

ARM[®] Compiler

Version 5.06

Software Development Guide

ARM[®]

ARM® Compiler

Software Development Guide

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Release Information

Document History

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Preface

This preface introduces the *ARM® Compiler Software Development Guide*.

It contains the following:

- [About this book on page 12.](#)

About this book

The ARM® Compiler Software Development Guide provides tutorials and examples to develop code for various ARM architecture-based processors. It also provides information on the *Debug Communications Channel* (DCC) and semihosting.

Using this book

This book is organized into the following chapters:

Chapter 1 Key Features of ARM Architecture Versions

Describes the key features for each version of the ARM® architecture and identifies some of the main points to be aware of when using ARM Compiler.

Chapter 2 Embedded Software Development

Describes how to develop embedded applications with ARM Compiler, with or without a target system present.

Chapter 3 Mixing C, C++, and Assembly Language

Describes how to write a mixture of C, C++, and assembly language code for the ARM architecture.

Chapter 4 Interworking ARM and Thumb

Describes how to change between ARM state and Thumb state when writing code for processors that implement the ARM and Thumb instruction sets.

Chapter 5 Handling Processor Exceptions

Describes how to handle the different types of exception supported by the ARM architecture.

Chapter 6 Debug Communications Channel

Describes how to use the *Debug Communications Channel* (DCC).

Chapter 7 What is Semihosting?

Describes the semihosting mechanism.

Appendix A Software Development Guide Document Revisions

Describes the technical changes that have been made to the Software Development Guide.

Glossary

The ARM Glossary is a list of terms used in ARM documentation, together with definitions for those terms. The ARM Glossary does not contain terms that are industry standard unless the ARM meaning differs from the generally accepted meaning.

See the *ARM Glossary* for more information.

Typographic conventions

italic

Introduces special terminology, denotes cross-references, and citations.

bold

Highlights interface elements, such as menu names. Denotes signal names. Also used for terms in descriptive lists, where appropriate.

monospace

Denotes text that you can enter at the keyboard, such as commands, file and program names, and source code.

monospace

Denotes a permitted abbreviation for a command or option. You can enter the underlined text instead of the full command or option name.

monospace italic

Denotes arguments to monospace text where the argument is to be replaced by a specific value.

monospace bold

Denotes language keywords when used outside example code.

<and>

Encloses replaceable terms for assembler syntax where they appear in code or code fragments.
For example:

```
MRC p15, 0, <Rd>, <CRn>, <CRm>, <Opcode_2>
```

SMALL CAPITALS

Used in body text for a few terms that have specific technical meanings, that are defined in the *ARM glossary*. For example, IMPLEMENTATION DEFINED, IMPLEMENTATION SPECIFIC, UNKNOWN, and UNPREDICTABLE.

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- [ARM Information Center](#).
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- [Support and Maintenance](#).
- [ARM Glossary](#).

Chapter 1

Key Features of ARM Architecture Versions

Describes the key features for each version of the ARM® architecture and identifies some of the main points to be aware of when using ARM Compiler.

It contains the following sections:

- [1.1 About the ARM architectures](#) on page 1-15.
- [1.2 Multiprocessing systems](#) on page 1-17.
- [1.3 Considerations when designing software for a multiprocessing system](#) on page 1-18.
- [1.4 Tightly coupled memory](#) on page 1-19.
- [1.5 Memory management](#) on page 1-20.
- [1.6 Thumb-2 technology](#) on page 1-21.
- [1.7 ARM architecture profiles](#) on page 1-22.
- [1.8 ARM architecture v4T](#) on page 1-23.
- [1.9 ARM architecture v5TE](#) on page 1-25.
- [1.10 ARM architecture v6](#) on page 1-27.
- [1.11 ARM architecture v6-M](#) on page 1-30.
- [1.12 ARM architecture v7-A](#) on page 1-31.
- [1.13 ARM architecture v7-R](#) on page 1-33.
- [1.14 ARM architecture v7-M](#) on page 1-35.
- [1.15 Build options for floating-point arithmetic and linkage](#) on page 1-37.
- [1.16 Floating-point build options in ARMv6 and earlier](#) on page 1-38.
- [1.17 Floating-point build options in ARMv7 and later](#) on page 1-39.

1.1 About the ARM architectures

The ARM architecture defines the ARM and Thumb® instruction sets, execution models, memory models and debug models used by ARM processors.

Variants of the memory models might include virtual memory, caches, *Tightly Coupled Memory* (TCM), and memory protection. ARM architecture extensions define additional features such as floating-point support, *Single Instruction Multiple Data* (SIMD) instructions, security extensions, Java bytecode acceleration, and multiprocessing support.

The ARM architecture is constantly evolving to meet the increasing demands of leading edge applications developers, while retaining the backwards compatibility necessary to protect investment in software development. For more information, see the Technical Reference Manual for your processor.

The following table shows some key features for some of the ARM processors supported by ARM Compiler.

Table 1-1 Key features

Processor	Architecture	Tightly Coupled Memory	Memory Management	Thumb-2 technology
ARM7TDMI®	ARMv4T	-	-	-
ARM920T™	ARMv4T	-	MMU	-
ARM922T™	ARMv4T	-	MMU	-
ARM926EJ-S™	ARMv5TEJ	Yes	MMU	-
ARM946E-S™	ARMv5TE	Yes	MPU	-
ARM966E-S™	ARMv5TE	Yes	-	-
ARM1136J-S™/ ARM1136JF-S™	ARMv6K	Yes	MMU	-
ARM1156T2-S™	ARMv6T2	Yes	MPU	Yes
ARM1176JZ-S™/ ARM1176JZF-S™	ARMv6Z	Yes	MMU	-
ARM11™ MPCore™	ARMv6K	-	MMU	-
Cortex™-M0	ARMv6-M	-	-	Yes ^a
Cortex-M0+	ARMv6-M	-	MPU (optional)	Yes ^a
Cortex-M1	ARMv6-M	Yes	-	Yes ^a
Cortex-M3	ARMv7-M	-	MPU (optional)	Yes, but without ARM instruction set
Cortex-M4	ARMv7E-M	-	MPU (optional)	Yes, but without ARM instruction set
Cortex-M7	ARMv7E-M	Yes	MPU (optional)	Yes, but without ARM instruction set
Cortex-A5	ARMv7-A	-	MMU	Yes
Cortex-A7	ARMv7-A	-	MMU	Yes
Cortex-A8	ARMv7-A	-	MMU	Yes

^a ARMv6-M supports a small number of the 32-bit instructions introduced in ARMv6T2.

Table 1-1 Key features (continued)

Processor	Architecture	Tightly Coupled Memory	Memory Management	Thumb-2 technology
Cortex-A9	ARMv7-A	-	MMU	Yes
Cortex-A15	ARMv7-A	-	MMU	Yes
Cortex-A17	ARMv7-A	-	MMU	Yes
Cortex-R4, Cortex-R4F, and Cortex-R7	ARMv7-R	Yes	MPU	Yes

Related concepts

- [1.4 Tightly coupled memory](#) on page 1-19.
- [1.5 Memory management](#) on page 1-20.
- [1.6 Thumb-2 technology](#) on page 1-21.
- [1.7 ARM architecture profiles](#) on page 1-22.

Related information

- [ARM Architecture Reference Manual.](#)
- [Further reading.](#)

1.2 Multiprocessing systems

The ARMv6K architecture introduces the first MPCore processor, supporting up to four CPUs and associated hardware. Applications have to be specifically designed to run on multiprocessing systems to optimize performance.

For example, a single threaded application can only be executed by a single CPU at a time, whereas a multithreaded application can be executed by multiple processors in parallel. An efficient multiprocessing system consumes less power, produces less heat and is more responsive than a system with one CPU but is more complex and therefore more difficult to debug.

Related concepts

1.3 Considerations when designing software for a multiprocessing system on page 1-18.

1.3 Considerations when designing software for a multiprocessing system

Consider these recommended guidelines when designing a multiprocessing system.

- Synchronize software execution on processors using LDREX and STREX to create a mutex or semaphore to protect critical sections and non-shareable resources.
- Manage cache coherency for symmetrical and asymmetrical multiprocessing.
- Execute repetitive tasks in separate threads.
- Split a large task into several threads executing in parallel.
- Set up a primary CPU using the CP15 CPU ID register for initialization tasks.
- Prioritize interrupts.
- Use bit masking for interrupt pre-emption.
- Configure the cycle counts that trigger a timer or watchdog.

Note

These tasks are generally handled by an OS.

Related concepts

[1.2 Multiprocessing systems](#) on page 1-17.

Related information

[LDREX](#).

[STREX](#).

1.4 Tightly coupled memory

The purpose of *Tightly Coupled Memory* (TCM) is to provide low-latency memory that the processor can use without the unpredictability that is a feature of caches.

You can use TCM to hold time-critical routines, such as interrupt handling routines or real-time tasks where the indeterminacy of a cache is highly undesirable. In addition, you can use it to hold ordinary variables, data types whose locality properties are not well suited to caching, and critical data structures such as interrupt stacks.

TCM is used as part of the physical memory map of the system, and does not have to be backed by a level of external memory with the same physical addresses. In such regions, no external writes occur in the event of a write to memory locations contained in the TCM.

For more information, see the Technical Reference Manual for your processor.

Related information

ARM Architecture Reference Manual.

Further reading.

1.5 Memory management

The ARM memory management options are the *Memory Management Unit* (MMU) and the *Memory Protection Unit* (MPU).

MMU

The MMU allows fine-grained control of a memory system, which allows an operating system to provide features such as demand memory paging. Most of the detailed control is provided through translation tables held in memory. Entries in these tables define the properties for different regions of memory. These include:

- virtual-to-physical address mapping
- memory access permissions
- memory types.

MPU

The MPU provides a considerably simpler alternative to the MMU. This allows both hardware and software to be simplified in systems that do not require all facilities of the MMU. You can use the MPU to partition external memory into separate contiguous regions with different sizes and attributes. You can also control access permissions and memory characteristics for different regions of memory.

An MPU does not require external memory for translation tables and helps to provide more predictable performance than an MMU.

For more information, see the Technical Reference Manual for your processor.

Related information

[ARM Architecture Reference Manual.](#)

[Further reading.](#)

1.6 Thumb-2 technology

Thumb-2 technology is a major enhancement to the Thumb instruction set. It adds 32-bit instructions that can be freely intermixed with 16-bit instructions in a program.

Thumb-2 technology is available in the ARMv6T2 and later architectures.

The additional 32-bit encoded Thumb instructions enable Thumb to cover most of the functionality of the ARM instruction set. The availability of 16-bit and 32-bit instructions enables Thumb-2 technology to combine the code density of earlier versions of Thumb with the performance of the ARM instruction set.

An important difference between the Thumb and ARM instruction sets is that most Thumb instructions are unconditional, whereas most ARM instructions can be conditional. Thumb-2 technology introduces a conditional execution instruction, **IT**, that is a logical if-then-else operation that you can apply to subsequent instructions to make them conditional.

For more information, see the Technical Reference Manual for your processor.

Related information

[ARM Architecture Reference Manual.](#)

[IT.](#)

[Further reading.](#)

1.7 ARM architecture profiles

The ARM architecture defines different architectural profiles.

These are:

Application profile

Application profiles implement a traditional ARM architecture with multiple modes and support a virtual memory system architecture based on an MMU. These profiles support both ARM and Thumb instruction sets.

Real-time profile

Real-time profiles implement a traditional ARM architecture with multiple modes and support a protected memory system architecture based on an MPU.

Microcontroller profile

Microcontroller profiles implement a programmers' model designed for fast interrupt processing, with hardware stacking of registers and support for writing interrupt handlers in high-level languages. The processor is designed for integration into an FPGA and is ideal for use in very low power applications.

Related references

[1.11 ARM architecture v6-M on page 1-30.](#)

[1.12 ARM architecture v7-A on page 1-31.](#)

[1.13 ARM architecture v7-R on page 1-33.](#)

[1.14 ARM architecture v7-M on page 1-35.](#)

1.8 ARM architecture v4T

The ARMv4T variant of the ARM architecture supports 16-bit Thumb instructions and the ARM instruction set.

The following table shows useful command-line options.

Table 1-2 Useful command-line options for ARMv4T

Command-line option	Description
<code>--cpu=4T</code>	ARMv4 with 16-bit Thumb instructions.
<code>--cpu=name</code>	Where <i>name</i> is a specific ARM processor. For example ARM7TDMI.
<code>--apcs=qualifier</code>	Where <i>qualifier</i> denotes one or more qualifiers for interworking and position independence. For example <code>--apcs=/interwork</code> .

Key features

When compiling code for ARMv4T, the compiler supports the Thumb instruction set. This provides greater code density, however:

- Thumb code usually uses more instructions for a given task, making ARM code best for maximizing performance of time-critical code.
- ARM state and associated ARM instructions are required for exception handling
- ARM instructions are required for coprocessor accesses including cache configuration (on cached processors) and VFP.

Alignment support

All load and store instructions must specify addresses that are aligned on a natural alignment boundary. For example:

- LDR and STR addresses must be aligned on a word boundary
- LDRH and STRH addresses must be aligned on a halfword boundary
- LDRB and STRB addresses can be aligned to any boundary.

Accesses to addresses that are not on a natural alignment boundary result in UNPREDICTABLE behavior. To control this you must inform the compiler, using `__packed`, when you want to access an unaligned address so that it can generate safe code.

————— **Note** —————

Unaligned accesses, where permitted, are treated as rotated aligned accesses.

Endian support

You can produce either little-endian or big-endian code using the compiler command-line options `--littleend` and `--bigend` respectively.

ARMv4T supports the following endian modes:

LE

little-endian format

BE-32

legacy big-endian format.

Related information

[Overview of the Compiler.](#)

[__packed.](#)

[--apcs=qualifier...qualifier assembler option.](#)

--cpu=name assembler option.
--bigend assembler option.
--littleend assembler option.

1.9 ARM architecture v5TE

The ARMv5TE variant of the ARM architecture provides enhanced arithmetic support for *Digital Signal Processing* (DSP) algorithms. It supports both ARM and Thumb instruction sets.

The following table shows useful command-line options.

Table 1-3 Useful command-line options for ARMv5TE

Command-line option	Description
<code>--cpu=5TE</code>	ARMv5 with 16-bit Thumb instructions, interworking, DSP multiply, and double-word instructions
<code>--cpu=5TEJ</code>	ARMv5 with 16-bit Thumb instructions, interworking, DSP multiply, double-word instructions, and Jazelle® extensions ^b
<code>--cpu=name</code>	Where <i>name</i> is a specific ARM processor. For example: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ARM926EJ-S for ARMv5 with Thumb, Jazelle extensions, physically mapped caches and MMU.

Key features

When compiling code for ARMv5TE, the compiler:

- Supports improved interworking between ARM and Thumb, for example BLX.
- Performs instruction scheduling for the specified processor. Instructions are re-ordered to minimize interlocks and improve performance.
- Uses multiply and multiply-accumulate instructions that act on 16-bit data items.
- Uses instruction intrinsics to generate addition and subtraction instructions that perform saturated signed arithmetic. Saturated arithmetic produces the maximum positive or negative value instead of wrapping the result if the calculation overflows the normal integer range.
- Uses load (LDRD) and store (STRD) instructions that act on two words of data.

Alignment support

All load and store instructions must specify addresses that are aligned on a natural alignment boundary. For example:

- LDR and STR addresses must be aligned on a word boundary
- LDRH and STRH addresses must be aligned on a halfword boundary
- LDRD and STRD addresses must be aligned on a doubleword boundary
- LDRB and STRB addresses can be aligned to any boundary.

Accesses to addresses that are not on a natural alignment boundary result in UNPREDICTABLE behavior. To control this you must inform the compiler, using `__packed`, when you want to access an unaligned address so that it can generate safe code.

All LDR and STR instructions, except LDRD and STRD, must specify addresses that are word-aligned, otherwise the instruction generates an abort.

Note

Unaligned accesses, where permitted, are treated as rotated aligned accesses.

Endian support

You can produce either little-endian or big-endian code using the compiler command-line options `--littleend` and `--bigend` respectively.

ARMv5TE supports the following endian modes:

^b The compiler cannot generate Jazelle bytecodes.

LE little-endian format

BE-32 legacy big-endian format.

For more information, see the Technical Reference Manual for your processor.

Related information

Compiler storage of data objects by natural byte alignment.

__packed.

--unaligned_access, --no_unaligned_access compiler options.

--cpu=name assembler option.

--bigend assembler option.

--littleend assembler option.

Further reading.

1.10 ARM architecture v6

ARMv6 extends the original ARM instruction set to support multi-processing and adds some extra memory model features. It supports the ARM and Thumb instruction sets.

The following table shows useful command-line options.

Table 1-4 Useful command-line options for ARMv6

Option	Description
--cpu=6	ARMv6 with 16-bit encoded Thumb instructions, interworking, DSP multiply, doubleword instructions, unaligned and mixed-endian support, Jazelle, and media extensions
--cpu=6Z	ARMv6 with security extensions
--cpu=6T2	ARMv6 with 16-bit encoded Thumb instructions and 32-bit encoded Thumb instructions
--cpu=name	Where <i>name</i> is a specific ARM processor. For example: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ARM1136J-S to generate code for the ARM1136J-S with software VFP support. ARM1136JF-S to generate code for the ARM1136J-S with hardware VFP.

Key features

In addition to the features of ARMv5TE, when compiling code for ARMv6, the compiler:

- Performs instruction scheduling for the specified processor. Instructions are re-ordered to minimize interlocks and improve performance.
- Generates explicit SXTB, SXTB, UXTB, UXTH byte or halfword extend instructions where appropriate.
- Generates the endian reversal instructions REV, REV16 and REVSH if it can deduce that a C expression performs an endian reversal.
- Generates additional Thumb instructions available in ARMv6, for example CPS, CPY, REV, REV16, REVSH, SETEND, SXTB, SXTB, UXTB, UXTH.
- Uses some functions that are optimized specifically for ARMv6, for example, memcpy().

The compiler does not generate SIMD instructions automatically from ordinary C or C++ code because these do not map well onto C expressions. You must use assembly language or intrinsics for SIMD code generation.

Some enhanced instructions are available to improve exception handling:

- SRS and RFE instructions to save and restore the *Link Register* (LR) and the *Saved Program Status Register* (SPSR)
- CPS simplifies changing state, and modifying the I and F bits in the *Current Program Status Register* (CPSR)
- architectural support for vectored interrupts with a vectored interrupt controller
- low-latency interrupt mode
- ARM1156T2-S can enter exceptions in Thumb state.

Alignment support

By default, the compiler uses ARMv6 unaligned access support to speed up access to packed structures, by allowing LDR and STR instructions to load from and store to words that are not aligned on natural word boundaries. Structures remain unpacked unless explicitly qualified with `__packed`. The following table shows the effect of one-byte alignment when compiling for ARMv6 and earlier architectures.

Table 1-5 One-byte alignment

<pre> packed struct { int i; char ch; short sh; } foo; </pre>	
<p>Compiling for pre-ARMv6: Compiling for ARMv6 and later:</p>	
<pre> MOV R4,R0 BL __aeabi_uread4 LDRB R1,[R4,#4] LDRSB R2,[R4,#5] LDRB R12,[R4,#6] ORR R2,R12,R2 LSL#8 </pre>	<pre> LDR R0,[R4,#0] LDRB R1,[R4,#4] LDRSH R2,[R4,#5] </pre>

Code compiled for ARMv6 only runs correctly if you enable unaligned data access support on your processor. You can control alignment by using the U and the A bits in the CP15 register c1, or by tying the **UBITINIT** input to the processor HIGH.

Code that uses the behavior of pre-ARMv6 unaligned data accesses can be generated by using the compiler option `--no_unaligned_access`.

————— **Note** —————

Unaligned data accesses are not available in BE-32 endian mode.

LDRD and STRD must be word-aligned.

Endian support

You can produce either little-endian or big-endian code using the compiler command-line options `--littleend` and `--bigend` respectively.

ARMv6 supports the following endian modes:

- LE** little-endian format
- BE-8** big-endian format
- BE-32** legacy big-endian format.

Mixed endian systems are also possible by using SETEND and REV instructions.

Compiling for ARMv6 endian mode BE-8

By default, the compiler generates BE-8 big-endian code when compiling for ARMv6 and big-endian. The compiler sets a flag in the code that labels the code as BE-8. Therefore, to enable BE-8 support in the ARM processor you normally have to set the E-bit in the CPSR.

It is possible to link legacy code with ARMv6 code for running on an ARMv6 based processor. However, in this case the linker switches the byte order of the legacy code into BE-8 mode. The resulting image is in BE-8 mode.

Compiling for ARMv6 legacy endian mode BE-32

To use the pre-ARMv6 or legacy BE-32 mode you must tie the BIGENDINIT input into the processor HIGH, or set the B bit of CP15 register c1.

————— **Note** —————

You must link BE-32 compatible code using the linker option `--be32`. Otherwise, the ARMv6 attributes causes a BE-8 image to be produced.

Related information

--cpu=name assembler option.

--bigend assembler option.

--littleend assembler option.

--littleend compiler option.

--unaligned_access, --no_unaligned_access compiler options.

--be8 linker option.

--be32 linker option.

1.11 ARM architecture v6-M

ARMv6-M is a variant of the ARMv6 architecture targeted at the microcontroller profile. It supports the Thumb instruction set only.

The following table shows useful command-line options.

Table 1-6 Useful command-line options for ARMv6-M

Command-line option	Description
<code>--cpu=6-M</code>	ARMv6 microcontroller profile with Thumb only (no ARM instructions), and processor state instructions
<code>--cpu=6S-M</code>	ARMv6 microcontroller profile with Thumb only (no ARM instructions), plus processor state instructions and OS extensions
<code>--cpu=name</code>	Where <i>name</i> is a specific ARM processor. For example: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Cortex-M1 for ARMv6 with Thumb only, plus processor state instructions, OS extensions and BE-8 and LE data endianness support.

Key features

Key features for ARMv6-M:

- The compiler can generate instructions available on this architecture.

Alignment support

By default, the compiler uses ARMv6 unaligned access support to speed up access to packed structures, by allowing LDR and STR instructions to load from and store to words that are not aligned on natural word boundaries.

Unaligned data accesses are converted into two or three aligned accesses, depending on the size and alignment of the unaligned access. This stalls any subsequent accesses until the unaligned access has completed. You can control alignment by using the DCode and System bus interfaces.

Endian support

You can produce either little-endian or big-endian code using the compiler command-line options `--littleend` and `--bigend` respectively.

ARMv6-M supports the following endian modes:

LE little-endian format

BE-8 big-endian format.

Related information

--unaligned_access, --no_unaligned_access compiler options.

--cpu=name assembler option.

--bigend assembler option.

--littleend assembler option.

ARMv6-M Architecture Reference Manual.

1.12 ARM architecture v7-A

ARMv7-A is a variant of the ARMv7 architecture targeted at the application profile.

The following table shows useful command-line options.

Table 1-7 Useful command-line options for ARMv7-A

Command-line option	Description
<code>--cpu=7</code>	ARMv7 with Thumb instructions only (no ARM instructions), and without hardware divide ^c
<code>--cpu=7-A</code>	ARMv7 application profile supporting virtual MMU-based memory systems, with ARM, Thumb, and ThumbEE instructions, NEON™ support, and 32-bit SIMD support
<code>--cpu=name</code>	Where <i>name</i> is a specific ARM processor. For example: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cortex-A8 for ARMv7 with ARM and Thumb instructions, hardware VFP, NEON support, and 32-bit SIMD support.

Key features

Key features for ARMv7-A:

- Supports the advanced SIMD extensions.
- Supports the *Thumb Execution Environment* (ThumbEE).

Alignment support

The data alignment behavior supported by the ARM architecture is significantly different between ARMv4 and ARMv7. An ARMv7 implementation must support unaligned data accesses. You can control the alignment requirements of load and store instructions by using the A bit in the CP15 register c1.

————— **Note** —————

ARMv7 architectures do not support pre-ARMv6 alignment.

Endian support

You can produce either little-endian or big-endian code using the compiler command-line options `--littleend` and `--bigend` respectively.

ARMv7-A supports the following endian modes:

LE

little-endian format

BE-8

big-endian format used by ARMv6 and ARMv7.

ARMv7 does not support the legacy BE-32 mode. If you have legacy code for ARMv7 processors that contain instructions with a big-endian byte order, then you must perform byte order reversal.

Related concepts

[1.7 ARM architecture profiles on page 1-22.](#)

Related information

Compiler storage of data objects by natural byte alignment.

--unaligned_access, --no_unaligned_access compiler options.

--cpu=name assembler option.

--bigend assembler option.

^c ARM v7 is not a recognized ARM architecture. Rather, it denotes the features that are common to all of the ARMv7-A, ARMv7-R, and ARMv7-M architectures.

--littleend assembler option.

ARM Architecture Reference Manual, ARMv7-A and ARMv7-R edition.

1.13 ARM architecture v7-R

ARMv7-R is a variant of the ARMv7 architecture targeted at the real-time profile. The ARMv7-R architecture supports the ARM and Thumb instruction sets.

The following table shows useful command-line options.

Table 1-8 Useful command-line options for ARMv7-R

Command-line option	Description
<code>--cpu=7</code>	ARMv7 with Thumb instructions only (no ARM instructions) but without hardware divide ^d
<code>--cpu=7-R</code>	ARMv7 real-time profile with ARM instructions, 16-bit encoded Thumb instructions, 32-bit encoded Thumb instructions, VFP, 32-bit SIMD support, and hardware divide
<code>--cpu=name</code>	Where <i>name</i> is a specific ARM processor. For example: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Cortex-R4F for ARMv7 with ARM and Thumb instructions, hardware VFP, hardware divide, and SIMD support.

Key features

Key features for ARMv7-R:

- Supports the SDIV and UDIV instructions.

Alignment support

The data alignment behavior supported by the ARM architecture has changed significantly between ARMv4 and ARMv7. An ARMv7 implementation provides hardware support for some unaligned data accesses using LDR, STR, LDRH, and STRH. Other data accesses must maintain alignment using LDM, STM, LDRD, STRD, LDC, STC, LDREX, STREX, and SWP.

You can control the alignment requirements of load and store instructions by using the A bit in the CP15 register c1.

Endian support

You can produce either little-endian or big-endian code using the compiler command-line options `--littleend` and `--bigend` respectively.

ARMv7-R supports the following endian modes:

LE

little-endian format

BE-8

big-endian format.

ARMv7 does not support the legacy BE-32 mode. If you have legacy code for ARM v7 processors that contain instructions with a big-endian byte order, then you must perform byte order reversal.

ARMv7-R supports optional byte order reversal hardware as a static option from reset.

Related concepts

[1.7 ARM architecture profiles on page 1-22.](#)

Related information

Compiler storage of data objects by natural byte alignment.

--unaligned_access, --no_unaligned_access compiler options.

--cpu=name assembler option.

^d ARM v7 is not a recognized ARM architecture. Rather, it denotes the features that are common to all of the ARMv7-A, ARMv7-R, and ARMv7-M architectures.

--bigend assembler option.

--littleend assembler option.

ARM Architecture Reference Manual, ARMv7-A and ARMv7-R edition.

1.14 ARM architecture v7-M

ARMv7-M is a variant of the ARMv7 architecture targeted at the microcontroller profile. It implements a variant of the ARMv7 protected memory system architecture and supports the Thumb instruction set only.

The following table shows useful command-line options.

Table 1-9 Useful command-line options for ARMv7-M

Command-line option	Description
<code>--cpu=7</code>	ARMv7 with Thumb instructions only and without hardware divide ^e
<code>--cpu=7-M</code>	ARMv7 microcontroller profile with Thumb instructions only and hardware divide
<code>--cpu=name</code>	Where <i>name</i> is a specific ARM processor. For example: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Cortex-M3 for ARMv7 with Thumb instructions only, hardware divide, ARMv6 style BE-8 and LE data endianness support, and unaligned accesses.

Key features

Key features for ARMv7-M:

- Supports the SDIV and UDIV instructions.
- Supports bit-banding to enable atomic accesses to single bit values.
- Uses interrupt intrinsics to generate CPSIE or CPSID instructions that change the current pre-emption priority (see the following table). For example, when you use a `__disable_irq` intrinsic, the compiler generates a CPSID *i* instruction, which sets PRIMASK to 1. This raises the execution priority to 0 and prevents exceptions with a configurable priority from entering. The following table shows interrupt intrinsics.

Table 1-10 Interrupt intrinsics

Intrinsic	Opcode	PRIMASK	FAULTMASK
<code>__enable_irq</code>	CPSIE <i>i</i>	0	
<code>__disable_irq</code>	CPSID <i>i</i>	1	
<code>__enable_fiq</code>	CPSIE <i>f</i>		0
<code>__disable_fiq</code>	CPSID <i>f</i>		1

Alignment support

The data alignment behavior supported by the ARM architecture has changed significantly between ARMv4 and ARMv7. An ARMv7 implementation must support unaligned data accesses. You can control whether alignment checking is enabled or disabled by setting or unsetting the UNALIGN_TRP bit, bit 3, in the *Configuration and Control Register (CCR)*.

————— **Note** —————

ARMv7 architectures do not support pre-ARMv6 alignment.

Endian support

You can produce either little-endian or big-endian code using the compiler command-line options `--littleend` and `--bigend` respectively.

ARMv7-M supports the following endian modes:

^e ARM v7 is not a recognized ARM architecture. Rather, it denotes the features that are common to all of the ARMv7-A, ARMv7-R, and ARMv7-M architectures.

- LE** little-endian format
- BE-8** big-endian format.

The ARMv7 architecture does not support the legacy BE-32 mode. If you have legacy code for ARM v7 processors that contain instructions with a big-endian byte order, then you must perform byte order reversal.

Related concepts

1.7 ARM architecture profiles on page 1-22.

Related information

--cpu=name assembler option.

--bigend assembler option.

--littleend assembler option.

--bitband compiler option.

ARMv7-M Architecture Reference Manual.

1.15 Build options for floating-point arithmetic and linkage

To build code that carries out floating-point operations, you need to specify some floating-point build options.

You can compile your code to use either hardware or software floating-point arithmetic. To choose hardware floating-point arithmetic, specify a floating-point architecture, either explicitly, using the `--fpu` option, or implicitly in your choice of `--cpu` option.

When using hardware floating-point arithmetic, you also need to choose whether to use hardware or software floating-point procedure call linkage.

Hardware floating-point linkage means that floating-point arguments are passed to and returned from functions in floating-point registers. This is the most efficient choice.

Software floating-point linkage means that floating-point arguments are passed to and returned from functions in ARM integer registers. On architectures that support hardware floating-point arithmetic, this adds an overhead compared to hardware linkage because values must be transferred between integer and floating-point registers, which requires additional instructions. On architectures that do not support hardware floating-point arithmetic, software linkage is the only option.

The ARM software floating-point library, `fplib`, provides a set of floating-point functions that are built with software linkage. The variants of `fplib` divide into two main categories. The software variants use integer registers to perform floating-point arithmetic. The hardware variants transfer floating-point parameters from integer registers into floating-point registers then use a hardware floating-point instruction before moving the result back into an integer register. They give improved performance and reduced code size compared to the software variants.

It is important to ensure that the same linkage type is used consistently throughout your program. For example, if your code links with generic libraries, for example `fplib`, or legacy code that was built with software floating-point linkage, then your code also needs to be built with software linkage. This ensures that floating-point values can be passed to and returned from these libraries. You can specify the linkage type by using the `--fpu` option, but ARM recommends you use the `--apcs` option.

Related references

[1.16 Floating-point build options in ARMv6 and earlier on page 1-38.](#)

[1.17 Floating-point build options in ARMv7 and later on page 1-39.](#)

Related information

[--fpu=name.](#)

[--apcs=qualifier...qualifier.](#)

[About floating-point support.](#)

1.16 Floating-point build options in ARMv6 and earlier

In ARMv6 and earlier, the Thumb instruction set does not include VFP instructions and therefore cannot access VFP registers. When choosing the floating-point linkage option you therefore need to consider whether your code contains Thumb instructions.

ARM only

Choose options such as `--fpu vfpv2 --apcs=/hardfp` to have the compiler generate ARM code only for functions containing floating-point operations.

When you select the option `--fpu vfpv2`, the compiler generates ARM code for any function containing floating-point operations, regardless of whether the compiler is compiling for ARM or Thumb. This is because the Thumb instruction set in ARMv6 and earlier does not contain VFP instructions and therefore cannot access VFP registers.

Specifying hardware linkage using `--apcs=/hardfp` avoids the overhead of software linkage.

Mixed ARM/Thumb

Choose options such as `--fpu vfpv2 --apcs=/softfp` to have the compiler generate mixed ARM/Thumb code.

When you select the option `--apcs=/softfp`, all functions are compiled using software floating-point linkage.

When you compile for Thumb, selecting these options enables the use of ARM Compiler libraries that use VFP registers, using software linkage.

The option that provides the best code size or performance depends on the code being compiled. When compiling for ARM, experiment with the options `--apcs=/softfp` and `--apcs=/hardfp` to determine which provides the required code size and performance attributes.

If you have a mix of ARM and Thumb then you might want to experiment with the `--fpu` option to get the best results.

For more information, see the Technical Reference Manual for your processor.

Related information

ARM Architecture Reference Manual.

--fpu=name.

--apcs=qualifier...qualifier.

Further reading.

1.17 Floating-point build options in ARMv7 and later

In ARMv7 and later, you can choose the floating-point build options independently of whether the code you are building is ARM only, Thumb only, or mixed, because floating point instructions are available in both the ARM and Thumb instruction sets.

To select hardware floating-point arithmetic with hardware linkage, use an option such as `--fpu vfpv3 --apcs=/hardfp` or `--fpu vfpv4 --apcs=/hardfp`.

To select hardware floating-point arithmetic with software linkage, use an option such as `--fpu vfpv3 --apcs=/softfp` or `--fpu vfpv4 --apcs=/softfp`.

Note

When specifying floating-point build options for M profile processors, the argument names start with *FP* instead of *VFP*, for example `--fpu=FPv4-SP`.

For more information, see the Technical Reference Manual for your processor.

Related information

ARM Architecture Reference Manual.

--fpu=name.

--apcs=qualifier...qualifier.

Further reading.

Chapter 2

Embedded Software Development

Describes how to develop embedded applications with ARM Compiler, with or without a target system present.

It contains the following sections:

- *2.1 About embedded software development* on page 2-41.
- *2.2 Default compilation tool behavior* on page 2-42.
- *2.3 C library structure* on page 2-43.
- *2.4 Default memory map* on page 2-44.
- *2.5 Application startup* on page 2-46.
- *2.6 Tailoring the C library to your target hardware* on page 2-47.
- *2.7 Tailoring the image memory map to your target hardware* on page 2-48.
- *2.8 About the scatter-loading description syntax* on page 2-49.
- *2.9 Root regions* on page 2-50.
- *2.10 Placing the stack and heap* on page 2-51.
- *2.11 Run-time memory models* on page 2-52.
- *2.12 Scatter file with link to bit-band objects* on page 2-54.
- *2.13 Reset and initialization* on page 2-55.
- *2.14 The vector table* on page 2-56.
- *2.15 ROM and RAM remapping* on page 2-57.
- *2.16 Local memory setup considerations* on page 2-58.
- *2.17 Stack pointer initialization* on page 2-59.
- *2.18 Hardware initialization* on page 2-60.
- *2.19 Execution mode considerations* on page 2-61.
- *2.20 Target hardware and the memory map* on page 2-62.
- *2.21 Execute-only memory* on page 2-63.
- *2.22 Building applications for execute-only memory* on page 2-64.

2.1 About embedded software development

When developing embedded applications, the resources available in the development environment normally differ from those on the target hardware.

It is important to consider the process involved in moving an embedded application from the development or debugging environment to a system that runs standalone on target hardware.

When developing embedded software, you must consider the following:

- Understand the default compilation tool behavior and the target environment so that you appreciate the steps necessary to move from a debug or development build to a fully standalone production version of the application.
- Some C library functionality executes by using debug environment resources. If used, you must re-implement this functionality to make use of target hardware.
- The toolchain has no inherent knowledge of the memory map of any given target. You must tailor the image memory map to the memory layout of the target hardware.
- An embedded application must perform some initialization, such as stack and heap initialization, before the main application can be run. A complete initialization sequence requires code that you implement in addition to the ARM Compiler C library initialization routines.

2.2 Default compilation tool behavior

It is useful to be aware of the default behavior of the compilation tools if you do not yet know the full technical specifications of the target hardware.

For example, when you start work on software for an embedded application, you might not know the details of target peripheral devices, the memory map, or even the processor itself.

To enable you to proceed with software development before such details are known, the compilation tools have a default behavior that enables you to start building and debugging application code immediately. It is useful to be aware of this default behavior, so that you appreciate the steps necessary to move from a default build to a full standalone application.

In the ARM C library, support for some ISO C functionality, for example program I/O, is provided by the host debugging environment. The mechanism that provides this functionality is known as semihosting. When semihosting is executed, the debug agent suspends program execution. The debug agent then uses the debug capabilities of the host (for example printf output to debugger console) to service the semihosting operation before code execution is resumed on the target. The task performed by the host is transparent to the program running on the target.

Related references

[Chapter 7 What is Semihosting? on page 7-146.](#)

2.3 C library structure

Conceptually, the C library can be divided into functions that are part of the ISO C standard, for example `printf()`, and functions that provide support to the ISO C standard.

For example, the following figure shows the C library implementing the function `printf()` by writing to the debugger console window. This implementation is provided by calling `_sys_write()`, a support function that executes a semihosting call, resulting in the default behavior using the debugger instead of target peripherals.

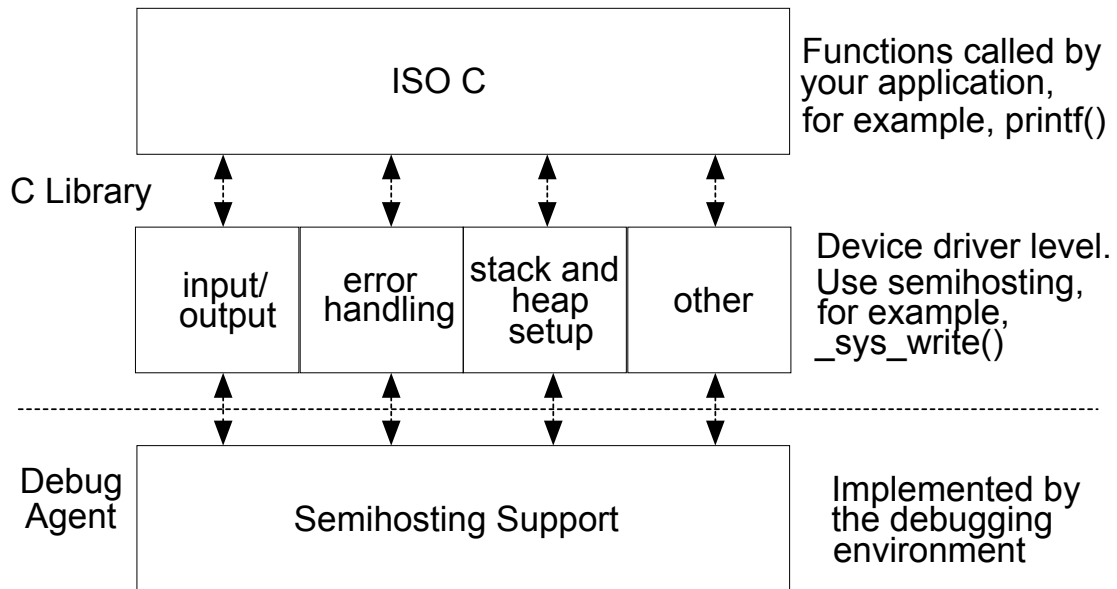


Figure 2-1 C library structure

Related information

The ARM C and C++ libraries.

The C and C++ library functions.

2.4 Default memory map

In an image where you have not described the memory map, the linker places code and data according to a default memory map.

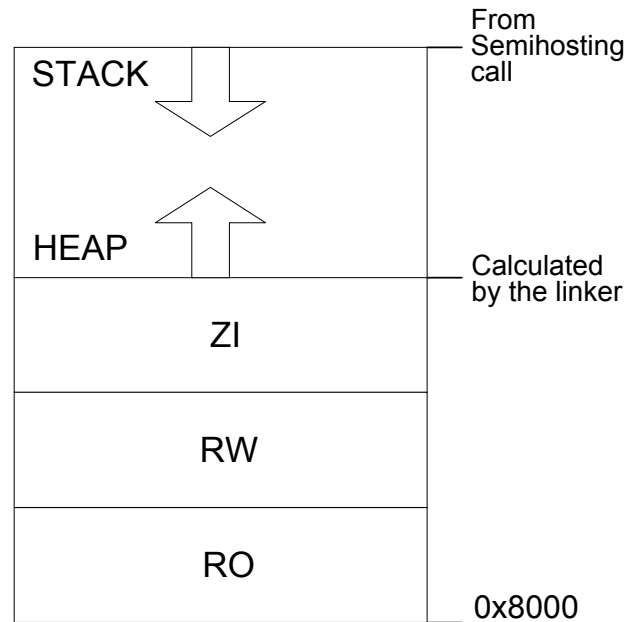


Figure 2-2 Default memory map

Note

The processors based on ARMv6-M and ARMv7-M architectures have fixed memory maps. This makes porting software easier between different systems based on these processors.

The default memory map is described as follows:

- The image is linked to load and run at address `0x8000`. All *Read Only* (RO) sections are placed first, followed by *Read-Write* (RW) sections, then *zero-initialized* (ZI) sections.
- The heap follows directly on from the top of ZI, so the exact location is decided at link time.
- The stack base location is provided by a semihosting operation during application startup. The value returned by this semihosting operation depends on the debug environment.

The linker observes a set of rules to decide where in memory code and data are located:

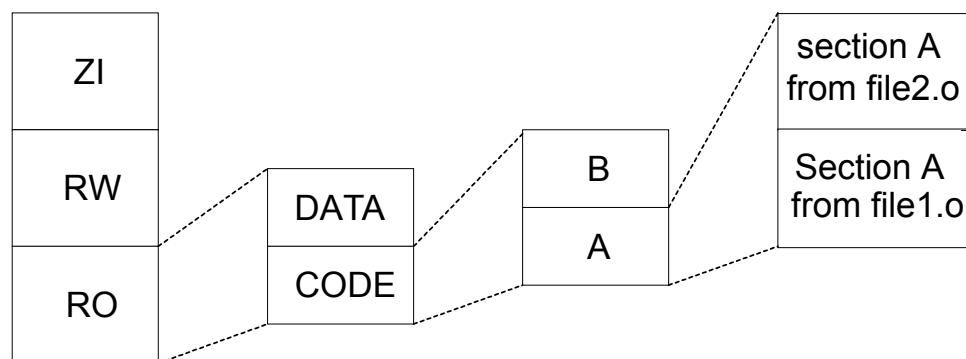


Figure 2-3 Linker placement rules

Generally, the linker sorts the input sections by attribute, by name, and then by position in the input list.

To fully control the placement of code and data you must use the scatter-loading mechanism.

Related concepts

2.6 Tailoring the C library to your target hardware on page 2-47.

Related information

The image structure.

Section placement with the linker.

About scatter-loading.

Scatter file syntax.

Cortex-M1 Technical Reference Manual.

Cortex-M3 Technical Reference Manual.

2.5 Application startup

In most embedded systems, an initialization sequence executes to set up the system before the main task is executed.

The following figure shows the default initialization sequence.

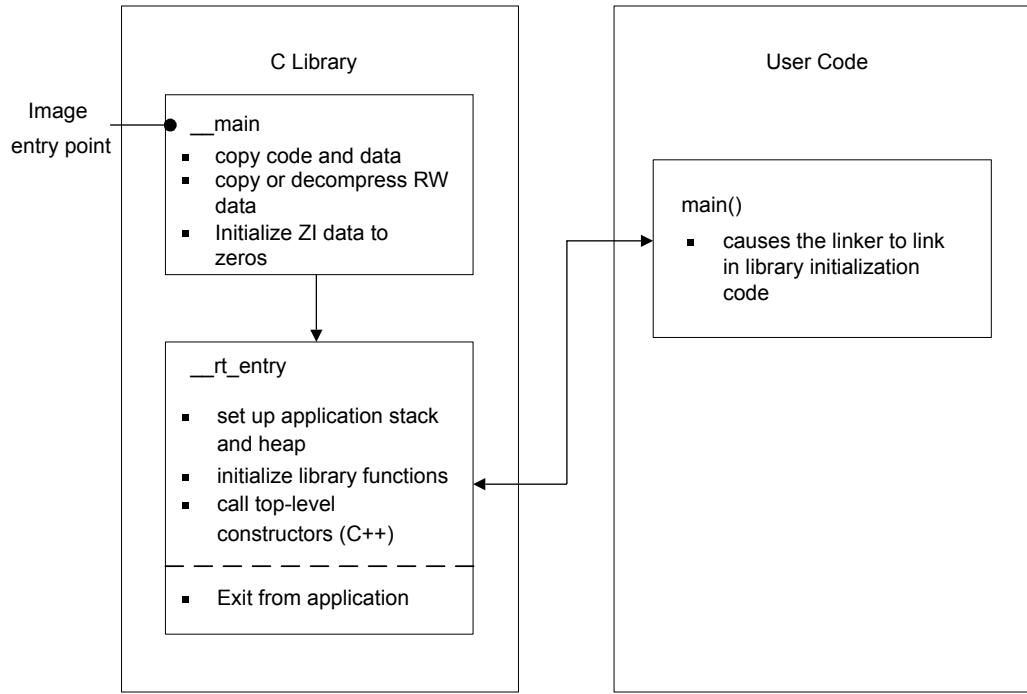


Figure 2-4 Default initialization sequence

`__main` is responsible for setting up the memory and `__rt_entry` is responsible for setting up the run-time environment.

`__main` performs code and data copying, decompression, and zero initialization of the ZI data. It then branches to `__rt_entry` to set up the stack and heap, initialize the library functions and static data, and call any top level C++ constructors. `__rt_entry` then branches to `main()`, the entry to your application. When the main application has finished executing, `__rt_entry` shuts down the library, then hands control back to the debugger.

The function label `main()` has a special significance. The presence of a `main()` function forces the linker to link in the initialization code in `__main` and `__rt_entry`. Without a function labeled `main()` the initialization sequence is not linked in, and as a result, some standard C library functionality is not supported.

Related information

--startup=symbol, --no_startup linker options.

2.6 Tailoring the C library to your target hardware

You can provide your own implementations of C library functions to override the default behavior.

By default, the C library uses semihosting to provide device driver level functionality, enabling a host computer to act as an input and an output device. This is useful because development hardware often does not have all the input and output facilities of the final system.

You can provide your own implementation of C library functions to make use of target hardware. These are automatically linked in to your image in favor of the C library implementations. The following figure shows this process, known as retargeting the C library.

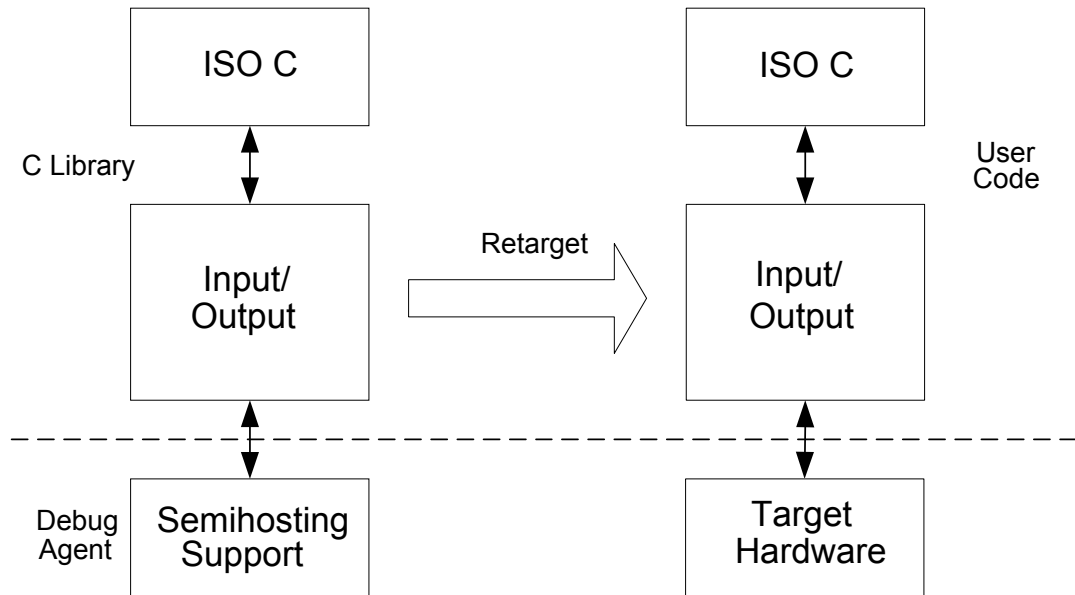


Figure 2-5 Retargeting the C library

For example, you might have a peripheral I/O device such as an LCD screen, and you might want to override the library implementation of `fputc()`, that writes to the debugger console, with one that outputs to the LCD. Because this implementation of `fputc()` is linked in to the final image, the entire `printf()` family of functions prints out to the LCD.

Example implementation of `fputc()`

In this example implementation of `fputc()`, the function redirects the input character parameter of `fputc()` to a serial output function `sendchar()` that is assumed to be implemented in a separate source file. In this way, `fputc()` acts as an abstraction layer between target dependent output and the C library standard output functions.

```
extern void sendchar(char *ch);
int fputc(int ch, FILE *f)
{
    /* e.g. write a character to an LCD screen */
    char tempch = ch;
    sendchar(&tempch);
    return ch;
}
```

In a standalone application, you are unlikely to support semihosting operations. Therefore, you must remove all calls to semihosting functions or re-implement them with non semihosting functions.

Related information

[Using the libraries in a nonsemihosting environment.](#)

2.7 Tailoring the image memory map to your target hardware

You can use a *scatter file* to define a memory map, giving you control over the placement of data and code in memory.

In your final embedded system, without semihosting functionality, you are unlikely to use the default memory map. Your target hardware usually has several memory devices located at different address ranges. To make the best use of these devices, you must have separate views of memory at load and run-time.

Scatter-loading enables you to describe the load and run-time memory locations of code and data in a textual description file known as a scatter file. This file is passed to the linker on the command line using the `--scatter` option. For example:

```
armlink --scatter scatter.scat file1.o file2.o
```

Scatter-loading defines two types of memory regions:

- Load regions containing application code and data at reset and load-time.
- Execution regions containing code and data when the application is executing. One or more execution regions are created from each load region during application startup.

A single code or data section can only be placed in a single execution region. It cannot be split.

During startup, the C library initialization code in `__main` carries out the necessary copying of code/data and zeroing of data to move from the image load view to the execute view.

————— **Note** —————

The overall layout of the memory maps of devices based around the ARMv6-M and ARMv7-M architectures are fixed. This makes it easier to port software between different systems based on these architectures.

Related concepts

[2.12 Scatter file with link to bit-band objects on page 2-54.](#)

Related information

[Information about scatter files.](#)

[--scatter=filename linker option.](#)

[ARMv7-M Architecture Reference Manual.](#)

[ARMv6-M Architecture Reference Manual.](#)

2.8 About the scatter-loading description syntax

In a scatter file, each region is defined by a header tag that contains, as a minimum, a name for the region and a start address. Optionally, you can add a maximum length and various attributes.

The scatter-loading description syntax shown in the following figure reflects the functionality provided by scatter-loading:

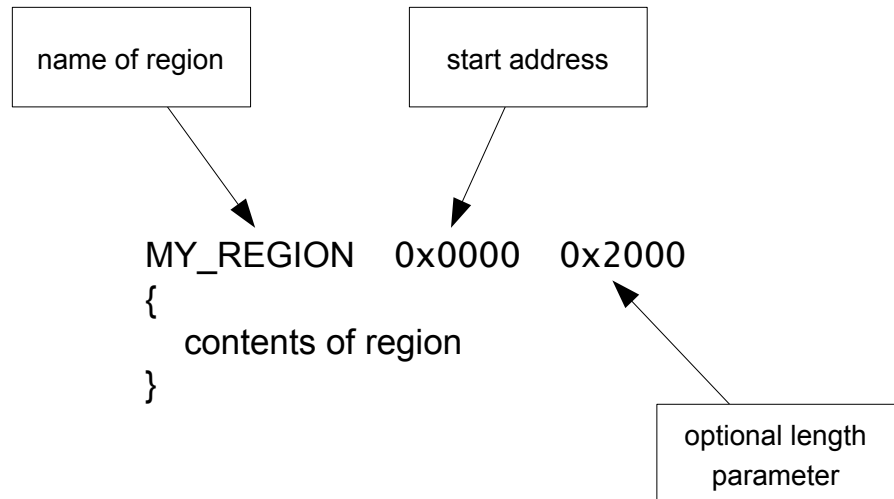


Figure 2-6 Scatter-loading description syntax

The contents of the region depend on the type of region:

- Load regions must contain at least one execution region. In practice, there are usually several execution regions for each load region.
- Execution regions must contain at least one code or data section, unless a region is declared with the EMPTY attribute. Non-EMPTY regions usually contain object or library code. You can use the wildcard (*) syntax to group all sections of a given attribute not specified elsewhere in the scatter file.

Related concepts

[2.12 Scatter file with link to bit-band objects on page 2-54.](#)

Related information

[Information about scatter files.](#)

[Scatter-loading images with a simple memory map.](#)

2.9 Root regions

A *root region* is an execution region with an execution address that is the same as its load address. A scatter file must have at least one root region.

One restriction placed on scatter-loading is that the code and data responsible for creating execution regions cannot be copied to another location. As a result, the following sections must be included in a root region:

- `__main.o` and `__scatter*.o` containing the code that copies code and data
- `__dc*.o` that performs decompression
- `Region$$Table` section containing the addresses of the code and data to be copied or decompressed.

Because these sections are defined as read-only, they are grouped by the `* (+RO)` wildcard syntax. As a result, if `* (+RO)` is specified in a non-root region, these sections must be explicitly declared in a root region using `InRoot$$Sections`.

Related information

[About placing ARM C and C++ library code.](#)

2.10 Placing the stack and heap

The scatter-loading mechanism provides a method for specifying the placement of the stack and heap in your image.

The application stack and heap are set up during C library initialization. You can tailor stack and heap placement by using the specially named `ARM_LIB_HEAP`, `ARM_LIB_STACK`, or `ARM_LIB_STACKHEAP` execution regions. Alternatively you can re-implement the `__user_setup_stackheap()` function if you are not using a scatter file.

Related concepts

[2.11 Run-time memory models on page 2-52.](#)

Related information

[Tailoring the C library to a new execution environment.](#)

[Specifying stack and heap using the scatter file.](#)

2.11 Run-time memory models

ARM Compiler toolchain provides one- and two-region run-time memory models.

One-region model

The application stack and heap grow towards each other in the same region of memory, see the following figure. In this run-time memory model, the heap is checked against the value of the stack pointer when new heap space is allocated, for example, when `malloc()` is called.

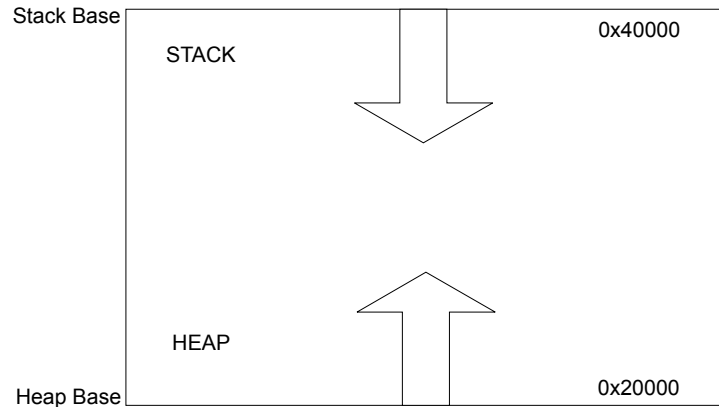


Figure 2-7 One-region model

One-region model routine

```
LOAD_FLASH ...
{
    ...
    ARM_LIB_STACKHEAP 0x20000 EMPTY 0x20000 ; Heap and stack growing towards
    { } ; each other in the same region
    ...
}
```

Two-region model

The stack and heap are placed in separate regions of memory, see the following figure. For example, you might have a small block of fast RAM that you want to reserve for stack use only. For a two-region model you must import `__use_two_region_memory`.

In this run-time memory model, the heap is checked against the heap limit when new heap space is allocated.

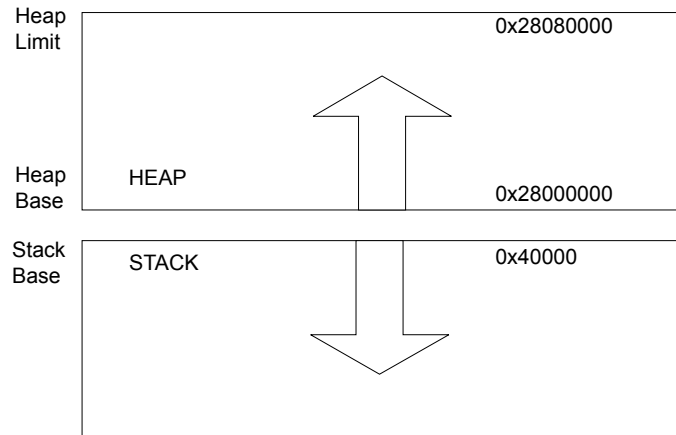


Figure 2-8 Two-region model

Two-region model routine

```
LOAD_FLASH ...  
{  
    ...  
    ARM_LIB_STACK 0x40000 EMPTY -0x20000 ; Stack region growing down  
    { }  
    ARM_LIB_HEAP 0x28000000 EMPTY 0x80000 ; Heap region growing up  
    { }  
    ...  
}
```

In both run-time memory models, the stack grows unchecked.

Related information

[Stack pointer initialization and heap bounds.](#)

2.12 Scatter file with link to bit-band objects

In devices with the ARMv7-M architecture, the SRAM and Peripheral regions each have a bit-band feature.

You can access each bit in the bit-band region individually at a different address, called the bit-band alias. For example, to access bit[13] of the word at 0x20000001, you can use the address 0x22000054.

The following table shows the bit-band regions and aliases within the SRAM and Peripheral memory regions.

Table 2-1 ARMv7-M bit-band regions and aliases

Memory region	Description	Address range
SRAM	Bit-band region	0x20000000-0x200FFFFFF
	Bit-band alias	0x22000000-0x23FFFFFFF
Peripheral	Bit-band region	0x40000000-0x400FFFFFF
	Bit-band alias	0x42000000-0x43FFFFFFF

The following is an example scatter file that links bit-band objects.

```
FLASH_LOAD 0x20000000
{
  RW 0x20000000 ; RW data at the start of bit band region
  {
    * (+RW-DATA)
  }
  RO +0 FIXED ; Followed by the RO Data
  {
    * (+RO-DATA)
  }
  CODEDATA +0 ; Followed by everything else
  {
    * (+RO-CODE)
    * (+ZI) ; ZI follows straight after
  }
  ARM_LIB_HEAP +0 EMPTY 0x10000 ; heap starts after that
  {
  }
  ARM_LIB_STACK 0x20100000 EMPTY -0x10000 ; stack starts at the
  ; top of bit band region
  {
  }
}
```

Related concepts

[2.7 Tailoring the image memory map to your target hardware on page 2-48.](#)

[2.8 About the scatter-loading description syntax on page 2-49.](#)

2.13 Reset and initialization

The entry point to the C library initialization routine is `__main`. However, an embedded application on your target hardware performs some system-level initialization at startup.

Embedded system initialization sequence

The following figure shows a possible initialization sequence for an embedded system based on an ARM architecture:

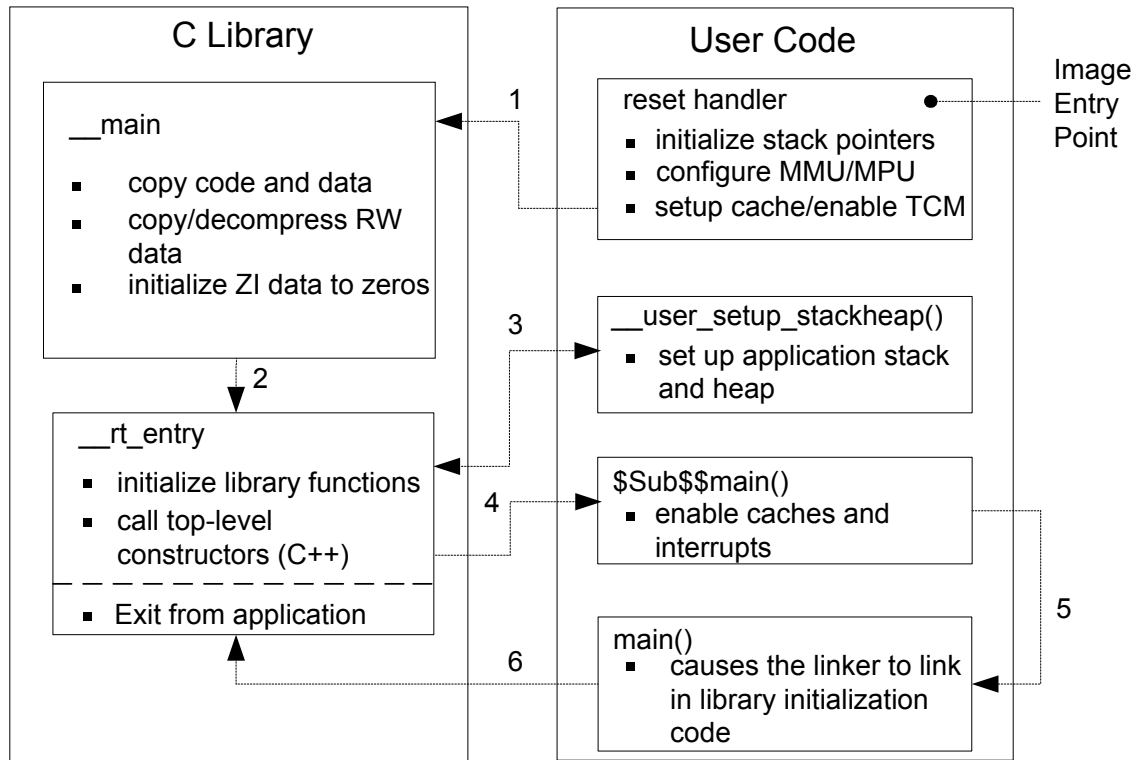


Figure 2-9 Initialization sequence

If you use a scatter file to tailor stack and heap placement, the linker includes a version of the library heap and stack setup code using the linker defined symbols, `ARM_LIB_*`, for these region names. Alternatively you can create your own implementation.

The reset handler is normally a short module coded in assembler that executes immediately on system startup. As a minimum, your reset handler initializes stack pointers for the modes that your application is running in. For processors with local memory systems, such as caches, TCMs, MMUs, and MPUs, some configuration must be done at this stage in the initialization process. After executing, the reset handler typically branches to `__main` to begin the C library initialization sequence.

There are some components of system initialization, for example, the enabling of interrupts, that are generally performed after the C library initialization code has finished executing. The block of code labeled `$$Sub$$main()` performs these tasks immediately before the main application begins executing.

Related information

[About using `\$\$Super\$\$` and `\$\$Sub\$\$` to patch symbol definitions.](#)

[Specifying stack and heap using the scatter file.](#)

2.14 The vector table

All ARM systems have a vector table. It does not form part of the initialization sequence, but it must be present for an exception to be serviced.

It must be placed at a specific address, usually `0x0`. To do this you can use the scatter-loading `+FIRST` directive, as shown in the following example.

Placing the vector table at a specific address

```
ROM_LOAD 0x0000 0x4000{
  ROM_EXEC 0x0000 0x4000      ; root region
  {
    vectors.o (Vect, +FIRST) ; Vector table
    * (InRoot$$Sections)     ; All library sections that must be in a
                             ; root region, for example, __main.o,
                             ; __scatter*.o, __dc*.o, and * Region$$Table
  }
  RAM 0x10000 0x8000
  {
    * (+RO, +RW, +ZI)       ; all other sections
  }
}
```

The vector table for the microcontroller profiles is very different to most ARM architectures.

Related concepts

[5.4 Vector table for ARMv6 and earlier, ARMv7-A and ARMv7-R profiles on page 5-102.](#)

[5.29 Vector table for ARMv6-M and ARMv7-M profiles on page 5-130.](#)

2.15 ROM and RAM remapping

You must consider what sort of memory your system has at address `0x0`, the address of the first instruction executed.

————— **Note** —————

This information does not apply to ARMv6-M and ARMv7-M profiles.

————— **Note** —————

This information assumes that an ARM processor begins fetching instructions at `0x0`. This is the standard behavior for systems based on ARM processors. However, some ARM processors can be configured to begin fetching instructions from `0xFFFF0000`.

There has to be a valid instruction at `0x0` at startup, so you must have nonvolatile memory located at `0x0` at the moment of power-on reset. One way to achieve this is to have ROM located at `0x0`. However, there are some drawbacks to this configuration.

Example ROM/RAM remapping

This example shows a solution implementing ROM/RAM remapping after reset. The constants shown are specific to the Versatile board, but the same method is applicable to any platform that implements remapping in a similar way. Scatter files must describe the memory map after remapping.

```

; System memory locations
Versatile_ctl_reg    EQU 0x101E0000 ; Address of control register
DEVCHIP_Remap_bit   EQU 0x100      ; Bit 8 is remap bit of control register
ENTRY
; Code execution starts here on reset
; On reset, an alias of ROM is at 0x0, so jump to 'real' ROM.
    LDR    pc, =Instruct_2
Instruct_2
; Remap by setting remap bit of the control register
; Clear the DEVCHIP_Remap_bit by writing 1 to bit 8 of the control register
    LDR    R1, =Versatile_ctl_reg
    LDR    R0, [R1]
    ORR    R0, R0, #DEVCHIP_Remap_bit
    STR    R0, [R1]
; RAM is now at 0x0.
; The exception vectors must be copied from ROM to RAM
; The copying is done later by the C library code inside __main
; Reset_Handler follows on from here

```

2.16 Local memory setup considerations

Many ARM processors have on-chip memory management systems, such as MMUs or MPUs. These devices are normally set up and enabled during system startup.

Therefore, the initialization sequence of processors with local memory systems requires special consideration.

The C library initialization code in `__main` is responsible for setting up the execution time memory map of the image. Therefore, the run-time memory view of the processor must be set up before branching to `__main`. This means that any MMU or MPU must be set up and enabled in the reset handler.

TCMs must also be enabled before branching to `__main`, normally before MMU/MPU setup, because you generally want to scatter-load code and data into TCMs. You must be careful that you do not have to access memory that is masked by the TCMs when they are enabled.

You also risk problems with cache coherency if caches are enabled before branching to `__main`. Code in `__main` copies code regions from their load address to their execution address, essentially treating instructions as data. As a result, some instructions can be cached in the data cache, in which case they are not visible to the instruction path.

To avoid these coherency problems, enable caches after the C library initialization sequence finishes executing.

2.17 Stack pointer initialization

As a minimum, your reset handler must assign initial values to the stack pointers of any execution modes that are used by your application.

Example stack pointer initialization

In this example, the stacks are located at `stack_base`:

```

; *****
; This example does not apply to ARMv6-M and ARMv7-M profiles
; *****
Len_FIQ_Stack    EQU    256
Len_IRQ_Stack    EQU    256
stack_base       DCD    0x18000
;
Reset_Handler
; stack_base could be defined above, or located in a scatter file
LDR    R0, stack_base ;
; Enter each mode in turn and set up the stack pointer
MSR    CPSR_c, #Mode_FIQ:OR:I_Bit:OR:F_Bit ; Interrupts disabled
MOV    sp, R0
SUB    R0, R0, #Len_FIQ_Stack
MSR    CPSR_c, #Mode_IRQ:OR:I_Bit:OR:F_Bit ; Interrupts disabled
MOV    sp, R0
SUB    R0, R0, #Len_IRQ_Stack
MSR    CPSR_c, #Mode_SVC:OR:I_Bit:OR:F_Bit ; Interrupts disabled
MOV    sp, R0
; Leave processor in SVC mode

```

The `stack_base` symbol can be a hard-coded address, or it can be defined in a separate assembler source file and located by a scatter file.

The example allocates 256 bytes of stack for *Fast Interrupt Request* (FIQ) and *Interrupt Request* (IRQ) mode, but you can do the same for any other execution mode. To set up the stack pointers, enter each mode with interrupts disabled, and assign the appropriate value to the stack pointer.

The stack pointer value set up in the reset handler is automatically passed as a parameter to `__user_initial_stackheap()` by C library initialization code. Therefore, this value must not be modified by `__user_initial_stackheap()`.

Related information

[Specifying stack and heap using the scatter file.](#)

2.18 Hardware initialization

In general, it is beneficial to separate all system initialization code from the main application. However, some components of system initialization, for example, enabling of caches and interrupts, must occur after executing C library initialization code.

Use of `$Sub` and `$Super`

You can make use of the `$Sub` and `$Super` function wrapper symbols to insert a routine that is executed immediately before entering the main application. This mechanism enables you to extend functions without altering the source code.

This example shows how `$Sub` and `$Super` can be used in this way:

```
extern void $Super$$main(void);
void $Sub$$main(void)
{
    cache_enable();    // enables caches
    int_enable();      // enables interrupts
    $Super$$main();    // calls original main()
}
```

The linker replaces the function call to `main()` with a call to `$Sub$$main()`. From there you can call a routine that enables caches and another to enable interrupts.

The code branches to the real `main()` by calling `$Super$$main()`.

Related information

[About using `\$Super\$\$` and `\$Sub\$\$` to patch symbol definitions.](#)

2.19 Execution mode considerations

You must consider the mode in which the main application is to run. Your choice affects how you implement system initialization.

Note

This does not apply to ARMv6-M and ARMv7-M profiles.

Much of the functionality that you are likely to implement at startup, both in the reset handler and `Submain`, can only be done while executing in privileged modes, for example, on-chip memory manipulation, and enabling interrupts.

If you want to run your application in a privileged mode, this is not an issue. Ensure that you change to the appropriate mode before exiting your reset handler.

If you want to run your application in User mode, however, you can only change to User mode after completing the necessary tasks in a privileged mode. The most likely place to do this is in `Submain()`.

Note

The C library initialization code must use the same stack as the application. If you need to use a non-User mode in `Submain` and User mode in the application, you must exit your reset handler in System mode, which uses the User mode stack pointer.

2.20 Target hardware and the memory map

It is better to keep all information about the memory map of a target, including the location of target hardware peripherals and the stack and heap limits, in your scatter file, rather than hard-coded in source or header files.

Mapping to a peripheral register

Conventionally, addresses of peripheral registers are hard-coded in project source or header files. You can also declare structures that map on to peripheral registers, and place these structures in the scatter file.

For example, if a target has a timer peripheral with two memory mapped 32-bit registers, a C structure that maps to these registers is:

```
__attribute__((zero_init)) struct
{
    volatile unsigned ctrl;      /* timer control */
    volatile unsigned tmr;      /* timer value   */
} timer_regs;
```

Placing the mapped structure

To place this structure at a specific address in the memory map, you can create an execution region containing the module that defines the structure. The following example shows an execution region called `TIMER` that locates the `timer_regs` structure at `0x40000000`:

```
ROM_LOAD 0x24000000 0x04000000
{
; ...
TIMER 0x40000000 UNINIT
{
    timer_regs.o (+ZI)
}
; ...
}
```

It is important that the contents of these registers are not zero-initialized during application startup, because this is likely to change the state of your system. Marking an execution region with the `UNINIT` attribute prevents ZI data in that region from being zero-initialized by `__main`.

2.21 Execute-only memory

Execute-only memory (XOM) allows only instruction fetches. Read and write accesses are not allowed.

Execute-only memory allows you to protect your intellectual property by preventing executable code being read by users. For example, you can place firmware in execute-only memory and load user code and drivers separately. Placing the firmware in execute-only memory prevents users from trivially reading the code.

————— **Note** —————

The ARM architecture does not directly support execute-only memory. Execute-only memory is supported at the memory device level.

Related tasks

[2.22 Building applications for execute-only memory on page 2-64.](#)

2.22 Building applications for execute-only memory

Placing code in execute-only memory prevents users from trivially reading that code.

To build an application with code in execute-only memory:

Procedure

1. Compile your C or C++ code or assemble your ARM assembly code using the `--execute_only` option

```
armcc -c --execute_only test.c -o test.o
```

The `--execute_only` option prevents the compiler from generating any data accesses to the code sections.

To keep code and data in separate sections, the compiler disables the placement of literal pools inline with code.

Compiled code sections have the `EXECONLY` attribute:

```
AREA ||.text||, CODE, EXECONLY, ALIGN=1
```

The assembler faults any attempts to define data in an `EXECONLY` code section.

2. Specify the memory map to the linker using either of the following:
 - The `+XO` selector in a scatter file.
 - The `armlink --xo-base` option on the command-line.

```
armlink --xo-base=0x8000 test.o -o test.axf
```

The `XO` execution region is placed in a separate load region from the `RO`, `RW`, and `ZI` execution regions.

————— Note —————

If you do not specify `--xo-base`, then by default:

- The `XO` execution region is placed immediately before the `RO` execution region, at address `0x8000`.
- All execution regions are in the same load region.

Related concepts

[2.21 Execute-only memory on page 2-63.](#)

Related information

[--execute_only compiler option.](#)

[--execute_only assembler option.](#)

[--xo_base=address linker option.](#)

[AREA.](#)

Chapter 3

Mixing C, C++, and Assembly Language

Describes how to write a mixture of C, C++, and assembly language code for the ARM architecture.

It contains the following sections:

- [3.1 Instruction intrinsics, inline and embedded assembler](#) on page 3-66.
- [3.2 Access to C global variables from assembly code](#) on page 3-68.
- [3.3 Including system C header files from C++](#) on page 3-69.
- [3.4 Including your own C header files from C++](#) on page 3-70.
- [3.5 Mixed-language programming](#) on page 3-71.
- [3.6 Rules for calling between C, C++, and assembly language](#) on page 3-72.
- [3.7 Rules for calling C++ functions from C and assembly language](#) on page 3-73.
- [3.8 Information specific to C++](#) on page 3-74.
- [3.9 Calls to assembly language from C](#) on page 3-75.
- [3.10 Calls to C from assembly language](#) on page 3-76.
- [3.11 Calls to C from C++](#) on page 3-77.
- [3.12 Calls to assembly language from C++](#) on page 3-78.
- [3.13 Calls to C++ from C](#) on page 3-79.
- [3.14 Calls to C++ from assembly language](#) on page 3-80.
- [3.15 Passing a reference between C and C++](#) on page 3-81.
- [3.16 Calls to C++ from C or assembly language](#) on page 3-82.

3.1 Instruction intrinsics, inline and embedded assembler

Instruction intrinsics, and inline and embedded assembler are built into the compiler to enable the use of target processor features that cannot normally be accessed directly from C or C++.

Examples of such features are:

- Saturating arithmetic.
- Custom coprocessors.
- The *Program Status Register* (PSR).

Instruction intrinsics

Instruction intrinsics provide a way of easily incorporating target processor features in C and C++ source code without resorting to complex implementations in assembly language. They have the appearance of a function call in C or C++, but are replaced during compilation by assembly language instructions.

Inline assembler

The inline assembler supports interworking with C and C++. Any register operand can be an arbitrary C or C++ expression. The inline assembler also expands complex instructions and optimizes the assembly language code.

————— **Note** —————

The output object code might not correspond exactly to your input because of compiler optimization.

Embedded assembler

The embedded assembler enables you to use the full ARM assembler instruction set, including assembler directives. Embedded assembly code is assembled separately from the C and C++ code. A compiled object is produced that is then combined with the object from the compilation of the C and C++ source.

The following table summarizes the main differences between instruction intrinsics, inline assembler, and embedded assembler.

Table 3-1 Differences between instruction intrinsics, inline and embedded assembler

Feature	Instruction Intrinsics	Inline assembler	Embedded assembler
Instruction set	ARM and Thumb.	ARM and Thumb. ^f	ARM and Thumb.
ARM assembler directives	None supported.	None supported.	All supported.
C/C++ expressions	Full C/C++ expressions.	Full C/C++ expressions.	Constant expressions only.
Optimization of assembly code	Full optimization.	Full optimization.	No optimization.
Inlining	Automatically inlined.	Automatically inlined.	Can be inlined by linker if it is the right size and linker inlining is enabled.
Register access	Physical registers, including PC, LR and SP.	Virtual registers except PC, LR and SP.	Physical registers, including PC, LR and SP.
Return instructions	Generated automatically.	Generated automatically. BX, BXJ, and BLX instructions are not supported.	You must add them in your code.
BKPT instruction	Supported.	Not supported.	Supported.

^f The inline assembler supports Thumb instructions in ARMv6T2 and later.

Related information

Using the Inline and Embedded Assemblers of the ARM Compiler.

Compiler intrinsics.

Saturating instructions.

Instruction intrinsics.

3.2 Access to C global variables from assembly code

Global variables can only be accessed indirectly, through their address. To access a global variable, use the `IMPORT` directive to do the import and then load the address into a register.

You can then access the global variable using load and store instructions, depending on its type.

For **unsigned** variables, for example, use:

- `LDRB/STRB` for **char**
- `LDRH/STRH` for **short**
- `LDR/STR` for **int**.

For **signed** variables, use the equivalent signed instruction, such as `LDRSB` and `LDRSH`.

Small structures of less than eight words can be accessed as a whole using the `LDM` and `STM` instructions. Individual members of structures can be accessed by a load or store instruction of the appropriate type. You must know the offset of a member from the start of the structure in order to access it.

The following example loads the address of the integer global variable `globvar` into `R1`, loads the value contained in that address into `R0`, adds 2 to it, then stores the new value back into `globvar`.

Accessing global variables

```

PRESERVE8
AREA    globals, CODE
EXPORT  asmsubroutine
IMPORT  globvar
asmsubroutine
LDR    R1, =globvar    ; read address of globvar into R1
LDR    R0, [R1]        ; load value of globvar
ADD    R0, R0, #2
STR    R0, [R1]        ; store new value into globvar
BX     lr
END

```

Related information

[ARM and Thumb Instructions.](#)

3.3 Including system C header files from C++

When including C header files in C++, the `#include` syntax used determines what namespace to use and therefore the type of access you have.

C header files must be wrapped in `extern "C"` directives before they are included from C++. Standard system C header files already contain the appropriate `extern "C"` directives so you do not have to take any special steps to include such files.

For example:

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
    ...          // C++ code
    return 0;
}
```

If you include headers using this syntax, all library names are placed in the global namespace.

The C++ standard specifies that the functionality of the C header files is available through C++ specific header files. These files are installed in `install_directory\include`, together with the standard C header files, and can be referenced in the usual way. For example:

```
#include <cstdio>
```

In ARM C++, these headers `#include` the C headers. If you include headers using this syntax, all C++ standard library names are defined in the namespace `std`, including the C library names. This means that you must qualify all the library names by using one of the following methods:

- specify the standard namespace, for example:

```
std::printf("example\n");
```
- use the C++ keyword **using** to import a name to the global namespace:

```
using namespace std;
printf("example\n");
```
- use the compiler option `--using_std`.

Related information

[*--using_std, --no_using_std compiler options.*](#)

3.4 Including your own C header files from C++

To include your own C header files, you must wrap the `#include` directive in an `extern "C"` statement.

You can do this in the following ways:

- when you `#include` the file, as shown in the following example:

```
// C++ code
extern "C" {
#include "my-header1.h"
#include "my-header2.h"
}
int main()
{
    // ...
    return 0;
}
```

- by adding the `extern "C"` statement to the header file, as shown in the following example:

```
/* C header file */
#ifdef __cplusplus    /* Insert start of extern C construct */
extern "C" {
#endif
/* Body of header file */
#ifdef __cplusplus    /* Insert end of extern C construct. */
}                    /* The C header file can now be */
#endif               /* included in either C or C++ code. */
```

3.5 Mixed-language programming

You can mix calls between C and C++ and assembly language routines provided you comply with the *Procedure Call Standard for the ARM Architecture* (AAPCS).

Note

The information in this section is implementation dependent and might change in future releases.

The embedded assembler and compliance with the *Base Standard Application Binary Interface for the ARM Architecture* (BSABI) make mixed language programming easier to implement. These assist you with:

- Name mangling, using the `__cpp` keyword.
- The way the implicit `this` parameter is passed.
- The way virtual functions are called.
- The representation of references.
- The layout of C++ class types that have base classes or virtual member functions.
- The passing of class objects that are not *Plain Old Data* (POD) structures.

Related concepts

[3.6 Rules for calling between C, C++, and assembly language on page 3-72.](#)

[3.7 Rules for calling C++ functions from C and assembly language on page 3-73.](#)

Related information

[The compiler.](#)

[Base Standard Application Binary Interface for the ARM Architecture.](#)

[Procedure Call Standard for the ARM Architecture.](#)

3.6 Rules for calling between C, C++, and assembly language

Some general rules apply when calling between C, C++, and assembly language.

- Use C calling conventions.
- C header files must be wrapped in `extern "C"` directives before they are included from C++.
- In C++, nonmember functions can be declared as `extern "C"` to specify that they have C linkage. Having C linkage means that the symbol defining the function is not mangled. You can use C linkage to implement a function in one language and call it from another.

————— **Note** —————

Functions that are declared `extern "C"` cannot be overloaded.

- Assembly language modules must conform to the appropriate AAPCS standard for the memory model used by the application.

Related concepts

[3.5 Mixed-language programming on page 3-71.](#)

[3.7 Rules for calling C++ functions from C and assembly language on page 3-73.](#)

Related information

[The compiler.](#)

3.7 Rules for calling C++ functions from C and assembly language

Some rules apply when calling C++ functions from C and assembly language.

- To call a global C++ function, declare it `extern "C"` to give it C linkage.
- Member functions, both static and non static, always have mangled names. Using the `__cpp` keyword of the embedded assembler means that you do not have to find the mangled names manually.
- C++ inline functions cannot be called from C unless you ensure that the C++ compiler generates an out-of-line copy of the function. For example, taking the address of the function results in an out-of-line copy.
- Nonstatic member functions receive the implicit `this` parameter as a first argument in `R0`, or as a second argument in `R1` if the function returns a non `int`-like structure. Static member functions do not receive an implicit `this` parameter.

Related concepts

[3.5 Mixed-language programming on page 3-71.](#)

[3.6 Rules for calling between C, C++, and assembly language on page 3-72.](#)

Related information

[The compiler.](#)

3.8 Information specific to C++

These are some characteristics of ARM C++ to be aware of when combining it with ARM C.

C++ calling conventions

ARM C++ uses the same calling conventions as ARM C with one exception:

- Nonstatic member functions are called with the implicit **this** parameter as the first argument, or as the second argument if the called function returns a non **int**-like **struct**. This might change in future implementations.

C++ data types

ARM C++ uses the same data types as ARM C with the following exceptions and additions:

- C++ objects of type **struct** or **class** have the same layout that is expected from ARM C if they have no base classes or virtual functions. If such a **struct** has neither a user-defined copy assignment operator nor a user-defined destructor, it is a *Plain Old Data* (POD) structure.
- References are represented as pointers.
- No distinction is made between pointers to C functions and pointers to C++ nonmember functions.

Symbol name mangling

The linker unmangles symbol names in messages.

C names must be declared as `extern "C"` in C++ programs. This is done already for the ARM ISO C headers.

Related concepts

[3.5 Mixed-language programming on page 3-71.](#)

3.9 Calls to assembly language from C

You can call an assembly language routine from C by exporting the assembly function symbol and declaring the routine as `extern` in C.

Assembly language string copy subroutine

You must use the `EXPORT` directive to export the function symbol:

```

PRESERVE8
AREA    SCopy, CODE
EXPORT strcopy
strcopy                ; R0 points to destination string.
                    ; R1 points to source string.
    LDRB R2, [R1],#1 ; Load byte and update address.
    STRB R2, [R0],#1 ; Store byte and update address.
    CMP  R2, #0      ; Check for null terminator.
    BNE  strcopy     ; Keep going if not.
    BX  lr           ; Return.
END

```

Calling assembly language from C

To call this assembly language subroutine from C, declare it with `extern`:

```

#include <stdio.h>
extern void strcpy(char *d, const char *s);
int main()
{
    const char *srcstr = "First string - source ";
    char dststr[] = "Second string - destination ";
    /* dststr is an array since we're going to change it */
    printf("Before copying:\n");
    printf(" %s\n %s\n",srcstr,dststr);
    strcpy(dststr,srcstr);
    printf("After copying:\n");
    printf(" %s\n %s\n",srcstr,dststr);
    return (0);
}

```

Related concepts

[3.10 Calls to C from assembly language on page 3-76.](#)

3.10 Calls to C from assembly language

You can call a C function from assembly code by using the `IMPORT` directive.

Defining the function in C

The following example is a C function that is to be called from assembly code:

```
int g(int a, int b, int c, int d, int e)
{
    return a + b + c + d + e;
}
```

Assembly language call

To call this C function from assembly code, import the `g` function symbol using the `IMPORT` directive:

```
; int f(int i) { return g(i, 2*i, 3*i, 4*i, 5*i); }
PRESERVE8
EXPORT f
AREA f, CODE
IMPORT g          ; i is in R0
STR lr, [sp, #-4]! ; preserve lr
ADD R1, R0, R0    ; compute 2*i (2nd param)
ADD R2, R1, R0    ; compute 3*i (3rd param)
ADD R3, R1, R2    ; compute 5*i
STR R3, [sp, #-4]! ; 5th param on stack
ADD R3, R1, R1    ; compute 4*i (4th param)
BLX g            ; branch to C function
ADD sp, sp, #4   ; remove 5th param
LDR pc, [sp], #4 ; return
END
```

Related concepts

[3.9 Calls to assembly language from C](#) on page 3-75.

3.11 Calls to C from C++

You can call a C function from C++ by declaring it with `extern "C"`.

Defining the function in C

The following example is a C function that is to be called from C++:

```

struct S {
    int i;
};
void cfunc(struct S *p) {
/* the definition of the C function to be called from C++ */
    p->i += 5;
}

```

Calling a C function from C++

To call this C function from C++, declare it with `extern "C"`:

```

struct S {
    // has no base classes
    // or virtual functions
    S(int s) : i(s) { }
    int i;
};
// declare the C function to be called from C++
extern "C" void cfunc(S *);
int f(){
    S s(2);           // initialize 's'
    cfunc(&s);       // call 'cfunc' so it can change 's'
    return s.i * 3;
}

```

Related concepts

[3.12 Calls to assembly language from C++ on page 3-78.](#)

[3.13 Calls to C++ from C on page 3-79.](#)

3.12 Calls to assembly language from C++

You can call an assembly language routine from C++ by exporting the assembly function symbol and declaring the routine as `extern "C"` in C++.

Defining the assembly language function

To be able to call an assembly language routine from C++, you must use the `EXPORT` directive to export the function symbol:

```

PRESERVE8
AREA Asm, CODE
EXPORT asmfunc
asmfunc          ; the definition of the Asm
LDR R1, [R0]     ; function to be called from C++
ADD R1, R1, #5
STR R1, [R0]
BX lr
END
  
```

Calling assembly language from C++

To call the assembly language routine from C++, declare it with `extern "C"`:

```

struct S {          // has no base classes
                  // or virtual functions
  S(int s) : i(s) { }
  int i;
};
extern "C" void asmfunc(S *); // declare the Asm function
                               // to be called
int f() {
  S s(2);              // initialize 's'
  asmfunc(&s);         // call 'asmfunc' so it can change 's'
  return s.i * 3;
}
  
```

Related concepts

[3.11 Calls to C from C++ on page 3-77.](#)

3.13 Calls to C++ from C

You can call a C++ function from C by defining it with `extern "C"` and declaring it as `extern` in C.

Defining the C++ function to be called from C

To call a C++ function from C, define the C++ function with `extern "C"`:

```

struct S {          // has no base classes or virtual functions
    S(int s) : i(s) { }
    int i;
};
extern "C" void cppfunc(S *p) {
    // Definition of the C++ function to be called from C.
    // The function is written in C++, only the linkage is C.
    p->i += 5;
}

```

Declaring and calling the function in C

In C, declare the C++ function with `extern`:

```

struct S {
    int i;
};
/* Declaration of the C++ function to be called from C */
extern void cppfunc(struct S *p);
int f(void) {
    struct S s;
    s.i = 2;                /* initialize 's' */
    cppfunc(&s);           /* call 'cppfunc' so it */
                          /* can change 's' */
    return s.i * 3;
}

```

Related concepts

[3.9 Calls to assembly language from C](#) on page 3-75.

3.14 Calls to C++ from assembly language

You can call a C++ function from assembly code by defining it as `extern "C"` and using the `IMPORT` directive.

Defining the C++ function to be called

To be able to call a C++ function from assembly code, use the `extern "C"` declaration:

```
struct S {
    S(int s) : i(s) { }
    int i;
};
extern "C" void cppfunc(S * p) {
    // Definition of the C++ function to be called from ASM.
    // The body is C++, only the linkage is C.
    p->i += 5;
}
```

Defining the calling function in assembly language

In ARM assembly language, import the name of the C++ function using the `IMPORT` directive and use a `BLX` instruction to call it:

```
PRESERVE8
AREA Asm, CODE
IMPORT cppfunc      ; import the name of the C++
                   ; function to be called from Asm
EXPORT f
f
  STMFD sp!,{lr}
  MOV R0,#2
  STR R0,[sp,#-4]! ; initialize struct
  MOV R0,sp        ; argument is pointer to struct
  BLX cppfunc      ; call 'cppfunc' so it can change the struct
  LDR R0, [sp], #4
  ADD R0, R0, R0, LSL #1
  LDMFD sp!,{pc}
END
```

Related concepts

[3.12 Calls to assembly language from C++ on page 3-78.](#)

3.15 Passing a reference between C and C++

When calling a C function from C++, declare the function using `extern "C"`. When calling a C++ function from C, declare the function using `extern` and define it as `extern "C"`.

To pass references between C and C++:

Procedure

1. Use the `extern "C"` declaration for the C function. Also, define the C++ function as `extern "C"` to specify that the function has C linkage. For example:

```
// Declaration of the C function to be called from C++
extern "C" int cfunc(const int&);
extern "C" int cppfunc(const int& r) {
    // Definition of the C++ function to be called from C.
    return 7 * r;
}
int f() {
    int i = 3;
    return cfunc(i);    // passes a pointer to 'i'
}
```

2. In the C function, declare the C++ reference with `extern`. For example:

```
/* declaration of the C++ function to be called from C */
extern int cppfunc(const int*);
int cfunc(const int *p) {
    /* definition of the C function to be called from C++ */
    int k = *p + 4;
    return cppfunc(&k);
}
```

3.16 Calls to C++ from C or assembly language

You can call a C++ member function from C, assembly language, or embedded assembly.

Calling a C++ member function

This example shows how to call a non static, non virtual C++ member function from C.

```
struct T {
    T(int i) : t(i) { }
    int t;
    int f(int i);
};

// Definition of the C++ member function to be called from C.
int T::f(int i) { return i + t; }

// Declaration of the C function to be called from C++.
extern "C" int cfunc(T*);

int f() {
    T t(5);                // create an object of type T
    return cfunc(&t);
}
```

Use the assembler output from the compiler to locate the mangled name of the function. For example, if this code is in the file `test.cpp`, enter the command:

```
armcc -c --cpp --asm test.cpp
```

This produces the assembler file `test.s` containing:

```
...
        AREA ||.text||, CODE, READONLY, ALIGN=2
_Z1fv PROC
        PUSH    {r3,lr}
        MOV     r0,#5
        STR     r0,[sp,#0]
        MOV     r0,sp
        BL     cfunc
        POP     {r3,pc}
        ENDP

_ZN1TfEi PROC
        LDR     r0,[r0,#0]
        ADD     r0,r0,r1
        BX     lr
        ENDP
...
```

Defining the C function

The C function calls the C++ member function using its mangled name `_ZN1TfEi`. The C function is defined as follows:

```
struct T;
extern int _ZN1TfEi(struct T*, int);
/* the mangled name of the C++ */
/* function to be called */
int cfunc(struct T* t) {
/* Definition of the C function to be called from C++. */
    return 3 * _ZN1TfEi(t, 2); /* like '3 * t->f(2)' */
}
```

Implementing the function in assembly language

To implement in assembly language the function that calls the C++ member function:

```
PRESERVE8
EXPORT cfunc
AREA foo, CODE
IMPORT _ZN1TfEi
cfunc
    STMFD    sp!,{r1, lr}    ; save lr for the call and preserve stack alignment
    MOV     r1, #2           ; r0 already contains the object pointer
```

```
BLX __ZN1T1fEi
ADD r0, r0, r0, LSL #1 ; multiply by 3
LDMFD sp!,{r1, pc}
END
```

Implementing the function in embedded assembly

Alternatively, you can implement the call to a C++ member function in assembly language using embedded assembly. In this example, use the `__cpp` keyword to reference the C++ member function. This means that you do not have to know the mangled name of the function.

```
struct T {
    T(int i) : t(i) { }
    int t;
    int f(int i);
};
int T::f(int i) { return i + t; }
// Definition of asm function called from C++
__asm int asm_func(T*) {
    PRESERVE8
    STMFD sp!, {r1, lr} ; save lr for the call and preserve stack alignment
    MOV r1, #2; ; r0 already contains the object pointer
    BLX __cpp(T::f);
    ADD r0, r0, r0, LSL #1 ; multiply by 3
    LDMFD sp!, {r1, pc}
}
int f() {
    T t(5); // create an object of type T
    return asm_func(&t);
}
```

Related concepts

- [3.9 Calls to assembly language from C on page 3-75.](#)
- [3.10 Calls to C from assembly language on page 3-76.](#)
- [3.12 Calls to assembly language from C++ on page 3-78.](#)
- [3.14 Calls to C++ from assembly language on page 3-80.](#)

Chapter 4

Interworking ARM and Thumb

Describes how to change between ARM state and Thumb state when writing code for processors that implement the ARM and Thumb instruction sets.

————— **Note** —————

These topics do not apply to ARMv6-M and ARMv7-M.

It contains the following sections:

- [4.1 About interworking](#) on page 4-85.
- [4.2 When to use interworking](#) on page 4-86.
- [4.3 Assembly language interworking](#) on page 4-87.
- [4.4 C and C++ interworking](#) on page 4-88.
- [4.5 Pointers to functions in Thumb state](#) on page 4-89.
- [4.6 Assembly language interworking example](#) on page 4-90.
- [4.7 Interworking using veneers](#) on page 4-92.
- [4.8 C and C++ language interworking](#) on page 4-94.
- [4.9 C, C++, and assembly language interworking using veneers](#) on page 4-95.

4.1 About interworking

Interworking enables you to mix ARM and Thumb code.

This means that:

- ARM routines can return to a Thumb state caller
- Thumb routines can return to an ARM state caller.

This has the benefit that if you compile or assemble code for interworking, your code can call a routine in a different module without considering which instruction set it uses. The compiler and assembler both use the `--apcs=/interwork` command-line option to enable interworking.

You can freely mix code compiled or assembled for ARM and Thumb, provided that the code conforms to the AAPCS.

An error is generated if the linker detects:

- a direct ARM or Thumb interworking call where the callee routine is not built for interworking
- assembly language source files using incompatible AAPCS options.

The ARM linker detects when an interworking function is being called from a different state. Call and return instructions are changed, and small code segments called veneers, are inserted to change instruction set state where necessary.

The ARM architecture v5T and later provide methods to change instruction set state without using any extra instructions. There is almost no cost associated with interworking on ARMv5T and later processors.

Note

Compiling for ARMv5T and later architectures, automatically assumes interworking and always produces code that is interworking safe. However, assembly code built for ARMv5T does not imply interworking, so you must build assembly code with the `--apcs=/interwork` assembler option.

Related information

--apcs=qualifier...qualifier assembler option.

Overview of veneers.

Procedure Call Standard for the ARM Architecture.

4.2 When to use interworking

There are several reasons for choosing to switch between ARM and Thumb state.

When you write code for an ARM processor that supports Thumb instructions, you probably build most of your application to run in Thumb state. This gives the best code density. With 8-bit or 16-bit wide memory, it also gives the best performance. However, you might want parts of your application to run in ARM state for reasons such as:

Speed

Some parts of an application might be speed critical. These sections might be more efficient running in ARM state than in Thumb state.

Some systems include a small amount of fast 32-bit memory. ARM code can be run from this without the overhead of fetching each instruction from 8-bit or 16-bit memory.

Functionality

Thumb instructions are less flexible than their equivalent ARM instructions. Some operations are not possible in Thumb state. A state change to ARM is required to carry out the following operations:

- accesses to CPSR to enable or disable interrupts, and to change mode.
- accesses to coprocessors
- execution of *Digital Signal Processor* (DSP) math instructions that can not be performed in C language.

Exception handling

The processor automatically enters ARM state when a processor exception occurs. This means that the first part of an exception handler must be coded with ARM instructions, even if it reenters Thumb state to carry out the main processing of the exception. At the end of such processing, the processor must be returned to ARM state to return from the handler to the main application.

Standalone Thumb programs

An ARM processor that supports Thumb instructions always starts in ARM state. To run simple Thumb assembly language programs, add an ARM header that carries out a state change to Thumb state and then calls the main Thumb routine.

Note

Changing to ARM state for speed or functionality reasons is mainly a concern on processors that support Thumb without the 32-bit encoded Thumb instructions. On processors that support the 32-bit encoded Thumb instructions, the Thumb instruction set provides almost the same functionality as the ARM instruction set, and similar performance in some cases.

Related concepts

[4.3 Assembly language interworking on page 4-87.](#)

Related information

[CPS.](#)

4.3 Assembly language interworking

There are several assembly language instructions that can cause a change between ARM and Thumb state.

The `--apcs=/interwork` command-line option enables the ARM assembler to assemble code that can be called from another instruction set state:

```
armasm --thumb --apcs=/interwork  
armasm --arm --apcs=/interwork
```

In an assembly language source file, you can have several areas. These correspond to ARM *Executable and Linkable Format* (ELF) sections. Each area can contain ARM instructions, Thumb instructions, or both.

You can use the linker to fix up calls to routines that use a different instruction set from the caller. To do this, use `BL` to call the routine.

If you prefer, you can write your code to make the instruction set changes explicitly. In some circumstances you can write smaller or faster code by doing this. You can use `BX`, `BLX`, `LDR`, `LDM`, and `POP` instructions to perform the instruction set state changes.

The ARM assembler can assemble both Thumb code and ARM code. By default, it assembles ARM code unless it is invoked with the `--thumb` option.

The `ARM` and `THUMB` directives instruct the assembler to assemble instructions from the appropriate instruction set.

Related concepts

[4.6 Assembly language interworking example on page 4-90.](#)

[4.7 Interworking using veneers on page 4-92.](#)

Related information

--apcs=qualifier...qualifier assembler option.

--arm assembler option.

--thumb assembler option.

B.

ARM, THUMB, THUMBX, CODE16 and CODE32.

4.4 C and C++ interworking

The compiler can compile code for interworking on ARMv4T and later.

The `--apcs=interwork` command-line option enables the compiler to compile C and C++ code that can be called from another instruction set state:

```
armcc --thumb --apcs=interwork
armcc --arm --apcs=interwork
```

In a leaf function, which is a function whose body contains no function calls, the compiler generates the return instruction `BX lr`.

In a non-leaf function built for ARMv4T in Thumb state, the compiler must replace, for example, the single return instruction:

```
POP {R4-R7,pc}
```

with the sequence:

```
POP {R4-R7}
POP {R3}
BX R3
```

This has a small impact on performance.

The `--apcs=interwork` option also sets the interwork attribute for the code area the modules are compiled into. The linker detects this attribute and inserts the appropriate veneers. To find the amount of space taken by the veneers you can use the linker command-line option `--info=veneers`.

It is recommended that you compile all source modules for interworking, unless you are sure they are never going to be used with interworking.

————— **Note** —————

ARM code compiled for interworking can only be used on ARMv4T and later, because earlier processors do not implement the `BX` instruction.

Also, interworking is the default for ARMv5TE and later processors, so you do not have to explicitly specify this.

Related information

[*--apcs=qualifier...qualifier compiler option.*](#)

[*--arm compiler option.*](#)

[*--thumb compiler option.*](#)

[*--info=topic\[,topic,...\] linker option.*](#)

4.5 Pointers to functions in Thumb state

A Thumb function is a function that consists of Thumb code and so must run in Thumb state. Any pointer to that function must have the least significant bit set to ensure that interworking works correctly.

If you are taking the address of a function, the toolchain automatically handles this for you. If you are constructing a function pointer by casting an integer value then you need to set the least significant bit yourself, as shown in the following example.

Absolute addresses of Thumb functions

```
typedef int (*FN)();
myfunc() {
    FN fnptrs[] = {
        (FN)(0x8084 + 1), // Valid Thumb address
        (FN)(0x8074)     // Invalid Thumb address
    };
    FN* myfunctions = fnptrs;
    myfunctions[0](); // Call OK
    myfunctions[1](); // Call fails
}
```

4.6 Assembly language interworking example

The BX instruction can carry out an instruction set change. When changing to Thumb state, you must ensure that the least significant bit in the address is set.

This example implements a short header section (SECTION1) followed by an ADR instruction to get the address of the label THUMBProg, and sets the least significant bit of the address. The BX instruction changes the state to Thumb state.

In SECTION2, the Thumb code adds the contents of two registers together, using an ADR instruction to get the address of the label ARMProg, leaving the least significant bit clear. The BX instruction changes the state back to ARM state.

In SECTION3 the ARM code adds together the contents of two registers and ends.

Assembly language interworking

```

; *****
; addreg.s
; *****
PRESERVE8
AREA    AddReg, CODE, READONLY ; Name this block of code.
ENTRY  ; Mark first instruction to call.
; SECTION1
start
    ADR R0, ThumbProg:OR:1      ; Generate branch target address
                                ; and set bit 0, hence arrive
                                ; at target in Thumb state.
                                ; Branch exchange to ThumbProg.
    BX  R0
; SECTION2
THUMB                                ; Subsequent instructions are Thumb
ThumbProg
    MOVS R2, #2                  ; Load R2 with value 2.
    MOVS R3, #3                  ; Load R3 with value 3.
    ADDS R2, R2, R3              ; R2 = R2 + R3
    ADR R0, ARMProg
    BX  R0                        ; Branch exchange to ARMProg.
; SECTION3
ARM                                    ; Subsequent instructions are ARM
ARMProg
    MOV R4, #4
    MOV R5, #5
    ADD R4, R4, R5
; SECTION 4
stop MOV R0, #0x18              ; angel_SWIreason_ReportException
    LDR R1, =0x20026             ; ADP_Stopped_ApplicationExit
    SVC 0x123456                 ; ARM_semihosting
    END                           ; Mark end of this file.

```

Building the example

Follow these steps to build and link the modules:

1. To assemble the source file for interworking, type:

```
armasm --debug --apcs=/interwork addreg.s
```

2. To link the object files, type:

```
armlink addreg.o -o addreg.axf
```

Alternatively, to view the size of the interworking veneers, type:

```
armlink addreg.o -o addreg.axf --info=veneers
```

3. Run the image using a compatible debugger with an appropriate debug target.

Related concepts

[4.7 Interworking using veneers on page 4-92.](#)

[4.8 C and C++ language interworking on page 4-94.](#)

[4.9 C, C++, and assembly language interworking using veneers on page 4-95.](#)

Related information

--apcs=qualifier...qualifier assembler option.

--debug assembler option.

--info=topic[,topic,...] linker option.

--output=filename linker option.

4.7 Interworking using veneers

When branching between ARM and Thumb state using the BL instruction, the instruction set state change can be handled by an interworking veneer.

This example shows interworking in assembly source code to set registers R0 to R2 to the values 1, 2, and 3 respectively. Registers R0 and R2 are set by ARM code. R1 is set by Thumb code. The linker automatically adds an interworking veneer. To use veneers:

- you must assemble the code with the `--apcs=/interwork` option
- use a `BX lr` instruction to return, instead of `MOV pc,lr`.

Example of assembly language interworking using veneers

```

; *****
; arm.s
; *****
PRESERVE8
AREA Arm, CODE, READONLY ; Name this block of code.
IMPORT ThumbProg
ENTRY ; Mark 1st instruction to call.
ARMProg
MOV R0, #1 ; Set R0 to show in ARM code.
BL ThumbProg ; Call Thumb subroutine.
MOV R2, #3 ; Set R2 to show returned to ARM.
; Terminate execution.
MOV R0, #0x18 ; angel_SWIreason_ReportException
LDR R1, =0x20026 ; ADP_Stopped_ApplicationExit
SVC 0x123456 ; ARM semihosting (formerly SWI)
END
; *****
; thumb.s
; *****
AREA Thumb, CODE, READONLY ; Name this block of code.
THUMB ; Subsequent instructions are Thumb.
EXPORT ThumbProg
ThumbProg
MOVS R1, #2 ; Set R1 to show reached Thumb code.
BX lr ; Return to the ARM function.
END ; Mark end of this file.

```

Building the example

Follow these steps to build and link the modules:

1. To assemble the ARM code for interworking, type:

```
armasm --debug --apcs=/interwork arm.s
```

2. To assemble the Thumb code for interworking, type:

```
armasm --thumb --debug --apcs=/interwork thumb.s
```

3. To link the object files, type:

```
armlink arm.o thumb.o -o count.axf
```

Alternatively, to view the size of the interworking veneers, type:

```
armlink arm.o thumb.o -o count.axf --info=veneers
```

4. Run the image using a compatible debugger with an appropriate debug target.

Related concepts

[4.6 Assembly language interworking example on page 4-90.](#)

[4.8 C and C++ language interworking on page 4-94.](#)

[4.9 C, C++, and assembly language interworking using veneers on page 4-95.](#)

Related information

[Overview of veneers.](#)

[--apcs=qualifier...qualifier assembler option.](#)

[--debug assembler option.](#)

--thumb assembler option.
--info=topic[,topic,...] linker option.
--output=filename linker option.

4.8 C and C++ language interworking

When compiling C or C++ modules for interworking, you must specify the `--apcs=/interwork` compiler option.

C and C++ language interworking

This example shows a `main()` function implemented in Thumb that carries out an interworking call to an ARM subroutine. The ARM subroutine makes an interworking call to `printf()` in the Thumb library.

```

/*****
*      thumbmain.c  *
*****/
#include <stdio.h>
extern void arm_function(void);
int main(void)
{
    printf("Hello from Thumb\n");
    arm_function();
    printf("And goodbye from Thumb\n");
    return (0);
}
/*****
*      armsub.c    *
*****/
#include <stdio.h>
void arm_function(void)
{
    printf("Hello and Goodbye from ARM\n");
}

```

Building the example

Follow these steps to compile and link the modules:

1. To compile the Thumb code for interworking, type:

```
armcc --thumb -c --debug --apcs=/interwork thumbmain.c -o thumbmain.o
```

2. To compile the ARM code for interworking, type:

```
armcc -c --debug --apcs=/interwork armsub.c -o armsub.o
```

3. To link the object files, type:

```
armlink thumbmain.o armsub.o -o thumbtoarm.axf
```

Alternatively, to view the size of the interworking veneers, type:

```
armlink armsub.o thumbmain.o -o thumbtoarm.axf --info=veneers
```

4. Run the image using a compatible debugger with an appropriate debug target.

Related concepts

[4.6 Assembly language interworking example on page 4-90.](#)

[4.7 Interworking using veneers on page 4-92.](#)

[4.9 C, C++, and assembly language interworking using veneers on page 4-95.](#)

Related information

--apcs=qualifier...qualifier compiler option.

-c compiler option.

--debug, --no_debug compiler options.

-o filename compiler option.

--thumb compiler option.

--info=topic[,topic,...] linker option.

--output=filename linker option.

4.9 C, C++, and assembly language interworking using veneers

When compiling or assembling modules written in C, C++, or assembly language for interworking, you must specify the `--apcs=/interwork` compiler or assembler option.

C, C++, and assembly language interworking using veneers

This example shows interworking between Thumb code generated from C and ARM code written in assembly language, using veneers.

```

/*****
*      thumb.c      *
*****/
#include <stdio.h>
extern int arm_function(int);
int main(void)
{
    int i = 1;
    printf("i = %d\n", i);
    printf("And i+4 = %d\n", arm_function(i));
    return (0);
}
; ****
; arm.s
; ****
PRESERVE8
AREA Arm, CODE, READONLY ; Name this block of code.
EXPORT arm_function
arm_function
ADD    R0, R0, #4          ; Add 4 to first parameter.
BX     lr                  ; Return
END

```

Building the example

Follow these steps to build and link the modules:

1. To compile the Thumb code for interworking, type:

```
armcc --thumb --debug -c --apcs=/interwork thumb.c
```

2. To assemble the ARM code for interworking, type:

```
armasm --debug --apcs=/interwork arm.s
```

3. To link the object files, type:

```
armlink arm.o thumb.o -o add.axf
```

Alternatively, to view the size of the interworking veneers, type:

```
armlink arm.o thumb.o -o add.axf --info=veneers
```

4. Run the image using a compatible debugger with an appropriate debug target.

Related concepts

[4.6 Assembly language interworking example](#) on page 4-90.

[4.7 Interworking using veneers](#) on page 4-92.

[4.8 C and C++ language interworking](#) on page 4-94.

Related information

--apcs=qualifier...qualifier compiler option.

-c compiler option.

--debug, --no_debug compiler options.

-o filename compiler option.

--thumb compiler option.

--apcs=qualifier...qualifier assembler option.

--debug assembler option.

--info=topic[,topic,...] linker option.
--output=filename linker option.

Chapter 5

Handling Processor Exceptions

Describes how to handle the different types of exception supported by the ARM architecture.

It contains the following sections:

- [5.1 About processor exceptions](#) on page 5-99.
- [5.2 Exception handling process](#) on page 5-100.
- [5.3 Types of exception in ARMv6 and earlier, ARMv7-A and ARMv7-R profiles](#) on page 5-101.
- [5.4 Vector table for ARMv6 and earlier, ARMv7-A and ARMv7-R profiles](#) on page 5-102.
- [5.5 Processor modes and registers in ARMv6 and earlier, ARMv7-A and ARMv7-R profiles](#) on page 5-103.
- [5.6 Use of System mode for exception handling](#) on page 5-104.
- [5.7 The processor response to an exception](#) on page 5-105.
- [5.8 Return from an exception handler](#) on page 5-106.
- [5.9 Reset handlers](#) on page 5-107.
- [5.10 Data Abort handler](#) on page 5-108.
- [5.11 Interrupt handlers and levels of external interrupt](#) on page 5-109.
- [5.12 Reentrant interrupt handlers](#) on page 5-110.
- [5.13 Single-channel DMA transfer](#) on page 5-112.
- [5.14 Dual-channel DMA transfer](#) on page 5-113.
- [5.15 Interrupt prioritization](#) on page 5-114.
- [5.16 Context switch](#) on page 5-115.
- [5.17 Determining the SVC to be called](#) on page 5-116.
- [5.18 Determining the instruction set state from an SVC handler](#) on page 5-117.
- [5.19 SVC handlers in assembly language](#) on page 5-118.
- [5.20 SVC handlers in C and assembly language](#) on page 5-119.
- [5.21 Using SVCs in Supervisor mode](#) on page 5-121.
- [5.22 Calling SVCs from an application](#) on page 5-122.

- [5.23 Calling SVCs dynamically from an application](#) on page 5-123.
- [5.24 Prefetch Abort handler](#) on page 5-125.
- [5.25 Undefined instruction handlers](#) on page 5-126.
- [5.26 ARMv6-M and ARMv7-M profiles](#) on page 5-127.
- [5.27 Main and Process stacks](#) on page 5-128.
- [5.28 Types of exceptions in the microcontroller profiles](#) on page 5-129.
- [5.29 Vector table for ARMv6-M and ARMv7-M profiles](#) on page 5-130.
- [5.30 Vector Table Offset Register \(ARMv7-M only\)](#) on page 5-131.
- [5.31 Writing the exception table for ARMv6-M and ARMv7-M profiles](#) on page 5-132.
- [5.32 The Nested Vectored Interrupt Controller](#) on page 5-133.
- [5.33 Handling an exception](#) on page 5-134.
- [5.34 Configuring the System Control Space registers](#) on page 5-135.
- [5.35 Configuring individual IRQs](#) on page 5-136.
- [5.36 Supervisor calls](#) on page 5-137.
- [5.37 System timer](#) on page 5-138.
- [5.38 Configuring SysTick](#) on page 5-139.

5.1 About processor exceptions

A processor exception is an event that interrupts the normal flow of instruction execution.

During the normal flow of execution through a program, the *Program Counter* (PC) increases sequentially through the address space, with branches to nearby labels or branch with links to subroutines.

Processor exceptions occur when this normal flow of execution is diverted, to enable the processor to handle events generated by internal or external sources. Examples of such events are:

- externally generated interrupts
- an attempt by the processor to execute an undefined instruction
- accessing privileged operating system functions.

Related concepts

[5.2 Exception handling process on page 5-100.](#)

5.2 Exception handling process

The exception handling model used by ARMv7-A, ARMv7-R, ARMv6 and earlier architectures is different from the model used by the microcontroller profiles ARMv7-M and ARMv6-M.

The following figure shows the exception handling process.

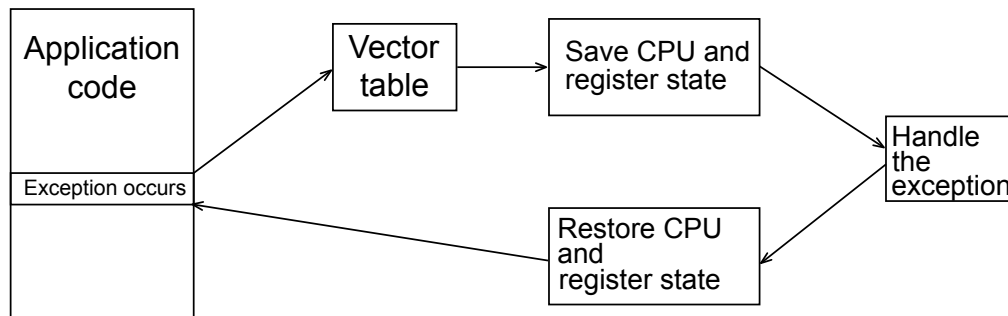


Figure 5-1 Handling an exception

When an exception occurs, control passes through an area of memory called the vector table. This is a reserved area usually at the bottom of the memory map. Within the table one word is allocated to each of the various exception types. This word contains either a form of a branch instruction or, in the case of ARMv7-M and ARMv6-M, an address to the relevant exception handler.

You can write the exception handlers in either ARM or Thumb code if the processor supports the respective instruction set. For the ARMv7-M and ARMv6-M profiles, the processor enters the exception handler that is specified in the vector table. For all other ARM processors, you must branch from the top-level handler to the code that handles the exception. Use a *Branch and exchange (BX)* if state change is required. When handling exceptions, the current processor mode, state, and registers must be preserved so that the program can resume when the appropriate exception handling routine completes.

Related concepts

[5.26 ARMv6-M and ARMv7-M profiles on page 5-127.](#)

Related references

[5.3 Types of exception in ARMv6 and earlier, ARMv7-A and ARMv7-R profiles on page 5-101.](#)

[Chapter 4 Interworking ARM and Thumb on page 4-84.](#)

5.3 Types of exception in ARMv6 and earlier, ARMv7-A and ARMv7-R profiles

Exceptions are handled in turn before returning to the original application. When exceptions occur simultaneously, they are handled in a fixed order of priority, depending on their type.

The following table shows the different types of exception recognized by ARMv6 and earlier, the ARMv7-A and ARMv7-R profiles. It is not possible for all exceptions to occur concurrently. For example, the *undefined instruction* (Undef) and *supervisor call* (SVC) exceptions are mutually exclusive because they are both triggered by executing an instruction.

On entry to an exception:

- *interrupt requests* (IRQs) are disabled for all exceptions
- *fast interrupt requests* (FIQs) are disabled for FIQ and Reset exceptions.

Table 5-1 Exception types in priority order for ARMv6 and earlier, ARMv7-A and ARMv7-R profiles

Priority (1=high, 6=low)	Exception type	Exception mode	Description
1	Reset	Supervisor	Occurs when the processor reset pin is asserted. This exception is only expected to occur for signaling power-up, or for resetting if the processor is already powered up. A soft reset can be done by branching to the reset vector.
2	Data Abort	Abort	Occurs when a data transfer instruction attempts to load or store data at an illegal address.
3	FIQ	FIQ	Occurs when the processor external fast interrupt request pin is asserted (LOW) and the F bit in the CPSR is clear.
4	IRQ	IRQ	Occurs when the processor external interrupt request pin is asserted (LOW) and the I bit in the CPSR is clear.
5	Prefetch Abort	Abort	Occurs when the processor attempts to execute an instruction that was not fetched, because the address was illegal ^g .
6	SVC	Supervisor	This is a user-defined synchronous interrupt instruction. It enables a program running in User mode, for example, to request privileged operations that run in Supervisor mode, such as an RTOS function.
6	Undefined Instruction	Undef	Occurs if neither the processor, nor any attached coprocessor, recognizes the currently executing instruction.

Because the Data Abort exception has a higher priority than the FIQ exception, the Data Abort is actually registered before the FIQ is handled. The Data Abort handler is entered, but control is then passed immediately to the FIQ handler because the FIQ remains enabled when handling a Data Abort. When the FIQ has been handled, control returns to the Data Abort Handler. This means that data transfer errors do not escape detection as they would if the FIQ was handled first.

Related concepts

[5.26 ARMv6-M and ARMv7-M profiles on page 5-127.](#)

^g An illegal virtual address is one that does not currently correspond to an address in physical memory, or one that the memory management subsystem has determined is inaccessible to the processor in its current mode.

5.4 Vector table for ARMv6 and earlier, ARMv7-A and ARMv7-R profiles

The vector table for ARMv6 and earlier, ARMv7-A and ARMv7-R profiles consists of branch or load PC instructions to the relevant handlers.

If required, you can include the FIQ handler at the end of the vector table to ensure it is handled as efficiently as possible, see the following example. Using a literal pool means that addresses can easily be modified later if necessary.

Typical vector table using a literal pool

```

AREA vectors, CODE, READONLY
ENTRY
Vector_Table
    LDR pc, Reset_Addr
    LDR pc, Undefined_Addr
    LDR pc, SVC_Addr
    LDR pc, Prefetch_Addr
    LDR pc, Abort_Addr
    NOP                               ;Reserved vector
    LDR pc, IRQ_Addr
FIQ_Handler
    ; FIQ handler code - max 4kB in size
Reset_Addr    DCD Reset_Handler
Undefined_Addr DCD Undefined_Handler
SVC_Addr      DCD SVC_Handler
Prefetch_Addr DCD Prefetch_Handler
Abort_Addr    DCD Abort_Handler
IRQ_Addr      DCD IRQ_Handler
    ...
    END
  
```

This example assumes that you have ROM at location $0x0$ on reset. Alternatively, you can use the scatter-loading mechanism to define the load and execution address of the vector table. In that case, the C library copies the vector table for you.

Note

The vector table for ARMv6 and earlier architectures supports ARM instructions only. ARMv6T2 and later architectures support both Thumb instructions and ARM instructions in the vector table. This does not apply to the ARMv6-M and ARMv7-M profiles.

Related information

[Information about scatter files.](#)

5.5 Processor modes and registers in ARMv6 and earlier, ARMv7-A and ARMv7-R profiles

The ARM architecture defines an unprivileged User mode containing 15 general purpose registers, a PC, and a CPSR. In addition, there are privileged modes, each containing a SPSR and a number of banked out registers.

Typically, an application runs in User mode, but handling exceptions requires a privileged mode. An exception changes the processor mode, and this in turn means that each exception handler has access to a certain subset of the banked out registers:

- its own *Stack Pointer* (SP)
- its own LR
- its own SPSR
- five additional general purpose registers (FIQ only).

Each exception handler must ensure that other registers are restored to their original contents on exit. You can do this by saving the contents of any registers that the handler requires onto its stack and restore them before returning.

5.6 Use of System mode for exception handling

Corruption of the link register can be a problem when handling multiple exceptions of the same type. ARMv4 and later architectures include a privileged mode called System mode, to overcome this problem.

System mode shares the same registers as User mode, it can run tasks that require privileged access, and exceptions no longer overwrite the link register.

————— **Note** —————

System mode cannot be entered by an exception. The exception handlers modify the CPSR to enter System mode.

—————

Related concepts

5.5 Processor modes and registers in ARMv6 and earlier, ARMv7-A and ARMv7-R profiles on page 5-103.

5.7 The processor response to an exception

An exception handler must save the system state when an exception occurs and restore it on return.

Processors that support Thumb state use the same basic exception handling mechanism as processors that do not support Thumb state. An exception causes the next instruction to be fetched from the appropriate vector table entry.

When an exception is generated, the processor performs the following actions:

1. Copies the CPSR into the appropriate SPSR. This saves the current mode, interrupt mask, and condition flags.
2. Switches state automatically if the current state does not match the instruction set used in the exception vector table.
3. Changes the appropriate CPSR mode bits to:
 - Change to the appropriate mode, and map in the appropriate banked out registers for that mode.
 - Disable interrupts. IRQs are disabled when any exception occurs. FIQs are disabled when an FIQ occurs and on reset.
4. Sets the appropriate LR to the return address.
5. Sets the PC to the vector address for the exception.

5.8 Return from an exception handler

After it has handled an exception, the exception handler must return execution to the main program. The method used to return depends on whether or not the exception handler uses stack operations.

In both cases, to return execution to the place where the exception occurred, an exception handler must:

- restore the CPSR from the appropriate SPSR
- restore the PC using the return address from the appropriate LR.

For a simple return that does not require the destination mode registers to be restored from the stack, the exception handler carries out these operations by performing a data processing instruction with: The return instruction required depends on the type of exception.

- the S flag set
- the PC as the destination register.

Note

You do not have to return from the reset handler because the reset handler executes your main code directly.

If the exception handler entry code uses the stack to store registers that must be preserved while it handles the exception, it can return using a load multiple instruction with the ^ qualifier. For example, an exception handler can return in one instruction using:

```
LDMFD sp!, {R0-R12, pc}^
```

To do this, the exception handler must save the following onto the stack:

- all the work registers in use when the handler is invoked
- the link register, modified to produce the same effect as the data processing instructions.

The ^ qualifier specifies that the CPSR is restored from the SPSR. It must be used only from a privileged mode.

Note

You cannot use any 16-bit Thumb instruction to return from exceptions because these are unable to restore the CPSR.

Related information

Stack implementation using LDM and STM.

5.9 Reset handlers

The operations carried out by the Reset handler depend on the system that the software is being developed for.

For example, it might:

- set up exception vectors
- initialize stacks and registers
- initialize the memory system, if using an MMU
- initialize any critical I/O devices
- enable interrupts
- change processor mode and/or state
- initialize variables required by C and call the main application.

Related concepts

[5.4 Vector table for ARMv6 and earlier, ARMv7-A and ARMv7-R profiles](#) on page 5-102.

5.10 Data Abort handler

If there is no MMU, the Data Abort handler must report the error and quit. If there is an MMU, the handler must deal with the virtual memory fault.

The instruction that caused the abort is at `1r_ABT-8` because `1r_ABT` points two instructions beyond the instruction that caused the abort.

The following types of instruction can cause this abort:

Single Register Load or Store

The response depends on the processor type:

- If the abort takes place on an ARM7™, including the ARM7TDMI, the base register, specified in the instruction, has been updated and the change must be undone.
- If the abort takes place on an ARM9™ or later processor, the address is restored by the processor to the value it had before the instruction started. No code is required to undo the change.

Swap (SWP)

There is no address register update involved with this instruction.

Load Multiple or Store Multiple

The response depends on the processor type:

- If the abort takes place on an ARM7 processor, and writeback is enabled, the base register is updated as if the whole transfer had taken place.

In the case of an LDM with the base register in the register list, the processor replaces the overwritten value with the modified base value so that recovery is possible. The original base address can then be recalculated using the number of registers involved.

- If the abort takes place on an ARM9 or later processor and writeback is enabled, the base register is restored to the value it had before the instruction started.

In each of the three cases, the MMU can load the required virtual memory into physical memory. The MMU *Fault Address Register* (FAR) contains the address that caused the abort. When this is done, the handler can return and try to execute the instruction again.

5.11 Interrupt handlers and levels of external interrupt

The ARM processor has two levels of external interrupt, FIQ and IRQ. FIQs have higher priority than IRQs.

Both FIQ and IRQ are level-sensitive active LOW signals into the processor. For an interrupt to be taken, the appropriate disable bit in the CPSR must be clear.

FIQs have higher priority than IRQs in the following ways:

- FIQs are handled first when multiple interrupts occur.
- Handling an FIQ causes IRQs and subsequent FIQs to be disabled, preventing them from being handled until after the FIQ handler enables them. This is usually done by restoring the CPSR from the SPSR at the end of the handler.

The FIQ vector is the last entry in the vector table so that the FIQ handler can be placed directly at the vector location and run sequentially from that address. This removes the requirement for a branch and its associated delay, and also means that if the system has a cache, the vector table and FIQ handler might all be locked down in one block within it. This is important because FIQs are designed to handle interrupts as quickly as possible. The five extra FIQ mode banked registers enable status to be held between calls to the handler, again increasing execution speed.

————— **Note** —————

An interrupt handler must contain code to clear the source of the interrupt.

Related concepts

[5.12 Reentrant interrupt handlers on page 5-110.](#)

5.12 Reentrant interrupt handlers

You must follow some steps to enable interrupts safely in an IRQ handler.

If an interrupt handler enables interrupts before calling a subroutine and another interrupt occurs, the return address of the subroutine stored in the IRQ mode LR is corrupted when the second IRQ is taken. This is because the processor automatically saves the return address into the IRQ mode LR for the new interrupt overwriting the return address for the subroutine. This results in an infinite loop when the subroutine in the original interrupt tries to return.

A reentrant interrupt handler must save the IRQ state, switch processor modes, and save the state for the new processor mode before branching to a nested subroutine or C function. It must also ensure that the stack is eight-byte aligned for the new processor mode before calling AAPCS-compliant compiled C code that might use LDRD or STRD instructions or eight-byte aligned stack-allocated data.

Using the `__irq` keyword in C does not cause the SPSR to be saved and restored, as required by reentrant interrupt handlers, so you must write your top level interrupt handler in assembly language.

In ARMv4 or later you can switch to System mode if you require privileged access.

Note

This method works for both IRQ and FIQ interrupts. However, because FIQ interrupts are meant to be handled as quickly as possible there is normally only one interrupt source, so it might not be necessary to provide for reentrancy.

To enable interrupts safely in an IRQ handler:

1. Construct the return address and save it on the IRQ stack.
2. Save the work registers, non callee-saved registers and IRQ mode SPSR.
3. Clear the source of the interrupt.
4. Switch to System mode, keeping IRQs disabled.
5. Check that the stack is eight-byte aligned and adjust if necessary.
6. Save the User mode LR and the adjustment, 0 or 4 for Architectures v4 or v5TE, used on the User mode SP.
7. Enable interrupts and call the C interrupt handler function.
8. When the C interrupt handler returns, disable interrupts.
9. Restore the User mode LR and the stack adjustment value.
10. Readjust the stack if necessary.
11. Switch to IRQ mode.
12. Restore other registers and IRQ mode SPSR.
13. Return from the IRQ.

The following examples show how this works for System mode. These examples assume that FIQ remains permanently enabled.

Reentrant interrupt handler for ARMv4/v5TE

```

PRESERVE8
AREA INTERRUPT, CODE, READONLY
IMPORT C_irq_handler
IMPORT identify_and_clear_source
IRQ_Handler
SUB    lr, lr, #4           ; construct the return address
PUSH  {lr}                ; and push the adjusted lr_IRQ
MRS   lr, SPSR            ; copy spsr_IRQ to lr
PUSH  {R0-R4,R12,lr}     ; save AAPCS regs and spsr_IRQ
BL    identify_and_clear_source
MSR   CPSR_c, #0x9F      ; switch to SYS mode, IRQ is
                        ; still disabled. USR mode
                        ; registers are now current.
AND   R1, sp, #4         ; test alignment of the stack
SUB   sp, sp, R1         ; remove any misalignment (0 or 4)
PUSH  {R1,lr}           ; store the adjustment and lr_USR
MSR   CPSR_c, #0x1F     ; enable IRQ
BL    C_irq_handler

```

```

MSR    CPSR_c, #0x9F      ; disable IRQ, remain in SYS mode
POP    {R1,lr}           ; restore stack adjustment and lr_USR
ADD    sp, sp, R1        ; add the stack adjustment (0 or 4)
MSR    CPSR_c, #0x92    ; switch to IRQ mode and keep IRQ
                                ; disabled. FIQ is still enabled.

POP    {R0-R4,R12,lr}   ; restore registers and
MSR    SPSR_cxsf, lr    ; spsr_IRQ
LDM    sp!, {pc}^       ; return from IRQ.
END

```

Reentrant Interrupt for ARMv6 (non vectored interrupts)

```

PRESERVE8
AREA INTERRUPT, CODE, READONLY
IMPORT C_irq_handler
IMPORT identify_and_clear_source
IRQ_Handler
SUB    lr, lr, #4
SRSDB sp!,#31           ; Save LR_irq and SPSR_irq to System mode stack
CPS    #031             ; Switch to System mode
PUSH   {R0-R3,R12}     ; Store other AAPCS registers
AND    R1, sp, #4
SUB    sp, sp, R1
PUSH   {R1, lr}
BL     identify_and_clear_source
CPSIE  i                ; Enable IRQ
BL     C_irq_handler
CPSID  i                ; Disable IRQ
POP    {R1,lr}
ADD    sp, sp, R1
POP    {R0-R3, R12}    ; Restore registers
RFEIA  sp!              ; Return using RFE from System mode stack
END

```

Related concepts

[5.6 Use of System mode for exception handling on page 5-104.](#)

Related information

ABI for the ARM Architecture Advisory Note 1- SP must be 8-byte aligned on entry to AAPCS-conforming functions.

Application Note 30: Software Prioritization of Interrupts.

5.13 Single-channel DMA transfer

An FIQ handler for a single channel uses a sequence of four instructions to handle a normal data transfer.

The following example shows an interrupt handler that performs interrupt driven I/O to memory transfers, soft DMA. The code is an FIQ handler. It uses the banked FIQ registers to maintain state between interrupts. This code is best situated at location 0x1C.

In the example code:

R8

Points to the base address of the I/O device that data is read from.

IOData

Is the offset from the base address to the 32-bit data register that is read. Reading this register clears the interrupt.

R9

Points to the memory location to which that data is being transferred.

R10

Points to the last address to transfer to.

The entire sequence for handling a normal transfer is four instructions. Insert code after the conditional return to signal that the transfer is complete.

FIQ handler

```

LDR    R11, [R8, #IOData]    ; Load port data from the IO device.
STR    R11, [R9], #4        ; Store it to memory: update the pointer.
CMP    R9, R10              ; Reached the end ?
SUBLSS pc, lr, #4          ; No, so return.
                                ; Insert transfer complete
                                ; code here.

```

Byte transfers can be made by replacing the load instructions with load byte instructions. Transfers from memory to an I/O device are made by swapping the addressing modes between the load instruction and the store instruction.

Related concepts

[5.14 Dual-channel DMA transfer on page 5-113.](#)

5.14 Dual-channel DMA transfer

An FIQ handler for two channels uses a sequence of nine instructions to handle a normal data transfer.

The example shown below handles two channels. The code is an FIQ handler. It uses the banked FIQ registers to maintain state between interrupts. It is best situated at location 0x1C.

In the example code:

R8

Points to the base address of the I/O device from which data is read.

IOPort1Active

Is the offset from the base address to a register indicating which of two ports caused the interrupt.

IOPort1

Is a bit mask indicating if the first port caused the interrupt. Otherwise it is assumed that the second port caused the interrupt.

IOPort2**IOPort2**

Are offsets to the two data registers to be read. Reading a data register clears the interrupt for the corresponding port.

R9

Points to the memory location to which data from the first port is being transferred.

R10

Points to the memory location to which data from the second port is being transferred.

R11**R12**

Point to the last address to transfer to. This is R11 for the first port, R12 for the second.

The entire sequence to handle a normal transfer takes nine instructions. Insert code after the conditional return to signal that the transfer is complete.

FIQ handler

```

LDR    sp, [R8, #IOPort1Active] ; Load status register to find which
                                ; port caused the interrupt.
TST    sp, #IOPort1Active
LDREQ  sp, [R8, #IOPort1] ; Load port 1 data.
LDRNE  sp, [R8, #IOPort2] ; Load port 2 data.
STREQ  sp, [R9], #4 ; Store to buffer 1.
STRNE  sp, [R10], #4 ; Store to buffer 2.
CMP    R9, R11 ; Reached the end?
CMPL  R10, R12 ; On either channel?
SUBSNE pc, lr, #4 ; Return
                                ; Insert transfer complete code here.

```

Byte transfers can be made by replacing the load instructions with load byte instructions. Transfers from memory to an I/O device are made by swapping the addressing modes between the conditional load instructions and the conditional store instructions.

Related concepts

[5.13 Single-channel DMA transfer on page 5-112.](#)

5.15 Interrupt prioritization

Shows the sequence of instructions to dispatch the highest priority active interrupt to its handler.

Because it is designed for use with the normal interrupt vector, IRQ, it is branched to from location 0x18.

Use external *Vectored Interrupt Controller* (VIC) hardware to prioritize the interrupt and present the high-priority active interrupt in an I/O register.

In the example code:

IntBase

Holds the base address of the interrupt controller.

IntLevel

Holds the offset of the register containing the highest-priority active interrupt.

R13

Is assumed to point to a small full descending stack.

Interrupts are enabled after ten instructions, including the branch to this code.

The specific handler for each interrupt is entered, with all registers preserved on the stack, after two more instructions.

In addition, the last three instructions of each handler are executed with interrupts turned off again, so that the SPSR can be safely recovered from the stack.

Dispatching interrupts to handlers

```

; first save the critical state
SUB    lr, lr, #4           ; Adjust the return address
                               ; before we save it.
STMDB  sp!, {lr}          ; Stack return address
MRS    lr, SPSR           ; get the SPSR ...
PUSH   {R12,lr}           ; ... and stack that plus a
                               ; working register too.
                               ; Now get the priority level of the
                               ; highest priority active interrupt.
MOV    R12, #IntBase      ; Get the interrupt controller's
                               ; base address.
LDR    R12, [R12, #IntLevel] ; Get the interrupt level (0 to 31).
                               ; Now read-modify-write the CPSR
                               ; to enable interrupts.
MRS    lr, APSR           ; Read the status register.
BIC    lr, lr, #0x80      ; Clear the I bit
                               ; (use 0x40 for the F bit).
MSR    CPSR_c, lr         ; Write it back to re-enable
                               ; interrupts and
LDR    pc, [pc, R12, LSL #2] ; jump to the correct handler.
                               ; PC base address points to this
                               ; instruction + 8
NOP                                         ; pad so the PC indexes this table.
                               ; Table of handler start addresses
DCD    Priority0Handler
DCD    Priority1Handler
DCD    Priority2Handler
; ...
Priority0Handler
PUSH   {R0-R11}           ; Save other working registers.
                               ; Insert handler code here.
; ...
POP    {R0-R11}           ; Restore working registers (not R12).
                               ; Now read-modify-write the CPSR
                               ; to disable interrupts.
MRS    R12, APSR         ; Read the status register.
ORR    R12, R12, #0x80    ; Set the I bit
                               ; (use 0x40 for the F bit).
MSR    CPSR_c, R12       ; Write it back to disable interrupts.
                               ; Now that interrupt disabled, can
                               ; safely restore SPSR then return.
POP    {r12,lr}          ; Restore R12 and get SPSR.
MSR    SPSR_cxsf, lr     ; Restore status register from R14.
LDM    sp!, {pc}^        ; Return from handler.
Priority1Handler
; ...

```

5.16 Context switch

Shows how to perform a context switch on the User mode process.

The code is based around a list of pointers to *Process Control Blocks* (PCBs) of processes that are ready to run.

This figure shows the layout of the PCBs that the example expects.

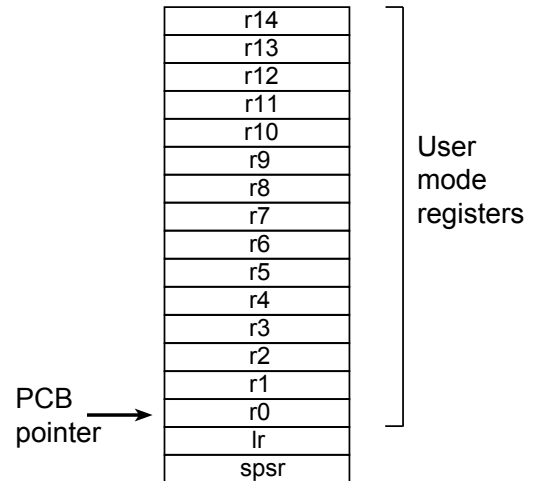


Figure 5-2 PCB layout

The pointer to the PCB of the next process to run is pointed to by R12, and the end of the list has a zero pointer. Register R13 is a pointer to the PCB, and is preserved between time slices, so that on entry it points to the PCB of the currently running process.

Context switch on the User mode process

```

STM    sp, {R0-lr}^      ; Dump user registers above R13.
MRS    R0, SPSR          ; Pick up the user status
STMDB  sp, {R0, lr}     ; and dump with return address below.
LDR    sp, [R12], #4    ; Load next process info pointer.
CMP    sp, #0           ; If it is zero, it is invalid
LDMDBNE sp, {R0, lr}   ; Pick up status and return address.
MSRNE  SPSR_cxsf, R0    ; Restore the status.
LDMNE  sp, {R0 - lr}^  ; Get the rest of the registers
NOP
SUBSNE pc, lr, #4       ; and return and restore CPSR.
                          ; Insert "no next process code" here.

```

5.17 Determining the SVC to be called

When an SVC handler is entered, it must establish which SVC is being called.

For the ARM SVC instruction, this information can be stored in bits 0-23 of the instruction itself, as shown in the following figure, or passed in an integer register, usually one of R0-R3.

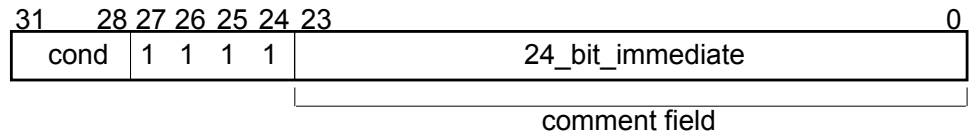


Figure 5-3 ARM SVC instruction

The top-level SVC handler can load the SVC instruction relative to the LR. Do this in assembly language, C/C++ inline, or embedded assembler.

The handler must first load the SVC instruction that caused the exception into a register. At this point, the SVC LR holds the address of the instruction that follows the SVC instruction, so the SVC is loaded into the register, in this case R0, using:

```
LDR R0, [lr,#-4]
```

The handler can then examine the comment field bits, to determine the required operation. The SVC number is extracted by clearing the top eight bits of the opcode:

```
BIC R0, R0, #0xFF000000
```

The following example shows how you can put these instructions together to form a top-level SVC handler, for exceptions that occur in ARM state only.

Top-level SVC handler

```
PRESERVE8
AREA TopLevelSVC, CODE, READONLY ; Name this block of code.
EXPORT SVC_Handler
SVC_Handler
    PUSH    {R0-R12,lr}          ; Store registers.
    LDR     R0,[lr,#-4]          ; Calculate address of SVC
                                       ; instruction and load it
                                       ; into R0.
    BIC     R0,R0,#0xFF000000    ; Mask off top 8 bits of
                                       ; instruction to give SVC number.
    ;
    ; Use value in R0 to determine which SVC routine to execute.
    ;
    LDM     sp!, {R0-R12,pc}^    ; Restore registers and return.
END
```

Related concepts

[5.18 Determining the instruction set state from an SVC handler on page 5-117.](#)

[5.19 SVC handlers in assembly language on page 5-118.](#)

[5.20 SVC handlers in C and assembly language on page 5-119.](#)

5.18 Determining the instruction set state from an SVC handler

An exception handler might have to determine whether the processor was in ARM or Thumb state when the exception occurred.

SVC handlers, especially, might have to read the instruction set state. This is done by examining the SPSR T-bit. This bit is set for Thumb state and clear for ARM state.

Both ARM and Thumb instruction sets have the SVC instruction. When calling SVCs from Thumb state, you must consider the following:

- The instruction address is at lr-2, rather than lr-4.
- The instruction itself is 16-bit, and so requires a halfword load, see the following figure.
- The SVC number is held in 8 bits instead of the 24 bits in ARM state.

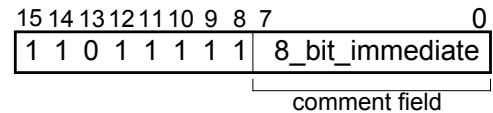


Figure 5-4 Thumb SVC instruction

The following example shows ARM code that handles an SVC exception. The range of SVC numbers accessible from Thumb state can be increased by calling SVCs dynamically.

SVC handler for exceptions in either ARM or Thumb state

```

PRESERVE8
AREA SVC_Area, CODE, READONLY
EXPORT SVC_Handler      IMPORT C_SVC_Handler
T_bit EQU 0x20          ; Thumb bit (5) of CPSR/SPSR.
SVC_Handler
    STMFD sp!, {r0-r3, r12, lr} ; Store registers
    MOV r1, sp                ; Set pointer to parameters
    MRS r0, spsr              ; Get spsr
    STMFD sp!, {r0, r3}      ; Store spsr onto stack and another
                                ; register to maintain
                                ; 8-byte-aligned stack
    TST r0, #T_bit           ; Occurred in Thumb state?
    LDRNEH r0, [lr, #-2]     ; Yes: Load halfword and...
    BICNE r0, r0, #0xFF00    ; ..extract comment field
    LDREQ r0, [lr, #-4]      ; No: Load word and...
    BICEQ r0, r0, #0xFF000000 ; ..extract comment field
    ; r0 now contains SVC number
    ; r1 now contains pointer to stacked registers
    BL C_SVC_Handler        ; Call main part of handler
    LDMFD sp!, {r0, r3}     ; Get spsr from stack
    MSR SPSR_cxsf, r0       ; Restore spsr
    LDMFD sp!, {r0-r3, r12, pc}^ ; Restore registers and return
END
    
```

Related concepts

[5.17 Determining the SVC to be called on page 5-116.](#)

[5.19 SVC handlers in assembly language on page 5-118.](#)

[5.20 SVC handlers in C and assembly language on page 5-119.](#)

5.19 SVC handlers in assembly language

The easiest way to call the handler for the requested SVC number is to use a jump table.

SVC jump table

```

AREA SVC_Area, CODE, READONLY
PRESERVE8
IMPORT SVCOutOfRange
IMPORT MaxSVC
CMP    R0,#MaxSVC          ; Range check
LDRLS  pc, [pc,R0,LSL #2]
B      SVCOutOfRange
SVCJumpTable
DCD    SVCnum0
DCD    SVCnum1
; DCD for each of other SVC routines
SVCnum0 ; SVC number 0 code
B      EndofSVC
SVCnum1 ; SVC number 1 code
B      EndofSVC
; Rest of SVC handling code
EndofSVC
; Return execution to top level
; SVC handler so as to restore
; registers and return to program.
END
  
```

If R0 contains the SVC number, the code in the preceding example can be inserted into the following example, after the BIC instruction.

Top-level SVC handler

```

PRESERVE8
AREA TopLevelSVC, CODE, READONLY ; Name this block of code.
EXPORT SVC_Handler
SVC_Handler
PUSH    {R0-R12,lr}          ; Store registers.
LDR     R0,[lr,#-4]          ; Calculate address of SVC
; instruction and load it
; into R0.
;
;
BIC     R0,R0,#0xFF000000    ; Mask off top 8 bits of
; instruction to give SVC number.
;
; Use value in R0 to determine which SVC routine to execute.
;
LDM     sp!, {R0-R12,pc}^    ; Restore registers and return.
END
  
```

Related concepts

[5.17 Determining the SVC to be called on page 5-116.](#)

[5.18 Determining the instruction set state from an SVC handler on page 5-117.](#)

[5.20 SVC handlers in C and assembly language on page 5-119.](#)

5.20 SVC handlers in C and assembly language

Although the top-level handler must always be written in ARM assembly language, the routines that handle each SVC can be written in either assembly language or in C.

The top-level handler uses a BL instruction to jump to the appropriate C function. For example:

```
BL    C_SVC_Handler    ; Call C routine to handle the SVC
```

You can add this instruction to the SVC_Handler routine, after the BIC instruction, shown in the following example:

Top-level SVC handler

```
PRESERVE8
AREA TopLevelSVC, CODE, READONLY ; Name this block of code.
EXPORT SVC_Handler
SVC_Handler
PUSH    {R0-R12,lr}          ; Store registers.
LDR     R0,[lr,#-4]          ; Calculate address of SVC
                                           ; instruction and load it
                                           ; into R0.
                                           ;
BIC     R0,R0,#0xFF000000    ; Mask off top 8 bits of
                                           ; instruction to give SVC number.
;
; Use value in R0 to determine which SVC routine to execute.
;
LDM     sp!, {R0-R12,pc}^    ; Restore registers and return.
END
```

Because the SVC number is loaded into R0 by the assembly routine, this is passed to the C function as the first parameter. The function can use this value in, for example, a switch() statement, see the following example:

SVC handler in C function

```
void C_SVC_Handler (unsigned number)
{
    switch (number)
    {
        case 0 :                /* SVC number 0 code */
            ...
            break;
        case 1 :                /* SVC number 1 code */
            ...
            break;
        ...
        default :               /* Unknown SVC - report error */
    }
}
```

The Supervisor mode stack space might be limited, so avoid using functions that require a large amount of stack space.

```
MOV     R1, sp                ; Second parameter to C routine...
                                           ; ...is pointer to register values.
BL     C_SVC_Handler         ; Call C routine to handle the SVC.
```

You can pass values in and out of an SVC handler written in C, provided that the top-level handler passes the stack pointer value into the C function as the second parameter, in R1, and the C function is updated to access it:

```
void C_SVC_Handler(unsigned number, unsigned *reg)
```

The C function can now access the values contained in the registers at the time the SVC instruction was encountered in the main application code, see the following example. It can read from them:

```
value_in_reg_0 = reg [0];
value_in_reg_1 = reg [1];
value_in_reg_2 = reg [2];
value_in_reg_3 = reg [3];
```

and also write back to them:

```
reg [0] = updated_value_0;  
reg [1] = updated_value_1;  
reg [2] = updated_value_2;  
reg [3] = updated_value_3;
```

This causes the updated value to be written into the appropriate stack position, and then restored into the register by the top-level handler.

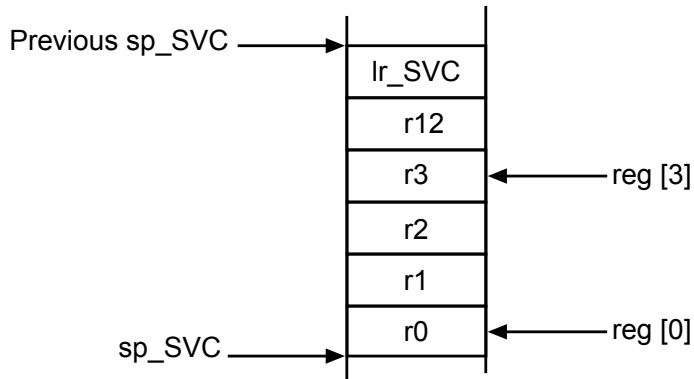


Figure 5-5 Accessing the Supervisor mode stack

Related concepts

- 5.17 *Determining the SVC to be called* on page 5-116.
- 5.18 *Determining the instruction set state from an SVC handler* on page 5-117.
- 5.19 *SVC handlers in assembly language* on page 5-118.

5.21 Using SVCs in Supervisor mode

If you call an SVC while in Supervisor mode you must store SVC LR and SPSR to ensure that their original values are not lost.

When an SVC instruction is executed:

1. The processor enters Supervisor mode.
2. The CPSR is stored into the SVC SPSR.
3. The return address is stored in the SVC LR.

If the processor is already in Supervisor mode, the SVC LR and SPSR are corrupted, unless you store them.

For example, if the handler routine for a particular SVC number calls another SVC, you must ensure that the handler routine stores both SVC LR and SPSR on the stack. This guarantees that each invocation of the handler saves the information required to return to the instruction following the SVC that invoked it. The following example shows how to do this.

SVC Handler

```

AREA SVC_Area, CODE, READONLY
PRESERVE8
EXPORT SVC_Handler
IMPORT C_SVC_Handler
T_bit EQU 0x20
SVC_Handler
    PUSH    {R0-R3,R12,lr}      ; Store registers.
    MOV     R1, sp              ; Set pointer to parameters.
    MRS     R0, SPSR           ; Get SPSR.
    PUSH    {R0,R3}           ; Store SPSR onto stack and another
                                ; register to maintain
                                ; 8-byte-aligned stack. Only
                                ; required for nested SVCs.
    TST     R0,#0x20           ; Occurred in Thumb state?
    LDRHNE R0,[lr,#-2]         ; Yes: load halfword and...
    BICNE   R0,R0,#0xFF00     ; ..extract comment field.
    LDREQ   R0,[lr,#-4]         ; No: load word and...
    BICEQ   R0,R0,#0xFF000000 ; ..extract comment field.
                                ; R0 now contains SVC number
                                ; R1 now contains pointer to stacked
                                ; registers.
    BL     C_SVC_Handler       ; Call C routine to handle the SVC.
    POP     {R0,R3}           ; Get SPSR from stack.
    MSR     SPSR_cf, R0        ; Restore SPSR.
    LDM     sp!, {R0-R3,R12,pc}^ ; Restore registers and return.
END

```

Nested SVCs in C and C++

You can write nested SVCs in C or C++. Code generated by the compiler stores and reloads `lr_SVC` as necessary.

Related concepts

[5.7 The processor response to an exception on page 5-105.](#)

5.22 Calling SVCs from an application

You can call an SVC from assembly language or C/C++.

In assembly language, set up any required register values and issue the relevant SVC. For example:

```

MOV    R0, #65    ; load R0 with the value 65
SVC    0x0        ; Call SVC 0x0 with parameter value in R0

```

The SVC instruction can be conditionally executed, as can almost all ARM instructions.

From C/C++, declare the SVC as an `__svc` function, and call it. For example:

```

__svc(0) void my_svc(int);
.
.
.
my_svc(65);

```

This enables an SVC to be compiled inline, without additional calling overhead, provided that:

- any arguments are passed in R0-R3 only
- any results are returned in R0-R3 only.

The parameters are passed to the SVC as if the SVC were a real function call. However, if there are between two and four return values, you must tell the compiler that the return values are being returned in a structure, and use the `__value_in_regs` directive. This is because a `struct`-valued function is usually treated as if it were a `void` function whose first argument is the address where the result structure must be placed.

The following examples show an SVC handler that provides SVC numbers 0x0, 0x1, 0x2 and 0x3. SVC 0x0 and SVC 0x1 each take two integer parameters and return a single result. SVC 0x2 takes four parameters and returns a single result. SVC 0x3 takes four parameters and returns four results.

main.c

```

#include <stdio.h>
#include "svc.h"
unsigned *svc_vec = (unsigned *)0x08;
extern void SVC_Handler(void);
int main( void )
{
    int result1, result2;
    struct four_results res_3;
    Install_Handler( (unsigned) SVC_Handler, svc_vec );
    printf("result1 = multiply_two(2,4) = %d\n", result1 = multiply_two(2,4));
    printf("result2 = multiply_two(3,6) = %d\n", result2 = multiply_two(3,6));
    printf("add_two( result1, result2 ) = %d\n", add_two( result1, result2 ));
    printf("add_multiply_two(2,4,3,6) = %d\n", add_multiply_two(2,4,3,6));
    res_3 = many_operations( 12, 4, 3, 1 );
    printf("res_3.a = %d\n", res_3.a );
    printf("res_3.b = %d\n", res_3.b );
    printf("res_3.c = %d\n", res_3.c );
    printf("res_3.d = %d\n", res_3.d );
    return 0;
}

```

svc.h

```

__svc(0) int multiply_two(int, int);
__svc(1) int add_two(int, int);
__svc(2) int add_multiply_two(int, int, int, int);
struct four_results
{
    int a;
    int b;
    int c;
    int d;
};
__svc(3) __value_in_regs struct four_results
many_operations(int, int, int, int);

```

5.23 Calling SVCs dynamically from an application

In some circumstances it might be necessary to call an SVC whose number is not known until run-time.

This situation might occur, for example, when there are a number of related operations that can be performed on an object, and each operation has its own SVC. In this case, the methods described in this topic are appropriate.

There are several ways of dealing with this, for example:

- Construct the SVC instruction from the SVC number, store it somewhere, then execute it.
- Use a generic SVC that takes, as an extra argument, a code for the actual operation to be performed on its arguments. The generic SVC decodes the operation and performs it.

The second mechanism can be implemented in assembly language by passing the required operation number in a register, typically R0 or R12. You can then rewrite the SVC handler to act on the value in the appropriate register.

Because some value has to be passed to the SVC in the comment field, it is possible for a combination of these two methods to be used.

For example, an operating system might make use of only a single SVC instruction and employ a register to pass the number of the required operation. This leaves the rest of the SVC space available for application-specific SVCs. You can use this method if the overhead of extracting the operation number from the instruction is too great in a particular application. This is how the ARM and Thumb semihosted instructions are implemented.

The following example shows how to use `__svc` to map a C function call onto a semihosting call:

Mapping a C function onto a semihosting call

```
#ifdef __thumb
/* Thumb Semihosting */
#define SemiSVC 0xAB
#else
/* ARM Semihosting */
#define SemiSVC 0x123456
#endif
/* Semihosting call to write a character */
__svc(SemiSVC) void Semihosting(unsigned op, char *c);
#define WriteC(c) Semihosting(0x3,c)
void write_a_character(int ch)
{
    char tempch = ch;
    WriteC( &tempch );
}
```

The compiler includes a mechanism to support the use of R12 to pass the value of the required operation. Under the AAPCS, R12 is the `ip` register and has a dedicated role only during function calls. At other times, you can use it as a scratch register. The arguments to the generic SVC are passed in registers R0-R3 and values are optionally returned in R0-R3. The operation number passed in R12 can be the number of the SVC to be called by the generic SVC. However, this is not required.

The following example shows a C fragment that uses a generic, or indirect SVC.

Using indirect SVC

```
__svc_indirect(0x80)
    unsigned SVC_ManipulateObject(unsigned operationNumber,
    unsigned object,unsigned parameter);
unsigned DoSelectedManipulation(unsigned object,
    unsigned parameter, unsigned operation)
{
    return SVC_ManipulateObject(operation, object, parameter);
}
```

This produces the following code:

```
DoSelectedManipulation
    PUSH    {R4,lr}
    MOV     R12,R2
```

```
SVC      #0x80  
POP      {R4,pc}  
END
```

It is also possible to pass the SVC number in R0 from C using the `__svc` mechanism. For example, if SVC 0x0 is used as the generic SVC, operation 0 is a character read, and operation 1 is a character write, you can set up the following:

```
__svc (0) char __ReadCharacter (unsigned op);  
__svc (0) void __WriteCharacter (unsigned op, char c);
```

These can be used in a more reader-friendly way by defining the following:

```
#define ReadCharacter () __ReadCharacter (0);  
#define WriteCharacter (c) __WriteCharacter (1, c);
```

However, if you use R0 in this way, then only three registers are available for passing parameters to the SVC. Usually, if you have to pass more parameters to a subroutine in addition to R0-R3, you can do this using the stack. However, stacked parameters are not easily accessible to an SVC handler, because they typically exist on the User mode stack rather than the Supervisor mode stack employed by the SVC handler.

Alternatively, you can use one of the registers, typically R1, to point to a block of memory storing the other parameters.

Related concepts

[5.22 Calling SVCs from an application on page 5-122.](#)

5.24 Prefetch Abort handler

If the system has no MMU, the Prefetch Abort handler can report the error and quit. Otherwise the address that caused the abort must be restored into physical memory.

`lr_ABT` points to the instruction at the address following the one that caused the abort, so the address to be restored is at `lr_ABT-4`. The virtual memory fault for that address can be dealt with and the instruction fetch retried. The handler therefore returns to the same instruction rather than the following one, for example:

```
SUBS    pc, lr, #4
```

5.25 Undefined instruction handlers

In some cases, an undefined instruction exception can be handled by a software emulator for a coprocessor.

An undefined instruction exception is generated in the following cases:

- if the processor does not recognize an instruction
- if the processor recognizes an instruction as a coprocessor instruction, but no coprocessor recognizes it.

It might be that the instruction is intended for a coprocessor, but the relevant coprocessor, for example VFP, is not attached to the system, or is disabled. However, a software emulator for such a coprocessor might be available.

Such an emulator must:

1. Attach itself to the undefined instruction vector and store the old contents.
2. Examine the undefined instruction to see if it has to be emulated. This is similar to the way in which an SVC handler extracts the number of an SVC, but rather than extracting the bottom 24 bits, the emulator must extract bits [27:24].
These bits determine whether the instruction is a coprocessor operation in the following way:
 - If bits [27:24] = b1110 or b110x, the instruction is a coprocessor instruction.
 - If bits [8:11] show that this coprocessor emulator has to handle the instruction, the emulator must process the instruction and return to the user program.
3. Otherwise the emulator must pass the exception onto the original handler, or the next emulator in the chain, using the vector stored when the emulator was installed.

When a chain of emulators is exhausted, the undefined instruction handler must report an error and quit.

————— **Note** —————

The pre-ARMv6T2 Thumb instruction set does not have coprocessor instructions, so there is no requirement for the undefined instruction handler to emulate such instructions.

—————

5.26 ARMv6-M and ARMv7-M profiles

The microcontroller profiles use a different exception handling model from that used by other architectures and profiles.

The microcontroller profiles support:

- two operation modes, Thread mode and Handler mode
- two execution modes, Privileged mode and User mode.

Thread mode is entered on reset and normally on return from an exception. When in thread mode, code can be executed in either Privileged or User mode.

Handler mode is entered as a result of an exception. All code is executed as Privileged. The processor automatically switches to Privileged mode when exceptions occur.

Privileged mode has full access rights.

User mode has limited access rights. The limitations include restrictions on:

- instruction use, for example which fields can be used in MSR instructions
- the use of certain coprocessor registers
- access to memory and peripherals based on system design
- access to memory and peripherals imposed by the MPU configuration.

You can change from Privileged Thread to User Thread mode by clearing CONTROL[0] using an MSR instruction. However, you cannot directly change to privileged mode from user mode without going through an exception,

Related concepts

[5.36 Supervisor calls on page 5-137.](#)

Related references

[5.3 Types of exception in ARMv6 and earlier, ARMv7-A and ARMv7-R profiles on page 5-101.](#)

5.27 Main and Process stacks

The microcontroller profiles support two different stacks, a main stack and a process stack.

There are two stack pointers in a microcontroller profile, one for each stack. Only one stack pointer is visible at a time, depending on the stack in use.

The main stack is used at reset, and on entry to an exception handler. To use the process stack it must be selected. You can do this while in Thread Mode, by writing to CONTROL[1] using an MSR instruction.

————— **Note** —————

Your initialization or context switching code must initialize the process stack pointer.

5.28 Types of exceptions in the microcontroller profiles

The microcontroller profiles recognize a different set of exceptions from other profiles and architectures.

The following table shows the different types of exception recognized by the microcontroller profiles. Each exception is handled in turn before returning to the original application. When multiple exceptions occur simultaneously, they are handled in a fixed order of priority.

Table 5-2 Exception types in priority order for the microcontroller profiles

Position	Exception	Priority	Disable	Description
1	Reset	-3	No	
2	NMI	-2	No	<i>Non-Maskable Interrupt (NMI)</i>
3	HardFault	-1	No	All faults not covered by other exceptions
4	MemManage	configurable	Can be	Memory protection errors (ARMv7-M only)
5	BusFault	configurable	Can be	Other memory faults (ARMv7-M only)
6	UsageFault	configurable	Can be	Instruction execution faults other than memory faults (ARMv7-M only)
7-10	Reserved	-	-	
11	SVCall	configurable	Can be	Synchronous SVC call caused by execution of SVC instruction
12	Debug Monitor	configurable	Can be	Synchronous debug event (ARMv7-M only)
13	Reserved	-	-	
14	PendSV	configurable	Can be	Asynchronous SVC call
15	SysTick	configurable	Can be	System timer tick
16 and above	External Interrupt	configurable	Can be	External interrupt

Exceptions with a lower priority number have a higher priority status. For example, if a processor is in Handler mode, an exception is taken if it has a lower priority number than the exception currently being handled. Any exception with the same priority number or higher is pending.

When an exception handler terminates:

- If there are no exceptions pending, the processor returns to Thread mode, and execution returns to the application program.
- If there are any exceptions pending, execution passes to the handler of the pending exception with the lowest priority number. If there are two pending exceptions with the same lowest priority number, the exception with the lowest exception number is handled first.

5.29 Vector table for ARMv6-M and ARMv7-M profiles

The vector table for the microcontroller profiles consists of addresses to the relevant handlers.

The handler for exception number n is held at ($vectorbaseaddress + 4 * n$).

In ARMv7-M processors you can specify the *vectorbaseaddress* in the *Vector Table Offset Register* (VTOR) to relocate the vector table. The default location on reset is $0x0$ (CODE space). For ARMv6-M, the vector table base address is fixed at $0x0$. The word at *vectorbaseaddress* holds the reset value of the main stack pointer.

————— **Note** —————

The least significant bit, bit[0] of each address in the vector table must be set or a HardFault exception is generated. ARM Compiler toolchain normally enables this for you if Thumb symbol names are used in the table.

—————

Related concepts

[5.30 Vector Table Offset Register \(ARMv7-M only\)](#) on page 5-131.

[5.31 Writing the exception table for ARMv6-M and ARMv7-M profiles](#) on page 5-132.

Related references

[5.28 Types of exceptions in the microcontroller profiles](#) on page 5-129.

5.30 Vector Table Offset Register (ARMv7-M only)

The Vector Table Offset Register locates the vector table in CODE or SRAM space.

When setting a different location, the offset must be aligned based on the number of exceptions in the table. This means that the minimal alignment is 32 words that you can use for up to 16 interrupts. For more interrupts, you must adjust the alignment by rounding up to the next power of two. For example, if you require 21 interrupts, the alignment must be on a 64-word boundary because table size is 37 words, next power of two is 64.

5.31 Writing the exception table for ARMv6-M and ARMv7-M profiles

The easiest way to populate the vector table is to use a scatter file to place a C array of function pointers at memory address `0x0`.

You can use the C array to configure the initial stack pointer, image entry point and the addresses of the exception handlers, see the following example.

Note

Some features shown in this example are not available in ARMv6-M. To maintain alignment you must reserve the space by entering 0 in the vector table.

Example C structure for exception handlers

```
/* Filename: exceptions.c */
typedef void(* const ExecFuncPtr)(void);
/* Place table in separate section */
#pragma arm section rodata="exceptions_area"
ExecFuncPtr exception_table[] = {
    (ExecFuncPtr)&Image$$ARM_LIB_STACKHEAP$$ZI$$Limit,
    /* Initial Stack Pointer, from linker-generated symbol */
    (ExecFuncPtr)&__main, /* Initial PC, set to entry point */
    &NMIException,
    &HardFaultException,
    &MemManageException, /* ARMv7-M only (0 for ARMv6-M) */
    &BusFaultException, /* ARMv7-M only (0 for ARMv6-M) */
    &UsageFaultException, /* ARMv7-M only (0 for ARMv6-M) */
    0, 0, 0, 0, /* Reserved */
    &SVCHandler, /* Only available with OS extensions */
    &DebugMonitor, /* ARMv7-M only (0 for ARMv6-M) */
    0, /* Reserved */
    &PendSVC, /* Only available with OS extensions */
    (ExecFuncPtr)&SysTickHandler, /* Only available with OS extensions */
    /* Configurable interrupts start here...*/
    &InterruptHandler,
    &InterruptHandler,
    &InterruptHandler
    /*
    :
    */
};
#pragma arm section
```

Related concepts

[5.29 Vector table for ARMv6-M and ARMv7-M profiles](#) on page 5-130.

[5.30 Vector Table Offset Register \(ARMv7-M only\)](#) on page 5-131.

Related information

[Information about scatter files.](#)

5.32 The Nested Vectored Interrupt Controller

The *Nested Vectored Interrupt Controller*, NVIC is the interrupt controller used in the microcontroller profiles.

Depending on the implementation, the NVIC can support:

ARMv6-M

1, 8, 16, or 32 external interrupts with 4 different priority levels.

ARMv7-M

up to 240 external interrupts with up to 256 different priority levels that can be dynamically reprioritized. The NVIC also supports the tail-chaining of interrupts.

The microcontroller profiles support both level and pulse interrupt sources. The processor state is saved automatically by hardware on interrupt entry and is restored on interrupt exit.

The use of an NVIC in the microcontroller profiles means that the vector table is very different from other ARM processors, because it consists of addresses not instructions. The initial stack pointer and the address of the reset handler must be located at $0x0$ and $0x4$ respectively. These addresses are loaded into the SP and PC registers by the processor at reset.

5.33 Handling an exception

In microcontroller profiles, exception prioritization, nesting of exceptions, and saving of corruptible registers are handled entirely by the processor to provide efficiency and to minimize interrupt latency.

Interrupts are automatically enabled on entry to every exception handler which means that you must remove any top-level reentrant code from projects written for other processors. If you require interrupts to be disabled then you must handle this in your code and ensure that they are enabled on return from an exception.

Note

Exception handlers must clear the interrupt source.

Microcontroller profiles have no FIQ input. Any peripheral that signals an FIQ on projects from other processors must be moved to a high-priority external interrupt. It might be necessary to check that the handler for this kind of interrupt does not expect to use the banked FIQ registers, because microcontroller profiles do not have banked registers, and you must stack R8-R12 as for any other normal IRQ handler.

Microcontroller profiles also provide a high priority *Non Maskable Interrupt* (NMI) which you cannot disable.

Simple C exception handler example

Exception handlers for microcontroller profiles are not required to save or restore the system state and can be written as ordinary, ABI-compliant C functions. However, it is recommended that you use the `__irq` keyword to identify the function as an interrupt routine, see the following example.

```
__irq void SysTickHandler(void)
{
    printf("----- SysTick Interrupt -----");
}
```

8 byte stack alignment

The *Application Binary Interface* (ABI) for the ARM Architecture requires that the stack must be 8-byte aligned on all external interfaces, such as calls between functions in different source files. However, code does not have to maintain 8-byte stack alignment internally, for example in leaf functions. This means that when an IRQ occurs the stack might not be correctly 8-byte aligned.

ARMv7-M processors can automatically align the stack pointer when an exception occurs. You can enable this behavior by setting STKALIGN (bit 9) in the Configuration Control Register at address 0xE000ED14.

ARMv6-M processors always enable this behavior however, it is recommended that you manually set STKALIGN (bit 9) so that your image is forward compatible with ARMv7-M processors.

Note

If you are using a revision 0 Cortex-M3 processor STKALIGN is not supported, therefore the adjustment is not performed in hardware and needs to be done by software. The compiler can generate code in your IRQ handlers that correctly aligns the stack. To do this you must prefix your IRQ handlers with `__irq` and use the `--cpu=Cortex-M3-rev0` compiler switch, not `--cpu=Cortex-M3`.

5.34 Configuring the System Control Space registers

The *System Control Space* (SCS) is an address space that provides registers for system control and configuration.

The *System Control Space* (SCS) registers are located at `0xE000E000`. You can use a structure to represent such a large number of individual registers and related offsets, see the following example. You can then position the structure in the correct memory location using a scatter file, using a similar method to the vector table.

The following example shows code for both the Cortex-M1 and Cortex-M3 processors:

SCS register structure and definition

```
typedef volatile struct {
    int MasterCtrl;
    int IntCtrlType;
    int zReserved008_00c[2];          /* Reserved space */
    struct {
        int Ctrl;
        int Reload;
        int Value;
        int Calibration;
    } SysTick;
    int zReserved020_0fc[(0x100-0x20)/4]; /* Reserved space */
    /* Offset 0x0100
    * Additional space allocated to ensure alignment
    */
    struct {
        int Enable[32];
        int Disable[32];
        int Set[32];
        int Clear[32];
        int Active[64];             /* ARMv7-M only */
        int Priority[64];
    } NVIC;
    int zReserved0x500_0xcfc[(0xd00-0x500)/4]; /* Reserved space */
    /* Offset 0x0d00 */
    int CPUID;
    int IRQcontrolState;
    int ExceptionTableOffset;
    int AIRC;
    int SysCtrl;                   /* ARMv7-M only */
    int ConfigCtrl;               /* ARMv7-M only */
    int SystemPriority[3];        /* ARMv7-M only */
    int zReserved0xd40_0xd90[(0xd90-0xd40)/4]; /* Reserved space */
    /* Offset 0x0d90 */
    struct {
        int Type;                 /* ARMv7-M only */
        int Ctrl;                 /* ARMv7-M only */
        int RegionNumber;         /* ARMv7-M only */
        int RegionBaseAddr;      /* ARMv7-M only */
        int RegionAttrSize;      /* ARMv7-M only */
    } MPU;                       /* ARMv7-M only */
} SCS_t;

/* Place SCS registers struct in a separate section so it can be located using a scatter
file */
#pragma arm section zidata="scs_registers"
SCS_t SCS;
#pragma arm section
```

Note

The contents of the SCS registers might be different for your implementation. For example, there might be no SysTick registers if the Operating System extension is not implemented.

5.35 Configuring individual IRQs

Each IRQ has an individual enable bit in the Interrupt Set Enable Registers, part of the NVIC registers. To enable or disable an IRQ, you must set the corresponding enable bit to either 1 or 0 respectively.

See the reference manual for the device you are using for specific information about the Interrupt Set Enable Register.

The following example shows a typical function that enables an IRQ for an SCS structure.

IRQ Enable Function

```
void NVIC_enableISR(unsigned isr)
{
    /* The isr argument is the number of the interrupt to enable. */
    SCS.NVIC.Enable[ (isr/32) ] = 1<<(isr % 32);
}
```

Note

Some registers in the NVIC region can only be accessed from Privileged mode.

You can assign a priority level to each individual interrupt using the Interrupt Priority Registers apart from Hard Fault, *Non Maskable Interrupt* (NMI), and reset which have fixed priorities.

Related concepts

[5.34 Configuring the System Control Space registers on page 5-135.](#)

5.36 Supervisor calls

The SVC instruction generates an SVC. A typical use for SVCs is to request privileged operations or access to system resources from an operating system.

The SVC instruction has a number embedded within it, often referred to as the SVC number. On most ARM processors, the SVC number indicates the service that is being requested. On microcontroller profiles, the processor saves the argument registers to the stack on the initial exception entry.

A late-arriving exception, taken before the first instruction of the SVC handler executes, might corrupt the copy of the arguments still held in R0 to R3. This means that the stack copy of the arguments must be used by the SVC handler. Any return value must also be passed back to the caller by modifying the stacked register values. In order to do this, a short piece of assembly code must be implemented at the start of the SVC handler. This identifies where the registers are saved, extracts the SVC number from the instruction, and passes the number, and a pointer to the arguments, to the main body of the handler written in C.

The following example shows an example SVC handler. This code tests the EXC_RETURN value set by the processor to determine which stack pointer was in use when the SVC was called. This can be useful for reentrant SVCs, but is unnecessary on most systems because in a typical system design, SVCs are only called from user code that uses the process stack. In such cases, the assembly code can consist of a single MSR instruction followed by a tail calling branch (B instruction) to the C body of the handler.

Example SVC Handler

```

__asm void SVCHandler(void)
{
    IMPORT SVCHandler_main
    TST lr, #4
    ITE EQ
    MRSEQ R0, MSP
    MRSNE R0, PSP
    B SVCHandler_main
}
void SVCHandler_main(unsigned int * svc_args)
{
    unsigned int svc_number;
    /*
    * Stack contains:
    * R0, R1, R2, R3, R12, R14, the return address and xPSR
    * First argument (R0) is svc_args[0]
    */
    svc_number = ((char *)svc_args[6])[-2];
    switch(svc_number)
    {
        case SVC_00:
            /* Handle SVC 00 */
            break;
        case SVC_01:
            /* Handle SVC 01 */
            break;
        default:
            /* Unknown SVC */
            break;
    }
}

```

The following example shows how you can make different declarations for a number of SVCs. `__svc` is a compiler keyword that replaces a function call with an SVC instruction containing the specified number.

Example of calling an SVC from C code

```

#define SVC_00 0x00
#define SVC_01 0x01
void __svc(SVC_00) svc_zero(const char *string);
void __svc(SVC_01) svc_one(const char *string);
int call_system_func(void)
{
    svc_zero("String to pass to SVC handler zero");
    svc_one("String to pass to a different OS function");
}

```

5.37 System timer

The SCS includes a system timer, SysTick, that an operating system can use to ease porting from another platform.

Software can poll SysTick, or you can configure it to generate an interrupt. The SysTick interrupt has its own entry in the vector table and therefore can have its own handler.

The following table describes the registers that you use to configure SysTick.

Table 5-3 Registers available for configuring SysTick

Name	Address	Description
SysTick Control and Status	0xE000E010	Basic control of SysTick: enable, clock source, interrupt, or poll.
SysTick Reload Value	0xE000E014	Value to load Current Value register when 0 is reached.
SysTick Current Value	0xE000E018	The current value of the count down.
SysTick Calibration Value	0xE000E01C	Contains the current value of the count down.

Related concepts

[5.38 Configuring SysTick on page 5-139.](#)

5.38 Configuring SysTick

To configure SysTick, load the interval required between SysTick events to the SysTick Reload Value register.

The timer interrupt, or COUNTFLAG bit in the SysTick Control and Status register, is activated on the transition from 1 to 0, therefore it activates every n+1 clock ticks. If you require a period of 100, write 99 to the SysTick Reload Value register. The SysTick Reload Value register supports values between 0x1 and 0x0FFFFFFF.

If you want to use SysTick to generate an event at a timed interval, for example 1ms, you can use the SysTick Calibration Value Register to scale your value for the Reload register. The SysTick Calibration Value Register is a read-only register that contains the number of pulses for a period of 10ms, in the TENMS field, bits[23:0].

This register also has a SKEW bit. Bit[30] == 1 indicates that the calibration for 10ms in the TENMS section is not exactly 10ms due to clock frequency. Bit[31] == 1 indicates that the reference clock is not provided.

————— **Note** —————

For Cortex-M1 processors, the TENMS field reads as zero because the calibration value is unknown.

The Control and Status Register can poll the timer either by reading COUNTFLAG, bit[16] and the SysTick generating an interrupt.

By default, SysTick is configured for polling mode. In this mode, user code polls COUNTFLAG, to ascertain if the SysTick event had occurred. This is indicated by COUNTFLAG being set. Reading the Control and Status register clears COUNTFLAG. To configure SysTick to generate an interrupt, set TICKINT, bit[1] of the SysTick Control and Status register, to 1. You must also enable the appropriate interrupt in the NVIC, and select the clock source using CLKSOURCE, bit[2]. Setting this to 1 selects the processor clock, and 0 selects the external reference clock.

————— **Note** —————

For ARMv6-M processors, the CLKSOURCE bit is set because SysTick always uses the processor clock.

You can enable the timer by setting bit[0] of the SysTick Status and Control register.

Chapter 6

Debug Communications Channel

Describes how to use the *Debug Communications Channel* (DCC).

It contains the following sections:

- [6.1 About the Debug Communications Channel](#) on page 6-141.
- [6.2 DCC communication between target and host debug tools](#) on page 6-142.
- [6.3 Interrupt-driven debug communications](#) on page 6-143.
- [6.4 Access from Thumb state](#) on page 6-145.

6.1 About the Debug Communications Channel

The EmbeddedICE[®] logic in ARM processors contains a debug communications channel. This enables data to be passed between the target and the host debug tools.

Related concepts

[6.2 DCC communication between target and host debug tools](#) on page 6-142.

[6.3 Interrupt-driven debug communications](#) on page 6-143.

[6.4 Access from Thumb state](#) on page 6-145.

6.2 DCC communication between target and host debug tools

The DCC can be accessed by a program running on the target, and by the host debugger.

The target accesses the DCC as coprocessor 14 on the processor using the ARM instructions MCR and MRC. The following figure shows three DCC registers to control and transfer data between the target and host debug tools.

Read register

For the target to read data sent from the host debug tools.

Write register

For the target to write messages to the host debug tools.

Control register

To provide handshaking information for the target and the host debug tools.

For pre-ARMv6 processors:

Bit 1 (W bit)

Clear when the target can send data.

Bit 0 (R bit)

Set when there is data for the target to read.

For ARMv6 and later processors:

Bit 29 (W bit)

Clear when the target can send data.

Bit 30 (R bit)

Set when there is data for the target to read.

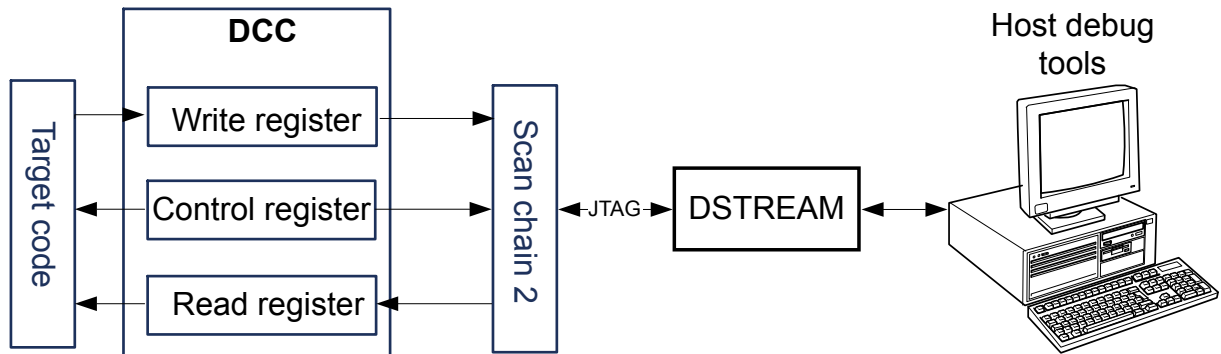


Figure 6-1 DCC communication between target and host debug tools

For more information, see the Technical Reference Manual for your processor.

Related information

Further reading.

6.3 Interrupt-driven debug communications

Shows a simple DCC routine in which text sent from the debug tools is echoed back from the target with a change of case.

Build an executable image from this example and run it on your target using the JTAG port. See your debugger documentation for instructions on how to communicate with your target through DCC.

DCC communication between target and host debug tools

```
; Copyright ARM Ltd 2008. All rights reserved.
AREA DCC, CODE, READONLY
ENTRY
; Global Variables (for assembly time substitution)
GBLS   SReg
; Debug Status and Control Register name
GBLS   DReg
; Data Register name (same for reading and writing)
GBLS   TestFull
; R bit mask for testing whether the data register is ready to
; read from.
GBLS   TestEmpty
; W bit mask for testing whether the data register is ready to
; write to.
; select which architecture group to assemble for
IF :DEF:pre_v6           ; assemble for v6 and earlier processors
    INFO 0, "Assembling for pre_v6..."
SReg   SETS   "c0,c0"
DReg   SETS   "c1,c0"
TestFull SETS   "#1"
TestEmpty SETS   "#2"
    ELIF :DEF:v6_onward ; assemble for v6 and onward processors
    INFO 0, "Assembling for v6_onward..."
SReg   SETS   "c0,c1"
DReg   SETS   "c0,c5"
TestFull SETS   "#0x40000000"
TestEmpty SETS   "#0x20000000"
    ELSE
    INFO 1, "No target architecture specified. See the readme for more details."
ENDIF
IF :DEF:pre_v6 || :DEF:v6_onward
; Code
pollin
MRC   p14,0,r3,$SReg,0 ; Read Debug Status and Control Register
TST   r3, $TestFull
BEQ   pollin           ; If R bit clear then loop
read
MRC   p14,0,r0,$DReg,0 ; read word into r0
char_masks
MOV   r4, #0x20        ; EOR mask to invert case of a char by
; flipping bit 6.
MOV   r5, #0xC0        ; AND mask to clear all but top 2 bits of
; each char.
changeCase
TST   r0, r5           ; Check whether character value is >0x3F
EORNE r0, r0, r4       ; If character value >0x3F, flip bit 6
; of the character to invert case
MOV   r5, r5, LSL #0x8 ; Shift the character mask left by 1 char
MOVS  r4, r4, LSL #0x8 ; Shift the case inverter pattern left by
; 1 char.
BNE   changeCase       ; If the inverter pattern is non-zero there
; are more chars, so branch to do the next
; one.
pollout
MRC   p14,0,r3,$SReg,0 ; Read Debug Status and Control Register
TST   r3, $TestEmpty
BNE   pollout         ; if W set, register still full
write
MCR   p14,0,r0,$DReg,0 ; Write word from r0
B     pollin          ; Loop for more words to read
ENDIF
END
```

You can convert this type of polled example to an interrupt-driven example if COMMRX and COMMTX signals from the Embedded ICE logic are connected to your interrupt controller. The read and write code can then be used in an interrupt handler.

The following examples show how to build this code:

- To build for v6 and later output:

```
armasm --predefine "v6_onward SETL {TRUE}" -g dcc.s  
armlink dcc.o -o dcc.axf --ro-base=0x8000
```

- To build for pre-v6 output:

```
armasm --predefine "pre_v6 SETL {TRUE}" -g dcc.s  
armlink dcc.o -o dcc.axf --ro-base=0x8000
```

Related concepts

[5.11 Interrupt handlers and levels of external interrupt](#) on page 5-109.

Related information

--debug assembler option.

-g assembler option.

--predefine "directive" assembler option.

--output=filename linker option.

--ro_base=address linker option.

6.4 Access from Thumb state

In architectures before ARMv6T2, you cannot use the debug communications channel while the processor is in Thumb state, because there are no Thumb coprocessor instructions.

There are the following ways around this:

- You can write each polling routine in a SVC handler, which can then be invoked while in either ARM or Thumb state. Entering the SVC handler immediately puts the processor into ARM state where the coprocessor instructions are available.
- Thumb code can make interworking calls to ARM subroutines that implement the polling.
- Use interrupt-driven communication rather than polled communication. The interrupt handler runs in ARM state, so the coprocessor instructions can be accessed directly.

Related references

[Chapter 4 Interworking ARM and Thumb on page 4-84.](#)

[Chapter 5 Handling Processor Exceptions on page 5-97.](#)

Chapter 7

What is Semihosting?

Describes the semihosting mechanism.

It contains the following sections:

- [7.1 What is semihosting?](#) on page 7-148.
- [7.2 The semihosting interface](#) on page 7-149.
- [7.3 Can I change the semihosting operation numbers?](#) on page 7-150.
- [7.4 Debug agent interaction SVCs](#) on page 7-151.
- [7.5 `angel_SWIreason_EnterSVC \(0x17\)`](#) on page 7-152.
- [7.6 `angel_SWIreason_ReportException \(0x18\)`](#) on page 7-153.
- [7.7 `SYS_CLOSE \(0x02\)`](#) on page 7-155.
- [7.8 `SYS_CLOCK \(0x10\)`](#) on page 7-156.
- [7.9 `SYS_ELAPSED \(0x30\)`](#) on page 7-157.
- [7.10 `SYS_ERRNO \(0x13\)`](#) on page 7-158.
- [7.11 `SYS_FLEN \(0x0C\)`](#) on page 7-159.
- [7.12 `SYS_GET_CMDLINE \(0x15\)`](#) on page 7-160.
- [7.13 `SYS_HEAPINFO \(0x16\)`](#) on page 7-161.
- [7.14 `SYS_ISERROR \(0x08\)`](#) on page 7-162.
- [7.15 `SYS_ISTTY \(0x09\)`](#) on page 7-163.
- [7.16 `SYS_OPEN \(0x01\)`](#) on page 7-164.
- [7.17 `SYS_READ \(0x06\)`](#) on page 7-165.
- [7.18 `SYS_READC \(0x07\)`](#) on page 7-166.
- [7.19 `SYS_REMOVE \(0x0E\)`](#) on page 7-167.
- [7.20 `SYS_RENAME \(0x0F\)`](#) on page 7-168.
- [7.21 `SYS_SEEK \(0x0A\)`](#) on page 7-169.
- [7.22 `SYS_SYSTEM \(0x12\)`](#) on page 7-170.
- [7.23 `SYS_TICKFREQ \(0x31\)`](#) on page 7-171.

- 7.24 *SYS_TIME* (0x11) on page 7-172.
- 7.25 *SYS_TMPNAM* (0x0D) on page 7-173.
- 7.26 *SYS_WRITE* (0x05) on page 7-174.
- 7.27 *SYS_WRITEC* (0x03) on page 7-175.
- 7.28 *SYS_WRITE0* (0x04) on page 7-176.

7.1 What is semihosting?

Semihosting is a mechanism that enables code running on an ARM target to communicate and use the Input/Output facilities on a host computer that is running a debugger.

Examples of these facilities include keyboard input, screen output, and disk I/O. For example, you can use this mechanism to enable functions in the C library, such as `printf()` and `scanf()`, to use the screen and keyboard of the host instead of having a screen and keyboard on the target system.

This is useful because development hardware often does not have all the input and output facilities of the final system. Semihosting enables the host computer to provide these facilities.

Semihosting is implemented by a set of defined software instructions, for example SVCs, that generate exceptions from program control. The application invokes the appropriate semihosting call and the debug agent then handles the exception. The debug agent provides the required communication with the host.

The semihosting interface is common across all debug agents provided by ARM. Semihosted operations work when you are debugging applications on your development platform, as shown in the following figure:

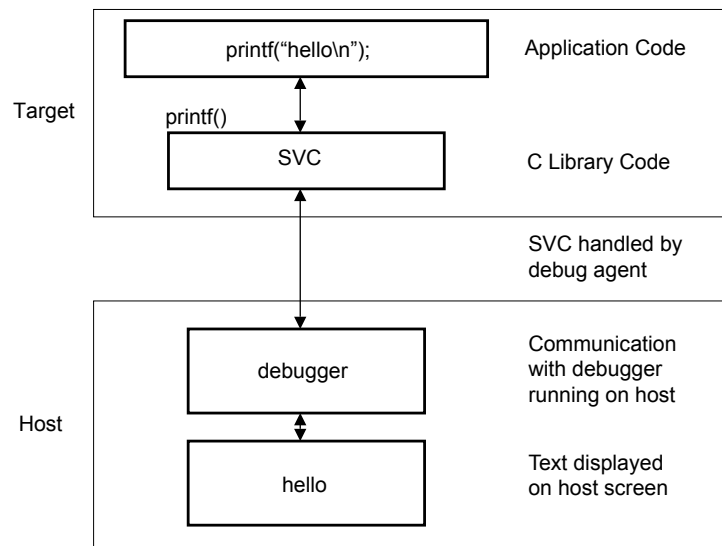


Figure 7-1 Semihosting overview

In many cases, semihosting is invoked by code within library functions. The application can also invoke the semihosting operation directly.

————— **Note** —————

ARM processors use the SVC instructions, formerly known as SWI instructions, to make semihosting calls. However, if you are compiling for an ARMv6-M or ARMv7-M, for example a Cortex-M1 or Cortex-M3 processor, semihosting is implemented using the BKPT instruction.

Related concepts

[7.2 The semihosting interface on page 7-149.](#)

[7.3 Can I change the semihosting operation numbers? on page 7-150.](#)

[7.4 Debug agent interaction SVCs on page 7-151.](#)

Related information

[The ARM C and C++ libraries.](#)

7.2 The semihosting interface

The ARM and Thumb SVC instructions contain a field that encodes the SVC number used by the application code.

————— **Note** —————

If you are compiling for the ARMv6-M or ARMv7-M, the Thumb BKPT instruction is used instead of the Thumb SVC instruction. Both BKPT and SVC take an 8-bit immediate value. In all other respects, semihosting is the same for all supported ARM processors.

The system SVC handler can decode the SVC number. Semihosting operations are requested using a single SVC number, leaving the other numbers available for use by the application or operating system. The SVC number used for semihosting depends on the target architecture or processor:

SVC 0x123456

In ARM state for all architectures.

SVC 0xAB

In ARM state and Thumb state, excluding ARMv6-M and ARMv7-M. This behavior is not guaranteed on all debug targets from ARM or from third parties.

BKPT 0xAB

For ARMv6-M and ARMv7-M, Thumb state only.

The SVC number indicates to the debug agent that the SVC instruction is a semihosting request. To distinguish between operations, the operation type is passed in R0. All other parameters are passed in a block that is pointed to by R1.

The result is returned in R0, either as an explicit return value or as a pointer to a data block. Even if no result is returned, assume that R0 is corrupted.

The available semihosting operation numbers passed in R0 are allocated as follows:

0x00-0x31

Used by ARM.

0x32-0xFF

Reserved for future use by ARM.

0x100-0x1FF

Reserved for user applications. These are not used by ARM.

If you are writing your own SVC operations, however, you are advised to use a different SVC number rather than using the semihosted SVC number and these operation type numbers.

0x200-0xFFFFFFFF

Undefined and currently unused. It is recommended that you do not use these.

In the following sections, the number in parentheses after the operation name is the value placed into R0, for example SYS_OPEN (0x01).

If you are calling SVCs from assembly language code ARM recommends that you define the semihosting operation names, to their respective operation numbers, with the EQU directive. For example:

```
SYS_OPEN    EQU 0x01
SYS_CLOSE   EQU 0x02
```

Related concepts

[7.1 What is semihosting? on page 7-148.](#)

[7.3 Can I change the semihosting operation numbers? on page 7-150.](#)

[7.4 Debug agent interaction SVCs on page 7-151.](#)

7.3 Can I change the semihosting operation numbers?

ARM strongly recommends that you do not change the semihosting operation numbers.

However, if you have to do this, you must:

- change all the code in your system, including library code, to use the new number
- reconfigure your debugger to use the new number.

Related concepts

[7.1 What is semihosting? on page 7-148.](#)

[7.2 The semihosting interface on page 7-149.](#)

7.4 Debug agent interaction SVCs

In addition to the C library semihosted functions, some other SVCs support interaction with the debug agent.

These are:

- `angel_SWIreason_EnterSVC (0x17)`
- `angel_SWIreason_ReportException (0x18)`.

Related references

[7.5 `angel_SWIreason_EnterSVC \(0x17\)` on page 7-152.](#)

[7.6 `angel_SWIreason_ReportException \(0x18\)` on page 7-153.](#)

7.5 **angel_SWIreason_EnterSVC (0x17)**

Sets the processor to Supervisor mode and disables all interrupts by setting both interrupt mask bits in the new CPSR.

With a debug hardware unit, such as ARM RVI™ debug unit or ARM DSTREAM™ debug and trace unit:

- the User stack pointer, R13_USR, is copied to the Supervisor mode stack pointer, R13_SVC
- the I and F bits in the current CPSR are set, which disables normal and fast interrupts.

Entry

Register R1 is not used. The CPSR can specify User or Supervisor mode.

Return

On exit, R0 contains the address of a function to be called to return to User mode. The function has the following prototype:

```
void ReturnToUSR(void)
```

If *EnterSVC* is called in User mode, this routine returns the caller to User mode and restores the interrupt flags. Otherwise, the action of this routine is undefined.

If entered in User mode, the Supervisor mode stack is lost as a result of copying the user stack pointer. The return to User routine restores R13_SVC to the Supervisor mode stack value, but this stack must not be used by applications.

After executing the SVC, the current link register is R14_SVC, not R14_USR. If the value of R14_USR is required after the call, it must be pushed onto the stack before the call and popped afterwards, as for a BL function call.

7.6 **angel_SWIreason_ReportException** (0x18)

This SVC can be called by an application to report an exception to the debugger directly. The most common use is to report that execution has completed, using `ADP_Stopped_ApplicationExit`.

Entry

On entry `R1` is set to one of the values listed in the following tables. These values are defined in `angel_reasons.h`.

The hardware exceptions are generated if the debugger variable `vector_catch` is set to catch that exception type, and the debug agent is capable of reporting that exception type. The following table shows the hardware vector reason codes:

Table 7-1 Hardware vector reason codes

Name	Hexadecimal value
<code>ADP_Stopped_BranchThroughZero</code>	<code>0x20000</code>
<code>ADP_Stopped_UndefinedInstr</code>	<code>0x20001</code>
<code>ADP_Stopped_SoftwareInterrupt</code>	<code>0x20002</code>
<code>ADP_Stopped_PrefetchAbort</code>	<code>0x20003</code>
<code>ADP_Stopped_DataAbort</code>	<code>0x20004</code>
<code>ADP_Stopped_AddressException</code>	<code>0x20005</code>
<code>ADP_Stopped_IRQ</code>	<code>0x20006</code>
<code>ADP_Stopped_FIQ</code>	<code>0x20007</code>

Exception handlers can use these SVCs at the end of handler chains as the default action, to indicate that the exception has not been handled. The following table shows the software reason codes:

Table 7-2 Software reason codes

Name	Hexadecimal value
<code>ADP_Stopped_BreakPoint</code>	<code>0x20020</code>
<code>ADP_Stopped_WatchPoint</code>	<code>0x20021</code>
<code>ADP_Stopped_StepComplete</code>	<code>0x20022</code>
<code>ADP_Stopped_RunTimeErrorUnknown</code>	<code>*0x20023</code>
<code>ADP_Stopped_InternalError</code>	<code>*0x20024</code>
<code>ADP_Stopped_UserInterruption</code>	<code>0x20025</code>
<code>ADP_Stopped_ApplicationExit</code>	<code>0x20026</code>
<code>ADP_Stopped_StackOverflow</code>	<code>*0x20027</code>
<code>ADP_Stopped_DivisionByZero</code>	<code>*0x20028</code>
<code>ADP_Stopped_OSSpecific</code>	<code>*0x20029</code>

In this table, a * next to a value indicates that the value is not supported by the ARM debugger. The debugger reports an `Unhandled ADP_Stopped` exception for these values.

Return

No return is expected from these calls. However, it is possible for the debugger to request that the application continue by performing an `RDI_Execute` request or equivalent. In this case, execution continues with the registers as they were on entry to the SVC, or as subsequently modified by the debugger.

7.7 SYS_CLOSE (0x02)

Closes a file on the host system. The handle must reference a file that was opened with SYS_OPEN.

Entry

On entry, R1 contains a pointer to a one-word argument block:

word 1

contains a handle for an open file.

Return

On exit, R0 contains:

- 0 if the call is successful
- -1 if the call is not successful.

Related references

[7.16 SYS_OPEN \(0x01\)](#) on page 7-164.

7.8 SYS_CLOCK (0x10)

Returns the number of centiseconds since the execution started.

Values returned by this SVC can be of limited use for some benchmarking purposes because of communication overhead or other agent-specific factors. For example, with a debug hardware unit such as RVI or DSTREAM, the request is passed back to the host for execution. This can lead to unpredictable delays in transmission and process scheduling.

Use this function to calculate time intervals, by calculating differences between intervals with and without the code sequence to be timed.

Entry

Register R1 must contain zero. There are no other parameters.

Return

On exit, R0 contains:

- the number of centiseconds since some arbitrary start point, if the call is successful
- -1 if the call is not successful, for example, because of a communications error.

Related references

[7.9 SYS_ELAPSED \(0x30\)](#) on page 7-157.

[7.23 SYS_TICKFREQ \(0x31\)](#) on page 7-171.

7.9 SYS_ELAPSED (0x30)

Returns the number of elapsed target ticks since execution started.

Use SYS_TICKFREQ to determine the tick frequency.

Entry

On entry, R1 points to a two-word data block to be used for returning the number of elapsed ticks:

word 1

the least significant word and is at the low address

word 2

the most significant word and is at the high address.

Return

On exit:

- On success, R1 points to a doubleword that contains the number of elapsed ticks. On failure, R1 contains -1.
- On success, R0 contains 0. On failure, R0 contains -1.

Note

Some debuggers might not support this SVC when connected through RVI or DSTREAM, and they always return -1 in R0.

7.10 SYS_ERRNO (0x13)

Returns the value of the C library `errno` variable associated with the host implementation of the semihosting SVCs.

The `errno` variable can be set by a number of C library semihosted functions, including:

- `SYS_REMOVE`
- `SYS_OPEN`
- `SYS_CLOSE`
- `SYS_READ`
- `SYS_WRITE`
- `SYS_SEEK`.

Whether `errno` is set or not, and to what value, is entirely host-specific, except where the ISO C standard defines the behavior.

Entry

There are no parameters. Register R1 must be zero.

Return

On exit, R0 contains the value of the C library `errno` variable.

Related references

- [7.7 SYS_CLOSE \(0x02\) on page 7-155.](#)
- [7.16 SYS_OPEN \(0x01\) on page 7-164.](#)
- [7.17 SYS_READ \(0x06\) on page 7-165.](#)
- [7.19 SYS_REMOVE \(0x0E\) on page 7-167.](#)
- [7.21 SYS_SEEK \(0x0A\) on page 7-169.](#)
- [7.26 SYS_WRITE \(0x05\) on page 7-174.](#)

7.11 SYS_FLEN (0x0C)

Returns the length of a specified file.

Entry

On entry, R1 contains a pointer to a one-word argument block:

word 1

A handle for a previously opened, seekable file object.

Return

On exit, R0 contains:

- the current length of the file object, if the call is successful
- -1 if an error occurs.

7.12 SYS_GET_CMDLINE (0x15)

Returns the command line used for the call to the executable, that is, `argc` and `argv`.

Entry

On entry, `R1` points to a two-word data block to be used for returning the command string and its length:

word 1

a pointer to a buffer of at least the size specified in word two

word 2

the length of the buffer in bytes.

Return

On exit:

- Register `R1` points to a two-word data block: The debug agent might impose limits on the maximum length of the string that can be transferred. However, the agent must be able to transfer a command line of at least 80 bytes.

word 1

a pointer to null-terminated string of the command line

word 2

the length of the string.

- Register `R0` contains an error code:
 - 0 if the call is successful
 - -1 if the call is not successful, for example, because of a communications error.

7.13 SYS_HEAPINFO (0x16)

Returns the system stack and heap parameters.

The values returned are typically those used by the C library during initialization. For a debug hardware unit, such as RVI or DSTREAM, the values returned are the image location and the top of memory.

The C library can override these values.

The host debugger determines the actual values to return by using the `top_of_memory` debugger variable.

Entry

On entry, R1 contains the address of a pointer to a four-word data block. The contents of the data block are filled by the function. The following example shows the structure of the data block and return values.

```
struct block {
    int heap_base;
    int heap_limit;
    int stack_base;
    int stack_limit;
};
struct block *mem_block, info;
mem_block = &info;
AngelSWI(SYS_HEAPINFO, (unsigned) &mem_block);
```

Note

If word one of the data block has the value zero, the C library replaces the zero with `Image$$ZI$$Limit`. This value corresponds to the top of the data region in the memory map.

Return

On exit, R1 contains the address of the pointer to the structure.

If one of the values in the structure is 0, the system was unable to calculate the real value.

7.14 SYS_IERROR (0x08)

Determines whether the return code from another semihosting call is an error status or not.

This call is passed a parameter block containing the error code to examine.

Entry

On entry, R1 contains a pointer to a one-word data block:

word 1

The required status word to check.

Return

On exit, R0 contains:

- 0 if the status word is not an error indication
- a nonzero value if the status word is an error indication.

7.15 SYS_ISTTY (0x09)

Checks whether a file is connected to an interactive device.

Entry

On entry, R1 contains a pointer to a one-word argument block:

word 1

A handle for a previously opened file object.

Return

On exit, R0 contains:

- 1 if the handle identifies an interactive device
- 0 if the handle identifies a file
- a value other than 1 or 0 if an error occurs.

7.16 SYS_OPEN (0x01)

Opens a file on the host system.

The file path is specified either as relative to the current directory of the host process, or absolute, using the path conventions of the host operating system.

ARM targets interpret the special path name `:tt` as meaning the console input stream, for an open-read or the console output stream, for an open-write. Opening these streams is performed as part of the standard startup code for those applications that reference the C `stdio` streams.

Entry

On entry, R1 contains a pointer to a three-word argument block:

word 1

A pointer to a null-terminated string containing a file or device name.

word 2

An integer that specifies the file opening mode. The following table gives the valid values for the integer, and their corresponding ISO C `fopen()` mode.

word 3

An integer that gives the length of the string pointed to by word 1.

The length does not include the terminating null character that must be present.

Table 7-3 Value of mode

mode	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
ISO C <code>fopen</code> mode ^h	r	rb	r+	r+b	w	wb	w+	w+b	a	ab	a+	a+b

Return

On exit, R0 contains:

- a nonzero handle if the call is successful
- -1 if the call is not successful.

^h The non-ANSI option `t` is not supported.

7.17 SYS_READ (0x06)

Reads the contents of a file into a buffer.

The file position is specified either:

- explicitly by a `SYS_SEEK`
- implicitly one byte beyond the previous `SYS_READ` or `SYS_WRITE` request.

The file position is at the start of the file when it is opened, and is lost when the file is closed. Perform the file operation as a single action whenever possible. For example, do not split a read of 16KB into four 4KB chunks unless there is no alternative.

Entry

On entry, `R1` contains a pointer to a four-word data block:

word 1

contains a handle for a file previously opened with `SYS_OPEN`

word 2

points to a buffer

word 3

contains the number of bytes to read to the buffer from the file.

Return

On exit:

- `R0` contains zero if the call is successful.
- If `R0` contains the same value as word 3, the call has failed and EOF is assumed.
- If `R0` contains a smaller value than word 3, the call was partially successful. No error is assumed, but the buffer has not been filled.

If the handle is for an interactive device, that is, `SYS_ISTTY` returns `-1`. A nonzero return from `SYS_READ` indicates that the line read did not fill the buffer.

7.18 SYS_READC (0x07)

Reads a byte from the console.

Entry

Register R1 must contain zero. There are no other parameters or values possible.

Return

On exit, R0 contains the byte read from the console.

7.19 SYS_REMOVE (0x0E)

Deletes a specified file on the host filing system.

Entry

On entry, R1 contains a pointer to a two-word argument block:

word 1

points to a null-terminated string that gives the path name of the file to be deleted

word 2

the length of the string.

Return

On exit, R0 contains:

- 0 if the delete is successful
- a nonzero, host-specific error code if the delete fails.

7.20 SYS_RENAME (0x0F)

Renames a specified file.

Entry

On entry, R1 contains a pointer to a four-word data block:

word 1

a pointer to the name of the old file

word 2

the length of the old filename

word 3

a pointer to the new filename

word 4

the length of the new filename.

Both strings are null-terminated.

Return

On exit, R0 contains:

- 0 if the rename is successful
- a nonzero, host-specific error code if the rename fails.

7.21 SYS_SEEK (0x0A)

Seeks to a specified position in a file using an offset specified from the start of the file.

The file is assumed to be a byte array and the offset is given in bytes.

Entry

On entry, R1 contains a pointer to a two-word data block:

word 1

a handle for a seekable file object

word 2

the absolute byte position to search to.

Return

On exit, R0 contains:

- 0 if the request is successful
- A negative value if the request is not successful. Use SYS_ERRNO to read the value of the host errno variable describing the error.

Note

The effect of seeking outside the current extent of the file object is undefined.

7.22 SYS_SYSTEM (0x12)

Passes a command to the host command-line interpreter.

This enables you to execute a system command such as `dir`, `ls`, or `pwd`. The terminal I/O is on the host, and is not visible to the target.

———— **Caution** ————

The command passed to the host is executed on the host. Ensure that any command passed has no unintended consequences.

Entry

On entry, R1 contains a pointer to a two-word argument block:

word 1

points to a string to be passed to the host command-line interpreter

word 2

the length of the string.

Return

On exit, R0 contains the return status.

7.23 SYS_TICKFREQ (0x31)

Returns the tick frequency.

Entry

Register R1 must contain 0 on entry to this routine.

Return

On exit, R0 contains either:

- the number of ticks per second
- -1 if the target does not know the value of one tick. Some debuggers might not support this SVC when connected through RVI or DSTREAM and they always return -1 in R0.

7.24 SYS_TIME (0x11)

Returns the number of seconds since 00:00 January 1, 1970.

This is real-world time, regardless of any debug agent configuration, such as RVI or DSTREAM.

Entry

There are no parameters.

Return

On exit, R0 contains the number of seconds.

7.25 SYS_TMPNAM (0x0D)

Returns a temporary name for a file identified by a system file identifier.

Entry

On entry, R1 contains a pointer to a three-word argument block:

word 1

A pointer to a buffer.

word 2

A target identifier for this filename. Its value must be an integer in the range 0 to 255.

word 3

Contains the length of the buffer. The length must be at least the value of `L_tmpnam` on the host system.

Return

On exit, R0 contains:

- 0 if the call is successful
- -1 if an error occurs.

The buffer pointed to by R1 contains the filename, prefixed with a suitable directory name.

If you use the same target identifier again, the same filename is returned.

Note

The returned string must be null-terminated.

7.26 SYS_WRITE (0x05)

Writes the contents of a buffer to a specified file at the current file position.

The file position is specified either:

- explicitly, by a SYS_SEEK
- implicitly as one byte beyond the previous SYS_READ or SYS_WRITE request.

The file position is at the start of the file when the file is opened, and is lost when the file is closed.

Perform the file operation as a single action whenever possible. For example, do not split a write of 16KB into four 4KB chunks unless there is no alternative.

Entry

On entry, R1 contains a pointer to a three-word data block:

word 1

contains a handle for a file previously opened with SYS_OPEN

word 2

points to the memory containing the data to be written

word 3

contains the number of bytes to be written from the buffer to the file.

Return

On exit, R0 contains:

- 0 if the call is successful
- the number of bytes that are not written, if there is an error.

7.27 SYS_WRITEC (0x03)

Writes a character byte, pointed to by R1, to the debug channel.

When executed under an ARM debugger, the character appears on the host debugger console.

Entry

On entry, R1 contains a pointer to the character.

Return

None. Register R0 is corrupted.

7.28 SYS_WRITE0 (0x04)

Writes a null-terminated string to the debug channel.

When executed under an ARM debugger, the characters appear on the host debugger console.

Entry

On entry, R1 contains a pointer to the first byte of the string.

Return

None. Register R0 is corrupted.

Appendix A

Software Development Guide Document Revisions

Describes the technical changes that have been made to the Software Development Guide.

It contains the following sections:

- [A.1 Revisions for Software Development Guide on page Appx-A-178.](#)

A.1 Revisions for Software Development Guide

The following technical changes have been made to the Software Development Guide.

Table A-1 Differences between issue K and issue L

Change	Topics affected
Added ARM Compiler product name to pages where it was missing.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Chapter 2 Embedded Software Development on page 2-40 • Chapter 1 Key Features of ARM Architecture Versions on page 1-14

Table A-2 Differences between issue J and issue K

Change	Topics affected
Re-organized the topics about floating-point build options, and corrected the description of floating-point build options in ARMv7 and later.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 1.15 Build options for floating-point arithmetic and linkage on page 1-37 • 1.16 Floating-point build options in ARMv6 and earlier on page 1-38 • 1.17 Floating-point build options in ARMv7 and later on page 1-39
Improved the description of the example.	4.5 Pointers to functions in Thumb state on page 4-89
Removed a statement that implied that ARMv7 does not use the SVC instruction.	7.1 What is semihosting? on page 7-148
Corrected the description of how to control alignment checking in ARMv7-M.	1.14 ARM architecture v7-M on page 1-35
Removed topic <i>Using two versions of the same function</i> . Support for this feature was removed in ARM Compiler v4.1.	

Table A-3 Differences between issue I and issue J

Change	Topics affected
Added a topic describing execute-only memory.	2.21 Execute-only memory on page 2-63
Added a topic describing how to build an application with code in execute-only memory.	2.22 Building applications for execute-only memory on page 2-64

Table A-4 Differences between issue H and issue I

Change	Topics affected
Where appropriate, changed the terminology that implied that 16-bit Thumb and 32-bit Thumb are separate instruction sets.	Various topics
Where appropriate, changed the term <i>processor state</i> to <i>instruction set state</i> .	Various topics
Added Cortex-M0+ to the table of key features for the current ARM processors.	1.1 About the ARM architectures on page 1-15

Table A-4 Differences between issue H and issue I (continued)

Change	Topics affected
Added topic to describe the ARM architecture profiles.	1.7 ARM architecture profiles on page 1-22
Moved the definitions of the ARM architecture profiles to the new topic.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 1.11 ARM architecture v6-M on page 1-30 • 1.12 ARM architecture v7-A on page 1-31 • 1.13 ARM architecture v7-R on page 1-33 • 1.14 ARM architecture v7-M on page 1-35

Table A-5 Differences between issue G and issue H

Change	Topics affected
Added Cortex-M0+ to the table of key features for the current ARM processors.	1.1 About the ARM architectures on page 1-15

Table A-6 Differences between issue F and issue G

Change	Topics affected
Added Cortex-A7 to the table of key features for the current ARM processors.	1.1 About the ARM architectures on page 1-15

Table A-7 Differences between issue D and issue F

Change	Topics affected
Where appropriate: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • prefixed Thumb with 16-bit • changed Thumb-2 to 32-bit Thumb • changed Thumb-2EE to ThumbEE. 	Various topics

Table A-8 Differences between issue C and issue D

Change	Topics affected
Added Cortex-A15 and Cortex-R7 to the processor list.	1.1 About the ARM architectures on page 1-15
Removed ARMulator ISS from document for ARM Compiler 5.0.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 7.5 angel_SWIreason_EnterSVC (0x17) on page 7-152 • 7.13 SYS_HEAPINFO (0x16) on page 7-161 • 7.2 The semihosting interface on page 7-149
Removed DCD \emptyset for reserved vector.	5.4 Vector table for ARMv6 and earlier, ARMv7-A and ARMv7-R profiles on page 5-102

Table A-9 Differences between issue B and issue C

Change	Topics affected
Abbreviated RealView ICE to RVI. Also, mentioned DSTREAM when mentioning RVI.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 7.5 angel_SWIreason_EnterSVC (0x17) on page 7-152 • 7.8 SYS_CLOCK (0x10) on page 7-156 • 7.9 SYS_ELAPSED (0x30) on page 7-157 • 7.13 SYS_HEAPINFO (0x16) on page 7-161 • 7.23 SYS_TICKFREQ (0x31) on page 7-171 • 7.24 SYS_TIME (0x11) on page 7-172

Table A-10 Differences between issue A and issue B

Change	Topics affected
Added note that the overall layout of the memory maps of devices based around the ARMv6-M and ARMv7-M architectures are fixed.	2.7 Tailoring the image memory map to your target hardware on page 2-48
Added links to <i>Scatter file with link to bit-band objects</i> , <i>ARMARMv7-M</i> , and <i>ARMARMv6-M</i> .	2.7 Tailoring the image memory map to your target hardware on page 2-48
Added links to <i>Scatter file with link to bit-band objects</i> .	2.8 About the scatter-loading description syntax on page 2-49
Added a new topic called Scatter file with link to bit-band objects.	2.12 Scatter file with link to bit-band objects on page 2-54
For <code>SYS_ELAPSED</code> , clarified that R0 contains 0 on success and -1 on failure.	7.9 <code>SYS_ELAPSED</code> (0x30) on page 7-157
Clarified that the linker uses a version of the library setup code rather than the <code>__user_initial_stackheap()</code> function when tailoring the stack and heap placement in the scatter file.	2.13 Reset and initialization on page 2-55