj</name>
  </input_file>
  <input_file id="f1-3">
    <path>/tools/lib/</path>
    <kind>archive</kind>
    <file>rtsxxx.lib</file>
    <name>exit.obj</name>
  </input_file>
  <input_file id="f1-4">
    <path>/tools/lib/</path>
    <kind>archive</kind>
    <file>rtsxxx.lib</file>
    <name>printf.obj</name>
  </input_file>
  ...
</input_file_list>

```

B.2.3 Object Component List

The next section of the XML link information file contains a specification of all of the object components that are involved in the link. An example of an object component is an input section. In general, an object component is the smallest piece of object that can be manipulated by the linker.

The **<object_component_list>** is a container element enclosing any number of **<object_component>** elements.

Each **<object_component>** specifies a single object component. Each **<object_component>** has an **id** attribute so that it can be referenced directly from other elements, such as a **<logical_group>**. An **<object_component>** is a container element enclosing the following elements:

- The **<name>** element names the object component (string).
- The **<load_address>** element specifies the load-time address of the object component (constant).
- The **<run_address>** element specifies the run-time address of the object component (constant).
- The **<size>** element specifies the size of the object component (constant).
- The **<input_file_ref>** element specifies the source file where the object component originated (reference).

Example B-3. Object Component List for the fl-4 Input File

```

<object_component id="oc-20">
  <name>.text</name>
  <load_address>0xac0</load_address>
  <run_address>0xac0</run_address>
  <size>0xc0</size>
  <input_file_ref idref="fl-4"/>
</object_component>
<object_component id="oc-21">
  <name>.data</name>
  <load_address>0x8000000</load_address>
  <run_address>0x8000000</run_address>
  <size>0x0</size>
  <input_file_ref idref="fl-4"/>
</object_component>
<object_component id="oc-22">
  <name>.bss</name>
  <load_address>0x8000000</load_address>
  <run_address>0x8000000</run_address>
  <size>0x0</size>
  <input_file_ref idref="fl-4"/>
</object_component>

```

B.2.4 Logical Group List

The **<logical_group_list>** section of the XML link information file is similar to the output section listing in a linker-generated map file. However, the XML link information file contains a specification of GROUP and UNION output sections, which are not represented in a map file. There are three kinds of list items that can occur in a **<logical_group_list>**:

- The **<logical_group>** is the specification of a section or GROUP that contains a list of object components or logical group members. Each **<logical_group>** element is given an id so that it may be referenced from other elements. Each **<logical_group>** is a container element enclosing the following elements:
 - The **<name>** element names the logical group (string).
 - The **<load_address>** element specifies the load-time address of the logical group (constant).
 - The **<run_address>** element specifies the run-time address of the logical group (constant).
 - The **<size>** element specifies the size of the logical group (constant).
 - The **<contents>** element lists elements contained in this logical group (container). These elements refer to each of the member objects contained in this logical group:
 - The **<object_component_ref>** is an object component that is contained in this logical group (reference).
 - The **<logical_group_ref>** is a logical group that is contained in this logical group (reference).
- The **<overlay>** is a special kind of logical group that represents a UNION, or a set of objects that share the same memory space (container). Each **<overlay>** element is given an id so that it may be referenced from other elements (like from an **<allocated_space>** element in the placement map). Each **<overlay>** contains the following elements:
 - The **<name>** element names the overlay (string).
 - The **<run_address>** element specifies the run-time address of overlay (constant).
 - The **<size>** element specifies the size of logical group (constant).
 - The **<contents>** container element lists elements contained in this overlay. These elements refer to each of the member objects contained in this logical group:
 - The **<object_component_ref>** is an object component that is contained in this logical group (reference).
 - The **<logical_group_ref>** is a logical group that is contained in this logical group (reference).
- The **<split_section>** is another special kind of logical group that represents a collection of logical groups that is split among multiple memory areas. Each **<split_section>** element is given an id so that it may be referenced from other elements. The id consists of the following elements.
 - The **<name>** element names the split section (string).
 - The **<contents>** container element lists elements contained in this split section. The **<logical_group_ref>** elements refer to each of the member objects contained in this split section, and each element referenced is a logical group that is contained in this split section (reference).

Example B-4. Logical Group List for the fl-4 Input File

```

<logical_group_list>
  ...
  <logical_group id="lg-7">
    <name>.text</name>
    <load_address>0x20</load_address>
    <run_address>0x20</run_address>
    <size>0xb240</size>
    <contents>
      <object_component_ref idref="oc-34"/>
      <object_component_ref idref="oc-108"/>
      <object_component_ref idref="oc-e2"/>
      ...
    </contents>
  </logical_group>
  ...
  <overlay id="lg-b">
    <name>UNION_1</name>
    <run_address>0xb600</run_address>
    <size>0xc0</size>
    <contents>
      <object_component_ref idref="oc-45"/>
      <logical_group_ref idref="lg-8"/>
    </contents>
  </overlay>
  ...
  <split_section id="lg-12">
    <name>.task_scn</name>
    <size>0x120</size>
    <contents>
      <logical_group_ref idref="lg-10"/>
      <logical_group_ref idref="lg-11"/>
    </contents>
  ...
</logical_group_list>

```

B.2.5 Placement Map

The **<placement_map>** element describes the memory placement details of all named memory areas in the application, including unused spaces between logical groups that have been placed in a particular memory area.

The **<memory_area>** is a description of the placement details within a named memory area (container). The description consists of these items:

- The **<name>** names the memory area (string).
- The **<page_id>** gives the id of the memory page in which this memory area is defined (constant).
- The **<origin>** specifies the beginning address of the memory area (constant).
- The **<length>** specifies the length of the memory area (constant).
- The **<used_space>** specifies the amount of allocated space in this area (constant).
- The **<unused_space>** specifies the amount of available space in this area (constant).
- The **<attributes>** lists the RWXI attributes that are associated with this area, if any (string).
- The **<fill_value>** specifies the fill value that is to be placed in unused space, if the fill directive is specified with the memory area (constant).
- The **<usage_details>** lists details of each allocated or available fragment in this memory area. If the fragment is allocated to a logical group, then a **<logical_group_ref>** element is provided to facilitate access to the details of that logical group. All fragment specifications include **<start_address>** and **<size>** elements.
 - The **<allocated_space>** element provides details of an allocated fragment within this memory area (container):
 - The **<start_address>** specifies the address of the fragment (constant).
 - The **<size>** specifies the size of the fragment (constant).
 - The **<logical_group_ref>** provides a reference to the logical group that is allocated to this fragment (reference).
 - The **<available_space>** element provides details of an available fragment within this memory area (container):
 - The **<start_address>** specifies the address of the fragment (constant).
 - The **<size>** specifies the size of the fragment (constant).

Example B-5. Placement Map for the fl-4 Input File

```

<placement_map>
  <memory_area>
    <name>PMEM</name>
    <page_id>0x0</page_id>
    <origin>0x20</origin>
    <length>0x100000</length>
    <used_space>0xb240</used_space>
    <unused_space>0xf4dc0</unused_space>
    <attributes>RWXI</attributes>
    <usage_details>
      <allocated_space>
        <start_address>0x20</start_address>
        <size>0xb240</size>
        <logical_group_ref idref="lg-7" />
      </allocated_space>
      <available_space>
        <start_address>0xb260</start_address>
        <size>0xf4dc0</size>
      </available_space>
    </usage_details>
  </memory_area>
  ...
</placement_map>

```

B.2.6 Symbol Table

The **<symbol_table>** contains a list of all of the global symbols that are included in the link. The list provides information about a symbol's name and value. In the future, the symbol_table list may provide type information, the object component in which the symbol is defined, storage class, etc.

The **<symbol>** is a container element that specifies the name and value of a symbol with these elements:

- The **<name>** element specifies the symbol name (string).
- The **<value>** element specifies the symbol value (constant).

Example B-6. Symbol Table for the fl-4 Input File

```

<symbol_table>
  <symbol>
    <name>_c_int00</name>
    <value>0xaf80</value>
  </symbol>
  <symbol>
    <name>_main</name>
    <value>0xb1e0</value>
  </symbol>
  <symbol>
    <name>_printf</name>
    <value>0xac00</value>
  </symbol>
  ...
</symbol_table>

```


Hex Conversion Utility Examples

The flexible hex conversion utility offers many options and capabilities. Once you understand the proper ways to configure your EPROM system and the requirements of the EPROM programmer, you will find that converting a file for a specific application is easy.

The three scenarios in this appendix show how to develop a hex conversion command file for avoiding holes, using 16-BIS (16-bit instruction set) code, and using multiple-EPROM systems. The scenarios use this assembly code:

```
*****
* Assemble two words into section "secA" *
*****

.sect "secA"
.word 012345678h
.word 0abcd1234h

*****
* Assemble two words into section "secB" *
*****

.sect "secB"
.word 087654321h
.word 04321dcba
```

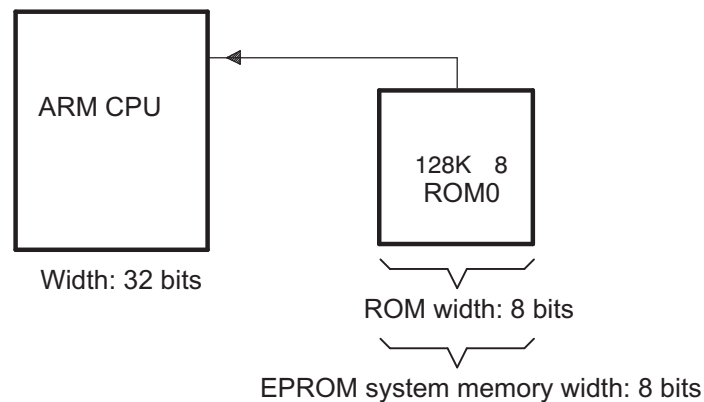
Before you use this appendix, read [Chapter 12](#) to understand how to use the hex conversion utility.

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C.1 Scenario 1: Building a Hex Conversion Command File for a Single 8-Bit EPROM

Scenario 1 shows how to build the hex conversion command file for converting an object file for the memory system shown in [Figure C-1](#). In this system, there is one external 128K × 8-bit EPROM interfacing with a TMS470 target processor.

Figure C-1. EPROM Memory System for Scenario 1



A object file consists of blocks of memory (sections) with assigned memory locations. Typically, all sections are not adjacent: there are holes between sections in the address space for which there is no data. Scenario 1 shows how you can use the hex conversion utility's image mode to fill any holes before, between, or after sections with a fill value.

For this scenario, the application code resides in the program memory (ROM) on the TMS470 CPU, but the data tables used by this code reside in an off-chip EPROM.

The circuitry of the target board handles the access to the data; the native TMS470 address of 0x1000 accesses location 0x0 on the EPROM.

To satisfy the address requirements for the code, this scenario requires a linker command file that allocates sections and memory as follows:

- The program/application code (represented in this scenario by the secA section shown in [Example C-1](#)) must be linked so that its address space resides in the program memory (ROM) on the TMS470 CPU.
- To satisfy the condition that the data be loaded on the EPROM at address 0x0 but be referenced by the application code at address 0x1000, secB (the section that contains the data for this application) must be assigned a linker load address of 0x1000 so that all references to data in this section will be resolved with respect to the TMS470 CPU address. In the hex conversion utility command file, the `paddr` option must be used to burn the section of data at EPROM address 0x0. This value overrides the section load address given by the linker.

[Example C-1](#) shows the linker command file that resolves the addresses needed in the stated specifications.

Example C-1. Linker Command File and Link Map for Scenario 1

```

/*****
/* Scenario 1 Link Command
/*
/* Usage: lnkpuru <obj files...> -o <out file> -m <map file> lnk32.cmd
/*          clpru <src files...> -z -o <out file> -m <map file> lnk32.cmd
/*
/* Description: This file is a sample command file that can be used
/*              for linking programs built with the TMS470 C
/*              compiler. Use it as a guideline; you may want to change
/*              the allocation scheme according to the size of your
/*              program and the memory layout of your target system.
/*
/* Notes: (1) You must specify the directory in which rts32.lib is
/*           located. Either add a "-i<directory>" line to this
/*           file, or use the system environment variable C_DIR to
/*           specify a search path for libraries.
/*
/*           (2) If the runtime-support library you are using is not
/*           named rts32.lib, be sure to use the correct name here.
*****/
-m example1.map
/* SPECIFY THE SYSTEM MEMORY MAP */
MEMORY
{
    I_MEM    : org = 0x00000000    len = 0x00000020    /* INTERRUPTS          */
    D_MEM    : org = 0x00000020    len = 0x00010000    /* DATA MEMORY (RAM) */
    P_MEM    : org = 0x00010020    len = 0x00100000    /* PROGRAM MEMORY (ROM) */
}
/* SPECIFY THE SECTIONS ALLOCATION INTO MEMORY */
SECTIONS
{
    secA: load = P_MEM
    secB: load = 0x1000
}

```

You must create a hex conversion command file to generate a hex output with the correct addresses and format for the EPROM programmer.

In the memory system outlined in [Figure C-1](#), only the application data is stored on the EPROM; the data resides in secB of the object file created by the linker. By default, the hex conversion utility converts all initialized sections that appear in the object file. To prevent the conversion of the application code in secA, a SECTIONS directive must be defined in the hex conversion command file to list explicitly the section(s) to be converted. In this case, secB must be listed explicitly as the section to be converted.

The EPROM programmer in this scenario has the following system requirements:

- The EPROM programmer loads only a complete ROM image. A complete ROM image is one in which there is a contiguous address space (there are no holes in the addresses in the converted file), and each address in the range contains a known value. Creating a complete ROM image requires the use of the `-image` option and the `ROMS` directive.
 - Using the `-image` option causes the hex conversion utility to create an output file that has contiguous addresses over the specified memory range and forces the utility to fill address spaces that are not previously filled by raw data from sections defined in the input object file. By default, the value used to fill the unused portions of the memory range is 0.
 - Because the `-image` option operates over a known range of memory addresses, a `ROMS` directive is needed to specify the origin and length of the memory for the EPROM.
- To burn the section of data at EPROM address 0x0, the `paddr` option must be used. This value overrides the section load address given by the linker.
- In this scenario, the EPROM is 128K × 8 bits. Therefore, the memory addresses for the EPROM must range from 0x0 to 0x20000.

- Because the EPROM memory width is eight bits, the memwidth value must be set to 8.
- Because the physical width of the ROM device is eight bits, the romwidth value must be set to 8.
- Intel format must be used.

Since memwidth and romwidth have the same value, only one output file is generated (the number of output files is determined by the ratio of memwidth to romwidth). The output file is named with the -o option.

The hex conversion command file for Scenario 1 is shown in [Example C-2](#). This command file uses the following options to select the requirements of the system:

Option	Description
-i	Create Intel format
-image	Generate a memory image
-map example1.mxp	Generate example1.mxp as the map file of the conversion
-o example1.hex	Name example1.hex as the output file
-memwidth 8	Set EPROM system memory width to 8
-romwidth 8	Set physical ROM width to 8

Example C-2. Hex Conversion Command File for Scenario 1

```

/* Hex Conversion Command file for Scenario 1          */
a.out          /* linked object file, input */
-I            /* Intel format */
-image
-map example1.mxp /* Generate a map of the conversion */
-o example1.hex /* Resulting hex output file */
-memwidth 8 /* EPROM memory system width */
-romwidth 8 /* Physical width of ROM */

ROMS
{
  EPROM: origin = 0x0, length = 0x20000
}

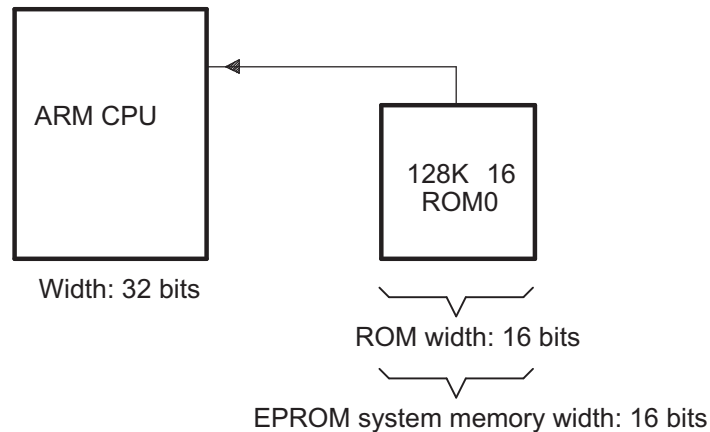
SECTIONS
{
  secB: paddr = 0x0 /* Select only section, secB, for conversion */
}

```


C.2 Scenario 2: Building a Hex Conversion Command File for 16-BIS Code

Scenario 2 shows how to build the hex conversion command file to generate the correct converted file for the application code and data that will reside on a single 16-bit EPROM. The EPROM memory system for this scenario is shown in [Figure C-3](#). For this scenario, the TMS470 CPU operates with the T control bit set, so the processor executes instructions in 16-BIS mode.

Figure C-3. EPROM Memory System for Scenario 2



For this scenario, the application code and data reside on the EPROM: the lower 64K words of EPROM memory are dedicated to application code space and the upper 64K words are dedicated to the data tables. The application code is loaded starting at address 0x0 on the EPROM but maps to the TMS470 CPU at address 0x3000. The data tables are loaded starting at address 0x1000 on the EPROM and map to the TMS470 CPU address 0x20.

Example C-4 shows the linker command file that resolves the addresses needed for the load on EPROM and the TMS470 CPU access.

Example C-4. Linker Command File for Scenario 2

```

/*****
/* Scenario 2 Link Command
/*
/* Usage: lnkpuru <obj files...> -o <out file> -m <map file> lnk16.cmd
/*          clpru <src files...> -z -o <out file> -m <map file> lnk16.cmd
/*
/* Description: This file is a sample command file that can be used
/*              for linking programs built with the TMS470 C
/*              compiler. Use it as a guideline; you may want to change
/*              the allocation scheme according to the size of your
/*              program and the memory layout of your target system.
/*
/* Notes: (1) You must specify the directory in which rts16.lib is
/*           located. Either add a "-i<directory>" line to this
/*           file, or use the system environment variable C_DIR to
/*           specify a search path for libraries.
/*
/*           (2) If the runtime-support library you are using is not
/*           named rts16.lib, be sure to use the correct name here.
*****/

-m example2.map

/* SPECIFY THE SYSTEM MEMORY MAP */

MEMORY
{
    I_MEM    : org = 0x00000000    len = 0x00000020    /* INTERRUPTS          */
    D_MEM    : org = 0x00000020    len = 0x00010000    /* DATA MEMORY (RAM) */
    P_MEM    : org = 0x00010020    len = 0x00100000    /* PROGRAM MEMORY (ROM) */
}

/* SPECIFY THE SECTIONS ALLOCATION INTO MEMORY */

SECTIONS
{
    secA: load = 0x3000
    secB: load = 0x20
}

```

You must create a hex conversion command file to generate a hex output with the correct addresses and format for the EPROM programmer. The EPROM programmer in this scenario has the following system requirements:

- Because the EPROM memory width is 16 bits, the memwidth value must be set to 16.
- Because the physical width of the ROM device is 16 bits, the romwidth value must be set to 16.
- Intel format must be used.

The EPROM programmer does not require a ROM image, so the addresses in the input hex output file do not need to be contiguous.

Because memwidth and romwidth have the same value, only one output file is generated (the number of output files is determined by the ratio of memwidth to romwidth). The output file is named with the -o option.

A ROMS directive is used in this scenario since the paddr option is used to relocate both secA and secB.

The hex conversion command file for Scenario 2 is shown in [Example C-5](#). This command file uses the following options to select the requirements of the system:

Option	Description
-i	Create Intel format
-map example2.mxp	Generate example2.mxp as the map file of the conversion
-o example2.hex	Name example2.hex as the output file
-memwidth 8	Set EPROM system memory width to 8
-romwidth 8	Set physical ROM width to 8

Example C-5. Hex Conversion Command File for Scenario 2

```

/* Hex Conversion Command file for Scenario 2          */
a.out          /* linked object file, input */
-I            /* Intel format */

/* The following two options are optional */
-mmap example2.mxp /* Generate a map of the conversion */
-o example2.hex    /* Resulting Hex Output file */

/* Specify EPROM system Memory Width and Physical ROM width */
-memwidth 16      /* EPROM memory system width */
-romwidth 16      /* Physical width of ROM */

ROMS
{
  EPROM: origin = 0x0, length = 0x20000
}

SECTIONS
{
  secA: paddr = 0x0
  secB: paddr = 0x1000
}

```

[Example C-6](#) shows the contents of the resulting map file (example2.mxp). [Figure C-4](#) shows the contents of the resulting hex output file (example2.hex).

Example C-6. Contents of Hex Map File example2.mxp

```

*****
PRU Hex Converter          Version x.xx
*****
INPUT FILE NAME: <a.out>
OUTPUT FORMAT:   Intel

PHYSICAL MEMORY PARAMETERS
  Default data width:      8
  Default memory width:   16
  Default output width:   16

OUTPUT TRANSLATION MAP
-----
00000000..0001ffff Page=0 ROM Width=16 Memory Width=16 "EPROM"
-----
OUTPUT FILES: example2.hex [b0..b15]

CONTENTS: 00000000..00000003 Data Width=1 secA
          00001000..00001003 Data Width=1 secB

```


Example C-7 shows the linker command file for this scenario.

Example C-7. Linker Command File for Scenario 3

```

/*****
/* Scenario 3 Link Command
/*
/* Usage: lnkpuru <obj files...> -o <out file> -m <map file> lnk32.cmd */
/*         clpru <src files...> -z -o <out file> -m <map file> lnk32.cmd */
/*
/* Description: This file is a sample command file that can be used
/*              for linking programs built with the TMS470 C
/*              compiler. Use it as a guideline; you may want to change
/*              the allocation scheme according to the size of your
/*              program and the memory layout of your target system.
/*
/* Notes: (1) You must specify the directory in which rts32.lib is
/*           located. Either add a "-i<directory>" line to this
/*           file, or use the system environment variable C_DIR to
/*           specify a search path for libraries.
/*
/*           (2) If the runtime-support library you are using is not
/*               named rts32.lib, be sure to use the correct name here.
/*****

-m example3.map

/* SPECIFY THE SYSTEM MEMORY MAP */

MEMORY
{
    I_MEM    : org = 0x00000000    len = 0x00000020    /* INTERRUPTS          */
    D_MEM    : org = 0x00000020    len = 0x00010000    /* DATA MEMORY (RAM) */
    P_MEM    : org = 0x00010020    len = 0x00100000    /* PROGRAM MEMORY (ROM) */
}

/* SPECIFY THE SECTIONS ALLOCATION INTO MEMORY */

SECTIONS
{
    secA: load = 0x20
    secB: load = D_MEM
}
    
```

You must create a hex conversion command file to generate a hex output with the correct addresses and format for the EPROM programmer.

The EPROM programmer in this scenario has the following system requirements:

- In the memory system outlined in [Figure C-5](#), the EPROM system memory width is 32 bits because each of the physical ROMs provides 16 bits of a 32-bit word. Because the EPROM system memory width is 32 bits, the memwidth value must be set to 32.
- Because the width of each of the physical ROMs is 16 bits, the romwidth value must be set to 16.
- Intel format must be used.

With a memwidth of 32 and a romwidth of 16, two output files are generated by the hex conversion utility (the number of files is determined by the ratio of memwidth to romwidth). In previous scenarios, the output filename was specified with the -o option. Another way to specify the output filename is to use the files keyword within a ROMS directive. When you use -o or the files keyword, the first output filename always contains the low-order bytes of the word.

The hex conversion command file for Scenario 3 is shown in [Example C-8](#). This command file uses the following options to select the requirements of the system:

Option	Description
-i	Create Intel format
-map example3.mxp	Generate example3.mxp as the map file of the conversion
-memwidth 32	Set EPROM system memory width to 32
-romwidth 16	Set physical ROM width to 16

The files keyword is used within the ROMS directive to specify the output filenames.

Example C-8. Hex Conversion Command File for Scenario 3

```

/* Hex Conversion Command file for Scenario 3          */
a.out          /* linked object file, input */
-I            /* Intel format */
  /* Optional Commands */
-map example3.mxp /* Generate a map of the conversion */
  /* Specify EPROM system memory width and physical ROM width */
-memwidth 32    /* EPROM memory system width */
-romwidth 16    /* Physical width of ROM */
ROMS
{
  EPROM: org = 0x0, length = 0x20000
  files={ lower16.bit, upper16.bit }
}

```

[Example C-9](#) shows the contents of the resulting map file (example3.mxp).

Example C-9. Contents of Hex Map File example3.mxp

```

*****
PRU Hex Converter          Version x.xx
*****
Tue Sep 19 07:41:28 1995

INPUT FILE NAME: <a.out>
OUTPUT FORMAT: Intel

PHYSICAL MEMORY PARAMETERS
  Default data width: 8
  Default memory width: 32
  Default output width: 16

OUTPUT TRANSLATION MAP
-----
00000000..0001ffff Page=0 ROM Width=16 Memory Width=32 "EPROM"
-----
  OUTPUT FILES: lower16.bit [b0..b15]
                upper16.bit [b16..b31]

  CONTENTS: 00000020..00000021 Data Width=1 secA
            00000028..00000029 Data Width=1 secB

```

Glossary

D.1 Terminology

ABI — Application binary interface.

absolute address — An address that is permanently assigned to a PRU memory location.

absolute constant expression — An expression that does not refer to any external symbols or any registers or memory reference. The value of the expression must be knowable at assembly time.

absolute lister — A debugging tool that allows you to create assembler listings that contain absolute addresses.

address constant expression — A symbol with a value that is an address plus an addend that is an absolute constant expression with an integer value.

alignment — A process in which the linker places an output section at an address that falls on an n -byte boundary, where n is a power of 2. You can specify alignment with the SECTIONS linker directive.

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.

ASCII — American Standard Code for Information Interchange; a standard computer code for representing and exchanging alphanumeric information.

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.

assembly-time constant — A symbol that is assigned a constant value with the .set directive.

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*

binding — A process in which you specify a distinct address for an output section or a symbol.

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.

C/C++ compiler — A software program that translates C source statements into assembly language source statements.

- 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.
- conditional processing** — A method of processing one block of source code or an alternate block of source code, according to the evaluation of a specified expression.
- configured memory** — Memory that the linker has specified for allocation.
- constant** — A type whose value cannot change.
- constant expression** — An expression that does not in any way refer to a register or memory reference.
- cross-reference lister** — A utility that produces an output file that lists the symbols that were defined, what file they were defined in, what reference type they are, what line they were defined on, which lines referenced them, and their assembler and linker final values. The cross-reference lister uses linked object files as input.
- 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.
- 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).
- DWARF** — A standardized debugging data format that was originally designed along with ELF, although it is independent of the object file format.
- EABI** — An embedded application binary interface (ABI) that provides standards for file formats, data types, and more.
- ELF** — Executable and linking format; a system of object files configured according to the System V Application Binary Interface specification.
- emulator** — A hardware development system that duplicates the PRU 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 module** — A linked object file that can be executed in 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.
- field** — For the PRU, a software-configurable data type whose length can be programmed to be any value in the range of 1-32 bits.
- 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.

- GROUP** — An option of the SECTIONS directive that forces specified output sections to be allocated contiguously (as a group).
- hex conversion utility** — A utility that converts object files into one of several standard ASCII hexadecimal formats, suitable for loading into an EPROM programmer.
- 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.
- hole** — An area between the input sections that compose an output section that contains no code.
- identifier**— Names used as labels, registers, and symbols.
- immediate operand** — An operand whose value must be a constant expression.
- incremental linking** — Linking files in several passes. Incremental linking is useful for large applications, because you can partition the application, link the parts separately, and then link all of the parts together.
- 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 module.
- input section** — A section from an object file that will be linked into an executable module.
- ISO** — International Organization for Standardization; a worldwide federation of national standards bodies, which establishes international standards voluntarily followed by industries.
- 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 object module 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).
- literal constant** — A value that represents itself. It may also be called a *literal* or an *immediate value*.
- 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 module 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.
- macro library** — An archive library composed of macros. Each file in the library must contain one macro; its name must be the same as the macro name it defines, and it must have an extension of .asm.
- 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.
- member** — The elements or variables of a structure, union, archive, or enumeration.

- memory map** — A map of target system memory space that is partitioned into functional blocks.
- memory reference operand** — An operand that refers to a location in memory using a target-specific syntax.
- mnemonic** — An instruction name that the assembler translates into machine code.
- model statement** — Instructions or assembler directives in a macro definition that are assembled each time a macro is invoked.
- named section** — An initialized section that is defined with a `.sect` directive.
- object file** — An assembled or linked file that contains machine-language object code.
- object library** — An archive library made up of individual object files.
- object module** — A linked, executable object file that can be downloaded and executed on a target system.
- 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 module** — A linked, executable object file that is downloaded and executed on a target system.
- output section** — A final, allocated section in a linked, executable module.
- partial linking** — Linking files in several passes. Incremental linking is useful for large applications because you can partition the application, link the parts separately, and then link all of the parts together.
- quiet run** — An option that suppresses the normal banner and the progress information.
- raw data** — Executable code or initialized data in an output section.
- register operand** — A special pre-defined symbol that represents a CPU register.
- relocatable constant expression** — An expression that refers to at least one external symbol, register, or memory location. The value of the expression is not known until link time.
- relocation** — A process in which the linker adjusts all the references to a symbol when the symbol's address changes.
- ROM width** — The width (in bits) of each output file, or, more specifically, the width of a single data value in the hex conversion utility file. The ROM width determines how the utility partitions the data into output files. After the target words are mapped to memory words, the memory words are broken into one or more output files. The number of output files is determined by the ROM width.
- run address** — The address where a section runs.
- 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.
- section program counter (SPC)** — An element that keeps track of the current location within a section; each section has its own SPC.
- sign extend** — A process that fills the unused MSBs of a value with the value's sign bit.
- source file** — A file that contains C/C++ code or assembly language code that is compiled or assembled to form an object file.

- 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 name that represents an address or a value.
- symbolic constant** — A symbol with a value that is an absolute constant expression.
- symbolic debugging** — The ability of a software tool to retain symbolic information that can be used by a debugging tool such as an emulator.
- tag** — An optional *type* name that can be assigned to a structure, union, or enumeration.
- target memory** — Physical memory in a system into which executable object code is loaded.
- .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.
- 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.
- UNION** — An option of the SECTIONS directive that causes the linker to allocate the same address to multiple sections.
- union** — A variable that can hold objects of different types and sizes.
- 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.
- well-defined expression** — A term or group of terms that contains only symbols or assembly-time constants that have been defined before they appear in the expression.
- word** — A 32-bit addressable location in target memory

Revision History

E.1 Recent Revisions

This table lists significant changes made to this document. The left column identifies the first version of this document in which a particular change appeared.

Version Added	Chapter	Location	Additions / Modifications / Deletions
SPRUHV6C	Archiver and Linker	Section 7.5.2 and Section 8.4.10	Added --silicon_version=4 support.
SPRUHV6C	Linker	Section 8.4 , Section 8.4.11 , and Section 8.5.9	Added the --ecc=on linker option, which enables ECC generation. Note that ECC generation is now off by default.
SPRUHV6C	Linker	Section 8.5.4.2	Added information about the CREGISTER specifier, which can be used within the MEMORY directive in a linker command file.
SPRUHV6C	Linker	Section 8.5.7.3	Added linker syntax for combining an initialized section with uninitialized sections.
Previous Revisions:			
SPRUHV6B	Assembler Description	Section 4.3 and Section 4.10	Added the --code_address_listing_unit command-line option.
SPRUHV6B	Hex Conversion Utility	Section 12.2.1 and Section 12.11	Added the --array option, which causes the array output format to be generated.
SPRUHV6B	Object Modules, Directives, and Linker	Section 2.6.2 , .weak topic , and Section 8.6.2	Weak symbols can be declared using assembly or the linker command file. The linker removes weak symbols from the output file if the symbol is not required to resolve any references.
SPRUHV6B	Linker	Section 8.4.19	Added modules as a filter for the --mapfile_contents linker command line option.
SPRUHV6A	Linker	Section 8.4.2 , Section 8.5.10.6 , and Section 8.6.1	Added information about referencing linker symbols.
SPRUHV6A	Linker	Section 8.4.10	Added a list of the linker's predefined macros.

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