

TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide

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Read This First

About This Manual

The *TMS320C28x Assembly Language Tools User's Guide* tells you how to use these assembly language tools:

- ☐ Assembler
- ☐ Archiver
- ☐ Linker
- ☐ Absolute lister
- ☐ Cross-reference lister
- ☐ Object file display utility
- ☐ Name utility
- ☐ Strip utility
- ☐ Hex-conversion utility

How to Use This Manual

This book helps you learn to use the Texas Instruments assembly language tools specifically designed for the TMS320C28x devices. You can think of this book as four parts:

- ☐ **Introductory information**, consisting of Chapters 1 and 2, gives you an overview of the assembly language development tools. It also discusses common object file format (COFF), which helps you to use the TMS320C28x tools more efficiently. Read Chapter 2, *Introduction to Common Object File Format*, before using the assembler and linker.
- ☐ **Assembler description**, consisting of Chapters 3 through 5, contains detailed information about using the assembler. This part of the book explains how to invoke the assembler and discusses source statement format, valid constants and expressions, assembler output, and assembler directives. It also describes the macro language.

- ❑ **Additional assembly language tools description**, consisting of Chapters 6 through 11, describes in detail each of the tools provided with the assembler to help you create executable object files. For example, Chapter 7 explains how to invoke the linker, how the linker operates, and how to use linker directives.
- ❑ **Reference material**, consisting of Appendixes A through D, provides supplementary information. This part contains technical data about the internal format and structure of COFF object files. It discusses symbolic debugging directives that the TMS320C28x C/C++ compiler uses. Finally, it includes hex-conversion utility examples, assembler and linker error messages, and a glossary.

Notational Conventions

This document uses the following conventions:

- ❑ The TMS320C28x core is also referred to as TMS320C28x or C28x.
- ❑ Program listings, program examples, and interactive displays are shown in a *special typeface*. Examples use a **bold version** of the special typeface for emphasis; 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 program listing:

```

1 000000                                .data
2 000000 002F                            .byte  47
3 000001 0032                            .byte  50
4 000002 D903                            ADDB   XAR1 , #3

```

- ❑ 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. Syntax that is entered on a command line is centered. Syntax that is used in a text file is left-justified. Here is an example of command-line syntax:

cl2000 -v28 -z [*options*] *filename₁*, ...[*filename_n*]

The **cl2000 -v28 -z** command invokes the linker and has two parameters. The first parameter, *options*, is optional (see the next list item for details). The second parameter, *filename₁*, is required, and you can optionally enter more than one filename parameter.

- 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 a **bold** typeface, do not enter the brackets themselves. This is an example of a command that has an optional parameter:

```
hex2000 [options] filename
```

The **hex2000** command has two parameters. The second parameter, *filename*, is required. The first parameter, *options*, is optional. Since *options* is plural, you can select several options.

- In assembler syntax statements, column 1 is reserved for the first character of a label or symbol. If the label or symbol is optional, it is usually not shown. If it is a required parameter, it is shown starting in the left margin of the shaded 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]
```

The *symbol* is required for the .usect directive and must begin in column 1. The *section name* must be enclosed in quotes and the parameter *size in bytes* must be separated from the *section name* by a comma. The *alignment* is optional and, if used, must be separated by a comma.

- Some directives can have a varying number of parameters. For example, the .byte directive can have up to 100 parameters. The syntax for this directive is:

```
.byte value1 [, ... , valuen]
```

Note that **.byte** does not begin in column 1.

This syntax shows that .byte must have at least one *value* parameter, but you have the option of supplying additional *value* parameters, each separated from the previous one by a comma.

- Following are other symbols and abbreviations used throughout this document:

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

Related Documentation From Texas Instruments

The following books describe the TMS320C28x and related support tools. To obtain any of these TI documents, call the Texas Instruments Literature Response Center at (800) 477-8924. When ordering, identify the book by its title and literature number (located on the title page):

TMS320C28x Optimizing C/C++ Compiler User's Guide (literature number SPRU514) describes the TMS320C28x C/C++ compiler. This C/C++ compiler accepts ANSI standard C/C++ source code and produces TMS320 assembly language source code for the TMS320C28x device.

Code Composer Studio User's Guide (literature number SPRU328) explains how to use the Code Composer development environment to build and debug embedded real-time DSP applications.

TMS320C28x DSP CPU and Instruction Set Reference Guide (literature number SPRU430) describes the central processing unit (CPU) and the assembly language instructions of the TMS320C28x™ fixed-point digital signal processors (DSPs). It also describes emulation features available on these DSPs.

TMS320C2xx User's Guide (literature number SPRU127) discusses the hardware aspects of the TMS320C2xx™ 16-bit fixed-point digital signal processors. It describes the architecture, the instruction set, and the on-chip peripherals.

Related Documentation

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

Advanced C: Techniques and Applications, Gerald E. Sobelman and David E. Krekelberg, Que Corporation

American National Standard for Information Systems—Programming Language C X3.159-1989, American National Standards Institute (ANSI standard for C)

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

Programming Language C++, ISO/IEC 14882–1998, American National Standards Institute (ANSI standard for C++)

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

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

The C++ Programming Language (third edition), Bjarne Stroustrup, published by Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Reading, Massachusetts, 1997

Understanding and Using COFF, Gintaras R. Gircys, published by O'Reilly and Associates, Inc.

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Defines terms and acronyms used in this book.

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Introduction to the Software Development Tools

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

This overview shows how these tools fit into the general software tools development flow and describes each tool briefly. The TMS320C28x assembly language development tools are:

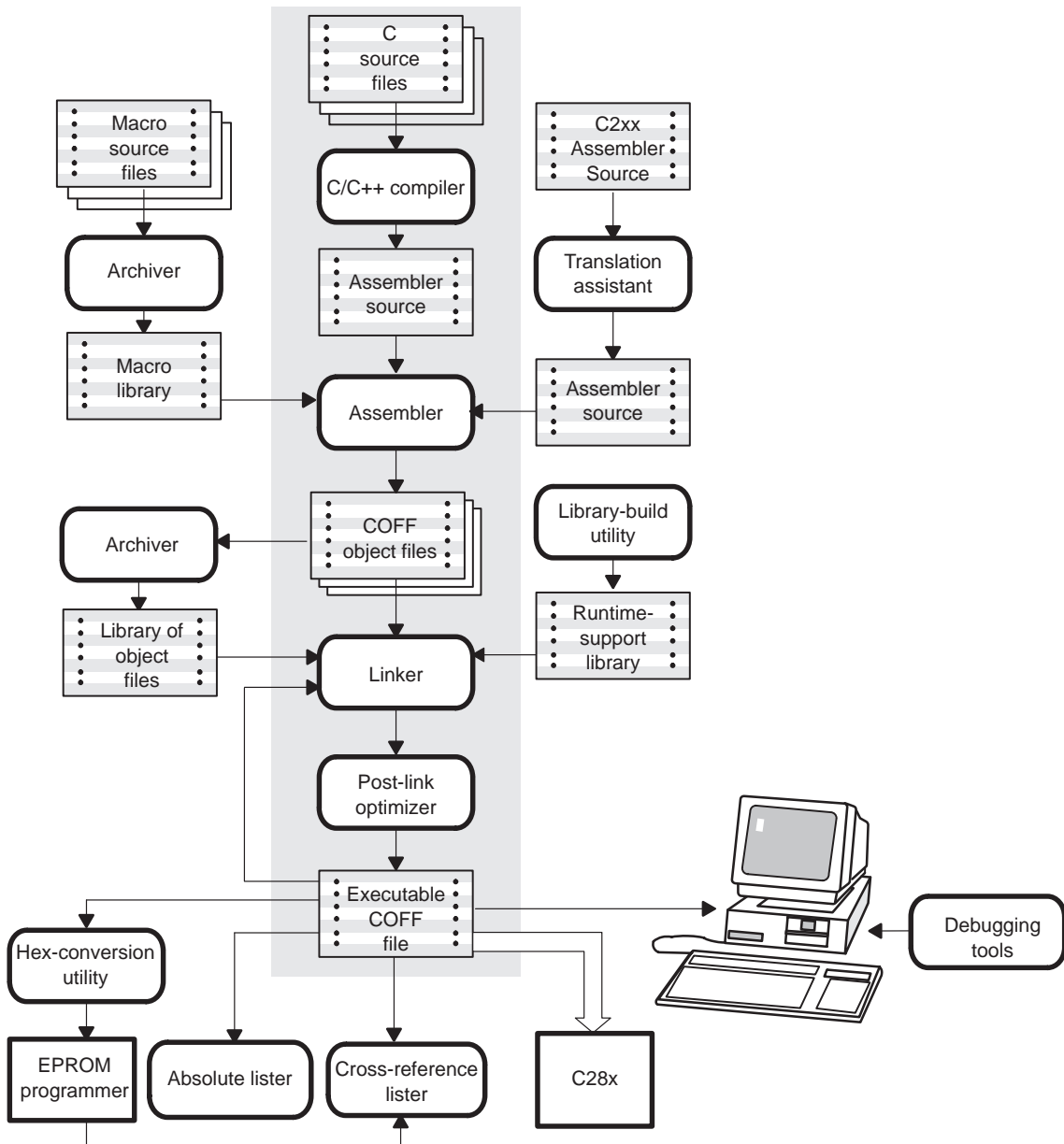
- ☐ Assembler
- ☐ Archiver
- ☐ Linker
- ☐ Absolute lister
- ☐ Cross-reference lister
- ☐ Hex-conversion utility

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1.1 Software Development Tools Overview	1-2
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1.1 Software Development Tools Overview

Figure 1–1 shows the TMS320C28x software development flow. The shaded portion highlights the most common development path; the other portions are optional. They are peripheral functions that enhance development.

Figure 1–1. TMS320C28x 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 and C++ source code and produces TMS320C28x assembly language source code. A **shell program**, an **optimizer**, and an **interlist utility** are included in the compiler package:
 - 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 programs.
 - The interlist utility interlists C source statements with assembly language output to correlate code produced by the compiler with your source code.

See the *TMS320C28x Optimizing C/C++ Compiler User's Guide* for more information.

- ❑ The **assembler** translates assembly language source files into machine language COFF object files. Source files can contain instructions, assembler directives, and macro directives. You can use assembler directives to control various aspects of the assembly process, such as the source listing format, data alignment, and section content. See Chapter 3, *Assembler Description*, through Chapter 5, *Macro Language*, for more information. See the *TMS320C28x CPU and Instruction Set Reference Guide* for detailed information on the assembly language instruction set.
- ❑ The **linker** combines object files into a single executable COFF object module. As it creates the executable module, it performs relocation and resolves external references. The linker accepts relocatable COFF object files (created by the assembler) as input. It also accepts archiver library members and output modules created by a previous linker run. Linker directives allow you to combine object file sections, bind sections or symbols to addresses or within memory ranges, and define or redefine global symbols. See Chapter 7, *Linker Description*, for more information.
- ❑ The **archiver** allows you to collect a group of files into a single archive file, called a library. 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. See Chapter 6, *Archiver Description*, for more information.

- ❑ You can use the **library-build utility** to build your own customized runtime-support library. See the *TMS320C28x Optimizing C/C++ Compiler User's Guide* for more information.
- ❑ The **absolute lister** accepts linked object files as input and creates .abs files as output. You assemble the .abs files to produce a listing that contains absolute addresses rather than relative addresses. Without the absolute lister, producing such a listing would be tedious and would require many manual operations.
- ❑ The **hex-conversion utility** converts a COFF object file into TI-Tagged, ASCII-hex, Intel, Motorola-S, or Tektronix object format. The converted file can be downloaded to an EPROM programmer. See Chapter 11, *Hex-Conversion Utility Description*, for more information.
- ❑ 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 9, *Cross-Reference Lister Description*, for more information.
- ❑ The main product of this development process is a module that can be executed in a **TMS320C28x** device.
- ❑ You can use one of several debugging tools to refine and correct your code. Available products include:
 - An instruction-accurate and clock-accurate software simulator
 - An XDS emulator
 - An evaluation module (EVM)

For information about these debugging tools, see the *TMS320C28x Code Composer Studio User's Guide*.

Introduction to Common Object File Format

The assembler and linker create object files that can be executed by a TMS320C28x™ device. The format for these object files is called common object file format (COFF).

COFF makes modular programming easier because it encourages 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. See Appendix A, *Common Object File Format*, for more information on COFF object file structure.

Topic	Page
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2.2 How the Assembler Handles Sections	2-4
2.3 How the Linker Handles Sections	2-11
2.4 Relocation	2-14
2.5 Loading a Program	2-17
2.6 Symbols in a COFF File	2-18

2.1 Sections

The smallest unit of an object file is called a *section*. A section is a block of code or data that ultimately occupies contiguous space in the memory map. Each section of an object file is separate and distinct. COFF object files always contain three default sections:

.text section	usually contains executable code
.data section	usually contains initialized data
.bss section	usually reserves space for uninitialized variables

In addition, the assembler and linker allow you to create, name, and link *named* sections that are used like the .data, .text, and .bss sections.

There are two basic types of sections:

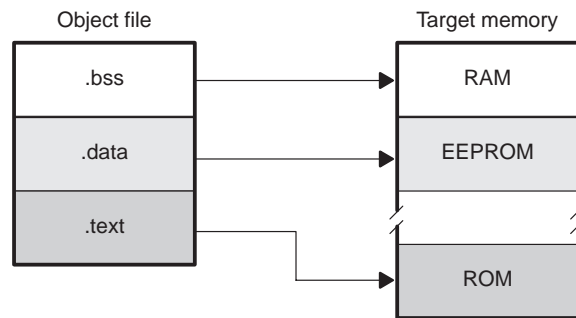
Initialized sections	contain data or code. The .text and .data sections are initialized; named sections created with the .sect assembler directive are also initialized.
Uninitialized sections	reserve space in the memory map for uninitialized data. The .bss section is uninitialized; named sections created 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 *allocation*. 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 into a portion of the memory map that contains ROM.

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

Figure 2–1. Partitioning Memory Into Logical Blocks



2.2 How the Assembler Handles Sections

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

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

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 2.2.4, *Subsections*, on page 2-7, for more information.

Note: Default Section Directive

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

2.2.1 Uninitialized Sections

Uninitialized sections reserve space in TMS320C28x memory; they are usually allocated into 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 `.bss` and `.usect` assembler directives.

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

Each time you invoke the `.bss` or `.usect` directive, the assembler reserves additional space in the `.bss` or the named section.

The syntaxes for these directives are:

`.bss` *symbol*, *size in words* [, *blocking flag*] [, *alignment flag*]
symbol **`.usect`** *"section name"*, *size in words* [, *blocking flag*] [, *alignment flag*]

<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 for which you are reserving space. It can be referenced by any other section and can also be declared as a global symbol (with the <code>.global</code> assembler directive).
<i>size in words</i>	is an absolute expression. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> The <code>.bss</code> directive reserves the number of words specified by <i>size in words</i> in the <code>.bss</code> section. You must specify a size; there is no default value. <input type="checkbox"/> The <code>.usect</code> directive reserves the number of words specified by <i>size in words</i> in <i>section name</i>. You must specify a size; there is no default value.
<i>alignment flag</i>	is an optional parameter. It specifies the minimum alignment in bytes required by the space allocated.
<i>section name</i>	tells the assembler which named section to reserve space in. The <i>section name</i> must be enclosed in quotation marks. For more information, see section 2.2.3, <i>Named Sections</i> .

The initialized section directives (`.text`, `.data`, and `.sect`) tell the assembler to stop assembling into the current section and begin assembling into the indicated section. The `.bss` and `.usect` directives, however, *do not* end the current section and begin a new one; they simply divert assembly from the current section temporarily. The `.bss` and `.usect` directives can appear anywhere in an initialized section without affecting its contents. For an example, see section 2.2.6, *An Example That Uses Sections Directives*, on page 2-8.

The assembler treats uninitialized subsections (created with the `.usect` directive) in the same manner as uninitialized sections. See section 2.2.4, *Subsections*, on page 2-7 for more information on creating subsections.

2.2.2 Initialized Sections

Initialized sections contain executable code or initialized data. The contents of these sections are stored in the object file and placed in TMS320C28x 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 section-relative references.

Three directives tell the assembler to place code or data into a section. The syntaxes for these directives are:

```
.text  
.data  
.sect "section name"
```

When the assembler encounters one of these directives, it stops assembling into the current section (acting as an implied end-of-current-section command). It then assembles subsequent code into the designated section until it encounters another `.text`, `.data`, or `.sect` directive.

Sections are built through an iterative process. For example, when the assembler first encounters a `.data` directive, the `.data` section is empty. The statements following this first `.data` directive are assembled into the `.data` section (until the assembler encounters a `.text` or `.sect` directive). If the assembler encounters subsequent `.data` directives, it adds the statements following these `.data` directives to the statements already in the `.data` section. This creates a single `.data` section that can be allocated continuously in memory.

Initialized subsections are created with the `.sect` directive. The assembler treats initialized subsections in the same manner as initialized sections. See section 2.2.4, *Subsections*, on page 2-7 for more information on creating subsections.

2.2.3 Named Sections

Named sections are sections that *you* create. You can use them like the default `.text`, `.data`, and `.bss` sections, but they are assembled separately.

For example, repeated use of the `.text` directive builds up a single `.text` section in the object file. When linked, this `.text` section is allocated into memory as a single unit. Suppose there is a portion of executable code (for example, an initialization routine) that you do not want allocated with `.text`. If you assemble this segment into a named section, it is assembled separately from `.text`, and you can 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.

Two directives let you create 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 named sections with relocatable addresses.

The syntaxes for these directives are:

```
symbol .usect "section name", size in words [, blocking flag] [, alignment flag]
.sect "section name"
```

The *section name* parameter is the name of the section. Section names are significant to 200 characters. You can create up to 32 767 separate named sections. For the `.sect` and `.usect` directives, a section name can refer to a subsection; see section 2.2.4 for details.

Each time you invoke one of these directives with a new name, you create a new named section. Each time you invoke one of these directives with a name that was already used, the assembler assembles 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 name with `.sect`.

2.2.4 Subsections

Subsections are smaller sections within larger sections. Like sections, subsections can be manipulated by the linker. Subsections give you tighter control of the memory map. You can create subsections by using the `.sect` or `.usect` directive. The syntaxes for these directives are:

```
symbol .usect "section name:subsection name", size in words [, alignment]
.sect "section name:subsection name"
```

A subsection is identified by the base section name followed by a colon, then the name of the subsection. For example, you create a subsection called `_func` within the `.text` section with the following code:

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

A subsection can be allocated separately or grouped with other sections using the same base name. Using the linker's `SECTIONS` directive, you can allocate `.text:_func` separately or with all the `.text` sections. See section 7.8.1, *SECTIONS Directive Syntax*, on page 7-29 for an example using subsections.

You can create two types of subsections:

- ❑ Initialized subsections are created using the `.sect` directive. See section 2.2.2, *Initialized Sections*, on page 2-5.

- ❑ Uninitialized subsections are created using the `.usect` directive. See section 2.2.1, *Uninitialized Sections*, on page 2-4.

Subsections are allocated in the same manner as sections. See section 7.8, *The SECTIONS Directive*, on page 7-29 for more information.

2.2.5 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 at that point.

The assembler treats each section as if it began at address 0; the linker relocates each section according to its final location in the memory map. For more information, see section 2.4, *Relocation*, on page 2-14.

2.2.6 An Example That Uses Sections Directives

Example 2-1 shows how you can build COFF sections incrementally, using the sections directives to swap back and forth between 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 Example 2-1 is a listing file. Example 2-1 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 3.11, *Source Listings*, on page 3-31 for more information on interpreting the fields in a source listing.

Example 2–1. Using Sections Directives

```

1          *****
2          ** Assemble an initialized table into .data **
3          *****
4 00000000          .data
5 00000000 0011  coeff          .word   011h, 022h, 033h
   00000001 0022
   00000002 0033
6
7          *****
8          ** Reserve space in .bss for a variable.      **
9          *****
10 00000000          .bss   buffer, 10
11
12          *****
13          **           Still in .data                   **
14          *****
15 00000003 0123  ptr          .word   0123h
16
17          *****
18          ** Assemble code into the .text section      **
19          *****
20 00000000          .text
21 00000000 28A1  add:         mov     ar1, #0Fh
   00000001 000F
22 00000002 0BA1  aloop:      dec     ar1
23 00000003 0009          banz     aloop, ar1--
   00000004 FFFF
24
25          *****
26          ** Another initialized table into .data      **
27          *****
28 00000004          .data
29 00000004 00AA  ivals          .word   0AAh, 0BBh, 0CCh
   00000005 00BB
   00000006 00CC
30
31          *****
32          ** Define another section for more variables. **
33          *****
34 00000000          var2      .usect   "newvars", 1
35 00000001          inbuf     .usect   "newvars", 7
36
37          *****
38          ** Assemble more code into .text.            **
39          *****
40 00000005          .text
41 00000005 28A1  end_mpy:      mov     ar1, #0Ah
   00000006 000A
42 00000007 33A1  mloop:       mpy     p,t,ar1
43 00000008 28AC          mov     t, #0Ah
   00000009 000A
44 0000000a 3FA1          mov     ar1, p
45 0000000b 6BFA          sb       end_mpy, OV

```

Field 1

Field 2

Field 3

Field 4

As Figure 2–2 shows, the file in Example 2–1 creates four sections:

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

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

Figure 2–2. Object Code Generated by the File in Example 2–1

Line number	Object code	Section
5	0011	.data
5	0022	
5	0033	
15	0123	
29	00AA	
29	00BB	
29	00CC	
21	28A1	.text
21	000F	
22	0BA1	
23	0009	
23	FFFF	
41	28A1	
41	000A	
42	33A1	
43	28AC	
43	000A	
44	3FA1	
45	6BFB	
10	No data 10 words preserved	.bss
34	No data	newvars
35	8 words preserved	

2.3 How the Linker Handles Sections

The linker has two main functions related to sections. First, the linker uses the sections in COFF object files as building blocks; it combines input sections (when more than one file is being linked) to create output sections in an executable COFF output module. Second, the linker chooses memory addresses for the output sections.

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 allow you to manipulate sections with greater precision. You can specify subsections with the linker's SECTIONS directive. If you do not specify a subsection explicitly, then the subsection is combined with the other sections with the same base section name.

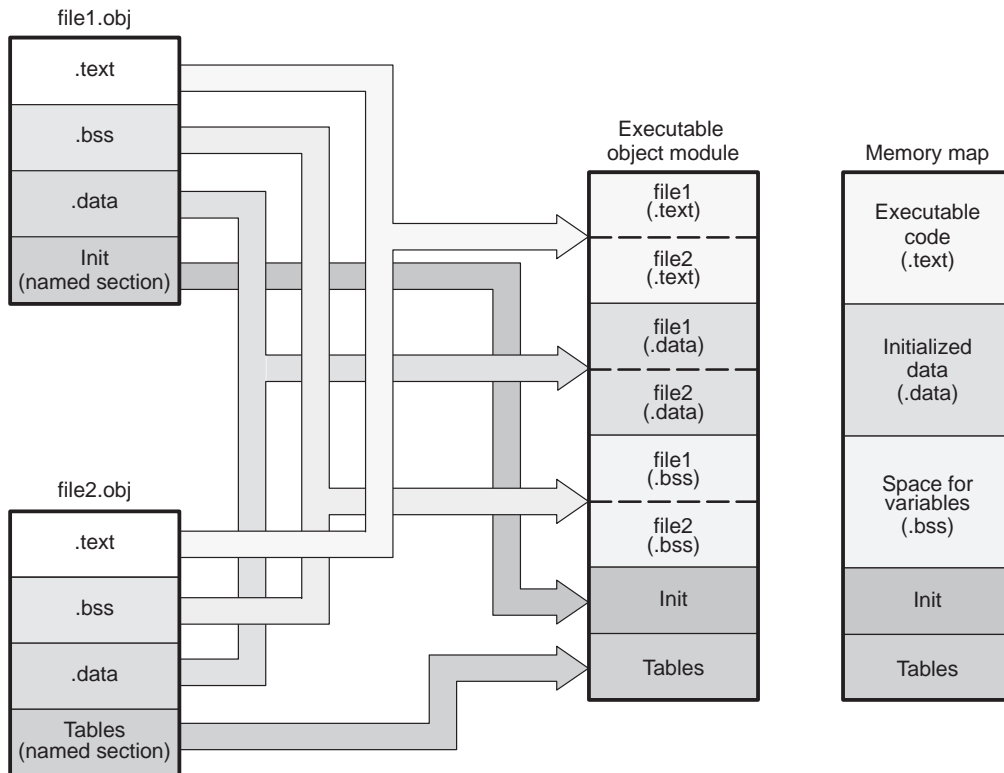
It is not always necessary to use linker directives. If you do not use them, the linker uses the target processor's default allocation algorithm described in section 7.13, *Default Allocation*, on page 7-51. When you *do* use linker directives, you must specify them in a linker command file.

See Chapter 7, *Linker Description*, for more information about linker command files and linker directives.

2.3.1 Default Memory Allocation

Figure 2–3 illustrates the process of linking two files.

Figure 2–3. Combining Input Sections to Form an Executable Object Module



In Figure 2–3, `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 named section. The executable object module shows the combined sections. The linker combines the `.text` section from `file1.obj` and `file2.obj` to form one `.text` section, then combines the two `.data` sections and the two `.bss` sections, and finally places the named sections at the end. The memory map shows how the sections are put into memory.

By default, the linker starts at `0h` and allocates sections in the following order: `.text`, `.const`, `.data`, `.bss`, `.cinit`, and then any named sections in the order they are encountered in the input files.

The C/C++ compiler uses the `.const` section to store variables or arrays declared as `const`. The compiler produces tables of data for autoinitializing global variables; these variables are stored in a named section called `.cinit` (see page 7-83). For more information on the `.const` and `.cinit` sections, see the *TMS320C28x Optimizing C/C++ Compiler User's Guide*.

2.3.2 Placing Sections in the Memory Map

Figure 2–3 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 named section placed where the `.data` section would normally be allocated. Most memory maps contain various types of memories (RAM, ROM, EPROM, etc.) in varying amounts; you may want to place a section in a specific type of memory.

For more information on section placement, see section 7.7, *The MEMORY Directive*, on page 7-24 and section 7.8, *The SECTIONS Directive*, on page 7-29.

2.4 Relocation

The assembler treats each section as if it began at address 0. All relocatable symbols (labels) are relative to address 0 in their sections. Of course, all sections cannot actually begin at address 0 in memory, so the linker *relocates* sections by:

- ❑ Allocating them into the memory map so that they begin at the appropriate address
- ❑ 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 2–2 contains a TMS320C28x code segment that generates relocation entries.

Example 2–2. An Example of Code That Generates Relocation Entries

```
1      .global X
2 00000000 .text
3 00000000 0080' LC      Y      ; Generates a Relocation Entry
   00000001 0004
4 00000002 28A1! MOV     AR1,#X  ; Generates a Relocation Entry
   00000003 0000
5 00000004 7621 Y:      IDLE
```

In Example 2–2, both symbols X and Y are relocatable. Y is defined in the .text section of this module; X is defined in another module. When the code is assembled, X has a value of 0 (the assembler assumes all undefined external symbols have values of 0), and Y has a value of 4 (relative to address 0 in the .text section). The assembler generates two relocation entries, one for X and one for Y. The reference to X is an external reference (indicated by the ! character in the listing). The reference to Y is to an internally defined relocatable symbol (indicated by the ' character in the listing).

After the code is linked, suppose that X is relocated to address 0x7100. Suppose also that the .text section is relocated to begin at address 0x7200; Y now has a relocated value of 0x7204. The linker uses the two relocation entries to patch the two references in the object code:

0080'	LC	Y	becomes	0080'
0004				7204
28A1!	MOV	AR1,#X	becomes	28A1!
0000				7100

Sometimes an expression contains more than one relocatable symbol, or cannot be evaluated at assembly time. In this case, the assembler encodes the entire expression in the object file. After determining the addresses of the symbols, the linker computes the value of the expression as shown in Example 2–3.

Example 2–3. Relocation Expression

```

1                .global sym1, sym2
2
3 00000000 FF20%      mov      ACC, #(sym2-sym1)
   00000001 0000

```

The symbols `sym1` and `sym2` are both externally defined. Therefore, the assembler cannot evaluate the expression `sym2 – sym1`, so it encodes the expression in the object file. The `'%`' listing character indicates a relocation expression. Suppose the linker relocates `sym2` to `300h` and `sym1` to `200h`, then the linker computes the value of the expression to be `300h – 200h = 100h`. Thus the MOV instruction is patched to:

```

00000000 FF20      mov      ACC, #(sym2-sym1)
00000001 0100

```

Note: Expression Cannot Be Larger Than Space Reserved

If the value of an expression is larger, in bits, than the space reserved for it, the linker produces an error message.

Each section in a COFF object file has a table of relocation entries. The table contains one relocation entry for each relocatable reference in the section. The linker usually removes relocation entries after it uses them. This prevents the output file from being relocated again (if it is relinked or when it is loaded). A file that contains no relocation entries is an absolute file (all its addresses are absolute addresses). If you want the linker to retain relocation entries, invoke the linker with the `–r` option.

2.4.1 Run-Time Relocation

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 an external-memory-based system. The code must be loaded into external memory, but it would run faster in internal memory.

The linker provides a simple way to handle this. Using the `SECTIONS` directive, you can optionally direct the linker to allocate a section twice: once 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.

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. The application must copy the section from its load address to its run address before the first reference to the symbol is encountered at run time; this does *not* happen automatically simply because you specify a separate run address. For an example of how to move a block of code at run time, see Example 7-6 on page 7-41.

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 7.9, *Specifying a Section's Run-Time Address*, on page 7-39.

2.5 Loading a Program

The linker produces executable COFF object modules. An executable object file has the same COFF format as object files that are used as linker input; the sections in an executable object file, however, are combined and relocated into target memory.

To run a program, the data in the executable object module must be transferred, or loaded, into target system memory. Several methods can be used for loading a program, depending on the execution environment. Descriptions of two common situations follow:

- ☐ The TMS320C28x debugging tools, including the simulator, have built-in loaders. Each of these tools contains a LOAD command that invokes a loader; the loader reads the executable file and copies the program into target memory.
- ☐ You can use the hex-conversion utility (hex2000, which is provided as part of the assembly language package) to convert the executable COFF object module into one of several object file formats. You can then use the converted file with an EPROM programmer to burn the program into an EPROM.

2.6 Symbols in a COFF File

A COFF file contains a symbol table that stores information about symbols in the program. The linker uses this table when it performs relocation. Debugging tools can also use the symbol table to provide symbolic debugging.

2.6.1 External Symbols

External symbols are symbols that are defined in one module and referenced in another module. You can use the `.def`, `.ref`, or `.global` directive to identify symbols as external:

- `.def`** is defined in the current module and used in another module.
- `.ref`** is referenced in the current module, but defined in another module.
- `.global`** may be either of the above.

The following code segment illustrates these definitions.

```
        .def      x
        .ref      y
        .global   z
        .global   a

x:      ADD      AR1, #56h
        B        y, UNC

a:      ADD      AR1, #56h
        B        z, UNC
```

The `.def` definition of `x` says that it is an external symbol defined in this module and that other modules can reference `x`. The `.ref` definition of `y` says that it is an undefined symbol in this module and is defined in another module. The `.global` definition of `z` says that it is an undefined symbol in this module and is defined in another module. The `.global` definition of `a` says that it is an external symbol defined in this module and that other modules can reference `a`.

The assembler places `x`, `y`, `z`, and `a` in the object file's symbol table. When the file is linked with other object files, the entries for `x` and `a` define unresolved references to `x` and `a` from other files. The entries for `y` and `z` cause the linker to look through the symbol tables of other files for `y`'s and `z`'s definitions.

The linker must 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.

2.6.2 The Symbol Table

The assembler always generates an entry in the symbol table when it encounters an external symbol (both definitions and references defined by one of the directives discussed in section 2.6.1). The assembler also creates special symbols that point to the beginning of each section; the linker uses these symbols to relocate references to other symbols.

The assembler does not usually create symbol table entries for other symbols, because the linker does not use them. For example, labels are not included in the symbol table unless they are declared with the `.global` directive. For symbolic debugging purposes, it is sometimes useful to have entries in the symbol table for each symbol in a program. To accomplish this, invoke the assembler with the `-s` option (see the `-s` option description on page 3-5).

Assembler Description

The TMS320C28x™ assembler translates assembly language source files into machine language object files. These files are in common object file format (COFF), which is discussed in Chapter , *Introduction to Common Object File Format*, and Appendix , *Common Object File Format*. Source files can contain the following assembly language elements:

Assembler directives	described in Chapter 4
Macro directives	described in Chapter 5
Assembly language instructions	described in the <i>TMS320C28x CPU and Instruction Set Reference Guide</i>

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3.2 The Assembler's Role in the Software Development Flow	3-3
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3.1 Assembler Overview

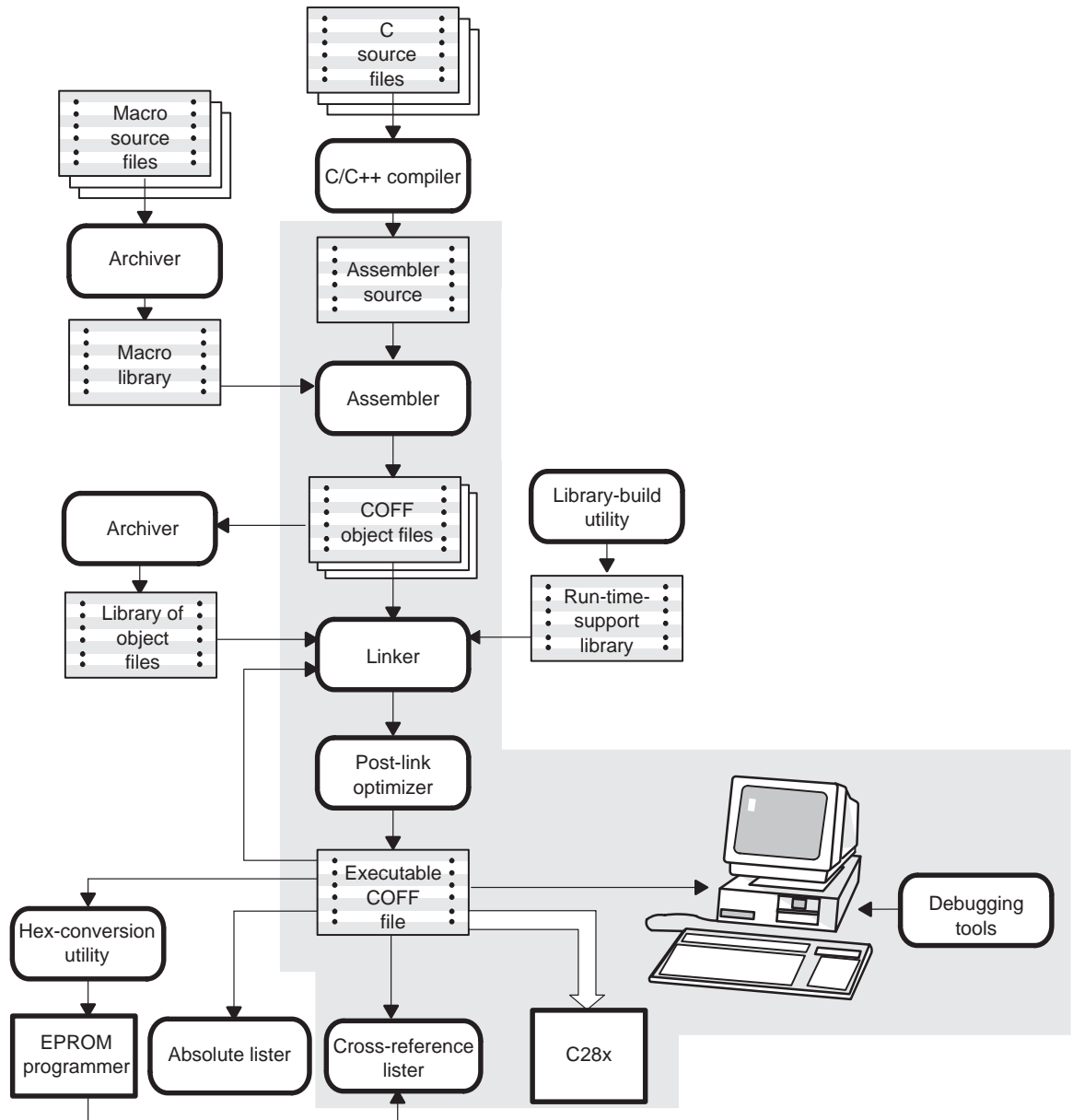
The 2-pass assembler does the following tasks:

- ☐ 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 segment your code into sections and maintain an 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

3.2 The Assembler's Role in the Software Development Flow

Figure 3–1 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.

Figure 3–1. The Assembler in the TMS320C28x Software Development Flow



3.3 Invoking the Assembler

Invoke the assembler through the compiler, enter the following:

```
cl2000 version [input file [object file [listing file]]] [options]
```

cl2000 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 calls the assembler.

version refers to the target processor for which the source file is assembled. The valid versions are `-v28` for the TMS320C28x processor and `-v27` for the TMS320C27x processor. The version is required; the assembler issues an error if version is not specified.

If both `-v27` and `-v28` are specified, the assembler ignores the second version and issues a warning. For more information, see section 3.16, *TMS320C28x Assembler Modes*, on page 3-41.

input file names the assembly language source file.

options identify the assembler 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. Single-letter options without parameters can be combined: for example, `-lc` is equivalent to `-l-c`. Options that have parameters, such as `-I`, must be specified separately.

The valid assembler options are as follows:

- aa** creates a listing file that provides absolute addresses. When you use `-a`, the assembler does not produce an object file. Use `-a` after running the absolute lister.
- ac** makes case insignificant in the assembly language files. For example, `-c` makes the symbols `ABC` and `abc` equivalent. *If you do not use this option, case is significant* (this is the default).
- ad** `-dname [=value]` sets the *name* symbol. This is equivalent to inserting `name.set [value]` at the beginning of the assembly file. If *value* is omitted, the symbol is set to 1. For more information, see section 3.8.4, *Defining Symbolic Constants (-d Option)*, on page 3-21.
- ahc** `-hcfilename` tells the assembler to copy the specified file for the assembly module. The file is inserted before source file statements. The copied file appears in the assembly listing files.

- ahi** **-hi***filename* tells the assembler to include 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.
- al** (lowercase L) produces a listing file with the same name as the input file with a *.lst* extension.
- as** puts all defined symbols in the object file's symbol table. The assembler usually puts only global symbols into the symbol table. When you use **-s**, symbols defined as labels or as assembly-time constants are also placed in the table.
- au** **-u***name* undefines the predefined constant *name*, which overrides any **-d** options for the specified constant.
- 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 **-x** option, the assembler creates a listing file automatically, naming it with the same name as the input file with a *.lst* extension.
- g** enables assembler source debugging in the C source debugger. Line information is output to the COFF file for every line of source in the assembly language source file. You cannot use the **-g** option on assembly code that contains *.line* directives. See section 3.12, *Debugging Assembly Source*, on page 3-34 for more information.
- i** specifies a directory where the assembler can find files named by the *.copy*, *.include*, or *.mlib* directives. The format of the **-I** option is **-I***pathname*. Each *pathname* must be preceded by the **-I** option. For more information, see section 3.4.1, *Using the -i Assembler Option*, on page 3-7.
- m20** accepts C2xLP assembly instructions and encodes them as equivalent C28x instructions. The **-m20** option implies the **-v28** option. For more information, see section 3.16, *TMS320C28x Assembler Modes*, on page 3-41.
- m27** accepts C27x instruction syntax. The **-m27** option implies the **-v28** option. For more information, see section 3.16, *TMS320C28x Assembler Modes*, on page 3-41.

- mf** allows conditional compilation of 16-bit code with large memory model code. Defines the `LARGE_MODEL` symbol and sets it to true.
- mg** produces C-type symbolic debugging for assembly variables defined in assembly source code using data directives. This support is for basic C types, structures and arrays.
- mw** enables additional assembly-time checking. A warning is generated if a `.bss` allocation size is greater than 64 words, or a 16-bit immediate operand value resides outside of the -32768 to 65535 range.
- q** suppresses the banner and progress information (assembler runs in quiet mode).

3.4 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 4, *Assembler Directives*, 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. 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 `-I` assembler option
- 3) Any directories named with the `C2000_A_DIR` or `A_DIR` environment variable

Because of this search hierarchy, you can augment the assembler's directory search algorithm by using the `-I` assembler option (described in section 3.4.1) or the `C2000_A_DIR` and `A_DIR` environment variables (described in section 3.4.2).

3.4.1 Using the `-I` Assembler Option

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

```
cl2000 -v28 -Ipathname source filename [other options]
```

Each `-I` option names one pathname. There is no limit to the number of paths you can specify. In assembly source, you can use the `.copy`, `.include`, and `.mlib` directives 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 `-I` 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:

- Windows: c:\320tools\files\copy.asm
- UNIX: /320tools/files/copy.asm

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

Operating System	Enter
Windows	c12000 -v28 -Ic:\320tools\files source.asm
UNIX	c12000 -v28 -I/320tools/files source.asm

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 `-i` option.

3.4.2 Using the C2000_A_DIR and A_DIR Environment Variables

An environment variable is a system symbol that you define and assign a string to. The assembler uses the `C2000_A_DIR` and `A_DIR` environment variables to name alternate directories that contain `.copy/include` files or macro libraries. The command syntax for assigning the environment variable is as follows:

The assembler looks for the `C2000_A_DIR` environment variable first and then reads and processes it. If it does not find this variable, it reads the `A_DIR` environment variable and processes it. If both variables are set, the settings of the processor-specific variable are used. The processor-specific variable is useful when you are using Texas Instruments tools for different processors at the same time.

If the assembler does not find `C2000_A_DIR` and `A_DIR`, it then searches for `C2000_C_DIR` and `C_DIR`. See the *TMS320C28x Optimizing Compiler User's Guide* for details on `C2000_C_DIR` and `C_DIR`.

Operating System	Enter
Windows	set A_DIR= pathname ₁ ;pathname ₂ ; . . .
UNIX (Bourne shell)	A_DIR="pathname ₁ ;pathname ₂ ; . . ."; export A_DIR

The *pathnames* are directories that contain copy/include files or macro libraries. You can separate the pathnames with a semicolon or with blanks. 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 -I 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:

Windows: c:\tools\files\copy1.asm
 c:\dsys\copy2.asm

UNIX: /tools/files/copy1.asm
 /dsys/copy2.asm

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

Operating System	Enter
Windows	set A_DIR=c:\dsys cl2000 -v28 -Ic:\tools\files source.asm
UNIX (Bourne Shell)	A_DIR="/dsys"; export A_DIR cl2000 -v28 -I=/tools/files source.asm

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 -I option and finds copy1.asm. Finally, the assembler searches the directory named with A_DIR and finds copy2.asm.

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

Operating System	Enter
Windows	set A_DIR=
UNIX	unset A_DIR

3.5 Source Statement Format

TMS320C28x assembly language source programs consist of source statements that can contain assembler directives, assembly language instructions, macro directives, and comments. A source statement 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:

```
two      .set    2           ; Symbol two = 2
Begin:   MOV     AR1,#two    ; Load AR1 with 2
          .word  016h        ; Initialize a word with 016h
```

The C28x assembler reads up to 200 characters per line. Any characters beyond 200 are truncated. Keep the operational part of your source statements (that is, everything other than comments) less than 200 characters in length for correct assembly. Your comments can extend beyond the 200 character limit, but the truncated portion is not included in the listing file.

Follow these guidelines:

- ☐ All statements must begin with a label, a blank, an asterisk, or a semicolon.
- ☐ Labels are optional; if used, they must begin in column 1.
- ☐ One or more blanks must separate each field. Tab characters are interpreted as blanks.
- ☐ 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.
- ☐ A mnemonic cannot begin in column one or it will be interpreted as a label.

The following sections describe each of the fields.

3.5.1 Label Field

Labels are optional for all assembly language instructions and for most (but not all) assembler directives. When used, a label must begin in column 1 of a source statement. A label can contain up to 128 alphanumeric characters (A–Z, a–z, 0–9, _, and \$). Labels are case sensitive (except when the `-c` option is used), and the first character cannot be a number. 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. You cannot use a label with an instruction that is subject to the RPT instruction.

When you use a label, its value is the current value of the section program counter (SPC). The label points to the statement with which it is associated. For example, if you use the `.word` directive to initialize several words, a label would point to the first word. In the following example, the label `Start` has the value `40h`.

```
.      .      .      .
.      .      .      .
.      .      .      .
      9                      * Assume some code was assembled
10 000040 000A Start: .word 0Ah,3,7
      000044 0003
      000048 0007
```

A label on a line by itself is a valid statement. The label assigns the current value of the section program counter to the label; this is equivalent to the following directive statement:

```
label .set $ ; $ provides the current value of the SPC
```

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

```
1 000000          Here:
2 000000 0003      .word 3
```

3.5.2 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. The mnemonic field can begin with pipe symbols (||) when the previous instruction is an RPT. Pipe symbols indicate instructions that are repeated. For example:

```
      RPT  
|| Inst2◀———— This instruction is repeated.
```

The mnemonic field contains one of the following items:

- ☐ A machine-instruction mnemonic (such as ADD, MOV, or B)
- ☐ An assembler directive (such as .data, .list, or .set)
- ☐ A macro directive (such as .macro, .var, or .mexit)
- ☐ A macro call

3.5.3 Operand Field

The operand field follows the mnemonic field and contains one or more operands. The operand field is not required for all instructions or directives. An operand consists of the following items:

- ☐ Symbols (see section 3.8 on page 3-18)
- ☐ Constants (see section 3.6 on page 3-13)
- ☐ Expressions (a combination of constants and symbols; see section 3.9 on page 3-25)

You must separate operands with commas.

3.5.4 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.

3.6 Constants

The assembler supports seven types of constants:

- ☐ Binary integer
- ☐ Octal integer
- ☐ Decimal integer
- ☐ Hexadecimal integer
- ☐ Character
- ☐ Assembly-time
- ☐ Floating-point

The assembler maintains each constant internally as a 32-bit quantity. Constants are not sign-extended. For example, the constant 00FFh is equal to 00FF (base 16) or 255 (base 10); it *does not* equal -1 . However, when used with the .byte directive, -1 is equivalent to 00FFh.

3.6.1 Binary Integers

A binary integer constant is a string of up to 32 binary digits (0s and 1s) followed by the suffix B (or b). If fewer than 32 digits are specified, the assembler right-justifies the value and zero-fills the unspecified bits. These are examples of valid binary constants:

- 00000000B** A constant equal to 0_{10} or 0_{16}
- 0100000b** A constant equal to 32_{10} or 20_{16}
- 01b** A constant equal to 1_{10} or 1_{16}
- 11111000B** A constant equal to 248_{10} or $0F8_{16}$

3.6.2 Octal Integers

An octal integer constant is a string of up to 11 octal digits (0 through 7) followed by the suffix Q (or q). These are examples of valid octal constants:

10Q	A constant equal to 8_{10} or 8_{16}
100000Q	A constant equal to $32\,768_{10}$ or 8000_{16}
226q	A constant equal to 150_{10} or 96_{16}

Or, you can use C notation for octal constants:

010	A constant equal to 8_{10} or 8_{16}
0100000	A constant equal to $32\,768_{10}$ or 8000_{16}
0226	A constant equal to 150_{10} or 96_{16}

Note: Octal Numbers Not Accepted With C2xlp Syntax Mode

When the `-v28 -m20` options are specified, `asm2000` accepts C2xlp source code. The C2xlp assembler interpreted numbers with leading zeros as decimal integers, that is, `010` was interpreted as 10_{10} . Because of this, when `asm2000` is invoked with `-v28 -m20 -mw`, the assembler issues a warning when it encounters an octal number.

3.6.3 Decimal Integers

A decimal integer constant is a string of decimal digits ranging from $-2\,147\,483\,648$ to $4\,294\,967\,295$. These are examples of valid decimal constants:

1000 or 1000d	A constant equal to 1000_{10} or $3E8_{16}$
-32 768	A constant equal to $-32\,768_{10}$ or 8000_{16}
25	A constant equal to 25_{10} or 19_{16}

3.6.4 Hexadecimal Integers

A hexadecimal integer constant is a string of up to eight 32-bit range hexadecimal digits followed by the suffix H (or h). Hexadecimal digits include the decimal values 0–9 and the letters A–F or a–f. A *hexadecimal constant must begin with a decimal value (0–9)*. If fewer than eight hexadecimal digits are specified, the assembler right-justifies the bits. These are examples of valid hexadecimal constants:

78h	A constant equal to 120_{10} or 0078_{16}
0Fh	A constant equal to 15_{10} or $000F_{16}$
37ACh	A constant equal to $14\ 252_{10}$ or $37AC_{16}$

Or, you can use C notation for hexadecimal constants:

0x78	A constant equal to 120_{10} or 0078_{16}
0xF	A constant equal to 15_{10} or $000F_{16}$
0x37AC	A constant equal to $14\ 252_{10}$ or $37AC_{16}$

3.6.5 Character Constants

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

'a'	Defines the character constant <i>a</i> and is represented internally as 61_{16}
'C'	Defines the character constant <i>C</i> and is represented internally as 43_{16}
''	Defines the character constant <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 *constants* and character *strings* (section 3.7 on page 3-17 discusses character strings.) A character constant represents a single integer value; a string is a sequence of characters.

3.6.6 Assembly-Time Constants

If you use the `.set` directive (see page 4-70) to assign a value to a symbol, the symbol becomes a constant. To use this constant in expressions, the value that is assigned to it must be absolute. For example:

```
shift3    .set 3
          MOV AR1, #shift3
```

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

```
myReg     .set AR1
          MOV myReg, #3
```

3.6.7 Floating-Point Constants

A floating-point constant is a string of decimal digits followed by an optional decimal point, fractional portion, and 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 character constants:

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

3.7 Character Strings

A character string is a string of characters enclosed in *double* quotation marks. Double quotation marks that are part of character strings are represented by two consecutive double quotation marks. 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

3.8 Symbols

Symbols are used as labels, constants, and substitution symbols. A symbol name is a string of up to 200 alphanumeric characters (A–Z, a–z, 0–9, \$, and _). The first character in a symbol cannot be a number, and symbols cannot contain embedded blanks. The symbols you define are case sensitive; for example, the assembler recognizes ABC, Abc, and abc as three unique symbols. You can override case sensitivity with the `-c` assembler option (see section 3.3, on page 3-4). A symbol is valid only during the assembly in which it is defined unless you use the `.global` or `.def` directive to declare it as an external symbol.

3.8.1 Labels

Symbols used as labels become symbolic addresses that are associated with locations in the program. Labels used locally within a file must be unique. Mnemonic opcodes and assembler directive names (without the `.` prefix) are valid label names.

Labels can also be used as the operands of `.global`, `.ref`, `.def`, or `.bss` directives, as shown in the following example:

```
.global label1

label2: NOP
        ADD     AR1, label1
        SB      label2, UNC
```

3.8.2 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 `$1` are valid local labels. See the Local Labels of the Form `$n` example.
- ☐ `name?`, where `name?` is any legal symbol name as previously described. 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 this label as global. See the Local Labels of the Form `name?` example.

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 four ways:

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

Example 3–1. Local Labels of the Form `$n`

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

```
$1:
    ADDB    AL, #-7
    B       $1, GEQ

    .newblock           ; undefine $1 to use it again.

$1    MOV    T, AL
      MPYB   ACC, T, #7
      CMP    AL, #1000
      B      $1, LT
```

The following code uses local labels illegally:

```
$1:
    ADDB    AL, #-7
    B       $1, GEQ

$1    MOV    T, AL           ; WRONG - $1 is multiply defined.
      MPYB   ACC, T, #7
      CMP    AL, #1000
      B      $1, LT
```

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. However, if you use a local label and a `.newblock` directive within the macro, the local label is used and reset each time the macro is expanded.

Up to ten local labels can be in effect at one time. 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.

Branches to local labels are not expanded, because local labels are intended to be used only locally and some branches' offsets could be out of range.

Example 3–2 shows code that declares and used local labels legally

Example 3–2. Local Labels

```

*****
** First definition of local label mylab **
*****
    nop
mylab? nop
    B mylab?, UNC

*****
** Include file has second definition of mylab **
*****
    .copy  "a.inc"

*****
** Third definition of mylab, reset upon exit from .include **
*****
mylab? nop
    B mylab?, UNC

*****
** Fourth definition of mylab in macro, macros use different **
** namespace to avoid conflicts **
*****
mymac .macro
mylab? nop
    B mylab?, UNC
    .endm

*****
** Macro invocation **
*****
    mymac

*****
** Reference to third definition of mylab. Definition is not **
** reset by macro invocation. **
*****
    B mylab?, UNC

*****
** Changing section, allowing fifth definition of mylab **
*****
    .sect  "Sect_One"
    nop
mylab? .word 0
    nop
    nop
    B mylab?, UNC

*****
** The .newblock directive allows sixth definition of mylab **
*****
    .newblock
mylab? .word 0
    nop
    nop
    B mylab?, UNC

```

3.8.3 Symbolic Constants

Symbols can be set to constant values. By using constants, you can equate meaningful names with constant values. The `.set` and `.struct/.tag/.endstruct` directives enable you to set constants to symbolic names. Symbolic constants *cannot* be redefined. The following example shows how these directives can be used:

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

item   .struct                ; item structure definition
value  .int                ; value offset = 0
delta  .int                ; delta offset = 4
i_len  .endstruct           ; item size    = 8

array  .tag    item
        .bss   array, i_len*K    ; declare an array of K "items"
        .text
        MOV    array.delta, AR1
                                ; access array .delta
```

The assembler also has several predefined symbolic constants; these are discussed in section 3.8.5, *Predefined Symbolic Constants*, on page 3-22.

3.8.4 Defining Symbolic Constants (`-d` Option)

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

```
cl2000 -v28 -dname=[value]
```

The *name* is the name of the symbol you want to define.

The *value* is the value you want to assign to the symbol. If the *value* is omitted, the symbol is set to 1.

Once you have defined the name with the `-d` option, the symbol can be used in place of a constant value, a well-defined expression, or an otherwise undefined symbol used with assembly directives and instructions. For example, on the command line you can enter:

```
cl2000 -v28 -dSYM1=1 -dSYM2=2 -dSYM3=3 -dSYM4=4 value.asm
```

Since you have assigned values to SYM1, SYM2, SYM3, and SYM4, you can use them in source code. Example 3-3 shows how the `value.asm` file uses these symbols without defining them explicitly.

Example 3–3. 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
```

Within assembler source, you can test the symbol defined with the `-d` option with the following 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 quotation marks. The quotation marks cause the argument to be interpreted literally rather than as a substitution symbol.

3.8.5 Predefined Symbolic Constants

The assembler has several predefined symbols, including these:

- ❑ **\$**, the dollar sign character, represents the current value of the section program counter (SPC). `$` is a relocatable symbol.

- ❑ **Processor symbols**, including the following:

Symbol Name	Description
.TMS320C2700	Set to 1 for C27x (–v27 switch), otherwise 0
.TMS320C2800	Set to 1 for C28x (–v28 switch), otherwise 0
__LARGE_MODEL	Set to 1 for Large Model (–mf switch), otherwise 0

- ❑ **CPU control registers**, including the following:

Register	Description
ACC/AH, AL	Accumulator/accumulator high, accumulator low
DBGIER	Debug interrupt enable register
DP	Data page pointer
IER	Interrupt enable register
IFR	Interrupt flag pointer
P/PH, PL	Product register/product high, product low
PC	Program counter
RPC	Return program counter
ST0	Status register 0
ST1	Status register 1
SP	Stack pointer register
TH	Multiplicant high register – an alias of T register
XAR0/AR0H,AR0	Auxiliary register 0/auxiliary 0 high, auxiliary 0 low
XAR1/AR1H,AR1	Auxiliary register 1/auxiliary 1 high, auxiliary 1 low
XAR2/AR2H,AR2	Auxiliary register 2/auxiliary 2 high, auxiliary 2 low
XAR3/AR3H,AR3	Auxiliary register 3/auxiliary 3 high, auxiliary 3 low
XAR4/AR4H,AR4	Auxiliary register 4/auxiliary 4 high, auxiliary 4 low
XAR5/AR5H,AR5	Auxiliary register 5/auxiliary 5 high, auxiliary 5 low
XAR6/AR6H,AR6	Auxiliary register 6/auxiliary 6 high, auxiliary 6 low
XAR7/AR7H,AR7	Auxiliary register 7/auxiliary 7 high, auxiliary 7 low
XT/T,TL	Multiplicand register/multiplicant high, multiplicand low

Control registers can be entered as all upper-case or all lower-case characters; that is, IER could also be entered as ier.

3.8.6 Substitution Symbols

Symbols can be assigned a string value (variable). This enables you to alias 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      "AR1",    myReg          ;register AR1
.asg      "+XAR2 [2]", ARG1        ;first arg
.asg      "+XAR2 [1]", ARG2        ;second arg
```

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:

```
add2 .macro  A, B ; add2 macro definition
      MOV    AL, A
      ADD    AL, B
      .endm

*add2 invocation
      add2 LOC1, LOC2          ;add "LOC1" argument to a
                                ;second argument "LOC2".

      MOV    AL,LOC1
      ADD    AL,LOC2
```

For more information about macros, see Chapter 5, *Macro Language*.

3.9 Expressions

An expression is a constant, a symbol, or a series of constants and symbols separated by arithmetic operators. Valid expression values are within the 32-bit range $-2\,147\,483\,648$ to $2\,147\,483\,647$ for signed values and the 32-bit range 0 to $4\,294\,967\,295$ for unsigned values. Three main factors influence the order of expression evaluation:

- 1) **Parentheses** Expressions enclosed in parentheses are always evaluated first.
 $8/(4/2) = 4$, but $8/4/2 = 1$
 You *cannot* substitute braces ({ }) or brackets ([]) for parentheses.
- 2) **Precedence groups** Operators, listed in Table 3–1, 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)
- 3) **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 (see Table 3–1), which is evaluated from right to left.
 $8/4*2 = 4$, but $8/(4*2) = 1$

3.9.1 Operators

Table 3–1 lists the operators that can be used in expressions according to precedence group.

Note: Differences in Precedence From Other TMS320 Assemblers

- ☐ Some TMS320 assemblers use a different order of precedence than the TMS320C28x assembler uses. For this reason, different results may be produced from the same source code. The TMS320C28x uses the same order of precedence that the C language uses.
 - ☐ When `asm2000` is invoked with `-v28 -m20`, the assembler accepts C2xlp source code. A programmer writing code for the C2xlp assembler would assume different precedence than that used by the C28x assembler. Therefore when invoked with the `-v28 -m20 -mw` options, the C28x assembler issues a warning when it encounters an expression such as `a + b << c`.
-

Table 3–1. Order of Precedence of Operators Used in Expressions

Group	Operator	Description
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

Note: Group 1 operators are evaluated right to left. All other operators are evaluated left to right.

3.9.2 Expression Overflow and Underflow

The assembler checks for overflow and underflow conditions when arithmetic operations *other than* multiplication are performed at assembly time. It issues the warning *Value Truncated* whenever an overflow or underflow occurs.

3.9.3 Well-Defined Expressions

Some assembler directives require well-defined expressions as operands. Well-defined expressions contain only symbols or assembly-time constants that are defined before they are encountered in the expression. The evaluation of a well-defined expression must be absolute.

This is an example of a well-defined expression:

```
0x1000+X
```

where X was previously defined as an absolute symbol.

3.9.4 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, an absolute value may be compared to an absolute value, but an absolute value may not be compared to a relocatable value.

3.9.5 Legal Expressions

With the exception of the following expression contexts, there is no restriction on combinations of operations, constants, internally defined symbols, and externally defined symbols.

When an expression contains more than one relocatable symbol or cannot be evaluated at assembly time, the assembler encodes a relocation expression in the object file that is later evaluated by the linker. If the final value of the expression is larger in bits than the space reserved for it, you will receive an error message from the linker. For more information on relocation expressions, see section 2.4 on page 2-14.

When using the register relative addressing mode, the expression in brackets or parenthesis must be a well-defined expression, as described in section 3.9.3. For example:

```
*+XA4 [7]
```

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 '"10'           ; 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 above to have a value of 2. The first statement loads the value 51 into register ACC. The second statement puts the value 27 into register ACC.

```
MOV AL, #LAB1 + ((4+3) * 7), ; ACC = 51
MOV AL, #LAB1 + 4 + (3*7),  ; ACC = 27
```

☐ Example 2

All of the following statements are valid.

```
MOV @(extern_1 - 10), AL      ; Legal
MOV @(10-extern_1), AL       ; Legal
MOV @(-(intern_1)), AL       ; Legal
MOV @(extern_1/10), AL        ; / not an additive operator
MOV @(intern_1 + extern_1), ACC ; 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.

```
MOV (intern_1 - intern_2 + extern_1), ACC ; Legal
MOV (intern_1 + intern_2 + extern_1), ACC ; 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_1.

```
MOV (intern_1 + extern_1 - intern_2), ACC ; Illegal
```

3.10 Built-In Functions

The assembler supports many built-in mathematical functions. The built-in functions always return a value and they can be used in conditional assembly or any place where a constant can be used.

In the following table, x , y and z are type float, n is an int. The functions `$cvi`, `$int` and `$sgn` return an integer and all other functions return a float. Angles for trigonometric functions are expressed in radians.

Table 3–2. Built-In Mathematical Functions

Function	Description
<code>\$acos(x)</code>	Returns $\cos^{-1}(x)$ in range $[0, \pi]$, $x \in [-1, 1]$
<code>\$asin(x)</code>	Returns $\sin^{-1}(x)$ in range $[-\pi/2, \pi/2]$, $x \in [-1, 1]$
<code>\$atan(x)</code>	Returns $\tan^{-1}(x)$ in range $[-\pi/2, \pi/2]$
<code>\$atan2(x,y)</code>	Returns $\tan^{-1}(y/x)$ in range $[-\pi, \pi]$
<code>\$ceil(x)</code>	Returns the smallest integer not less than x , as a float.
<code>\$cos(x)</code>	Returns the cosine of x
<code>\$cosh(x)</code>	Returns the hyperbolic cosine of x
<code>\$cvf(n)</code>	Converts an integer to a float
<code>\$cvi(x)</code>	Converts a float to an integer. Returns an integer.
<code>\$exp(x)</code>	Returns the exponential function e^x
<code>\$fabs(x)</code>	Returns the absolute value $ x $
<code>\$floor(x)</code>	Returns the largest integer not greater than x , as a float.
<code>\$fmod(x, y)</code>	Returns the floating-point remainder of x/y , with the same sign as x
<code>\$int(x)</code>	Returns 1 if x has an integer value; else returns 0. Returns an integer.
<code>\$ldexp(x,n)</code>	Multiplies x by an integer power of 2. That is, $x \times 2^n$
<code>\$log(x)</code>	Returns the natural logarithm $\ln(x)$, where $x > 0$
<code>\$log10(x)</code>	Returns the base-10 logarithm $\log_{10}(x)$, $x > 0$
<code>\$max(x, y, ... z)</code>	Returns the greatest value from the argument list
<code>\$min(x, y, ... z)</code>	Returns the smallest value from the argument list

Table 3–2. Built-In Mathematical Functions (Continued)

Function	Description
\$pow (<i>x</i> , <i>y</i>)	Returns x^y
\$round (<i>x</i>)	Returns <i>x</i> rounded to the nearest integer
\$sgn (<i>x</i>)	Returns the sign of <i>x</i> . Returns 1 if <i>x</i> is positive, 0 if <i>x</i> is zero, and –1 if <i>x</i> is negative. Returns an integer.
\$sin (<i>x</i>)	Returns the sine of <i>x</i>
\$sinh (<i>x</i>)	Returns the hyperbolic sine of <i>x</i>
\$sqrt (<i>x</i>)	Returns the square root of <i>x</i> , $x \geq 0$
\$tan (<i>x</i>)	Returns the tangent of <i>x</i>
\$tanh (<i>x</i>)	Returns the hyperbolic tangent of <i>x</i>
\$trunc (<i>x</i>)	Returns <i>x</i> truncated toward 0

The built-in substitution symbol functions are discussed in the section 5.3.2 on page 5-8.

3.11 Source Listings

A source listing shows source statements and the object code they produce. To obtain a listing file, invoke the assembler with the `-l` (lowercase L) option (see page 3-5).

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. Example 3-4 shows these items 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.

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 illustrated below:

!	undefined external reference
'	.text relocatable
+	.sect relocatable
"	.data relocatable
–	.bss, .usect relocatable
%	relocation expression

Field 4: Source statement field

This field contains the characters of the source statement as they were scanned by the assembler. Spacing in this field is determined by the spacing in the source statement.

Example 3–4. Portion of an Assembler Listing

```

1          add1    .macro  S1, S2, S3, S4
2
3              MOV    AL, S1
4              ADD    AL, S2
5              ADD    AL, S3
6              ADD    AL, S4
7              .endm
8
9              .global c1, c2, c3, c4
10             .global _main
11
12             0001  c1      .set    1
13             0002  c2      .set    2
14             0003  c3      .set    3
15             0004  c4      .set    4
16
17 000000      _main:
18 000000      add1    #c1, #c2, #c3, #c4
1
1          000000 9A01      MOV    AL, #c1
1          000001 9C02      ADD    AL, #c2
1          000002 9C03      ADD    AL, #c3
1          000003 9C04      ADD    AL, #c4
19
20             .end

```

Field 1 Field 2 Field 3

Field 4

3.12 Debugging Assembly Source

When you invoke `cl2000 -v28` with `-g` when compiling 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 `.asmfunc` and `.endasmfunc` 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 (see page 4-25) 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 page 4-46).

Example 3–5 shows the `cvar.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 and 5 is added to `svar`'s second data member.

Example 3–5. Viewing Assembly Variables as C Types

(a) C Program `cvar.c`

```
typedef struct
{
    int m1;
    int m2;
} X;

X svar = { 1, 2 };
```


*Example 3–5. Viewing Assembly Variables as C Types (Continued)**(b) Assembly Program addfive.asm*

```

;-----
; Tell the assembler we're referencing variable "_svar", which is defined in
; another file (cvars.c).
;-----
        .ref _svar

;-----
; addfive() - Add five to the second data member of _svar
;-----
        .text
        .global addfive
addfive: .asmfunc
        MOVZ     DP,#_svar+1    ; load the DP with svar's memory page
        ADD      @_svar+1,#5    ; add 5 to svar.m2
        LRETR                      ; return from function
        .endasmfunc

```

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

```
cl2000 -v28 -g cvars.c addfive.asm -z -l=lnk.cmd -l=rts2800.lib -o=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.

3.13 Cross-Reference Listings

A cross-reference listing shows symbols and their definitions. To obtain a cross-reference listing, invoke the assembler with the `-x` option (see page 3-5) or use the `.option` directive (see page 4-65). The assembler appends the cross-reference to the end of the source listing.

Example 3–6. An Assembler Cross-Reference Listing

LABEL	VALUE	DEFN	REF
.TMS320C2800	00000001	0	
_func	00000000'	18	
var1	00000000–	4	17
var2	00000004–	5	18

A cross-reference listing contains the following columns:

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 3–3 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 3–3. 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

3.14 Smart Encoding

To improve efficiency, the assembler reduces instruction size whenever possible. For example, a branch instruction of two words can be changed to a short branch one-word instruction if the offset is 8 bits. Table 3–4 lists the instruction to be changed and the change that occurs.

Table 3–4. Smart Encoding for Efficiency

This Instruction...	Is encoded as...
MOV AX, #8Bit	MOVB AX, #8Bit
ADD AX, #8BitSigned	ADDB AX, #8BitSigned
CMP AX, #8Bit	CMPB AX, #8Bit
ADD ACC, #8Bit	ADDB ACC, #8Bit
SUB ACC, #8Bit	SUBB ACC, #8Bit
AND AX, #8BitMask	ANDB AX, #8BitMask
OR AX, #8BitMask	ORB AX, #8BitMask
XOR AX, #8BitMask	XORB AX, #8BitMask
B 8BitOffset, cond	SB 8BitOffset, cond
LB 8BitOffset, cond	SB 8BitOffset, cond
MOVH loc, ACC << 0	MOV loc, AH
MOV loc, ACC << 0	MOV loc, AL
MOVL XARn, #8Bit	MOVB XARn, #8Bit

The assembler also intuitively changes instruction formats during smart encoding. For example, to push the accumulator value to the stack, you use `MOV *SP++, ACC`. Since it would be intuitive to use `PUSH ACC` for this operation, the assembler accepts `PUSH ACC` and through smart encoding, changes it to `MOV *SP++, ACC`. Table 3–5 shows a list of instructions recognized during intuitive smart encoding and what the instruction is changed to.

Table 3–5. Smart Encoding Intuitively

This instruction...	Is encoded as...
MOV P, #0	MPY P, T, #0
SUB loc, #16BitSigned	ADD loc, #- 16BitSigned
ADDB SP, #-7Bit	SUBB SP, #7Bit
ADDB aux, #-7Bit	SUBB aux, #7Bit
SUBB AX, #8BitSigned	ADDB AX, #-8BitSigned
PUSH IER	MOV *SP++, IER
POP IER	MOV IER, *--SP
PUSH ACC	MOV *SP++, ACC
POP ACC	MOV ACC, *--SP
PUSH XAR _n	MOV *SP++, XAR _n
POP XAR _n	MOV XAR _n , *--SP
PUSH #16Bit	MOV *SP++, #16Bit
MPY ACC, T, #8Bit	MPYB ACC, T, #8Bit

In some cases, you might want a 2-word instruction even when there is an equivalent 1-word instruction available. In such cases, smart encoding for efficiency could be a problem. Therefore, the following equivalent instructions are provided; these instructions will not be optimized.

Table 3–6. Instructions That Avoid Smart Encoding

This instruction...	Is encoded as...
MOVW AX, #8Bit	MOV AX, #8Bit
ADDW AX, #8Bit	ADD AX, #8Bit
CMPW AX, #8Bit	CMP AX, #8Bit
ADDW ACC, #8Bit	ADD ACC, #8Bit
SUBW ACC, #8Bit	SUB ACC, #8Bit
JMP 8BitOffset, cond	B 8BitOffset, cond

3.15 C-Type Symbolic Debugging for Assembly Variables (-mg option)

When you assemble with the -mg option, the assembler produces the debug information for assembly source debug. The assembler outputs C-type symbolic debugging information for symbols defined in assembly source code using the data directives. This support is for basic C types, structures and arrays. You have the ability to inform the assembler how to interpret an assembly label as a C variable with basic type information.

The assembly data directives have been modified to produce debug information when using -mg in these ways:

- ❑ **Data directives for initialized data.** The assembler outputs debugging information for data initialized with the .byte, .field, .float, .int, or .long directive. For the following, the assembler emits debug information to interpret `int_sym` as a C integer:

```
int_sym    .int    10h
```

More than one initial value is interpreted as an array of the type designated by the directive. This example is interpreted as an integer array of four and the appropriate debug information is produced:

```
int_sym    .int    10h, 11h, 12h, 13h
```

For symbolic information to be produced, you must have a label designated with the data directive. Compare the first and second lines of code shown below:

```
int_sym    .int    10h
           .int    11h --> Will not have debug info.
```

- ❑ **Data directives for uninitialized data.** The .bss and .usect directives accept a type designation as an optional fifth operand. This type operand is used to produce the appropriate debug information for the symbol defined using the .bss directive. For example, the following generates similar debug information as the initialized data directive shown above:

```
.bss      int_sym,1,1,0,int
```

The type operand can be one of the following. If a type is not specified no debug information is produced.

CHAR	INT	SCHAR	UINT
DOUBLE	LDOUBLE	SHORT	ULONG
FLOAT	LONG	UCHAR	USHORT

In the following example, the parameter `int_sym` is treated as an array of four integers:

```
.bss      int_sym,4,1,0,int
```

The size specified must be a multiple of the type specified. If no type operand is specified no warning is issued. The following code will generate a warning since 3 is not a multiple of the size of a long.

```
.bss    double_sym, 3,1,0,long
```

- ❑ **Debug information for assembly structures.** The assembler also outputs symbolic information on structures defined in assembly. Here is an example of a structure:

```
structlab    .struct
mem1         .int
mem2         .int
struct_len   .endstruct

struct1      .tag structlab

.bss struct1, 2, 1, 0, structlab
```

For the structure example, debug information is produced to treat struct1 as the C structure:

```
struct struct1{
    int mem1;
    int mem2;
};
```

The assembler outputs arrays of structures if the size specified by the .bss directive is a multiple of the size of struct type. As with uninitialized data directives, if the size specified is not a multiple of the structure size, a warning is generated. This example properly accounts for alignment constraints imposed by the member types:

```
.bss struct1,struct_len * 3, 1, 0, structlab
```

3.16 TMS320C28x Assembler Modes

The TMS320C28x processor is object code compatible with the TMS320C27x processor and source code compatible with the TMS320C2xx (C2xlp) processor. The C28x assembler operates in four different modes to support backward compatibility with C27x and C2xlp processors. These four modes are controlled by the options as follows:

<code>-v27</code>	C27x object mode
<code>-v28</code>	C28x object mode
<code>-v28 -m27</code>	C28x object mode – Accept C27x Syntax Mode
<code>-v28 -m20</code>	C28x object mode – Accept C2xlp Syntax Mode

The options `-m27` and `-m20` imply `-v28` and hence `-v28` need not be specified with these options.

When multiple versions are specified, the assembler uses the first version specified and ignores the rest. For example the command `'asm2000 -v28 -v27'` invokes the assembler in the C28x object mode and the assembler ignores the `-v27` switch. Also the assembler issues the following warning:

```
>> Version already specified. -v27 is ignored
```

Since `-m27` and `-m20` imply the version `-v28` the command `'asm2000 -m20 -v27'` is equivalent to `'asm2000 -v28 -m20 -v27'` and hence the assembler generates the above warning and ignores the `-v27` switch.

The `-m27` and `-m20` switches cannot be combined. The command `'asm2000 -m20 -m27'` generates the following warning:

```
>> Target option -m27 cannot be combined with -m20; -m27 is ignored
```

Refer to the TMS320C28x *CPU and Instruction Set Reference Guide* for more details on different object modes and addressing modes supported by the C28x processor.

3.16.1 C27x Object Mode

This mode is used to port C27x code to the C28x and run the C28x processor in C27x object mode. The C28x assembler in this mode is essentially the C27x assembler that supports the following non-C27x instructions. These instructions are used for changing the processor object mode and addressing modes. Refer to the TMS320C28x *CPU and Instruction Set Reference Guide* for more details on these instructions.

Table 3–7. Non-TMS320C27x Instructions Supported in the C27x Object Mode

Instructions		Description
SETC	OBJMODE	Set the OBJMODE bit in the status register. The processor runs in the C28x object mode.
CLRC	OBJMODE	Clear the OBJMODE bit in the status register. The processor runs in the C27x object mode.
C28OBJ		Same as SETC OBJMODE
C27OBJ		Same as CLRC OBJMODE
SETC	AMODE	Set the AMODE bit in the status register. The processor supports C2xlp addressing.
CLRC	AMODE	Clear the AMODE bit in the status register. The C28x processor supports C28x addressing.
LPADDR		Same as SETC AMODE
C28ADDR		Same as CLRC AMODE
SETC	MOM1MAP	Set the MOM1MAP bit in the status register.
CLRC	MOM1MAP	Clear the MOM1MAP bit in the status register.
SETC	CNF	Set the CNF bit (C2xlp mapping mode bit) in the status register.
CLRC	CNF	Clear the CNF bit (C2xlp mapping mode bit) in the status register.
SETC	XF	Set the XF bit in the status register.
CLRC	XF	Clear the XF bit in the status register.

When operated in this mode, the C28x assembler generates an error if non-C27x compatible syntax or instructions are used. For example the following instructions are illegal in this mode:

```
FLIP    AL          ; C28x instruction not supported in C27x.
MOV     AL, *XAR0++ ; *XAR0++ is illegal addressing for C27x.
```

3.16.2 C28x Object Mode

This mode supports all the C28x instructions and generates C28x object code. New users of the C28x processor should use the assembler in this mode. This mode generates an error if old C27x syntax is used. For example, the following instructions are illegal in this mode:

```
MOV     AL, *AR0++ ; *AR0++ is illegal addressing for C28x.
```


3.16.3 C28x Object – Accept C27x Syntax Mode

This mode supports all the C28x instructions and also supports the C27x instruction and addressing syntax. This mode generates C28x object code. For example, this mode will accept the instruction syntax 'MOV AL, *AR0++' and encode it as 'MOV AL, *XAR0++'. Though this mode accepts C27x syntax, the assembler generates warning if C27x syntax is used to encourage the user to change the C27x syntax to C28x syntax. The instruction MOV AL, *AR0+ generates the following warning:

```
WARNING! at line 1: [W0000] Full XAR register is modified
```

3.16.4 C28x Object – Accept C2xlp Syntax Mode

This mode supports all the C28x instructions and generates C28x object code but also supports C2xlp instruction syntax.

The C28x processor includes features and instructions that make the processor as backward compatible to the C2xlp processor as possible. In order to make the C28x processor source code compatible with C2xlp, the assembler accepts C2xlp instructions and encodes them as equivalent C28x instructions.

Refer to the *TMS320C2xx User's Guide* for more information about C2xlp instructions.

The C27x syntax is not supported in this mode and generates an error. Also any incompatible C2xlp instructions cause the assembler to generate an error. For example, the following instructions are illegal in this mode:

```
MOV    AL, *AR0++      ; *AR0++ is illegal addressing for C28x.
TRAP                               ; Incompatible C2XLP instruction.
```

This mode assumes LP addressing mode compatibility (AMODE = 1) and a data page of 128-words. Refer to the *TMS320C28x CPU and Instruction Set Reference Guide* for more details.

In this mode, C28x and C2xlp source code can be freely intermixed within a file as shown below.

```
    ; C2xlp Source Code
    LDP    #VarA
    LACL   VarA
    LAR    AR0, *+, AR2
    SACL   *+
    .
    .
    LC     FuncA
    .
    .
; C28x Source Code using LP Addressing (AMODE = 1)
FuncA:
    MOV    DP, #VarB
    MOV    AL, @@VarB
    MOVL   XAR0, *XAR0++
    MOV    *XAR2++, AL
    LRET
```

When the C28x assembler is invoked with `-mw` switch, it performs additional checking for the following cases:

- ❑ The C1x/C2x/C2xx/C5x assembler accepts numbers with leading zero as decimal integers, that is 010 is treated as 10 and not as 8. The C28x assembler treats constants with leading zeros as octal numbers. There may be C2xlp assembly code that contains decimal numbers with leading zeros. When these files are assembled with the C28x assembler the results will not be what you expect as the C28x assembler treats such constants as octal numbers. So the assembler when invoked with `-m20 -mw`, checks for such numbers and issues a warning that the constant is parsed as an octal number.

For example, consider the following listing produced using the `-m20 -mw` options:

```
1 00000000 FF20          lacc    #023
"octal.asm", WARNING! at line 1: [W0000] Constant parsed as an octal number
00000001 0013
```

- The C1x/C2x/C2xx/C5 assembler uses a different order of operator precedence expression. In the C1x/C2x/C2xx/C5 assembler, the shift operators (<< and >>) have higher precedence than the binary + and – operators. The C28x assembler follows the order of precedence of C language where the above mentioned sequence is reversed. The C28x assembler issues a warning about the precedence used if the following are true:

- The –m20 –mw options are specified.
- The source code contains any expression involving binary additive operators (+ and –) and the shift operators (<< and >>).
- The precedence is not forced by parentheses. For example, consider the following listing produced using the –m20 –mw options:

```

1 00000000 FF20          lacc #(3 + 4 << 2)          ; Warning generated
"pre.asm", WARNING! at line 1: [W9999] The binary + and - operators have higher
precedence than the shift operators
00000001 001C
2 00000002 FF20          lacc #((3 + 4) << 2)        ; NO warning
00000003 001C
```

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 (sections 4.1 through 4.11) describes the directives according to function, and the second part (section 4.12) is an alphabetical reference.

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4.1 Directives Summary	4-2
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4.1 Directives Summary

In addition to the assembler directives documented here, the TMS320C28x™ software tools support the following directives:

- ❑ **Macro directives.** The assembler uses several directives for macros. Macro directives are discussed in Chapter 5, *Macro Language*; they are not discussed in this chapter.
- ❑ **Symbolic debugging directives.** The C/C++ compiler uses directives for symbolic debugging. Unlike other directives, symbolic debugging directives are not used in most assembly language programs. Appendix B, *Symbolic Debugging Directives*, discusses these directives; they are not discussed in this chapter.

Note: Labels and Comments in Syntax

Any source statement that contains a directive can also contain a label and a comment. Labels begin in the first column (they are the only elements, except for comments, that can appear in the first column). 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.

Table 4–1 summarizes the assembler directives.

Table 4–1. Assembler Directives Summary

(a) Directives that define sections

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	Page
.bes	Reserves a specified number of bits in the current section	4-71
.bss <i>symbol, size in words</i> [, <i>blocking</i>] [, <i>alignment</i>]	Reserves <i>size</i> words in the .bss (uninitialized data) section	4-27
.data	Assembles into the .data (initialized data) section	4-36
.sect "section name"	Assembles into a named (initialized) section	4-69
.text	Assembles into the .text (executable code) section	4-78
<i>symbol</i> .usect "section name", <i>size in words</i> [, <i>blocking</i>] [, <i>alignment flag</i>]	Reserves <i>size</i> words in a named (uninitialized) section	4-80
.sblock	Designates section for blocking	4-69

Table 4–1. Assembler Directives Summary (Continued)

(b) Directives that initialize constants (data and memory)

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	Page
.byte <i>value</i> ₁ [, ... , <i>value</i> _{<i>n</i>}]	Initializes one or more successive bytes in the current section	4-30
.field <i>value</i> [, <i>size</i>]	Initializes a field of <i>size</i> bits (1–32) with <i>value</i>	4-42
.float <i>value</i> ₁ [, ... , <i>value</i> _{<i>n</i>}]	Initializes one or more 32-bit IEEE single-precision floating-point constants	4-45
.int <i>value</i> ₁ [, ... , <i>value</i> _{<i>n</i>}]	Initializes one or more 16-bit integers	4-51
.long <i>value</i> ₁ [, ... , <i>value</i> _{<i>n</i>}]	Initializes one or more 32-bit integers	4-56
.pstring	Places 8-bit characters from a character string into the current section	4-73
.space <i>size</i>	Reserves <i>size</i> bits in the current section; a label points to the beginning of the reserved space	4-71
.string { <i>expr</i> ₁ "string ₁ "}, ..., { <i>expr</i> _{<i>n</i>} "string _{<i>n</i>} "}	Initializes one or more text strings	4-73
.word <i>value</i> ₁ [, ... , <i>value</i> _{<i>n</i>}]	Initializes one or more 16-bit integers	4-51
.xfloat	Places the floating-point representation of one or more floating-point constants into the current section	4-45
.xlong	Places one or more 32-bit values into consecutive words in the current section	4-56

(c) Directive that aligns the section program counter (SPC)

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	Page
.align [<i>size in words</i>]	Aligns the SPC on a boundary specified by <i>size in words</i> , which must be a power of 2; defaults to a 64-word page boundary	4-22

Table 4–1. Assembler Directives Summary (Continued)

(d) Directives that format the output listing

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	Page
.drlist	Enables listing of all directive lines (default)	4-37
.drnolist	Suppresses listing of certain directive lines	4-37
.fclist	Allows false conditional code block listing (default)	4-41
.fcnolist	Suppresses false conditional code block listing	4-41
.length <i>page length</i>	Sets the page length of the source listing	4-53
.list	Restarts the source listing	4-54
.mlist	Allows macro listings and loop blocks (default)	4-61
.mnolist	Suppresses macro listings and loop blocks	4-61
.nolist	Stops the source listing	4-54
.option <i>option</i> ₁ [, <i>option</i> ₂ , ...]	Selects output listing options; available options are B, L, M, R, T, W, and X	4-65
.page	Ejects a page in the source listing	4-67
.sslist	Allows expanded substitution symbol listing	4-72
.ssnolist	Suppresses expanded substitution symbol listing (default)	4-72
.tab <i>size</i>	Sets tab size	4-77
.title " <i>string</i> "	Prints a title in the listing page heading	4-79
.width <i>page width</i>	Sets the page width of the source listing to <i>page width</i>	4-53

Table 4–1. Assembler Directives Summary (Continued)

(e) Directives that reference other files

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	Page
.copy ["filename"]	Includes source statements from another file	4-33
.def <i>symbol</i> ₁ [, ... , <i>symbol</i> _{<i>n</i>}]	Identifies one or more symbols that are defined in the current module and that can be used in other modules	4-46
.global <i>symbol</i> ₁ [, ... , <i>symbol</i> _{<i>n</i>}]	Identifies one or more global (external) symbols	4-46
.include ["filename"]	Includes source statements from another file	4-33
.mlib ["filename"]	Defines macro library	4-59
.ref <i>symbol</i> ₁ [, ... , <i>symbol</i> _{<i>n</i>}]	Identifies one or more symbols used in the current module that are defined in another module	4-46

(f) Directives that control conditional assembly

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	Page
.break [<i>well-defined expression</i>]	Ends .loop assembly if <i>well-defined expression</i> is true. When using the .loop construct, the .break construct is optional.	4-57
.else	Assembles code block if the .if <i>well-defined expression</i> is false. When using the .if construct, the .else construct is optional.	4-49
.elseif <i>well-defined expression</i>	Assembles code block if the .if <i>well-defined expression</i> is false and the .elseif condition is true. When using the .if construct, the .elseif construct is optional.	4-49
.endif	Ends .if code block	4-49
.endloop	Ends .loop code block	4-57
.if <i>well-defined expression</i>	Assembles code block if the <i>well-defined expression</i> is true	4-49
.loop [<i>well-defined expression</i>]	Begins repeatable assembly of a code block; the loop count is determined by the <i>well-defined expression</i> .	4-57

Table 4–1. Assembler Directives Summary (Continued)

(g) Directives that define symbols at assembly time

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	Page
.asg [" <i>character string</i> "], <i>substitution symbol</i>	Assigns a character string to <i>substitution symbol</i>	4-23
.endstruct	Ends structure definition	4-74
.eval <i>well-defined expression</i> , <i>substitution symbol</i>	Performs arithmetic on numeric <i>substitution symbol</i>	4-23
.label <i>symbol</i>	Defines a load-time relocatable label in a section	4-52
<i>symbol</i> .set <i>value</i>	Equates <i>value</i> with <i>symbol</i>	4-70
.struct	Begins structure definition	4-74
.tag	Assigns structure attributes to a label	4-74

(h) Assembly mode override directives

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	Page
.c28_amode	Begin assembling in C28x object mode.	4-31
.lp_amode	Begin assembling in C28x object mode -- accept C2xLP	4-31

(i) Miscellaneous directives

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	Page
.asmfunc	Identify the beginning of a block of code that contains a function	4-25
.clink [" <i>section name</i> "]	Enables conditional linking for the current or specified section.	4-32
.emsg <i>string</i>	Sends user-defined error messages to the output device; produces no .obj file	4-38
.end	Ends program	4-40
.endasmfunc	Identify the end of a block of code that contains a function	4-25
.mmsg <i>string</i>	Sends user-defined messages to the output device	4-38
.newblock	Undefines local labels	4-64
.wmsg <i>string</i>	Sends user-defined warning messages to the output device	4-38

4.2 Compatibility With the TMS320C1x/C2x/C2xx/C5x Assembler Directives

This section explains how the TMS320C28x assembler directives differ from the TMS320C1x/C2x/C2xx/C5x assembler directives.

- ❑ The C28x `.long` and `.float` directives automatically align the SPC on an even word boundary, while the C1x/C2x/C2xx/C5x assembler directives do not.
- ❑ Without arguments, the `.align` directive for the C28x and the C1x/C2x/C2xx/C5x assemblers both align the SPC at the next page boundary. However, the C28x `.align` directive also accepts a constant argument, which must be a power of 2, and this argument causes alignment of the SPC on that word boundary. The `.align` directive for the C1x/C2x/C2xx/C5x assembler does not accept this argument.
- ❑ The `.field` directive for the C28x handles values of 1 to 32 bits, while the C1x/C2x/C2xx/C5x assembler handles values of 1 to 16 bits. With the C28x assembler, objects that are 16 bits or larger start on a word boundary and are placed with the least significant bits at the lower address.
- ❑ The C28x `.bss` and `.usect` directives have an additional flag called the *alignment flag*, which specifies alignment on an even word boundary. The C1x/C2x/C2xx/C5x `.bss` and `.usect` directives do not use this flag.
- ❑ The `.string` directive for the C28x initializes one character per word; the C1x/C2x/C2xx/C5x assembler directive `.string`, packs two characters per word. The C28x `.pstring` directive packs two characters per word.
- ❑ The following directives are new with the C28x assembler and are not supported by the C1x/C2x/C2xx/C5x assembler:

Directive	Usage
<code>.xfloat</code>	Same as <code>.float</code> without automatic alignment
<code>.xlong</code>	Same as <code>.long</code> without automatic alignment
<code>.pstring</code>	Same as <code>.string</code> , but packs two characters/word

- ❑ The `.mmregs` and `.port` directives are supported by the C1x/C2x/C2xx/C5x assembler. The C28x assembler when invoked with the `-m20` option, ignores these directives and issues a warning that the directives are ignored. The C28x assembler does not accept these directives.

4.3 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 **.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, *Introduction to Common Object File Format*, discusses COFF sections in detail.

Example 4–1 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 4–1 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 words.
xy	reserves 20 words.

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 4–1. Sections Directives

```

1          *****
2          *      Start assembling into the .text section      *
3          *****
4 000000          .text
5 000000 0001          .word   1, 2
   000001 0002
6 000002 0003          .word   3, 4
   000003 0004
7
8          *****
9          *      Start assembling into the .data section      *
10         *****
11 000000          .data
12 000000 0009          .word   9, 10
   000001 000A
13 000002 000B          .word  11, 12
   000003 000C
14
15         *****
16         *      Start assembling into a named,              *
17         *      initialized section, var_defs                *
18         *****
19 000000          .sect   "var_defs"
20 000000 0011          .word  17, 18
   000001 0012
21
22         *****
23         *      Resume assembling into the .data section    *
24         *****
25 000004          .data
26 000004 000D          .word  13, 14
   000005 000E
27 000000          .bss    sym, 19      ; Reserve space in .bss
28 000006 000F          .word  15, 16      ; Still in .data
   000007 0010
29
30         *****
31         *      Resume assembling into the .text section    *
32         *****
33 000004          .text
34 000004 0005          .word   5, 6
   000005 0006
35 000000          usym    .usect "xy", 20      ; Reserve space in xy
36 000006 0007          .word   7, 8          ; Still in .text
   000007 0008

```

4.4 Directives That Initialize Constants

Several directives assemble values for the current section:

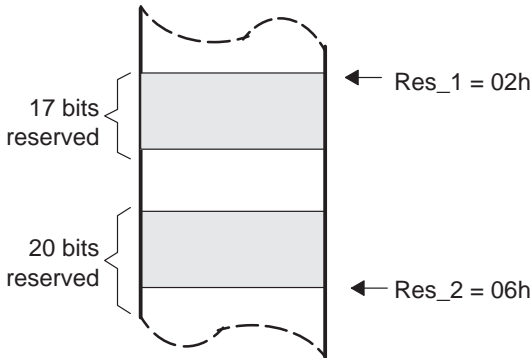
- ❑ The **.bes** and **.space** directives reserve a specified number of bits in the current section. The assembler fills these reserved bits with 0s.
You can reserve a specified number of bits by multiplying the number of words by 16.
- When you use a label with **.space**, it points to the *first* word that contains reserved bits.
- When you use a label with **.bes**, it points to the *last* word that contains reserved bits.

Figure 4–1 shows how the **.space** and **.bes** directives reserve space. Assume the following code has been assembled for this example:

```
1          ** .space and .bes directives
2
3 000000 0100          .word  100h, 200h
   000001 0200
4 000002          Res_1 .space  17
5 000004 000F          .word  15
6 000006          Res_2 .bes   20
7 000007 00BA          .byte  0BAh
```

Res_1 points to the first word in the space reserved by **.space**. Res_2 points to the last word in the space reserved by **.bes**.

Figure 4–1. The **.space** and **.bes** Directives



- ❑ The **.byte** and **.char** directives place one or more 8-bit values into consecutive words of the current section. This directive is similar to **.word**, except that the width of each value is restricted to eight bits.
- ❑ 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.

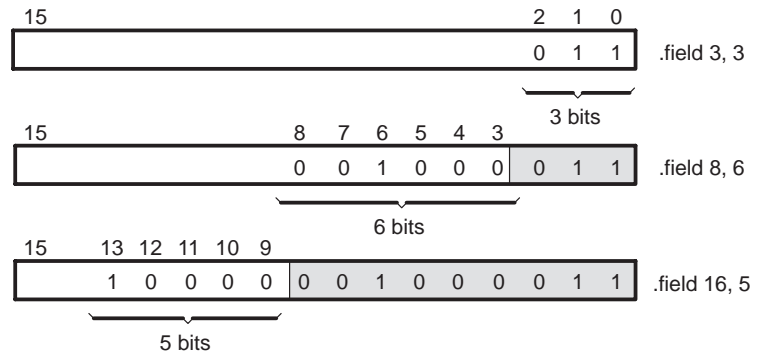
Figure 4–2 shows how fields are packed into a word. For this example, assume the following code has been assembled; notice that the SPC does not change (the fields are packed into the same word):

```

1 000000 0003      .field 3, 3
2 000000 0008      .field 8, 6
3 000000 0010      .field 16, 5

```

Figure 4–2. The `.field` Directive



- ❑ The **.float** and **.xfloat** directives calculate 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.
- ❑ The **.int**, and **.word** directives place one or more 16-bit values into consecutive 16-bit fields in the current section.
- ❑ The **.long** and **.xlong** directives place one or more 32-bit values into consecutive 32-bit fields in the current section.
- ❑ The **.string** and **.xstring** directives place 8-bit characters from one or more character strings into the current section one character per word. This directive is similar to `.byte`.

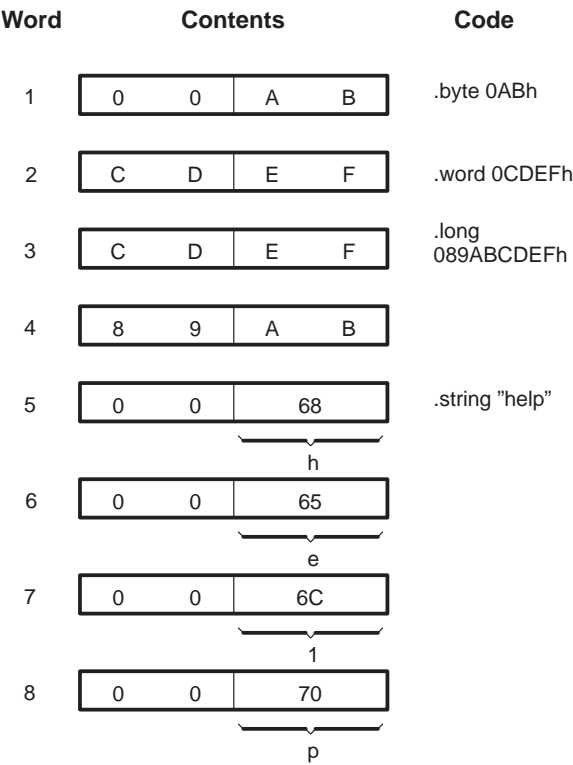
Note: Directives That Initialize Constants When Used in a `.struct/.endstruct` Sequence

The `.byte`, `.int`, `.long`, `.word`, `.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 about the `.struct/.endstruct` directives, see page 4-74.

Figure 4–3 compares the .byte, .word, and .string directives. For this example, assume the following code has been assembled:

```
1 000000 00AB      .byte  0ABh
2 000001 CDEF      .word  0CDEFh
3 000002 CDEF      .long  089ABCDEFh
  000003 89AB
4 000004 0068      .string "help"
  000005 0065
  000006 006C
  000007 0070
```

Figure 4–3. Initialization Directives



4.5 Directive That Aligns the Section Program Counter

The **.align** directive aligns the SPC to the specified word boundary. This ensures that the code following the directive begins on that boundary. 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 1 and 65 536. For example:

Operand of 1 aligns SPC to word boundary
 2 aligns SPC to long word/even boundary
 64 aligns SPC to page boundary

The **.align** directive with no operands defaults to 64, that is, to a page boundary.

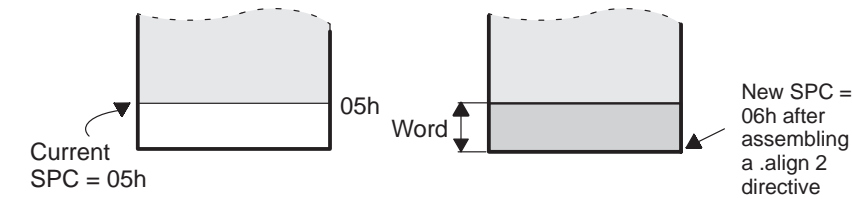
Figure 4–4 demonstrates the **.align** directive. Assume that the following code has been assembled:

```

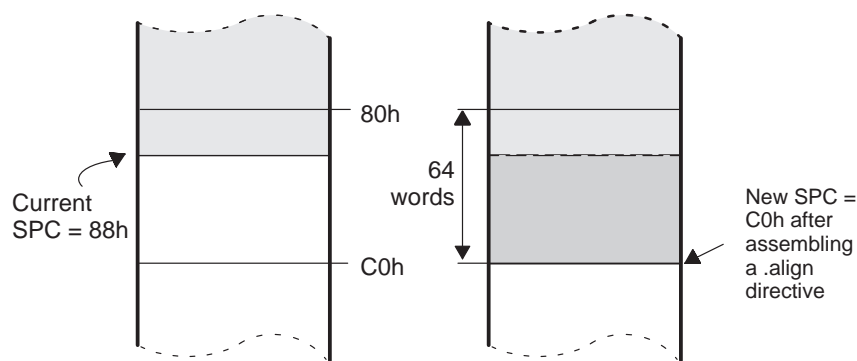
1 000000 0002      .field  2,3
2 000000 005A      .field  11,8
3                  .align  2
4 000002 0065      .string "errorcnt"
   000003 0072
   000004 0072
   000005 006F
   000006 0072
   000007 0063
   000008 006E
   000009 0074
5                  .align
6 000040 0004      .byte   4
```

Figure 4–4. The .align Directive

(a) Result of .align 2



(b) Result of .align without an argument



4.6 Directives That Format the Output Listing

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.

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

You can use the **.drlist** directive to turn the listing on again.

- ❑ 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 the listing of all directives, data, and subsequent expansions, macros, and blocks
B	limits the listing of the .byte directive to one line.
D	turns off the listing of certain directives (performs a .drnolist)
L	limits the listing of .long directives to one line.
M	turns off macro expansions in the listing.
N	turns off listing (performs a .nolist)
O	turns on listing (performs a .list)
R	resets the B , L , M , T , and W directives (turns off the limits of B , L , 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 `-x` option (see page 3-5).

- ☐ 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.

4.7 Directives That Reference Other Files

These directives supply information for or about other files:

- ❑ 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, *External Symbols*, on page 2-18.) 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 **.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 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.

4.8 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>well-defined expression</i>	marks the beginning of a conditional block and assembles code if the <i>.if well-defined expression</i> is true.
[.elseif <i>well-defined expression</i>]	marks a block of code to be assembled if the <i>.if well-defined expression</i> is false and the <i>.elseif</i> condition is true.
[.else]	marks a block of code to be assembled if the <i>.if well-defined expression</i> is 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>well-defined expression</i>]	marks the beginning of a repeatable block of code. The optional <i>well-defined expression</i> evaluates to the loop count.
[.break [<i>well-defined expression</i>]]	tells the assembler to continue to repeatedly assemble when the <i>.break well-defined expression</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 3.9.4, *Conditional Expressions*, on page 3-27.

4.9 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 can be redefined.

```
.asg  "10, 20, 30, 40", coefficients

.byte coefficients
```

- ❑ 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, as in the following example:

```
.asg      1 , x
.loop
.byte     x*10h
.break    x = 4
.eval     x+1, x
.endloop
```

- ❑ The **.label** directive defines a special symbol that refers to the load-time address within the current section. This is useful when a section loads at one address but runs at another address. For example, you may want to load a block of performance-critical code into slower off-chip memory to save space and move the code to high-speed on-chip memory to run.
- ❑ The **.set** directive sets a constant value to a symbol. The symbol is stored in the symbol table and cannot be redefined; for example:

```
bval .set 1000h
     .long bval, bval*2, bval+12
     MOV  AL, #bval
```

The **.set** directive produces no object code.

- ❑ The **.struct/.endstruct** directives set up C-like structure definitions, and the **.tag** directive assigns the C-like structure characteristics to a label.

The **.struct/.endstruct** directives allow you to organize your information into structures so that similar elements can be grouped together. Element offset calculation is left up to the assembler. The **.struct/.endstruct** directives do not allocate memory. They simply create a symbolic template that can be used repeatedly.

The `.tag` directive assigns a label to a structure. This simplifies the symbolic representation and also provides the ability to define structures that contain other structures. The `.tag` directive does not allocate memory, and the structure tag (`stag`) must be defined before it is used.

```
COORDT .struct
X      .int
Y      .int
T_LEN  .endstruct

COORD  .tag      COORDT, T_LEN
      ADD      ACC, @COORD.Y

      .bss      COORD
```

4.10 Assembler Mode Override Directives

These directives override the global syntax checking modes discussed in section 3.16, *TMS320C28x Assembler Modes*, on page 3-41. These directives are not valid with the C27x Object Mode (`-v27` option).

- ☐ The `.c28_amode` directive sets the assembler mode to C28x Object Mode (`-v28`). The instructions after this directive are assembled in C28x Object Mode regardless of the option used in the command line.
- ☐ The `.lp_amode` directive sets the assembler mode to C28x Object Mode – Accept C2xlp instruction syntax (`-m20`). The instructions after this directives are assembled as if the `-m20` options is specified on the command line.

4.11 Miscellaneous Directives

These directives enable miscellaneous functions or features:

- ☐ The **.asmfunc** and **.endasmfunc** directives mark function boundaries. These directives are used with the compiler `-gw` option to generate debug information for separate functions.
- ☐ The **.clink** directive sets the `STYP_CLINK` flag in the type field for the named section. The **.clink** directive can be applied to initialized or uninitialized sections. The `STYP_CLINK` flag enables conditional linking by telling the linker to leave the section out of the final COFF output of the linker if there are no references found to any symbol in the section.
- ☐ 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 **.newblock** directive resets local labels. Local labels are symbols of the form `NAME?`, where you specify `NAME`. 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. (For more information, see section 3.8.2, *Local Labels*, on page 3-18.)

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 information about using the error and warning directives in macros, see section 5.7, *Producing Messages in Macros*, on page 5-17.

4.12 Directives Reference

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

.align

Align SPC on the Next Boundary

Syntax

.align [*size in words*]

Description

The **.align** directive aligns the section program counter (SPC) on the next boundary, depending on the *size in words* parameter. The *size* may be any power of 2, although only certain values are useful for alignment. An operand of 64 aligns the SPC on the next page boundary, and this is the default if no *size in words* is given. The assembler assembles words containing NOP up to the next x-word boundary.

- Operand of
- 1

aligns SPC to byte boundary

2

aligns SPC to long word/even boundary

64

aligns SPC to page boundary

Using the `.align` directive has two effects:

- ☐

The assembler aligns the SPC on an x-word 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 4`, and a default `.align`.

```
1 000000 0004      .byte      4
2                  .align      2
3 000002 0045      .string    "Errorcnt"
  000003 0072
  000004 0072
  000005 006F
  000006 0072
  000007 0063
  000008 006E
  000009 0074
4                  .align
5 000040 0003      .field      3,3
6 000040 002B      .field      5,4
7                  .align      2
8 000042 0003      .field      3,3
9                  .align      8
10 000048 0005      .field      5,4
11                  .align
12 000080 0004      .byte      4
```

.asg/.eval*Assign a Substitution Symbol*

Syntax

.asg ["]*character string*["], *substitution symbol*
.eval *well-defined expression*, *substitution symbol*

Description

The **.asg** directive assigns 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 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 *substitution symbol* is a required parameter that must be a valid symbol name. The substitution symbol may be 32 characters long and must begin with a letter. Remaining characters of the symbol can be a combination of alphanumeric characters, underscores, and dollar signs.

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 *well-defined expression* is an alphanumeric expression consisting of legal values that have been previously defined, so that the result is an absolute.

Example

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

```

1                                     .sslist
2                                     .asg   XAR6, FP
3 00000000 0964                      ADD   ACC, #100
4 00000001 7786                      NOP    *FP++
#                                     NOP    *XAR6++
5 00000002 7786                      NOP    *XAR6++
6
7                                     .asg   0, x
8                                     .loop   5
9                                     .eval   x+1, x
10                                    .word   x
11                                    .endloop
1                                     .eval   x+1, x
#                                     .eval   0+1, x
1                                     .word   x
#                                     .word   1
1                                     .eval   x+1, x
#                                     .eval   1+1, x
1                                     .word   x
#                                     .word   2
1                                     .eval   x+1, x
#                                     .eval   2+1, x
1                                     .word   x
#                                     .word   3
1                                     .eval   x+1, x
#                                     .eval   3+1, x
1                                     .word   x
#                                     .word   4
1                                     .eval   x+1, x
#                                     .eval   4+1, x
1                                     .word   x
#                                     .word   5
1                                     .word   5
#
```

**.asmfunc/
.endasmfunc***Mark Function Boundaries*

Syntax

symbol **.asmfunc**
.endasmfunc

Description

The **.asmfunc** and **.endasmfunc** directives mark function boundaries. These directives are used with the compiler `-g` option (`--symdebug:DWARF`) to allow sections assembly code to be debugged in the same manner as C/C++ functions.

You should not use the same directives generated by the compiler (see Appendix B) to accomplish assembly debugging; those directives should be used only by the compiler to generate symbolic debugging information for C/C++ source files.

The `.asmfunc` and `.endasmfunc` directives cannot be used when invoking the compiler with the backwards-compatibility `--symdebug:coff` option. This option instructs the compiler to use the obsolete COFF symbolic debugging format, which does not support these directives.

The *symbol* is a label that must appear in the label field.

Consecutive ranges of assembly code that are not enclosed within a pair of `.asmfunc` and `.endasmfunc` directives are given a default name in the following format:

\$filename:beginning source line:ending source line\$

Example

In this example the assembly source generates debug information for the user_func section.

```
1 00000000          .sect      ".text"
2          .global    userfunc
3          .global    _printf
4
5          userfunc:  .asmfunc
6 00000000 FE02      ADDB     SP,#2
7 00000001 2841+    MOV      *-SP[1],#SL1
8 00000002 0000
9 00000003 7640!    LCR      #_printf
10 00000004 0000
11 00000005 9A00    MOVB     AL,#0
12 00000006 FE82    SUBB     SP,#2
13 00000007 0006    LRETR
14          .endasmfunc
15 00000000          .sect      ".const"
16 00000000 0048    SL1:     .string  "Hello World!",10,0
17 00000001 0065
18 00000002 006C
19 00000003 006C
20 00000004 006F
21 00000005 0020
22 00000006 0057
23 00000007 006F
24 00000008 0072
25 00000009 006C
26 0000000a 0064
27 0000000b 0021
28 0000000c 000A
29 0000000d 0000
```

.bss*Reserve Space in the .bss Section*

Syntax

.bss *symbol*, *size in words*[, *blocking flag*[, *alignment flag*[, *type*]]]

Description

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

- ☐ The *symbol* is a required parameter. It defines a label that points to the first location reserved by the directive. The symbol name should correspond to the variable for which you are reserving space.
- ☐ The *size in words* is a required parameter; it must be an absolute expression. The assembler allocates *size in words* in the .bss section. There is no default size.
- ☐ The *blocking flag* is an optional parameter. If you specify a value greater than 0 for this parameter, the assembler allocates *size in words* contiguously. This means that the allocated space does not cross a page boundary unless its size is greater than a page, in which case the object starts on a page boundary.
- ☐ The *alignment flag* is an optional parameter. This flag causes the assembler to allocate *size in words* on long word boundaries.
- ☐ The *type* is an optional parameter. Designating a *type* causes the assembler to produce the appropriate debug information for the *symbol*. See section 3.15, *C-Type Symbolic Debugging for Assembly Variables (-mg option)*, on page 3-39 for more information.

The assembler follows two rules when it allocates space in the .bss section:

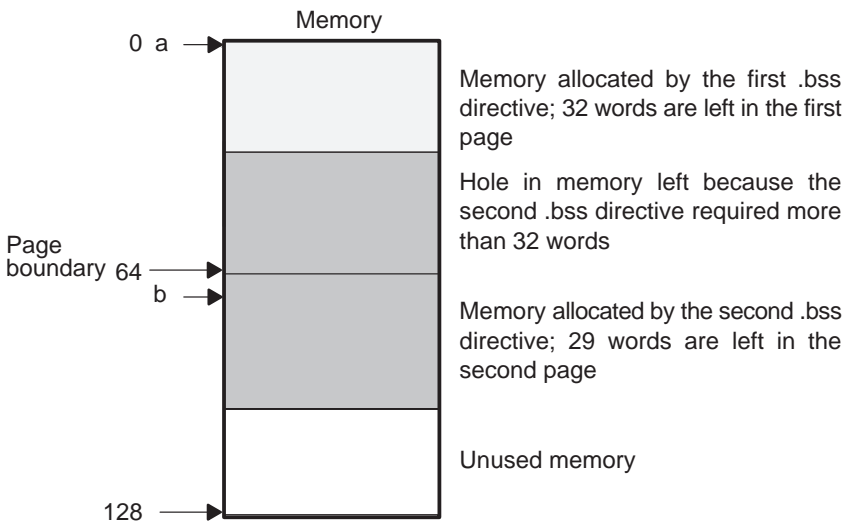
- Rule 1** Whenever a hole is left in memory (as shown in Figure 4–5), the .bss directive attempts to fill it. When a .bss directive is assembled, the assembler searches its list of holes left by previous .bss directives and tries to allocate the current block into one of the holes. (This is the standard procedure regardless of whether the blocking flag has been specified.)
- Rule 2** If the assembler does not find a hole large enough to contain the block, it checks to see whether the blocking option is requested.
- ☐ If you do not request blocking, the memory is allocated at the current SPC.
 - ☐ If you request blocking, the assembler checks to see whether there is enough space between the current SPC and the page boundary. If there is not enough space, the assembler creates another hole and allocates the space on the next page.

The blocking option allows you to reserve up to 64 words in the .bss section and to ensure that they fit on one page of memory. (Of course, you can reserve more than 64 words at a time, but they cannot fit on a single page.) The following example code reserves two blocks of space in the .bss section.

```
memptr:    .bss      A,32,1
memptr1:   .bss      B,35,1
```

Each block must be contained within the boundaries of a single page; after the first block is allocated, however, the second block cannot fit on the current page. As Figure 4–5 shows, the second block is allocated on the next page.

Figure 4–5. Allocating .bss Blocks Within a Page



Section directives for initialized sections (.text, .data, and .sect) end the current section and begin assembling into another section. The .bss directive, however, does not affect the current section. The assembler assembles the .bss directive and then resumes assembling code into the current section. For more information about COFF sections, see Chapter 2, *Introduction to Common Object File Format*.

Example

In this example, the `.bss` directive is used to allocate space for two variables, `TEMP` and `ARRAY`. The symbol `TEMP` points to four words of uninitialized space (at `.bss SPC = 0`). The symbol `ARRAY` points to 100 words of uninitialized space (at `.bss SPC = 040h`); this space must be allocated contiguously within a page. Symbols declared with the `.bss` directive can be referenced in the same manner as other symbols, and they can also be declared external.

```
1          *****
2          ** Start assembling into .text section **
3          *****
4 000000          .text
5 000000 2BAC          MOV      T, #0
6
7          *****
8          ** Allocate 4 words in .bss          **
9          *****
10 000000          .bss      Var_1, 2, 0, 1
11
12          *****
13          ** Still in .text          **
14          *****
15 000001 08AC          ADD      T, #56h
16      000002 0056
17 000003 3573          MPY      ACC, T, #73h
18
19
20
21 000040          .bss      ARRAY, 100, 1
22
23
24
25 000004 F800-          MOV      DP, #Var_1
26 000005 1E00-          MOVL     @Var_1, ACC
27          *****
28          ** Declare external .bss symbol          **
29          *****
30          .global ARRAY
31          .end
```

.byte/.char

Initialize Byte

Syntax

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

Description

The **.byte** and **.char** directives place one or more bytes into consecutive words of the current section. Each byte is placed in a word by itself; the eight MSBs are filled with 0s. A *value* can be either:

- ☐ An expression that the assembler evaluates and treats as an eight-bit signed number
- ☐ A character string enclosed in double quotes. Each character in a string represents a separate value.

Values are not packed or sign-extended; each byte occupies the eight least significant bits of a full 16-bit word. The assembler truncates values greater than eight bits. You can use up to 100 *value* parameters, but the total line length cannot exceed 200 characters.

If you use a label, it points to the location in which the assembler places the first byte.

When you use **.byte** in a **.struct/.endstruct** sequence, **.byte** defines a member's size; it does not initialize memory. For more information about **.struct/.endstruct**, see section 4.9, *Directives That Define Symbols at Assembly Time*, on page 4-19.

Example

In this example, 8-bit values (10, -1, abc, and a) are placed into consecutive words in memory. The label STRX has the value 100h, which is the location of the first initialized word.

```
1 000000          .space    100h * 16  
2 000100 000A     .byte     10, -1, "abc", 'a'  
   000101 00FF  
   000102 0061  
   000103 0062  
   000104 0063  
   000105 0061  
3 000106 000A     .char     10, -1, "abc", 'a'  
   000107 00FF  
   000108 0061  
   000109 0062  
   00010a 0063  
   00010b 0061
```

**`.c28_amode/
.lp_amode`***Override Assembler Mode*

Syntax**`.c28_amode
.lp_amode`****Description**

The **`.c28_amode`** and **`.lp_amode`** directives tell the assembler to override the assembler mode. See section 3.16, *TMS320C28x Assembler Modes*, on page 3-41, for more information.

The **`.c28_amode`** directive tells the assembler to operate in the C28x object mode (`–v28`). The **`.lp_amode`** directive tells the assembler to operate in C28x object – accept C2xlp syntax mode (`–m20`). These directives can be repeated throughout a source file.

For example, if a file is assembled with the `–m20` option, the assembler begins the assembly in the C28x object – accept C2xlp syntax mode. When it encounters the **`.c28_amode`** directive, it changes the mode to C28x object mode and remains in that mode until it encounters a **`.lp_amode`** directive or the end of file.

These directives help the user to migrate from C2xlp to C28x by replacing a portion of the C2xlp code with C28x code.

Example

In this example, C28x code is inserted in the existing C2xlp code.

```
; C2xlp Source Code
LDP    #VarA
LACL   VarA
LAR    AR0, *+, AR2
SACL   *+
.
.
CALL   FuncA
.
.

; The C2xlp code in function FuncA is replaced with C28x Code
; using C28x Addressing (AMODE = 0)

.c28_amode ; Override the assembler mode to C28x syntax
FuncA:
C28ADDR          ; Set AMODE to 0 C28x addressing
MOV    DP, #VarB
MOV    AL, @VarB
MOVL   XAR0, *XAR0++
MOV    *XAR2++, AL
.lp_amode          ; Change back the assembler mode to C2xlp.
LPADDR          ; Set AMODE to 1 to resume C2xlp addressing.
LRET
```

.clink*Conditionally Leave Section Out of COFF Output*

Syntax**.clink** ["*section name*"]**Description**

The **.clink** directive sets up conditional linking for a section by setting the STYP_CLINK flag in the type field for *section name*. The **.clink** directive can be applied to initialized or uninitialized sections.

If **.clink** is used without a *section name*, it applies to the current initialized section. If **.clink** is applied to an uninitialized section, the *section name* is required. The *section name* is significant to 200 characters and must be enclosed in double quotation marks. A *section name* can contain a section name in the form *section name:subsection name*.

The STYP_CLINK flag tells the linker to leave the section out of the final COFF output of the linker if no references are found to any symbol in the section.

A section in which the entry point of a C program is defined cannot be marked as a conditionally linked section.

Example

In this example, the Vars and Counts sections are set for conditional linking.

```
1 000000          .sect    "Vars"
2                ; Vars section is conditionally linked
3                .clink
4
5 000000 001A X:      .long   01Ah
6 000001 0000
7 000002 001A Y:      .word   01Ah
8 000003 001A Z:      .word   01Ah
9                ; Counts section is conditionally linked
10               .clink
11 000004 001A XCount: .word   01Ah
12 000005 001A YCount: .word   01Ah
13 000006 001A ZCount: .word   01Ah
14                ; By default, .text in unconditionally linked
15 000000          .text
16
17 000000 97C6      MOV     *XAR6, AH
18                ; These references to symbol X cause the Vars
19                ; section to be linked into the COFF output
20 000001 8500+     MOV     ACC, @X
21 000002 3100      MOV     P, #0
22 000003 0FAB      CMPL    ACC, P
```

.copy/.include*Copy Source File*

Syntax

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

Description

The **.copy** and **.include** directives tell the assembler to read source statements from another 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. 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 may be enclosed in double quotes and must follow operating system conventions. If *filename* starts with a number the double quotes are required.

You can specify a full pathname (for example, c:\dsp\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 **-i** assembler option
- 3) Any directories specified by the environment variables **C2000_A_DIR** and **A_DIR**

For more information about the **-i** option, and **C2000_A_DIR** and **A_DIR**, see section 3.4, *Naming Alternate Directories for Assembler Input*, on page 3-7.

The **.copy** and **.include** directives can be nested within a file that is 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.

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. The copied 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 the assembly of byte.asm, the assembler returns to copy.asm to assemble its remaining statement.

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

Listing file:

```
1 000000          .space 29
2                .copy "byte.asm"
                ; In byte.asm
2 000002 0005          .byte 5
3                .copy "word.asm"
1                ** In word.asm
2 000003 ABCD          .word 0ABCDh
4                * Back in byte.asm
5 000004 0006          .byte 6
3
4                **Back in original file
5 000005 646F          .pstring "done"
000006 6E65
```

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 included file)	word2.asm (second included 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 000000          .space 29
2                .include "byte2.asm"
3
4                ; Back in original file
5 000007 0064      .string "done"
   000008 006F
   000009 006E
   00000a 0065
```

Syntax

.data

Description

The **.data** directive tells the assembler to begin assembling source code into the .data section; .data becomes the current section. The .data section is normally used to contain tables of data or preinitialized variables.

The assembler assumes that .text is the default section. Therefore, at the beginning of an assembly, the assembler assembles code into the .text section unless you use a section control directive.

See Chapter 2, *Introduction to Common Object File Format*, for more information about COFF sections.

Example

In this example, code is assembled into the .data and .text sections.

```
1          *****
2          **      Reserve space in .data.          **
3          *****
4 000000          .data
5 000000          .space          0CCh
6          *****
7          **      Assemble into .text.          **
8          *****
9 000000          .text
10          0000  INDEX .set          0
11 000000 9A00          MOV          AL,#INDEX
12          *****
13          **      Assemble into .data.          **
14          *****
15 00000c          Table: .data
16 00000d FFFF          .word   -1          ; Assemble 16-bit
                                           ;constant into .data.
17 00000e 00FF          .byte   0FFh        ; Assemble 8-bit
                                           ;constant into .data.
18          *****
19          **      Assemble into .text.          **
20          *****
21 000001          .text
22 000001 08A9"          ADD          AL,Table
23          000002 000C
24          *****
25          **      Resume assembling into the .data      **
26          **      section at address 0Fh.          **
27          *****
27 00000f          .data
```


.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.

- | | | |
|---|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> .asg | <input type="checkbox"/> .fcnolist | <input type="checkbox"/> .ssnolist |
| <input type="checkbox"/> .break | <input type="checkbox"/> .mlist | <input type="checkbox"/> .var |
| <input type="checkbox"/> .emsg | <input type="checkbox"/> .mmsg | <input type="checkbox"/> .wmsg |
| <input type="checkbox"/> .eval | <input type="checkbox"/> .mnolist | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> .fclist | <input type="checkbox"/> .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:

```
1          .asg      0, x
2          .loop     2
3          .eval     x+1, x
4          .endloop
1          .eval     0+1, x
1          .eval     1+1, x
          5
          6          .drnolist
          7
          9          .loop     3
10         .eval     x+1, x
11         .endloop
```

**.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. 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 error messages to the standard output device 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 in the same manner as the **.emsg** and **.wmsg** directives, but it does not set the error or warning counts, and it does not prevent the assembler from producing an object file.

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

Example

In this example, the message **ERROR -- MISSING PARAMETER** is sent to the standard output device.

Source file:

```
MSG_EX      .global      PARAM
             .macro      parm1
             .if          $symlen(parm1) = 0
             .emsg        "ERROR -- MISSING PARAMETER"
             .else
             add          AL, @parm1
             .endif
             .endm

MSG_EX      PARAM

MSG_EX
```

Listing file:

```

1                                .global PARAM
2                                MSG_EX .macro parm1
3                                .if     $symlen(parm1) = 0
4                                .emsg   "ERROR -- MISSING PARAMETER"
5                                .else
6                                add      AL, @parm1
7                                .endif
8                                .endm
9
10 000000                        MSG_EX PARAM
1                                .if     $symlen(parm1) = 0
1                                .emsg   "ERROR -- MISSING PARAMETER"
1                                .else
1                                add      AL, @PARAM
1                                .endif
11
12 000001                        MSG_EX
1                                .if     $symlen(parm1) = 0
1                                .emsg   "ERROR -- MISSING PARAMETER"
1                                ***** USER ERROR ***** - : ERROR -- MISSING PARAMETER
1                                .else
1                                add      AL, @parm1
1                                .endif

1 Error, No Warnings
```

.end

End Assembly

Syntax .end

Description The **.end** directive is optional and terminates assembly. It should be the last source statement of a program. The assembler ignores any source statements that follow a **.end** directive.

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.

Note: Ending a Macro

Use **.endm** to end a macro.

Example This example shows how the **.end** directive terminates assembly. If any source statements follow the **.end** directive, the assembler ignores them.

Source File:

```
START:  .space  300
TEMP    .set    15
        .bss    LOC1, 48h
        ABS     ACC
        ADD     ACC, #TEMP
        MOV     @LOC1, ACC
        .end
        .byte   4
        .word   CCCh
```

Listing file:

```
1 000000          START:  .space  300
2          000F TEMP    .set    15
3 000000          .bss    LOC1, 48h
4 000013 FF56      ABS     ACC
5 000014 090F      ADD     ACC, #TEMP
6 000015 9600-     MOV     @LOC1, ACC
7                      .end
```

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

Syntax

.fclist
.fcnolist

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 **.fcnolist** directive suppresses the listing of false conditional blocks until a **.fclist** directive is encountered. With **.fcnolist**, 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 listing of conditional blocks:

Source File:

```
AAA    .set  1
BBB    .set  0
      .fclist
      .if   AAA
      ADD   ACC, #1024
      .else
      ADD   ACC, #1024*4
      .endif
      .fcnolist
      .if   AAA
      ADD   ACC, #1024
      .else
      ADD   ACC, #1024*10
      .endif
```

Listing File

```
1          0001  AAA    .set  1
2          0000  BBB    .set  0
3                      .fclist
4
5                      .if   AAA
6 000000 FF10          ADD   ACC, #1024
   000001 0400
7                      .else
8                      ADD   ACC, #1024*4
9                      .endif
10
11           .fcnolist
12
14 000002 FF10          ADD   ACC, #1024
   000003 0400
```

.field

Initialize Field

Syntax

.field *value* [, *size in bits*]

Description

The **.field** directive can initialize multiple-bit fields within a single word 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. If the value is relocatable, *size in bits* must be 22 or greater.
- ☐ 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. If you do not specify a *size in bits*, the assembler assumes that the size is 16 bits. If you specify a *size in bits* of 16 or more, the field starts on a word boundary. If you specify a *value* that cannot fit into *size in bits*, the assembler truncates the value and issues an error message. For example, `.field 3,1` causes the assembler to truncate the value 3 to 1; the assembler also prints the message:

***warning - value truncated.

Successive `.field` directives pack values into the specified number of bits starting at the current word. Fields are packed starting at the least significant part of the word, moving toward the most 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, increments the SPC, and begins packing fields into the next word. You can use the `.align` directive with an operand of 1 to force the next `.field` directive to begin packing into a new word.

When you specify a size greater than 16 bits, the assembler fills the word at the lower address, then begins filling the least significant bits of the word at the higher address.

If you use a label, it points to the word 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 about `.struct/.endstruct`, see page 4-74.

Example

This example shows how fields are packed into a word. The SPC does not change until a word is filled and the packing of the next word begins. For another example of the .field directive, see page 4-11.

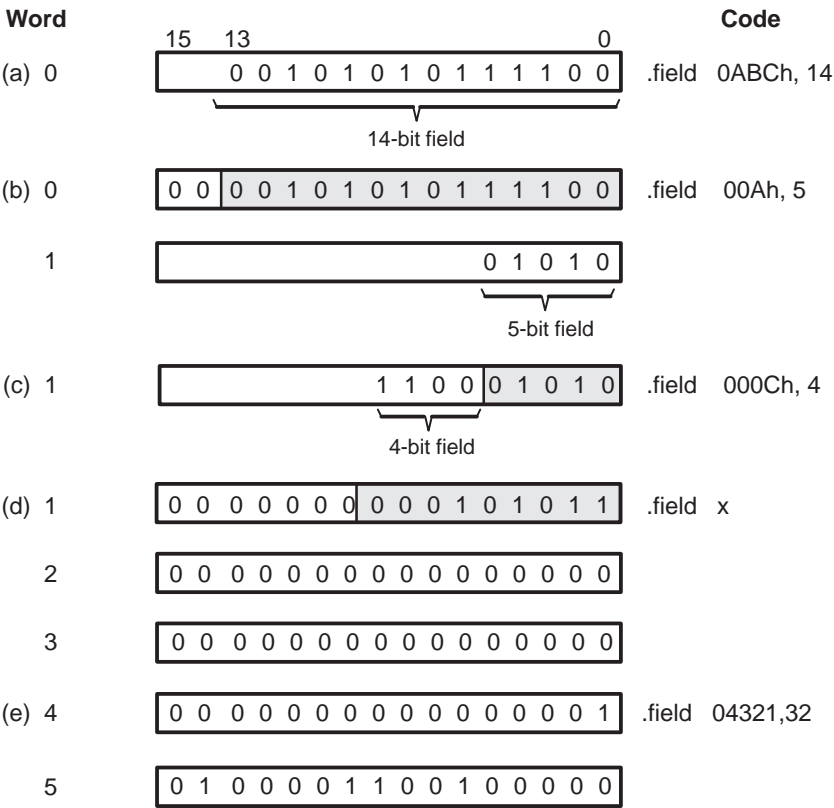
```

1          *****
2          **      Initialize a 14-bit field.      **
3          *****
4 000000 0ABC          .field 0ABCh, 14
5
6          *****
7          **      Initialize a 5-bit field      **
8          **              in a new word.          **
9          *****
10 000001 000A L_F:    .field 0Ah, 5
11
12          *****
13          **      Initialize a 4-bit field      **
14          **              in the same word.      **
15          *****
16 000001 018A X:      .field 0Ch, 4
17
18          *****
19          **      22-bit relocatable field      **
20          **              in the next 2 words.    **
21          *****
22 000002 0001'          .field x
23
24          *****
25          **      Initialize a 32-bit field      **
26          *****
27 000003 4321          .field 04321h, 32
   000004 0000

```

Figure 4–6 shows how the directives in this example affect memory.

Figure 4–6. The .field Directive



.float/.xfloat*Initialize Single-Precision Floating-Point Value*

Syntax

```
.float value1 [, ... , valuen]  
.xfloat value1 [, ... , valuen]
```

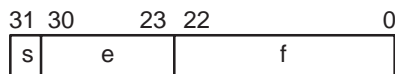
Description

The **.float** and **.xfloat** directives place the floating-point representation of one or more floating-point constants into the current section. The *value* must be a floating-point constant or a symbol that has been equated to a floating-point constant. Each constant is converted to a floating-point value in IEEE single-precision 32-bit format. Floating point constants are aligned on the long-word boundaries unless the **.xfloat** directive is used. The **.xfloat** directive performs the same function as the **.float** directive but does not align the result on the long-word boundary.

The 32-bit value consists of three fields:

Field	Meaning
s	A 1-bit sign field
e	An 8-bit biased exponent
f	A 23-bit fraction

The value is stored least significant word first, most significant word second, in the following format:



When you use **.float** in a **.struct/.endstruct** sequence, **.float** defines a member's size; it does not initialize memory. For more information about **.struct/.endstruct**, see section 4.9, *Directives That Define Symbols at Assembly Time*, on page 4-19.

Example

This example shows the **.float** and **.xfloat** directives.

```
1 00000000 5951      .float  -1.0e25  
   00000001 E904  
2 00000002 0010      .byte   0x10  
3 00000003 0000      .xfloat 123.0    ; does not align on long-word boundary  
   00000004 42F6  
4 00000006 0000      .float   3        ; aligns on long-word boundary  
   00000007 4040
```

.global

Identify Global Symbols

Syntax

```
.global symbol1 [, ... , symboln]  
.def symbol1 [, ... , symboln]  
.ref symbol1 [, ... , symboln]  
.globl symbol1 [, ... , symboln]
```

Description

The **.global**, **.def**, and **.ref** directives identify global symbols, which are defined externally or can be referenced externally.

The **.global** directive is provided for backward compatibility for C2xlp source. It is accepted only when the `-m20` option is specified. The use of **.globl** is discouraged.

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 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 a **.set**, **.bss**, or **.usect** directive. As with all symbols, if a global symbol is defined more than once, the linker issues a multiple-definition error. The directive **.ref** 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 may be declared global for two reasons:

- ☐ If the symbol is *not defined in the current module* (including macro, copied, and included 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:

file1.lst and **file3.lst** 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**. **file1.lst** uses the **.global** directive to identify these global symbols; **file3.lst** uses **.ref** and **.def** to identify the symbols.

file2.lst and **file4.lst** 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**. **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 000000    INIT:
6 000000 0956      ADD     ACC, #56h
7
8 000001 0000!     .word   X
9              ;
10             ;
11             ;
12             .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          0001 X:   .set    1
6          0002 Y:   .set    2
7          0003 Z:   .set    3
8 000000 0000!     .word   INIT
9              ;
10             ;
11             ;
12             .end
```

file3.lst:

```
1          ; Global symbol defined in this file
2          .def     INIT
3          ; Global symbols defined in file4.lst
4          .ref     X, Y, Z
5 000000    INIT:
6 000000 0956      ADD     ACC, #56h
7
8 000001 0000!     .word   X
9              ;
10             ;
11             ;
12             .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           0001 X:     .set      1
6           0002 Y:     .set      2
7           0003 Z:     .set      3
8 000000 0000!         .word     INIT
9           ;          .
10          ;          .
11          ;          .
12          .end
```

`.if/.elseif/.else/.endif`

Assemble Conditional Blocks

Syntax

```
.if  well-defined expression
.elseif well-defined expression
.else
.endif
```

Description

The following directives provide conditional assembly:

The **.if** directive marks the beginning of a conditional block. The *well-defined expression* 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 the 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** directive is optional in the conditional blocks, and more than one **.elseif** can be used. If an expression is false and there is no **.elseif** statement, 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 **.endif** directive terminates a conditional block.

The **.elseif** and **.else** directives can be used in the same conditional assembly block and the **.elseif** directive can be used more than once within a conditional assembly block.

For information about relational operators, see section 3.9.4, *Conditional Expressions*, on page 3-27.

Example

This example shows conditional assembly.

```
1          0001  SYM1  .set    1
2          0002  SYM2  .set    2
3          0003  SYM3  .set    3
4          0004  SYM4  .set    4
5
6          If_4:  .if      SYM4 = SYM2 * SYM2
7 000000 0004    .byte    SYM4      ; Equal values
8              .else
9              .byte    SYM2 * SYM2 ; Unequal values
10           .endif
11
12          If_5:  .if      SYM1 <= 10
13 000001 000A    .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 000002 0008    .byte    SYM4 + SYM4 ; Equal values
22           .endif
23
24          If_7:  .if      SYM1 = 2
25              .byte    SYM1
26              .elseif    SYM2 + SYM3 = 5
27 000003 0005    .byte    SYM2 + SYM3
28           .endif
```

.int/.word*Initialize 16-Bit Integer*

Syntax

```
.int value1 [, ... , valuen]  
.word value1 [, ... , valuen]
```

Description

The **.int** and **.word** directives are equivalent; they place one or more values into consecutive 16-bit fields in the current section.

The *values* can be either absolute or relocatable expressions. 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.

You can use as many values as fit on a single line. If you use a label, it points to the first word that is initialized.

When you use **.int** or **.word** in a **.struct/.endstruct** sequence, **.int** or **.word** defines a member's size; it does not initialize memory. For more information about **.struct/.endstruct**, see section 4.9, *Directives That Define Symbols at Assembly Time*, on page 4-19.

Example 1

In this example, the **.int** directive is used to initialize words.

```
1 000000          .space 73h  
2 000000          .bss   PAGE, 128  
3 000080          .bss   SYMPTR, 3  
4 000008 FF20  INST:  MOV    ACC, #056h  
   000009 0056  
5 00000a 000A          .int 10, SYMPTR, -1, 35 + 'a', INST  
   00000b 0080-  
   00000c FFFF  
   00000d 0084  
   00000e 0008'
```

Example 2

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

```
1 000000 0C80  WORDX: .word  3200, 1 + 'AB', -0AFh, 'X'  
   000001 4242  
   000002 FF51  
   000003 0058
```

.label*Create a Load-Time Address Label*

Syntax**.label** *symbol***Description**

The **.label** directive defines a special *symbol* that refers to the load-time address rather than the run-time address within the current section. Most sections created by the assembler have relocatable addresses. The assembler assembles each section as if it started at 0, and the linker relocates it to the address at which it loads and runs.

For some applications, it is desirable to have a section load at one address and run at a different address. For example, you may wish to load a block of performance-critical code into slower off-chip memory to save space and then move the code to high-speed on-chip memory to run it.

Such a section is assigned two addresses at link time: a load address and a run address. 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.

The **.label** directive creates a special label that refers to the *load-time* address. This function is useful primarily to designate where the section is loaded for purposes of the code that relocates the section.

Example

This example shows the use of a load-time address label.

```
.sect ".EXAMP"
.label EXAMP_LOAD ; load address of section.
START:           ; run address of section.
<code>
FINISH:          ; run address of section end.
.label EXAMP_END ; load address of section end.
```

For more information about assigning run-time and load-time addresses in the linker, see section 7.9, *Specifying a Section's Run-Time Address*, on page 7-39.

.length/.width*Set Listing Page Size*

Syntax**.length** *page length***.width** *page width***Description**

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
- ☐ 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 that follow; you can reset the page width with another **.width** directive.

- ☐ Default width: 80 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

In this example, the page length and width are changed.

```
*****
**          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 specified.

Note: Creating a Listing File (-l Option)

If you do not request a listing file when you invoke the assembler, 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.

copy.asm (source file)	copy2.asm (copy file)
<pre>.copy "copy2.asm" * Back in original file NOP .nolist .copy "copy2.asm" .list * Back in original file .string "Done"</pre>	<pre>*In copy2.asm (copy file) .word 32, 1 + 'A'</pre>

Listing file:

```
1                                .copy    "copy2.asm"
1                                *In copy2.asm (copy file)
2 000000 0020                    .word 32, 1 + 'A'
   000001 0042
2                                * Back in original file
3 000002 7700                    NOP
7                                * Back in original file
8 000005 0044                    .string "Done"
   000006 006F
   000007 006E
   000008 0065
```

.long/.xlong

Initialize 32-Bit Integer

Syntax

```
.long value1 [, ... , valuen]  
.xlong value1 [, ... , valuen]
```

Description

The **.long** and **.xlong** directives place one or more 32-bit values into consecutive words in the current section. The most significant word is stored first. The **.long** directive aligns the result on the long word boundary, while the **.xlong** directive does not.

The *value* operand can be either an absolute or 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 with labels.

You can use up to 100 values, but they must fit on a single source statement line. If you use a label, it points to the first word that is initialized.

When you use **.long** in a **.struct/.endstruct** sequence, **.long** defines a member's size; it does not initialize memory. For more information about **.struct/.endstruct**, see section 4.9, *Directives That Define Symbols at Assembly Time*, on page 4-19.

Example

This example shows how the **.long** and **.xlong** directives initialize double words.

```
1 000000 ABCD DAT1:  .long  0ABCDh, 'A' + 100h, 'g', 'o'
  000001 0000
  000002 0141
  000003 0000
  000004 0067
  000005 0000
  000006 006F
  000007 0000
2 000008 0000'      .xlong  DAT1, 0AABBCCDDh
  000009 0000
  00000a CCDD
  00000b AABB
3 00000c           DAT2:
```

`.loop/.break/ .endloop`

Assemble Code Block Repeatedly

Syntax

```
.loop [well-defined expression]  
.break [well-defined expression]  
.endloop
```

Description

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

The **.loop** directive begins a repeatable block of code. The optional expression evaluates to the loop count (the number of loops to be performed). If there is no expression, the loop count defaults to 1024, unless the assembler first encounters a **.break** directive with an expression that is true (nonzero) or omitted.

The **.break** directive and its well-defined *expression* are optional. When the expression is false (0), the loop continues. When the expression is true (nonzero) or omitted, the assembler breaks the loop and assembles the code after the **.endloop** directive.

The **.endloop** directive terminates a repeatable block of code; it executes when the **.break** directive is true (nonzero) or when the number of loops performed equals the loop count given by **.loop**

Example

This example illustrates how these directives can be used with the **.eval** directive.

```
1          1          .eval      0,x  
2          COEF      .loop  
3          .word      x*100  
4          .eval      x+1, x  
5          .break      x = 6  
6          .endloop  
1          000000 0000      .word      0*100  
1          .eval      0+1, x  
1          .break      1 = 6  
1          000001 0064      .word      1*100  
1          .eval      1+1, x  
1          .break      2 = 6  
1          000002 00C8      .word      2*100  
1          .eval      2+1, x  
1          .break      3 = 6  
1          000003 012C      .word      3*100  
1          .eval      3+1, x  
1          .break      4 = 6  
1          000004 0190      .word      4*100  
1          .eval      4+1, x  
1          .break      5 = 6  
1          000005 01F4      .word      5*100  
1          .eval      5+1, x  
1          .break      6 = 6
```

.macro/.endm

Define Macro

Syntax

macname

.macro [*parameter*₁] [, ... *parameter*_{*n*}]
model statements or macro directives
.endm

Description

The **.macro** directive is 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 5, *Macro Language*.

.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 `-i` assembler option
- 3) Any directories specified by the `C2000_A_DIR` or `A_DIR` environment variable

For more information about the `-i` option and the environment variable, see section 3.4, *Naming Alternate Directories for Assembler Input*, on page 3-7.

When the assembler encounters a **.mlib** directive, it opens the library specified by the *filename* and creates a table of the library's contents. The assembler enters the names of the individual library members into the opcode table 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 in the same way it expands other macros, but it does not place the source code into the listing. Only macros that are actually called from the library are extracted, and they are extracted only once.

For more information about macros and macro libraries, see Chapter 5, *Macro Language*.

Example

This example creates a macro library that defines two macros, inc1 and dec1. The file inc1.asm contains the definition of inc1, and dec1.asm contains the definition of dec1.

inc1.asm	dec1.asm
<pre>* Macro for incrementing inc1 .macro A ADD A, #1 .endm</pre>	<pre>* Macro for decrementing dec1 .macro A SUB A, #1 .endm</pre>

Use the archiver to create a macro library:

```
ar2000 -a mac inc1.asm dec1.asm
```

Now you can use the .mlib directive to reference the macro library and define the inc1 and dec1 macros:

```
1          .mlib    "mac.lib"
2
3          * Macro call
4 000000          inc1    AL
1          000000 9C01    ADD    AL,#1
5
6          * Macro call
7 000001          dec1    AR1
1          000001 08A9    SUB    AR1,#1
          000002 FFFF
```


.mlist/.mnolist*Start/Stop Macro Expansion Listing*

Syntax

.mlist
.mnolist

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 **.mnolist** 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.

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 *.mnlolist* directive was assembled. The third time the macro is called, the macro expansion is listed because a *.mlist* directive was assembled.

```
1          STR_3 .macro    P1, P2, P3
2              .string  ":p1:", ":p2:", ":p3:"
3              .endm
4
5          STR_3 "as", "I", "am"
1          .string  ":p1:", ":p2:", ":p3:"
          000000 003A
          000001 0070
          000002 0031
          000003 003A
          000004 003A
          000005 0070
          000006 0032
          000007 003A
          000008 003A
          000009 0070
          00000a 0033
          00000b 003A
6          .string  ":p1:", ":p2:", ":p3:"
          00000c 003A
          00000d 0070
          00000e 0031
          00000f 003A
          000010 003A
          000011 0070
          000012 0032
          000013 003A
          000014 003A
          000015 0070
          000016 0033
          000017 003A
7
8          .mnlolist
9          STR_3 "as", "I", "am"
10         .mlist
11         STR_3 "as", "I", "am"
1          .string  ":p1:", ":p2:", ":p3:"
          000024 003A
          000025 0070
          000026 0031
          000027 003A
          000028 003A
          000029 0070
          00002a 0032
          00002b 003A
          00002c 003A
          00002d 0070
          00002e 0033
          00002f 003A
```

```
12 000030 003A      .string ":p1:", ":p2:", ":p3:"
    000031 0070
    000032 0031
    000033 003A
    000034 003A
    000035 0070
    000036 0032
    000037 003A
    000038 003A
    000039 0070
    00003a 0033
    00003b 003A
13
```

.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.

After a local label has been defined and (perhaps) used, you should use the **.newblock** directive to reset it. The **.text**, **.data**, and named sections also reset local labels. Local labels that are defined within an include file are not valid outside of the local file. For a description of local labels, see section 3.8.2 on page 3-18.

Example This example shows how the local label \$1 is declared, reset, and then declared again.

```
1 .ref ADDRA, ADDRb, ADDRc
2 0076 B .set 76h
3
4 00000000 F800! MOV DP, #ADDRA
5
6 00000001 8500! LABEL1: MOV ACC, @ADDRA
7 00000002 1976 SUB ACC, #B
8 00000003 6403 B $1, LT
9 00000004 9600! MOV @ADDRb, ACC
10 00000005 6F02 B $2, UNC
11
12 00000006 8500! $1 MOV ACC, @ADDRA
13 00000007 8100! $2 ADD ACC, @ADDRc
14 .newblock ; Undefine $1 to use again.
15
16 00000008 6402 B $1, LT
17 00000009 9600! MOV @ADDRc, ACC
18 0000000a 7700 $1 NOP
```

.option*Select Listing Options*

Syntax**.option** *option list***Description**

The **.option** directive selects several options for the assembler output listing. The parameter *option list* is a list of options separated by vertical lines; each option selects a listing feature. These are valid options:

- A** turns on the listing of all directives, data, and subsequent expansions, macros, and blocks
- B** limits the listing of `.byte` directives to one line.
- D** turns off the listing of certain directives (performs a `.drnolist`)
- L** limits the listing of `.long` directives to one line.
- M** turns off macro expansions in the listing.
- N** turns off listing (performs a `.nolist`)
- O** turns on listing (performs a `.list`)
- R** resets the B, M, T, and W options.
- T** limits the listing of `.string` directives to one line.
- W** limits the listing of `.word` directives to one line.
- X** produces a symbol cross-reference listing. (You can also obtain a cross-reference listing by invoking the assembler with the `-x` option.)

Options are not case sensitive.

Example

This example shows how to limit the listings of the .byte, .word, .long, and .string directives to one line each.

```
1          *****
2          ** Limit the listing of .byte, .word, **
3          ** .long, and .string directives to 1 **
4          ** to 1 line each.                  **
5          *****
6          .option B, W, L, T
7 000000 00BD      .byte   -'C', 0B0h, 5
8 000004 CCDD      .long    0AABBCCDDh, 536 + 'A'
9 000008 15AA      .word    5546, 78h
10 00000a 0045     .string  "Extended Registers"
11          *****
12          **      Reset the listing options.      **
13          *****
14          .option R
15 00001c 00BD     .byte   -'C', 0B0h, 5
    00001d 00B0
    00001e 0005
16 000020 CCDD     .long    0AABBCCDDh, 536 + 'A'
    000021 AABB
    000022 0259
    000023 0000
17 000024 15AA     .word    5546, 78h
    000025 0078
18 000026 0045     .string  "Extended Registers"
    000027 0078
    000028 0074
    000029 0065
    00002a 006E
    00002b 0064
    00002c 0065
    00002d 0064
    00002e 0020
    00002f 0052
    000030 0065
    000031 0067
    000032 0069
    000033 0073
    000034 0074
    000035 0065
    000036 0072
    000037 0073
```

.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 it. 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:

```

        .title      "**** Page Directive Example ****"
;               .
;               .
;               .
        .page

```

Listing file:

```

**** Page Directive Example ****                                PAGE    1
    2                      ;      .
    3                      ;      .
    4                      ;      .
TMS320C2000 COFF Assembler      Version x.xx      Day      Time      Year
Copyright (c) xxxx-xxxx      Texas Instruments Incorporated

**** Page Directive Example ****                                PAGE    2

```

.sblock

Specify Blocking for an Initialized Section

Syntax

.sblock ["*section name*"] [, ["*section name*"], ...]

Description

The **.sblock** directive designates sections for blocking. Blocking is an address alignment mechanism similar to page alignment, but weaker. A blocked section does not cross a page boundary (64 words) if it is smaller than a page, and it starts on a page boundary if it is larger than a page. This directive allows specification of blocking for initialized sections only, not for uninitialized sections declared with **.usect** or the **.bss** directives. The *section names* may optionally be enclosed in quotation marks.

Example

This example designates the **.text** and **.data** sections for blocking.

```
1 *****
2 ** Specify blocking for the .text      **
3 ** and .data sections.                **
4 *****
5      .sblock      .text, .data
```


.sect*Assemble Into Named Section*

Syntax**.sect** "section name"**Description**

The **.sect** directive defines a named section that can be used like the default **.text** and **.data** sections. The **.sect** directive begins assembling source code into the named section.

The *section name* identifies a section that the assembler assembles code into. The name can be up to 200 characters and must be enclosed in double quotation marks. A section name can contain a subsection name in the form *section name:subsection name*.

For more information about COFF sections, see Chapter 2, *Introduction to Common Object File Format*.

Example

This example defines two special-purpose sections, **Sym_Defs** and **Vars**, and assembles code into them.

```
1          ** Begin assembling into .text section. **
2 000000    .text
3 000000 FF20    MOV     ACC, #78h      ; Assembled into .text
   000001 0078
4 000002 0936    ADD     ACC, #36h      ; Assembled into .text
5
6          ** Begin assembling into Sym_Defs section. **
7 000000    .sect   "Sym_Defs"
8 000000 CCCD    .float  0.            ; Assembled into Sym_Defs
   000001 3D4C
9 000002 00AA    X: .word  0AAh        ; Assembled into Sym_Defs
10 000003 FF10    ADD     ACC, #X       ; Assembled into Sym_Defs
   000004 0002+
11
12          ** Begin assembling into Vars section. **
13 000000    .sect   "Vars"
14          0010    WORD_LEN    .set     16
15          0020    DWORD_LEN   .set     WORD_LEN * 2
16          0008    BYTE_LEN    .set     WORD_LEN / 2
17          0053    STR         .set     53h
18
19          ** Resume assembling into .text section. **
20 000003    .text
21 000003 0942    ADD     ACC, #42h      ; Assembled into .text
22 000004 0003    .byte   3, 4         ; Assembled into .text
   000005 0004
23
24          ** Resume assembling into Vars section. **
25 000000    .sect   "Vars"
26 000000 000D    .field  13, WORD_LEN
27 000001 000A    .field  0Ah, BYTE_LEN
28 000002 0008    .field  10q, DWORD_LEN
   000003 0000
29
```

.set*Define Assembly-Time Constant***Syntax***symbol* **.set** *value***Description**

The **.set** directive equates a constant value to a 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 *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.

Example

This example shows how symbols can be assigned with **.set**.

```

1          *****
2          **   Equate symbol AUX_R1 to register AR1   **
3          **   and use it instead of the register.   **
4          *****
5          0001  AUX_R1 .set    AR1
6 000000 28C1      MOV     *AUX_R1, #56h
   000001 0056
7
8          *****
9          **   Set symbol index to an integer expr.   **
10         **   and use it as an immediate operand.   **
11         *****
12         0035  INDEX .set    100/2 +3
13 000002 0935      ADD     ACC, #INDEX
14
15         *****
16         **   Set symbol SYMTAB to a relocatable expr. **
17         **   and use it as a relocatable operand.   **
18         *****
19 000003 000A  LABEL .word    10
20         0004' SYMTAB .set    LABEL + 1
21
22         *****
23         **   Set symbol NSYMS equal to the symbol   **
24         **   INDEX and use it as you would INDEX.   **
25         *****
26         0035  NSYMS .set    INDEX
27 000004 0035      .word    NSYMS

```

.space/.bes

Reserve Space

Syntax

.space *size in bits*

.bes *size in bits*

Description

The **.space** and **.bes** directives reserve *size in bits* in the current section and fill them with 0s.

When you use a label with the **.space** directive, it points to the *first* word reserved. When you use a label with the **.bes** directive, it points to the *last* word reserved.

Example

This example shows how memory is reserved with the **.space** and **.bes** directives.

```

1          *****
2          **  Begin assembling into .text section.  **
3          *****
4 000000          .text
5          *****
6          **  Reserve 0F0 bits (15 words in the      **
7          **          .text section.                **
8          *****
9 000000          .space  0F0h
10 00000f 0100          .word  100h, 200h
   000010 0200
11          *****
12          **  Begin assembling into .data section.  **
13          *****
14 000000          .data
15 000000 0049          .string "In .data"
   000001 006E
   000002 0020
   000003 002E
   000004 0064
   000005 0061
   000006 0074
   000007 0061
16          *****
17          **  Reserve 100 bits in the .data section; **
18          **  RES_1 points to the first word that  **
19          **          contains reserved bits.      **
20          *****
21 000008          RES_1: .space  100
22 00000f 000F          .word  15
23          *****
24          **  Reserve 20 bits in the .data section; **
25          **  RES_2 points to the last word that  **
26          **          contains reserved bits.      **
27          *****
28 000011          RES_2: .bes    20
29 000012 0036          .word  36h
30 000013 0011"          .word  RES_

```

.sslist/.ssnolist

Control Listing of Substitution Symbols

Syntax

.sslist
.ssnolist

Description

Two directives enable 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 inhibited. 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.

```

      1 00000000          .bss   ADDRX, 1
      2 00000001          .bss   ADDRY, 1
      3 00000002          .bss   ADDRA, 1
      4 00000003          .bss   ADDRB, 1
      5
      6              ADD2      .macro parm1, parm2
      7                      MOV   ACC, @parm1
      8                      ADD   ACC, @parm2
      9                      MOV   @parm2, ACC
     10                      .endm
     11
     12 00000000          ADD2   ADDRX, ADDRY
1      00000000 8500-      MOV   ACC, @ADDRX
1      00000001 8101-      ADD   ACC, @ADDRY
1      00000002 9601-      MOV   @ADDRY, ACC
     13
     14
     15 00000003          .sslist
1      00000003 8502-      ADD2   ADDRA, ADDRB
#      MOV   ACC, @parm1
1      00000004 8103-      MOV   ACC, @ADDRA
#      ADD   ACC, @parm2
1      00000005 9603-      ADD   ACC, @ADDRB
#      MOV   @parm2, ACC
#      MOV   @ADDRB, ACC
```

.string/.pstring*Initialize Text*

Syntax

```
.string {expr1 | "string1" } [, ... , {exprn | "stringn" }]  
.pstring {expr1 | "string1" } [, ... , {exprn | "stringn" }]
```

Description

The **.string** and **.pstring** directives place 8-bit characters from a character string into the current section. With the **.string** directive, each 8 bit character has its own 16-bit word, but with the **.pstring** directive, the data is packed so that each word contains two 8-bit bytes. Each *expr* or *string* can be one of the following:

- ☐ An expression that the assembler evaluates and treats as a 16-bit signed number.
- ☐ A character string enclosed in double quotation marks. Each character in a string represents a separate byte.

With **.pstring**, values are packed into words starting with the most significant byte of the word. Any unused space is padded with null bytes.

The assembler truncates any values that are greater than eight bits. You may have up to 100 operands, but they must fit on a single source statement line.

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

When you use **.string** in a **.struct/.endstruct** sequence, **.string** defines a member's size; it does not initialize memory. For more information about **.struct/.endstruct**, see section 4.9, *Directives That Define Symbols at Assembly Time*, on page 4-19.

Example

This example shows 8-bit values placed into words in the current section.

```
1 000000 0041  Str_Ptr:  .string  "ABCD"  
   000001 0042  
   000002 0043  
   000003 0044  
2  
3 000004 0041      .string  41h, 42h, 43h, 44h  
   000005 0042  
   000006 0043  
   000007 0044  
4  
5 000008 4175      .pstring  "Austin", "Houston"  
   000009 7374  
   00000a 696E  
   00000b 486F  
   00000c 7573  
   00000d 746F  
   00000e 6E00  
6  
7 00000f 0030      .string  36 + 12
```

.struct/
.endstruct/.tag

Declare Structure Type

Syntax

```
[ stag ]      .struct      [ expr ]
[ mem0 ]    element      [ expr0 ]
[ mem1 ]    element      [ expr1 ]
.             .             .
.             .             .
.             .             .
[ memn ]    .tag stag      [ exprn ]
.             .             .
.             .             .
.             .             .
[ memN ]    element      [ exprN ]
[ size ]      .endstruct
label        .tag          stag
```

Description

The **.struct** directive assigns symbolic offsets to the elements of a data structure definition. This enables you to group similar data elements together and then let the assembler calculate the element offset. This is similar to a C structure or a Pascal record.

Note: The .struct Directive Does Not Allocate Memory

The **.struct** directive does not allocate memory. It merely creates a symbolic template that can be used repeatedly.

The **.endstruct** directives 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.

- ❑ The *element* is one of the following descriptors: **.string**, **.byte**, **.char**, **.int**, **.half**, **.short**, **.word**, **.long**, **.double**, **.float**, **.tag**, or **.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.
- ❑ The *tag* is the structure's tag. Its value is associated with the beginning of the structure. If no tag 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. A .tag is optional for .struct, but is required for .tag.

Note: Directives That Can Appear in a .struct/.endstruct Sequence

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.

These examples show various uses of the .struct, .tag, and .endstruct directives.

Example 1

```
REAL_REC    .struct                ; stag
NOM          .int                  ; member1 = 0
DEN          .int                  ; member2 = 1
REAL_LEN    .endstruct             ; real_len = 4
            ADD ACC, @(REAL + REAL_REC.DEN) ;access structure element
            .bss REAL, REAL_LEN      ; allocate mem rec
```

Example 2

```
CPLX_REC    .struct
REALI       .tag REAL_REC          ; stag
IMAGI       .tag REAL_REC          ; member1 = 0
CPLX_LEN    .endstruct             ; rec_len = 4

COMPLEX     .tag CPLX_REC           ; assign structure attrib
            ADD ACC, COMPLEX.REALI  ; access structure
            ADD ACC, COMPLEX.IMAGI
            .bss COMPLEX, CPLX_LEN  ; allocate space
```

Example 3

```
          .struct                ; no stag puts mems into
X         .int                  ; global symbol table
Y         .int                  ;create 3 dim templates
Z         .int
          .endstruct
```

Example 4

```
BIT_REC      .struct                                ; stag
STREAM        .string 64
BIT7          .field 7                                ; bits1 = 64
BIT9          .field 9                                ; bits2 = 64
BIT10         .field 10                               ; bits3 = 65
X_INT         .int                                    ; x_int = 67
BIT_LEN      .endstruct                             ; length = 68

BITS         .tag BIT_REC
ADD  AC, @BITS.BIT7    ; move into acc
AND  ACC, #007Fh       ; mask off garbage bits
.bss BITS, BIT_REC
```


.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* spaces in the listing. The default tab size is eight spaces.

Example

Each of the following lines 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 000000 7700      NOP
3 000001 7700      NOP
4 000002 7700      NOP
5
7 000003 7700      NOP
8 000004 7700      NOP
9 000005 7700      NOP
10
12 000006 7700      NOP
13 000007 7700      NOP
14 000008 7700      NOP
```

.text

Assemble Into .text Section

Syntax

.text

Description

The **.text** directive tells the assembler to begin assembling 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 specify another section with the .data or .sect directives.

For more information about COFF sections, see Chapter 2.

Example

This example assembles code into .text and .data sections. The .data section contains integer constants, and the .text section contains character strings.

```
1          *****
2          ** Begin assembling into .data section. **
3          *****
4 000000          .data
5 000000 000A          .byte    0Ah, 0Bh
   000001 000B
6
7          *****
8          ** Begin assembling into .text section. **
9          *****
10 000000          .text
11 000000 0041  START: .string "A", "B", "C"
   000001 0042
   000002 0043
12 000003 0058  END:   .string "X", "Y", "Z"
   000004 0059
   000005 005A
13
14 000006 8100'          ADD      ACC, @START
15 000007 8103'          ADD      ACC, @END
16
17          *****
18          ** Resume assembling into .data section.**
19          *****
20 000002          .data
21 000002 000C          .byte    0Ch, 0Dh
   000003 000D
22
23          *****
24          ** Resume assembling into .text section.**
25          *****
26 000008          .text
   000008 0051          .string "Quit"
   000009 0075
   00000a 0069
   00000b 0074
```

.title

Define Page Title

Syntax `.title "string"`

Description 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.

The *string* is a title of up to 65 characters enclosed in double quotation marks. If you supply more than 65 characters, the assembler truncates the string and issues a warning.

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.

Example In this example, one title is printed on the first page and a different title is printed on succeeding pages.

Source file:

```

        .title  "**** Fast Fourier Transforms ****"
;
;
;
        .title  "**** Floating-Point Routines ****"
        .page
```

Listing file:

TMS320C2000 COFF Assembler	Version x.xx	Day	Time	Year
Copyright (c) xxxx-xxxx	Texas Instruments Incorporated			
**** Fast Fourier Transforms ****			PAGE	1
2	;	.		
3	;	.		
4	;	.		
TMS320C2000 COFF Assembler	Version x.xx	Day	Time	Year
Copyright (c) xxxx-xxxx	Texas Instruments Incorporated			
**** Floating-Point Routines ****			PAGE	2

.usect

Reserve Uninitialized Space

Syntax

symbol **.usect** "*section name*", *size in words* [, *blocking flag*] [, *alignment flag*] [, *type*]

Description

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 have no contents. However, **.usect** defines additional sections that can be placed anywhere in memory, independently of the **.bss** section.

- ☐ The *symbol* 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 *section name* is significant to 200 characters and must be enclosed in double quotes. This parameter names the uninitialized section. A section name can contain a subsection name in the form *section name:subsection name*.
- ☐ The *size in words* is an expression that defines the number of words that are reserved in *section name*.
- ☐ The *blocking flag* is an optional parameter. If specified and nonzero, the flag means that this object will be blocked. Blocking is an address mechanism similar to alignment, but weaker. It means that an object does not cross a page boundary (64 words) if it is smaller than a page, and it starts on a page boundary if it is larger than a page. If any object within a section is blocked, then the section is also blocked in that the section will start on a page boundary if it does not fit completely within a page. Note that blocking an object within a section does not guarantee that other objects within the section are blocked. The other objects should similarly be declared with the blocking flag if they need to be blocked.
- ☐ The *alignment flag* is an optional parameter that causes the assembler to allocate size on long word boundaries.
- ☐ The *type* is an optional parameter that causes the assembler to produce the appropriate debug information for the *symbol*. See section 3.15, *C-Type Symbolic Debugging for Assembly Variables (-mg option)*, on page 3-39 for more information.

Other sections directives (**.text**, **.data**, and **.sect**) end the current section and tell the assembler to begin assembling into another section. The **.usect** and the **.bss** directives, however, do not affect the current section. The assembler assembles the **.usect** and **.bss** directives and then resumes assembling into the current section.

Variables that can be located contiguously in memory can be defined in the same section; to define variables in this manner, repeat the **.usect** directive with the same *section name*.

For more information about COFF sections, see Chapter 2, *Introduction to Common Object File Format*.

Example

This example uses the `.usect` directive to define two uninitialized, named sections, `var1` and `var2`. The symbol `ptr` points to the first word reserved in the `var1` section. The symbol `array` points to the first word in a block of 100 words reserved in `var1`, and the symbol `dflag` points to the first word in a block of 50 words reserved in `var1`. The symbol `vec` points to the first word reserved in the `var2` section.

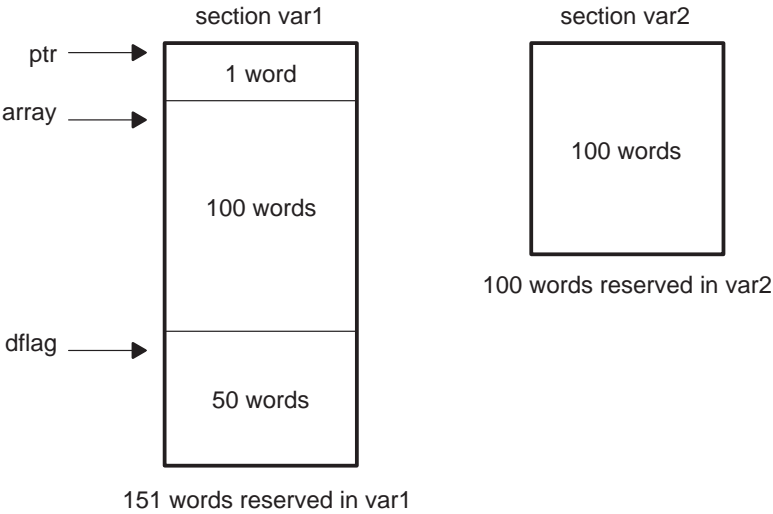
```

1          *****
2          **      Assemble into .text section.      **
3          *****
4 000000          .text
5 000000 9A03      MOV      AL, #03h
6
7          *****
8          **      Reserve 1 word in var1.            **
9          *****
10 000000      ptr .usect  "var1", 1
11
12          *****
13          **      Reserve 100 words in var1.         **
14          *****
15 000001      array .usect  "var1", 100
16
17 000001 9C03      ADD      AL, #03h ; Still in .text
18
19          *****
20          **      Reserve 50 words in var1.          **
21          *****
22 000065      dflag .usect  "var1", 50
23
24 000002 08A9      ADD      AL, #dflag ; Still in .text
    000003 0065-
25
26          *****
27          **      Reserve 100 words in var2.         **
28          *****
29 000000      vec .usect  "var2", 100
30
31 000004 08A9      ADD      AL, #vec ; Still in .text
    000005 0000-
32
33          *****
34          **      Declare an external .usect symbol  **
35          *****
36          .global array

```

Figure 4–7 on page 4-82 shows how this example reserves space in two uninitialized sections, `var1` and `var2`.

Figure 4–7. The .usect Directive



Macro Language

The 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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5.1 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 where you would otherwise 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 5.3, *Macro Parameters/Substitution Symbols*, page 5-5, for more information.

Using a macro is a three-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:

- ☐ Macros can be defined at the beginning of a *source file* or in a *.copy/.include* file. See section 5.2, *Defining Macros*, for more information.
- ☐ 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 5.4, *Macro Libraries*, page 5-13.

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 *.mnolist* directive. For more information, see section 5.8, *Using Directives to Format the Output Listing*, page 5-19.

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.

5.2 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 page 4-33); they can also be defined in a macro library. For more information, see section 5.4, *Macro Libraries*, page 5-13.

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 5.9, *Using Recursive and Nested Macros*, page 5-21.

A macro definition is a series of source statements in the following format:

```

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

```

<i>macname</i>	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.
<i>parameter</i> ₁ , <i>parameter</i> _{<i>n</i>}	are optional substitution symbols that appear as operands for the .macro directive. Parameters are discussed in section 5.3, <i>Macro Parameters/Substitution Symbols</i> , page 5-5.
<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 .mexit directive is useful when error testing confirms that macro expansion will fail and completion of the macro is unnecessary.
.endm	is the directive that terminates the macro definition.

Example 5–1 shows the definition, call, and expansion of a macro.

Example 5–1. Macro Definition, Call, and Expansion

```
1          *  add3 arg1, arg2, arg3
2          *      arg3 = arg1 + arg2 + arg3
3
4          add3  .macro P1, P2, P3, ADDR
5
6              MOV   ACC, P1
7              ADD   ACC, P2
8              ADD   ACC, P3
9              ADD   ACC, ADDR
10             .endm
11
12             .global ABC, def, ghi, adr
13
14 000000      add3  @abc, @def, @ghi, @adr
1
1 000000 E000!      MOV   ACC, @abc
1 000001 A000!      ADD   ACC, @def
1 000002 A000!      ADD   ACC, @ghi
1 000003 A000!      ADD   ACC, @adr
15
16

No Errors, No Warnings
```

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 5.7, *Producing Messages in Macros*, page 5-17, for more information about macro comments.

5.3 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 3.8.6, *Substitution Symbols*, page 3-24).

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 in which they are defined. 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 5.3.6, *Substitution Symbols as Local Variables in Macros*, page 5-12.

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 5–2 shows the expansion of a macro with varying numbers of arguments.

Example 5–2. 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:

```

      Parms 100,label
;      a = 100
;      b = label
;      c = " "

```

```

      Parms 100, , x
;      a = 100
;      b = " "
;      c = x

```

```

      Parms ""string"" ,x,y
;      a = "string"
;      b = x
;      c = y

```

```

Parms 100,label,x,y
;      a = 100
;      b = label
;      c = x,y

```

```

Parms "100,200,300",x,y
;      a = 100,200,300
;      b = x
;      c = y

```

5.3.1 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.

The syntax of the **.asg** directive is:

```
.asg [""]character string[""], substitution symbol
```

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.

Example 5–3 shows character strings being assigned to substitution symbols.

Example 5–3. The .asg Directive

```

.asg "A4", RETVAL ; return value
.asg "B14", PAGEPTR ; global page pointer
.asg ""Version 1.0"", version
.asg "p1, p2, p3", list

```

- ❑ The **.eval** directive performs arithmetic on numeric substitution symbols.

The syntax of the .eval directive is:

.eval *well-defined expression, substitution symbol*

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.

Example 5–4 shows arithmetic being performed on substitution symbols.

Example 5–4. The .eval Directive

```
.asg 1,counter
.loop 100
.word counter
.eval counter + 1,counter
.endloop
```

In Example 5–4, 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.

For information about the .asg and .eval assembler directives, see page 4-23.

5.3.2 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 in Table 5–1, *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 5–1. 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 if string <i>a</i> is a valid predefined register name 0 if string <i>a</i> is not a valid predefined register name

[†] For more information about predefined register names, see section 3.8.5, *Predefined Symbolic Constants*, on page 3-22.

Example 5–5 shows built-in substitution symbol functions.

Example 5–5. Using Built-In Substitution Symbol Functions

```

1      global      x, label
2      .asg        label, ADDR                ; ADDR = label
3      .if         ($symcmp(ADDR,"label") = 0) ; evaluates to true
4 000000 8000!     SUB        ACC, @ADDR
5      .endif
6      .asg        "x, y, z", list           ; list = x, y, z
7      .if         ($ismember(ADDR, list)) ; ADDR = x list =
y,z
8 000001 8000!     SUB        ACC, @ADDR
9      .endif

No Errors, No Warnings

```

5.3.3 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 5–6, 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 5–6. Recursive Substitution

```

1      .global x
2      .asg        "x",z  ; declare z and as-
sign z = "x"
3      .asg        "z",y  ; declare y and as-
sign y = "z"
4      .asg        "y",x  ; declare x and as-
sign x = "y"
5 000000 FF10      ADD     ACC, x
   000001 0000!
6

```

5.3.4 Forced Substitutions

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 5–7 shows how the forced substitution operator is used.

Example 5–7. Using the Forced Substitution Operator

```
force      .macro    x
           .loop     8
PORT:x:    .set      x*4
           .eval     x+1, x
           .endloop
           .endm

           .global   portbase
           force     0
```

The preceding code generates the following source code:

```
PORT0     .set      0
PORT1     .set      4
.
.
.
PORT7     .set      28
```


5.3.5 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 the location at which subscripting begins and the length of the resulting character string. *The index of substring characters begins with 1, not 0.*

Example 5–8 and Example 5–9 show built-in substitution symbol functions used with subscripted substitution symbols.

Example 5–8. Using Subscripted Substitution Symbols to Redefine an Instruction

```

ADDX      .macro      ABC
          .var        TMP
          .asg         :ABC(1): ,TM
          .if          $symcmp(TMP, "#") = 0
          ADD          ACC, ABC
          .else
          .emsg         "Bad Macro Parameter"
          .endif
          .endm

ADDX      #100                      ;macro call

```

In Example 5–8, subscripted substitution symbols redefine the STW instruction so that it handles immediates.

Example 5–9. 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        start,i
          .eval        $symlen(strg1),len1
          .eval        $symlen(strg2),len2
          .loop
          .break       i = (len2 - len1 + 1)
          .asg         ":strg2(i,len1):",tmp
          .if          $symcmp(strg1,tmp) = 0
          .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
```

In Example 5–9, 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`.

5.3.6 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 5–8 and Example 5–9 on page 5-11.

5.4 Macro Libraries

One way to define macros is to create 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 on page 4-59). 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 in the same way it expands other macros. (See section 5.1, *Using Macros*, on page 5-2 for information on how the assembler expands macros.) You can control the listing of library entry expansions with the .mlist directive. For more information about the .mlist directive, see section 5.8, *Using Directives to Format the Output Listing*, on page 5-19 and the .mlist description on page 4-61. 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 Chapter 6, *Archiver Description*.

5.5 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 the **.if** expression is false (0), the assembler continues to the code following the **.endif** directive. For more information on the **.if/.elseif/.else/.endif** directives, see page 4-49.

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). For more information on the **.loop/.break/.endloop** directives, see page 4-57.

The **.break** directive and its *well-defined 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.

Example 5–10, Example 5–11, and Example 5–12 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 5–10. 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 5–11. Nested Conditional Assembly Directives

```

.asg 1,x
.loop

.if (x == 10)      ; if x == 10 quit loop
.break            ; force break
.endif

.eval x+1,x
.endloop

```

Example 5–12. Built-In Substitution Symbol Functions in a Conditional Assembly Block

```

MACK3 .macro  src1, src2, sum, k
;      sum = sum + k * (src1 * src2)

.if    k = 0
MOV    T,#src1
MPY    ACC,T,#src2
MOV    DP,#sum
ADD    @sum,AL
.else
MOV    T,#src1
MPY    ACC,T,#k
MOV    T,AL
MPY    ACC,T,#src2
MOV    DP,#sum
ADD    @sum,AL
.endif

.endm

.global A0, A1, A2

MACK3 A0,A1,A2,0
MACK3 A0,A1,A2,100

```

For more information, see section 4.8, *Directives That Enable Conditional Assembly*, on page 4-18.

5.6 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 the 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. The syntax for a unique label is:

label?

Example 5–13 shows unique label generation in a macro.

Example 5–13. Unique Labels in a Macro

1		min	.macro	x,y,z
2				
3			MV	y,z
4			CPLT	x,y,y
5		[y]	B	1?
6			NOP	5
7			MV	x,z
8		1?		
9			.endm	
10				
11				
12	00000000		MIN	A0,A1,A2
1				
1	00000000	010401A1	MV	A1,A2
1	00000004	00840AF8		CPLT
1	00000008	80000292	[A1]	B
1	0000000c	00008000		NOP
1	00000010	010001A0		MV
1	00000014	1?		
LABEL		VALUE	DEFN	REF
.TMS320C60		00000001	0	
.tms320C60		00000001	0	
l\$l\$		00000014'	12	12

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 -x option (see page 3-5).

5.7 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 that are 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 it 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 5–14 shows user messages in macros and macro comments that do not appear in the macro expansion.

Example 5–14. Producing Messages in a Macro

```
1          testparam .macro x, y
2          !
3          ! This macro checks for the correct number of parameters.
4          ! It generates an error message if x and y are not present.
5          !
6          ! The first line tests for proper input.
7          !
8          .if      ($symlen(x) == 0)
9          .emsg    "ERROR --missing parameter in call to TEST"
10         .mexit
11         .else
12         MOV      ACC, #2
13         MOV      AL, #1
14         ADD      ACC, @AL
15         .endif
16         .endm
17
18 000000      testparam 1, 2
1          .if      ($symlen(x) == 0)
1          .emsg    "ERROR --missing parameter in call to TEST"
1          .mexit
1          .else
1          MOV      ACC, #2
1          000000 FF20      MOV      ACC, #2
1          000001 0002
1          000002 9A01      MOV      AL, #1
1          000003 A0A9      ADD      ACC, @AL
1          .endif
```

For information about the .emsg, .mmsg, and .wmsg assembler directives, see page 4-38.

5.8 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 false conditional blocks (blocks that do not generate code). 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.

5.9 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 5–15 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 5–15. 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
```

Example 5–16 shows recursive 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 the `A1` register. The `fact` macro accomplishes this by calling `fact1`, which calls itself recursively.

Example 5–16. Using Recursive Macros

```
1          .fcnolist
2
3      fact  .macro N, loc
4
5          .if N < 2
6          MOV    @LOC, #1
7          .else
8          MOV    @LOC, #N
9
10
11          .eval N-1, N
12      fact1 temp
13
14          .endif
15          .endm
16
17      fact1 .macro
18          .if N < 1
19          MOV    @T, @LOC
20          MPYB   @P, @T, #N
21          MOV    @LOC, @P
22          MOV    ACC, @LOC
23          .eval  N - 1, N
24      fact1
25
26          .endif
27          .endm
```

5.10 Macro Directives Summary

The following directives can be used with macros. The `.macro`, `.mexit`, `.endm` and `.var` directives are only valid with macros; the remaining directives are general assembly language directives. See the page numbers listed in the tables for details on each directive.

Table 5–2. Creating Macros

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	Macro Use	Directive Description
<code>.endm</code>	End macro definition	5-3	5-3
<code>macname .macro [parameter₁] [, ... , parameter_n]</code>	Define macro by <i>macname</i>	5-3	5-3
<code>.mexit</code>	Go to <code>.endm</code>	5-3	5-3
<code>.mlib filename</code>	Identify library containing macro definitions	5-13	4-59

Table 5–3. Manipulating Substitution Symbols

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	Macro Use	Directive Description
<code>.asg ["character string"[<i>symbol</i>], substitution symbol]</code>	Assign character string to substitution symbol	5-6	4-23
<code>.eval well-defined expression, substitution symbol]</code>	Perform arithmetic on numeric substitution symbols	5-7	4-23
<code>.var sym₁ [,sym₂, ... ,sym_n]</code>	Define local macro symbols	5-12	5-12

Table 5–4. Conditional Assembly

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	Macro Use	Directive Description
<code>.break [well-defined expression]</code>	Optional repeatable block assembly	5-14	4-57
<code>.endif</code>	End conditional assembly	5-14	4-49
<code>.endloop</code>	End repeatable block assembly	5-14	4-57
<code>.else</code>	Optional conditional assembly block	5-14	4-49
<code>.elseif well-defined expression</code>	Optional conditional assembly block	5-14	4-49
<code>.if well-defined expression</code>	Begin conditional assembly	5-14	4-49
<code>.loop [well-defined expression]</code>	Begin repeatable block assembly	5-14	4-57

Table 5–5. Producing Assembly-Time Messages

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	Macro Use	Directive Description
.emsg	Send error message to standard output	5-17	4-38
.mmsg	Send assembly-time message to standard output	5-17	4-38
.wmsg	Send warning message to standard output	5-17	4-38

Table 5–6. Formatting the Listing

Mnemonic and Syntax	Description	Macro Use	Directive Description
.fclist	Allow false conditional code block listing (default)	5-19	4-41
.fcnolist	Suppress false conditional code block listing	5-19	4-41
.mlist	Allow macro listings (default)	5-19	4-61
.mnolist	Suppress macro listings	5-19	4-61
.sslist	Allow expanded substitution symbol listing	5-19	4-72
.ssnolist	Suppress expanded substitution symbol listing (default)	5-19	4-72

Archiver Description

The TMS320C28x™ archiver combines 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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6.1 Archiver Overview

The TMS320C28x archiver lets you combine several individual files into a single file called an archive or a library. Each file within the archive is called a member. Once you have created an archive, you can use the archiver to add, delete, or extract members.

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.

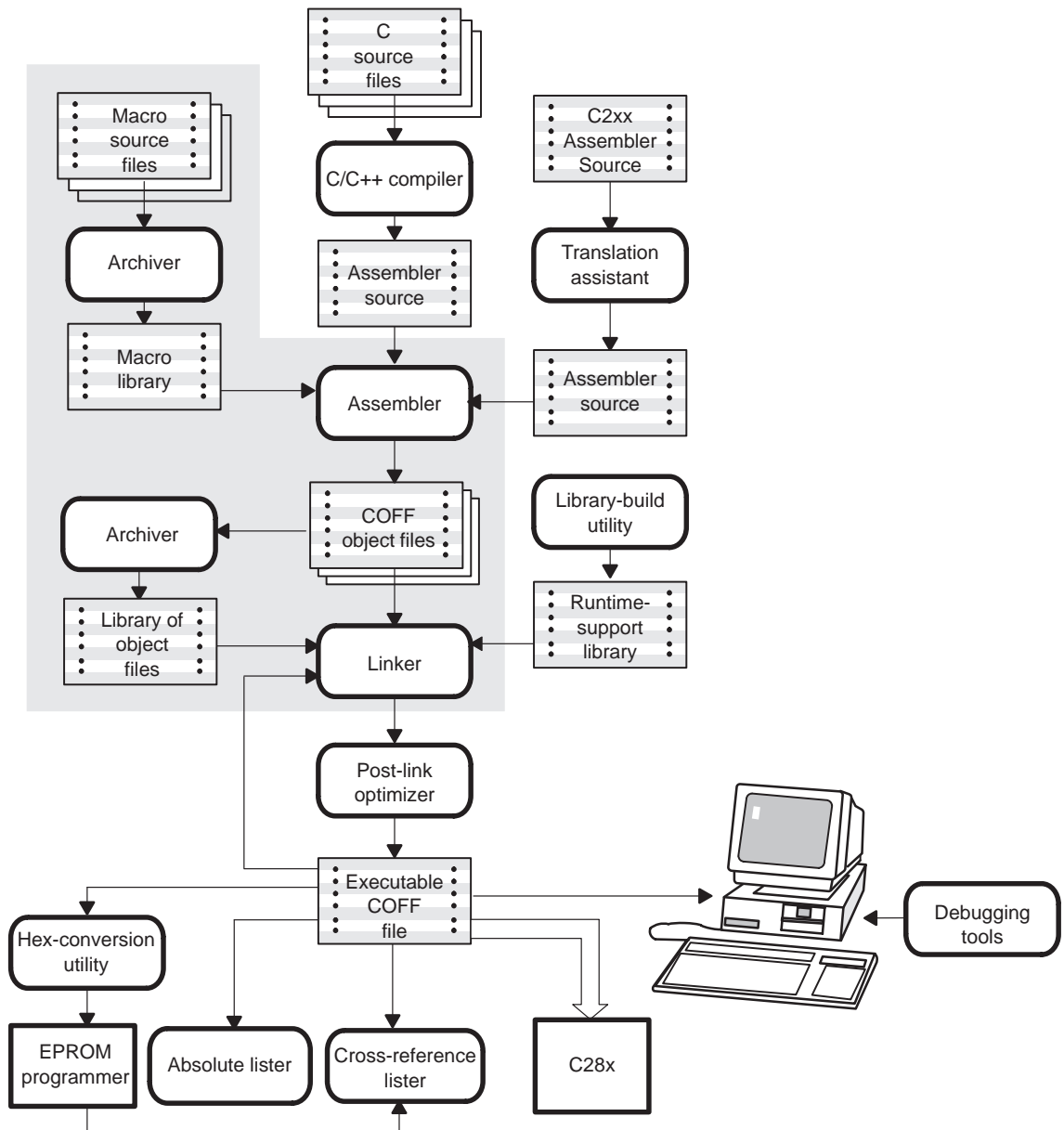
One of the most useful applications of the archiver is building libraries of object modules. For example, you can write several arithmetic routines, assemble them, and use the archiver to collect the object files into a single, logical group. You can then specify the object library as linker input. The 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 the macro library to be searched for the macros that you call. Chapter 5, *Macro Language*, discusses macros and macro libraries in detail, while this chapter explains how to use the archiver to build libraries.

6.2 Archiver Development Flow

Figure 6–1 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 6–1. The Archiver in the TMS320C28x Software Development Flow



6.3 Invoking the Archiver

To invoke the archiver, enter:

ar2000 *[–]command [options] libname [filename₁ ... filename_n]*

ar2000 is the command that invokes the archiver.

[–]command tells the archiver how to manipulate the existing library members and any specified *filenames*. 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:

- @** 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 page 6-7 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 *appends* 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 *does not* remove it from the library.

<i>options</i>	<p>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 <i>a</i> command and the <i>s</i> option, enter <i>-as</i> or <i>as</i>. The hyphen is optional for archiver options only. These are the archiver options:</p> <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 <i>a</i>, <i>r</i>, and <i>d</i> commands.)-u replaces library members only if the replacement has a more recent modification date. You must use the <i>r</i> command with the <i>-u</i> 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.
<i>libname</i>	<p>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>.</p>
<i>filenames</i>	<p>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. A <i>filename</i> can be up to 15 characters in length; the archiver truncates <i>filenames</i> that are longer than 15 characters.</p>

Note: Naming Library Members

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.

6.4 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:

```
ar2000 -a function sine.obj cos.obj flt.obj
```

The archiver responds as follows:

```
TMS320C28x Archiver                      Version x.xx
Copyright (c) xxxx-xxxx Texas Instruments Incorporated
==> new archive 'function.lib'
==> building archive 'function.lib'
```

- ❑ If you want to print a table of contents of `function.lib`, use the `-t` command. Enter:

```
ar2000 -t function
```

The archiver responds as follows:

```
TMS320C28x Archiver                      Version x.xx
Copyright (c) xxxx-xxxx Texas Instruments Incorporated
```

FILE NAME	SIZE	DATE
sine.obj	300	Wed Apr 4 10:00:24 2001
cos.obj	300	Wed Apr 4 10:00:30 2001
flt.obj	300	Wed Apr 4 09:59:56 2001

- ❑ If you want to add new members to the library, enter:

```
ar2000 -as function atan.obj
```

The archiver responds as follows:

```
TMS320C28x Archiver                      Version x.xx
Copyright (c) xxxx-xxxx Texas Instruments Incorporated
==> 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 doesn't 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`.

```
ar2000 -x macros push.obj
```

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:

```
ar2000 -r macros push.obj
```

- ❑ If you want to use a command file, specify the command filename after the `@` command. For example:

```
ar2000 @modules.cmd
```

The archiver responds as follows:

```
TMS320C28x Archiver           Version x.xx
Copyright (c) xxxx-xxxx Texas Instruments Incorporated
==> building archive 'modules.lib'
```

This is the `modules.cmd` 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.obj
bss.obj
data.obj
text.obj
sect.obj
clink.obj
copy.obj
double.obj
drnolist.obj
emsg.obj
end.obj
```

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.

Linker Description

The TMS320C28x™ linker creates executable modules by combining COFF object files. The concept of COFF sections is basic to linker operation; Chapter 2, *Introduction to Common Object File Format*, discusses the COFF format in detail.

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7.1 Linker Overview

The TMS320C28x linker allows you to configure system memory by allocating output sections efficiently into 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

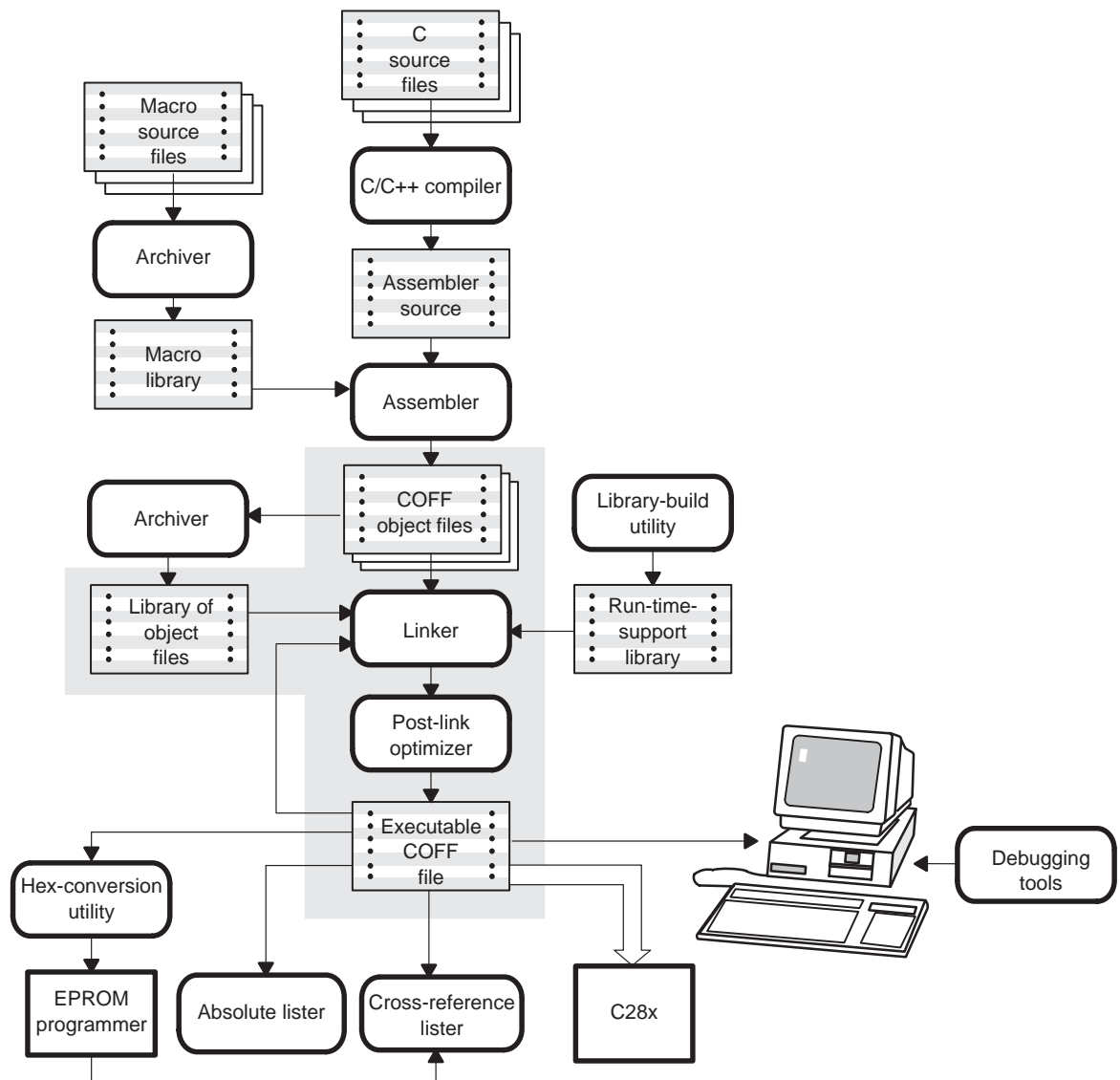
The linker command language controls memory configuration, output section definition, and address binding. The language supports expression assignment and evaluation. You configure system memory by defining and creating a memory model that you design. Two powerful directives, `MEMORY` and `SECTIONS`, allow you to:

- ☐ Allocate sections into specific areas of memory
- ☐ Combine object file sections
- ☐ Define or redefine global symbols at link time

7.2 The Linker's Role in the Software Development Flow

Figure 7-1 illustrates the linker's role in the software development process. The linker accepts several types of files as input, including object files, libraries, and partially linked files. The linker creates an executable COFF object module that can be downloaded to one of several development tools or executed by a TMS320C28x device.

Figure 7-1. The Linker in the TMS320C28x Software Development Flow



7.3 Invoking the Linker

The general syntax for invoking the linker is:

```
cl2000 -v28 -z [options] filename1 ... [filenamen]
```

cl2000 -v28 -z is the command that invokes the C28x linker.

<i>options</i>	can appear anywhere on the command line or in a linker command file. (Options are discussed in section 7.4, <i>Linker Options</i> .)
<i>filenames</i>	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 -o 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*.

```
cl2000 -v28 -z file1.obj file2.obj -o 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:

```
-o link.out
file1.obj
file2.obj
```

Now you can invoke the linker from the command line; specify the command filename as an input file:

```
cl2000 -v28 -z 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:

```
cl2000 -v28 -z -m 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 7.18, *Linking C/C++ Code*, on page 7-82.

7.4 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 (-). The order in which options are specified is unimportant, except for the -l and -I options. Since the -l option reads from the -I option(s), the -I option(s) must appear before the -l option. Options can be separated from arguments (if they have them) by an optional space. Table 7-1 summarizes the linker options.

Table 7-1. Linker Options Summary

Option	Description	Page
-a	Produces an absolute, executable module. This is the default; if neither -a nor -r is specified, the linker acts as if -a were specified.	7-6
-ar	Produces a relocatable, executable object module	7-6
-b	Disables merge of symbolic debugging information	7-8
-c	Autoinitializes variables at run time	7-8
-cr	Autoinitializes variables at load time	7-8
-e <i>global_symbol</i>	Defines a global <i>symbol</i> that specifies the primary entry point for the output module	7-9
-f <i>fill_value</i>	Sets the default fill value for holes within output sections; <i>fill_value</i> is a 16-bit constant	7-9
-g <i>symbol</i>	Makes <i>symbol</i> global (overrides -h)	7-9
-h	Makes all global symbols static	7-10
-heap <i>size</i>	Sets heap (for the dynamic memory allocation in C) size to <i>size</i> words and defines a global symbol that specifies the heap size. The default size is 1K words	7-10
-I <i>pathname</i> †	Alters the library-search algorithm to look in a directory named with <i>pathname</i> before looking in the default location. This option must appear before the -l option	7-11
-j	Disables conditional linking	7-13
-k	Forces the linker to ignore any SECTIONS directive alignment specification	7-13
-l <i>filename</i> †	Names an archive library or linker command file <i>filename</i> as linker input	7-10
-m <i>filename</i> †	Produces a map or listing of the input and output sections, including holes, and places the listing in <i>filename</i>	7-13

† The *pathname* or *filename* must follow operating-system conventions.

‡ For more information, see the *TMS320C28x Optimizing C/C++ Compiler User's Guide*.

Table 7–1. Linker Options Summary (Continued)

Option	Description	Page
<code>-o filename</code> [†]	Names the executable, output module. The default filename is <code>a.out</code>	7-14
<code>-priority</code>	Satisfies unresolved references by the first library that contains a definition for that symbol	7-17
<code>-q</code>	Suppresses the banner and all progress information (quiet)	7-15
<code>-r</code>	Produces a nonexecutable, relocatable output module	7-6
<code>-s</code>	Strips symbol-table information and line-number entries from the output module	7-15
<code>-stack size</code>	Sets C system stack size to <i>size</i> words and defines a global symbol that specifies the stack size. The default size is 1K words	7-15
<code>-u symbol</code>	Places an unresolved external <i>symbol</i> into the output module's symbol table	7-16
<code>-w</code>	Displays a message when an undefined output section is created	7-16
<code>-x</code>	Forces rereading of libraries, which resolves back references	7-17
<code>--xml_link_info file</code>	Generates a well-formed XML <i>file</i> containing detailed information about the result of a link.	7-18

[†] The *pathname* or *filename* must follow operating-system conventions.
[‡] For more information, see the *TMS320C28x Optimizing C/C++ Compiler User's Guide*.

7.4.1 Relocation Capabilities (–a and –r Options)

The linker performs relocation, which is the process of adjusting all references to a symbol when the symbol's address changes. The linker supports two options (–a and –r) that allow you to produce an absolute or relocatable output module.

❑ Producing an absolute output module (–a option)

When you use the –a option without the –r 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 (section 7.14.4 on page 7-56)
- An optional 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`:

```
cl2000 -v28 -z -a file1.obj file2.obj
```

Note: The `-a` and `-r` Options

If you do not use the `-a` or the `-r` option, the linker acts as if you specified `-a`.

❑ Producing a relocatable output module (`-r` option)

When you use the `-r` option without the `-a` option, the linker retains relocation entries in the output module. If the output module will be relocated (at load time) or relinked (by another linker execution), use `-r` to retain the relocation entries.

The linker produces a file that is not executable when you use the `-r` option without `-a`. A file that is not executable does not contain special linker symbols or an optional header. The file may 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`:

```
cl2000 -v28 -z -r 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 7.17, *Partial (Incremental) Linking*, on page 7-80.)

❑ Producing an executable, relocatable output module (`-ar` option combination)

If you invoke the linker with both the `-a` and `-r` 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, but the relocation information is retained.

This example links `file1.obj` and `file2.obj` and creates an executable, relocatable output module called `xr.out`:

```
cl2000 -v28 -z -ar file1.obj file2.obj -o xr.out
```

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).

7.4.2 Disable Merge of Symbolic Debugging Information (`-b` Option)

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 merges the duplicate entries automatically.

To disable the merge of duplicate entries, use the `-b` linker command option. The linker runs faster and uses less machine memory when using `-b`. The `-b` option should appear before object files, or it will be ignored by the linker.

7.4.3 C Language Options (`-c` and `-cr` Options)

The `-c` and `-cr` options cause the linker to use linking conventions that are required by the C/C++ compiler.

- ☐ The `-c` option tells the linker to autoinitialize variables at run time.
- ☐ The `-cr` option tells the linker to autoinitialize variables at load time.

For more information, see section 7.18, *Linking C Code*, on page 7-82; section 7.18.4, *Autoinitialization of Variables at Run Time*, on page 7-83; and section 7.18.5, *Autoinitialization of Variables at Load Time*, on page 7-84.

7.4.4 Define an Entry Point (**-e 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.

- 1) The value specified by the **-e** option. The syntax is:

-e *global_symbol*

where *global_symbol* defines the entry point and must appear as an external symbol in one of the input files.

- 2) 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/C++ compiler.
- 3) The value of symbol `_main` (if present)
- 4) 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`.

```
cl2000 -v28 -z -e begin file1.obj file2.obj
```

7.4.5 Set Default Fill Value (**-f fill_value Option**)

The **-f** option fills the holes formed within output sections or initializes uninitialized sections when they are combined with initialized sections. This allows you to initialize memory areas during link time without reassembling a source file. The argument *fill_value* is a 16-bit constant (up to four hexadecimal digits). If you do not use **-f**, the linker uses 0 as the default fill value.

This example fills holes with the hexadecimal value ABCD:

```
cl2000 -v28 -z -f 0ABCDh file1.obj file2.obj
```

For more information on creating and filling holes, see section 7.15, *Creating and Filling Holes*, on page 7-61.

7.4.6 Make a Symbol Global (**-g symbol Option**)

The **-h** option makes all global symbols static. If you have a symbol that you want to remain global and you use the **-h** option, you can use the **-g** option to declare that symbol to be global. The **-g** option overrides the effect of the **-h** option for the symbol that you specify. The syntax for the **-g** option is:

-g *symbol*

7.4.7 Make All Global Symbols Static (**-h** Option)

The **-h** 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 **-h** 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 **-h** 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`.

```
cl2000 -v28 -z -h file1.obj file2.obj
```

7.4.8 Define Heap Size (**-heap size** Option)

The C/C++ compiler uses an uninitialized section called `.sysmem` for the C memory pool used by `malloc()`. You can set the size of this memory pool at link time by using the **-heap** option. Specify the *size* as a constant immediately after the option. The example below creates a heap that is 2K words in size:

```
cl2000 -v28 -z -heap 0x0800 /* defines a 2k heap (.sysmem section)*/
```

The linker creates the `.sysmem` section only if there is a `.sysmem` section in an input file.

The linker also creates a global symbol `__SYSMEM_SIZE` and assigns it a value equal to the size of the heap. The default size is 1K words.

For more information, see section 7.18, *Linking C Code*, on page 7-82.

7.4.9 Alter the Library Search Algorithm (**-l** Option, **-I** Option, and **C_DIR** Environment Variable)

Usually, when you want to specify a library or linker command file as linker input, you simply enter the library or command filename as you would any other input filename; the linker looks for the filename in the current directory. For example, suppose the current directory contains the library `object.lib`. Assume that this library defines symbols that are referenced in the file `file1.obj`. This is how you link the files:

```
cl2000 -v28 -z file1.obj object.lib
```

If you want to use a library or command file that is not in the current directory, use the **-l** (lowercase L) linker option. The syntax for this option is:

-l filename

The *filename* is the name of an archive library or linker command file; the space between **-l** and the filename is optional.

You can augment the linker's directory search algorithm by using the `-I` linker option or the environment variable. The linker searches for object libraries specified by the `-I` option in the following order:

- 1) It searches directories named with the `-I` linker option. The `-I` option must appear before the `-l` option on the command line or in a command file.
- 2) It searches directories named with `C_DIR`.
- 3) If `C_DIR` is not set, it searches directories named with the assembler's `A_DIR` environment variable.
- 4) It searches the current directory.

7.4.9.1 Name an Alternate Library Directory (`-I` pathname Option)

The `-I` option names an alternate directory that contains object libraries. The syntax for this option is:

`-I` *pathname*

The *pathname* names a directory that contains object libraries; the space between `-I` and the *pathname* is optional.

When the linker is searching for object libraries named with the `-l` option, it searches through directories named with `-I` first. Each `-I` option specifies only one directory, but you can use up to 128 `-I` options per invocation. When you use the `-I` option to name an alternate directory, it must precede any `-l` 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`. Assume the following paths for the libraries:

UNIX: `/ld/r.lib` and `/ld2/lib2.lib`

Windows: `c:\ld\r.lib` and `c:\ld2\lib2.lib`

The following examples show how you can set the `-I` option and use both libraries during a link:

Operating System	Enter
UNIX	<code>c12000 -v28 -z f1.obj f2.obj -I/ld -I/ld2 -lr.lib -llib2.lib</code>
Windows	<code>c12000 -v28 -z f1.obj f2.obj -I\ld -I\ld2 -lr.lib -llib2.lib</code>

7.4.9.2 Name an Alternate Library Directory (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 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)	<code>C_DIR="pathname₁ pathname₂ . . ."; export C_DIR</code>
Windows	<code>set C_DIR= pathname₁;pathname₂; . . .</code>

The *pathnames* are directories that contain object libraries. Use the -l (lowercase L) linker option on the command line or in a command file to tell the linker to search these directories for the libraries.

For example, assume that there are two archive libraries called r.lib and lib2.lib. Assume the following paths for the library files:

- UNIX: /ld/r.lib and /ld2/lib2.lib
- Windows: c:\ld\r.lib and c:\ld2\lib2.lib

The following examples show how to set the environment variable and use both libraries during a link.

Operating System	Enter
UNIX	<code>setenv C_DIR "/ld ;/ld2"; export C_DIR c12000 -v28 -z f1.obj f2.obj -l r.lib -l lib2.lib</code>
Windows	<code>set C_DIR=ld;ld2 c12000 -v28 -z f1.obj f2.obj -l r.lib -l lib2.lib</code>

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

Operating System	Enter
UNIX	<code>unsetenv C_DIR</code>
Windows	<code>set C_DIR=</code>

The assembler uses an environment variable named A_DIR to name alternate directories that contain .copy/.include files or macro libraries. If C_DIR is not set, the linker searches for object libraries in the directories named with A_DIR. For more information about object libraries, see section 7.6 on page 7-22.

7.4.10 Disable Conditional Linking (`-j` Option)

The `-j` option disables conditional linking that has been set up with the assembler `.link` directive. By default, all sections are unconditionally linked. See page 4-32 for information on setting up conditional linking using the `.link` directive.

7.4.11 Ignore Alignment (`-k` Option)

The `-k` option forces the linker to ignore all alignments specified with the `.align` assembler directive. For more information about the `.align` directive, see page 4-22.

7.4.12 Create a Map File (`-m filename` Option)

The `-m` option creates a linker map listing and puts it in *filename*. The syntax for the `-m` option is:

`-m filename`

The linker map designates:

- ☐ Memory configuration
- ☐ Input and output section allocation
- ☐ The addresses of external symbols after they have been relocated

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). This information is generated on the basis of the information in the `MEMORY` directive in the linker command file. The table has the following columns:
 - **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.
 - **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.

- **Fill.** This specifies a fill character for the memory range.

For more information about the MEMORY directive, see section 7.7, *The MEMORY Directive*, on page 7-24.

- A table showing the linked addresses of each output section and the input sections that make up the output sections (section allocation map). This information is generated on the basis of the information in the SECTIONS directive in the linker command file. The table has the following columns:

- **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.

For more information about the SECTIONS directive, see section 7.8, *The SECTIONS Directive*, on page 7-29.

- Two tables showing external symbols and their address, one sorted by name, and one sorted by address.

This example links file1.obj and file2.obj and creates a map file called map.out:

```
cl2000 -v28 -z file1.obj file2.obj -m map.out
```

Example 7-23 on page 7-88 shows an example of a map file.

7.4.13 Name an Output Module (**-o filename** 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 -o option. The syntax for the -o option is:

-o 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:

```
cl2000 -v28 -z -o run.out file1.obj file2.obj
```

7.4.14 Specify a Quiet Run (**-q** Option)

The **-q** option suppresses the linker's banner, but it must be the first option listed. If it is not, the banner is displayed. This option is useful for batch operation.

7.4.15 Strip Symbolic Information (**-s** Option)

The **-s** option creates a smaller output module by omitting symbol-table information and line number entries. The **-s** option is useful for production applications when you must create the smallest possible output module.

This example links `file1.obj` and `file2.obj` and creates an output module that is stripped of line numbers and symbol-table information, named `nosym.out`.

```
cl2000 -v28 -z -o nosym.out -s file1.obj file2.obj
```

Because the **-s** option strips symbolic information from the output module, using the **-s** option limits later use of a symbolic debugger and prevents a file from being relinked.

7.4.16 Define Stack Size (**-stack size** Option)

The C/C++ compiler uses an uninitialized section, `.stack`, to allocate space for the run-time stack. You can set the size of this section at link time with the **-stack** option. Specify the size as a constant immediately after the option. The example below creates a stack that is 4K words in size:

```
cl2000 -v28 -z -stack 0x1000 /* defines a 4K stack (.stack section) */
```

If you specify 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, `__STACK_SIZE`, and assigns it a value equal to the size of the section. The default software stack size is 1K words.

7.4.17 Introduce an Unresolved Symbol (**-u symbol** Option)

The **-u** option introduces 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 **-u** option *before* it links in the member that defines the symbol. The syntax for the **-u** option is:

-u symbol

For example, suppose a library named `rts2800.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 would like to include the library member that defines `symtab` in this link.

Using the **-u** option as shown in the example that follows forces the linker to search `rts2800.lib` for the member that defines `symtab` and to link in the member.

```
cl2000 -v28 -z -u symtab file1.obj file2.obj rts2800.lib
```

If you do not use **-u**, this member is not included, because there is no explicit reference to it in `file1.obj` or `file2.obj`.

7.4.18 Display a Message When an Undefined Output Section Is Created (**-w** Option)

The **-w** linker command option displays additional messages pertaining to the creation of memory sections in the following circumstances:

- ☐ 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 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 when this has occurred.

If this situation occurs and you use the **-w** option, the linker displays a message when it creates a new output section.

- ☐ If you are linking C code and you do not use the **-heap** and **-stack** options, the linker creates the `.sysmem` and `.stack` sections, respectively, for you. Each section has a default size of 1K words. You might not have enough memory available for one or both of these sections. In this case, the linker issues an error message saying a section could not be allocated.

If you use the `-w` option, the linker displays another message with more information including which directive to use to allocate the `.sysmem` or `.stack` section yourself.

For more information about the `SECTIONS` directive, see section 7.8 on page 7-29. For more information about the default actions of the linker, see section 7.13 on page 7-51.

7.4.19 Exhaustively Read and Search Libraries (`-x` and `-priority` Options)

There are two ways to exhaustively search for unresolved symbols:

- ☐ Reread libraries if you cannot resolve a symbol reference (`-x`).
- ☐ 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 `-x` option, you can force the linker to reread all libraries. The linker rereads libraries until no more references can be resolved. Linking using `-x` 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:

```
cl2000 -v28 -z -la.lib -lb.lib -la.lib
```

or you can force the linker to do it for you:

```
cl2000 -v28 -z -x -la.lib -lb.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
```

```
% cl2000 -v28 -z 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 `rts55.lib` without providing a full replacement for `rts55.lib`. Using `-priority` and linking your new library before `rts55.lib` guarantees that all references to `malloc` and `free` resolve to the new library.

The `-priority` option is intended to support linking programs with DSP/BIOS where situations like the one illustrated above occur.

7.4.20 Generate XML Link Information File (`--xml_link_info` Option)

The 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.

See Appendix C, *XML Link Information File Description*, for specifics on the contents of the generated file.

7.5 Linker Command Files

Linker command files allow you to put linking information in a file; this is useful when you invoke the linker often with the same information. 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 items:

- ❑ 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 7.7, *The MEMORY Directive*, on page 7-24). The `SECTIONS` directive controls how sections are built and allocated (see section 7.8, *The SECTIONS Directive*, on page 7-29.)
- ❑ Assignment statements, which define and assign values to global symbols

To invoke the linker with a command file, enter the `cl2000 -v28 -z` command and follow it with the name of the command file:

```
cl2000 -v28 -z 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. If the linker recognizes the file as an object library, it uses that library to resolve any unresolved references. 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 7-1 shows a sample linker command file called `link.cmd`.

Example 7-1. Linker Command File

```
a.obj          /* First input filename      */
b.obj          /* Second input filename       */
-o prog.out    /* Option to specify output file */
-m prog.map    /* Option to specify map file    */
```

The sample file in Example 7–1 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:

```
cl2000 -v28 -z link.cmd
```

You can place other parameters on the command line when you use a command file:

```
cl2000 -v28 -z -r link.cmd c.obj d.obj
```

The linker processes the command file as soon as it encounters it, 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:

```
cl2000 -v28 -z 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. Example 7–2 shows a sample command file that contains linker directives. For more information about the `MEMORY` directive, see section 7.7, *The MEMORY Directive*, on page 7-24. For more information about the `SECTIONS` directive, see section 7.8, *The SECTIONS Directive*, on page 7-29.

Example 7–2. Command File With Linker Directives

```
a.obj b.obj c.obj          /* Input filenames      */
-o prog.out -m prog.map    /* Options          */

MEMORY                     /* MEMORY directive  */
{
    RAM:  origin = 0100h    length = 0100h
    ROM:  origin = 01000h   length = 0100h
}

SECTIONS                   /* SECTIONS directive */
{
    .text:  > ROM
    .data:  > ROM
    .bss:   > RAM
}
```

7.5.1 Reserved Names in Linker Command Files

The following names are reserved as keywords for linker directives. Do not use them as symbol or section names in a command file.

align	group	origin
ALIGN	GROUP	ORIGIN
attr	l (lowercase L)	page
ATTR	len	PAGE
block	length	range
BLOCK	LENGTH	run
COPY	load	RUN
DSECT	LOAD	SECTIONS
f	MEMORY	spare
fill	NOLOAD	type
FILL	o	TYPE
	org	UNION

7.5.2 Constants in Linker Command Files

The linker uses the same syntax for constants that the assembler uses except that it does not support the binary format. See section 3.6, *Constants*, on page 3-13 for a complete description.

7.6 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. Chapter 6, *Archiver Description*, 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, the `-x` option can be used to reread libraries until no more references can be resolved (see section 7.4.19, *Exhaustively Read Libraries (-x Option)*, on page 7-17). 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:

```
c12000 -v28 -z 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 (`liba.lib`) 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:

```
cl2000 -v28 -z 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 `-u` option to force the linker to include a library member. (See section 7.4.17, *Introduce an Unresolved Symbol (-u symbol Option)*, on page 7-16.) The next example creates an undefined symbol `route1` in the linker's global symbol table:

```
cl2000 -v28 -z -u route1 libc.lib
```

If any member of libc.lib defines `route1`, the linker includes that member.

It is not possible to control the allocation of individual library members; members are allocated according to the `SECTIONS` directive default allocation algorithm. For more information, see section 7.8, *The SECTIONS Directive*, on page 7-29.

Section 7.4.9, *Alter the Library Search Algorithm (-I Option, -I Option, and C_DIR Environment Variable)*, on page 7-10 describes methods for specifying directories that contain object libraries.

7.7 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 it uses the model to determine which memory locations can be used for object code.

The memory configurations of TMS320C28x 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 2.3, *How the Linker Handles Sections*, on page 2-11, and section 2.4, *Relocation*, on page 2-14.

7.7.1 Default Memory Model

If you do not use the MEMORY directive, the linker uses a default memory model that is based on the TMS320C28x architecture. For more information about the default memory model, see section 7.13, *Default Allocation Algorithm*, on page 7-51.

7.7.2 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

TMS320C28x devices have separate memory spaces (pages) that occupy the same address ranges (overlay). In the default memory map, one space is dedicated to the program area, while a second is dedicated to the data area. (For detailed information about overlaying pages, see section 7.11, *Overlaying Pages*, on page 7-46.

In the linker command file, you configure the address spaces separately by using the MEMORY directive's PAGE option. The linker treats each page as a separate memory space. The TMS320C28x supports up to 255 address spaces, but the number of address spaces available depends on the customized configuration of your device (see the *TMS320C28x User's Guide* for more information.)

When you use the MEMORY directive, be sure to identify all memory ranges that are available for loading code. 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 7–3 defines a system that has 4K words of ROM at address 0C00h in program memory, 32 words of RAM at address 60h in data memory, and 512 words at address 200h in data memory.

Example 7–3. The MEMORY Directive

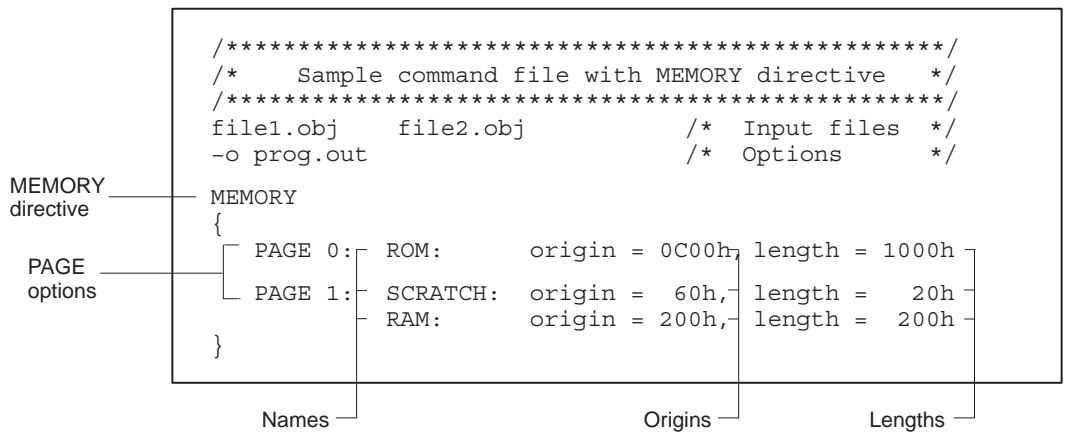
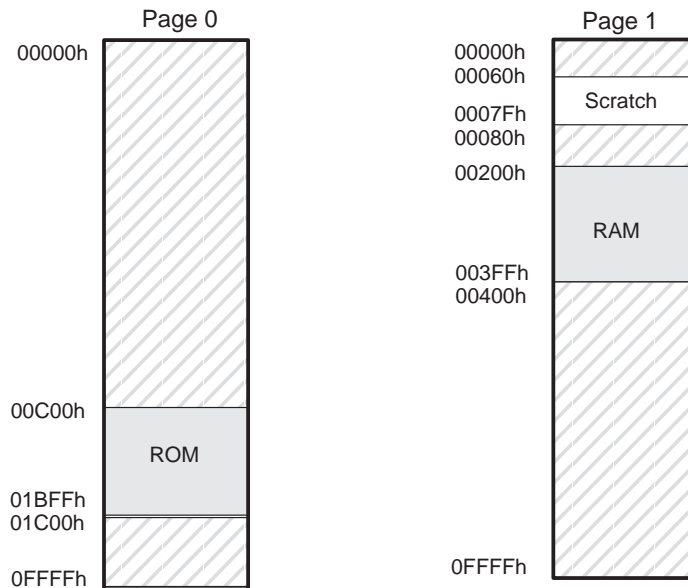


Figure 7–2 illustrates the memory map described in Example 7–3.

Figure 7–2. Memory Map Defined in Example 7–3



You can use the `SECTIONS` directive to tell the linker where to link the sections. For more information, see section 7.8, *The SECTIONS Directive*, on page 7-29.

The general syntax for the `MEMORY` directive is:

```
MEMORY
{
  [PAGE 0 : ] name [(attr)] : origin = constant, length = constant[, fill = constant];
  [PAGE 1 : ] name [(attr)] : origin = constant, length = constant[, fill = constant];
  .
  .
  .
  [PAGE n : ] name [(attr)] : origin = constant, length = constant[, fill = constant];
}
```


PAGE	identifies a memory space. You can specify up to 32 767 pages. Usually, PAGE 0 specifies program memory, and PAGE 1 specifies data memory. If you do not specify PAGE, the linker uses PAGE 0. Each PAGE represents a completely independent address space. Configured memory on PAGE 0 can overlap configured memory on PAGE 1 and so on.
<i>name</i>	names a memory range. A memory name can be one to eight characters; valid characters include A–Z, a–z, \$, ., and <code>_</code> . 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.
<i>attr</i>	<p>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 include:</p> <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 22-bit constant and 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 22-bit constant and can be decimal, octal, or hexadecimal.
fill	specifies a fill character for the memory range; enter as <i>fill</i> or <i>f</i> . Fills are optional. The value is a 16-bit 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.

Note: Filling Memory Ranges

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 0FFFFh:

```
MEMORY
{
    RFILE (RW) : o = 02h, l = 0FEh, f = 0FFFFh
}
```

You normally use the MEMORY directive in conjunction with the SECTIONS directive to control allocation of output sections. 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.

7.8 The SECTIONS Directive

The SECTIONS directive:

- ☐ Describes how input sections are combined into output sections
- ☐ Defines output sections in the executable program
- ☐ Specifies where output sections are placed in memory (in relation to each other and to the entire memory space)
- ☐ Permits renaming of output sections

For more information, see section 2.3, *How the Linker Handles Sections*, on page 2-11; section 2.4, *Relocation*, on page 2-14; and section 2.2.4, *Subsections*, on page 2-7. 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 7.13, *Default Allocation Algorithm*, on page 7-51 describes this algorithm in detail.

7.8.1 SECTIONS Directive Syntax

The SECTIONS directive is specified in a command file by the word SECTIONS (uppercase), followed by a list of output section specifications enclosed in braces.

The general syntax for the SECTIONS directive is:

```
SECTIONS
{
    name : [property [, property] [, property] . . . ]
    name : [property [, property] [, property] . . . ]
    name : [property [, property] [, property] . . . ]
}
```

Each section specification, beginning with *name*, defines an output section. (An output section is a section in the output file.) A section name can be a subsection specification. After the section name is a list of properties that define the section's contents and how the section is allocated. The properties can be separated by optional commas. Possible properties for a section are:

- ☐ **Load allocation** defines where in memory the section is to be loaded.

Syntax:

```
load = allocation      or
load > allocation     or
> allocation
```

Allocation represents portions of the syntax that specify how sections are placed in the target memory.

- ❑ **Run allocation** defines where in memory the section is to be run.

Syntax:

run = *allocation* or
run > *allocation*

- ❑ **Input sections** defines the input sections (object files) that constitute the output section.

Syntax:

{ *input_sections* }

- ❑ **Section type** defines flags for special section types.

Syntax:

type = **COPY** or
type = **DSECT** or
type = **NOLOAD**

For more information, see section 7.12, *Special Section Types (DSECT, COPY, and NOLOAD)*, on page 7-50.

- ❑ **Fill value** defines the value used to fill uninitialized holes.

Syntax:

fill = *value* or
name : [*properties*] = *value*

For more information, see section 7.15, *Creating and Filling Holes*, on page 7-61.

Example 7–4 shows a SECTIONS directive in a sample linker command file.

Example 7–4. The SECTIONS Directive

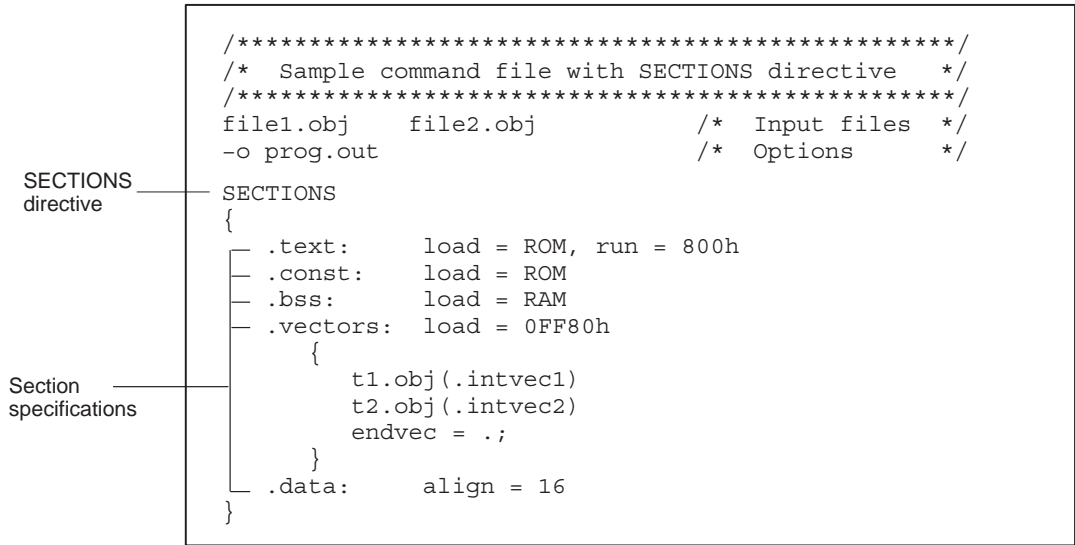
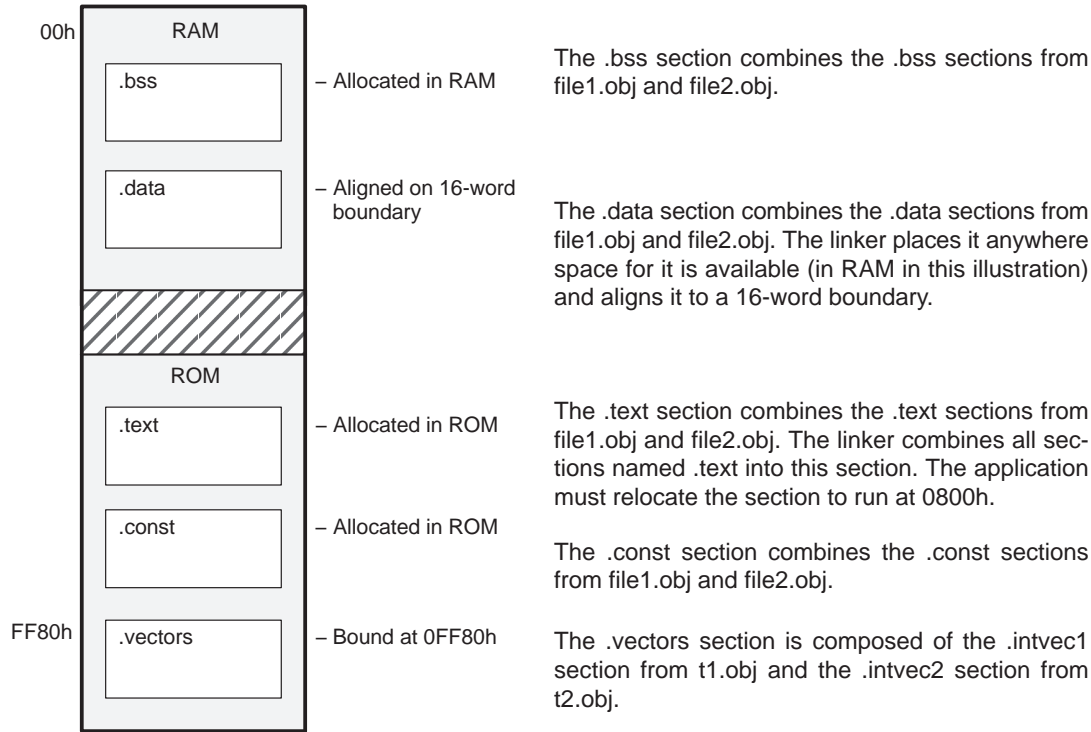


Figure 7–3 shows the five output sections defined by the SECTIONS directive in Example 7–4: .vectors, .text, .const, .bss, and .data.

Figure 7–3. Section Allocation Defined in Example 7–4



7.8.2 Allocation

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 allocation. For more information about using separate load and run allocation, see section 7.9, *Specifying a Section's Run-Time Address*, on page 7-39.

If you do not tell the linker how a section is to be allocated, it uses a default algorithm to allocate the section. Generally, the linker puts sections wherever they fit into configured memory. You can override this default allocation for a section by defining it within a SECTIONS directive and providing instructions on how to allocate it.

You control allocation 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 allocation are separate, all parameters following the keyword LOAD apply to load allocation, and those following the keyword RUN apply to run allocation. Possible allocation parameters are:

Binding	allocates a section at a specific address. <code>.text: load = 0x1000</code>
Named memory	allocates the section into a range defined in the MEMORY directive with the specified name or attributes. <code>.text: load > ROM</code>
Alignment	uses the align keyword to specify that the section must start on an address boundary. <code>.text: load = align(128)</code>
Blocking	uses the block keyword to specify that the section must fit between two address boundaries. If the section is too big, it will start on an address boundary. <code>.bss: load = block(0x80)</code>
Page	specifies the memory page to be used. <code>.text: load = OVR_MEM PAGE 1</code>

For the load (usually the only) allocation, you can simply use a greater-than sign and omit the load keyword:

```
.text: > ROM           .text: {...} > ROM
.text: > 0x1000
```

If more than one parameter is used, you can string them together as follows:

```
.text: > ROM align 16 PAGE 2
```

Or if you prefer, use parentheses for readability:

```
.text: load = (ROM align(16) page (2))
```

You can also use an input section specification to identify the sections from input files that are combined to form an output section. For more information, see section 7.8.3, *Specifying Input Sections*, on page 7-36.

The following sections describe these allocation parameters.

7.8.2.1 Binding

You can supply a specific starting address for an output section by following the section name with an address:

```
.text: 0x1000
```

This example specifies that the .text section must begin at location 0x1000. The binding address must be a 22-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.

Note: Binding Is Incompatible With Alignment and Named Memory

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.

7.8.2.2 Named Memory

You can allocate a section into a memory range that is defined by the MEMORY directive (see section 7.7, *The MEMORY Directive*, on page 7-24). This example names ranges and links sections into them:

```
MEMORY
{
    ROM (RIX) : origin = 0C00h, length = 1000h
    RAM (RWIX) : origin = 80h, length = 1000h
}

SECTIONS
{
    .text : > ROM
    .data : > RAM
    .bss : > RAM
}
```

In this example, the linker places `.text` into the area called ROM. The `.data` and `.bss` output sections are allocated into RAM.

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 ROM or RAM area because both areas have the X attribute. The `.data` section can also go into either ROM or RAM because both areas have the R and I attributes. The `.bss` output section, however, must go into the RAM area because only RAM 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.

7.8.2.3 Alignment and Blocking

You can tell the linker to place an output section at an address that falls on an *n*-word boundary, where *n* is a power of 2, by using the *align* keyword. For example, the following statement allocates `.text` so that it falls on a 128-word boundary.:

```
.text: load = align(128)
```

You can also align a section within a named memory range. For example:

```
.data : align(128) > RAM
```

In this example, the `.data` section is aligned on a 128-word boundary within the RAM range.

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 statement allocates `.bss` so that the entire section is contained in a single 64K-word page or begins on a page:

```
bss: load = block(0x40)
```

You can use alignment or blocking alone or in conjunction with a memory area, but alignment and blocking cannot be used together.

7.8.2.4 Using the Page Method

Using the page method of specifying an address, you can allocate a section into an address space that is named in the MEMORY directive. For example:

```
MEMORY
{
    PAGE 0 :  PROG      : origin = 0800h,   length = 0240h
    PAGE 1 :  DATA     : origin = 0A00h,   length = 02200h
    PAGE 1 :  OVR_MEM   : origin = 02D00,   length = 01000h
    PAGE 2 :  DATA     : origin = 0A00h,   length = 02200h
    PAGE 2 :  OVR_MEM   : origin = 02D00,   length = 01000h
}
SECTIONS
{
    .text:    PAGE = 0
    .data:    PAGE = 2
    .cinit:   PAGE = 0
    .bss:     PAGE = 1
}
```

In this example, the .text and .cinit sections are allocated to PAGE 0. They are placed anywhere within the bounds of PAGE 0. The .data section is allocated anywhere within the bounds of PAGE 2. The .bss section is allocated anywhere within the bounds of PAGE 1.

You can use the page method in conjunction with any of the other methods to restrict an allocation to a specific address space. For example:

```
.text: load = OVR_MEM PAGE 1
```

In this example, the .text section is allocated to the named memory range OVR_MEM. There are two named memory ranges called OVR_MEM, however, so you must specify which one is to be used. By adding PAGE 1, you specify the use of the OVR_MEM memory range in address space PAGE 1 rather than in address space PAGE 2.

7.8.3 Specifying Input Sections

An input section specification identifies the sections from input files that are combined to form an output section. The linker combines input sections by concatenating them in the order in which they are specified. The size of an output section is the sum of the sizes of the input sections that it comprises.

Example 7–5 shows the most common type of section specification; no input sections are listed.

Example 7–5. The Most Common Method of Specifying Section Contents

```
SECTIONS
{
    .text:
    .data:
    .bss:
}
```

In Example 7–5, 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 in which 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:

```
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.obj                           /* Link ALL sections from f3.obj */
        f4.obj(.text,sec2) /* Link .text and sec2 from f4.obj */
    }
}
```

It is not necessary for the input sections that make up an output section to have the same name. It is also not necessary for the input sections to have the same name as the output section of which they become part. 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 7–5 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 the input files*. This format is useful when:

- ❑ You want the output section to contain all input sections that have a specified name, but the output section's name is different than the input sections' names.
- ❑ 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 cases described in the preceding list:

```
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`. All unallocated sections are included. For example, if one of the `.text` input sections was already included in another output section when the linker encounters `*(.text)`, the linker can not include that first `.text` input section in the second output section.

7.8.4 Allocating an Archive Member to an Output Section

The linker allows you to allocate one or more members of an archive library into a specific output section. The syntax for such an allocation is:

```
SECTIONS
{
    .output_sec
    {
        [-l] lib_name<obj1 [obj2...objn]> (.sec_name)
    }
}
```

In this syntax, the *lib_name* is the archive library. The *-l* is optional, since the library search algorithm is always used to search for the archive. For more information on the *-l* option, see Section 7.4.9, *Alter the Library Search Algorithm*, on page 7-10. Brackets (<>) are used to specify the archive member(s). The brackets may contain one or more object files, separated by a space. The *sec_name* is the archive section to be allocated.

For example:

```
SECTIONS
{
    .boot > BOOT1
    {
        -l rts2800.lib<boot.obj exit.obj strcpy.obj> (.text)
    }
    .rts > BOOT2
    {
        -l rts2800.lib (.text)
    }
    .text > RAM
    {
        * (.text)
    }
}
```

In the specification above, the *.text* sections of *boot.obj*, *exit.obj*, and *strcpy.obj* from *rts2800.lib* will be placed in the *.boot* section.

The remainder of the *.text* sections from *rts2800.lib* will be placed in the *.rts* section.

All other unallocated *.text* sections will be placed in the *.text* section.

7.9 Specifying a Section's Run-Time Address

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 2.4.1, *Run-Time Relocation*, on page 2-16 for an overview on run-time relocation.

7.9.1 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. 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.

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 7.10.1, *Overlaying Sections With the UNION Statement*, on page 7-43.)

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 encountered, 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 below specify load and run addresses:

```
.data: load = ROM, align = 32, run = RAM /* align load only */
.data: load = (ROM align 32), run = RAM /* align load only */
.data: run = RAM, align 32 /* align 32 in RAM for run */
      load = align 16 /* align 16 anywhere for load */
```

7.9.2 Uninitialized Sections

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. 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 = RAM
```

A warning is issued, load is ignored, and space is allocated in RAM. All of the following examples have the same effect. The `.bss` section is allocated in RAM.

```
.bss: load = RAM  
.bss: run = RAM  
.bss: > RAM
```

7.9.3 Referring to the Load Address by Using the `.label` Directive

Normally any reference to a symbol in a section refers to its run-time address. However, it may be necessary at run time to refer to a load-time address. Specifically, the code that copies a section from its load address to its run address must have access to the load address. The `.label` directive defines a special symbol that refers to the section's load address. Thus, whereas normal symbols are relocated with respect to the run address, `.label` symbols are relocated with respect to the load address. For more information on the `.label` directive, see page 4-52.

Example 7-6 shows the use of the `.label` directive.

Example 7-6. Copying a Section From ROM to RAM**(a) Assembly language file**

```

;-----
;  define a section to be copied from DATA to PROGRAM
;-----
.sect  ".fir"
.label fir_src      ; load address of section
fir:                ; run address of section
    <code here>      ; code for the section
    .label fir_end   ; load address of section end
;-----
;  copy .fir section from DATA into PROGRAM
;-----
.text
MOV    XAR6, fir_src
MOV    XAR7, #fir
RPT    #(fir_end - fir_src - 1)
|| PWRITE *XAR7, *XAR6++
;-----
;  jump to section, now in RAM
;-----
B    fir

```

(b) Linker command file

```

/*****/
/*PARTIAL LINKER COMMAND FILE FOR FIR EXAMPLE */
/*****/

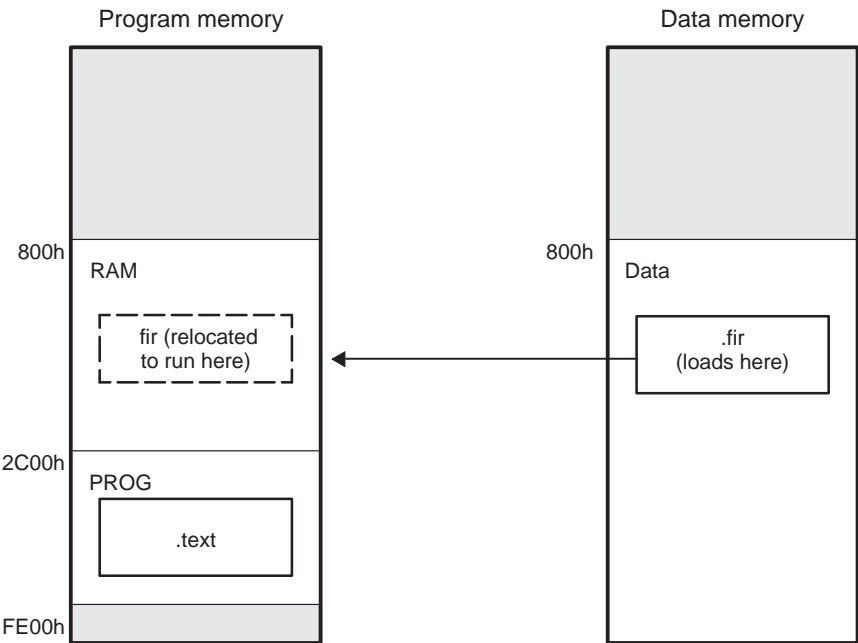
MEMORY
{
    PAGE 0 :  RAM    :  origin = 0800h,   length = 02400h
    PAGE 0 :  PROG   :  origin = 02C00h,   length = 0D200h
    PAGE 1 :  DATA  :  origin = 0800h,   length = 0F800h
}

SECTIONS
{
    .text: load = PROG PAGE 0
    .fir:  load = DATA PAGE 1, run RAM PAGE 0
}

```

Figure 7-4 illustrates the run-time execution of Example 7-6.

Figure 7-4. Run-Time Execution of Example 7-6



7.10 Using UNION and GROUP Statements

Two SECTIONS statements allow you to conserve memory: GROUP and UNION. Unioning sections causes the linker to allocate them to the same run address. Grouping sections causes the linker to allocate them contiguously in memory. Section names can refer to sections, subsections, or archive library members.

7.10.1 Overlaying Sections With the UNION Statement

For some applications, you may want to allocate more than one section to run at the same address. For example, you may have several routines you want in fast external memory at various 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 7–7, the .bss sections from file1.obj and file2.obj are allocated at the same address in RAM. 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 7–7. The UNION Statement

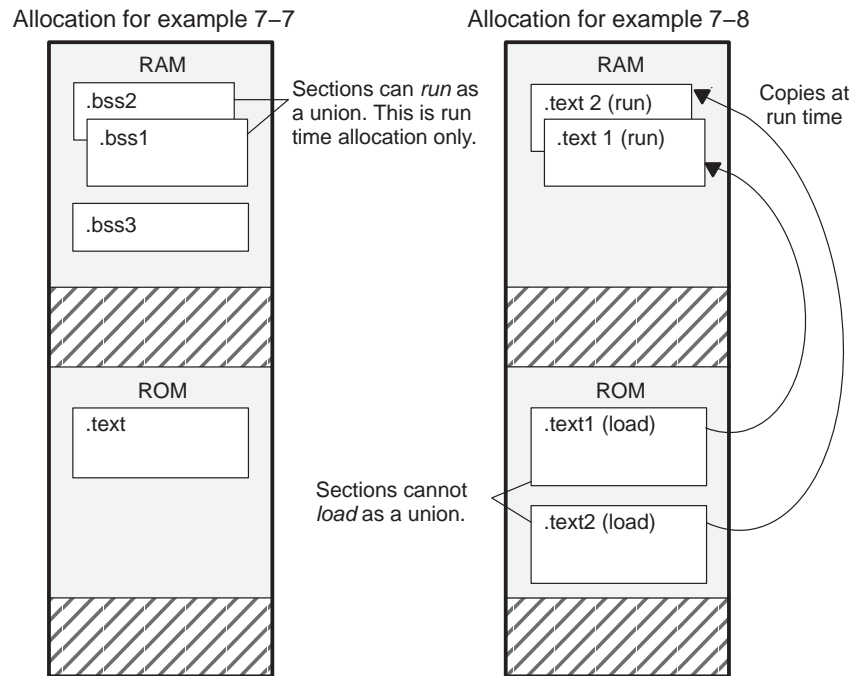
```
SECTIONS
{
    .text: load = ROM
    UNION: run = RAM
    {
        .bss1: { file1.obj(.bss) }
        .bss2: { file2.obj(.bss) }
    }
    .bss3: run = RAM { globals.obj(.bss) }
```

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, as shown in Example 7–8.

Example 7–8. Separate Load Addresses for UNION Sections

```
UNION: run = RAM
{
    .text1: load = ROM, { file1.obj(.text) }
    .text2: load = ROM, { file2.obj(.text) }
}
```

Figure 7–5. Memory Allocation Shown in Example 7–7 and Example 7–8



Since the `.text` sections contain 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.

7.10.2 Grouping Output Sections Together

The SECTIONS directive's GROUP option forces several output sections to be allocated contiguously. 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 7–9. Allocate Sections Together

```
SECTIONS
{
    .text          /* Normal output section          */
    .bss           /* Normal output section          */
    GROUP 1000h :   /* 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 1000h. This means that .data is allocated at 1000h, and term_rec follows it in memory.

Note: You Cannot Specify Addresses for Sections Within a GROUP

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.

7.11 Overlaying Pages

Some devices use a memory configuration in which all or part of the memory space is overlaid by shadow memory. This allows the system to map different banks of physical memory into and out of a single address range in response to hardware selection signals. In other words, multiple banks of physical memory overlay each other at one address range. You may want the linker to load various output sections into each of these banks or into banks that are not mapped at load time.

The linker supports this feature by providing *overlay pages*. Each page represents an address range that must be configured separately with the MEMORY directive. You then use the SECTIONS directive to specify the sections to be mapped into various pages.

Note: Overlay Section and Overlay Page Are Not the Same

The UNION capability and the *overlay page* capability (see section 7.10.1, *Overlaying Sections With the UNION Statement*, on page 7-43) sound similar because they both deal with overlays. They are, in fact, quite different. UNION allows multiple sections to be overlaid within the same memory space. Overlay pages, on the other hand, define multiple memory spaces. It is possible to use the page facility to approximate the function of UNION, but it is cumbersome.

7.11.1 Using the MEMORY Directive to Define Overlay Pages

To the linker, each overlay page represents a completely separate memory space comprising the full range of addressable locations. In this way, you can link two or more sections at the same (or overlapping) addresses if they are on different pages.

Pages are numbered sequentially, beginning with 0. If you do not use the PAGE option, the linker allocates initialized sections into PAGE 0 (program memory) and uninitialized sections into PAGE 1 (data memory).

7.11.2 Example of Overlay Pages

Assume that your system can select between two banks of physical memory for data memory space: address range A00h to FFFFh for PAGE 1 and 0A00h to 2BFF for PAGE 2. Although only one bank can be selected at a time, you can initialize each bank with different data. Example 7–10 shows how you use the MEMORY directive to obtain this configuration:

Example 7–10. Memory Directive With Overlay Pages

```
MEMORY
{
    PAGE 0    : RAM      :origin = 0800h,    length = 0240h
               : PROG     :origin = 02C00h,   length = 0D200h
    PAGE 1    : OVR_MEM  :origin = 0A00h,    length = 02200h
               : DATA    :origin = 02C00h,   length = 0D400h
    PAGE 2    : OVR_MEM  :origin = 0A00h,    length = 02200h
}
```

Example 7–10 defines three separate address spaces.

- ☐ PAGE 0 defines an area of RAM program memory space and the rest of program memory space.
- ☐ PAGE 1 defines the first overlay memory area and the rest of data memory space.
- ☐ PAGE 2 defines another area of overlay memory for data space.

Both OVR_MEM ranges cover the same address range. This is possible because each range is on a different page and therefore represents a different memory space.

7.11.3 Using Overlay Pages With the SECTIONS Directive

Assume that you are using the MEMORY directive as shown in Example 7–10. Further assume that your code consists of the standard sections, as well as four modules of code that you want to load in data memory space and run in RAM program memory. Example 7–11 shows how to use the SECTIONS directive overlays to accomplish these objectives.

Example 7–11. SECTIONS Directive Definition for Overlays in Example 7–10

```
SECTIONS
{
    UNION :    run = RAM
    {
        S1 :   load = OVR_MEM PAGE 1
        {
            s1_load = 0A00h;
            s1_start = .;
            f1.obj (.text)
            f2.obj (.text)
            s1_length = . - s1_start;
        }
        S2 :   load = OVR_MEM PAGE 2
        {
            s2_load = 0A00h;
            s2_start = .;
            f3.obj (.text)
            f4.obj (.text)
            s2_length = . - s2_start;
        }
    }

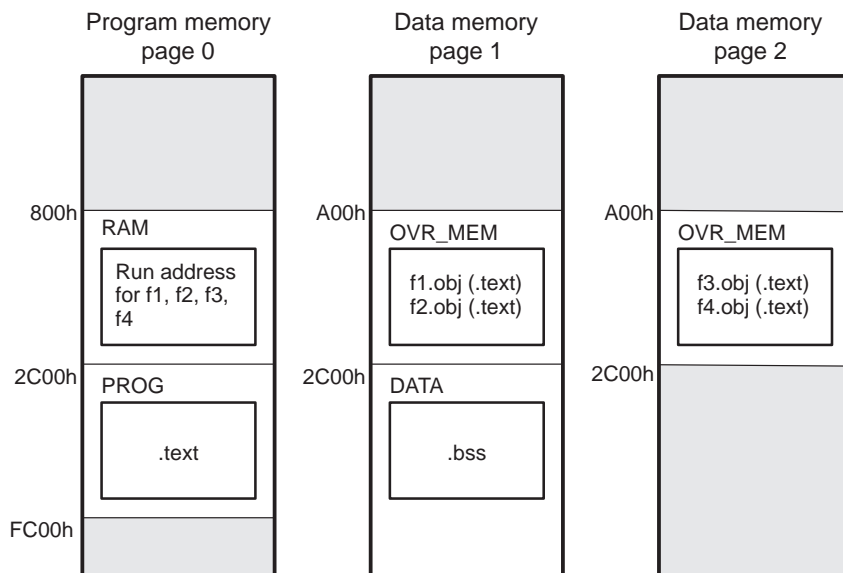
    .text: load = PROG PAGE 0
    .data: load = PROG PAGE 0
    .bss : load = DATA PAGE 1
}
```

The four modules are f1, f2, f3, and f4. Modules f1 and f2 are combined into output section S1, and f3 and f4 are combined into output section S2. The PAGE specifications for S1 and S2 tell the linker to link these sections into the corresponding pages. As a result, they are both linked to load address A00h, but in different memory spaces. When the program is loaded, a loader can configure hardware so that each section is loaded into the appropriate memory bank.

7.11.4 Memory Allocation for Overlaid Pages

Figure 7–6 shows overlay pages defined by the MEMORY directive in Example 7–10 and the SECTIONS directive in Example 7–11.

Figure 7–6. Overlay Pages Defined in Example 7–10 and Example 7–11



7.12 Special Section Types (DSECT, COPY, and NOLOAD)

You can assign three special types to output sections: DSECT, COPY, and NOLOAD. These types affect the way that the program is treated when it is linked and loaded. For example:

```
SECTIONS
{
    sec1: load = 0x00002000, type =    DSECT    {f1.obj}
    sec2: load = 0x00004000, type =    COPY     {f2.obj}
    sec3: load = 0x00006000, type =    NOLOAD   {f3.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 within it are relocated normally. They appear in the output module's symbol table with the same value they would have if the DSECT section had actually been loaded. These symbols can be referenced by other input sections.
- Undefined external symbols found within it cause specified archive libraries to be searched.
- Its 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 0x00002000. 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 TMS320C28x C/C++ compiler has this attribute under the run-time initialization model.
- ☐ A NOLOAD section differs from a normal output section in one respect: its 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.

7.13 Default Allocation

The MEMORY and SECTIONS directives provide flexible methods for building, combining, and allocating sections. However, any memory locations or sections that you choose *not* to specify must still be handled by the linker. The linker uses default algorithms to build and allocate sections within the specifications you supply.

If you do not use the MEMORY and SECTIONS directives, the linker allocates output sections as though the definitions in Example 7–12 were specified.

Example 7–12. Default Allocation for TMS320C28x Devices

```
MEMORY
{
    PAGE 0: PROG:  origin = 0x000040  length = 0x3fffc0
    PAGE 1: DATA: origin = 0x000000  length = 0x010000
    PAGE 1: DATA1: origin = 0x010000  length = 0x3f0000
}
SECTIONS
{
    .text:      PAGE = 0
    .data:      PAGE = 0
    .cinit:     PAGE = 0    /* Used only for C programs */
    .bss:       PAGE = 1
}
```

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.

7.13.1 Output Section Formation

If you use a SECTIONS directive, the linker performs *no part* of the default allocation. Allocation is performed according to the rules specified by the SECTIONS directive and the general algorithm described in section 7.13.2.

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 7.8, *The SECTIONS Directive*, on page 7-29 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 `-w` linker option (see section 7.4.18, *Display a Message When an Undefined Output Section Is Created (-w Option)*, on page 7-16) 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 7-12. (See section 7.7, *The MEMORY Directive*, on page 7-24, for more information on configuring memory.)

7.13.2 Default Allocation Algorithm

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 have supplied 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.

7.14 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.

7.14.1 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 7.14.3, *Assignment Expressions*. 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 */
```

7.14.2 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 7.8, *The SECTIONS Directive*, on page 7-29.)

The `.` symbol refers to the current run address, not the current load address, of the section.

Suppose a program needs to know the address of the beginning of the `.data` section. By using the `.global` directive (see page 4-46), you can create an external undefined variable called `Dstart`. 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 7.15, *Creating and Filling Holes*, on page 7-61.

7.14.3 Assignment Expressions

These rules apply to linker expressions:

- ☐ Expressions can contain global symbols, constants, and the C language operators listed in Table 7-2.
- ☐ All numbers are treated as long (32-bit) integers.
- ☐ Constants are identified by the linker in the same way they are identified 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 zero 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 that are listed in Table 7–2 in order of precedence. Operators in the same group have the same precedence. Besides the operators listed in Table 7–2, 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 expression

```
. = align(16);
```

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.

The statement `. = align(16)` will cause the output section to align on a 16-word boundary. Any assignment to the `.` symbol with the special align operator will align the affected output section the same way. If multiple align statements are used, the output section is aligned on the largest alignment specified.

Table 7–2. Groups of Operators Used in Expressions on Order of 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 → A = A + B
>	Greater than	-=	A -= B → A = A – B
<	Less than	*=	A *= B → A = A * B
<=	Less than or equal to	/=	A /= B → A = A / B
>=	Greater than or equal to		

7.14.4 Symbols Defined by the Linker

The linker automatically defines several symbols, which vary depending on which sections are used in your assembly source. A program can use these symbols at run time to determine where a section is linked. Since these symbols are external, they appear in the linker map. Each symbol can be accessed in any assembly language module if it is declared with a `.global` directive (see page 4-46). You must have used the corresponding section in a source module for the symbol to be created. Values are assigned to these symbols as follows:

- .text** is assigned the first address of the `.text` output section.
(It marks the *beginning* of executable code.)
- etext** is assigned the first address following the `.text` output section.
(It marks the *end* of executable code.)
- .data** is assigned the first address of the `.data` output section.
(It marks the *beginning* of initialized data tables.)
- edata** is assigned the first address following the `.data` output section.
(It marks the *end* of initialized data tables.)
- .bss** is assigned the first address of the `.bss` output section.
(It marks the *beginning* of uninitialized data.)
- end** is assigned the first address following the `.bss` output section.
(It marks the *end* of uninitialized data.)

The following symbols are defined only for C/C++ support when the `-c` or `-cr` option is used.

- __STACK_SIZE** is assigned the size of the `.stack` section.
- __SYSMEM_SIZE** is assigned the size of the `.sysmem` section.

7.14.5 Assigning Exact Start, End, and Size Values of a Section to a Symbol

The code generation tools currently support the ability to load program code in one area of (slow) memory and run it in another (faster) area. This is done by specifying separate load and run addresses for an output section or group in the linker command file. Then execute a sequence of instructions (the copying code in Example 7–6) that moves the program code from its load area to its run area before it is needed.

There are several responsibilities that a programmer must take on when setting up a system with this feature. One of these responsibilities is to determine the size and run-time address of the program code to be moved. The current mechanisms to do this involve use of the `.label` directives in the copying code. A simple example is illustrated Example 7–6.

This method of specifying the size and load address of the program code has limitations. While it works fine for an individual input section that is contained entirely within one source file, this method becomes more complicated if the program code is spread over several source files or if the programmer wants to copy an entire output section from load space to run space.

Another problem with this method is that it does not account for the possibility that the section being moved may have an associated far call trampoline section that needs to be moved with it.

7.14.6 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 that is 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 due to the fact that 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; }
```

7.14.7 Address and Dimension Operators

Six new operators have been added to the linker command file syntax:

LOAD_START(sym) START(sym)	Defines <i>sym</i> with the load-time start address of related allocation unit
LOAD_END(sym) END(sym)	Defines <i>sym</i> with the load-time end address of related allocation unit
LOAD_SIZE(sym) SIZE(sym)	Defines <i>sym</i> with the load-time size of related allocation unit
RUN_START(sym)	Defines <i>sym</i> with the run-time start address of related allocation unit
RUN_END(sym)	Defines <i>sym</i> with the run-time end address of related allocation unit
RUN_SIZE(sym)	Defines <i>sym</i> with the run-time size of related allocation unit

Note: Linker Command File Operator Equivalencies
 LOAD_START() and START() are equivalent, as are LOAD_END()/END() and LOAD_SIZE()/SIZE().

The new 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.

7.14.7.1 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.

7.14.7.2 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 do not require braces to enclose the operator list. The operator list is simply included as part of the allocation specification for an output section.

7.14.7.3 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. This makes the use of .label in the source code unnecessary.

7.14.7.4 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.

7.15 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.

7.15.1 Initialized and Uninitialized 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 page 4–25) and sections defined with the `.usect` directive (see page 4-80) 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.

7.15.2 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 7.7.2, *MEMORY Directive Syntax*, on page 7-24.

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 7.14, *Assigning Symbols at Link Time*, on page 7-53.

The following example uses assignment statements to create holes in output sections:

```
SECTIONS
{
    outsect:
    {
        file1.obj(.text)
        . += 100h;          /* Create a hole with size 100h */
        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-word 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-word 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 aligns outsect on a 16-word boundary. Any assignment to the . symbol with the special align operator will align the affected output section in the same way. If multiple align statements are used, the output section is aligned on the largest alignment specified.

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:    {    . += 100h; }    /* Hole at the beginning */
.data:    {
            *(.data)
            . += 100h; }    /* 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.

7.15.3 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 16-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 16-bit constant:

```
SECTIONS
{
    outsect:
    {
        file1.obj(.text)
        file2.obj(.bss) = 00FFh    /* Fill this hole */
    }                               /* with 0FFh */
}
```

- 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 = 0FF00h          /* Fills holes with 0FF00h */
    {
        . += 10h;                  /* 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 `-f` option (see section 7.4.5, *Set Default Fill Value (-f fill_value Option)*, on page 7-9). For example, suppose the command file `link.cmd` contains the following `SECTIONS` directive:

```
SECTIONS
{
    .text: { .= 100; } /* Create a 100-word hole */
}
```

Now invoke the linker with the `-f` option:

```
cl2000 -v28 -z -f 0FFFFh link.cmd
```

This fills the hole with `0FFFFh`.

- 4) If you do not invoke the linker with the `-f` 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.

7.15.4 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 = 1234h /* Fills .bss with 1234h */
}
```

Note: Filling Sections

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.

7.16 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

7.16.1 A Current Boot-Loaded Application Development Process

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 you can develop an application like this 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 into on-chip memory at boot time:

- ☐ The load location (load page id and address)
- ☐ The run location (run page id and 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.

7.16.2 An Alternative Approach

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 7.16.1.

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 7.14.7, *Address and Dimension Operators*, on page 7-58.

7.16.3 Overlay Management Example

Consider an application which 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 7–13:

Example 7–13. 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 effect 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.

7.16.4 Generating Copy Tables Automatically with the Linker

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 7–13 can be written as shown in Example 7–14:

Example 7–14. 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 7–14 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 page id, run page id, 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 do not have to 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 effect the actual copy.

7.16.5 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.

7.16.6 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. For example, the linker command file for the boot-loaded application described in section 7.16.2 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.

7.16.7 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 7–15:

Example 7–15. 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`.

7.16.8 Copy Table Contents

In order to use a copy table that is generated by the linker, you must be aware of the contents of the copy table. This information is included in a new run-time-support library header file, `cpy_tbl.h`, which contains a C source representation of the copy table data structure that is automatically generated by the linker.

Example 7–16 shows the TMS320C28x copy table header file.

Example 7–16. TMS320C28x cpy_tbl.h File

```

/*****
/* cpy_tbl.h
/*
/* Copyright (c) 2003 Texas Instruments Incorporated
/*
/* Specification of copy table data structures which can be automatically
/* generated by the linker (using the table() operator in the LCF).
/*
/*****

/*****
/* Copy Record Data Structure
/*****
typedef struct copy_record
{
    unsigned int      src_pgid;
    unsigned int      dst_pgid;
    unsigned long     src_addr;
    unsigned long     dst_addr;
    unsigned long     size;
} COPY_RECORD;

/*****
/* Copy Table Data Structure
/*****
typedef struct copy_table
{
    unsigned int      rec_size;
    unsigned int      num_recs;
    COPY_RECORD       recs[1];
} COPY_TABLE;

/*****
/* Prototype for general purpose copy routine.
/*****
extern void copy_in(COPY_TABLE *tp);

/*****
/* Prototypes for utilities used by copy_in() to move code/data between
/* program and data memory (see cpy_utils.asm for source).
/*****
extern void ddcopy(unsigned long src, unsigned long dst);
extern void dpcopy(unsigned long src, unsigned long dst);
extern void pdcopy(unsigned long src, unsigned long dst);
extern void ppcopy(unsigned long src, unsigned long dst);

```

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 page id
- ☐ The run page id
- ☐ The load address
- ☐ The run address
- ☐ The size

The linker collects all COPY_RECORDs 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_RECORDs in the table, and the array of COPY_RECORDs in the table. For instance, in the BINIT example in section 7.16.6, the .first and .extra output sections will each have their own COPY_RECORD entries in the BINIT copy table. The BINIT copy table will then look like this:

```
COPY_TABLE __binit__ = { 12, 2,  
    { <load page id of .first>,  
      <run page id of .first>,  
      <load address of .first>,  
      <run address of .first>,  
      <size of .first> },  
    { <load page id of .extra>,  
      <run page id of .extra>,  
      <load address of .extra>,  
      <run address of .extra>,  
      <size of .extra> } };
```

7.16.9 General Purpose Copy Routine

The cpy_tbl.h file in Example 7–16 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 7–17.

Example 7–17. Run-Time-Support cpy_tbl.c File

```

/*****
/* cpy_tbl.c
/*
/* Copyright (c) 2003 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>

/*****
/* COPY_IN()
*****/
void copy_in(COPY_TABLE *tp)
{
    unsigned int i;
    for (i = 0; i < tp->num_recs; i++)
    {
        COPY_RECORD *crp = &tp->recs[i];
        unsigned int cpy_type = 0;
        unsigned int j;

        if (crp->src_pgid) cpy_type += 2;
        if (crp->dst_pgid) cpy_type += 1;

        for (j = 0; j < crp->size; j++)
        {
            switch (cpy_type)
            {
                case 3: ddcopy(crp->src_addr + j, crp->dst_addr + j); break;
                case 2: dpcopy(crp->src_addr + j, crp->dst_addr + j); break;
                case 1: pdcopy(crp->src_addr + j, crp->dst_addr + j); break;
                case 0: ppcopy(crp->src_addr + j, crp->dst_addr + j); break;
            }
        }
    }
}

```

The load (or source) page id and the run (or destination) page id are used to choose which low-level copy routine is called to move a word of data from the load location to the run location. A page id of 0 indicates that the specified address is in program memory, and a page id of 1 indicates that the address is in data memory. The hardware provides special instructions, PREAD and PWRITE, to move code/data into and out of program memory.

The source for the low-level copy routines is included in another run-time-support source file called cpy_utils.asm as shown in Example 7–18.

Example 7-18. The cpy_utils.asm File

```

;*****
; CPY_UTILS.ASM
;
; Copy utility functions to perform 4 different types of copy,
; data -> data, data -> program, program -> data, and
; program -> program.
;
; source address always arrives in the accumulator 'ACC'
; destination address arrives on the stack '*-SP[2]'
;
; We will use XAR6 and XAR7 as temporary registers in
; these routines.
;
;*****

    .if      .TMS320C2800
    .asg     LRETR, RETURN
    .asg     MOVL,  MOVE_L
    .else
    .asg     RET,   RETURN
    .asg     MOV,   MOVE_L
    .endif

    .sect    ".text"
    .global  _ddcopy
;*****
; Data Memory -> Data Memory
;
; Use the accumulator to hold the data being moved between the
; load and the store.
;*****
_ddcopy:
    ; Load word at Source Address into Accumulator
    MOVL     XAR6,ACC
    MOV      AL,*+XAR6[0]

    ; Store word in Accumulator at Dest Address
    MOVE_L   XAR6,*-SP[4]
    MOV      *+XAR6[0],AL

    RETURN

    .sect    ".text"
    .global  _dpcopy
;*****
; Data Memory -> Program Memory
;
; Transfer the dest address into XAR7 so that we can use a PWRITE
; instruction to store the data into program memory.
;*****
_dpcopy:
    ; Load Dest address into XAR7
    MOVE_L   XAR7,*-SP[4]

```


Example 7-18. The cpy_utils.asm File (Continued)

```

        ; Write data to Program Memory
        MOVL     XAR6,ACC
        PWRITE   *XAR7,*XAR6
        RETURN

        .sect    ".text"
        .global  _pdcopy
;*****
; Program Memory -> Data Memory
;
; Put source address into XAR7 so we can use a PREAD instruction to
; get the data from program memory.
;*****
_pdcopy:
        ; Load Source address into XAR7
        MOVL     XAR7,ACC

        ; Read from Program Memory into Dest Address (data memory)
        MOVE_L   XAR6,*-SP[4]
        PREAD    *XAR6,*XAR7

        RETURN

        .sect    ".text"
        .global  _ppcopy
;*****
; Program Memory -> Program Memory
;
; First read the data from program memory into the accumulator.
; Then store it into the destination location (also in program
; memory). We use XAR7 to hold first the source address and then
; the dest address so that we can make use of the PREAD and
; PWRITE instructions for reading/writing data from/to program
; memory.
;*****
_ppcopy:
        ; Load Source Address into XAR7
        MOVL     XAR7,ACC

        ; Read from Program Memory into Accumulator
        PREAD    @AL,*XAR7

        ; Load Dest address into XAR7
        MOVE_L   XAR7,*-SP[4]

        ; Write Accumulator contents to Program Memory
        PWRITE   *XAR7,@AL

        RETURN

```

7.16.10 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 7–19 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 7–19. 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 7–19, 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.

7.16.11 Splitting Object Components and Overlay Management

In previous versions of the linker, splitting sections that have separate load and run placement instructions was not permitted. This restriction was because there was no effective mechanism for you, the developer, to gain access to the load address or run address of each one of the pieces of the split object component. Therefore, there was no effective way to write a copy routine that could move the split section from its load location to its run location.

However, the linker can access both the load location and run location 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 7 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 4 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 7–20. Example 7–21 illustrates a possible driver for such an application.

Example 7–20. 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 7–21. Split Object Component Driver

```
#include <cpy_tbl.h>

extern COPY_TABLE task13_ctbl;
extern 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();
    ...
}
```

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.

7.17 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 `-r` option on all links except the last one. (See section 7.4.1, *Relocation Capabilities (-a and -r Options)*, on page 7-6.)
- ☐ Intermediate files *must* have symbolic information. By default, the linker retains symbolic information in its output. Do not use the `-s` option if you plan to relink a file, because `-s` strips symbolic information from the output module. (See section 7.4.15, *Strip Symbolic Information (-s Option)*, on page 7-15.)
- ☐ Intermediate link steps 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 step.
- ☐ 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 `-h` option (see section 7.4.7, *Make All Global Symbols Static (-h Option)*, on page 7-10).
- ☐ If you are linking C code, do not use `-c` or `-cr` until the final link step. Every time you invoke the linker with the `-c` or `-cr` option, the linker attempts to create an entry point. (See section 7.4.3, *C Language Options (-c and -cr Options)*, on page 7-8.)
- ☐ 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.

The following example shows how you can use partial linking:

Step 1: Link the file `file1.com`; use the `-r` option to retain relocation information in the output file `tempout1.out`.

```
cl2000 -v28 -z -r -o tempout1 file1.com
```

`file1.com` contains:

```
SECTIONS
{
    ss1:    {
            f1.obj
            f2.obj
            .
            .
            fn.obj
        }
}
```

Step 2: Link the file `file2.com`; use the `-r` option to retain relocation information in the output file `tempout2.out`.

```
cl2000 -v28 -z -r -o tempout2 file2.com
```

`file2.com` contains:

```
SECTIONS
{
    ss2:    {
            g1.obj
            g2.obj
            .
            .
            gn.obj
        }
}
```

Step 3: Link `tempout1.out` and `tempout2.out`.

```
cl2000 -v28 -z -m final.map -o final.out tempout1.out tempout2.out
```

7.18 Linking 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:

```
cl2000 -v28 -z -c -o prog.out prog1.obj prog2.obj ...  
rts2800.lib
```

The `-c` option tells the linker to use special conventions that are defined by the C environment. The archive library `rts2800.lib` contains C run-time-support functions.

For more information about C, including the run-time environment and run-time-support functions, see the *TMS320C28x Optimizing C/C++ Compiler User's Guide*.

7.18.1 Run-Time Initialization

All C programs must be linked with an object module called `boot.obj`. When a program begins running, it executes `boot.obj` first. The `boot.obj` symbol contains code and data for initializing the run-time environment. The module performs the following tasks:

- 1) Sets up the system stack
- 2) Processes the run-time initialization table and autoinitializes global variables (when the linker is invoked with the `-c` option)
- 3) Calls `_main`

The run-time-support object library, `rts2800.lib`, contains `boot.obj`. You can:

- ☐ Include `rts2800.lib` as an input file (the linker automatically extracts `boot.obj` when you use the `-c` or `-cr` option)
- ☐ Use the archiver to extract `boot.obj` from the library and then link the module in directly

7.18.2 Object Libraries and Run-Time Support

The *TMS320C28x 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 *rts2800.lib* 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.

7.18.3 Setting the Size of the Stack and Heap Sections

C 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` or `-stack` option and specifying the size of the section as a 4-byte constant immediately after the option. The default size for both, if the options are not used, is 1K words.

See section 7.4.8, *Define Heap Size (-heap Size Option)*, on page 7-10 and section 7.4.16, *Define Stack Size (-stack Size Option)*, on page 7-15 for more information on setting stack sizes.

Note: Linking the `.stack` Section

The `.stack` section has to be linked into the low 64K of data memory (PAGE 1) since the SP is a 16-bit register and cannot access memory locations beyond the first 64K.

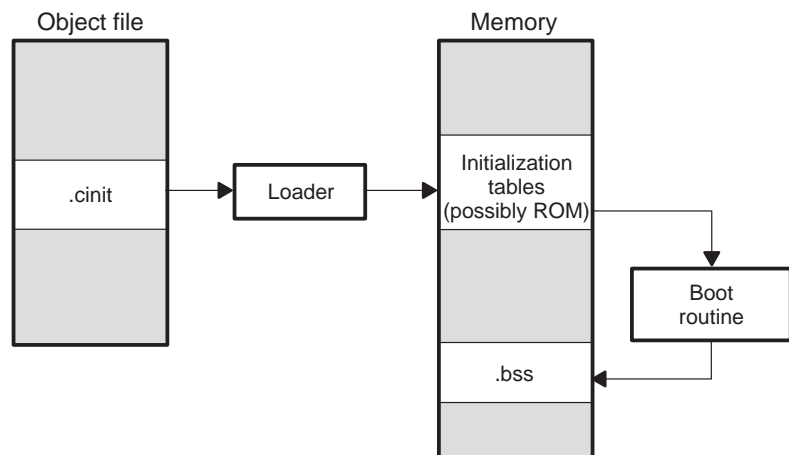
7.18.4 Autoinitialization of Variables at Run Time

Autoinitializing variables at run time is the default method of autoinitialization. To use this method, invoke the linker with the `-c` option.

Using this method, the `.cinit` section is loaded into memory along with all other initialized sections. The linker defines a special symbol called `cinit` that points to the beginning of the initialization tables in memory. When the program begins running, the C boot routine copies data from the tables (pointed to by `.cinit`) into the specified variables in the `.bss` section. This allows initialization data to be stored in ROM and copied to RAM each time the program starts.

Figure 7-7 illustrates autoinitialization at run time.

Figure 7-7. Autoinitialization at Run Time



7.18.5 Autoinitialization of Variables at Load Time

Autoinitialization 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 `-cr` option.

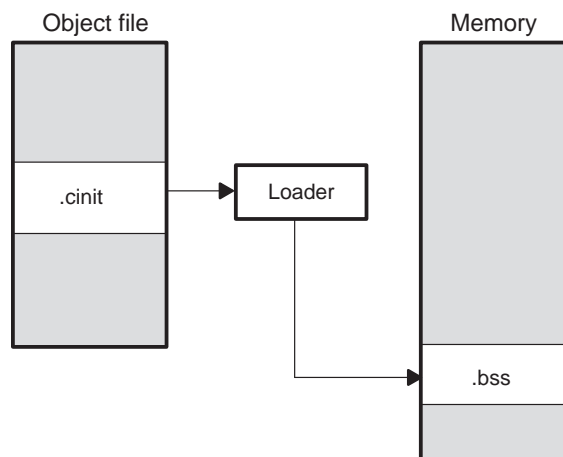
When you use the `-cr` linker option, the linker sets the `STYP_COPY` bit in the `.cinit` section's header. This tells the loader not to load the `.cinit` section into memory. (The `.cinit` section occupies no space in the memory map.) The linker also sets the `cinit` symbol to `-1` (normally, `cinit` points to the beginning of the initialization tables). This setting indicates to the boot routine that the initialization tables are not present in memory; accordingly, no run-time initialization is performed at boot time.

A loader (which is not part of the compiler package) must be able to perform the following tasks to use autoinitialization at load time:

- ☐ Detect the presence of the `.cinit` section in the object file
- ☐ Determine that `STYP_COPY` is set in the `.cinit` section header so that it knows not to copy the `.cinit` section into memory
- ☐ Understand the format of the initialization tables

Figure 7–8 illustrates the autoinitialization of variables at load time.

Figure 7–8. Autoinitialization at Load Time



7.18.6 The `-c` and `-cr` Linker Options

The following list outlines what happens when you invoke the linker with the `-c` or `-cr` option.

- ❑ The symbol `_c_int00` is defined as the program entry point. The `_c_int00` symbol 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 `rts2800.lib`.
- ❑ The `.cinit` output section is padded with a termination record to designate to the boot routine (if you autoinitialize at run time) or the loader (if you autoinitialize at load time) when to stop reading the initialization tables.
- ❑ When you autoinitialize at run time (`-c` option), the linker defines `cinit` as the starting address of the `.cinit` section. The C boot routine uses this symbol as the starting point for autoinitialization.
- ❑ When you autoinitialize at load time (`-cr` option):
 - The linker sets `cinit` to `-1`. This indicates that the initialization tables are not in memory, so no initialization is performed at run time.
 - The `STYP_COPY` flag (0010h) is set in the `.cinit` section header. `STYP_COPY` is the special attribute that tells the loader to perform autoinitialization directly and not to load the `.cinit` section into memory. The linker does not allocate space in memory for the `.cinit` section.

Note: Boot Loader

A loader is not included as part of the C/C++ compiler tools. Use the TMS320C28x Code Composer Studio as a loader.

7.19 Linker Examples

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 configuration:

Memory Type	Address Range	Contents
Program	0xf0000 to 0x3ffffbf	ROM
	0x3fffc0 to 0x3fffff	Interrupt vector table
Data	0x000040 to 0x0001ff	Stack
	0x000200 to 0x0007ff	RAM_1
	0x3ed000 to 0x3effff	RAM_2

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 RAM_2.
- ☐ Tables of coefficients in the .data sections of demo.obj, tables.obj, and fft.obj are linked into RAM_1. A hole is created with a length of 100 and a fill value of 07A1Ch.
- ☐ The xy section from demo.obj, which contains buffers and variables, is linked by default into page one of the block STACK, since it is not explicitly linked.

Example 7–22 shows the linker command file for this example. Example 7–23 shows the map file.

Example 7–22. Linker Command File, demo.cmd

```

/*****
***          Specify Linker Options          ***
*****/
-o demo.out           /* Name the output file          */
-m demo.map           /* Create an output map          */
/*****
***          Specify the Input Files          ***
*****/
demo.obj
fft.obj
tables.obj
/*****
***          Specify the Memory Configuration      ***
*****/
MEMORY
{
    PAGE 0:  ROM      (R):  origin=3f0000h    length=0ffc0h
             VECTORS  (R):  origin=3fffc0h    length=0040h

    PAGE 1:  STACK    (RW):  origin=000040h    length=01c0h
             RAM_1     (RW):  origin=000200h    length=0600h
             RAM_2     (RW):  origin=3ed000h    length=3000h
}

/*****
***          Specify the Output Sections          ***
*****/
SECTIONS
{
    vectors      : { } > VECTORS page=0
    .text         : load = ROM, page = 0 /* link .text into ROM */
    .data         : fill = 07A1Ch, Load=RAM_1, page=1
    {
        tables.obj(.data)           /*.data input */
        fft.obj(.data)              /* .data input */
        . += 100h; /* create hole, fill with 07A1Ch */
    }
    var_defs      : { } > RAM_2 page=1        /* defs in RAM */
    .bss:         page=1, fill=0ffffh        /*.bss fill and link*/
}

/*****
***          End of Command File          ***
*****/

```

Invoke the linker by entering the following command:

cl2000 -v28 -z demo.cmd

This creates the map file shown in Example 7–23 and an output file called demo.out that can be run on a TMS320C28x device.

Example 7-23. Output Map File, demo.map

```
OUTPUT FILE NAME:  <demo.out>
ENTRY POINT SYMBOL: 0
```

MEMORY CONFIGURATION

	name	origin	length	attributes	fill
PAGE 0:	ROM	003f0000	0000ffc0	R	
	VECTORS	003ffffc0	00000040	R	
PAGE 1:	STACK	00000040	000001c0	RW	
	RAM_1	00000200	00000600	RW	
	RAM_2	003ed000	00003000	RW	

SECTION ALLOCATION MAP

output section	page	origin	length	attributes/ input sections
vectors	0	003ffffc0	00000000	UNINITIALIZED
.text	0	003f0000	0000001a	
		003f0000	0000000e	demo.obj (.text)
		003f000e	00000000	tables.obj (.text)
		003foooo	0000000c	fft.obj (.text)
var_defs	1	003ed000	00000002	
		003ed000	00000002	demo.obj (var_defs)
.data	1	00000200	0000010c	
		00000200	00000004	tables.obj (.data)
		00000204	00000000	fft.obj (.data)
		00000204	00000100	--HOLE-- [fill = 7a1c]
		00000304	00000008	demo.obj (.data)
.bss	0	00000040	00000069	
		00000040	00000068	demo.obj (.bss) [fill=ffff]
		000000a8	00000000	fft.obj (.bss)
		000000a8	00000001	tables.obj (.bss) [fill=ffff]
xy	1	000000a9	00000014	UNINITIALIZED
		000000a9	00000014	demo.obj (xy)

Example 7-23. Output Map File, demo.map (Continued)

GLOBAL SYMBOLS: SORTED ALPHABETICALLY BY Name

address	name
-----	----
00000040	.bss
00000200	.data
003f0000	.text
00000040	ARRAY
000000a8	TEMP
00000040	__bss__
00000200	__data__
0000030c	__edata__
000000a9	__end__
003f001a	__etext__
003f0000	__text__
003f000e	__func1__
003f0000	__main__
0000030c	edata
000000a9	end
003f001a	etext

GLOBAL SYMBOLS: SORTED BY Symbol Address

address	name
-----	----
00000040	ARRAY
00000040	__bss__
00000040	.bss
000000a8	TEMP
000000a9	__end__
000000a9	end
00000200	__data__
00000200	.data
0000030c	edata
0000030c	__edata__
003f0000	__main__
003f0000	.text
003f0000	__text__
003f000e	__func1__
003f001a	etext
003f001a	__etext__

[16 symbols]

Absolute Lister Description

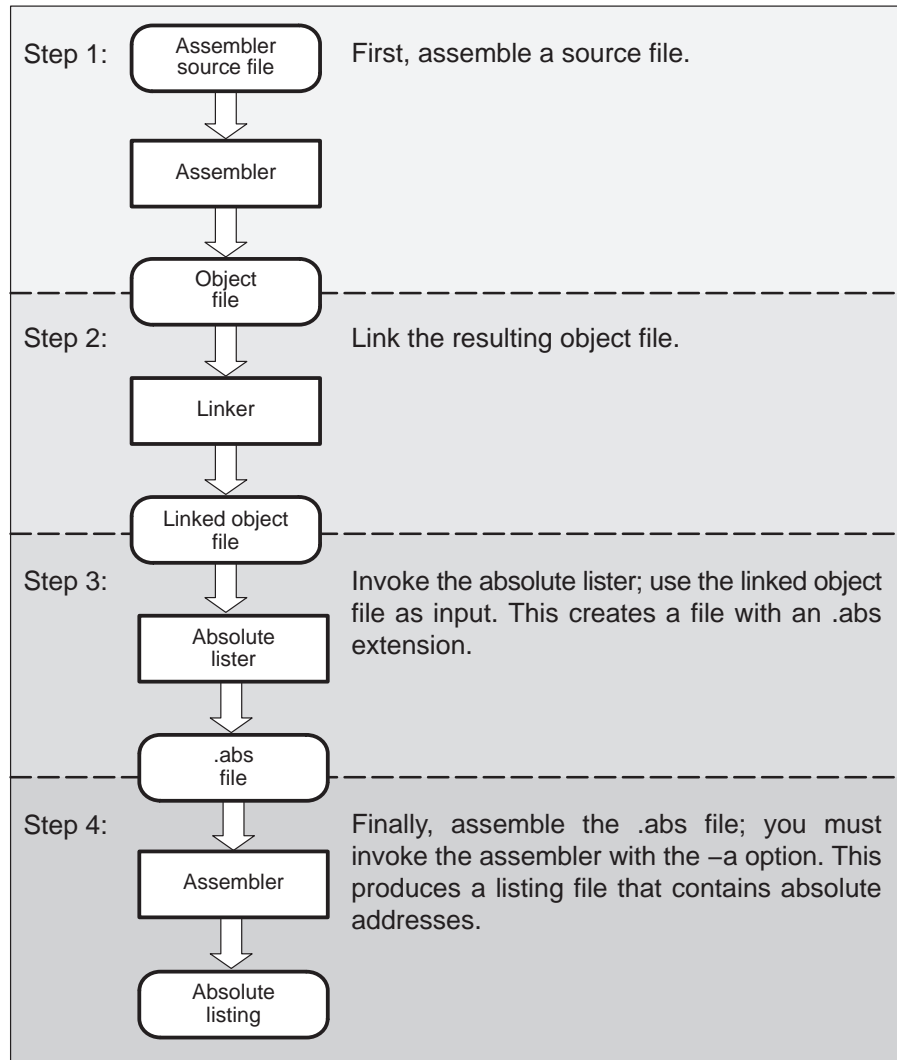
The TMS320C28x™ absolute lister is a debugging tool that accepts linked object files as input and creates .abs files as output. These .abs files can be assembled to produce a listing that shows the absolute addresses of object code. Manually, this could be a tedious process requiring many operations; however, the absolute lister utility performs these operations automatically.

Topic	Page
8.1 Producing an Absolute Listing	8-2
8.2 Invoking the Absolute Lister	8-3
8.3 Absolute Lister Example	8-5

8.1 Producing an Absolute Listing

Figure 8–1 illustrates the steps required to produce an absolute listing.

Figure 8–1. Absolute Lister Development Flow



8.2 Invoking the Absolute Lister

The syntax for invoking the absolute lister is:

abs2000 [*–options*] *input file*

abs2000 is the command that invokes the absolute lister.

options 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:

–e enables you to change the default naming conventions for filename extensions on assembly files, C source files, and C header files. The three options are listed below.

- ☐ **–ea** [*.asmext*] for assembly files (default is .asm)
- ☐ **–ec** [*.cext*] for C source files (default is .c)
- ☐ **–eh** [*.hext*] for C header files (default is .h)
- ☐ **–ep** [*.cppext*] for C++ source files (default is .cpp, .cc and .cxx)

The . in the extensions and the space between the option and the extension are optional.

–fs Specifies a directory for the output files. For example, to place the .abs file generated by the absolute lister in the C:\ABSDIR use the command `abs2000 –fs C:\ABSDIR filename.out`. If the **–fs** option is not specified, the absolute lister generates the .abs files in the current directory.

–q (quiet) suppresses the banner and all progress information.

input file 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 **–a** assembler option as follows to create the absolute listing:

```
c12000 -v28 -a 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 (`-g` 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:

```
abs2000 -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`.

8.3 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  array,100
.bss  dflag, 2
.copy globals.def
MOV   ACC, #offset
MOV   ACC, #dflag
```

module2.asm

```
.bss  offset, 2
.copy globals.def
MOV   ACC, #offset
MOV   ACC, #array
```

globals.def

```
.global dflag
.global array
.global offset
```

The following steps create absolute listings for the files `module1.asm` and `module2.asm`:

Step 1: First, assemble `module1.asm` and `module2.asm`:

```
c12000 -v28 module1
c12000 -v28 module2
```

This command sequence 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:

```
/* **** */
/* File bttest.cmd -- COFF linker command file */
/*      for linking TMS320C28x modules      */
/* **** */
-o bttest.out          /* Name the output file */
-m bttest.map          /* Create an output map */

/* **** */
/*      Specify the Input Files              */
/* **** */
module1.obj
module2.obj

/* **** */
/*      Specify the Memory Configurations    */
/* **** */
MEMORY
{
    PAGE 0:    ROM:    origin=2000h    length=2000h
    PAGE 1:    RAM:    origin=8000h    length=8000h
}

/* **** */
/*      Specify the Output Sections          */
/* **** */
SECTIONS
{
    .data:    >RAM
    .text:    >ROM
    .bss:     >RAM
}
```

Invoke the linker:

```
cl12000 -v28 -z bttest.cmd
```

This command creates an executable object file called bttest.out; use this new file as input for the absolute lister.

Step 3: Now, invoke the absolute lister:

```
abs2000 bttest.out
```

This command creates two files called module1.abs and module2.abs:

module1.abs:

```

                                .nolist
array      .setsym      000008000h
dflag      .setsym      000008064h
offset     .setsym      000008066h
.data      .setsym      000008000h
edata      .setsym      000008000h
.text      .setsym      000002000h
etext      .setsym      000002008h
.bss       .setsym      000008000h
end        .setsym      000008068h
          .setsect      ".text",000002000h
          .setsect      ".data",000008000h
          .setsect      ".bss",000008000h
          .list
          .text
          .copy          "module1.asm"
```

module2.abs:

```

                                .nolist
array      .setsym      000008000h
FDA        .setsym      000008064h
offset     .setsym      000008066h
.data      .setsym      000008000h
edata      .setsym      000008000h
.text      .setsym      000002000h
etext      .setsym      000002008h
.bss       .setsym      000008000h
end        .setsym      000008068h
          .setsect      ".text",000002004h
          .setsect      ".data",000008000h
          .setsect      ".bss",000008066h
          .list
          .text
          .copy          "module2.asm"
```

These files contain the following information that the assembler needs when you invoke it in 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 tell the assembler which assembly language source file to include.

The `.setsym` and `.setsect` directives are not useful in normal assembly; they are useful only for creating absolute listings.

Step 4: Finally, assemble the `.abs` files created by the absolute lister (remember that you must use the `-a` option when you invoke the assembler):

```
c12000 -v28 -a module1.abs
c12000 -v28 -a 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 Figure 8–2) and `module2.lst` (see Figure 8–3).

Figure 8–2. *module1.lst*

module1.abs		PAGE	1
15	002000	.text	
16		.copy	"module1.asm"
1	002000	.text	
2	008000	.bss	array,100
3	008064	.bss	dflag,2
4		.copy	globals.def
1		.global	dflag
2		.global	array
3		.global	offset
5	002000 FF20!	MOV	ACC,#offset
	002001 8066		
6	002002 FF20-	MOV	ACC,#dflag
	002003 8064		

Figure 8–3. *module2.lst*

module2.abs		PAGE	1
15	002004	.text	
16		.copy	"module2.asm"
1	008066	.bss	offset,2
2		.copy	globals.def
1		.global	dflag
2		.global	array
3		.global	offset
3	002004 FF20-	MOV	ACC,#offset
	002005 8066		
4	002006 FF20!	MOV	ACC,#array
	002007 8000		

Cross-Reference Lister Description

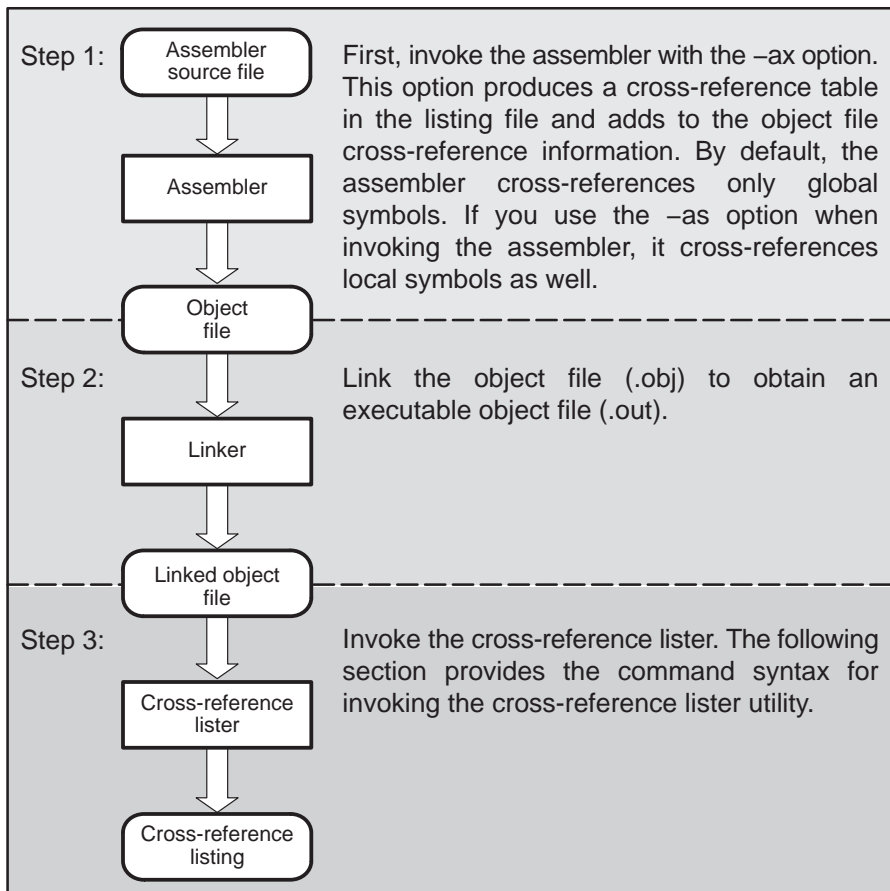
The TMS320C28x™ cross-reference lister is a debugging tool. This utility accepts linked object files as input and produces a cross-reference listing as output. This listing shows symbols, their definitions, and their references in the linked source files.

Topic	Page
9.1 Producing a Cross-Reference Listing	9-2
9.2 Invoking the Cross-Reference Lister	9-3
9.3 Cross-Reference Listing Example	9-4

9.1 Producing a Cross-Reference Listing

Figure 9–1 illustrates the steps required to produce a cross-reference listing.

Figure 9–1. Cross-Reference Lister Development Flow



9.2 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 `-ax` option. This option create 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 `-as` option, local symbols are also added. Link the object files to obtain an executable file.

To invoke the cross-reference lister, use the following syntax:

xref2000 [*options*] [*input filename*] [*output filename*]

xref2000	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. Precede each option with a hyphen (-). The cross-reference lister options are as follows: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -l (lowercase L) specifies the number of lines per page for the output file. The format of the <code>-l</code> option is <code>-lnum</code>, where num 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.

9.3 Cross-Reference Listing Example

=====							
Symbol: _SETUP							
Filename	RTYP	AsmVal	LnkVal	DefLn	RefLn	RefLn	RefLn
demo.asm	EDEF	'00000018	00000018	18	13	20	
=====							
Symbol: _fill_tab							
Filename	RTYP	AsmVal	LnkVal	DefLn	RefLn	RefLn	RefLn
ctrl.asm	EDEF	'00000000	00000040	10	5		
=====							
Symbol: _x42							
Filename	RTYP	AsmVal	LnkVal	DefLn	RefLn	RefLn	RefLn
demo.asm	EDEF	'00000000	00000000	7	4	18	
=====							
Symbol: gvar							
Filename	RTYP	AsmVal	LnkVal	DefLn	RefLn	RefLn	RefLn
tables.asm	EDEF	"00000000	08000000	11	10		
=====							

The terms defined below appear in the preceding cross-reference listing:

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: <table> <tr> <td>STAT</td><td>The symbol is defined in this file and is not declared as global.</td></tr> <tr> <td>EDEF</td><td>The symbol is defined in this file and is declared as global.</td></tr> <tr> <td>EREF</td><td>The symbol is not defined in this file but is referenced as global.</td></tr> <tr> <td>UNDF</td><td>The symbol is not defined in this file and is not declared as global.</td></tr> </table>	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.
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 9–1 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 9–1. Symbol Attributes

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

Object File Utilities Descriptions

This chapter describes how to invoke the following miscellaneous utilities:

- ☐ The **object file display utility** prints the contents of object files, executable files, and/or archive libraries in both human readable and XML formats.
- ☐ The **name utility** prints a list of names defined and referenced in a COFF object or an executable file.
- ☐ The **strip utility** removes symbol table and debugging information from object and executable files.

Topic	Page
10.1 Invoking the Object File Display Utility	10-2
10.2 XML Tag Index	10-3
10.3 Example XML Consumer	10-9
10.4 Invoking the Name Utility	10-16
10.5 Invoking the Strip Utility	10-17

10.1 Invoking the Object File Display Utility

The object file display utility, *ofd2000*, is used to print the contents of object files (.obj), executable files (.out), and/or archive libraries (.lib) in both human readable and XML formats.

To invoke the object file display utility, enter the following:

ofd2000 [*-options*] *input filename* [*input filename*]

ofd2000	is the command that invokes the object file display utility.
<i>input filenames</i>	names the assembly language source file. The file name must contain a .asm 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 (-). The object file display utility options are as follows:
-g	appends DWARF debug information to program output.
-ofilename	sends program output to <i>filename</i> rather than to the screen.
-x	displays output in XML format.

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.

10.2 XML Tag Index

Table 10–1 describes the XML tags that are generated by the object file display utility.

Table 10–1. XML Tag Index

Tag Name	Context	Description
<addr>	<line_entry>	PC address
	<row>	PC address
	<value>	Machine address
<addr_class>	<value>	Address class
<addr_size>	<compile_unit>	Size of one machine address (octets)
	<section>	Size of one machine address (octets)
<alignment>	<section>	Alignment factor
<archive>	<ofd>	Archive file (.lib)
<attribute>	<die>	Attribute of a DWARF DIE
<aux_count>	<symbol>	Number of auxiliary entries for this symbol
<banner>	<ofd>	Tool name and version information
<block>	<section>	True if alignment is used as blocking factor
	<value>	Data block
<bss>	<section>	True if this section contains uninitialized data
<bss_size>	<optional_file_header>	Size of uninitialized data
<byte_swapped>	<file_header>	Endianness of build host is opposite of current host
<clink>	<section>	True if this section is conditionally linked
<column>	<line_entry>	Source column number
<compile_unit>	<section>	Compile unit
<const>	<value>	Constant
<copy>	<section>	True if this section is a copy section
<copyright>	<ofd>	Copyright notice
<cpu_flags>	<file_header>	CPU ags
<data>	<section>	True if this section contains initialized data

Table 10–1. XML Tag Index

Tag Name	Context	Description
<data_size>	<optional_file_header>	Size of initialized data
<data_start>	<optional_file_header>	Beginning address of initialized data
<destination>	<register>	Destination register
<die>	<compile_unit>	DWARF debugging information entry (DIE)
<dim_bound>	<dimension>	Dimension upper-bound
<dim_num>	<dimension>	Dimension number
<dimension>	<symbol>	Array dimension
<disp>	<reloc_entry>	Extra address encoding information
<dummy>	<section>	True if this section is a dummy section
<dwarf>	<ti_coff>	DWARF information
<endian>	<file_header>	Endianness of target machine
<entry_point>	<optional_file_header>	Entry point of executable program
<exec>	<file_header>	True if this file is executable
<fde>	<section>	A DWARF frame description entry (FDE)
<field_size>	<reloc_entry>	Size of the field to relocate
<file_header>	<ti_coff>	COFF file header
<file_length>	<file_header>	Size of this file
<file_name>	<line_entry>	Name of source file
	<symbol>	Name of source file
<file_offsets>	<section>	File offsets associated with this section
<flag>	<value>	Flag
<form>	<attribute>	Attribute form
<frame_size>	<symbol>	Size of function frame
<function>	<line_numbers>	Line number entries for one function
<icode>	<section>	True if this section has I-Code associated with it
<index>	<symbol>	Index of this symbol in the symbol table

Table 10–1. XML Tag Index

Tag Name	Context	Description
<indirect_register>	<memory>	Indirect register used for calculating destination address
<initial_location>	<fde>	Start of function referred to by the FDE
<internal>	<reloc_entry>	True if this relocation is internal
<kind>	<symbol>	Kind of symbol (defined, undefined, absolute, symbolic debug)
<length>	<symbol>	Length of section
<line>	<line_entry>	Source line number
	<symbol>	First source line associated with this symbol
<line_count>	<section>	Number of line number entries
	<symbol>	Number of line number entries
<line_entry>	<compile_unit>	Line number entry
	<line_numbers>	Line number entry
<line_numbers>	<section>	Line number entries
<line_ptr>	<file_offsets>	File offset of line number entries
	<symbol>	File offset of line number entries
<Inno_strip>	<file_header>	True if line numbers were stripped from this file
<localsym_strip>	<file_header>	True if local symbols were stripped from this file
<magic>	<optional_file_header>	Optional file header magic number (0x0108)
<math_relative>	<reloc_entry>	True if this relocation is math relative
<memory>	<row>	SOE register is saved to memory
<name>	<fde>	Name of function referred to by the FDE
	<function>	Name of the current function
	<ofd>	Name of an object or archive file
	<section>	Name of this section
	<symbol>	Name of this symbol
<next_symbol>	<symbol>	Index of next symbol after mutlisymbol entity

Table 10–1. XML Tag Index

Tag Name	Context	Description
<noload>	<section>	True if this section is a no-load section
<object_file>	<ofd>	Object file (.obj, .out)
<ofd>		Object file display (OFD) document
<offset>	<memory>	Offset of destination address from indirect register
	<reloc_entry>	Offset of the field from relocatable address
<optional_file_header>	<ti_coff>	Optional file header
<padded>	<section>	True if this section has been padded (C55x only)
<page>	<section>	Memory page
<pass>	<section>	True if this section is passed through unchanged
<physical_addr>	<section>	Physical (run) address of section
<raw_data_ptr>	<file_offsets>	File offset of raw data
<raw_data_size>	<section>	Size of raw data (octets)
<ref>	<value>	Reference
<register>	<row>	SOE register is saved to register
<register_mask>	<symbol>	Mask of saved SOE registers
<regular>	<section>	True if this section is a regular section
<reloc_count>	<section>	Number of relocation entries
	<symbol>	Number of relocation entries
<reloc_entry>	<relocations>	Relocation entry
<reloc_ptr>	<file_offsets>	File offset of relocation entries
<reloc_strip>	<file_header>	True if relocation information was stripped from this file
<relocations>	<section>	Relocation entries
<return_address_register>	<fde>	Register used to pass the return address of this function
<row>	<table>	Table row
<section>	<dwarf>	DWARF section

Table 10–1. XML Tag Index

Tag Name	Context	Description
	<symbol>	Section containing the definition of this symbol
	<ti_coff>	COFF section
<section_count>	<file_header>	Number of section headers
<size_in_addrs>	<symbol>	Number of machine-address-sized units in function
<size_in_bits>	<symbol>	Size of symbol (bits)
<source>	<memory>	Source register
	<register>	Source register
<start_symbol>	<symbol>	First symbol in multi-symbol entity
<storage_class>	<symbol>	Storage class of this symbol
<storage_type>	<symbol>	Storage type of this symbol
<string>	<string_table>	String table entry
	<value>	String
<string_table>	<ti_coff>	String table
<string_table_size>	<string_table>	Size of string table
<sym_merge>	<file_header>	True if debug type-symbols were merged
<symbol>	<symbol_table>	Symbol table entry
<symbol_count>	<file_header>	Number of entries in the symbol table
<symbol_relative>	<reloc_entry>	Relocation is relative to the specified symbol
<symbol_table>	<ti_coff>	Symbol table
<table>	<fde>	FDE table
<tag>	<die>	Tag name
<tag index>	<symbol>	Reference to user-defined type
<target id>	<file_header>	Target ID; magic number identifying the target machine
<text>	<section>	True if this section contains code
<text_size>	<optional_file_header>	Size of executable code

Table 10–1. XML Tag Index

Tag Name	Context	Description
<text_start>	<optional_file_header>	Beginning address of executable code
<ti_coff>	<object_file>	TI COFF file
<tool_version>	<optional_file_header>	Tool version stamp
<type>	<attribute>	Attribute type
	<reloc_entry>	Type of relocation
<type_ref>	<value>	Type reference
<value>	<attribute>	Attribute value
	<reloc_entry>	Value
	<symbol>	Value
<vector>	<section>	True if this section contains a vector table (C55x only)
<version>	<compile_unit>	DWARF version
	<file_header>	Version ID; structure version of this COFF file
<virtual_addr>	<reloc_entry>	Virtual address to be relocated
	<section>	Virtual (load) address of section
<word_size>	<reloc_entry>	Number of address-sized units containing the relocation field
<xml_version>	<dwarf>	Version of the DWARF XML language
	<ti_coff>	Version of the COFF XML language

10.3 Example XML Consumer

In this section, we present an example of a small application that uses the XML output of ofd55 to calculate the size of the executable code contained in an object file.

The example contains three source files: codesize.cpp, xml.h, and xml.cpp. When compiled into an executable named codesize, it can be used with ofd55 from the command line as follows:

```
% ofd55 -x a.out | codesize

Code Section Name: .text
Code Section Size: 44736

Code Section Name: .text2
Code Section Size: 64

Code Section Name: .text3
Code Section Size: 64

Total Code Size: 44864
```

10.3.1 The Main Application

The codesize.cpp file contains the main application for the object file display utility example.

```

//*****
// CODESIZE.CPP - An example application that calculates the size of the      *
// executable code in an object file using the XML output                    *
// of the OFD utility.                                                       *
//*****
#include "xml.h"
#include <iostream>

using namespace std;

static void parse_XML_prolog(istream &in);

//*****
// main() - List the names and sizes of the code sections (in octets), and  *
//          output the total code size.                                     *
//*****
int main()
{
    //-----
    // Build our tree of XML Entities from standard input (See xml.{cpp,h} for -
    // the definition of the XMLEntity object).                             -
    //-----
    parse_XML_prolog(cin);
    XMLEntity *root = new XMLEntity(cin);

```



```
//-----  
// Fetch the XML Entities of the section roots. In other words, get a -  
// list of all the XMLEntity sub-trees named "section" that are in the -  
// context of "ofd->object_file->ti_coff", where "ofd" is the root of our -  
// XML document. -  
//-----  
CEntityList query_result;  
const char *section_query[] =  
    { "ofd", "object_file", "ti_coff", "section", NULL };  
  
query_result = root->query(section_query);  
  
//-----  
// Iterate over the section Entities, looking for code sections. -  
//-----  
CEntityList_CIt pit;  
unsigned long total_code_size = 0;  
  
for (pit = query_result.begin(); pit != query_result.end(); ++pit)  
{  
  
    //-----  
    // Query for the name, text, and raw_data_size sub-entities of each -  
    // section. XMLEntity::query() always returns a list, even if there -  
    // will only ever be a maximum of one result. If the tag is not -  
    // found, an empty list is returned. -  
    //-----  
    const char *section_name_query[] = { "section", "name", NULL };  
    const char *section_text_query[] = { "section", "text", NULL };  
    const char *section_size_query[] = { "section", "raw_data_size", NULL };  
  
    CEntityList sname_l;  
    CEntityList stext_l;  
    CEntityList ssize_l;  
  
    sname_l = (*pit)->query(section_name_query);  
    stext_l = (*pit)->query(section_text_query);  
    ssize_l = (*pit)->query(section_size_query);  
    //-----  
    // If a "text" flag was found, this is a code section. Output -  
    // the section name and size, and add its size to our total code size -  
    // counter. -  
    //-----  
    if (stext_l.size() > 0)  
    {  
        unsigned long size;  
  
        size = strtoul((*ssize_l.begin())->value().c_str(), NULL, 16);  
  
        cout << "Code Section Name: " << (*sname_l.begin())->value() << endl;  
        cout << "Code Section Size: " << size << endl;  
        cout << endl;  
  
        total_code_size += size;  
    }  
}
```

```

    }

    //-----
    // Output the total code size, and clean up. -
    //-----
    cout << "Total Code Size: " << total_code_size << endl;
    delete root;

    return 0;
}

//*****
// parse_XML_prolog() - Parse the XML prolog, and throw it away. *
//*****
static void parse_XML_prolog(istream &in)
{
    char c;

    while (true)
    {
        //-----
        // Look for the next tag; if it is not an XML directive, we're done. -
        //-----
        for (in.get(c); c != '<' && !in.eof(); in.get(c))
            ; // empty body

        if (in.eof()) return;
        if (in.peek() != '?') { in.unget(); return; }

        //-----
        // Otherwise, read in the directive and continue. -
        //-----
        for (in.get(c); c != '>' && !in.eof(); in.get(c))
            ; // empty body
    }
}

```

10.3.2 xml.h { Declaration of the XMLEntity Object

The xml.h file contains the declaration of the XMLEntity object for the codesize.cpp application.

```
//*****
// XML.H - Declaration of the XMLEntity object. *
//*****
#ifndef XML_H
#define XML_H
#include <list>
#include <string>

//*****
// Type Declarations. *
//*****
class XMLEntity;
typedef list<XMLEntity*>          EntityList;
typedef list<const XMLEntity*>    CEntityList;
typedef CEntityList::const_iterator CEntityList_CIt;
typedef EntityList::const_iterator EntityList_CIt;
8
//*****
// CLASS XMLENTITY - A Simplified XML Entity Object. *
//*****
class XMLEntity
{
public:
    XMLEntity (istream &in, XMLEntity *parent=NULL);
    ~XMLEntity ();
    const CEntityList query (const char **context) const;
    const string      &tag   () const { return tag_m;      }
    const string      &value () const { return value_m;     }

private:
    void parse_raw_tag (const string &raw_tag);
    void sub_query     (CEntityList &result, const char **context) const;

    string      tag_m;          // Tag Name
    string      value_m;        // Value
    XMLEntity *parent_m;        // Pointer to parent in XML hierarchy
    EntityList children_m;      // List of children in XML hierarchy
};
#endif
```

10.3.3 xml.cpp { Definition of the XMLEntity Object

The xml.cpp file contains the definition of the XMLEntity object for the codesize.cpp application.

```
//*****
// XML.CPP - Definition of the XMLEntity object. *
//*****
#include "xml.h"
#include <iostream>
#include <string>
#include <list>
#include <cstdlib>

//*****
// XMLEntity::query() - Return the list of XMLEntities a list that reside *
// in the given XML context. *
//*****
const CEntityList XMLEntity::query(const char **context) const
{
    CEntityList result;

    if (!*context) return result;

    sub_query(result, context);

    return result;
}

//*****
// XMLEntity::sub_query() - Recurse through the XML tree looking for a match *
// to the current query. *
//*****
void XMLEntity::sub_query(CEntityList &result, const char **context) const
{
    if (!context[0] || tag() != context[0]) return;

    if (!context[1])
        result.push_front(this);
    else
    {
        EntityList_CIt pit;

        for (pit = children_m.begin(); pit != children_m.end(); ++pit)
            (*pit)->sub_query(result, context+1);
    }
    return;
}

//*****
// XMLEntity::parse_raw_tag() - Cut out the tag name from the complete string *
// we found between the < > brackets. This throws out any attributes. *
//*****
void XMLEntity::parse_raw_tag(const string &raw_tag)
```

```
{
    string attribute;
    int i;

    for (i = 0; i < raw_tag.size() && raw_tag[i] != ' '; ++i)
        tag_m += raw_tag[i];
}

//*****
// XMLEntity::XMLEntity() - Recursively construct a tree of XMLEntities from *
//                          the given input stream. *
//*****
XMLEntity::XMLEntity(istream &in, XMLEntity *parent) :
tag_m(""), value_m(""), parent_m(parent)
{
    string raw_tag;
    char c;
    int i;
    //-----
    // Read in the leading '<'. -
    //-----
    in.get();

    //-----
    // Store the tag name and attributes in "raw_tag", then call -
    // process_raw_tag() to separate the tag name from the attributes and -
    // store it in tag_m. -
    //-----
    for (in.get(c); c != '>' && c != '/' && !in.eof(); in.get(c))
        raw_tag += c;

    parse_raw_tag(raw_tag);

    //-----
    // If we're reading in an end-tag, read in the closing '>' and return. -
    //-----
    if (c == '/') { in.get(c); return; }

    //-----
    // Otherwise, parse our value. -
    //-----
    while (true)
    {
        //-----
        // Read in the closing '>', then start reading in characters and add -
        // them to value_m. Stop when we hit the beginning of a tag. -
        //-----
        for (in.get(c); c != '<'; in.get(c)) value_m += c;

        //-----
        // If we're reading in a start tag, parse in the entire entity, and -
        // add it to our child list (recursive constructor call). -
        //-----
        if (in.peek() != '/')
        {
```

```

//-----
// Put back the opening '<', since XMLEntity() expects to read it. -
//-----
in.unget();
children_m.push_front(new XMLEntity(in, this));
}
//-----
// Otherwise, read in our end tag, and exit. -
//-----
else
{
    for (in.get(c); c != '>'; in.get(c))
        ; // empty body
    break;
}
}

//-----
// Strip off leading and trailing white space from our value. -
//-----
for (i = 0; i < value_m.size(); i++)
    if (value_m[i] != ' ' && value_m[i] != '\n') break;
value_m.erase(0, i);

for (i = value_m.size()-1; i >= 0; i--)
    if (value_m[i] != ' ' && value_m[i] != '\n') break;
value_m.erase(i+1, value_m.size()-i);
}

//*****
// XMLEntity::~XMLEntity() - Delete a XMLEntity object. *
//*****
XMLEntity::~XMLEntity()
{
    EntityList_CIt pit;

    for (pit = children_m.begin(); pit != children_m.end(); ++pit)
        delete (*pit);
}

```

10.4 Invoking the Name Utility

The name utility, *nm2000*, is used to print the list of names defined and referenced in a COFF object (.obj) or an executable file (.out). The value associated with the symbol and an indication of the kind of symbol is also printed.

To invoke the name utility, enter the following:

nm2000 [*--options*] [*input filename*]

nm2000	is the command that invokes the name utility.
<i>input filename</i>	is a COFF object file (.obj), an executable file (.out), or an archive file. For an archive file, the name utility processes each object file in the archive.
<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">–a prints all symbols.–c also prints C_NULL symbols.–d also prints debug 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.–ofile 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.–t also prints tag information symbols.–u only prints undefined symbols.

10.5 Invoking the Strip Utility

The strip utility, *strip2000*, is used to remove symbol table and debugging information from object and executable files.

To invoke the strip utility, enter the following:

```
strip2000 [-p] input filename [input filename]
```

strip2000	is the command that invokes the strip utility.
<i>input filename</i>	is a COFF object file (.obj) or an executable file (.out).
<i>options</i>	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 follows: <ul style="list-style-type: none">-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, the input object files are replaced with the stripped version.

Hex-Conversion Utility Description

The TMS320C28x™ assembler and linker create object files that are in common object file format (COFF). COFF is a binary object file format that encourages modular programming and provides more powerful and flexible methods for managing code segments and target system memory.

Most EPROM programmers do not accept COFF object files as input. The hex-conversion utility converts a COFF 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 a COFF object file (for example, debugger and loader applications).

The hex-conversion utility can produce these output file formats:

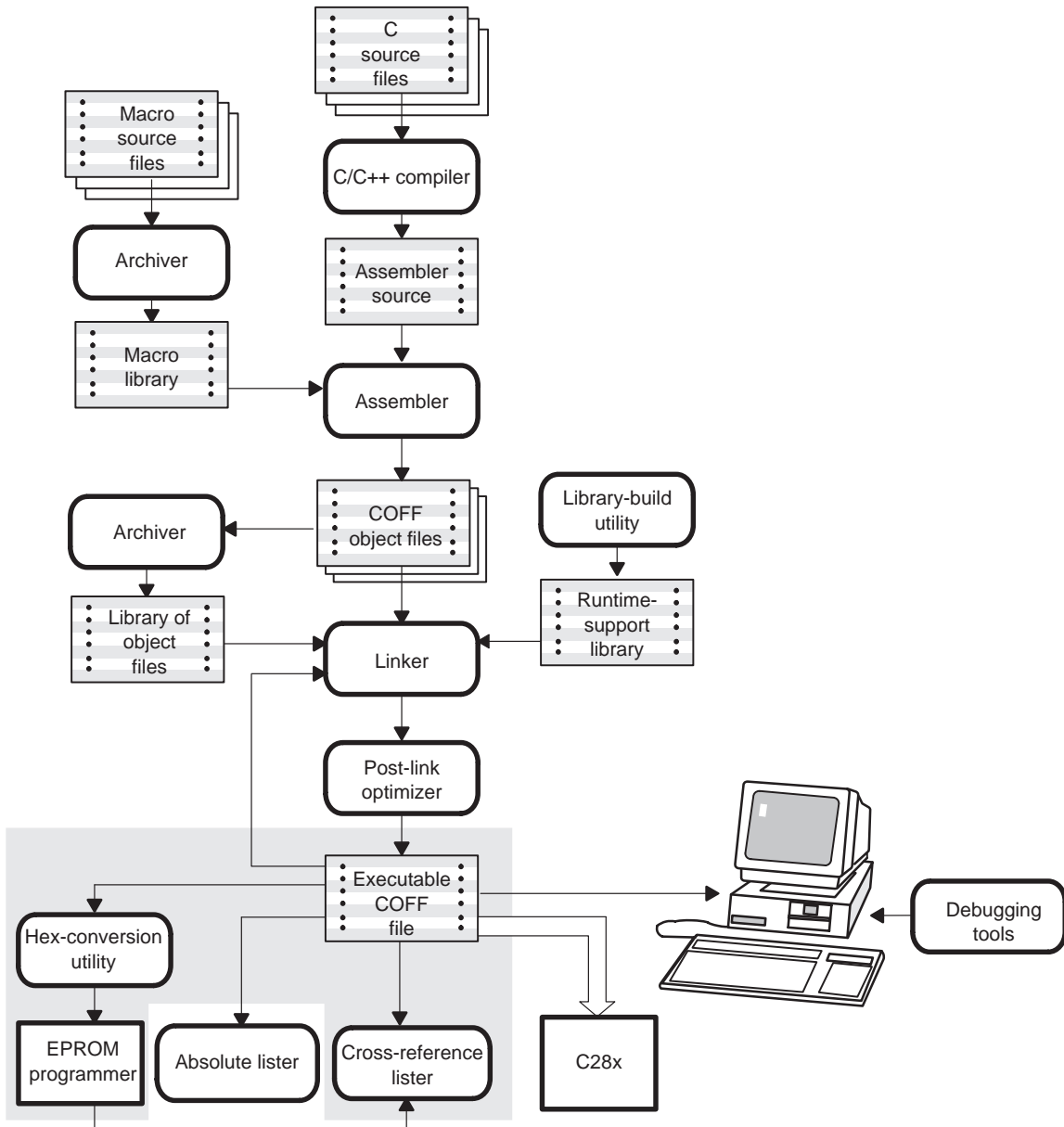
- ☐ ASCII-Hex, supporting 16-bit addresses
- ☐ Extended Tektronix (Tektronix)
- ☐ Intel MCS-86 (Intel)
- ☐ Motorola Exorciser (Motorola-S), supporting 16-bit addresses
- ☐ Texas Instruments SDSMAC (TI-Tagged), supporting 16-bit addresses

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11.1 The Hex-Conversion Utility's Role in the Software Development Flow

Figure 11–1 highlights the role of the hex-conversion utility in the software development process.

Figure 11–1. The Hex-Conversion Utility in the TMS320C28x Software Development Flow



11.2 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`.

```
hex2000 -t firmware -o firm.lsb -o firm.msb
```

- ☐ **Specify the options and filenames in a command file.** You can create a batch 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`:

```
hex2000 hexutil.cmd
```

In addition to regular command line information, you can use the hex-conversion utility `ROMS` and `SECTIONS` directives in a command file.

11.2.1 Invoking the Hex-Conversion Utility From the Command Line

To invoke the hex-conversion utility, enter:

hex2000 [*options*] *filename*

hex2000 is the command that invokes the hex-conversion utility.

options supplies additional information that controls the hex-conversion process. You can use options on the command line or in a command file.

- ☐ 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 multicharacter 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 is the `-q` (quiet) option, which must be used before any other options.

filename names a COFF object file or a command file (for more information, see section 11.2.2, *Invoking the Hex-Conversion Utility With a Command File*, on page 11-6).

Table 11–1. Hex Conversion Utility Options*(a) General options*

The general options control the overall operation of the hex conversion utility.

Option	Description	Page
<code>-exclude section</code>	Ignore specified section	11-23
<code>-map filename</code>	Generate a map file	11-19
<code>-o filename</code>	Specify an output filename	11-24
<code>-q</code>	Run quietly (when used, it must appear <i>before</i> other options)	11-6

(b) Image options

The image options create a continuous image of a range of target memory.

Option	Description	Page
<code>-fill value</code>	Fill holes with <i>value</i>	11-27
<code>-image</code>	Specify image mode	11-26
<code>-zero</code>	Reset the address origin to zero in image mode	11-38

(c) Memory options

The memory options configure the memory widths for your output files.

Option	Description	Page
<code>-memwidth value</code>	Define the system memory word width (default 32 bits)	11-9
<code>-romwidth value</code>	Specify the ROM device width (default depends on format used)	11-11

Table 11–1. Hex Conversion Utility Options (Continued)

(d) Output formats

The output formats specify the format of the output file.

Option	Description	Page
–a	Select ASCII-Hex	11-40
–i	Select Intel	11-41
–m	Select Motorola-S	11-42
–t	Select TI-Tagged	11-43
–x	Select Tektronix	11-44

(e) Boot-loader options for all C28x devices

The boot-loader options for all C28x devices control how the hex conversion utility builds the boot table.

Option	Description	Page
–boot	Convert all sections into bootable form (use instead of a SECTIONS directive)	11-28, 11-30
–bootorg <i>value</i>	Specify the source address of the boot loader table	11-30
–e <i>value</i>	Specify the entry point at which to begin execution after boot loading.	11-31
–gpio8	Specify table source as the GP I/O port, 8-bit mode	11-31
–gpio16	Specify table source as the GP I/O port, 16-bit mode	11-31
–lospcp <i>value</i>	Specify the initial value for the LOSPCP register	11-31
–sci8	Specify table source as the SCI-A port, 8-bit mode	11-31
–spi8	Specify table source as the SPI-A port, 8-bit mode	11-31
–spibrr <i>value</i>	Specify the initial value for the SPIBRR register	11-31

11.2.2 Invoking the Hex-Conversion Utility With a Command File

A command file is useful when you plan to invoke the utility more than once with the same input files and options. It is also useful when 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. (For more information, see section 11.4, *The ROMS Directive*, on page 11-15.)
- ☐ **SECTIONS directive.** The SECTIONS directive specifies which sections from the COFF object file are selected. (For more information, see section 7.8, *The SECTIONS Directive*, on page 7-29.)
- ☐ **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:

hex2000 *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:

```
hex2000 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 **-q 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 */
-t              /* TI-Tagged  */
-o    firm.lsb  /* output file */
-o    firm.msb  /* output file */
```

You can invoke the hex-conversion utility by entering:

```
hex2000 firmware.cmd
```

The following example shows how to convert a file called appl.out into four hex files in Intel format. Each output file is one byte wide and 4K bytes long.

```
appl.out          /* input file */
-i               /* Intel format */
-map appl.mxp     /* map file */

ROMS
{
    ROW1: origin=0x00000000 len=0x4000 romwidth=8
        files={ appl.u0 appl.u1 }
    ROW2: origin=0x00004000 len=0x4000 romwidth=8
        files={ appl.u2 appl.u3 }
}

SECTIONS
{
    .text, .data, .cinit, .sect1, .vectors, .const:
}
```


11.3 Understanding Memory Widths

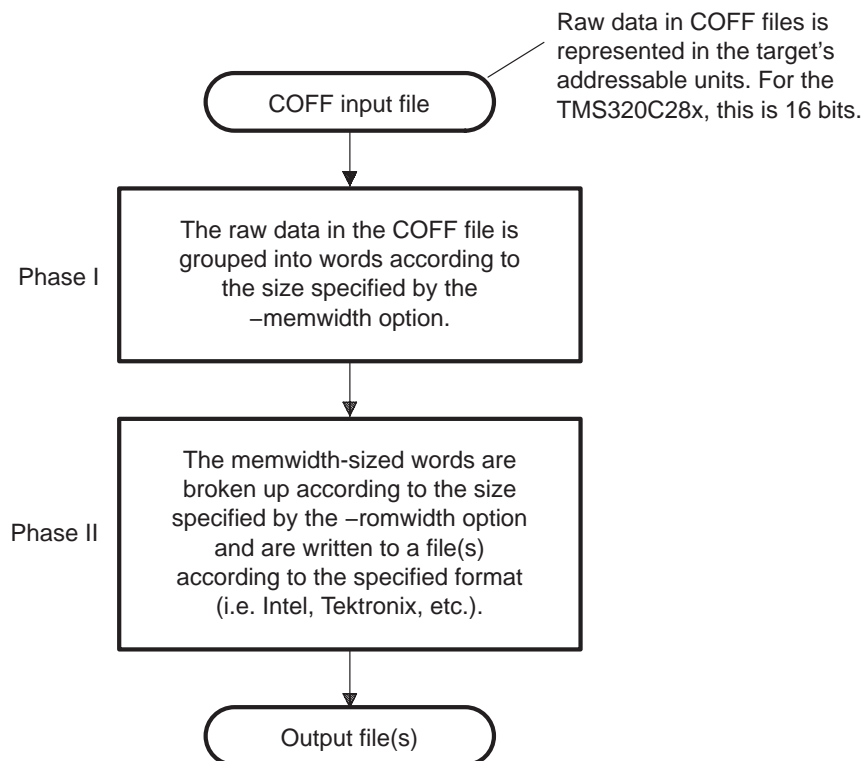
The hex-conversion utility makes your memory architecture more flexible by allowing you to specify memory and ROM widths. To use the hex-conversion utility, *you must understand how the utility treats word widths*. Three widths are important in the conversion process:

- ☐ Target width
- ☐ Memory width
- ☐ ROM width

The terms *target word*, *memory word*, and *ROM word* refer to a word of target, memory, and ROM width, respectively.

Figure 11–2 illustrates the two separate and distinct phases of the hex-conversion utility's process flow.

Figure 11–2. Hex-Conversion Utility Process Flow



11.3.1 Target Width

Target width is the unit size (in bits) of the target processor's word. The unit size corresponds to the data bus size on the target processor. The width is fixed for each target and cannot be changed. The TMS320C28x targets have a width of 16 bits.

11.3.2 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 16-bit processor has a 16-bit memory architecture. However, some applications require target words to be broken into narrower multiple consecutive memory words.

The hex-conversion utility defaults memory width to the target width (in this case, 16 bits).

You can change the memory width by:

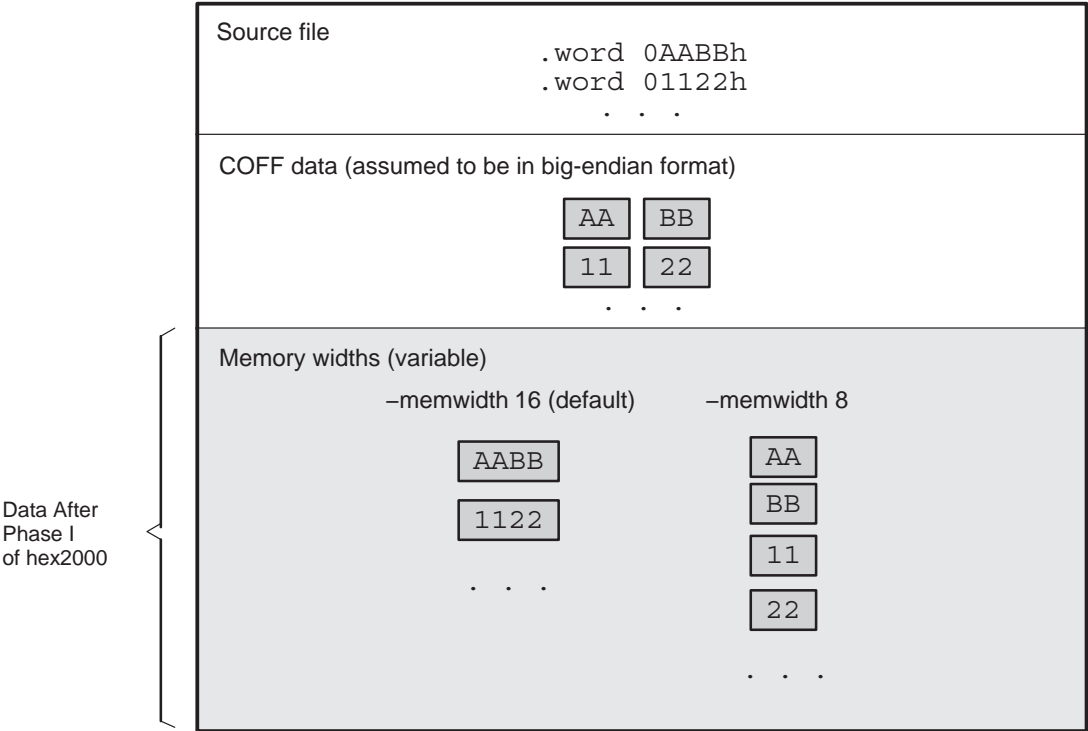
- ☐ Using the **-memwidth** option. This changes the memory-width value for the entire file.
- ☐ Setting the **memwidth** parameter of the ROMS directive. This changes the memory-width value for the address range specified in the ROMS directive and overrides the **-memwidth** option for that range. See section 11.4, *The ROMS Directive*, on page 11-15.

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 narrower consecutive memory words.

Figure 11-3 demonstrates how the memory width is related to COFF data.

Figure 11–3. COFF Data and Memory Widths



11.3.3 Partitioning 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). The ROM width determines how the hex-conversion utility partitions the data into output files. After the COFF 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:
number of files = memory width \div ROM width
- ☐ If memory width $<$ ROM width:
number of files = 1

For example, for a memory width of 16, you could specify a ROM-width value of 16 and get a single output file containing 16-bit words. Or you can use a ROM-width value of 8 to get two files, each containing 8 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 eight bits.
- ☐ TI-Tagged is a 16-bit format; the default ROM width for TI-Tagged is 16 bits.

Note: The TI-Tagged Format Is 16 Bits Wide

You cannot change the ROM width of the TI-Tagged format. The TI-Tagged format supports a 16-bit ROM width only.

You can change ROM width (except for TI-Tagged) by:

- ☐ Using the **-romwidth** option. This option changes the ROM-width value for the entire COFF 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 11.4, *The ROMS Directive*, on page 11-15.

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 (16 bits for TI-Tagged or 8 bits for all others), the utility simply writes multibyte fields into the file.

Figure 11–4 illustrates how the COFF data, memory, and ROM widths are related to one another.

Memory width and ROM width are used only for grouping the COFF data; they do not represent values. Thus, the byte ordering of the COFF 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:

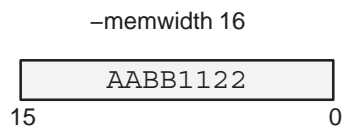
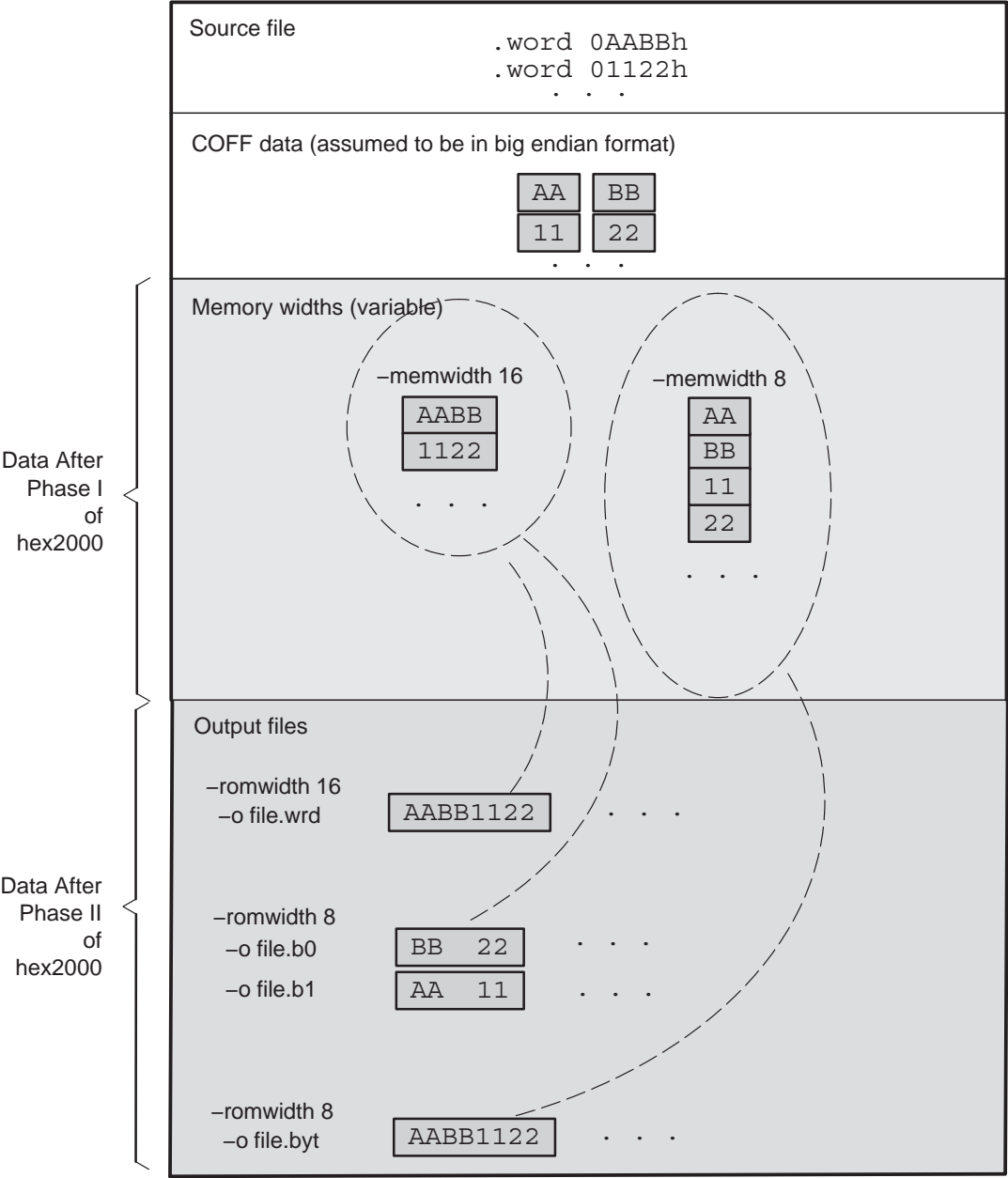


Figure 11–4.Data, Memory, and ROM Widths



11.3.4 Specifying Word Order for Output Words

When memory words are narrower than target words (memory width < 16), target words are split into multiple consecutive memory words. There are two ways to split a wide word into consecutive memory locations in the same hex conversion utility output file:

- ☐ **–order MS** specifies **big-endian** ordering, in which the most significant part of the wide word occupies the first of the consecutive locations
- ☐ **–order LS** specifies **little-endian** ordering, in which the the least significant part of the wide word occupies the first of the consecutive locations

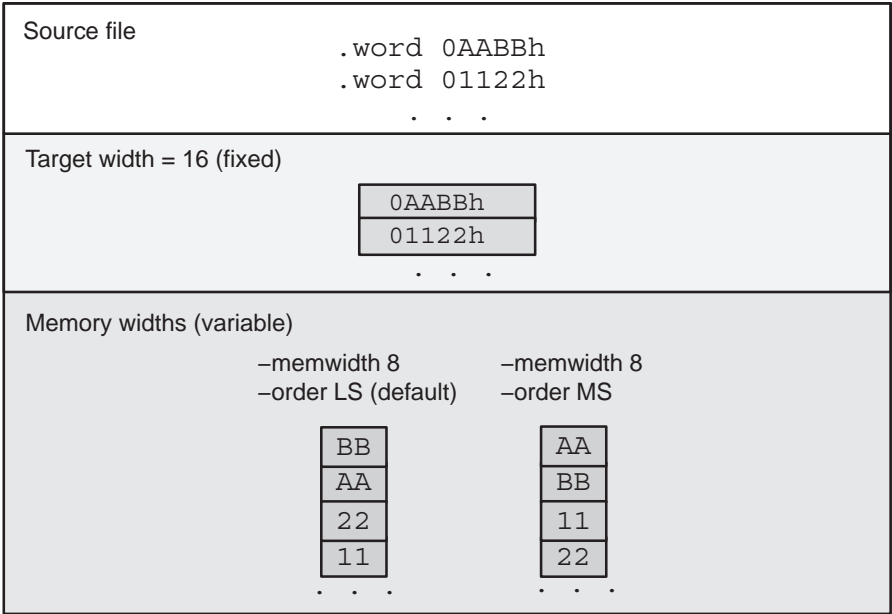
By default, the utility uses little-endian format because the TMS320C28x boot loaders expect the data in this order. Unless you are using your own boot loader program, avoid using **–order MS**.

Note: When the –order Option Applies

- ☐ This option applies only when you use a memory width with a value less than 16. Otherwise, **–order** is ignored.
 - ☐ This option does not affect the way memory words are split into output files. Think of the files as a set: the set contains a least significant file and a most significant file, but there is no ordering over the set. When you list filenames for a set of files, you *always* list the least significant first, regardless of the **–order** option.
-

Figure 11–5 demonstrates how **–order** affects the conversion process. This figure, and the previous figure, Figure 11–4, explain the condition of the data in the hex conversion utility output files.

Figure 11–5. Varying the Word Order



11.4 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 TMS320C28x 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 long. The name has no significance to the program; it simply identifies the range. (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 value, it defaults to the length of the entire address space.
- romwidth** specifies the physical ROM width of the range in bits (see section 11.3.3, *Partitioning Data Into Output Files*, on page 11-10). 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 11.3.2, *Specifying the Memory Width*, on page 11-9). 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 specify the `paddr` parameter for each section in the `SECTIONS` directive.* (See section 11.5, *The `SECTIONS` Directive*, on page 11-21.)
- 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 11.8.2, *Specifying a Fill Value*, on page 11-27.
- files** identifies the names of the output files that correspond to this range. List the filenames in order from *least significant* to *most significant* output file, where the bits of the memory word are numbered from right to left. Enclose the list of names in curly braces.
- The number of filenames must equal the number of output files that the range generates. To calculate the number of output files generated, see section 11.3.3, *Partitioning Data Into Output Files*, on page 11-10. 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.

11.4.1 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. In this way, 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.

11.4.2 An Example of the ROMS Directive

The ROMS directive in Example 11–1 shows how 16K bytes of 16-bit memory could be partitioned for two 8K × 8-bit EPROMs. Figure 11–6 illustrates the input and output files.

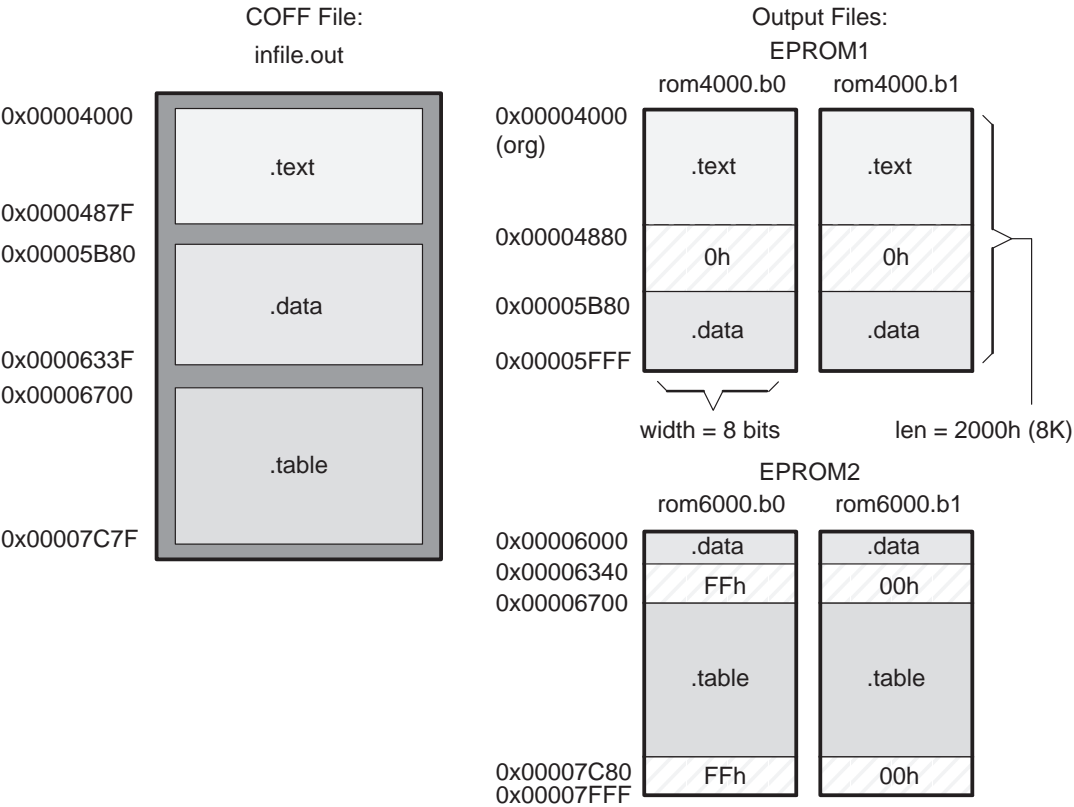
Example 11–1. A ROMS Directive Example

```
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 = 0xFF00,
          files = { rom6000.b0, rom6000.b1}
}
```

Figure 11–6. 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 11–2 is a segment of the map file resulting from Example 11–1.

Example 11–2. Map File Output From Example 11–1 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 = 0000ff00
             00006700..00007c7f .table
             00007c80..00007fff FILL = 0000ff00
```

EPROM1 defines the address range from 0x00004000 through 0x00005FFF. The range contains 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). The data from this range is converted into two output files:

- ☐ File rom4000.b0 contains bits 0 through 7.
- ☐ File rom4000.b1 contains bits 8 through 15.

EPROM2 defines the address range from 0x00006000 through 0x00007FFF. The range contains the following sections:

This section...	Has this range...
.data	0x00006000 through 0x0000633F
.table	0x00006700 through 0x00007C7F

The rest of the range is filled with 0xFF00 (from the specified fill value). The data from this range is converted into two output files:

- ☐ File rom6000.b0 contains bits 0 through 7.
- ☐ File rom6000.b1 contains bits 8 through 15.

11.5 The SECTIONS Directive

You can convert specific sections of the COFF file by name with the 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 COFF file.
- ☐ If you do not use a SECTIONS directive, the utility converts all initialized sections that fall within the configured memory. The TMS320C28x C/C++ compiler-generated initialized sections include: `.text`, `.const`, and `.cinit`.

Uninitialized sections are *never* converted, whether or not you specify them in a SECTIONS directive.

Note: Sections Generated by the C/C++ Compiler

The TMS320C28x C/C++ compiler automatically generates the following sections.

- ☐ **Initialized sections:** `.text`, `.const`, and `.cinit`.
- ☐ **Uninitialized sections:** `.bss`, `.stack`, and `.systemem`.

Use the SECTIONS directive in a command file. (For more information, see section 11.2.2, *Invoking the Hex-Conversion Utility With a Command File*, on page 11-6.) The general syntax for the SECTIONS directive is:

```
SECTIONS
{
    sname: [paddr=value],
    sname: [paddr=boot]
    sname: [= boot ],
    ...
}
```

SECTIONS begins the directive definition.

sname identifies a section in the COFF 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 is to be located. This value overrides the section load address given by the linker. The 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 the on-chip boot loader). *If your file contains multiple sections, and if one section uses a paddr parameter, then all sections must use a paddr parameter.*

= boot configures a section for loading by the on-chip boot loader. This is equivalent to using **paddr=boot**. Boot sections have a physical address determined both by the target processor type and by the various boot-loader-specific command line options.

The commas separating section names are optional. For more similarity with the linker's *SECTIONS* directive, you can use colons after the section names.

Suppose a COFF file contains six initialized sections: `.text`, `.data`, `.const`, `.vectors`, `.coeff`, and `.tables`. If you want only `.text` and `.data` to be converted, use a *SECTIONS* directive as follows:

```
SECTIONS { .text, .data }
```

11.6 Excluding a Specified Section

The `–exclude section` 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, enter 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, then the quotes should not be specified.

11.7 Assigning Output Filenames

When the hex-conversion utility translates your COFF 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 COFF 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 = { . . . }`) in that range, the utility takes the filename from the list.

For example, assume that the target data is 16-bit words being converted to two 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 }
}
```

The utility creates the output files by writing the least significant bits to `xyz.b0` and the most significant bits to `xyz.b1`.

- 2) **It looks for the `-o` options.** You can specify names for the output files by using the `-o` option. If no filenames are listed in the ROMS directive and you use `-o` options, the utility takes the filename from the list of `-o` options. The following line has the same effect as the example above using the ROMS directive:

```
-o xyz.b0 -o xyz.b1
```

If the ROMS directive and `-o` options are used together, the ROMS directive overrides the `-o` 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 COFF input file plus a 2- to 3-character extension. The extension has three parts:

- a) A format character, based on the output format:

- a** for ASCII-Hex
- i** for Intel
- t** for TI-Tagged
- m** for Motorola-S
- 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 `coff.out` is a COFF input file for a 16-bit target processor and you are creating Intel format output. With no output filenames specified, the utility produces two output files named `coff.i0` and `coff.i1`.

If you include the following ROMS directive when you invoke the hex-conversion utility, you would have four output files:

```
ROMS
{
    range1: o = 0x00001000 l = 0x1000
    range2: o = 0x00002000 l = 0x1000
}
```

These output files...	Contain data in this location...
<code>coff.i00</code> and <code>coff.i01</code>	0x00001000 through 0x00001FFF
<code>coff.i10</code> and <code>coff.i11</code>	0x00002000 through 0x00002FFF

11.8 Image Mode and the `-fill` Option

This section describes the advantages of operating in image mode and describes how to produce output files with a precise, continuous image of a target memory range.

11.8.1 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.

A COFF 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.

Note: Defining the Ranges of Target Memory

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, which could create a huge amount of output data. To prevent this situation, the utility requires you to explicitly restrict the address space with the ROMS directive.

11.8.2 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 0FFh` results in a fill pattern of `00FFh`. 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.*

11.8.3 Steps to Follow in Image Mode

- Step 1:** Define the ranges of target memory with a ROMS directive. See section 11.4, *The ROMS Directive*, on page 11-15 for details.
- 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 value of 0, use the `-fill` option.

11.9 Building a Table for an On-Chip Boot Loader

Some C28x devices, such as the F2810/12, have a built-in boot loader that initializes memory with one or more blocks of code or data. The boot loader uses a special table (a *boot table*) stored in memory (such as EPROM) or loaded from a device peripheral (such as a serial or communications port) to initialize the code or data. The hex conversion utility supports the boot loader by automatically building the boot table.

11.9.1 Description of the Boot Table

The input for a boot loader is the boot table. The boot table contains records that instruct the on-chip loader to copy blocks of data contained in the table to specified destination addresses. The boot table can be stored in memory or read in through a device peripheral.

The hex conversion utility automatically builds the boot table for the boot loader. Using the utility, you specify the COFF sections you want the boot loader to initialize and the table location. The hex conversion utility builds a complete image of the table according to the format specified and converts it into hexadecimal in the output files. Then, you can burn the table into ROM or load it by other means.

The boot loader supports loading from memory that is narrower than the normal width of memory. For example, you can boot a 16-bit TMS320C28x from a single 8-bit EPROM by using the `-memwidth` option to configure the width of the boot table. The hex conversion utility automatically adjusts the table's format and length. See the boot loader example in the *TMS320C28x DSP CPU and Instruction Set Reference Guide* for an illustration of a boot table.

11.9.2 The Boot Table Format

The boot table format is simple. Typically, there is a header record containing a key value that indicates memory width, entry point, and values for control registers. Each subsequent block has a header containing the size and destination address of the block followed by data for the block. Multiple blocks can be entered. The table ends with a header containing size zero. See the boot loader section in the *TMS320C28x DSP CPU and Instruction Set Reference Guide* for more information.

11.9.3 Controlling the Boot Loader

Table 11–2 summarizes the hex conversion utility options available for the boot loader.

Table 11–2. *Boot-Loader Options*

Option	Description
–boot	Convert all input sections into bootable form (use instead of a SECTIONS directive)
–bootorg <i>value</i>	Specify the source address of the boot loader table
–e <i>value</i>	Specify the entry point at which to begin execution after boot loading. The <i>value</i> can be an address or a global symbol.
–gpio8	Specify the source of the boot loader table as the GP I/O port, 8-bit mode
–gpio16	Specify the source of the boot loader table as the GP I/O port, 16-bit mode
–lospcp <i>value</i>	Specify the initial value for the LOSPCP register. This value is used only for the spi8 boot table format and is ignored for all other formats. A value greater than 0x7F is truncated to 0x7F.
–sci8	Specify the source of the boot loader table as the SCI-A port, 8-bit mode
–spi8	Specify the source of the boot loader table as the SPI-A port, 8-bit mode. This format initializes the LOSPCP and SPIBRR registers. If initial values for these registers were not specified, the hex conversion utility used 0x2 and 0x7F respectively.
–spibrr <i>value</i>	Specify the initial value for the SPIBRR register. This value is used only for the spi8 boot table format and is ignored for all other formats. A value greater than 0x7F is truncated to 0x7F.

11.9.3.1 Building the Boot Table

To build the boot table, follow these steps:

Step 1: Link the file. Each block of the boot table data corresponds to an initialized section in the COFF file. Uninitialized sections are not converted by the hex conversion utility (see Section 11.5, *The SECTIONS Directive*, on page 11-21).

When you select a section for placement in a boot-loader table, the hex conversion utility places the section's *load address* in the destination address field for the block in the boot table. The section content is then treated as raw data for that block.

The hex conversion utility does not use the section run address. When linking, you need not worry about the ROM address or the construction of the boot table—the hex conversion utility handles this.

Step 2: Identify the bootable sections. You can use the `-boot` option to tell the hex conversion utility to configure all sections for boot loading. Or, you can use a `SECTIONS` directive to select specific sections to be configured. If you use a `SECTIONS` directive, `-boot` is ignored.

Step 3: Set the boot table format. Specify the `-gpio8`, `-gpio16`, `-sci8`, or `-spi8` option to set the source of the boot table. You do not need to specify the `memwidth` and `romwidth` as the utility will set these formats automatically. If `-memwidth` and `-romwidth` are used after a format option, they override the default for the format.

Step 4: Set the ROM address of the boot table. Use the `-bootorg` option to set the source address of the complete table. For example, if you are using the C28x and booting from memory location 0x3FF000, specify `-bootorg 0x3FF000`. The address field in the hex conversion utility output file will then start at 0x3FF000.

Step 5: Set boot-loader-specific options. Set entry point and control register values as needed.

Step 6: Describe your system memory configuration. See Section 11.3, *Understanding Memory Widths*, on page 11-8 and Section 11.4, *The ROMS Directive*, on page 11-15 for details.

11.9.3.2 Leaving Room for the Boot Table

The complete boot table is similar to a single section containing all of the header records and data for the boot loader. The address of this section is the boot table origin. As part of the normal conversion process, the hex conversion utility converts the boot table to hexadecimal format and maps it into the output files like any other section.

Be sure to leave room in your system memory for the boot table, especially when you are using the ROMS directive. The boot table cannot overlap other nonboot sections or unconfigured memory. Usually, this is not a problem; typically, a portion of memory in your system is reserved for the boot table. Simply configure this memory as one or more ranges in the ROMS directive, and use the `-bootorg` option to specify the starting address.

11.9.4 Booting From a Device Peripheral

You can choose to boot from the F2810/12 serial or parallel port by using the `-gpio8`, `-gpio16`, `-sci8`, or `-spi8` boot table format option. The initial value for the LOSPCP register can be specified with the `-lospcp` option. The initial value for the SPIBRR register can be specified with the `-spibrr` option. Only the `-spi8` format uses these control register values in the boot table.

If the register values are not specified for the `-spi8` format, the hex conversion utility uses the default value 0x02 for LOSPCP and 0x7F for SPIBRR. When the boot table format options are specified and the ROMS directive is not specified, the ASCII format hex utility output does not produce the address record.

11.9.5 Setting the Entry Point for the Boot Table

After completing the boot load process, execution starts at the default entry point specified by the linker and contained in the COFF file. By using the `-e` option with the hex conversion utility, you can set the entry point to a different address.

For example, if you want your program to start running at address 0x0123 after loading, specify `-e 0x0123` on the command line or in a command file. You can determine the `-e` address by looking at the map file that the linker generates.

Note: Valid Entry Points

The value can be a constant, or it can be a symbol that is externally defined (for example, with a `.global`) in the assembly source.

11.9.6 Using the C28x Boot Loader

This subsection explains how to use the hex conversion utility with the boot loader for C28x devices. The C28x boot loader accepts the formats listed in Table 11–3.

Table 11–3. Boot Table Source Formats

Format	Option
Parallel boot GP I/O 8-bit	–gpio8
Parallel boot GP I/O 16-bit	–gpio16
8-bit SCI boot	–sci8
8-bit SPI boot	–spi8

The F2810/12 can boot through the SCI-A 8-bit, SPI-A 8-bit, GP I/O 8-bit, or GP I/O 16-bit interface. The format of the boot table is shown in Table 11–4.

Table 11–4. Boot Table Format

Description	Word	Content
Boot table header	1	Key value (0x10AA or 0x08AA)
	2–9	Register initialization value or reserved for future use
	10–11	Entry point
Block header	12	Block size in number of words (n1)
	13–14	Destination address of the block
Block data	15	Raw data for the block (n1 words)
Block header	16 + n1	Block size in number of words
	.	Destination address of the block
Block data	.	Raw data for the block
Additional block headers and data, as required	...	Content as appropriate
Block header with size 0		0x0000; indicates the end of the boot table

The C28x can boot through either the serial 8-bit or parallel interface with either 8- or 16-bit data. The format is the same for any combination: the boot table consists of a field containing the destination address, a field containing the length, and a block containing the data. You can boot only one section. If you are booting from an 8-bit channel, 16-bit words are stored in the table with MSBs first; the hex conversion utility automatically builds the table in the correct format. Use the following options to specify the boot table source:

- ☐ To boot from a SCI-A port, specify `-spi8` when invoking the utility. Do not specify `-memwidth` or `-romwidth`.
- ☐ To boot from a SPI-A port, specify `-sci8` when invoking the utility. Do not specify `-memwidth` or `-romwidth`. Use `-lospcp` to set the initial value for the LOSPCP register and `-spibrr` to set the initial value for the SPIBRR register. If the register values are not specified for the `-spi8` format, the hex conversion utility uses the default value 0x02 for LOSPCP and 0x7F for SPIBRR.
- ☐ To load from a general-purpose parallel I/O port, invoke the utility with `-gpio8` or `-gpio16`. Do not specify `-memwidth` or `-romwidth`.

The command file in Example 11–3 allows you to boot the `.text` and `.cinit` sections of `test.out` from a 16-bit-wide EPROM at location 0x3FFC00. The map file `test.map` is also generated.

Example 11–3. Sample Command File for Booting From 8-Bit SPI Boot

```

/*-----*/
/* Hex convertor command file.                                */
/*-----*/
test.out           /* Input COFF file */
-a                /* Select ASCII format */
-map test.map      /* Specify the map file */
-o test_spi8.hex   /* Hex utility out file */
-boot            /* Consider all the input section as boot sections */
-spi8            /* Specify the SPI 8-bit boot format */
-lospcp 0x3F      /* Set the initial value for the LOSPCP as 0x3F*/
                 /* -spibrr option is not specified to show that the*/
                 /* hex utility uses the default value (0x7F)      */
-e 0x3F0000       /* Set the entry point */

```

The command file in Example 11–3 generates the out file in Example 11–4. The control register values are coded in the boot table header and the boot table header has the address that is specified with the `-e` option.

The command file in Example 11–5 allows you to boot the .text and .cinit sections of test.out from the 16-bit parallel GP I/O port. The map file test.map is also generated.

Example 11–5. Sample Command File for C28x 16-Bit Parallel Boot GP I/O

```

/*-----*/
/* Hex convertor command file.                                */
/*-----*/
test.out          /* Input COFF file */
-a               /* Select ASCII format */
-map test.map     /* Specify the map file */
-o test_gpio16.hex /* Hex utility out file */
-gpio16          /* Specify the 16-bit GP I/O boot format */

SECTIONS
{
    .text: paddr=BOOT
    .cinit: paddr=BOOT
}

```

The command file in Example 11–5 generates the out file in Example 11–6.

Example 11–6. Sample Hex Convertor Out File for C28x 16-Bit Parallel Boot GP I/O

Key value	Reserved for future use	Entry point
10 AA 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 3F 00 05 00 90		

		Length of first block in words
Address of the first block		

00 3F 00 00 B8 42 9A 00 28 04 00 05 00 06 28 AD 10 88 FF 69 56 1F 56 16		
56 1A 29 40 76 1F 00 00 29 02 76 1B 76 22 28 A9 00 90 28 A8 00 3F 09 01		
61 1D 76 FF 00 90 29 04 6F 0F 9B 00 24 A9 DF 01 6C 04 29 04 24 A8 DF 01		
1E A6 F7 A1 24 86 06 A7 81 A1 09 01 1E A7 24 A9 63 03 FF 5C 3B 04 59 A9		
77 00 77 00 DF 01 00 09 FF EA 76 1A 28 A9 FF FF 28 A8 FF FF 09 01 61 0E		
76 FF FF FF 6F 06 DF 01 C3 BD 1E A7 3E 67 C5 BE 24 A9 DF 01 24 A8 FF 58		
60 F7 76 7F 00 00 76 7F 00 4B B2 BD B8 42 AA BD C5 02 3E 67 B8 40 59 00		
92 A1 EC 0D 56 03 01 A1 08 A9 10 40 5A A9 DA 82 C5 C2 3E 67 92 A1 9C FF		
59 A9 ED FA B8 40 06 02 EC 03 1E A7 3E 67 B8 40 06 04 EC 03 1E A7 3E 67		
77 00 6F 00 B8 42 B2 BD C5 02 8B A4 3E 67 B8 40 92 00 52 20 64 06 B8 42		
C5 00 3E 67 9A 01 6F 0D 93 00 0A 00 56 03 01 A8 5C A9 08 A4 10 40 B8 42		
B2 C4 C5 00 3E 67 9A 00 8B BE 00 06 6F 00 00 06 B8 42 A8 02 00 06 B8 42		
A8 00 00 06		

**Example 11–6. Sample Hex Convertor Out File for C28x 16-Bit Parallel Boot GP I/O
(Continued)**

```

Length of second block in words
|
|      Address of the second block
|      |
-----
00 1A 00 3F 00 90 00 04 10 84 00 01 00 02 00 03 00 04 00 01 10 00 00 00
00 02 10 02 00 00 00 00 00 02 10 04 00 00 00 00 00 02 10 80 00 89 00 3F
00 02 10 82 00 89 00 3F 00 00 00 00
                                -----
                                |
                                Terminating header with length zero

```

The command file in Example 11–7 allows you to boot the .text and .cinit sections of test.out from a 16-bit-wide EPROM from the SCI-A 8-bit port. The map file test.map is also generated.

Example 11–7. Sample Command File for Booting From 8-Bit SCI Boot

```

/*-----*/
/* Hex convertor command file.                                */
/*-----*/
test.out          /* Input COFF file */
-a               /* Select ASCII format */
-map test.map     /* Specify the map file */
-o test_sci8.hex  /* Hex utility out file */
-sci8            /* Specify the SCI 8-bit boot format */

SECTIONS
{
    .text: paddr=BOOT
    .cinit: paddr=BOOT
}

```

The command file in Example 11–7 generates the out file in Example 11–8.

Example 11–8. Sample Hex Convertor Out File for Booting From 8-Bit SCI Boot

Key value	Reserved for future use	Entry point
AA 08 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 3F 00 05 00 90 00		

	Length of first block in words	
Address of the first block		

3F 00 00 00 42 B8 00 9A 04 28 05 00 06 00 AD 28 88 10 69 FF 1F 56 16 56		
1A 56 40 29 1F 76 00 00 02 29 1B 76 22 76 A9 28 90 00 A8 28 3F 00 01 09		
1D 61 FF 76 90 00 04 29 0F 6F 00 9B A9 24 01 DF 04 6C 04 29 A8 24 01 DF		
A6 1E A1 F7 86 24 A7 06 A1 81 01 09 A7 1E A9 24 03 63 5C FF 04 3B A9 59		
00 77 00 77 01 DF 09 00 EA FF 1A 76 A9 28 FF FF A8 28 FF FF 01 09 0E 61		
FF 76 FF FF 06 6F 01 DF BD C3 A7 1E 67 3E BE C5 A9 24 01 DF A8 24 58 FF		
F7 60 7F 76 00 00 7F 76 4B 00 BD B2 42 B8 BD AA 02 C5 67 3E 40 B8 00 59		
A1 92 0D EC 03 56 A1 01 A9 08 40 10 A9 5A 82 DA C2 C5 67 3E A1 92 FF 9C		
A9 59 FA ED 40 B8 02 06 03 EC A7 1E 67 3E 40 B8 04 06 03 EC A7 1E 67 3E		
00 77 00 6F 42 B8 BD B2 02 C5 A4 8B 67 3E 40 B8 00 92 20 52 06 64 42 B8		
00 C5 67 3E 01 9A 0D 6F 00 93 00 0A 03 56 A8 01 A9 5C A4 08 40 10 42 B8		
C4 B2 00 C5 67 3E 00 9A BE 8B 06 00 00 6F 06 00 42 B8 02 A8 06 00 42 B8		
00 A8 06 00		
Length of second block in words		
Address of the second block		

1A 00 3F 00 90 00 04 00 84 10 01 00 02 00 03 00 04 00 01 00 00 10 00 00		
02 00 02 10 00 00 00 00 02 00 04 10 00 00 00 00 02 00 80 10 89 00 3F 00		
02 00 82 10 89 00 3F 00 00 00 00 00		

Terminating header with length zero		

11.10 Controlling the ROM Device Address

The hex-conversion utility output address corresponds to the ROM device address. The EPROM programmer burns the data in the location specified by the address field in the hex-conversion utility output file. 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 where 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 a hex-conversion utility output file is the load address given in the linker command file.
- 2) **The `paddr` option inside the `SECTIONS` directive.** When the `paddr` option (described on page 11-22) 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 increments upward, any address record represents offsets from the beginning of the file (the address within 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 0. If you specify the `-zero` option without the `-image` option, the utility issues a warning and ignores the 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.

11.11 Object Formats

The hex-conversion utility converts a COFF object file into one of five object formats that most EPROM programmers accept as input: ASCII-Hex, Intel MCS-86, Motorola-S, Extended Tektronix, and TI-Tagged.

Table 11–5 specifies the format options.

- ☐ You need to 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 (–x option).

Table 11–5. Options for Specifying Hex-Conversion Formats

Option	Format	Address Bits	Default Width
–a	ASCII-Hex	16	8
–i	Intel	32	8
–m	Motorola-S	24	8
–t	TI-Tagged	16	16
–x	Tektronix	32	8

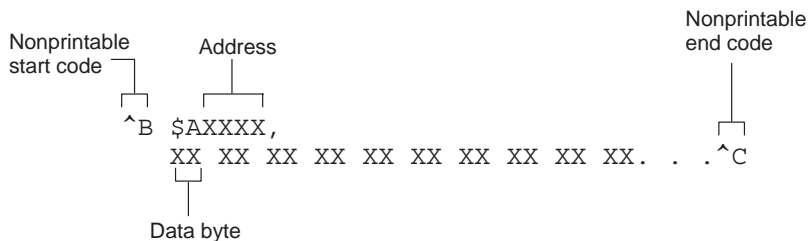
Address bits determine how many bits of the address information the format supports. Formats with 16-bit addresses support addresses up to 64K only. The utility truncates target addresses to fit in the number of available bits.

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.

11.11.1 ASCII-Hex Object Format (`-a` Option)

The ASCII-Hex object format supports 16-bit addresses. The format consists of a byte stream with bytes separated by spaces. Figure 11–7 illustrates the ASCII-Hex format.

Figure 11–7. 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 by `$Axxxx`, in which `xxxx` is a 4-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.

11.11.2 Intel MCS-86 Object Format (-i Option)

The Intel object format supports 16-bit addresses and 32-bit extended addresses. It consists of a 9-character (4-field) prefix, the data, and a 2-character checksum suffix. The 9-character prefix defines the start of record, byte count, load address, and record type. These are the record types:

Record Type	Description
00	Data record
01	End-of-file record
04	Extended linear address record

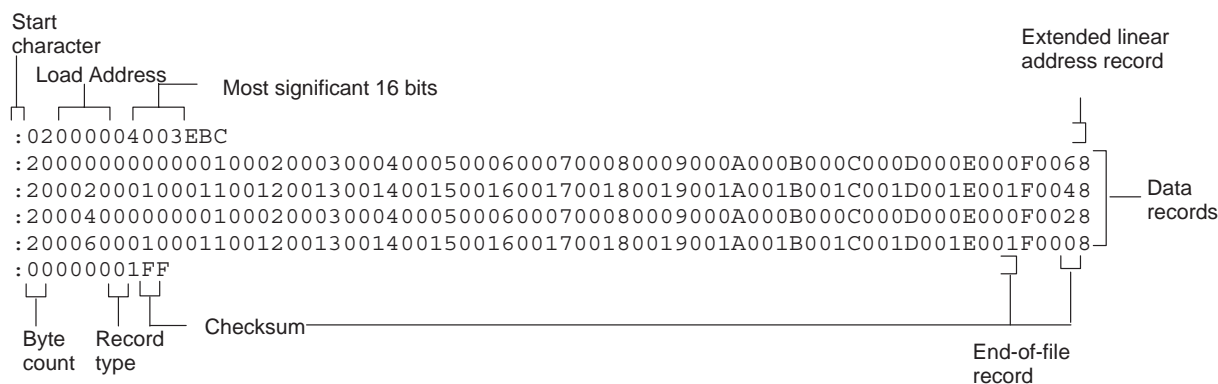
Record type 00, the data record, begins with a colon (:), which is followed by the byte count, the address of the first data byte, the record type (00), and the checksum. The address is the least significant 16 bits of a 32-bit address; this value is concatenated with the value from the most recent 04 (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 (:), which is 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 (:), which is followed by the byte count, a dummy address 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 LSBs of the address.

Figure 11–8 illustrates the Intel hexadecimal object format.

Figure 11–8. Intel MCS86 Hexadecimal Object Format



11.11.3 Motorola-S Object Format (-m Option)

The Motorola-S format supports 24-bit addresses. It consists of a start-of-file (header) record, data records, and an end-of-file (termination) record. Each record consists of five fields: record type, byte count, address, data, and checksum. The three record types are:

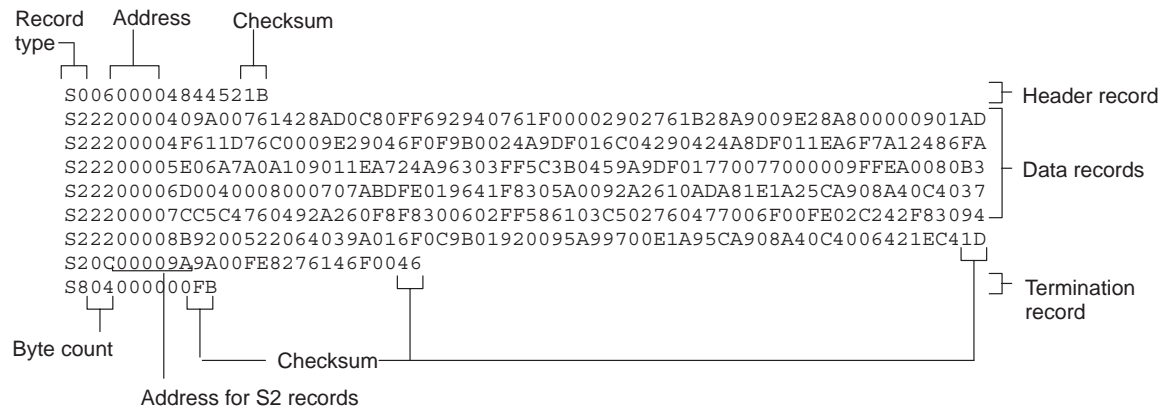
Record Type	Description
S0	Header record
S2	Code/data record
S8	Termination record

The byte count is the character-pair count in the record, excluding the type and byte count itself.

The checksum is the least significant byte of the 1s complement of the sum of the values represented by the pairs of characters making up the byte count, address, and the code/data fields.

Figure 11–9 illustrates the Motorola-S object format.

Figure 11–9.Motorola-S Object Format



11.11.4 TI-Tagged SDSMAC Object Format (-t Option)

The Texas Instruments SDSMAC (TI-Tagged) object format supports 16-bit addresses. It consists of a start-of-file record, data records, and end-of-file record. Each data record consists of a series of small fields and is signified by a tag character. The significant tag characters are:

Tag Character	Description
K	Followed by the program identifier
7	Followed by a checksum
8	Followed by a dummy checksum (ignored)
9	Followed by a 16-bit load address
B	Followed by a data word (four characters)
F	Identifies the end of a data record
*	Followed by a data byte (two characters)

Figure 11–10 illustrates the tag characters and fields in TI-Tagged object format.

Figure 11-10. TI-Tagged Object Format



If any data fields appear before the first address, the first field is assigned address 0000h. Address fields may be expressed for any data byte, but none is required. The checksum field, which is preceded by the tag character 7, is a 2s complement of the sum of the 8-bit ASCII values of characters, beginning with the first tag character and ending with the checksum tag character (7 or 8). The end-of-file record is a colon (:).

11.11.5 Extended Tektronix Object Format (-x Option)

The Tektronix object format supports 32-bit addresses and has two types of records:

Data records contain the header field, the load address, and the object code.

Termination records signify the end of a module.

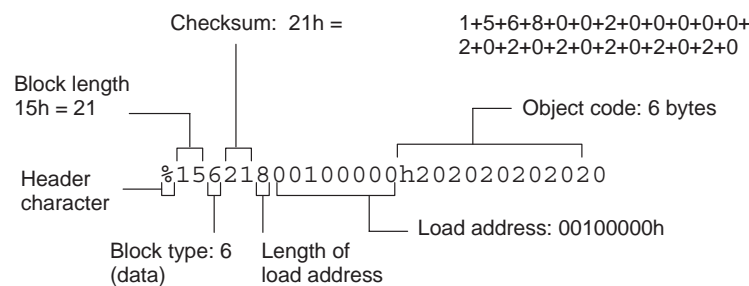
The header field in the data record contains the following information:

Item	Number of ASCII Characters	Description
%	1	Data type is Tektronix format.
Block length	2	Number of characters in the record, minus the %
Block type	1	6 = data record 8 = termination record
Checksum	2	A 2-digit hex sum modulo 256 of all values in the record except the % and the checksum itself

The load address in the data record specifies where the object code is to be located. The first digit specifies the address length. The remaining characters of the data record contain the object code in the form of two characters per byte.

Figure 11–11 illustrates the Tektronix object format.

Figure 11–11. Extended Tektronix Object Format



11.12 Hex-Conversion Utility Error Messages

section mapped to reserved memory

Description A section is mapped into a memory area that is designated as reserved in the processor memory map.

Action Correct section or boot-loader address. For valid memory locations, refer to the *TMS320C28x CPU and Instruction Set Reference Guide*.

sections overlapping

Description Two or more COFF section load addresses overlap, or a boot table address overlaps another section.

Action This problem may be caused by an incorrect translation from load address to hexadecimal output-file address that is performed by the hex-conversion utility when memory width is less than data width. See section 11.3, *Understanding Memory Widths*, on page 11-8 and section 11.10, *Controlling the ROM Device Address*, on page 11-38.

unconfigured memory error

Description The COFF file contains a section whose load address falls outside the memory range defined in the ROMS directive.

Action Correct the ROM range as defined by the ROMS directive to cover the memory range needed, or modify the section load address. Remember that if the ROMS directive is not used, the memory range defaults to the entire processor address space. For this reason, removing the ROMS directive could also be a workaround.

Common Object File Format



The TMS320C28x™ assembler and linker create object files in common object file format (COFF). COFF is an implementation of an object file format of the same name that was developed by AT&T for use on UNIX based systems. This format is used because it encourages modular programming and provides powerful and flexible methods for managing code segments and target system memory.

Sections are a basic COFF concept. Chapter 2, *Introduction to Common Object File Format*, discusses COFF sections in detail. If you understand section operation, you can use the assembly language tools more efficiently.

This appendix contains technical details about COFF object file structure. Much of this information pertains to the symbolic debugging information that is produced by the C compiler. The purpose of this appendix is to provide supplementary information on the internal format of COFF object files.

Topic	Page
A.1 COFF File Structure	A-2
A.2 File Header Structure	A-4
A.3 Optional File Header Format	A-5
A.4 Section Header Structure	A-6
A.5 Structuring Relocation Information	A-9
A.6 Symbol Table Structure and Content	A-11

A.1 COFF File Structure

The elements of a COFF object file describe the file's sections and symbolic debugging information. These elements include:

- ❑ A file header
- ❑ Optional header information
- ❑ A table of section headers
- ❑ Raw data for each initialized section
- ❑ Relocation information for each initialized section
- ❑ A symbol table
- ❑ A string table

The assembler and linker produce object files with the same COFF structure; however, a program that is linked for the final time does not usually contain relocation entries. Figure A–1 illustrates the object file structure.

Figure A–1. COFF File Structure

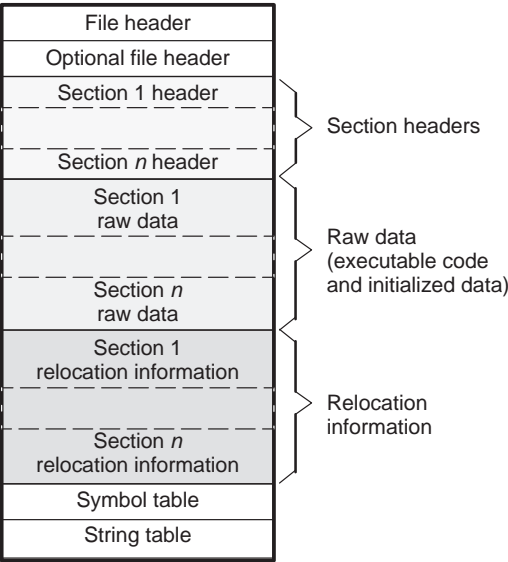
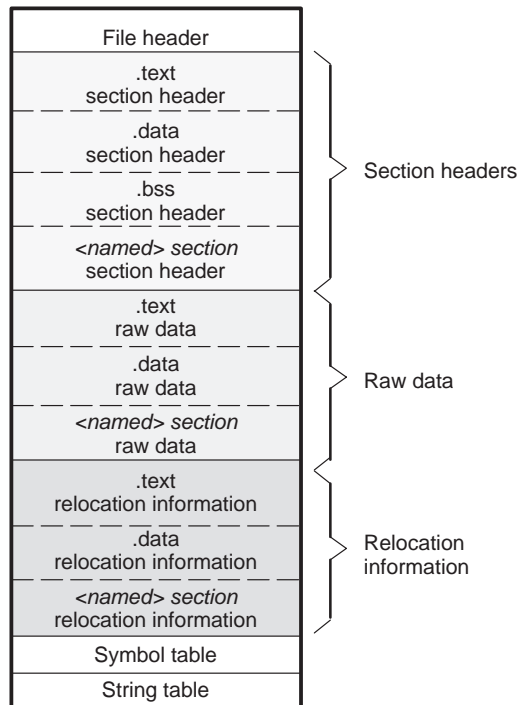


Figure A-2 shows a typical example of a COFF object file that contains the three default sections, .text, .data, and .bss, and a named section (referred to as <named>). By default, the tools place sections into the object file in the following order: .text, .data, initialized named sections, .bss, and uninitialized named sections. Although uninitialized sections have section headers, they have no raw data, relocation information, or line number entries. This is because the .bss and .usect directives simply reserve space for uninitialized data; uninitialized sections contain no actual code.

Figure A-2. Sample COFF Object File



A.2 File Header Structure

The file header contains 22 bytes of information that describe the general format of an object file. Table A–1 shows the structure of the TMS320C28x COFF file header.

Table A–1. File Header Contents

Byte Number	Type	Description
0–1	Unsigned short	Version ID; indicates the version of the COFF file structure
2–3	Unsigned short	Number of section headers
4–7	Long	Time and date stamp; indicates when the file was created
8–11	Long	File pointer; contains the symbol table's starting address
12–15	Long	Number of entries in the symbol table
16–17	Unsigned short	Number of bytes in the optional header. This field is either 0 or 28; if it is 0, there is no optional file header.
18–19	Unsigned short	Flags (see Table A–2)
20–21	Unsigned short	Target ID; magic number (009dh) indicates the file can be executed in a TMS320C28x system.

Table A–2 lists the flags that can appear in bytes 18 and 19 of the file header. Any number and combination of these flags can be set at the same time (for example, if bytes 18 and 19 are set to 0003h, both F_RELFLG and F_EXEC are set).

Table A–2. File Header Flags (Bytes 18 and 19)

Mnemonic	Flag	Description
F_RELFLG	0001h	Relocation information was stripped from the file.
F_EXEC	0002h	The file is executable (it contains no unresolved external references).
F_LSYMS	0008h	Local symbols were stripped from the file.
F_LITTLE	0100h	The target is a little-endian device.
F_SYMMERGE	1000h	Duplicate symbols were removed.

A.3 Optional File Header Format

The linker creates the optional file header and uses it to perform relocation at load time. Partially linked files do not contain optional file headers. Table A-3 illustrates the optional file header format.

Table A-3. Optional File Header Contents

Byte Number	Type	Description
0-1	Short	Optional file header magic number (0108h)
2-3	Short	Version stamp
4-7	Long	Size (in bytes) of executable code
8-11	Long	Size (in bytes) of initialized data
12-15	Long	Size (in bytes) of uninitialized data
16-19	Long	Entry point
20-23	Long	Beginning address of executable code
24-27	Long	Beginning address of initialized data

A.4 Section Header Structure

COFF object files contain a table of section headers that define where each section begins in the object file. Each section has its own section header. Table A–4 shows the structure of each section header.

Table A–4. Section Header Contents

Byte Number	Type	Description
0–7	Character	This field contains one of the following: <input type="checkbox"/> An 8-character section name, padded with nulls <input type="checkbox"/> A pointer into the string table if the symbol name is longer than eight characters
8–11	Long	Section's physical address
12–15	Long	Section's virtual address
16–19	Long	Section's size in words
20–23	Long	File pointer to raw data
24–27	Long	File pointer to relocation entries
28–31	Long	Reserved
32–35	Unsigned long	Number of relocation entries
36–39	Unsigned long	Reserved
40–43	Unsigned long	Flags (see Table A–5)
44–45	Unsigned short	Reserved
46–47	Unsigned short	Memory page number

Table A–5 lists the flags that can appear in bytes 36 through 39 of the section header.

Table A–5. Section Header Flags (Bytes 40 Through 43)

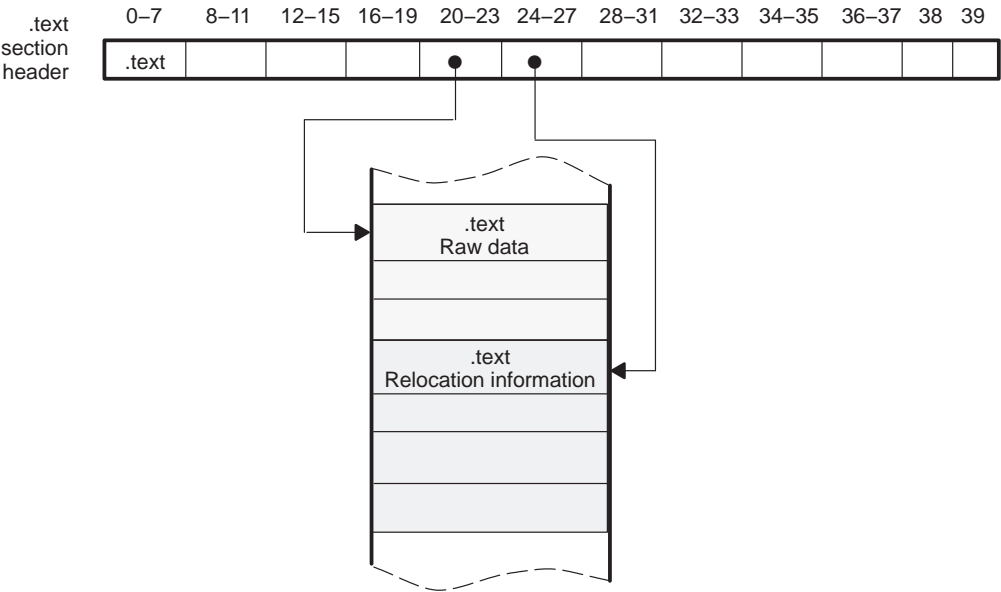
Mnemonic	Flag	Description
STYP_REG	00000000h	Regular section (allocated, relocated, loaded)
STYP_DSECT	00000001h	Dummy section (relocated, not allocated, not loaded)
STYP_NOLOAD	00000002h	Noload section (allocated, relocated, not loaded)
STYP_GROUP	00000004h	Grouped section (formed from several input sections)
STYP_PAD	00000008h	Padding section (loaded, not allocated, not relocated)
STYP_COPY	00000010h	Copy section (relocated, loaded, but not allocated; relocation entries are processed normally)
STYP_TEXT	00000020h	Section contains executable code
STYP_DATA	00000040h	Section contains initialized data
STYP_BSS	00000080h	Section contains uninitialized data
STYP_CLINK	00004000h	Section requires conditional linking

Note: The term *loaded* means that the raw data for this section appears in the object file.

The flags listed in Table A–5 can be combined; for example, if the flag's word is set to 024h, both STYP_GROUP and STYP_TEXT are set.

Figure A–3 illustrates how the pointers in a section header points to the elements in an object file that are associated with the .text section.

Figure A-3. Section Header Pointers for the .text Section



As Figure A-2 on page A-3 shows, uninitialized sections (created with the .bss and .usect directives) vary from this format. Although uninitialized sections have section headers, they have no raw data or relocation information. They occupy no actual space in the object file. Therefore, the number of relocation entries and the file pointers are 0 for an uninitialized section. The header of an uninitialized section simply tells the linker how much space for variables it should reserve in the memory map.

A.5 Structuring Relocation Information

A COFF object file has one relocation entry for each relocatable reference. The assembler automatically generates relocation entries. The linker reads the relocation entries as it reads each input section and performs relocation. The relocation entries determine how references within each input section are treated.

COFF file relocation information entries use the 10-byte format summarized in Table A–6. The fields in each entry are described following the table.

Table A–6. Relocation Entry Contents

Byte Number	Type	Description
0–3	Long	Virtual address of the reference
4–5	Unsigned long	Symbol-table index (0–65535)
6–7	Unsigned short	Additional byte used for extended addressing calculations
8–9	Unsigned short	Relocation type (see Table A–7)

- The **virtual address** is the symbol’s address in the current section *before* relocation; it specifies *where* a relocation must occur. (This is the address of the field in the object code that must be patched.)

Following is an example of code that generates a relocation entry:

```

1      .global      X
2      00000000 FFEF!      b      X, unc
      00000001 0000
```

In this example, the virtual address of the relocatable field is 0001.

- The **symbol-table index** is the index of the referenced symbol. In the preceding example, this field contains the index of X in the symbol table. The amount of the relocation is the difference between the symbol’s current address in the section and its assembly-time address. The relocatable field must be relocated by the same amount as the referenced symbol. In the example, X has a value of 0h before relocation. Suppose X is relocated to address 2000h. This is the relocation amount (2000h – 0h = 2000h), so the relocation field at address 1 is patched by adding 2000h to it.

You can determine a symbol’s relocated address if you know the section in which it is defined. For example, if X is defined in .data and .data is relocated by 2000h, X is relocated by 2000h.

If the symbol table index in a relocation entry is -1 (0FFFFh), this is called an *internal relocation*. In this case, the relocation amount is simply the amount by which the current section is being relocated.

- ❑ The **relocation type** specifies the size of the field to be patched and describes how the patched value is calculated. The type field depends on the addressing mode that was used to generate the relocatable reference. In the preceding example, the actual address of the referenced symbol X is a 22-bit address, but a 16-bit relative address is coded in to the object code. The 22-bit address is used to find the offset of the jump from this location. Thus, the relocation type is R_C28PCR16. Table A–7 lists the relocation types.

Table A–7. Relocation Types (Bytes 8 and 9)

Mnemonic	Flag	Relocation Type
R_ABS	0000h	No relocation
R_RELBYTE	000Fh	8-bit direct reference to symbol's address
R_RELWORD	0010h	16-bit direct reference to symbol's address
R_RELLONG	0011h	32-bit direct reference to symbol's address
R_PARTLS6	05Dh	6-bit offset of a 22-bit address
R_PARTLS7	28h	7-bit offset of a 16-bit address
R_PARTMID10	05Eh	Middle 10 bits of a 22-bit address
R_REL22	05Fh	22-bit direct reference to symbol's address
R_PARTMS6	060h	Upper 6 bits of a 22-bit address
R_PARTS16	061h	Upper 16 bits of a 22-bit address
R_C28PCR16	062h	PC relative 16-bit
R_C28PCR8	063h	PC relative 8-bit
R_C28PTR	064h	22-bit pointer
R_C28HI16	065h	High 16 bits of address data
R_C28LOPTR	066h	Pointer to low 64K
R_C28NWORD	067h	16-bit negated relocation
R_C28NBYTE	068h	8-bit negated relocation
R_C28HIBYTE	069h	High 8 bits of a 16-bit data
R_C28RELS13	06ah	Signed 13-bit value relocated as 16-bit value.

A.6 Symbol Table Structure and Content

The order of symbols in the symbol table is very important; they appear in the sequence shown in Figure A–4.

Figure A–4. Symbol-Table Contents

Static variables
⋮
Defined global symbols
Undefined global symbols

Static variables refer to symbols defined in C that have storage-class static outside any function. If you have several modules that use symbols with the same name, making them static confines the scope of each symbol to the module that defines it (this eliminates multiple-definition conflicts).

The entry for each symbol in the symbol table contains the symbol's:

- ☐ Name (or an offset into the string table)
- ☐ Type
- ☐ Value
- ☐ Section it was defined in
- ☐ Storage class

Section names are also defined in the symbol table.

All symbol entries, regardless of class and type, have the same format in the symbol table. Each symbol table entry contains the 18 bytes of information listed in Table A–8. Each symbol may also have an 18-byte auxiliary entry; the special symbols listed in Table A–9, page A-12, always have an auxiliary entry. Some symbols may not have all the characteristics specified in the preceding list; if a particular field is not set, it is set to null.

Table A–8. Symbol-Table Entry Contents

Byte Number	Type	Description
0–7	Char	This field contains one of the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> An 8-character symbol name, padded with nulls <input type="checkbox"/> A pointer into the string table if the symbol name is longer than eight characters
8–11	Long	Symbol value; storage class dependent
12–13	Short	Section number of the symbol
14–15	Unsigned short	Reserved
16	Char	Storage class of the symbol
17	Char	Number of auxiliary entries (always 0 or 1)

A.6.1 Special Symbols

The `symbol_table` contains some special symbols that are generated by the compiler, assembler, and linker. Each special symbol contains ordinary symbol table information as well as an auxiliary entry. Table A–9 lists these symbols.

Table A–9. Special Symbols in the Symbol Table

Symbol	Description
<code>.text</code>	Address of the <code>.text</code> section
<code>.data</code>	Address of the <code>.data</code> section
<code>.bss</code>	Address of the <code>.bss</code> section
<code>etext</code>	Next available address after the end of the <code>.text</code> output section
<code>edata</code>	Next available address after the end of the <code>.data</code> output section
<code>end</code>	Next available address after the end of the <code>.bss</code> output section

A.6.2 Symbol Name Format

The first eight bytes of a symbol-table entry (bytes 0–7) indicate a symbol's name:

- ☐ If the symbol name is eight characters or less, this field has type *character*. The name is padded with nulls (if necessary) and stored in bytes 0–7.
- ☐ If the symbol name is greater than eight characters, this field is treated as two integers. The entire symbol name is stored in the string table. Bytes 0–3 contain 0, and bytes 4–7 are an offset into the string table.

A.6.3 String Table Structure

Symbol names that are longer than eight characters are stored in the string table. The field in the symbol-table entry that would normally contain the symbol's name contains, instead, a pointer to the symbol's name in the string table. Names are stored contiguously in the string table, delimited by a null byte. The first four bytes of the string table contain the size of the string table in bytes; thus, offsets into the string table are greater than or equal to 4.

Figure A–5 is a string table that contains two symbol names, *Adaptive-Filter* and *Fourier-Transform*. The index in the string table is 4 for Adaptive-Filter and 20 for Fourier-Transform.

Figure A–5. String-Table Entries for Sample Symbol Names

38 bytes

4 bytes			
'A'	'd'	'a'	'p'
't'	'i'	'v'	'e'
'.'	'F'	'i'	'l'
't'	'e'	'r'	'\0'
'F'	'o'	'u'	'r'
'i'	'e'	'r'	'.'
'T'	'r'	'a'	'n'
's'	'f'	'o'	'r'
'm'	'\0'		

A.6.4 Storage Classes

Byte 16 of the symbol-table entry indicates the storage class of the symbol. Storage classes refer to the method in which the C compiler accesses a symbol. Table A–10 lists valid storage classes.

Table A–10. *Symbol Storage Classes*

Mnemonic	Value	Storage Class	Mnemonic	Value	Storage Class
C_NULL	0	No storage class	C_USTATIC	14	Undefined static
C_AUTO	1	Reserved	C_ENTAG	15	Reserved
C_EXT	2	External definition	C_MOE	16	Reserved
C_STAT	3	Static	C_REGPARM	17	Reserved
C_REG	4	Reserved	C_FIELD	18	Reserved
C_EXTREF	5	External reference	C_UEXT	19	Tentative external definition
C_LABEL	6	Label	C_STATLAB	20	Static load time label
C_ULABEL	7	Undefined label	C_EXTLAB	21	External load time label
C_MOS	8	Reserved	C_BLOCK	100	Reserved
C_ARG	9	Reserved	C_FCN	101	Reserved
C_STRTAG	10	Reserved	C_EOS	102	Reserved
C_MOU	11	Reserved	C_FILE	103	Reserved
C_UNTAG	12	Reserved	C_LINE	104	Used only by utility programs
C_TPDEF	13	Reserved			

The .text, .data, and .bss symbols are restricted to the C_STAT storage class.

A.6.5 Symbol Values

Bytes 8–11 of a symbol-table entry indicate a symbol's value. The C_EXT, C_STAT, and C_LABEL storage classes hold relocatable addresses. The value of a relocatable symbol is its virtual address. When the linker relocates a section, the value of a relocatable symbol changes accordingly.

A.6.6 Section Number

Bytes 12–13 of a symbol table entry contain a number that indicates the section in which the symbol was defined. Table A–11 lists these numbers and the sections they indicate.

Table A–11. Section Numbers

Mnemonic	Section Number	Description
N_ABS	–1	Absolute symbol
N_UNDEF	0	Undefined external symbol
N_SCNUM	1	.text section (typical)
N_SCNUM	2	.data section (typical)
N_SCNUM	3	.bss section (typical)
N_SCNUM	4–32 767	Section number of a named section, in the order in which the named sections are encountered

If there were no .text, .data, or .bss sections, the numbering of named sections would begin with 1.

If a symbol has a section number of 0, –1, or –2, it is not defined in a section. A section number of –1 indicates that the symbol has a value but is not relocatable. A section number of 0 indicates a relocatable external symbol that is not defined in the current file.

A.6.7 Auxiliary Entries

Each symbol table entry can have *one* or *no* auxiliary entry. An auxiliary symbol-table entry contains the same number of bytes as a symbol table entry (18). Table A–12 illustrates the format of auxiliary table entries for .text, .data, and .bss sections.

Table A–12. Section Format for Auxiliary Table Entries

Byte Number	Type	Description
0–3	Long	Section length
4–5	Unsigned short	Number of relocation entries
6–7	Unsigned short	Number of line number entries
8–17	—	Not used (zero filled)

Symbolic Debugging Directives

The assembler supports several directives that the TMS320C28x C/C++ compiler uses for symbolic debugging. These directives differ for the two debugging formats, DWARF and COFF.

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.

Topic	Page
B.1 DWARF Debugging Format	B-2
B.2 COFF Debugging Format	B-3
B.3 Debug Directive Syntax	B-4

B.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 `-g` option, as shown below:

```
cl2000 -v28 -g -k input_file
```

The `-k` 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:

```
cl2000 -v28 --symdebug:none -k 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 **.dwcfa** directive defines a call frame instruction for a CIE or FDE.

B.2 COFF Debugging Format

COFF symbolic debug is now obsolete. These directives are supported for backwards-compatibility only. The decision to switch to DWARF as the symbolic debug format was made to overcome many limitations of COFF symbolic debug, including the absence of C++ support.

The COFF debugging format consists of the following directives:

- ☐ The **.sym** directive defines a global variable, a local variable, or a function. Several parameters allow you to associate various debugging information with the variable or function.
- ☐ The **.stag**, **.etag**, and **.utag** directives define structures, enumerations, and unions, respectively. The **.member** directive specifies a member of a structure, enumeration, or union. The **.eos** directive ends a structure, enumeration, or union definition.
- ☐ The **.func** and **.endfunc** directives specify the beginning and ending lines of a C/C++ function.
- ☐ The **.block** and **.endblock** directives specify the bounds of C/C++ blocks.
- ☐ The **.file** directive defines a symbol in the symbol table that identifies the current source filename.
- ☐ The **.line** directive identifies the line number of a C/C++ source statement.

B.3 Debug Directive Syntax

Table B–1 is an alphabetical listing of the symbolic debugging directives. For information on the C/C++ compiler, refer to the *TMS320C28x Optimizing C/C++ Compiler User's Guide*.

Table B–1. Symbolic Debugging Directives

Label	Directive	Arguments
	.block	[beginning line number]
	.dwattr	DIE label, DIE attribute name(DIE attribute value)[, DIE attribute name(attribute value) [, ...]
	.dwcfa	call frame instruction opcode[, operand[, operand]]
CIE label	.dwcie	version, return address register
	.dwendentry	
	.dwendtag	
	.dwfde	CIE label
	.dwpsn	“filename”, line number, column number
DIE label	.dwtag	DIE tag name, DIE attribute name(DIE attribute value)[, DIE attribute name(attribute value) [, ...]
	.endblock	[ending line number]
	.endfunc	[ending line number[, register mask[, frame size]]]
	.eos	
	.etag	name[, size]
	.file	“filename”
	.func	[beginning line number]
	.line	line number[, address]
	.member	name, value[, type, storage class, size, tag, dims]
	.stag	name[, size]
	.sym	name, value[, type, storage class, size, tag, dims]
	.utag	name[, size]

XML Link Information File Description



The 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.

Topic	Page
C.1 XML Information File Element Types	C-2
C.2 Document Elements	C-3

C.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 C.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).

C.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.

C.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>** element lists the time of the link execution (string).
- ☐ The **<link_timestamp>** 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 C–1. Header Element for the hi.out Output File

```
<banner>TMS320Cxx COFF Linker          Version x.xx (Jan  6 2003)</banner>
<copyright>Copyright (c) 1996–2003 Texas Instruments Incorporated</copyright>
<link_time>Mon Jan  6 15:38:18 2003</link_time>
<output_file>hi.out</output_file>
<entry_point>
  <name>_c_int00</name>
  <address>0xaf80</address>
</entry_point>
```

C.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 C-2. Input File List for the hi.out Output File

```
<input_file_list>
  <input_file id="fl-1">
    <kind>object</kind>
    <file>hi.obj</file>
    <name>hi.obj</name>
  </input_file>
  <input_file id="fl-2">
    <path>/tools/lib/</path>
    <kind>archive</kind>
    <file>rtsxxx.lib</file>
    <name>boot.obj</name>
  </input_file>
  <input_file id="fl-3">
    <path>/tools/lib/</path>
    <kind>archive</kind>
    <file>rtsxxx.lib</file>
    <name>exit.obj</name>
  </input_file>
  <input_file id="fl-4">
    <path>/tools/lib/</path>
    <kind>archive</kind>
    <file>rtsxxx.lib</file>
    <name>printf.obj</name>
  </input_file>
  ...
</input_file_list>
```

C.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 C-3. Object Component List for the fl-4 Input File

```
<object_component id="oc-20">
  <name>.text</name>
  <load_address>0xac00</load_address>
  <run_address>0xac00</run_address>
  <size>0xc0</size>
  <input_file_ref idref="fl-4"/>
</object_component>
<object_component id="oc-21">
  <name>.data</name>
  <load_address>0x80000000</load_address>
  <run_address>0x80000000</run_address>
  <size>0x0</size>
  <input_file_ref idref="fl-4"/>
</object_component>
<object_component id="oc-22">
  <name>.bss</name>
  <load_address>0x80000000</load_address>
  <run_address>0x80000000</run_address>
  <size>0x0</size>
  <input_file_ref idref="fl-4"/>
</object_component>
```


C.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 overlay (reference).
 - The **<logical_group_ref>** is a logical group that is contained in this overlay (reference).
- The **<split_section>** is another special kind of logical group which 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>** element lists elements contained in this split section (container). 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 C-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>
```

C.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 RWX 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 C-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>
```

C.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 C-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>
```

Glossary

A

absolute address: An address that is permanently assigned to a TMS320C28x™ memory location.

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.

archive library: A collection of individual files that have been grouped into a single file.

archiver: A software program that allows you to collect several individual files into a single file called an archive library. The archiver also allows you to delete, extract, or replace members of the archive library, as well as to add new members.

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 directives. 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.

assignment statement: A statement that assigns a value to a variable.

autoinitialization: The process of initializing global C variables (contained in the .cinit section) before beginning program execution.

auxiliary entry: The extra entry that a symbol may have in the symbol table that contains additional information about the symbol (whether it is a file-name, a section name, a function name, etc.).

B

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 declarations and statements that are grouped together with braces.

.bss: One of the default COFF sections. You can use the .bss directive to reserve a specified amount of space in the memory map that can later be used for storing data. The .bss section is uninitialized.

byte: A sequence of eight adjacent bits operated upon as a unit.

C

C/C++ compiler: A program that translates C/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 is used to document or improve readability of a source file. Comments are not compiled, assembled, or linked; they have no effect on the object file.

common object file format (COFF): A binary object file format that promotes modular programming by supporting the concept of *sections*. All COFF sections are independently relocatable in memory space; you can place any section into any allocated block of target memory.

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 numeric value that does not change and that can be used as an operand.

cross-reference listing: An output file created by the assembler that lists the symbols that were defined, the line they were defined on, the lines that referenced them, and their final values.

D

.data: One of the default COFF 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).

E

emulator: A hardware development system that emulates TMS320C2700 operation.

entry point: The starting execution point in target memory.

executable module: An object file that has been linked and can be executed in a TMS320C28x 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 is defined in a different program module.

F

field: For the TMS320C28x, a software-configurable data type whose length can be programmed to be any value in the range of 1–32 bits.

file header: A portion of a COFF object file that contains general information about the object file, such as the number of section headers, the type of system the object file can be downloaded to, the number of symbols in the symbol table, and the symbol table's starting address.

G

global symbol: A symbol that is either 1) defined in the current module and accessed in another module, or 2) accessed in the current module but defined in another module.

GROUP: An option of the SECTIONS directive that forces specified output sections to be allocated contiguously (as a group).

H

hex-conversion utility: A program that accepts COFF files and converts them 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 containing no actual code or data. This area is between the input sections that compose an output section.

I

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.

initialized section: A COFF section that contains executable code or initialized data. An initialized section can be built up with the .data, .text, or .sect directive.

input section: A section from an object file that is linked into an executable module.

L

label: A symbol that begins in column 1 of a source statement and corresponds to the address of that statement.

line-number entry: An entry in a COFF output module that maps lines of assembly code back to the original C source file that created them.

linker: A software tool that combines object files to form an object module that can be allocated into TMS320C28x 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 SPC.

little endian: An addressing protocol in which bytes are numbered from right to left within a word. More significant bytes in a word have higher numbered addresses. Endian ordering is hardware-specific and is determined at reset. See also *big endian*

loader: A device that loads an executable module into TMS320C28x system memory.

M

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 source statements that are substituted for the macro call and subsequently assembled.

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.

magic number: A COFF file header entry that identifies an object file as a module that can be executed by the TMS320C28x.

map file: An output file, created by the linker, that shows the memory configuration, section composition, and section allocation, as well as symbols and the addresses at which they were defined.

member: The elements or variables of a structure, union, archive, or enumeration.

memory map: A map of target system memory space, which is partitioned into functional blocks.

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.

N

named section: An initialized section that is defined with a `.sect` directive.

O

object file: A file that has been assembled or linked and that contains machine-language object code.

object library: An archive library made up of individual object files.

operands: The arguments, or parameters, of an assembly language instruction, assembler directive, or macro directive.

optional header: A portion of a COFF object file that the linker uses to perform relocation at download time.

options: Command parameters that allow you to request additional or specific functions when you invoke a software tool.

output module: A linked, executable object file that can be downloaded and executed on a target system.

output section: A final, allocated section in a linked, executable module.

P

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.

Q

quiet run: An option that suppresses the normal banner and the progress information.

R

raw data: Executable code or initialized data in an output section.

relocation: A process in which the linker adjusts all the references to a symbol when the symbol's address changes.

run address: The address where a section runs.

S

section: A relocatable block of code or data that ultimately occupies contiguous space in the TMS320C28x memory map.

section header: A portion of a COFF object file that contains information about a section in the file. Each section has its own header; the header points to the section's starting address, contains the section's size, etc.

section program counter: See *SPC*

sign extend: To fill the unused MSBs of a value with the value's sign bit.

simulator: A software development system that simulates TMS320C28x operation.

source file: A file that contains C code or assembly language code that is compiled or assembled to form an object file.

SPC (section program counter): An element that keeps track of the current location within a section; each section has its own SPC.

static variable: An element 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; the previous value is resumed when the function or program is reentered.

storage class: Any entry in the symbol table that indicates how a symbol is accessed.

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 will ultimately occupy continuous space in the TMS320C28x memory map. Subsections are smaller sections within larger sections. Subsections give you tighter control of the memory map.

symbol: A string of alphanumeric characters that represents an address or a value.

symbolic debugging: The ability of a software tool to retain symbolic information so that it can be used by a debugging tool, such as a simulator or an emulator.

symbol table: A portion of a COFF object file that contains information about the symbols that are defined and used by the file.

T

tag: An optional *type* name that can be assigned to a structure, union, or enumeration.

target memory: Physical memory in a TMS320C28x system into which executable object code is loaded.

.text: One of the default COFF sections. The .text section is an initialized section that contains executable code. You can use the .text directive to assemble code into the .text section.

U

unconfigured memory: Memory that is not defined as part of the memory map and cannot be loaded with code or data.

uninitialized section: A COFF section that reserves space in the memory map but that has no actual contents. These sections are built up 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: An element that is treated as a positive number, regardless of its actual sign.

W

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 16-bit addressable location in target memory.

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